The Bodhisattvapiţaka

Its Doctrines, Practices and their Position in Mahāyāna Literature

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Abstract

This thesis aims to provide a comprehensive study of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* with specific emphasis on the bodhisattva ideal. The content of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* indicates that its exposition belongs to the earliest treatises on the bodhisattva. The practices and doctrines that are expounded are invariably rudimentary and show little of the complexities that characterise their discussions in later bodhisattva literature. The *Bodhisattvapiṭaka's* inclusion into the *Mahāratnakūṭa* rested probably on its pioneering account of the *bodhisattvacaryā*. Being by far the longest work on the bodhisattva in the whole collection, it expounds important practices and constitutes the hub for the remaining bodhisattva writings in the *Mahāratnakūṭa*.

The study falls into five parts. The first chapter considers the position of the Bodhisattvapitaka in Mahāyāna literature. It investigates the various usages of the term Bodhisattvapitaka, it considers the relationship between the *Bodhisattvapitaka* and *Aksayamatinirdeśa* and discusses the scholastic affiliation of the Bodhisattvapitaka. In addition, exploring the contents and evolution of the Mahāratnakūta collection, it establishes the scriptural context in which the Bodhisattvapitaka is placed. The second chapter provides an analysis of the Bodhisattvapitaka. It examines the structural and literary traits of the Bodhisattvapitaka, its chapter organisation and some aspects of the bodhisattva path in the Bodhisattvapitaka. Chapter three discusses the bodhisattva ideal in the Mahāratnakūta collection. It distinguishes between the various categories of bodhisattva sūtras in the Mahāratnakūṭa, it examines the bodhisattva practices and investigates whether there is evidence of a premeditated design that might have influenced the compilation of the Mahāratnakūta sūtras into one collection. Chapter four considers the bodhisattva doctrine as it is propounded in the Bodhisattvapitaka within the context of other scriptural traditions. It discusses the evolution of the concepts of the cittotpāda, apramāņa, pāramitā and samgrahvastu and assesses the contribution of the Bodhisattvapitaka to that process. Chapter five consists of a translation of the eleventh chapter of the Bodhisattvapitaka.

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A Note on Orthography

With certain exceptions, all non-English terminology has been italicised. Words that have not been italicised include proper nouns (e.g., Dharma, nikāya), classifications of Buddhist practitioners (e.g., śrāvaka, arhant, buddha/pratyekabuddha and bodhisattva) including references to their respective vehicles that have also been capitalised and personal names (including references to the historical Buddha).

Generally, Sanskrit forms have not been pluralised except in the few cases that found their way into standard English vocabulary or where it seemed inevitable out of stylistic considerations. Exceptions are the following words: buddha/pratyekabuddha, bodhisattva/mahāsattva, bhikṣu/bhikkhu, sūtra/sutta and śāstra. I have decided to take this approach, because I do not wish to hybridise the Sanskrit word-forms. Although the hybridised forms have become widely accepted, from the linguistic point of view such adaptation is unfortunate since it denies Sanskrit the treatment that is given to Greek and Latin terms whose plural forms are generally not anglicised.

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Introduction

The present dissertation aims at providing a wide-ranging study of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. In the course of my research two main areas of investigation have emerged as being particularly important. First, there is the content of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. Being one of the longest works on the bodhisattva in Mahāyāna literature, it provides a wealth of information on the training and dynamics in which the *bodhisattvacaryā* unfolds. Second, I have examined the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka's* doctrinal propositions in the wider context of Mahāyāna thought. While it is possible to speak of these two aspects of my research as distinct targets, in practice they are closely interwoven and often go hand in hand.

My interest in the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* was aroused by the frequent references in Mahāyāna sources to a text (or collection of texts) called *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. As these references occur in practically all strands of post-nikāya sources, extending from the very earliest Mahāyāna sūtras to the latest phase of tantric Buddhism, it occurred to me that the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* must be an important text that was esteemed by generations of Buddhists. Although referred to in various contexts and for different purposes, practically all references to the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* recommend it for its treatment of the bodhisattva ideal.

Of course, I was not the first person to have come across these references. They have been noted and duly recorded by a number of distinguished scholars, including Étienne Lamotte, Jean Przyluski, Alex Wayman and Anthony Warder. However, preoccupied with their own particular research, none of them went beyond making some useful but rather general observations. The first attempts to collate and explore these references in the wider frame of Mahāyāna literature were undertaken by Priscilla Pedersen and Nancy Schuster in 1975/76. Both scholars, working primarily from Chinese sources, have collected a fair amount of material and tentatively propose interpretations of its position and nature. However, as neither of them attempts to produce a systematic study of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* the results of their investigations are somewhat limited. Not having read through the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*, they differ in their evaluation of the references and disagree on the historical context in that they belong.

The Bodhisattvapiṭaka is part of the Ratnakūṭa collection. The majority of the forty-nine works included in the Ratnakūṭa are only extant in Chinese and Tibetan translations. In its

present format the *Ratnakūṭa* dates back to early eighth-century China. Its compiler, Bodhiruci, was a monk from South India. At the end of the seventh century, Bodhiruci travelled to China where he was commissioned by the T'ang Emperor Chung-tsung to translate the forty-nine *sūtras* into Chinese. It is said that he brought with him a complete Sanskrit copy of the *Ratnakūṭa*. After several years of editing and translating, he produced the first complete Chinese version.

Little is known of the history of the collection before Bodhiruci. While we have several fifth and sixth-century accounts mentioning the *Ratnakūṭa* in conjunction with other well-known *sūtra* collections, nothing concrete is known about its early contents and structure. *Ratnakūṭa* fragments found in Khotan, Tun-huang and Kucha indicate that its texts enjoyed particular popularity in Buddhist circles of Central Asia. We have practically no knowledge about its development in India. Tibetan historians say that it became greatly renowned by the second century AD, but there is no independent evidence supporting this claim. Indeed, I know of no reference to a collection bearing the name *Ratnakūṭa* anywhere in Indian literature.

The nucleus of the Ratnakūṭa collection is probably found in a relatively small body of sūtras that were put together sometime between the third and fifth centuries. The Buddhist traditions of India, China and Tibet preserved several sūtra lists where ten to fifteen Ratnakūṭa works constantly appear en bloc. The earliest of these enumerations goes back to third-century China. Although the origin of these lists is not known, their pan-Asian circulation indicates that they might have come into existence with the expansion of Buddhism across Asia. This would explain the complete silence of Indian sources and account for the difficulties in tracing the genesis of the Ratnakūṭa beyond Bodhiruci to a specific geographical area and a given historical context.

The hypothesis of a gradual formation would also accord with much of the content of the Ratnakūṭa texts. There is every indication that they were carefully compiled in a process that might have extended over several centuries. Its texts embrace a wide spectrum of Buddhist thought and address practically every aspect of Mahāyāna spirituality. Within this broad area of themes, the most frequently discussed topic is the bodhisattva ideal. Out of the forty-nine texts, roughly one half is concerned specifically with the bodhisattva. The longest and most important bodhisattva sūtra of the Ratnakūṭa is the Bodhisattvapiṭaka. In volume, it occupies roughly one seventh of the collection and is specifically dedicated to the pāramitā practice. Its length and the fact that there is practically no other text in the collection that discourses on

the pāramitā in detail, place the Bodhisattvapiṭaka in the centre of the Ratnakūṭa's discussion of the bodhisattva. The Bodhisattvapiṭaka's treatment of the pāramitā is supplemented by a variety of material on the bodhisattva in the remaining Ratnakūṭa sūtras that deal specifically with the bodhisattva practice. The thematic complementarity of these works is such that their propositions come close to representing a balanced cross-section of all major ideas in the development of the bodhisattva doctrine.

While it is difficult to establish the precise relationship between the various texts due to the uncertainties of their chronology, it is possible to distinguish several strands of bodhisattva thinking within the Ratnakūṭa works. The oldest thought on the bodhisattva is contained in sūtras such as the Kāśyapaparivarta and Ugraparipṛcchā. Second-century translations of these texts confirm their antiquity beyond any doubt. Next, we have works that seem to set out to systematise the material that was introduced in these early sūtras. The Bodhisattvapiṭaka belongs to this category. Then, the collection contains several sūtras displaying a high degree of organisation in their expositions on the bodhisattva. One characteristic of these texts is the meticulous implementation of the daśabhūmika scheme. Examples of this type are the Svapnanirdeśa and Akṣayamatiparipṛcchā. Finally, there are a number of rather advanced sūtras. These tend to show less interest in the practical aspects of the bodhisattva training, but focus on doctrinal matters. Quite frequently, they represent the latest strand of Ratnakūṭa sūtras and include such works as the Śrūmālādevīsimhanāda and Pitāputrasamāgama.

The above outline places the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* among the earlier bodhisattva *sūtras* of the *Ratnakūṭa*. Its antiquity is supported by an array of internal and external evidence. First, there is the close association between the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* and the second-century *Akṣayamati-nirdeśa*. Since the *Akṣayamatinirdeśa* is greatly indebted for its material to the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*, the origin of our *sūtra* must predate that of the *Akṣayamatinirdeśa*. Second, we have a number of references to the *pāramitā* discussion of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* in other *sūtras*. While some of these date back to the second century, others are third or fourth-century compositions.

The most persuasive evidence is, however, found in the content of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. The relatively undeveloped nature of the practices and their rudimentary organisation point to a period of composition when the thinking on the bodhisattva was still dominated by the spiritual ideal of early Buddhism. Although clearly a Mahāyāna text in orientation, several of the practices show traits that link them to the Śrāvakayāna. The fact that in later times many

of these early elements were modified and adjusted to doctrinal developments further confirms their antiquity.

If we compare the material that is included in the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* with that of later writings on the bodhisattva, we note two things. First, most of what is being said about the bodhisattva in the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* retained its validity and found its way into the scholastic treatises of the fourth and fifth centuries. It is often possible to trace to the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* the individual building blocks of advanced works such as the *Bodhisattvabhūmi*. Second, some of the structures of its bodhisattva practices were adopted in later literature. The internal divisions of the *pāramitā*, the blueprint of the ten *cittotpāda* and the outline of the wisdom-practices all had profound bearing on the development of the bodhisattva doctrine.

After consideration of all the evidence, there seems to be a strong case for not only placing the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* among the earliest works on the bodhisattva, but also for looking at it as a text of fundamental importance to the evolution of the bodhisattva doctrine. Its pioneering exposition of the perfections, the lasting influence this exerted on generations of Buddhist thinkers and the frequent references to the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* in a wide spectrum of Mahāyāna works all seem to point in this direction.

In spite of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka's* influence, very little is known about its history and the circumstances in which it was composed. The fact that several of the early Indian schools possessed a collection of texts of this name alongside the traditional *Tripiṭaka* led some scholars to surmise that the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* might have sprung from a body of loosely connected, but distinct works on the bodhisattva. Wayman, for example, proposed an association with the Mahāsanghika school by arguing that Mahāsanghika followers "gradually built up the theory of the bodhisattva modelled after the life and theoretical former lives of Gautama Buddha" and thus produced the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* as "the ultimate form of this effort". While it is incorrect to link the origin of the bodhisattva ideal specifically with the Mahāsanghika, he is probably correct in seeing a connection between the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* and the *jātaka*genre. In the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* itself we find included altogether fourteen accounts of the Buddha's former lives. Moreover, the *jātaka*-genre probably provided the first impetus to the formulation of the bodhisattva ideal and almost certainly inspired some elements of its practice. Warder went so far as to suggest that the early schools actually included the Jātaka collection in their *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. While there is no real evidence to support this hypothesis,

^{1.} Wayman, 1991, p. 9.

^{2.} Warder, 1980, p. 357.

the importance of the $j\bar{a}taka$ to the bodhisattva doctrine in general and their presence in the *Bodhisattvapitaka* in particular might not be coincidental.

Even if we accept the existence of such a link, leading eventually to the composition of the Bodhisattvapiṭaka (either in the form of one unified text or a collection of independent works on the bodhisattva), it tells us little about the place, time and circumstances in which the Bodhisattvapiṭaka was conceived. Like Wayman, Warder also ascribes the origin of the Bodhisattvapiṭaka to Mahāsaṅghika circles in southern India. As evidence, he cites a piṭaka list in the Satyasiddhiśāstra that includes the Bodhisattvapiṭaka as one of the five sections of the Buddhist canon. Since the Satyasiddhiśāstra is a Bahuśrutīya text, he infers that the Bodhisattvapiṭaka formed part of the Bahuśrutīya canon. The Bahuśrutīya was of course a sub-sect of the Mahāsaṅghika that is known to have been widespread around Nāgārjunikoṇḍa in South India.

This line of argument, although perfectly sound by itself, does not take into consideration either of two factors. First, the Mahāsanghika themselves do not include a Bodhisattvapitaka in their division of the canon. According to Hsüan-tsang, their scriptures consisted of a Sūtra-, Vinaya-, Abhidharma-, Samyukta- and Dhāranīpitaka.3 This alone does not disprove the South Indian Mahāsanghika connection—Hsüan-tsang was given this list at Rājagrha in the seventh century AD—but it raises the question whether it is possible to ascribe the Bahuśrutīya division to the Mahāsanghika in general. Second, the only other sect that is recorded to have been in possession of a Bodhisattvapitaka is a non-Mahāsanghika sect, namely the Dharmaguptaka. This is significant in two respects. On the one hand, it indicates that we cannot speak of an exclusive Mahāsanghika connection for the Bodhisattvapitaka. Quite obviously, the Bodhisattvapitaka was known in Sthaviravāda and Mahāsanghika circles alike. On the other hand, it throws doubt on South India as the place of origin of the Bodhisattvapitaka. The little information we possess about the Dharmaguptaka indicate that their sphere of influence was limited to North-West India, Central Asia and China. Although the Dharmaguptaka might have adopted the Bodhisattvapitaka from the Bahuśrutīya later, the geographical separation makes a regular exchange of ideas (and texts) unlikely. Therefore we have two conflicting scenarios for the origin of the Bodhisattvapitaka. One points to the ancient Buddhist sites in southern India and the other to North-West India and possibly beyond. Apart from a likely jātaka content and a terminus ad quem in possibly the late

^{3.} Beal, 1884, ii, pp. 164-5.

^{4.} Bareau, 1955, p. 296.

second century AD, we know little else about the early history of the Bodhisattvapiṭaka.

Chapter One

The Bodhisattvapiţaka in Mahāyāna Literature

The Term Bodhisattvapitaka

Throughout the centuries, in Mahāyāna literature the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* has been applied in a number of distinct ways. There are indications that it originated in the early, pre-Mahāyāna, schools. In later times, the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* was taken up by Mahāyāna writers who altered its scope of application and imbued it with new connotations. Yet, even in the later phases no single widely accepted interpretation evolved. In order to distinguish and indicate the various ways of its use and application, I propose to divide our sources into the following four working categories:

- 1. Treatises in which the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* is applied to Mahāyāna scriptures as a whole.
- 2. Sources that identify the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* as a distinct collection of works on the bodhisattva ideal.
- 3. Sources that associate the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* with the traditional six *pāramitā* and related practices.
- 4. Mahāyāna texts that refer to a specific work called *Bodhisattvapitakasūtra*.

Turning first to the question of its origin, there is no reference by which one could securely date the original formulation of the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. It was first employed by members of the Dharmagupta and Bahuśrutīya schools who included a *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* in their *Pañcapiṭaka*. Here, the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* is thought of as a body of literature and cited along with the *Sūtra-*, *Vinaya-*, *Abhidharma-* and *Dhāraṇīpiṭaka*. No details have so far emerged as to the contents of their *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. In all likelihood, these consisted of texts that formed part of the early development of the bodhisattva path as an alternative career to that of the arhant. Considering that both schools were part of the net-work of sects which belonged

to the proto-Mahāyāna movement, it is probable that the texts contained in their *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* have served as a foundation for the later developments of the bodhisattva doctrine. Unfortunately, as these texts are no longer extant we can only speculate on the role their thought may have played in the evolution of the bodhisattva ideal.

In Mahāyāna literature, the first occurrence of the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* is found in Lokakṣema's second-century translation of the *Kāśyapaparivarta* (*Kp*). Here, a text called *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* is recommended as "a scripture that the bodhisattva should study". It is not clear, however, whether the expression *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* should be taken here to refer to a collection of texts or an individual work. The passage itself is highly ambiguous and does little to clarify this problem since, as Pedersen has observed, the Chinese expression *p'u-sats'ang-ching* can be read as "sūtras of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*" and as "the" or "a *Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra*". Leaving aside these particular intricacies, this reference clearly shows that the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* was known already to the earliest Mahāyāna writers.

As I have stated above, the works that are included in the first category view the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* as an overall designation of Mahāyāna scriptures in general. Six texts, in particular, belong to this category.³ They are the Śrāvakabhūmi, Bodhisattvabhūmi (Bbh), Mahāyānasaṃgraha, Sūtrālaṃkāra, Mañjuśrīmūlakalpa and a work found in the Tun-huang collection but known only through its colophon. The authorship of the first four treatises is traditionally ascribed to one person, Asaṅga.⁴ Hence, it is not surprising to find in them a far-reaching concurrence of interpretations of the term *Bodhisattvapitaka*.

In the Bbh we learn that the Bodhisattvapiṭaka corresponds to the vaipulya-genre of the twelve traditional branches of Buddhist scriptures.⁵ It is cited in the Dharma Study Chapter

^{1.} Stael-Holstein, 1926, pp. 13-14, § 6. References to the *Bdp* are taken from the twentieth-century reprint of the sTog Palace *hKah-hgyur*, entitled: *The Tog Palace Manuscript of the Tibetan Kanjur*, 1979—Leh, Smanrtsis Shesrig Dpemzod. All page/folio references and text specifications (length, chapters, structure etc.) that are drawn to *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* other than the *Bdp* refer (unless a Sanskrit version is available) to the *Tibetan Tripiṭaka Peking Edition* (ed. by DT Suzuki, Otani University, Kyoto, 1956, vol. 22-24).

^{2.} Pedersen, 1976, p. 25
Perhaps, this ambiguity reflects some uncertainty on part of the translator who himself might have been in doubt about the precise nature of the reference.

^{3.} There are a number of other texts that, by implication, could be taken to fall within this category. In the Sgm (Mahāsamnipāta, 5), for instance, "not hearing and not accepting" the Bodhisattvapiṭaka is cited as one of the four dharma that obstruct the Mahāyāna (T 397 (5), vol. 13, p. 630; ref. Pedersen).

^{4.} This traditional attribution is only a working hypothesis as it involves a whole range of uncertainties that have, as yet, to be resolved. For a discussion of the problematic in this assumption see: J. May, "La Philosophie Bouddhique Idéaliste", Revue de la Société Suisse d'Etudes Asiatiques, xxv, 1971, pp. 279–301, especially, p. 293.

^{5.} *Bbh*, p. 96.1–5.

(dharmaparyeṣaka) alongside the Śravakapiṭaka and non-Buddhist treatises (bāhyakāni śāstrāṇi); these include logic, medicine, grammar etc., besides arts and crafts of the world as those areas of learning that the bodhisattva should become acquainted with. The association of the Bodhisattvapiṭaka with the vaipulya-genre is by no means rare and is found in a number of treatises. In most of these instances it is used quite cleary as a synonym to the expression Mahāyānapiṭaka.

In the Śrāvakabhūmi, for instance, the Paramārthagāthā opens with the following sentence:⁷

"Among the [deliberation of the meaning of the Buddha and of the meaning of the versifications of the discourses] in the *Vastusaṃgrahaṇī* and in the instruction of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* I shall set forth extensively the deliberation of the meaning of the discourses."

Wayman remarks in a note to this passage that "it is a reasonable assumption that this method of instruction (avavāda) of this piṭaka refers to the various aspects of the Yogācārabhūmi where Asanga has set forth the Mahāyāna, especially the bodhisattva doctrine."

In the *Bbh*, Asanga adds: "This *Bbh* is also called *Bodhisattvapiṭaka-mātṛka* and *Mahāyā-nasaṃgraha*". Then he gives an explanation of the term 'Mahāyānasaṃgraha', stating that it bears this name because it includes the contents of "all subtle sūtras that are included in the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*". Elsewhere in the *Bbh* he enumerates eight characteristics essential for a text to be called *Mahāyānasaṃgraha*. The first three factors are that (1) the text in question must contain the instructions included in the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*, (2) it has to reveal the real meaning of all *dharma* included in the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* and (3) it reveals all the inconceivable powers of the buddhas and bodhisattvas that are in this *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*.

Asanga's hitherto most explicit statement concerning the expression *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* is found in the *Sūtrālaṃkāra*:¹⁰

^{6.} Akn-tīkā, TTP, 104, p. 184.2.7; Bbh, p. 297.21
According to the Abhidhh-sam (R), p. 139, the reason for this identification is the Bodhisattvapiṭaka's exhaustive treatment of the pāramitā, particularly with regard to their characteristics, order, number and cultivation. In the same text, the adherence to the Bodhisattvapiṭaka figures among the principal marks of persons who subscribe to the Mahāyāna (op. cit., p. 147).

^{7.} Wayman, 1961, p. 163.

^{8.} *Bbh*, p. 298.3–5; cf. pp. 157.4, 180.16, 274.21, 332.23.

^{9.} *Bbh*, pp. 298.3–8, 409.11–410.1.

^{10.} *Msl*, p. 53.16–18

See also: Przyluski, Le Concile de Rājagrha, 1926–8, pp. 357–9.

"Three baskets, this is *Sūtra*, *Vinaya* and *Abhidharma*. If classed in terms of Hīnayāna and Mahāyāna, the three baskets fall into two, the Śrāvakapiṭaka and *Bodhisattvapitaka*."

On the basis of such passages it becomes clear, I think, that Asanga considers the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* synonymous with the notion of a *Mahāyānapiṭaka*, that is, the Mahāyāna literature in general.

Next, there are references to the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* in the *Mañjuśrīmūlakalpa* and in a manuscript fragment found in Tun-huang. In both of them, the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* is cited in connection with the *Avataṃsaka* collection.

In the Mañjuśrīmūlakalpa, the term Bodhisattvapiṭaka appears in two instances. First, it is part of the overall title that runs, according to Chinese catalogues, as bodhisattvapiṭakān-Mañjuśrīmūlakalpa-mahāvaipulyasūtra. Second, it is mentioned in the formula that concludes the individual chapters. Curiously, it does not appear in all formulae but figures only in the later chapters.

If we accept the results of Przyluski's text-critical study that chapters one to three predate the other chapters by several centuries, we are led to conclude that in the early phase of the Mahāyāna the application of the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* was not particularly wide-spread. Quite evidently, in this context, it was introduced to supersede the ancient formula *paṭala-visara*—a term virtually identical in meaning. Its association with the *Avataṃsaka* collection indicates, according to Przyluski, that the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* was interpreted to stand for Mahāyāna scriptures in general. Naturally, the *Avataṃsaka* is part of these.

In the other source that cites the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* in connection with the *Avataṃsaka*, the colophon of the Tun-huang manuscript, we read: "*Bodhisattvapiṭaka buddhāvataṃsaka Mahāyānasūtra kramena arvajñā jñānakara nāma daśabhūmi nirdeśa parivarta*". ¹³ Unfortunately, this colophon is the only fragment extant of the text it names. On the basis of this

^{11.} J. Przyluski, 1923, p. 302.

^{12.} The formula runs as follows: bodhisattva piṭaka avatamsakān Mahāyāna sūtram mañjuśrī mūla kalpāc caturthaḥ | prathama paṭa vidhāna viṣaraḥ parisamāptaḥ.
In chapters one to three, the phrase runs differently: iti bodhisattva paṭala visaran mañjuśrī kumārabhūta mūla kalpāt trūyo mandala vidhāna parivartah.

^{13.} Louis de la Vallée Poussin: Catalogue of Tibetan Manuscripts from Tun-huang in the India Office Library, Item Number 132, India Office Library, Oxford, 1962.

single statement, out of context, one can have no certainty as to the precise application of the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*.

Nancy Schuster has suggested that it might point to a *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* section in the *Avataṃsaka*. ¹⁴ She argues that the title *Daśabhūminirdeśa* presumably corresponds to the *Daśabhūmika* (*Dbh*) chapter (twenty-two or twenty-six) of the *Avataṃsaka* and is here to be interpreted literally as the 'basket of bodhisattva practices' in that collection. Her hypothesis receives support from the *Bodhisattvagarbhasthasūtra*; this lists the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* in connection with the *Dbh* in sixth position of an eightfold division of Mahāyāna scriptures. ¹⁵ Apart from this reference, I have not been able to trace any further material in support of her thesis. It may be better to assign it a provisional value until further evidence has come to light in favour of her position, and meanwhile to take the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* to be a synonym for *Mahāyānapiṭaka* as in the case of the *Mañjuśrīmūlakalpa*.

There is one more reference that speaks of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* in terms of the *Mahāyāna-piṭaka*. It is found in a text called *Nandimitrāvadāna* and proposes a kind of catalogue of a *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. This text contains a list of thirty-seven Mahāyāna *sūtras*, including, among others, such works as the *Prajñāpāramitā*, *Saddharmapuṇḍarīka*, *Buddhāvataṃsaka*, *Sukhāvativyūha* and *Vimalakīrtinirdeśa*. Having listed these *sūtras*, it says:¹⁷

"Pareils sūtras du Grand Véhicule existe par centaines de myriades, distingués par groups et par catégories. En outre, il ya le recueil (piṭaka) du Vinaya du Grand Véhicule et la multitude des groupes et des espéces de recueil de l'Abhidharma. Tout celă forme l'ensemble du Recueil des Bodhisattvas (Bodhisattvapiṭaka)."

The second category of references to a *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* consists of a number of miscellaneous, apparently unrelated, literary documents. First, there are three works that classify Buddhist scriptures on the basis of the religious practitioners who take recourse to them. In all three, that is the *Karuṇāpuṇḍarīka*, *Mahākaruṇāsūtra* and *Ajataśatrukaukṛtyavinodana*,

^{14.} Schuster, 1976, n. 110.

^{15.} Link, 1961, p. 283.

^{16.} For a French translation of the *Nandimitrāvadāna*, see: Lévi; Chavannes: "Relation sur la Durée de la loi, Enoncée par le grand Arhat Nandimitra" (*JA*, 8, 1916, p. 5 ff.). It is only extant in a Chinese translation entitled *Ta a lo han nan t'i mi to lo so shuo fa chu chi* (T 2030, 49, pp. 12–15; ref. Pedersen).

^{17.} op. cit., pp. 19–20.

the term Bodhisattvapiṭaka is contrasted with the Śrāvakapiṭaka and Pratyekabuddhapiṭaka. 18 Second, there are five treatises that cite the term Bodhisattvapiṭaka in connection with the more traditional threefold classification of Buddhist scriptures. In the Satyasiddhiśāstra, it is listed as the fifth division, following the Sūtrapiṭaka, Vinayapiṭaka, Abhidharmapiṭaka and Samyuktapiṭaka. 19 In the Daśabhūmikavibhāṣāśāstra, the term Bodhisattvapiṭaka is cited in connection with the traditional Tripiṭaka and a Matrka. 20 Paramārtha also places the Bodhisattvapiṭaka in fifth position, preceded by the Sūtra, Vinaya, Abhidharma and Dhāranīpiṭaka. 21 In the Bodhisattvagarbhasthasūtra, the Bodhisattvapiṭaka is referred to in combination with the Śrāvakapiṭaka and Vinayapiṭaka. 22 Curiously, Hsüan-tsang who carried out the earliest translation of the Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra (Rkṭ 12) does not mention it in his discussion of the classification of Buddhist scriptures current in Mahāsanghika circles. 23

Finally, there are two references which set the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* in the context of the twelvefold classification of Mahāyāna scriptures:

In the Abhidh-sam, the Bodhisattvapiṭaka is included in the Sūtrapiṭaka as a separate class of scriptures. On the one hand, it distinguishes those sections of the Buddhist canon which have traditionally been associated with early Buddhism, that is the Sūtra, Geya, Vyākaraṇa, Gāthā and Udāna. On the other hand, there are the Vaipulya and Adbhutadharma portions of the canon which the Abhidh-sam considers constituents of the Bodhisattvapiṭaka.²⁴

In the Ratnagotravibhāgaśāstra, a similar classification is employed.²⁵ Here, the Bodhisattvapiṭaka is contrasted with the Sūtra, Geya, Vyākaraṇa, Gāthā, Udāna and Nidāna. While these are dismissed because of their association with conventional truth (saṃvṛtisatya), the Bodhisattvapiṭaka is commended because it contains an exposition of the doctrine of absolute truth (paramārthasatya). To my knowledge, this is the only instance in which a classification

^{18.} Yamada, 1968, p. 211; T 380, 12, p. 971b; T 626, 15, p. 386 respectively (*Taishō* ref. Pedersen). In the *Karuṇāp* (pp. 14, 15–6), this threefold classification is complemented by the introduction of the *Buddhapiṭaka* as the fourth and highest division of Buddhist scripture. A text called *Buddhapiṭaka* is extant in both the Chinese *Tripiṭaka* (T 653, vol. 15) and in the Tibetan canon (TTP 35, no. 886).

^{19.} Bareau, 1955, p. 296.

^{20.} Pedersen, op. cit., p. 33.

^{21.} Bareau, 1955, p. 296.

^{22.} Link, 1961, p. 282.

^{23.} He cites the traditional *Tripitaka*, plus a *Samyuktapitaka* and *Dhāranīpitaka* serving as divisions of the Mahāsanghika classification of the Buddhist canon (Bareau, 1955, p. 296).

^{24.} Abhidh-sam (R), p. 132
This division is found only in the Sūtrapiṭaka since the type of texts associated with the Vinaya and Abhidharmapiṭaka, that is the Nidāna, Avadāna, Itivrtaka, Jātaka and Upadeśa, are shared by both śrāvaka and bodhisattvas.

^{25.} Takasaki, 1966, p. 285.

involving the term Bodhisattvapitaka is explicitly based on doctrino-philosophical issues.²⁶

The third category of sources is significant in two respects. First, these sources are the only ones that associate the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* with a well-defined set of spiritual practices. Second, they represent some of the earliest strands of Mahāyāna literature and are therefore particularly helpful in reconstructing the 'original' meaning of the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*.

As I have mentioned earlier, all texts of this group associate the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* with the *bodhisattvacaryā* and, in particular, with an exposition on the six traditional *pāramitā*. Among them the most prominent *sūtras* are the *Vkn*, *Kp*, *Saṃdhis*, *Ug* and *Prṇ*. Although none of these texts gives explicit information on the actual physical format of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*, the context implies that it is a title for a collection of works relating to the bodhisattva, rather than an independent treatise.

In the Kp, the term Bodhisattvapiṭaka is mentioned in connection with the training of a bodhisattva who is admonished to:²⁷

"Seek out the proper Sūtra Dharma, the six pāramitā and the Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra and all the vessels of the Buddha, [with a] heart free from anger [and] respectfully serving all the people under heaven in the ten directions, [whether] they are slave or great scholars."

^{26.} There is another reference to a division of Buddhist scriptures featuring the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* that deserves our attention. It is contained in the *Kuśalamūlasamparigraha* where the author places "this Mahāyāna *Dharmapiṭaka*" side by side with "the *sūtras* of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*" (T 657, 16, p. 138a; ref. Pedersen). To all appearances, this reference is pointing to some undefined, implied distinction between Mahāyāna *sūtras* and texts contained in the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. Unfortunately, we are left once more with limited information as to its contents and can do little more than guess about its composition and scope. Significantly, like the other references found in this source-category, it too refers to a *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* as an autonomous, distinct body of Buddhist scriptures.

^{27.} I adopted Schuster's translation (op. cit., n. 491) which is based on Lokaksema's second-century Han translation. There exist some differences between the various Chinese translations of this passage. Also the Sanskrit and Tibetan versions exhibit differences. The two remaining Chinese translations run as follows:

Chin: "[A bodhisattva] delights in hearing the good Dharma, [and] does not delight in hearing false Dharma, delights in the six *pāramitā Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. He has humble thoughts without pride towards all beings" (op. cit.).

Ch'in: "[A bodhisattva] renounces evil Dharma [and] seeks the True Sūtra Canon, the six pāramitā Bodhisattvadharmapiṭaka, with a heart free from pride towards all beings, entirely humbled" (Kp, p. 15). Weller's German translation, based on the Tibetan and Sanskrit version is: "Seitdem er sich so daran machte, die Sammlung von Werken fur den bodhisattva als diejenige zu suchen, welche die sechs Vollkommenheiten enhält, sucht er die gute Überlieferung, doch die schlechte Überlieferung sucht er nicht; und da er gegen alle Wesen ohne Überheblichkeit ist, gleicht sein Gemüt dem des Hundes" (Weller, 1962, p. 67).

In the Vkn we meet with the following definition of the term Bodhisattvapitaka:28

"The texts which are contained in the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* are profound, of profound aspects, difficult to perceive by the world, ... are marked with the seal of the kings of formulae and texts, reveal the irreversible wheel of the Dharma and originate in the six perfections. They teach the *bodhipākṣika dharma*, compassion and friendliness."

The Saṃdhis adds that the bodhisattvas "should have courage, faith in and understanding of the subtle doctrines of the true Dharma connected with the pāramitā of the Bodhisattvapiṭaka."²⁹ In the Vasudharasūtra we are told that "this sūtra and other profound sūtras are included in the Bodhisattvapiṭaka and connected with the pāramitā."³⁰ In the Prṇ, a Ratnakūṭa sūtra that itself discusses the bodhisattva training in some detail we find the following definition of the term Bodhisattvapiṭaka:

"Further, O Pūrṇa, bodhisattvas who do not hear appropriate bodhisattva $s\bar{u}tras$ —which means the $s\bar{u}tras$ of the Bodhisattvapiṭaka, $s\bar{u}tras$ that generate the bodhicitta, $s\bar{u}tras$ that attract to matters of bodhisattvas, $s\bar{u}tras$ that are linked to the six $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ —because they do not listen to these, they do not practice as instructed; since they are not instructed correctly, they will renounce the Doctrine."

A further reference is contained in the Ug. It distinguishes between those who "teach the $s\bar{u}tras$, those who keep the precepts and those who adhere to the Bodhisattvapiṭaka" and admonishes those who adhere to the Bodhisattvapiṭaka to seek instruction in the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ and skilful means $(up\bar{a}yakauśalya)$.³²

^{28.} Lamotte, 1976, p. 259.

It is probably no coincidence that apart from the *pāramitā*, the *bodhipākṣika dharma*, *karuṇā* and *maitrī* are precisely those practices that figure most prominently in the *Bdp* (R, folio 649.2–679.5; 264.4–278.4).

^{29.} Samdhis (ELa), p. 131.26-28, § 9.3; see also: p. 133.11-12, § 10.2, p. 140.9-12, § 18.5.

^{30.} T 482, 14, p. 666a; ref. Pedersen.

^{31.} TTP, 23, p. 239.3.1–3.

^{32.} op. cit.,p. 267.2.5-6

There are numerous other references which shed some light on the way in which the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* is interpreted in Mahāyāna literature. The *Lankāv* (p. 66.2–5), for instance, says:

[&]quot;What is meant by abandoning the roots of virtue? It refers to those who have abandoned the

At this point let us briefly review the collected evidence. The majority of sources examined so far agree to assign the expression *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* the role of a scriptural classification of Buddhist texts. In a number of treatises, it is taken to correspond to a body of *sūtras* comprising the totality of Mahāyāna writings. In others, it is more specifically associated with the bodhisattva ideal, apparently with the aim of demarcating its teachings from those of current orthodoxy. In this context it is probably best understood as a collection of teachings preached to bodhisattvas.

We have practically no information as to the exact structure and content of that classification. The majority of texts investigated correlate the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* to issues connected with the *bodhisattvacaryā*. Apart from its association with the six *pāramitā*, few details have emerged that clarify the nature of the practices included or their position in the evolution of the bodhisattva doctrine. On the basis of the rather vague nature of the evidence available, little can be said about the historical status of a collection of *sūtras* called *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. The numerous references found in almost all strands of Mahāyāna literature suggest that it must have been a widely known classification of scriptures over a fairly long period. However, since none of the references so far examined contains any information as to its structure and exact contents, we cannot exclude the possibility that the expression *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* may have stood for the totality of scriptures that, in one way or another, deal with the bodhisattva ideal. In this event, the question of its historicity is most delicate since the expression *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* may have existed solely as a vague concept in the minds of a few people.

As already indicated above, my forth working category refers to a number of texts that contain explicit references to a specific, individual text called *Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra*. It is to these references that we shall turn next. In view of the heterogeneous nature of the sources included in this fourth category, I propose to divide the material into two subcategories:

First, there is a number of canonical and paracanonical sources that contain citations of a *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. The most prominent texts of this category are the Śikṣāsamuccaya (Śikṣ), Lokadharapariprcchā (Lkdh) and Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra (Bdp) as well as three, as yet uni-

Bodhisattvapiṭaka, who make wrongful accusations that are not in conformity with the Sūtra, Vinaya and liberation."

The Akn mentions the term Bodhisattvapiṭaka as part of an enumeration citing eighty-four ways of learning. In the middle of that list (no. 39) it differentiates between the way "... of studying the pra-jñāpāramitā, studying the Bodhisattvapiṭaka, studying the saṃgrahavastu, studying the upāyakauśalya" (p. 50.5.5).

dentified, fragments found in the Tun-huang material.33

Second, there are the catalogues and compendia of the indigenous Chinese and Tibetan Buddhist traditions. Here, particular use will be made of Nanjio's catalogue, the *Mahāvyutpatti* (*Mvy*) and, to a lesser extent, of Seng-yu's *Ch'u san tsang chi chi*.³⁴

The greatest number of references to a specific text entitled *Bodhisattvapitaka* is found in the *Bdp*. Here, the term *Bodhisattvapitaka* is mentioned sixty-four times. The majority of these references refer to the *Bdp* itself. There are, however, instances that contain ambiguity whether the reference in question points to a specific *sūtra* or a vaguely delineated body of texts considered above.³⁵ Since such instances are very few indeed and often appear in a context in which it is virtually impossible to decide conclusively on their format, it seems preferable to leave them untreated, at least for a moment.

Four brief quotations will suffice to convey some idea of the way in which the *Bodhisat-tvapiṭaka* sees itself:

"Sitting in that seat, in order to benefit many sentient beings, the Tathāgata will explain a sūtra (mdo sde) called Bodhisattvapiṭaka which advances the bodhisattvacaryā and is commended as benefiting all sentient beings." ³⁶

^{33.} All three citations have been taken from, or are closely related to, the Bdp:

^{1. 705.2 (28)} corresponds to R, folio 604.2-604.7

^{2. 705.2 (688)} corresponds to R, folio 81.1, 86.1, 86.3

^{3. 635.32} bears close affinity in contents to chapter eleven of our sūtra. Amongst others, it discusses skill in vijñāna and jñāna, skill in the bodhipākṣika and skill in neyartha and nītartha sūtras and would therefore seem to correspond to extracts from R, folio 631.4-673.6. As in many cases the manuscript is almost unreadable, I have not succeeded in pinpointing all of its contents. There is a fourth reference (380.109) that cites a Bodhisattvapiṭaka. The content of this fragment corresponds loosely in style and topics to our sūtra, but again, positive identification has not yet been possible.

^{34.} For an analysis of Seng-yu's writings and his position in the Chinese Buddhist tradition, see: Link, 1957, 1960, 1961.

^{35.} I base my conclusion, in addition to close contextual congruencies, on the following features of the Tibetan text. In the *Bdp*, the majority of references cite the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* in conjunction with demonstrative pronouns (Tib. *hdi*, *de*) which, in some cases, are reinforced by the reflexive pronoun 'itself' (Tib. *ñid*). I take this emphatic use of the demonstrative pronoun, which in Tibetan is quite optional, as an indication that the author had a particular text in mind, most probably the *Bdp* itself, when he refers to 'this *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*'. Moreover, the context in which the references appear is always intimately linked to the subject matter discussed in that very passage. In addition, the term *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* is often supplemented by the syllables *mdo sde* whose principal meaning is, according to the compilers of the *Mvy*, *sūtra* or *sūtrānta* (350, 805, 1412, 1435).

There are, however, instances in which the expression *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* appears to refer to a collection of texts. Furthermore, the Tibetan term *mdo sde* can optionally also carry the meaning 'sūtra-class'. As I do not feel confident to resolve this contradiction positively, I wish to draw attention to the possibility that, originally, the *Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra* might have been comprised of various texts which, in the course of time, grew into a homogeneous whole.

^{36.} R, folio 76, 4–6.

"What are the riches of a bodhisattva's teacher? It is the Dharma enunciation of this *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. When his teacher has recognised that the bodhisattva is speaking gently in every respect, he instructs him in the Dharma-enunciation of this *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* at great length. He teaches and proclaims it. He establishes him in it and analyses it. He clarifies and propounds it. A bodhisattva who abides securely in this *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* understands [how to] cut off poverty forever and quickly realises perfect enlightenment."³⁷

"O Śāriputra, bodhisattvas who desire to attain swiftly their prediction (*vyākaraṇa*) should listen to the Dharma enunciation of this *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. They should take hold of it and retain it. They should also propound it to others and teach it at great length."³⁸

"If bodhisattvas take hold of this *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* and retain it, etc., they will persist in order to perpetuate the lineage of the three jewels and will never be separated from the four immeasurables. They will be training themsevles vigorously in the six perfections and convert all sentient beings by means of the four means of conversion. O Śāriputra, this Dharma enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* is the path of enlightenment. And why? Because supreme and perfect enlightenment is connected to the Dharma enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*."

The other $s\bar{u}tra$ that unmistakably refers to the expression Bodhisattvapitaka as an individual text is the Lkdh. ⁴⁰ In his study on the $Karun\bar{a}pundar\bar{\iota}ka$, Yamada suggests that it refers to the Bdp. ⁴¹ Whilst Schuster argues that there is not sufficient evidence to support such a view, ⁴² I do not know why she asserts this; in my opinion it is beyond any doubt that we are dealing here with citations from the Bdp. The most conclusive example is found in chapter eleven of the Lkdh that discusses the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$ and its mental concomitants. Here, the title

^{37.} R, folio 338, 2-5.

^{38.} R. folio 717.3-6.

^{39.} R, folio 735.4–736.3.

^{40.} TTP, 34 p. 8.3.7–8; p. 7.46–7 and p. 32.1.3–4.

^{41.} Yamada, 1968, p. 212 n. 3.

^{42.} Schuster, op. cit., n 109.

Bodhisattvapiṭaka is quoted in conjunction with an elevenfold enumeration of a bodhisattva's skill. This corresponds closely to the Bodhisattvapiṭaka's exposition on skill.⁴³ The first six and the eleventh type concur verbatim, while the remaining five agree in contents. Moreover, the Lkdh reproduces several of the Bdp's organisational irregularities. It cites, for instance, 'skill in mindfulness' when this type of skill is not mentioned in the Bdp's introductory list on skill itself, but then is freely included in the exposition.⁴⁴ It appears, therefore, very likely indeed that we are dealing here with a reference to our sūtra.⁴⁵

The above finding has an important bearing on the historical status of the *Bdp*. So far, the earliest reference to our *sūtra* that can be dated with any security has been Hsüan-tsang's seventh-century translation. Apart from close textual affinities with the *Akn*, there has been no evidence at all to confirm its existence prior to the seventh century. All this has changed since we know from Chinese sources that the *Lkdh* already existed by the fourth century AD.⁴⁶ Therefore, we may now take the fourth century as the *terminus ad quem* for the *Bodhisattvapitaka's* origin.

Next, there is a quotation in the Śikṣ that Śāntideva (700–750 AD) attributes to a *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. ⁴⁷ However, this quotation does not occur anywhere in the *Bdp*. This is not surprising, as the devotional flavour of the quotation that details ways of honouring a Tathāgata shrine is stylistically out of kilter with the pragmatic, factual tone of the *Bdp*.

This apparent incongruence raises another important issue. If we accept that this citation refers to one specific text (which is probable, considering its context and way of presentation),

^{43.} In the *Lkdh*, a bodhisattva's skill is divided into eleven types:

1. Skill in aggregates; 2. Skill in sensefields; 3. Skill in elements; 4. Skill in dependent co-origination; 5. Skill in the bases of mindfulness; 6. Skill in the faculties; 7. Skill in the eightfold path; 8. Skill in mundane and supramundane *dharma*; 9. Skill in conditioned and unconditioned *dharma*; 10. Skill in investigating the marks of all *dharma*; 11. Skill in obtaining the power of recollection and a mind of investigating the sayings of all teachings (34, p. 9.5.4–6).

^{44.} R, folio 615.4-616.1; folio 649.2-662.3.

^{45.} Apart from the list in the *Lkdh* which runs almost parallel, I have not found a single list which matches exactly the *Bdp's* scheme of skill. Lists of skill are by no means exclusive to the *Bdp*. However, in general, they do not match in every respect and include several additional members. For references to several of these enumerations of skill, see: chapter four, note 654.

^{46.} The *Lkdh* is extant in two Chinese translations. The first was carried out by Dharmarakşa between 265 and 313 AD (T 481); the second by Kumārajīva between 402 and 412 AD (T 482).

^{47.} The quotation runs as follows (Siks, p. 311.13-312.2; trsl. Bendall, p. 278):

[&]quot;Again, in the holy *Bodhisattvapitaka* is described a way to increase merit: 'He that cleans a shrine of the Tathāgata, he attains four purities of aspiration of perfection. And what are these four? Perfect purity of aspiration in form, in steadfast undertaking, in seeing the Tathāgata, in the multitude of lucky marks."

Again, in the same place it is said:

[&]quot;One who lays a flower on the shrines of the Tathāgatas or anoints them attains eight things without deficiency. And what are these eight? No deficiency in form, enjoyment, surroundings, virtue, tranquillity, knowledge, wisdom and aspiration."

then there must have been at least one further $s\bar{u}tra$ known under the title of Bodhisattvapiṭaka. Against this it would have to be assumed that the text known as Bodhisattvapiṭaka has undergone considerable internal change since the early eighth century. These questions will be investigated next.

Chinese catalogues of the Buddhist canon enumerate five texts with the title *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. Nanjio, following the Ming catalogue, lists three texts in the Mahāyāna *Vinaya* section which beside the *Bdp* have been known in the past as *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*.

- 1. A text called *Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra* (T 1491, N 1103). Its Chinese translation consists of one fascicule only. This translation was carried out by Saṅghabhara during the Liang Dynasty between AD 506 and 524.
- 2. A sūtra that is listed currently under the title Mahāyānatrirāśikṣamasūtra (T 1493, N 1090). Alternative titles cited in Nanjio are Karmāvaraṇapratisaraṇa, Karamāvaraṇapraticchedana, and Triskandhaka. The Taishō index lists it also under the name Karmāvaraṇapratipraśrabdhisūtra. It was first rendered into Chinese by Jñānagupta and Dharmagupta during the Sui Dynasty ca. AD 590.
- 3. A text which Nanjio lists as Śāriputrakṣamasūtra (T 1492, N 1106). He adds that this sūtra is also known as Triskandhaka and that it is an earlier and shorter version of the translations cited under N 1090 and N 1103. Its Chinese translation is attributed to An Shih-kao who is said to have made it during the Eastern Han Dynasty between AD 148 and 170.

A text entitled *Triskandhaka* is also mentioned in the *Mvy* (1384) and by Bu-ston. ⁴⁸ In the *Mvy* it is found in the *sūtra* section of the Tibetan *Tripitaka*. ⁴⁹ A work of the same name is further cited in the *Śikṣ* and *Ug*. ⁵⁰ Here, the term *Triskandhaka* is mentioned primarily in a liturgical context. Schuster has suggested that, like the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*, the expression *Triskandhaka* might also have had a twofold meaning, viz., that it might have referred to a particular text bearing that name and to a category of presumably brief treatises describing certain liturgical practices. ⁵¹ Such a liturgical text would seem a likely candidate as the

^{48.} Obermiller, 1931–32, i, p. 171.

^{49.} Mvy 1384, TTP 950.

^{50.} Śiks, p. 290.1-2.

^{51.} Schuster, op. cit., n. 99.

source for Śāntideva's brief citation from a *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* on *stūpa* worship in the Śikṣ. If the three translations cited in Nanjio's catalogue (N 1090, 1103 and 1106) are approximately identical in content and have a shared interest in liturgical practices we are probably dealing here with texts that have little in common with our *sūtra*.

There is one more text that has been referred to in the past as Bodhisattvapiṭaka. It is the seventeenth work in the Ratnakūṭa collection and presently called Purṇaparipṛcchā or Pūrṇaparivarta. States alternative title as Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra is attested in a number of sources. Bodhiruci's translation of the Ratnakūṭa, for instance, gives Bodhisattvapiṭaka as its secondary title. Also Kumārajīva who rendered the Prn into Chinese between AD 402 and 409 referred to it under the title of Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra. His translation is the only Chinese version that survived. Mochizuki, however, has discovered that the T'ang catalogue lists Kumārajīva's translation as the second translation. According to the same source, the first translation (which also bears the name Bodhisattvapiṭaka) was made by Dharmarakṣa at the end of the third century AD. It is recorded as being a comparatively short text comprising only three fasciculi. This earlier version is no longer extant. In the Taishō, the term Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra is still employed as the secondary name of the Prn. States

In this *sūtra* the Buddha discourses on the bodhisattva path to a monk called Pūrṇamaitrayanīputra. In the course of the exposition that culminates in a description of Pūrṇa's attainment of the stage of irreversibility, the Buddha explains the generation of the thought of enlightenment, the manner in which an aspiring bodhisattva eliminates all enmity directed at him by a hostile world, and how he should cultivate the 'faculty of hearing'. Pūrṇa's personal quest is marred initially by his past exposure to evil influences that cause him to forget the goal of enlightenment. At a later stage, however, after he has overcome his unwholesome disposition he becomes successful in cultivating the four *śīla dharma* that generate in him roots of virtue, the resolve of 'no-turning-back' and finally the state of enlightenment.

Structurally, the exposition of *Prn* has many features in common with other *Ratnakūta* texts. It also makes an extensive use of tetrads as a particular means of explaining the complexities of the bodhisattva training. In the *Prn*, the tetrad section is extraordinarily long and covers roughly a quarter of the whole *sūtra*. Large parts of this section are dominated by

^{52.} TTP, 760.18, T 310.17.

^{53.} Mochizuki, 1931–36, p. 3441a 5–25; ref. Schuster, op. cit, p. 45, n. 100.

^{54.} See also: Bagchi, 1927, i, pp. 83, 84 who confirms this information.

^{55.} Seng-yu, in his Ch'u san tsang chi chi, gives as its usual title Bodhisattvaptakasūtra and cites Pūrnapariprechā and Mahākarunācitta as two alternative names (Shih, 1968, p. 76, no. 65).

enumerative descriptions of the bodhisattva's duties. Conceivably, it is its apparent preoccupation with providing instructions relevant to the *bodhisattvacaryā* that accounts for its alternative title as *Bodhisattvapitakasūtra*.

If we turn now to comparing the structure and content of the Prn with the references to a Bodhisattvapiṭaka that are found in the various strands of Mahāyāna literature, a number of important differences become apparent. As we have gathered from the quotations cited above, the Bodhisattvapiṭaka is associated with the six $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$, $up\bar{a}yakau\dot{s}alya$, $maitr\bar{\iota}$, and with preserving and acquiring the Dharma. In the Prn these characteristics do not stand in the foreground. Most importantly, the Prn does not include a systematic exposition of the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$. Naturally, they do receive some attention but are clearly not the $raison\ d'\hat{e}tre$ of its composition. Hence, it seems improbable that when the sources refer to a Bodhisattvapiṭaka they actually imply the Prn.

As already concluded above, in most cases the expression Bodhisattvapiṭaka served as an umbrella title for a group of texts which dealt in one way or another with the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$. Judging by the numerous references to the six perfections, the treatment of the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ must have been the core of many of the $s\bar{u}tras$ that were included in that collection. We cannot exclude the possibility that the Prn was included among the body of such early bodhisattva $s\bar{u}tras$. It is not probable, however, that the Prn can be indentified as the text such ancient $s\bar{u}tras$ as the Kp had in mind when they referred to a Bodhisattvapitaka.

Finally, there is a reference to a *Bodhisattvapitaka* in the *Mvy*. ⁵⁶ Here, a *Bodhisattvapitaka* is given as the fifth work in a list that enumerates one hundred and four Buddhist texts, between the *Avatamsaka* and *Lalitavistara*. The *Avatamsaka* is a composite work. Its two main recensions are divided into thirty-four and thirty-nine chapters, many of which are in fact separate *sūtras* that have been in circulation as independent texts. The *Lalitavistara*, in contrast, is a more homogeneous text that narrates the lives of Śākyamuni Buddha. Perhaps, by placing the *Bdp* between these two works, the authors of the *Mvy* intended to point to some affinity in structure or contents between the three works. They may have regarded the *Bodhisattvapitaka* as being composite in a similar way to the *Avatamsaka*. Alternatively, they may have considered the presence of *jātaka*-type stories in the *Bdp* to be a factor that links it to the *Lalitavistara*. It is also possible of course that the arrangement of *sūtra* titles bears no relation to their respective content. Yet, the sequence of their enumerations seems to indicate

^{56.} ref. Schuster.

the implementation of a premeditated design.⁵⁷

^{57.} The lists commences with the Śatasāhasrikaprajñāpāramitā, Pañcavimśatisāhasrikaprajñāpāramitā and Astasāhasrikaprajñāpāramitā, followed by the Buddhāvatamsaka, Bodhisattvapiṭaka, Lalitavistara and Samādhirāja. Considering the position assumed by these sūtras in Mahāyāna literature, the sequence might indicate an arrangement in which the texts are ranked in order of importance. The Ratnakūṭa is cited in the thirty-ninth position.

The Bodhisattvapiţaka and the Akşayamatinirdeśa

As part of the discussion of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*'s position in Mahāyāna literature, I shall next explore the relationship between the Bdp and Akn.⁵⁸

The main body of the Akn consists of a detailed exposition of eighty inexhaustible (akṣaya) faculties and attributes of a bodhisattva. Here, many of the more important practices of the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$ are discussed and set into an early Mahāyāna context. Significantly, only the first ten of the eighty aksaya bear unmistakable marks of Mahāyāna thought. Virtually all

^{58.} The earliest reference to the *Akn* is found in a Chinese catalogue of the Buddhist Canon where it is listed as an early fourth-century translation and is included as the twelfth section of the *Mahāsaṃnipāta* (*Li tai san pao ki*; 41.2a; Bagchi, i, pp. 90–91). This translation was carried out by Dharmarakṣa in AD 307. The work is still extant and catalogued as *Taishō* no. 397. According to Nanjio (no. 74, 77) it is in fact a co-authoured translation carried out by Chih-yen and Pao-yun soon after 427 AD. The *Akn* seems to have formed from the very outset a part of the *Mahāsaṃnipāta* collection which itself ranks among the earliest collections of Mahāyāna literature (Bagchi, i, p. 90). Bagchi lists the *Mahāsaṃnipāta* collection among the early Mahāyāna *sūtras* that were translated by Lokakṣema during the second half of the second century AD (Bagchi, i, p. 43).

In the Tibetan Canon which does not know any collection entitled *Mahāsaṃnipāta*, the *Akn* has been included in the 'sūtra section' (TTP 34, no. 842). Judging by the remarks found in the prologue and epilogue of the Tibetan translation, it is clear that by the ninth century, at least, the *Akn* had become a part of the Indian *Mahāsaṃnipāta* collection. Wayman cites some internal evidence which suggest that the *Akn* was composed by the same circle of monks who composed the *Satasāhasrikāprajñāpāramitā*, *Saptaśatikāprajñāpāramitā*, *Kuśalamūlaparidhara*, *Buddhapiṭaka* and *Saddhp* (Wayman, 1980, pp. 212–214). The greatest number of citations from the *Akn* are contained in *Śikṣ*. Altogether, it refers twenty-two times to various sections of the *Akn*. Other citations are found in the *Sūtrasammuccaya* (TTP, 102, p. 85.1.2 ff); in Sthiramati's sub-commentary on the *Mahāyānasūtrālaṃkāra*, that is the *Sūtrālaṃkāravṛtti-bhāṣya* (TTP 109, p. 48.2.2); in Candrakīrti's *Prasannapadā* (La Vallée Poussin, 1913, p. 108.1–3) and in the *Mppś* (iii, pp. 1245–50, 1272, 1716). For a list of *Akn* quotations in Mahāyāna literature, see: Braavrig, 1989, pp. lvi–lxi.

Despite the Akn's apparent popularity with the later Mahāyāna writers it seems unlikely that it belonged to the very earliest strand of Mahāyāna sūtras. That is to say, it almost certainly postdates works such as the Aṣṭa and Saddhp, but may have appeared in the second wave of Mahāyāna texts alongside the Vkn or Śgs. First, its highly systematised and concise way of dealing with the various aspects of the bodhisattvacaryā, its main topic, indicates that it is not an early work. Second, there are some issues which await, as yet, clarification. In the Prajñā Chapter (p. 56.2.6), for instance, there is a reference to a Yogācārabhūmi, saying: "Wisdom is attached to all places in the Yogācārabhūmiśāstra" (p. 56.2.6). The general nature of this citation does not allow us to infer that it is a reference to Asanga's Yogācārabhūmi or to follow Wayman's suggestion that it is the Yogācārabhūmi composed by Sangharakṣa. If we take it to be a reference to Asanga's Yogācārabhūmi, then we have to discredit the various entries found in the Chinese catalogues which date the Akn's first translation to 307 AD, since we know that the Yogācārabhūmī, in its present form, is at the earliest a late fourth-century work. On the other hand, Chinese sources do mention a partial, late second-century translation of Sangharakṣa's Yogācārabhūmi. If we assume that it is this text to which our citation refers, then the possibility of the Akn belonging to an early literary phase of the Mahāyāna cannot be excluded (Demiéville, 1954, pp. 395–396).

^{59.} As Wayman has demonstrated, it is this list of eighty $ak \circ aya$ that was taken as a basis in the $S\bar{u}tr\bar{a}lamk\bar{a}ra$ where the Akn is cited as authority for the twenty-two forms of generating the thought of enlightenment. Cast into twenty-two similes in the $S\bar{u}tr\bar{a}lamk\bar{a}ra$, they correspond in number and sequence to the eighty $ak \circ aya$ listed in the Akn. The similes themselves, however, did not originate in the Akn, but stem from a number of sources, most notably from passages of the early $Praj\bar{n}\bar{a}p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ literature. The list of the similes is, for instance, contained in three $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ of the $Abhisamay\bar{a}lamk\bar{a}ra$ (Conze, 1954, pp. 9–10).

other practices cited fall within the scope of pre-Mahāyāna Buddhism and figured, in one way or another, already in the *suttas* of early Buddhism.

A number of otherwise well-known Mahāyāna concepts are not included in the Akn, most notably the theory of gotra, the fivefold path as propounded in the Abhisamayālamkāra and the tenfold scheme of the bodhisattva's career. Instead, more basic Mahāyāna concepts such as the generation of the thought of enlightenment (bodhicittotpāda), the cultivation of the six pāramitā and the attainment of the stage of irreversibility (avaivartikabhūmi) stand in the foreground. This preoccupation with ancient elements of Mahāyāna thought seems therefore to endorse the scriptural evidence found in Chinese catalogues that places the Akn in the early, formative period of Mahāyāna thought.

Next, we turn to comparing the issues that are central to the Akn with those found in the Bdp. In doing so, we note numerous themes which are common to both $s\bar{u}tras$. In a number of instances, whole passages correspond word by word. Structural affinities are found also in the internal design and logical sequence in which the dialogues are construed. But the overall order of the practices differs in several respects. In the Bdp most of the concurrences are found in the $Praj\tilde{n}a$ Chapter, while in the Akn they are more evenly spread out over the eighty aksaya. The reason for this lies in the differing concentration of bodhisattva practices. In the Bdp, most of the practices are allocated to chapter eleven, while in the Akn no such accumulation prevails.

Particularly striking is the frequent recurrence of long, almost identical, abhidharmic-type lists enumerating the various qualities and practices associated with the bodhisattva. Clearly, concurrences of that kind point either to the existence of some commonly accepted patterns of exposition current a the time of their composition, or to a particularly close connection between the Akn and the Bdp. Further below, I shall show at some examples that the direction of this influence must have flowed from the Bdp to the Akn and not vice versa.⁶¹

When we turn to the practices, we note that in both texts, the pāramitā are treated individually

^{60.} Obermiller, 1932, pp. 14-46. In the opening passage of the fourth akṣaya, there is however one brief reference to 'stages' of the bodhisattva path. Since these are left undefined and do not seem to be part of the Akn's overall scheme, we may be dealing here with a later interpolation, attempting to include a reference to the Dbh into the structure of the Akn (p. 41.5.3). The Akn-ţikā interprets the bodhisattva practices in the Akn in terms of the ancient scheme of the sambhāramārga, prayogamārga, daršanamārga and bhāvanāmārga. This scheme, however, is not explicitly put forward in the root text.

^{61.} For a detailed analysis, see: Pagel. "The Akṣayamatinirdesa and Bodhisattvapitaka". *The Buddhist Forum*. iii. forthcoming.

and are not linked to any path structure. Also, the material that is employed under the respective headings of the six perfections corresponds in many points. In the $Ks\bar{a}nti$ Chapter, a practically identical exposition on the nature of 'highest patience' is found. ⁶² In their $Dhy\bar{a}na$ Chapters both texts cite a largely concurring list of about one hundred $sam\bar{a}dhi$. In their $V\bar{v}rya$ Chapters, both $s\bar{u}tras$ underline the importance that mental exertion assumes in the bodhisattva's training and provide an identical way of explication. ⁶³ However, similarities in contents go well beyond the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ chapters. They are found in about eighty percent of practices which occur in both works. Outstanding examples are provided by the discussions of punya and $jn\bar{a}nasambh\bar{a}ra$, the treatment of samatha, samath

The first person to point to the textual parallels between the *Akn* and *Bdp* was Alex Wayman in an article published in 1980.⁶⁵ Noting their association only in passing, he acknowledged their common ground on many topics and correlated a few of their sentences. Taking his article as a point of departure, I investigated the other areas in which the parallels occurred. Leaving aside a handful of uncertain cases, we can distinguish three categories of textual parallelism. First, there is a group of concurring enumerations. Second, there is a large body of formulaic sections of text, so common in *suttas* of early Buddhism. Third, there are several independent, non-formulaic passages that are shared by both works.

Of the three areas of parallelism, it is easiest to account for are the concurrences that appear in lists. Altogether, I encountered far-reaching agreement in six enumerations. These include a list of types of skill⁶⁶, an enumeration of thirty-two pairs of mental vigour (cittavīrya), the samādhi list of the Dhyāna Chapter and a catalogue of forms of learning. In theory, owing to

^{62.} Bdp, p. 46.4.2–47.1.2; Akn, p. 45.3.3–4.8 In order to lend accuracy to the comparison between the relevant sections of the Akn and Bdp, I adopt for this section of my work the readings in the Peking Tripiṭaka Edition (Suzuki, Tokyo–1956).

^{63.} *Bdp*, p. 55.3.6–5.3; *Akn*, p. 48.1.5.

^{64.} Wayman has drawn our attention to some, in his opinion, significant philosophical shifts in emphasis between the *Akn* and the *Bdp*. However, on close examination of the respective passages in both *sūtras* and the *Akn-tīkā*, these discrepancies seem to be of a rather minor nature. For details, see: Pagel, 1991, pp. 8–12.

^{65.} A. Wayman. "A Report on the Akṣayamatinirdeśasūtra". Studies in Indo Asian Art and Culture. 6, New Delhi: 1980, p. 219.

^{66.} In the *Bdp*, these include 'skill' in *skandha*, *dhātu*, *āyatana*, *satya*, *pratisaṃvid*, *pratisaraṇa*, *vijñāna* and *jñāna*, *bodhipākṣika dharma*, *pratītyasamutpada* and *mārga*, (pp. 77.2.3–87.5.6). In the *Akn*, the list runs as follows: 'skill' in *skandha*, *dhātu*, *āyatana*, *satya*, *trikāla*, *yāna*, *pratītyasamutpada* and *sarvadharma* (pp. 52.2.8–56.1.6). The five topics that do not appear in this context in the *Akn* are 'skill' in *pratisaṃvid*, *vijñāna* and *jñāna*, *bodhipākṣika* and 'skill' in the path. They are given elsewhere an independent treatment (pp. 62.2.7–63.48; p. 64.2.4–3.5; pp. 66.4.3–70.4.3 and pp. 70.4.4–71.2.1 respectively).

the tendency in oral traditions to adopt wholesale listings of any type for mnemonic purposes, it is possible that this concurrence is ascribable to a third source and not to direct borrowing between the Akn and Bdp. In spite of intensive research in this area, I have not been able to trace any enumeration from which they might have stemmed.⁶⁷

The second category comprises a number of parallel passages that are largely composed of set expressions, turns of phrase and formulae. They prevail, above all, in the exposition of the bodhipākṣika dharma, in skill in aggregates, elements and sensefields and in the section on the unique knowledge. While it was an easy task to identify them, it is virtually impossible to determine the texts from which their particular set phrases were originally taken. Being well acquainted with Buddhist $s\bar{u}tras$, the authors of the Akn and Bdp probably recited them from memory without having in mind any specific work as point of reference. However, a number of interpolations of non-standardised text elements such as connecting phrases in the Akn shows beyond doubt that it was the Akn which drew on the Bdp.

Finally, the Akn and Bdp share a considerable number of non-formulaic text portions that are kindred in spirit and almost identical in phrasing and hence appear to be unique to the two $s\bar{u}tras$. As will become clear further on, it is precisely this uniqueness that indicates the Akn's indebtedness to the Bdp. The most interesting examples of this category are found in the sections dealing with 'skill' in satya, 'skill' in dharma and 'skill' in pratisarana.

Amongst the six concurring enumerations, the most interesting example is the list detailing the bodhisattva's forms of learning. Wayman, noticing their agreement but not providing any reasons, saw in the list of the Bdp a kind of prototype for that of the Akn. While, in principle, I agree with his judgment, I wish to add precision to his observations and to corroborate them with additional findings. For one thing, Wayman thought that we are dealing with two, essentially identical lists. This is not the case. The first obvious variation is the difference in

^{67.} See: Wayman. "The Samādhi Lists of the Akṣayamatinirdeśasūtra and the Mahāvyutpatti". AOH, 34, 1980, p. 305-318.

In his article on the samādhi lists (op. cit., p. 312) Wayman writes that the samādhi in the Akn were adopted from the list of the Bdp. Wayman does not give any reasons to susbstantiate his assumption but he is probably correct in proposing this direction of borrowing. Of the total of one hundred and eighteen samādhi in the Akn seventy-two occur also in the Bdp. For the most part the meditations that are common to both texts appear in clusters of six to ten samādhi each. Perhaps to account for changes in doctrine, we have several cases in which the samādhi titles appear in slightly altered versions in the Akn. What puzzles me is the rationale behind the choice by which the Akn adopted samādhi from the Bdp. Why are of one hundred and one samādhi in the Bdp only seventy-two found in the Akn? What were the reasons for excluding the remaining forty-six samādhi—some of which bear well-known titles such as the Samādhirāja? Neither the order in which they are listed nor the actual wording of their titles appear to hold the key to these questions. I have given a list of both the Akn's and Bdp's samādhi lists in Appendix ii.

^{68.} Pagel, op. cit., pp. 5-8.

the length of the lists. The Akn's enumeration gives eighty-four forms of learning, whereas the Bdp knows of only seventy-two. ⁶⁹ Furthermore, the Bdp contains thirteen items that are not found in the list of the Akn, raising the number of variant items to twenty-five—roughly a third of the sum total. This substitution of individual items suggests that one of the lists was carefully edited. The greater length of the Akn's list alone indicates posterity, because it is doubtful whether the Bdp would deliberately reduce its scope. On the contrary, if one's experience with other texts is anything to go by, material is usually added in the process of transmission rather than being taken away.

The majority of discrepancies that exist between the two lists are found in the second half of the enumeration. Up to $\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$ thirty-three, most items concur closely in both sequence and contents. After that, apart from two codified sets of practice (no. 49–52, 53–55), the items are generally ill-matched and display few parallels. Thus far, I have not managed to identify a rationale behind this process of restructuring. Apart from some well-known standardised groupings⁷⁰, no scheme springs to mind when comparing the organisations of the two lists. Since both enumerations contain a remarkable comprehensive catalogue of practices, it is tempting to conjecture that their purpose was to gather all known bodhisattva practices in a single *Abhidharma*-type $m\bar{a}trk\bar{a}$ list. Their placement before the main thrust of the bodhisattva practice adds weight to this theory.

In the other enumerations the situation is much clearer, since a close accord in number as well as contents is shown. This agreement makes it of course more difficult to determine the direction in which the borrowing took place. In these enumerations, the only clue is the presence of numbering schemes in the Akn that are not found in the Bdp. While the inclusion of these schemes, taken on its own, is not sufficient to substantiate the view that the lists of

^{69.} It is worth noting here that also Śāntideva's quotation in the Śikṣ of the Akn enumeration is at variance with the original. I suspect that these divergencies are not the result of a consciously undertaken selection but occurred inadvertently, since the number of items is very close (80) and does not show any new ākāra (see: Appendix i).

^{70.} E.g., Bdp item no. 49-52: four hallmarks of Buddhism (bkaḥ rtags kyi phyag rgya bźi); item no. 53-55: three gateways to liberation (trīṇi vimokṣamukhāni); item no. 76-77: reliances (pratisaraṇa); item no. 63-64: bodhipākṣika dharma; no. 65-71: buddha-powers (buddhabala) etc.

^{71.} As far as the individual items are concerned, one meets with a few inconsistencies that stand out at once. First, there is the item called "study of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*" (no. 39, 35). Its position in the list, next to prajñāpāramitā, saṃgrahavastu and upāyakauśalya, suggests that it was conceived of as a (set of) practice and not as single text (or body of scriptures) as it is interpreted elsewhere. Second, one notes the discrepancy that exists between the title brahmavihāra given to item 42/38 in the list and its designation in the text itself where these four practices are invariably referred to as the four apramāṇa. While it is true that one cannot speak of a standard title for this set of practices, the incongruence in their titles might indicate that the list of learning was implanted in the texts in a prefabricated form and does not stand in any 'organic' relation to the exposition itself.

the Akn were taken from the Bdp, a number of unambiguous editorial modifications suggests this.

The most telling examples of this kind are found in the section which details the bodhisattva's accumulation of merit (punya) and pristine cognition (jñāna). In the Bdp we meet here with the statement that bodhisatty of pure resolve "appear in all worlds". In the Akn this sentence has been altered to say that purity of resolve endows bodhisattvas with "power over all worlds".72

Now, it takes little acumen to see that this variation sprang from a shift in perception of the 'model bodhisattva'. In all likelihood, it dates back to the period in which the early characterisation of the bodhisattva as a human being was superseded by a more transcendental concept of bodhisattvahood. Unfortunately, we have little information to indicate when this shift took place. If one follows Harrison's findings—based on the earliest Chinese translations of Mahāyāna sūtras—it did not occur before the third century AD. 73 Other scholars, basing their propositions either on iconographic evidence⁷⁴ or by correlating the final stages of the daśabhūmika path with the emergence of mythical bodhisattvas⁷⁵, have suggested the second century AD.76 Today, this view has been seriously challenged by Schopen in his masterly (re)interpretation of the various rock and pillar inscriptions. He shows that in epigraphical sources 'mythical' bodhisattvas are not attested before the 4th to 5th centuries AD.77 Thus, without entering the intricacies of the controversy (which, in any event, is based on rather slim documentation), there is enough reason to place the emergence of mythical bodhisattvas in a rather later period than commonly assumed.⁷⁸ In principle, this dating fits in with the chronological order that I proposed for the Akn and Bdp.

Another variant reading that seemingly corroborates my theory is given in a tetrad enumerating the means that aid the bodhisattva to increase his accumulation of knowledge (iñānasambhāra). In the Bdp, we learn in this connection of the following four paths. 1. The path of the

^{72.}

Bdp, p. 81.4.2; *Akn*, p. 65.3.7. Paul Harrison. *JIABS*, 10, pp. 67–89. 73.

V.S. Agrawala. "Dhyāni Buddhas and Bodhisattvas". JUPHS, 11(2), pp. 1–13.

See E. Conze. A Short History of Buddhism. 1982, p. 49.

Gregory Schopen's findings about the Kusana image of Amitabha has made this early date—by implication—unlikely (Schopen, 1987, pp. 111-125).

Schopen, op. cit., p. 119. 77.

Epigraphic evidence and iconographic representations point to a considerable discrepancy between the literary forms of Mahāyāna Buddhism (dating back to the beginnings of our era) and their public manifestations. There was virtually no popular support for the Mahāyāna before the 4th/5th century AD that is documented in the various inscriptions, and even then it is chiefly of monastic origin and not by lay-supporters (Schopen, op. cit., p. 124; Schopen, 1985 pp. 9-47; Schopen, 1979, pp. 1-19).

pāramitā; 2. The path of the bodhipākṣika dharma; 3. The noble eightfold path; 4. The path that leads to the pristine cognition of all knowing.⁷⁹

While this list is not particularly remarkable in itself, the *Akn* reading of this tetrad contains one interesting deviation. It replaces the third limb, the 'noble eightfold path', with the 'path of the stages'. Since the other three paths correspond to those of the *Bdp*, preference to the scheme of stages indicates tangible doctrinal progress. It is plausible that the author of the *Akn* felt compelled to account for this progress and consequently adjusted the *Bdp* reading accordingly.

Another interesting, though somewhat more ambiguous, variant reading is found in the discussions of "reliance on the spirit and not on the letter" (arthapratisaranena bhavitavyah na vyañjanapratisaranena). While, in the Bdp, we learn that the letter instructs the bodhisattva "not to abandon any sentient being", the Akn says that the letter teaches bodhisattvas "to renounce all possessions". Et The Bdp's reading of this phrase is a reference to the bodhisattva's moral obligation to pursue actively universal liberation. Historically, it probably stemmed from the thought contained in several early Mahāyāna scriptures that gives prominence to the ideal of the grhapti bodhisattva over that of the pravrajita bodhisattva. Texts such as the Vkn and (the early versions of the) Ug provide illustration of this literary strand. In contrast, the reading of the Akn, advocating total renunciation of worldly possessions, belongs to a later period. Its message is strongly reminiscent of the later trend that replaces the lay-ideal with that of the pravrajita bodhisattva as 'model bodhisattva'. The dating of Chinese translations of Mahāyāna texts suggests that this reorientation to the mendicant model of early Buddhism was well advanced by the fourth century AD. Again, this would accord with the proposed chronology of the Akn and Bdp.

There exists, however, a second possibility of interpretation. Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$ of all ages agree in propounding generosity $(d\bar{a}na)$ as the cardinal virtue of the lay-bodhisattva. Generosity epitomises his obligations and efforts, and is the principal means by which the grhapti

^{79.} Bdp, p. 82.3.1.

^{80.} Akn, p. 66.3.4.

^{81.} Since their expositions of the bodhisattva's training, both in emphasis of practice and structure, have many elements is common, the time gap between the two works cannot have been very great. Both sūtras, for instance, do not employ the tenfold path structure although they must have been aware of it, since it is briefly referred to in several places. Had they originated wide apart, one could expect to meet with traces testifying differences in doctrinal views of the period that separated their formulation. But for three sets of new practices and some minor shifts in emphasis this does not seem to be the case.

^{82.} Bdp, p. 79.5.7; Akn, p. 63.5.6.

bodhisattva becomes cleansed from the three root defilements. Indeed, pure giving is often set forth on its own as a model for the *grhapti* bodhisattva's middle way which fares between affection and aversion—the two extremes against which he battles every day. Hence, the *Akn's* admonition could also be understood as referring to the *grhapti* bodhisattva's obligation to practice generosity at all times with the aim of universal liberation. In this event, the *Akn* and *Bdp* would subscribe to the very same ideal. However, the *Akn's* plea for a very severe form of generosity—which in its radicalism is fundamentally incongruous with the well-balanced middle way that is trodden by lay-bodhisattvas—renders this line of interpretation possibly less convincing.

The Scholastic Affiliation of the Bodhisattvapitaka

At this stage I wish to offer some thoughts about possible scholastic affiliations of the Bdp. The first translation into Chinese of the Bdp was carried out by Hsüan-tsang in AD 645. He is reported to have undertaken it immediately on his return to China. The initial phase of his translation activity is recorded as follows:⁸³

"On the first day of the seventh month [of the year of his return in China], the master started to translate the palm-leaf Sanskrit scriptures. At the beginning he translated the *Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra*, *Buddhabhūmisūtra*, *Sanmukhadhāraṇīsūtra* and *Prakaraṇāryavacaśāstra*. He completed the translation of the *Sanmukhadhāraṇīsūtra* on that same day and finished the translation of the *Buddhabhūmisūtra* on the fifteenth day while the *Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra* and the *Prakaraṇāryavacaśāstra* were done by the end of the year."

The translation of the Bdp won Hsüan-tsang great praise from the emperor T'ang T'ai-tsung. In the same source we read:⁸⁴

"The emperor also read the *Bodhisattvapiṭakasūtra* which the master had submitted to him, and he highly praised it and ordered the crown prince to write an epilogue for this *sūtra*."

The passage concludes by relating how Hsüan-tsang's translation of the *Bdp* had even helped to bring about a change in the emperor's disposition towards Buddhism which, so far, had been marked by indifference.⁸⁵

It is well known that Hsüan-tsang's motivation for travelling to India was to acquire a copy of the *Yogācārabhūmi*. He managed to obtain this text and subsequently translated it between AD 646 and 648 together with the *Mahāyānābhidharmasamyuktasaṅgīti*, *Mahāyānasaṃgraha*,

^{83.} Li-Yung-hsi, 1959, p. 216 (ref. Schuster).

^{84.} op. cit., p. 225.

^{85.} op. cit., pp. 224, 225.

Mahāyānasaṃgraha-bhāṣya and Pratītyasamutpādasūtra. Other texts, translated at a slightly later date, included the Sanmukhadhāraṇī, Prakaraṇāryavaca and Buddhabhūmisūtra.

If we consider the authorship and doctrinal affiliation of the texts that Hsüan-tsang had chosen to translate first along with the Yogācārabhūmi, we find that most of these texts are closely associated with Yogācāra thought. The Prakaraṇāryavaca and the Mahāyānasaṃgrahabhāsya are attributed to Vasubandhu and so is a commentary on the Sanmukhadhāraṇī. 86 Furthermore, Bu-ston knows of a commentary on the Pratītyasamutpādasūtra which he ascribes to Vasubandhu. 87 Obermiller pointed to a doctrinal affiliation between the Buddhabhūmisūtra and certain currents within the Yogācāra school. 88 The Mahāyānābhidharmasamyuktasangīti is attributed to Asanga while Aśvabhāsa is generally accredited with the composition of the Mahāyānasūtrālamkāra. 89

In the light of his preoccupation with Yogācāra literature, it seems natural to raise the question about the reasons lying behind Hsüan-tsang's choice to translate first the *Bdp*. Does the *Bdp* form a part of the Yogācāra literary tradition? Did Hsüan-tsang know of some evidence that links our *sūtra* doctrinally or historically with the Yogācāra school? If so, he apparently regarded it as rather unimportant, since he does not mention it in any of his writings. Neither his *Si-yu-ki* nor his various biographies seem to contain such a reference.⁹⁰

As I shall discuss further below, Sthiramati is reported to have shown much interest in some of the *Ratnakūṭa* works. Tibetan historians accredited him with the composition of the *Kāśyapaparivartaṭikā*, the only surviving commentary of that text. The same sources attribute to Vasubandhu two other commentaries on *Ratnakūṭa* texts, namely, the *Amitābhavyūhaṭikā*

^{86.} Obermiller, 1931–32, i, p. 146.

^{87.} op. cit., i, p. 57.

^{88.} op. cit., i, p. 127 and n. 1192–1197 on p. 178.

^{89.} Warder (1980, p. 553) gives the title of this commentary as Mahāyānasamgrahopanibandhana (TTP 1598).

^{90.} Schuster (op. cit., p. 55, n. 123) believes that his motive was of a more mundane nature. She proposes that he wanted to have the Bdp available as propaganda fide. Knowing in advance that he would be given an opportunity to report about his extensive travels in foreign countries, he may have chosen to prepare an easily intelligible text of imposing dimensions which was previously unknown in China in order to impress the emperor. She argues that Hsüan-tsang must have been well aware that any of the other, more philosophically oriented, texts would have achieved just the contrary.

One wonders, however, why he had chosen a text of such an extraordinary length. He must have suspected that the interest and patience of the indifferent and increasingly ailing emperor would hardly suffice to absorb a text of such length. Other equally imposing but much shorter texts must have been amongst the over six hundred works that he acquired on his travels. Furthermore, it seems improbable that Hsüan-tsang resolved to translate a lengthy text of little interest to himself for mere propaganda purposes at a time when a large number of works of high personal interest were awaiting examination. The prospect of an audience with the emperor may have influenced the sequence in which he decided to translate the Indian manuscripts, but it seems unlikely to have determined the nature of the texts themselves.

^{91.} TTP 1523.

(T 1524) and the *Ratnacūḍabhāṣya* (T 1526). Paramārtha knows of yet another *Ratnakūṭa* commentary whose authorship he ascribes to Vasubandhu, this is, a commentary on the Śrīmālādevīsiṃhanāda.⁹²

Hsüan-tsang himself is known to have been a strong advocate of Yogācāra thought. Shortly after his return to China, he founded the Fa-hsiang school whose basic tenets are derived from the Yogācārabhūmi and other related works. Considering his personal interest in Yogācāra Buddhism, it seems plausible that he should choose to translate first those works which bore closest affinity to Yogācāra doctrines. Such a view is further supported when we recall the two instances where the term Bodhisattvapiṭaka appears in conjunction with the title Avataṃsaka, a collection of texts that is traditionally associated with the Yogācāra school. Moreover, if we accept the hypothesis that the list of sūtras found in the Mvy is based on some premeditated scheme, the listing of the Bdp next to the Avataṃsaka could be interpreted to reflect some connection between our sūtra and Yogācāra thinking.

In the absence of any conclusive evidence, it is helpful to turn once more to the Akn, or rather, to its commentary, the Akn- $t\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}$. On reading the Akn- $t\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}$, one discovers soon that it interprets the Akn from a Yogācāra standpoint. One meets repeatedly with concepts such as $\bar{a}layavij\bar{n}\bar{a}na$, $cittam\bar{a}trat\bar{a}$, $praj\bar{n}aptim\bar{a}trat\bar{a}$, $trisvabh\bar{a}va$ and $\bar{a}srayapar\bar{a}vrtti$ even though these concepts are not found in the $s\bar{u}tra$ itself. The author of the Akn- $t\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}$, whether it was Sthiramati or Vasubandhu (an issue that is not as yet resolved), regarded the Akn clearly as a work belonging to Yogācāra thought. In view of the close affiliation of the Bdp and Akn, this assumption warrants some consideration when discussing the scholastic affiliation of the Bdp. Furthermore, in chapter one of the Bdp we find recurring references to the term ab- $h\bar{u}taparikalpa$. The concept of $abh\bar{u}taparikalpa$ is closely associated with Yogācāra thought and figures predominantly in works attributed to the advocates of its philosophy.

Finally, I propose to return to the history of the Bdp and its position in the formation of the Mahāyāna. It has been argued by several scholars that the Akn belongs to the earliest strands of Mahāyāna literature.⁹⁵ The arguments cited most frequently in support of this view, are

^{92.} The authenticity of this reference is disputed. Wayman thinks that it is apocryphal, saying that it applies to comments in the *Buddhagotraśāstra* which is attributed in Paramārtha's Chinese translation of the *Buddhagotraśāstra* to Vasubandhu (Wayman, 1974, p. 7).

^{93.} In conjunction with 'skill' in the aggregates, we read for instance (p. 194.2.6 ff):

"The unwholesome aggregates are overcome by the change of basis (āśrayaparivṛtti) in the store-consciousness (ālayavijñāna) at the time of reaching enlightenment."

^{94.} R, folio 36.1, 43.7, 44.1 ff.

^{95.} Wayman, op. cit., p. 232.

based first on the contents of the Akn, second on its association with the Vkn^{96} (itself a very early text) and third, on its inclusion in the Li tai san pao chi catalogue⁹⁷, as having been translated by Lokakṣema in the second century AD. As I do not wish to repeat the argument in detail it should suffice to point out that so far no author has been able to bring forth any compelling evidence in support of the antiquity of the Akn other than circumstantial testimony. However, since the inferential grounds put forward are persuasive, I think it justifiable to accept the Akn's comparatively early date of composition—perhaps in the first or second century AD—as a working hypothesis.

Considering the nature of our findings about the relationship between the Akn and Bdp, such an early date for the Akn affects, of course, the dating of the Bdp; until now this has generally been held to be a rather late work. To some extent this was due to the late date of the Bdp's first Chinese translation, undertaken not before the middle of the seventh century AD. Other factors that were cited in support of this theory range from its alleged systematisation and use of comprehensive enumerations, including the presence of supposedly "fully matured Mahāyāna thinking" in its exposition. Although my reading of the Bdp has left me with a different impression, it is quite unnecessary to subscribe to a discussion of such difficult and subjective terms as 'maturity', 'comprehensiveness' or 'systematisation', since our analysis has provided us now with much more powerful evidence. If we accept the antiquity of the Akn, the terminus ad quem for the Bdp is pushed back from 645 AD (the date of Hsüan-tsang's translation) and 265–313 AD (the dating of the Lkdh's first translation) to the final quarter of the second century AD, the time when the Akn is reported to have been translated into Chinese.

Such early date of the *Bdp* would in many ways accord much better with the rather ill-organised, inconsistent internal structure of the *Bdp* and account for the rudimentary depiction that it gives of the bodhisattva career. In particular, it would validate my *mātṛka*-theory for the list of seventy-two kinds of learning that I proposed in my paper on the *Akn* and *Bdp*.

^{96.} Lamotte, op. cit., pp. lxxxvii; pp. 105, 197, 284.

^{97.} Bagchi, 1927, pp. 43, 91.

^{98.} Alex Wayman (op. cit., pp. 211–214) has further enlisted the rather uncommon use of the name Śāradvatīputra for the usual Śāriputra in support of the antiquity of the Akn.

^{99.} E.g., Schuster, op. cit., pp. 48, 51.

^{100.} This argument is rather weak, since we know of several other early and important Buddhist works that came only relatively late to the attention of the Chinese translation teams. The *Agama* and *Vinaya*, for instance, were all translated at a very late date (Demiéville, *L'Inde Classique*, ii, pp. 418-419).

^{101,} Schuster op. cit., pp. 48-51.

Undoubtedly, enumerations of this kind were particularly susceptible to change and expansion immediately after their compilation when the ideas they epitomised were still fluctuating. This last point applies to the Bdp's exposition as a whole. That is to say, the author of the Akn would surely have shown greater restraint in modifying the wording of the Bdp had he seen it to embody an advanced account of the bodhisattva doctrine. It is tempting to deduce—if only by implication—that the Bdp stood more at the beginning of this evolution. Assuming that the length of the Bdp as it is preserved today reflects its original size, its exposition of the bodhisattva must have served as the foundation to many of the later bodhisattva treatises. I shall demonstrate in chapter four when exploring the practices and doctrines that this assumption is indeed borne out by the Bdp's vision of the bodhisattva-ideal.

What is more, an early date of composition would also provide answers to a series of questions that, so far, have been resolved in an unsatisfactorily manner. It would account, for instance, for the references to a Bdp that are found in the Kp, Ug and Vkn—themselves amongst the earliest Mahāyāna texts. The physical format of the Bodhisattvapiṭaka they refer to is uncertain, but the fact that they associate it with the pāramitā, maitrī and bodhipākṣika dharma—all themes that are discussed at great length in the Bdp—possibly indicates a references to some early, composite version of the Bdp. We do not know what exactly happened to the individual component parts, but it is conveivable that at a later stage these were incorporated into the structures of the present Bdp. As I shall show, its organisation of content and chapter divisions would certainly allow for this possibility. It would also explain Hsüan-tsang's selecting the Bdp out of over six hundred texts for immediate translation. He was no doubt aware of its importance to the formulation of the bodhisattva ideal and so decided not only to record the place when he obtained it, but also to give it priority over all other texts in his translation work.

The Mahāratnakūta Collection

The Mahāratnakūṭa (hereafter Ratnakūṭa) collection comprises forty-nine sūtras of varying doctrinal orientation and literary affiliation. As a collection of Buddhist texts it is considered to be one of the most popular and important Mahāyāna works, along with the Buddhāvataṃsaka and Prajñāpāramitā sūtras. As for the date of its compilation there is a certain disagreement among modern scholars of Buddhism. The antiquity of many of the texts it contains, however, has been established beyond any doubt. The collection as it stands today has been preserved in Chinese and Tibetan translations with only a few texts extant in the original Hybrid Sanskrit and Middle Indo-Āryan Prakrit idiom.

The *sūtras* included in the *Ratnakūṭa* cover a wide range of Buddhist thought. Most of its forty-nine texts share a common interest in the bodhisattva path. Indeed, it is argueable that this shared concern with the proper execution of the bodhisattva practices occasioned their inclusion into one collection. Although a certain thematic unity is provided by the incorporation of almost all basic Mahāyāna concepts, a tone of heterogeneity prevails. It is this very heterogeneous nature that may reveal the compiler's intention of presenting a cross-section of Mahāyāna thought. One is left with the impression of a deliberatedly arranged overview of Mahāyāna doctrines.

By the time of its initial compilation the principal Mahāyāna tenets were evidently well-established in most of the Buddhist communities of northern India. Yet, some of the (earlier) Ratnakūṭa texts seem to derive their religio-philosophical message from what might be called the phase of transition between the early strata of Buddhist thought (fundamentally based on the teachings of the historical Buddha) and those introduced in later centuries. In many instances these early teachings are skilfully incorporated into the Mahāyāna frame of reference, thereby producing sūtras of great literary beauty.

The path and ideal of the bodhisattva are central to many of the works included in this collection. Some *sūtras* are wholly dedicated to the new ideal and provide detailed instructions on the pattern by which an aspiring bodhisattva should pursue his spiritual training. Other

^{102.} As a collection of texts it is also referred to as Ratnakūṭa, Mahāratnakūṭa, Mahāratnakūṭasūtra, Mahāratnakūṭa-dharmaparyāya or Mahāratnakūṭa-dharmaparyāyaśatasahāsrikā-grantha (Stael-Holstein, 1926, pp. vii-x).

texts integrate the teachings on the bodhisattva in an otherwise more philosophical exposition.

The lay and mendicant ideal are treated in a rather partisan fashion in a number of $s\bar{u}tras$. In many instances, the respective positions are put forward with great conviction. But judging by my own reading, both ideals are advocated with equal strength. On the one hand, some texts as our Bdp unequivocally propose a monastic, celibate environment as the only appropriate framework for the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$. On the other hand, there are numerous $s\bar{u}tras$ that place the bodhisattva ideal firmly within the reach of non-celibate layfolk. 103

The topical references to the bodhisattva path prompted several scholars to conclude with Friedrich Weller that "the ethics of the bodhisattva career is just what all the forty-nine texts of the *Ratnakūṭa sūtra* have in common" or with Schuster, "that it is this (common element), above all, which binds them together and gives them a recognisable identity" ¹⁰⁵.

In India, the title 'Ratnakūṭa' was initially associated with the Kp, a text that at present is included as Rkt 43. 106 The question arises concerning the grounds and the circumstances by which this title came to be applied to the entire collection. Sthiramati, the author of one of the major commentaries on Ratnakūṭa works 107 who is cited by both Bu-ston and Tāranātha offers the following explanation: "The title Ratnakūṭa was bestowed on the $s\bar{u}tra$ because this $Dharmapary\bar{a}ya$ comprehends all the jewels of the Mahāyāna". Then, Sthiramati lists sixteen Mahāyāna 'jewels' or virtues, for example, right conduct, and points to their presence in the Kp, calling it $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$. 108 The Kp, as the majority of other $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ texts, sets these virtues in the context of the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$ and so intrinsically relates them to the bodhisattva training. Similar lists are found in the Bdp, Ug, Rp and Bhadra-vy to mention only a few of the more well-known $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ works. In many instances, these lists are structured in such a

^{103.} Among the texts that belong to this second category figure most prominently the Śms (Rkṭ 49), Ug (Rkṭ 19), Aśokadattāvyākaraṇa (Rkṭ 32) and Gangottaraparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 31).

^{104.} Weller, 1965, p. 19.

^{105.} Schuster, op. cit., p. 36.

^{106.} Chinese catalogues list another text that includes the title Ratnakūṭa in its name. It is called Ratnakūṭasūṭra and was first translated into Chinese during the Eastern Han Dynasty in the second century AD. In the Taishō Tripiṭaka it is listed under the name of Buddhaśita-ratnakūṭasamādhi-mañjuśrī-bodhisattva-paripṛcchā-dharmakūṭasūṭra (T 356). It was retranslated at the beginning of the seventh century bearing the title Ratnakūṭasūṭra. Although it is not included among the forty-nine Ratnakūṭa works proper, it is nevertheless contained in the group of texts that the authors of the Taishō apparently considered to be related to the Ratnakūṭa (Lancaster, 1979, pp. 93–94).

^{107.} He is accredited with the composition of a work that, in the Chinese translations, bears the name Mahārat-nakūṭasūtra-śāstra (Stael-Holstein, 1926, p. xv). The Tibetan tradition refers to it as Ārya-mahāratnakūṭa-dharmaparyāya-parivarta-śatasāhasrika-kāśyapaparivarta-ṭikā (Schiefner, 1868, p. 131). Stael-Holstein has convincingly shown that this commentary refers only to Rkṭ 43 and not to the whole collection (op. cit., pp. xiv-xv).

^{108.} Stael-Holstein, op. cit., pp. 2-7.

way as to form groups of tetrads. Just as in other, predominantly early, Buddhist writings these tetrads served as mnemonic devices to facilitate the memorisation and recitation of complex texts. In the *Ratnakūta* the frequency of their reccurrence and their typical association with the *bodhisattvacaryā* suggests that they became also guidelines for a wide range of practical training aspects. It is therefore likely that, as Schuster says, "the name *Ratnakūta* originally referred to the teaching of the bodhisattva conduct, epitomised in series of tetrads ... for the edification of all those dedicated to the bodhisattva career"¹⁰⁹.

In order to convey some general idea of the principal doctrinal issues involved in the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ texts, I have drawn up a tabulated list of the most salient points discussed in the collection. This survey is not intended to provide a comprehensive analysis of all the forty-nine texts included, but aims to show the major interests and themes that are common to many $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ $s\bar{u}tras$.

Topics included in the content of the Ratnakūṭa literature:

- 1. Texts that discuss predominantly the nature, training and dangers associated with the lay-bodhisattva path: *Rkt* 16, 18, 19, 24, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 36, 38, 45, 47, 48.
- 2. Sūtras that propound the monastic environment as the preferable setting for a bodhisattva's training: Rkt 1, 12, 17, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 25, 43, 44, 45, 49.
- 3. Sūtras that focus in their discussion of the bodhisattva's training on the distinction between ordinary or worldly and transcendental morality: Rkt 3, 18, 19, 38, 41, 45, 47, 49.
- 4. Discourses containing *jātaka*-type accounts and similar tales: *Rkṭ* 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 37, 44.
- 5. Texts that include into their elaborations miraculous and magical elements such as charms or wonders: *Rkt* 3, 18, 21, 38, 43.

^{109.} Schuster, op. cit., p. 37.

^{110.} I am indebted to Nancy Schuster for suggestion of this type of tabulation.

- 6. Texts that elaborate on mythological buddha-fields and their buddhas: *Rkt* 1, 2, 5, 6, 13, 14, 15, 18, 47.
- 7. Sūtras that deal with caitya rituals, veneration of all buddhas or with vision of all buddhas: Rkt 1, 12, 15, 18, 19, 24, 25, 38, 43, 44.
- 8. Sūtras propounding the ideal of the female bodhisattva: Rkt 30, 31, 32, 33, 40, 48,

In addition, there are several *sūtras* that merit special attention because they contain important doctrinal discussions:

1. Trisamvaranirdeśaparivarta:

on the affliction of clinging to the belief in the

reality of the self.

3. Tathāgatācintyaguhyanirdeśa:

on self-sacrifice and the impermanence of the

body.

5. Sukhāvatīvyūha:

on the resolves of the bodhisattva Dharmākara

and the formation of his buddha-field.

6. Akṣobhyatathāgatasyavyūha:

on Akṣobhya's buddha-field, (mental) dispositions required for rebirth there, on stūpa cult and

on self-annihilation by one's own fire-element.

12. Bodhisattvapitaka:

the chief bodhisattva text of the entire collec-

tion; famous for its treatment of pāramitā,

jātaka accounts and āvenika dharma.

13. (Ā)nandagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa:

on rebirth, pregnancy and the notion of garbha.

14. Āyuşmannandagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa:

16. Pitāputrasamāgama:

on the virtues of meditation, the impermanence of the elements and the 'empty' nature of *dharma*.

17. Purnapariprechā:

on the cultivation of the bodhicitta, avaivartikacitta, kuśalamūla and abhijñā.

18. Rāṣṭrapālaparipṛcchā:

on the virtues of the monastic (bodhisattva) path, self-sacrifice and aspirations to enlightenment.

19. Ugrapariprechā:

on dāna as the foundation of the bodhisattva training, śūnyatā, the virtues of grhapti bodhisattvas and caitya worship.

21. Bhadramāyākāravyākaraņa:

on magic as a vehicle for the *upāya* of the Buddha and as a valid means for facilitating the comprehension of doctrinal matters.

24. *Upāliparipṛcchā*:

on serious misdeeds, the liturgy of the thirtyfive buddhas, the code of conduct for (*grhapti*) bodhisattvas and its disagreements with the code of conduct of śrāvaka.

25. Adhyāśayasamcodanasūtra:

on proper conduct for mendicant monks and recluses.

28. Vīradattaparipṛcchā:

a meditation manual for the bodhisattva, contem-

plation of the body and its vileness, (also known as Yogācārabhūmisūtra).

41. Maitreyaparipṛcchādharmāsta:

on the eight 'profound' dharma which are to be realised if bodhi is to be attained; it also deals with the cult of Maitreya.

43. Kāśyapaparivarta:

discussions of bodhisattva ethics, concepts of $\dot{s}\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a}ryagotra$ and $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$.

44. Ratnarāśisūtra:

elaborations on spirit and observance of monastic conduct, significance of the monastic robe and the spiritual benefits of forest life.

45. Akṣayamatiparipṛcchā:

on the significance of proper and genuine motivation for giving, the ten stages of bodhisattva, meditation, *dhāraṇī* explanations.

46. Saptaśatikaprajñāpāramitā:

a concise discussion on what is essentially prajñāpāramitā thought.

47. Ratnacūdapariprechā:

on the significance of mindfulness and the training thereof for both monks and lay-followers; it provides a detailed treatment of the bodhipākṣika and pāramitā.

48. Śrīmālādevīsimhanāda:

on the tathāgatagarbha doctrine, ekayāna doctrine, the (favourable) position of the lay spirituality in the Buddhist scheme of salvation. (Apparently one of the later sūtras in the collection).



49. Ŗṣīvyāsaparipṛcchā:

on forest-life, alms and dana.

The History of the Mahāratnakūṭa Collection

On the whole, rather little is known about the history of the *Ratnakūṭa* collection. Heeping with Buddhist tradition, each of the forty-nine texts is attributed to the Buddha. A brief prologue (*nidāna*) of the circumstances accompanying the formulation of the discourses is provided in their respective introductory sections. Thirty-five of the forty-nine *sūtras* are said to have been composed on either Mount Gṛdhrakūṭa, near Rājagṛha, or in the garden of Anāthapiṇḍada, in the Jeta Grove in the vicinity of Śrāvastī. Both locations are well known in Buddhist accounts and are frequently given as sites for the various sermons of the Buddha.

As for its original compiler, no reference is found in either the *sūtras* themselves or in the Chinese and Tibetan commentarial literature that would point to any specific person. None of the forty-nine texts contains any cross-references to the other texts included except for the unresolved references to the *Bdp*. Both Chinese and Tibetan sources point to a later date of compilation. It seems probable that the *Ratnakūṭa* collection as it is known to us, represents a rather later development of Buddhist literary activity. Yet, despite the fact that its compilation may have taken place as late as the early eighth century AD, many of the *sūtras* it comprises are of considerable antiquity and belong to the earliest strata of Mahāyāna Buddhism. This is evidenced by the doctrinal orientation of the texts in question and the early date of many of

^{111.} Considering the comprehensive nature of this collection and the antiquity of many of its texts it is rather surprising to discover how little scholarly attention it has so far attracted. Out of the total of forty-nine works only twelve have been the object of academic investigation. These are the Sukhāvativyūha, Rāṣṭrapā-laparipṛcchā, Kāṣṣapaparivarta, Saptaṣatikaprajñāpāramitā, Ratnarāṣi, Vinayaviniṣcaya-Upāliparipṛcchā, Ugraparipṛcchā, Śrīmālādevīṣimhanāda, Upāyakauṣalyaparivarta, Mañjuṣrībud-dhakṣetraguṇavyūha and Bhadrakārāvyākaraṇa. For details on the authorship, as well as the date and place of publication of the respective studies, see: Appendix iii. To date, the best discussion of the history of the Ratnakūṭa collection is found in: Schuster, 1976, pp. 1-42. Other useful material has been collected by Stanton-Pedersen (1980).

¹¹² Otani bKah-hgyur Catalogue, p. 231, n. 1 (folio 123a), where we are told that the (Tibetan translation of the) Ratnakūta collection was compiled on the basis of Indian originals, complemented by Khotanese and Chinese sūtras during the second half of the eighth century. In Taishō Daizōkyō (vol. 11, pp. 1b 20–2b 6; see: BTI, no. 28, p. 6), the early eighth century AD is given as the date of compilation of its Chinese translation.

their first Chinese translations.

The majority of sūtras included in the Ratnakūṭa collection are designated, according to their Sanskrit titles, questions (paripṛcchā) or elucidations (nirdeśa). Thirty-four of the forty-nine texts fall into these two categories. Of the remaining texts, six are called predictions (vyākaraṇa) or arrays (vyūha). Many of these texts are comparatively brief and resemble in structure the suttas of the Pāli nikāya. Often they are composed in a stereotyped question-and-answer format and lack the elaborations and grandeur of the more voluminous Mahāyāna vaipulya sūtras. The group of texts that contain the terms paripṛcchā and nirdeśa in their titles includes most of the sūtras translated into Chinese during the second and third centuries AD. 114

It is noteworthy that some of the works included in the *Ratnakūṭa* collection occur also as parts of other *vaipulya sūtras* (in the Chinese canon) or, by virtue of their content, are incorporated into other sections of the *Tripiṭaka*. The *Saptaśatikaprajñāpāramitā*, for instance, is a *prajñāpāramitā* text that is also found in the *Mahāprajñāpāramitā* Section of the Chinese canon (T 232). A translation of the *Ratnacūḍaparipṛcchā* (*Rcḍ*) is also included in the *Mahāsaṃnipāta* collection (T 397). Other texts, such as *Rkṭ* 1, 23, 24, and 44 bear strong resemblance to *Vinaya* texts. So, too, *Rkṭ* 13 and 14 exhibit close parallels to a section of the Mūlasarvāstivāda *Vinaya*. So, too, *Rkṭ* 13 and 14 exhibit close parallels to a section of the

In the Taishō Tripiṭaka, the bulk of the forty-nine Ratnakūṭa sūtras is followed by a large number of texts that were apparently considered to be closely related to the collection proper by Taishō compilers who base their opinions on older traditions (Ming, 1368–1644 AD). Among them are five translations of the Sukhāvatīvyūha (T 360–364), nine texts related to the themes found in the Sukhāvatīvyūha, such as the Smaller Sukhāvatīvyūha and the Amitāyurdhyāna (T 365–373), two translations of the Ratnakūṭa(samādhi)sūtra (T 355, 356), three versions of the Sarvabuddhaviṣayāvatārasūtra, as well as a few miscellaneous earlier translations of Ratnakūṭa works, such as the Akṣobhyatathāgatasyavyūha (T 313), Daśadharmakasūtra (T 314) and Mañjuśrībuddhakṣetraguṇavyūha.¹¹⁷ It therefore cannot be ruled out

^{113.} Several of its titles contain references to well known personalities from the nikāya. The best known examples are Ugra and Raṭṭhapāla (*Rkṭ* 18, 19). Others are addressed to figures who were among the very first converts of the Buddha at Vārāṇasī (*Rkṭ* 17, 26, 33).

^{114.} Bagchi, 1927, pp. 40-44, 86-114.

^{115.} Lancaster, 1979, p. 7.

^{116.} Lalou compares both versions with their corresponding passages found in the *Vinaya* section of the Tibetan Canon, noting divergencies between the three texts (Lalou, 1927, pp. 240–243).

^{117.} Lancaster, 1979, pp. 24-27

that, at some stage, the collection may have comprised more, or at least different, $s\bar{u}tras$ than those which are currently included.

The oldest (Chinese) translations of some of the Ratnakūta sūtras, according to the Taishō index, date back to the later years of the Eastern Han Dynasty (202 BC-AD 220). They are the Sukhāvatīvyūha (Rkṭ 5), Akṣobhyatathāgatasyavyūha (Rkṭ 6), Ug (Rkṭ 19), Maitreyapariprechādharmāṣṭa (Rkṭ 41) and Kp (Rkṭ 43). Records show that their translations were done between AD 150 and AD 185. Rkṭ 6, 19 and 43 are attested as Han translations by the oldest surviving catalogue of the Chinese Buddhist canon, the Ch'u san tsang chi chi of Seng-yu (T 2145), written in AD 515. A further seventeen to nineteen sūtras were rendered into Chinese between the fall of the Han (AD 220) and the fall of the Western Chin Dynasty in AD 317. Considering that three further sūtras among those which had already been translated during the Han Dynasty were retranslated within one hundred years, there must have been a sizeable interest among early Chinese translators in several of the Ratnakūṭa texts. 121

One of the main protagonists in this early translation period was a monk called Dharmarakṣa (AD 230–308). Born in Tun-huang of a Yueh-chih family, he was primarily active in Chang-an between AD 266 and 304. There, he translated at least thirteen *Ratnakūṭa sūtras*. Dharmarakṣa is not known to have travelled to India, but most of his translations are based on Sanskrit versions that he acquired in Central Asia. Although in the years following his death various translators continued to engage in the translation of *Ratnakūṭa* texts, there can be little doubt that in China the era of greatest interest in the collection was during Dharmarakṣa's lifetime. During the fourth and fifth centuries interest in *Ratnakūṭa* texts must have waned as

For a complete list of these texts see the respective entries in Appendix iii.

^{118.} Lancaster, 1979, pp. 27-34.

^{119.} Schuster, op. cit., p. 4; Link, 1958, p. 18.

^{120.} According to the *Ch'u san tsang chi chi*, the number is seventeen while the *Taishō Daizōkyō* lists nineteen texts whose earliest (Chinese) translations fall within this period (Lancaster, 1979, pp. 24–35).

^{121.} The Sukhāvatīvyūhasūtra was rendered into Chinese at least four more times, the Ug at least twice and the Kp once.

Dharmarakṣa dominated the Buddhist communities of his time at Tun-huang and Chang-an. He is accredited with the translation of over one hundred and fifty Buddhist texts, with the foundation of monasteries and with the propagation of Mahāyāna thought. Although born and educated in Tun-huang, he spent most of his time at Chang-an, the Chinese capital of that period. He remained there at work with a great number of disciples until he was driven out shortly before his death by invasions and warfare at the beginning of the fourth century AD (Demiéville, L'Inde Classique, p. 414; Shih, 1968, pp. 33–37).

^{123.} The Taishō Daizōkyō attributes the following sixteen Ratnakūta translations to Dharmarakṣa while others accredit him only with thirteen: Rta 3, 4 (?), 5 (?), 10, 13, 15, 19, 21, 30, 32, 33, 36, 37 (?), 38, 42 (?) and 47. Those marked with a question mark have been contested. For further details see: Renou, 1953, § 2074; Schuster, op. cit., p. 3, n. 14; Bagchi, 1927, pp. 83–114.

only a few texts are known to have been translated in that period. In all, twenty-two *Ratnakūṭa* had been rendered into Chinese by the end of the fifth century. No doubt, the frequency of their translation allows for inferences to be drawn about the importance that was assigned to these *sūtras* during the centuries when Mahāyāna Buddhism made major inroads into Chinese society.

The earliest reference in the Chinese canon to a Ratnakūṭa collection consisting of forty-nine sūtras dates back to the T'ang dynasty (AD 618–907). It gives an account of a South Indian Brahmin called Bodhiruci (AD 571–727) under whose supervision a team of translators edited and partly rendered the Ratnakūṭa into Chinese. On his arrival in China in AD 693, Bodhiruci is said to have been in possession of the Sanskrit originals. These texts came to form the foundation of the collection as it is known to us. At first, however, Bodhiruci's assistance was sought by Śikṣānanda who was then engaged in the translation of the Buddhāvataṃsaka (AD 695–698). Thus it was only in AD 706 that Bodhiruci set to work on the Ratnakūṭa. Out of a total of forty-nine sūtras Bodhiruci is accredited with the translation of twenty-six texts, apparently considering the remaining twenty-three (then extant) translations as being satisfactorily executed. The translations which he incorporated into his edition of the Ratnakūṭa had been translated by a total of fifteen scholars from different backgrounds over a period of more than four hundred years. Bodhiruci retranslated fifteen texts that had

^{124.} The number of texts cited in the *Taishō* index is higher. It lists twenty-six *Ratnakūṭa* translations that were undertaken in the second to the fifth centuries. However, this list does not seem to take into consideration duplicate translations. We are told of six translations of the *Ug* to have been completed by ca. AD 425, for instance, yet only three are extant and can be accounted for (Bagchi, 1927, p. 391).

^{125.} The *Ta pao chi ching* (in the *Taishō Shinshū Daizōkyō* edition of the Chinese *Tripiṭaka*, ed. by J. Takakusu et al., no. 310 in vol. 11, p. 1a 1-659a 27) contains an Imperial preface (hsu) by Jui-tsung dated AD 713 (p. 1a 1-b 19). It refers to a collection of forty-nine sūtras called *Pao chi pu (Ratnakūṭa* section) which have been translated between AD 706 and 713 by a team of translators led by a certain Bodhiruci (BTI, 28, pp. 5-6).

^{126.} There is agreement among Buddhist scholars that by the time Bodhiruci arrived in China a *Ratnakūṭa* collection of some form must have been in existence in India. Wayman writes that "Bodhiruci, a native of South India, who arrived in China in AD 693 ... brought with him the Sanskrit text of the *Ratnakūṭa* collection of individual Mahāyāna sūtras" (Wayman, 1974, p. 9).

Lü Ch'eng (1971) goes even further, stating that "Bodhiruci had brought to China a new (sic.) Sanskrit text of this [Ratnakūta] sūtra" and that "he took advantage of the special structure of the Mahāratnakūta sūtra ... making suitable adjustments in compiling and translating it". Unfortunately, Lü Ch'eng does not document such an important statement by referring to his sources. In any event, he seems to be suggesting that on Bodhiruci's arrival in Loyang he was already in possession of a well-structured collection of forty-nine Sanskrit texts which he then improved and rendered into Chinese. He does not say whether at that time the collection already bore the name under which it came to be known or whether it differed significantly from Bodhiruci's edition. He also does not speak about the circumstances of its origin. See: Bagchi, 1938, pp. 541–543.

^{127.} From among the already existing translations he selected the following works which included in his edition: *Rkt*, 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 23, 26, 32, 33, 36, 38, 39, 46, 47, 44.

^{128.} For their names and biographical data, see my notes in Appendix iii.

apparently been badly done or were incomplete, and rendered for the first time into Chinese eleven texts that had so far not been translated. Thus he cast the collection into the form in that it exists today. ¹²⁹ He received the official request to engage in the translation of the *Ratnakūṭa* in AD 706 from the Emperor Chung-tsung. Supported by a team of assistant scholars of largely Indian origin, he was able to report on the completion of his task after seven years in AD 713.

The Tibetan Buddhist tradition appears to have modelled its version(s) of the *Ratnakūṭa* collection on that of Bodhiruci. The overall arrangement in all Tibetan editions corresponds closely to the structure of the Chinese version. Several of the *sūtras* included in the *dKon-brtsegs* (*Ratnakūṭa*) section appear to have been translated directly from the Chinese, thus giving further testimony to a close relationship between the Sino-Tibetan literary traditions. The vast majority of the Tibetan translations, however, are based on Sanskrit originals. Many of them had already been translated during the so called 'first diffusion' of the Buddhist faith in Tibet (AD 641–838) and were revised and rearranged at a later date into a collection of forty-nine texts.

When we consider the number of sūtras included in the various Tibetan editions of the Ratnakūṭa and their respective listing in the catalogues we find certain minor differences. The Ratnakūṭa version of sDe-dge edition seems to correspond most closely to the collection as compiled by Bodhiruci. It too lists forty-nine sūtras and the sequence of the texts is identical with those of the Chinese Ratnakūṭa. The Peking and sNar-than editions, by contrast, contain irregularities. Although both of them comprise the forty-nine texts found in Bodhiruci's edition, they do not agree in their sequence. 131

^{129.} Bodhiruci's translation of the forty-ninth parivarta, the Rṣivyasaparipṛcchā, breaks off abruptly shortly before the end. Roughly three hundred characters (tzu) are missing (ref. Schuster). The missing passages are easily restored from an earlier, still surviving, translation of the text in question (T 354). The question, however, remains whether this omission is simply the result of (accidental) mishandling, or whether it reflects a sudden change of mood in the minds of the royal sponsors. Clearly, after AD 716 the atmosphere at the court became more adverse to the translation efforts of possibly too ambitious monk-scholars. In AD 717, for instance, Subhākarasiṃha's request for royal support in his translation of Sanskrit Dhāraṇī texts was silently rejected by the emperor.

^{130.} At least seven of the forty-nine texts had been translated directly from the Chinese.

The sNar-than edition of the Tibetan Tripitaka refers to the Varmavyūhanirdeśa (Rkṭ 7), (Ā)nandagarbhā-vakrāntinirdeśa (Rkṭ 13) and Dārikāvimalaśraddhāpariprechā (Rkṭ 40) to have been translated by Chos-grub (Fa-cheng) directly from the Chinese. Recent research has established that the Raśmisamantamuktanirdeśa (Rkṭ 11), Āyuṣmannandagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa (Rkṭ 14), Pūrṇapariprechā (Rkṭ 17) and Vidyut(prāpta)pariprechā (Rkṭ 20) are also based on Chinese sources (Sakurabe, "Tibetto-yaku Dai-Hoshaku-kyo no Kenkyū", Otani Gakuho, 11, p. 550).

^{131.} Six sūtras are in particular affected: the (Ā)nandagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa (Rkṭ 13), Āyuṣmannanadagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa (Rkṭ 14), Pūrṇaparipṛchā (Rkṭ 17), Rāṣṭrapālaparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 18), Ratnarāśi (Rkṭ 44) and Aksayamatiparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 45). In both editions their position in the overall scheme of the collection

Lalou pointed to three further documents that exhibit irregularities concerning the composition of the Tibetan *Ratnakūṭa*.¹³² First, there is the table of contents of the Peking *bKaḥ-ḥgyur* which records only forty-four texts as belonging to the *Ratnakūṭa*. Second, there is a *bKaḥ-ḥgyur* manuscript held in the Königlichen Bibliothek zu Berlin which cites only forty-seven *sūtras*.¹³³ Third, there is the catalogue of the 'Lhan-dkar collection' commissioned by Khri-gtsugs-lde-brtsan (815–838 AD). According to its table of contents, as preserved in the Peking edition, the *Saptaśatikaprajñāpāramitā* (*Rkṭ* 46) is not part of the *Ratnakūṭa* collection, but belongs to the *Prajñāpāramitā* Section.¹³⁴ Despite such anomalies, the actual number of texts included in all editions of the Tibetan canon is forty-nine.

The history of the collection prior to Bodhiruci has not been subject to any systematic research. Uncertainty prevails with regard to the date, place and historical circumstances in which the *Ratnakūṭa* collection may have been shaped. The source material can be grouped into four major working categories. First, there is a sizeable body of Chinese translations of Indian Buddhist writings, including some indigenous exegical material. Second, there are Buddhist texts of Indian origin, usually in their original Hybrid Sanskrit idiom. Third, there are Tibetan translations of Sanskrit texts, commentarial and historical documents. Finally, there exists a small, but potentially significant, group of (fragmented) miscellaneous works of Khotanese, Singhalese and South Indian origin.

Chinese Sources

The earliest reference to a collection of sūtras bearing the name Mahāratnakūṭa is contained in the Daśabhūmikavibhāṣāśāstra (Dbh-v), a commentarial work traditionally ascribed to Nāgārjuna. No Sanskrit or Tibetan versions of the text are known to exist. The only Chinese translation extant was done by Kumārajīva between AD 402 and 415, entitled Shih chu p'i

differs. While in the sNar-than edition the (\bar{A}) nandagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa follows upon the \bar{A} yuṣmannandagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa, the \bar{R} aṣṭrapālaparipṛcchā upon the \bar{P} ūrṇaparipṛchā and the \bar{A} kṣayamatiparipṛcchā upon the \bar{R} atnarāśisūtra, the reverse order is found in the Peking edition.

^{132.} Lalou, 1927, p. 237.

^{133.} See: Hermann Beckh. "Verzeichnis der Tibetischen Handschriften". Die Handschriften-verzeichnisse der Königlichen Bibliothek zu Berlin, xxiv, 1914, pp. 16–25.

^{134.} TTP, 127, fol. 352a–373a (item no. 25–72; ref. Lalou)
Lalou. "Les texts Bouddhiques au Temps du Roi Khri-sron-lde-bcan". JA, 241, 1953, pp. 320–21.

p'o sha lun. 135 Here a reference is made to a chapter (hui) of the Ratnakūṭa, called Kāśyapa-parivarta. 136 It also cites a text called Akṣayamatiparipṛcchā as belonging to the same collection. Another reference to an Akṣayamatiparipṛcchā as forming a part of a Ratnakūṭa is found in the Chinese rendering of the Mahāprajñāpāramitāśāstra (Mppś). 137 Both works are contained in Bodhiruci's edition of the Ratnakūṭa collection, occupying the forty-third and forty-fifth position respectively. In addition, Japanese scholarship has shown that quotations in the Dbh-v from the Ug and the Vimaladattaparipṛcchā correspond to texts contained in the Ratnakūṭa under the same names (Rkṭ 19 and Rkṭ 33 respectively). 138 Also, the twelfth sūtra of the Ratnakūṭa, the Bdp, is quoted in the Dbh-v. All this suggests that Kumārajīva was aware of some Ratnakūṭa collection. Since both works were produced in Kucha, such a collection was probably available in Central Asia. If we allow some time for the process of transmission, this evidence suggests the existence of a Ratnakūṭa collection during the fourth century AD. Yet very little can be said about its structure and content, except that it included the Kp and Akṣayamatiparipṛcchā and possibly the Bdp, Ug and Vimaladattaparipṛcchā. 139

^{135.} T 1521.

^{136.} This way of reference to the individual sūtras of the Ratnakūṭa collection was subsequently adopted by Bodhiruci. In the place of sūtra (ching), he employed the term hui meaning assembly (or section, chapter), probably because he perceived the individual sūtras as forming a part in an overall scheme. This usage contrasts the terminology employed by the authors in the translations of individual sūtras executed in the preceding centuries. Here, as a rule, the term ching meaning sūtra is applied. Indeed, Kumārajīva's rather unusual terminology could be taken to indicate that by the late fourth century AD some of the previously unassociated Ratnakūṭa sūtras had become a part of an overall structure.

^{137.} Mppś, pp. 1245, 1272, 1762.

^{138.} Kajiyama, Y. 1968, p. 197; Hirakawa, A. 1963, p. 98.

^{139.} In the light of its importance for illuminating the earliest known literary form of our collection a closer examination of the history of the *Dbh-v* (T 1526) seems appropriate. It has already been mentioned that its authorship was ascribed to Nāgārjuna by Kumārajīva. Modern scholarship has cast some doubts on its authenticity since the ideas put forward do not seem to correspond to those normally associated with Nāgārjuna.

This fact was for the first time highlighted in an influential article published by A. Hirakawa in 1957 (*IBK* 5, 2, pp. 504 ff) where he challenges the claim of authenticy. Lamotte, on the other hand, holds the view that it has been composed by the founder of Madhyamaka thought (see: Lamotte, *op. cit.*, p. xcvii). Ruegg, a well-known authority on Madhyamaka literature, takes a more cautious position by pointing to the need of further detailed research on this matter (see: Ruegg, 1982, p. 29, n. 67).

A number of Chinese sources clearly accredit this work to the founder of the Madhyamaka. In the Chinese translation of the Suvikrāntavikrāmapariprechā Prajñāpāramitāsūtra, for instance, it is listed among the works attributed to Nāgārjuna (cf. Hikata, R., 1958, pp. lii, sq. lxxii sq where it is mentioned along with the Mūlamadhyamakakārikā, Ta-chi-tu-lun and Bodhisaṃbhāraśāstra). Chinese catalogues include it under the title of P'u sa hui kuo ching amongst the texts of Nāgārjuna allegedly translated by Dharmarakṣa between AD 265 and 313 at Chang-an (Bagchi, 1927, i, p. 100).

Lamotte (op. cit., p. xcvii) points to passages in the Ch'u san tsang chi chi (T 2145, ch. 2, p. 8b 17), a commentarial work composed in the first half of the sixth century, and the Li tai san pao chi (T 2034, ch. 6, p. 63a 23) both of which note the translation and remark: "The colophon says that it is an extract from the Daśabhūmikavibhāṣāṣāsastra of Nāgārjuna" (trsl. Lamotte). In any event, the fact that one of the translations of the Dbh-v is firmly accredited to Dharmarakṣa highlights the possibility that it was extant as early as the third, or possibly the second century AD. This suggests a new, as yet hypothetical, terminus ad quem for the existence of our collection.

The first reference to the Ratnakūṭa as being established amongst the major Buddhist scriptures is found in the Li tai san pao chi. Here we read how the Gandharan translator Jñānagupta (arrival in Chang-an in AD 559) relates that the following twelvefold division of Buddhist scriptures was established in the south-east of the country of Che-chu-chia (modern day Karghalik): the Mahāsaṃnipāta, Avataṃsaka, Vaipulya, Ratnakūṭa, Laṅkāvatāra, Lalitavistara, Śāriputradhāraṇī, Puṣpakūṭadhāraṇī, Tuṣāragarbha, Mahāprajñāpāramitā, Prajñāpāramitā in eight sections and Mahāmeghasūtra. This division places the Ratnakūṭa (collection) alongside the titles of other well-known major works. Jñānagupta's account not only suggests a Ratnakūṭa collection in some form as early as the beginning of the sixth century, but also allows for inferences about its geographical area of circulation.

The first reference before the times of Bodhiruci that points to a *Ratnakūṭa* collection of considerable length and popularity is found in the biographies of Hsüan-tsang. On New Year's Day in AD 664, he is said to have been approached by a group of scholar-monks who requested him to translate the *Ratnakūṭa* collection. He declined on the grounds that the collection was as long as the voluminous *Mahāprajñāpāramitāsūtra* (T 220), whose translation he had just completed. At his advanced age he saw little prospects of mustering the strength required to complete such a formidable task. He eventually opened his manuscript after repeated appeals and began to translate a few lines, only to resign a few minutes later. 143

Three conclusions can be drawn from this account. First, some forty years before Bodhiruci's

A major problem is the reliability of our sources when they comment on events which took place several centuries before their compilation. The *Ch'u san tsang chi chi*, composed between AD 502 and 557 by Seng-yu, writes about events which reportedly took place two hundred and fifty years earlier. This time-span is even greater in the case of the *Li tai san pao chi* which was compiled by Fei Ch'ang-fang in AD 597. See T 2154–537a:27 and T 2154–624:16 respectively (Lancaster, 1979, p. 366).

One cannot assert with certainty whether the version translated by Dharmarakşa in the third century AD was identical with that rendered into Chinese by Kumārajīva one hundred and fifty years later. As Lancaster says, Sanskrit manuscripts had the tendency to undergo considerable changes in the course of their history, reflecting doctrinal shifts in emphasis which mark all living religious traditions (Lancaster, 1975, pp. 32 ff.). Furthermore, Kumārajīva is known to have interpolated his translations frequently with his own thoughts without indicating such course of action (Hikata, 1958, pp. lii–ixxxiii; Link, 1961, p. 89; Lamotte, 1973, pp. 41–49). Therefore to conclude that the references contained in Kumārajīva's translation must have been included already in Dharmarakṣa's version lacks the desired foundation. Nevertheless, interesting possibilities are suggested.

^{140.} T 2034 (ref. Stanton-Pedersen).

^{141.} The titles of the texts have been conjectured from the Chinese sources by Stanton-Pedersen. Nanjio's catalogue contains a work called Śāriputradhāraṇī (N. 353). I have not been able to locate a Puṣpakūṭadhāraṇī or Tuṣāragarbha in any of the catalogues.

^{142.} See: Waley, 1952, p. 126; Bagchi, 1927–38, ii, pp. 542–543. Stanton-Pedersen, 1980, p. 64, cites the following Chinese sources as containing the complete account: *Ta-t'ang-ku-san-tsang-Hsüan-tsang-fa-shih-hsing-chuang* (T 2052, vol. 50, p. 219a), and *Ta-tz'u-en-ssu-san-tsang-fa-shih-ch'uan* (T 2053 vol. 50, p. 276c).

^{143.} See *Ta-tz'u-en-ssu-san-tsang-fa-shih-ch'uan* (T 2053, vol. 50, pp. 236a, 254a and 258a, ref. Schuster, *op. cit.*, p. 22; cf. Mochizuki, 1954, pp. 3418a, 25b, 26).

translation Chinese scholar-monks knew of the existence of the *Ratnakūṭa* collection of a length comparable to that of the *Mahāprajñāpāramitāsūtra*. This raises the possibility that by then it already comprised many of the texts presently included in the *Ratnakūṭa*. Second, the *Ratnakūṭa* must have had great renown. Otherwise would such a venerated but aged *Tripiṭaka* master have been selected for the task of translating it at a time when other capable translators were at hand? Third, Hsüan-tsang seems to have been in possession of some Sanskrit version of the *Ratnakūṭa*, presumably brought from India.

Unfortunately, neither Hsüan-tsang's biographers nor his Si-yu-ki mention the place where Hsüan-tsang might have procured the Ratnakūta texts. Only the acquisition of the Bdp is recorded. He received this text in the monastery of Shih-fei-to-pu-lo (Śvetapura), located on the river Ganges some eighty to one hundred li south of Vaiśālī. About the monastery and its inhabitants he reports that it was inhabited by Mahāyāna monks who paid close allegiance to the spirit and letter of both the Dharma and Vinaya.¹⁴⁴

Of all six hundred and fifty works he brought home, the *Bdp* is one of the few texts that Hsüan-tsang gave details about the place and circumstances of its acquisition. It was also among the few texts that he chose to translate immediately on his return to China. Clearly, this suggests that he either held the *Bdp* personally in high esteem, or that it must have enjoyed great renown in India or, locally, in Svetapura monastery.¹⁴⁵

The texts that Hsüan-tsang brought from India but remained untranslated at his death (AD 664) were deposited in the Tzu-en temple in Chang-an. Their translation was held in abeyance after the master's death. If our sources are correct, a copy of the *Ratnakūṭa* collection, or at

^{144.} Li Yung-hsi, 1959, p. 98 and Beal, 1981, pp. 75,76.

^{145.} His travel account, commissioned by the Emperor, does not contain any indications that Hsüan-tsang was aware of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* as forming a part of an overall collection, although his knowledge of a collection of texts bearing the name *Ramakūṭa* is recorded in his biography, in connection with his translation attempt in AD 664, twenty years after his return from India. The time elapsed between these two events prompted Schuster to speak about the possibility whether "the compilation of the *Ratnakūṭa* in forty-nine sections might not have been accomplished in China between AD 645 and 664, by putting together forty-nine texts from among the six hundred odd which Hsüan-tsang had brought with him from India".

She concedes that this leaves us with several other problems. First, the collection's Chinese origin seems irreconcilable with the (Chinese) account of Bodhiruci bringing a complete copy of the *Ratnakūta* from India in AD 693. Second, how likely is it that Hsüan-tsang knew of the precise extent of Dharmarakṣa's translation activity at Chang-an between AD 265 and 308? Without such knowledge he could have hardly matched up his selection with those thirteen *Ratnakūta* texts Dharmarakṣa had rendered into Chinese four hundred years earlier and leave out those texts he could not correlate with the Indian manuscripts in his possession. Is it really conceivable that the scrupulous Hsüan-tsang, who went to such lengths in order to acquaint himself with genuine Indian Buddhism, conspired to create a new collection of *sūtras*? Acceptance this theory means that one would have to discount the evidence provided by the Tibetan Buddhist tradition that points to an Indian origin of a (basic) *Ratnakūta* collection. I think that we can thus safely rule out the possibility of Hsüan-tsang's compilership of the *Ratnakūta*.

least large parts of it, would have been kept in the Tzu-en temple from 665 AD onwards. ¹⁴⁶ As I already observed, Chinese traditions maintain that on his arrival in China Hsüan-tsang had the entire collection in Sanskrit in his possession. However, no reference is made at any point to its structure or contents, nor are there indications of what happend to his Sanskrit collection after it had been deposited in the Tzu-en temple in our sources. If the Chinese traditions are correct, then by AD 630–644 (Hsüan-tsang's period of travel) there must have been in some part of India a literary tradition associated with the *Ratnakūṭa* collection, perhaps even as it stands today. Schuster says that Bodhiruci's biographer makes it sound as if he might have been requested to bring a full copy with him to the Chinese capital. ¹⁴⁷ If credence is to be given to this account, we may infer that by the late seventh-century Hsüan-tsang's *Ratnakūṭa* Sanskrit version was either not available to the court translators, or that it had never been a complete one.

Indian Sources

The other major category of sources relevant to our research are, of course, the texts belonging to the Indian Buddhist tradition. These consist in the following (fragmented) Sanskrit versions of Ratnakūṭa texts: Sukhāvatīvyūha(Rkṭ 5), Mañjuśrībuddhakṣetraguṇavyūha (Rkṭ 15), Rp (Rkṭ 18), Vinayaviniścaya-Upālipariprechā (Rkṭ 24), Kp (Rkṭ 43), Ratnarāśisūtra (Rkṭ 44) and Saptaśatikaprajñāpāramitā (Rkṭ 46)¹⁴⁸. Since these works represent but a small fraction of the total body of the collection, by themselves they do not provide much ground to assess the manner of the collection's formation or its date of compilation.

Besides these seven works, a number of quotations of *Ratnakūṭa* works have been preserved in later Buddhist literature. Most of them are contained in the Śikṣ and Msl. 149 Other short

^{146.} There are several other recorded cases where the scriptures of deceased Chinese scholar-travellers were deposited in local temples for safe-keeping. One such account tells of the texts that Wu-ching collected in India towards the end of the seventh century. After his death—he never reached his homeland as he died on the journey from Northern India—these were brought by his disciples to the Hua-yan temple. There, they were taken up in AD 716 by Subhakarasimha for study. No such resumption of study of Hsüan-tsang's material is known to have taken place (Hodge. *The Buddhist Forum*. forthcoming, pp. 9–10).

^{147.} Schuster, op. cit., p. 13.

^{148.} Almost all of these texts have already been the object of detailed studies. For the authorship, date and place of publication, see Appendix iii.

^{149.} Seventeen out of the total of forty-nine works are referred to by name and quoted in these two texts. No mentioning, however, is made by either Asanga or Santideva of them as belonging to any kind of a collection (Siks, p. 367-371; Msl, p. 165).

quotations of Ratnakūta texts are contained in the Ratnagotravibhāga, ¹⁵⁰ in Prajñākaramati's commentary on the Bodhicaryāvatāra, ¹⁵¹ in Candrakīrti's Prasannapadā¹⁵² and in the Buddhagotraśāstra attributed to Vasubandhu. ¹⁵³ While these quotations are valuable from the philological point of view, they do not reveal any information on the history or structure of the collection as a whole. The exception to this is possibly the Śikṣ. It contains a large number of quotations from the Ratnakūṭa taken from a total of fifteen texts. Although Śāntideva does not associate them with any overall collection, the mere fact that they are frequently referred to en bloc in doctrinally related contexts suggests that he was probably aware of their interconnection. However, we must conclude that the Ratnakūṭa was not widely known in India since he does not refer to them as being part of an established collection.

In the past there has been some confusion with regard to the origin of some of his quotations from the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$. In seven instances the $Sik\bar{s}$ says that they were taken from a work called $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$. Initially, this reference was taken to mean that Santideva was aware of a collection of that name on which he drew for canonical quotations. Baron von Stael-Holstein corrected this misunderstanding at the beginning of the twentieth century. He positively established that all quotations referred to by Santideva as belonging to the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ were taken from a work which was known already to the Tibetan translators as the Kp. 155

Due to Śāntideva's way of referring to the Kp, it is up to the present day that it is frequently referred to as the 'old $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ '. Despite having given rise to some confusion, Śāntideva's usage of the title $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ throws light on the role played by the Kp in the history of the collection. Frequently, the Kp is taken to have formed the nucleus of the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ collection.

^{150.} The quotations contained in the *Ratnagotravibhāga* are primarily taken from the Śms. They have been collected, arranged in the order of their appearance and published by Ui, H. in *Hoshoron kenkyū*, 1959, Tokyo.

^{151.} La Vallée Poussin, 1901–1914, pp. 147, 153–4, 526, 527.

¹⁵² La Vallée Poussin, 1913, pp. 53.7-54.4, 121.4-122.2, 155.1-12, 191.2-9, 234.10, 256.12-258.5, 348.14-349.2, 408.10-409.6, 429.4-430.4, 474.7-10.

^{153.} Stanton-Pedersen, 1980, p. 62. The text most frequently cited is here the *Kp*. For an array of references to the *Kp* in Mahāyāna sources, see: *Mppś*, pp. 1845–6.

^{154.} See, for instance, Śikṣ, pp. 54.11–14, 55.3–5. There we read: "...how this comes to pass is described in the *Ratnakūṭa*" or "the way to avoid the loss of the thought of enlightenment is still more clearly set forth in this same work, the *Ratnakūṭa*" (other references are found at pp. 52.12, 58.17, 146.4, 148.8, 196.11).

^{155.} Stael-Holstein, 1926, p. xvi.

The Tibetan equivalent of the title Kāsyapaparivarta is hphags pa hod sruns kyi lehu zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo.

^{156.} Japanese scholars, in particular, seem to favour this term. In Bodhiruci's edition, this work has been retitled Samantaprabhāsabodhisattvapariprechā. Apparently this alteration was made in order to avoid confusion with the Mahākāsyapasangītisimhanāda, Rkt 23 in the Ratnakūta collection.

Śāntideva's mode of reference (also adapted by the *Msl*) seems to support such a view. Starting from such an assumption, the *Kp* would have become already at an early stage a kind of doctrino-literary 'flagship' of the entire collection. In fact, large sections of it give a well-balanced doctrinal cross-section of *Ratnakūṭa* thought. As a literary document it is undoubtedly worthy of the title *Ratnakūṭa* ('accumulation of jewels'). A similar development seems to have occurred in other collections. One only needs to reflect on the role of the *Aṣṭa* among the many texts that comprise the *Prajñāpāramitā* literature. Chronologically, an early version of the *Kp* might well have been among the first texts to be included in the *Ratnakūṭa* as it was among the very first texts to be translated into Chinese.

Tibetan Sources

Tibetan sources are of minor importance for research into the history of the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$. Although the meticulously executed translations of the forty-nine $s\bar{u}tras$ are invaluable for determining the respective doctrinal positions, they yield little relevant data on the historical processes that shaped the collection as a whole.

Of far greater interest are the accounts composed by the Tibetan historians Bu-ston and Tāranātha. In his *Chos-hbyun*, Bu-ston observes that though the *Ratnakūṭa* consisted originally of one hundred thousand chapters, only forty-nine were still extant at his time. Since he makes similar remarks on almost all other major Mahāyāna scriptures, claiming that in their present form they represent only a fraction of their 'original' size, caution should be exercised about the historical value of his statement. It seems likely that the motivation behind his statement was a pious wish to exalt Buddhist scriptural heritage rather than scholarly exactitude.

Bu-ston and Tāranātha's descriptions of the circumstances in which the 'one hundred thousand books' came to be known are of greater significance. The books are said to have first appeared at the time of the Third Buddhist Council organised by King Kaniska at around

^{157.} See, in particular, Kp, pp. 50-68, 92-100.

^{158.} In the Aśokāvadāna, we read of an island called Ratnakūta. The location of this place is of course not known. According to this legend it is reached via the Magadha port of Tāmralipti (Przyluski, 1923, p. 104).

^{159.} Stael-Holstein, 1926, p. iii; Tao-hsüan (*Ta t'ang nei tien lu*, T 2149–223c: 18) according to whom it was first translated in AD 179 by Lokakşema.

^{160.} Obermiller, 1931–32, p. 169 (ref. Schuster).

AD 100 in Kashmir. 161 The same sources inform us that the diminution of the collection to its present forty-nine texts took place in the years between the life-times of Mātrceta (second century AD) and Asanga (AD 290–350) "in a period when Buddhism endured a general decline in northern India". So far I have not been able to locate any third-party accounts which would confirm these details. Bu-ston and Tāranātha do not cite their sources. Existing archeological evidence and historical accounts contain little to indicate that there was a general decline in the fortunes of the Sangha during the second and fourth centuries. 162 And yet, if credence is given to their reports, one would have to place the origin of our collection in India, in the early centuries AD.

Elsewhere in the same source Bu-ston relates that "this teacher (Sthiramati) has studied the *Ratnakūṭa* up to the forty-ninth chapter and composed a commentary on it." A similar statement is contained in Tāranātha's account. The commentary in question has been preserved in both the Tibetan and Chinese Buddhist traditions. Frauwallner, in his brilliant article "Landmarks in the History of Indian Logic", places the dates of Sthiramati between AD 510 and 570. Frauwallner, and 570. Apparently, we have here a reference that places the dates of an Indian version of our collection as early as the fifth century AD.

Again, a more cautious approach seems to be in order if we consider the following factors. First, as mentioned above, when Sthiramati and other Indian Buddhists mention or quote from the Ratnakūṭa they usually refer to the Kp. Second, the compilers of the Mvy appear to have been unaware of a collection of texts called Ratnakūṭa. Although they enumerate as independent sūtras fourteen of the texts contained in Bodhiruci's edition, they do not mention them as being part of a collection. Third, the catalogue of the sDe-dge edition of the Tibetan Tripiṭaka explicitly states that the Ratnakūṭa collection, consisting of forty-nine

^{161.} Obermiller, 1931-32, pp. 169, 170; Schiefner, 1868, pp. 63, 98.

^{162.} La Vallée Poussin. Dynasties et Histoire de l'Inde depuis Kanishka jusquax invasions musulmanes. Paris: 1935, pp. 7-71. Renou; Filliozat. L'Inde Classique. i, pp. 237-256.

^{163.} Obermiller, 1931-32, ii, p. 148.

^{164.} Schiefner, 1868, p. 130.

^{165.} Chinese: (T 1523), translated by Bodhiruci (the younger) between AD 508 and 535; Tibetan: TTP 5510.

^{166.} WZKSO, 5, 1961, pp. 136-137.

^{167.} WZKSO, 1968-69, pp. 194-199.

^{168.} Mvy 1355 (Rkt 3), 1330 (12), 1381 (15), 1333 (16), 1361 (18), 1396 (19), 1393 (26), 1407 (28), 1394 (37), 1364 (43), 1400 (45), 1391 (46), 1363 (47), 1392 (49).
In the Mvy, a work called Ratnakūta is listed in position thirty-nine (Mvy 1364). There is, however, no evidence indicating that the authors may have associated this sūtra with our collection.

works, was compiled by putting together sūtras from India, China and Khotan. It seems that both Bu-ston and Tāranātha formulated their statements about the Ratnakūṭa on the grounds of a misinterpretation of Sthiramati's usage of the term Ratnakūṭa.

The majority of Tibetan texts included in the *Ratnakūṭa* were translated during the first half of the ninth century. They were translated by translation teams that often comprised Sanskrit scholars from India, Bactria and Tibet working together, using Indian manuscripts. Apparently they did not hesitate to consult Central Asian or even Chinese copies of the text in questions in the event of doubt.¹⁷⁰

Many of these scholars participated also in the compilation of the Mvy. Written prior to the translation-work proper, the Mvy does not contain a complete list of the sūtras that, in due course, came to form the bKaḥ-ḥgyur. Among the sūtra titles included there is a long list of works that form part of the present Ratnakūṭa collection. Interestingly, there appears to be far reaching agreement between the list contained in the Mvy and those found in the Indian Buddhist Sanskrit literature of the eighth century AD. In the Śikṣ, for instance, we find thirteen of the fifteen Ratnakūṭa works that occur in the Mvy. Of these thirteen, eleven are also mentioned by Bu-ston in his Chos-hbyun, ten of which appear also in the Mvy.

A great number of texts common to both the Śikṣ and Mvy are also found among the Tibetan documents of Tun-huang. Altogether, these manuscripts contain twenty fragments of Ratnakūṭa sūtras. In a few instances, entire texts have been preserved while in others little more than a brief citation or a reference in the colophon is extant. Ten of these texts concur with those quoted by Śāntideva while six accord with the Ratnakūṭa sūtras enumerated in the Mvy. The selection of the texts itself does not seem to reflect a premeditated choice. And again, there is no evidence to indicate that this group of nineteen texts was conceived of as a

^{169.} Otani bKah-hgyur Catalogue, p. 231, n. 1, folio 123a; (ref. Kajiyama).

^{170.} Ch'en, 1946, pp. 53 ff.

^{171.} Śāntideva quotes from the following eighteen texts: *Rkt* 3, 9, 12 (?), 15, 16, 18, 19, 24, 25, 28, 29, 37, 38, 43, 44, 45, 47, 48. See also Candrakīrti's *Prasannapadā* which refers to seven *Ratnakūṭa* works: *Rkṭ* 3, 16, 24, 25, 43, 45, and 47 (Vallée-Poussin, 1903–1913). Note that all of these seven texts are also among those quoted by Śāntideva.

^{172.} References to following *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* are contained in the various collections the Tibetan manuscripts from Tun-huang:

Amitāyurvyūhanirdeśa (Rkṭ 5), Dharmadhātuprakṛtyasambhedanirdeśa (Rkṭ 8), Daśadharmakasūtra (Rkṭ 9), Raśmisamantamuktanirdeśa (Rkṭ 11), Bdp (Rkṭ 12), Hymn addressed to Pūrṇa (Rkṭ 17?), Rāṣṭrapālaparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 18), Mahāpratihāryanirdeśa (Rkṭ 22), Maitreyasiṃhanāda (Rkṭ 23), Vinayaviniścaya-Upāliparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 24), Adhyāṣٰyasaṃcodana (Rkṭ 25), Viradattagṛhapatiparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 28), Sumatidārikāparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 30), Gangottaraparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 31), Siṃhaparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 37), Maitreyaparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 42), Kp (Rkṭ 43), Ratnarāśisūtra (Rkṭ 44), Ratnacūḍparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 47) and a certain text called Mahāratnakūṭasūtra which may be a reference to the Kp (Rkṭ 43). For their respective listing see: Lalou, M. Fonts Pelliot Tibetain, Paris, 1927, and La Vallée Poussin, Oxford, 1962.

part of a greater collection or even to represent some cross-section of the latter. Since it is not possible to establish the exact period in which these documents were deposited in the Tun-huang caves, few chronological inferences can be drawn. Nonetheless, judging by the large number of references found to *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* in its materials, it is clear that the *Ratnakūṭa* must have been a popular collection in Central Asia.

Considering that Śāntideva's list itself comprises only eighteen *Ratnakūṭa* citations, the degree of concordance with those of the *Mvy* and the Tun-huang material is very high. In none of these three source categories is there any explicit reference to a greater collection of which these texts might have formed a part. Therefore we may infer the existence of fluctuating, but commonly accepted, *sūtra* lists in circulation in Northern India during the eighth and ninth centuries AD.¹⁷⁴ In due course, these were transmitted to the Buddhist circles of Central Asia and perhaps played a role in the formation of the Tibetan *Tripiṭaka*.¹⁷⁵

The earliest inventory of the Tibetan canon dates back to the beginning of the ninth century. Known as the catalogue of the 'Lhan-dkar collection' commissioned by Khri-gtsugs-lde-brtsan, it speaks of a *Ratnakūṭa* consisting of forty-eight texts. The exact circumstances in which this inventory was compiled are obscure, though it seems certain that it was drawn up as part of the conversion efforts by the royal family to establish Buddhism in Tibet. The authenticity of the Lhan-dkar listing is well established. Lalou has shown that the dating and bibliographical details (e.g., names of translators, locations, etc.) correspond to what we know from other sources about the initial translation activity in Tibet. ¹⁷⁶

The authors of this catalogue carefully distinguish between translations that were done from the Sanskrit originals and those based on Chinese versions. Of the forty-eight Ratnakūṭa

^{173.} There is no conclusive evidence when the caves themselves were sealed. Pelliot suggested that this may have taken place during the first half of the eleventh century while Uray proposed a date as early as 1002 AD. Tibetan literary activity itself appears to have diminished in the Tun-huang area in the first half of the ninth century (Rona-tas, *Acta Orientalia Hungarica*, 21, pp. 381–3).

^{174.} Considering that Buddhist scholars from Central Asia and Bactria frequently participated in these translation teams, one cannot exclude the possibility that such lists might have even existed in Central Asian Buddhist circles other than those of Tun-huang. So far, however, I have not been able to trace any evidence which would support this thought.

^{175.} Even if we accept this compilation mechanism, several question remain unanswered. Why, for instance, did the Tibetan compilers of the hKah-hgyur adopt the Chinese model of the Ratnakūta and, at the same time, fail to grant equal treatment to the Mahāsamnipāta? The first attested reference to the compilation of the Mahāsamnipāta in its present format goes back to AD 594. Given the popularity of this collection in China, the fact that more than two hundred years separated this date from the first wave of organised translation activity in Tibet and the adoption of the Ratnakūta format, one would expect to find this collection also in the hKah-hgyur. This, however, is not the case although all of its texts are included on an individual basis in the 'Sūtra Section'. On the compilation of the Mahāsamnipāta, see: L'Inde Classique, ii, pp. 437-438.

^{176.} Lalou, 1953, pp. 315-16.

translations listed in this catalogue not a single text is identified as going back to Chinese translations. This indicates that the seven Chinese-based Ratnakūta translations we possess today were composed at a later date. Either the early Sanskrit-based translations had vanished during the years of civil strife or they were too poorly executed to warrant inclusion in the manuscript collections of the thirteenth century. Apart from the omission of the Saptaśatika-prajñāpāramitā, the contents and structure of the Lhan-dkar Ratnakūṭa collection agrees closely with Bodhiruci's edition. Thus, the earliest period for which we can affirm the existence of an almost complete Tibetan version of the Ratnakūṭa collection is the first half of the ninth century AD.

It is worth noting that this period coincides with the epoch in which a cautious revival of Sino-Tibetan relations after the signing of the peace treaty in 821/23 AD took place. This chronological concurrence is perhaps yet another factor in favour of our hypothesis that the formation of the Tibetan *Ratnakūṭa* was based on, or at least influenced by, Chinese editions. For, there can be little doubt that the political rapproachment which took place in that period between China and Tibet was accompanied, if not preceded, by a renewal of contacts in the cultural sphere. For even during years of bitter enmity cultural contacts with Tibet's most powerful neighbour never appear to have been totally severed.

Miscellaneous Sources

The texts that comprise our fourth category of sources belong to a number of apparently unrelated literary traditions. Sthaviravāda sources, for instance, associate a certain *Ratnakūṭa* (whether the *sūtra* or the collection is uncertain) with Buddhist schools prevalent in South India. The *Nikāyasaṃgraha*, a fourteenth-century text of the Singhalese tradition on the history of Buddhism in India and Sri Lanka, speaks of three classes of non-orthodox literature that, after their origin in India, were brought at a later stage to Sri Lanka. These texts, it says, were doctrinally close to the Vaitulya and Vājiriya schools and included works embodying the 'sciences' such as the *Ratnakūṭa*. The same source relates that *Ratnakūṭaśāstras* were composed in the Andhaka schools (along with the *Raṭṭhapālagajjita* which may have been

^{177.} Adikāram, E.W. 1946, p. 99 ff.

^{178.} *Nikāyasamgraha*: composed by Devarakṣita (Dharmakīrti). Ed. by de Silva, A.; Guṇasekera; Guṇawardhana, Sri Lanka Government Press, 1907. Trsl. by Fernando, Sri Lanka, Govt. Press, 1908.

the doctrinal predecessor of the Rp, Rkt 18 in Bodhiruci's edition). 179

The oldest surviving manuscript fragments of the entire $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ collection have been preserved in a Khotanese document. It is a manuscript discovered in the Khotan area at the beginning of the twentieth century by group of Japanese scholars. Fragments of it were identified and published by Kuno Hory \bar{u} in 1938. They contain passages of the Kp which correspond to sections of the ninth-century Sanskrit manuscript edited by Stael-Holstein one decade earlier. It is assumed to have been composed sometime between the third and fifth century AD. 182

Finally, I should mention a number of early South Indian inscriptions that are indirectly relevant for the study of *Ratnakūṭa* literature. They are found chiefly at the celebrated Buddhist sites of Amarāvatī and Nāgārjunikoṇḍa in the Āndhra country. As Wayman has shown in his study of the Śrīmālādevīsiṃhanāda, many of these inscriptions are of importance since they allow us to infer the historical context in which the texts appeared. For the Śms, they allowed him to pinpoint the period and location of its origin with some precision to South India of the third century. By implication, many of Wayman's findings on the Śms might be equally applicable to *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* of similar orientation, most notably *Aśokadattāvyākaraṇa* and *Vimaladattaparipṛcchā* which show close affinity in contents and setting.

^{179.} Nikāyasamgraha, 1907, pp. 8 ff.

^{180.} Bukkyo Kenkyū, iii, 2, 1938, pp. 1-40.

^{181.} Stael-Holstein's manuscript, damaged and some pages missing, was discovered in the 1890's in Khotan and purchased by the Russian consul at Kashgar. To the present day it is kept in the State Library of the Leningrad Academy of Sciences. See: Mirnov, N.D.: Catalogue of Indian Manuscripts At Leningrad, Catalogi Musei Asiatici, i, St. Petersburg, 1914 (chapter xi, p. 333).

^{182.} Another Ratnakūṭa text of which early fragments have been discovered in Central Asia is the Ratnarāśi. Published by Hoernle in 1916 it has been tentatively dated to the fifth to sixth century AD (op. cit., p. xii-xxxi). Finally, there are a number of references to Ratnakūṭa sūtras in the Book of Zambasta (Emmerick, 1968). These are the Bhadra-vy (p. 10), Vup (p. 189) and again the Kp (p. 139). In one fragment, well over twenty pages long, Maitreya appears as main-protagonist alongside the Buddha (pp. 53-76). Although not positively identified, we have of course several texts in the Ratnakūṭa that seem to have been inspired by the cult of Maitreya (Rkṭ 23, 40, 41). While all of these postdate the Kp and Ratnarāśi fragments by approximately four centuries, they are testimony to the Ratnakūṭa 's enduring popularity in Central Asia. It is difficult to determine just exactly for how long this popularity lasted. It is striking, however, that in the same source the Ratnakūṭa does not figure in a section that gives three of the four major sūtra collections of the day, that is, the Prajñāpāramitā, Buddhāvataṃsaka and Mahāsaṃnipāta (p. 187). This seems to suggest that it was more the individual sūtras of the Ratnakūṭa and not the collection itself which enjoyed popularity in Central Asia.

^{183.} Wayman, A. 1974, pp. 1-16. In his study on the *Sms* (*Rkt* 48), Wayman utilises archaeological evidence discovered at these sites to place the date of composition of the *Śms* tentatively within the Īkṣavāku rule of the third century AD. He then cites inscriptions of the second and third centuries AD that have been found at the same locations. They indicate the presence of the Pūrvaśaila and Uttaraśaila, two late sub-sects of the Mahāsaṅghika school, and that of the Mahāsaṅghika sub-sect called Caitya from which they issued. These data and doctrinal parallels found in the *Mvu*, a text of the Mahāsaṅghika-Lokottaravāda, prompted him to associate the *Śms* with the Mahāsaṅghika school of the third century AD (Wayman, 1974, p. 3).

Conclusion

In the light of the available information and the wealth of its documentation, a few concluding observations seem appropriate.

The Ratnakūṭa collection as it stands today was edited at the beginning of the eighth century in China by Bodhiruci, a South Indian Tripiṭaka master. In addition to compiling the collection, he participated significantly in the translation of the texts. Before Bodhiruci the history of the collection is rather obscure, though there is evidence to suggest that it must have existed in a similar form some fifty years earlier. At that time it was esteemed by scholars as an important collection which enjoyed considerable prestige.

Little can be said that is conclusive about the earliest phases in the formation of the 'original' collection. It seems certain that the *Ratnakūta* was shaped in India. There is evidence that suggests that already from very early on (perhaps because of similarity in contents) certain Mahāyāna texts came to be informally grouped together. This group, which may have comprised as many as twenty or more *sūtras*, was rendered into Chinese in the third century by Dharmarakṣa. Śāntideva and other Buddhist writers of later centuries called on them as scriptural authorities. It is probable that by the time Hsüan-tsang visited India in the seventh century AD they had already assumed the shape of a formal collection entitled *Mahāratnakūta*. However, owing to the fact that Śāntideva, Candrakīrti and Asanga seem unaware of it, one suspects that, in its earliest phase, the collection had been restricted to some local tradition.

A number of sources point to South India, during the early centuries of our era, as the cultural context in which the Ratnakūṭa may have been originally compiled. However, little sound evidence has been uncovered to support such a view. Several texts that are currently included in our collection appear to have been of South Indian origin, and Bodhiruci, the person who played a major role in shaping the collection as it stands today, was a native of this area. Yet, no source apart perhaps from the relatively late Nikāyasaṃgraha actually confirms South India as the place of its compilation. The fact that Hsüan-tsang acquired the Bodhisattvapiṭaka in northern India would seem to suggest that the Ratnakūṭa collection had gained some wider circulation by the first half of the seventh century. Similarly, no evidence has as yet been produced that would associate the formation of the Ratnakūṭa with any specific personality. By the time Bodhiruci received the request for translating the Ratnakūṭa

sūtras, its overall structure had probably already been determined.

The South Indian origin of several of the texts included in the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ and their doctrinal affinity to what appears to have been early Mahāsanghika thought, point perhaps to some connection between the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ s $\bar{u}tras$ and the \bar{A} ndhra schools. The Rp, for instance, appears originally to have been part of the literary tradition of these early South Indian schools.

The earliest references to a collection of sūtras bearing the name Mahāratnakūṭa are found in Chinese translations of Indo-Buddhist commentarial literature. There is a certain disagreement among modern scholars with regard to the authenticity of their Indian originals. In any event, their Chinese translations of the early fifth century AD contain several references to a Ratnakūṭa collection, consisting of at least five works from among those currently included. The bulk of the first translations were executed between the second and third centuries in Chinese Central Asia, suggesting that the Ratnakūṭa was an apparently well-known body of scriptures possibly as early as the third century AD. In this event, it would have been among the first Buddhist texts to have reached Central Asia and China, thus forming a part of the earliest cross-cultural expansion of Buddhist thought. Manuscript remains of early Ratnakūṭa texts found in the Khotan area support such a view.

Undoubtedly, the corpus of *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* enjoyed particular popularity in Central Asian regions. Not only has its oldest surviving manuscript been rediscovered in Central Asia but Chinese sources emphatically point to its wide circulation among Central Asian Buddhist communities.

The forty-nine sūtras comprising the Ratnakūṭa literature cover practically the complete spectrum of (early) Mahāyāna thought. The impression gained is that the collection may have been compiled as part of an early conversion activity, with the aim to provide a well-balanced cross-section of Buddhist thought. Such a motive for its compilation would account for the almost complete absence of evidence on the formation and existence of an Indian Ratnakūṭa collection. If this is the case it would strengthen its ties with those Central Asian areas where

^{184.} The following five sects are usually listed as the principal schools of 'Āndhra Buddhism': the Caitika (an offshoot of the Bahuśrutīya), the Pūrva Śaila, the Apara Śaila, the Rājagirika and the Siddhārthika. These are reported to have originated during the reign of Sātavāhana Emperor Meghasvāti (or -svādi) in the first century BC (*HIB*, p. 310).

^{185.} Warder suggests, that "as to their (i.e., the Āndhra schools') literary expression, some of the early (short) Mahāyāna sūtras long afterwards collected in the 'Great' Ratnakūṭa group may have been taken over from the Āndhra schools". However, he goes on to concede that in many instances these may have been modified in ways that would be hard to trace (Warder, 1980, p. 329).

the earliest traces of the Ratnakūta literature have been discovered.

Doctrinally, large sections of the *Ratnakūṭa* are dominated by expositions on the path and ideal of the bodhisattva. Particular emphasis is laid on the cultivation and actual implementation of the practices that mark his spiritual progress. While the philosophy of śūnyatā has evoked immense attraction among generations of scholars and intellectuals, it was the teachings about the bodhisattva that made the Mahāyāna successful as a religion across Asia. Not only could it easily win admiration, but being adjustable to an infinite variety of human circumstances the bodhisattva doctrine could also be taken as the basis for immediate action. As a central component of Mahāyāna spirituality, the bodhisattva concept was therefore an integral part and corner stone of all missionary activity. Naturally, one would expect this doctrine to play a major role in a corpus of texts apparently compiled with the intention of serving as both the spiritual inspiration and doctrinal authority in such a conversion process.

Chapter Two

Analysis of the Bodhisattvapitaka

The Bdp is the twelfth of forty-nine texts included in the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$. As already shown, the exact historical circumstances in which the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ s $\bar{u}tras$ were first collected are difficult to determine. From the viewpoint of historical analysis, we can only assume that it was compiled in the middle of the first millennium AD. Due to the lack of independent evidence the place of compilation and the motive for their being assembled remains uncertain.

Since external evidence is unsatisfactory and scarce, I propose to shift the focus of attention to the material that is included in the *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* themselves. Thereafter, we should be able to identify the rationale behind the *Ratnakūṭa's* structure and learn something about the interconnections holding its *sūtras* together. Our evaluation, though not exhaustive, will furnish us with sufficient data to gain a clear idea of the principal concerns expressed in the *Ratnakūṭa*, and particularly of its vision of the bodhisattva.

The most suitable starting-point for the analysis of the bodhisattva ideal is undoubtedly the Bdp itself. Not only it is the sole text in the collection entirely devoted to the bodhisattva by title and in content, but it is also the longest of the forty-nine texts, containing the most comprehensive treatment of bodhisattva training. While other Ratnakūṭa sūtras discuss the bodhisattvacaryā, none of them goes to such lengths in listing its principles and setting out how they should be implemented.

Because of the special position held by the Bdp in the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ collection, I propose to begin with a structural analysis of its contents. The main-objective is to establish the framework in which the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$ is mapped out and to uncover the literary expedients that are employed to that end.

Structural and Literary Traits

The structure of the *Bdp* is lucid in its overall presentation, but somewhat obscured by the disagreement in its translations on the number and scope of the chapters. In Hsüan-tsang's

seventh-century translation (T 310.12) the contents of the *Bdp* is divided into twelve chapters, each of which forms a logical, in substance well-delineated discussion of the assigned practices. This contrasts with the ninth-century Tibetan (P 760.12) and eleventh-century Sung (T 316) translations, both of which contain only eleven chapters. For no good reason they merge chapters eleven and twelve, making the *prajñāpāramitā* chapter final and leaving Hsüan-tsang's last chapter without a title.²

Without a Sanskrit original, there is no immediate explanation for this, since Hsüan-tsang's more coherent lay-out is overshadowed by the Tibetan and Sung translations. On closer examination of the content and colophons of the individual chapters it becomes clear, however, that it is the twelvefold chapter division of Hsüan-tsang's translation that has the soundest claim to originality.

To begin with, in Hsüan-tsang's translation the contents of each chapter clearly mark in discrete sections identifiable aspects of the bodhisattva training. All major practices are given individual treatment and assigned to separate chapters. In all but the last chapter this pattern is also adhered to in the Tibetan and Sung translations. Here, the controversial final chapter inappropriately combines a lengthy, partially philosophical exposition of the Perfection of Wisdom, several sets of bodhisattva practices, a brief description of the means of conversion and a detailed account of Śākyamuni's prediction of enlightenment. Such disarrangement of topics runs in marked contrast with the otherwise strictly observed thematic division.³

Furthermore, the merging of topics is inconsistent with the path profile that is given at the beginning of chapter five.⁴ We learn here that a discourse on the bodhisattva training should comprise three successive areas of practice, that is, the pursuit of *maitrī* (presumably standing for the four immeasurables⁵), practice of the *pāramitā* and the cultivation of the *saṃgrahavastu*. In view of the importance of this thematic outline (it is the only of its kind in the whole text),

^{1.} Hirakawa, A., "Bosatsuzo-kyo to Hojakukuyo", *SK*, 45–2, 209, 1971, pp. 1–26; Ono Gemmyo, *Bussho Kaisetsu Daijiten*, Tokyo (Daito Shuppansha) 1933–36 (ref. Pedersen).

^{2.} R, folio 695.1

For a comparison of Hsuan-tsang's translation and Dharmarakşa's eleventh-century Sung version, see: Pedersen, 1976, pp. 15–23.

^{3.} There is, however, one line of reasoning that might explain the merging of the *prajñāpāramitā* and *saṃgrahavastu* sections. According to the *Bbh* (p. 213.4-7), the *saṃgrahavastu* form a part of the training in *prajñāpāramitā*. Assuming that this proposition gained acceptance in Indian Buddhist circles (but I have found no other sources that hold this view) it could possibly account for the fusion of the two chapters in the later manuscripts on which the Tibetan and Sung are based.

^{4.} R, folio 264.5-6.

^{5.} In the *Yogācārabhūmi* of Saṅgharakṣa the *apramāṇa* are actually equated with *maitrī-bhāvanā* (Demiéville, 1951, pp. 359–363).

it is surely uncharacteristic that the text should not have been structured into the separation of practices by chapters, especially since even practices of lesser significance have been conscieniously kept apart.⁶

Taking these organisational traits into account, it is improbable that the discrepancies that distinguish Hsüan-tsang's well-structured version from the convoluted Tibetan and Sung renderings are due to negligence on part of the translators. Rather, the relative proximity in date of the latter two translations and their shared structural details suggest that they may derive from a later, possibly corrupted, Sanskrit manuscript of a different reading.⁷ On the basis of these thoughts, I therefore propose to adopt Hsüan-tsang's division into twelve chapters as the original design of the *Bdp*.

The length of the twelve chapters varies considerably, ranging between fifteen and one hundred and sixty folios. Broadly speaking, we can differentiate three categories.

First, there is a group of short chapters each of which consists of no more than twenty folios. The subject matter that is included in these chapters is treated very succinctly. They are generally free from lengthy narratives or strings of examples and are reasonably easy to grasp. Chapters two, three, five, six and eight belong to this category.

Second, there are three chapters of moderate length, averaging fifty folios each. These are chapter one, ten and twelve. Their style is less concise than that of the first category and some recourse is taken to narratives and stereotyped literary expressions. Nevertheless, their contents are easy to follow and undue digressions are kept to a minimum.

Finally, there are four chapters of well over one hundred folios, namely, chapters four, seven, nine and eleven. The unmethodical arrangement of contents of some of these chapters obscures the otherwise unconvoluted exposition of the *Bdp*. Individual discussions are spread over many pages filled with examples, peripheral digressions and lengthy narrations so that

^{6.} See, for instance, R, folio 671.4–679.6

Matters are further complicated by the disagreement that exists between the Tibetan and Sung translations. While Tibetan translations lack chapter headings for the sections on the Perfection of Wisdom, means of conversion and Śākyamuni's prediction (but nevertheless refer to a twelfth chapter at the very end of the discourse proper (R, folio 737.5)), the Sung translation treats the discussion of the Perfection of Wisdom as a separate, fully identified chapter. Yet, like the Tibetan it does not assign a chapter title to the section on the means of conversion and Śākyamuni's prediction.

^{7.} We find similar parallels in contents between the Tibetan and Sung translations of the *Kp*. Here too, it is the Tibetan and the tenth-century Sung versions that correspond most closely among all extant versions (see: Weller, 1965, pp. 8–9).

thematico-logical connections tend to vanish in the wealth of material.⁸ Moreover, their expositions repeatedly fail to match the outlines of contents, leaving the reader confused over the direction of the discourse.⁹ Disorder and inconsistency increase in relation to the length of the chapters.

From the literary viewpoint, all twelve chapters are reasonably homogeneous and share many characteristics. All chapters, except for one, contain both prose and verse sections.¹⁰ The verse portions are regularly incorporated in the prose to summarise or restate in poetic form the issues previously raised. Also, verses are frequently (though not invariably) employed in direct speech, especially when it is addressed to the Buddha. The verse metre most frequently employed consists of seven syllables per line. This is followed closely by a metre consisting of nine syllables per line.¹¹ While these two types of metre are generally kept apart in distinct verse clusters, they do intermingle in some rare instances.¹²

The prose sections of the *Bdp* are dominated by a rather rambling narrative style. In the most common pattern of exposition the Buddha discourses on a selected theme in response to a brief question posed by the interlocutor. In the course of his discourse the Buddha switches freely between the first and third persons indicative singular, assuming the role of persons appearing in the narrative portions. Since the concise dialogue-format characterising the majority of *Ratnakūṭa* texts is found only in some isolated places, there are very few passages that contain well-defined and succinct statements. The narrative style with its wealth of examples tends to interfere with the flow of conceptual links between individual topics.

In some chapters, this situation is redressed by the incorporation of sets of mnemonic-type lists summarising the bodhisattva's practices. The most frequent numerical configuration is that of tetrads followed by lists of tens and fives. All lists appear regularly in clusters, making up larger groupings and often provide the back-bone for the exposition. In chapters six and seven, for instance, lists of bodhisattva ethics stand at the very heart of the discussion and these constitute practically the only section dealing with the proclaimed theme.¹³ In the

^{8.} This applies, in particular, to chapter seven and nine. In chapter nine see, for instance, the portion of the text that describes the exploits of the two brothers, Samvara and Samvarasthiti (R, folio 486.2–513.6).

^{9.} Compare, for instance, the heading that is given in chapter eleven (R, folio 615.6-616.1) with the actual contents of the subsequent exposition (R, folio 616.2-685.5).

^{10.} The only chapter that has no verse section is chapter five (R, folio 262.1–284.5). Chapter eight contains only one short cluster of verses (R, folio 413.4–414.3).

^{11.} For a discussion of the verse metre in Tibetan translations of Buddhist texts see: Michael Hahn, 1971, pp. 50-65 and 1985, pp. 201-206.

^{12.} See, R, folio 381.5–382.7; folio 493.7–495.1; folio 497.2–498.2.

^{13.} In chapter six: R, folio 286.6-292.5; in chapter seven: R, folio 368.6-371.6.

longer chapters, they have the additional function of providing the framework in which the exposition unfolds. In view of the *Bdp's* length, such lists become valuable structural expedients for breaking up the contents.

A common feature is that the internal chapter organisation is poorly systematised. While there is every indication that the overall structure of the *Bdp* follows a well thought-out plan, no obvious outline is followed in the chapters themselves. In the shorter chapters this lack of systematisation has less importance. Elsewhere, however, it challenges the reader's ability to absorb and link the individual points of argument.

This situation arises from two factors. First, the issues that are raised in the discussions are poorly linked. This is especially evident in the longer chapters where sets of practices are only peripherally related and lack logical connection. Chapter nine, for example, though nominally on the perfection of vigour, deals with a broad spectrum of issues many of which have little direct bearing on $v\bar{v}rya$. This is further aggravated by the extensive use of examples and parables. Again, most of these are found in the longer chapters, particularly in the ninth. While it is of course true that the extensive use of stock-phrases, picturesque language and many examples forms an integral part of the Indian literary heritage generally, there are only a few texts where they dominate the exposition to such an extent as in the Bdp.

The factor chiefly accountable for this internal intricacy is the frequency of references to jātaka-type stories. ¹⁵ In all, we can distinguish fourteen samples of jātaka stories. Most of these are found in chapter nine. There are no jātaka references anywhere before chapter five—this is interesting because it is in this chapter that the instructions on the bodhisattvacaryā begin. ¹⁶ All the following chapters with the exception of ten and eleven contain references to the previous lives of the Buddha. ¹⁷ It is important to note that they are generally used to

^{14.} In other chapters the situation is not very different. In chapter seven we meet with indiscriminately arranged descriptions of the bodhisattva's moral conduct in the form of listed norms of conduct. Since the style in which these attainments is presented is predominantly descriptive and non-technical, I conclude that, apart from their primary task of defining the scope and nature of the bodhisattva training, their function was to serve as inspiration and to encourage others to take up the bodhisattva training.

^{15.} A summarised account of the various rebirths of Śākyamuni in the *Bdp* is contained in Bu-ston's *Chos-ḥbyun* (Obermiller, 1931–32, i, p. 125).

^{16.} Compare this point of departure for the *jātaka* with the account that is given in the *Mvu* where we are told that *jātaka* related to the Buddha do not go back further than the eighth stage (Sénart, 1882, p. 105.6–14).

^{17.} The following references are given in the *Bdp* to previous buddhas: 1. Mahāskandha (R, folio 262.5); 2. Kuhanachanda (hchos mos?) (R, folio 295.5); 3. Prasamgraha (R, folio 297.4); 4. Varasambhāra (R, folio 379.2); 5. Sālarāja (R, folio 385.4); 6. Vipaśyin (R, folio 448.1); 7. Abhyudgatarāja (R, folio 486.3); 8. Uttaptavīryata (R, folio 504.5); 9. Sucarita (R, folio 508.2); 10. Dīpaṃkara (R, folio 519.5); 11. Padmottara (R, folio 539.3); 12. Ratnagarbha (R, folio 542.6); 13. Atyuccagāmin (R, folio 546.7); 14. Mahāvīrya (R, folio 549.3).

illustrate a particular aspect of the teaching, rather than to retell the events of his lives. ¹⁸ Nor is the Buddha always the main-protagonist in these stories. Frequently, the impression one gains is that recourse to *jātaka*-type settings was solely taken to lay down some historical frame of reference.

From a structural viewpoint their incorporation enhances the overall coherence of the exposition. They furnish the discourse with a temporal framework since all *jātaka* references appear in strict chronological order. As a result, the treatment of the *bodhisattvacaryā* receives a sense a continuity and even dynamic purpose matching the Buddha's career as a graded progress across his previous existences. The narrative framework and graphic style of presentation also simplifies the lines of argument. Many sections of the text are given an unmistakably descriptive flavour in which abstract thought-patterns are kept to a minimum.

The Bodhisattva Path

Having dwelt on the literary character of the Bdp, I now propose to look at the thematic structures by which the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$ is explained. In the foregoing section I pointed to the loose internal organisation that prevails in most of the Bdp's chapters. The impression prevails that the individual practices serve to exemplify a greater scheme. The contribution of the $j\bar{a}taka$ -type narratives to this 'sense' of coherence has already been mentioned. There are also more important factors in play and I shall turn to these next.

The most powerful device for achieving the effect of continuity is without doubt the adoption of the traditional sequence of the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$. Practically all treatises on the bodhisattva from early on have incorporated this scheme into their visions of the path so that it became soon accepted as the fundamental structure of the training.²¹ The training scheme of the Bdp

^{18.} The exception is the account of Śākyamuni's prediction to buddhahood at the end of chapter twelve (R, folio 698.7–735.3) that seemingly serves no other purpose than to retell the actual event in full.

^{19.} Much of the course of Śākyamuni's career is traced in the *Bdp*, starting in his legendary encounter as Prince Caritavīrya with the Buddha Mahāskandha and ending with his prediction to buddhahood by Dīpamkara. Also the references that are drawn to events between those two cornerstones purport to follow the chronological order of their occurrence. This can be deduced from the cosmic dates that are assigned to the periods in which the events are placed. For references, see the passages in which the various buddhas are introduced.

^{20.} It is important to bear in mind that this impression rests largely on factors that are associated with the historico-temporal plane. Except in chapter eleven, no such continuation is evident, although later treatises on the bodhisattva propose certain models of internal, conceptual continuation for the individual practices raised in the *Bdp*. I have discussed these schemes in chapter four.

^{21.} The sixfold training structure is already attested in the Asta (pp. 163 ff; 292-93; 310, 322; 412-13) and Vkn

is thus cast in the mould of a well-established pattern; the traditional order of the perfections is kept and they are dealt with in individual chapters.

Apart from following the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ sequence, we have other hints that point to the implementation of a particular overall plan. First, there are several passages in the text itself that outline the order in which the bodhisattva training should proceed. The most important is found in a section belonging to chapter five that sets out the description of the path as follows:²²

"O lord, what is the path to enlightenment? O Prince, the path to enlightenment comprises benevolence towards all sentient beings, striving after the perfections and compliance with the means of conversion. This is the path to enlightenment."

The order in which the practices are cited in this passage corresponds to the order in which they appear in chapters five to twelve of the Bdp. Other references suggesting a successive conceptual interconnection between the individual perfections are given in chapters seven and eight.²³

It is hence apparent that the text is not moulded in such a way as to depict the bodhisattva career on the scheme of the ten stages.²⁴ An explanation for this might be that the *Bdp* predated the formulation of the tenfold design.²⁵ Other scholars have suggested that because of some geopolitical isolation at the time of its composition, the author was not aware of the

⁽pp. 17-18, 29, 96-7, 108, 130, 157, 167, 216, 240, 259). But, in neither of these two works has it been implemented or does it become the guiding principle for the organisation of the bodhisattva training. Rather, it is only referred to in passing without having any significant impact on the structure of the exposition. Considering the very early date of both texts, this is perhaps not surprising. Other early works that give greater importance to the structural role of the six perfections in the organisation of the bodhisattvacary \bar{a} are the Akn (pp. 42.3.1-55.2.7) and Rcd (pp. 231.4.7-236.2.7).

^{22.} R, folio 264.4-5

The description of the training proper ends on folio 698.7, just before the account of Śākyamuni's prediction to buddhahood begins. Thus, we note the following training structure: (1) cultivation of the apramāṇa (chapter five); (2) pursuit of the ṣadpāramitā (chapter six to eleven); 3. practice of the samgrahavastu (first part of chapter twelve). This path scheme occurs also on folio 582.6–584.4 where it includes the bodhipākṣika dharma, śamatha and vipaśynā that dominate much of chapter eleven.

^{23.} R, folio 302.2-7; folio 408.3; folio 409.7-410.2.

^{24.} In his Chos-hbyun (Obermiller, 1931, i, p. 125), Bu-ston suggests correlating chapters six to twelve of the Bdp to the first seven stages of the Dbh scheme. While it is not difficult to see why Bu-ston chose to draw these parallels (chapter six deals with dānapāramitā, hence stage one; chapter seven with śīlapāramitā, hence stage two, etc., up to chapter twelve devoted to prajñāpāramitā), it is important to note that this proposition is purely conjectural and not supported by the text itself. The Bdp contains no reference that would suggest that its exposition of the bodhisattva training follows the tenfold scheme of the Dbh, or indeed any other linear order.

^{25.} Wayman, 1980, p. 218.

existence of such a scheme. Today we can discount both hypotheses since I have found several instances in the text itself where explicit reference is made to the tenfold scheme.²⁶ But this does not resolve our problem. We still do not know why our text favoured the basic scheme of the six perfections over the ten stages, especially since indications are that the ten gained rapid acceptance in Mahāyāna circles.²⁷

The best explanation for the present is that at the time of the Bdp's composition the tenfold scheme had not yet won universal approval. This might indicate that the acceptance of the ten stages might not have been as swift as generally assumed. In fact, there are several other early Mahāyāna works that refer to the tenfold scheme in passing but do not implement it in their description of the bodhisattvacaryā. There must have been for quite some time a substantial faction within the Sangha unconvinced of its merits. If we interpret the growing circulation of the Dbh as a sign of the increasing acceptance of the scheme, it was probably not until the second/third century that this indecision was resolved. The fact that the Bdp refers to the tenfold scheme on two occasions and even distinguishes the scope of the individual stages places its date of composition in the period that immediately preceded the formulation of the tenfold plan. At any earlier time the Bdp would have been unfamiliar

^{26.} The relevant passages on the bodhisattva stages run as follows:

[&]quot;The bodhisattva who abides on the eighth, ninth or tenth stage, this bodhisattva is of great wisdom. He dwells on the great stage (mahābhūmi)" (R, folio 123.3-4).

[&]quot;When he has acquired these three states (viz., the state of Cakravartin, Indra and Brahmā), he accomplishes the ten stages of the bodhisattva" (R, folio 294.1).

^{27.} The earliest reference to the ten stages of the bodhisattva that can be dated with some degree of certainty goes back to 188 AD. It is found in the appendix to a sūtra called P'u sa nei hsi liu po lo mi ching 'Sūtra on the Bodhisattva's inner Practice of the six Perfections' (T 778) which was rendered into Chinese by Yen Fo-T'iau of the Eastern Han Dynasty (Rahder, 1929, p. 15) After that, the scheme gained prominence quickly and it became the major scheme to grade the bodhisattva's spiritual progress. Early references to the tenfold scheme are found in the Mvu (pp. 63-157) and Dbh (Daśa-bh, pp. i-xxvii, pp. 11-99). At a later stage, it was incorporated into the works of the Prajñāpāramitā literature, most notably in the Pañca (pp. 225, 379); while it is not found in the Aṣṭa itself, it is also mentioned in the Śṣp (pp. 1454-73) and in the Aṣṭadaśasāh (T 220 ch. 490-91, pp. 490b-497b; ref. Rahder). A similar, though not identical scheme is put forward in the Gv (pp. 369-374). In the fourth century, it was adopted and refined in the Bbh (pp. 367-371). Finally, in the seventh century, it was taken up again by Candrakīrti in his Madhyamakāvatāra, where it serves as the structural framework for the exposition of the bodhisattvacaryā.

^{28.} The first Chinese translation of the *Dbh* was carried out in 297 AD. Beyond that, we have no firm evidence about the period in which it might have been written. Modern scholarship has come up with a variety of dates for its composition. The earliest dating (by Conze) suggests a date as early as 100 AD. Rahder thinks to have identified certain sections of the *Dbh* in the *Tathāgataviśeṣaṇasūtra* (N 102); a text whose first translation goes back to 147–168 AD (Rahder, 1926, p. xxi). Other scholars have been less daring, allocating it to the late second or early third century. Whichever the precise date of composition, its doctrinal position indicates that it must have emerged some time after the *Vkn* and before the compilation of the *Yogācārabhūmi*.

^{29.} If we accept the logic behind this argument, we would have to place the composition of the Bdp at the latest in the middle, or perhaps at the end, of the third century. However, since the earliest attested reference to the ten stages is already found in a work of the second century, it cannot be ruled out that the Bdp's date of composition might also go back to the second century. The latter estimate would match the date that was proposed by Wayman for the Bdp. He allocated its origin to 'around 100 AD' (Wayman, 1991, p. 9).

with its structures, but at a later if it was not contemporary with it, it would have adopted them.

Chapter Organisation

In order to give an overview of the material included in the *Bdp*, I shall provide at this point a synopsis of the principal issues being raised. Since the content of the practices is discussed separately in chapter four, I limit myself here to the structures that underlie their presentation.

Chapter one essentially provides an introduction to Buddhist spirituality. Convinced of the vanity of conventional ways of perception, the Buddha identifies the principal failings of worldly existence and discourses on the illusory and conditioned frames of reference in which life takes place.³⁰ After the portrayal of reality the Buddha states the fundamentals of Buddhist doctrine by pronouncing a series of definitions of key terms, such as renunciation, knowledge and liberation.³¹ The chapter concludes with a brief sermon on the three root evils.

Chapter two opens with the prediction to buddhahood of the yakṣa Kumbhīra. He is the chief deity at the location where the Buddha is about to preach, and so entrusted with the setting. Next, there follows a picturesque account of the local scenery of the preaching site and the preparations that precede the Buddha's arrival. From the doctrinal point of view, this chapter is the least interesting. We learn practically nothing about the bodhisattva's training or the doctrinal context in which it is pursued. Like chapter one, its main concern is to introduce the reader to the Buddha's discourse.

Chapter three introduces the main topic of the Bdp. It begins with a string of questions on the conditions and circumstances in which bodhisattvas attain supreme enlightenment. What follows next is essentially a characterisation of the thought of enlightenment (bodhicitta) and an evaluation of its intent ($\bar{a}\dot{s}aya$).³³ As in chapter one, so also in this chapter the exposition

^{30.} R, folio 13.7-51.2.

^{31.} R. folio 51.5-56.2.

^{32.} The only other reference I have found to the *yakṣa* Kumbhīra is located in the *Mahāsamājasūtra*. Here too, he is said to abide in the city of Rajāgṛha on the Vipula mountain and to be in control of many thousands of *yakṣa*. No more information is given (Waldschmidt in: Bechert, 1980, pp. 154, 162). See also: D II, pp. 253–62 for the Pāli version of this text.

^{33.} R, folio 82.2-87.3.

concludes in a brief independently conceived discourse on a set of Buddhist fundamentals. Here, however, it is more in harmony with Mahāyāna thinking, spelling out its interpretation of impermanence, suffering, non-self and *nirvāṇa*.

Chapter four, entitled 'On the Inconceivable Nature of the Tathāgata', is entirely taken up with a description of the buddha-qualities. Structurally, it is the best systematised chapter, since it utilises the highly stylised mode of enumeration in which the buddha-qualities are traditionally presented. The description itself is exhaustive by all standards, detailing the Tathāgata's pristine cognition, morality and meditation, his physical perfection, wonderworking powers, tenfold powers, four assurances, compassion, enlightenment and the eighteen exclusive buddha-qualities.³⁴

Structurally, this chapter is important in three ways. First, it lays down the foundation for the successful completion of the bodhisattva training, that is, faith in the nature and powers of the Tathāgata. Indeed, in the passage immediately following this chapter we learn that it is only after the bodhisattva has generated this faith that he qualifies to embark on the path. Second, it is important since buddhahood constitutes the ultimate goal of every bodhisattva's aspiration. In this respect, a description of the Tathāgata's qualities and powers must surely have been expected to have an inspiring, reassuring and strengthen impact on the bodhisattva's resolve while advancing on the path. Third, bearing in mind that tathāgatahood constitutes the fulfilment of the bodhisattva training, the Buddha might have thought it advantageous to define its scope and attributes as a benchmark for all other spiritual achievements. In this role, chapter four serves to set out the goal-post for the bodhisattvacaryā.

With the end of chapter four we have come to an important break in the contents of the *Bdp*. So far, all we have learned about the *bodhisattvacaryā* has revolved around preparatory exploits. In chapter five, we are introduced to the training proper. This is placed in the context of a *jātaka* narrative and also spelled out independently. This correspondence lends a personal note to the exposition and contrasts with the rather formal, detached tone of later

^{34.} The impression of systematisation is reinforced by the fact that the whole chapter (which is the longest of the entire work) is organised into ten sections or limbs, each spelling out one of the ten Tathāgata-qualities. The sequence runs as follows: (1) body (folio 100.7); (2) roar (folio 106.3); (3) pristine cognition (folio 110.1); (4) radiance (116.6); (5) moral conduct and meditation (folio 123.5); (6) wonder-working powers (folio 136.2); (7) ten powers (folio 143.7); (8) four assurances (folio 196.7); (9) great compassion (folio 215.4); (11) eighteen exclusive buddha-qualities (folio 235.1).

^{35.} R, folio 262.1-5
In chapter three a similar idea is expressed, postulating faith as a paramount prerequisite for the spiritual advance of bodhisattvas in general (R, folio 86.3-88.4).

works on the bodhisattva. Since the *jātaka* reference is the first of its kind it establishes a connection between the teaching and the Buddha's personal spiritual advance. Both topics run parallel from now on and become progressively inseparable.

The common point of departure and thematic concurrence between the bodhisattva and jātaka underlines the significance of jātaka references, for there could be no better illustration of the bodhisattvacaryā than the Buddha's own past spiritual experience. Such linkage not only gives authority to the discourse, but also highlights the role played by the jātaka-genre in the formulation of the bodhisattva doctrine. In view of this connection, it is not surprising that training phases are nowhere mentioned. Since schemes of the path do not figure in the jātaka themselves, it makes sense that the accounts of the bodhisattvacaryā that are modelled on the path of the historical Buddha should forgo these structural expedients. Following the opening passage, laying down the major areas of practice, the training proper begins with a discussion of the four immeasurables. Structurally, this section is of little interest since it presents the apramāṇa in a standard fashion and does not define their role in the general pattern of practice. Chapter five is thus a section that may demonstrate internally few intriguing structural features, but nonetheless is extremely important from the viewpoint of the overall composition.

Examination of chapter six reveals two points of structural significance. First, it formally initiates the discussion of the perfections and accordingly represents the first limb of the main body of the Bdp's exposition.³⁷ Judging by the length of the various chapters, one would assume that the treatment of the perfections varies greatly in detail. This impression is misleading, since the space that is actually given to the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ is not always in proportion to the total length of the chapters. This is particularly true of chapter nine, that includes a wide range of practices that are only indirectly related to the pursuit of $v\bar{v}rya$. If one were to

^{36.} Today, there is widespread agreement among scholars that the roots of the bodhisattva doctrine go back to the earliest strands of Buddhist thought. In particular, the *jātaka* have been the focal-point of several investigations. To quote Warder (1983, p. 9) on this matter: "It would seem that between these stray references in the *jātaka* and *Theragāthā* and the full-fledged enumeration in the *Buddhavaṃsa* the doctrine (of the perfections) had been systematised as the 'principles which make the Buddha' (*buddhakara dhamma*, Bv, ii.116)." Elsewhere, he argues that "this intrusive note (on pre-Mahāyāna practice) only strengthens the impression that the Theravāda tradition on the perfections of the bodhisattva developed independently of Mahāyāna very likely from a common and pre-Mahāyāna origin in the *jātaka* tradition of the third century BC" (op. cit., p. 18). In the nikāya, these early doctrinal predecessors are particularly evident in the *jātaka* accounts of Śākyamuni's previous lives. But there are also other early works that contain isolated traces of the bodhisattva doctrine. Besides the well-known expositions of the *Buddhavaṃsa* and *Cariyāpiṭaka*, a good picture of these early notions on the bodhisattva is found in the *Nidānakathā*, the introduction to the *jātaka* commentary (i, pp.16-25, 45-7, 74).

^{37.} R, folio 285.1.

purge it of all secondary issues, the relevant material would amount to little more than a third of its original length.

Another prominent feature of chapter six is that it introduces summaries of bodhisattva practices in the form of mnemonic-type lists. While lists of various types occurred already in earlier portions of the *Bdp* (most notably in chapters one and four³⁸), it is only in this chapter that they assume the mnemonic, stereotypical character.³⁹ The lists themselves occur rarely in isolation, but tend to appear in clusters forming larger groups.⁴⁰ Usually neither the order in which their items are enumerated nor the succession of the lists displays any particularly thought-out pattern of arrangement. Hence, the scope and items of the lists overlap at several points with factors cited elsewhere.⁴¹

The custom of tabulating individual practices figures prominently in chapter seven. At one stage tetrads make up a section of well over twenty folios.⁴² By reason of the frequency with which enumerations recur, the impression is given that the entire exposition of chapter seven is founded on these lists. Although this is clearly not the case (there are numerous sections which dispose of lists altogether), from a structural point of view their incorporation is undeniably its most outstanding feature.

The conceptual organisation of chapter seven contains three major, largely independent, segments. The first section introduces the chapter's principal theme, viz., the bodhisattva's moral conduct, and expounds its spheres of application in the context of the doctrine of non-self.⁴³ Other central elements are a list of ten mental factors and ten kinds of the thought of enlightenment.⁴⁴ Since the relations between these three elements are reciprocal with each one of them conditioning the other two, the first part of chapter seven is conceptually coherent and largely independent.

The second part of chapter seven consists of numerous lists itemising the benefit accruing

^{38.} R, folio 28.5-34.1.

^{39.} R, folio 285.7-288.4.

^{40.} op. cit.; R, folio 368.1-371.6.

^{41.} A good example of such overlapping is found in chapter seven amongst the moral precepts (R, folio 368,1-371.6).

^{42.} R, folio 341.1-364.6

Despite the fact that all the practices enumerated in these lists are in some way related to the bodhisattva and his moral training, they do not seem to form a coherent whole. While some itemise little more than incentives (simultaneously, inspiring and reassuring in nature), others iterate the qualities, powers and insights that the novice can expect to gain by embarking on the bodhisattva path (R, folio 368.1–371.6).

^{43.} R, folio 300.6-306.1.

⁴⁴ The mental factors encompass three broad categories. (1) Faith in the Dharma; (2) Veneration of the teacher; (3) Inclination to follow resolutely the path (R, folio 306.1-4).

from reverence and moral integrity.⁴⁵ Culminating in an enumeration of sixty examples of pure moral conduct, it represents the core of the whole chapter.

In the third section, priority is given to those factors that impede moral conduct.⁴⁶ In keeping with Buddhist fundamentals, the text singles out desire $(r\bar{a}ga)$ as the most devastating force.⁴⁷ Inspired by Mahāyāna reasoning, it is argued in the text that the best way to overcome this peril is to see its manifestation from the perspective of $\dot{s}\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$.

Chapter eight, much in contrast to chapter seven, displays a conceptually highly unified and coherent exposition. In part, this coherence is due to brevity. The points that are put forward are developed in logical sequence and build upon each other. The topic itself is introduced by means of a brief, definitive statement on the nature of the bodhisattva's patience. This gives way to a discussion of the various spheres and manifestations of patience. Essentially, the text distinguishes three kinds of patience, that is, conventional patience, bodhisattva patience and highest patience. ⁴⁸ I have shown in chapter four that the actual contents of these types of kṣānti are far more intricate than their basic division would suggest.

In structure and organisation, chapter nine exhibits several features that distinguish its exposition from all preceding chapters. To begin with, it contains relatively few structural devices that punctuate so effectively the discussions in the other chapters. Therefore, it is rather difficult to break up its contents and to identify the individual teachings. But, it is second to none in the wealth of examples by which its postulates are illustrated. Since I have dwelt already on the effect these have on the comprehensibility of the text, it is sufficient only to draw attention to the particularly strong influence they have in chapter nine.

Next, we notice the astonishing diversity of material included in this chapter. So far, most chapters have been dominated by their main topics. With a few exceptions (most notably in chapter seven), they contained no significant digressions from the principal subject-matter. Chapter nine, in contrast, contains a great number of issues with ostensibly little bearing on the practice of vigour. Amongst the points raised we come across such seemingly unrelated

^{45.} The nature of the qualities cited leaves little doubt that it is he rather than other people who chiefly benefits from these attainments. Most of them spring from the recognition of his previous faults and active training in teacher veneration.

^{46.} R, folio 375.7-403.6.

^{47.} It dedicates well over twenty folios to the various manifestations of desire during which the pitfalls of sexual desire figure most prominently (R, folio 375,7-403.6).

^{48. (1)} conventional patience (R, folio 407.7-417.7); (2) bodhisattva patience (R, folio 418.1-420.5); (3) highest patience (R, folio 420.6-423.3).

subjects as the future-destiny of the Dharma⁴⁹, contempt of the Doctrine⁵⁰, failings of *grhapti* and *pravrajita* bodhisattvas⁵¹, avarice⁵², self-sacrifice⁵³ and Dharma-teaching.⁵⁴ The perfection of vigour figures expressly only in one section of the text.⁵⁵ Having said this, it is important to note that some effort has been made to relate the secondary issues to the perfection of vigour. Several of the examples that are cited to illustrate these secondary issues are configured to match both the issues they are supposed to elucidate and also the *vīryapāramitā*.

Chapter ten displays few structural peculiarities that have not been met elsewhere in the *Bdp*. Its rhetoric is filled with recurring statements, parallel phrasing, rich imagery and stereotyped lists of the kind I described in the foregoing sections. Structurally, it follows the internal organisation of the sets of practices it describes; enumerating and analysing in due order the four *dhyāna*, five super-knowledge, the interplay between means and knowledge, etc. As chapter ten makes only sporadic reference to examples and dispenses altogether with narratives, its exposition is rather methodical and orderly.

From the viewpoint of our structural analysis, the most interesting part is its concluding verse section. ⁵⁶ Unlike its counterparts in the other chapters, it does not summarise previous issues, but introduces new material in the form of a list of one hundred and one *samādhi*. The style of presentation of these meditations is rather perfunctory. Apart from the title and a few general attributes virtually no data of any significance are revealed. Since the verses are only vaguely related to the prose in both content and style, the whole section might have been composed independently.

In spite of its title, chapter ten has actually very little to do with the practice of meditation. While we learn a lot about the benefits resulting from meditation, we are told little about the practical and theoretical aspects of meditation itself. To all appearances, the chapter was designed primarily to spell out the significance of meditation in the bodhisattva training, to inspire faith in the workings and, above all, in the powers of meditative processes.

Conceptually, this preoccupation is borne out by the priority given to the ways in which

^{49.} R, folio 429.5-448.1.

^{50.} R, folio 448.2-453.1.

^{51.} R, folio 477.7-483.4.

^{52.} R, folio 483.4-513.6.

^{53.} R, folio 515.5-526.6.

^{54.} R, folio 538.3-548.7.

^{55.} R, folio 468.1-476.6.

^{56.} R, folio 587.1-590.1.

meditative attainments benefit the bodhisattva's spiritual advance. Particular attention is paid to the role that is played in this process by the five $abhij\tilde{n}a$. Their explication spans over more than two thirds of the whole chapter and dominates the exposition more than any other practice.⁵⁷ Again, as in the case of meditation practice, little is said about the psychic processes lying at the heart of their operation. Instead, much stress is laid on their effects and on the role they assume in the training.

Chapter eleven, entitled 'On the Perfection of Wisdom', contains some of the most interesting thought in the Bdp. As I shall discuss its content and structure at length in chapter four, I shall limit myself here to a few general remarks. Like chapter ten, it dispenses with all narrative and incorporates only a limited number of examples. Its verse sections are very few and generally rather short. Particularly striking, from the organisational viewpoint, is the frequent use of lists and sets of practices that organise its contents into well-delineated sections. Owing to the lack of picturesque language, its exposition is rather technical and displays only thought that is of immediate relevance to the Perfection of Wisdom.

The contents of chapter eleven falls into three technically distinct, but doctrinally interrelated portions. The first section is given over to propound the basic phases in the process of cognition, that is to say, the factors leading to the acquisition of wisdom and the attainments that spring from them. The most notable feature in this section is a list of seventy-two types of learning. Next, a series of practices intimately connected with wisdom is expounded. These include right view (samyagdṛṣṭi), correct seeing (yoniśo darśana) and correct penetration (yoniśo praveśa). There are several indications that the discussion of these attainments is structured to reflect the first four phases of the Buddhist path, that is, the saṃbhāramārga, prayogamārga, darśanamārga and bhāvanāmārga.

The second section defines in greater detail those practices particularly relevant to mastery over Perfect Wisdom. Formally embedded in a list of ten types of 'skill' are included, amongst others, the pratisamvid, pratisaraṇa, puṇya and jñānasaṃbhāra, bodhipākṣika dharma as well as śamatha and vipaśyanā. As in section one, most of these practices were conceived of in relation to each other and represent a continuation of the cognitive processes initiated through the seventy-two forms of learning. The attainment of wisdom itself is marked by 'skill' in all dharma that signals true cognition of reality.

Turning to the structure of this tenfold division of 'skill', we notice certain 'irregularities' 57. R, folio 551.5-572.4.

in its organisation. First, the sequence in which the individual 'skills' are listed in the introductory outline of contents corresponds only approximately to the succession in which they are actually raised in the text. While it is true that all items are included, they do not comply with the proposed order. 'Skill' in discursive insight (vijñāna) and direct knowledge (jñāna), for example, figure as a subcategory to 'skill' in pratisaraṇa rather than (as announced) as an independent 'skill'. Sh In addition, the text discusses 'skill' in the accumulation of merit and knowledge and 'skill' in the bases of mindfulness as principal 'skills', even though they do not figure in the heading. It is perhaps worth noting that all irregularities occur in the mid-section. Whatever the reason behind these modifications, it is clear that their impact on the overall scheme is negligible. It could even be argued that they reinforce the coherence of the exposition, since training in the smṛtyupasthāna and jñānasaṃbhāra is certainly of advantage (if not altogether indispensable) to the generation of wisdom.

Approaching its conceptual climax, chapter eleven goes then on to define the exact cognitive contents of the perfection of wisdom. For this purpose, it deconstructs the word prajñāpāramitā in its component parts and discusses the nature of prajñā and pāramitā separately.

In spite of this formal division, the two strands of analysis run largely concurrent and correspond in much detail.

Chapter twelve comprises two major sections. It begins with a comparatively brief exposition of the four means of conversion. Proportionally, their elucidation accounts for little more than a tenth of the chapter's total content.⁶¹ It will be recalled that the means of conversion stand at the very end of the *Bdp's* path scheme. However, it is left open as to whether this positioning was meant to grade them as the culmination of the path, or whether they were placed there out of structural convenience. While the exposition itself contains some interesting propositions, organisationally it is rather unremarkable.

The second part of chapter twelve consists of the well-known $j\bar{a}taka$ episode describing Śākyamuni's meeting with Dīpaṃkara and the subsequent prediction to buddhahood. ⁶² Unlike preceding $j\bar{a}taka$ used to illustrate the bodhisattva practice, this story serves no other purpose

^{58.} R, folio 634.7-636.5.

^{59.} R, folio 649.5-662.3; folio 639.7-649.2.

^{60.} R, folio 685.7-690.1.

^{61.} R, folio 695.1-698.7.

^{62.} R, folio 699.1-737.4. An identical version of the narrative of Śākyamuni's prediction is found in the Dharmaguptaka Vinaya (Bareau, 1966, 1-16).

than to relate the events of the narrative. Since its incorporation has no practical bearing on the *bodhisattvacaryā* (it contains virtually no information of any value on the training itself) apart from signalling the completion of the path, the whole point of it telling it here is perhaps simply to keep the tradition of the event alive.

Two considerations might have led to its placing at the end of the discourse. In an exposition that is largely dedicated to the training of the bodhisattva but frequently deployed in the context of the Buddha's former lives, there could hardly be a more appropriate way of ending it than by retelling the final phases of Śākyamuni's exploits. This stratagem not only brings the series of jātaka stories to its logical conclusion, but asserts the viability of the whole enterprise in an incontestable way. By singling out this ending, the Bdp not only re-enacts the context in which the bodhisattva training unfolds, but more importantly, sets it within a mythological frame of reference, thereby drawing ultimate authority from the experience of the Buddha himself.

Chapter Three

The Bodhisattva Ideal in the Mahāratnakūta Collection

In our survey of the content of the *Ratnakūṭa* in chapter one we have learned of the wide range of topics included in its forty-nine *sūtras*. It soon became apparent that many of them show a common interest in the bodhisattva. While examining the texts, I began to wonder whether this shared concern might have occasioned their being assembled into one collection.

In chapter two, I investigated the structural and literary features of the Bdp. Taking the findings of this analysis as point of departure, I shall now assess the structure and presentation of the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$ in the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$. Particular consideration will be given to the role played by the Bdp's teachings amongst these $s\bar{u}tras$. The reasons for this emphasis are twofold. First, while many $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ $s\bar{u}tras$ contain material on the bodhisattva ideal, the Bdp is virtually the only text practically exclusively dedicated to the bodhisattva. Second, no other text in this collection provides a similar wealth of detail on the bodhisattva as that found in the Bdp. In length alone, it eclipses all other bodhisattva texts many times over. This raises the distinct possibility that its teachings might also have been invested with special role in the description of the bodhisattva ideal.

Taking into account the size and diversity of the collection a detailed analysis of all forty-eight texts would constitute a task so vast as to take it well beyond the scope of this thesis. Therefore, I have selected twenty-three sūtras that are of particular relevance to the study of the bodhisattva ideal. Amongst these texts I include several sūtras that may contain little new in terms of practice, but exhibit intriguing and seemingly unprecedented perspectives of the path.

Let me stress, however, that this selection is not to imply that the remaining twenty-five works ignore the bodhisattva ideal. On the contrary, among them there are several sūtras containing some interesting insights. Generally, though, they treat other subjects more extensively and place the bodhisattva practice in a subordinate role or refer to it only in passing, and so are of minor importance to the present investigation.

Categories of Bodhisattva Texts

As already indicated I shall analyse only those *sūtras* containing most of the data on the *bodhisattva*. For this purpose, I distinguished two text groups. First, there are twenty-three *sūtras* that place the bodhisattva ideal in the centre of their exposition. Since these works hold most of the relevant evidence, they become the bedrock for this study. Second, there is a group that comprises five texts containing isolated points of interest, but typically these refer to the bodhisattva ideal only in passing.

For the sake of organisation, I propose to subdivide further the first text category by differentiating between:

- 1. Sūtras whose aim is the explication of the bodhisattva ideal.
- 2. Sūtras that discuss bodhisattva practices and attributes.
- 3. Sūtras that focus on the bodhisattva doctrine.

The following ten texts belong to the first sub-category: The Rāṣṭrapālaparipṛcchā, Ugraparipṛcchā, Kāśyapaparivarta, Svapnanirdeśa, Upāyakauśalyaparivarta, Sumatidarikaparipṛcchā, Vinayaviniścaya-Upāliparipṛcchā, Ratnacūḍaparipṛcchā, Akṣayamatiparipṛcchā and Darikavimalaśuddha.

The second sub-group consists of eight works: The Vimaladattāparipṛcchā, Acintyabud-dhaviṣayanirdeśa, Bhadramāyākāravyākaraṇa, Mahāprātihāryopadeśa, Susthitamatidevapu-

¹ These are the Svapnanirdeśa (Rkṭ 4), Pūrṇapariprcchā (Rkṭ 17), Rāṣṭrapālaparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 18), Ugraparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 19), Vidyutprāptaparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 20), Bhadramāyākāravyākaraṇa, (Rkṭ 21), Mahāprātihāryopadeśa (Rkṭ 22), Vinayaviniścaya-Upāliparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 24), Subāhuparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 26), Sūrataparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 27), Vīradattagṛhapatiparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 28), Sumatidarikaparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 30), Gaṅgottaraparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 31), Aśokadattāvyākaraṇa (Rkṭ 32), Vimaladattāparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 33), Susthitamatidevaputraparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 36), Upāyakauśalyaparivarta (Rkṭ 38), Darikavimalaśuddha (Rkṭ 40), Kāṣyapaparivarta (Rkṭ 43), Ratnarāśi (Rkṭ 44), Akṣayamatiparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 45), Ratnacūḍaparipṛcchā (Rkṭ 47) and Śrīmālādevīsiṃhanāda (Rkṭ 48).

^{2.} The most prominent examples of this group are the *Trisamvaranirdeśaparivarta* (Rkt 1) Tathāgatācintyaguhyanirdeśa (Rkt 3), Daśadharmakasūtra (Rkt 9), Pitāputrasamāgama (Rkt 16) and Acintyabuddhaviṣayanirdeśa (Rkt 35).

^{3.} Besides the Bdp, it is only the Ug (colophon of T 323), Prn (attested in the T'ang catalogue; Mochizuki, 1931-36, p. 3441a 5-25; ref. Schuster) and Rp (pp. 59.20-60.2) that contain references to the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$ in their title.

^{4.} In most cases, the relevant section is introduced by shifting the focal point to the bodhisattva training. See: Prn (23, pp. 231.3-32.5.4) Vimaladattāparipṛcchā (24, pp. 108.5.1-111.3.8), Susthitamatidevaputraparipṛcchā (24, pp. 130.4.6-134.1.4), Bhadramāyākāravyākaraṇa (23, pp. 7.3.3-9.3.7). In other cases, however, the distinction becomes more blurred with sets of practices being freely interpolated in the description of the main topic, e.g., Vīradattagṛhapatiparipṛcchā (24, pp. 84.2.2-85.1.3) and Mahāprātihāryopadeśa (24, pp. 19.5.1-20.31; 20.3.5-21.3.7; 22.4.5-23.4.8).

trapariprechā, Subāhupariprechā, Vīradattagrhapatipariprechā and Pūrnapariprechā.5

The third sub-category is comprised of three sūtras: The Śrīmālādevīsiṃhanāda, Aśokadat-tāvyākaraṇa, Gangottaraparipṛcchā and the Sūrataparipṛcchā.

Besides these twenty-one texts, there is one more $s\bar{u}tra$ that seemingly places the bodhisattva in the centre of its exposition. This is the $Ratnar\bar{a}sis\bar{u}tra$. The reason why I declined to allocate a place in either of these categories to this $s\bar{u}tra$ is simple. It does not mention the bodhisattva. The $Ratnar\bar{a}sis\bar{u}tra$ discusses the conduct and practice of the religious practitioner (sir amana) in what is formally a Mahāyāna frame of reference, but curiously does not refer to him as bodhisattva. Since the centre of interest is the Vinaya observing monk, it is clear that the text presupposes the monastic environment as framework for the spiritual training. On the basis of eye-witness reports, we know that in practice bodhisattvas were bound to the spirit of the monastic code and often pursued their careers in monasteries. Thus, it seems that the disciplinary reprimands that are voiced in the $Ratnar\bar{a}sis\bar{u}tra$ are directed at all practitioners partaking in the monastic training and so apply also to the bodhisattva.

Like practically all Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$, the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$'s bodhisattva texts operate within the gnoseologic parameter of Mahāyāna ontology. This is most ostensibly borne out by the frequency with which they draw connections with its axioms of emptiness $(s\bar{u}nyat\bar{a})$, sameness $(samat\bar{a})$ and inapprehensibility (anupalambha) that most accept as the philosophic substratum for their expositions. The extent to which these principles come to play a role in the bodhisattva training varies greatly from text to text. While some $s\bar{u}tras$ refer to them only in passing⁸, others assess the whole practice in strict accordance with these axioms. Frequently, it is achieved by defining every bodhisattva activity in terms of $s\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$ from the very outset.⁹

^{5.} In chapter one, I pointed out that in an early T'ang catalogue the *Prn* carries the alternative title *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. While it is true that virtually all portions of its exposition have some bearing on the bodhisattva ideal, it is only a relatively small part that contains explicit information on the bodhisattva training itself. Most of these data are found in its first chapter, entitled 'On the *bodhisattvacaryā*'. However, since this chapter is extremely short, spanning barely ten out of one hundred and fifty folios, even this part of the *Prn* does not provide much information on the training. Hence, I did not include the *Prn* amongst the ten *Ratnakūṭa* works whose centre of interest is the *bodhisattvacaryā*.

^{6.} For the most part, these texts contain no explicit references to the bodhisattva training *per se*. Their importance lies chiefly in the doctrinal frame in which they set the pursuit of the bodhisattva ideal. This allows often for inferences about the theoretical dimensions of the bodhisattva doctrine as contrasted with the more practical aspects of its implementation in the training itself.

^{7.} Our knowledge of monastic customs is chiefly based on the reports we have from Chinese pilgrims who travelled to India and Central Asia around the middle of the first millennium AD. For details on the prevailing state of affairs in Buddhist monasteries, consult: Beal, 1884; Legge, 1886.

^{8.} The sūtras belonging to this category are most prominently the Rp, Ug, Svapnanirdeśa and Ratnarāśi. In these, no attempt is made to link the tenets of Mahāyāna ontology with the practice itself. Thus, their teachings on the bodhisattva assume invariably a very realistic, urgent perspective.

^{9.} This applies in particular to the Vup, Sumatidarikapariprechā and Upāyakauśalyaparivarta. A similar

Owing to this somewhat defiant system of reasoning which challenges the validity of action in general, the bodhisattva thought inevitably becomes less persuasive.¹⁰

Let me stress, however, that the texts that use unmitigated philosophical reasoning throughout are in a clear minority.¹¹ The vast majority display an astonishing measure of spiritual pragmatism in their vision of the bodhisattva. This emphasis on practical concerns is best exemplified by the weight that many give to the ethical dimensions of the career. In addition, great heed is consistently shown to the more religious facets of the training, including concepts such as faith, veneration, discipline, vigour and purity.

Sütras whose Aim is the Explication of the Bodhisattva Ideal

Broadly speaking, in this category we can distinguish four different approaches in the discussion of the bodhisattva ideal.

First, there are *sūtras* that display a high degree of informality and structural liberty in their description of the *bodhisattvacaryā*. Since they often belong to the oldest parts of the collection, their style of exposition is non-technical and lacks many of the elaborate subtleties that prevail in later strands of bodhisattva works.¹² There is every indication that they present the early ideas of the Mahāyāna movement. Since, at this stage, the finer points of the bodhisattva doctrine had yet to be worked out, priority is given to more fundamental, inspiring considerations about the general scope and nature of the bodhisattva training.

The most prominent works of this type are the Rp and Kp. 13 Both texts contain numerous

though less systematised line of reasoning is adopted in the Bhadra-vy, Kp, Śms and Susthitamatidevapu-trapariprechā.

^{10.} This approach is found, above all, in those *sūtras* that I included for their indirect contributions to the bodhisattva doctrine. More will be said about the ways in which it affects the presentation of the bodhisattva.

^{11.} The best-known of the more philosophical Ratnakūta works are the Trisamvsranirdeśaparivarta, Saptaśati-kanāmaprajñāpāramitā, Acintyabuddhaviṣayanirdeśa, Pitāputrasamāgama, Mañjuśrībuddhakṣetra-guṇavyūha, Samantamukhaparivarta. Other less known works are the Vidyutprāptapariprechā and, perhaps, the Gangottarapariprechā.

^{12.} The uncomplicated form of presentation corroborates details that we extricated from Chinese sources about the early date of their composition. Chinese translations of these texts attest that several of them go back to the early centuries of the Christian era. Two of them were first rendered into Chinese during the second century AD and many others followed suit in the third and fourth centuries. Altogether we know of five *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* that reached China during the earliest phase of the translation activity in the late Han dynasty. Of these, two are linked to the devotional strands of Pure Land Buddhism (*Rkṭ* 5, 6), one is associated with the cult of Maitreya (*Rkṭ* 41) and two fall in the first category of bodhisattva *sūtras* (*Rkṭ* 19, 43). For an exemplary analysis of the characteristics that mark the relationship between the date, style and contents of these works, see: Weller, 1965, Einleitung, pp. 5–58.

^{13.} Other examples from this category of works of inspiration are the Rcd, Prn and, of course, the Bdp.

bodhisattva practices and disclose ways in which these interrelate. Apparently in order to distinguish the bodhisattva's qualities from those of other religious practitioners, a marked effort has been made in both $s\bar{u}tras$ to describe the virtues and attributes particular to the bodhisattva. In the Kp, this process of delineation is cast in a somewhat negative mould, since the text invites conclusions by 'rhetorically' listing traits that fall well short of the bodhisattva's high standards. Standing alone, this indirect mode of reasoning might indicate an early date of composition for the Kp at a time when the bodhisattva doctrine was still in its formative period and evolved in reaction against previously existing ideas.¹⁴

If we survey the practices that are included in these early *sūtras*, we note that most texts accentuate the principles of early Buddhist practice and, in particular, the ethical side of their production. Mahāyāna practices such as the *pāramitā* or *upāyakauśalya* are relegated to the background and figure only sporadically. What is more, none of the texts proposes any formal scheme for the bodhisattva training. The practices are cited either on an individual basis or otherwise are loosely drawn together in tetrads. ¹⁵

Second, we have $s\bar{u}tras$ that display a high degree of organisation in their discussion of the bodhisattva. It would seem plausible that these texts were included to balance the structural latitude of works like the Kp and Rp. Two $s\bar{u}tras$, in particular, stand out for their well-structured outlines of the training, that is, the Svapnanirdesa and $Aksayamatipariprech\bar{a}$.

In the Svapnanirdeśa, more than half of the exposition is dedicated to showing the interplay that links the diverse attainments of the ten stages. Priority is given to those factors that specifically correlate the notion of practice with that of progress along the path. The path-scheme itself emulates the tenfold design of the Daśabhūmika. The picture drawn of the career is rather sterile, since it is locked into the formal structure of the path and swerves nowhere from its linear order. This close adherence to the successive training-phases may point to the

^{14.} This is also true of the *Rp*, since it too sets out to define the nature of the bodhisattva in opposition to the qualities of the śrāvaka (Ensink, pp. v-xvi).

^{15.} There is ample room for speculation as to the reasons that led to this structural laxity. First, there is the fact that both works belong to the earliest strand of bodhisattva sūtras not only in the Ratnakūṭa, but probably in the Mahāyāna as a whole. Texts containing such early thought might be expected to be less organised in their presentation than those of later centuries when the bodhisattva doctrine had fully matured. Second, being conceived as works of inspiration, they might never have intended to provide a systematic description of the training. We know of several other Mahāyāna works where clarity and logical coherence are sometimes disregarded in favour of 'emotional' subject matter aimed at the more imaginative traits of the human mind. Thus, it might have well been thought that a terse, systematised style of exposition would inevitably diminish the appeal of texts whose chief function it was to attract following to newly formulated ideas.

^{16. 22,} pp. 97.2.8-109.2.8.

rationale behind the *sūtra*'s incorporation in the *Ratnakūta*; namely, to furnish the collection with a text that systematically classifies, and sets in a well designed scheme practices that are elsewhere haphazardly cited.

In the Akṣayamatipariprechā, this sense for order is heightened to the point of practically encompassing the whole breadth of the bodhisattva training. It involves an abridged, highly systematised presentation of all major practices and phases of the bodhisattva's career, including the bodhicittotpāda, pranidhāna, the ten stages and affiliated perfections, meditations and magic spells. From the structural point of view, the Akṣayamatipariprechā's presentation of the bodhisattvacaryā excels all other path schemes in the Ratnakūta. Beginning with the cittotpāda and concluding in the bodhisattva's acquisition of quasi-magical, buddha-like powers, it follows not only the chronological order of the career, but also points to the interrelationship between the successive attainments. The pāramitā are closely linked to the ten stages; the meditations are generated by sets of vows and, in turn, lead to the acquisition of magical powers.

Third, we have texts that are wholly dedicated to a specific set of bodhisattva pratices. Good examples of such texts are the *Vup* and *Upāyakauśalyaparivarta*. As their titles indicate, the bodhisattva's code of discipline in the *Vup* and skilful means in the *Upāyakauśalyaparivarta* lie at the heart of the discussion. While the *Vup* explores the foundations of moral integrity and its manifestations in the bodhisattva's conduct, the *Upāyakauśalyaparivarta* explicates the operations of skilful means in the bodhisattva's fulfilment of his pledge to universal liberation. Both practices are of cardinal importance to the completion of the career. The reluctance shown in both texts to discuss any topic not closely linked to their causes testifies to the enormous prestige of the practice of śīla and upāyakauśalya.

Fourth, there are $s\bar{u}tras$ that lay stress on the factors separating the lay path from that of the mendicant ideal. The most prominent $s\bar{u}tras$ of this class are the Ug and Sumatidar-

^{17.} On reading the Akṣayamatipariprcchā, it becomes immediately evident that every effort was made to cast its account of the bodhisattva path in the mould of the scheme of the ten stages as codified by the Dbh. In structure and terminology both works exhibit close parallels and it certainly looks as if most, perhaps even all, of its lay-out has been borrowed from the Dbh. Apart from this structural similarity, there is otherwise little substance that connects the two, since the Akṣayamatipariprcchā is an infinitely shorter work and does not take up most of the detail that is set out in the Dbh.

^{18.} Other texts dominated by individual practices are the *Ratnarāśi* and, albeit to a somewhat lesser extent, the *Rcd*. In the *Ratnakūta*, this phenomenon of devoting whole *sūtras* to one concept only is not limited to expositions on the bodhisattva. There are several other texts that focus on a limited range of thems, most notably the *Bhadrapālaśreṣṭhipariprcchā*, *Raśmisamantamuktanirdeśa*, *Āyuṣmannandagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa*, *Akṣobhyatathāgatasyavyūha* and, of course, the *Amitābhavyūha*.

ikapariprcchā.¹⁹ First, both texts go to considerable lengths to present a complete picture of the nature and aptitude of *grhapti* bodhisattvas. Further, neither encourages the outright condemnation of its opposing ideal. Even in the passages where they directly contrast the qualities of *grhapti* bodhisattvas with those of its *pravrajita* counterpart, an amicable tone is maintained.

The *Ug* is most explicit in this matter and postulates that the highest form of bodhisattva practice consists in a combination of the virtues of both ideals. That is to say, it proposes to join the compassion, dedication and altruism of the *grhapti* bodhisattva with the discipline and renunciation of the recluse. The practices and attainments advocated in the *Ug* coincide with those qualities traditionally associated with the two schemes; for the lay path it is faith, generosity and reverence, whereas for the recluse it is contentment, concentration and deep understanding.

Sūtras that Discuss Bodhisattva Practices and Attributes

I now propose to widen our investigation and to consider those *sūtras* containing specific, if sporadic, discussions of bodhisattva practices and attributes. Since they appear generally out of context or are crudely integrated into the plot they serve to illustrate, it seems to me that many of these passages could indeed be interpolations of later times. Amongst the eight texts to be considered here, we can distinguish two principal currents of exposition.

First, there are texts where the passages focus quite specifically on the bodhisattva practice. These are primarily 'action-oriented' and contain only few references to the bodhisattva's qualities or attributes. This is particularly evident in the *Mahāprātihāryopadeśa* and *Prņ*. In the *Mahāprātihāryopadeśa* a long section is taken up by a detailed, itemised description of the mechanisms behind the practices themselves.²¹ There is virtually no reference to the

^{19.} Other texts of this category are the Aśokadattāvyākaraṇa, Vīradattagṛhapatiparipṛcchā, Gaṅgottaraparipṛcchā and philosophically, the Śms.

^{20.} As the Ug is a composite work whose focal-point shifted over the centuries, its conclusions were also subject to change. In the words of Schuster: "The three Chinese translations, the Tibetan and the Sanskrit fragments preserved in Siks, do not represent the same recension of the text. All translations of the text present similar pictures of the lay and recluse bodhisattvas. Yet there is a radical difference of opinion between the oldest version of the Ug (T322) and all the others about what is the superior bodhisattva vocation, and why" (Schuster, op. cit., pp. 79, 315).

^{21. 23,} pp. 11.4.4-23.4.5.

immediate fruits that would result from such practices.²² In the *Prn*, too, an entire chapter is devoted to the bodhisattva training and the individual practices pursued in its course.²³ It is structured in tetrads that allow for only brief comments on the practices themselves, unlike the corresponding passage in the *Mahāprātihāryopadeśa* that contains much more detail.²⁴

Second, we have several sūtras where the focal-point shifts towards descriptions of the bodhisattva. Here, emphasis is placed on the qualities of the bodhisattva rather than on the practice itself. Even the most outstanding practices, such as the pāramitā or saṃgrahavastu, do not appear in their expositions. The main objective is no longer to explain the practical concerns of the training, but forge a new ideal from traditional collections of religious maxims. Generally, they do not investigate the way these were accomplished in the first place. Examples of this shift in emphasis are contained in the Darikavimalaśuddha and, to a somewhat lesser extent, in the Subāhupariprechā. The Darikavimalaśuddha places specific bodhisattva attributes and powers in the foreground, whereas the Subāhupariprechā presents the bodhisattva ideal in subtly inspiring but more general terms. Apart from this difference in tone, both sūtras were clearly based on similar assumptions that place them side by side amongst the Ratnakūta works.

Sūtras that Focus on the Bodhisattva Doctrine

Much of our attention so far has been directed at the practical facets of the bodhisattva training. This is appropriate in view of the predominantly 'action-oriented' nature of most Ratnakūṭa sūtras. This feature however is not shared by all texts, as some concentrate on the theoretical perspectives of the bodhisattva ideal. These I have grouped together as sūtras that deal with doctrinal issues or contain only indirect references to the bodhisattva. They are

^{22. 24,} pp. 15.5.7-16.3.5

The fruits and bodhisattva qualities that spring from the training are iterated separately towards the end of bam-po two (pp. 19.5.1–20.3.1) and again in the middle of bam-po three (pp. 22.4.5–23.4.8).

^{23.} This is chapter one. Incidentally, this chapter, entitled: 'On the *bodhisattvacaryā*', is the only of all forty-nine texts (except the *Bdp*) that bears a title which is immediately related to the bodhisattva training (23, pp. 231.1.6–232.5.4).

^{24.} The other texts containing passages that focus on the more active or dynamic aspects of the bodhisattva ideal are the *Bhadra-vy* (24, pp. 7.3.3–9.3.7), *Vimaladattāpariprechā* (24, pp. 108.5.1–111.3.8) and *Susthitamatidevaputrapariprechā* (24, pp. 130.4.6–134.1.4).

^{25.} The third text which belongs to this category is the $Viradattagrhapatipariprech\bar{a}$ (in particular, pp. 84.2.2-85.1.3) and, of course, the Bdp.

separately examined further below, so it will suffice to note just two of their characteristics here.

First, all of them pass over the practical aspects of the bodhisattva training and include only a few statements immediately relating to the vision of universal liberation. At first glance, they do not seem to be of great import to the bodhisattva ideal. On closer examination, we find this is misleading. The $\dot{S}ms$ is the text where such philosophical priority is most conspicuous. The work abounds with allusions to the doctrinal background of the various career-phases. It not only adds new thought, but also draws parallels with several other Mahāyāna works and traces correlations with their propositions.

Second, practically all *sūtras* in this category endeavour to highlight the issues separating the attainments of the śrāvaka from those of the bodhisattva, often over many pages. These discourses assume an overwhelmingly theoretical flavour with little illustrative material and not much interest is shown in the practical application.

On the basis of this preliminary investigation, it is now possible to venture some opinion on the motives behind the inclusion of the Bdp in the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$. In chapter one, I pointed to textual evidence that suggests that the Bdp was widely esteemed for its treatment of the perfections. This finding is corroborated by the results from our survey of its contents, showing that the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ stand at the centre of the Bdp.

So far very little has been said about the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ in the context of the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$. The reason for this omission is that the Bdp is practically the only text in the entire collection that treats the six perfections with more than passing reference. This is astonishing, considering the great attention that is given to the bodhisattva in every other detail in the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$. Without the Bdp its depiction of the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$ would lack the most prominent set of bodhisattva practices.

^{26.} I know of no other Mahāyāna sūtra that propounds the pāramitā in quite the depth that the Bdp does. Even texts that are intimately linked to the bodhisattva's cause mention them only in passing. In the Dbh, for instance, the perfections appear only briefly at the end of each stage (Daŝa-bh, p. 30; cf. Sgs, pp. 141-150). Likewise, in the Vkn they are cited only twice in full and also there little attention is given to their implementation (pp. 96-7, 157). Even in the voluminous Pañca, we find only sporadic discussions of the pāramitā altogether amounting to little more than a tenth of its exposition (e.g., pp. 263-67, 400-4, 453-64, 488, 509-526). One is led to conclude that the perfections were either considered to be very elementary and therefore required no specific explanation, or (and this seems much more likely) that behind the Vkn and texts like it there might have been well-known sūtras where the pāramitā were propounded in detail so that to discuss them once again would have been otiose.

^{27.} The only exception is perhaps the *Rcd*, since in this work the perfections do receive considerable attention at the beginning of the discourse (24, pp. 231.4.7–236.2.7).

With the *Bdp's* exposition of the *pāramitā*, the picture becomes complete. Indeed, there is then practically no aspect of the bodhisattva training that is not discussed or touched upon at least once in the forty-nine texts. We find works of inspiration that provide general information on the scope of the training and extol the qualities of the bodhisattva's accomplishments; texts that explore the major practices to be cultivated by bodhisattvas; *sūtras* that instruct in the order that the practices are to be undertaken and demonstrate how they interact with each other; works that propound especially selected practices warranting exclusive treatment; texts that address the controversy of the lay/mendicant distinction and lay down the frameworks for their respective training; and finally *sūtras* that give the bodhisattva ideal a more philosophically 'objective' treatment through examination of the theoreticl principles lying at the heart of its doctrine. Clearly, in view of this thematic completeness, the notion that the *Ratnakūṭa* might have been compiled on the basis of a premeditated scheme now seems less absurd. On the contrary, it might well be argued that without a calculated plan such extraordinary degree of *balance in diversity* could not have been achieved.

The high standing of the bodhisattva in *Ratnakūṭa* works is confirmed by the multitude of practices that are introduced in the course of their expositions. Since I discuss many of these in the context of the *Bdp* in chapter four, I shall investigate here the extent to which they convey a complete picture of the *bodhisattvacaryā*. In particular, I shall probe whether their arrangement manifests any indications why they were included in the *Ratnakūta* collection.

Bodhisattva Vow

Adopting the order of the career progress, I suggest to look first at the ways in which the texts describe the bodhisattva's vow (pranidhāna). The most advanced expositions of the bodhisattva vow are given in the Śms and Akṣayamatipariprechā. In both texts the vow is divided into ten component parts each of which addresses one specific training-perspective. In the Akṣayamatipariprechā, the enumeration follows the succession of the ten pāramitā with each vow containing a pledge to practice the corresponding perfection. Its presentation is accordingly very formal. In the Śms the situation is different. Here, the pranidhāna is embedded in the narrative and designates a specific point in Śrīmālā's spiritual advance. As a $\overline{28.24}$, pp. 204.1.2-2.4; 24, pp. 252.1.5-5.2.

result, the description is very much alive and vibrates with her yearning for enlightenment. The contents of the individual limbs do not seem to follow any formal design, but reflect the underlying vision of the bodhisattva. Genuine desire for universal welfare is also displayed in the vow that is set out in the Ug. As in the Sms and Aksayamatipariprecha, it is cited at the beginning of the discourse and introduces the spiritual quest of the main protagonist, in this case the householder Ugra. Yet, in contrast to the former two, its formulation is rather archaic and may well belong to the earliest examples of its kind.

All other sūtras containing references to the bodhisattva vow relate its function to a specific purpose or mention it only in passing. Good examples are given in the Aśokadattāvyākaraṇa, Bhadra-vy and Rp. While none of these works discusses the bodhisattva vow in detail, all uphold its cardinal importance for the bodhisattva career. In the Aśokadattāvyākaraṇa, for instance, it is listed amongst eight dharma that remove blemish from household life—an issue of foremost concern to its defence of the lay path.²⁹ The Bhadra-vy and Rp give somewhat less attention to the bodhisattva vow. It appears inconspicuously halfway through a long sequence of tetrads spelling out all sorts of bodhisattva practices.³⁰ No attempt is made to set the vow apart from the principles cited next to it. Neither is the reference itself very explicit, since it broadly correlates the fulfilment of the vow to the accumulation of the roots of virtue and learning.³¹

Then, we have several sūtras that either build conceptually on the vow or allude to its scope and effects. First, there are those texts where it constitutes the rationale behind many of

^{29. 24,} pp. 101.2.5-3.3.

^{30.} Bhadra-vy, pp. 43, 96 (§ 103); Rp, p. 14.11–12.

The vows themselves are very similar in contents and represent variations on what must be considered the simplest and perhaps earliest form of the bodhisattva's pranidhāna.

In the *Bhadra-vy*, the bodhisattva pledges (1) to abide in *samsāra* until he has saved all sentient beings; (2) to strive to learn the disposition of all beings so that he can instruct them in a suitable manner; (3) to acquire wholesome *dharma*, to defeat Māra and to accomplish enlightenment; and (4) to teach the Doctrine to the world in just one word.

In the Rp the vow is vaguer (Ensink, op. cit., p. 15):

[&]quot;There is no salvation, no refuge nor relief whatever for the world that errs on the way of the conditioned. I must release all beings, therefore I make my vow to attain the highest enlightenment."

Both are conspicuously similar to the vows that are included in the *Aṣṭa* and *Mvu*; these are probably the oldest of their kind. In the *Aṣṭa* (trsl. Conze, 1973, p. 254) it runs:

[&]quot;We have crossed over, we shall help beings to cross over. Freed, we shall free them. Recovered, we shall help them to recover. Gone to Nirvāṇa, we shall help them to go to Nirvāṇa."

In the Mvu (p. 138.16) the vow is given in precisely the same form as in the Asta. In this profile it is also found in the Saddhp (pp. 122-3).

^{31.} In the *Rp* there is another reference to the bodhisattva vow. This time it is made by prince Punyaraśmi when he pronounces his willingness to follow the Buddhist path. Although very similar in contents to the former, it is less accentuated and easily overseen (p. 44.17 ff).

their propositions. The best-known examples of this kind are the Vup and $Up\bar{a}yakau\dot{s}alyaparivarta$, where the fulfillment of the vow is fundamental to their theses. Second, there are works that assimilate its significance, scope and implications without incessantly going back to the vow itself. A good example of this kind is the Ug. This text places the vow at the very heart of its teaching by linking its concomitants of altruism and selfless service with the moral and disciplinary zeal of the recluse.

Bodhisattva Practice

Broadly speaking, the training that leads to the implementation of the vow is composed of two categories of practice. First, it includes a number of principles that were adopted from the earlier strands of Buddhist practice. Although with the advent of the Mahāyāna these practices were 'officially' relegated to the background, many survived as the very bedrock of the bodhisattva training. Second, we have practices that were developed in the Mahāyāna itself. The most prominent amongst these are of course the *pāramitā*. It is their treatment in the *Ratnakūta* that I shall consider next.

The Ratnakūṭa sūtras approach the perfections in three different ways. First, there is one text that places the pursuit of the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ in the centre of its exposition. This is the Bdp. However, one should also mention the $Akṣayamatipariprech\bar{a}$ and Red since both contain some material on all six (or ten) perfections. In the middle section of the $Akṣayamatipariprech\bar{a}$, the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ are briefly discussed and, thereafter, recur in connection with the various path-stages. And yet, since the $s\bar{u}tra$ is an extremely short work and does not explain the training in the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ beyond a number of attributes, we learn little about how to pursue them. In the Red, the situation is not very different. Here too, we have a work that

^{32.} Vup, pp. 108-114, § 33-40.

^{33.} In the *Ug*, by being placed at the very beginning of the discourse, the vow is employed in a very effective way. In a few lines it sets out the gist of the whole work and is easily memorised. Like those of the *Rp* and *Bhadra-vy*, it is early in both format and orientation and very close to that of the *Aṣṭa* and *Mvu*. It runs as follows (23, p. 259.3.1–2):

[&]quot;I shall liberate those who have not yet been liberated, and release those who have not yet been released. Those who have not yet been comforted, I shall comfort. Those who have not yet been freed from affliction, I shall bring about their freedom from affliction."

^{34. 24,} pp. 204.2.6-205.4.7.

^{35.} In the Peking edition of the Tibetan Canon the whole text extends barely over seventeen folios (24, pp. 203.3.7-206.5.4).

^{36.} Besides Sthiramati's commentary on the Kp and Chinese commentaries on the Sms, the Rcd is the only text

considers all perfections, but does not place them in the centre of its exposition.³⁷ Instead, it is the *bodhipāksika dharma* that become the focal-point of much of the discourse.

Next, there are works that contain partial discussions of the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$. In some of these, treatment is only nominal and rarely exceeds a few lines. This is the case in the Kp, $Pr\bar{p}$, Sms, $S\bar{u}ratapariprech\bar{a}$ and, perhaps, the Bhadra-vy. Typically, they refer to the six $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ only in passing or allude vaguely to their implementation. The Kp goes furthest by simply referring to another text for a more detailed exposition of their contents.³⁸

A limited treatment of selected perfections is also found the Sumatidarikapariprechā and Rp. Here, however, the perfections are not explicitly referred to by name, but are implied by the nature of the practices. It is worth noting that the practices that occur with greatest frequency in this connection are those constituting the bodhisattva's moral training (adhiśīlaśikṣā). That is to say, they are $d\bar{a}na$, $ś\bar{\imath}la$, $kṣ\bar{a}nti$ and also, according to some, $v\bar{\imath}rya$.

Finally, there are several texts that discuss only one of the six (or ten) perfections. The selected the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ is invariably explored at great length and stands at the centre of the discourse. This is the case in the Ug, Vup and, of course, in the $Up\bar{a}yakau\dot{s}alyaparivarta$. Each of them treats its selected perfection in exhaustive detail and looks at it from a number of perspectives, with very little overlapping between the discussions. The Ug explores $d\bar{a}na$,

of our twenty-one bodhisattva sūtras that is furnished with a commentary. It is called Ratnacūḍasūtracatur-dharmopadeśa (T1526) and exists in Tibetan and Chinese translations. Tibetan sources attribute it to Vasubandhu, but the validity of this authorship has been challenged. Demiéville (BEFEO, 44, p. 391, n. 5), however, says that this commentary is not extant in Tibetan.

^{37.} The *Rcd* begins with a discussion of the six *pāramitā* (24, pp. 231.4.7–236.2.7) which is immediately followed by a lengthy exposition on the *bodhipākṣika dharma* (24, pp. 236.2.8–244.2.8). Its total volume spans well over one hundred folios (24, pp. 229.5.1–251.1.8).

The positioning of the bodhipākṣika in the middle of the discourse and the detail with which they are treated indicates that they were thought to stand at the very heart of the bodhisattva's training; probably right next to the pāramitā. The description of the individual factors is carefully phrased and a lot more exhaustive than all other references to the bodhipākṣika elsewhere in the Ratnakūṭa. Hence, it becomes a distinct possibility that just as the Bdp was seen as the authority on the perfections, so the Rcd might been held in high esteem for its contribution on the bodhipākṣika dharma and therefore warranted inclusion in the Ratnakūṭa.

^{38. 24,} p. 189.2.6-7
For text-critical comments on the passage in which the *Kp* refers to the *Bdp* for the practice of the perfections, see: Weller, *op. cit.*, p. 67, § 6.1 (n. 5, 6). Other *Ratnakūṭa* internal references to the *Bdp* are found in the *Ug* (p. 267.2.5-6) and *Upāyakauŝalyaparivarta* (p. 162.1.7-2.8).

^{39.} The dhyānapāramitā corresponds to the adhicittašikṣā and the prajñāpāramitā represents the adhiprajñāśikṣā. The allocation of the vīryapāramitā is less clear-cut and varies from author to author, some associating it with the adhicittašikṣā and others with the adhisīlašikṣā. This threefold division of the pāramitā was widely accepted in Mahāyāna circles and probably represents attempts to reconcile the practices of the bodhisattva to those of early Buddhism. Amongst others, it is spelled out in the Msg, Bbh and Madhyamakāvatāra. sGam-po-pa propounds a similar scheme (Guenther, 1971, p. 149). For further references to this scheme see: Eimer, 1976, pp. 113 ff.

the *Vup* expounds śīla and the *Upāyakauśalyaparivarta* explains *upāyakauśalya*. Generally, the chosen perfection is treated on its own and not linked with other practices.⁴⁰

Treatment of the practices that complement the bodhisattva's training in the pāramitā is generally rather uniform. But for shifts in emphasis (largely due to varying contexts in which the ancillary practices are called upon), few texts exhibit any substantial differences in their choice and discussion of these practices. Repeatedly, our attention is drawn to the pañcaśīla, apramāṇa, saṃgrahavastu, rddhipāda, abhijñā, dhutaṅga and bodhipākṣika dharma, to mention just a few of the more frequent principles. Besides these well-established sets, one meets also with a fair number of individual, less codified practices, such as reverence, eloquence, self-sacrifice, selfless service, faith and learning.

Also the framework in which these practices are embedded is remarkable uniform. Generally, they are summed up in mnemonic-type lists of the kind I have already discussed in connection with the Bdp. In view of this consistency, it is tempting to conclude that many of these better known principles might have been based on some ancient, uniform stock of practices. What is surprising, however, is the extent to which the texts exhibit similarities in style and tone. It has been generally assumed until now that the concise $s\bar{u}tra$ style is particular to the early phase of Mahāyāna literature. In the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$, however, these features are shared by early and late works alike.⁴²

^{40.} The exception is the *Upāyakauśalyaparivarta*. Here, a specific practice, viz., the perfection of skilful means is related to numerous other training aspects to which it becomes the frame of implementation. Hence, although priority is given to showing how skilful means influences the training as a whole, it is set repeatedly in contexts that disclose its application to specific practices. At the beginning of the exposition (24, pp. 151.4.8–152.1.8), for instance, it is shown how *upāyakauśalya* affects the practice of the *pāramitā*. In section two and three (24, pp. 156.2.3–167.5.8) it is taken to account for the Buddha's inexplicable past conduct. Thus, although *upāyakauśalya* is the focal-point that determines the perspective for all other practices, it is not the sole topic of the *Upāyakauśalyaparivarta*.

^{41.} As complete sets of practice, these are found above all in the *Ug*, *Sūratapariprechā*, *Ratnarāśi*, *Red*, *Rp* and *Kp*. In other texts, commonly just one or two aspects of these categories are cited or else the respective principles are not discussed under the official headings but listed on their own merits. This is particularly the case in the *Bhadra-vy* (§ 79–121), *Aśokadattāvyākarana* and *Sumatidarikapariprechā*.

^{42.} Compare, for instance, the style of exposition of such early works as the *Kp*, *Ug*, *Maitreyapariprcchādharmāṣṭa* (trsl. second century) or *Rcd* (trsl. third century) with that of the *Akṣayamatipariprcchā* (trsl. eighth century), *Sms* or *Pps* (trsl. fifth century). It will be noted that, although doctrinally far apart, all seven works show affinity in literary style and share a conspicuous preference for concision in the presentation of their cases.

Bodhisattva Path

When discussing the types of bodhisattva expositions existing in the *Ratnakūṭa*, I have pointed to the *Svapnanirdeśa* and *Akṣayamatipariprcchā* as two *sūtras* whose descriptions of the *bodhisattvacaryā* emulate the *daśabhūmika* scheme. Identification of the tenfold design caused no difficulty, since the expositions of both texts are firmly locked into their structures. There are, however, *Ratnakūṭa* works where the path-design is less clear.

A good example is the *daśabhūmika* scheme that is found in the *Śms*. Being essentially a philosophical work, the *Śms* displays few clear-cut statements on the bodhisattva path. Much of what we know about its vision of the bodhisattva path is therefore based on exegetical works. A key passage pointing to the adaptation of the tenfold design is contained in the second chapter where Śrīmālā speaks of the bodhisattva's successive renunciation of body, life-force and possessions. Although, at first glance, no specific design emerges in this reference, it shows parallels with other works where the three types of renunciation are related to the ten stages. We learn in the *Mahāvastu* that from the eighth stage onwards bodhisattvas begin to renounce their property and take up the mendicant path. This ties in with what the queen, says: by renunciation of the body, bodhisattvas attain the buddha-body (presumable the transcendental body first attained on the *acalābhūmi*); renunciation of the life-force settles bodhisattvas in Dharma-activity (by common consent on the *sādhumatībhūmi*), and by renouncing all possessions they are certain to receive honours from all beings (at the *dharmameghābhūmi* when the bodhisattva is encircled by the *Sangha*).

Further evidence of the adoption of the daśabhūmika scheme is found in a series of references to four kinds of merit (guṇa). 46 Of these, the Rgv links 'limitless merit' (guṇāprameyatā) to the seventh stage, 'completeness of merit' (guṇasarvatā) to the eighth stage; 'inconceivable merit' (guṇācintyatā) to the ninth stage; and 'pure excellence of merit' (guṇaviśud-dhiparamatā) to the buddha-stage. 47

There are yet more passages in the $\dot{S}ms$ that allude to a scheme for grading the progress of the bodhisattva. These propose to divide the bodhisattva path into two major phases. According to the Msl, quoting a passage from the $\dot{S}ms$, the practitioner goes first through a 'progress-phase'

^{43.} For a list of commentaries that were written on the Śms in China, see Wayman, 1974, pp. 9–11.

^{44. 24,} pp. 255.5.3-256.1.5.

^{45.} Mvu, p. 105.11-14 (ref. Wayman).

^{46. 24,} p. 254.3.8-4.2.

^{47.} Rgv, pp. 264–265 (ref. Wayman).

comprising the attainments of the śrāvaka, pratyekabuddha and 'newly-set-out' bodhisattva. Then he passes through the 'fulfilment-phase' that is set by the 'three stages of the body made of mind'. These, Queen Śrīmālā associates with the advanced bodhisattva. Although the three path-stages are raised at several occasions in the $\acute{S}ms$, at no point it is made fully clear to which phases they actually correspond. Also the commentaries do not offer conclusive advice. Instead, they cite references to three stages in other Buddhist scriptures. 51

The $\dot{S}ms$ belongs probably to the later strands of the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$. This might have influenced the rather complex picture that it draws of the bodhisattva path. Our next example, the Ug, in contrast belongs to the earliest bodhisattva $s\bar{u}tras$. Hence, it is not surprising that, like the Bdp, it does not follow any 'prefabricated' path scheme, but develops a plan of its own. ⁵² In essence, many of its teachings revolve around the factors that distinguish the training of the pravrajita bodhisattva from that of its lay counterpart. While the controversy surrounding these two ideals is an old one, its conclusions are remarkable and warrant closer investigation. At several places in the Ug we are told quite clearly that the paths of the grhapti and pravrajita bodhisattva represent nothing but two consecutive career stages that eventually

^{48.} Msl, p. 70.3-10

The quotation itself is however not found in the Śms.

^{49.} Wayman associates the so-called 'body made of mind' to special cases of perception, to their reflected image in the three realms and to birth. Starting from these assumptions, he concludes that it must refer to a duplicate of the coarser body; and that indeed the 'body made of mind' is assigned to the 'nonfluxional realm' with its reflected image in the coarser body assigned to the 'fluxional three realms'. I must admit that I am not certain that I understand his terminology and the reasoning behind his argument. Since it is only of minor import to our present discussion, I shall not digress, but refer to the passages in which Wayman develops his case; that is: Wayman. 1974, pp. 29–31.

^{50. 24,} p. 254.3.8-5.4, pp. 255.4.2-257.4.5.

^{51.} Chinese commentaries (*Chi-tsang*, p. 173) point, for instance, to an account that is given in the *Lankāv* that arranges the 'three bodies made of mind' alongside the ten *bhūmi*, correlating the first body to stages one to five, the second body to stages six and seven and the third body to the eighth, ninth and tenth stages (pp. 211-214).

^{52.} The clearest indications of such scheme are found in a section on stūpa rites:

[&]quot;When shall I [the bodhisattva] renounce the filth of household-life? When shall I abide and fare just in this way? I shall generate, just so, the thought of wishing to go forth to mendicant life, of no longer remaining in household-life at all and to pursue the conduct of supreme enlightenment. All those who go forth to mendicant life and hasten to the empty forest of solitude realise perfect enlightenment" (23, p. 265.4.6–5.2).

For further details, see: 23, pp. 265.5.3–267.1.6 and p. 270.3.2–4. These statements on the path phases are corroborated by the sequence in which the individual aspects of the bodhisattva training are cited in the Ug. The first section sets out to define the nature and training of the lay bodhisattva. It describes the typical lay attributes of faith, generosity, morality and veneration (HIB, pp. 67–84), each of which is then individually taken up in section two to six (§ 2, morality; § 3, healing; § 4, home; § 5, generosity; § 6, $st\bar{u}pa$ worship). Next, departing from the ideal of the householder, section seven lays out in detail the practices of the $\bar{a}ryavam\dot{s}a$. In part, these are taken up again in section eight that deals with secluded dwelling. As in all preceding sections great stress is laid on the reasons lying behind the individual practices and, above all, justifying the renunciation of household-life in favour of forest seclusion. Finally, towards the end of the discourse, the training schemes of the lay and mendicant ideals are merged and five *dharma* are put forward that characterise the training of the new, combined path (23, pp. 272.3.6–4.7).

come together in the ideal of the 'accomplished bodhisattva'.⁵³ While it is the *grhapti* bodhisattva who comes closest to the realisation of buddhahood⁵⁴, he cannot achieve this without having first gone through the phases of renunciation and discipline of the mendicant path.⁵⁵

The text distinguishes three path-phases. First, there is the phase of the superbly motivated, though technically ill-equipped, householder. He has raised the thought of enlightenment and proceeds on the path to buddhahood, but his progress is hampered by lack in purity and understanding. Then follows a phase in which the bodhisattva spends his days as a recluse in the forest, exerting himself to attain the degree of insight and purity required to implement his resolution with utmost success. Finally, in the third phase of his training, the bodhisattva returns to the world of the householder and resumes his task of liberating all sentient beings. ⁵⁶

Householder and Recluse

Out of the twenty-three bodhisattva works in the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$, seventeen take up this somewhat controversial issue. Of the seventeen, eight⁵⁷ uphold the training of the grhapti bodhisattva and nine⁵⁸ endorse the pravrajita bodhisattva as the higher ideal. Numerically, there is almost parity between the two groups. But before rushing to conclusions, let us look at the ways in which the texts argue their cases. As in previous instances, I have selected from each group one $s\bar{u}tra$ that is particularly well-suited to serve as an example.

The Aśokadattāvyākaraņa is in many ways representative for the advocates of the lay

^{53.} Ug, 23, p. 272.3.7-4.7.

^{54. 23,} pp. 272.5.7-73.1.6.

^{55. 23,} p. 270.2.4-4.6.

^{56. 23,} p. 271.2.7–3.1:

[&]quot;And furthermore, O householder, in accordance with the Buddha's instructions the *pravrajita* bodhisattva must live in the forest abode, thinking to himself: "In this place I shall accomplish all virtuous practices. Having adhered to it by reason of roots of virtue, afterwards, I shall go to towns and villages to preach the Dharma."

A similar concept in found in chapter nine of the *Bdp* where the bodhisattva is encouraged to withdraw into solitude prior to promulgating the Dharma (R, folio 540–41).

^{57.} These are the 1. Sms, 2. Sumatidarikapariprechā, 3. Aśokadattāvyākaraņa, 4. Vimaladattāpariprechā, 5. Gangottarapariprechā, 6. Susthitamatidevaputrapariprechā (24, pp. 139.3.3-142.2.3 only), 7. Viradattagṛhapatipariprechā, 8. Ug (in the Ug the position is less clear as it changed over the centuries). Of these seven works, number 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 endorse also the potential of the female bodhisattva.

^{58.} These are the *Bdp*, *Rp*, *Susthitamatidevaputraparipṛcchā*, *Bhadra-vy*, *Ratnarāśi*, *Sūrataparipṛcchā*, *Kāśya-paparivarta*, *Akṣayamatiparipṛcchā* and *Pūrṇaparipṛcchā*.

ideal.⁵⁹ First, it belongs to those texts in which the *gṛhapti/pravrajita* distinction is vehemently brought to the fore and thus is probably the main reason for its composition. Like most of the *sūtras* propounding the lay ideal, it is rather short and deals with few other issues. Second, there is its vivid description of the challenge launched at even the most senior monks by Princess Aśokadattā. This is commonplace in this type of text, where the dialogue is typically sharp and full of irony. At the end (and this too is characteristic for the householder/recluse debate in the *Ratnakūṭa*), it draws up a set of practices that bridge the differences between the two ideals to produce the ideal of the 'accomplished bodhisattva' very much along the lines of the *Ug*. Doctrinally, this is achieved by merging the maxims of purity, insight and meditation of the recluse with the compassion, selfless service and self-sacrifice of the householder.⁶⁰

Our second example, the *Ratnarāśi*, is less accommodating to the householder. It advocates strict observance of the monastic code of conduct and encourages the revival of the mendicant ideal. The reasons standing behind these concerns are well-known from the early *suttas*. First, it is concerned with the personal benefit that accrues to the religious by way of physical and mental purity. Second, it wishes to ensure the *Saṅgha's* continuing ability to provide fields of merit for lay followers, as a loss might damage its financial standing. In order to kindle a desire for purity, the *Ratnarāśi* extols the benefits that spring from meticulous adherence to the *Vinaya* and praises those who genuinely withdraw into seclusion.

The assumption behind this commitment to a monastic-type discipline is that lay life is inevitably defiled and thus not suited to spiritual purification. Like the *Bdp*, the *Ratnarāśi* warns of the worldly evils of desire, greed and conceit and goes to great length to contrast them with the virtues of the disciplinarian framework of mendicant training.

^{59. 24,} pp. 96.2.4-103.2.8.

^{60.} The points include (1) to purify the body and gain faith in enlightenment; (2) to generate kindness and compassion; (3) to master all worldly affairs because of/with compassion; (4) to be able to give up one's life and to achieve ingenuity; (5) to be able to make infinite vows; (6) to accomplish the perfection of wisdom and become detached from all views; (7) to develop unwavering, infinite courage and vigour; (8) to acquire unhindered pristine cognition as a result of attaining the realisation of the non-arising of *dharma* (24, p. 101.2.5–3.3).

^{61. 24,} pp. 207.1.2-5.6.

^{62. 24,} pp. 207.5.7–208.1.6; 208.3.5–209.1.5.

^{63.} That is to say, it is to adopt wholeheartedly the practices that are included in the āryavaṃśa and to pursue the various meditative practices out of genuine desire for purification (24, pp. 208.1.6-4.2, 214.3.3-5.8). There is reason to believe that these ideals had not always been fully upheld, since the texts abounds with examples that illustrate how the monk should not conduct himself (24, pp. 210.1.1-211.5.5). In keeping with Vinaya tradition, these episodes are presumably cited on the basis of some true occurrence and might well reflect the state of the Saṅgha at the time of the composition of the Ratnarāśi. On evidence of moral laxity in the Buddhist communities of Central Asia during the fourth century where fragments of the Ratnarāśi have been found, see: L'Inde Classique, ii, p. 415. For further evidence of criticism of indiscipline in early Mahāyāna sūtras, see Kp, pp.162-171, § 111-120.

Two issues warrant particular attention, since they disclose rather conclusively what the *Ratnarāśi* considered an ideal environment. First, (and this is accentuated throughout the text) no monk should expose himself unnecessarily to contact with the laity. Every interaction between lay followers and *bhiksus* has to be sanctioned by the monastic community and must strictly serve its interests.⁶⁴

The training that such isolation was intended to advance consists of two main components. On the one hand, we have a strictly regulated monastic regime of intense supervision and willing submission.⁶⁵ The one issue that recurs constantly is the principle of personal accountability. Although it is applied to practitioners of all levels, it is argued that it is especially mandatory for those who hold a leading office in the monastic precinct.⁶⁶

The Ratnarāśi also spells out the less regulated path of the recluse. Since this career is beyond immediate control of monastic sanction and depends on the practitioner's willingness to honour the norms of the Dharma, the sūtra's tone changes from the prescriptive to a descriptive one. Rather than postulating strict rules of conduct, it gives practical advice and describes the kind of conduct that benefits a recluse's progress. In essence, these take the form of guidelines in combining the spirit of the Vinaya with the practicalities of forest-dwelling.

As forest life is described after the monastic training, it could be argued that the *Ratnarāśi* proposes, like the *Ug*, some stratification in the training. At first, the practitioner is expected to subscribe to the disciplinarian rigour of monastic training. During this period he is being schooled in the fundamental precepts of Buddhist spirituality. Then, having mastered the concept of non-self and achieved a high degree of mental and moral stability, he is allowed to withdraw into seclusion in order to internalise what he was taught in the monastery during prolonged periods of meditation. Let me stress, however, that while such a succession of training phases would accord with the principles of spiritual purification and seems corroborated on contextual grounds, it is not explicitly proposed in the *Ratnarāśi*.

The practices themselves build largely on the aspiration and training of the arhant-ideal.⁶⁷ Valid for the recluse and monk alike, they centre on the general categories of śīla, samādhi

^{64.} This implies meticulous observance of the *prātimokṣa* rules in general and, in particular, the strict adherence to those *Vinaya* precepts that regulate the moments when monks and laity come into contact with each other, viz, on alms-round, while travelling, at public ceremonies and so forth. For details on these rules see the *Pavāraṇakkhandhaka* and *Kaṭhinakkhandhaka* sections of the *Culavagga* in the *Khandhaka* of the Pāli *Vinaya*.

^{65, 24,} pp. 211.5.6-213.2.3.

^{66. 24,} pp. 212.5.2-213.2.2.

^{67.} See, in particular, 24, pp. 206.5.5-208.3.5.

and prajñā and the seven sets of bodhipākṣika dharma. But what is perhaps more surprising than the absence of specific bodhisattva practices, is the general indifference of treatment to the bodhisattva's chief aspiration of universal liberation. Except for one cluster of practices that encourage a generally positive disposition towards people, no explicit commitment to their liberation is made. Clearly, this disinterest in the fate of other beings and the implicit refusal to open the monk's aspirations to the laity points to an early origin of the Ratnarāśi.⁶⁸

Bodhisattva Doctrine

These findings lead us to our next topic of examination, that is, the position of bodhisattva works in the *Ratnakūṭa* in the overall development of the bodhisattva doctrine. I have already pointed to four *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* (5, 18, 19, 43) that have features linking them with the earliest strands of the bodhisattva doctrine. Since they typically abound in lengthy descriptions of the bodhisattva qualities, I have called them works of inspiration. The earliest attested translations of these *sūtras* go back to the second century AD. While in at least two cases these have been subject to modifications, much of their original thought belongs without doubt to the earliest phase of the bodhisattva doctrine.⁶⁹

Next, we have several sūtras where the links with early Buddhist practice are less evident.

^{68.} There are several factors that might have accounted for the Ratnarāśi's unusual doctrinal orientation and the weight that it gives to the observance of monastic precepts. First, one will have to consider the time of its composition. The terminus ad quem of the Ratnarāśi is the end of the third century AD since one of its Chinese translations (T 310.44) goes back to this period. Beyond that, we know little about its literary history. Other clues that might be of relevance to the Ratnarāśi's historical evaluation are given in a few manuscript fragments that were discovered at the beginning of this century in Central Asia. The language of the fragments is Sanskrit written in the Upright Gupta script (Hoernle, 1916, pp. ix-xxxii, 116). The use of the Upright Gupta script raises the possibility that the manuscript might date back to the fourth or fifth century AD (Hoernle, 1916, p. xiii). While this alone can scarcely be regarded as sufficient evidence for a secure dating, it is in line with the date of the earliest Chinese translation of the Ratnarāśi. For details on the language of surviving manuscript fragments of the Ratnarāśi, see: Hoernle, 1916, pp. 116–121. There is yet another hint to be gleaned from the few surviving lines of the Central Asian manuscript. This is the Ratnarāši's area of circulation. It will be recalled that we have evidence of the Ratnakūṭa's popularity in Central Asia. Most of these had been discovered in the caves of Tun-huang. The fragments of the Ratnaräsi were located near Kucha, in the extreme north-west of present-day China. The geographical distance that separates both places underlines the Ratnakūta's wide dissemination in Central Asia. More importantly, however, Kucha tells us about the Ratnarāśi's sectarian affiliation. Hsüan-tsang, in his report on Buddhism in Kucha, refers to Kucha explicitly as a town that was under strong Sarvāstivādin influence (Beal, 1884, i, pp. 19-20). Clearly, an affiliation with one of the prevailing sects of early Buddhism would account for the hīnayānistic orientation of the Ratnarāśi's exposition. It would make good sense for Sarvāstivādins to take on travels in foreign lands those sūtras which teach the basics of Buddhist spirituality and lay down the framework in which it is to be pursued.

^{69.} See: Weller, op. cit., pp. 8, 9, 14–15, 17–23; Schuster, op. cit., pp. 79–82, 325–334.

These embrace Mahāyāna thought more wholeheartedly and venture beyond the concepts of the early *suttas*. In these texts we meet with what were probably the first attempts to tackle the newly evolving thought in a systematic fashion. Much of their 'pioneering spirit' is directed at the bodhisattva practice itself which is typically reduced to its component parts. The most important works of this class are the *Bdp* and *Rcd*. Both contain detailed descriptions of individual bodhisattva precepts and set tentatively out to reinterpret śrāvaka practices. Yet, they do not draw up a scheme of the path or disparage the maxims of the mendicant ideal.

Then, we have a group of *sūtras* that seemingly take such basic matter for granted and shift the centre of their interest to subtler issues. For the most part, they define the ways in which the bodhisattva path differs from that of the śrāvaka. Another trait they have in common is the dexterity with which they employ Mahāyāna philosophy to defend their views on the bodhisattva. This is most graphically carried out in the *Aśokadattāvyākaraṇa* and *Vimaladattāparipṛcchā*; two texts in which all controversy about the need for purity and restraint is dissolved into Emptiness.

Other advanced bodhisattva *sūtras* place organisational concerns in the centre of their exposition. In them, the issue that receives most attention is the search for an ordered scheme to grade and allocate the practices to path-stages. This coordination is executed most effectively in the *Akṣayamatipariprechā* where practically all major practices are given a place on the path. The nature of the practices themselves is of little concern in these texts.

Finally, there is a small group of *sūtras* that include doctrinally the most advanced thought on the bodhisattva. The complexity of their content indicates that, by then, all the fundamental components of the bodhisattva doctrine were in place. Here, we find few references to the actual bodhisattva training, since familiarity with it is apparently taken for granted. The best-known exponent of this category is the *Śms*.

Literary and Structural Characteristics

Having explored thematic considerations, I shall examine next the formal aspects of the collection and investigate whether previous findings can be corroborated by stylistic or

^{70.} The most prominent sūtras of this category are the Vinayaviniścaya-Upāliparipṛcchā, Upāyakauśalyaparivarta. Other less-known works are the Svapnanirdeśa, Viradattagṛhapatiparipṛcchā, Sumatidarikaparipṛcchā and Acintyabuddhaviṣayanirdeśa.

literary evidence. Surely, if we are to accept the hypothesis that the *Ratnakūṭa's* present format is the outcome of religio-literary arbitrariness, we would expect to find a variety of uncoordinated styles and literary genres. Moreover, its overall tone could be trusted to reflect the fortuity of its composition and exhibit a wide spectrum of religious and literary 'miscellanea'. If, on the other hand, its compilation proceeded on a premeditated plan with a specific objective, the chances are that its contents would display a certain stylistic and thematic coherence. Selected literary genres might be expected to recur in a number of works and favoured techniques of exposition would prevail throughout.

Since the evaluation of these issues is subject to interpretation and rests on personal judgment, it is perhaps wise to concentrate on matters that are verifiable through statistical investigation. It is these that I shall address first.

A feature common to practically all *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* is the brevity and succinctness of their expositions. With the notable exception of the *Bdp*, only a few of the texts exceed one hundred Tibetan blockprint folios. Indeed, the majority fall well short of this mark, with a considerable number averaging thirty folios or less.⁷¹ The range of topics discussed in these discourses is invariably narrow. Owing to the brevity of the expositions, formal chapter-divisions are found only in seven out the total of forty-nine *sūtras*.

The briefness of the physical format is paralleled by a conceptual succinctness. In most $s\bar{u}tras$ little consideration is given to issues not immediately related to the main topic. Since the use of examples is generally kept to a minimum, the reasoning follows clearly perceptible lines of thought. It is very rare for these to be interrupted by lengthy, picturesque or explanatory digressions. Despite this conciseness the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ is by no means a particularly technical, or even philosophical collection. The themes that are raised in the discourses explain typically basic Mahāyāna tenets, elucidated with much common sense and persuasively in brilliant dialogues.

^{71.} Out of the total of forty-nine texts, thirteen sūtras belong to this category of short works. They are Rkt 10, 13, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 37, 42, 43 and 44. A further sixteen sūtras are of moderate length, that is, they measure seventy-five folios or less. These are Rkt 4, 8, 9. 14, 17, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26, 27, 35, 41, 43, 46 and 48. The average length of the remaining twenty works is one hundred folios plus, with the notable exceptions of the Bdp (well over five hundred folios), Pps (three hundred and fifty folios) and Tathāgatācintyaguhyanirdeśa (two hundred and thirty folios).

^{72.} These appear above all in the Rp (pp. 34-59), Upāyakauśalyaparivarta (pp. 156.2.3 ff.), Mañjuśrībud-dhakṣetraguṇavyūha and Bdp (chapter vii, ix, xii).

^{73.} Exceptions to this rule are those Ratnakūṭa works which cast their expositions in predominantly abstract, philosophical terms. Good examples are found in the Acintyabuddhaviṣayanirdeśa, Pitāputrasamāgama, Saptaśatikaprajñāpāramitā, Āyūṣmannandagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa, Bhadrapālaśreṣṭhipariprcchā, Raśmisamantamuktanirdeśa and Susthitamatidevaputrapariprcchā.

This leads us to another characteristic that is shared by practically all *Ratnakūṭa sūtras*, that is, the extensive use of swift-paced, sharp interlocution. Unlike the tendency to prolixity of later strands of Buddhist scriptures, in the *Ratnakūṭa* dialogue is employed with great effect throughout. First, by maintaining the focus of the question its dialogues avoid discursive, drawn-out monologues. Second, a frequent variation of the interlocutors ensures that the subject is looked at from various angles. Finally, perhaps accounting for the collection's popularity, the dialogues enliven the discourse and imbue it with a degree of wit and surprise. Controversial issues are not concealed behind long-winded descriptions, but brought to the fore and become subjected to unrelenting probing.

Another stylistic feature that is widely shared by *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* is the use of lists as a means of summarising the various facets of the *bodhisattvacaryā*. The most frequent configuration is that of tetrads, closely followed by lists of tens and fives. Some scholars have suggested that these lists might have influenced, or even led to, the compilation of the *sūtras* into one single collection in the first place. While one cannot but acknowledge the conspicuous frequency with which these mnemonic-type lists recur throughout, I fail to see the rationale for such a motive. These lists have no intrinsic value on their own except for explication. I find it difficult to accept that a structural expedient, however widespread and well-suited, should have prompted the amalgamation of forty-nine *sūtras*. I suspect that the regular recurrence of these lists is little more than a consequence of their prevalent use in the early bodhisattva *sūtras*. It seems quite natural that they should figure in a collection full of texts that place the bodhisattva ideal in the centre of their exposition.

The reasons that lie behind their original incorporation are straightforward and well-attested

^{74.} Schuster, op. cit., pp. 37-38 (also n. 88).

^{75.} To my knowledge, amongst the bodhisattva works there are only three texts that dispose of them altogether, that is, *Rkt* 31, 32 and 35. The most frequent configuration is that of tetrads: *Rkt* 12 contains thirty-six tetrads, *Rkt* 17 thirty tetrads, *Rkt* 18 twelve tetrads, *Rkt* 19 ten tetrads, *Rkt* 21 forty-three tetrads, *Rkt* 30 eight tetrads, *Rkt* 33 six tetrads, *Rkt* 35 four tetrads, *Rkt* 43 twenty tetrads and *Rkt* 44 sixteen tetrads. Other popular lists are those of ten (particularly frequent in *Rkt* 12, 17, 19, 27, 35, 43, 44, 45 and 48) and those of thirty-two (see: *Rkt* 12, 27, 38, 43 and 45).

^{76.} This proposition becomes even more questionable if we recall the kind of sūtras included in the Ratnakūṭa. While such solution is conceivable when it is a matter of relatively unimportant, miscellaneous texts, it is very much less so in a collection of works of the class of the Kp, Amitābhavyūha or Ug. Moreover, this explanation does not account for the inclusion of those sūtras that are entirely devoid of lists. None of the following ten works contains any lists: 5, 6, 11, 15, 20, 31, 35, 38, 39, 46. At least five of these contain well-known, important expositions that surely prompted the inclusion in their own right.

^{77.} It will have been noted that virtually all *sūtras* in which such lists appear are works that concentrate in one way or another on the bodhisattva. Indeed, their occurrences are conspicuously infrequent amongst *sūtras* which do not deal with the bodhisattva. This suggests that the employment of series was largely restricted to elucidating the individual aspects of the *bodhisattvacaryā* and not, as it has been suggested, a structural feature common to all *Ratnakūta sūtras*.

in many early *suttas*.⁷⁸ On the one hand, tetrads were undoubtedly intended to facilitate memorisation. For a tradition that relied over many centuries on oral transmission, such structural device was both ingenious and indispensable for its survival. On the other hand, the adoption of enumerations had the effect of organising its tenets and gave the impression of completeness to its structures.

Somewhat surprisingly, this care for order is not always reflected in the overall design of the *sūtras*. More often than not, the sections making up the expositions display little thematic coherence. While in some *sūtras* this does not present much of a problem (either because the subject is well-known from other sources, or because the chain of reasoning is perfectly lucid and self-explanatory), there are several others where the lack of conceptual continuity undermines the intelligibility of the contents. Owing to interruptions in their lines of thought, these texts may appear thematically fragmented.

Finally, I wish to draw attention to some minor, although not altogether insignificant, literary characteristics typical of $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ works. First, presumably by reason of the prevalent dialogue-format, it is only in isolated cases that we come across extended narrative portions. Generally, narrations are kept short and occur only at places where their inclusion clarifies some enigmatic pronouncement. This dispensation with embellishing components intensifies the impression of succinctness that is otherwise conveyed by the brevity and thematic conciseness of the $s\bar{u}tras$.

Buddhist scholarship has shown that several of the *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* underwent change in the course of their history. ⁸⁰ Conclusive signs of such modifications are found, above all, in the Kp and Ug. ⁸¹ Comparisons between the various Chinese translations of the Kp have

^{78.} The best example of this type of list is probably found in the Sīlavagga of the Dīghanikāya (D, I, pp. 3–26) where they make up roughly half of the Brahmajālasutta. They occur also in a number of other early suttas in an almost identical form, which suggest that they probably go back to a common, pre-Buddhist source (M I.79; M I.76, 77; M II.3; Mahāvagga v, 8.3). Like the Ratnakūta sūtras, its lists address ethical concerns predominantly and give a broad outline of Buddhist conduct. As a matter of fact, many of the issues raised in the tetrads of the Ratnakūta have parallels in those early enumerations. That, in turn, invites the conclusion that the precepts of the bodhisattva, too, might have grown out of these ancient rules of conduct. However, it is difficult to establish a direct link between them, since most of these precepts are little more than general norms of behaviour not exclusive to Buddhists.

^{79.} See, typically, Rcd (24, p. 248.1.3-249.5.8) where the Buddha illustrates the practices of the bodhisattva with the help of examples of his own conduct during previous lives. This pattern is a relatively common one and can be observed in a number of Ratnakūṭa sūtras. Other examples are contained in the Rp (pp. 34-58) and in the Upāyakauśalyaparivarta (24, pp. 156.2.3 ff).

⁸⁰ Stael-Holstein, 1926, pp. x-xii; Weller, 1965, pp. 8-11; Schuster, op.cit., pp. 79-83; Régamey, pp. ix-x; Python, 1975, p. 5, § 5; Finot, 1901, p. vi.

^{81.} Other texts that contain some indication that their contents might have been subject to revision are the *Bhadra-vy* and *Rp*. In contrast to the *Kp* and *Ug*, however, here the case is less clear-cut and rests largely on conjecture. For a brief evaluation, see: Régamey, 1938, p. 9; Ensink, 1952, p. x-xi.

revealed that a portion roughly equivalent to a tenth of its total length has been interpolated at the end of the work. This insertion grew over the centuries and found its way eventually into the ninth-century Tibetan translation. 82 The same methodological principles have also disclosed the composite, evolving nature of the $Ug.^{83}$

^{82.} For an analysis of the nature, extent and development of interpolations in the *Kp*, see: Weller, *op. cit.*, pp. 9-10; Stael-Holstein, *op. cit.*, pp. x-xiii.

^{83.} An evaluation of the various kinds of bodhisattvas that are described in the *Ug* is given in: Schuster, *op. cit.*, pp. 325, 328 (cf. pp. 184–194, 214–223). On the basis of his seventh-century Sanskrit manuscripts, Bodhiruci seemingly felt the need to retranslate both the *Kp* and *Ug*. Thus, it is only the later versions of these texts that are currently included in the *Ratnakūṭa* collection. This is true of great many *Ratnakūṭa* sūtras. The details of their translations are given in Appendix iii.

Conclusion

If we take now a step back from the detail of the preceding analysis and evaluate the information we have so far extricated, two conclusions come to the fore. First, it emerges that amongst the forty-nine *Ratnakūṭa sūtras* there is not a single text that gives a complete account of the bodhisattva career. On the contrary, we have several texts that limit their expositions specifically to a few selected aspects.

The reasons that led to a specific choice of topic vary of course. In some cases, the subject no doubt reflects the doctrino-historical circumstances that prevailed at the time of composition. In others, the selection was probably the outcome of careful reflection in response to acutely felt omissions, new inspiration or reinterpretation. In others again, a particular preference might have been prompted by recurring misinterpretation or misdemeanour. Whatever the reasons for the various styles, topics and organisational features, their diversity makes it quite plain that the texts drew on a multiplicity of backgrounds and motives for inspiration.

This leads us to the second conclusion. Amongst the twenty-three *sūtras* under consideration, there are not even two works that concur exactly in their approach to the bodhisattva ideal. In practically every *sūtra*, the focal-point rests on a different assumption or exemplifies some specific point of view. Moreover, the texts differ not only in thought and structure, but frequently display methodological dissimilarities also.

We have noted further a large degree of coordination and complementarity between the individual *sūtras*. Indeed, there is not a single, major issue that is dealt with twice. Repetitions occur only in minor instances, or at occasions rendered inevitable by the context. Needless to say, this coordination is not the merit of the texts themselves, but attributable to the learning and skill of the person(s) who brought them together in the *Ratnakūṭa*. The outcome of their endeavours has been of great success, providing a well-balanced, comprehensive account of the bodhisattva that covers virtually every key idea of his career.

It has been argued in the past that this complementarity is coincidental and a mere by-product of an arbitrarily executed textual selection. While it is difficult (if not impossible) to establish that this was not the case, I doubt that a random assortment of this size could possibly yield such perfectly consistent patterns of thought. Even less, if we recall the proclivity to repetition

and assimilation (in both content and approach) that is a feature of Mahāyāna sūtras in general. A haphazardly compiled collection would undoubtedly have inherited this propensity for reduplication. Furthermore, echoing local or sectarian preferences, its contents would almost certainly tilt in favour of some prevalent textual tradition. There are no indications pointing to the predominance of any one specific tradition amongst Ratnakūta works.

But let us return to the objection that it is precisely because the *sūtras* do not exhibit an all-embracing conceptual framework that they cannot have been assembled to a premeditated plan. While it is true that there are several areas of thought that stand in isolation, rather than stressing the connections that do not exist (and I admit there are some), I propose to look at the issues linking the individual texts. Of these, the most conspicuous is the constantly recurring reference to the bodhisattva ideal. The other, most noticeable, connecting element is a close affinity in literary style. With a few exceptions, practically all forty-nine texts are written in a very factual, perspicuous and concise idiom that forgoes the stylistic niceties of long-winded embellishments.

One should also bear in mind that what is apparent to us today might not have been so in the middle of the first millennium AD (and *vice versa*). It is entirely conceivable that the compilers might have sought to implement a scheme whose logic is no longer perceptible by us. It would be a mistake to conclude that because we fail to discern any intent behind its present structures no such objective ever existed.

Finally, one is surely ill-advised to proceed from the assumption that its compilers had access to the whole range of Mahāyāna scriptures as we know it today. The wide dissemination of Mahāyāna thought renders it improbable that, even if the collection had been assembled at a time when all currently known Mahāyāna sūtras were already extant, its compilers could have been aware of all of them. From their point of view the collection might have been fully comprehensive though today we know that this may not be the case.

Whichever its omissions with regard to Mahāyāna doctrines in general, we have seen that the *Ratnakūṭa* 's treatment of the bodhisattva ideal is all-inclusive and considers every relevant career-aspect. What is more, the general picture emerging of the bodhisattva is extremely well-balanced. The scale of this systematisation suggests that calculated efforts were at work at least during those phases when the bodhisattva works were being put together. It is too early to say if such a plan existed for the other topics, although it is difficult to see why it

should have been specific to the bodhisattva.

In chapter one, I proposed that the *Ratnakūṭa* might have been compiled for missionary purposes. This view appears corroborated by the predominantly non-technical nature of its bodhisattva *sūtras*. Clearly, more than anything else it is the initial appeal of a text that determines its success in persuading listeners of the logic of its propositions. For new thought to gain acceptance it is necessary to use simplicity in reasoning and an inspiring tone. We have seen that in the *Ratnakūṭa* these two qualities are widely shared by its bodhisattva works.

The role assigned to the Bdp in this missionary process rested on two of its features. First, it was highly esteemed for the detail in which it describes the training of the bodhisattva. Above all, its exposition was commended for the treatment of the six perfections. Cross-references in the collection itself suggest that, at least as far as the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ are concerned, the Bdp was thought to be at the very heart of the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$'s vision of the bodhisattva.

The Bdp also contributed to the missionary efforts by furnishing the collection with the hugely popular $j\bar{a}taka$ -genre. To the present day, iconographic depictions and wall-paintings across Asia bear witness of the repute and affection in which the accounts of Śākyamuni's former lives were held. In the Bdp, these were taken up and coupled with the training of the bodhisattva. The outcome was twofold. On the one hand, the $j\bar{a}taka$ served to authenticate the practices themselves. On the other hand, their role was to inspire faith in the image of the bodhisattva. They not only made the scope of the new ideal clear, but more importantly for the conversion of other peoples, they provided the urgently required proof that its sublime accomplishments were attainable. Since the Bdp is the only major $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ text combining the bodhisattva ideal with the former exploits of Śākyamuni, it must have enjoyed great popularity amongst the newly converted peoples of Asia.

Chapter Four

The Bodhisattva Doctrines and Practices in the Bodhisattvapiţaka within the Context of other Scriptural Traditions

Our discussion of the Bdp's structure in chapter two has shown that large parts of its exposition are dedicated to the six perfections ($p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$). This fact has given great acclaim to the Bdp and developed into something of a hallmark by which it came to be widely known. In addition to the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$, two other sets of practice are singled out and granted special status in the Bdp, that is, the immeasurables ($apram\bar{a}na$) and the means of conversion (samgrahavastu). Taken together, these three sets of practice constitute the skeleton of the $bodhisattvacary\bar{a}$ in the Bdp.

The description of the path is not limited to these cardinal areas of instruction, but encompasses a number of other well-known practices. However, these are rather subordinate in rank and are incorporated in the discussion of the *pāramitā*. Prominent examples include the super-knowledge (*abhijñā*), learning (*śruta*), 'skill' (*kauśalya*), unique knowledge (*pratisaṃvid*), reliance (*pratisaraṇa*), accumulation of merit (*puṇyasaṃbhāra*) and pristine cognition (*jñānasaṃbhāra*), thirty-seven factors of enlightenment (*bodhipākṣika dharma*), perfect mental quietude (*śamatha*) and insight (*vipaśyanā*).

In addition to these well established groups, we meet with a number of precepts that are discussed individually.¹ The majority of these is found in chapter eleven where they are introduced in a list of seventy-two types of learning and involve such practices as penetration (praveśa), good conduct (pratipatti), application (prayoga) vision (darśana), reflection (manasakāra), reverence (pradakṣiṇa) and attentiveness (avikṣepa).² Although they are classed together under the heading of learning at the beginning of chapter eleven, the exposition of these practices in the text itself does not follow the order or organisation of their introductory listing.

^{1.} In my discussion of the bodhisattva practices, I shall consider only those practices that are known to promote and hence precede the attainment of buddhahood. By this criterion, the attributes, practices and powers of the Tathāgata fall outside my investigation. The contents of chapter four which deals exclusively with the buddha-qualities—most notably the powers (bala), assurances (vaiśāradya), wonder-working powers (rddhi), liberations (vimokṣa), great compassion (mahākaruṇā) and exclusive buddha-dharma (āvenika-dharma)—has therefore been excluded.

^{2.} I have provided a list of these practices in Appendix i.

The Thought of Enlightenment

The first reference to the bodhisattva in the *Bdp* occurs in chapter three. Chapters one and chapter two are introductory to the whole exposition and do not consider the training of the bodhisattva. In chapter three, entitled 'On the Thought of Enlightenment', Śāriputra raises the topic of the bodhisattva ideal by asking the following question:³

"By what means do [bodhisattvas] enter into enlightenment? What is the goal of these heroes? How do they accomplish excellent enlightenment? Please explain these distinguished teachings.

How do the heroes act
In order to [dispense] medicine to all living beings?
Through the production of what kind of *dharma*Do they become buddhas, the most excellent of men?

How do [bodhisattvas] convert sinners

After they dwelled on the seat of enlightenment?

How do they attain supreme and perfect enlightenment

After they traversed ten million buddha-fields?"

In response to this question, the Buddha speaks of the thought of enlightenment (bodhicitta) and says:⁴

"O Śāriputra, when a bodhisattva is in possession of a certain single *dharma*, he takes hold of buddha-qualities and other immeasurable [qualities]. Which is this single *dharma*? It is the thought of enlightenment of excellent intent. O Śāriputra, when he is in possession of just that single bodhisattva *dharma*, he shall grasp the

^{3.} R, folio 81.4-7.

^{4.} R. folio 81.3-5.

buddha-qualities and other immeasurable [qualities]."

In the ensuing discussion, the Buddha considers the thought of enlightenment from several points of view. First, he examines its nature and attributes. Particular attention is given to the bodhisattva's intent ($\bar{a}\dot{s}aya$). In the Bdp, intent is primarily described as a stabilising factor that assists the generation of the bodhicitta.⁵ As an ethical concomitant to the bodhicitta, $\bar{a}\dot{s}aya$ is rooted in conventional experience and arises from compassion. Intellectually, it operates in the cognitive realm specifically with regard to the vision of true reality. Eventually, these interacting currents are drawn together to result in the unfolding of 'pure intent'.

The other important concomitant to cittotpāda is determination (adhyāśaya). However, owing to their conceptual proximity, differences between āśaya and adhyāśaya tend to blur. Some clarification is provided by the description of adhyāśaya in the Bbh. Here, adhyāśaya is characterised as persistence, understanding and resolve—preceded by faith and insight in the Dharma—towards the buddha-qualities. It is therefore primarily concerned with the bodhisattva's own spiritual progress. Āśaya, in contrast, designates a broader principle and is more intimately connected with the cittotpāda, since its main purpose is to achieve rapid progress in the implementation of the vow. According to the Bbh, it is divided into the subcategories of seven virtuous intentions for sentient beings (kalyāṇāśaya) and ten pure intentions (āśayaśuddhi). Above all, however, we find that āśaya promotes the practice of the six perfections to which it lends impulses of six different kinds.

Intent and determination are often complemented by correct conduct (*prayoga*) as the third major factor influencing the progressive implementation of the bodhisattva's resolve.¹⁰ In the *Msl*, we read to this effect:¹¹

The first production of the thought of enlightenment of the bodhisattva is likened to earth because it is the basis from which all buddha-qualities and related accumulations spring. Accompanied by intent ($\bar{a}\dot{s}aya$), the production of the thought of enlightenment resembles fine gold because his intent towards the welfare and

^{5.} Msl, p. 14.5-9.

^{6.} *Bbh*, pp. 313.4–314.8.

^{7.} Bbh p. 18.17 (cf. Mvś, p. 85.1; Yamaguichi, 1934).

^{8.} *Bbh* pp. 312.5–313.3, 333.4–16.

^{9.} Msl, p. 102.13; Msg, pp. 188 ff.

^{10.} Cf. Kawamura, 1983, p. 141.

^{11.} *Msl*, pp. 14.27–15.6.

benefit [of beings] is not susceptible to change. Accompanied by correct conduct (prayoga), it resembles the new moon on the fifteenth day of the month because his virtuous qualities (kuśaladhama) increase. Accompanied by determination (adhyāśaya), it resembles fire because he aquires more and more attaiments like a fire that consumes all types of fuel."

In the Sūtrālaṃkāravṛttibhāṣya¹², these categories of cittotpāda signals four junctions in the bodhisattva's career and are linked with the attainments of each level.¹³ Thus, the first type of cittotpāda is associated with adherence (ādhimokṣika) operating during the preliminary phase of training (adhimukticaryābhūmi).¹⁴ The second cittotpāda is dominated by pure determination (śuddhādhyāśaya) and leads to progress on the first seven stages. It is called pure because it is free from the subject/object dichotomy and because it is attained through equipoise (upekṣā). The third type of cittotpāda is characterised by its ability to accomplish the maturation (vaipākika) of sentient beings, because at this level (stage nine and ten) non-discriminating awareness (avikalpajñāna) arises in conjunction with the spontaneous practice of the pāramitā. Finally, the fourth kind of cittotpāda, operating at the tenth stage, is called obstruction-free (anāvaraṇika) since it is untainted by misconceived emotion and discursive thinking.¹⁵

The above exposition of the *cittotpāda* is clearly advanced and draws on a rich heritage of ideas. An early predecessor to this scheme is found in the *Bdp*. Like the *Sūtrālaṃkāravṛttibhāṣya*, it distinguishes several phases in the generation of the thought of enlightenment and proposes a certain dynamic. In all, the *Bdp* speaks of ten forms of *cittotpāda*. However, their allocation

^{12.} TTP, 108, p. 233.2.6-3.7.

^{13.} *Msl*, pp. 16.5–17.9.

^{14.} The relevant passage in the *Msl* (p. 14.5–6) runs as follows:

"That mind directed towards enlightenment is zealous application (*ādhimokṣika*); it is pure in determination (*adhyāśaya*) on another [stage]. It is thought of as a matured state, and likewise, freed from obstruction."

^{15.} The division of the cittotpāda is most elaborate in the Abhisamayālamkāra (pp. 18-37) where it is divided into twenty-two kinds of cittotpāda. In agreement with the Msl, the first three are said to be accompanied by chanda, āśaya and adhyāśaya marking three successive stages during the ādikarmikasambhārabhāmi. In disagreement with the Msl, the fourth cittotpāda is attended by prayoga. It operates on the adhimukticaryābhāmi corresponding to the prayogamārga. Next follow ten kinds of cittotpāda each of which is associated with one of the ten perfections. The following five cittotpāda are accompanied by the abhijñā, puṇya/jñānasaṃbhāra, bodhipākṣika dharma, śamatha/vipaśyanā and dhāraṇīpratibhāna that, taken together, account for the viśeṣamārga of the last five stages (Kośa, vi, p. 278). Cittotpāda number twenty is attended by the four dharmoddāna and becomes functional on the preparatory path of the buddhabhūmi. Finally, the last two cittotpāda are generated in two distinct phases of the buddhabhūmi where they are accompanied by the ekayānamārga and the dharmakāya.

to specific path phases it rather vague and bears little resemblance to the ten stages of the Dbh. Curiously, the ten $cittotp\bar{a}da$ are not included in chapter three but occur in the $\dot{s}\bar{\imath}lap\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ chapter.

According to this scheme, the first two *cittotpāda* are most fundamental in that they bring about understanding of impermanence, impurity and insubstantiality of the body and carry as reward—if sustained by Tathāgata worship—the attainment of the perfect buddha-body. The third and fourth kinds of *cittotpāda* concern mistaken conduct of the past, in particular lack of reverence towards superiors and ill-contemplated pursuit of sense pleasures. Awareness and correction of these faults lead to rebirth among men and place the bodhisattva in contact with virtuous friends. As a collateral, the fifth *cittotpāda* bestows insight into one's past conceit and violence, makes the bodhisattva understand the workings of the law of karma and removes confusion that led previously to evil conduct. Through possessing these five kinds of *cittotpāda*, the bodhisattva becomes fearless, attains means (*upāya*) and knowledge (*jñāna*) and increases his meritorious deeds. Having understood the causal link between ignorance, irreverent comportment and ill-regard for the Dharma, the bodhisattva generates the sixth, seventh and eighth *cittotpāda* that render him inseparable from religious instruction. He is accomplished in learning, benevolence, buddha-worship and dwells in the company of the noble ones, abiding in high abodes. One of the total particular and the company of the noble ones, abiding in high abodes.

Through the ninth *cittotpāda* the bodhisattva perceives that aimlessness used to mar his conduct. It calls to mind the need for constant mental concentration on enlightenment and unreserved devotion of all resources to its attainment. Furthermore, the ninth *cittotpāda* gives a clear picture of the bodhisattva's resolute wandering and cites numerous practices that pertain to it. These include faith, honesty, solitude, reverence, modesty, chastity as well as pursuit of the *pāramitā* and *bodhipākṣika dharma*. At this stage, being rewarded for insight into past mistakes, the bodhisattva becomes familiar with the perfections (which he now pursues with great vigour) and, supported by pristine cognition and merit, prepares to take up the seat of enlightenment.²¹

^{16.} Note that also the *Madhyamakāvatāra* (*Mavbh*, pp. 12.13–13.1) and *Daśabhūmika* speak of ten *cittotpāda*. Apart from the number and a certain dynamic towards the more advanced path-stages, the *Bdp* does not seem to share much with these schemes. This is not surprising, if we recall that the *Bdp* ignores the plan of the ten stages while it is the rationale behind the ten *cittotpāda* in the *Daśabhūmika* and *Madhyamakāvatāra*.

^{17.} R, folio 309.5.

^{18.} R, folio 314.2.

^{19.} R, folio 320.6; 324.5-325.3.

^{20.} R, folio 238.4-329.1.

^{21.} R, folio 336.6.

Finally, the bodhisattva fully grasps the eminence of his teacher and appreciates his erudition in faith, moral conduct, learning, modesty, chastity, renunciation and wisdom. This prompts him to express approval of the teacher's thinking and to pay lip-service to all instructions. He is now himself accomplished in moral conduct and becomes a receptacle of buddhacompassion.²²

In the discussion of the *cittotpāda* in chapter three, we find no allusions to the existence of this sketch in the *śīlapāramitā* chapter. Its characterisation of the thought of enlightenment is kept general and sheds light on only two areas. First, it describes the attributes that differentiate the *cittotpāda* from ordinary mentation. By and large, these attributes correspond to those of the bodhisattva's intent. That is to say, it is pure, steady, persistent, luminous and so forth. Then, also in analogy to intent, it is portrayed as the foundation of buddha-qualities, including the fivefold *dharma*-aggregate (*dharmaskandha*), powers, assurances and *āveṇika dharma*.²³

In the next passage we learn about the fruits that result from the *cittotpāda* and *āśaya*. The presentation is very straightforward and consists essentially of an enumeration of the benefits that accrue from the *cittotpāda* and *āśaya*. Already at this early stage the bodhisattva is destined for enlightenment and attains a physical appearance beyond blemish; he is invincible, not affected by worldly *dharma*, skilled in the path and becomes a benefactor, guide and refuge to all sentient beings.²⁴ In particular, he attains clear vision (*vidarśana*) that establishes faith in the law of karma and causes him to refrain from the ten non-virtuous paths of action (*akuśalakarmapatha*).²⁵ If he receives early support from spiritual friends, he comprehends dependent co-origination, culminating in true *dharma* vision.²⁶

Considerable emphasis is given to the notion of renunciation, in general, and the need to become a monk, in particular. Ordination into mendicant life is considered a natural imperative as it provides the framework to a successful completion of the practice.²⁷

Three factors that are to recur throughout the exposition of the training figure as concomitants to the *cittotpāda*. These are learning (śruta), conscientiousness (apramāda) and correct reflection (yoniśo manasakāra). Their areas of application are briefly dwelt on, viz., knowledge of teachings for learning, constraint of senses for conscientiousness and insight

^{22.} R, folio 340.4-6.

^{23.} R, folio 85.1-4.

^{24.} R, folio 85.4-86.4.

^{25.} R, folio 87.1-3.

^{26.} R. folio 88.4-91.3.

^{27.} R, folio 92.1-3.

^{28.} R, folio 92.5-96.4.

V

into causation and the non-existence of *dharma* for correct reflection. These allow the bodhisattva to penetrate the four axioms of the teaching (*dharmoddāna*), proposing that karmic formations (*saṃskāra*) are impermanent and suffering; that *dharma* are non-self and calm *nirvāṇa*. Appreciation of these postulates prompts the bodhisattva to comprehend impermanence; to eliminate all traces of desire; to produce the entrance to liberation and meditation on emptiness and to become acquainted with the notion of signlessness.

If we turn now to evaluate the *Bdp's* vision of the *cittotpāda* and compare it with the schemes found in other sources, we note at first a general consent on its chief elements. The *Bdp* agrees that the two most important components of the *bodhicittotpāda* are an unshakable desire for enlightenment (*saṃbodhikāmanāsahagata*) and a paramount concern for the welfare of all other beings (*parārthālaṃbana*). By implication, it also recognises two separate phases of its production, that is the actual taking of the vow (*bodhipraṇidhicitta*) and the ensuing implementation (*bodhipraṣthānacitta*).

Many Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$ argue that the $bodhicittotp\bar{a}da$ is not a static entity generated only once at the beginning of the path proper but that it is continuously retaken and evolves through practice. In the Akn, for instance, it is generated in conjunction with the accumulation of merit and pristine cognition, six perfections and four immeasurables which determine the attainments that result from its generation. This is also the view of the Bdp since it proposes at several places a close association between the $cittotp\bar{a}da$ and $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ and other practices. 32

Differences occur only when we look in detail at the psychological processes that prompt and accompany the generation of the thought of enlightenment. I shall now turn to the *Bodhisattvabhūmi* in order to explore the nature of some of these differences.

In line with its overall organisation, the Bbh introduces the first raising of the bodhicitta as the second support $(\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ra)$ of the training. The treatment is divided into two sections. To begin with, the text lays down the attributes and modes of the $cittotp\bar{a}da$. It suggests five different approaches of investigation. First, there is a perfect resolution $(samyakpranidh\bar{a}na)$ that is upheld throughout the training and generates the aspiration $(pr\bar{a}rthan\bar{a})$ for universal liberation.³³ This aspiration itself represents the $cittotp\bar{a}da$ proper.³⁴ Next, the Bbh defines

^{29.} R, folio 96.5-97.5.

^{30.} E.g., Akn, pp. 39.5.4-40.2.5; Bbh, p. 12.6-13.

^{31.} Akn, pp. 39.5.7-40.1.4.

^{32.} R, folio 84.7–85.3.

^{33.} *Bbh*, p. 12.3.

the scope and object (ālambana) of the bodhicitta, namely, enlightenment for himself and deliverance of his fellow beings. As an auspicious force in its own right, the cittotpāda accumulates (samcaya) all those roots of virtue occasioning enlightenment and weakening the three root evils in beings. Besides, it is seen as the root of enlightenment, source of the bodhisattva's compassion and foundation (samniśraya) of moral conduct.

The conditions (pratyaya), causes (hetu) and powers (bala) that bring about the engendering of the thought of enlightenment are as follows.³⁵ As for the conditions, the Bbh gives learning about the Tathāgata's miraculous powers, hearing the Doctrine and observance of the imminent decline of the Dharma.³⁶ Each of these factors suffices to inspire the generation of the bodhicitta. The causes that prompt the cittotpāda are of a more personal and immediate nature.³⁷ They include the cause of lineage (gotra) that leads inevitably to cittotpāda due to previous achievements, the presence of virtuous friends (kalyāṇamitra), compassion, knowledge, meditation, investigation and great enthusiasm for enlightenment.³⁸ The powers that inspire the cittotpāda generally depend on the bodhisattva's own capabilities. In particular, they are brought about by the roots of virtue accumulated during previous rebirth or meritorious conduct in the present life.³⁹

Having generated the *bodhicitta*, the bodhisattva becomes immediately a field of merit that others can draw on through reverence and devotion.⁴⁰ Thus, the raising of the thought of enlightenment launches him automatically onto the path and creates a valuable source of merit. Moreover, it increases the bodhisattva's resources derived from his *gotra*, guarantees success with magic spells (*mantrapadāni*) and bestows experience in dealing with the lower

^{34.} *Bbh*, p. 12.9.

^{35.} In the Dbh (Daśa-bh, p. 15.1-6), we learn that the production of the thought of enlightenment is inspired by the fourth of ten vows taken by the bodhisattva while he dwells on the early phase of the pramuditābhūmi: "In order to attain the bodhicittotpāda, supported by the true instruction of the path of the stages that incorporates the entire bodhisattvacaryā... he takes the fourth vow (pranidhāna)." The Msg, distinguishes three motives prompting the generation of the thought of enlightenment (iii.5). These are (1) recognition that innumerable beings reach enlightenment every moment, (2) the wish to attain the intent (āśaya) to practice generosity and related virtues in order to attain enlightenment; (3) desire for universal perfection arising from unlimited moral conduct.

^{36.} *Bbh*, pp. 13.21–15.17.

^{37.} Compare these with the causes that are given in the *Msl* (p. 14.10-15) which speaks of compassion as the root (*mūla*); the welfare of beings as intent (*āśaya*); zealous application (*ādhimokṣika*) as practice; questions relating to knowledge as object (*ālambana*); confident zeal (*chanda*) as vehicle; moral observance as basis (*pratiṣṭhā*); encouragement and approval of giving to adversaries as obstacle; faith in virtue as advantage (*anuśaṃsa*) since it accumulates merit and knowledge; constant application to the perfections as deliverance (*niryāna*).

^{38.} Bbh, p. 15.11-17.

^{39.} *Bbh*, p. 17.8–21.

^{40.} *Bbh*, pp. 19.19–20.27.

destinies.41

If we now revert to the Bdp's $cittotp\bar{a}da$ exposition and compare its vision with that of the Bbh, the first thing to notice is the limited scope of the Bdp's explanations and its basic logical structures. In the Bdp we meet with repetitions and a fair amount of inessential material. Structurally, although not entirely without its own internal logic, the Bdp's account therefore lacks the organisation of the Bbh's description.

In content, however, the two works do not stand as much apart as it might seem at first sight. They share the two fundamental elements of the $cittotp\bar{a}da$, that is, the personal aim of full enlightenment and the aspiration of universal liberation. Furthermore, the two texts agree that the $cittotp\bar{a}da$ functions as the root of compassion and provides the foundation of moral conduct. While this point is not illustrated in the Bbh, the Bdp refers to the ten virtuous deeds ($ku\dot{s}alakarmapatha$). ⁴² Both works also concur in their evaluation of the impact of the $cittotp\bar{a}da$ by making tathāgatahood the secured long-term achievement. ⁴³

Differences arise only when we turn to the conditions that induce the $cittotp\bar{a}da$. The Bdp does not cite any of the factors that are given in the Bbh as $cittotp\bar{a}da$ causes. Association to virtuous friends and learning, for instance, are given amongst its concomitants, but not explicitly as causes. ⁴⁴ Other factors, such as fearlessness, lineage (gotra) or awareness of the decline of the Dharma do not figure at all in the Bdp, whereas learning of the buddha-qualities is mentioned as a motive.

With regard to the advantages that accrue from a successful $cittotp\bar{a}da$, the Bdp and Bbh run very close in spirit. According to the Bbh the bodhisattva produces at first the gates $(dv\bar{a}ra)$ that lead to virtuous practice that turns him into a supreme field of merit.⁴⁵ In the

^{41.} According to the *Dbh*, the bodhisattva immediately upon generating the thought of enlightenment achieves ten rewards. (1) He surpasses the stage of ordinary men; (2) he embarks on the fixed career (*niyāma*) of the bodhisattva; (3) he is born in the Tathāgata family; (4) he becomes faultless in all kinds of speech; (5) he abandons all worldly conduct; (6) he enters into supramundane conduct; (7) he dwells in the ultimate essence of bodhisattva practices; (8) he is settled in the bodhisattva-abode; (9) he reaches the equality of the three times; (10) he becomes fixed in the Tathāgata lineage certain of perfect enlightenment (*Daśa-bh*, pp. 11–12, U).

In the Madhyamakavrtti (xviii, 5), quoting the Maitreyavimoksa, we are told that:

[&]quot;Just as the son of a king almost immediately after his birth—being in possession of the royal characteristics—surpasses by the greatness of this lineage (gotra) all officers, even the most senior ones; in the same way, the bodhisattva almost immediately on generating the first thought of enlightenment—being born in the royal family of the Tathāgata—surpasses even the most senior śrāvaka and pratyekabuddhas by virtue of the power of his bodhicitta and compassion."

^{42.} R, folio 87.1-5.

^{43.} R, folio 85.2.

^{44.} R, folio 88.2; 88.4; 89.4-90.1.

^{45.} *Bbh*, p. 19.3–17.

Bdp a major point is the bodhisattva's permanent escape from the grasp of Māra and the ensuing immunity from worldly dharma.⁴⁶

The most interesting difference lies in the role they ascribe to intent (āśaya). We have seen that in the Bbh (and Msl) āśaya figures alongside adhyāśaya and prayoga as the most important concomitant of cittotpāda. Thus it comes as a surprise to learn that neither adhyāśaya nor prayoga are present in the Bdp's treatment of the cittotpāda. What is more, āśaya is not portrayed as an 'independent' principle supportive of the cittotpāda, but as an attribute of the latter. No doubt, these differences are important and probably ascribable to the different dates of composition of the Bdp and Bbh. The treatment of the cittotpāda in the Bbh is clearly doctrinally more advanced and includes several issues that are not considered in the Bdp. In essence, however, their evaluations of the scope and function of the cittotpāda agree and are founded on similar assumptions about its role in the bodhisattva training.

^{46.} R, folio 85.4-86.2.

The Four Immeasurables

Having introduced the spiritual foundation of the bodhisattva ideal, the *Bdp* spells out the buddha-qualities. This is done in chapter four. The reasons for dealing here with the buddha-qualities I have discussed in chapter three. I excluded them from my investigation, since they do belong to the bodhisattva practice proper.

The first bodhisattva practices that are expounded in the Bdp are the four 'immeasurables' $(apram\bar{a}na)$.⁴⁷ These include benevolence $(maitr\bar{\imath})$, compassion $(karun\bar{a})$, sympathetic joy $(mudit\bar{a})$ and equipoise $(upek\bar{\imath}a)$. While the sequence in which these are discussed corresponds to the standard order of their presentation, their interpretation displays several divergences from other treatises on the $apram\bar{a}na$.⁴⁸

For the historical Buddha the practice of the appamañña was always twofold. First, its four members—benevolence towards sentient beings, compassion with their suffering, sympathetic

Alternative titles for this group of practices are brahmavihāra (residences of Brahmā)—a term that is particularly widespread in early canonical literature—and cetovimukti (thought liberation). In Pāli sources, we can distinguish two principal conceptual contexts for the brahmavihāra. First, there is the famous sutta where the Buddha is shown instructing Dona on the various types of brahmins (A III, pp. 224-5). Here, among a long list of qualities, the Buddha cites the four instructions as practices that assist in making a brahmin equal to Brahmā. The Buddha goes on to say that a brahmin who pursues the four 'ways of living like Brahmā' (brahmavihāra) attains rebirth in the charming world of Brahmā. Elsewhere, Brahmā himself is described as possessing universal benevolence (M I, pp. 370-1)—a subject that was taken up by the commentators (Manorathapūraņī ii, p. 204)—showing that if an individual developed Brahmā's virtues, he himself could attain the status of Brahmā after death. As the 'ways of living like Brahmā' refer to the cultivation of maitrī, etc., in a meditative context (D I, pp. 250-1; Vism, iii.30; Aronson, 1975, pp. 81-83)—usually at the level of the first dhyāna—the commentaries take them to represent absorptions or states of mind that spring from the cultivation of benevolence, etc., (Ps, ii, p. 353). We have therefore two principal ways of translating the term brahmavihāra. First, if interpreted as 'way of living like Brahma' it refers to an individual who cultivates universal benevolence just as Brahma does. Second, if looked at from a meditative context, brahmavihāra is best understood as 'sublime way of living' modelled on the fourfold instructions of the Teviggasutta. The latter interpretation is favoured by Buddhaghosa, although he acknowledges both possibilities (Vism, ix.106). For a full treatment of these variants in interpretation, particularly with regard to the Theravada commentarial tradition, see Aronson, 1975, pp. 96-110.

^{48.} To my knowledge, the only comprehensive study of the four immeasurables to date is that by H.B. Aronson, entitled: Love, Compassion, Sympathetic Joy and Equanimity in Theravāda Buddhism; PhD Dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1975. In addition, drawing on the findings of his doctoral research, Aronson published several articles and one monograph on this subject (see: bibliography). References to the apramāṇa (brahmavihāra) in Buddhist sources are numerous. In the nikāya, useful material is found in D II, p. 196; III, p. 220; Th, i.649; Jātaka i, p. 139; II, p. 61. For a Theravāda interpretation, see: Vism, i, pp. 111, 295; As, p. 192. For Sanskrit sources, see: Kośa, viii, pp. 196-203; Saddhp, p. 142; Dhsgr, § 16; Kp, p. 15, § 25.25; Msl, pp. 121.10-124.2, 163.13-172.20, 184.3-8; Bbh, pp. 241-49. Other references are found at Amṛt (B), pp. 188-9; Abhidh-d, p. 428; Msg, x.10, pp. 290-91; Akn, 34, pp. 56.3.7-58.5.6; Pañca, pp. 181-183, Vkn, pp. 96, 155. For further references in Chinese (translations of) Buddhist texts, see: Lamotte, 1973, p. 52*.

joy with their happiness and equipoise towards sensual attachment and hostility—played a role in placing the practitioner in the heavenly abodes. Second, finding their way into the gnoseologic scheme of the Buddhist path, the *appamañña* assumed importance in the meditative processes that culminate in liberating insight—the pinnacle of Buddhist cognition.⁴⁹

In a well-known passage from the Aṭṭhakasutta, the appamañña are cited as one of eleven practices that liberate the mind, eliminate all hindrances and prompt freedom from bondage.⁵⁰ In essence, they are seen as an integral part of those meditations that secure a high rebirth and further progress on the path to liberation up to the stage of the non-returner. According to the Aṅguttaranikāya⁵¹, if accompanied by insight in the particular and general features (svasāmānyalakkhaṇa) of aggregates, they lead to the realisation of the first three paths and fruits, while for those who are established in insight and pursue equipoise at the level of the fourth absorption attain rebirth in the Śuddhāvāsa heaven.⁵²

The mental processes leading to the generation of insight in conjunction with the appamañña are laid down in the Vatthūpamasutta.⁵³ Here, the Buddha describes how a monk on realising the defiled nature of greed, conceit, hostility and so forth attains a steadfast conviction in the triratna and—by means of cultivating the appamañña—acquires true cognition. Buddhaghoṣa explains that the main advantages of their cultivation, as a basis supporting insight during meditation is that they free the mind from defilements through suppression.⁵⁴ As the resulting

Despite some excellent research in this field, the exact origin of the four immeasurables has not yet been resolved. Back in 1928, C. A. F. Rhys Davids pioneered the view that they might not be the brainchild of the Buddha but that he adopted them from some other teacher. One of the central arguments to this hypothesis has always been a passage in the Samyuttanikāya (S V, pp. 115-21) where a group of non-Buddhist śramana let it be known that they too cultivate a practice involving benevolence, compassion, sympathetic joy and equipoise and wish to learn in how far theirs differs from the Buddha's. Supporting evidence in non or pre-Buddhist sources is rather thin and limited to several passages in the Upanisad (Chānd. 815.1). Buddhist scriptures themselves (D II, pp. 220-252) preserve an account where the Buddha, during previous lives, receives instructions in the absorption of compassion from the Brāhmana tradition. A similar point is made in the Mahāsudassanasutta (D II, pp. 186-7) where we learn that, as a bodhisattya, he practised benevolence, compassion, sympathetic joy and equipoise. Today it is virtually impossible to determine whether the accounts of the Buddha's previous conduct are accurate depictions of his pre-enlightenment training or whether they simply superimposed post-enlightenment practices on his early struggle to buddhahood. What appears certain, however, is that in the discourses they were not considered unique to the Buddha's vision but practised also in early non-Buddhist circles (Arsonson, 1984, p. 21).

^{50.} M I, pp. 349-51.

^{51.} Cited in Manorathapūranī, iii, p. 126.

^{52.} A similar, though not identical scheme is proposed in the *Haliddavasanasutta* (S V pp. 119-121) where the thought of benevolence leads to rebirth in the realm of the Subhakrtana gods; the thought of compassion in the sphere of the inifinity of space (ākāsānantyāyatana); the thought of sympathetic joy in the sphere of the inifinity of consciouness (vijñānantyāyatana) and the thought of equipoise in the sphere of nothingness (ākimcanyāyatana). The main difference between the schemes is that the *Haliddavasanasutta* allows for rebirth in the arūpyadhātu while the *Manorathapūranī* restricts becoming to the rūpadhātu.

^{53.} M I, pp. 36-9.

^{54.} Vism, p. 693.

mental clarity persists for some time *after* the yogin has emerged from this meditation, he is able to apply this newly gained awareness to the development of insight in the characteristics of the component parts of that particular meditation. The four *appamañña* thus play a significant role in the process of mental purification and operate as a force that conduces to *dharma* discernment.

On another occasion, the Buddha connects the *appamañña* practice with the gnoseologic training by differentiating the usual instructions leading to rebirth in the heavenly abodes from those conducive to insight and total liberation:⁵⁵

"Monks, with regard [to that question], a monk cultivates the factor of enlightenment of mindfulness in connection with benevolence, ... he cultivates the factor of enlightenment of equanimity in connection with benevolence." (The same formula is repeated for compassion, etc.)

This union, coupling the immeasurables with the factors of enlightenment, is perhaps the clearest indication of the contribution that was made by the Buddha to the doctrine of the immeasurables. By linking benevolence, etc., with the cultivation of the cognitive faculties pertaining to liberating insight, he shifted emphasis away from their prevalent ethical and psychological yield to integrate them in the gnoseological structure of the path.⁵⁶

In the Mahāyāna the apramāna became integrated into the scheme of the bodhisattva. As a result, modifications occurred with regard to the motive, scope and cognitive foundation of

^{55.} S V, p. 119; Kośabhāsya, p. 146.13-14 (cf. Warder, 1980, pp. 95-97).

^{56.} In later Abhidharma works and some commentaries, the immeasurables receive detailed attention in particular with regard to their aspects, objects and benefits. See, for instance, As (pp. 192-7) which contains an exemplary exposition on the mental states that pertain to the four brahmavihāra. See also: Satya (S), ii, pp. 369-374.

In the Kośa we learn that they are only practised by and exclusively directed towards sentient beings who dwell in the kāmaloka (op. cit., pp. 200–203), with benevolence directed towards those who are happy (sukhita), compassion towards those who are suffering (duḥkhita), sympathetic joy towards those who are rejoicing and equipoise leading to an impartial attitude towards all beings (op. cit., pp. 197–200). Compare also Warder who proposes that the apramāna were chiefly intended to be by practised by monks and recommended to laymen only in a few instances (1980, p. 197). More importantly, the Kośa allots the four practices to the various stages of meditation, saying that sympathetic joy is restricted to the first two dhyāna, while the remaining three operate in all four dhyāna and at the stages of the anāgamya and dhyānāntara (op. cit., pp. 197–199). For a summary of their functioning, see Kośa, pp. 200–201.

An alternative Sarvāstivāda view on the impact of the apramāṇa is given in the Amṛtarasa (Amṛt (B), pp. 188-89). Here, each of the four members is said to eliminate one or several passions, to generate right speech and right action and to produce forces that are dissociated from thought. In detail, maitrī is held to eliminate spitefulness (vyāpāda); karuṇā overcome harm (vihiṃsā); muditā eliminates dissatisfaction (arati) and upekṣā suppresses both malice and desire (rāga). This enumeration follows closely a list that is given in the D III, pp. 248-9 and is also found in the Abhidh-d, p. 428 (cf. Mppś, iii, p. 1242).

their implementation. We have seen that the śrāvaka practised the apramāṇa chiefly for the sake of their own mental purification and meditative advance. For the bodhisattva, echoing their origin in the cittotpāda⁵⁷, the chief purpose of the apramāṇa lies in their usefulness in bringing about universal welfare. In a sense, rather than meditative in nature, the area of application is closer to that of the notion of universal benevolence, etc., attributed to them in a famous passage in the Anguttaranikāya.⁵⁸ The bodhisattva achieves this through the dedication of all merit that accrued to him by practising the apramāṇa;⁵⁹

"O son of good family, if a bodhisattva considers all beings in this way, how does he produce great benevolence? O Mañjuśrī, a bodhisattva who considers them thus, says to himself: 'I am going to expound the Law to beings in the way that I have understood it.' Thus he produces towards all beings a benevolence which is truly protective (bhūtisaraṇmaitrī) ... What is great compassion to the bodhisattva? It is the abandoning to sentient beings without retaining any of all good roots enacted or accumulated. What is the great sympathetic joy of the bodhisattva? It is rejoicing in and not regretting giving? What is the great equipoise of the bodhisattva? It is benefiting impartially without hope of reward."

The qualities that are ascribed to the apramāṇa and in particular to benevolence are numerous. They are said to be free from passion and attachment, to be unperturbed, pure and of good intention, to ripen sentient beings, to penetrate true reality and indeed, to be spontaneously awakened. They are associated with the six perfections that supersede the factors of enlightenment as regular concomitants of the apramāṇa. We read in the Pañca that a bodhisattva who courses in the apramāṇa practises the six perfections in a way that allows him to specifically utilise his expertise in the pāramitā. In the Vkn a similar idea is expressed where the apramāṇa are linked with the perfections since they inspire their appropriate pursuit. They are fixed to giving because they lead to generosity in teaching; to morality because they assist in maturing sentient beings; to patience because they protect the bodhisattva himself and other people; to vigour because they help to bear the burden of all beings; to

^{57.} Vkn, p. 96.

^{58.} A III, pp. 224–5.

^{59.} Vkn, op. cit., p. 96 (trsl. Lamotte).

^{60.} Vkn, op. cit.., pp. 155-6; Akn, pp. 56.3.7-58.5.6; Mpps, iii, p. 1258.

^{61.} Pañca, pp. 181-82.

meditation because they abstain from tasting its flavour and wisdom because they obtain it in due time.⁶²

Another difference between the śrāvaka and bodhisattva interpretation of the apramāṇa is the object and domain in which they operate. Unlike the śrāvaka who develop the apramāṇa in response to grievances in the $k\bar{a}madh\bar{a}tu$, the bodhisattva extends their application to all spheres of the universe. Indeed, it is this spatial expansion that is usually given as the etymological explanation of the word apramāna:

"A bodhisattva dwells in a thought connected with benevolence, etc.—a thought that is vast, extensive, non-dual, unlimited, ... a thought that radiates friendliness in the ten directions of the world confined only by the *dharmadhātu* and the sphere of space."

Or, in the words of the Akn: 65

"Just as the sphere of beings is immeasurable—there is no exhaustion—just so the bodhisattva's cultivation of friendliness is immeasurable and in that there is no

^{62.} Vkn, op. cit., p. 157.

^{63.} Note, however, that their limitation to the *kāmadhātu* has been refuted by Buddhaghoṣa in connection with his analysis of *samādhi* (*Vism*, iii.20). Implying that 'immeasurable meditations' are free from the restrictions that prevail in the *kāmadhātu* and can serve as basis for the highter levels of *dhyāna*, Buddhaghoṣa proposes that the *appamañña* represent intentions associated with the liberation of mind that operate both in *kāmadhātu* and *rūpadhātu* (*Vism*, iv.74). Moreover, they are measureless not only because of the types of mind they accompany, but also because of the nature of their objects (*Vism*, ix.110):

[&]quot;All of them, however, occur with a measureless scope, for their scope is measureless beings: and instead of assuming a measure such as 'maitri, etc., should be developed only towards a single being, or in an area of such an extent', they occur with universal pervasion."

In both their scope of object and development, for Buddhaghosa the appamañña are therefore immeasurable. The association of maitrī, etc., with the adjective immeasurable is however not totally new. It occurs already at one place in the Dīghanikāya (III, pp. 233-4) where Sāriputra in summing up the teachings of the Buddha describes the fourfold instructions as 'the four immeasurables' (catasso appamaññāyo). However, the specific designation of maitrī, etc., as referring to a state of mind that is measureless—either in terms of object or development—appears to be rather late as it is only found in the Abhidhamma (Vism, ix.105-10; Aronson, 1975, pp. 66-76). And yet, according to some, maitrī, etc., are not universally immeasureable in the Mahāyāna sense, since they do not operate in the arūpyadhātu (cf. Kośa, viii, pp. 199-200).

^{64.} Pañca, pp. 181 (trsl. Conze); an almost identical passage is found in the Dbh (Daśa-bh, p. 34; L).

^{65.} Akn, p. 56.4.2-3
In the Mpps, this definition is given further details by adding two distinct sets of measurement (iii, p. 1262). First, there is the 'true' immeasurable, that is to say, those things that cannot be measured by any person or saint. These include space, nirvāṇa and the nature of beings (sattvasvahbāva). Second, there are those things that although in principle mensurable are beyond reckoning of ordinary beings and become in this sense immeasurable. These consist of items such as the weight of Mt. Sumeru or the number of drops in the ocean. Since the measurement of such objects is known by the Buddha, they do not serve as a gauge for the apramāṇa.

exhaustion."

Finally, there is a distinction in their implementation. On this matter, we read in the Akn:66

"Benevolence is threefold. What are the three? Benevolence directed at living beings as object pertains to the bodhisattvas who have produced the first thought of enlightenment. Benevolence directed at *dharma* as object pertains to bodhisattvas who have embarked on religious practice. Benevolence without object pertains to those bodhisattvas who have attained the conviction of the non-arising of all *dharma*."⁶⁷

This interpretation has grown, of course, out of the philosophical vision of Mahāyāna ontology, denying independent own-being (svabhāva) to worldly existence. Tuned to this conception of reality, the apramāna exhibit three degrees of purity. On the first level, when the bodhisattva pursues them with the conviction that he is dealing with 'real' people, he is still subject to impurity. When he replaces sentient beings with dharma as the object of his benevolence, he is exposed to both purity and impurity, depending on his mental awareness. It is only after he has realised the true nature of sentient existence (bhūtalakṣaṇa) and becomes convinced of the non-arising of dharma that his practice of the immeasurables becomes pure. 69

The *Bdp* shares many of these Mahāyāna features about the *apramāṇa*. Beginning with *maitrī*, the *Bdp* takes up the question of scope and explains that the bodhisattva's benevolence

^{66.} Akn, p. 57.2.3-5

The Sanskrit of this passage is preserved as a quotation in the Śikṣ, p. 212.12-14. An identical presentation of the three modes of benevolence is also found in the Msl (p. 121), Dhsgr (§ 130) and Bbh (pp. 241-2). For further references to the three types of maitrī, see: Mppś, iii, pp. 1250-51.

^{67.} Note that the three kinds of *maitrī* are traditionally compared to the giving of ordinary objects, to the giving of precious objects and to the giving of the *cintāmaṇi* (*Mppś*, iii, pp. 1253-4).

^{68.} In the Śiks (pp. 212.15–213.2; trsl. Bendall), the first level of practice are presented in a slightly different light:

[&]quot;Benevolence has the Buddha as its object of thought, the bodhisattvas, the disciples, all creatures as its object of thought. Here when it has all beings as its object of thought, it comes first by accumulating benefit and blessing upon a beloved being with meditation. Upon such a one he should accumulate benevolence; then upon acquaintances; then upon strangers; then upon neighbours; then upon fellow-villagers and so with other villages; and so on until he continues devoted to one region, spread all over it, covering it. So with the ten regions. But this procedure does not apply to the benevolence towards buddhas and the rest."

^{69.} Mppś, iii, p. 1245.

Presumably, this explanation is also valid for the remaining three *apramāṇa*, although it is not applied to them explicitly in the appropriate sections. After that, the *Bdp* gives a brief overview of the application of benevolence. It is simultaneously seen as a personal protection for the bodhisattva and as practice for the benefit of others. The aspects that are cited, however, refer invariably to the bodhisattva himself. Through the *apramāṇa* he is freed from malice, anger, passion, fear and negligence and acts in accordance with the noble path. The liberation of sentient beings—being mentioned only once—does not stand in the foreground.

Among the advantages that accrue from benevolence, the *Bdp* discusses in particular wealth, honour and fame, vast accumulations of merit, physical perfection, rapid advance on the path and rebirth among gods and men.⁷² The fate of sentient beings receives little attention and is

^{70.} The alternative explanation of their title 'immeasurable' is often that the amount of merit produced through the practice of benevolence, etc., exceeds all measure (*Kośa*, viii, p. 196; *Mppś*, iii, p. 1243). According to the early sources, however, the merit that is generated through them is not of any kind, but specifically brahmanic merit (*brahmāpunya*) which can only be consumated in the seventeen heavens of the Brahmaloka (A V, p. 76; *Kośa*, iv, pp. 250-1).

Reference only to maitr in the explanation of the apramana is by no means particular to the Bdp. As an issue, it is specifically raised in the Mpps (v, p. 2257) and occurs in several other sūtras. The reason behind this choice is the assumption that benevolence is the most important of the four apramāna and accrues the greatest amount of merit. Therefore, it is held to outshine the other apramāna not only in the quantity of merit, but also in quality and to be the only type of meditation that is pure (anāśravabhāvanā). This raises the question of the relationship between the four apramāņa. While the nikāya are virtually silent in this respect, the commentaries propose an ideal topical progression through the four members. Particularly in the Vism this point is made. At first, the meditator wishes for the welfare of all sentient beings. Next, he recognises the great suffering that afflicts his fellow beings and generates great compassion. Then, he ponders the great prosperity of the very same beings for whom he cultivated benevolence and compassion and takes sympathetic joy in it. Even if they are not prosperous in the present life, he rejoices at their future wealth. Having done so, his conduct towards beings has come to an end and he observes sentient beings as a neutral observer (Vism, ix.109). This scheme is of course rather theoretical, since if progress depends on external circumstances, there would be no possibility of advance beyond compassion. Hence, in actuality, progress is dependent on 'skill' in each subject of meditation and ignores external circumstances. We have therefore in the apramāna something approaching an ideal hierarchy of meditation in which the meditator advances through the rarefied spheres of existence. This interpretation has, in the past, generated the misconception that upeksā—being the last in the traditional sequence—would supplant or supersede the other three. Based on the the causal link between upekṣā and equanimity as a factor of enlightenment (Ps, i.85; Vism, xiv.157; Aronson, 1975, p. 274) not shared by the other apramāna, it was suggested that upeksā eclipes maitrī, karunā and muditā. That this is not the case has been shown by Arsonson, 1979, p. 8. Although completing the practice of the apramana and therefore at the pinnacle of their cultivation, the four remain at all times fundamentally complementary in nature. Cf. Mpps, iii, pp.

^{72.} Note the parallels to the benefits that are cited in the *Bbh* as stemming directly from the practice of the *apramāṇa* which, while considering the fate of sentient beings, emphasise personal attainments. They include dwelling in supreme bliss, generation of an immeasurable accumulation of merit, strengthening the intent (āśaya) of enlightenment and holding back all suffering in samsāra (Bbh, pp. 248.23–49.6). For the *Mppś* too the benefits are chiefly of a personal nature. Thus, a bodhisattva who embarks on the practice of benevolent meditation (maitrīsamādhi) escapes burning when he is immersed in fire, he survives poisoning, he escapes injury during military service, he does not die a violent death and is protected by benign divinities (*Mppś*, iii, p. 1273). The same list of advantages is also said to spring from practices of the remaining immeasurables despite their allegedly inferior nature. However, the fruits themselves are only attainable by persons belonging to the āryan-fold since the practice of the immeasurables

only indirectly referred to when the bodhisattva is described as "accomplished in protection of the simple-minded". Much greater emphasis is given to the personal purity of the bodhisattva and his progress along the path. ⁷⁴

In this context, the *Bdp* links benevolence with the six perfections, indicating that it prepares the ground for their successful cultivation.⁷⁵ We saw that by doing so it concurs closely with *apramāṇa* expositions in other Mahāyāna works. Next, the Buddha distinguishes between the 'ordinary benevolence' of the śrāvaka that is solely directed at personal liberation and the 'great benevolence' of the bodhisattva that aims at universal welfare.⁷⁶

In conclusion, the Bdp draws attention to the different kinds of $maitr\bar{\imath}$. That is, benevolence that has living beings as its objects and is based on the generation of the bodhicitta; benevolence that has dharma as its objects and is realised when the bodhisattva is established in the path; and benevolence that is objectless and reserved to bodhisattvas who are accomplished in patience $(k \bar{\imath} anti)$. While the exact scope of these three categories is not elaborated, it is well known from later sources.

According to the Bbh, the three modes of reference (sattvālambana, dharmālambana, anālambana) apply to all four immeasurables and are not restricted to benevolence. Philosophically, it makes the point that the object of the 'objectless application' corresponds to the foundation of being (dharmadhātu) or thusness (tathatā). Whilst the first level is also attainable by adherents of heterodox thought, the second by śrāvaka and pratyekabuddhas, the third is restricted to bodhisattvas. Benevolence, compassion and sympathetic joy are

is well beyond the scope of ordinary beings (*Mppś*, iii, p. 1272; other lists at *Mppś*, pp. 792, 2257, 2362. Compare this list with the advantages given in M II, pp. 207–8, A II, p. 129; IV, p. 150; V, p. 342, *Vinaya* (v, p. 140), *Paţis* (ii, p. 130) and *Vism* (p. 253); *Kośa*, iv, p. 124; *Mvu*, pp. 421–22 and *Catuḥśatakaṭīkā* (TTP, 98, p. 222.5.1–3; ref. Lang).

^{73.} R, folio 267.4.

^{74.} R, folio 267.3-6.

^{75.} R, folio 268.3.

^{76.} A similar division is proposed in the Mpps (iii, pp. 1253-4).

^{77.} R, folio 269.2-4.

^{78.} Bbh, pp. 241.16-18.

^{79.} The same point is also made in the *Msl* (p. 221) and in the *Buddhabhūmisūtraśāstra* (*Mppś*, iii, p. 1250, n. 1). In the *Mppś*—reflecting pure Madhyamaka thinking—it is regarded as synonymous to the true character of things (*dharmāṇāṃ bhūtalakṣaṇam*), pure and simple, without the idealistic connotations of *Bbh's* model.

^{80.} Bbh, p. 242.15-25

Also consult the *Mppś* on these issues that contains a particularly detailed account on the scope of application of the *apramāṇa* (iii, pp. 1242–1279). To sum up, at first, it compares benevolence, compassion and sympathetic joy with regard to their objects, scope and actual effect on the yogin's psyche. Then, having established their exact function, it defines the three areas of application. Benevolence directed at sentient beings is only practised by ordinary beings (*prthagjana*) who engage in meditational exercise or by those adepts who undergo training (*saikṣa*) that is still subject to impurity. Those who generate benevolence with regard to *dharma* are either arhants who have destroyed all impurities, pratyekabuddhas

assembled with a resolution to bring about bliss while equipoise is brought about by the resolution of profit.⁸¹ Whichever the orientation of the *apramāṇa*, in the end all of them are founded on compassion engendered by the perception of worldly misery.⁸²

Of the four apramāṇa, compassion is granted the most detailed treatment in the Bdp. 83 Depicting it as the spiritual basis to the whole bodhisattva ideal, the Buddha explains: 84

"O Prince, what is the bodhisattva's great compassion? O Prince, his great compassion is the basis of his desire for supreme and perfect enlightenment. For instance, just as the basis of the life-faculty of sentient beings is inhalation and exhalation of breath, in the same way, O Prince, is great compassion the basis of the bodhisattva's accomplishment in the great vehicle."

After this opening passage, the Bdp spells out the ten factors that prompt bodhisattvas to unfold universal compassion. Most of these factors relate to the perception of the wretchedness of worldly existence and its inherent conceptual flaws such as belief in a self, wrong views, desire for perverted pleasure, exposure to the five obstructions $(\bar{a}varana)^{86}$, delusion and conceit. In response to these conditions, the bodhisattva generates compassion that is sustained

or buddhas. This level of attainment is conditional on elimination of the perception of a self (ātmansamjñā) and transcending the notion of identity and difference (ekatvānyatvasamjñā). The third level of attainment in benevolence is reserved to the buddhas, since operating beyond objects (anālambana), it does not rest in either the conditioned or unconditioned. Knowing that all objects are unborn, unreal and misconceived, their benevolence does not lean at, or function within, time but rests in non-distinction. Notwithstanding, they do not abandon sentient being to their fate but, relying on wisdom relative to the true character of things, unfold their benevolence to best effect. The same division is also applicable to the thought of compassion (karuṇācitta), but it is not put forward for sympathetic joy and equipoise.

- 81. Cf. Mpps, iii, pp. 1255, 1258.
- 82. The *Bbh* underlines this point by including a list of one hundred and ten kinds of suffering (*Bbh*, pp. 243.2-47.2) and discussing a group of nineteen specific forms of suffering that constitute its object (*Bbh*, p. 247.8-18).
 - Two of these are also hinted at in an important section in the *Msl* where in chapter seventeen (pp. 221.9-224.3), twelve verses are devoted to the immeasurables. At first, close agreement prevails between its exposition and that of the *Bbh*. Both works classify the *apramāna* practice in three levels, viz., practice targeted at sentient beings, practice aimed at *dharma* and practice directed at objectlessness, born out by thusness (*tathatā*) and reserved to those who are free from false imagination (*te hy avikalpatvād anālambanāh*).
- 83. Note, that unlike the discussions of *maitrī*, *muditā* and *upekṣā* that concur almost verbatim to their counterparts in the *Akn*, the *Bdp's* exposition of compassion contains strikingly many discrecpancies from the *karunā* section in the *Akn* (p. 57.2.6–5.6)
- 84. R, folio 269.5–270.1.
- 85. R. folio 270.5-276.4.
- 86. These are desire (*rāga*), hatred (*dveṣa*), delusion (*moha*), regret (*vipratisarā*) and doubt (*saṃśaya*). On the various types of obstruction attested in Buddhist literature, see: *Kośa*, i, p. 51; iv, p. 18, 20; vi, p. 276; *Siddhi*, pp. 639–657; *Dhsgr*, § 115, 118.

by contemplation, imperturbability, reverence, purity, practice and vigour.⁸⁷ It becomes the motivating force (including pristine cognition) that establishes an intense communication between the bodhisattva and sentient beings, exposure to which nourishes, in turn, compassion.⁸⁸

The third immeasurable, sympathetic joy (muditā) is the least distinctive in the Bdp's discussion of the apramāṇa.⁸⁹ Its characterisation amounts to little more than a list of enchanting examples taken from the bodhisattva's conduct. The bodhisattva delights in all aspects of the Dharma, he takes pleasure from solitude and the accomplishment of the six perfections, he approves of congeniality, lack of hatred, physical purity and rejoices in spiritual exertion.⁹⁰ In order to underline this commitment, the text gives a string of examples that illustrate the bodhisattva's devotion to his teachers, parents, sentient beings and good conduct in general. Judging by this passage alone, the main benefit of sympathetic joy is indefatigableness in the pursuit of enlightenment since it rekindles enthusiasm for the path in times of weariness.⁹¹

Acquisition of the fourth immeasurable—equipoise (upekṣā)—is divided into three phases, depending on the object at which it is directed. At first, the bodhisattva learns to assume equipoise towards defilement (kleśa). He maintains high spirits when rejected and defamed or, conversely, is not deluded when praised. He stays calm and unaffected in both misery and bliss and does not develop preferences for either friends or foes, but attains complete impartiality. Whatever the circumstances to which he is exposed, the bodhisattva abides in perfect mental equilibrium and does not allow any factors such as appreciation or aversion, pleasure or distress to influence his judgement and conduct.

Next, he trains in equipoise that applies to situations in which the bodhisattva is exposed to physical abuse and torture. Entitled, 'equipoise to protect oneself and others'

^{87.} R, folio 276.5-277.4.

^{88.} R, folio 277.3-278.4.

^{89.} Aronson (1975, pp. 256-59) has made the same observation on the place of *muditā* in the nikāya. But for two instances, cited only in conjunction with the other immeasurables (D I, p. 73; A I, p. 243), it is the least explored member of the *apramāṇa*. In essence, it seems to epitomise an attitude that prevails among persons whose aptitude and interests are compatible. Cultivated in response to displeasure, it becomes an anitdote to internal unwholesomeness and generates great merit. Its relationship to the meditative attainments of the practitioners is explained as follows (A I, p. 243):

[&]quot;Monks, at the time (when monks live harmoniously), monks are living in the sublime way of living. That is to say, pleasurable interest arises in him who is joyous due to the liberation of the mind which is of sympathetic joy. He whose mind shows pleasurable interest experiences bodily calm. He who has a calm body experiences happiness. He who is happy becomes concentrated."

^{90.} R, folio 278.5–279.7.

^{91.} R, folio 282.7-283.1.

^{92.} R, folio 280.7-281.7.

(ātmaparārakṣaṇopekṣā)⁹³, it allows him to stay aloft over all types of anguish and to forego the thought of retaliation. This type of equipoise springs from the bodhisattva's resolution and is sustained through constant exertion in search for virtue.⁹⁴

The third manifestation of $upek \ \bar{s}a$ is applied to right and wrong moments $(k\bar{a}l\bar{a}k\bar{a}lopek \ \bar{s}a)$. Now, the bodhisattva maintains composure when confronted with irreverence, blame, impurity and despicable demeanour. He abides in equanimity when challenged by persons who do not share his faith in the Dharma, who engage in practices at a wrong time (in particular with regard to the perfections or who are otherwise ill-synchronised in their conduct. In sum, whatever challenge he is confronted with, the bodhisattva carefully weighs the situation, judges with a tranquil and impartial mind, and adjusts his response accordingly. 97

If we compare these features with the apramāna in other writings, we note several parallels. First, the Bdp speaks of a threefold mode of apramāna practice, distinguishing between sattvālambana, dharmālambana and anālambana. We have seen that this is a theme that is common to virtually all Mahāyāna treatises. It is invariably ascribed to the Akn and not to the Bdp from which the Akn appears to have taken it. 98 In the Bdp, the standard formula is extended to include the stages where the various levels of practice are reached, viz., the sattvālambana practice at the first generation of the thought of enlightenment (prathamacittotpāda), the dharmālambana practice at the moment of constancy in the path, and the anālambana practice at the acquisition of patience (ksāntī). In the Akn this formula is divided into two sections, the first gives the levels of practice and the second provides the moment at which they become operational.⁹⁹ Moreover, by making the 'conviction of the non-arising of dharma' (anutpattikadharmakṣānti) the terminus ad quem for the anālambana practice, the Akn modifies the occurrence of the third level. In the path scheme of the Dbh, this would mean that the anālambana practice is not attained before the acalābhūmi, while the Bdp's 'accomplishment in patience' might conceivably be already attained at the prabhākarībhūmi. 100 However, as the treatises on the bodhisattva are completely silent on this

^{93.} R, folio 282.1-283.2.

^{94.} R, folio 282.7.

^{95.} R, folio 283.1-284.1.

^{96.} R, folio 283.3-6.

^{97.} In the *Bdp* it is explicitly said that none of three types of *upekṣā* are conferred by the buddhas, but are self-attained and form a distinct part of the his resolution (R, folio 282.7).

^{98.} E.g., Siks, p. 212; Mpps, iii, p. 1272 (other occurences in Bbh, pp. 241.18-242.51 and Msl, p. 121.11-12).

^{99.} Akn, p. 57.2.3-5.

^{100.} Daśa-bh, p. 36.16-17

matter, their positioning must remain uncertain.

The *Bdp* agrees with those sources that confirm that *maitrī* reaches greatest effectiveness when it is coupled with other practices, in particular the *pāramitā* or *bodhipākṣika dharma*. It also speaks of these practices as forces on which the *apramāṇa* rely for inspiration.¹⁰¹ Other parallels exist in its assessment of compassion as the foremost of the *apramāṇa* and its explanations for their immeasurability.

Points where the *Bdp* differs concerns the profits of the *apramāṇa*, the nature of equipoise and the presentation of the material. We have seen that many texts—early and late—devote at least some attention to the states of rebirth gained as a result of *apramāṇa* practice. This is not the case in the *Bdp*. In the whole chapter there is not one explicit reference to 'ways of living like Brahmā' (*brahmavihāra*). Rebirth in the *rūpadhātu* or *arūpyadhātu*, so central to most other expositions of the *apramāṇa*, does not figure at all. Instead, every reward is immediately dedicated to universal liberation. Another peculiarity is the division of equipoise. Apart from the *Akn* no other text proposes to divide *upekṣā* into three distinct categories of application. What is more, neither of the types of *upekṣā* is taken up independently in any of the texts I consulted. Whether this omission constitutes an oversight or was deliberate we cannot tell. The inclusion of *apramāṇa* quotations in other sources from the *Akn* that are purged of the threefold division points to the latter.

Then there is also the lack of coordination between the different $apram\bar{a}na$ in the Bdp. Deviating from standard practice to grant a degree of cohesion to the four members—be it only through a collective set of benefits—the Bdp looks at each of the $apram\bar{a}na$ in isolation. For instance, no use is made of the integrating function of meditation as frame of reference for their implementation. As a result, the presentation appears fragmented and in want of structural coherence. This lack of integration is most noticeable with $upek s\bar{a}$. In other sources the exposition of $upek s\bar{a}$ is completely interwoven with the practice of meditation as it quietens the emotions, stirred up by benevolence, compassion and sympathetic joy. In the Bdp no such link is proposed. Without the technical language of $dhy\bar{a}na$, its account is essentially descriptive and serves to demonstrate the scope of the bodhisattva's attainment in

Note, that in the translation of the $\dot{S}ik_{\bar{\gamma}}\bar{a}samuccaya$, the position of the Akn has been misquoted by replacing the 'conviction of the non-arising of dharma' as the beginning of the third level with 'patience preparation for a future state' (Akn, p. 57.2.5; $\dot{S}ik_{\bar{\gamma}}$, p. 212.14; trsl. p. 204).

^{101.} R folio 268.5-69.1

^{102.} In the *Bdp*, there is only one reference to Brahmā and that makes no mention of the notion that a bodhisattva might gain rebirth in the Brahmāloka (R folio, 267.4).

^{103.} Mppś, iii, p. 1258.

equipoise.

The Perfection of Generosity

Chapter six introduces the main body of the bodhisattva practices. It marks the formal beginning of the exposition of the six perfections, starting with generosity $(d\bar{a}na)$. The subsequent chapters deal with one $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ each.

Methodologically, much of what has been said about the *Bdp's* presentation of the four *apramāṇa* holds also true for the treatment of the *dāṇapāramitā*.¹⁰⁴ The whole account of *dāṇa* is primarily descriptive and offers little information on the psychological impact of its practice. The chapter begins by enumerating the objects that are typically to be given. These fall into two categories, that is, external gifts (*bāhyaṃ dāṇam*) and internal gifts (*ādhyātmikaṃ dāṇam*). Although not defined as such by name, this division clearly governs the *Bdp's* classification of gifts.¹⁰⁵ First, the bodhisattva gives material gifts (*āmiṣadāṇa*) such as food, clothes, jewels, pleasure-grounds including relatives and dear ones. Then, he trains in giving away his own body in self-sacrifice.¹⁰⁶ The order in which these gifts are listed suggests a ranking according to the degree of difficulty. That is to say, at the lowest level, the bodhisattva provides food, drink and clothing.¹⁰⁷ Then, embarking on higher levels of *dāṇa*, he renounces precious objects. Next, the bodhisattva trains to abandon his family and finally, at the highest level, sacrifices his body.¹⁰⁸ The gift of the Doctrine (*dharmadāṇa*), a major factor in the practice of generosity and acknowledged by most texts, is not cited in chapter six.¹⁰⁹

^{104.} Candrakīrti, in his commentary to the Catuḥśataka (TTP, 98, p. 215.3.2-4.4; ref. Lang), gives the following etymological explanation of the word dāna. He begins by deriving dāna from the root do meaning 'to cut' saying that it alludes to death. Hence, the word dāna is said to give pleasure to a practitioner since it induces disgust (udvega) for the cycle of birth and death. Then, he acknowledges a relation between dāna and the root dā meaning 'to give', noting that the three types of giving include all perfections (āmiṣadāna covering dāna; abhayadāna covering śīla, kṣānti; dharmadāna covering dhyāna, prajñā—with all three are linked with vīrya) and as a channel of the teachings pleases the bodhisattva. Finally, he says that dāna may also be derived from the root de meaning 'to guard' and da 'to purify'. The rationale behind these associations is that the bodhisattva's body, speech and mind are, as yet, in need of guarding and purification since future births are determined by the presence of desire. Thus, because dāna reminds the bodhisattva of other births, it inspires joy in bodhisattvas (cf. Mppś, ii, pp. 698-700).

^{105.} This twofold division is well known from dāna treatment in the śāstras. See, for instance, Bbh (pp. 114-123) and Mpps (v, p. 2238).

^{106.} R, folio 285.1-7.

^{107.} On the bodhisattva's practice of alms-giving, see: Msg, pp. 224-25.

If, however, limited in his possessions by the constraints of mendicant life, the bodhisattva dispenses writing instruments (lekhāni), ink (maṣī), manuscripts (pustaka) and the gift of the doctrine (Vup, p. 30, § 20).

^{108.} This scheme is also found in the *Mppś*, ii, pp. 750-51. At another place, however, the *Mppś* distinguishes between $\bar{a}misad\bar{a}na$ as inferior giving; giving of the body as mediocre giving and generosity accompanied by mental detachment as the supreme type of giving (*Mppś*, i, p. 297).

^{109.} It is, however, discussed in chapter nine (folio 539-546), ten (folio 563) and eleven (folio 628-631).

After listing the objects of $d\bar{a}na$, the Bdp describes the mental states that accompany the practice of giving. It distinguishes forty different factors (divided into four lists of ten each) that turn ordinary generosity into pure generosity. Major concerns are the need for impartiality, dedication of generosity to enlightenment and the objective of universal liberation. A gift should not be bestowed out of wrath or pleasure, it must not have any detrimental effect on the recipient and need not be motivated by desire for retribution. In other words, the whole

Looking at the development of the concept of giving, we note that, at first, references to a consciously perceived division in the objects of $d\bar{a}na$ are less articulated. In the four principal nikāya, a division between $d\bar{a}na$ objects is attested only once. In the Anguttaranikāya (A I, p. 89), we read:

"Monks, there are two gifts. What are these two? The material $(\bar{a}misa)$ and the spiritual

(dhamma). These are the two. Of these two, the spiritual gift is preeminent."

Yet, already in early Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$, the concept of the gift of the doctrine was fully acknowledged and enhanced in value. In the Kp, the gift of the Doctrine is elevated to the supreme task of a bodhisattva, eclipsing even compassion, benevolence and communication of the thought of enlightenment (p. 79, § 20). It is undertaken with a pure heart and virtuous motives without expectancy for anything in return (p. 79, § 20.1) If correctly performed, involving uniform, impartial and open-handed preaching (p. 73, § 12.3; § 44), the gift of the Dharma secures immeasurable merit and prompts the state of unobscured insight (p. 80, § 22.1). He teaches the Doctrine to all beings just as he received it himself and does not hold anything back (p. 61, § 1.2). By doing so, he imparts the thought of enlightenment and inspires sentient beings to strive to buddhahood (p. 79 § 20.3; p. 73, § 12.2).

In later literature this distinction grew in importance. The gift of the doctrine is cited in the $Pa\tilde{n}ca$ (p. 459) as the only $d\bar{a}na$ object alongside material gifts and figures in the Ug and Vup among the objects of generosity of householders (Vup, p. 30, § 20; Ug, p. 259.5.5). Its exact contents is defined in the Kośa (iv, p. 252) as "correct, undefiled teaching of the $s\bar{u}tra$ literature". Those who teach the Doctrine with an impure mind or out of mistaken design such as gain, respect or reputation forfeit all merit that would otherwise fall to them.

In the *Mppś* the condition of the gift of the Dharma, whether that of the śrāvaka or bodhisattva, depends for status on the intention (*cetanā*) and mental state with which it is being given. If it is preached for personal gain, with mistaken views about the self or otherwise overshadowed by delusion, it is wholly impure and of *laukika* rank. If, however, it is taught out of pure intention and with wholesome thought the gift of the Doctrine attains *lokottara* status and introduces to the Buddhist path (*Mppś*, ii, pp. 693–5). Besides the gift of the Dharma and material gifts, the *Mppś* distinguishes a third category of *dāna*, that is the 'gift of homage and respect' (*pūjasatkāradāna*). It consists in showing veneration and is inspired by pure faith (*prasādacittaviśuddhi*). Pure faith figures also amongst the causes and conditions that give rise to giving in general. In the *Mppś*, these are compassion, faith and respect (or a combination of both); an object that is to be given (pure or impure) and a recipient who operates as a field of merit (either destitute or honoured).

Note the contribution of the *Msl* and *Msg* with regard to *dāna* by extending the traditional division into material and the spiritual objects to include the gift of security (*abhayadāna*). According to the commentary of the *Msg*, it serves to constrain violence (*ghātakanivāraṇa*), assists the shy or apprehensive (*bhīruparitrāṇa*) and anchors the bodhisattva's altruistic intention in his practice (*Msg*, pp. 224–5). Defined as protection from the fear of lions, tigers, seizure, kings, thieves, water, etc., (*Bbh*, p. 133.17–19), it pertains, however, more to the realm of *śīla* and reflects the bodhisattva's rejection of violence. (Meadows, p. 176.10; Lin Li-kouang, 1949, p. 250; *Mppś*, ii, p. 700). The *Dhsgr* (§ 105) cites in the place of 'giving of fearlessness' the 'giving of benevolence' (*maitrīdāna*) that is probably an elucidation of the more obscure concept of *abhayadāna*.

Somewhat surprisingly, the gift of security does not figure as an independent category in the *Bbh*. Instead, we find the traditional division into external objects and internal objects (p. 144.23). The gift of the Dharma—identified as the supreme gift (pp. 127.11–128.1)—falls as an individual object in the class of external gifts, but does not form a separate category (pp. 119.25–120.3). It is, however, cited at p. 133.12–13 where the *Bbh* gives material objects, the Dharma and security as the three objects that lead to bliss in this world and the next.

- 110. R, folio 287.7-288.5.
- 111. These precautions are not essential to the *Ug*, where it is argued that to fulfil other people's desires is the highest aim of the *dānapāramitā* (pp. 261.2.6-3.2). The negative side-effects that total compliance with

section warns of aspects that might render an act of giving worthless and even counterproductive by way of mistaken attitudes or motivations. ¹¹² By doing so, the *Bdp* establishes a connection between the practice of generosity and morality. That is to say, it qualifies the act of giving in moral terms and determines its value on the basis of the donor's intention and the choice of objects that are given. It is only if both are of high moral standard and fully compatible with the ideal of the bodhisattva that pure generosity is accomplished.

This association of generosity and morality is not particular to the Bdp. It occurs already in the nikāya and is given prominent treatment in the Ug. The rationale for the joined practice of $d\bar{a}na$ and $s\bar{i}la$ is twofold. First, moral impurity defiles the spirit of giving since it leads to corruption and expectations of reward, and hence obstructs the attainment of pure generosity. Second, there is the incompatibility of attachment and impartiality. Impartiality is a decisive

their wishes may produce are easily annulled by means of the bodhisattva's resolve (praṇidhāna): "Now it is time for the dānapāramitā and I shall give in accordance with that person's wishes. I shall cause the person who makes requests to be satisfied. If giving wine to him, I must soothe that person so that he shall attain right mindfulness (samyaksmṛti) and shall not be caused delusions. Why? To know how to satisfy another's desire, this is the dānapāramitā. Householder, for this reason, by making a gift of wine to someone, the bodhisattva does not draw away from the Buddha."

^{112.} An exemplary account of the ideal circumstances of generosity is found in the *Bbh*. As some of the early sūtras, the *Bbh* devotes considerable attention to the objects and circumstances where the bodhisattva's dāna operates (pp. 132.23-133.2). The overriding purpose behind the practice of giving is to mature sentient beings. Gratification of sense desire is acknowledged to occur but regarded as an unavoidable by-product (pp. 117-118). The bodhisattva takes great care to differentiate between the needs of beings and gives only objects that promote their spiritual interest. The chief reward for the donor becomes exemption from rebirth in the lower destinies, provided that he gives with a pure, impartial state of mind that does not allow favouritism. The bodhisattva does not take advantage of others or seeks personal benefits from giving (p. 121.3-4). His practice of giving is marked by faith and devotion, proceeds in a timely fashion and does not lead to any harm (p. 132.26-7).

An important requirement for correct giving is knowledge of what constitutes the appropriate gift in a

An important requirement for correct giving is knowledge of what constitutes the appropriate gift in a given situation and the awareness that ultimately no objects exist (pp. 123.18–124.22; 129.8–11). The gifts of the bodhisattva comprise specifically the four apramāṇa, as they have great impact on the recipient's spiritual welfare (p. 129.12–15). The chief impediments to a successful pursuit is lack of habit, lack in worthy gifts, attachment to pleasing objects and delight in the prospect of future reward (p. 129.16–21). Delay in the progress in giving occurs particularly when a bodhisattva only owns a few objects that are worth giving and is requested to hand these over to his enemy; when he is asked to renounce what is dearest to him or what he has become accustomed to and when he must give away those dharma that he has acquired with great trouble himself (p. 132.3–12). The most effective antidotes against these obstacles are intellectual penetration (prativedha), endurance of suffering (duḥkhādhivāsanā), cognition of misconception (viparyāsaparijñāna) and insight into the emptiness of karmic formations (saṃkārasāratvadarśana) (p. 131.6–13). As reward for practising dāna—if practised with determination (adhyāśaya) and in conjunction with the pratisaṃvid—the bodhisattva comes eventually face to face with true reality (p. 131.20–27).

Compare this position with the *Mppś* (ii, pp. 670–72) that informs that *dāna* reaps greatest reward if the gift is valuable, uncommon, well-timed, adjusted to local circumstances, in harmony with the requirements of mendicants, offered to members of the *Sangha*, continually and conditioned.

^{113.} A connection of similar type is also established in the *Kp*, where offerings of material objects such lamps, if only to acquaintances, are said to contribute to the final elimination of traces of impurities (*keśavāsanā*) only if they are undertaken in conjunction with moral conduct.

^{114.} Ug, 23, p. 264.4.3-5.7.

factor in the bodhisattva's practice of *dāna* since it is intrinsically connected to the pledge of universal liberation. Violation of the principle of impartiality by whatever means would affect the very foundation of the bodhisattva's quest and place him on the level of a śrāvaka.

Depending on the context, attachment comes into play on two levels. In the nikāya, the Buddha speaks of it in terms of sensual desire.¹¹⁵ The implication is that sensual desire corrupts the monk's psyche in general and renders him unfit to follow in the mendicant path. In the *Ug* which discourses on the lay path, the bodhisattva is warned of inappropriate attachment to his family and worldly possession, since this would obstruct his balanced pursuit of the middle path between worldly desire and renunciation. In a sense, giving is therefore dependent on disciplinarian vigour to fully unfold. However, morality is also reinforced by the practice of giving. For it is through unlimited generosity that the root evils of desire, hatred and delusion are most effectively weakened.

Having discussed the moral dimension of $d\bar{a}na$, the Bdp gives three lists detailing the benefits derived from internal and external giving. Benefits accruing from material gifts are predominantly physical in nature or generate spiritual gain relevant to this world. The system of retribution that governs the granting of daily requisites follows well-established patterns, promising future affluence in precisely the items that were renounced. The gift of luxurious items and family members, however, pertains to a higher order and is rewarded with physical perfection or important spiritual faculties such as the *dharmaskandha*, pristine cognition ($j\bar{n}ana$) or divine ear (divyaśrotra). The borderline between those two categories is rather fluid as reward patterns occasionally become blurred. Self-sacrifice and renunciation of all worldly pleasure are of the highest category, since they place the bodhisattva practically on the level of the Tathāgata through giving the buddha-qualities and all-knowing.

^{115.} In the progressive talk formula (anupubbīkathā) we read to this effect:

[&]quot;Then the lord gave a progressive talk ... namely talk on giving, talk on moral conduct and talk on heaven. He revealed the danger, elimination and impurity of sensual desires, and the benefit of desirelessness. When the lord knew that the mind of ... was ready, soft, without hinderances, uplifted, settled, then he revealed the special *dhamma* teaching of buddhas: suffering, arising, cessation, the path" (D I, p. 110; trsl. Gethin).

^{116.} For alternative lists of dāna benefits, see: Samādh, ii, pp. 326-332 and Mpps, v, pp. 2218-25.

^{117.} R, folio 291.4-5.

^{118.} R, folio 292.3-7

Compare these benefits with the rewards of generosity that are typically cited in the nikāya. In the Sīlasutta (A III, pp. 38-41), for instance, the Buddha distinguishes five advantages that accrue through giving—four in this life and one in the next. In this life, the benefactor is well-thought of and friend of many people. The wise will always be eager to accompany him and he attains great renown. Whatever company he enters, he moves with confidence and converses freely. At death, as a result of his generosity, he is assured a rebirth in the heavenly realms of the gods. A similar set of benefits is found at A III, pp. 32-33.

For the Bdp the most important determinant of the amount of merit that springs from $d\bar{a}na$ is therefore the object that is given and the purity of the donor's $(dr\bar{a}yaka)$ thought. It disregards the role of the beneficiary $(pratigr\bar{a}haka)$ as a field of merit (punyaksetra). Already in the early suttas, we learn that the amount of $d\bar{a}na$ reward depends not only on the act of generosity and its object, but even more so on the spiritual state of the donor. In the Vacchagottasutta, the Buddha explains: 120

"O Vaccha, gifts given in the case of the virtuous are of great fruit, not those given in the case of the wicked. By 'virtuous' I mean one who has abandoned five qualities and possesses five qualities. What are the five qualities he has abandoned? Sensual desire is abandoned, malevolence, sloth and torpor, excitement and flurry, doubt and wavering are abandoned. These are the five. And of what five qualities is he possessed? He possesses the constituents of morality possessed by the adept, the constituents of concentration, the constituents of insight, the constituents of emancipation, the constituent of release by knowledge and vision of the adept. He has these five qualities. Thus, where five qualities are abandoned and five possessed, a gift is of great fruit, I declare."

Thought to this effect is also expressed in the *Dakkhiṇavibhaṅgasutta* where the Buddha discourses on the four degrees of the purification of offerings. Distinguishing offerings purified by the donor, by the beneficiary, neither by the donor nor by the beneficiary and by both the donor and the beneficiary, he rejects all but the last variant as insufficient and concludes that the supreme gift is always that which is given by an accomplished monk person to an accomplished monk.¹²¹

Building on this proposition the nikāya came to differentiate various degrees of $d\bar{a}na$ purity. Besides the donor/beneficiary factor, it is above all the intention behind an act of giving that determines its value. In the $Sang\bar{t}tisutta$, the Buddha speaks of eight bases of giving that influence the result of $d\bar{a}na$. These include the presence of a recipient, fear,

^{119.} On the notions of *puṇya* and *puṇyakṣetra*, see Lamotte's notes in *La Concentration de la Marche Héroīque*, pp. 231–33.

^{120.} A I, pp. 161–2 (trsl. Woodward).

^{121.} M III, pp. 256-7 (cf. Kośa, iv pp. 236-8).

^{122.} According to the Abhidh-sam, the value of the act of giving (dānakarma) depends on the purity of its base (nidāna) and endeavour (utthāna)—non-greed, non-hatred and non-delusion—the choice of objects and his mental, vocal and physical bearing at the moment of giving. It is called accomplished, only when

reciprocity, hope for reciprocity, knowledge of the virtue of generosity, altruism, desire for fame or repute and peace of mind.¹²³ The point is made that in order to maximise the value of generosity, the donor should carefully assess his thinking and purify the intent that motivates his act of giving. For an act of generosity to be fully purified, it requires faith, respect, personal commitment, timeliness¹²⁴ and must be executed without causing distress to the recipient.¹²⁵

According to the Kośa, the mechanism of retribution evolves in four areas of operation. Vasubandhu postulates that gifts can either be beneficial to oneself, to others, to both or neither. Merit itself is divided into two categories. On the one hand, there is merit that arises by virtue of the sole fact of abandoning during the process of dāna (tyāgānvayapunya). It is generated through the production of a mental dharma of abandoning (parityāgadharma), constituting the intention to give and represents the act of giving proper. This form of merit accrues when gifts are presented to a caitya. On other hand, there is the merit produced by its enjoyment (paribhoganānvayapunya). It is merit that results from joy by the recipient in the objects that were bestowed. 128

The amount of merit depends, besides the benefactor's mental state, also on the status of the beneficiary. We saw that spiritual achievement in both the donor and beneficiary constitutes the purest form of giving and entails supreme merit. Thus, we read in the *Kośa*, citing a *sūtra* from the *Madhyamāgama*¹²⁹, that retribution proceeding from gifts made to the āryan community increases with the holiness of the beneficiary.

Corresponding to the standing of the beneficiary, the resultant merit falls into four categories. First, there is the field of merit characterised by destinies (gati). Here, the condition of birth of the recipient has great impact on the amount of merit that is acquired through giving.

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performed frequently, impartially, with indifference (aniśrita) and, in particular, if associated to a commitment (Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 94-5).

^{123.} D III, p. 258 (see: also A IV, p. 236)

The Amṛtarasa (Amṛt (B), p. 89) records a tradition of seven mistaken ways of giving. These include giving with pride (abhimānena), giving for the sake of glory (kīrttaye), giving for the sake of power (balāya), giving accompanied by violence (sabṛśa), giving with motivation (hetupratyaya), giving with the hope of reward and giving to the Sangha with discrimination (vibhanga). In contents, this enumeration contains little new and is based on the lists in D III, p. 258, A IV, p. 60, pp. 236-37; cf. Kośabhāṣya, p.

^{124.} On timely gifts see: A III, p. 41.

^{125.} A III, p. 172; cf. D III, pp. 356-7.

^{126.} Kośa, iv, p. 234.

^{127.} Kośa, iv. pp. 244-5.

^{128.} Kośa, iv, p. 244

Cf. Amrt (B), pp. 87–88 for a variant interpretation of this mechanism of retribution.

^{129.} Madhyamāgama, TD 1, p. 722b 22.

Second, there is the factor of suffering. A gift to a needy person—sick, disabled or in any other physical distress—confers incalculable merit on the donor. In third place the *Kośa* cites "excellence through benefactor" as a condition that influences the field's quality. For illustration, Vasubandhu quotes gifts to one's father, mother or other benefactors as producing particularly abundant merit. Third, we read that a field of merit excels through its qualities. Thus, "a retribution one hundred thousand times greater than a gift made to a persons who uphold moral conduct" will accrue to sponsors of bodhisattvas. ¹³¹

Having examined some of the aspects of $d\bar{a}na$ in non-Mahāyāna texts, I return to the Bdp and appraise its exposition of $d\bar{a}na$. The Bdp agrees with most other sources that a major benefit of generosity is the elimination of the fault of avarice $(m\bar{a}tsaryadoṣa)$. This is a very fundamental proposition which is found in even the earliest expositions. In addition, it speaks of freedom from birth in the lower destinies (durgati) as a reward for the practice of $d\bar{a}na$. This too is consistent with the early views, but it is at odds with later thinking that postulates the need for unabating selfless service and self-sacrifice in the bodhisattva training. Next, the Bdp takes up the ancient scheme of three causes and conditions (hetupratyaya) that give rise to generosity and determine the amount of merit produced. However, by focusing on the object (deya) and motivation $(cetan\bar{a})$ of giving, but largely ignoring the issue of the beneficiary's purity, it shows more concern for the active side of $d\bar{a}na$ practice. deva

Perhaps as a collateral, the Bdp pays little attention to the benefits that accrue to the beneficiary from $d\bar{a}na$ practice. That this is inconsistent with the reciprocity of the ideal of

^{130.} This category refers primarily to the seven *aupadhika-punyakriyavastu* (on the *aupadhika-punyakriyavastu* and the *punyakriyavastu* in general, see: note 132 in my translation of chapter eleven).

^{131.} Kośa, iv, pp. 234–38

This passage seems to fit ill with an explanation found in the Dakkhinivibhangasutta (M III, pp. 254–5) that proposes that gifts given to the Sangha produce greater merit than offerings bestowed to the Buddha. For a brief discussion of the import of the Majjhimanikāya passage, see: La Vallée Poussin, 1980, p. 237 n. 3.

^{132.} E.g., Mppś, v, pp. 663, 2388

In the Mppś (p. 2388), we find also a convenient overview of the various types of renunciation (tyāga). First, there is giving of gifts through the abandoning of material goods. Second, there is the attainment of bodhi through the abandonment of the fetters (saṃyojana). Both are fully attained at the seventh stage. Other types of tyāga are given as internal (ādhyātmika) and external (bāhya), light (laghu) and difficult (guru), the material gift and the gift of the doctrine, the mundane and supramundane gift, the latter being exempt from discrimination (avikalpita) and imagination (asaṃkalpita).

^{133.} R folio 296.7.

^{134.} The only passage in the *Bdp* that could be interpreted as taking into account the role of the beneficiary is a *jātaka* narrative that describes the offerings of the weaver Dhāvanī to the Tathāgata Kuhanachanda. This weaver attains innumerable auspicious rebirths culminating in enlightenment solely by virtue of his gifts to a Buddha—the highest of all recipients. But even here, the focus is quite clearly on the gifts that he offered and his persistence in doing so, and not on the spiritual status of the Tathāgata (R, folio 296.3–298.6).

giving, founded on the interchange of āmiṣa and dharma or āmiṣa and puṇya, need not be emphasised. To all appearances, the Bdp views dāna above all as a pursuit that is advantageous to the bodhisattva's own advance. Characteristically, preaching of the Dharma—traditionally wellspring of the altruistic dimension of giving—is cited only once in passing. 136

It could of course be argued that giving of material items has a dual function. On the one hand, it brings to maturation the buddha-qualities and, on the other hand, attracts sentient beings to the Buddhist path. This interpretation would link the practice of āmiṣadāna with the dānasaṃgrahavastu. As the other three saṃgrahavastu could be categorised as dharmadāna (they are all concerned with preaching), also material giving raises the prospect of substantial spiritual benefits to other beings. 137

Towards the end of the chapter, the Bdp elucidates the overall context in which the $d\bar{a}nap\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ operates. It qualifies the reward mechanism by stressing that happiness in this world is only a by-product and does represent the $raison\ d'\hat{e}tre$ of $d\bar{a}na$. Since they are subject to the law of karma worldly benefits occur automatically in response to wholesome deeds, whether desired or not. In spite of such demotion, they are nevertheless valued and indeed become the 'launching pad' for the career of the bodhisattva. The Bdp explains this in the following words: 139

"O Śāriputra, a bodhisattva, mahāsattva who persists in perfect enlightenment when giving worldly objects becomes not only a universal monarch but also acquires the states of Indra and Brahmā, even though he might not desire them. Once he has attained these three states, he accomplishes the ten stages of the bodhisattva and acquires the ten powers and four assurances of the Tathāgata. ... It is in this way, O Śāriputra, that the Tathāgata attain deliverance by means of the retribution of their [worldly] deeds."

This thought is expanded in the next passages where the practice of giving is linked with

^{135.} Ug, p. 260.5.4-5; Kośabhāṣya, pp. 268-69; Amrt (B), p. 86.

^{136.} R, folio 300.1.

^{137.} The samerahavastu appear in the Bdp on folio 695.1–698.7.

^{138.} For a lucid account of the interrelation of dāna and the other pāramitā, see: Mppś (ii, p. 750-769). Another account of the relationship between the pāramitā and dāna, showing how grhapti bodhisattvas cultivate śila, etc., in granting alms to beggars, in found at Ug, p. 263.1.6-2.6.

^{139.} R, folio 294.1-4.

the cittotpāda and becomes the platform of the whole of the bodhisattva practice: 140

"O Śāriputra, once he has generated benevolence towards beggars, a bodhisattva who pursues generosity acquires by virtue of his *cittotpāda* the uninterrupted buddha-contemplations O Śāriputra, the bodhisattva assumes all forms of wonder-working powers. O Śāriputra, when former Tathāgata pursued the *bodhisattvacaryā* they procured such buddha-qualities by means of worldly gifts. O Śāriputra, a bodhisattva who aspires to non-dying, enlightenment and *nirvāṇa* engages in giving worldly objects."

Finally—setting a precedence for *pāramitā* illustration in all subsequent chapters—the *Bdp* gives an example of the *jātaka*-genre in order to demonstrate the worthwhile effects of practising *dāna*. The association of *jātaka*-type narratives and *dāna* practice has of course long been recognised. In particular, it was brought into connection with the rise of Mahāyāna Buddhism. Many scholars have indicated the rising popularity of the *jātaka*-genre in the proto-Mahāyāna movement and suggested that its description of the Buddha's former practice prepared the ground for the ascent of 'new', revised sets of practices in Buddhism. Above all, this holds true for the practice of generosity. The Buddha's willingness in the *jātaka* to abandon all possessions including his own life must have left a lasting impression on the minds of many people. Their popularity and wide circulation is well attested by their numerous recensions the productions in iconography across Asia.

Ample testimony of this change is found in the literary documents of the Mahāyāna. The

^{140.} R, folio 294.6-295.3.

^{141.} Much has been written on the circumstance in which this transformation might have taken place and numerous, partly contradictory, scenario were proposed. For a survey of these theories, including a good bibiography, see: Bauman, 1988.

^{142.} E.g., Lamotte. "Sur la formation du Mahāyāna". Asiatica, 1958, p. 377-80, "Mahāyāna". in The World of Buddhism. ed. Bechert; Gombrich, 1984, p. 90.

^{143.} Particularly enchanting examples of the bodhisattva's selfless service and self-sacrifice are found in the Vessantarajātaka (Cone; Gombrich, Oxford, 1977), Mahājanakajātaka (Jātaka, vi, p. 34); Candraprabhajātaka (Mppś, ii, pp. 715-6) Sarvadajātaka (Jātaka, no. 514; tīkā, v, pp. 36-57). For an example of such edifying stories preserved outside the jātaka collection, see the narrative of Velāma in Anguttaranikāya IV, pp. 392-396.

^{144.} On the popularity of the *jātaka* genre in South Asia and the numerous recensions that attest this trend, see: Cone; Gombrich, 1977, pp. xv-xliv; Spiro, 1970, pp. 107-8, pp. 346-47; Gombrich. *Precept and Practice*. 1971, pp. 91, 93. For the persisting importance of *jātaka* in general, see: Spiro, 1970, pp. 18-21, 126, 153, 359 and Winternitz. *Indian Literature*. 1933, ii, p. 153.

^{145.} See: Foucher. La Vie du Buddha. 1949 (introduction); Foucher, "Note sur l'itinéraire de Hiuan tsang en Afghanistan". Études Asiatiques, i, pp. 261-2; Foucher. La vieille route de l'Inde de Bactres à Taxila. i, Paris, 1942, pp. 130-32; Lamotte. HIB. pp. 644-685.

first Mahāyāna sūtra to devote an entire chapter to the practice of giving was the Ug. Firmly anchored in the conduct of lay-bodhisattvas and acknowledged as fundamental to their training, dana stands in the Ug at the centre of the whole discourse. The chief beneficiaries of the lay bodhisattva's dāna practice are mendicant monks. As his most elevated gifts are given to the Sangha, the bodhisattva trains to achieve the standards of morality of the monks, ¹⁴⁶ Since he is in equal measure wealthy and devoted to universal liberation, generosity becomes the grhapti bodhisattva's best-known practice and lends viability to his training in society. 147 In the Ug, the practice of giving consists chiefly of material objects. ¹⁴⁸ On an immediate level, the imparting of his wealth is intended to alleviate the suffering of beings. However, if perfected, it becomes the discipline by which he purifies himself of the three root defilements¹⁴⁹ and supports the conviction of the non-existence of a self. 150 Not before the bodhisattva has rid himself of all three defilements becomes this transformation into all-knowing feasible. 151 What is more, his practice of dana becomes also the very basis for all other attainments, most notably the remaining five perfections—that, in turn, sustain his accomplishments in generosity. Giving free from expectations for reward is here characterised as the perfection of wisdom. 152 Indeed, by promoting insight through a series of mental exercises relating to generosity that guide on his path¹⁵³, dāna practice becomes something of a middle path between the extremes of worldly life. 154 In the end, the grhapti bodhisattva's entire activity is undertaken in and for the practice of giving, since it is at once the principal means of liberation and, when perfected, liberation itself.

The *gṛhapti* bodhisattva receives the inspiration to $d\bar{a}na$ from mendicants who dwell in temples and whom he visits frequently for instruction. ¹⁵⁵ Ironically, in terms of $d\bar{a}na$ practice,

146. *Ug*, p. 267.1.2-2.8; p. 265.2.6-3.3.

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^{147.} Schuster, op. cit., p. 330.

^{148.} At several places we read that the lay bodhisattva gives the gift of the Dharma by preaching its doctrines to his fellow beings. By and large, these are exception in an exposition where material objects are the principal items of $d\bar{a}na$. But as this charity is inspired by Dharma and teaches Dharma by example, Schuster argues that the gift of the Doctrine goes well beyond Dharma instructions proper (op. cit., ii, p. 156-7). In principle, this of course holds also true for the Bdp and indeed all other works (e.g., Vkn, p. 112). And yet, since no such connection is indicated in the texts themselves, I feel that such an inference would only blur the lines between the various types of giving and contribute little to clarifying the intent of our sources.

^{149.} Ug, pp. 262.5.8-263.1.2.

^{150.} op. cit., p. 263.2.7–3.2; p. 263.5.5–8; p. 264.4.3–5.7.

^{151.} op. cit., pp. 262.5.8-263.1.6.

^{152.} op. cit., p. 263.1.6-2.6.

^{153.} op. cit., pp. 262.3.7-267.1.2.

^{154.} op. cit., pp. 262.5.3-263.1.6.

^{155.} op. cit., p. 267.3.2-4.4.

the householder soon becomes superior to the mendicants, since they postpone dana cultivation proper until after dharma-cognition.¹⁵⁶ In the Ug dana constitutes therefore an important link connecting the householder with the mendicant ideal. Initially aroused by bhiksus, it perfects the conduct of the grhapti bodhisattva. At a later stage the monks are set to join him in order to train themselves in dana.

Another early text that discusses generosity in some detail is the Akn. Its treatment of $d\bar{a}na$ has many features in common with the Bdp. 157 It too discusses the practice of giving in the context of the six perfections. In both the Kp and Ug dana is treated largely independently of the other perfections. The Akn's exposition consists mainly of lists that enumerate the various objects of dana and the mental states that accompany pure generosity. These enumerations address concerns similar to those of the Bdp and share a large stock of practices with the lists in the Bdp. 158 Other parallels exist in the reward mechanism. Like the Bdp the Akn explains that gifts of luxury lead to physical perfection, the giving of family members to high spiritual attainments and the giving of the body to the buddha-body. Differences are only found in the concluding passages, where the Akn sets out to define the cognitive processes that accompany the practice of $d\bar{a}na$. Here, we learn that $d\bar{a}na$, when perfected, is pervaded by the absence of distinguishing marks (ānimittaparibhāvitva), operates in the sphere of emptiness (śūnyatākāraprasādhita) and is not entangled in the affairs of the triple world (traidhātukāsamsrsta). 159

The dana exposition in the Akn represents an important watershed in the treatment of the practice of generosity. After it, departing from the numerative, highly laborious schemes of the early Mahāyāna texts, sūtras adopted a more succinct style in their discussion of generosity. Increasingly, descriptions of dana became replaced by investigations in its conceptual foundations and scope of operation.

Early traces of this re-orientation are found in the Rcd which shows much greater interest in

^{156.} op. cit., p. 272.2.4-3.2

The mental preparation for the householder's practice of dana is laid down in a list of fourteen deliberations that encourage liberal giving. These include recognition of the transiency of dharma, seeing the reality of non-self and perceiving that dana frees the practitioner from fear, bonds of samsara and the threat of Māra (*Ug*, p. 262.3.7–4.7). 157. 34, pp. 42.3.1–44.4.2.

^{158.} Note that in Akn like the Bdp the gift of the Doctrine receives only scant attention and does not stand in the foreground. In a lengthy enumeration of items that are being given by bodhisattvas (pp. 42.2-43.1.1), the gift of the Doctrine figures only indirectly in five places (pp. 42.5.1-6), but is even then never clearly established as the object of dana.

^{159.} op. cit., p. 43.2.8-3.1.

the mental operations underlying and manifest pure generosity. At first, the *sūtra* lays down the conditions that are favourable to the pursuit of generosity. These consists in unreserved impartiality in the act of giving towards all beings whether evil and virtuous; generation of the mind of enlightenment with the knowledge of the sameness of all *dharma* (*sarvadharmasamatā*); resolve that the roots of virtue accrued through giving do not become transformed into personal gain; unshakable faith in the three aspects of giving.

Then, proceeding from this first, largely preparatory practice, the Buddha defines those attributes that transform giving into pure giving. Above all, these consist of cognitive processes that dominate the donor's mind at the time of giving. The bodhisattva discards the eight mistaken views concerning the self and becoming; he is free from propensities $(v\bar{a}san\bar{a})$ linking the donor with desire and the lower vehicles; his body, speech, mind and intention are fully purified; he passes beyond desire for reward; transcends the fears of pride, conceit and evil works and realises emptiness all around. Throughout the practice, his mind is set on the welfare of beings, buddha-qualities, marks of a $mah\bar{a}puru\bar{s}a$ and buddha-field.

The Rcd's trend towards succinctness and conceptualisation is set forth in the Vkn that is entirely devoid of lists of $d\bar{a}na$ objects. Casting aside old established precepts on alms-begging and its footing in morality, Vimalakīrti advocates for unity of the benefactor, beneficiary and the object given (trimandalapariśuddhi) to become the basis of pure $d\bar{a}na$ practice. By doing so, he dismisses practically all early principles of $d\bar{a}na$ practice and adjusts the notion of giving to the Mahāyāna tenet of 'universal sameness' $(sarvadharmat\bar{a})$. As a collateral of this overturn, he rejects the validity of distinctions in the objects of $d\bar{a}na$. Thus, the gift of the doctrine is no longer restricted to preaching, but includes material goods as Dharma offering $(dharmayaj\tilde{n}a)$. 165

After the Vkn, this thought was taken up in numerous Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$ and became the basis for $d\bar{a}na$ practice. A good example is found in the $Pa\bar{n}ca$. Acknowledging the validity of the threefold purity, it distinguishes a mundane and supramundane mode of generosity. On worldly $d\bar{a}na$ application, we read: 166

^{160. 24,} pp. 231.4.6-232.4.3.

^{161.} op. cit., pp. 231.5.2-232.1.8.

^{162.} op. cit., p. 232.2.1-3.3.

^{163.} Vkn, pp. 51–52.

^{164.} M III, pp. 256-7; A I, pp. 161-2.

^{165.} Vkn, p. 112.

^{166.} Pañca, p. 264 (trsl. Conze).

"Held by three ties the bodhisattva gives a gift. What are the three? The notion of the self, the notion of others and the notion of a gift. To give a gift held by these three ties, that is called the worldly perfection of giving; it is called 'worldly' because one does not swerve from the world, does not depart from it, does not pass beyond it."

Rooted in the conviction of the inapprehensibility (anupalambha) of dharma, supramundane giving takes as its object the threefold purity of giving:¹⁶⁷

"The supramundane perfection of giving, on the other hand, consists in threefold purity. What is threefold purity? Here a bodhisattva gives a gift, and he does not apprehend a self, a recipient, or a gift; also no reward for his giving. He surrenders that gift to all beings, but does not apprehend those beings, or himself either. And, although he dedicates that gift to the supreme enlightenment, he does not apprehend any enlightenment. ... It is called supramundane because one swerves from the world, departs from it, passes away from it."

Crucially important to both modes of giving, is the bodhisattva's willingness to transfer the gift itself and all the merit he gained through it to his fellow beings:¹⁶⁸

^{167.} *Pañca*, p. 253a (trsl. Conze)

The notions of mundane and supramundane levels of giving are taken up in the *Mppś*. Mundane giving (laukikadāna) consists in ordinary generosity or gifts granted by members of the āryan-fold, but accompanied by impure thoughts. This last point is subject to controversy as some have argued that every gift from the ārya, even if of impure motivation, is by definition, supramundane since they have cut off all fetters (samyojana) of existence through the apranihitasamādhi (op. cit., i, pp. 322-23).

Supramundane giving (lokottaradāna) has as its object items that are unreservedly pure and conforms to the true character (bhūtalakṣaṇa) of the Dharma. It includes also relinquishing one's own life, if it is done out of concern for the welfare of beings (Mppś, ii, pp. 688-691). Every act of giving exclusively aimed at escape from saṃsāra is impure, since it ignores the suffering of sentient beings and lacks interest in the 'true' teaching of the Dharma (Mppś, ii, p. 677). This position is fundamentally based on a passage in the Velāmasutta (A IV, pp. 392-96) where the Buddha recounts an episode of his previous life as bodhisattva. Similar criteria apply to the donor. Persons who freely give away their riches but fail to abandon giving are mundane in character. Those, however, who resolve to renounce material objects and the concept of giving—knowing that they both are ultimately non-existent (anupalabdha)—are supramundane operators (Mppś, ii, p. 724).

^{168.} Pañca, p. 176 (trsl. Conze)

In the final analysis even this tenuous link with conventional reality must be abandoned, since any thought of having given something away might lead to pride and satisfaction. In the words of the $Vajracchedik\bar{a}$:

[&]quot;A gift should not be given by a bodhisattva who is supported by an object; a gift should not be given by a bodhisattva who is supported anywhere. A gift should not be given by a bodhisattva who is supported by matter, sound, scent, taste, touch or mind objects. For Subhūti, a gift is to be given by a bodhisattva mahāsattva in such a way that he does not support himself even on the notion of a sign" (Vajracchedikā; Vaidya, 1961, p. 76; ref. Meadows).

"Furthermore, O Śāriputra, the perfection of giving of a bodhisattva who courses in perfect wisdom and gives gifts consists in that, with attention associated with the knowledge of all modes, he turns over to full enlightenment that gift which he gives, after he has made that wholesome root [which results from the act of giving] common to all people."

It is on this note that Bdp concludes its discussion of $d\bar{a}na$. Linking generosity with the $cittotp\bar{a}da$, it sums up the fundamental principles of $d\bar{a}na$ practice as follows: 169

"O Śāriputra, a bodhisattva who is skilful gives [gifts] to many people, even if [what is given] is small. His practice excels by virtue of the power of his pristine cognition. It is strengthened by the power of his wisdom. It is without limit by virtue of his power of dedication."

This survey of the development of the concept of $d\bar{a}na$ allows us to draw some conclusions about the treatment of generosity in the Bdp. The nature of presentation suggests that the Bdp's exposition of generosity belongs to the earliest strands in Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$. The extensive use of enumerations, the predominantly descriptive tone and the application of the $j\bar{a}taka$ -genre as a vehicle of explication all point to an early date of composition. It is difficult to establish the period of time of its formulation, but the fact that the Bdp does not expose the practice of $d\bar{a}na$ to the principles of Mahāyāna ontology and shows no interest in conceptualising indicates that it probably predates the discussions of the Vkn, $Pa\bar{n}ca$ and Rcd. For the bodhisattva in the Bdp, the practice of $d\bar{a}na$ involves quite clearly true hardship and unfeigned renunciation. That the Bdp does not include the gift of the Dharma among the objects of giving is further evidence of its antiquity because it suggests that teaching had not yet

This non-support of the bodhisattva when giving is extended in the *Gaganagañjasūtra* to the gift itself (Śikṣ, pp. 270.14–271.1):

[&]quot;Just as space is immaterial, so the gift is independent of matter; just as space is without feeling, so the gift is detached from all feeling; in the same way, it is without consciousness, unconditioned and bears the characteristic of non-manifestation; just as space pervades all buddha-fields, so that gift is pervaded with compassion for all creatures; just as space is always transparent, so his gift is clear of the nature of thought; just as space illuminates all creatures, so his gift gives life to all creatures ... by absence of duality, gift is clear of the marks of illusion."

^{169.} R, folio 298.5-6.

become a major concern of the bodhisattva. In later texts this position was fundamentally revised and *dharmadāna* became a major, if not the most important, aspect of the practice of generosity.

It is also of interest to note the connection between generosity and morality. When the Bdp discusses the forty manifestations of $d\bar{a}na$ and the mental states that accompany pure giving, it is clearly concerned to show that giving is an intrinsically moral practice that can only flourish if it is applied within the confines of pure morality. We have seen that this link between $d\bar{a}na$ and $\dot{s}ila$ is not particular to Mahāyāna thinking but had already been established by the Buddha in the Dīghanikāya. In the Mahāyāna, the $d\bar{a}na/\dot{s}ila$ association is most evident in the early $s\bar{u}tras$. Apart from the Bdp, it is found in the Ug, Kp, Rp, Akn, PraS and $Sukhāvatīvy\bar{u}ha$. In response to shifts in perception that were occasioned by the increasingly powerful presence of the ontological postulates of $\dot{s}\bar{u}nyat\bar{a}$ and $samat\bar{a}$ this connection waned in later literature. Already in the Vkn it became delegated to the background and it is altogether absent from the $Pa\bar{n}ca$. In a sense, its disappearance was inevitable and represents the logical outcome of a vision of reality that rejects the validity of all worldly experience and operates beyond the parameter of purity and impurity. The fact that it is found in the Bdp and placed very much in the centre of the exposition of $d\bar{a}na$ is yet another indication that the Bdp is a work of great antiquity and belongs to the earlier strands of Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$.

The Perfection of Morality

"For ordinary people, for those who originate in the word [of the buddha], For persons who are predestined to the awakening of pratyekabuddhas, And for sons of the buddha there is no other cause but morality [That leads to] supreme happiness and worldly delight."

170

This verse, composed in the seventh century by Candrakīrti, is eloquent testimony of the high esteem in which Buddhists of all ages held moral integrity. Valued for the disciplinarian rigour and purificatory effect morality impressed on those who subscribed to its observance, the practice of morality formed from early on a pillar of Buddhist spirituality. Echoing this importance, it was juxtaposed to meditation and wisdom and became one of the three cardinal practices the Buddha grew never tired of expounding.

In particular, moral conduct was valued for its preparatory role in the spiritual development. In the *Dasuttarasutta*, the Buddha included the following counsel amongst eight conditions that occasion wisdom:¹⁷¹

"Self-restraint in accordance with the *pātimokkha* code, equipped with wholesome conduct, recognising danger in even the smallest transgression, [a monk] trains in the moral precepts (*sikkhāpada*)."

The $s\bar{a}ma\tilde{n}\tilde{n}aphala$ stage by stage account of the path in the $s\bar{\imath}lakhandhavagga$ of the Dīghanikāya draws a clear picture of the dynamics governing the progress of spiritual purification. This process starts with $s\bar{\imath}la$ as the preliminary stage, proceeds through its intermediate stages with the practice of $sam\bar{a}dhi$ and culminates in the cultivation of $pa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$.¹⁷²

The spirit of this scheme is encapsulated in a well-known passage of the

^{170.} Mavbh, p. 41.17-20.

^{171.} D III, p. 285.

^{172.} This progressive characterisation of the path recurs numerous times in the nikāya. In the Majjhimanikāya (M I, pp. 178-89, pp. 267-71, pp. 344-8; III, pp. 33-6, pp. 134-7), we find several examples of slightly abbreviated versions. The same pattern, if adjusted to an altered frame of reference, is epitomised in the scheme of the seven perfections (visuddhi) of the Rathavinītasutta and, of course, in the overall structure of the Visuddhimagga.

"Such is $s\bar{\imath}la$, such is $sam\bar{a}dhi$, such is $pa\tilde{n}n\bar{a}$. When imbued with $s\bar{\imath}la$, $sam\bar{a}dhi$ is of great fruit and benefit. When imbued with $sam\bar{a}dhi$, $pa\tilde{n}n\bar{a}$ is of great fruit and benefit. When imbued with $pa\tilde{n}n\bar{a}$, the mind is rightly freed from the $\bar{a}sava$, namely the $\bar{a}sava$ of sensual desire, the $\bar{a}sava$ of becoming, the $\bar{a}sava$ of views, the $\bar{a}sava$ of ignorance."

In spite of this hierarchical structure, it would be a mistake to infer that morality, meditation and wisdom are practised in isolation and succession.¹⁷⁴ For, in practice all three are inextricably linked together and can only flourish in conjoint efforts:¹⁷⁵

"Just as Gautama, one might wash hand with hand or foot with foot, even so $pa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$ is fully washed by $s\bar{\imath}la$ and $s\bar{\imath}la$ is fully washed by $pa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$. Where there is $s\bar{\imath}la$ there is $pa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$, where there is $pa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$ there is $s\bar{\imath}la$. One who has $s\bar{\imath}la$ has $pa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$, one who has $pa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$ has $s\bar{\imath}la$. [$S\bar{\imath}la$] and $pa\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$ together are declared the summit of the world."

The best canonical treatment of $s\bar{\imath}la$ is not to be found among the scattered references of the four principal $nik\bar{a}ya$, but in the $Patisambhid\bar{a}magga$. For the Patis, the quality of $s\bar{\imath}la$ is primarily determined by its scope and depth of application. Measured by as a series of factors that compromise moral integrity, these include transgressions motivated by considerations of gain, fame, family, physical well-being and life-and-death. It is only when $s\bar{\imath}la$ is wholly unaffected and well beyond such worldly concerns that it fosters spiritual growth and becomes the basis for $nibb\bar{a}na$.

In order to be fully beneficial to these attainments, moral conduct must have its foundation in cognition and operate in combination with restraint, non-transgression, volition and

^{173.} D II, p. 81; repeated on pp. 84, 91, 98 (trsl. Gethin; my punctuation).

^{174.} For a more detailed discussion of their interrelation see: Gombrich, 1984, pp. 91–102 and Gethin, 1987, pp. 399–400.

^{175.} DI, pp. 124 (trsl. Gethin; my punctuation)

Samādhi is omitted in this scheme as the Sonadandasutta, from which this quotation stems, investigates the path phases only in terms of moral conduct and wisdom.

^{176.} Patis, i, pp. 43-48.

^{177.} A commentary on this section is found in Vism, i, p. 12.

^{178.} Patis, i, p. 44.

consciousness-concomitants (cetasika). According to Buddhaghoṣa¹⁷⁹, quoting canonical sources, morality as restraint refers above all to the restraint through the pātimokkha code¹⁸⁰, mindfulness, knowledge, patience and energy.¹⁸¹ Sīla as non-transgression applies to compliance with whatever commitments of virtue one has undertaken. Since these vary with the respective vows, śīla ranges from non-violation of the pañcasīla to full adherence to all Vinaya rules. Conceptually, morality as volition and consciousness-concomitants go hand in hand as they represent two aspects of the same mental factor. The volitional dimension refers to the positive intention (cetanā) that is present in one who refrains from killing, etc., while, its consciousness-concomitants are those aspects of consciousness that arise together as the factor of abstinence.¹⁸² If applied to the ten wholesome acts of refraint, morality as volition accounts for the cetanā that generate the first seven non-actions, while its consciousness-concomitants generate the three remaining states of non-covetousness, non-ill-will and right view.¹⁸³

On the basis of these distinctions, the *Paţis* draws up five categories of $s\bar{\imath}la$, namely, abandoning, abstention, volition, restraint and non-transgression, and relates them to each of the ten non-virtuous actions. The most important benefit that flows from these five modes of $s\bar{\imath}la$ is 'non-remorse cognition'. ¹⁸⁴ It is so because it prepares the ground for higher understanding of the path which prompts the practitioner to carry out all practices as required. ¹⁸⁵

Buddhaghosa, greatly expanding on the *sīla* section of the *Paṭis*, proposes nineteen aspects of morality. ¹⁸⁶ Of particular interest for the present study is his understanding of mundane and supramundane morality. Citing a passage from the *Vinaya*, he establishes that *sīla* that is still subject to the cankers is essentially mundane. ¹⁸⁷ It brings about improvement in future states of existence and constitutes an indispensable prerequisite for deliverance. Supramundane morality, in contrast, operating beyond worldly constraints, is capable of leading directly to

^{179.} Vism, i, p. 8.

^{180.} According to the Kośa (iv, pp. 47–48), propounding a Sautrāntika point of view, the discipline of the prātimokṣa code falls into four categories. Morality (śīla) redressing that which is unjust; good conduct (sucarita) that is praised by the wise; action (of body and speech) because it is action by nature; and discipline (samvara) because it constrains body and speech.

^{181.} D I, p. 70; M I, pp. 10-11; Sn. 1035.

^{182.} Cf. Atthāsalinī, iii, chpt. v, pp. 103-106.

^{183.} Vism, i, p. 7

^{184.} See also A V, p. 1 where we read: "Ananda, profitable habits (virtues) have non-remorse as their aim and non-remorse as their benefit."

^{185.} Patis, i, p. 47.

^{186.} Vism, i, pp. 10-51.

^{187.} Vin, v, p. 164.

nibbāna and represents the plane of 'reviewing knowledge'. 188

Purification itself is brought about through four modes of practice and behaviour. First, there is purification by teachings. This form of purity originates in hearing and observing the rules of the *Pātimokkhasutta*. Second, purification by restraint refers to consciously undertaken abstention from sensual indulgence. It evolves from a resolution to that effect and varies according to the commitments. Third, purification by search is achieved through conscientious probing resulting in rightful acquiring of requisites. Fourth, purification by reviewing emerges from mindful scrutiny of those objects that one plans to appropriate *prior* to the acquisition proper in order avoid unintended offence. Poo

The Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$ incorporated many of the above concerns into their interpretation of $\dot{s}\bar{\imath}la$. This is attested by the great number of $\dot{s}\bar{\imath}la$ expositions that revolve around the issues that are expressed in the tenfold virtuous activity ($ku\dot{s}alakarmapatha$). But they also went beyond this scheme which was expanded to comprise numerous other qualities and practices. Religiously, many of these new precepts grew out of the resolve to achieve universal deliverance and accommodate therefore a much greater spiritual ideal. This led to a conceptual expansion of the notion of $\dot{s}\bar{\imath}la$ beyond the parameter of the $pr\bar{a}timok\bar{\imath}a$ code.

Cognitively, this expanded interpretation of morality required a new frame of reference to

188. Vism, i, p. 13.

Next, Buddhaghosa distinguishes moral conduct that is natural, necessary, customary and due to previous causes (Vism, i, p. 15). A similar characterisation of the nature of moral conduct is found in the Bbh where we read that śila should be understood as adopted, natural, habituated or conjoined with means. Adopted morality is that on which the threefold morality of the Bbh is modelled. Natural morality is undertaking physical and vocal activity that is entirely pure because of the nature goodness of the mental continuum that is established in the bodhisattva fold. Habituated morality characterises the moral conduct by which

that is established in the bodhisattva fold. Habituated morality characterises the moral conduct by which the bodhisattva has grown accustomed to the threefold morality in his previous lives. Morality that is conjoined with means refers to the bodhisattva's reliance on the four means of conversion in order to encourage to virtuous activity of body and speech (*Bbh*, p. 184.6–22).

According to the *Kośa*, combining material from two discourses of the Anguttaranikāya (II, p. 121; IV, p. 364), morality is of four types. First, there is morality of fear. One observes this out of concern for loss of the daily necessities, out of concern for a bad reputation, out of fear of chastisement and out of fear of birth in the evil destinies. Second, there is mercenary morality that one adheres to out of attachment to life in the good destinies, to pleasures and to honours. Third, there is morality that is suitable to the factors of enlightenment that pertain to persons of right view. Fourth, there is pure morality that, being free from stain, is free from vices (*Kośa*, iv, p. 248).

^{189.} *Vism*, i, pp. 43–44.

^{190.} In the Kośa (iv, pp. 247-8), moral purity is attributed to rejection of the causes of immorality (viz, the kleśa and upakleśa), to the workings of the four bases of mindfulness (vi, p. 158) and to reliance on the peace of nirvāṇa. Then, it considers five additional causes of moral integrity. These are purity of the deed itself (renouncing of evil deeds); purity of their attendants (renouncing the preparations or the means of killing, etc.); absence of the disturbance from vitarka (kāma, vyāpāda and vihiṃsāvitarka); its supervision through mindfulness (Buddha, Dharma and Saṅgha—that includes the renunciation of undefined actions) and its application to nirvāna (op. cit., iv, p. 248).

allow integration into the revised philosophical tenets of Mahāyāna thinking. The calls for purity of body, speech and mind indexed to a world that itself had no independent claim to existence beyond the level of convention must have startled the minds of many Buddhists of the day. In order to allay this bewilderment and to reconcile what appeared to be contradictory demands, Mahāyāna thinkers drew up a blueprint that distinguished two levels of truth. On the lower or conventional level, the need for moral integrity was upheld. On a higher level of understanding—reserved to those of rare spiritual gifts—'reality as it is' (yathābhūta) revealed itself as having the characteristics of same (sama), unborn (anutpanna) and calm (śānta), operating beyond the categories of purity and impurity. Seen from this absolute viewpoint, all endeavours in morality lose in their meaning and become harmful to liberation since they obstruct conceptual 'unbecoming' by superimposing non-existent predicates on reality.

It was from this kind of changes in perception that there eventually emerged a new type of ethics—the bodhisattva morality (bodhisattvaśīla). Based on the amalgamation of the vastly expanded mission and the new vision of reality, Mahāyāna sūtras came to propose a moral ideal that was tailored to the spiritual aspiration of the bodhisattva. Dismissing the early prohibitive schemes of the śrāvaka as inadequate, the bodhisattva morality superseded the ancient conventions and replaced them with a scheme that allowed for a free interplay between cognitive realisation and the religious obligation of universal liberation.

That this process was slow is attested in several early Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$ where we find the treatment of $\dot{s}\bar{\imath}la$ still bearing close resemblance to the ideal of early Buddhism. That is to say, it continues to revolve around the tenfold virtuous activity, to emphasise the threat of desire and to operate within (be at the margin of) the confines of $\dot{s}r\bar{a}vakay\bar{a}na$ ontology. A good example is the Ug. Here, the treatment of $\dot{s}\bar{\imath}la$ is still dominated by an exposition of the $pa\tilde{n}ca\dot{s}\bar{\imath}la$. Following well-established pattern, it discusses the five limbs and points to the

^{191.} Aṣṭa, p. 427; for a list of eleven, see: Aṣṭa, p. 324 (cf. Saddhp, pp. 275–296).

Another example is the Dbh. The Dbh, however, stands out for the fruits it proposes arise from the kuśalakarmapatha. According to this text the kuśalakarmapatha lead to the state of pratyekabuddhahood when purified through the insight of its attainment. They encourage purification of the bodhisattva's stages, perfections and conduct if practised in the spirit of the bodhisattva's praṇidhāna and lead, if fully purified, to the state of buddhahood itself (Daśa-bh, p. 26.1–13).

^{192.} As if appended to the chapter, the *Ug* adds in a few lines the remaining five *śīla* of the *akuśalakarmapatha* so that in fact all ten factors are present (pp. 261.2.6-3.5).

The *pañcaśīla* correspond to the first five precepts in a list of rules known in Pāli as the *sikkhāpadāni* (Skt. *sikṣāpadāni*). Both refer essentially to those precepts a layman is expected to observe when he enters into the Buddhist community and, to some extent, define his spiritual status. In the Buddhist training, their role is chiefly preliminary as they prepare the commitment to higher disciplinary practices. In substance there is no difference between the *pañcaśīla* observance of śrāvaka and bodhisattvas since it spells out a basic moral ideal that is quite independent from the *cittotpāda* and *praṇidhāna*. In a controversial article

disadvantages arising from their violation, with desire $(r\bar{a}ga)$ rated as the most serious obstacle. ¹⁹³ Traces to the new ideal are few and do not affect the spirit of the treatise. They occur only once in a brief passage indicating compassion behind harmlessness and in a reference to 'caring generosity'.

In the Rcd, śīla is given a more advanced treatment. In particular, it displays several concepts that link it unambiguously with the Mahāyāna. First, it states that the bodhisattva's whole practice of morality is rooted in the cittotpāda. 194 Whatever its manifestations, the overriding purpose of the \dot{sila} practice is the universal liberation of beings. This objective is achieved by the traditional practice of the daśakuśala in conjunction with selfless service and resolve. The motivation behind the bodhisattva's moral training is therefore Mahāyāna, while the means to achieve progress therein are outlined along the conventional understanding of śīla. For the author of the Rcd, no doubt, moral purification takes place in a world of 'real' obstacles, genuine impurity and is achieved through a set of practices specifically designed to overcome them.

In the Akn this understanding of morality is taken up and further integrated into Mahāyāna ontology. At first, like the Rcd, the Akn looks at morality from a conventional point of view and enumerates a great number of attributes that pertain to moral perfection. 195 Although the list commences with the daśakuśala, many of the items go well beyond its scope and link śīla specifically with bodhisattva practices. 196 Next, the Akn investigates the nature of morality in the light of the doctrine of non-attribution (asamāropa), concluding that morality of the foundation of being (dharmtāśīla) prevails when there is absence of names and signs

^{(1963),} Hirakawa has pointed out that in several versions of the Asta the daśakuśala are identical with the daśasīla of the nikāya to conclude that the daśakuśala were originally the morality of laymen after which they were adopted by the Mahāyānists as the basic discipline for lay and recluse bodhisattvas (p. 75). Alleging that the daśakuśala were neglected by nikāya Buddhism and taken up in reaction by the Mahāyāna, he argues that the pañcaśila became the new basis of the bodhisattva morality. This raises several problems: First, the pañcaśīla do not correspond to the first five elements of the daśakuśala but have counterparts in the sikṣāpadāni. Second, for the Ug on which much of his claim rests (p. 94), the pañcaśīla are enjoined for laymen—not recluses. Third, not even the daśasīla and daśakuśala correspond in contents. All this indicates that the situation was much more complex than suggested by Hirakawa and that we cannot speak of a direct, verbatim borrowing between the morality of śravaka and bodhisattvas. Both, no doubt, shared a common conception of morality—that, according to Gombrich, (1984), had a pre-Buddhist origin—and were guided by similar principles. But to stipulate a direct line of borrowing seems certainly to oversimplify matters.

^{193.} *Ug*, p. 261.1.2–2.6. 194. *Rcd*, p. 232.4.5.

^{195.} Akn, pp. 43.4.2-44.1.7.

^{196.} The Akn includes, for instance, unloquacious morality (amukharaśīla), peaceful morality (śāntiśīla), morality which grasps adequately gentle speech (suvacahpradaksinagrahasīla), morality of bringing sentient beings to maturity (sattvaparipācanaśīla) and morality guarding the Dharma as manifestations of śīla (p. 44.4-6).

($n\bar{a}masam/keta$), since "morality is where there is no attribution of body, speech and mind". ¹⁹⁷ If seen from the $param\bar{a}rtha$ point of view and subjected to the same philosophical rigour as all other phenomena, it becomes a non-practice (adharma) of no independent existence. With such propositions in hand, the Akn draws a clear line in the understanding of morality. By fully integrating moral conduct in cognition and by making its purity dependent on insight rather than practice, it blurs the distinctions between $\dot{s}\bar{s}la$, $sam\bar{a}dhi$ and $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$ as never before. It is true that also in the Akn the cognitive dimension is still dominated by practical concerns of morality; and yet, its cognitive propositions clearly herald a new type of understanding of $\dot{s}\bar{s}la$. ¹⁹⁸

The first $s\bar{u}tra$ to undertake a clear commitment to this ontological interpretation was the Kp. Here, in a memorable passage, we learn: 199

"Die Moral, Kāśyapa, wird Moral genannt, bei der kein Selbsthaftes, kein Wesen, kein Nominalismus des Wesen, kein zu Tuendes, kein nicht zu Tuendes, kein Bewirken, kein nicht Bewirken, kein Wandel, kein Nichtwandel, keine Ausführung, keine Nichtausführung, kein Name, keine Gestalt, kein Attribut, kein Nichtattribut, keine Ruhe, keine Beruhigung, kein Erfassen, kein Aufgeben, kein zu Erfassendes [existiert]. ... O Kāsyapa, die Moral is ohne Einflüsse, nichts zugehörig, abgesondert von der Dreiwelt, fern von all Basis im Leben."

It is argued that monks who still considered moral conduct as a 'real' concern involving independently existing beings and of sensory experience that is based on mistaken assumptions (*upalambhadṛṣṭika*)—however conscientiously they might have observed the precepts—failed to accomplish moral purity.²⁰⁰ In the words of Candrakīrti:²⁰¹

"If [a bodhisattva] sees in moral purity an own-being (svabhāva)
By that very reason, his morality is not pure."

Besides this reinterpretation of \dot{sila} , the Kp makes another important contribution to the

^{197.} op. cit., p. 44.1.8-2.4.

^{198.} op. cit., p. 44.2.4-7.

^{199.} Kp, pp. 202-206, § 140-142 (trsl. Weller).

^{200.} op. cit., pp. 191-2, § 134.

^{201.} Mavbh p. 37.17-18.

understanding of morality. We have seen that so far conventional morality is chiefly concerned with the daśakuśala, either set in the context of prohibitive regulations or aligned to the thought of enlightenment. This concept is not absent from the Kp. It encourages repeatedly constraint of the senses²⁰², correct conduct²⁰³ and genuine observance of monastic precepts²⁰⁴ as the principal means to overcome evil propensities.²⁰⁵ Where it differs is the stipulation for extensive roots of virtue (kuśaladharma) to complement compliance with the regulative strands of śila so that they may result in maximum benefit. This recognition, it is true, is not totally absent in other texts. However, in the Kp it is for the first time that the accumulation of roots of virtue—if only tentatively—is proposed as a regular concomitant of morality.²⁰⁶ In later Buddhist literature, most notably the Bbh, this association contributed to making the accumulation of roots of virtue an integral part of bodhisattva morality.

In the Vkn, apparently building on the concerns of the Kp, but leading them to a logical conclusion, Vimalakīrti clarifies the impact of mind on moral conduct:²⁰⁷

"A fault exists neither on the inside, nor on the outside, nor between the two.²⁰⁸ And Why? Because the Blessed One has said: 'By the defilement of the mind are beings defiled, by the purification of the mind are they purified. Honourable Upāli, the mind exists neither on the inside, nor on the outside, nor between the two. So it is with a fault as it is with the mind, and with all *dharma* as with a fault: they are not separated from suchness.' ... All *dharma* are without arising, disappearance and duration, like an illusion, a cloud or a flash of lightening. Those who know this are called the true guardians of the discipline."²⁰⁹

^{202.} Kp, p. 46, § 22.1.

^{203.} op. cit., p. 13, § 6.2

^{204.} op. cit., pp. 18-19, § 8; pp. 191-2, § 134.

^{205.} op. cit., p. 45, § 21.1.

^{206.} Kp, pp. 10-19; pp. 41-44, § 5, 6, 8, 19, 20

The advantages that accrue from the roots of virtue are manifold, but always personal to the bodhisattva. The means by which a bodhisattva accumulates roots of virtue are fourfold, viz., delight in solitude, practice of the means of conversion, selfless service and self-sacrifice and insatiability for roots of virtue (op. cit., p. 41, §19). In the Kp, the only factor capable of removing their accumulation is mind (citta) that, though utterly insubstantial, represents a real threat to the bodhisattva's morality since it is associated with the sense pleasures but difficult to trace (op. cit., p. 149, §102).

^{207.} Vkn, pp. 71-73 (trsl. Lamotte).

A very similar version of this passage is also found in the Kp (p. 144, § 98) and in the Mppś (ii, p. 861).

^{208.} The reasoning behind this thought is explained in the *Kp* (pp. 206–10, § 142–44) where the point is made that the formulation of an idea on a concept incurs conceptual bondage (*samjnābandhana*) and that the only mode of escape from its trappings is given through entry into the attainment of the extinction of consciousness and sensation (*samjnāvedayitanirodhasamāpatti*).

^{209.} On the notion of non-separation the Vkn (p. 192; trsl. Lamotte) adds:

The $Pa\tilde{n}ca$, introduces a third element that, while tacitly present in all Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$, has never before been specially mentioned as a factor affecting $\hat{s}\tilde{\imath}la$ practice. This is the bodhisattva's resolve to mature all sentient beings:²¹⁰

"Coursing in the perfection of morality ... endowed with this skill in means, the bodhisattva grows in wholesome roots, courses in the perfection of morality, matures beings, and purifies the buddha-field. But he does not aspire for any fruit from his morality, which he could enjoy in saṃsāra, and it is only for the purpose of protecting and maturing beings that he courses in the perfection of morality."

While it is difficult to assess the influence such a passage might have had on subsequent developments, it is striking that many of its key elements found their way into later scholastic literature. In the Bbh, for instance, one meets with exactly the same \dot{sila} division proposing discipline, collecting wholesome roots and ripening of beings as chief components of moral conduct. On the conduct of the components of moral conduct.

The first element, entitled morality of the vow (saṃvaraśīla) is said to vary according to the seven commitments that are open to Buddhist followers.²¹³ Recognising the variety of

[&]quot;Good and bad are two. Not seeking after either the good or the bad, understanding that the sign and the signless are not two, this is penetrating into non-duality ... To say, 'this is impure and that is pure' implies duality. If one grasps *dharma* from the angle of their sameness, one no longer produces either a notion of impure or a notion of pure, but one is still not notion-free ..." (cf. *Madhyāntavibhāga*, p. 221, 24).

^{210.} Pañca, p. 489 (trsl. Conze).

As the overriding concern of the bodhisattva training in general, this intention figures in one way or another in all sūtras we have looked at so far. Most notably, it is implied in the Rcd's depiction of śīla where the thought of enlightenment is given as the foundation of moral conduct. Yet, prior to the Pañca, no text cites 'morality as benefiting beings' (sattvānugrāhakaśīla) as a quality that pertains specifically to moral conduct—let alone, as its raison d'être (cf. Śgs, p. 142).

^{211.} For a concise, if slightly inaccurate, survey of sources in which these issues occur, see: *Hōbōgirin*, 1929–1930, "Bosatzukai", pp. 142–146.

^{212.} Bbh, p. 138.24-27

The same division appears also in the Siddhi (pp. 631-32) and is incorporated in the scheme of śīla propounded in the Msg (pp. 212-13). In the Msg, however, it does not serve as an overall classification, but—representing 'superiority in kind'—forms part of a fourfold scheme that distinguishes 'distinction in kind' (prabhedaviśeṣa), 'distinction founded in rules that are common and not common' (sādhāraṇāsādhāraṇāsikṣaviśeṣa), 'distinction in immensity' (vaipulyaviśeṣa) and 'distinction in depth' (gambhīryaviśeṣa). Compared with the plan of the Bbh, the scope of this classification is rather limited and leaves many issues unexplained.

^{213.} Altogether, action of discipline falls into three categories: (1) action included in the discipline of the *prātimokṣa* vow, (2) action included in the discipline of meditation (*dhyānasamvara*), (3) action included in the discipline of (supramundane) purity (*anāsravasamvara*).

As discipline of the *prātimokṣa* vow Buddhism distinguishes eight kinds of commitment—not seven

⁽Abhidh-sam (R), p. 90). These are the discipline of monks (bhikṣusaṃvara), nuns (bhikṣunīsaṃvara), of

human circumstances, the *Bbh* integrates both the lay and monastic side in its vision of the *bodhisattvaśīla*.²¹⁴ However, the description of the bodhisattva's *saṃvaraśīla* suggests that it is in fact firmly placed within the monastic environment.²¹⁵

The second component of śīla involves the accumulation of factors of virtue (kuśaladharmaśīla). The bodhisattva achieves this through a variety of practices, including reverence, mindfulness, compassion, seclusion and of course the practice of the pāramitā. Of particular interest are the five aspects of wisdom. These enable the bodhisattva to learn about the advantages that accrue from virtue, the causes of virtue, distortions (viz., the four mistaken views), non-distortions and about the obstacles to accumulating virtue. The second virtue of virtue of virtue.

The third aspect of morality is directed at the welfare of sentient beings (*sattvānugrāhakaśīla*) and specifically concerned with those practices that allay their suffering.²¹⁸ It includes training in skilful means, means of conversion, generosity²¹⁹, protection²²⁰, compliance when appropriate

those who undergo training (śikṣamāṇasamvara), novices (śramaṇerasamvara), female novices (śrāmaṇerīsamvara), lay-followers (upāsakasaṃvara), female lay-followers (upāsikāsamvara) and the discipline of fasting (upavāsasaṃvara). Possibly Asaṅga saw a correlation with the seven groups of moral observance that are comprised in the discipline of the prātimokṣa vow, viz., pārājika, saṅghāvaśeṣa, aniyata, niḥsargika-pāyantika, pāyantika, prātideśanīya and saikṣa. A good summary of some of the issues pertaining to the eight types of discipline is found in the Kośa (iv, pp. 41–47).

The discipline of meditation refers to abstention from indulgence in sense pleasures at a time when the seeds of defilement stemming from immorality, particularly those of sexual desire, are cut off during the first three stages of meditation. The Kośa (iv, p. 41) adds that while the prātimokṣasamvara belongs to the kāmadhātu, the dhyānasamvara operates only in the rūpadhātu.

Discipline of (supramundane) purity constitutes pure abstention that is attained through internal insight of truth by the force of one's attention to pure realms (Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 90-91). They exist among the gods of the kāmadhātu and rūpadhātu (with the exception of the asamjñāsattva and the gods of the intermediate dhyāna), though never in the arūpyadhātu since discipline belongs to the sphere of matter which the arūpyadhātu gods cannot possess (Kośa, iv, p. 105).

The discipline that arises from meditation and the pure discipline are concomitants of the mind; not the *prātimokṣa* discipline since it continues to exist in persons whose mind is bad or neutral, or who is unconscious (*Kośa*, iv, p. 51).

For further detail on the *prātimokṣa* morality, see: *Kośa*, iv, pp. 87, 94–101; *Patis*, pp. 43–44. For an appraisal of the *upavāsasamvara* see: *Kośa*, iv, pp. 64–72 and *Mppś*, ii, pp. 825–39.

214. Bbh, p. 138.18-23

While, in general, this attitude is very common in Mahāyāna sūtras and śāstras, it is rare that it becomes as explicitly expressed as it is here in the Bbh. In most cases, the proposition that the bodhisattvacaryā can either be pursued in a monastic environment or as a layman is tacitly assumed. Notable exceptions to this rule are the Vkn, Ug, Vup and Upāsakaśīlasūtra. For a succinct discussion of the various aspect that pertain to the lay and monastic ideal, including a list of references in Pāli and Sanskrit sources, see: Vkn, pp. 75-77.

215. Bbh, p. 141.2-6
For an account of the kinds of action that infringe on discipline (asamvara), their impact on the bodhisattva's spiritual development and the psychological reactions they occasion, see Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 91-98.

216. Bbh, p. 139.1-3.

^{217.} op. cit., p. 144.9-16.

^{218.} op. cit., p. 140.4-28.

^{219.} op. cit., p. 147.7-25.

^{220.} op. cit., p. 146.14-19.

and resistance when necessary²²¹, sympathetic joy²²² and performance of wonder-working powers.²²³

For the cultivation of the threefold morality to become successful several preconditions have to be met.²²⁴ First, the bodhisattva requires a learned instructor in order to correctly receive his śīla instructions. Second, it is essential that the bodhisattva acquires a fully purified intention (adhyāśaya) since it determines judgement in the application of the precepts.²²⁵ If he is thus equipped, two more dharma emerge, viz., an undertaking to correction after failure and mindful avoidance of failure through respect. Accurate reception, pure intent and reverence are by themselves highly effective in preventing breaches of the bodhisattvaśīla.²²⁶

In the *Bbh*, the reception of the *bodhisattvaśīla* is inextricably linked with the taking on a commitment (*saṃvara*) in moral observance. Having solemnly declared his yearning for instructions in morality, the bodhisattva pledges:²²⁷

"I, of such and such a name, declare before all the Tathāgata and bodhisattvas of the great stage of the ten directions. Before them I undertake all the moral precepts of the bodhisattva and the entire bodhisattva morality; the morality of the vow, the morality of accumulating factors of virtue and the morality accomplishing the welfare of sentient beings that the bodhisattvas of the ten directions of the past, present and future have trained in."

The scope and effectiveness of this *saṃvaraśīla* is thought to be superior even to the *prātimokṣa* vow—the most demanding of the eight traditional commitments. Theoretically, it enables the bodhisattva to train himself by following his own judgement. In practice, however,

^{221.} op. cit., pp. 147.25-150.13.

^{222.} The bodhisattva applauds in particular those beings who have attained the qualities of faith, morality, learning, renunciation and wisdom (op. cit., p. 150.13–19).

^{223.} op. cit., pp. 151.13-152.14
A summary of the impact of this practice is given in a section detailing the eleven modes by which the bodhisattva is established in the morality of accomplishing the welfare of sentient beings. However, since this covers much common ground I shall not go into the detail of these factors (op. cit., pp. 144.23-152.17).
224. op. cit., p. 137.14-25.

^{225.} I have found no other text in which these requirements are stipulated. Most treatises simply refer for the foundations of morality either *en bloc* to the combined practice of the *daśakuśala* (*Mppś*, ii, pp. 782-819, *Daśa-bh*, pp. 26-27), or accentuate absence of (sexual) desire and hatred in conjunction with correct views as factors generating morality (*Mavbh*, p. 33.3-6).

^{226.} *Bbh*, pp. 137.26–138.7 These three elements correspond to cardinal issues around which much of the exposition in the *Bdp* revolves (folio 306.1–4, 314.2–320.6).

^{227.} Bbh, pp. 181.21-182.2.

he is advised to listen regularly and to consult the basket of the bodhisattva scriptures (bodhisattvapiṭaka) since it assists him in the observance of the moral precepts.²²⁸

Modelled in name and number on the 'defeats' (pārājika) of the śrāvaka Vinaya, the Bbh lays down four factors that signal failure in morality. Characteristically, these do not refer to moral violation in the traditional sense, but address backtracking in the bodhisattva's resolve. The four are (1) desire for praise and respect, (2) close-fistedness in wealth and Dharma, (3) anger and (4) repudiation of the bodhisattvapiṭaka.²²⁹

Repeated intentional violation of these leads to instantaneous and permanent forfeiture of his roots of virtue and loss of the *cittotpāda*.²³⁰ However, should the bodhisattva show only weak or medium involvement—even if his undertaking is relinquished—he retains the opportunity to receive once again the vow of morality in the same lifetime.²³¹ Moreover, once the vow is taken in accordance with the regulations and not abandoned, it maintains validity throughout the numerous life-cycles of his career.²³²

^{228.} *Bbh*, p. 156.7-11

To the *Mppś* (ii, p. 586) moral conduct is self-promoting. It proposes that attainments in the *pañcśīla* of the *upāsaka* inspire the tenfold morality of the *śramaṇa* that, in turn, when perfected, lead to the discipline of the monks (*prātimokṣa*). This, again, occasions the next higher form of morality, morality springing from meditation (*dhyānaśīla*), from which arises—once accomplished—pure morality (*anāṣravaśīla*). Cf. *Bbh* (p. 186.16–19) that distinguishes, unfortunately without further elaborating, five modes of morality that are furnished with giving, patience, vigour, meditation and wisdom.

^{229.} Bbh, p. 158.2-5

This list of $p\bar{a}r\bar{a}jika$ is not the only one that was drawn up for the bodhisattva. In the *Brahmajālasūtra*—a late text of doubtful authenticity—we meet with ten *dharma* that entail defeat and deprive the bodhisattva of his status. These include, besides the *pañcaśīla*, bringing others into disrepute, avarice, boastfulness at the expense of others, malevolence and calumny of the three jewels (DeGroot, 1967, pp. 32–39; Eidman, 1958, pp. 392–3).

^{230.} The second factor leading to the relinquishment of all moral undertakings is the bodhisattva's abandonment of his resolution (pp. 159.23–160.2).

^{231.} Bbh, p. 159.9-24

It appears that the concept of the opportunity of regeneration was introduced by the *Vup*. We saw that the bodhisattva's observance of morality—like all other aspects of the training—is decisively influenced by his determination (*adhyāśaya*). Expressed and strengthened in the commitment of the vow and resolution, it provides the bodhisattva with a stable and firm basis for his entire conduct. Since it is raised consciously and deliberately, this intention creates a mental shield that resists evil and, should it be breached, allows for swift restoration.

For the śrāvaka, the only means of spiritual renewal is given in the highly formalised confession-ritual (Vin, ii, p. 126, 192; iv, p. 18). While this is also available to the bodhisattva, it has lost much in formality and has gained a more personal note. In the Vup, the issue that matters most is no longer exact compliance with procedure, but the candidate's genuine regret and his undertaking to prevent a repetition of the transgression (Vup, pp. 36-38).

On the provisions for a confession of sins, see: *Bbh*, p. 181.6–21; *Vup*, pp. 31–37; *Ug* (cited in Śikṣ, p. 290.3–6, but attributed to the *Vup*); *Kp*, p. 170, § 119; *Saddhp*, p. 210; *Lal*, p. 379. Passages raising the possibility of private confessions are also found in the nikāya: D I, p. 85; M I, p. 438; III, pp. 244–7; S I, p. 24; II, p. 127, 205; A I, p. 238; II, p. 146; IV, p. 377.

^{232.} This is not the case of śrāvaka discipline, where commitment to the discipline is only valid for the present life-time (Kośa, iv p. 63). The argument behind this proposition is that the person one would become would be different, that this new person would not be able to apply himself to the rules and that he would not remember undertaking them (Kośa, iv, pp. 63-64).

The gravity of moral transgressions other than the four defeats depends (as in the śrāvaka *Vinaya*) very much on the circumstances in which they were committed.²³³ In general, acts committed out of indolence, irreverence, greed, desire, pride, negligence or ill-will—the very antitheses to the bodhisattva's resolution—are considered transgressions involving defilement. If developed out of forgetfulness, illness, mental distraught or ignorance, the fault is a transgressions without defilement.²³⁴

Finally, infringement on morality that originates in the bodhisattva's $pranidh\bar{a}na$ is entirely free from fault or stigma. In order to elucidate this precarious issue, the Bbh draws up several scenarios where the violation of each of the $da\acute{s}aku\acute{s}ala$ is not only condoned, but becomes a vital expedient to the promotion of spiritual welfare among beings. Hence, according to the Bbh, "there is nothing that is categorically a fault" on the bodhisattva's path. This thought is carried further in a preamble to examples that describe the scope and flexibility of the bodhisattva's moral conduct: 237

"Even in the case of what is reprehensible by nature, the bodhisattva acts with such skill in means that no fault ensues; rather there is a spread of much merit."

In other words, by virtue of his expertise in skilful means²³⁸, the bodhisattva is allowed—at times even encouraged—to commit transgressions of disobedience (*pratikṣepaṇasāvadya*) if, by doing so, he benefits sentient beings.²³⁹ We saw that for the śrāvaka, moral contravention occurs only within the sphere of physical and vocal activity. Mental inaptitude is not directly addressed by the *prātimokṣa* rules. This does not hold true for the *bodhisattvaśīla* where mental improbity (*cittāpatti*) is fully recognised as a source and manifestation of moral infringement.²⁴⁰

^{233.} Bbh, pp. 160.10-165.1.

^{234.} Bbh, p. 180.10-12.

^{235.} The text gives an example in which the bodhisattva is invited to a house but chooses not to accept the invitation. If he rejects it out of enmity or resentment he has committed a defiled fault, but if he does not attend because he learned of the opportunity to hear a Dharma discourse of great value he is free from fault (*Bbh*, pp. 162.25–164.7).

^{236.} Bbh, pp. 164.19 ff.

^{237.} Bbh, pp. 165.26-166.1.

^{238.} Cf. Msg, p. 216.

^{239.} He is, for instance, encouraged to accept vast quantities of robes, alms-bowls, beds, rugs and even gold and silver to redistribute them among sentient beings (*Bbh*, p. 165.8–22).

^{240.} Msg, p. 214.

Generally, rather than actively transgressing certain rules, it is abstention from required actions that is regarded as a severe violation of the bodhisattva's morality. For instance, should a bodhisattva who is in

But now to the *Bdp*. In emphasis and orientation, its treatment shares a common understanding with that of early Buddhism. Since moral improbity is held to lead inevitably to spiritual ruin, its main concern revolves around the need for conventional moral integrity. The presentation possesses therefore many of the hallmarks of the prohibitive *vinaya*-type approach, while, at the same time, it allows for adjustment to the increased scope of the new ideal.

The bedrock for the whole exposition is the insistence on the conscious and intentional abstention from the ten evil paths of action (akuśalakarmapatha).²⁴¹ It takes up over a third of the chapter and is divided into the spheres of body (killing, theft and sexual misconduct), speech (falsehood, slander, harsh and frivolous talk) and mind (covetousness, animosity and wrong views):²⁴²

"There are ten modes of auspicious action.

The bodhisattva who is skilled adheres to them.

The wise one who does not act through body, speech and mind

Is said to be in possession of moral conduct."

And yet, in spite of this accentuation, the treatment of the *daśakuśala* itself provides little insight into the workings of purification. Instead of discoursing on the psychological processes that practice of them triggers, the *Bdp* devotes most attention to the benefits flowing from

possession of wonder-working powers fail to employ them in a situation where they would inspire faith, he would be guilty of a serious transgression. Similarly, should he fail to rebuke people who are in need of reproach or does not mete out a punishment for wrongdoing when he would be perfectly capable of doing so, he commits a defiled fault (*Bbh*, pp. 179.18–180.10). Passivity with regard to his duties articulated in his *pranidhāna* weighs more heavily than infringement on the letter of the *prātimokṣa* precepts. A concise list of attributes pertaining to pure morality appears at the end of the *Sīlapaṭala* (op. cit., pp. 186.23–187.15).

^{241.} The Sanskrit terms are as follows: (1) prāṇātighāta, (2) adattādāna, (3) kāmamithyācāra, (4) mṛṣāvāda, (5) paiśunyavāda, (6) pāruṣyavāda, (7) sambhinnapralāpa, (8) abhidhyā, (9) vyāpāda and (10) mithyādṛṣṭi (Mvy 1687-1698). For references in the nikāya, see: M I, pp. 42, 360; III, p. 23; S IV, p. 313; V, p. 469; A, I, p. 226. Sanskrit references are found at Mvu, i, p. 107.13; Daśa-bh, p. 23.6; Śikṣ, p. 69.13 and Dhsgr § 56 (cf. Amṛṭ (B), pp. 89-91). For a full discussion of the akuśalakarmapatha, see: Mppś, ii, pp. 782-819. On their role in the bodhisattva-path, the Dbh comments (Daśa-bh, pp. 26.5-9):

[&]quot;The ten good paths of action—as they are completely purified by the wide, immeasurable state, by the arrival at great compassion, by grasping skilful means, by the state of being bound to the next vow, by non-abandoning of all beings, by taking hold of the broad buddhaknowledge—conduce to the complete purity of the stages of the bodhisattva, to the complete purity of the perfections and to the full extent of the career."

^{242.} R, folio 304.2-3

This list recurs three times during the discussion of the śilapāramitā (R, folio 368.2-6; 403.7-404.3). As it introduces at each occasion a new aspect of the practice of moral conduct, it was probably conceived of as laying down the individual areas of application that make up the overall scope of the bodhisattva's morality. This tenfold division is of course very ancient and is well known from the nikāya (cf. D III, p. 214; A, I, pp. 49, 52, ff).

their cultivation and the impact they have on the bodhisattva's advance.

The acquisition of such benefits is dependent on the interplay of two factors. On the one hand, adjusting to Mahāyāna ontology, the Bdp invalidates moral conduct and denies it any role in the path. As we have seen, this is common practice in Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$ and represents the $param\bar{a}rtha$ point of view. On the other hand, on a conventional level, $s\bar{t}la$ becomes a major force in the bodhisattva practices. It is held indispensable for the completion of the path, in general, and gives rise to a series of important mental factors. In the Bdp, such factors include faith, vigour, trust in retribution of deeds, trust in morally and wholesome deeds, aspiration to the noble lineage $(\bar{a}ryavamsa)^{244}$, respect and veneration of teachers, withdrawal in search for the Dharma and unreserved commitment to enlightenment. Although it stops short of pronouncing a causal relationship between them and the kusalakarmapatha, the Bdp indicates that they operate on a reciprocal basis and arise simultaneously to reinforce each other's presence.

Through the roots of virtue that are generated by the *kuśalakarmapatha* in conjunction with faith, etc., the bodhisattva produces ten forms of *cittotpāda*. These are based on moral integrity, reverence and yearning for spiritual instruction, and lay down the phases in his cognitive growth.

In spite of the shared context in which the ten *kuśalakarmapatha*, ten mental *dharma* and ten *cittotpāda* occur—except for a broad association with the practice of morality—no connection between their members seems to exist. It is true that the ten mental factors and the forms of *cittotpāda* cover roughly the same ground (both emphasise the role of reverential conduct towards one's teacher and include search for the Dharma and insight into the workings of karma), yet at no point is there any indication of the relation in which they might develop.

^{243.} R. folio 302.5-304.1

^{244.} According to the *Ug* (pp. 271.5.1–272.1.7) acquisition of the *āryavaṃśa* is one of the chief manifestations of pure morality in *pravrajita* bodhisattvas. Other concomitants include practice in the thirteen *dhutaguṇa*, seclusion, honesty, correct reflection, rejection of mistaken views, calm insight into the workings of the body, fearless acceptance of emptiness and signlessness and the generation of compassion. Apart from a broad contextual agreement with the mental factors in the *Bdp*, these show few parallels.

^{245.} R, folio 306.1-4

There is a certain overlap between these ten factors and the five *indriya* cited as antidotes to moral impurity in the Anguttaranikāya (A V, p. 192). Moreover, several of them appear repeatedly in conjunction with moral conduct to define the attributes of true *bhikkhus* and figure among practices conducive to enhanced aspiration and high rebirth (M III, pp. 99-103). In this context, their chief function becomes to provide for the cognitive stability that is required for sound refraint from the three root evils. On the benefits, see: D II, p. 86; M I, p. 33; A III, pp. 251-2 and *Vism*, i, p. 14.

^{246.} The single most important factor underlying the bodhisattva's moral stance becomes the resolution undertaken in his vow to benefit all sentient beings. Although not explicitly mentioned in this capacity, the orientation of the *śīla* practice leaves not doubt that it is that intention which rules his conduct at all times (R, 307.2).

Furthermore, both schemes do not agree on the position in which they list the shared practices. Faith and vigour, for instance, the first two limbs of the ten mental *dharma*, figure in the *cittotpāda* at the very end. Moreover, some of the key issues of the *cittotpāda* do not occur at all among the ten mental *dharma*. Correct understanding of the body, the threat of desire, hatred and delusion, and headlong pursuits are only found among the ten *cittotpāda*.

In the absence of any positive evidence, we cannot stipulate any firm connection between the *akuśalakarmapatha*, mental factors and the types of *cittotpāda*. The only common denominator is a shared, if broad, association with moral conduct. This link, however basic, is rather pronounced and recurs on several occasions. For one thing, the generation of the ten mental *dharma* is conditioned by abstention from killing, etc. This would link them with the ten *cittotpāda*, as these too cover some common ground with the mental *dharma*.

Other parallels are found in the ethical connotations that are raised by the ten *cittotpāda*. We have seen that the first two, as if producing basic mental requirements, lead to a correct understanding of the body. To view the body as empty, essentially impure and impermanent weakens the propensity for attachment and removes the foundation of desire. Next, recognition of previous anger, violence and bitterness (realised with the fourth and sixth *cittotpāda*) instigates the mental processes that inspire the abandonment of hatred (*dveṣa*). Finally, appreciation of the faults of past misconduct—as manifested in lack of respect, mental confusion, ignorance of causation and purposeless straying—refers to delusion (*moha*), the third of the three root evils. All ten *cittotpāda* therefore have a bearing on the very factors that cause moral impurity. The destruction of desire, hatred and delusion is achieved with the tenth *cittotpāda* in which moral conduct is fully realised in conjunction with faith, modesty, chastity, learning, renunciation and wisdom.²⁴⁷

Cognitively, pure moral conduct triggers a series of insights into the workings of phenomenal existence. Evolving in conjunction with correct reflection (*yoniśo manasakāra*), the bodhisattva develops aversion towards karmic formations, loses interest in sense pleasures, rejects empirical knowledge and develops a defence mechanism against hatred and desire.²⁴⁸ First, on the emotional level, he trains in order to see in every sentient being his mother and father of

^{247.} On the pillars of moral impurity, the *Akn* records:

"Morality is the absence of evil causal dispositions, the non-arising of mistaken views and elimination of hindrances like regret; morality does not abide by unwholesome roots of covetousness, anger and delusion" (p. 44.3.2-3).

^{248.} R, folio 376.1.

previous lives.²⁴⁹ This allows him to recognise in situations that arouse sensual desire his mother as the object of passion. Likewise, in situations of great injustice, he restrains his anger by recognising his father as the aggressor.

Since it leads—if entwined with incorrect reflection—to unfavourable rebirth in the evil destinies²⁵⁰, desire is singled out as the most acute threat to the bodhisattva's moral integrity.²⁵¹ In order to eradicate desire, the *Bdp* proposes three methods that protect the bodhisattva from attachment.²⁵² First, it advises him to consider—as deterrent and cause for compassion—the

While this is not exactly the position of the Bdp in chapter seven, elsewhere we meet with statements that run very close in intent (R, folio 415.1–2):

"Māra obtains the opportunity to harm a bodhisattva whose mind is wrathful even after he has entered the great vehicle. If he obtains this opportunity, the bodhisattva will be cut off from supreme and perfect enlightenment, for a bodhisattva who is evil-minded becomes inattentive when pursuing enlightened conduct."

252. In the Bdp desire is defined as attachment to the objects of the five senses, and above all, to the fetter of form (rūpa). It is seen to obstruct hearing of the Dharma, taking refuge in the triratna, seeing the Buddha, receiving the (eighteen) blessings as well as preventing faith, moral conduct, learning, chastity, modesty and wisdom to unfold (R, folio 390.2-7). As such, it is identified as the most potent threat to the training of the bodhisattya.

However, according to the *Vup*, an even greater threat to moral integrity is posed by conceit (*adhimāna*). Interpreted as a side-aspect of delusion in the threefold root defilements, it bars the bodhisattva from attaining his goal by deceptively magnifying his own attainments (*ātmokarśa*) and depreciating those of others (*parāvajñā*) (*Siddhi*, p. 346). The means by which conceit is overcome vary with the spiritual outlook of the practitioner. For the śrāvaka, it is above all avoidance of speculative and inconclusive thought that prevents its arising. The bodhisattva, however, is advised to eschew premature judgement on the quality of his progress in training and to learn to distinguish mistaken views from correct ones (*Vup*, pp. 53-54). For unlike other defilements, liability to conceit not only subsists in the more advanced stages of the path but, moreover, increases in attraction with the rate of progress in purification (*Aṣṭa*, pp. 385-95).

In the *Vup*, the Buddha distinguishes two areas of conceit. First, it draws attention to conceit operating on the moral plane. It occurs when the bodhisattva compares his degree of purification with that of ordinary beings and, judging it inferior, concludes that its holders of little worth (§ 47). This form of moral conceit may also arise on the basis of his spiritual powers and attributes (§ 48)—illusory or real—on the basis of attainments such as the buddha-qualities and even through perceived superiority in material wealth or worldly position (§17). Second, conceit arises at the cognitive level in response to inessential speculation (*Vup*, p. 54). This issue is also taken up in the *Samdhis* (ÉLa), pp. 47.19–48.15. Since deliverance is only achieved by totally abandoning thought representation (*sarvavikalpapavigata*) in favour of the acceptance of inconceivability (*Vup*, pp. 53, 64), all discursive thinking is detrimental to liberation and becomes, particularly if of academic hypothesis, a potential cause of vanity (*Vup*, p. 55):

"By means of what measure do monks evade conceit? The Tathāgata replied to the venerable Upāli: Monks are altogether liberated from conceit if they do not harbour wrong views (abhiniveśa) concerning the inconceivability springing from all-knowing."

^{249.} R. folio 384,7-387.2.

^{250.} R, folio 388.6-7.

^{251.} In this context, serving to exemplify the pitfall of sensual desire, we find a diatribe against the wife (folio 389.1–395.2) similar to that contained in the *Ug* (pp. 263.5.6–264.3.4).

Judging by later discussions of Mahāyāna morality, this view was not destined to last. In the *Vup*—marking an important stepping stone in the development of the *bodhisattvašīla*—it is lack of altruistic compassion and hatred that replaces desire as the most severe and resilient impediment to moral perfection (*Vup*, pp. 50–51). In an earlier passage the Buddha adds the third member, delusion, that he qualifies as a grave defilement that is difficult to eliminate since (*Vup*, pp. 31–32):

[&]quot;Attachment under the influence of the ramification of transmigration becomes the seed of rebirth; hatred, because it is quickly eliminated becomes a step towards the evil destinies; delusion, because it is difficult to eliminate becomes the cause occasioning one's fall into the eight hells."

suffering of beings.²⁵³ The prospect of exposure to such a high degree of misery alone prevents immoral behaviour from arising.²⁵⁴ Second, the *Bdp* recommends as an incentive²⁵⁵ the contemplation of the excellent qualities of the members of the āryan-fold.²⁵⁶ Without complete purity, such excellence will always be beyond the reach of a bodhisattva. Third, the practitioner is reminded of the illusory character of sensory perception and the unreliability of the data it provides.²⁵⁷ In the spirit of purest Mahāyāna thinking, the *Bdp*—taking the example of sight—shows that all perception is utterly devoid of own-being and, hence, cannot give cause to meaningful attachment.²⁵⁸

The location on the path of such an attainment is only vaguely indicated. Judging by the benefits that accrue to a bodhisattva from the roots of virtue, it pertains to the more advanced stages.²⁵⁹ He is in the position to attain cessation at will²⁶⁰, he possesses great powers and physical perfection, and is separated from buddhahood by only five rebirths.²⁶¹ There can be

The importance of correct reflection for moral integrity is attested in practically all Mahāyāna treatises that address the issue of purification. A good example is the *Vup* that follows the trend and submits the notion of morality to the philosophical rigour of its ontological propositions. Proceeding from the conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*, it concludes that all moral conduct is perpetually accomplished and not subject to training, progress or retribution (*Vup*, p. 60):

"Once acknowledged that all dharma are by nature quiescent (samāhita)

Desire, hatred and delusion become non-existent.

And if dharma are themselves deliverance and free from desire,

Provided that they are unsupported, they exist already in nirvāna."

Repudiation of such insight is above all based on mistaken views concerning the self and the possibility of moral acquisition. As long as these two misconceptions prevail, moral conduct, however elated, is prone to the defilement of conceit and misapprehension. It is not before the bodhisattva has achieved the revolution at the basis (āśrayaparāvrtti) born from wisdom that he becomes capable of generating pure morality (Msg, p. 16):

"The mistaken view concerning the self is wrongful clinging to the [notion of the] self and mine. Through its influence, conceit of the self becomes. When one leans at the self or mine, one becomes conceited. Born from genuine affection, that is to say, born from attachment towards the self, the defilments of the mistaken belief in a self and conceit arise."

Pure morality it therefore always dependent on the presence of correct vision. For the *Vup*, this is 'seeing reality as it is'. In other words, moral perfection is always subject to understanding its operations from the *paramārthasatya* level and cannot be attained through conventional understanding (*samvrtisatya*). Unless the *paramārthasatya* vision has been attained, conceit will remain a serious impediment to the bodhisattva's advance (*Vup*, p. 53).

^{253.} R. folio 390.5-392.4.

^{254.} Cf. M III, pp. 99-103.

^{255.} On generating these two antidotes, the bodhisattva ponders (R, folio 395.3–397.1):

[&]quot;I shall tread the path of excellent beings and not the path of miserable beings. I shall tread neither the path that leads to hell nor the path that leads to the birth-destiny of animals. I shall not tread the path that leads to the realm of Yāma. I shall not tread the path of moral transgression. I shall not tread the path that is associated with moral transgression"

^{256.} R, folio 395.3-396.4.

^{257.} R, folio 400.5-403.6.

^{258.} R. folio 403.4

^{259.} R, folio 341.1.

^{260.} R, folio 341.6.

^{261.} This information can be gleaned from the number of rebirths that are cited before the bodhisattva attains buddhahood (R, folio 341.2-364.6). From the moment of his attainment in moral conduct, he will be

no doubt that the foundation of these qualities lies in the bodhisattva's accomplishment in the perfection of morality:²⁶²

"O Śāriputra, one who pursues the bodhisattva's moral conduct for the sake of [understanding] the meaning of the bodhisattvapiṭaka and venerates and honours his teacher obtains such virtuous, most excellent, boundless, inconceivable and measureless blessings. It is in this way, O Śāriputra, that the bodhisattva who firmly pursues the bodhisattvapiṭaka attains great power and cultivates the bodhisattvacaryā through pure moral conduct."

After the description of the benefits that accrue to bodhisattvas who are accomplished in moral conduct, the Bdp draws up fifty qualities that pertain to moral purity. ²⁶³ Close to fifty percent of these attributes fall into easily recognisable groups. The first ten qualities coincide with the $ku\acute{s}alakarmapatha$, five are characterised by the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$, four are linked with the $apram\bar{a}na$ and three with the refuge in the triratna. ²⁶⁴

The remaining twenty-seven concomitants spell out (without any discernible order) the general facets of the *bodhisattvaśīla*. Going beyond the narrow interpretation of morality, the *Bdp* announces that the bodhisattva dwells in hermitages as part of his moral training; that he examines his own mistakes rather than condemning others; that he develops sentient beings, grows content with little, and weakens his attachment to worldly phenomena. As a reward, he attains a whole array of qualities that lend support to his training.²⁶⁵ He acquires patience, confidence and composure; he becomes invincible, reclusive, faithful, truth-loving and realises the impermanence of karmic formations;²⁶⁶ he attains fearlessness, passes beyond low rebirth

reborn as (1) man, (2) god, (3) accomplished man, (4) *cakravartin* becoming recluse and (5) buddha (folio 343.4–7, 446.7).

^{262.} R, folio 367.7-8; see also folio 341.1, 362.2.

^{263.} R, folio 368.2–371.4.

This enumeration recurs almost verbatim at the end of the chapter, coinciding in 44 out of the 53 items that are listed there (R, folio 403.7–407).

^{264.} The same association of morality is proposed in the Akn where śīla is linked with the practice of the pāramitā (p. 43.5.6-8) and apramāna (p. 43.5.4-5).

^{265.} R, folio 371.5-372.3.

^{266.} A more structured approach to the benefits is given the *Bbh*, proposing three blessings that keep the bodhisattva in touch with the needs of sentient beings. First, he is accomplished in practice (śikṣā); that is, he does not violate any moral precepts and learns of evil conduct as soon as it is committed. Second, he attains an excellent intent (āśaya). This involves monastic ordination, dedication to roots of virtue and constant focus on the Doctrine rather than on livelihood. Third, he is furnished with the blessing of the previous cause (pūrvahetu). By virtue of previously accumulated acts of merit, he never lacks daily requisites. On the contrary, the retribution of wholesome deeds committed in former lives provides him

and learns to devote selflessly his resources to the liberation of beings.

Thus, the practice of the $\pm ilap\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ revolves not only around his personal moral integrity but includes, in equal measure, the purity and fate of his fellow beings. The differing degrees to which both aims are discussed suggest that the Bdp gives greater weight to the bodhisattva's personal moral attainment. That this is only a temporary priority is eloquently expressed in the following verse: 268

"Now I act benevolently towards sentient beings without exception.

Now I guide sentient beings who paid allegiance to evil.

Accomplished in the joy of the Dharma, with my mind free from desire,

I seek the basket of enlightened conduct."

with great wealth that he readily shares with all beings (Bbh, pp. 182.14–183.16). Compare this list with the benefits that are cited in the Msg (p. 215) and Msl (p. 104.14–17). The Bbh adds that up to the moment of full enlightenment, the bodhisattva experiences five advantages arising from the training in \dot{sila} (Bbh, p. 187.19–27). He comes to the notice of the buddhas; he dies in a state of great elation; in whatever state he is reborn, he is always accompanied by fellow bodhisattvas that are of equal moral attainment; he is furnished with the infinite aggregate of merit that fulfils the perfection of morality in this life and he acquires a form a natural morality whose essence always is with him in perpetuity. Cf. Kp, p. 195, § 136; $Sam\bar{a}dh$, Dutt, 1941–53, ii, pp. 329–331, 332–4.

^{267.} E.g., Mppś, ii, pp. 853 ff; Daśa-bh, p. 26, Q.

^{268.} R, folio 328.3-4.

The Perfection of Patlence

In the *suttas* of early Buddhism the practice of patience (Pāli: *khanti*; Skt: *kṣānti*) did not play a very prominent role.²⁶⁹ It rarely receives independent treatment, but is generally explained in conjunction with other practices such as benevolence (to which is becomes an important prerequisite) or is cited as a concomitant to morality and wisdom.²⁷⁰ A good example of its treatment is given in a stanza in the *Mahāpadānasutta* in which the Buddha recounts the *pātimokkha* rehearsal of Vipassi:²⁷¹

"How may you best discipline the flesh? Be patient, monks, be forbearing. What is the highest, what is the best? O monks, the buddhas say it is *nibbāna*. For he is no wanderer who harms

^{269.} The exact linguistic origin of the term $k \bar{x} \bar{a} n t i$ does not appear to be as straightforward as it is generally taken to be. In Mahāyāna literature, one finds two kinds of meaning. First, when linked with general suffering and injury, $k \bar{x} \bar{a} n t i$ —taken from the root $k \bar{x} a m i$: 'to endure, bear'—is generally translated as 'patience' or 'tolerance'. This corresponds closely to the Pāli term $k \bar{a} n t i$. There are, however, several other instances, the most prominent example of which is the term a n u t p a t i k a d a i, where $k \bar{x} a n t i$ carries the meaning of 'intellectual receptivity' (Edgerton, p. 199, col. 2). In those cases it would seem to go back to the root form k a m i, meaning 'to like, to be inclined to', of which the form $k \bar{x} a n t i$ would then be a incorrect Sanskritisation of the Pāli form k h a n t i.

In a study of this problem, Sasaki suggested that the word kṣānti is a Buddhist Sanskrit development of the Pāli khanti that, since stemming from the root kam, should be understood as 'willing to' and not as 'endurance' or 'tolerance'. Citing numerous passages from both the Pāli and Sanskrit, Sasaki proposes that the correct Sanskritisation of khanti should have been kānti going back to the root kam. Passages from the Kośa refering to kṣānti as 'adhimātra satya-kṣamanād itit ūṣmagatāvasthyām mṛdu satyam kṣamate rocate' and its commentary by Haribhadra defining kṣānti as 'kṣamaṇa-rūpena ca kṣāntaya utpadyante' (Akv, p. 611) seem to suggest a more positive connotation than is expressed by 'endurance'. This is also borne out by numerous texts in the Pāli Abhidhamma and by Buddhaghoṣa's usage of the term khanti in the Vism itself. In the Dhammasangaṇi (p. 230), we read for instance: 'yāḥ khanti khammanatā adhivāsanatā accaṇḍikkam anasuropo attamanatā cittassa, ayam vuccati khānti'. That this willingness is implied in the idea of anutpattikadharmakṣānti has been recognised by most modern scholars.

If we are to accept his argument, the question remains whether all occurrences of the word kṣānti in bodhisattva works imply this positive mental disposition. For the bodhisattva ideal, such adaptation would not present much of a problem, since—according to doctrine—the bodhisattva should gladly succumb to all forms of suffering, injury and torture as he thereby removes past karma and brings patience to a climax. Grudging endurance tallies only ill with the grandeur of the ideal and is probably not what was intended.

^{270.} See, for instance, S I, p. 222 where patience is recommended when dealing with fools, weak beings or perons of otherwise inferior disposition who require a monk's benevolence in order to progress spiritually (cf. *Vism*, ix, pp. 295–96).

^{271.} D II, p. 49 (the same verse occurs also at Dhammapada, no. 184).

His fellow man; he is no recluse
Who inflicts injury on his neighbour."

The context and wording of this verse suggests a close correlation between patience and the observance of the *pātimokkha* precepts. Quite clearly, the Buddha wishes to make the point that impatience deprives the monks of composure and thus leads to ill-contemplated actions that violate the disciplinary code. Although rarely explicitly stated, a correlation between morality and patience figures at several places in the *nikāya*.²⁷² The role of *khanti* in these contexts is generally of a supportive nature. It appears as a complementary virtue that facilitates moral observance, since it removes those *āsava* that might otherwise obstruct *śīla*. In other contexts, patience is not aimed at one particular area of defilement, but weakens—if accompanied by vision, control, use, avoidance, elimination and mental development—the whole range of the *āsava* and contributes to the attaining of *nibbāna*.²⁷³

The Paţis expands the interpretation of khanti so as to include in its meaning in addition to its moral dimension also a cognitive aspect. On the one hand, patience is held to weaken sense-desires, to inspire renunciation and generally to induce the practitioner to follow the path of the arhant.²⁷⁴ On the other hand, khanti is recognised as part of the mental processes that prepare the monk for the more taxing doctrines of the Dhamma. This applies above all to the teaching of the marks of existence (salakkhana) and mental instability.²⁷⁵ Indeed, willing acceptance of the notion of anātman prior to full penetration of its reasoning becomes indispensable for spiritual progress. At a later stage, having comprehended the validity of this proposition and seeing the general characteristics of dhamma the practitioner attains patience that conforms to reality.²⁷⁶ In due course, this allows him to enter upon the certainty of truth and makes the fruits of the path available to him.²⁷⁷

It would appear therefore that *khanti* consitutes some important element of the Buddhist training. First, it bestows psychological strength, resilience and confidence to resist the 'attractions' of moral transgression and increases the monk's receptivity to the more daunting

^{272.} M II, p. 43; S I, pp. 162-3, p. 226; Vism, i, p. 18.

^{273.} MI, p. 10.

^{274.} Patis, xix, p. 171 (§ 14), xx, p. 183 (§ 23).

^{275.} op. cit., i, p. 106.

^{276.} op. cit., xxix, pp. 235-242.

^{277.} Paţis, xxix, pp. 236 (cf. A III, p. 441).

The advantages that accrue from the practice of patience correspond, for the most part, to the blessings that arise from generosity and morality; A III, p. 253.

aspects of Buddhist thinking. Second, it figures among the five principal aspects that characterise the ideal of the recluse. And yet, there is no passage in the $nik\bar{a}ya$ that gives a coherent account of its role and position in the training. 279

History has shown that this obscurity was not to last. The timelessness, intense worldly exposure and philosophical abstractions acompanying the emergence of the bodhisattva ideal meant that the practice of patience was to rise 'phoenix-like from the ashes' and figure among its most important practices.

However, this process was a gradual one and took several centuries to complete. In the earliest strand of Mahāyāna literature, the role of *kṣānti* was at first limited to patient endurance of outright physical hostility and to the 'conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*' (*anutpattikadharmakṣānti*).²⁸⁰ In the *Rgs* both elements are merged to form the introductory verse to the perfection of patience:²⁸¹

"When he hears someone else speaking to him harshly and offensively,

The wise bodhisattva remains quite at ease and contented.

[He thinks:] 'Who speaks? Who hears? How, to whom, by whom'?

The discerning is [then] devoted to the foremost perfection of patience."

Although not clearly differentiated as separate aspects of *kṣānti* in this incipient phase, most early texts already distinguish what later treatises describe as *sattvakṣānti* and *dharmakṣānti*. The distinction is found in the *Pañca*²⁸³ and recurs as the most fundamental one in many other discussions of *kṣānti*. As alluded to in the *Rgs*, the role of *dharmakṣānti*

^{278.} A III, p. 362:

[&]quot;Patience and forbearance are the [recluse's] aim; wisdom is his quest; virtue is his resolve, nothing is his want, nibbāna is his ideal."

^{279.} Khanti as a pārami does, of course, appear in several instances in the Pāli literature. It is mentioned in the Jātaka (i, pp. 45-7) and occurs at numerous instances in the commentarial literature to the Buddhavamsa (Madhuratthavilāsinī, i, p. 76) and Cariyāpiṭaka (Dhammapāla: Cariyāpiṭakaṭīkā, pp. 321-22). Since these references are late and were produced almost certainly in response to Mahāyāna developments, they fall outside the present context.

^{280.} Rgs, xxx. 8-14; Saddhp (pp. 136.10, 266.1, 327.4, 403.8, 419.6, 437.1); Śgs (p. 143, § 28, p. 160, § 48); Sukhāvatīvyūha (SBE, pp. 39-40, 51) and Kp (p. 18, § 8.4, p. 39, § 18.2, p. 49, § 24.17). The references in the Saddhp and Sukhāvatīvyūha have been largely misinterpreted. H Kern (p. 134) rendered the term anutpattikadharmakṣānti as 'acquiescence in the eternal law' while M. Müller took it to mean 'resignation of consequences that have not yet arisen'.

^{281.} Rgs, xxx. 8 (trsl. Conze).

^{282.} Mppś, ii, p. 865.

^{283.} Pañca, p. 512 (trsl. Conze).

^{284.} Akn, pp. 44.4.5-45.4.8; Rcd, pp. 233.3.6-234.1.1; Bdp, folio 407.3-423.4; Sgm (cit. in Siks, pp. 102.30-103.27); Pps (cit. in Siks, pp. 101.10 ff), Gv (cit. in Siks, pp. 101.4 ff).

is generally one of support. It represents a mental precondition for the acquisition and retaining of spiritual fruits and prepares the practitioner for the moment when he comes face to face (abhimukhī) with reality itself.²⁸⁵

From early on it was recognised that this conviction could not be a static attainment but is subject to progression. ²⁸⁶ In the *Aṣṭa* where it is discussed in the context of the first five stages and operates as a purely verbal profession (*ghoṣānugā*) *kṣānti* designates preliminary acceptance of reality based on faith and approbation. ²⁸⁷ Once attained through the power of previous prayers, it is wholly dependent on will-power (*adhimukti*) and does not involve cognitive factors. ²⁸⁸ Shortly before the bodhisattva becomes aware of the sameness of all *dharma* (*sarvadharmasamatā*), he attains the preparatory condition of patience proper (*anulomikīkṣānti*), but is still deprived of the conviction of their non-arising. ²⁸⁹ According to the *Dbh*, this event is a precondition for reaching the *abhimukhībhūmi* and stands in direct relation to insight into the own-nature of *dharma* while, in the *Sukhāvatīvyūha*, it is attributed to service that the bodhisattva renders to former buddhas. ²⁹⁰ This process culminates in the definite and final acquisition of the *anutpattikadharmakṣānti*. ²⁹¹ Granting the bodhisattva true insight into the workings of reality, it raises him beyond worldly concerns: ²⁹²

"A bodhisattva who possess the conviction of the profound *dharmatā* does not become impassioned toward that which draws to desire, nor does he become

^{285.} Așța, pp. 38-39.

^{286.} Allusions to the various degrees of anutpattikadharmakṣānti are found in the Aṣṭa (pp. 38-39), Vkn (pp. 25, 222) and Sukhāvatīvyūha (Müller, 1968, p. 51). Compare these standard versions with the more unusual scheme in the Dhyānasamādhisūtra (T 641, k. 2, p. 285a 10 ff) that distinguishes between utpādakṣānti enduring all injury, torment and insult that is inflicted on the bodhisattva; anulomikīkṣānti constituting the recognition of impermanence and the insight that bhūtalakṣaṇa is alakṣaṇa; and anutpādakṣānti that marks merely further progress in the anulomikīkṣānti practice (ref. Lamotte).

^{287.} Aṣṭa, p. 232.18-20
In the Samādh (Dutt, 1941-53, ii, pp. 280.17-281.5), the preconditions of ghoṣānugākṣānti are well-illustrated by a lyric (pp. 276.1-280.16) said to induce its realisation. Primarily, these factors relate to cognitive abandonment of the notion of self in persons and dharma (p. 279.2-10), to giving up all forms of attachment and aversion (pp. 278.15-279.2), to listening to the Doctrine (p. 280.1-4) and to seclusion (p. 280.9-12).

^{288.} Müller, 1968, SBE, p. 51

^{289.} Cf. Rp, p. 34.13-14: nāham rāṣṭrapāla teṣam ānulomikām api kṣānti vadāmi, kutaḥ punar buddhajñānam.
"O Raṣṭrapāla, I do not attribute to them even the conviction preparing (lit. conforming) to
(anutpattikadharma), still less to buddha-knowledge." Ensink's translation of the term ānulomikām ...
kṣānti as 'conformable patience' is an unfortunate choice as it fails to convey the preparatory connotation
of ānulomikīkṣānti (Ensink, 1952, pp. 32-33).

^{290.} Daśa-bh, p. 47.17-21
For translations of the passages leading to the attainment of anutpattikadharmakṣānti see: Suzuki, 1975, pp. 226-7; Müller, 1968, p. 51.

^{291.} Saddhp, pp. 136.9-10, 266.1, 419.6, 437.1; Lal, pp. 36.9, 440.21.

^{292.} Samādh, Dutt, 1941-53, ii, p. 95.6-7.

angry or deluded."

In the scheme of the Dbh, it takes place on the $acal\bar{a}bh\bar{u}mi$ and represents the entrance to all-knowing due to the non-differentiation of suchness ($tathat\bar{a}samanirvikalpa$). In the plan of the $Sukh\bar{a}vat\bar{\iota}vy\bar{u}ha^{294}$, however, this last step is once again attributed to devotional practices, in particular to performance of past prayers. Few texts agree on the individual fruits that ensue from the conviction of the non-arising of dharma. In general, it is thought to coincide with the bodhisattva's final prediction to buddhahood and to furnish him with the status of irreversibility. Final prediction to buddhahood to furnish him with the status of irreversibility.

In addition to these variants, some texts make also a distinction between different types of anutpattikadharmakṣānti.²⁹⁸ In the Pañca, the Buddha cites two varieties that are differentiated

^{293.} Daśa-bh, pp. 63.26-64.6; Msl, p. 134.16
Virtually all later commentaries agree on allocating this event to the eighth stage (Msl, pp. 122.2, 131.17; Bbh, p. 350.27; Madhyāntavibhāga, p. 105.10). The only exception is the Mppś that places anutpattikadharmakṣānti on the seventh stage (v, p. 2462). Sattvakṣānti, in contrast, the Mppś places on the second stage (v, pp. 2401-2), a proposition that is tenuously confirmed by the Dbh (Daśa-bh, p. 23.23).

Born of patience and kindness (kṣāntisauratya), the bodhisattva is at this point no longer found in the six destinies but assumes the dharmakāya in order to convert beings with greatest effect (Mppś, i, pp. 330-31). On the notion of kṣāntisauratya (khantisoracca), see: S I, pp. 100, 222; A II, p. 68; Saddhp, pp. 234.8, 236.9; Dbh, pp. 13.19, 37.11; Bbh, pp. 20.12, 143.27; Śiks, cit. Akn, p. 183.14.

^{294.} Müller, 1968, p. 51.

^{295.} In the Avatamsaka an entire chapter (Śikṣānanda: chpt. xxix) is devoted to the various kinds of kṣānti that a bodhisattva generates in the course of his career. The first kṣānti refers to accepting the teachings of the Buddha without fear or hesitation. The second designates the bodhisattva's acquiescence in reflecting on the nature of dharma and maintaining of mind of purity and serenity. The third corresponds to the anutpattikadharmakṣānti. The fourth to the tenth are acquired when the bodhisattva realises that dharma are like an illusion (māyopamā), etc., (T 279, k. 44, p. 232b 9-10; ref. Suzuki, 1975, pp. 126-27). In the Jen Wang hou kouo no lo mi king (T 245, 246) 'Perfection of Wisdom of the Good Law that

In the Jen Wang hou kouo po lo mi king (T 245, 246) 'Perfection of Wisdom of the Good Law that Protects the State', a Chinese work of apocryphal origin, five kinds of kṣānti are listed. These include damakṣānti, śraddhākṣānti, anulomikīkṣānti, anulomikīkṣānti and nirodhakṣānti. Apparently adjusted to suit the tenfold stages of the Daśabhūmika, damakṣānti is practised in the preparatory stages leading up to the adhimukticaryābhūmi; śraddhakṣānti on the pramuditā-, vimala- and prabhākarībhūmi; anulomikīkṣānti on the acriṣmatī-, sudurjayā-, abhimukhībhūmi; anutpādakṣānti on the dūraṃgama-, acalā- and sādhumatībhūmi and nirodhakṣānti on the dharmameghabhūmi (T 245, k. 1, p. 826b 23-24; ref. Lamotte).

^{296.} Several texts state that the acquisition of the 'conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*' coincides with the definite prediction (*vyākaraṇa*) of the bodhisattva to buddhahood: See, for instance, *Saddhp*, p. 266.1–2; (cf. *Lal*, p. 35.21; *Msl*, pp. 20.15, 141.27, p. 166.5–12); *Akn*, p. 45.4.8; *Sgm*, TTP, 33, p. 52.3.7; *Samādh*, Dutt, 1941–53, ii, p. 82.11–14.

^{297.} Saddhp, p. 259.13: avaivartikakṣāntipratilabdhāś ca bhaviṣanti ('and they will obtain the conviction of non-regression'). Cf. Bbh, p. 253.18; Daśa-bh, p. 71.12.

Note that in the Vup (pp. 30-31), none of these attainments is cited but anutpattikadharmakṣānti leads to three categories of renunciation (tyāga), viz., ordinary renunciation, great renunciation and absolute renunciation. Here, ordinary renunciation refers to giving up of royal power (rājyaparityāga), great

three categories of renunciation ($ty\bar{a}ga$), viz., ordinary renunciation, great renunciation and absolute renunciation. Here, ordinary renunciation refers to giving up of royal power ($r\bar{a}jyaparity\bar{a}ga$), great renunciation to abandoning of family members and absolute renunciation to sacrificing body and life. The practice of $kx\bar{a}nti$ is thus set in close relation to the cultivation of the $d\bar{a}na$ for whose perfection it becomes a precondition. This association is not an isolated case. A similar statement is found in the Rp (p. 12.2) where $kx\bar{a}nti$ is cited in conjunction with the abandoning of all personal possessions ($sarvastraparity\bar{a}ga$).

^{298.} At several places in Mahāyāna sūtras one meets with phrases that clarify the implication of the three modes of kṣānti. In the Tathāgatācintyagūhyanirdeśa (cit. Madhyamakavrtti, p. 362.8), for instance, the

according to the conditions that lead to their existence.²⁹⁹ These comprise a kind that is founded in the non-origination of defilements and another that arises due to persistence of cognition. Unfortunately, the text is silent on the attributes that mark these types from each other and neither does its commentary, the *Mppś*, elaborate upon them.³⁰⁰

The basis for the generation of patience is constituted by the thought of enlightenment, as it carries sufficient force to render the bodhisattva's body, speech and mind naturally exempt from vengeful thought.³⁰¹ In turn, patience towards injury assists in safeguarding other qualities since it forestalls animosity which would otherwise exterminate his accumulation of roots of virtue.³⁰² Knowing that even if he were subjected to severe torture, the degree of suffering would be minuscule compared with his torment in hell had he retaliated, the bodhisattva exercises restraint at all cost.³⁰³ In the words of Candrakīrti:³⁰⁴

"Because hatred directed against the sons of the Jina

Destroys in a moment the merit of generosity and morality

Accumulated over a hundred thousand years,

There is no defilement other than non-patience."

second type of patience is called śūnyatānulomikīkṣānti 'conviction conforming to emptiness'. In the Vajracchedikā (Conze, 1958, p. 58.9), it is referred to as nirātmyakeṣvanutpattikeṣu dharmeṣu kṣānti while in the Lal (p. 36.9) it is characterised only as anutpattikeṣu dharmeṣu kṣānti (ref. Lamotte). In the Samādh, a whole chapter is devoted to the description of the three kinds of patience. In particular with regard to its the characterisation of the ghoṣānugākṣānti, this shows many parallels to the Gv. Having discussed the three types of kṣānti, the Samādh defines the three stages of the dharmanidhyānakṣānti in terms of śrutamayī, cintāmayī and bhāvanāmayī, saying (Dutt, 1941–53, ii, p. 82.7–10):

"That which arises from learning and reflection is called 'in accord' as it is conducive to realisation. That which arises from contemplation is the conviction of the non-arising of dharma."

- 299. Pañca, pp. 511-12.
- 300. Mppś, ii, pp. 912-26.

The Mpp's distinguishes three types of dharmaksānti. First, when practised in its purest form, the bodhisattva does not see the attributes of patience, he does not see himself, he does not see those who do the insulting and he does not speculate on dharma. Second, if accompanied by perfect wisdom, the degree of patience does not regress (avivartana) and is free from agitation (akṣobhaṇatā). He is released from all anger and offensive words, he does not inflict physical harm and experiences no doubt with regard to dharma. Third, bodhisattvas who recognise the true character of the perfection of wisdom see no longer dharma since their thought operates beyond the categories of opinion (abhiniveśa) and their subject. This last aspect furnishes them with the inner strength to assist even those persons who inflict serious harm on them (ii, p. 926).

- 301. Mavbh, p. 47.14-19
 - According to the *Msl* (p. 29.11), however, the bodhisattva's patience is based on his lineage (gotra), membership in which may precede the cittotpāda (Bbh, p. 3.1-8).
- 302. Mavbh, pp. 48.17-20, 49.10.
- 303. op. cit., p. 50.15-18.
- 304. Mavbh, pp. 50.19-51.2

This position is corroborated by a passage in the Sgm where it is implied—though not explicitly stated—that if he were to seek revenge the bodhisattva would automatically forfeit all the roots of virtue and regress to the very beginning of his career (Siks, p. 184.12).

Emotionally sustained by the thought of enlightenment, the bodhisattva realises the omnipresence of suffering, discerns its origin in past desire and resolves to abandon its causes. 305 Suffering is manifested to him in the eight categories of support (adhiṣṭhāna), viz, attendance to the bases of mendicant life (niśraya), worldly conditions (lokadharma) 306, modes of behaviour (īryapatha), properties (parigraha) of dharma, aspects of mendicant life (bhikṣākavṛtta), untiring application (abhiyogaklama), working for the benefit of sentient beings (sattvārthakriya) and attendance to duty (karaṇīya). 307 On the one hand, the eight categories indicate that suffering is a constant companion to the bodhisattva. Committed by his pledge to giving universal liberation, he complies with the aspects of mendicant life and works for the benefit of beings. On the other hand, by being exposed to them, the bodhisattva retains his vigour and endures suffering with patience. That is to say, they furnish him with meditative qualities that allow him to maintain composure at all times. 308 Once he accomplished patience by accepting suffering (duḥkhādhivāsanākṣānti), he constantly concentrates on enlightenment with a purified rejoicing mind that is free from distraction.

Having described some of the most fundamental features of *kṣānti*, we may now examine its characterisation in the *Bdp*. Broadly speaking, its treatment of the perfection of patience is divided into two sections. In the first part, the *Bdp* looks at the practice of patience with regard to *dharma* (*dharmakṣānti*) and sentient beings (*sattvakṣānti*).

^{305.} Bbh, p. 192.11-22.

^{306.} These are gain (lābha) loss (alābha), fame (nindā), ill-fame (praśamā), praise (yaśa), blame (ayaśa), happiness (sukha) and unhappiness (duḥkha) (Mvy 873; Lal, pp. 352.10; 275.5). In the Bbh (p. 193.9-16), however, a slightly different list is given, including alābha, ayaśa, nindā, duḥkha, nāśa, kṣaya, jāra, vyādhi and maraṇa. Compare this list with its Pāli equivalents in D III, p. 260, A IV, pp. 156 ff., Paṭis, i, pp. 22, 122, Vibh, p. 387 and that given in the Mvy (2342-48) which cite invariably eight dharma.

^{307.} *Bbh*, pp. 192.23–193.1.

^{308.} Bbh, p. 193.26-27.

^{309.} R, folio 407–417.

In the *sūtra* literature of the Mahāyāna, exemplifying the interplay between practice and cognition, this twofold division into *sattvakṣānti* and *dharmakṣānti* forms almost invariably the bedrock of *kṣānti* discussions. According to some, complementary virtues that prepare for the practice of patience include moral impeccability, pursuit of the means of conversion, benevolence and compassion (*Rcd*, p. 233.3.8–4.4). These, governing the bodhisattva's relationship to fellow beings, contribute to the prevention of ill-contemplated retaliation arising from anger but affect only patience on an ordinary level.

Also perceived as ordinary patience, sattvakṣānti and dharmakṣānti are characterised in the Akn by thirty-two manifestations (Akn, p. 44.4.6-5.6). These fall into four categories. First, absence of those factors that run contrary to patience, e.g., hate, anger or aversion, etc.; second, the generation of factors that promote patience, e.g., pursuit of compassion, insight, etc.; third, the Akn details the impact of these preparatory practices, e.g., purity of body, speech and mind, confidence, friendliness, etc.; and fourth, the reward that follows from the cultivation of patience, viz., high rebirth, aloofness, accumulation of roots of virtue, etc. The enumeration of these attributes in a closed list and its separation from pure patience

Mppś, the rationale behind both types of patience is the notion of universal sameness (samatā). Having realised that beings and dharma lack distinguishing marks (lakṣaṇa) that would allow for differentiation between the pure and impure, conditioned and unconditioned, the bodhisattva exercises total impartiality in his thought, recollection, affection and service. In other words, both kinds of patience rest on penetration of the doctrine of non-duality (advayadharmaparyāya) which enables him to enter into the 'suppression of controversy' (nirdvandva). In the Bdp, however, this reasoning is excluded from the initial sattval dharmakṣānti discussion and pertains only to the highest patience (prakṣānti). 11

Patience with regard to *dharma* is subdivided into external and internal aspects.³¹² External patience refers to all those factors of distress that are influenced by the environment, including cold, heat, wind, sun, etc. Internal patience is applied to the suffering resulting from the eight worldly conditions, sickness and death.³¹³

According to the *Mppś*, patience with external objects refers primarily to the bodhisattva's reluctance to apprehend the six categories of objects (saḍbāhyasthūla) while forbearance with internal objects guards him from becoming engaged in any of the inner attractions (sadādhyātmikaruci).³¹⁴

(višuddhikṣānti) and higher patience (sātyantakṣānti) suggests that it is conceived of as basic. Since a similar distinction is also upheld in the Bdp and Rcd where the discussion of (basic) patience is followed by deliberations on pure and highest patience (prakṣānti), it represents perhaps an antecedent to the threefold kṣānti classification that is found in the Sukhāvatīvyūha, Gv or Dbh.

According to the *Rcd*, the next higher form of patience, pure patience (*viśuddhikṣānti*), arises from the efficacy of careful investigation (*prativekṣā*) with regard to body and mind and from contemplation (*bhāvanā*) with regard to all *dharma* (*Rcd*, p. 233.5.1–3). Here, *kṣānti* arising from the examination of body and mind refers undoubtedly to physical and mental endurance of discomfort, insult and injury. *Kṣānti* founded in contemplation of *dharma* is called *sarvadharmavivekakṣānti* 'conviction of the solitude of all *dharma*' and affirms their non-arising (*Rcd*, p. 233.5.4–5). Eventually, these two factors converge to form a type of *kṣānti* that acknowledges the selflessness of persons (*pudgalanairātmya*) and convinces one of the non-existence of all *dharma*. Although slightly differently phrased, this concept accords closely to the notion of *anutpattikadharmakṣānti*. Hence, the *Rcd* concludes by distinguishing two modes of pure *kṣānti* practice, viz, patience that affects the body and patience that corresponds to all *dharma* 'as they are' (*Rcd*, pp. 233.5.8–234.1.1). In the *Akn*, however, this distinction between the forms of *viśuddhikṣānti* is not made (pp. 44.4.7–45.1.7).

- 310. *Mppś*, i, pp. 325–327
 - For a more detailed discussion of the notion of sameness of *dharma* and beings, see: *Bbh*, p. 286.11–24. On the conceptual proximity of *samatā* and *kṣānti* see also *Pañca* (p. 4) where bodhisattvas are described as 'in possession of patience and sameness' (*samatākṣāntipratilabdha*). As Conze has pointed out (1975, p. 37), the Tibetan and *Mppś* differ on the interpretation of this compound, suggesting that it should be translated as a *tatpurusa* meaning 'he acquires the patience acceptance of the sameness (of all *dharma*)'.
- 311. R, folio 420.5-423.5.
- 312. Mpps, ii, pp. 903-906 (cf. Pañca, p. 512).
- 313. In the *Bdp*, we read of "six kinds of suffering that emerge from the body, abuse, heat deprivations of life and death" (R, folio 407.5-6). In most other texts, including the *Mppś*, we find the eight conditions of existence (*Mppś*, ii, p. 905).
- 314. The sadbāhyasthūla include cold, heat, wind, rain, etc., whereas the sadādhyātmikaruci comprise hunger, thirst, old age, illness, death and so forth (Mpps, ii, p. 904).

 The Mpps's third type of patience—patience towards defilements (klesaksānti)—rests on the recognition

As both types of *kṣānti* are concerned with non-mental objects (*acittadharma*),³¹⁵ they are strongly influenced by the bodhisattva's advanced power of cognition and his resolution to postpone his entrance into *nirvāṇa* indefinitely.³¹⁶ The former allows him to perceive the manifestations of reality 'just as they are' and saves him from the traps of Māra.³¹⁷ Aware of the delusive character of phenomena, he gains sufficient inner strength to patiently endure all discomfort and hostility.³¹⁸ The latter precludes the untimely elimination of the *saṃyojana*, since this would prompt him to abandon *saṃsāra*.

Until he has severed the fetters and attained the 'path devoid of depravity' (anāsravamārga), the bodhisattva is compelled to trust and accept the Doctrine on the basis of faith. Above all, this implies accepting the three seals of the Doctrine (trividhadharmamudrā) and eschewing the fourteen unanswered questions (caturdaśāvyākṛtavastu)³¹⁹ without exposure to the obstacles (āvarana) or loss of the Middle Path.³²⁰

The *Bdp* does not dwell on external/internal *dharmakṣānti*, but proceeds directly to patience with regard to sentient beings.³²¹ This too comprises two areas of application. First, the bodhisattva bears verbal abuse with patience.³²² Fearing that he might lose his roots of virtue and remaining firmly rooted in compassion and equipoise, he does not return the abuse but renews his *praṇidhāna*.³²³ When in difficulty, the bodhisattva sustains his patience through recollecting (*anusmṛti*) the Buddha, Dharma and *Saṅgha* which brings all dithering to an end.³²⁴ Second, the bodhisattva exercises self-control and forbearance towards beings who

of exposure to worldly influence. Until he has fully overcome all defilements, fetters (samyojana) and effects of the work of Māra that bind him to saṃsāra, the bodhisattva must put on his armour of patience (ii, pp. 906–908). Paraphrasing a passage from the Sn (v. 426b–428), the Mpps enumerates desire (kāma), sadness (arati), hunger and thirst (kṣuṭpipāsā), craving (tṛṣṇā), languor and torpor (styānamiddha), fear (bhaya), doubt (vicikitsā) and anger (krodha) and hypocrisy (mrakṣa) as the eight most damaging influences of Māra (cf. Lal, p. 261).

The Bdp (R, folio 415.3-7) distinguishes ten kinds of influence of Māra: (1) desire for food, (2) desire for clothing, (3) desire for worldly enjoyment, (4) desire for praise, (5) lack of desire for ordination, (6) lack of desire for virtuous dharma, (7) lack of pleasure in seclusion, (8) lack of desire for enlightenment, (9) desire for things other than pristine cognition, (10) irreverence towards one's teacher and benefactor.

^{315.} Mppś, ii, pp. 903-4.

^{316.} The *Mppś* looks at the various aspects of patience from twenty different viewpoints. However, since most of these express little remarkable thought and show conceptual overlapping, I shall not discuss them in detail (*Mppś*, ii, pp. 903–12).

^{317.} Mppś, ii, pp. 904-6.

^{318.} As in the *Bdp*, the argument is enlisted that if he were to succumb to his suffering—and presumably retaliate against aggressors—he would be no better from ordinary beings. (op. cit., p. 906).

^{319.} A list of these questions is contained in the Cūļamālunkyasutta (M I, pp. 311–12).

^{320.} Mpps, ii, pp. 912-13.

^{321.} R, folio 408-417.

^{322.} R, folio 408-415.

^{323.} R, folio 412.1, 412.6.

^{324.} R, folio 410.3-412.2

Since it is held crucial for the bodhisattva to regain his composure, several texts assign a particularly

inflict physical harm upon him.³²⁵ Aware that wrath or retaliation in response to any such attack would cloud his mind and lead to inattentiveness, he puts on the armour of dedicated patience. Absent-mindedness is particularly damaging to the bodhisattva's prospect of buddhahood, since it renders him susceptible to the influence of Māra which would cut off enlightenment.³²⁶ For this reason, he is not only encouraged to meet hostility with indifference or tolerance, but moreover, to generate delight and joy:³²⁷

"When I am pelted with rocks, beaten with weapons and suppressed for a hundred thousand million world-ages I shall not forsake life for a single moment but think: 'Alas, this is marvellous. Sentient beings are noble, I shall not kill them.'

Taking into account human psychology, the *Bdp* introduces then a new aspect of *sattvakṣānti*, that is, conceit through exposure to praise and flattery.³²⁸ So far, *kṣānti* found only application in antagonistic situations of hostility and menace. Now, we learn that praise too—appropriate or not—can have a damaging impact on the training and needs to be ignored.³²⁹

A concise overview of the factors that pertain to the duḥkhādhivāsana and parāpakāramarṣaṇa aspects of the kṣānti is found in the Śikṣāsamuccaya. For Śāntideva, endurance of suffering (duḥkhādhivāsana) signifies "bearing and patience with personal pains, lamentations, unhappiness, despondency and anguish of mind". Its chief obstructing force is the fear of unhappiness³³¹ since fear alone is capable of leading to hatred (dveṣa) and despondency (līnatā). Since both emotions are incompatible with the ideal of the bodhisattva the practitioner should resist delight in happiness and gloom in misery. For the grhapti

important role to the timely generation of recollection (anusmṛti) during the practice of patience. In this function, it is cited in the Akn and Bdp and assumes a place of prominence in the Rcd. While the former encourage only the recollection of the Buddha, Dharma and Sangha, the Rcd speaks of nine forms of anusmṛti, viz., recollection of the Buddha, enlightenment, pristine cognition (jñāna), benevolence (maitrī), overcoming (vikrāma), lion yawning (siṃhavijṛmbhaṇa), summit of insight (vilokitamūrdha), primary and secondary marks (laksanānuvyañjana) and accomplishment of all buddha-qualities (Rcd, p. 233.4.5–5.1).

^{325.} R, folio 414.3-7 (cf. Pañca, pp. 519a-520).

^{326.} R, folio 415.2.

^{327.} R, folio 414.4-5.

^{328.} R, folio 419.4-420.3

^{329.} In the *Mppś* (ii, pp. 867–888), the application of forbearance is similarly extended to include exposure to flattery, excessive attention of benefactors and the allures of women.

^{330.} Siks, p. 179.16-17 (cit. Rtm)

^{331.} op. cit., p. 179.12-13 (cit. Dhsg).

^{332.} op. cit., p. 179.13-14 (cit. Dhsg).

^{333.} op. cit., p. 20.12 (cit. Bpm).

^{334.} op. cit., p. 180.8-12 (cit. Ug).

bodhisattva, it is furthermore important to avoid bias and to abide unaffected by the eight worldly conditions as their threat to the spiritual equilibrium is particularly great.³³⁵

Despondency is overcome by the casting aside of imprudent (laghu) and irresolute (sukumāra) thoughts and by cultivating an invincible (aparājita) and steadfast (aksobhya) intention to eradicate the kleśa. 336 By doing so, the bodhisattva learns to withstand the onslaughts of Māra and maintains—even when exposed to torture or in intense pain—the sensation of happiness (sukhasamiñā).337 A decisive role in the struggle for patience is played by the sarvadharmasukhākhrāntasamādhi since it turns all sensations of pain into pleasant, non-painful or indifferent experiences.338 For its unfolding, this samādhi is dependent on the bodhisattva's resolution (pranidhāna) of universal liberation no matter how much hostility is shown towards him. Manifesting universal benevolence, he settles in the sarvadharmasukhākhrāntasamādhi. 339 The second concomitant to duḥkhādhivāsanākṣānti is sympathetic joy (muditā). 340 Distinct from physical bliss (sukha) in that it is primarily mind-based (caitasika)³⁴¹, muditā governs those training-areas that are free from despondency, sorrow (daurmanasya) and ill-temper (arati).342 Finally, complementing sympathetic joy and absorption in the sarvadharmasukhākhrāntasamādhi, the bodhisattva penetrates to the foundation of being (dharmatā). He realises that all sensations are based on illusion ($m\bar{a}v\bar{a}krta$) whose creation is traceable to mental constructions (vithapanapratyupasthāna) that, in turn, proceed from past deeds (karmavipāka) of no predicable agent, 343

The exposition of 'patience in enduring the misdeeds of others' ($par\bar{a}pak\bar{a}ramarṣaṇakṣ\bar{a}nti$) is entirely based on the Sgm. In brief, it distinguishes three types of antagonistic demeanour³⁴⁴, viz., injury, contempt and injustice, all of which the bodhisattva endures in composure without intent for retaliation ($vy\bar{a}p\bar{a}da$).³⁴⁵ The same elements are also found in the $kṣ\bar{a}nti$

^{335.} op. cit., p. 180.2 (cit. Ug).

^{336.} op. cit., p. 180.15-16 (cit. Gv).

^{337.} op. cit., p. 182.5-8 (cit. Pps).

^{338.} op. cit., p. 181.13-14 (cit. Pps)

Note that in the Samādh (Dutt, 1941-53, ii, p. 79.9-12) it is patient endurance of injury caused by others—not suffering—that depends on the joint practice of meditation (leading to an unwavering mind) and wisdom (eradicating anger). Acceptance of suffering itself encourages the distinction of neyārtha from nītārtha texts, to acquire vision of sameness (samatā) and to show devotion to the dharmatā (op. cit., pp. 78.1-4, 78.5-6, 77.15-16).

^{339.} op. cit., p. 182.8-15 (cit. Pps).

^{340,} op. cit., pp. 183.4-184.4.

^{341.} Mppś, iii, p. 1256.

^{342.} In the Mpps (ii, pp. 906-7) Arati is the name that is given to the second of Māra's inner hosts.

^{343.} Śiks, p. 180.3-5 (cit. Ug).

^{344.} op. cit., p. 184.9-4.

^{345.} op. cit., p. 185.5.

discussion of the Bdp. However, being a much earlier texts than the Siks it does not provide as clear a distinction as Santideva but refers to them rather freely and in conjunction with other aspects of $ks\bar{a}nti$.

So far, the *Bdp's* exposition followed essentially 'patience in accepting suffering' (duḥkhādhivāsanākṣānti) and 'patience in enduring the misdeeds of others' (parāpakāramarṣaṇakṣānti). Presented in terms of sattvakṣānti and dharmakṣānti—but never using this terminology—it did not address the cognitive dimension of patience. That is to say, the *Bdp* looked at dharmakṣānti solely from an empirical viewpoint and not from the standpoint which requires the bodhisattva to put up with suffering because of the intrinsic non-existence of dharma.³⁴⁶

Summed up as 'patience consisting in contemplating and adhering to the Dharma' (dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti), this type of kṣānti is brought about by resolute and astute investigation into the Doctrine. Like duḥkhādhivāsanākṣānti, it is established by means of eight factors, viz., by determination (adhimukti) in the qualities of the triratna, by examining the meaning of reality (tattvārtha) and the laws of causation, by the force of buddhas and bodhisattvas, by personal attainments, means of attainment and by the sphere that is to be known (jñeyagocara). 348

It is this cognitive maturity that leads the bodhisattva of the *Bdp* to the third level of *kṣānti* practice, namely, highest patience (*rab tu bzod pa, prakṣānti*). Passing through the process of

^{346.} The discussion of this aspect—falling under the category of dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti—occurs in the second section of the chapter. Partly repeating what has already been said concerning duhkhādhivāsanākṣānti (internal and external) and parāpakāramarṣaṇakṣānti, it reconsiders them under the heading of 'bodhisattva-patience' (R, folio 417.3, 419.4). Then, separately, it introduces 'highest patience' (prakṣānti). Although all three belong technically to the category of bodhisattva-patience, the conceptual proximity of the first two and the fact they are textually intermingled suggests a breach between them and 'highest patience'. Bodhisattva-patience itself is characterised by twenty-two attributes and attainments that accrue to the bodhisattva in the course of his career. But for the almost obligatory absence of anger, hatred, etc., few of these relate specifically to patience. That is to say, it accrues—if perfected—to bodhisattvas who are free from malice, wrath, harmful intention, quarrel and violence; to those who are watchful, caring, mindful of body, speech and mind, correctly reflecting, detached from nirvāna, aware of the law of karma, physically, vocally and mentally pure, in contact with the gods, in possession of the marks of a Tathāgata, in possession of his voice and of all roots of virtue; beyond inflicting injury and above all accusations. In short, in possession of all the buddha-qualities (R, folio 418.1-419.4).

^{347.} The concept of dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti goes back to the earliest stratum of Buddhist thinking. Corresponding to the Pāli dhammanijjhānakhānti, it occurs already in the Cankisutta of the Majjhimanikāya (II, p. 175). Here, with faith in the foreground of the discourse, it follows on 'hearing dhamma' (dhammasavana), 'retaining dhamma' (dhammadhāraṇā) and 'considering meaning as secondary' (atthupaparikkhā) because 'one who considers meaning sees that in truth it is dhamma that support knowledge' (yasmā ca kho attham upaparikkhati, tasmā dhammā nijjhanam khamanti). This patience, in turn, prepares and reinforces zest (chanda) from which emerges activity (ussāha).

^{348.} Bbh, p. 195.10-20.

examination that characterises *dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti*, the bodhisattva learns to eschew the forms of patience that participate in discursive thinking or are otherwise based on misconception:³⁴⁹

"Patience that inquires 'Who is abusing and who is the abused?' is a patience that construes duality. This is not the highest patience. Patience that inquires 'Who abuses here?' is patience that counts *dharma*. ... Patience that inquires 'I course in [good] conduct, but he courses in bad conduct' is patience [that engages in] duality. This is not the highest patience."

Progressively refining his understanding of reality, the bodhisattva overcomes all forms of dichotomy and attains a vision of patience that operates beyond all predication:³⁵⁰

"What then is the highest patience? It is to understand emptiness without ever suppressing heretical doctrines or imputing emptiness. It is to understand emptiness without ever suppressing discrimination or imputing signlessness. It is to understand emptiness without ever suppressing one's resolution or imputing wishlessness. ... It is to understand emptiness without ever suppressing saṃsāra or imputing nirvāṇa. Patience practised in this way is the highest patience."

This process of realisation culminates in the bodhisattva's 'conviction of the non-arising of dharma' (anutpattikadharmakṣānti) when he sees that:³⁵¹

"Everything is unborn, unproduced and unarisen. The unarisen is without origination whatsoever. Since it is without origination, it is inexhaustible. The inexhaustible is the highest patience. It is neither conditioned nor unconditioned. It is never misconceiving. The non-established, non-increasing, genuinely non-multiplying, non-gathering and non-diminishing is without birth. That which is without birth is inexhaustible. If he is patient in this way [the bodhisattva] realises that *dharma* are unarisen."

^{349.} R, folio 420.6-421.3.

^{350.} R, folio 422.1-6.

^{351.} R, folio 422.7-423.4.

This final deliberation bears all the hallmarks of the *dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti*. Having analysed conventional understanding of patience within the subject/object dichotomy, the bodhisattva now begins to fathom the meaning of emptiness. Thus, in a sense, he treads the middle way between categoric denial and mistaken imputation. This insight establishes him on the path leading to the highest patience that culminates in the recognition that *dharma* function beyond the parameter of origination or destruction in a space of no independent reality.

The spiritual ideal that is proposed in the Bdp as the highest patience was taken up by the Akn as absolute patience (sin tu bzod pa, atyantakṣānti). Intrinsically invulnerable (atyantāvraṇatā), it operates beyond apprehension (anupalambha) and the duality of antidotes (pratipakṣaprahāṇa). Hence, absolute patience of the Akn epitomises the bodhisattva's true cognition of reality. That is to say, it prompts avoidance of the construct of suppression/imputation (prativedhasaṃghata) and allows him to see that dharma are established beyond the predicate of patience. Although the text stops short of using the term anutpattikadharmakṣānti to define its understanding of this highest or absolute form of patience, there can be little doubt that it propounds this very concept. The stops in the stops in the stops are stablished to be suppression, there can be little doubt that it propounds this very concept.

The Akn, like the Bdp, shows no indication that it was aware of the possibility of progression in anutpattikadharmakṣānti. Adopting a purely cognitive approach to lay bare the reasoning leading up to the conviction of the non-arising of dharma, it does not contain any reference

^{352.} I have found only one sūtra where the threefold division into injury, suffering and dharma is not taken up. This is the Sankarapariprechā (TTP, 33, pp. 248.5.5–50.3.8) where we meet with an division of kṣānti into the four śramāṇakārakadharmas of abuse (ākruṣṭa), anger (roṣita), reproach (bhaṇḍita) and beating (tāḍita). In the Sankarapariprechā, these are set in direct relation to the stage of irreversibility, to the thirty-two marks of a great being, to possession of a buddha-field and to proficiency in the abhijñā—in brief to buddhahood itself (Mvy 8708). The cognitive dimension, implied in dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti, is treated separately but follows exactly along the lines of anutpattikadharmakṣānti which is referred to as term (p. 250.1.4–7) and mentioned in conjunction with a prediction.

^{353.} Akn, p. 45.1.7-8

The Akn's understanding of the absolute patience runs therefore close to that of the Rp (p. 12.2) that employs the very term anupalambhadharmaksānti to characterise anutpattikadharmakṣānti.

^{354.} Contrast this interpretation of absolute *kṣānti* with that found in the *Pañca* (pp. 3-4) where, according to the Tibetan, it is likened to the 'conviction of the sameness of all *dharma*' (samatāsarvadharmakṣānti).

^{355.} Akn, p. 45.7-8:
"That kind of patience that is conviction concerning the non-originated and conviction that things are unoriginated (anutpādakṣānti) is absolute patience."
Cf. Lanka, 203.11: anutpāde kṣānti; Suzuki, 1978, p. 175, § 109; Akn, p. 45.3.4-6.

^{356.} This is also the case in the *Rcd*, *Bdp*, *Kp* and many other early Mahāyāna sūtras where patience is discussed as an individual perfection.

to the terms $ghos\bar{a}nug\bar{a}$ -, $anulomik\bar{i}$ - and $pratilabdh\bar{a}ks\bar{a}nti$ or to the thought that lies at their heart. With some reservation, this holds also true for the division into $duhkh\bar{a}dhiv\bar{a}sana$ -, $par\bar{a}pak\bar{a}ramarsana$ - and $dharmanidhy\bar{a}n\bar{a}dhimuktiks\bar{a}nti$ since none of these terms actually appears in the Akn. And yet, the apportionment of contents into three identifiable sections dealing with ordinary patience, pure patience and absolute patience suggests, perhaps, that it was known to the Akn, if only in a rudimentary form. 357

The benefits that accrue to the bodhisattva from the practice of kṣānti are manifold but do not always agree. Hüang-tsang, commenting on the three types of patience, explains that parāpakāramarṣaṇakṣānti becomes the cause of the bodhisattva's ripening of sentient beings (sattvavipākapravṛttihetu) while duḥkhādhivāsanākṣānti, granting powers to cope with pain, induces buddha-qualities. The third form of patience, dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti functions as support (āśraya) for the two preceding types of kṣānti and describes the bodhisattva's attitude towards the Doctrine. The Msl gives a more pragmatic account, citing indifference to animosity and flattery, concern for benefit and welfare, death free from repentance and rebirth amongst gods and men as the fruits that spring from the pursuit of patience. 359

Among the *sūtras*, the most advanced account is found in the *Samādhirājasūtra*. Here, we are told that a practitioner who has penetrated the *ghosānugāmī* level of *anutpattikadharmakṣānti* abstains from disputes, penetrates the illusory nature of *dharma*, acquires knowledge of the scriptures, understands their meaning on the *neyārtha* and *nītārtha* level, attains faith and resolves to attain all-knowing. He reaches the stage of increased cognition (*jñānavivṛddha*)

^{357.} A similar situation is found in the Sgm (33, pp. 50.1.5–54.4). Here too, one meets with the ingredients of later developments but does not find any technical terminology. That is to say, the sūtra introduces kṣānti by affirming its important role in the bodhisattvacaryā in that is renders the bodhisattva inseparable from the thought of enlightenment. Furthermore, it prompts him to generate the intent (āśaya) of the six perfections (p. 50.3.4–6) and, sustained by great compassion, establishes a lasting link between the bodhisattva and other humans, buddhas and gods (p. 50.4.3–5). Patient endurance with regard to injury of body and speech refer to all intents to duḥkhādhivāsana and parāpakāramarṣaṇakṣānti while patience with regard to the mind discusses the motive behind the bodhisattva's struggle. The cognitive element enshrined in the term dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti is dealt with in the last section where Sāgaramati is giving a long discourse on the nature of dharma (pp. 52.3.7–53.4.1). Perception of it arises from the perfection of mediation and wisdom. Through meditation, the bodhisattva gains the required composure for the vision of dharma with insight (vipaśyanā) in meditation to unfold (p. 53.2.6–8). This vision itself is wisdom and training in the perfection of wisdom leads to true realisation with regard to the characteristics (lakṣaṇa) of dharma (p. 52.4.2–3).

^{358.} Msg, p. 191

The same division, but without commentary, is also found in the Siddhi, p. 621 (cf. Śgs, p. 143, § 29).

^{359.} *Msl*, p. 10816–21

This set of five was almost certainly taken from the Anguttaranikāya where we come across a very similar scheme (A III, p. 254).

and becomes fully settled in the teachings of the Buddha.³⁶⁰ Since most, if not all of these attainments are attributable to the bodhisattva's careful Dharma-pursuance, the text's comparison of the *ghosānugāmī* practice with the attainment of śrutamayīprajñā is quite appropriate.

At the *anulomikā* level³⁶¹, the bodhisattva ceases to waver in his undertakings. He attains the perfection of meditation, acquires the *abhijñā* and *ṛddhipāda* and transcends all mental limitations.³⁶² Thus, accomplished in insight (*vipaśyanā*) and perfect mental quietude (*śamatha*), he is wholly composed and traverses one hundred buddha-fields.³⁶³ Considering the intense meditative and reflective practice that marks marks this level of attainment, the juxtaposition to *cintāmayīprajñā* is all but far-fetched.

Finally, at the *pratilabdhā* level of *anutpattikadharmakṣānti* the bodhisattva sees innumerable buddhas teaching sentient beings and is conversant with their demeanour and armour. Jambudvīpa becomes his buddha-field where he rules with inconceivable wonder-working powers and teaches the Dharma to all beings.³⁶⁴ He abides wholly unaffected by mundane profit or renown. Established in the non-arising of *dharma*, he attains buddha-cognition and achieves the highest degree of benevolence and compassion.³⁶⁵ According to the *Samādhirāja*, this events takes place when the bodhisattva embarked on the sixth stage and received his final prediction buddhahood.³⁶⁶

In appreciation of these benefits, the bodhisattva also sets out to suppress anger in other beings.³⁶⁷ Thus, we learn in the *Bodhisattvaprātimokṣasūtra* that the bodhisattva cultivates patience not only in himself, but equally admonishes others to follow suit. Aware of the effects of anger and animosity, "he consoles and placates those who are angry, he appeases and heartens them"³⁶⁸ and explains:³⁶⁹

^{360.} Dutt, 1941-53, ii, pp. 77.2-79.8.

^{361.} Dutt, 1941-53, ii, pp. 79.9-80.12.

^{362.} TTP, 31, p. 281.2.2-3.

^{363.} Dutt, 1941-53, ii, p. 79.9-11.

^{364.} TTP, 31, p. 281.2.4-7.

^{365.} Dutt, 1941–53, ii, pp. 80.13–81.10

Other attainments that are thought to accompany the conviction of the non-arising of dharma are śīla, prajñā, jñāna, punyasambhāra, smṛti, pratibhānapratisamvid, etc., (op. cit., p. 95.15-16).

^{366.} Dutt, 1941-53, ii, p. 82.11-14

We have seen that by most accounts this is not a standard posistioning.

^{367.} Msl, p. 105.18-19 (cf. S I, pp. 162-3).

^{368.} Siks, p. 188.17-18.

^{369.} Pañca, p. 562-3.

"There is nothing real or substantial from that your wrath is produced. An unreal fancy is this wrath. No real entity corresponds to it, nor is there a real entity that offends you, makes you feel anger or ill-will, or that makes you belabour others with sticks or swords, or rob one another of life. For when you get angry as a result of an unfounded imagination, you will be hurled into the hells, the animal world, the world of Yāma or any other place of low rebirth where you will experience painful feelings—intense, harsh and bitter."

In the Bdp the bodhisattva does not show such concern with the welfare of sentient beings. As in the previous chapters, the focus of the exposition rests rather narrowly on the training of the bodhisattva and ignores the wider issues that are involved in its application. We learn therefore very little about the benefits that accrue to him on the basis of the practice of $k \bar{s} \bar{a} n t i$ and the impact it has on the goal of universal liberation.

The description itself concurs to a large extent with the principles that underlie the discussions of patience in other Mahāyāna sūtras. That is to say, it speaks of dharma- and sattvakṣānti, it distinguishes between duḥkhādhivāsanākṣānti, parāpakāramarṣaṇakṣānti and dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti and recognises the principle of anutpattikadharmakṣānti as the highest manifestation of patience. There is however no direct reference to these technical terms as their contents is incorporated in the flow of the exposition.

The position of these main-components on the path is only vaguely indicated. Duḥkhādhivāsanākṣānti which corresponds in the scheme of the Bdp to ordinary patience is the lowest type of patience and is practised during the initial stages of the path. Although its exact position is not indicated, from the information on the next higher type of patience we may deduce that it probably prevails from the pramuditābhūmi to the prabhākarībhūmi. After that, the bodhisattva embarks on the so-called bodhisattva-patience. Corresponding to the apakāramarṣaṇakṣānti, this type of patience becomes manifest when the bodhisattva has acquired wisdom. That is to say, when he is accomplished in the bases of mindfulness, when he has attained correct reflection, possesses a fully purified disposition and has mastered the factors of enlightenment. It is not clear for how long the parāpakāramarṣaṇakṣānti dominates the kṣānti practice of the bodhisattva. According to the Bdp it extends over the whole width of the path and leads to the acquisition of the buddha-qualities. This generates difficulties since it is at odds with the position of the dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti which is generally

thought to fully manifest as anutpattikadharmakṣānti on the acalābhūmi. However, as the Bdp is completely silent on its positioning and does not distinguish it contextually from the bodhisattva-patience, we may assume that the parāpakāramarṣaṇakṣānti, dharmanidhyānādhimuktikṣānti and anutpattikadharmakṣānti (including perhaps the duḥkhādhivāsanākṣānti) manifest concurrently from the eighth stage onwards. In other words, although they are initially accomplished in succession, from a certain level of attainment onwards (probably the eighth stage) all three types of patience merge into the 'conviction of the non-arising of dharma' where they coexist and find their true fulfilment.

The Perfection of Vigour

"Vigour is a steadfast mental effort (cetaso 'bhyutsāha) leading to wholesome dharma. It is of armour (saṃnāha), practice (prayoga), free of weakness (alīnatva), irreversible (avyāvṛtti) or insatiable (asantuṣṭi). Its purpose is to effect completion and attainment of favourable bearings."

This definition of vigour, given in the Abhidharmasamuccaya, sums up many of the issues standing at the heart of the bodhisattva's vīrya practice. First, it establishes the psychology of vigour. Second, it maps out the various phases where vigour becomes manifest. Although, at first sight no more than random attributes, saṃnāha, prayoga, etc., represent in fact rather distinct stages in the cultivation of vigour. Finally, Asaṅga defines the rationale behind vīrya. The phrasing is by no means coincidental, but takes into account changes in its objectives, leading from concern for personal advance to selfless devotion to universal liberation. For Buddhism to produce such an elaborate concept of vigour, it had to mature over many centuries.

In early Buddhism, vigour (*viriya*) figures as a frequently cited but little elaborated aspect of the śrāvaka training. It is never expounded on its own but is invariably touched upon in connection with other virtues whose generation it assists. *Viriya* is discussed as part of the lists of the seven excellent qualities of monks³⁷¹, five faculties (*indriya*)³⁷² and powers (*bala*)³⁷³. It appears under the five limbs of striving (*padhāna*)³⁷⁴, seven factors of enlightenment (*bodhyanga*)³⁷⁵, five factors conducive to ripening³⁷⁶, eight conditions causing wisdom (pañña)³⁷⁷, ten conditions that make for warding³⁷⁸ and need to be remembered³⁷⁹, and is

^{370.} Abhidh-sam (R), p. 8.

^{371,} MIp. 356

Identical formulations, but set in a different context are found in D III, pp. 237, 285; A IV, pp. 3, 110.

^{372.} S V, p. 225; D III, pp. 239, 278.

^{373.} S V, p. 197; A III, pp. 2, 11; A V, p. 15.

^{374.} M II, pp. 95, 128; A III, pp. 152, 155; D III, p. 237.

^{375.} A IV, pp. 352-3.

^{376.} A IV, p. 357.

^{377.} A IV, pp. 153-5.

^{378.} A V, pp. 23-24, 27-28.

^{379.} A V, pp. 90-91.

particularly associated with the moral precepts of the pātimokkha code. 380

The contexts in which it is discussed suggests that *viriya* was recognised as an important practice. Its opposite, indolence, is listed among the eight principal stains³⁸¹ and mars renunciation of agitation, intemperance and immorality.³⁸² Moreover, *viriya* is expressively perceived as a contributing force to many cardinal attainments of the Buddhist path, including mindfulness, ripening, recollection and wisdom.³⁸³ Quite clearly, for the Buddha *viriya* constituted a high-ranking *dhamma* in its own right:³⁸⁴

"O monks, this Dhamma is for the energetic, this Dhamma is not for the indolent."

In spite of such pre-eminence, references to *viriya* are predominantly succinct and summary-like. It is rarely analysed but surfaces in passages which follow stereotyped patterns of exposition that recur, without variation, in two or three variant readings throughout the nikāya.

The most frequent formula identifies *viriya* as the *raison d'être* of the *sammappadhāna* for which it serves along with faith, good health, honesty and wisdom as precondition.³⁸⁵ Accounting for approximately eighty percent of references to *viriya* in the nikāya, it typically runs as follows:³⁸⁶

"He dwells with stirred up energy for the sake of abandoning unskilled mental states. For the sake of acquiring skilful mental states, he is firm, of steady valour, perseverance in purpose amid skilful mental states."

In several places this type of reference is expanded to include the monk's refusal to abandon the burden of teaching and good qualities in illustration of his vigorous resolve.³⁸⁷ It appears that for the early Buddhists *viriya* was above all a mental factor:³⁸⁸

^{380.} A IV, pp. 153-5, 357.

^{381.} A IV, p. 195.

^{382.} A V, p. 146.

^{383.} These links are established in A V, pp. 23-24; IV, p. 357; V, pp. 90-91; IV, p. 153.

^{384.} A IV 233; see also: M I, p. 481.

^{385.} M II, p. 95.

^{386.} M I, p. 356 (trsl. Gethin).

^{387.} A I, p. 117.

^{388.} S V, p. 111.

"O monks, that which is physical energy is always energy as a factor of wisdom. That which is mental energy is always energy as a factor of wisdom."

The As^{389} , citing this very passage, concludes that there is thus only mental energy and that whatever action results from the 'initial generation of energy' ($viriy\bar{a}rambha$), it springs from the psychological disposition towards viriya. In spite of its operational restriction to the mental realm, the impact of viriya goes of course beyond psychic processes as its purpose is to overcome idleness (kosajja) through energetic practice. While its foundation is also mental, the method and means that manifest energetic conduct vary according to circumstances. The principal characteristics of viriya are grasping, strengthening and support of those wholesome mental states that are most liable to deterioration. In this sense, it is specifically cited in the As in conjunction with $s\bar{\imath}la^{393}$ and recognised as the chief force that instigates and completes purification:

"Livelihood purification is to be undertaken by means of viriya. For that is accomplished by energy because the abandoning of wrong livelihood is effected in one who has rightly applied energy. Abandoning, therefore, unbefitting wrong striving, this should be undertaken with energy by means of the right kind of striving consisting of alms round, etc."

This quotation introduces striving (padhāna) as the other major aspect of viriya that (in particular as a concomitant to the four sammappadhāna) motivates to virtuous conduct.³⁹⁵ If

^{389.} As, p. 145.

^{390.} In the Kośa, the situation is very similar. Here (ii, p. 160), we learn that vīrya is primarily mental effort. It is said to refer at all times to wholesome action. The same thought is expressed in the Pañcaskandha: "Vīrya is energy of the mind concerned with the wholesome, the opposite to indolence."

^{391.} As, p. 120.

^{392.} A vivid description of viriya in its supportive function is found in the Milindapañha (36):

"Just as, your majesty, a man might support a house that was falling down with an extra piece of wood, and being thus supported that house would no fall down—in the same way, your majesty, energy has the characteristic of supporting. Supported by viriya, no skilful dhamma are lost."

^{393.} As, p. 120.

^{394.} Vism, p. 40 (trsl. Ñāṇamoli)

^{395.} In the *Vism*, Buddhaghoṣa goes so far as to say that *viriya* is nothing but an alternative name for *padhāna* (*Vism*, p. 697), while in *Bodhirājakumārasutta* (M II, p. 95) *viriya* is listed besides faith, health, integrity and wisdom as one of the independent qualities of striving. According to the *Kośa* (vi, p. 283), giving the constituents of vigour, *vīrya* comprises the four *samyakpradhāna*, limb two of the *bodhyanga* and the *samyagvyāyāma* member of the Eightfold Path.

vigour has exertion as its characteristic, it functions to strengthen the coexistent states and manifests resistance to surrender to unwholesome *dhamma*.³⁹⁶ In this context, agitation (*uddhacca*)—the basic condition for generating *viriya*—becomes the proximate cause of energy³⁹⁷ and gives it an important role in the completion of the training:³⁹⁸

"Energy (viriya) is the state of one who is vigorous (vīra). Its characteristic is marshalling [driving]. Its function is to consolidate conascent states. It is manifested as non-relapse. Because of the words 'bestirred, he strives wisely' its proximate cause is a sense of urgency; or its proximate cause is the ground of the initiation of viriya. When rightly initiated, it should be regarded as the root of all attainments."

The application of *viriya* and knowledge thereof is inextricably linked with understanding the meaning of exertion. According to the *Paţis*, it is acted out through training in the four *sammappadhāna* and produces the undertaking to abandon the seven obstacles in favour of renunciation.³⁹⁹ In this respect, its presence becomes a precondition "for the maintenance, non-corruption, strengthening, plentifulness, development and perfection of the arahant path" that is limited to those who fully subscribe to the practice of endeavour (*padhāna*) and bestirring (*ārabhata*).⁴⁰⁰

As one of the five *indriya*⁴⁰¹, it has its origin in adverting unwholesome *dharma*, in zeal and attention through the influence of exertion, in focusing through the influence of the faculty of energy leading to the abandonment of idleness.⁴⁰² Once in place, it is important that the faculty of *viriya* does not dominate any of the other four *indriya* as this would impede their development.⁴⁰³ Above all, however, it is imperative that the practitioner should balance

^{396.} As, p. 121.

^{397.} Mil, i, p. 57.

^{398.} Vism, xiv, p. 137 (trsl. Ñāṇamoli; cf. A II, p. 115).

^{399.} Patis, pp. 103-4.

^{400.} Patis, p. 104.

^{401.} Several discourses in the Samyuttanikāya indicate that the *viriyendriya* and *sammappadhāna* conceptually cover exactly the same ground:

[&]quot;What is the faculty of energy? Here the noble disciple dwells as one who has established energy. For the sake of abandoning unskilful *dharma* and arousing skilful *dharma* he is firm, of steady valour, unrelinquishing in purpose with regard to skilful *dharma*" (S V, p. 197).

Or, even more explicit (S V, pp. 196):

[&]quot;In the four sammappadhāna there is the viriyendriya to be seen."

^{402.} Pațis, pp. 211, 209.

^{403.} This, of course, is also true for the other four faculties as too strong a practice of any of them would obstruct the performance of their collective functions (*Vism*, iv. 46, p. 129; *Vin*, i, pp. 179–85, A III, pp. 374–6).

vigour with concentration. The reason is that idleness poses a threat to meditation in those who possess little vigour, since concentration favours inactivity. Agitation, on the other hand, occurs in those who possess great energy but are restless in meditation since energy favours agitation:⁴⁰⁴

"When the sign arises, one *bhikkhu* forces his energy, thinking: 'I shall soon reach absorption.' Then his mind lapses into agitation because of the mind's over-exerted energy and he is prevented from reaching absorption. Another who sees the defect in over-exertion slacks off his energy, thinking: 'What is absorption to me now?' Then his mind lapses into idleness because of his mind's too lax energy and he too is prevented from reaching absorption. Yet another who frees his mind from indolence even when it is only slightly idle and from agitation when only slightly agitated, confronting the sign with balanced effort, [that one] reaches absorption."

In the Mahāyāna, the notion of $v\bar{v}rya$ has been modified in several respects. First, adjusted to the requirements of the new ideal, vigour is no longer targeted towards the bodhisattva's personal advance, but is devoted to the welfare of all beings:⁴⁰⁵

"They [the bodhisattvas] have pure and courageous minds and are linked with other beings and persons. [When] they are practising the perfection of vigour, as a maid servant is submissive to her master who is not subject to anyone else, so do the firmly wise submit to subjection by all beings."

Second, its practice is given a new meaning because of the unlimited duration of the bodhisattva path. In the nikāya, *viriya* was essentially interpreted as a supportive quality that promoted the generation of a wholesome mind-set. Its presence is especially required in meditation and has great impact on purification. Above all, it is related to practice and did not address the issue of time as a priority. With the expansion of the spatio-temporal dimension of Mahāyāna cosmology, the previous ideas on the length of the training became dramatically

^{404.} Vism, iv.72, p. 137 (trsl. Gethin)
See also S V, pp. 112–114 where the Buddha construes the famous simile of the fire that cannot burn by lack of dry fuels (i.e., idleness) and cannot be put out by dry fuels (i.e., agitation), (cf. Vism, pp. 136, 138).

^{405.} Rgs, xxix.11 (trsl. Conze; cf. Pañca, p. 455).

amended. As a consequence, even very early Mahāyāna sūtras draw connections between the need for perfect vigour and the formidable length of the path, arguing that it requires beings of truly extraordinary zeal. Such thinking is already attested in the Rgs and indeed figures in practically all Mahāyāna treatises on vīrya. 406

Third, by applying their philosophical axioms on existence to the training itself, Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$ merged their ontological absolutism with the realism of the practice itself. For the perfection of vigour, as indeed for all other practices, this led to a radical shift in interpretation culminating in the admission of the futility of all endeavour:⁴⁰⁷

"When one has no notion of either body, thought, or being,
Abiding without perception and coursing in the Doctrine of non-duality
That has been called by the Buddha 'perfection of vigour'
Of those who long for blissful, imperishable unsurpassed enlightenment."

In spite of (or perhaps, because of) the predicament posed by the dismissal of conventional experience, the bodhisattva proceeds to train in vigour with unabated zeal:⁴⁰⁸

"To some he gives sons and daughters, and to others a kingdom. For the sake of others he sacrifices himself. In this way he works the weal of beings by whatever device it can be worked. It is thus that the bodhisattva who courses in perfect wisdom and is endowed with mental vigour fulfils the perfection of vigour even though dharma are signless."

This last quotation points to an important departure from early conceptions of $v\bar{v}rya$. We have seen that for the śrāvaka vigour was primarily a mental *dhamma*. In the Mahāyāna, this definition is no longer upheld. Already in the incipient phase, its $s\bar{u}tras$ speak of physical and mental vigour. While it is probably true to say that mental vigour is still regarded superior as it creates the psychological foundation for the practical implementation, both are recognised and valued for their contributions.⁴⁰⁹

^{406.} Rgs, xxx.4-5.

^{407.} Rgs, xxx.7 (trsl. Conze).

^{408.} Pañca, pp. 513-14 (trsl. Conze).

^{409.} Pañca, p. 513:

[&]quot;Here, the bodhisattya who courses in perfect of wisdom and is endowed with mental vigour

Also mental vigour itself underwent some modifications.⁴¹⁰ In the early Buddhism of Śākyamuni, it was always interpreted as an inherently dynamic force which promotes and sustains wholesome states, or prevents and destroys unwholesome states. For the Mahāyāna this is no longer the case, as mental vigour received a predominantly cognitive role:⁴¹¹

"The bodhisattva who courses in perfect wisdom and is endowed with mental vigour ... does not misconstrue anything whatsoever as permanent or impermanent, ease or ill, self or not-self, conditioned or unconditioned."

Thus, rather than operating as the driving force behind the bodhisattva's exploits in $v\bar{v}rya$, mental vigour became an agency bringing $v\bar{v}rya$ practice in line with Mahāyāna ontology. Its task was to free the bodhisattva from delusion and establish him in knowledge of sensefields, non-duality and *dharmatāsthiti*, culminating in the conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*.⁴¹²

It is in consideration of these developments that the $v\bar{i}rya$ exposition in the Bdp needs to be examined. The Bdp introduces the discussion of vigour by pointing to the interaction between $k\bar{s}anti$ and $v\bar{i}rya$. For those who are dedicated to scriptural learning, it becomes a sine qua non for progress, as they meet with persistent envy and hostility.⁴¹³

Such explicit association of learning and vigour is rarely found in Mahāyāna literature. In the few cases where a connection is established, rather than physical protection, vigour is directed more to accomplishing the task of learning itself. Thus, we learn in the $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yanapariprech\bar{a}$ of the bodhisattva's great vigour in preaching the Dharma.⁴¹⁴

gives no opportunity to unwholesome deeds of body and speech."

^{410.} Cf. Ratnameghasūtra (cited in Śiks, pp. 51.21-52.3).

^{411.} Pañca, p. 513 (trsl. Conze).

^{412.} Sgm, 33, pp. 62.5.8-63.1.7.

^{413.} R, folio 424.1-426.3.

^{414.} Siks, pp. 189.7–190.3

It is in this context that Śāntideva gives the well-known quotation of the Akn's eighty types of learning to that I have referred on several occasions already. For the exact contents of this list, see: Appendix i. In the Dbh (Daśa-bh, p. 33.23-27, J), as a precondition for the practice proper and leading to the first dhyāna, the bodhisattva focuses his vigour on the search for learning and the Dharma at the prabhākarībhūmi.

The *Dbh* itself contains very little on the practice of the *vīryapāramitā* (*Daśa-bh*, p. 40.12–14, I). In the exposition on the *acriṣmatībhūmi*—the phase where training in *vīrya* should theoretically stand in the foreground—only one sentence addresses the bodhisattva's practice in *vīrya*, describing it as attentive (*aprasrabdha*), pure (*aparikliṣṭa*), unfaltering (*apratyudhāvartya*), extensive (*vipulya*), infinite (*ananta*), earnest (*uttapta*), unequalled (*asama*), indestructible (*asamhārya*), aimed at the benefit of all sentient beings (*sarvasattvaparipācana*) and saying that it discerns correct conduct from incorrect conduct (*nayānayavibhakta*).

The combination of $v\bar{i}rya$ and $k\bar{s}anti$ is, in contrast, much more commonly attested in Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$. It is in particular the attainment of anutpattikadharmakṣānti that $v\bar{i}rya$ is related to:⁴¹⁵

"O householder, how does the *pravrajita* bodhisattva, living in the *araṇyavāsa*, cultivate and fulfil the perfection of vigour? To this end, the bodhisattva should train himself thus: 'I shall not depart from this place, for it is essential that I should realise the conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*.'

The rationale behind this association is the bodhisattva's change of body at the moment of anutpattikadharmakṣānti. Immediately after the first production of the thought of enlightenment, his attainments are weak and incomplete and he strives to attain perfection in his training by means of practice in generosity, moral conduct and good intentions. Throughout this period, stretching form the prathamacittotpāda to the attainment of the perfection of meditation, his endeavours are physical, since they operate on the material plane where he experiences truly physical hardship. With the production of the abhijñā at the point of mastery in meditation, physical effort is no longer required as he is now capable of transforming himself into whatever shape is best suited to assist sentient beings.

In the Bdp, however, the link with $k\bar{s}anti$ is initially interpreted in the conventional sense. The bodhisattva is required to bear with the physical and vocal animosity directed at him under Māra's influence.⁴¹⁷ In this respect, perfection in vigour provides a degree of psychological steadfastness in the pursuit of the path.⁴¹⁸

^{415.} *Ug*, p. 271.1.3–5.

^{416.} Mppś, ii, pp. 970, 711–12, n. 1.

^{417.} R, folio 424.3-6.

^{418.} R, folio 243–246

In the *Mppś*, the connection between *vīrya* and *kṣānti* includes the conventional and ontological frame of reference of patience. First, the bodhisattva shows great diligence in quietly enduring all pain and hostility—be it physical or verbal—and remains unaffected by the fame and homage shown to him (ii, p. 986). Second, the bodhisattva is not deterred by the difficulty of his undertaking. Working for the benefit of beings, he shows great patience with their shortcomings and accomplishes even the most difficult tasks through the combined presence of *vīrya* and *kṣānti* (ii, p. 949). This attainment of the *abhijñā* coincides with the 'conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*' (*Daśa-bh*, p. 71.22–26), at which stage he obtains a new body called the 'body born from the Dharma-realm' (*dharmadhātujakāya*). From now onwards he is no longer concerned with physical vigour that dominated his 'body born from fetters and acts' (*bandhanakarmajakāya*) since the production of the thought of enlightenment, but enters the realm of mental vigour. As this latter body is born from the teachings of the Doctrine, it is in perfect concordance with reality and is no longer subject to the restraint of his saṃsāric corporeal existence. Depending for realisation on the state of *anutpattikadharmakṣānti*, the link between *vīrya* and *kṣānti* fits well into scheme of the path.

Rooted in pure altruism, the motivation is not the prospect of future happiness, but the aspiration to achieve universal welfare:⁴¹⁹

"O Śāriputra, while delighting in purification, he accomplishes vigour not solely for the purpose of acquiring the *saṃbhogakāya* of mine. Rather, he enters into [vigour] in order to bring happiness and benefit to all sentient beings; to prompt sentient beings to understand [the *bodhisattvapiṭaka*] ... to prompt them to guard the noble path."

Immediate application of vigour is found in the practice of the *pāramitā* and the unfolding of benevolence and compassion.⁴²⁰ While diligent training in the *pāramitā* leads to the roots of virtue for the bodhisattva himself, resolute altruism reinforces his commitment to universal liberation. Hence, vigour is of fundamental importance to the bodhisattva's quest for buddhahood:⁴²¹

"Vigour is the finest of virtuous *dharma* because on its basis there occur subsequent benefits. Through vigour pleasant dwellings and success arise, both mundane and supramundane. Through vigour one achieves the desired enjoyment in life. Through vigour, those [virtues] become purified. Through vigour [bodhisattvas] transcend reification and attain supreme enlightenment."

Motivated by the *cittotpāda* and supported by the armour of vigour, the bodhisattva embarks on the course of training.⁴²² The term 'armour' (*saṃnāha*) points here to one of the three phases of *vīrya* practice.⁴²³ Definitions of *saṃnāhavīrya* fall broadly into two categories.

^{419.} R. folio 428.4-7.

^{420.} R. folio 426.1-3

For an account of the interaction between *virya* and the other perfections, see: *Mppś*, ii, pp. 927–35. In the *Msl* (pp. 105.25–106.5) vigour is classified into seven types corresponding to its function and contents. These are vigour in moral conduct, meditation and wisdom, physical and mental vigour, zealous (*satkrtya*) and constant (*sātatya*) vigour.

^{421.} *Msl*, p. 114.4–14 (cf. *Msl*, p. 32.4–5)

See also Bbh (p. 201.21–25):

[&]quot;Nothing else but vigour is the chief and best cause for maturing in this way all the virtuous *dharma* that generate [the bodhisattva's] enlightenment. For that reason, the Tathāgata points to vigour for the supreme and perfect enlightenment."

^{422.} R, folio 445.6.

^{423.} It is also the only member that is common to all schemes of vigour. The scholastic treatises of the Mahāyāna propose two classification of *vīrya*. First there is a scheme which recognises three types of

First, we have a number of texts where armoured vigour is related to cognitive processes. In the Sgm, for instance, armour is fundamental to the purification of the body and mind. 424 As a mental dharma, its chief task is to generate sufficient resilience and strength for the bodhisattya to pursue pristine cognition (iñāna). Specifically, if combined with ksānti, it prepares for the conviction of the non-arising of dharma and thereby enables him to persist in the practice and search of the pure Dharma. 425 Furthermore, it promotes insight into the psychological operations of name-and-form; it leads to understanding of the cessation of the subject/object dichotomy and prompts the bodhisattva to abandon grief, doubt, illness and conceit. 426

Second, we have texts where the need for armoured striving is located in the demanding nature of the training itself, in its infinite length and vast objective. A good example of this type is the Akn. 427 Here, the focus rests on the need for steadfastness in the actual practice—above all in the pāramitā—and the pledge to postpone parinirvāna until all beings have been placed in the thought of enlightenment.

In the śāstras, however, it is generally agreed that armoured striving is motivated by both factors. 428 It is understood to stand at the very beginning of the *vīrva* practice 429 as producing encouragement and a firm commitment to the training in general, and strengthening vīrya in particular. 430 In the Msl, these aspects are brought together in a single verse, although the

vigour, that is, 'armoured vigour' (samnāhavīrya), 'vigour in accumulating wholesome dharma' (kuśaladharmasamgrāhakavīrya) and 'vigour in working for the benefit of sentient beings' (sattvārthakriyāvīrya). Among others, it is given in the Siddhi (p. 622) and Bbh (p. 200.10-11). Variants of this classification are found in the MsI (p. 114.17-18) or Msg (pp. 191-2) where vigour falls into 'armoured vigour' (samnāhavīrya), 'vigour in practice' (prayogavīrya) and 'spirited, imperturbable, insatiable vigour' (alīnam akṣobhyam asamtusti vīrya). A further variation is given in the Dhsgr (§ 108; cf. Mahāyānasūtrasamgraha, Vaidya; p. 338.1-2) which distinguishes between samnāhavīrya, prayogavīrya and 'vigour directed at the supreme end' (paraniṣṭhā/pariniṣṭhāvīrya). The only major treatise that does not adopt either of these threefold schemes is the Mpps (ii, p. 946). Following the categorisation of the Pañca, it differentiates between mental and physical exertion (kāyikacaitasikāsramsanatā). For the perfection of vigour itself, it proposes five constituent characteristics, including dynamism in action, ease in enterprise, steadiness of will power, eagerness of mind and perseverance in action (ii, p. 946). As the composition of these attributes indicates, it is probable—though not explicitly stated—that these cover vigour in both its mental and physical dimension.

^{424. 33,} pp. 62.5.3–63.2.1.

^{425.} op. cit., p. 63.1.6-2.3.

^{426.} op. cit., p. 62.5.5-6.

^{427.} *Akn*, p. 46.3.2–4.5. 428. *Bbh*, p. 201.2–4.

^{429.} Msg, p. 191.

^{430.} *Bbh*, pp. 200.26-201.2

According to Tsong-kha-pa, armoured vigour is based on former exertion and operates as a preliminary resolve (pranidhāna), leading to enthusiasm of mind, infinite accumulations of merit, freedom from obscurity and becomes the cause of irreversibility. A bodhisattva who generates faith and conviction in armoured vigour, attains steadfastness in his cause and accomplishes even the most difficult tasks with ease provided that he is motivated by yearning for enlightenment that it consolidates (Lam-rimchen-mo; trsl. Wayman, 1990, pp. 172-3). Like in the Akn, the need for armoured striving is defended by the extraordinary length of the training and extent of suffering the bodhisattva has to undergo in the

distinction between samnāhavīrya and prayogavīrya becomes somewhat blurred:431

"Bodhisattvas generate vigour in amour and application that is without equal in order to cleanse themselves and others of defilement and in order to attain supreme enlightenment. On account of this vigour they establish all sentient beings in the three types of enlightenment. And because they have attained pristine cognition, they equip the world with vigour forever."

In the Bdp, as in the Sgm, the focus of armoured vigour lies in cognition and learning. Highly meritorious in its own right, it produces roots of virtue far beyond the merit that is generated through $d\bar{a}na$. It promotes birth under auspicious circumstances, pure associations and mental lucidity.⁴³²

In addition, armoured vigour draws the bodhisattva's attention to the ten obstructive conditions that, in turn, inspires discipline, compassion, mindfulness and joy in solitude. Appreciation of these factors operates as a catalyst which prompts the bodhisattva to overcome the obstructive conditions in other beings. For this purpose he pledges to persist in the true teachings at all times and does not fall prey to heterodox thought. Fear of Dharma misinterpretation is thus a chief concern for the practice of vigour. Besides vigour in studying the Doctrine, the bodhisattva works for the survival of the Dharma through endless preaching and altruistic

world (Bbh, p. 200.20-26).

^{431.} *Msl.* p. 108.22–25.

^{432.} R. folio 435.2-4

The Samādh knows of ten concrete blessings that accrue from the cultivation of vigour. That is, bodhisattvas become generally difficult to satiate, they are received by buddhas and protected by the gods, they do not distort the teachings they have heard but retain the Dharma just as they have learned it, they enter the fold (gotra) of meditation, they experience little illness, attain happiness, possess sufficient food-stuff and do not turn into a lizard (musala) but resemble a lotus (Dutt, ii, 1941–53, pp. 335.14–336.2). For variants in the Tibetan, see: TTP, 31, p. 310.2.7–3.8.

^{433.} R, folio 439.3-6

These are (1) exposure to the sayings of Māra, (2) physical blindness, (3) physical illness, (4) a distracted mind, (5) hatred and anger, (6) disputes and malice, (7) exposure to Māra and its works, (8) adherence to mistaken doctrine in times of decline of the Dharma, (9) desire for alms-bowls, robes and food among the monks, (10) sensual pleasure (R, folio 436–42).

^{434.} The *Tathāgatācintyaguhyanirdeśa* (cit. in Śikṣ, p. 274.3-11) proposes ten concrete ways of improving the force of the bodhisattva's vigour. These include (1) renouncing the body and life but not the Dharma, (2) showing reverence to all beings, (3) feeling compassion with weak creatures and not to dislike them, (4) granting food to those who are hungry, (5) granting protection to those who are fearful, (6) dispensing medicine and cure those who are ill, (7) delighting the poor with great riches, (8) repairing shrines dedicated to the Tathāgata, (9) adopting pleasant speech when speaking to people and sharing the fate of poverty with those who are poor and (10) carrying the burden of those who are exhausted. Cf. *Mppś*, ii, p. 943.

^{435.} R, folio 447.1-3.

^{436.} R, folio 436.2-438.6.

efforts.

Thus inspired, he sets out to train in 'vigour accumulating roots of virtue' (kuśaladharmasaṃgrāhakavīrya)⁴³⁷ and manifests unfaltering, bold courage (anivartyaparākramavīrya).⁴³⁸ This type of vigour is essentially bifocal. First, the bodhisattva is not discouraged from the path by the sheer distance of the goal, but devotes all resources to the practices concerned:⁴³⁹

In the *Bbh* (p. 201.6–25), the accumulation of roots of virtue is dependent on diligent application to the six perfections and consists of seven qualities. First, it is not moved by harm which resulted from mistaken considerations, defilements, false teachers and suffering. Second, it is certain because of his paying respect (*satkrtya*). Third, it is infinite because it is founded in, and leads to, all areas of knowledge. Fourth, it is furnished with means that are designed to lead to the irreversible path and to penetrate sameness. Fifth, it is perfect vigour because the bodhisattva aspires to obtain things that ought to be obtained. Sixth, it is victorious because it is furnished with lasting application and seventh, it is free from pride because his undertakings in vigour are free from the thought-objects (*ārambha*). If his practice of vigour includes these seven qualities, the bodhisattva is predicted to accomplish all six perfections rapidly and to obtain enlightenment.

At the highest level, vigour in the accumulation of roots of virtue refers to the bodhisattva's diligence in acquiring the buddha-qualities. This means to accumulate the sum-total of roots of virtue including those that spring from the perfections and bodhipākṣika (Akn, op. cit., pp. 47.5.7–48.1.2).

438. R, folio 468.1-476.5

In the Akn (op. cit., p. 46.4.5–5.1) we have a similar subsection, entitled: 'imperishable courage' (akṣaya parākrama). Here, the purpose of courageous vigour is sixfold. It is found in the bodhisattva's effort to see the Tathāgata, to hear the Dharma, to ripen sentient beings, to accumulate the roots of virtue and to attain all-knowing. It is called courageous because the bodhisattva enters into the world for the sake of other beings in order to discipline their faculties and to bring about their liberation. Its action is the undertaking to enter in the world intent to benefit other beings, its cause is the bodhisattva's great compassion and its essence is the unfaltering firmness of its commitment to vigour (op. cit., p. 46.5.1).

According to the Bbh (p. 203.13–22), there are six factors that contribute specifically to the consolidation of the bodhisattva's unfaltering courage (drdhaparākrama). These include persistent vigour because it ties to the cycle of existence; reverential vigour because it ties to exertion; naturally caused (nisyanda) vigour because of the power of previous causes; vigour arising from practice (prayoga) because, investigating and contemplating, it is bound to good morals; non-enraged (akopa) vigour because he is not angered by pain or injury; and insatiable (asamtusti) vigour because for him mediocrity is not sufficient. Although not stated, one suspects that these should be understood as both conditions for and the ideal manifestations of unfaltering courage.

439. Siks, p. 275.1-6 (33, p. 61.2.7-3.2).

^{437.} The exact scope and nature of the kuśaladharmasamgrāhakavīrya is little explained in Mahāyāna literature. I have found only two treatises that provide some detail on its generation. First, there is the exposition in the Sgm which recognises the contributions of four specific dharma (op. cit., p. 62.1.5-5.3). These are exertion (arambha), courage (vira), investigation (pativeksana) and good conduct (pratipatti). Each of these dharma is applied to specific sets of practices whose potential they aim to maximise. Exertion is primarily applied towards the cittotpāda, dāna, śīla and śraddhā (preparing the entry into the path) while courage focuses on the accumulation of roots of virtue and, in particular, on ksānti (leading to the śuklavidarśana stage, the first of seven śrāvakabhūmi stages). Investigation is employed to identify those things that bring greatest benefit to sentient beings, to dhyāna and to prajñā (leading to mental purity; cittapraśrabdhi). Finally, good conduct means bearing with committed dharma and engaging in skilful means (leading to irreversible pristine cognition: avaivartikaiñā). On a personal level, exertion purifies and leads to recollection of the body; courage purifies speech and leads to recollection of feeling; investigation cleanses the mind of impure dharma and leads to recollection of thought; good conduct purifies dharma and leads to their recollection (op. cit., p. 62.2.6-7, 4.7). Exertion cognises suffering, courage abandons the origin, investigation generates the path and good conduct realises cessation (op. cit., p. 62.4.6)

"O Sāgaramati, a bodhisattva who has committed himself to vigour must incessantly be of a steady and bold courage. The bodhisattva who is earnestly striving [to buddhahood] must not lay down his burden. O Sāgaramati, for bodhisattvas who exert themselves vigorously the supreme and perfect enlightenment is not difficult to attain. Why? O Sāgaramati, where there is vigour, there is enlightenment. But for those who are indolent, it is far off. There is no generosity, morality, patience, vigour, meditation or wisdom on the part of the indolent. They do not work for the benefit of others."

Second, it aims at universal liberation. For this purpose, the bodhisattva anchors his practice in $sams\bar{a}ra$, but dedicates his accumulation of roots of virtue to buddhahood. Indeed, according to the Sgm, it is this 'double-tracked' approach that transforms the bodhisattva's $v\bar{v}rya$ into a practice of $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ status:⁴⁴⁰

"Vigour by means of which [the bodhisattva] does not let go his yearning for all-knowing, by means of which he holds on to the generation of the power of the thought of enlightenment and is bound to saṃsāra while beginning to accomplish roots of virtue constitutes the perfection of virtue."

Thus, it is primarily the bodhisattva's perfection in vigour that prevents him from untimely entering into nirvāna.⁴⁴¹

The implementation of vigorous courage manifests mental and non-mental striving.⁴⁴²

^{440.} Śiks, p. 187.9-11 (33, p. 51.1-2).

^{441.} Mppś, ii, p. 982; R, folio 468.4-6.

^{442.} The distinction of *vīrya* into a mental and non-mental dimension is undoubtedly the oldest and most fundamental classification of vigour. Already proposed in the nikāya, it was adopted in numerous early Mahāyāna *sūtras* as the basic division of vigour. Good examples of such early adoptions are the *Akn* and *Paūca*. In the *Akn*, the entire discussion of the *vīryapāramitā* is structured according to its mental/non-mental dimension. Non-mental *vīrya* is perceived in terms of its various sub-aspects, showing the bodhisattva's eight principal objects on which he focuses his energy. These include armoured striving (*samnāhavīrya*), courageous striving (*parākramavīrya*), vigour in attaining (*samudānavīrya*), vigour in ripening sentient beings (*sattvaparipākavīrya*), vigour in accumulating merit (*punyasaṃbhāravīrya*), vigour in accumulating knowledge (*jñānasaṃbhāravīrya*), vigour in accumulating wisdom (*prajīāsaṃbhāravīrya*) and vigour in attaining buddha-qualities (*sarvabuddhadharmasamudānavīrya*). The *Akn*, holding the mental dimension of *vīrya* to be superior distinguishes (like the *Bdp*) a mentally active part that inspires physical and vocal action and a mentally inactive part that is in tune with the Dharma teachings on the nature of reality (34, p. 48.3.5-4.2):

[&]quot;One who is established in all activity in order to fulfil the imperishability of mental vigour and is separated from all distinguishing marks (sarvanirmittāpagata), that one not only enters

Although the non-mental plane refers primarily to exertion in body and speech, it is not limited to physical and vocal activity, but includes the commitment to universal liberation. First, it is aimed at the encounter with the Buddha when the bodhisattva receives his final prediction to buddhahood. Second, emerging as a collateral, the bodhisattva commits himself to the liberation of all sentient beings. These two prospects impel the bodhisattva to train with utmost vigour, whereby he accumulates incalculable roots of virtue as a matter of course. The magnitude of this task turns vigour quite naturally into a major practice. It causes the bodhisattva to honour his commitments even after he has attained enlightenment and allows him to venture fearlessly into the more daunting areas of Buddhist cognition.

This confidence is rooted in the bodhisattva's unshakable trust in the path and in his increasingly accurate understanding of reality. On the first, the *Bdp* comments:⁴⁴⁷

"The bodhisattva boldly thinks: ... 'although the defilements of all sentient beings are incalculable and numerous, I shall seek to obtain a matching accumulation of wisdom and pristine cognition by means of this enunciation. I shall work hard and apply myself diligently. With vigour, I shall wholly appease the torment of desire, hatred, delusion of all sentient beings. I shall free them from this poison, suppress it and deliver them. I shall cause them to transcend it and establish them in the path leading to $nirv\bar{a}na$.'"

This attitude of confidence and courage appertains to the category of physical/verbal vigour, because it belongs to the more active, engaging part of the bodhisattva practice. Progress in the cognitive realm, in contrast, is firmly rooted in mental vigour. Superior to vigour of body

into all activity of distinguishing marks but is also established in activity of pristine cognition and performs every deed with the pristine cognition of all action."

Since, according to the Dbh (Daśa-bh, pp. 64.3–4, 64.23–27), separation from distinguishing marks is a chief characteristic of the $acal\bar{a}bh\bar{u}mi$, mental vigour comes into operation at the eighth stage and coincides with the beginning of the bodhisattva's effortless activity (see below).

This understanding of the distinctions between the mental and non-mental dimensions of vigour tallies with the position of the *Mppś* (ii, p. 977). Here, the bodhisattva's physical vigour is summed up in the practice of the six perfections, in giving up all personal belongings and family members and, above all, in his readiness to pursue the training as long as required. Mental vigour, in contrast, is marked by the cultivation of wholesome *dharma*, by total faith and confidence, by freedom from indolence and, especially, by insatiability for Dharma investigation.

^{443.} R. folio 468.2.

^{444.} R, folio 468.4.

^{445.} R, folio 469.2, 469.5.

^{446.} R, folio 472.6.

^{447.} R, folio 473.1-6.

or speech, it becomes the driving force behind all other types of vigour and is thus crucial to the completion of the $v\bar{i}ryap\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$. In the Bdp, mental vigour is distinguished by an active and inactive mode of operation. While the exact relationship between the two is not explained, their contents and areas of application point to their complementarity:

"What is vigour of the mind? It is activity and stillness of the mind. What is activity of the mind? It is endeavouring to enlightenment. What is stillness of the mind? It is non-appearing the thought of enlightenment. What is its activity? It is great compassion towards all beings. What is its stillness? It is acceptance that there is no self."

Being essential to the fruition of all others practices, the ultimate reward of vigour is, of course, nothing less than perfect enlightenment.⁴⁵¹ This view is also expressed in the *Bdp*.⁴⁵² More immediate benefits include a set of 'factors of elevation'. These ensure that the bodhisattva prospers (*abhyudgacchati*) because he pleases the present buddha, adheres to virtuous friends, attains birth under favourable conditions, is accomplished in inexhaustible and virtuous practices and follows the example of bodhisattvas who persist in the vow.⁴⁵³

Misinterpretations of vigour differ depending on the status of the practitioner. In the case of the *grhapti* bodhisattva, they include the abandonment of beings to their fate out of personal gain; to succumb to the pleasures of worldly life in violation of the moral code; to obstruct the Buddha's teachings in others while adhering to them himself; to fraternise with people

^{448.} R, folio 473.7-474.2.

^{449.} R, folio 474.1-3.

^{450.} For the most comprehensive treatment of mental and physical vigour, I propose to turn once again to the *Mppś* (ii, pp. 970–72). Beginning with a definition of physical/vocal vigour as mental vigour transformed into corporeal forces or speech, the *Mppś* proceeds to elucidate the characteristics of mental and non-mental vigour. (1) While physical/vocal vigour manifests itself in action related to the perfection of generosity and morality, mental vigour is operational in conjunction with the *kṣānti*, *dhyāna* and *prajñāpāramitā*. (2) It is called bodily vigour when it is applied to external objects, but it is mental when it involves a special effort towards oneself (*ādhyātmikaprayoga*). (3) Coarse vigour is physical and subtle vigour is mental. All vigour that produces merit is physical while mental vigour generates wisdom. (4) The accumulation of wealth for distribution is physical vigour while self-transformation for the sake of others in order to attain buddhahood is mental vigour. (5) The practice of the six perfections is physical vigour while in possessing the true *dharmakāya* and producing the six *pāramitā*, the bodhisattva pursues mental vigour. (6) To implement the bodhisattva training without ever showing concern for life is physical vigour, but never to relax in search of *dhyāna* and *prajñā* is mental vigour.

^{451.} Mpps, ii, p. 935, n. 1.

^{452.} R, folio 476.3.

^{453.} R, folio 476.6-77.2.

who despise the Dharma and to reproach people whose care he was entrusted with in an unjust, harsh fashion.⁴⁵⁴ Any of these five mistaken modes of conduct bars the bodhisattva from spiritual advance:⁴⁵⁵

"O Śāriputra, a grhapti bodhisattva who acquires the five [mistaken modes of conduct] fails to please the present buddha. He fails to adhere to virtuous friends. He does not obtain birth under favourable conditions. He truly wastes the roots of virtue that he has accomplished. He does not follow the example set by bodhisattvas, mahāsattvas who adhere to their vow, and thus fails to acquire supreme and perfect enlightenment swiftly."

For the *pravrajita* bodhisattva the situation is different. Here, misunderstood vigour manifests in moral transgression, abuse of the Doctrine, desire for profit, honour or praise, mistaken views about the self and avarice for the houses of others. ⁴⁵⁶ Of these five *dharma*, however, only avarice is set in direct relation to the practice of vigour, presumably because its consequence (fear of rebirth in hell, blindness and, when reborn as man, of life in the distant border-regions) are particularly daunting. The overriding concern for the rejection of avarice lies therefore in its threat to the bodhisattva's personal advance. ⁴⁵⁷ This preoccupation links unfaltering vigour with *vīrya* practice concerned with the accumulation of roots of virtue. ⁴⁵⁸

The third area in which vigour finds application is the bodhisattva's commitment to bring about universal liberation (sattvārthakriyāvīrya).⁴⁵⁹ In the Bdp this is expressed through a

^{454.} R. folio 477.3-480.6.

^{455.} R, folio 480.7-81.2.

^{456.} R, folio 483.1–3

Compare these downfalls with the position in the *Ug* (op. cit., p. 273.1.7–2.1) that affirms that a pravrajita bodhisativa is by definition vigorous, since he has renounced the comforts of worldly life.

^{457.} R, folio 513.5-7.

For a concise analysis of the various side qualities of vigour, e.g., zeal, perseverance, energy, vigilance, etc., see: *Abhidh-sam (R)*, pp. 119–20.

^{458.} The Mppś (ii, p. 1020), based on canonical sources, speaks of four qualities that manifest vigour in the pravrajita bodhisattva. These include observance of moral conduct (śīlasampatti), control of senses (indriyeṣu guptadvāratā), moderation in eating (bhojane mātrājñutā) and application while staying awake (jāgaryām anuyoga). Lamotte identified at A II, pp. 39-40 one of their occurrences in the nikāya. See also: S II, p. 219; A I, p. 113.

^{459.} R, folio 514.2–539.1

According to the *Bbh*, vigour in benefiting sentient beings manifests eleven modes of practice (*op. cit.*, p. 201.26–27, but given on pp. 144.24–152.21). First, the bodhisattva renders assistance by assessing the needs of beings and decides what action is most appropriate to fulfil them. Second, he contributes actively to the appeasement of their suffering though practical and conceptual help (pp. 144.26–145.19). Third, he persists in showing gratitude and respect to those sentient beings who have helped him. Fourth, he protects frightened sentient beings from fear, be it the fear of wild beasts, robbers or

series of jātaka-type stories depicting the edifying effects of Śākyamuni's previous selfless service on the spirituality of innumerable beings. Three elements dominate the narratives. First, we have the recurring use of the physician/patient simile. This is designed to elucidate the bodhisattva's commitment to humankind and to underline his unique influence to their well-being. Second, physically his endeavours are sustained through the practice of vigour that endows him with great resilience. Third, a key role in the practice of 'vigour in working for the benefit of beings' falls to the dharmakāya. On the one hand, it braces the bodhisattva for the enormous hardship and gives him sufficient stamina to pursue the path without wavering: 461

"O lord, of what nature is the bodhisattva's *dharmakāya*? The lord replied: 'O Śāriputra, his *dharmakāya* is firm, steadfast, unfaltering, compassionate, non-perishing and unborn. He converts [sentient beings] by means of various bodies. Although it is multiplied by the power of converting beings, like a *vajra*, it does not perish in fire or is hurt through weapons. It is firm and does not waver. O Śāriputra, it is in this way that the bodhisattva who is of unfaltering vigour and persists in the *dharmakāya* pursues effortlessly the perfection of vigour."

On the other hand, the *dharmakāya* introduces to the dichotomies of worldly convention and establishes the bodhisattva in true reality:⁴⁶²

defamation (pp. 145.20–146.4). Fifth, the bodhisattva relieves the suffering of sentient beings who have experienced calamity of loss of property. Sixth, he shows great vigour in cultivating generosity in accordance with the needs. Seventh, the bodhisattva attracts wealthy beings around him in order to obtain goods and implements with the aim of redistributing them to the needy at a later occasion (pp. 146.13–150.12). Eighth, the bodhisattva complies with the expectations of sentient beings. He lives as one of theirs among them and follows their habitual action. Ninth, the bodhisattva applauds whenever good deeds or qualities come to his attention, whether they be associated to learning, renunciation or wisdom (p. 150.13–19). Tenth, he punishes sentient beings in proportion to the nature of their offence. Eleventh, the bodhisattva resorts to his wonder-working powers in order to frighten sentient beings off immoral action (pp. 150.20–152.17).

^{460.} This point is dramatically exemplified at the example of Śākyamuni's endurance when his body is carved up in order to appease the suffering of beings following the demise of Dīpaṃkara (R, folio 519.4–527.1).

^{461.} R, folio 527.1-528.2.

^{462.} R, folio 532.4-7

In the $\dot{S}gs$ (pp. 144–45), the entire exposition of the perfection of vigour is dominated by this very theme, showing that the bodhisattva while nominally still functioning within a samsāric frame of reference has indeed passed well beyond its concerns, fetters and physical limitations. In the $\dot{S}gs$, the reason behind this elevated state of existence is the bodhisattva's entry into the $\dot{s}\bar{u}ramgamasam\bar{u}dhi$ that takes place on the tenth stage (op. cit., pp. 131–2, § 21). We might infer from this information that the attainments cited in the Bdp under the heading of mental vigour culminating in the acquisition of the dharmakāya belong likewise to a later, if not the latest, phase of the bodhisattva career.

"O Śāriputra, again, a bodhisattva who is endowed with the *dharmakāya*—although freed from time, origination and destruction—teaches in terms of origination and destruction in order to ripen sentient beings. Although subject to death, he knows that all *dharma* are non-dying and that the accumulation of karmic formations is non-existent. Although born, he knows that all *dharma* are unchanging and undying. Although becoming, he knows that all *dharma* are unborn. One who relies on the Doctrine and its body, on nourishment and power in order to ripen sentient beings pursues the perfection of vigour with unfaltering spirit by means of the spontaneously arisen, previous resolution."

While it is possible to distinguish these two roles of the *dharmakāya* as conceptually separate aspects, in practice no such distinction can be upheld. For, in essence, they epitomise of course nothing but the interplay between the cognitive faculties and practical means that, if well-balanced and truly interactive, become the only means of achieving any of the perfections.

The Perfection of Meditation

The perfection of meditation (*dhyānapāramitā*), examined in chapter ten, represents the penultimate *pāramitā* in the training-scheme of the *Bdp*. 463 In type and conceptual emphasis, the exposition shows all hallmarks of what—for want of better terminology—has been termed as a Mahāyāna approach to *dhyāna*. 464 That is to say, the thrust of the discussion does not revolve around the psychological processes at work during meditative experience, but investigates the ways in which meditation contributes to the implementation of the bodhisattva vow. As a result, *dhyāna* is described not so much for the technical detail of the mental processes at the heart of meditation as for its impact on the spiritual advance of the practitioner himself and, more importantly, on that of his fellow beings. For the *Bdp*, meditation is not solely an instrument of thought purification, but constitutes above all a means of moral edification.

In the *Bdp* the true scope of meditation therefore extends well beyond the psychological experience. It is at once contemplation and gnosis; it becomes the foundation to a broad range of cognition, culminating in supreme enlightenment; it frees the bodhisattva from doubt and lends itself to refined speech; it disentangles him from mistaken views and generates the conditions for acts in miracles. *Dhyāna* assumes therefore a unique position amongst the *pāramitā* and retains great importance until the very last phases of his career.

Ordered to retrace the bodhisattva's progress through meditation and the benefits thereof, these practices come as a series of individual building blocks. Altogether, we can distinguish ten, perhaps eleven, such units. Following the order of their occurrence in the text, these include (1) a passage on the traditional four $dhy\bar{a}na^{465}$, (2) the $abhij\bar{n}\bar{a}^{466}$, (3) the distinction

^{463.} Chapter ten of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* has already been object of an academic investigation. It is the topic of a PhD-dissertation, written by Dr. K.P. Pedersen at Columbia University, New York, 1976. Since Dr. Pedersen utilised only Chinese translations of the *Bdp* which—judging by her English translation—do not always agree with the Tibetan versions, her discussion was of limited help to my examination. Furthermore, her analysis of the contents contains some rather significant methodological shortcomings, particularly with regard to the choice of material she consulted and the depth to which she carried out her analysis. Notwithstanding its weakness, her contribution has its distinct merits, not least because it allowed me to draw comparisons between the Chinese and Tibetan versions. As a study of the *dhyānapāramitā*, however, it should be treated with caution because Dr. Pedersen has failed to bring out many of the important features that mark its treatment in the *Bdp*. Not wishing to diminish her labour, I shall draw attention to these shortcomings only when my findings appear irreconcilable with her analysis.

^{464.} Pedersen, 1976, p. 79.

^{465.} R. folio 550.2-51.3.

^{466.} R, folio 551.7-72.4.

between $abhij\tilde{n}a$ and $j\tilde{n}ana^{467}$, (4) the realisation of dharma-sameness ($dharmasamat\bar{a}$) brought about by $j\tilde{n}ana^{468}$, (5) the interplay between $praj\tilde{n}a$ and $up\bar{a}ya^{469}$, (6) the role of the $abhij\tilde{n}a$ in the training⁴⁷⁰, (7) the nature of non-regressing $abhij\tilde{n}a$ ($acuty\bar{a}bhij\tilde{n}a$)⁴⁷¹, (8) the non-apprehension of $dharma^{472}$, (9) the marks and nature of the $bodhisattvadhy\bar{a}na^{473}$ and (10) an enumeration of fifteen foremost ($p\bar{u}rvamgama$) contemplations of the $dhy\bar{a}nap\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}^{474}$, including a list of one hundred and one $sam\bar{a}dhi.^{475}$ Setting out with the assumption that these blocks were not positioned in an arbitrary fashion but represent individual thoughts that form a scheme of conceptual coherence, it is clearly essential to identify the rationale behind their concatenation.

The least problem in this regard is posed by the first two sections. Section one, dealing with the four *dhyāna* in what is the traditional way of exposition, is easily discernable as the basis to the whole discussion. Briefly citing the respective mental attainments that mark progress along the four *dhyāna*, its function is to sketch the psychological states that equip the bodhisattva with the refined awareness of worldly existence and prepare the more elevated phases of cognition. This role is amply documented in Mahāyāna literature and therefore needs not be discussed here. The occurs invariably at the beginning of discussions on *dhyāna* and—epitomising a practice adopted from early Buddhism—generally receives little attention. Typically, it does not extend beyond an enumeration (and brief characterisation) of the major

^{467.} R, folio 572.4-73.7.

^{468.} R. folio 574.2-75.7.

^{469.} R, folio 576.1-78.3.

^{470.} R, folio 578.4-80.2.

^{471.} R, folio 580.2-81.1.

^{472.} R, folio 581.2-84.4.

^{473.} R, folio 584.5-86.2.

^{474.} R, folio 586.3-87.1.

^{475.} In her study of this chapter, Pedersen identified eight more units bringing the total number to eighteen. Apart from a number of obvious, but not very ground-breaking distinctions (between the individual $abhij\bar{n}\bar{a}$, for instance), these do not help in understanding the structure of the chapter and so have been omitted here.

^{476.} Descriptions detailing the psychological processes and attainment experienced by practitioners during meditation are very stereotyped and occur in virtually all strands of Buddhist literature. For references in the nikāya, see: *Mppś*, ii, pp. 1023–4.

In Sanskrit literature, they are extant in the *Lal* (p. 129), *Pañca* (p. 167), *Daśasāhasrikā* (pp. 98–99), *Dbh* (*Daśa-bh*, pp. 33.28–34.17), *Kośa* (ii, p. 199; iii, pp. 2, 22–3, 167; vi, pp. 177, 198, 221-3) and are even included in the *Mvy* (1478–81, 1492–5). A particularly lucid, if exhaustive treatment of the various experiences pertaining to Buddhist meditation is found in the *Vism* (pp. 84–90 up to p. 373) and, above all, in the *Kośa* (viii, pp. 127–224).

In view of its rich documentation, I shall not reiterate the states that accompany the practitioner's progress through the various *dhyāna* and *samāpatti* but point to a highly recommendable summary of these experiences in Lamotte's introduction to the *Śgs* (pp. 16-26).

^{477.} Akn, p. 49.1.2-2.3; Bbh, p. 207.2-7; Ug, p. 271.1.5-8; Daśa-bh, pp. 33.28-34.17.

categories of meditation levels.⁴⁷⁸ The reason for their apparent neglect in Mahāyāna sūtras is probably twofold. First, all of these are also attainable by śrāvaka and pratyekabuddhas and so are not particular to Mahāyāna thinking. Second, their impact on the bodhisattva's vow is relatively small, since they primarily occasion personal advance that has no direct effect on the well-being of sentient beings.⁴⁷⁹

In exegetical writings on the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$, this class of meditation bears an independent status and is called 'meditation leading to a blissful abode in this life' ($drstidharmasukhavih\bar{a}r\bar{a}yadhy\bar{a}na$). Its chief task consists in suppressing vain imagination (vikalpa), pride ($manyan\bar{a}$), attachment (trstidharmasukhaviharmas

Dhyāna practice proper is epitomised by the second phase of meditative training that, in later literature, came to bear the title 'meditation of production' (abhinirhāradhyāna). Building on the contemplations of the first phase, it is characterised by the abhijñā and their preparatory concentrations. As most of the preliminary absorptions are shared with the śrāvaka and pratyekabuddhas, it is $abhijñ\bar{a}$ and pristine cognition ($jñ\bar{a}na$) that figure prominently

^{478.} For a analysis of these classes of meditation, see: *Mppś*, iii, pp. 1209–1309. According to the *Bbh*, however, the bodhisattva attains the *vimokṣa*, *abhibhvāyatana* and *kṛtsnāyatana* not before the second stage in the *dhyāna*-practice (p. 207.19–23).

^{479.} In the Akn (pp. 48.4.5-49.1.2) the traditional list of meditations is replaced by an enumeration of sixteen types of dhyāna that are specific to the bodhisattva. While these are presented as independent forms of meditation, their nature makes it clear that they sum up the various aspects of the bodhisattvadhyāna. These are (1) meditation that is not attached to anything as it is aimed at the tathāgatadhyāna (not included in dhyāna list of Pañca, pp. 198-203), (2) meditation that is not to be tasted (Bbh, p. 208.13-16), (3) meditation that has as object compassion since it is aimed at the purification of defilement, (4) meditation that allows for return to the kāmadhātu, (5) meditation completing preparation for the abhijñā, (6) meditation leading to fitness of thought since it represents knowledge of the power of thought, (7) meditation of knowledge of all forms of dhyāna and the ways of departing, (8) totally peaceful meditation that surpasses the samādhi of all vehicles, (9) meditation wholly undisturbed due to its infinite certitude (Msl, xix.38, p. 166. 25), (10) meditation that serves as antidote to mistaken practice since it subdues all vice, (11) meditation that amounts to penetration into wisdom since it operates beyond all worlds, (12) meditation that is preceded by the intention to liberate all beings, (13) meditation that prevents the interruption of the triratna since it fulfils the tathāgatadhyāna, (14) meditation that is not slackening since it is always concentrated, (15) meditation that leads to control over all dharma since it fulfils the buddha-qualities and (16) meditation that pervades space on account of its vast knowledge.

^{480.} Bbh, p. 207.10-11; Siddhi, p. 622; Msg, p. 192.

^{481.} Bbh, p. 207.9–10; Msg, commentary, p. 192.

^{482.} According to the Siddhi (p. 622), its full title is bodhisattvasamādhiguņanirhāryāya dhyāna.

^{483.} These include, besides unspecified meditations particular to the *tathāgatagotra*, eight *vimokṣa*, ten *kṛtsnāyatana*, four *abhibhvāyatana*, *praṇidhijñāna*, *araṇājñāna* and, according to the *Bbh*, also the four *pratisamvidjñāna* (p. 207.21–23).

in Mahāyāna texts. 484 In the Akn, the different roles of the two are neatly summed up: 485

"For what serves meditation as preparation? Fulfilment of the $abhij\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ and pristine cognition. What is $abhij\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ and what is pristine cognition? Vision of the appearance of all forms is $abhij\tilde{n}\bar{a}$. Knowledge that the dharma of all forms are imperishable without realising the imperishable Dharma is pristine cognition. Hearing of all words is $abhij\tilde{n}\bar{a}$. Knowledge that all sounds are ineffable and timeless is pristine cognition. Knowledge of the thoughts of all sentient beings is $abhij\tilde{n}\bar{a}$. Refraining from realising the cessation of thought when perceiving the cessation of thought is pristine cognition."

Broadly speaking, this characterisation holds also true for the *Bdp*. As indicated in the list of topics, the theme that follows immediately on the *dṛṣṭidharmasukhavihārāyadhyāna* phase is *abhijñā* with the discussion of pristine cognition being third. The vast majority of Buddhist sources, both Pāli and Sanskrit, expound the *abhijñā* in the following sequence: (1) *ṛddhividhijñāna*, (2) *divyaśrotrajñāna*, (3) *paracittajñāna* (also called *cetaḥparyāyajñāna*), (4) *pūrvanivāsānusmṛtijñāna*, (5) *divyacakṣujñāna* (also called *cyutyupapādajñāna*) and (6) *āsravakṣayajñāna*. As the last item, knowledge of the destruction of the *āsrava*, is a characteristic of arhantship and occurs only in the life that ends in entry into *nirvāṇa*, it is not applicable to the long-term training of the bodhisattva and Mahāyāna *sūtras* tend to exclude

^{484.} For examples among the *sūtras*, see: *Akn*, p. 49.1.2–2.2; *Pañca*, p. 514; *Daśa-bh*, pp. 34.19–24; For the *śāstras*, see, for instance: *Bbh*, p. 207.17–25; *Msg*, p. 192; *Siddhi*, p. 622.

The one exception is the Ug (p. 271.1.6-7) that indicates that the bodhisattva engages already during phase two in a teaching and conversion activity.

According to the Msg (pp. 221–224), this phase includes besides the practice of the $mah\bar{a}rddhi$ and $duskaracary\bar{a}$, the cultivation of the six $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$, the deliberate generation of ten kinds of roots of virtue, the attainment of ten buddha-qualities, the ripening of sentient beings, the purification of the buddha-field and the production of buddha-attributes.

Attainment of the five/six abhijñā manifestations is dependent on the successful practice of meditative absorption. Passages attesting this dependency are already found in the earliest strands of Buddhist literature. Thus, we read in the Samañāaphalasutta (M I, p. 77) that their presence arises only in "a concentrated mind that is pure and composed, free from fault, unstained, supple, alert, stable and wholly unperturbed". This association between meditation practice and the cultivation of the abhijñā has ever since formed the backbone to the Buddhist understanding of the abhijñā.

^{485.} Akn, p. 49.1.2-7.

^{486.} References to the six abhijñā are plentiful and spread throughout the Buddhist canon. For a selection of occurences, see: Mppś, iv, pp. 1809. For references to the abhijñā in Sanskrit literature, see: Kośa (vii, pp. 97–126), Catuṣpariṣasūtra (Waldschmidt, 1957, pp. 432–34), Daśa-bh (pp. 34–36), Pañca (pp. 83–87), Bbh (p. 58.13–18), Śikṣ (p. 243), Msl (p. 25.2–10, p. 185.11–17) and Dhsgr (§ 20).

^{487.} Of these pūrvanivāsānusmṛtijnāna, cyutyupapādajnāna and āsravakṣayajnāna correspond to the three sciences (vidyā) of the same name that the Buddha attained during the three watches in the night preceding enlightenment (D III, pp. 220, 275; A V, p. 221; Kośa, vii, p. 107).

it from their discussions of abhij $\tilde{n}a$. The Bdp is no exception.

Where it does differ from most texts, however, is the order of presentation, discussing first divyacakṣus, second divyaśrotra, third paracittajñāna, fourth pūrvanivāsānusmṛtijñāna and fifth rddhividhijñāna. 489 No reason for this change of sequence is given in the Bdp itself.

The *Dhyānasūtra* (cited in the *Mppś*) provides the following explanation.⁴⁹⁰ At first, the bodhisattva obtains divine sight. Having seen all beings, but being unable to hear their sounds, he then seeks the *abhijñā* of divine hearing. Furnished with divine sight and hearing,

^{488.} Representing this view, the *Vkn* explicitly excludes the sixth super-knowledge from the *abhijñā* practice of the bodhisattva (p. 130; trsl. Lamotte):

[&]quot;A domain where the six super-knowledge are explored, but without arriving at the knowledge

of the destruction of the impurities (āsravakṣayajñāna), such is the domain of the bodhisattva." This position is slightly qualified in the Mppś (iv, pp. 1817–18) arguing that a bodhisattva who has destroyed his impurity (kṣīṇāsrava) may elude nirvāṇa provided that the traces (vāsanā) of his impurity still prevail. Traditionally, destruction of impurity motivated by the yearning for personal liberation meant arhantship and subsequent nirvāṇa. In the Mahāyāna, this proposition was modified to make room for the ideal of the bodhisattva. Accordingly, for a bodhisattva who utterly destroyed his kleśa and the flow of vāsanā, the attainment of āsravakṣaya occurs only at the tenth stage, shortly before he achieves buddhahood. However, incomplete exhaustion of impurity, viz., with the vāsanā still intact, means that a bodhisattva—determined to utilise the remaining kleśavāsanā to prolong his liberating activity—sheds all constraints while traversing saṃsāra. Held to take place on the eighth stage (Mppś, ii, p. 1801), it enables him to assume the manifestations of the dharmadhātujakāya in this quest for universal liberation and to return to saṃsāra without fear of contamination.

The Rgv (pp. 245-6), citing the Sgm, distinguishes eight factors that prevent the bodhisattva from actually realising the destruction of the āsrava. These are (1) non-satiety in seeking merit, (2) intentional acceptance of existence through origination, (3) earnest desire to meet with the buddha, (4) indefatigability in ripening sentient beings, (5) strenuous effort to acquire the Dharma, (6) diligent application to benefiting sentient beings, (7) non-abandoning of the propensity of desire for dharma and (8) non-reluctance from fetters of the highest virtue. Referred to as 'defilements endowed with virtuous roots' (kuśalamūlasamprayuktā kleśāḥ), they fasten the bodhisattva by means of compassion to this world but protect him by means of cognition from personal exposure to worldly defilements. Springing from the cultivation of the five abhijñā fostered through meditation, all eight become collectively operational on the sixth stage (abhimukhībhūmi)—the moment when the bodhisattva comes for the first time 'face to face' with reality—and prompt him to abide in meditation in order acquire the bodhyanga (op. cit., pp. 250-2).

Also in the Rgv (op. cit., pp. 227–28) we find an interesting passage elucidating the relationship between āsravakṣaya, āsravakṣayajñāna and the five mundane abhijñā. Likening their contributions to the manifestations of a lantern, the text suggests that the worldly abhijñā have a "characteristic of engaging in (pratyupasthāna) the extinction of darkness that is opposite to knowledge which perceives an object (arthānubhava)"; that knowledge of the destruction of the āsrava resembles 'heat' because of its characteristic of engaging in consuming the fuel of the active force and defilements, leaving no residue; and that the actual destruction of the āsrava resemblance colour because of its perfect purity resulting from moral and cognitive attainments. When becoming simultaneously manifest at the 'immaculate sphere', they are inseparable from each other, identical and in union with the absolute.

In spite of the tendency to discuss all six abhijñā en bloc, there are a few texts in which āsravakṣayajñāna is excluded. Apart from a few instances in the nikāya (e.g., S II, pp. 121–22) this applies particularly to works belonging to the Sanskrit tradition, viz., Mvu (i, p. 284..3; ii, pp. 33.11, 96.1), Divya, p. 321.3; Saddhp (pp. 134.11, 141.9, 254.14) and Śikṣ (p. 243.13).

^{489.} I have found just three texts in which the abhijñā are discussed in the same sequence, that is, the Dhsgr (§ 20). Pāramitāsamāsa (Meadows, p. 228-232. vss. 40-66) and Akn (pp. 58.5.6-61.5.3). Apart from these, only the Mvy (202-208) appears to list the abhijñā in this order. Most other texts place the faculty of rddhi at the beginning of the list and the divyacaksus at the end (e.g., Pañca, pp. 460-61, Daśa-bh, pp. 35-6, M)

^{490.} Mppś, iv, p. 1823.

but still ignorant of their languages, sorrow and joys, he seeks the unique knowledge of language (niruktipratisamvid). 491 Knowledgeable in other people's languages, but ignorant of the their thought, the practitioner seeks knowledge of the thoughts of others. Still not knowing their place of origin, he sets out to acquire the abhij $\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ of their previous existence and to heal their mental ailments (cittavyādhi). For this purpose he seeks the abhijñā of the destruction of the impurities. However, even though he has mastered five abhijñā, the bodhisattva is not able to carry out transformations (nirmāna) and is therefore still unable to liberate beings in great numbers, so he resolves to pursue the abhij $\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ of magical powers.⁴⁹² The reason why the rddhividhya is generally cited at the beginning is not because it is attained before the other abhijñā, but because of its great impact on the liberation of beings.⁴⁹³ In this sense, for the bodhisattva, it is the most important of all six. Divyacaksus, on the other hand, is cited first because, being the easiest to acquire, it is the natural starting point for the pursuit of the

of the niruktipratisamvid has therefore to be seen in a Śrāvakayāna frame of reference. The view that divyaśrotrajñāna does not lend itself to understanding languages and sounds is not found in Mahāyāna works (Mpps, i, pp. 330-31, 1822; Bbh, pp. 67.25-69.10). On the contrary, it is highly valued and figures among the chief benefits that accrue to the bodhisattya from meditative practice (Msg., p. 224, § 8.8–9).

493. In fact, the Mpps (iv, p. 1820) states quite emphatically that the advanced nature of the cognitive requirements for the attainment of the rddhi are such that, being linked with space and observing the mark of emptiness, it cannot but stand at the end of a long process of schooling. A similar view is also held by the Kośa (vii, p. 104), adding that this preparation (prayoga) leads in each and every case to mastery (vasitā) in rddhi, that is the eighth of the ten vasitā that manifest on the acalābhūmi (Dasa-bh,

p. 71.15-16).

^{491.} Clearly, this reference to the niruktipratisamvid comes as a surprise and raises some questions about the scope of the divyaśrotrajñāna. Does the text indicate that the attainment of the niruktipratisamvid precedes the acquisition of the abhijñā? What is the relationship between the divyaśrotrajñāna and niruktipratisamvid? The idea in the Dhyānasūtra is that the divyaśrotrajñāna enables the bodhisattva merely to hear the sounds of all beings—not to understand their meaning. This interpretation is borne out in several other passages where the cognitive factors are suspiciously omitted (e.g., Mpps, iv, p. 1822). Conceptually, however, both types of knowledge operate on the same level as the divyaśrotrajñāna and niruktipratisamvid, operating in the kāmadhātu and the first dhyāna, fall into the category of saṃvṛtijñāna (Mppś, ii, p. 1042, iii, p. 1619). Thus, while it may carry personal benefit, for a compassionate practitioner to win maximum benefit from the divyaśrotrajñāna—for both himself and others—the text advises him to complement it with knowledge of vocal expressions (nirukti). The key to a correct understanding of the appearance of the concept of niruktipratisamvid is found when recalling that in the *Dhyānasūtra* we have a text belonging to early Buddhism. Its interpretation

^{492.} According to the Mpps (ii, p. 1043) the bodhisattva's power of transformation increases with his advance through the four dhyāna stages. It springs from the thought of creation (nirmānacitta) and, during the first dhyāna, is operational on the kāmadhātu. During the successive stages it functions also in the rūpadhātu (cf. Kośa, vii, p. 114). As all types of rddhi have matter as object (rūpālambana), arising successively, the bodhisattva is compelled—should he wish to see, hear or touch any object—to call again on the cognition of the Brahmaloka experienced during the first dhyāna (Mpps, i, p. 330). Altogether, one distinguishes fourteen different types of nirmānacitta, accomplishing eight kinds of creation. These include decrease, increase, taking away weight, exercising power (vasitvakarana) over physical shapes, possessing the superhuman power of Indra, drawing apart and together, causing earthquakes and personal transformation. Finally, there are four additional types of creation that address transformation of substances. These spring either from learning in magic, the $abhij\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$, the forces of retribution and meditation—all dealing invariably with matter—and are bound to the kāmadhātu $(Mpp\dot{s}, i, pp. 381-3).$

abhijñā.494

In the Bdp, the rationale behind the cultivation of $abhij\tilde{n}a$ is twofold. By means of those $abhij\tilde{n}a$ that involve cognition, the bodhisattva gains a complete picture of samsāric existence and penetrates the processes that sustain and perpetuate its continuum ad infinitum. Exposing him to the vastness of sorrow that particularly prevails in the evil destinies, they strengthen his resolve to dedicate all resources to its complete eradication. This cognitive aspect of the first four $abhij\tilde{n}a$ is complemented by a second, active element that shows the ways in which their cosmic knowledge has an immediate, practical effect on the training proper. The most effective of these means is provided by $rddhividhyabhij\tilde{n}a$ itself. As it depends for profitable implementation on knowledge acquired through the four preceding $abhij\tilde{n}a$, it is cited in the Bdp in last position.

The actual division into cognitive and practical elements is somewhat blurred in the Bdp, since its functional demarcation is not always implemented. This is particularly true of the divyacak sus that is credited with immediate and de facto influence on the conduct of beings. For example, it said to grant the bodhisattva power over the moral conduct of beings and to introduce beings to the practice of the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$: 500

^{494.} The distinction between 'easy' and 'difficult' abhijñā applies to all beings except the most advanced bodhisattva. This, at least, is the reason that is given by the *Mppś* in reply to the question why the bodhisattva Śākyamuni, during the night preceding his enlightenment, began his abhijñā practice with the *rddhi* and not the *divyacaksus* (*Mppś*, iv, p. 1825).

^{495.} R, folio 553.3-5.

^{496.} R. folio 555.5.

^{497.} A survey of the types of *iddhi/rddhi* that arhants and bodhisattvas attain in the course of their career is given below, note 516.

^{498.} According to the *Mpps* (i, pp. 330–31), divine sight falls into two major categories, depending on the causes that lead to its unfolding. First, there is the kind that arises from exercise (*bhāvanā*). This form of divine sight is wholly based on the practice of the *abhijñā* and is undoubtedly the kind exhibited in the *Bdp*. The second kind of *divyacakṣus* arises on the basis of retribution (*vipāka*). Strictly speaking, its presence is independent of training in the *abhijñā* as it arises on the basis of insight. To be precise, it is only attained by bodhisattvas who, having reached the 'conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*', are not found in the six destinies but appear by virtue of their *dharmakāya* in the world in order to convert beings. This form of *divyacakṣus* is not found among worldly, newly-set-out bodhisattvas who have not attained the *dharmakāya*.

^{499.} R, folio 554.2.

^{500.} R, folio 555.3-556.1

In the Ratnolkadhāraņī (Śikṣ, p. 328.1–9; trsl. Bendall) we read in connection with the effects of miraculous feats:

[&]quot;Some instruct all creatures in a thousand expedient by means of the Tathāgata's worship, by means of infinite gifts and generosity, by means of the practice of all [types of] asceticism, some by means of indestructible and imperturbable patience, by means of the heroism of austerity and vows, by means of meditation and calm in the hermitage, by means of the knowledge discriminating what is good, by means of thousands of expedients ... by means of the miracles of the conduct of the great vehicle" (cf. *Mpps*, pp. 1049, 1111; *Siks*, pp. 334–7).

The Bbh (p. 210.3–17) adds that the bodhisattva who is established in the dhyānapāramitā disciplines sentient beings by the three types of miraculous display (rddhiprātihārya), that he grants elocution to the ill-spoken and bestows memory to the forgetful.

"His divine sight means that he does not show hostility towards those who seek [instruction]; that he is not angered by those who transgress the moral precepts, but that he watches over their harmful thoughts. It means that he encourages the indolent and instructs the agitated in the branches of meditation. It gives true sight of wisdom to those who are of aberrant wisdom."

Spanning much of saṃsāra⁵⁰¹, the divyacakṣus is particularly important since it endorses the bodhisattva's vision of suffering and liberation. On the one hand, it generates awareness of and compassion towards the afflicted sentient beings—the raison d'être of the vow itself.⁵⁰² On the other hand, allowing for glimpses at the state of buddhahood, it kindles a personal ambition and encourages in times of weariness.⁵⁰³ Both points are clearly expressed in the Bdp and, although conceptually not correlated, unmistakably form the backbone to its treatment of the divyacakṣus.⁵⁰⁴

The twofold approach, distinguishing cognitive and practical elements, is also adopted in the discussion of divine hearing (divyaśrotra). Here, the point is made that the bodhisattva's

The Msl (p. 143.8-10) distinguishes five kinds of sight springing from the cultivation of rddhipāda. These are the (1) eye of flesh (māmsacakṣus), (2) divine sight (divyacakṣus), (3) noble vision of wisdom (āryaprajñācakṣus), (4) Dharma-vision (dharmacakṣus) and (5) the buddha-vision (buddhacakṣus).

502. This thought is of course not exclusive to the *Bdp*, but occurs in most Mahāyāna sūtras where the abhijñā are discussed (cf. *Mpps*, ii, pp. 1055-6). That it found its place with this role into the scheme of the path at a very early stage is attested by a passage in the *Asta* (p. 403; trsl. Conze) where we read that:

"[The bodhisattva] surveys countless beings with his heavenly eye, and what he sees fills him with great agitation: so many carry the burden of a karma which leads to immediate retribution in the hell, other have acquired unfortunate rebirth, other are doomed to be killed, or they are enveloped in the net of false views, or fail to find the path, while other who have gained a fortunate rebirth have lost it again. And he attends to them with the thought that: 'I shall become a saviour to all those beings, I shall release them from all their suffering.'"

503. R, folio 554.3-5:

"Having seen [the congregation of buddhas and bodhisattvas], the divine sight prompts the bodhisattva to accomplish the armour of the holy person, [to acquire] correct conduct and practice, recollection (smṛti), mindfulness (saṃprajāna), steadfastness in the path and in pristine cognition [showing that] all dharma are liberated, skill in pristine cognition in the attainment of dhāranī including skill in wisdom, knowledge and means."

504. Both points are, for instance, raised next to each other in R, folio 553.2-554.3.

^{501.} Strictly speaking, the divyacakṣus operates—like the rddhi and divyaśrotra and, according to some, also the paracittajñāna and cyutyupapādajñāna—only in the kāmadhātu and rūpadhātu as it depends for its objects on matter. Hence it arises only from the four dhyāna and not from the formless samāpatti (Kośa, vii, p. 102). In the Kośabhāṣya (pp. 429.17-430.3) we are told that the scope of the divyacakṣus varies according to the persons who generate it. If they do not make any specific effort, śrāvaka are able of survey one Sāhasra universe, pratyekabuddhas one Dvisāhasra universe and buddhas one Trisāhasra universe. However, should they apply themselves to the divyacakṣus vision, śrāvaka can extend their sight to one Dvisāhasra universe, pratyekabuddhas to one Trisāhasra universe and buddhas to infinite universes. Like the divyaśrotra, the divyacakṣus is only attainable by persons who have eliminated all desire. This state is achieved when the practitioners is freed from all passions pertaining to the kāmadhātu when he embarks on the dhyāna of the rūpadhātu (Mpps, v, p. 2273).

capability to understand the whole range of sound—human and non-human—has important implications not only because it allows him to grasp the teaching in their true compassion-inducing spirit and retain them in their entirety⁵⁰⁵, but moreover, to transmit these faithfully to his audience.⁵⁰⁶ In particular, it enables the bodhisattva to attune his discourses to the need and receptivity of his listeners.⁵⁰⁷ For the *Bdp* the ground that is covered by the *divyaśrotra* is therefore in many ways comparable to that of the Mahāyāna conception of *niruktipratisaṃvid*, a point which as was already made in connection with a reference in the *Dhyānasūtra*.

The third abhijñā, knowledge of the thought of others (paracittajñāna), grants insight into the mental disposition of all beings, irrespective of spatial or temporal constraints. In particular it allows the bodhisattva to assess the degree that their faculties have been exposed to, or moulded by, the bodhisattva practices⁵⁰⁸ and so permits him to ease beings into the appropriate vehicle.⁵⁰⁹ The main purpose of learning other people's thought is therefore to dispense instruction in the most suitable way.⁵¹⁰

"Even though [the bodhisattva] goes among his listeners, he discerns all of them immediately; and having discerned [their aptitude], he teaches the Dharma to sentient beings in exact accordance with their disposition."

Since it influences the speed and success rate of the bodhisattva's conversion activity—the only gauge against which his progress is ultimately measured—knowledge of the thought of others clearly plays an important role.

The fourth $abhij\tilde{n}a$, knowledge of the recollection of previous births $(p\bar{u}rvaniv\bar{a}s\bar{a}nusmrtij\tilde{n}ana)$ is aimed chiefly at the bodhisattva's personal advance. According to the Bdp, the main benefit of this type of knowledge is not so much the recollection of the previous existences $per\ se$, but penetration into the circumstances that brought them about in the first place. The rationale behind this emphasis is the need for awareness of the mechanisms

^{505.} R, folio 558.2.

^{506.} R, folio 558.6.

^{507.} R, folio 558.7-559.2.

^{508.} R, folio 560.6-61.3.

^{509.} R, folio 562.3-563.2.

^{510.} R, folio 564.4-5.

^{511.} For discussion of the psychological processes that underlie the pūrvanivāsānusmṛtijñāna and their parallels in Indian systems contemporary to the Buddha, see Eliade: Yoga: Immortality and Freedom, 1969, pp. 180–85, 186–199. Consult also Demiéville, P.: "La mémoire des existences antérieures" (BEFEO, 1927, pp. 283–98) from which much of Eliade's detail is drawn.

^{512.} R, folio 566.6-67.2.

that determine becoming and the assumption of a suitable attitude towards existence. In particular, it has the benefit of preventing conceit to arise:⁵¹³

"O Śāriputra, taking into account [the marks of] suffering, transience, non-self and emptiness, the bodhisattva is not infatuated with beauty, wealth, servants, sovereignty or with a yearning to become a *cakravartin*, Indra, Brahmā and world-guardian ... assuming these existences intentionally (*saṃcintya*) only in order to ripen all sentient beings."

He acknowledges, disapproves and repents his previous impure action and undertakes to dedicate his roots of virtue to the cause of enlightenment.⁵¹⁴ Pledging to continue the lineages of the three jewels, the bodhisattva sustains his recollection through the supporting power of the *dharmadhātu* that leads to equipment in *punya*, *jñāna* and *pāramitā*, since:⁵¹⁵

"It is in this way that all the *dharma* of the past, present and future are kept in memory by the power that generated this recollection."

That such an accumulation of qualities is foremost a personal achievement is amply documented in Buddhist literature. Also in the *Bdp* training in the recollection of previous births is primarily of personal benefit and has little immediate impact on others.

In contrast the *abhijñā* of magical power (rddhi) is entirely oriented towards the spiritual advance of sentient beings. While many texts diverge on the scope and kinds of magical power that are included in $rddhi^{516}$, virtually all agree that its prime objective is the conversion

^{513.} R, folio 567.2-5.

^{514.} R, folio 567.6-7.

^{515.} R, folio 568.1-5, folio 568.5-7.

^{516.} Compare, for instance, the types of *iddhi* in the S V, p. 264 with those cited in the *Daśa-bh* (pp. 34–36). Later Mahāyāna scholars produced further subdivisions that allocate the *rddhi* elements to thematic groups. A good example of such academic digression is found in the *Mppś* (ii, pp. 329–30). Here, distinguished by their character as either displacement (gamana), creation (nirmāṇa) or noble magic power (āryarddhi), the *rddhipāda* fall into three major categories. The gamana-class consists of four *rddhi* types, that is (1) unobstructed movement by flying like a bird, (2) instantaneous change of location, (3) plunging and emerging and (4) instantaneous disappearance. The *rddhi* of the *nirmāṇa*-class consist in the change of the (1) size, (2) power of multiplication and (3) the possibility to create at will whatever is desired. Finally, the *rddhi* of the āryarddhi-class concern the conversion of impure substances into pure ones. This last type of *rddhi* is held to be available only to a Buddha (cf. D III, p. 112; Kośa, vii, p. 111, viii, p. 210). According to the Kośa (vii, p. 113), the gamana-class of *rddhi* comprises only three *rddhi*, that is transportation, miracles (adhimokṣa) and rapid displacement with the speed of thought. Adopting a slightly different classification, the Kośa distinguishes *rddhi* by the method of production (vii, pp. 122–3). Accordingly, on one level, it differentiates between *rddhi* stemming from cultivation (*bhāvanā*)

of beings.⁵¹⁷ With this function, *rddhi* assumed great importance in the Mahāyāna where their application is strongly encouraged and praised as a factor of immense potency. This thoroughly positive attitude constituted a departure from the dogmatism and more cautious approach among the more conservative circles of early Buddhism. In many Pāli sources, the Buddha appears to endorse their performance only hesitantly and with a series of stringent reservations.⁵¹⁸

517. E.g., Mppś (iv, pp. 1819–22), Śgs (p. 221), Daśa-bh (p. 36), Saddhp (pp. 72.1–78.5), Bbh (pp. 63.1–69.10, 152.10–14), Msl (p. 185.10–16) and Msg (p. 294, § 15).

The other important use to which the *rddhi* are put to is that of *buddhapūja*. Several treatises mention this as a specific purpose of the bodhisattva's attainments in *rddhi* (e.g., *Mppś*, ii, p. 1055, *Saddhp*, pp. 404-422).

Compare with the list that is given in the *Msl* (pp. 142.13–143.16) distinguishing six types of realising the *rddhipāda*, consisting of (1) sight (*darśana*), (2) instruction (*avavāda*), (3) stable miraculous power (*sthitivikrādita*), (4) resolution (*praṇidha*), (5) mastery (*vaśitā*), (6) Dharma attainment (*dharmaprāpti*).

518. The question of the Buddha's attitude to the use *iddhi* as part of the conversion process has long occupied Buddhist scholarship. The single most important source for this controversy has always been the *Kevaddhasutta* (D III, pp. 211–15). In a series of comments in the introduction to his translation of the *Kevaddhasutta*, TW Rhys Davids suggests that the Buddha strongly disapproved of their use. Half a century later, this proposition was taken up by Louis Gomez, arguing that the Buddha rejected the use of *iddhi* chiefly because two of three types of wondrous display (*pāṭihāriya*) are not the exclusive property of the enlightened and are available to practitioners of the magical arts of Gandhāra (Gomez, in: Lancaster, 1977, p. 221). The validity of this argument has been challenged by Gethin on the basis of an alleged linguistic misinterpretation (Gethin, 1987, p. 196). The gist of Gethin's criticism of this position revolves around the assumption that the practice of the *iddhi* were 'unnatural' to the nikāya in the sense that stand apart from Buddhist practice. Springing from meditative absorption just as the *jhāna*, the *iddhi* appear indeed fully integrated into the śrāvaka training. The reason why the Buddha disapproved of Kevaddha's request for an *iddhi* demonstration, he argues, is not because he dismissed *iddhi* as such but because he feared that the public display of their kind would yield no tangible results in terms of conversion.

Arguing that for the faithful, the performance of miracles would only serve to reinforce the trust and amazement that they hold anyway, while the sceptic would dismiss it as a magical trick with no deeper significance, Gethin contends that the Buddha thought the same way. As a result, in contrast with those monks who were willing to comply and conjure miracles, the attainments of the arhant would clearly lose in standing for the laity—an effect the Buddha had clearly every interest to avoid. While somewhat failing to explain the Buddha's apparent readiness to endorse the other two types of wondrous display, that is the wondrous display of mind-reading (ādesanā) and the wondrous display of instruction (anusāsanī), Gethin's argument has undeniable attractions. Above all, it tallies well with the Vinaya rule (ii, p. 112; trsl. Gethin) that the Buddha pronounced in response to Piṇḍola Bhāradvāja's performance of miracles before the inhabitants of Rājagaha:

"O monks, a display of miraculous *iddhi* beyond the capacity of ordinary men is not to be exhibited to the householders. If someone exhibits [such], there is a *dukkaṭa* offence."

The reason that given in support of this rule is that:

"It is neither [conducive] to trust for those without trust, nor to growth for those with trust. Indeed, O monks, it is [conducive] to lack of trust for those without trust and to loss [of trust] for some of those with trust."

Today, it is of course impossible to know for certain what exactly led the Buddha to this attitude. Buddhist sources record several well-known instances in the early days of his ministry where he seemed quite prepared to engage in the public display of *iddhi*. Perhaps, he was guided in this judgement by his personal experience at Uruvelā, when hoping to convert Kassapa, the ascetic, he was confronted with the absurd situation of a 'thraumaturgic impasse'.

The Kośa (vii, pp. 111-12) cites as additional reason for the Buddha's apparent criticism of the display of rddhi the fact that rddhiprātihārya (as well as ādeśanāprātihārya) captivates the minds of the audience for only a short time, while the anuśāsanīprātihārya inspires the production of wholesome and benefiting

or meditation (dhyāna) and innate (upapattilābhikā) rddhi. Expanding on this division, it considers also rddhi springing from spells (mantrakrta), rddhi springing from herbs (oṣadhikrta) and rddhi springing from acts (karmaja) as distinct categories of rddhi. As it does not give examples of these five classes, concentrating instead on further ever more complex subdivisions, we are dealing here probably with a division of little but academic bearing.

By the time the earliest Mahāyāna sūtras appeared, much of the disquiet about the suitability of miracles to further the cause of Buddhism had apparently evaporated. The rich imagery found in the Saddhp⁵¹⁹ and the tentative inclusion of miraculous feats in the otherwise rather technical discussions of the Aṣṭa⁵²⁰ bear testimony to their early presence in Mahāyāna literature.

Whatever the dissent concerning the use to which *rddhi* could be put, Pāli and Sanskrit works show broad agreement on the conditions that lead to their mastery. In virtually every source that discusses the performance of *rddhi*, we learn that they depend for generation on extensive and deep meditation.⁵²¹ In particular, acquisition of magical powers is associated with training in the four bases of success (*rddhipāda*).⁵²²

attitudes. Hence the firm affirmation that anuśāsanīprātihārya is the best form a miraculous display (prātihārya).

^{519.} The Saddhp contains what is probably the best known early example of the use of rddhi for benefiting others in Mahāyāna sūtras. The passage I have in mind is, of course, that of the image of the burning house conjured up in order to encourage sentient beings to leave the world and follow the path of Buddhism (pp. 72.1–78.5). Other examples of rddhi are found in chapter fourteen (op. cit., pp. 297–314) describing the emergence of bodhisattvas from suddenly appearing gaps in the earth.

^{520.} Asta, pp. 381, 383-4, 464a-465, 466.

^{521.} The fullest canonical account of the method of their generation is found in the *Paţis* (ii, pp. 205-6). Here, we read that the *iddhi* depend for unfolding on four 'planes of success' (*iddhiyābhūmiyo*), on the four *iddhipāda*, on 'eight footings of success' (*iddhiyāpadāni*) and on 'sixteen roots of success' (*iddhiyāmūlāni*). Referring to this passage in the *Vism* (xii.49-50, 54-5), Buddhaghoṣa explains that the four levels are nothing but the four *jhāna* (xii.49); that the eight footings denote the *iddhipāda*—each one considered from the aspect of concentration and from that of its basis (that is *chanda*, *viriya*, *citta* and *vīmaṃsā*)—and that the sixteen roots target the various obstacles that perturb consciousness (xii.54-55). He adds that before a monk can become proficient in the seven *iddhi*, he has to master all eight 'basic absorptions', meaning that he is capable of entering each of the eight attainments on the basis of all eight *kasiṇa* at will (*Vism* xii.2-7). Although held to be extremely difficult to achieve and therefore limited to very few, he allows for the option that, besides buddhas and pratyekabuddhas, very advanced disciples may acquire *iddhi* at the threshold of arhantship (xii.11).

^{522.} In the Pāli Canon, the *iddhipāda* are regularly presented in the following stereotyped description (D II, pp. 213-4; trsl. Gethin):

[&]quot;Here a monk develops the basis of success that is furnished both with concentration (samādhi) gained by means of desire to act (chanda), and with forces of endeavour (padhānasamkhāra). He develops the basis of success that is furnished both with concentration gained by means of vigour (viriya) and with forces of endeavour. He develops the basis of success that is furnished both with concentration gained by means of mind (citta) and with forces of endeavour. He develops the basis of success that is furnished both with concentration gained by means of investigation and with forces of endeavour."

As indicated by this brief passage, the $iddhip\bar{a}da$ consist primarily in an interplay of three elements: meditation, forces of endeavour and the four factors that bring about absorption (chanda, viriya, citta, $v\bar{i}ma\eta s\bar{a}$). It is therefore slightly incorrect to associate the bases of success with any of these three factors in particular. The commentaries on the Samyuttanikāya and Vibhanga leave no doubt that the significance of the interaction lies in the sustaining and promoting of the process of meditative attainments (Vibh, § 303).

The exact nature of *chanda*, *viriya*, *citta* and $v\bar{i}mamps\bar{a}$ is left undiscussed in most *iddhipāda* contexts of the nikāya. Gethin points to an simile in the Sv (ii, pp. 642–3), indicating that their chief objective is to represent progressively easier means of achieving one's purpose—the person who is endowed with $v\bar{i}mamps\bar{a}$ being in the best position (Gethin, p. 174).

This view tallies approximately with the interpretations found in the Sanskrit sources of the northern tradition. Here, chanda-, viriya-, citta- and mīmāmsāsamādhi are typically interpreted as mental one-

Generation of four bases of success is also the point of departure for the *Bdp's* exposition on *rddhi*, where their presence becomes a chief requirement for any kind of magical prodigy (*rddhiprātihārya*).⁵²³ Of particular interest is the *Bdp's* listing of desire, intimidation and sovereignty alongside the traditional *rddhipāda* of *chanda*, *vīrya*, *citta* and *mīmāṃsā*.⁵²⁴ The reason for their presence becomes clear when we look at the areas in which the bodhisattva's magical force is displayed. First, setting out to attract following by addressing people's yearning for physical beauty, he assumes exquisite shapes and colours.⁵²⁵ Second, by demonstrating immense strength, the bodhisattva disheartens conceited, wrathful or presumptuous beings, thereby creating favourable conditions for their instruction in the Dharma.⁵²⁶ Finally, equipped with *rddhipāda*, the bodhisattva generates vast miraculous powers (*adhiṣthāna*) that allow him to transform phenomena at will.⁵²⁷ By so doing, he creates

pointedness attained through proper application of zeal, constant application of vīrya, the power of concentration previously cultivated, hearing the Dharma and insight (Abhidh-sam (R), p. 121). In close concurrence with the Pāli formula, Sanskrit sources speak of the first rddhipāda as being furnished with chandasamādhi and prahāṇasaṃskāra, with chandasamādhi being acquired through the strengthening (adhipati) of chanda and so forth for vīrya, etc. Sanskrit sources do not identify the prahāṇasaṃskāra with vīrya (as they propose for the four samyakprahāṇa), but associate it with desire to act (chanda), striving (vyāyāma), faith (śraddhā), peace (praśrabdhi), mindfulness (smṛti), clear comprehension (saṃprajanya), volition (cetāna) and equipoise (upekṣā), (Satya (S), ii, p. 42; Abhidh-sam (R), p. 121; Mvś, p. 51.11–52.3, iv.4).

For a considered assessment of the place of the *iddhipāda* in the Buddhist path, see: Gethin, 1987, pp. 155-199).

523. According to the Śgs (p. 221), rddhiprātihārya are manifested in eighteen different kinds. However, the text does not elaborate on the nature of these eighteen types and I have found no passage that could be interpreted to illuminate this reference.

A concise Mahāyāna definition of the three types of miraculous display (prātihārya) is found in the Rgv (p. 363):

"It is indicated that the omnipresence [of the Buddha] through the display (vikurvita) of the body in all the worlds of the ten directions constitutes the miraculous display through feats (rddhiprātihārya). The illumination of the thicket of mental conduct of living beings, as involved in the mind, by knowing the variety of thoughts is the miraculous display through mind-reading (ādešanāprātihārya). And with reference to the path leading to deliverance, [the Buddha] preaches and instructs in the path by the example of the utterances of his voice—this is the miraculous display through instructions (anušasatiprātihārya)."

- 524. R, folio 569.3.
- 525. R, folio 569.6-70.2

Similar, but more elaborate descriptions of the lengths the bodhisattva is prepared to go in transforming his body are found in the *Vkn* (pp. 183–184; cit. in Śikṣ, pp. 324–27), *Ratnolkadhāraṇī*(Śikṣ, pp. 330.13–332.8) and *Mppś* (ii, p. 984; cf. p. 1055).

On the contributions of krtsnāyatana, vimokṣa and abhibhvāyatana to the transformation powers of the bodhisattva, see: Mppś, iv, pp. 1820–21, iii, pp. 1291–1307.

- 526. R, folio 570.3-71.2.
- 527. R, folio 571.3-2

The meaning of the term *adhiṣṭhāna* is somewhat ambiguous in this place. Although it may carry several meanings, on contextual grounds, I do not believe that any other translation than 'miraculous power' is appropriate here (Edgerton, pp. 15-16). Being itself a widely attested meaning, it occurs with this sense several times in similar contexts in the Sgs (pp. 187, 194, 196, 212, 222).

In this section, the *Bdp* proposes that a bodhisattva who possesses the *adhisthāna* of miraculous power becomes capable of performing feats of magnification and diminution on a vast scale, such as reducing the size of the ocean to a cow's footprint and *vice versa*. This example and others are reminiscent of passages in the *Vkn*, describing similar feats (*Vkn*, pp. 138–39, 140).

immense rapture in his audience, prompting his listeners to adopt the Buddhist faith and resolve to work for enlightenment themselves.⁵²⁸

A further peculiarity is the type of classification that the Bdp proposes for rddhi. In later Mahāyāna writings, rddhi is generally differentiated by its areas of operation. The best known division is that of the Bbh where rddhi is distinguished by action affecting transformation $(p\bar{a}rin\bar{a}mika)^{529}$ and by action affecting creation $(nairm\bar{a}nika)^{530}$ Elsewhere, this twofold classification is extended by a third aspect, displacement (gamana), allowing the bodhisattva to appear in every location at will. The rddhi classification of the Bdp into form $(r\bar{u}pa)$, power (bala), miraculous power $(adhisth\bar{a}na)$ and prodigy $(rddhipr\bar{a}tih\bar{a}rya)$ has a much narrower focus, since its members are specifically designed to eradicate tendencies of desire $(k\bar{a}ma)$ and intimidation $(vibh\bar{i}sana)$. Consequently, the display of rddhi shows little diversity and concentrates on the impact of $r\bar{u}pa$, bala and $adhisth\bar{a}na$.

The Bdp next distinguishes the scope of the $abhij\tilde{n}a$ from that of pristine cognition $(j\tilde{n}ana)$. This difference is primarily one of focus. That is to say, to a bodhisattva the $abhij\tilde{n}a$ are less

- 528. R. folio 572.1-4.
- 529. According to the Msg (p. 221), rddhi of transformation allows the bodhisattva to set in motion (kampana) houses, etc.; to set his body ablaze (jvalana); to illuminate (spharaṇa); to render visible (vidarśana); to transform the four great elements (anyathībhāvakaraṇa); to come and go in saṃsāra freely (gamanā); to decrease and increase phenomena (saṃkṣepaprathana); to insert all matter into his body (sarvarūpakāyapraveśana); to adapt to the customs of others (sabhāgatopasaṃkrānti); to appear and disappear with a great retinue (āvirbhāvatirobhāva); to submit other beings to his will (vaśitvakaraṇa); to overpower the magical powers of others (pararddhyabhibhava); to grant insight (pratibhādāna), memory (smṛtidāna) and bliss (sukhadāna) and to emit light-rays (raśmipramokṣa).

 This list is also found in the Bbh (pp. 58.23-59.2). Cf. Msl (pp. 148.14-153.10) and Daśa-bh (pp. 34-35,
- 530. In the *Bbh* (p. 63.25), *rddhi* of creation involves either the body (*kāyanirmāṇa*) giving rise to appearance similar or different from the complexion of the agent, or creation of voice (*vāgnirmāṇa*) with the sole purpose of teaching the Dharma. In the *Buddhabhūmišāstra* (6, p. 318, col. 2; 7, p. 325, col. 1–2; ref. Lamotte), however, a third dimension, that of the mind (*cittanirmāṇa*) is added to the creation of body and voice, giving rise to images in the bodhisattva's own mind (*svasaṃbaddha*) or in that of other beings (*parasambaddha*), (cf. *Siddhi*, pp. 794–795).
- 531. *Mppś*, i, pp. 328–30.
- 532. R, folio 569.3.
- 533. I have found only one other text that cites these three aspects as distinct elements in its *rddhi* discussion. This is the *Ratnolkadhāraṇī* (Śikṣ, p. 330.11) where we come across the following sentence:
 - "With miracles of *radhi* manifesting the psychic powers of the Tathāgata, through form, miraculous power and strength altogether (*samantāt*), through their ability of mind-reading, through revealing (*anuśāstrī*) their *radhi* they convert sentient beings."

The Kośa (vii, p. 119), citing as example the longevity of Mahākāśyapa's bones (Divya, p. 61), holds the view that the factor of adhiṣṭhāna furnishes the miraculous feasts of bodhisattvas with a life-span well beyond that of their creator. Manifested in the thought 'it shall last' that is generated before the miracle, it furnishes the feat with unlimited life. This position, however, has been challenged in other texts, arguing that the long duration of miracles accompanied by adhiṣṭhāna is founded in protection granted by the gods (Nyāyabindu, p. 47, trsl., Bibl. Indica Series).

I do not know Pedersen's (p. 110) reasons for translating *adhiṣṭhāna* here as 'blessing'—a highly enigmatic rendering that does not seem to fit the context, leading to sentences such as: "The teachings of the bases of *rddhi* of all blessing-thought can all be developed by the bodhisattva-*mahāsattva* in accordance with the object of his blessing-thought" (op. cit., p. 110).

important for the knowledge they impart than for the contribution they make to the active aspects of his training. They allow him to traverse the fields of all buddhas, to appear in the five spheres of existence and to overwhelm with brightness even the most purified heavenly abodes. The $abhij\tilde{n}a$ have therefore immediate bearing on the bodhisattva's conversion activity. Pristine cognition, in contrast, operates on the cognitive plane. Where the $abhij\tilde{n}a$ generate unlimited sound perception, $j\tilde{n}ana$ realises ineffability. When the $abhij\tilde{n}a$ allow the bodhisattva to observe the minds of all beings, $j\tilde{n}ana$ sees the cessation and non-cessation of thought. In other words, while he is dependent for his active training on the $abhij\tilde{n}a$, it is to $j\tilde{n}ana$ that he owes insight into the frame of reference in which they manifest.

The bodhisattva learns of the mental defilements that pervade *saṃsāra* through the branches of *dhyāna* and his miraculous powers of mind (*cittādhiṣṭhāna*). This inspires him to win *dhyāna* in equal number. Thus committed (*samādāna*) and sustained by the conviction of the equality of practice, he achieves a high degree of concentration (*samāhita*) and attainment (*samāpatti*) in sameness. 537

On the basis of this insight, the bodhisattva acquires tranquillity⁵³⁸ and discernment. These

^{534.} R, folio 573.2-5.

^{535.} Compare this picture of the relationship between the abhij $i\bar{a}$ and cognition with the account that is given in the Kośa (vii, pp. 98-112). Here the abhijñā (vii, pp. 100-1), given the same status as all other religious practices, represent the knowledge of the path of deliverance (vimuktimārgaprajñā). The rddhi, divyacaksus, divyaśrotra and pūrvanivāsānusmrtijñāna belong to the sphere of conventional knowledge (samvrtijñāna). The abhijñā manifesting paracittajñāna allows specifically for the attainment of dharmajñāna, anvayajñāna, mārgajñāna, samvrtijñāna and, of course, paracittajñāna. As the āsravaksayajñāna (resembling the tenth of the tathāgatabala), it leads to six or ten types of knowledge (Mpps, iii, pp. 1472, 1508) and belongs to all stages of dhyāna (Kośa, vii, p. 101). The first five abhijñā, in contrast, leaning on the four dhyāna but not on the arūpyasamāpatti for their object, consist of matter and are always bound to the dhyāna stage (or the next lower one) on which they became manifest (Kośa, vii, p. 104). All abhijñā are either acquired by means of detachment (vairāgya) if already practised in previous lives, or are otherwise mastered by present effort (prayoga). Founded on the practice of mindfulness, they correspond to specific bases of mindfulness (Kośa, vii, pp. 105-7). The abhijñā of rddhi, divyacaksus and divyaśrotra correspond to the kāyasmrtyupasthāna since they have matter as their object (cf. Mpps, iii, pp. 1121-2). The abhijñā of paracittajñāna includes the smrtyupasthāna of vedanā, citta and dharma because it has thought and mentation as its object. Finally, the abhijñā of pūrvanivāsānusmrtijñāna and āsravaksayajñāna, having as their objects the five skandha, have as their nature all four smrtyupasthāna (Kośa, vii, p. 106). In moral terms, all six abhijñā—but for the divyacaksus and divyaśrotra—are wholesome (śubha) since they improve spiritual practice (Kośa, vii, p. 107).

^{536.} R, folio 573.7-74.1.

^{537.} R, folio 574.5-7 (cf. folio 574.7-75.1)

In the Akn (p. 49.2.4), the argument runs slightly different, suggesting that the bodhisattva becomes concentrated because he is established (sthita) in sameness and not because he is accomplished in meditation. On the other points, however, both texts concur closely. The doctrinal foundation at the heart of this thought is well-known from a number of other, perhaps earlier, Mahāyāna sūtras. It is found, for instance, in the Śgs (pp. 125, 131, 133, 139, 234) and Vkn (pp. 55-56, 122-23 and the whole of chapter vii, discussing non-duality (advaya)).

^{538.} Here, in an effort to describe the composure of the bodhisattva's disposition it is likened to the stability of the four *mahābhūta*. This is a well-known simile that occurs in a number of Mahāyāna *sūtras* (e.g., *Akn*, p. 49.4.3-4) describing the bodhisattva's serenity of mind.

allow him to manifest all forms of worldly activity without ever ceasing to uphold his practice (dharma) and meditation (samāhita). 539 It frees his practice from dithering and commotion, leads to moderation in speech (amukharatā), equips him with knowledge of suitable meditation conditions and sustains serenity.⁵⁴⁰ In the Rcd, it is explicitly stated that 'entry into certainty' (nyāmāvakrānti), realisation of attained fruits and non-accumulation (anabhisamskāra) are not the aims of meditation. 541 Its chief function consists less of realising attainments (here epitomised by the trivimoksa) than to guide other people towards them. 542 Thus, even when meditating on 'emptiness furnished with the best of all excellent forms' (sarvakāravaropetaśūnyatā) that allows him to see the non-arising of dharma, the bodhisattva persists in his altruistic outlook. He generates conduct that is indiscriminating, faultless and unconcerned with its own flavour (svarasavāhin).⁵⁴³ By virtue of his meditation, he achieves

This list of attributes is the closest the Bdp comes in spelling out the benefits that accrue through meditation. In contrast with the other perfections, Buddhist sūtras produced relatively few of such lists on dhyāna. One example of such rare enumeration is found in the Samādh, distinguishing the following ten kinds of benefits: (1) persistence in training, (2) performing good conduct, (3) living a life free from affliction, (4) possessing well-guarded faculties, (5) experiencing joy, (6) liberation from desire, (7) screnity despite the impressive accumulation of meditation, (8) liberation from the sphere of influence of Māra, (9) dwelling in the sphere of the Buddha and (10) ripening (others) to liberation (Dutt, 1943-53, ii., p. 338.6-11; cf. TTP, 31, p. 310.3.8-4.8).

Compare the realism of this list with a characterisation of 'pure samādhi' in the Ug (p. 272.1.8-2.3) that focuses on the psychological attainments of one-pointedness, cognition of the non-abiding of thought (apratisthitacitta), non-differentiating thought (aprapañcacitta), mastery of thought (cittavasitā) and unperturbed thinking (aksobhacitta). Another example of a more advanced list of the benefit arising from the practice of meditation is found in the Msg (pp. 223-4). Here, we read of ten exploits (duskaracaryā)

that accrue to the bodhisattva from superior thought (adhicitta).

But for a number of points that relate, in the Mahāyāna, to the path of the bodhisattva, the Śrāvakayāna understanding of benefits that arise from concentration agrees is in broad agreement. For a good example of the Theravada view, I propose to turn to the Vism where Buddhaghosa identifies (1) blissful abiding, (2) insight, (3) super-knowledge, (4) the prospect of higher rebirth and (5) cessation as the principal advantages that spring from meditation (Vism, pp. 371–372).

- 541, Rcd, op. cit., p. 234,4.5-6 According to the Bbh (p. 358.2), the attainment of nyāmāvakrānti represents the third vihāra of the śrāvakabhūmi scheme. Edgerton (pp. 314, 298) suggests to take nyāma for niyāma, thus rendering nyāmāvakrānti as 'entry into certainty' but this does not tally with the Tibetan 'absence of defect'. For a discussion of the term nyāmāvakrāntivihāra, see: Gv, p. 320.22; Asta, pp. 331.10, 322.5.
- 542. Rcd, op. cit. p. 234.4.6-5.2.
- 543. Rgv, op. cit., p. 264 The notion that the meditator must not become attached to the flavour (rasa) of his absorption is a well-established maxim in Buddhist meditation. Indeed, any dhyāna that is associated with enjoyment (āsvādanasamprayukta) is regarded as impure and accordingly condemned in most sūtras (e.g., Lankāv, p. 212.14; Msl, p. 160.14; Kośa, viii, p. 144). One reason why the texts do not tire of warning the recluse from this mishap is the danger of confusing attachment (āsanga) with the practice of dhyāna as both induce the mind to focus on a conceived object (Mpps, ii, pp. 1056-7). The bodhisattva succeeds in

^{539.} R, folio 575.7

The notion of the perpetually meditating bodhisattva is common to several early Mahāyāna sūtras. In the Śgs (p. 145), for instance, it forms the backbone of the entire discussion of the dhyānapāramitā. Realising that all dharma are eternally concentrated (sadāsamāhita), the bodhisattva holds on to meditation in order to subdue his thoughts (cittadamanārtha) and to convert sentient beings with greatest efficiency. While the bodhisattva of the Sgs is of the highest stage (p. 183), in full possession of all rddhi, there are other examples of less-advanced bodhisattvas who abide incessantly in meditation.

impeccability (avikala) in the perfections, incessant exertion in ripening sentient beings and acquisition of buddha-qualities.⁵⁴⁴

An important element of these meditative attainments is the interplay of means $(up\bar{a}ya)$ and wisdom $(praj\tilde{n}\bar{a})$. While it is not necessary to go into the detail of this well-known pattern it is perhaps of interest that meditation is a constituent in both practices. That is to say, the Bdp quite explicitly maintains that $dhy\bar{a}na$ practice is essential to the generation of means and wisdom. The difference between the two is then not one of substance, but of focus. When aimed at the suffering in the world, $dhy\bar{a}na$ generates compassion, ripens sentient beings, produces buddha-qualities and manifests miraculous powers; but when concerned with outright cognition, $dhy\bar{a}na$ inspires a vision of reality where sentient beings do not exist, roots of virtue vanish and buddha-fields resemble space. It is therefore only by the combined presence of $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$ and $up\bar{a}ya$ that the bodhisattva decides to return to the $k\bar{a}madh\bar{a}tu$ and continues his quest of universal liberation. One ramification of this paired operation is that, depending on context and purpose, meditation is capable of performing either on the

disentangling himself from attachment to samādhi by realising that all dharma (including of course meditations) are non-dual and hence no cause for attachment (op. cit., pp. 1049-50). The potentially devastating consequences such misapprehension might entail are exemplified by the downfall of Udraka Rāmaputra that occurred in response to his undue attachment to the dhyāna and samāpatti (Mppś, ii, pp. 1050-52). As in many other cases, the common wisdom of such advice had little validity for Vimalakīrti who reportedly sustained himself with nothing but the flavour of this trances (Vkn, p. 29).

^{544.} Rcd, op. cit., pp. 234.5.2-35.1.8 (cf. Rgv, op. cit., p. 265)

According to the Mppś (ii, p. 984), the bodhisattva returns to the world from meditation in solitude only when he has obtained the power of the abhijñā. Assuming all types of form in order to convert sentient beings when he dwells in their midst, the bodhisattva guides them by whatever instructions and means he deems appropriate to their deliverance.

^{545.} R, folio 576.1-78.4.

^{546.} In a passage of the *Ug* (*op. cit.*, p. 272.4.2–4), *upāyakauśalya* is given credit for holding the *grhapti* bodhisattva in this world in spite of his attainments in meditation:

[&]quot;Furthermore, O householder, with regard to the empty house (presumably a quiet secluded place) the *grhapti* bodhisattva practises the four *dhyāna* but does not enter into the *samāpatti* by virtue of his skilful means."

This sentence seems to suggest that without *upāyakauśalya* the bodhisattva would cease his work in *saṃsāra* and withdraw into blissful realms of the *samāpatti*. Although this point is not made in the *Bdp*, the gist that the bodhisattva stays in the world in spite of the opportunity to retire temporarily from suffering is perhaps implied by the untiring reiteration that *upāya* means worldly engagement *while* dwelling in the *samāpatti* (R, folio 576.2–78.3).

Compare this proposition with a passage in the *Dbh* (*Daśa-bh*, p. 36, M) where we learn that: "The bodhisattva enters into and emerges from *dhyāna*, *vimokṣa*, *samādhi* and *samāpatti* but is not born by their power (*vaśa*), except when he arises by the power of his resolution, witnessing the fulfilment of the factors of enlightenment. Why? Because the bodhisattva possesses the mental continuity (*cittasamtati*) achieved by skilful means."

^{547.} Mppś, ii, p. 1044

This touches on another important distinction between the śrāvaka- and bodhisattvadhyāna. Unlike any other being, the bodhisattva may enter into dhyāna while still in possession of a thought of the kāmadhātu. He is capable of doing so by reason of his cultivation of virtue (guṇa) and because his fetters (saṃyojana) are weak (op. cit., p. 1446).

conventional (samvrti) or absolute (paramārtha) level of reality. 548

"Equanimity and realisation while attaining all conceivable factors of enlightenment stand for means. Completely purified, untroubled pristine cognition of the Tathāgata, bliss of objectless meditation, discernment of unobstructed perception, purification of all perception, meditation on the perfection of all bodhisattvas, practice of meditation devoid of meditation stand for wisdom."

Meditation doctrinally assumes thus the role of a nexus, linking the mundane practices of dāna, śīla, kṣānti (and vīrya) with supramundane cognition of prajñā.⁵⁴⁹ On the one hand, it depends for cultivation on the four worldly pāramitā. Elimination of the five major obstacles to meditation (viz., covetousness, malice, indolence, regret, wastefulness and doubt) and generation of the five dharma that conduce to its unfolding (viz., zeal, vigour, recollection, thoughtfulness and mental one-pointedness) clearly require schooling in generosity, etc.⁵⁵⁰ On the other hand, meditation enhances training in first three perfections, since it provides the required mental focus.⁵⁵¹

Adopted to the *abhijñā*, these variant planes of *dhyāna* led the *Bdp* to recognise two types of *abhijñā*, viz., ordinary super-knowledge and non-regressing super-knowledge (*acutyābhijñā*).⁵⁵² As indicated by their titles, the difference between the two is one of progress or degree of perfection. That is to say, the practice of ordinary *abhijñā* is chiefly concerned with the five traditional areas of application and focuses on the conversion of sentient beings.⁵⁵³ Granting supernatural powers in vision, hearing, mind-reading, recollection and *ṛddhi*, it guides to the 'great entry' (*mahāpravṛtti*), engineers the attainment of pristine cognition, operates as a factor that conduces to deliverance (*nirvedhabhāgīya*) and addresses supramundane practices (*lokottaradharma*).⁵⁵⁴ The time-span of its operation is not fully

^{548.} R, folio 577.6-578.1.

^{549.} Mpps, ii, pp. 984-990, 928.

^{550.} These ten dharma are cited in the Mpps (op. cit., pp. 1013-23) as the chief causes/obstacles to a successful meditation. Although this list is by no means the only one that is proposed in Buddhist literature, it does seem to cover the contents of most other enumerations.

^{551.} Mppś, ii, pp. 985, 1055
Besides the association with the other pāramitā, it is the connection to mastery over the bodhipākṣika that most texts underline. It is mentioned is the Pañca (pp. 514-15), appears in the Dbh in the stage following his attainments in dhyāna (Daśa-bh, pp. 38-39, C) and is listed in the Mppś (ii, p. 1043) alongside the other samādhi the dhyānapāramitā brings about.

^{552.} R, folio 578.4, 580.2.

^{553.} R, folio 579.2-80.1.

^{554.} R, folio 579.6.

indicated in the *Bdp*. Its link with the mastery (*vaśita*) over all *dharma*⁵⁵⁵ and the *abhiṣeka* conferral suggests that it extends from the *acalābhūmi* to the *dharmameghabhūmi*.⁵⁵⁶

This advanced positioning on the path is corroborated by a list of one hundred and one samādhi that appear at the very end of the chapter. We know of several instances in Mahāyāna sūtras where the attainment of samādhi—enumerated in lengthy lists—signals the completion of the path. Generally, these samādhi do not represent individually attained meditations, but point to modalities in that the bodhisattva's final meditation manifests itself. Accommodating all practices simultaneously cultivated, they represent the highpoint of training when the bodhisattva operates purely from within an infinite sphere of absorption. Needless to say—relying on the dharmakāya while moving through an empty, unmarked and purposeless space 561—the bodhisattva does so with greater efficiency than he has ever been able to achieve.

It is only at this point that the third and last phase of meditation sets in. Entitled 'meditation

^{555.} According to the Dbh (Daśa-bh, p. 71.7), the attainment of mastery over dharma follows on the bodhisattva's production of knowledge about the body (kāyajñānābhinirhāra) at the eighth stage. Consisting of ten types of mastery (āyurvaśitā, cetovaśitā, pariṣkāravaśitā, karmavaśitā, upapattivaśitā, adhimuktivaśitā, pranidhānavaśitā, rddhivaśitā, dharmavaśitā and jñānavaśitā), it heralds increasing control over his appearance—himself abiding in the 'immaculate sphere' (anāśravadhātu)—and leads to refined conversion methods. In the scheme of the Bbh (pp. 352.26-353.7), the acquisition of ten (somewhat differently conceived) vaśitā takes place at the tenth vihāra. Here, as in most other sources, it springs from the attainment of the abhijñā and jñāna leading to a perpetual company with buddhas (pratyutpannabuddhasaṃmukhāvasthita).

Besides these bodhisativa treatises, the vasitā are mentioned in a broad range of Mahāyāna sūtras, including the Gv (p. 83.10), Dhsgr (§ 74), Lankāv (p. 1.10), Lal (pp. 45.14, 94.19, 274.21), Ug (p. 272.2.2) and Mvu (i, p. 282.15-20). As so often with lists of this type, the order of enumeration does not always correspond (Mvy 770-80). We find also some variation in contents (e.g., Mvu) that indicates that the concept of the vasitā might have been new to Mahāyāna Buddhism. Indeed, the suttas of early Buddhism do not disclose any list corresponding to the vasitā attributes of the bodhisattva.

In broad terms, this allocation of *rddhi* matches even the otherwise 'non-conformist' career-plan in the *Gv*. Here, as elsewhere, we learn that the bodhisattva's capability of performing magical feats depends on his entrance on the *dharmadhātu*. Although this falls on the sixth stage (p. 372.15–18), it does not allow the bodhisattva to assume apparitional bodies immediately. For this to happen, he has to wait until he reaches the seventh stage at which he "having purified the *dharmakāya* completely pervades the fields with his own body". But even at this advanced stage he has not yet attained complete mastery over all *rddhi* and remains thus unable to proceed to purify of his buddha-field (*op. cit.*, p. 372.20). For, according to the *Gv*, the full attainment in miraculous powers—accompanying effective maturation of beings—takes place at the ninth stage after the bodhisattva has attained full proficiency in all types of meditation (*op. cit.*, p. 373.1–4).

^{557.} R, folio 587.2-90.1.

^{558.} Daśa-bh, p. 82.9-21; Pañca, pp. 142-43; Śgs, p. 132; Akn, p. 50.4.3-4.6. In the Gv (op. cit., p. 369.23-24), the bodhisattva is said to attain mastery over all samādhi already at the ninth stage, while in the Bbh (p. 354.14-23) he has to await the twelfth vihāra.

^{559.} Sgs, pp. 141-150, § 26-38; pp. 152-154, § 42-46.

^{560.} The *Mppś* (ii, p. 1048) indicates that this is a common feature of the bodhisattva's practice of the *dhyānapāramitā* and is not limited to his meditation on the advanced stages. However, the text hastens to add that this applies only to bodhisattvas furnished with the *dharmakāya*—a qualification that unmistakably points to the later career phases (op. cit., pp. 1048–9).

^{561.} Mppś (i, p. 324): śūnyatāpranihitānimittagocara.

at the service of others' (sattvārthakriyādhyāna), it is wholly targeted at the universal suppression of sorrow. According to the Bbh, the sattvārthakriyādhyāna involves total compliance with the wishes, customs and, above all, spiritual needs of beings. It compels the bodhisattva to teach the Dharma, to appease physical misery, to protect from terror, to show gratitude and generosity as appropriate and to dispense impartial rebuke. Clearly, such diverse requirements allow only bodhisattvas of advanced stages in possession of the dharmakāya to attain the sattvārthakriyādhyāna.

The characterisation of non-regressing abhijñā is more problematic, since the Bdp offers few benchmarks against which it could be measured. It is implied—but not stated—that the acutyābhijñā presupposes the attainment of the five ordinary abhijñā. The basis of its manifestation is complete mental purity cultivated during intentional (saṃcintya) absorption in the four dhyāna, eight vimokṣa, three samādhi and nine samāpatti. It represents liberation from the fetters of impurity (kleśa) and is beyond residence on the summit of contrariness (viparyāyāgrāśraya). Based on knowledge of the sameness of all dharma, it precludes attachment (abhiniveśa) to either dharma or adharma.

Abhiniveśa itself is the object (artha) of all practice (dharma).⁵⁶⁶ In a nutshell, the Bdp argues that non-attachment is the foundation to spiritual maturity that prevents delusion, indolence and impassioned disputes to cloud the bodhisattva's judgement. It prepares acceptance of universal sameness and immunity to imputation (aparyāpanna) and—repudiating form (saṃsthāna) and appearance (nimitta)—leads via pursuit (anvaya) to spiritual realisation (adhigama).⁵⁶⁷

In the present context, pursuit and realisation constitute two different, yet acutely overlapping and complementary aspects of the bodhisattva's training. Taken separately, each represents a major path-element; with pursuit standing for untiring cultivation of individual practices and realisation denoting understanding of their ontological invalidity. In practice, however, this

564. R, folio 580.6 (phyin ci log gi rtse mohi gnas); cf. Edgerton, p. 491.

^{562.} Hence, its alternative title that is given in the *Siddhi* (p. 622) as 'meditation of the accomplishment of duty' (*kṛtyānuṣṭhānadhyāna*).

^{563.} Bbh, pp. 207.25-208.9

In essence, we are dealing here with the same list of behavioural norms towards the laity that was given already in the Śīla- and Vīryapatala (Bbh, pp. 144.24-152.17, 201.26-202.1).

^{565.} According to Edgerton (p. 53), abhinivesa carries two possible meanings, viz., when leaning on classical Sanskrit it is 'strong attachment' or, in affinity to Pāli abhinivesa, any false belief, that in Buddhism is particularly the 'heretical belief of the existence of a self' (Śikṣ, p. 198.21). In the context of dharma-sameness the word abhinivesa could possibly be interpreted in either terms, with 'strong attachment' beings perhaps the more plausible translation.

^{566.} R, folio 581.3-4.

^{567.} R, folio 581.6-82.3.

distinction becomes meaningless as pursuit and realisation merge into one another to produce the pledge to universal liberation in spite of the conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*: ⁵⁶⁸

"He shows benevolence but knows that there is no self. He is compassionate but knows that there are no beings. He cultivates sympathetic joy but knows that there is no life-force. He abides in equipoise but knows that there is no person. ... He ripens sentient beings but his mind is of pristine purity. He retains the holy Doctrine but knows the indistinguishable *dharmadhātu*. ... He turns the wheel of the Dharma, but knows that there is no turning. He instructs on passing into great *nirvāṇa*, but knows of its sameness of own-being of *samsāra*."

In an apparent allegory on the miraculous powers of the abhijñā, pursuit and realisation produce holy beings (satpuruṣa) that are capable of performing miracles (āścarya) and supernatural feats (adbhūta). The text is silent on the reasons behind this comparison. However, we are probably not much off the mark in interpreting it as an effort in the enhancement of the standing of more ordinary practices. Echoing the views of Śākyamuni Buddha, it was probably feared that a display of miraculous feats would make a far greater impression on an ill-informed laity clamouring for supernatural interventions than the rather less spectacular selfless striving of dedicated bodhisattvas. Hence, the departure from the dazzling descriptions of rddhi practices that dominated much of the first part of the dhyāna chapter to the more austere analysis of the principles underlying the training proper.

^{568.} R, folio 582.6-84.3.

^{569.} R, folio 582.4-5, 584.4.

The Perfection of Wisdom

The last of the six major $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$, $praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$, is discussed in chapter eleven. Of all twelve chapters of the Bdp, this chapter is the most important with regard to the bodhisattva practice. For, it contains as part of the discussion of $praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ not only those elements traditionally associated with expositions of $praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}$, but includes also a large number of ancillary wisdom practices. In its description of them, the Bdp draws substantially on Mahāyāna thinking. The style of composition indicates that it comes from a time when descriptions of these practices were still not fixed. What is perhaps most striking is not the content but the arrangement of the material. In apparent disregard of well-established structures found elsewhere, the Bdp develops a picture of wisdom that contains little evidence of a particular design despite the fact that it acknowledges some sense of organisation. In order to show what is meant, I have drawn up a list of contents:

- 1. Śruta, praveśa, pratipatti
- 2. Sambhāra
- 3. Prayoga
- 4. Darśana
- 5. Bhāvanā
- 6. Skill in skandha, dhātu and āyatana
- 7. Skill in satya
- 8. Skill in pratisamvid and pratisarana
- 9. Skill in punyasambhāra and jñānasambhāra
- 10. Skill in smṛtyupasthāna
- 11. Skill in bodhyanga
- 12. Skill in āryāstāngamārga
- 13. Skill in śamatha and vipaśyanā
- 14. Skill in samyakprahāņa, indriya and bala
- 15. Skill in ekayānamārga
- 16. Skill in pratītyasamutpāda and dharma

While the contents of the types of 'skill' presents no difficulty—virtually all practices discussed here are understood to contribute to the generation of wisdom⁵⁷⁰—the order of their arrangement proved complex and difficult to unravel. The concatenation of śruta, praveśa and pratipatti; the position of samyakprahāṇa, indriya and bala behind the āryāṣṭāṅgamārga; the role of 'skill' in skandha, dhātu, āyatana, satya in relation to the pratisaṃvid and pratisaraṇa, to indicate just a few issues, diverge from established patterns and are problematic.

Initial Phases in the Training of Wisdom

The exposition of Perfect Wisdom begins in the Bdp with a survey of the factors that generate wisdom. By identifying (1) seventy-two types of learning ($\acute{s}ruta$), (2) forty-one methods ($prave\acute{s}a$) of acquiring learning and (3) good conduct (pratipatti) as causes, the Bdp emulates the ancient scheme of 'wisdom arising from learning' ($\acute{s}rutamay\bar{i}praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}$), 'wisdom arising from reflection' ($cint\bar{a}may\bar{i}praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}$) and 'wisdom arising from contemplation' ($bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}may\bar{i}praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}$). ⁵⁷¹

Virtually all abhidharmic treatises on the path agree that wisdom generated through learning, reflection and contemplation belongs to the earliest phase of the training. It is associated with the four bases of mindfulness and becomes manifest on the path of equipment $(sambh\bar{a}ram\bar{a}rga)$. In the Bdp, this allocation is confirmed by their position at the very beginning of the discussion of $praj\tilde{n}\bar{a}$.

The first limb, śruta, does not present much of a problem since it accords closely with the established notion that learning is the first, and most fundamental, precondition for the arising of wisdom. Focusing on the wording of the instructions rather than on their meaning, it introduces the practitioner to the teachings of the Dharma and initiates the cognition

^{570.} For the three conditions leading to prajñā, see: MBT, ii, pp. 198-99, § 9; Śrotabhūmi, TTP, 109, p. 296.3.1-5. For 'skill' in skandha, dhātu and āyatana, satya and pratītyasamutpāda, see: Mvś (N), p. 37. For the pratīsamvid and pratīsarana, see: Bbh, pp. 214.10-14, 257.16-22. For punya and jñānasambhāra, see: MBT, iii, p. 12.20-22. For the bodhipākṣika, see: Kośa, vi, pp. 282-4; Mvś (N), p. 50-55 and quotations in Mppś, iii, pp. 1119, 1132-36. For śamatha and vipaśyanā, see: MBT, iii, p. 1.7-13; Bugault, 1982, p. 92.

^{571.} See, for instance: D III, p. 219; Vibh, pp. 324, 325; Kośa, vi, pp. 143-44; Bbh, p. 183.1.3-6.

^{572.} Kośa, vi, pp. 159, 287; Abhidh-d, p. 362; Abhidh-h (W) p. 140; Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 116-7; Amṛtar (B), pp. 201-2; DPP, p. 20. For full discussions of the fivefold path scheme, see: Kośa, v, pp. iv-xi; HIB, pp. 677-686; Frauwallner, Abhidharma-Studien iii, pp. 82-89; Günther, 1957, pp. 290-377 and, in particular: Ruegg, 1990, pp. 150-209.

process. At first sight, however, our list of seventy-two forms of learning appears to go well beyond this definition. Instead of learning, it is more concerned with the study of the bodhisattva practices proper.⁵⁷³ At this early stage, śrutamayīprajñā is founded on confidence in the words of the Buddha and is sustained by faith.⁵⁷⁴ In the Akn-ṭīkā, Vasubandhu explains that the individual types of learning do not represent learning itself, but those factors that lead to learning. He says that each factor is the cause of learning, that it has learning as cause and that it shares its own-being with wisdom.⁵⁷⁵ Hence, our seventy-two forms of learning stand not so much for learning in the narrow sense of the word, but point to a series of complex interactions facilitating the attainment of wisdom.⁵⁷⁶

The second type of wisdom, cintāmayīprajñā, leads to a sound understanding of the four noble truths. Chiefly, though not exclusively, concerned with meaning⁵⁷⁷, it occasions a type of certainty that is founded in rational examining (yuktinidhyāna) wholly independent of faith or external authority.⁵⁷⁸ Like śrutamayīprajñā, it is dialectical in nature and of provisional value.⁵⁷⁹ It still pertains to the laukika domain and operates in a defiled consciousness (sāsrava vijñāna). The applicability of the cintāmayīprajñā concept to the Bdp's list of forty-one methods of acquiring learning is ambiguous. For one thing, the terminology does not correspond; instead of founding it on cintā, the Bdp says that it springs from yoniśo manasakāra.⁵⁸⁰ Vasubandhu does not give much weight to this difference, perhaps because he is aware that yoniśo manasakāra often occurs in its verbal form manasi karoti as a synonym to cintayati.⁵⁸¹

^{573.} This is particularly true of the items in the latter portion of the list, starting with item no. 29. The whole list is given in the Appendix i.

^{574.} A IV, p. 82; Kośa, vi, p. 143.

^{575.} Akn-tīkā, TTP, 104, p. 181.3.6-4.1.

^{576.} Cf. Vibh, p. 325.

^{577.} The Vaibhāṣika hold that the relationship between names (nāma) and meaning (artha) is reciprocal, saying that cintāmayīprajñā secures the meaning by means of the wording (vyañjanena) as much as it secures the wording by means of the meaning (Kośa, vi, p. 143). This thesis is refuted by the Theravāda Abhidhamma saying that cintāmayipaññā arises separated from hearing (Vibh, pp. 324-5).

^{578.} MI, p. 265.

^{579.} The nature and relationship between the three is illustrated by a simile in Kośa (vi, p. 143). The gist of this interpretation, suggesting a temporary value for the first two types of wisdom, but explained by means of the artha/vyañjana pratisarana, is also found in the Samdhis (p. 105.1-26). To sum up, during the śrutamayî phase, the bodhisattva, having turned towards deliverance, focuses on the literal meaning of the texts, but fails to realise the meaning of designations. Then, he includes the meaning of the letters into his investigation. Progressing towards liberation he is now capable of realising worldly designations. Finally, through contemplation he learns of the intentions of the texts and—independent of the letter—acquires knowledge of those dharma that pertain to liberation.

For alternative explanations of their relationship see: *Msl*, pp. 54.9-14, 85.3-6. According to the *Msl* (p. 56.4-10), however, the three types of wisdom do not supersede each other, but are jointly required in order to penetrate the basis of reality (*dharmālambana*).

^{580.} Edgerton, p. 387, col. 1; pw, pp. 1082-83.

^{581.} Rp, p. 59.4; Dasa-bh, p. 12.21 (for further references see: Edgerton, p. 418, col. 1).

He postulates that *praveśa* corresponds with *yoniśo manasakāra*⁵⁸² that he likens elsewhere to insight concerned with reflection (*cintā*)⁵⁸³, thereby practically identifying *praveśa* with *cintā*. Since, in the *Bdp*, *yoniśo manasakāra* is the method by which *śruta* is acquired, a strong link between *praveśa* and *cintā* is established.⁵⁸⁴ The methods by which the bodhisattva acquires what he has studied are divided into forty-one practices.⁵⁸⁵ Of these, however, only twenty-three are included in the list of seventy-two types of learning.⁵⁸⁶

This together with the actual phrasing indicates that emphasis is not so much placed on content as on progress to the state of perfect wisdom. Typically, the forty-one methods begin by taking up one of the forms of learning and discuss its effect on the training. This becomes the basis of knowledge and leads to understanding arising from reflection (manasakāra). Finally, having attained this type of understanding, the bodhisattva performs good conduct which announces bhāvanā as the last and supreme condition of wisdom.

1

^{582.} Akn-tīkā, p. 181.3.2-3

Statements underpinning the identity of cintā, yoniśo manasakāra and praveśa in their relationship to śruta are found at several places. In the Msl, we read that śruta and yoniśo manasakāra are jointly required for the bodhisattva to enter into the 'character of the knowable' (jñeyalakṣaṇapraveśa). Elsewhere we are told that at the moment when thought associated with correct reflection (yoniśomanasakārasaṃprayuktaka)—corresponding to right view (saṃyagdṛṣṭi)—is born, mental perception (manovijñāna) that has been impregnated with learning (śrutavāsanā) is being eradicated (Msg, p. 65). Both factors are thus closely united in operations that are directed at the acquisition of transcendental cognition (lokottaracitta) and co-function in a way reminiscent of the śruta/cintā interaction. Corroborating this interpretation, the Mppś (ii, p. 1110) underlines the conceptual proximity between manasakāra and cintāmayī on the one hand, and its link with learning (śravaṇa) on the other hand, by pointing to their combined presence in the schooling of the bodhisattva who penetrates the dharma-character (dharmalakṣaṇa).

^{583.} Akn-tīkā, p. 183.4.3-4.

^{584.} R, folio 590.6

This very thought is also expressed in the Msl (p. 7.3-4) that says that "on the basis of learning ($\acute{s}ruta$) correct reflection ($yoni\acute{s}o\ manasak\bar{a}ra$) arises; from that reflection emerges a knowledge that has thusness (tattva) as its object".

^{585.} In the Akn (p. 51.1.6-2.7) we meet with a parallel list as far as context and title are concerned. Although professing to itemise the ways of penetrating correct reflection, it contains only thirty-two elements and shows an altogether different content. Unlike the Bdp that addresses a broad selection of aspects, including all six perfections, the bodhipākṣika, veneration and dedication, the Akn superimposes a distinctly cognitive-meditative orientation on its list. Virtually all of its members deal with mental penetration into seeing 'reality as it is' and neglect the more practical aspects by which this is brought about. These contemplative overtones led Vasubandhu to comment that, in the Akn, the ways of penetrating correct reflection exemplify both the cintāmayī and bhāvanāmayī factors of prajñā (Akn-ṭīkā, p. 185.4.1-4). While this assessment is doubtlessly correct and fairly unproblematic for the Akn, in the Bdp—as I shall show—the case is somewhat more ambiguous.

^{586.} I have given a list of these items in note 13 of my translation.

^{587.} Hedinger (1984, p. 53) describes *bhāvanā* as a generic term, subsuming all other meditative practices. He cites as evidence a passage from the *Vism* (pp. 101 ff) that draws up forty areas of application of *bhāvanā* and an alternative division of *bhāvanā* into stages that was proposed by Bhāvaviveka (Frauwallner, 1956, pp. 230 ff). Whatever the benefit of these, somewhat artificial, schemes, it is probably fair to say that to date the best and most coherent exposition of *bhāvanā* is still Kamalaśīla's account in the *Bhāvanākrama* (*MBT*). On the different definitions of contemplation (*bhāvanā*) in Sarvāstivāda thought, see: *Kośa*, iv, pp. 248–50; vi, pp. 283–88; vii, pp. 15–25, 49–54, 64–66.

According to the *Bdp*, *bhāvanāmayīprajñā* manifests 'good conduct' (*pratipatti*). In content, however, it is purely cognitive and consists of transcendental, non-defiled (*anāsrava*) knowledge (*jñāna*). ⁵⁸⁸ As the chief characteristic it bears a sound understanding of *dharma*. ⁵⁸⁹

V

I have found in several sources evidence that underpins this analogy between śruta, praveśa and pratipatti on the one hand and śrutamayī-, cintāmayī- and bhāvanāmayīprajñā on the other hand. To begin with, there is the commentary on the Akn that speaks of passages in the Akn that are similar to those in the Bdp as corresponding to śrutamayī-, cintāmayī- and bhāvanāmayīprajñā. ⁵⁹⁰ The Akn-ṭīkā identifies quite explicitly the śruta and praveśa sections of the Akn with the concepts of śrutamayī- and cintāmayīprajñā. There are however difficulties with regard to bhāvanāmayīprajñā. According to the commentary, 'wisdom arising from contemplation' is included in the Akn's discussion of praveśa. In fact, the notion of pratipatti is altogether missing in the Akn. This raises the question as to whether pratipatti plays any part in the threefold scheme of wisdom or whether it is an independent 'wisdom practice'. In order to resolve this problem, we have to consider the following factors.

First, it is important to note that pratipatti is appended to the Bdp's exposition of praveśa. We have seen that pratipatti follows after the practice of $śrutamay\bar{\imath}$ - and $cint\bar{a}may\bar{\imath}praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$ and seemingly eclipses both in attainment. The wording of the Bdp leaves no doubt that it builds on the realisations of śruta and $cint\bar{a}$ and brings them to their logical conclusion. This matches the characterisation of $bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}may\bar{\imath}praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$ in the Samdhis and is not incompatible with the explanation in the Kośa which assigns a temporary value to $śrutamay\bar{\imath}$ - and $cint\bar{a}may\bar{\imath}praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$. The variant interpretation in the Akn- $t\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}$ could be explained by the absence of pratipatti in the Akn which compelled Vasubhandhu to account for all three types of

^{588.} Satya-s (S), ii, pp. 485-88; Kośa, vi, pp. 143-44
For the Bbh, the definition of wisdom is broader. That is to say, it distinguishes three central areas of attainments that add up to prajñā. These are 'skill' in penetrating reality (i.e., realising that it is empty, without characteristic, etc.), 'skill' in the five classical sciences (vidhyā) and in three types of accumulation (i.e., benefiting, non-benefiting and neither ... nor ...) and 'skill' in benefiting sentient beings. Although listed as such only once, all three elements recur many times as the chief components throughout its discussion of prajñā and are clearly central to its understanding of prajñāpāramitā (Bbh, pp. 212.10-213.1).

^{589.} R, folio 599.6-7

This interpretation is wholly in line with the fruits that accrue to the practitioner in the *Bhāvanākrama*. Citing a passage from the *Samādh*, it proposes that *pratipatti* is central to the recognition of the unbornness of *dharma* (*MBT*, i, pp. 198-99). The reasoning that lies at the heart of the bodhisattva's insight of the non-origination of *dharma* springing from *śruta* and *cintā* is then spelled out by *Kamalaśīla* on pages 199-202 (§ 10).

According to the *Msl*, śrutamayī and cintāmayīprajñā are realised well before the bodhisattva has embarked on the path proper. That is to say, he attains them prior to the adhimukticaryābhūmi. Bhāvanāmayīprajñā, in contrast, becomes manifest for the first time on the adhimukticaryābhūmi, but is still subject to refinement during the remaining stages (p. 75.12–15).

^{590.} $Akn-t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$, p. 185.4.1–7 (translations of the relevant sections are given in my notes in chapter five).

wisdom through śruta and cintā alone. That this caused difficulties is attested by the atypically convoluted style of explanation in his annotations on the śruta and praveśa sections.

Second, there is a passage in the *Satyasiddhiśāstra* where *bhāvanāmayīprajñā* is defined as 'practice in conformity with the Dharma which is applied in one's actions and in one's life' (*dharmānudharmapratipatti*).⁵⁹¹ A similar connection is also made in the *Bhāvanākrama* where *pratipatti*, echoing the interplay between means and wisdom, becomes the locus of the bodhisattva's cognition.⁵⁹²

Third, the Dīghanikāya contains a passage that defines the factors of path-attainment (sotāpattyanga) as learning the good Dharma (saddhammasavaṇa), correct reflection (yoniso manasakāra) and dhammānudhammapaṭipatti.⁵⁹³ These are the very components that are cited in the Bdp. What is more, the attainments of the sotaāpanna consist in freedom from the view of individuality (sakkāyadiṭṭhi), freedom from doubt (vicikicchā) and observance of the precept and vow (sīlabbataparāmāsa) (with the last two being merely examples of wrong view (micchādtṭhi))⁵⁹⁴ which are all linked with right view (sammaditthi) or wisdom (paññā).

Fourth, there is a section in the $Bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}krama$ that says that the cultivation of the three types of wisdom follows immediately after the practice of the five preliminary perfections.⁵⁹⁵ This is exactly the case in the Bdp. Although $Kamalaś\bar{\imath}la$ does not cite his sources—and he may have been inspired by any text—the parallels to the scheme of the Bdp are obvious.⁵⁹⁶

Having completed its discussion of the three types of wisdom, the *Bdp* proceeds to describe the fruits that spring from the practice of learning, reflection and contemplation. Summed up

^{591.} Satya (S), ii, p. 486 (cf. Geiger, Pāli Dhamma, Munich, 1921, pp. 115–6)
Note also in this connection the integration of śruta and pratipatti. On this, the Vkn says, in one place, that "bodhi is the seat of learning (śruta) because it consolidates religious practice (pratipatti)" while it affirms elsewhere that "skill in learning results from practice" (pp. 97, 109 respectively). On the role and interaction of learning and religious practice, see: Rahula, History of Buddhism in Celyon, Colombo, 1956, pp. 158–9 and Manorathapūraņi (i, p. 93) which sums up the reasons for the preference that was given historically to learning in Theravāda communities.

^{592.} MBT, ii, pp. 222.4-223.5.

^{593.} D III, p. 227 (the fourth factor, "association with good persons" (sappurisasamvesa), is cited at a later place in the Bdp).

^{594.} For references to the *samyojana*, see: M I, p. 9; S V, p. 12; for the explanation that doubt and lack of vow observance are nothing but manifestations of wrong view, see: *Dhs*, pp. 75–80, 182–3 (ref. Gethin).

^{595.} MBT, ii, p. 198.4–8

According to DPP, p. 20, the generation of the three types of wisdom is an essential feature of the sambhāramārga. As I shall demonstrate, this is exactly the path-phase we are concerned with at present.

^{596.} Of interest in this context is also the picture that is given to the conditions of wisdom in the *Bbh*. Apart from the customary factors of learning and reflection, it speaks of a power of careful consideration (*pratisamkhyānabala*) and a power of contemplation (*bhāvanābala*). The former is said to determine the bodhisattva's conduct in the world—promoting virtue and preventing mistakes—while the latter establishes him in infinite wisdom of the stage of uniformity (*samāhitabhūmika*), being the eighth stage (*Bbh*, p. 213.8-14).

as 'correct vision' (yoniśo dṛṣṭi), these revolve around dharma cognition. Although not explicitly stated, the context indicates that this particular type of vision is founded on mindfulness concerning dharma (dharmasmṛṭyupasthāna). For, dharmasmṛṭyupasthāna—whose practice subsumes the other three smṛṭyupasthāna and corresponds to insight (vipaśyanā)⁵⁹⁷—is decisive to the perception of dharma.⁵⁹⁸ Specifically counteracting the misconception of the self (ātmaviparyāsa) (but in Mahāyāna treatises generally extended to include the empty and uniform nature of dharma⁵⁹⁹) dharmasmṛṭyupasthāna</sup> is intimately bound up with prajñā, itself defined as Dharma-discernment (dharmapravicaya).⁶⁰⁰

At this early stage of the path insight arising from mindfulness of dharma is still hampered by the presence of natural defilements ($r\bar{a}ga$, moha, $dve\bar{s}a$) and certain weak types of misconception ($vipary\bar{a}sa$). Of inferior quality when practised on the $sambh\bar{a}ram\bar{a}rga^{601}$, the resulting Dharma-discernment is therefore imperfect and extends only to the particular and general characteristics ($svas\bar{a}m\bar{a}nyalak\bar{s}ana$) of things. However incomplete, it enables the bodhisattva of the Bdp to distinguish between virtuous and non-virtuous dharma. This faculty of differentiation is of crucial importance to the completion of the $sambh\bar{a}ram\bar{a}rga$. First, on the level of day to day conduct, it allows the bodhisattva to re-focus his efforts in accordance with his purified intention. For this re-evaluation to take place the bodhisattva engages in deep meditation in order to attain the light of wisdom ($prajn\bar{a}loka$)—an indispensable factor for experiencing reality directly. Second, in the long-term, recognition of virtue is necessarily a precondition for the planting of the roots of virtue that lead to deliverance ($mok\bar{s}abh\bar{a}g\bar{i}ya$ $ku\bar{s}alam\bar{u}la$). As their accumulation lies at the very heart of the training on the $sambh\bar{a}ram\bar{a}rga$, adherence to $sambh\bar{a}ram\bar{a}rga$ and abandoning of $sambh\bar{a}ram\bar{a}rga$ assumes immense importance.

597. Satya-s (S), p. 448; Gethin, 1987, p. 634.

^{598.} Kośa, vi, p. 159; Abhidh-d, p. 360.5-11; Nett, pp. 83-84.

^{599.} Rcd, p. 238.3.7-4.5; Mpps, ii, pp. 1193-4 (cf. pp. 1167-1169).

^{600.} Abhidh-sam (R), p. 8; Mpps, ii, p. 1046; Kośa iv, p. 283.

^{601.} HIB, p. 612; Kośa, vi, pp. 158–159.

^{602.} Kośa, vi, pp. 159-162.

^{603.} R, folio 601.4.

^{604.} MBT, ii, p. 204.13-15.

^{605.} R, folio 601.4-5

The Bdp does not give any detail on how the moksabhāgīya are planted during the saṃbhāramārga. According to Lamotte, the bodhisattva overcomes desire within himself by practising the moral precepts that secure him a place in the lineage of the noble ones (āryavaṃśa). That is to say, he learns to be content with few clothes (cīvara), almsfood (pindapāta) and humble seating (śayanāsana), he delights in nirvāṇa and the path that leads to it. Then, meditating on the repulsive aspects of life (aśubhabhāvanā), the bodhisattva engages in breathing exercises (ānāpānasmṛti) that allow him to focus on the eradication of desire and distraction and thereby prepare him to enter into the smṛtyupasthāna (HIB, p. 613). For

When the bodhisattva has thus identified dharma according to their general features and accumulated roots of virtue, he embarks on the prayogamārga and enters into meditation in order to penetrate true reality. 606 In the scheme of the Bdp, he undertakes initially to free himself from those obstructions (avarana) that threaten to impede his practice. 607 Following the ancient path model, he achieves this goal through the four perfect efforts (samyakprahāna). The practice of the perfect efforts takes place immediately after the smrtyupasthāna⁶⁰⁸ and signals the bodhisattva's entrance into the path of application at the mūrdhan level of the nirvedhabhāgīva. 609 The function of the samvakprahāna is twofold: to cultivate skilfull dharma and to abandon gross obstacles that impede the unfolding of perfect wisdom. Since the Bdp does not specify which obstructions are overcome through the samvakprahāna at this stage, it is difficult to ascertain on textual grounds alone whether it refers exclusively to the kleśāvarana or also includes the jñeyāvaraṇa. But according to general opinion it is only the obstructions of the defilements that are addressed here. 610 Their elimination prepares for the transition from the worldly (laukika) to the transcendental path (lokottaramārga), which is heralded by the attainment of right view (samvagdrsti)⁶¹¹ and cleanses the entry into the light of the doctrine (dharmālokamukha).612

The acquisition of right view is dependent on two causes. First, the bodhisattva must learn

canonical references, see: D III, p. 224; A II, p. 27; otherwise: Kośa vi, pp. 146-153.

^{606.} At this stage, we find in most texts references to the four nirvedhabhāgīya, that is uṣmagata-, mūrdhan-, kṣānti- and laukikāgradharma (e.g., Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 105-6; Kośa, vi, pp. 169-72). As the nirvedhabhāgīya are said to spring from bhāvanā—a practice that is not explicitly mentioned in the Bdp alongside śrutamayī- and cintāmayīprajñā—it is perhaps not surprising that they are not given in this context.

^{607.} R, folio 602.5-7.

^{608.} Some of the most important schemes have been conveniently tabulated by Gethin (1987, pp. 637–639). Note that to the Theravāda tradition, the generation of the sammappadhāna forms part of the transcendental path (Vism, xxii, p. 35) while in path schemes of the Sarvāstivāda it belongs to the laukika realm (Kośa, vi, p. 287).

^{609.} Abhidh-d, p. 362.14-15; Kośa, vi, p. 287.

^{610.} Virtually all texts agree that both types of āvaraṇa are not eliminated before the practitioner embarks on the transcendental path. For sūtras, see: Rcd, p. 239.4.3-5.8; for śāstras, see: Mvś (N), pp. 53.13-55.5; Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 118-24; Śrāv-bh (Sh), pp. 236-7; MBT, ii, pp. 214.23-7, 217.9-15.

^{611.} A comparison with the Sarvāstivāda path model reveals that these accomplishments, revolving around on the notion of right vision (samyagdṛṣṭi), correspond to the insights that are associated with the darśanamārga. However, rejecting the axioms that lie at the heart of Sarvāstivāda psychology, the Bdp does not associate right seeing with the gradual comprehension (anupūrvābhisamaya) of the sixteen thought-moments that pertain to vision of the four noble truths (Kośa, vi, pp. 184–193).

The structure of the path model and the prefix ārya (presumably identifying it as the first fruit of the path

that, according to the Kośa (vi, p. vi) takes place during the first moment of the bhāvanāmārga indicating stream-entry) leave little doubt that we are dealing here with the lokottara aspect of samyagdṛṣṭi. Reserved to either the darśanamārga or bhāvanāmārga (depending which sources one chooses to follow, the eightfold path can manifest itself on either of them) its presence here is a further indication that we have reached the lokottara level of the path.

^{612.} R, folio 604.1-3.

to listen to other people's statements. Recognising the danger of pride to those who are isolated from the Dharma the Bdp regards congenial listening to the words of others as a factor stimulating liberation by itself. Second, the bodhisattva has to reflect correctly on the contents of what he has heard. Since failure to do so inevitably leads to misconduct on the path, the Bdp places correct reflection and listening to other people's statements on the $prayogam\bar{a}rga$. As a methodological prerequisite, $\dot{s}ruta$ and $cint\bar{a}$ are not restricted to the path of equipment, but also figure also on the path of application.

Having dealt with methodology, the *Bdp* defines the actual contents of *prayogamārga*. Perhaps in numerical analogy to the *nirvedhabhāgīya*, it gives as its principal components correct practice (*yoniśo prayoga*), correct vision (*yoniśo dṛṣṭi*), correct penetration (*yoniśo praveśa*) and correct speech (*yoniśo vāc*). Of these four, correct practice and penetration serve as causes to the attainment of *samyagdṛṣṭi*, while correct vision and speech represent its conditions.

^{613.} This concept is not new to the Mahāyāna but occurs already in the nikāya as the two conditions bringing about right view (M I, p. 294; A I, p. 87). Both factors are fundamental to a correct perception of the Dharma and in conjunction with wisdom arising from learning, reflection and contemplation stand at the very core of a monk's cognitive progress. This point is fully scrutinised in the *Nett* (p. 8, trsl. Gethin):

[&]quot;The teacher or a fellow practitioner in the position of a teacher teaches someone *Dhamma*. Having heard this *Dhamma* he gains confidence. Therein, whatever is investigation, energy, consideration, examination, this is wisdom produced by hearing. Whatever is investigation, consideration, examination, contemplation in dependence on what is thus heard, this is wisdom produced by reflection. The knowledge that arises at the stage of seeing or the stage of development for one engaged in bringing to mind by means of these two kinds of wisdom is wisdom produced by development. From the utterance of another there is wisdom produced by hearing; from appropriate bringing to mind undertaken individually there is wisdom produced by reflection; the knowledge that arises both as a result of the utterance of another and as a result of appropriate bringing to mind undertaken individually is wisdom produced by development."

In the Mahāyāna, the role of these two factors became integrated into the respective visions of the path. For Yogācāra followers, statements of others (parataś ca ghoṣaḥ) and correct inner reflection (adhyātman ca yoniśaḥ manasakāraḥ)—being also the cause to right view—perfume (bhāvayanti) either knowledge springing from learning (śrotavijñāna), mental perception (manovijñāna) or both. In due course, at the arising of correct reflection, both types of knowledge vanish and are replaced by lokottara thinking pertaining to right view and leading to transcendental purification (Msg, p. 65).

A rather different interpretation of the term parato ghoso was introduced by Peter Masefield. According to Masefield (1986, p. 50), parato ghoso does not refer so much to the worldly realm of instructions from teachers, but is an expression indicating a channel of communication between the beyond and religious experience. Translating it as 'sound from the beyond', Masefield suggests that this type of transcendental sound is channelled to the śrāvaka only by the Buddha (and his closest followers), implying that right view or religious truth is wholly dependent on the disclosure of this sound for unfolding. This interpretation of the term parato ghoso has been disputed, not least because it fails to take account of several other contexts where it quite clearly does not carry this metaphysical connotation. For a discussion, see: Gethin, 1987, pp. 424–25.

^{614.} R, folio 604.7.

^{615.} By placing the focus on *sravaṇa* and *yoniśo manasakāra* as factors promoting right view, the *Bdp* underlines once again its conceptual proximity to a proposition in the *Mppś* (ii, p. 1110) according to which it is these two elements that have greatest bearing on the generation of wisdom.

^{616.} R, folio 606.5, 606.6, 608.7, 610.1 respectively.

In the true spirit of Mahāyāna ontology, the *Bdp* states that correct practice is based on recognition of the sameness of all *dharma*. Thus, if fully accomplished, correct practice does not manifest any verbal or physical activity but unfolds in non-practice. Conceived as practice free from obstruction, doubt or predication, it steadies the roots of virtue accumulated on the *saṃbhāramārga* and brings their development to a high-point—an event close to the *mūrdhan* phase of the *nirvedhabhāgīya*. Next, as if to mirror the arrangement at the beginning of the chapter where *yoniśo darśana* followed on *śruta*, *yoniśo manasakāra* and *pratipatti*, the *Bdp* specifies the concept of 'vision of all *dharma*'. Above all, this constitutes insight into *dharma*-sameness. Then, taking up the notion *sarvadharmasamatā*, the *Bdp* develops a vision of reality that—sustained by the conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*—precludes *dharma*-predication of any kind and effects withdrawal from path-activity. Once again, it is possible to see parallels to the *nirvedhabhāgīya* scheme. For a bodhisattva who enters into its first phase, called *uṣmagata*, reality loses much of its 'true objectivity' as he begins to grasp (albeit only incompletely at his early stage) the empty and non-existent character (*svabhāva*) of external worldly phenomena.

While the notions of correct practice and correct seeing are well expounded, their mutual relationship is unclear. Echoing conventional perception that practice (prayoga) precedes seeing (darśana), correct seeing is said to be based on correct practice. However, since correct practice becoming non-practice presupposes recognition of dharma-sameness—the very foundation of correct seeing—one cannot help but to conclude that practice and seeing are supportive of each other.

As if to accentuate this reciprocity, in correct penetration and speech the order of their relationship is reversed. That is to say, by proposing that penetration constitutes the basis of correct speech, the cognitive element is placed ahead of the practical aspect and becomes

^{617.} R, folio 605.7.

^{618.} DPP, p. 35.

^{619.} R, folio 601.3.

^{620.} R, folio 612.4-6.

^{621.} R, folio 607.3-608.2

This section, being repeated almost verbatim at a later stage, is of considerable importance for the understanding of the argument, since it indicates that correct practice/correct vision and correct penetration/correct speech have equal influence on the bodhisattva's cognition. That is to say, both enable him to see *dharma* in accordance with reality, to attain non-seeing, and finally to enter into the certainty of truth

^{622.} Siddhi, pp. 578-9.

^{623.} See, for instance: R, folio 606.5, 612.5.

essential to its occurrence. 624

Correct penetration consists of two important components. First, there is the cognitive element that allows the bodhisattva to penetrate phenomenal existence. This springs from perfect mental quietude (śamatha), insight (vipaśyanā) and discrimination (vikalpa)626, and unfolds before the bodhisattva's eyes a world that is impermanent, dependently originating, empty, signless and wishless. Yet, by virtue of his commitment to universal welfare—the second element of penetration—this newly won understanding, although alone sufficient to guarantee entry into nirvāṇa, does not tempt him to abandon samsāra. On the contrary, he assumes rebirth in the kāmadhātu, cherishes the Doctrine, develops compassion and cultivates skilful means. Accommodating in equal measure cognition and compassion, correct penetration is thus perfectly balanced.

If this binary disposition is juxtaposed to the *nirvedhabhāgīya*, parallels to the *kṣānti* phase immediately spring to mind. At this stage, having shed all misconception concerning the self (as subject) and *dharma* (as object) of perception, the bodhisattva is no longer subject to low rebirths; yet he continues his endeavour for deeper understanding and greater welfare in the world. This postponement, that involves trusting accepting the validity of the noble truths without further scrutiny, constitutes an important crossroad, since it determines the practitioner's allocation to the *gotra* of the śrāvaka, pratyekabuddhas or buddhas.⁶²⁹

The fourth constituent, correct speech, is acquired through the interplay of the factors that prepare right vision (samyagdṛṣṭi). Presumably it is selected for its dual function; reflecting personal maturity and representing the principal means of conversion, correct speech is described as congenial, well-founded and in perfect harmony with true reality. By characterising

^{624.} R, folio 608.6-7.

^{625.} Compare these with the four components of the nirvedhabhāgīya (Abhidh-sam (R), p. 105; Kośa, vi, pp. 169-178).

^{626.} R, folio 608.7-609.1

Samatha and vipaśyanā are of key importance to the psychological processes that mark prayoga cognition—and indeed beyond. While śamatha has already occurred on the sambhāramārga, its impact is still felt on the path of application as its fruit becomes manifest on the prayogamārga. Vipaśyanā in contrast, representing the bodhisattva's cognitive faculties, although directed at the very same vision of reality does not arise prior to the path of application (DPP, p. 34). Most sources agree, however, that beyond the early path phases, śamatha and vipaśyanā operate as a syzygy. Constituting the perfect path if practised jointly, they are best understood as one-pointedness of mind (cittaikāgratā) observing the nine stations of mind (cittasthiti) and exact analytical investigation of reality (bhūtapratyvekṣā), (MBT, iii, p. 3; Śrāv-bh, pp. 363-5). For their manifestations on the lokottara consciousness, see; Msg, pp. 167, 171. Their role on the laukikamārga during the four basic dhyāna is explained in: MBT, iii, pp. 15-17.

^{627.} R, folio 609.1-4.

^{628.} R, folio 609.7-610.1.

^{629.} Kośa, vi, p. 175.

correct speech as speech of reality and truth, the *Bdp* inspires once again a comparison with the *nirvedhabhāgīya* model where the last phase, called *laukikāgradharma*, is marked by the direct perception of the characteristics of the noble truths. As in the *Bdp*, this attainment is based on the four *pratisaraṇa*. It issues from unobstructed meditation (*ānantaryasamādhi*) but still within the *laukika* domain and prevails independently of sense perception. Confirming the *laukika* status, the *Bdp* says that at this stage, even if the bodhisattva is accomplished in penetration and speech, his vision lacks clear insight (*vidaršana*) and he is still subject to discursive thinking (*vikalpa*) like ordinary beings.

To rid himself of the residues of mistaken mental apperception, the bodhisattva embarks on the *darśanamārga*. Heralding entry in the *lokottara* phase of the path⁶³³, it consists of a series of thought moments no longer concerned with the general characteristics of *dharma*, but with the four noble truths.

In the Bdp, entry into this path-phase is announced by stating that persons who accomplish either correct practice and correct vision or correct penetration and correct speech are assured of the prospect of vision of dharma. As already implied, this type of vision is transcendental by nature and echoes the conviction of the non-arising of dharma:

"What is looking at all *dharma* in accordance with reality? It is non-seeing. Non-seeing is an expression for unborn. Unborn is an expression for unarisen. What is unarisen? It is an expression for invisibility."

For the Bdp, correct vision is not specifically linked with the abandoning $(prah\bar{a}na)$ of defilements or with patience $(k\bar{s}anti)$ and knowledge $(j\tilde{n}ana)$ concerning the noble truths⁶³⁵, but it accrues from right vision $(samyagdr\bar{s}ti)$ for those who penetrate the sameness of practices and attainment. Yet, the fundamental psychological experience that marks the progress through the thought-moments of the $dar\dot{s}anam\bar{a}rga$ follows the Abhidharma accounts rather

^{630.} Siddhi, pp. 575, 581; DPP, p. 36.

^{631.} Siddhi, pp. 578, 581-3.

^{632.} R, folio 611.4, 608.7-609.1

The presence of *vikalpa* would suggest that the bodhisattva has not yet reached the *darśanamārga*, but dwells still on the *prayogamārga*.

^{633.} Kośa, vi, p. 290; Abhidh-d, p. 362; Amṛtar (B), p. 74; Abhidh-sam (R), p. 107. For a discussion of the various types of darśanamārga, that is the tattvadarśanamārga—a path that is characterised by non-discursive knowledge (nirvikalpakajñāna)—and the two categories of the lakṣaṇamārga, that is avyavasthitasatyadarśanamārga or the vyavasthitasatyadarśanamārga, see: Siddhi, pp. 588-600.

^{634.} R, folio 607.5-7.

^{635.} Kośa, vi, p. 183.

closely. The *Bdp* describes a vision of reality where the practitioner sheds all misconceptions (*viparyāsa*), especially the view of individuality (*satkāyadṛṣṭi*)⁶³⁶, and acquires a direct comprehension (*abhisamaya*) of conditioned reality. His wisdom becomes unobstructed (*anāsrava*) and he identifies the general characteristics of *dharma*. He realises that the nature of *dharma* is impure and yet congruent with *nirvāṇa*, that *dharma* are (like persons) without self and utterly indistinguishable. In spite of the removal of all tendencies to passion (*anuśaya*) and understanding conditioned existence, he is still subject to the laws of *saṃsāra* since the path of vision—merely eliminating those defilements abandoned by seeing—leaves countless innate defilements (*sahajakleśa*) untouched.

In order to eliminate these, the bodhisattva embarks on the next path-phase—the path of contemplation (bhāvanāmārga). The moment of entry into the bhāvanāmārga marks a critical threshold in the bodhisattva's career-stages. For, immediately on entry the bodhisattva penetrates the certainty of truth (samyaktvaniyāmāvakrānti)—the first fruit of religious life (śrāmanyaphala)—that guarantees irreversible progression to liberation. As this attainment, drawing on cognition acquired during the first fifteen thought-moments of darśanamārga, marks admission into the fold of noble persons (āryapudgala), it is the clearest indication yet that the Bdp's bodhisattva has advanced to the transcendental domain. The exact entry-level, however, is left undetermined, since (at least among the śrāvaka) penetration into the certainty of truth may lead to a variety of spiritual conditions, depending on the degree of

^{636.} R, folio 613.3, folio 613.7-614.1.

^{637.} The various types of direct comprehension (abhisamaya) that occur on the darśanamārga are discussed in the Siddhi (pp. 601-605).

^{638.} R, folio 612.2-6.

^{639.} Kośa, vi, p. 257.

^{640.} This is the view of the Sarvāstivāda and Theravāda school (Bareau, 1955, pp. 140, 212). Mahāsanghika and Mahīśāsaka sources refute the notion of the irreversibility of the śrotaāpanna (Bareau, 1955, pp. 66, 185).

^{641.} Abhidh-sam (R), p. 152; Kośa, vi, p. 182.

^{642.} R, folio 607.3, folio 608.1-3

Besides the *lokottara bhāvanāmārga*, which is the standard level of cultivation (tracing the career of the śotaāpanna, sakṛdāgāmin and anāgāmin), the texts speak also of a *laukika bhāvanāmārga*. This path is impure and inferior to its *lokottara* counterpart as it does not progress through 'reflection on the nature of things' (*tattvamanasakāra*) and the person on it fails to grasp the general characteristics of *dharma*. But it has still considerable preparatory value as the Buddha has demonstrated. Being an ordinary person when he approached the Bodhi-tree, the Buddha had previously eradicated all innate passions of the world by *laukika* meditation. All that was left to him therefore was to comprehend the four noble truths in their sixteen aspects and to destroy a set of nine innate passions linked with the *naivasaṃjñāyatana* and *bhavāgra* that he could not eradicate on the *laukika bhāvanāmārga* level (for explanation of this restriction, see: *Kośa*, vi, p. 233). Applying to each of them the *prahāṇamārga* and *vimuktimārga* thought, he then reached *bodhi* in thirty-four thought-moments (*Kośa*, ii, p. 206; vi, p. 177). The problem with the attainment of the fruits of the *laukika bhāvanāmārga* is that its disconnection from the *kleśa* is only temporary (*Kośa*, vi, p. 233) and leads, unless carried further, only to rebirth among the Brahmā gods. (For further detail, see: *HIB*, pp. 617–8; *Kośa*, vi, pp. ix–xi; *Abhidh-sam* (*R*), pp. 110–113).

residual attachment.⁶⁴³ For the *Bdp* the proposition of non-regression would seem to indicate that its location on the path is rather more advanced, since true irreversibility does not occur before the eighth stage.⁶⁴⁴

Having introduced the *bhāvanāmārga*, the *Bdp* spells out the attainments that accrue through repeated meditation (*punaḥ punarāmukhīkaraṇa*). The *bhāvanāmārga* of the bodhisattva, agreeing in content with the śrāvaka model, is characterised primarily by the destruction of hitherto intact defilements. Based on wisdom and affecting innate defilements in the *kāma*-, *rūpa- and arūpyadhātu*, the bodhisattva is no longer linked with any conditioned *dharma*, but permanently emancipated from the fetters of worldly phenomena. He has dispelled practically all obstacles constituted by defilement (*kleśāvaraṇa*) including adventitious bonds and rises above conditioned activity to pursue his career beyond the parameter of good and evil: 647

"He is emancipated from the eight worldly conditions. He is emancipated from the twenty secondary defilements including self-conceit, grave conceit and perverted conceit. ... He is emancipated from all lowly and wicked *dharma*. He is emancipated from the activity of all evil, including contentious and defiled activity, activity of the aggregates, activity of the lord of death and activity of the Evil One ... He is emancipated from avarice and generosity, morality and immorality, patience and malice, vigour and indolence, meditation and disquietude, wisdom and folly, furtherance and impediments of the perfections, knowledge and nescience."

Prepared now by the destruction of the defilements through direct comprehension, he gradually eliminates the obstacles to knowledge (jñeyāvaraṇa).⁶⁴⁸ Having cast aside all heterodox views based on the belief of the self, he relinquishes discursive thinking and rejects the dichotomies of classification:⁶⁴⁹

^{643.} The actual entry level is determined by the degree to which he has eliminated the concomitants of desire. For details, see: *Abhidh-sam (R)*, p. 152.

^{644.} Daśa-bh, p. 71.12; Bbh, p. 290.21 (cf. p. 235.18); Msl, p. 176.22; Mvu, i, pp. 1.3, 63.13-14.

^{645.} R, folio 613.4.

^{646.} R, folio 613.5, 614.2.

^{647.} R, folio 614.3-6.

^{648.} Siddhi, pp. 610-11.

^{649.} R, folio 614.3–7.

"He is emancipated from all multiplicity, including multiplicity of buddha-fields, buddhas, sentient beings and *dharma*. He is emancipated from conditioned reflection of all sentient beings, including nescience, knowledge, discursive insight, conventional and absolute truth. He is emancipated from the bases of all reflection, thought and consciousness; including perseverance [in] formlessness, signlessness, causelessness and unconditioned wisdom."

While not very different in meaning and content from the $bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}m\bar{a}rga$ of the śrāvaka, there is divergence on the factors that prompt its attainment. For the śrāvaka, the $bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}m\bar{a}rga$ represents the abandonment of defilements through the vision of the noble truths. As we have seen, in the Bdp the bodhisattva's rejection of conditioned existence is not so much due to the systematic analysis of the noble truths, as by recognition of the sameness of dharma through Perfect Wisdom. d

Perfect Wisdom and Skill

With the end of the *bhāvanāmārga* section we have come to an important break in the *Bdp's* exposition of *prajñāpāramitā*. So far, much of chapter eleven followed the ancient model of the śrāvaka career. In the remainder of the chapter (which constitutes approximately seventy-five percent of its overall length) the scheme of progress is not immediately evident. That is to say, although not without a sense of order—all but three out of eighteen subsections show clear traits of systematic arrangement—no principle emerges that would establish an *overall* connection between the various practices. For this we shall have to turn to other treatises on the bodhisattva.

The content of this section is defined by eighteen types of 'skill'. Through the practice of 'skill' the bodhisattva attains an increasingly refined understanding of reality that culminates eventually in the acquisition of wisdom. The various types of 'skill' indicate the practices that play a role in this process. They include, for example, the pratisaraṇa, pratisaṃvid, bodhipākṣika dharma, śamatha and vipaśyanā and puṇya- and jñānasaṃbhāra. The overriding

^{650.} DPP, pp. 24-6; Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 110-17.

^{651.} Cf. DPP, pp. 41-2.

purpose of these practices, and therefore also the purpose of 'skill', is to investigate the nature of reality. This investigation manifests different points of emphasis and proceeds from various angles, depending on the nature of the individual practices. 'Skill' in skandha, dhātu, āyatana and satya, for instance, aims to destroy the belief in a self (ātmadṛṣṭi), whereas 'skill' in vipaśyanā is designed to reveal to the bodhisattva the non-existence of dharma (dharmanairātmya).

In spite of this topical fragmentation, all eighteen 'skills' share the same objective, namely, the attainment of wisdom. In the *Bdp*, wisdom is defined as 'skill' in all *dharma*. The method by which such 'skill' is acquired is called 'discerning wisdom' (*prajñāpravicaya*) and comprises all the practices that are included in the various types of 'skill'. ⁶⁵² In essence, 'skill' represents therefore the means of investigation through which the bodhisattva accomplishes Perfect Wisdom. ⁶⁵³

The practice of 'skill' (kauśalya) is not particular to the Bdp but is found in numerous treatises on the path. It occurs in the Akn, Dbh, Lkdh, Prn, Rtm, Saṃdhis, Bbh, Śrotabhūmi, Śbh, Prbh, Mvś and Vism. 654 Although there is some overlapping in contents between the

652. R, folio 615.5-7

Already in the nikāya, we note a close connection between discernment (usually Dharma-discernment) and wisdom (M III, p. 85; S V, p. 111). Taken up by the abhidhamma literature (Dhs, p. 11), it developed into one of the chief characteristics of wisdom to appear besides the traditional factors of 'knowledge of the destruction of the impurities' (āsravakṣayajñāna) and 'knowledge of their non-arising' (anutpādajñāna); e.g., Kośa, vi, p. 240; Siddhi, p. 313; MBT, iii, pp. 14-15. See also, Mppś, ii, pp. 1101-1104.

653. Note that this interpretation is at odds with the explanation of 'skill' in the Akn-tīkā (pp. 194.5.5–195.1.2). Here, we read that 'skill' is not so much a tool of investigation as a designator of the objects (ālambana)

or things (vastu) to be understood by wisdom.

654. The *Bbh* (pp. 308.9–309.6) distinguishes ten kinds of 'skill'. These are (1) 'skill' in means in order to remove hostility in angry beings, (2) 'skill' causing ordinary beings to enter (the path), (3) 'skill' causing beings who have entered (the path) to ripen, (4) 'skill' in delivering sentient beings who have been ripened, (5) 'skill' in worldly *śāstras*, (6) 'skill' in discerning the arising of mistaken observance in moral conduct of commitments, (7) 'skill' in the unsurpassed resolve, (8) 'skill' in the Śrāvakayāna, (9) 'skill' in the Pratyekabuddhayāna, (10) 'skill' in the Mahāyāna. Altogether, these produce the five cardinal actions of a bodhisattva. By the first four types of 'skill', the bodhisattva achieves his own benefit and that of his fellow beings. The fifth 'skill' renders him invincible. The sixth 'skill' establishes him in the vow-observance. By the seventh type of 'skill' he accomplishes all future objectives and by the eighth, ninth and tenth types of 'skill', the bodhisattva teaches the Dharma in accordance with the faculties, lineages and resolutions of the people whom he tries to convert. These objectives are clearly quite different from those postulated in the *Mvś* or *Bdp* and do not appear to be connected to their types of 'skill'.

Compare these lists with the rather different enumeration that is found in the Ratnameghasūtra (35, p. 182.5.1-3), distinguishing the following ten kinds of 'skill' of bodhisattvas: (1) 'skill' in the non-existence of a self (anātman), (2) 'skill' in the ripening of deeds (karmavipāka), (3) 'skill' in the conditioned (saṃskṛta), (4) 'skill' in the flow of existence (saṃsārasantana), (5) 'skill' in the transitoriness of existence (saṃsāranivṛtta), (6) 'skill' in the Śrāvakayāna, (7) 'skill' in the Pratyekabuddhayāna, (8) 'skill' in the Mahāyāna, (9) 'skill' in refraining from evil deeds (mārakarmatyāga), (10) 'skill' in non-regressing wisdom (anirvṛttaprajñā). An alternative sixfold list is given in the Saṃdhis (pp. 116.15-119.4), distinguishing (1) 'skill' in the production of the thought, (2) 'skill' in the duration of thought, (3) 'skill' in the destruction of thought, (4) 'skill' in the increase of thought, (5) 'skill' in the decrease of thought, (6) 'skill' in means.

The Vism (pp. 128-136) lists ten kinds of 'skill' in absorption (appanākosalla). These include (1) 'skill' in

various expositions of 'skill', I have not discovered two lists that match exactly. In most texts, the purpose of the enumations of 'skill' is mainly organisational, that is, to break up the (bodhisattva) practice into smaller units in order to make the discussion more managable. The topics that are included in the discussions of 'skill' vary greatly, ranging from very general themes (such as 'skill' in the three vehicles) over specific bodhisattva practices (such as 'skill' in liberating sentient beings) to practices of cognition (such as 'skill' in the non-existence of a self). In spite of this diversity there are some types of 'skill' that appear in most lists. Above all, these are 'skill' in skandha, dhātu, āyatana, satya and pratītyasamutpāda. These five 'skills' figure in the Bdp, Akn, Prņ and in all commentarial discussions of 'skill'. Generally, they occurr in the order in which I have cited them and stand at the beginning of the exposition of 'skill'. The factor that ties these five types of 'skill' together is that all of them deal with cognition and introduce the practitioner to the futility of the belief in a self. They are included in sections that discuss the nature of reality or form a part of the expositions of wisdom (prajñā) and knowledge (jñāna).

This applies also to the Bdp. In addition to the 'skills' of skandha, dhātu, āyatana, satya and pratītyasamutpāda the Bdp includes in its exposition of prajñā 'skill' in pratisamvid, pratisaraṇa, puṇyasaṃbhāra and jñānasaṃbhāra, smṛtyupasthāna, bodhyaṅga, āryāṣṭāṅgamārga, śamatha and vipaśyanā, samyakprahāṇa, indriya, bala, ekayānamārga and dharma. 'Skill' in each of these practices contributes to the attainment of wisdom. While the content of the practices follows mostly well-established traditions of thought, the exact use to which they are put in the Bdp is less obvious. As the text itself contains practically no clues that would explain their role in the training of wisdom I have turned for explication to exegetical writings.

The most instructive account of the practice of 'skill' is found in the *Madhyāntavibhāga*. In chapter three, entitled 'Tattvaparipṛcchā', the *Madhyāntavibhāga* discusses 'skill' in *skandha*, *dhātu*, *āyatana*, *pratītyasamutpāda*, *sthānāsthāna*, *indriya*, *adhvan*, *satya*, *yāna* and saṃskrtāsaṃskrta dharma.⁶⁵⁵ According to the commentary, all ten types of 'skill' contribute

cleansing the basis, (2) 'skill' in maintaining balanced faculties, (3) 'skill' in the sign, (4) 'skill' in timely exertion, (5) 'skill' in timely restraint, (6) 'skill' in timely encouragement, (7) 'skill' in timely equipoise, (8) 'skill' in avoiding poorly concentrated persons, (9) 'skill' in cultivating concentrated persons, (10) 'skill' in resoluteness upon concentration. These form part of the general description of the development of samādhi, as they serve to describe the general mental and physical attitudes conducive to concentration and do not appear not to be related to the ten 'skills' cited in the Bdp, Rtm, Mvś or Bbh.

^{655.} Mvś (N), pp. 44-49.

Note that with the eight types of 'skill' of the Akn the Mvś shares all but two kinds, viz., 'skill' in the inevitable/impossible and 'skill' in faculties. These are exactly the two items by which the list in the Mvś

to the destruction of the belief in a self (ātmadṛṣṭi) and have important bearing on the understanding of reality. Each of the 'skills' addresses one particular aspect of the belief in a self. The Mvś reduces the belief in a self to ten component parts. In an order corresponding to the ten 'skills' these are: (1) the illusion of oneness (ekatvagṛāha); (2) the illusion of causality (hetutvagṛāha); (3) the illusion of the experiencer (bhoktṛtvagṛāha); (4) the illusion of the agent (kartṛtvagṛāha); (5) the illusion of independent action (svatantragṛāha); (6) the illusion of dominion (adhipatitvagṛāha); (7) the illusion of permanence (nityatvagṛāha); (8) the illusion of the support of defilement and purity (saṃkliṣṭavyavadānatvagṛāha); (9) the illusion of the meditator (yogitvagṛāha); (10) the illusion of an entity that is either released or bound (amuktamuktatvagṛāha). Of these ten illusions, number 1, 2, 3, 4, 8 and 10 are relevant to our study of the Bdp since they are destroyed through forms of 'skill' that are also found in the Bdp. They are 'skill' in skandha, dhātu, āyatana, pratītyasamutpāda, satya and saṃskṛtāsaṃskṛta dharma.

According to the $Mv\dot{s}$, 'skill' in aggregates prevents the bodhisattva from falling prey to the view that there exists a single reality—an $\bar{a}tman$ —in the five skandha. The Akn- $t\bar{i}k\bar{a}$, commenting on a parallel passage in the Akn, corroborates this view through a list of examples that illustrate the empty, non-substantial nature of the aggregates. Like the Bdp, in order to broaden its explanation, the $Mv\dot{s}$ peruses the aggregates in relation to the world and draws the conclusion that it also shares the same characteristics of manifold conditions (anekatva), compression (abhisamksepa) and divisions (pariccheda).

exceeds that of the Akn. The Bbh (p. 4.6-8) contains yet another shorter version of this list, being reduced to 'skill' in skandha, dhātu, āyatana, sthānāsthāna, satya and pratītyasamutpāda. These are said to figure specifically in the training of śrāvaka and pratyekabuddhas, but are also acquired by the bodhisattva. The same list is included in the Śrotabhūmi (109, p. 287.3.2-3), where it occurrs alongside gotra, lakṣaṇa, etc., in a sequence of sixteen types of attraction (saṃgraha). It appears also in the Prn (23, p. 237.4.4-5).

^{656.} Mvś (N), p. 37, 10b.5, p. 40.1-2. Without regard to philological evidence, the parallel occurrences in the Akn, Bdp, Dbh, Bbh, Sbh, Prbh, etc., nor context, Stephan Anacker takes the term kauśalya to stand for upāyakauśalya (1986, pp, 240-245). Realising the incongruities that are produced by such an interpretation—but apparently not prepared to rethink his position—he attempts to explain these away by the samvrtisatya/paramārthasatya concept, remarking somewhat unconvincingly: "It is interesting that Vasubandhu regards the basic Buddhist analysis of the 'personality' as being only a provisional expedient against the view of individual self ... they are not to be taken literary; they are only temporary antidotes to suffering inducing conceptions, and must ultimately be abandoned themselves" (op. cit, p. 281, n. 42).

^{657.} Mvś (N), p. 44.14a.1-2.

^{658.} I ignore here the fact that the *Bdp* cites also 'skill' in faculties (*indriya*) among its eighteen factual types of 'skill' (R, folio 673.3–75.2) as this has practically nothing in common with the *Mvś's* 'skill' in *indriya*. I have discussed the implications of this nominal parallelism below. For a definition of *kauśalya/akauśalya*, see: *Śrotabhūmi*, p. 303.2.8–5.2.

^{659.} Mvś (N), p. 45.14a.6-14b.1.

^{660.} For the context in which these are set, see my notes to the translation of chapter eleven.

^{661.} Mvś (N), p. 45.6-7.

Skill in elements is important for the destruction of the belief in a self, since it removes the notion of causality. The fault with causality lies in imagining that a self exercises true causal activity by bringing the various dhātu into existence. In order to repudiate this misconception, the Mvś likens dhātu (divided into internal dhātu, external dhātu and cognition-dhātu) to seeds (bīja) alternating simultaneously as cause and effect. Although the problem of the origin of the bīja's potency to generate is not addressed 3, 'skill' in elements eliminates the misconception that the self is capable of causal activity by removing agency from its realm to that of karma. This interpretation corresponds with the treatment of 'skill' in dhātu in the Bdp. Postulating that the elements do not bear any characteristic (lakṣaṇa) by which they would be established as independently existing, the Bdp points out that their sameness is rooted in insubstantiality and non-becoming. Clearly, things that lack substantiality and becoming, being neither conditioned nor unconditioned, are not subject to any causal agency.

Roughly comparable with the illusion of causality is the illusion of agency. Appearing in the Mvś in the fourth place 665, it also addresses causal misconception, except that causality is limited to cognition, whereas the illusion of an agency embraces all types of effects. Both Bdp and Mvś indicate that the mistaken belief in a self as agent is best met by 'skill' in the law of dependent co-origination. 666 More interested in eradicating the misconception that an agent persists in experience than in the twelve members, both works propound that there is no independent agency to trigger any operation outside ignorance, superficial reflection and the causal series itself. 667

Having discussed causality, the Mvś proceeds to the question of experience. It argues that all experience—whether based in the present life or linked with future retribution—cannot be rooted in a self but is conducted through sensefields. For the Bdp, however, 'skill' in sensefields implies, above all, recognition of the sameness of all sensefields. This assumption

^{662.} Mvś (N), p. 45.14b.2 (cf. Siddhi, p. 122, and, for a full treatment of the philosophical problems associated with the bīja theory, pp. 100–123).

^{663.} For an ingenious attempt to solve this problem, see: Siddhi, pp. 102-9.

^{664.} The Akn-tīkā, says that the meaning of dhātu corresponds with the meaning of holding characteristics and has the meaning of cause—with khams, bīja and dbyins being synonyms for 'cause' giving rise to the powers, etc., of the Tathāgata (p. 195.5.2-4).

^{665.} In the Bdp, 'skill' in pratītyasamutpāda is placed last in the ten skills. The rationale for this positioning is obvious, since penetration of dependent co-origination figures among the factors signaling the attainment of wisdom. In a sense, it brings the discussion of prajñā to its logical conclusion, followed only by 'skill' in dharma. On contextual grounds I have decided to treat it alongside the first four types of 'skill', although it will figure again in my discussion of the Bdp's path scheme.

^{666.} Mvś (N), p. 45.14b.4-6; Bdp, R, folio 681.3-683.4.

^{667.} R, folio 682.6-683.3; Mvs (N), p. 45.14b.4-6; cf. Kośa, iii, p. 56.

^{668.} Mvś (N), p. 45.14b.3.

reduces discrimination between virtue and non-virtue *ad absurdum* and prompts the bodhisattva to discourage others from sensefield activity since it only increases mental instability. Even though he identifies the sensefields for what they are—and so abides unperturbed and unaffected by worldly experience—the bodhisattva persists in the path experience.⁶⁶⁹

So far, we have had little difficulty in interpreting the *Bdp's* 'skills' in terms of the *Mvś's* thought on the belief in a self. The very nature of the objects under discussion—*skandha*, *dhātu* and *āyatana*—reveals this purpose. Matters become less clear when we investigate 'skill' in *satya* for its influence on the illusion of the belief in a self. According to the *Mvś*, 'skill' in truth refers above all to the four noble truths. ⁶⁷⁰ This view is also expressed in the *Bdp* where four out of six passages deal with the noble truths. ⁶⁷¹ Besides an interest in the truths, these five passages have one shared concern. They assume the insubstantiality of the person and attempt to demonstrate that the self has no effect on the validity of the noble truths. At first we learn that knowledge of suffering is to see that the aggregates are unborn, that suffering is without origination and destruction, indeed that all *dharma* are uniform. ⁶⁷² The aggregates themselves—though they are the basis of truth-perception—are in fact empty, unborn and in a complete state of cessation. ⁶⁷³

Looking at these propositions in conjunction with the belief in a self based on the illusion of support of defilement and purity (saṃkliṣṭavyavadānatvagrāha), the connection between 'skill' in satya and the doctrine of non-self becomes obvious. Common (defiled) perception would require purity and defilement—the two cardinal facets of the noble truths—to possess a support or subject which could be defiled or pure. The significance of 'skill' in satya lies not only in the perception of defilement (duḥkha/samudaya) and purity (nirodha/mārga) 676,

^{669.} That is to say, he draws them away from the ten ignoble paths of saṃsāra (Akn-ṭīkā, pp. 197.5.6-203.4.8; Msl, p. 124.3-15).

^{670.} Mvś (N), p. 47.15b.3.

^{671.} The passages that do not touch on the concerns of the four noble truths investigate the relationship of the various levels of experience, that is to say, conventional truth (samvṛtisatya), absolute truth (paramārthasatya) and the truth of characteristic (lakṣaṇasatya). As these sections have already been subject to scrutiny, I shall refrain from discussing them again. For interpretations of the concept of the three truths in Buddhism, see: Wayman, 1980, pp. 220-21; Freeman, 1991, pp. 97-115; Sasaki, 1964-5, pp. 236-251; Pagel, 1990, pp. 8-10. Note, however, that in the introductory passage to 'skill' in satya it is the four noble truths that are explicitly cited as the object of this type of 'skill' (R, folio 620.4.-6).

^{672.} R, folio 620.6-621.2.

^{673.} R, folio 622.1-6.

^{674.} Hsien yang sheng chiao lun (T 31, p. 545c; trsl. O'Brien):

[&]quot;Because the fruit of one's past deeds inclines one to practice evil deeds we imagine that there is someone who is defiled. Because it inclines one to practice right deeds, we imagine that there is someone who is purified. But this illusion comes from not understanding the four noble truths."

^{675.} Kośa, vi, p. 122.

but—as shown by the *Bdp*—it rejects also the need for a self to sustain their presence. Knowledge of truth provides a self-contained explanation of their arising and destruction, revealing a fluctuating basis (the aggregates), the character of this basis (non-existence), the nature of the experience (ferry-like) and its origination (no-birth)—four notions that render the presence of a self superfluous to sustain purity and defilement.

To take stock and return briefly to the question of this chapter's overall organisation, we can make two observations concerning the purpose of the types of 'skill' investigated so far. First, the texts make it plain that their primary role is to remove the misconceptions about the self. In this sense, the *Bdp's* first four kinds of 'skill' (including perhaps the more distant 'skill' in dependent co-origination) display a common objective and so were presumably conceived *en bloc*.

This hypothesis, however plausible, leaves several questions unanswered. If the eradication of the belief in a self is limited to 'skill' in skandha, dhātu, āyatana, satya (and pratītyasamutpāda) what is then the role of the remaining types of skill? Moreover, if perceived as a group of practices, what is their exact location on the path? It seems unlikely that such a major feature of the training should have been devised without thought being given to its position.

In general, descriptions of the path tend to place the elimination of the belief in a self at the beginning of the path. There is evidence in the *Bbh* that supports an early position for our five types of 'skill' also. Here, we learn that they (plus 'skill' in the inevitable/impossible) function as bases of knowledge mastered by śrāvaka, pratyekabuddhas and bodhisattvas alike. The remaining types of 'skill' are only accessible to bodhisattvas. We may infer, therefore, that 'skill' in *skandha*, etc., represents a kind of a spiritual foundation on which the *bodhisattvacaryā* is built. Furthermore, as revealed by passages in the Śbh and Prbh, the

^{676.} Kośa, vi, p. 120 (cf. Kośa, i, p. 8).

^{677.} For the tenfold scheme, see: Daśa-bh, pp. 31.10, 43.17; for the fivefold scheme, see: DPP, pp. 21, 37.

^{678.} Bbh, p. 4.6-8

Note that the descriptions of 'skill' in skandha, etc., follow closely the definitions that are given in the Sbh and contain many traits of Śrāvakayāna orientation (cf. Śrāv-bh (Sh), pp. 237-49). A useful indicator of the degree to which the first five types of 'skill' are associated with the Śrāvakayāna in the Sbh is obtained if we look at the sources on which the Sbh drew for inspiration (Śrāv-bh (Sh), pp. 240-49).

^{679.} This, at least, is the opinion of the *Bbh*, which remarks (p. 3.14–18):

"Among them, the lineage of all the śrāvaka and pratyekabuddhas becomes pure through the purification of the obstructions of defilement, not through purification of the obstructions pertaining to the knowledgeable. However, the lineage of bodhisattvas becomes pure not only through purification of the obstruction of defilement, but also through purification of the obstruction pertaining to the knowledgeable."

scope of 'skill' even differs between the śrāvaka and pratyekabuddha. For a śrāvaka, only the 'skills' in *skandha*, *dhātu*, *āyatana*, *pratītyasamutpāda* and *sthānāsthāna* are attainable whereas a pratyekabuddha also transforms *satya* into an object of 'skill'. The scope and advancement in 'skill', it seems, become a type of gradation demarcating the three vehicles.

By themselves, these findings do not explain the position of 'skill' in skandha, etc., in the overall scheme of the Bdp. The key to this problem is found outside the Bdp. A glance at the list at the beginning of the current investigation shows that 'skill' in skandha, dhātu, āyatana and satya is placed between the discussion of the bhāvanāmārga and 'skill' in pratisaṃvid. The chief characteristics of the bhāvanāmārga are the practice of meditation and the attainment of the śrāmaṇyaphala. In the Śbh, 'skill' in skandha, etc., occurs precisely in conjunction with these two training aspects. They are an important attribute particularly for the śrotaāpanna⁶⁸² and become objects of meditation (ālambana) in the śrāvaka training. This would seem to tally with the contemplative practice supposedly undertaken on the bhāvanāmārga in general, and in its laukika phase in particular. Hence, there appears to be a case for linking 'skill' in skandha, etc., with the discussion of bhāvanāmārga—the implication being that 'skill' forms a part of it. Standha, etc., with the discussion of bhāvanāmārga—the implication being that 'skill' forms

To find a connection between 'skill' in *skandha*, etc., and 'skill' in *pratisaṃvid* has proved more problematic. Essentially, we find two apparently contradictory views. One propounds that the *pratisaṃvid* lead to 'skill' in *skandha*, etc., and the other that 'skill' in *skandha*, etc., provides a basis for the acquisition of the *pratisaṃvid*. Having considered the evidence, I am inclined to adopt the first opinion.

In support of the first view we have a statement in the Dbh:⁶⁸⁶

^{680.} Śrāv-bh (Sh), pp. 237–249; Prbh, pp. 376–7.

^{681.} For the pratyekabuddha, 'skill' in *skandha*, etc., is present in all three major phases of this training. Judging by the brief passages in the *Prbh*, it prepares the ground for the 'penetration of the certainty of truth' via direct comprehension (*abhisamaya*) and the eventual attainment of the state of certainty itself (*op. cit.*). This interpretation would place 'skill' in *skandha*, etc., on the *darśanamārga*.

^{682.} Šrāv-bh (Sh), pp. 177.8-183.11.

^{683.} op. cit., pp. 193.4-258.13

For a superior edition of this passage, see: Schmithausen, 1982, pp. 460-472. A parallel account of the psychological experiences underlying these meditations is found in the *Abhidh-sam (R)*, pp. 134-36.

^{684.} For details on these meditations during the *bhāvanāmārga*, see: *Kośa*, ii, pp. 134-6, 180, 205; iii, p. 196; vi, pp. 186-189 and chapter viii; *Abhidh-sam (R)*, pp. 110-11; *Mppś*, iii, pp. 1213-1328; *MBT*, iii, pp. 1-8.

The association of the *pratisamvid* with meditation is further corroborated in a key passage in the *Bbh* that affirms that they constitute knowledge springing from meditative practice ($bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}mayam$... $jn\bar{a}nam$). *Bbh*, pp. 258.6-7, 258.9-10, 258.12-13, 258.15-16.

^{685.} According to the *Bbh*, the three types of wisdom (i.e., śrutamayī-, cintāmayī- and bhāvanāmayīprajñā) themselves are conducive to the attainment of the lower six kinds of 'skill' (*Bbh*, p. 33.10–15).

^{686.} Daśa-bh, p. 78.3-4.

"By the unique knowledge of own-being of things (arthapratisamvid), the bodhisattva enters into the attainment of 'skill' in aggregates, elements, sensefields, truth and dependent co-origination."

A similar proposition is also found in the Bbh: 687

"Reliance on the boddhisattva's four [kinds of] unique knowledge should be known to lead to 'skill' in the five bases of the bodhisattva; being 'skill' in aggregates, elements, sensefields, dependent co-origination and the inevitable/impossible."

This passage also underpins what we have already inferred from the Śbh and Prbh concerning 'skill' in skandha, etc., being cognitive foundations. Ironically, it is this function that gives weight to the alternative position. To this effect we read in the Visuddhimagga:⁶⁸⁸

"Now, the things classed as aggregates, sensefields, elements, faculties, truths, dependent co-origination, etc., are the soil (*bhūmi*) of this understanding [of the unique knowledge]. Two purifications, viz., purification of virtue and consciousness are its roots. Five purifications, viz., purification of view, purification by overcoming doubt, by knowledge and vision of the path ... are the trunk [of their understanding]."

To the *Vism* knowledge of the aggregates, etc., is quite clearly a cornerstone to the development of the *patisambhidā*. 689 Likewise, it is probably no coincidence that knowledge of the aggregates and knowledge of the four noble truths are discussed immediately before the unique knowledge. 690 Additional support for this proposition, however, is thinly spread and subject to interpretation.

Introducing this statement on the relation between 'skill' in *skandha*, etc., and the *pratisamvid* the *Dbh* comments that the bodhisattva "understands by the unique knowledge of designations the methodical (asambheda) 'skill' distinguishing the knowledge of dharma" (op. cit., p. 77.22–23).

^{687.} *Bbh*, p. 258.17–20.

^{688.} Vism, p. 443.

^{689.} Having discussed the qualities of the *patisambhidā*, as if to underline the importance of a correct understanding of the aggregates, etc., to their generation, the *Vism* dedicates the next seventy pages to a description of their nature, functions and attributes (*Vism*, pp. 444–516).

^{690.} Vism, p. 440.

In the Śbh the context places the practice of 'skill' into a meditative structure, specifically, on the bhāvanāmārga. Apart from the practice of the dhyāna, etc., advancement through the bhāvanāmārga involves a number of ancillary practices, particularly the noble eightfold path and joint practice of 'perfect mental quietude' (śamatha) and 'insight' (vipaśyanā).⁶⁹¹ If we accept that 'skill' pertains to the bhāvanāmārga or, at least, to meditation, by implication it is possible to draw a link between 'skill' and śamatha/vipaśyanā. This connection allows us to utilise a passage in the Saṃdhis where we learn that:⁶⁹²

"Bodhisattvas who cultivate perfect mental quietude and insight possess the unique knowledge of the own-being of things and the unique knowledge of designation."

This statement suggests that the attainment of (at least two) pratisamvid springs from the practice of śamatha and vipaśyanā; that is to say, from meditation on the bhāvanāmārga. In other words, it arises from the very context in which 'skill' in skandha, etc., is being developed. This position is sustained by the content that is given to the pratisamvid in the Samdhis. In common with the Bdp, the Samdhis dwells on precisely those practices that were the focus of 'skill'. More than just the fact of it referring to the problem of the self and defining the aggregates, elements, sensefields and noble truths 693, it is the brevity in which these are treated that suggests that the bodhisattva was assumed to acquire 'skill' prior to the pratisamvid. In this sense, 'skill' in skandha, etc., would provide the cognitive foundation on which the pratisamvid would develop.

And yet, on balance, I do not think that these clues—however persuasive—allow us to disregard the unequivocal statements of the *Dbh* and *Bbh*. They say quite clearly that it is the *pratisaṃvid* that lead to 'skill' in *skandha*, etc., and not *vice versa*.⁶⁹⁴ It is perhaps appropriate

^{691.} Abhidh-sam (R), p. 126; Kośa, vi, pp. 279-80, 300-301; viii, pp. 130-31, 146, Satya-s (S), pp. 448-49; MBT, iii, pp. 205.5-207.11.

^{692.} Samdhis (ÉLa), p. 98.1-4.

^{693.} Samdhis (ÉLa), pp. 99.12–13, 99. 16–23, 100.12–14, 102.15–19, 103.1

It is perhaps significant that all of these references occur in the arthapratisamvid section that—while in second position in the Samdhis—is the first of the pratisamvid in the Bdp. By placing it at the beginning (a move that is non-standard by most treatises on the pratisamvid), the Bdp brings the arthapratisamvid references to skandha, etc., close to the section on skill—a device that might have served to accentuate an otherwise rather weak and indirect connection between the two sections.

^{694.} It is conceivable that the relationship between 'skill' and pratisamvid has changed in the course of Buddhist history. However, the chronological closeness of the Bdp and Dbh, on the one hand, and the Bbh and Vism on the other hand apart from the fact that such re-interpretation would have involved a total reversal of whichever position was the original, renders this possibility remote.

to consider both positions as equally valid within their own textual traditions until further evidence comes to light to clarify the matter.

But now let us move on to look at the actual treatment of the pratisamvid. In contents the Bdp adopted what have become well-established patterns of exposition. 695 Under the heading of arthapratisamvid it discusses the own-being of things and scrutinises reality from the viewpoint of the absolute truth, including some of the broader principles that pertain to the path attainments. 696 Similarly, dharmapratisamvid, revealing knowledge of instructions and designations that introduces to the names and characteristics of phenomena, deals largely with standard issues. 697 Niruktipratisamvid and pratibhānapratisamvid bestow intimate knowledge of languages and confer great eloquence. 698 Traditionally appreciated for their role in conversion activity, they have less bearing on the cognitive dimension of the training than on that aspect of the vow committing the bodhisattva to spread the Buddha's teachings. 699 As

^{695.} More specifically, it agrees, for instance, with the Mpps (iii, p. 1619) that the pratisamvid manifest three levels of attainment, depending on whether they are practised by śrāvaka, pratyekabuddhas or bodhisattvas. It also agrees with the Vibhāsā (op. cit., p. 1616) that the object of the arthapratisamvid is the absolute truth (paramārtha).

It is perhaps worth noting that the Bdp contains by far the most detailed analysis of the pratisamvid, covering almost nine folios in the Peking edition. In the sūtras, the next best presentations are found in the Samdhis (ÉLa), pp. 98.1-103.5, and Daśa-bh, pp. 77.1-79.3, while in the śastras it is the Mpps, Bbh and Msl that give the best account (references see below).

^{696.} R, folio 624.2-625.5.

^{697.} R, folio 626.7-628.5.

^{698.} R, folio 628.6-631.2.

^{699.} See, for instance, Bbh, p. 353.19; Daśa-bh, pp. 77.1-5, 79.4-7 where teaching and the becoming of a dharmabhānaka are named as the chief purpose of the pratisamvid (cf. Abhidh-sam (R), p. 172). While the nature of the four pratisamvid is generally well-explained, their exact scope is only insufficiently indicated. Two passages in the nikāya would indicate that in early Buddhism they did not belong to the most elevated path practices. They were apparently within the reach of 'ordinary' monks' (A I, p. 24, A II, p. 161) and, for Sariputra, attainable only a few months after ordination (A II, p. 160). Although by nature inseparable and simultaneously acquired, differences in ranking exist. For the Kośa (vii, pp. 89-94), the pratisamvid fall into two categories. First, the dharma- and niruktipratisamvid pertain to the sphere of worldly knowledge (samvrtijñāna) and operate only in the stages of the kāmadhātu and dhyāna (the niruktipratisamvid is restricted to the first dhyāna, while the dharmapratisamvid pertains to all four dhyāna stages; Kośa, vii, p. 93). The reason given is that they have as objects nāmakāya and languages. The other two, artha- and pratibhānapratisamvid, belong, by implication, to the lokottara consciousness. Found in all nine stages of meditation and corresponding respectively to the ten and nine kinds of knowledge (jñāna)—the nirodhajñāna being excluded from the pratibhānapratisamvid (Kośabhāsya, pp. 418-19) and only attained by masters of meditation (samādhivasisamprakhyāna)—they were evidently regarded to be of a higher order. To some extent, this grading is echoed in the Mahāyāna interpretation of the unique knowledge, in particular with regard to the pratibhānapratisamvid. The contents of the first two, that is, artha- and dharmapratisamvid correspond largely to the śrāvaka interpretation, in the sense that the chief concern is the examination of reality (Siddhi, p. 70). Employing a comparable methodology but producing variant results, both śrāvaka and bodhisattvas investigate through them the own-nature (svalakṣaṇa) of phenomena and the terminology commonly used to designate them. Differences only arise with the nirukti- and pratibhanapratisamvid. For the śravaka, niruktipratisamvid has as object 'expressions of language relative to the thing designated and the designation' (atthadhammaniruttābhilāpa) or more generally speech (vac). This led to its emphasis being placed on philological knowledge of grammatical

these general facets of the *pratisamvid* are widely documented, I shall confine my analysis here to those issues in which the *Bdp* deviates from the standard model.⁷⁰⁰

Differences relate primarily to organisation and allocation. The first, most noticeable, difference lies in the order in which the artha- and dharmapratisamvid occur. Most texts I consulted place the dharmapratisamvid at the beginning of the four, followed artha-, nirukti- and pratibhānapratisamvid. In the Bdp—perhaps for reasons of continuity—the sequence between dharma- and arthapratisamvid has been reversed so that it is artha that introduces the unique knowledge. To Second, the allocation of some of the topics diverges from that of other texts. For instance, the Bdp incorporates in arthapratisamvid the theme of the non-characteristics of dharma and a reference to the pratisaraṇa—two issues belonging to the dharmapratisamvid according to the Mppś. To Similarly controversial, though possibly correct, is the inclusion of the eighty-four thousand types of dharmaskandha under dharmapratisamvid. These, according to the Mppś, pertain to the pratibhānapratisamvid. To The Bdp's incorporation of a number of specific path features in the arthapratisamvid is also striking, when in most other texts its treatment does not go beyond the own-characteristics (svalaksana) of dharma.

forms, syntax, etc. (Vibh, pp. 295-9; Prajňaptapādaśāstra cited in Kośa, vii, pp. 93-4). Now, judging by the material included in Mahāyāna treatises on the subject, for the bodhisattva, knowledge of nirukti is more a question of fluency in languages—human and non-human. Philological detail is rarely mentioned and is certainly not the focus of attention (Bbh, pp. 258.11-13, 353.17-354.26). The reason for this adjustment is the central role of preaching in the bodhisattva training, particularly during the final stages. Recognising the need for effective communication, the pratibhānapratisamvid sets the previous pratisamvid to best effect. Being the last and highest form of unique knowledge, it merges the data of the previous three in order to pass them on to others for conversion and designates "l'habileté dans le discours qui procède de la connaisance des êtres à convertir" (Siddhi, p. 652). The bodhisattva is now in the position to adapt his exhortations to the spiritual faculties of beings (Mpps, iii, pp. 1622-23); he is accomplished in wisdom and magical powers which allow him to alter his appearance and birth-destiny at will; he is well-versed in all branches of knowledge and their texts. In short, he has assembled all necessary ingredients for an effective communication of the teachings of the Dharma. It is no coincidence that this attainment takes place close to the pinnacle of his career (Daśa-bh, pp. 77.1-81.3; Bbh, pp. 353.8-354.11), since it is only from the eighth stage onwards that he himself is fully accomplished in the Dharma, skilful means and magical powers. During the sādhumatībhūmi (corresponding to the pratisamvidvihāra of the Bbh), these three factors are then complemented with attainments in languages and eloquence to become the pillars of his conversion activity.

^{700.} Good accounts of the general nature and scope of the *pratisamvid* can be found in the *Vibh*, pp. 293-305; *Vism*, pp. 372-76; *Mppŝ*, iii, pp. 1616-24; *Kośa*, vii, pp. 89-94; *Kośabhāṣya*, pp. 418-21; *Amṛtar (B)*, pp. 214-15; *Bbh*, p. 258.4-17; *Msl*, pp. 138.19-139.16 (for further ref. see: *Msg*, pp. 53-54*).

^{701.} The standard order, for instance, is found in the *Dbh*, *Samdhis*, *Kośa*, *Abhidh-sam* (R), *Amrtar* (B), *Bbh*, *Msl*, *Dhsgr* and *Msg* while that of the *Bdp* is only attested in the *Vism*, *Pañca*, *Akn*, *Samādh* and *Mppś*. Dayal suggests (p. 262) that these differences reflect a shift away from the formula that is found in the nikāya, giving precedence to the *pratisaṃvid* of *artha* over *dharma*. Taking into account the meagre evidence for such a claim (there being only one occasion in the primary nikāya where this sequence is attested; but see: *Paṭis*, i, pp. 88, 119; ii, pp. 150, 157, 185, 193; *Vibh*, pp. 293–305; *Vism*, pp. 440 ff), he later acknowledges that this is pure speculation (p. 264).

^{702.} R, folio 625.5; Mpps, iii, p. 1621.

^{703.} R, folio 627.3-628.5; Mppś, iii, p. 1623.

^{704.} See, however, Samdhis (ÉLa), p. 104.7–27.

If nothing else, these discrepancies show that the contents of the individual pratisamvid were exposed to change longer than their consistency in later treatises might imply. This itself is not surprising, considering that most early sources provide a bare outline of their contents. In the four principal nikāya, the only references to the patisambhidā are found in the Anguttaranikāya and even these give away little of their scope. Even many of the early Mahāyāna sūtras are silent on the contents of the pratisamvid. The Aṣṭa, Vkn, Kp, Up, Śgs, Saddhp and Bhadra-vy, to name just a few, contain only a handful of allusions. Apparently, interest in the details of the pratisamvid only arose with the second wave of Mahāyāna sūtras, producing the kind of exposition we find in the Bdp, Akn, Dbh and Samdhis.

Much of what has been said about the *pratisamvid* applies also the *pratisaraṇa* that follow on the *pratisamvid* in exposition of the *Bdp*.⁷⁰⁸ They are not found as a complete set in the early *suttas*, though they are already attested in their initial stages in the Dīgha- and Majjhimanikāya.⁷⁰⁹ From a few scattered references in Śākyamuni's discourses the *pratisaraṇa* progressed to a fully developed set of practices with a secure place in the bodhisattva training.⁷¹⁰ As is so often the case when concerned with bodhisattva practices, one is well advised to look for the most instructive account to the *Bbh*.⁷¹¹

But first to the Bdp. The discussion of the pratisarana in the Bdp is rather unusual in several respects. First, there is the astonishing amount of detail about the individual reliances. Except for the Akn, I have found no other text that comes anywhere near its exposition in length. Second, the Bdp casts its treatment of the pratisarana in a non-standard order, leading

^{705.} Note that in the Vkn, the contents of artha- and dharmapratisamvid appear to have merged into a single concept. In chapter xii, § 11 (p. 260), we meet with the term bhūtārthadharmapratisamvid that Lamotte took to mean "infallible penetration concerning the Law in its true meaning". I do not know what prompted Lamotte to swerve from the pratisamvid context here, but to translate it as "unique knowledge concerning the own-being and designations of reality" seems more appropriate.

^{706.} A II, p. 160; III, pp. 113, 120

The earliest canonical account of any length is found in the *Patis* (i, pp. 86-87, 121-22), while the most detailed analysis of the *Abhidhamma* is given in the *Vibh* (pp. 293-305).

^{707.} Vkn (p. 260), Śgs (pp. 150, 188), Saddhp (pp. 202, 204), Bhadra-vy (R), p. 20.17-18; Pañca (p. 211); they are altogether absent from the Aṣṭa, Kp and Ug.

^{708.} During the first half of this century, much useful material on the pratisarana has been collected by Étienne Lamotte and Louis de La Vallée Poussin. Most of this has been published in footnotes to the Abhidharmakośa (Kośa, ix, pp. 246-48) and Le Traité de la Grande Vertu de Sagesse (Mppś, i, pp. 536-41) and in "La critique d'interpretation dans le Bouddhisme" (Annuaire de Institut de Philologie et d'Histoire Orientales et Slaves, 9, 1949, pp. 341-61).

^{709.} D II, p. 124; cf. Waldschmidt, 1950-51, p. 238.24.1-3 (dharmatā/pudgala), D III, pp. 127-8, M I, p. 265 (nītārtha/neyārtha); M II, p. 240 (artha/vyañjana); Vin, i, p. 40 (nītārtha/neyārtha).

^{710.} The first sūtra to give a detailed account of the four pratisaraṇa appears to have been the Catuhpratisaraṇasūtra. This text, however, extant in several Sanskrit, Tibetan and Chinese versions, is a relatively late composition. Nevertheless, it is still regarded as one of the principal sources on the pratisaraṇa and is regularly cited in conjunction with the four reliances (viz., Mppś, i, p. 536; Lamotte, 1949, p. 4).

^{711.} Bbh, pp. 256.23-58.3.

to repetitions and some convolution. Third, taking full advantage of the samvrtisatya/paramārthasatya dichotomy, its uniform technique of explication is surprising.

The first pratisarana discussed is 'reliance on the spirit as opposed to the letter' (artha/vyañjana). The Bdp provides many examples to explain why it is the spirit that is given ultimately precedence. The thought that only the spirit contains the true meaning of the Dharma in the final analysis, whilst the letter is little more than an expedient for expressing and reaching it, is of course not new. It is already mirrored in the famous stanza of Śāriputra uttered in response to Aśvajit's admission that, as a novice, he could not propound the Dharma in full:⁷¹²

"Let it be so, my friend. Tell me a little or a great deal of it, but speak to me of its spirit. I need only the spirit, so why be preoccupied with the letter?"

Such preoccupation with the meaning stems from the conviction that purely literal exegesis is certain to produce incomplete or even mistaken interpretations and will fail to lead to liberation.⁷¹³ Equally, it was always appreciated that flawless preservation of the letter is essential to discovering the correct meaning, for:⁷¹⁴

"If the phrases and syllables are wrongly arranged, the meaning in turn is impossible to discover."

Recognition of a combined need for a clearly formulated textual basis and perception of the spirit as the ultimate bearer of Buddhist thought also inspired the *Bdp* in its discussion of the *artha/vyañjana pratisamvid*. Taking a more positive view by proposing complementarity (but pertaining to different levels of cognition), the text does not tire in reiterating the benefits that spring from their integration:⁷¹⁵

"The letter—disciplining body, speech and mind—instructs in achieving all attainments of learning and purity. The spirit—not apprehending body, speech and

^{712.} Vin, i, p. 40.

^{713.} Lankāv, p. 196.4-11.

^{714.} Nett, p. 21 (ref. Lamotte).

^{715.} R, folio 632.4-633.3.

mind—purifies the non-accumulation of karmic formations. ... The letter, being the receptacle of all that has been heard, is the root of wisdom. The spirit is the ineffable meaning. The letter instructs in the practice of the thirty-seven bodhipākṣika dharma. The spirit realises the fruit of their practice. The letter instructs in suffering, its origin and the path. The spirit realises its cessation."

After the discussion of the artha/vyañjana pratisamvid, the Bdp expounds direct knowledge and discursive insight (jñāna/vijñāna). At first, however, for reasons that are not entirely clear, it interposes a brief section introducing reliance on sūtras of precise/provisional meaning (nītārtha/neyārtha) and reliance on the foundation of being/person (dharmatā/pudgala). This interpolation is practically devoid of information beyond the standard formula. Both pratisarana are explained in detail after the jñāna/vijñāna pratisarana, and yet they are styled to conclude the entire fourfold pratisarana discussion even though jñāna/vijñāna pratisamvid has not been mentioned. This is probably another piece of evidence of the Bdp's conceptual 'immaturity'. Things are further complicated by the introductory passage to the jñāna/vijñāna section which says that—in apparent reference to the artha/vyañjana pratisamvid—direct knowledge and discursive insight fall under 'skill' in the letter. Tellingly, the Akn that otherwise follows the Bdp so closely does not show these incongruities. The same and the same and the same artha/vyañjana pratisamvid—direct constitution of the Bdp so closely does not show these incongruities.

After a fruitless search for an explanation in the standard works, I came across the following passage in the *Tchou wei mo kie king*:⁷¹⁸

"There are two sorts of dharma. First, vyañjana or the letter. Second, artha or the spirit. One should not rely on vyañjana. There are two sorts of artha. First, artha known through discursive insight (vijñāna). Second, artha known through direct knowledge (jñāna). Vijñāna only seeks after the five false and illusory object of desire (kāmaguṇa). It does not seek after the real truth. Whereas jñāna seeks after the real truth and destroys the five objects of desire. Thus one should rely on artha known through jñāna and not rely on artha known through vijñāna. It is in order to seek after artha known through jñāna that one relies on jñāna."

^{716.} I have discussed this convolution in greater detail in note 114 of my translation.

^{717.} Akn, p. 64.2.4.

^{718.} T 1775, chpt. 10, p. 417a.10-25 (I follow here Lamotte's translation; Lamotte 1976, p. 262). Note that in early Mahāyāna literature most lists of the *pratisaraṇa* begin with the pair *dharmatā/pudgala*, the only exception being the *Bhadra-vy (R)*, p. 100.

To us, the significance of this interpretation concerns the inclusion of $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na/vij\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ under 'skill' in the letter. Uniquely among treatises on the pratisarana, it establishes a logical connection between the four pratisarana and explains the late reference to vyañjana. Kumārajīva's choice to place the focus on artha—not vyañjana—and to make it the target of jñāna and vijñāna, introduces a further complication, though it throws some light on the underlying structure of the Bdp's treatment of the pratisarana. In order to link the exposition of jñāna/vijñāna with that of artha/vyañjana, the Bdp returned to artha/vyañjana so as to provide vyañjana as the object of jñāna/vijñāna. The fact that direct knowledge is not in the least concerned with literal understanding—perception of words being by definition part of conventional (vyavahāra) knowledge—is apparently ignored:719

"The bodhisattva attaches great importance to direct knowledge of realisation and not to mere discursive insight of the letter or the spirit, arising from listening and reflecting. Understanding that what should be known through knowledge arising from contemplation cannot be recognised through discursive insight arising from listening and reflecting [alone], he abstains from rejecting or denying the teachings given by the Tathāgata, profound as they are."

Next, the Bdp contrasts the attributes of $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$ with those of $vij\tilde{n}\tilde{a}na$. It establishes direct knowledge in the lokottara domain and defines discursive insight as the ordinary cognition subject to false mental constructions:⁷²⁰

"Discursive insight persists in the sphere of conditioned *dharma* but does not wander in the unconditioned [while] direct knowledge is perception of the unconditioned."

In essence, the treatment of the third *pratisaraṇa*, contrasting *sūtras* of provisional meaning (*neyārtha*) with those of precise meaning (*nītārtha*), is rather similar with the *artha/vyañjana*

^{719.} Bbh, p. 257.16–21 (cf. Samdhis (ÉLa), p. 105)
Perhaps because it noted this incongruity, the Pelliot manuscript omits the paragraph which contains the reference to 'skill in letter' (Pelliot, 977, 1b.7–2a.2).
720. R, folio 636.4–5.

pratisaraṇa. This is the case because of the conceptual closeness of artha and nītārtha on the one hand, and vyañjana and neyārtha on the other hand:⁷²¹

"The bodhisattva who resorts to the spirit (artha) and not to the letter (vyañjana) penetrates all enigmatic words (saṃdhāyabhāṣita) of the lord buddhas."

In order to distinguish those texts to be taken literally from those requiring interpretation, the *Bdp* goes to some lengths to describe the attributes of *neyārtha* and *nītārtha sūtras*. As main criteria it suggests purpose, content, style and philosophical explicitness. Depending whether a text advocates the perpetuation of path activity or supports the immediate cessation of all action; whether it sets out to elucidate the conventional truth or absolute truth; whether it explains impurity or achieves complete purification; whether it partakes in duality or not, we are dealing with either a *neyārtha* or *nītārtha sūtra*. Texts that add non-essential material, written in a pleasing style, are *neyārtha* whereas *sūtras* that are terse and profound are *nītārtha*.⁷²² The fact that most, if not all, of these criteria are highly subjective and produce no overall and generally valid guidelines is not addressed in our text.⁷²³ Aware that literal interpretations (*yathārutārthagrāha*) fail to accomplish Dharma comprehension⁷²⁴, Buddhist scholars of all ages frequently drew attention to this problem:⁷²⁵

^{721.} Bbh, p. 108.23-24.

^{722.} Kośa, i, p. 75:

[&]quot;Rien n'établit que ce sūtra soit de sens clair; le fait qu'il s'exprime en termes de définition ne prouve rien; car Bhagavat donne des définitions qui portent seulement sur l'élément essentiel ou capital de l'object à définir."

^{723.} In fact, to my knowledge Buddhism has never succeeded in establishing such a general principle of identification, even though several attempts were made to this effect.

See, for instance, a section in the $Mpp\dot{s}$ (i, pp. 539–40) where Kumārajīva proposes that $s\bar{u}tras$ containing allegations that are obvious and readily comprehended are $n\bar{t}t\bar{a}rtha$, while texts where the meaning is unclear and teach views through skilful means that seem at first incorrect and require explanation are $ney\bar{a}rtha$.

For the Samādh (Dutt, 1941-53, ii, p. 78) it is above all a question whether a text seemingly acknowledges the reality of the self:

[&]quot;Whoever knows the value of texts that have a precise meaning knows the way in which emptiness has been taught by the Sugata; but wherever reference is taken to the individual, human being or man, he knows that all those texts should be regarded as possessing provisional meaning."

For Buddhaghoṣa, in contrast, texts that wish to lay claim to $n\bar{t}t\bar{a}rtha$ status, must deal with impermanence, suffering and non-self, because "independent of the Tathāgata's appearance in the world, causality—this fundamental essence of things remains". $S\bar{u}tras$ that deal with individuals and speak of the pudgala should be treated as $ney\bar{a}rtha$ since from the absolute point of view no individuals exist ($Manorathap\bar{u}rani$, ii, p. 188; ref. Lamotte). See also Madh. vrtti (p. 43) that accepts principles of distinction that are rather similar to the first two and last five of the Bdp.

^{724.} Msl, p. 138.10-11.

^{725.} Bbh, pp. 257.8-16.

"A bodhisattva who places faith and confidence in the Tathāgata—only trusting his very word—relies on sūtras of precise meaning and not on sūtras of provisional meaning. By relying on sūtras of precise meaning, he cannot swerve from the Dharma and Vinaya. Indeed, in sūtras of provisional meaning the interpretation of the meaning—[typically] diffused in several directions—is ill-defined and causes hesitation. Hence, if a bodhisattva does not adhere to sūtras of precise meaning, he might swerve from the Dharma and Vinaya."

The last *pratisaraṇa*, advocating reliance on *dharmatā* as opposed to the person, is in many respects the most fundamental of all four. Summing up the concerns that led to the formulation of the 'four great authorities' (*mahāpadesa*), it establishes the superiority of Dharma 'compatibility' over personal authority, however respected the person in question might be. The recognition of the many shortcomings that taint the human mind, the acceptance of the Dharma should not rest on blind faith the should grow out of sound reasoning based on personal experience and understanding. To quote once again from the *Bbh*: To quote once again

"He who relies on sound reason and not on a person's [authority] does not swerve from the meaning of thusness. He does not depend on others when confronted with the Dharma."

The Bdp, however, is not so much concerned with the benefits that accrue through this pratisaraṇa, than to define the concepts of pudgala and dharmatā themselves. Thus, instead of arguing from the changeableness of the human mind, it explains that the Buddha's use of the term pudgala is nothing but an expedient means and should not be taken literally. Warning that undue attachment to the pudgala would harm one's prospects of liberation, the Bdp invites one to strive for a complete understanding of reality and to turn this into one's

^{726.} D II, pp. 124–126.

^{727.} MI, p. 133.

^{728.} MI, p. 265.

^{729.} Bbh, p. 257.6-8.

^{730.} Note, that we have a number of inconclusive variant readings in the *Bdp*, alternating between *dharma* (folio 638.1) and *dharmatā* (folio 631.5, but Pelliot, 977, 1a.2: *dharma*; 638.7; 639.4). Judging by the context no difference in meaning is intended.

^{731.} R, folio 638.2-7.

refuge. Since reality bears the characteristics of sameness and lies beyond discrimination, perception must not be conducted through sensory cognition ($dh\bar{a}tu$), but is to be gained only through dharma-observance and reliance on the foundation of being.⁷³²

Accumulation (saṃbhāra) of merit (puṇya) and pristine cognition (jñāna) is the first major practice 'skill' in which is not included in the introductory list. Building on attainments of the pratisaṃvid and pratisaraṇa, both types of accumulation form a highly esteemed aspect of the training and, according to some, are rivalled only by generosity (dāna) in benefit.

734. Bbh, p. 216.4-11

According to the same text (op. cit., p. 35.2-5), the two sambhāra become collectively the primary causes of enlightenment. While merit is the principal (pradhāna) cause, it is pristine cognition that is of supreme importance. The causes of ripening, ripening itself and the reward springing from ripening all stem from merit but merit depends on pristine cognition (jñānaśrita) which removes all defilements (samkleśa), (op. cit., p. 34.26-27; cf. Msl, p. 139.18-19). This view is mirrored in a passage in the Dbh (Daśa-bh, p. 67.16) where, at the eighth stage, the accumulation of the roots of virtue (kuśalamūlasambhāra) is held essential to the acquisition of supernatural faculties. On the effects of punya and jñānasambhāra, the Dbh remarks (Daśa-bh, p. 45.1-4):

"Because [the bodhisattva] augments the accumulation of merit, he becomes insatiable. Because he seeks the accumulation of pristine cognition, he becomes a person of unfaltering vigour. Because he gathers an accumulation of benevolence and pity he becomes a man of unweary intention."

A further indicator of the importance of punya and $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ is perhaps their inclusion in a number of lists at the upper end of the path containing factors that mark the attainment of the next higher path-stages $(Da\dot{s}a-bh, pp. 55.6, 63.20, 82.4)$. For another overall correlation of the two $sambh\bar{a}ra$ with the various path phases, see: Msl, p. 140.10–14.

An even greater role is played by punya and $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ in the implementation of the commitments of the bodhisattva's vow (Msl, p. 44.7-11):

"For the sake of sentient beings, I shall acquire an accumulation of merit and pristine cognition. When an accumulation of merit and pristine cognition has been assembled, all living beings will obtain absolute purity up to the degree of strength of the ten powers (daśabala) as the highest point of unobstructed knowledge."

^{732.} R. folio 639.1-5.

^{733.} Although by far the best known types, Buddhist sources record a number of alternative and frequently numerous kinds of accumulation. In the Lalitavistara, for instance, we meet with accumulation in punya, jñāna, śamatha and vidarśana, while in the Śikṣ (p. 191.4-5) we learn of a dharmasambhāra and a sarvadhyānaprajñāngasambhāra (p. 182.18). The Akn speaks besides the standard accumulations of punya and jñāna of a prajñāsambhāra and buddhadharmasambhāra (pp. 47.1.7-48.1.3). The longest list of sambhāra I have discovered is found in the Karuṇāp (Y) (i, pp. 338.5-341.7) containing forty different types of accumulation.

In the Yogācārabhūmi, we meet with the following explanation:

[&]quot;There are four kinds of accumulation. First, the accumulation of merit. Second, the accumulation of pristine cognition. Third, the accumulation of the past. Fourth, the accumulation of the present. The accumulation of merit is that by which one obtains the regular equipment and the abundant jewels; by which one meets the truly rich fields as his good teachers and friends; by which one becomes free from many obstructions and applies oneself to discipline. The accumulation of pristine cognition is that by which one accomplishes the brilliant knowledge and has powers and faculties; by which one discriminates the doctrines of right and mistaken views; by which one attains the regular doctrine, meaning, teaching and exhortation. The accumulation of the past is that by which one attains now the accomplishment of the various faculties owing to the gathering of good faculties in previous lives. The accumulation of the present means that in this state of existence one—wishing to attain virtue—ripens his faculties and equips himself with restraint of morality and faculty" (T 30, p. 446b; trsl. Honda, 1968, p. 216).

They liberate the bodhisattva from personal affliction while he is coursing in *saṃsāra*; they remove all types of misconception and settle him in the four sciences (*caturvidha*), including in the accumulation of 'skill' in *skandha*, etc.⁷³⁵

In the Bdp, these rewards are not specifically mentioned, because its exposition is less concerned with the fruits that spring from punya and jñāna than with the factors that promote their acquisition. This is particularly evident in the discussion of jñānasambhāra where a careful distinction is made between the causes and conditions that lead to the accumulation of pristine cognition. In the section dealing with punya, the chain of reasoning is somewhat blurred by the wealth of examples brought together in order to illustrate the kind of conduct that is particularly conducive to the accumulation of merit. At first, taking up the ancient formula of the bases of meritorious works (punyakriyāvastu), the Bdp considers merit acquired through generosity, morality, contemplation, benevolence, vigour, gratitude and virtue transformation.736 Then, abandoning the structures provided by the punyakriyāvastu, it introduces a further dozen or so randomly arranged 'ancillary' practices. Central elements to this assortment are the virtues of teaching, generosity, morality, patience, vigour and reverence. 737 Their presence here is expected, since in particular dāna, śīla, kṣānti (and vīrya) constitute the chief components of the accumulation of merit. 738 Having defined the kind of practice that is particularly profitable to the acquisition of merit, the Bdp turns its attention to the underlying reward mechanism. In the Bdp, as in most other works⁷³⁹, the highest reward for the accumulation of merit is the acquisition of a perfect body—the buddha-body.⁷⁴⁰ Praised for its purity, physical beauty and intellectual impeccability, it is portrayed as an

And yet, in spite of their widely attested importance to the training, by nature, they belong to the *laukika* path of the bodhisattva (*Kośavyākhyā*, cit. in *Kośa*, iv, p. 77). This view is also attested in the *Akn-ṭīkā* (p. 248.5.2) where they are said to represent the *saṃbhāramārga*, a path phase that is commonly held to represent the earliest phase of the path (*DPP*, pp. 18–20, 33–34).

^{735.} *Bbh*, p. 34.17–25

See also Tathāgataguhyasūtra (cit. in MBT, ii, pp. 12.20-12.21) where this very position is concisely put forward:

[&]quot;The accumulation of pristine cognition has as its aim the destruction of all defilements; the accumulation of merit serves to assist all beings. O lord, this is why the bodhisattva mahāsattva endeavours to acquire the accumulation of pristine cognition and merit."

^{736.} R, folio 639.7-640.5

A discussion of the principles that underlie the *punyakriyāvastu* is found in note 132 of my translation of chapter eleven.

^{737.} R, folio 640.5-41.3.

^{738.} Bbh, p. 33.3-15; Kośa, vii, p. 78.

^{739.} Mavbh, pp. 62.19-63.2.

^{740.} The perfect buddha-body accruing to a bodhisattva on the basis of merit is the *rūpakāya*. Encompassing the *saṃbhoga* and *nirmāṇakāya* (*Mavbh*, pp. 62.19–63.1), it is characterised by innumerable forms of merit, manifesting wonderful and incomprehensible attributes (cf. La Vallée Poussin, *JRAS*, 1906, p. 234; *Msl*, pp. 38.18–21, 41.11–14, 44.17–45, 47.19–21).

embellishment of great distinction that, no doubt as a reference to the bodhisattva's eventual attainment of buddhahood, adorns the Dharma, Bodhi-tree and Bodhi-seat (*bodhimaṇḍa*).⁷⁴¹ Moreover, the *puṇyasaṃbhāra* frees from rebirth in the lower destinies, consolidates merit, leads to unshakable faith in the Doctrine and buddha-qualities.⁷⁴²

In view of the above detail, it is surprising that in the exposition of jñānasaṃbhāra the prospect of reward does not figure at all. Instead, practically all attention is given to the causes that generate and augment pristine cognition. For the Bdp, there are three causes of jñānasaṃbhāra. First, the bodhisattva develops an ardent longing (chanda) for pristine cognition. This manifests itself in desire to procure the Doctrine whose meaning he studies with great zeal. Second, there is the support of virtuous friends (kalyānamitra). Guiding the enquiring mind to the Dharma, the virtuous friend becomes a source of inspiration, support and information transforming the bodhisattva's initial and feeble Dharma interest into a potent force. Third, there is the application of the advice that the bodhisattva has received from virtuous friends. Intent on wholesome conduct, in particular with regard to meditation, reflection and moral purity the bodhisattva strives to apply the teachings of the Dharma just as told. In contrast to the practices aimed at the acquisition of merit, pristine cognition focuses chiefly on facets that are conducive to understanding, such as contemplation and investigation.

Thus matured, the bodhisattva manifests the conditions that accompany the accumulation of wisdom. 748 For the Bdp these are untarnished understanding of reality, modesty and virtuous

^{741.} R, folio 641.4-642.3.

^{742.} R, folio 643.2.

^{743.} R, folio 643.4.

^{744.} R, folio 643.5-7.

^{745.} Another factor that is given in the *Bbh* (p. 34.2-7), viz., previous exercise in the accumulation of pristine cognition, does not appear in the *Bdp* as a separate cause of *jñānasambhāra*. However it could be argued that the last portion, entitled "exertion in the accumulation of pristine cognition" refers to the bodhisattva's previous practice in pristine cognition. For the *Bbh*, this exercise must have taken place in the past. Yet, as the exact point in time is undefined, we may assume that previous exercise was meant in the broadest terms, that is, exercise prior to the attainment of *jñānasambhāra* (*Bbh*, p. 34.4).

According to the *Bbh*, the three causes apply not only to *jñānasaṃbhāra* but also to *puṇyasaṃbhāra* (*Bbh*, p. 34.2). Moreover, there they are conceived in sequence. That is to say, longing for the Dharma leads to the acquisition of pristine cognition, the presence of a virtuous friend stabilises it and previous practice increases its accumulation (*op. cit.*, p. 34.3-4). In the *Bdp*, this distinction is not explicitly made, although the passage "after [his virtuous friends] have realised that he is a receptacle of the Dharma, they instruct him constantly with great concentration in the Doctrine; after he has heard the Doctrine, he exerts himself in the accumulation of virtuous practices" could well be interpreted in this light.

^{746.} Note that the *Bbh* (p. 33.5-6) associates pristine cognition with *prajñāpāramitā* only.

^{747.} This is roughly in line with the thinking of the *Bbh* (p. 33.21-24), proposing that it is *prajñā* springing from learning, reflection and contemplation—in conjunction with *vīrya* and *dhyāna*—that has the greatest effect on the accumulation of pristine cognition.

^{748.} Cf. Bbh, p. 33.22.

conduct. Through merging the cognitive dimension with the more practical side of the path the bodhisattva maintains his commitment to the welfare of sentient beings whilst recognising the futility of discursive, binary thinking.⁷⁴⁹

Having discussed the causes and conditions that generate the accumulation of pristine cognition, the Bdp looks further afield to define the practices that increase its size and scope. Echoing the widely affirmed connection between the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ and $sambh\bar{a}ra$, these primarily consists of generosity, morality, patience, vigour, meditation, wisdom and (skilful) means.⁷⁵⁰

750. Each of these practices is discussed in one of the twelve tetrads that make up much of the concluding section of the treatment of the *jñānasaṃbhāra*. Excepting the perfection of generosity, their presentation is sequential and very straightforward. The *dānapāramitā* differs from the rest in that it extends over three tetrads—all others are dealt with in one—with a fourth on the powers (*bala*) being appended. Generosity has a special position in the *Bdp* where three types of giving are itemised, viz., the granting of material objects and respect (tetrad one), the granting of protection (tetrad two) and the bestowal of support (tetrad three). The rationale for the inclusion of the *bala* at this point is not fully clear. In all, I have identified three potential avenues of thought that might help us to understand this rather curious positioning of the *bala*.

First, there is the possibility that the inclusion of the bala here was intended to complement or qualify the three types of $d\bar{a}na$. Generosity is less concerned here with the customary giving of wealth or Dharma, but refers chiefly to the granting of support and protection. These two spheres of $d\bar{a}na$ naturally require strength and resolve. Building on the assumption that the bala constitute a more active force than the indriya, that they are the indriya made strong and of greater intensity in application, the Bdp may have wished to substantiate the claims of protection and support through their interpolation. As Gethin has shown, the image of, or association with, physical strength is by no means foreign to the characterisation of the bala (M I, pp. 121, 244).

The second train of thought revolves around the interpretation of śraddhā—the first of the five bala. Investigating the perception of śraddhā in Vedic literature, Köhler (and after him Hara) has unearthed a significant amount of material suggesting that to early Vedic priests śraddhā meant, above all, generosity (Spendefreudigkeit). In later times (with the Samhita and Brāhmaṇa), with the increasing demystification of the universe, he argues (pp. 44, 57), the notion of generosity gained more and more independence from its concomitant 'devotion' (Hingabe) and eventually became the dominant meaning of the term śraddhā. He places this last phase in the period of the Upaniṣad (Chānd. Up and Bṛhad Up; pp. 68–70). Proposing that this trend towards rationalisation continued in the times of the Buddha, he presents a series of quotations from the nikāya to show that generosity is besides faith the second cardinal meaning of śraddhā in early Buddhism. As Gethin observed, he is rather selective in doing this and discusses chiefly contexts involving the granting of alms, thereby blurring the act of giving with a mental predisposition of faith (S I, pp. 22, 32, 42; A III, p. 34). While śraddhā in these quotations appears to support his views, the rather specific context weakens his argument.

Leaving aside the findings in the mikāya, his conclusions for the Veda alone seem to establish some connection between $d\bar{a}na$ and $\dot{s}raddh\bar{a}$ in the sense of Hingabe. Of particular interest is a passage from the Yoga $S\bar{u}tra$ that lists five requirements for yogic meditation (Yoga-S I.20). These correspond verbatim to the five bala (or indriya for that matter). Now, according to the commentary, $\dot{s}raddh\bar{a}$ is here best interpreted as devotion (yogavi, yogav, yogav

Third, we note a certain parallelism between the five supports (upastambhana) that are cited in the Mvu (ii, p. 280.16–17) and our list of bala. To be precise, all five supports, except the first, are identical with the five powers. The first support, instead of being śraddhā as in the bala, is chanda. Now, the question is whether there is any evidence for us to construe a link between śraddhā and chanda. The answer to this is yes. According to the Abhidh-sam (R) (pp. 7–8), the purpose of śraddhā is to provide a foundation for chanda, in turn giving a base to vīrya (cf. Siddhi, pp. 309–10). Moreover, in the Nett (p. 15) we learn that chandasamādhi appears in the context of the iddhipāda as mental one-pointedness, possessing saddhā as dominant force. The link between śraddhā and chanda is further reinforced by the interpretation of the

^{749.} R, folio 645.3.

Besides the six/seven perfections, it is only insatiability and the powers (bala) that are seen to augment the accumulation of pristine cognition.⁷⁵¹ However, if we read on to the end of the discussion, we find that neither of them is included among the practices that promote $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}nasambh\bar{a}ra$. Instead, it is the four merit-generating $apram\bar{a}na$ that occur alongside the perfections.⁷⁵²

This choice is problematic and raises several questions. First, virtually all the texts I have consulted agree that $d\bar{a}na$, $\dot{s}ila$ and $\dot{k}\dot{s}\bar{a}nti$ play no role in the generation of $j\bar{n}\bar{a}nasambh\bar{a}ra$. They are applicable to $punyasambh\bar{a}ra$, so their inclusion here among the factors that generate $j\bar{n}\bar{a}nasambh\bar{a}ra$ clearly comes as a surprise. The picture is less clear with regard to $v\bar{i}rya$ and $dhy\bar{a}na$ about which differences in opinion prevail, depending on the circumstances of their cultivation. Then, why has the cultivation of $up\bar{a}ya$ been omitted in the final round-up if it figured as an apparently independent ($p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ -like) practice in the tetrads? The answer is that probably $up\bar{a}ya$ had not yet been fully recognised in status as a fully-fledged perfection, and was thus excluded from the final count. Also the inclusion of the $apram\bar{a}na$ is problematic, since all accounts agree that they do not appertain to $j\bar{n}\bar{a}nasambh\bar{a}ra$. Conversely, the powers—forming part of the $bodhip\bar{a}ksika$ dharma that belong to the $j\bar{n}\bar{a}nasambh\bar{a}ra$ producing practice of $dhy\bar{a}na$ —do figure in its acquisition, but are not cited in the $resum\acute{e}$.

faculty of faith in the Pāli commentaries (*Ud-a*, p. 305; *Vibh-a*, p. 125; *Vism*, p. 464; *As*, p. 120; ref. Gethin), where *saddhā* is regularly interpreted as a commitment (*adhimutti*). As a psychological force, *śraddhā* must therefore be understood as a type of basic confidence that—manifesting commitment and resolve—triggers the wish to embark on the path. Seen from this angle, *śraddhā* is then one step behind *chanda* in the concatenation of mental factors leading to path practice. Note, that in the *Śrotabhūmi* (p. 287.4.6), set in a meditative context, *chanda* occurs alongside *śraddhā*, *vīrya* and *upāya* as the four types of application (*prayoga*) operating as factors stabilising meditative concentration.

^{751.} A third factor, the accumulation of paths, rather than increasing jñānasambhāra is held to prompt its penetration and stands so apart in function (R, folio 648.1-2).

^{752.} For the Kośa (vii, p. 78), the practice of the dhyānapāramitā, if manifested in the cultivation of the four apramāṇa, contributes to the accumulation of merit. If dealing with the cultivation of the bodhipākṣika, it promotes the accumulation of pristine cognition (cf. Kośa, viii, pp. 196–205 and Daśa-bh p. 45.1–3, citing besides a punya- and jñānasaṃbhāra also a maitrī- and kṛpāsaṃbhāra).

^{753.} According to the *Mavbh* (p. 62.18–19), this role pertains only to *dhyāna* and *prajñā*, while *vīrya* constitutes a kind of ancillary practice required for both *puṇya* and *jñāna* (cf. *Saṃdhis (ĒLa)*, pp. 72.5–10, 131.19–22). 754. *Kośa*, vii, pp. 77–78; *Bbh*, p. 33.7–24; *Mavbh*, p. 62.15–19; *Msl*, p. 139.22–23.

Practices that Conduce to Enlightenment

The bodhipākṣika dharma themselves occupy a central position in much of the remainder of chapter eleven. Taking up over a fifth of its content, they constitute the most distinct category of practices included in the discussion of prajñāpāramitā. The reason for their preponderance is obvious. First, since they operate as 'factors contributing to enlightenment'⁷⁵⁵, their cultivation becomes mandatory for every bodhisattva who courses in Perfect Wisdom.⁷⁵⁶ Then, prajñā itself is a chief member of the ten or eleven 'ingredients' (dravya) of the bodhipākṣika, represented by the four smṛṭyupasthāna, prajñendriya, prajñābala, dharmapravicaya and samyagdṛṣṭi.⁷⁵⁷ Moreover, the thirty-seven practices originate themselves in wisdom arising from learning, reflection and cultivation—the very foundations of prajñā.⁷⁵⁸

While in spirit very close to those bodhipākṣika expositions found elsewhere in the Mahāyāna, their discussion in the Bdp manifests several peculiar features. Primarily, these affect organisational abnormalities, the actual phrasing of the formulae and their inclusion into an expanded list of practices. Since the scope, intent and nature of the bodhipākṣika have been already adequately researched by others, I shall limit my analysis to facets where the Bdp differs from the more 'standard' interpretations.⁷⁵⁹

One is struck first by the extent to which the wording of the *Bdp's* description deviates from that of other *bodhipākṣika* accounts. A comparison with formulae from both Pāli and Sanskrit sources reveals that, except for the *samyakprahāṇa*, it stands very much on its own. Having examined most texts on the subject, I found only two works containing a

^{755.} Mppś, iii, p. 1119. For other definitions following these very lines, see: Kośa, vi, p. 282; Satya-s (S), ii, p. 41; Abhidh-d, pp. 357-8.

^{756.} *Ssp (Ghosa)*, pp. 55–56.

^{757.} Kośa, vi, pp. 283-84; Amrtar (B), p. 208; Abhidh-d, p. 358.5-14; Mppś, iii, p. 1046 (cf. Śrotabhūmi, p. 291,2.1-3).

^{758.} Kośa, vi, p. 284.

^{759.} The bodhipākṣika dharma have already been subject to several investigations. The most exhaustive and resourceful study—albeit limited to their treatment in the nikāya and Pāli Abhidhamma works—is that by Rupert Gethin (PhD Dissertation, University of Manchester, 1987). Other, often rather brief or partial investigations have been carried out by Étienne Lamotte (Mppś, iii, pp. 1119–1207) and J. Bronkhorst (BSOAS, 1985, pp. 305–20). References to the bodhipākṣika are extremely numerous in both Pāli and Sanskrit literature. In the Mahāyāna, they are known to occur in the following sūtras: Bdp, TTP, 23, pp. 82.3.8–85.3.4; Kp, § 95; Ug, p. 269.3.8–4.3 (part.); Rp, p. 2.9 (part.); Rcd, 24, pp. 235.3.4–44.2.6; Akn, 34, pp. 66.4.3–71.2.1; Arthav (S), pp. 28–42. For references in the Daśa-bh, Pañca, Śsp, Karuṇāp, Samādh and Lal and many others, see: Dayal, p. 80, Edgerton, p. 402 and Lamotte, p. 1120. See also Gethin (1987, p. 661) for references in Sarvāstivāda literature and, of course, for a complete table of references in Pāli sources.

^{760.} The most common specimen of such bodhipākṣika quotations have been convieniently collected by

similar phrasing. These are the Akn and Arthavniścayasūtra (Arthav). I have already pointed to the far-reaching borrowing between the Akn and Bdp and so resemblances in the wording of the bodhipākṣika are not surprising. Of greater interest are the parallels between the Bdp and Arthav, since they represent texts of rather different orientation and purpose. Here, the borrowing is only partial (affecting merely the faculties (indriya) and noble eightfold path (āryāṣṭāṅgamārga)) and appears to be indirect. Comparison with the wording in the Bdp and Akn reveals a very close verbal proximity with that of the Akn that suggests that the Arthav adopted the passages on the indriya and āryāṣṭāṅgamārga from the Akn—not from the Bdp. While the dating of the Arthav is, as always, problematic, analysis of its contents has shown that most of its portions post-date both the Akn and Bdp by several centuries. Assuming the Bdp's influence on the Akn, we have a textual lineage that covered may be as many as five centuries, starting with the Bdp's lending to the Akn from which its contents reached the Arthav, to be finally included in the Śikṣ, where the indriya section is also quoted from the Akn.

The *Bdp's* apparent uniqueness in description does not extend to the spirit of its *bodhipākṣika* exposition. Virtually every aspect raised has counterparts in meaning in some other *bodhipākṣika* discussion elsewhere in Mahāyāna works.

Starting with the *smṛtyupasthāna* (the second type of 'skill' not cited in the heading), the proposition is that each type of mindfulness combats one of the principal four misconceptions (*viparyāsa*)⁷⁶⁶; this is frequent among post-canonical strands of Buddhist literature. Though not found in the nikāya, the Sarvāstivāda *Abhidharma* adopted it as the chief task of the *smṛtyupasthāna* and it is also found in most Mahāyāna treatises on the subject.⁷⁶⁷ Probably

Lamotte in a preliminary note to the *Mppś's bodhipākṣika* discussion (iii, pp. 1119–1132).

^{761.} Unlike the *Bdp*, the *Arthav* is a highly technical work consisting of stereotyped explanations of twenty-seven groups of practices. Likened by Ferrari in contents and nature to the *Dhsgr* and *Mvy*, it proceeds step by step through the aggregates, elements, sensefields, *bodhipākṣika*, *pratisaṃvid*, etc., on each of which it contains definition-like descriptions. For an assessment of its contents, see the introductions to Ferrari's and Samtani's editions of the *Arthav*.

^{762.} Arthav (S), pp. 32.6-33.1 for in the indriya; pp.320-22 for the āryāṣṭāngamārga. Comparing the formulae collected by Lamotte with those of the Arthav (pp. 28.9-42.12), we gain the impression that their wording in the Arthav represents a combination of Pāli and Sanskrit sources, as if its authors had consulted a variety of texts before composing their own version. This is true for all but the indriya and āryāṣṭāngamārga section which, as already observed, appear unique to the Bdp/Akn tradition.

^{763.} I have given the Sanskrit text of the Arthav's indriya and āryāṣṭāṅgamārga sections in notes to the edition.

^{764.} Arthav (S), pp. 61-67; Ferrari, 1944, pp. 546-49.

^{765.} Siks, pp. 316.13-317.13.

^{766.} On the misconceptions, see: A II, p. 52; Vibh, p. 451; Kośa, v, p. 21; Amrt (B), pp. 226-227; Mppś, ii, p. 925; iii, p. 1150.

^{767.} In the nikāya, the connection between the vipallāsā and satipaṭṭhāna is not clearly stated. See, however, A

drawing on these traditions, the *Bdp* confirms that to consider the body mindfully—internally and externally—leads to a pure body of sound conduct. The same holds true for the discussions of feeling, thought and *dharma* that explain mindfulness as distinguishing pleasant from unpleasant feeling, permanence from impermanence and self from non-self. But the *Bdp* differs in the stress it places on *viparyāsa* itself. When discussing *kāyasmrtyupasthāna*, for instance, it is only in the very last passage that the issue of purity/impurity is raised. Much of the preceding material revolves around the theory of non-self with regard to the body and the use to which the body is put. With the exception of *vedanāsmrtyupasthāna*, that is entirely dedicated to the correct interpretion of feeling, very little is also said about *viparyāsa* in the remaining bases of mindfulness. Both *cittasmrtyupasthāna* and *dharmasmrtyupasthāna* touch on *viparyāsa* almost incidentally and give greater consideration to issues that develop from the affirmation of impermanence and non-self. In the discussion of mindfulness concerning thought it is the distinction between 'creation' and 'foundation of thought' that stands in the foreground, whereas in the exposition of mindfulness concerning *dharma* the concept of *dharma*-sameness prevails.

In addition to the references to the *viparyāsa* there is one more element in the Bdp that is common to all four types of mindfulness. This is the adaptation of the individual members to the bodhisattva's concern for the welfare of sentient beings. When speaking of $k\bar{a}yasmrtyupasth\bar{a}na$, the Bdp commits the body to universal subsistence, to the conversion of gods and men and the postponement of entry into $nirv\bar{a}na$. Through mindfulness concerning thought the bodhisattva acquires the $paracittajn\bar{a}na$ that allows him to perceive saṃsāric delusion and, in turn, sustains the resolve for universal liberation. A similar mechanism is

II, p. 52 and *Vibh*, p. 376. For the Sarvāstivāda *Abhidharma*, see: *Amṛt (B)*, pp. 203-4; *Kośa*, vi, p. 162. For the Mahāyāna, see: *Kp*, pp. 137-9, § 94-95; *Rcḍ*, pp. 236.2.8-239.4.3; *Arthav*-ṭ (S), p. 208; *Śrāv-bh* (*Sh*), pp. 303-12; *Mppś*, iii, pp. 1144, 1150.

^{768.} R, folio 651.6.

^{769.} Reference to these position can be found on R, folio 652.1-653.2; folio 655.1-7; folio 596.1-660.1 respectively.

^{770.} This is a common feature of the discussions of the smrtyupasthāna in the Mahāyāna. In the Kāṣyapaparivarta (Kp, p. 139, § 95), for instance, these notions become the raison d'être of the smṛtyupasthāna exposition. In most traditional accounts, eradication of the notion of a self is only a side-issue to the bases of mindfulness. See, for example: D II, pp. 290-314; M III, pp. 83-5, 135-6; S V, pp. 149-50; Kośa, vi, pp. 159-161; Vism, p. 464. There is, however, one passage in the Dighanikāya that appears to be heralding future concerns (D II, p. 216).

^{771.} See: R, folio 656.3–657.6; folio 660.1–661.3 respectively.

^{772,} R, folio 651.7.

^{773.} R, folio 652.6-653.2.

^{774.} R, folio 657.7-658.2.

at work in the examination of *dharma*. Having recognised the sameness of non-arising *dharma*, the bodhisattva sees that all *dharma* are pure. And yet, retaining awareness of the suffering in *saṃsāra* he does not give way to the conclusions of no-birth, but reappears in order to look after sentient beings. ⁷⁷⁵

The most remarkable among the bodhipākṣika in the Bdp are probably the perfect efforts (samyakprahāṇa). The nature of types of vigour (vidhavīrya), the Bdp presents a logically coherent explanation of their functioning. The Causing persistant preventive refraint from non-virtue and the withdrawal from already produced unwholesome dharma, it becomes the cognitive foundation for the training in general and precludes the presence of unskilful dharma. The nature of the unskilful dharma, however, is kept rather vague; they are not characterised beyond their incompatibility with morality, meditation and wisdom. Conversely, we learn about the factors that lead to their presence and the antidotes that do away with them. Epitomised by the root evils of desire.

^{775.} R, folio 660.2-5; folio 661.4-5.

^{776.} TTP, 24, pp. 236.5.2-8, 237.4.12-2, 239.5.8.

^{777.} Mppś, iii, p. 1188; Rcd, p. 236.3.4-5.

^{778.} Mppś, iii, pp. 1190-91.

^{779.} Mppś, iii, pp. 1187–1194.

^{780.} For examples of Pāli and Sanskrit versions of the basic formula of the sammappaddhāna/samyakprahāna, see: Lamotte (Mppś, iii, pp. 1123-24) who cites passages from the Dīghanikāya (III, p. 221) and Pañca (p. 207).

In contrast with all other known accounts of the bodhipākṣika, the samyakprahāna are not the practice that follows on the smṛtyupasthāna in the Bdp. Defying the traditional order, the next practices cited are the bodhyanga. However, in order to do justice to the integration of the thirty-seven factors into a logically consistent description of the path, I discuss the seven sets in their standard order. Just what might have prompted this change in sequence—no doubt a major issue—is discussed further below.

^{781.} See, for instance: Mvś (N), p. 50.19-24; Abhidh-sam (R), p. 120; Mppś, iii, pp. 1176-77.

^{782.} R, folio 672.2-673.4.

hatred and delusion, they arise from attachment, anger and ignorance and are removed by considering the antidotes of impurity, benevolence and causality.⁷⁸³ By virtue of *dharma*-sameness, pacification itself induces abandonment in the sense of non-apprehension (*anupalambha*) and hence becomes a stepping-stone in the bodhisattva's attitude towards reality.⁷⁸⁴

Having distinguished virtuous from non-virtuous dharma through correct reflection, the bodhisattva applies himself to generating wholesome dharma. This process consists of three phases, that is, initial intent (chanda), acquisition of diligence ($v\bar{v}rya$) and perseverance ($\bar{a}sthitikriy\bar{a}$). While each of these is fundamental to the planting of roots of virtue, it is only through their combined presence in the practitioner's mind that virtue hitherto unarisen is produced. The magnitude of the bodhisattva's aspiration means that this operation knows no limit. Motivated by the commitment to universal welfare, the bodhisattva does not allow his newly accumulated merit to disperse uncontrolled. On the contrary, he goes to great lengths in securing the roots of virtue in order to transform them into enlightenment. Such roots persist, says the Bdp, because the thought that led to their becoming was itself supramundane and because they are founded in lokottara practices independent of the traidhātuka. By this context, the Bdp indicates that the generation of wholesome dharma itself pertains to the lokottara realm. Since the perfect efforts are anchored in laukika practice, the Bdp appears to be drawing a line between a laukika effort and a lokottara realisation of that effort.

In a way, the *Bdp* therefore has accommodated its discussion of the *samyakprahāṇa* to the ancient belief that the four correct efforts embrace the whole Buddhist path. Already characterised in the nikāya as general endeavours of restraint, abandonment, development and protection—and thus furnishing each part of the formula with a positive content—the

^{783.} R, folio 673.5-7.

^{784.} R, folio 673.7-674.1.

^{785.} For the Śbh (Śrāv-bh (Sh), pp. 318.12-320.19), a person who cultivates the samyakprahāṇa possesses eight types of effort-predisposition (prahāṇasaṃskāra) that are designed to destroy his propensities (anuśaya) and to fulfil his meditations. These are (1) zeal (chanda), (2) endeavour (vyāyāma) corresponding to vigour (vīrya), (3) faith (śraddhā), (4) tranquillity (praśrabdha), (5) mindfulness (smṛti), (6) awareness (saṃprajanya), (7) volition (cetanā) and (8) equipoise (upekṣā).

^{786.} R, folio 674.2-3.

^{787.} R. folio 674.7-675.2.

^{788.} Such a position would seem to echo the view of the Vibhanga commentary (Vibh-a, p. 219; ref. Gethin, p. 630) which distinguishes between lokiya and lokuttara interpretation of the sammappaddhāna. Here, depending whether the perfect efforts pertain to the 'prior stage to all' (sabbapubbabhāga)—which represents a kind of preparatory phase indicating advance to the practice proper—or go beyond this stage, the sammappaddhāna are either worldly or transcendental in nature.

samvakprahāna epitomise for the Bdp a blueprint of the course of practice complete in itself. The difference between the nikāva and Bdp are that while the former provide a specific focus for the four practices (restraint being characterised as the guarding of senses; abandonment as the renunciation of thoughts governed by desire and hatred; development as the cultivation of the *bodhyanga* and protection as the contemplation of ugliness)⁷⁹⁰, the latter puts principles rather than individual practices in the foreground.

In most discussions of the bodhipāksika, probably all according to Gethin, the practices to follow on the samyakprahāna are the bases of success (rddhipāda). In the Bdp, however, the rddhipāda are not discussed following the samyakprahāna. In fact, there is no full treatment of the rddhipāda anywhere in the Bdp, though its author must have been aware of them because of several brief references to the rddhipāda in the Dhvāna Chapter. 792 Todav. it is difficult to establish the reasons that prompted their omission without comment in the Praiñā Chapter. A contributing factor for this may have been the consideration that the rddhipāda are not an absolute requirement for the destruction of the āsrava.⁷⁹³ Being particularly associated with mastery over meditative attainments and powers, they are not part of those practices that aim at wisdom-acquisition, but pertain to the domain of meditation (dhyāna). We have seen that for the Bdp the single most important means to $praj\tilde{n}a$ is investigation (pravicava). Now, if we adopt Cousins's distinction between the śamatha- and vipaśyanāyāna⁷⁹⁴, investigation is doubtlessly closer to the 'vehicle of insight' so neglect of the rddhipāda might almost be expected. Moreover, the fact that they have already been referred to in the Dhyāna Chapter—albeit only sketchily—might have been reason enough for their omission in the *prajñā* context.

Bypassing the rddhipāda, the Bdp therefore moves directly from the samyakprahāna to the faculties (indriya). However, of all the faculties' traditional members only śraddhā is given full consideration. 795 Characterised as confidence in the existence of other worlds, in the law of karma, in the bodhisattvacaryā, in causality and in the ontological doctrines of the Mahāyāna,

^{789.} A II, p. 74.

^{790.} D III, p. 225; A II, pp. 16–17. 791. Gethin, 1987, pp. 508–9.

^{792.} R, folio 569.3-570.2

Note that the rddhipāda are also omitted from a list of bodhipākṣika dharma on folio 277.7.

^{793.} Compare, for instance, the lists of khīnāsavabala that are found in A V, p. 175 and Paţis, ii, pp. 173-4 with that of the D III, pp. 283-4 where the iddhipāda have been omitted (Gethin, 1987, pp. 496-7, 498).

^{794.} Cousins, BSHS, pp. 56-68.

^{795.} For a definition of the five spiritual indriya, see: Kośa (ii, pp. 154-7) and Siddhi (pp. 309-314).

faith becomes in the Bdp very much a spiritual foundation. Again, this role of faith is already attested in the nikāya where—essentially affective in nature and directed at the Buddha or his enlightenment—its function is to instigate and set in motion a process culminating in wisdom, for which it also provides continuing support. As if to underline this point, the remaining *indriya* are only mentioned by name and in relation to the forces that shape the succession of their occurrence. In order to obtain the result in which he believes, the bodhisattva makes an effort $(v\bar{i}rya)$. When he exerts effort, mindfulness (smrti) is initiated. From mindfulness springs concentration of mind $(sam\bar{a}dhi)$ as to avoid distraction and from that arises consciousness that corresponds to the object $(prajn\bar{a})$. The logic behind this concatenation is perfectly sound and it is perhaps not very surprising that there is an almost verbatim passage in the Kośa.

Of still greater interest are the advantages that accrue from the *indriya*. For the Bdp, these are of the highest order since they include the buddha-qualities and access to the stage of prediction ($vyakaraṇabh\bar{u}mi$) which is generally held to correspond to the $acal\bar{a}bh\bar{u}mi$. Most other schemes place mastery over the indriya well before the eighth stage. Yet, the association of the faculties with the event of the prediction might provide the key to their

^{796.} This, of course, is true for Buddhism in general. See, for example, the nature and names of the seven categories of $\bar{a}rya$ where the $\dot{s}raddh\bar{a}nus\bar{a}rin$ occupies the lowest rank ($Ko\dot{s}a$, vi, 273–282). Note, however, that in $Ko\dot{s}a$ (vi, p. 289) all indriya are actually aimed at supramundane dharma. For the Theravāda, the five spiritual indriya are the exclusive domain of the $\bar{a}rya$ -pudgala and are therefore always lokottara (Gethin, p. 264).

^{797.} M I, pp. 142, 294, 444, 479; S IV, pp. 226, 298-9; A III, p. 165.

^{798.} Research documenting the reciprocal relationship between *śraddhā* and *prajñā* has been carried out by a number of scholars. For summaries of their findings, see: Carter, *Dhamma*, Tokyo, 1978, pp. 103-6; Ergardt, 1977, pp. 144-6; La Vallée Poussin, 1908, ii, pp. 32-43.

^{799.} According to the Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 7-8, śraddhā first must provide a basis to chanda that, in turn, becomes a foundation for the generation of vīrya.

A similar relation between the five *indriya* is also posited in the *Mppś* and *Rcd*. The *Mppś* includes, like the *Bdp*, faith in the bodhisattva training, faith in causality and moral integrity and confidence in emptiness, sameness, etc., as manifestations of the *śraddhendriya* (*Mppś*, iii, pp. 1195–96). For the *Rcd*, it is above all rejection of the heretical views positing a self (ātmadṛṣṭi) and faith in buddha-qualities (pp. 240.5.6–41.2.7). Compare these with the expositions on *śraddhā* given in the *Śbh* and *Kp*. But for one or two minor points, their explanations have virtually nothing in common with that of the *Bdp*. In the *Kp* we learn that the five faculties function as antidotes to doubt, inertness, forgetfulness, distraction of mind, absent-mindedness and misconceptions (pp. 137–39, § 95–96). In the *Śrāvakabhūmi*, the faculty of faith should be taken as the four types of faith verified, vigour as the perfect efforts, mindfulness as the bases of mindfulness, meditation as the four *dhyāna* and wisdom as insight into the noble truths (*Śrāv-bh* (*S*), p. 232.7–18; cf. *Mvś* (*N*), p. 53.4–8).

^{801.} The various types and occasions at which predictions to buddhahood take place, I have discussed in note 233 of my translation of chapter eleven.

^{802.} According to the Sarvāstivāda Abhidharma (Kośa, vi, pp. 287–89, Abhidh-d, p. 362.16–17), the attainments of the indriya correspond to the kṣānti stage of the nirvedhabhāgīya that, traditionally, is situated on the prayogamārga. For alternative locations on the path, but always situated on the prayogamārga, see: Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 116–7 and Abhidh-h (W), ii, p. 140.
For Mahāyāna schemes, see: Daśa-bh p. 39.3–4; Bbh, pp. 338.24–341.6.

unusual arrangement after the bodhyanga and āryāṣṭāngamārga. But more of this later. 803

The discussion of the five powers (bala) does not pose any of such difficulties. 804 Conforming to the well-known proposition that the powers represent little more than an advanced, actively more effective phase of *indriva* practice, the *Bdp's* main concern is to illustrate the bodhisattva's invincibility in śraddhā, $v\bar{i}rva$, etc. 805 To this effect, the Bdp sets each of the bala in contexts that render their practice particularly laborious and concludes that even in the most adverse situations faith, etc., is unassailable at the level of bala. That is to say, the bodhisattva's faith in the Dharma is not deflected by the treachery of Māra. 806 He is unsurpassed in vigour by even the combined determination of all gods and men. His mindfulness cannot be shattered by intrusion of any type of defilement. When contemplating, he maintains deep absorption during the first dhyāna regardless of persisting in altruistic conduct that involves him in the bustle of worldly life; he sustains investigation during the second dhyāna, sympathetic joy during the third dhyāna and finally disquiet at universal suffering during the fourth dhyāna. Indefeatable in cognition, he acquires the most formidable crafts and skills that, springing from wisdom and knowledge, he puts to use in his quest of liberation.⁸⁰⁷ The presence of such impediments is, of course, far from accidental. For, his initial resolve (pranidhāna) constrains not only escape from the pressures of samsāra but, more to the point, actually requires that

^{803.} It is evident that the only viewpoint from which the Bdp examines the faculties is a spiritual one. That is to say, it excludes from consideration the remaining seventeen constituent indriva that shape human experience in general (La Vallée Poussin, Nirvāna, 1925, Paris, p. 237). For the Mvs, in contrast, it is chiefly these 'controlling principles' that stand in the centre of its discussion of 'skill' in indriya. Giving the illusion of dominion in the sense that certain powers are held to fall to specific faculties for specific purposes—e.g., the eye having the ability to see objects and hence be sovereign over the object—the Mvs (Mvs (N), p. 46.23) warns that there is no agent that rules over these faculties since they are independent. For our purposes, it is of interest that the five spiritual indriva are thought to pertain to worldly purification (laukikavišuddhi) only, while the 'faculties of knowing what is not known' (anājñatamājñāsyāmīndriya)—the second type of purification—are sovereign with regard to transcendental purification (lokottaraviśuddhi). This confirms what we learned about their status from Sarvāstivāda schemes and tallies with the positioning in the Akn and its commentary. The anājñatamājñāsyāmīndriya are manifest on the darśanamārga and inspire desire to know the four truths, etc., (Kośa, ii, p. 117) while lokottaraviśuddhi is 'eradication of defilements through transcendental conduct' (lokottaramārgeņaklesanām prahānam; Mvs-t, p. 156.7).

^{804.} For parallels in the fruits of bala see: Rcd (pp. 241.2.7-242.1.4) and Amrt (B), p. 205.

^{805.} For Pāli references to this effect, see: M I, pp. 121, 168, 244; S V, p. 220; Paţis, i, pp. 6-7 and Atthasālinī, p. 295. A good Sanskrit reference is found in the commentary to the Arthav (S), pp. 226-7; cf. Kośa, vi, p. 286).

^{806.} See, Rcd (p. 241.2.7-3.1) where we come across exactly the same theme in conjunction with the śraddhābala. The Rcd abounds with other, rather interesting, manifestations of bala (pp. 241.2.7-42.1.4). For, instance, it proposes that śraddhā causes the acquisition of the seven riches (5.4) and power over zealous application (adhimukti); power of vīrya leads to the accomplishment of the bodhyanga (5.4) and power over liberation (3.7); smṛti entails the six recollections of the bodhisattva (5.5) and power over the fifth dharmaskandha (3.7); dhyāna eliminates the seven bases of consciousness and prompts great mental power (3.8); prajñā removes the eightfold mistaken conduct (5.5-6) and purifies the conduct of all beings (3.8).

^{807.} R, folio 677.4-679.6.

he expose himself to the very conditions from which he seeks release. Taking account of these constraints, the *Bdp* merges two concepts in its exposition of the five *bala*. On the one hand, it follows the traditional line that the *bala* are superior to the *indriya* in attainment, while on the other hand, it employs typical bodhisattva imagery to illustrate the origin, scope and nature of the obstacles that must be overcome by the cultivation of faith, etc. 808

Few traces of such adaptation are found in the treatment of the factors of enlightenment (bodhyanga). Emulating the bodhipākṣika tradition of early Buddhism, the Bdp provides rather terse, definitive accounts of the focus and nature of each of the seven limbs. Judging by my reading of sūtra material, its explanations have no parallels in other texts. In spirit and practice, they correspond for the most part to ancient interpretations. Only in the ontological domain do differences prevail. For example, there is the conclusion in the smṛtibodhyanga that the recollection of dharma establishes knowledge of the lack of own-being of dharma—an opinion seemingly at odds with the ancient ideas of reality.

The *Bdp* explains *smṛti* in terms of recollection and presence of mind that, manifesting careful examination and analysis, command a vision of things just as they are. Next, the *bodhyanga* of Dharma-discernment (*dharmapravicaya*) is explained in terms of contextually adjusted approaches to the various types of instructions that make up the Dharma. As Gethin shows, this interpretation is one of several aspects that stand at the very heart of the concept of *dharmapravicaya* in the nikāya. ⁸⁰⁹ Vigour (*vīrya*) is portrayed as a quality of strength and dedication, specifically directed at those factors that contribute to awakening, viz., Dharma-discernment, purification, meditation and equipoise.

This choice of 'vigour targets' contains a clue to the bond between the next two bodhyanga, namely, joy (prīti) and tranquillity (praśrabdha). Traditionally linked as factors that bring about a positive mental disposition, prīti and praśrabdha are intimately related to each other in practice and result.⁸¹⁰ The nature of this relationship is best summed up in the ancient

^{808.} R, folio 679.6

Note also that preference is given to the *bala* over the *indriya* as practices leading to the accumulation of pristine cognition. Here, as in the *bala* section proper, each of the *bala* is specifically adapted to the bodhisattva training, when it says that faith promotes reverence; vigour is targeted at learning; mindfulness prevents oblivion of the thought of enlightenment; meditation helps faith in *dharma*-sameness and that wisdom assists acquiring the power of learning (R, folio 646.1–3). For examples of sources where reference to the *bala* (when subsequent to the *indriya*) are given only scant attention, see: *Abhidh-sam* (R), pp. 123–4; *Amrt* (B), p. 205; *Mvś* (N), p. 52.20; *Mppś*, iii, p. 1200; *Satya-s* (S), p. 43.

^{809.} Gethin, 1987, pp. 283–295; cf. Abhidh-sam (R), 1980, p. 123.

^{810.} See, for instance, *Mahāparinirvāṇasūtra* (Waldschmidt, 1956, p. 292, 30.27) where we read that joy (*prīti*) associated with the body leads to tranquillity (*praśrabdha*) of the mind (cf. *Mvy* 1587–95).

formula, saying that "the body of one whose mind is joyful becomes tranquil and one whose body is tranquil experiences happiness". 811 As this cohesion of emotional fulfilment and mental quietude is mediated through the body and involves purification of body and mind in meditation⁸¹², prīti and praśrabdha are closely coupled and, to some degree, dependent on each other.813 It is not a coincidence that we also find close terminological parallels echoing this link in the Bdp's description of the bodhvanga of joy and tranquillity.

The sixth bodhvanga, meditation (samādhi), has two aspects, on the one hand effecting realisation of the Dharma and, on the other hand, awakening to the workings of dharma. In a sense, this characterisation goes beyond the standard definitions of the samādhibodhvanga which content themselves with one-pointed, sustained meditative examination of the nature of dharma. 814 However, since both aspects contribute equally to the destruction of the depravities (āsrava) and go hand in hand, this deviation should perhaps not be given undue weight. 815

Equipoise (upeks \bar{a}), to early Buddhism, is essentially a feeling that is neither painful nor pleasant (aduhkhāsukhā vedanā). 816 As a bodhyanga, however, it is less a feeling pertaining to the vedanāskandha than a skilful mental factor of the samskāraskandha.817 Having the quality of balance, specifically regarding co-nascent dharma—that in the context of the bodhyanga must mean perfect balance between smrti, etc.—it settles a restless mind into a state of equipoise thereby rendering it conducive to enlightenment.⁸¹⁸ It is exactly these concerns that are addressed in the upekṣābodhyanga of the Bdp. Eschewing the latent tendencies to attraction and dislike, it is characterised as a quiescent mental state that is not diverted by the extremes of worldly experience. In other words, it is thought freed from all types of turbulence and anxiety, unaffected by hatred and desire and in harmony with the noble path

^{811.} Gethin, 1987, p. 299

The idea that praśrabdha affects body and mind in equal measure is disputed by the Sarvāstivāda because it would expose a factor of awakening, belonging by definition to the lokottara path, to the impurities of the body pertaining to the laukika domain. For a full discussion, see: Kośa, ii, pp. 157-59.

^{812.} Cousins, Religion, III (1973), pp. 120-2.

^{813.} Amrt (B), p. 206:

[&]quot;Ici, quand il médite, le corps et la pensée sont légers, dociles et en sécurité (yogaksema) et ils s'adaptent à la concentration (samādhyanuvartin)—c'est le membre relaxation." Cf. Mpps, iii, p. 1202.

^{814.} Vism, xiv, p. 139; Mppś, iii, p. 1201; Amrt (B), p. 207; Msl, p. 144.18-19; cf. Rcd, p. 242.1.4-5.2 For a considered discussion of the operational scope of meditation in Theravada Buddhism, see: Cousins, Religion, iii, 1973, pp. 115-131 (especially, p. 122).

^{815.} Gethin, 1987, pp. 288-292.

^{816.} S V, p. 210; Vibh, p. 123.

^{817.} Arthav-1 (S), p. 230.3-5; cf. Kośa, ii, pp. 159-60. 818. A good account of the different viewpoints on the intent, scope and operations of upekkhā in early Buddhist literature is found in Aronson, 1979, pp. 1-18. For a resourceful interpretation of Aronson's findings, see: Gethin, 1987, pp. 302-8.

itself.819

The noble eightfold path ($\bar{a}ry\bar{a}st\bar{a}ngam\bar{a}rga$) is itself the object of investigation under the ninth type of 'skill'. Here, in contrast to its 'mainstream' description of the bodhyanga, the Bdp casts aside the old-established explanations of the nikāya to replace them with a set of altogether new interpretations. The picture that emerges of the eight limbs—although in spirit compatible with the ideal of the path itself—is to my knowledge unique to the Bdp. 820

I shall give here a brief outline of the standard presentation in the nikāya to show just how much it differs. [821] In this scheme, right view (sammadditthi) is knowledge concerning the constituents of the four noble truths and becomes accordingly a form of wisdom. Right resolve (sammāsankappa) covers three areas of thought, that is, thoughts of non-desire (nekkhamma), non-hatred (avyāpāda) and non-violence (avihiṃsā). Right speech (sammāvācā) is manifested by refraint from falsehood (musāvāda), slander (pisuṇāvācā), harsh speech (pharusāvācā) and idle talk (samphappalāpa). It is right conduct (sammākammanta) to refrain from assaults on sentient beings (pāṇatipāta), not taking what is not given (adinnādāna) and avoidance of violations of celibacy (abrahmacariya). The contents of right livelihood (sammājīva) are rarely spelled out, but generally explained as "renouncing wrong modes of livelihood and making a living by means of right livelihood" (micchājīvam pahāya sammājīvena jīvitaṃ kappetī). Right effort (sammāvāyāma) is explained in terms of the basic sammappadhāna formula in the same way that it is found in the Bdp. Right mindfulness (sammāsatī) is characterised by the basic satipaṭṭhāna formula formula formula formula in the customary sketch of the four jhāna.

Before contrasting this presentation with the eightfold path in the Bdp, I wish to make three general remarks. First, as already observed by Gethin, the wording and type of characterisation of the eight members is not coincidental, but was designed to link into many of the regularly recurring themes of the nik \bar{a} ya. This might have put constraints on its phrasing and

^{819.} The discussion of the individual factors of enlightenment extends in the *Bdp* over three folios, starting on folio 662.7 and ending on folio 665.4.

^{820.} To be precise, it is only found in the textual lineage where the *Bdp* appears to be the foundation text. As indicated, it is also contained almost verbatim in the *Akn* (pp. 70.4.4–71.2.1) and *Arthay* (S), pp. 320–322.

^{821.} M III, p. 251; see also: D II, p. 311; S V, pp. 8–10; *Patis*, i, pp. 40–2; *Vibh*, pp. 104–5. The bare list of the eight factors appears, of course, at many more places throughout the nikāya. According to Gethin (1987, p. 314), it is itemised no less than sixty-four times.

^{822.} For examples of the basic formula, see: D II, p. 290; D III, pp. 58, 141, 221, 276; M I 339-340; S V, pp. 141-192, 294-306; A IV, pp. 457-8.

^{823.} Gethin, 1987, p. 364.

terminology. Second, several of the definitions have close parallels where their members form part of other sets of practice. So, right view, right effort, right mindfulness and right meditation all display practically identical explanations in the faculties (and powers) of wisdom, vigour, mindfulness and meditation. Electron Finally, the contents of right speech, right conduct and right livelihood epitomise the very concerns of the early Buddhist ideal of morality. Recurring as principal items in the sīlakkhandhavagga of the Dīghanikāya identical to four of the pañcasīla and corresponding to six of the ten kuśalakarmapatha, they rank among the most visible indicators of a monk's spiritual progress.

If we turn now to the description of the noble eightfold path in the Bdp, we immediately notice that such features are absent. In content, none of the descriptions of the eight factors shows any traces of linking either its definition with the wider frame of reference of the bodhisattva training—be it through the inclusion of key terminology or adaptation of otherwise well-known formulae—or to secure moral conduct as its spiritual epicentre. On the contrary, the whole presentation has a generality of tone that is practically devoid of references to concrete practices.

The first limb, right view (samyagdṛṣṭi), is explained in terms antithetical to its opposite, wrong view (mithyādṛṣṭi), and displays little positive argument. This also holds true for the explanation of right resolve (samyaksamkalpa), only declaring that right resolve does not result in rāga, dveṣa or moha, but that it establishes the five pure aggregates (dharmaskandha) co-resident with bodhi. 826 The following three factors, that is, right speech (samyakvāc), right conduct (samyakkarmānta) and right livelihood (samyagājīva), traditionally epitomising ethical integrity, do not contain any of the 'morality markers' that are brought up in the early formula. In their place, the Bdp rather sweepingly defines right speech as intrinsically worthwhile and innocuous dialogue that abounds with beneficial application and is persuasive of the truth of the sameness all paths. Right conduct is measured by the kind of reward it is likely to

^{824.} For concurring definitions with the indriya and bala see, for instance: S V, pp. 196-200.

^{825.} D I, pp. 1-4.

^{826.} R, folio 666.5-6

According to the Kp (p. 209, § 144), cited here in Weller's German translation, these five skandha define nirvāna:

[&]quot;Die geistige Sammlung, die Weisheit, die Erlösung, die Schau des Erkenntniss der Erlösung, ihr Ehrwürdigen, wandern nicht durch die Wiedergeburten and erlöschen nicht völlig. Durch diese Gegebenheiten, ihr Ehrwürdigen, wird das *Nirvāṇa* angedeuted, doch sind diese Gegebenheiten leer, abgesondert, nicht zu fassen as reale Objekte."

For Pāli references, see: D III, p. 279; S I, p. 99; A I, p. 162. Alternative titles of the dharmaskandha are found in Dhsgr § 23 (lokottaraskandha); Mvy 104-8 (asamasamāskandha); Kośa, i, p. 48; vi, p. 297; Kośavyākhyā, p. 607.10 (anāsravaskandha), (ref. Lamotte).

produce. A fortiori, it excludes unwholesome action, but—aspiring to a lasting cessation of all consequences of action—is aimed ultimately at the exhaustion of all types of activity.

The next limb, right livelihood, being characterised by a series of concrete attributes, is the single exception to these general descriptions. Its content is the ideal of mendicant life and, in particular, the four precepts of the *āryavaṃśa* conduct. Besides, it is free from foolishness, hypocrisy and violence but governed by modesty, vigilance, contentedness and moral purity. In spirit, many these characteristics are very close to the path ideal that was introduced in the *śīlapāramitā* which might, therefore, be legitimately taken to provide for the moral base in the eightfold path. The references to the mendicant ideal and, specifically, to the *āryavaṃśa* seem to suggest, however, that these facets go well beyond the moral domain, and trace, in fact, a paradigm of the bodhisattva's way of life interpreted in terms of right livelihood.

Right effort (samyagvyāvāma) marks a return to the rather condensed and yet imprecise explanations. Accordingly, we learn very little of its exact application other than generalities. Right effort is held to advocate virtuous conduct against mistaken conduct, to promote the eradication of the propensities of defilement and to introduce to the truths and the noble path itself.

In its explanation of right mindfulness (samyaksmṛti)—notably eschewing references to the stock formula of smṛtyupasthāna—the Bdp draws on elements that pertain to mindfulness in the nikāya. That is to say, it is seen as a self-possessed, composed and attentive state of mental awareness manifesting in the practitioner a high degree of presence of mind. Then, it examines the phenomena that surround the bodhisattva and tests them for their usefulness or inadequacy—as the case may be—in relation to the path. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, samyaksmṛti is a force of recollection calling to mind the commitment to the path and, by implication, to universal liberation.

It is this concern with the suffering of beings that also resonates in the definition of right meditation (samyaksamādhi). Its psychological content—in principle no doubt related to the experience of the śrāvaka—is declared as composure towards reality, particularly in view of

^{827.} R, folio 667.4.

^{828.} Gethin, 1987, p. 88.

^{829.} This association with mental awareness is not particular to the nikāya, but became a generally characteristic of mindfulness. For the Sarvāstivāda, we read:

[&]quot;The faculty of mindfulness is a name for accurate designation concerning the body, etc., as it is discerned by wisdom. A mind that has become acquainted with [mindfulness] does not experience loss of object. Such lack of loss is the faculty of mindfulness" (*Abhidh-d*, p. 360.14–16).

its constituents (*dharma*). To the *Bdp*, however, this alone does not suffice to turn 'meditation' into 'right meditation'. For this transformation to take place, it is vital that serenity is acquired with a higher, very specific goal in mind, namely, the liberation of all sentient beings. As if to underline this element of altruism, preaching is included as an important aspect of right meditation. This adjustment grew no doubt from the re-invigorated concern for the fate of the world the Buddhist communities in ancient India became preoccupied with and so is by no means coincidental.

The differences in approach between the path formulae of the nikava and Bdp are so evident that they require, I think, no further illustration. As shown, apart from the reinterpretation of right meditation, most do not affect the spiritual core of the path, but centre on stylistic matters and detail of explanation. Most striking perhaps is the lack of reference to key bodhisattva terminology and the little use of established formulae. This is not a general feature of arvastangamarga descriptions in Mahayana literature. Usually, the eight factors are harmonised with the other bodhisattva practices in terms of a large degree of common vocabulary.⁸³¹ A good example of this is the account given in the Rcd.⁸³² Its explanations of the individual members are interspersed with a wealth of key concepts that occur elsewhere in connection with the bodhisattva training. Thus, right view is explained in terms of śūnyatā and advaya⁸³³; right resolve consists of 'skill' in *śamatha* and *vipaśyanā*, producing insight into dharma-sameness⁸³⁴; right livelihood is specifically developed in order to purify and ripen other beings⁸³⁵; mindfulness means, above all, recollection of the practice of the pāramitā and postponement of entry into nirvāna⁸³⁶ while meditation, although overtly concerned with the four noble truths conduces to a profound understanding of emptiness and all-knowing.837 A similar abundance of key terminology is manifest in the Mahāyāna interpretation of the ārvāstāngamārga given in the Mppś. 838 Here, however, emphasis is not so much placed on specific bodhisattva practices as on philosophical concepts, such as bhūtalakṣaṇa, anabhisamkāralaksana, śūnyatā, sarvajñajñāna and sarvakarmasamatā. Although not as

^{830.} R, folio 668.4-6.

^{831.} E.g., Śsp (Ghoṣa), pp. 1427-39; Ug, p. 269.3.8-4.2; Rcd, pp. 242.5.2-44.3.6; Arthav (S), pp. 34-42; Śrāv-bh (Sh), pp. 327.8-330.18; Mppś, iii, pp. 1203-7; Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 123-4.

^{832. 24,} pp. 242.5.2-244.2.6.

^{833.} op. cit., pp. 243.1.3-2.5.

^{834.} op. cit., pp. 243.3.3.

^{835.} op. cit., pp. 243.5.6.

^{836.} op. cit., pp. 244.4.1-8.

^{837.} op. cit., pp. 244.2.2-5.

^{838.} Mppś, iii, pp. 1203–1207.

convincing an example as the account in the $Rc\dot{q}$, the $Mpp\dot{s}$ nevertheless documents the tendency in the Mahāyāna to adjust the descriptions of the eightfold path to contemporary thinking. For good reason, this trend is not manifested in the Bdp.

Interpolated into the discussion of the bodhipāksika dharma, between the noble eightfold path and the perfect efforts, is an exposition of 'skill' in perfect mental quietude (samatha) and insight (vipaśyanā). 839 One key element in the description of śamatha is mental composure (cittaśānta). Effecting serenity, contentment, patience, ease of mind and imperturbability with regard to the senses, it stands at the very heart of the bodhisattva's meditative experience and is as such recognised in the Bdp. The attainment of composure itself signals the eradication of a series of factors certain to obstruct absorption. According to the Bhāvanākrama, these include indolence (kausīdya), forgetfulness with regard to the object of meditation (ālambanavismarana), distraction (viksepa), agitation (auddhatya), absence of effort $(avy\bar{a}y\bar{a}ma)$ and effort $(vy\bar{a}y\bar{a}ma)$. In the Bdp, none of these is explicitly referred to, but we find their presence in a number of terms that betray their elimination. 841 Further details of the meditative contents are revealed by the inclusion of reflection (manasakāra) and thorough examination (pratvaveksanā).842 According to the Bhāvanākrama, reflection plays an important role particularly during to the first phase of samatha practice where it is concerned with the body and dharma—objects that are also given in the Bdp. It is essentially a preparatory practice, technically known as 'images devoid of concepts' (nirvikalpakapratibimba), because the bodhisattva has not yet succeeded in evaluating their true value, that leads to full investigation ('images accompanied by concepts' savikalpakapratibimba) during vipaśyanā. 843 As structure.

^{839.} For references to śamatha/vipaśyanā in the nikāya, see: M I, p. 494; III, pp. 289, 297; S IV, pp. 194–95, 295, 350, 352; V, p. 52; A II, p. 157. For the Mahāyāna, see the contribution made by the Samdhis on śamatha/vipaśyanā (Samdhis (ÉLa), pp. 88.1–97.27). Good expositions in the scholastic literature are found in the Bbh (pp. 109.7–110.13), Msl (p. 146.6–28) and, above all, in the account drawn up by Kamalaśīla in his Bhāvanākrama (MBT, ii, pp. 205–214; iii, pp. 1–13).

^{840.} MBT, ii, § 14, pp. 207-8; MBT, iii, pp. 9-11.

^{841.} R. folio 669.2-3.

^{842.} At first sight, to find references to pratyavekṣaṇā and manasakāra in the śamatha section comes somewhat as a surprise, since both terms are elsewhere specifically associated with vipaśyanā. See, for instance, Śgs, p. 256; Saṃdhis (ÉLa), pp. 89, 92, 96 and MBT, iii, pp. 4.16, 5.17. However, as made clear by the context, for the Bdp their focus is not the nature of the pudgala or dharma—as it is during vipaśyanā practice—but the functioning of the yogin's body. Therefore, in the Bdp they carry less the meaning of the sharp, analytic investigation that is the characteric of them during vipaśyanā practice than an generally observing purpose. For a discussion of these terms in the context of meditative practice, see: Demiéville, 1987, pp. 79–80.

^{843.} MBT, iii, pp. 1.13-2.5

The Bhāvanākrama stresses that part of this reflection is particularly concerned with the body of the Tathāgata—a topic not mentioned in the Bdp. For a list of alternative objects of meditation during the

the *Bdp* accepts the traditional eight branches of meditation supplemented by the *apramāṇa*—a division also found in the *Saṃdhis*.⁸⁴⁴ In contrast to the *Bhāvanākrama*⁸⁴⁵, the setting of śamatha practice and its preparations are little discussed in the *Bdp*, although it indicates that seclusion away from the bustle of worldly life is the ideal location.

The bodhisattva, having come into contact with true reality through reflection, produces insight (vipasyanā) into the nature of reality. For the Bdp, this newly won realisation is threefold. 846 First, focused on his own body, it allows him to penetrate its true nature and to conclude that the individual (pudgala) does not exist. Then, he widens his field of vision and applies the principles behind this insight to the world at large. Grasping the workings of causality and fruit attainment, he penetrates reality and sees that dharma are non-existent (dharmanairātmya).⁸⁴⁷ According to the Bhāvanākrama, it is exactly this vision of reality, manifesting insight into pudgalanairātmya and dharmanairātmya, that distinguishes vipaśvanā from other types of cognition and turns it into correct analysis (bhūtapratyaveksā). 848 Finally, having acquired accurate vision of dharma and the context where they occur, the bodhisattva shifts his attention to the objects of his meditation (ālambana) only to realise that they also lack own-being (svabhāva). 849 At this stage, his understanding of reality has passed beyond all mental constructions to allow him to perceive the absence of concepts (nirvikalpa) and developments (nisprapañca).850 Thus accomplished, insight is no longer to him a part of conventional cognition, but rests in equal measure on seeing and non-seeing. Also called perfect seeing (samyagdarśana), it establishes him in the highest form of bodhisattva activity that incurs no karmic traces whatsoever.

For this achievement to take place, it is essential that śamatha and vipaśyanā are practised jointly throughout. As the two principal factors in meditation, they are inextricably linked like "two oxen harnessed to a plough", to quote a canonical simile.⁸⁵¹ With well-developed

śamatha cultivation, see: Samdhis (ÉLa), pp. 88.8–89.19 and Abhidh-sam (R), p. 126.

^{844.} Samdhis (ÉLa), p. 93.1–10

For material on the psychological experiences that distinguish *upekṣā* from śamatha, see: Saṃdhis (ÉLa), p. 97.11-26; Kośa, ii, pp. 25, 159; viii, p. 147; Siddhi, pp. 334, 370, MBT, iii, p. 9.20-21.

^{845.} *MBT*, iii, pp. 3.4–4.12.

^{846.} The threefold division of *vipaśyanā* in the *Bdp* is mirrored in the account of the *Bhāvanākrama* (*MBT*, iii, pp. 5.18–8.17). For an alternative division, see: *Saṃdhis* (ÉLa), p. 92.14–30.

^{847.} R, folio 670.1-2.

^{848.} MBT, iii, p. 5.14-17.

^{849.} R. folio 670.6.

^{850.} *MBT*, iii, p. 7.14–15.

^{851.} D III, pp. 213, 273; M I, pp. 494, 289; A II, pp. 156-7; *Paţis*, ii, p. 92; See also: Śikṣ, p. 119; Bbh, p. 207. 2-6; Msl, p. 91.25-26; MBT, iii, p. 10.4-7. For further references, see: Kośa, viii, p. 131.

vipaśyanā but weak śamatha, thought is agitated like a lamp exposed to strong winds so that reality is not clearly seen. But, if śamatha prevails over vipaśyanā, sleep is close at hand and reality will never be perceived. Hence, the view that śamatha precedes as practice the cultivation of vipaśyanā—although ocassionally expressed in Buddhist literature and also implied in the Bdp—appears to be a more theoretical proposition. 853

The Acquisition of Wisdom

The last type of 'skill' that is considered in the *Bdp* is 'skill' in *dharma*. Not included amongst the ten primary kinds of 'skill', but appended to the introductory statement, its function is to conclude the prior discussion. The key element in all six examples of 'skill' in *dharma* is the bodhisattva's dexterity in transforming attainments of the conditioned into attainments of the unconditioned. He transforms the predisposition (*saṃskāra*) of body, speech and mind into all-knowing; he does not depreciate Perfect Wisdom through the five preliminary perfections; he leads sentient beings to enlightenment through the means of conversion; he does not cut the fetters of *saṃsāra*, but cleanses himself of worldly defilements; he remains unaffected by impurity in spite of his presence in the *traidhātuka*; he is acquainted with the teachings of emptiness, etc., and yet, he does not realise the unconditioned. 854

The significance of these examples is twofold. First, it is shown that a bodhisattva who is skilled in dharma—conditioned and unconditioned alike—is in fact equipped with all-knowing. Second, since spiritual realisation devoid of 'skill' and wisdom cannot produce liberation, it testifies to their indispensability and discloses the benefits skilful interaction between the conditioned and unconditioned delivers. Emulating the ancient model of the integration of means $(up\bar{a}ya)$ and wisdom $(prajn\bar{a})$ —the former being part of the conditioned, the latter epitomising the unconditioned—'skill' in dharma accentuates the functional relationship

^{852.} MBT, iii, p. 9.22-10.5; Samdhis (ÉLa), p. 90.15-21.

^{853.} In a sutta of the Anguttaranikāya, for instance, we have Ānanda declaring that a bhikkhu who claims to have attained arhantship is in possession of one of four paths, that is, the path cultivating vipassanā preceded by samatha; the path cultivating samatha preceded by vipassanā; the path in which both are yoked together or a path where the bhikkhu's mind is agitated by dhamma (A II, pp. 156-7). See also Papañcasūdanī (v, p. 504) where Buddhaghoṣa proposes that samatha and vipassanā belong to different moments (nānākkhaṇikā), leading to a serial attainment of the three marks and vipassanā (ref. Ruegg; cf. Kośa, viii, p. 131). In Māhāyana texts, consult: Samdhis (ÉLa), p. 90.3-14; Siddhi, p. 597; MBT, iii, pp. 1-3; DPP, p. 17.

^{854.} R, folio 685.1.

^{855.} R, folio 685.4-5.

coupling the actual practices to the cognitive realm. This accounts also for the positioning of 'skill' in *dharma* at the very end of the discourse *outside* the formal structure of the ten skills. For, 'skill' in *dharma* sets out to establish their interconnection by fusing the worldly *pāramitā* with the perfection of wisdom; by uniting learning, reflection and contemplation; by merging the *pratisaraṇa* with the *pratisaṃvid*; by joining *puṇyasaṃbhāra* with *jñānasaṃbhāra*; and by blending śamatha and vipaśyanā.

This interpretation, obvious on textual grounds and well-known from other sources, does not present much of a problem. Difficulties arise, however, if we attempt to reconcile the Bdp's intent behind 'skill' in dharma with that of the ten 'skills' in the Mvs. As already seen, for the Mvs 'skill' is essentially a means of illustrating the futility of the belief in a self (ātmadṛṣṭi). In line with this thinking, 'skill' in conditioned and unconditioned dharma (likewise placed as the tenth 'skill' at the end of the discussion) is employed to show the 'illusion of an entity that is either bound or released' (amuktamuktatvagṛāha). 856 The idea is that such illusion consists in imagining that a self is at first tied to saṃsāra by defilements and later liberated from them. Since only conditioned dharma are subject to the saṃyojana, 'skill' in conditioned and unconditioned (i.e., all) dharma is explained to counteract this illusion. 857

While this approach to 'skill' in *dharma* is consistent with the interpretation of the preceding nine types of 'skill', it does not show any obvious relation to our passage in the *Bdp*. The only link with the *Mvś*'s standpoint is perhaps the *Bdp*'s proposition that the transformation to enlightenment takes place on the basis of discerning all *dharma* as unconditioned enlightenment in the first place. This eliminates the need for purification and explains the abstention from realising the unconditioned. It would also account for the bodhisattva's twofold approach to reality. Moreover, in a sense, it removes by implication the process of deliverance from the individual that is of key concern to the *Mvś*.

Phases in Perfect Wisdom

I now propose to investigate the structural principles that underlie the arrangement of the

^{856.} Mvś (N), p. 44.10.

^{857.} Mvś (N), p. 48.6-7.

^{858.} R, folio 683.7.

praiñāpāramitā practices. Following the bodhisattva practice proper. 859 the Bdp discusses material that seems to include a blueprint of the bodhisattva's career phases. This blueprint—integrated into the discussion of 'skill' in solitary wandering—gives an approximate idea of the scope and nature of the various phases. However, since the text itself is anything but explicit I have had to turn once again to the Akn-tīkā that contains a brief passage on a parallel section in the Akn. 860 Guided by its analysis, it became possible to break up the contents of 'skill' in solitary wandering as follows. 861 At first, during the initial phase extending from the first cittotpāda to the adhimukticaryābhūmi, the bodhisattva practises only in his own interest, as he is unable to dispense instruction and benefit to others.⁸⁶² During this period, wholly independent and self-sufficient, he lives the life of a recluse and is isolated from the world. In spite of immense effort, his practice of the pāramitā is flawed. The process of pāramitā purification takes place during the second phase and follows on the attainment of patience. Although the Akn-tīkā does not indicate the span of this period, our analysis of ksānti has revealed that this is unlikely to occur prior to the seventh (sudurjayābhūmi) or possibly the sixth stage (arcrismatībhūmi). Still left to his own devices, he secures the perfections all by himself and resolves to achieve unsurpassed attainments. Advance to the third phase is marked by the acquisition of the vision of dharma-sameness. Having removed all obstacles related to defilements (kleśāvarana) and having decisively weakened those pertaining to knowledge (jñeyāvaraṇa), the bodhisattva attains mastery of the means of conversion (samgrahavastu). This allows him to develop fellow beings and plant the roots of virtue with unprecedented impact. 863 Finally, at the fourth stage, freed from all impurity, he overcomes the last remaining obstacles and, taking a seat on the vajra-throne, attains enlightenment. This, of course, signals the end of the bodhisattva's advance to buddhahood.

Clearly, this division, however plausible, is rather general. Moreover, it does not seem to stand in direct relationship to the content of the $Pr\bar{a}j\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ Chapter, since it approaches the bodhisattva path in a much broader fashion. I suggest to leave its evaluation on the side for

^{859.} For reasons that will become apparent, I take them to include the pratisamvid, pratisaraņa, punya/jñānasambhāra, bodhipākṣika as well as śamatha/vipaśyanā.

^{860.} Akn, pp. 72.1.8–73.2; Akn-tīkā, pp. 271.4.4–272.2.1.

^{861.} Text references to key sentences in the $Akn-t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$ and discussions of the terminology are given in my notes to the translation of chapter eleven.

^{862.} Akn-tīkā, p. 272.1.1; Bbh, pp. 84.21-85.7, 86.4-11.

^{863.} As reference to the means of conversion is omitted in the *Bdp* but found in the *Akn*, we must ignore the *samgrahavastu* phase. This, however, is immaterial to the characterisation of the path phases since vision of *dharma*-sameness is in any event fixed to the eighth stage (Śgs, p. 131) at which point the bodhisattva has already attained mastery over the *samgrahavastu* and sets out to ripen beings with immense effect (*Daśa-bh* p. 57.16).

the time being and to turn instead to the structures of the wisdom-practices themselves.

Reading through the chapter, the first thing one notices is the break between the section leading up to 'skill' and the discussion of 'skill' itself. The former section, starting with the seventy-two kinds of learning and ending with the bodhisattva's emancipation from defilements, is markedly less structured than the other parts of this chapter. Although much of its material is well-known from earlier sources, insufficient use of 'context markers' introduces some ambiguity regarding the conceptual interrelation between the practices and the training phases they represent. Notwithstanding, it is possible to outline a general structural pattern. As shown, large areas of the arrangement of the practices bear reminiscence to the first four of the five traditional path phases, comprising the saṃbhāramārga, prayogamārga, darśanamārga and bhāvanāmārga. In establishing this correlation, I considered the few 'context markers' available and compared the Bdp's position with the contents of the various stages known from other sources. The picture that emerged from this analysis—although not beyond controversy in detail—supplies continuity between the individual practices.

Next, the *Bdp* introduces a series of 'skills' that are apparently related to the foregoing accomplishments. Most commentaries agree that the first four of these represent the cognitive attainment of the śrāvaka. Since their objective (that is, the eradication of the belief in a self) is not particular to the training of the śrāvaka, but equally pertains to the *bodhisattvacaryā*, they are cited also in the *Bdp*. 864 When we turn to the *pratisamvid* difficulties arise because these exhibit no clear conceptual link with the destruction of the belief in a self. What is more, our sources disagree on their position in the path, some arguing that the *pratisamvid* spring from 'skill' in *skandha*, etc., while others assert the contrary. Judgement on this matter will have to await further research. Whatever their exact relation to the first four types of 'skill', the *pratisamvid* are an integral part of *prajñāpāramitā*865 and their overall task is well attested by their content. Above all, they introduce the bodhisattva to those areas of knowledge that will be of greatest demand in his career; that is, they give an accurate understanding of reality—in conventional and absolute terms—and the ability to communicate effectively with other beings. 866 Their relation to the *bodhipākṣika* is of utmost importance to the bodhisattva. For, not only do they allow for the perception of the individual *dharma* 'in accordance with

^{864.} Bbh, p. 4.6-8.

^{865.} Bbh, p. 214.9-15.

^{866.} In the Akn-tīkā (p. 242.1.4-7), this interpretation is brought out by the purpose to which the pratisamvid are set, that is the 'attainment of power in teaching'.

reality' (yathābhūta), but moreover, prompt him to postpone indefinitely their realisation.867

The rationale for joining the pratisarana with the pratisamvid poses fewer difficulties, since both are closely related in contents and spirit. This is particularly true of the arthapratisamvid and dharmapratisamvid, as knowledge of the own-being of things and designations becomes almost a prerequisite for considered reliance on any of the four pratisarana. The impact of the niruktipratisamvid on the pratisarana is smaller, since the knowledge of languages has immediate bearing only on the artha/vyañjana and neyārtha/nītārtha distinction. In a sense, three out of four pratisamvid represent something of a basis of cognition to the pratisarana therefore. Once established, their conceptual proximity could be taken to explain the irregular order in which the pratisarana are presented. That is to say, by beginning the discussion of the pratisarana with the artha/vyañjana combination in the place of the dharmatā/pudgala pair—which most other texts cite as the first pratisarana—the Bdp might have intended to express a parallelism with the pratisamvid where artha is cited as the first item. 868

Being thus trained in knowledge and well-focused in his practice, the bodhisattva embarks on the training proper. Dual aspected from the very beginning, it begins with the accumulation of merit and pristine cognition. By accumulating merit, the bodhisattva works for the benefit of sentient beings, since it furnishes him with the roots of virtue that he dedicates to their liberation. By the accumulation of pristine cognition, in contrast, he accomplishes the destruction of his own, personal defilements. This division—although rather theoretical since both practices go hand in hand—is remarkably well-delineated in the Bdp, with each accumulation mirroring its designated task. For the Akn- $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$, referring to the slightly edited path model of the Bdp in the Akn, this path phase represents the very beginning of the bodhisattva's 'organised career', that is, it coincides with the $sambh\bar{a}ram\bar{a}rga$. This, of course, is a standard classification

^{867.} Bbh, p. 259.9-13.

Note that in the scheme of the Bbh (pp. 256.23-259.6) and Msl (pp. 138.3-139.17), the pratisarana precede the pratisamvid on the basis that the former give rise to the latter. This view is also expressed in the Bhadra-vy (pp. 45.31-46.2). While Régamey (p. 100) is certainly mistaken in considering the pratisarana to be a "free interpretation of the four normal pratisamvid", in terms of their conceptual proximity, his observation is perhaps not as out of place as might at first appear. Of some interest in this context is the Bbh's comment that the pratisamvid are the agency giving rise to the cultivation of the bodhipākṣika dharma (p. 259.9-11). This gives a logical connection to its order of beneficial dharma listed in the Bodhipakṣyapaṭala, viz., pratisarana, pratisamvid, puṇya/jñānasambhāra, bodhipākṣika, śamatha/vipaṣyanā. But for the reversal of the pratisarana and pratisamvid (and perhaps the positioning of the samyakprahāṇa, indriya and bala), this is exactly the order that is found in the Bdp (note that the same order of practices is also found in the Msl, pp. 138.3-149.4).

^{869.} Akn-ţīkā, p. 248.5.2.

that need not be discussed here.⁸⁷⁰ Of far greater import to the present context is the question whether this position is reconcilable with our earlier identification of *saṃbhāramārga*. If not, we would have to reconsider most of our observations on the first section of chapter eleven. However, as this problem is not isolated but recurs on three other occasions and requires detailed analysis, I shall postpone its discussion for the time being.

Subsequent to accumulation, that according to the Akn-tīkā constitutes the only element of the sambhāramārga⁸⁷¹, the Bdp introduces the four smrtyupasthāna. To the Akn-tīkā their practice, emulating the Sarvāstivāda path model, signals entry on the prayogamārga. 872 While this classification is in itself not remarkable and is found with minor variation at several places, its adaptation for the Bdp raises a whole series of questions. The reason for this is quite simple. In the Akn, the bases of mindfulness introduce the traditional order of the bodhipāksika (with the samyakprahāna, rddhipāda, indriya and bala all part of the prayogamārga), whilst in the Bdp the smrtyupasthāna are immediately followed by the bodhyanga. According to the Sarvāstivāda path, this would mean that for the Bdp the prayogamārga consists only of the bases of mindfulness, since the bodhyanga already herald entry into the next phase—the darśanamārga. 873 Practically all sources agree that the darśanamārga consists only of one set of practices, be it the bodhyanga or āryāstāngamārga.⁸⁷⁴ Depending on which choice is made for the darśanamārga, the bhāvanāmārga as the penultimate stage of the path is occupied either by the factors of enlightenment or the eightfold path. According to the explanations of the $Akn-t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$ on the parallel scheme in the Akn this would be the āryāstāngamārga. 875 The eightfold path, being traditionally the last of the seven sets, concludes the treatment of the bodhipāksika in most texts. 876 At first sight, this

^{870.} Siddhi, pp. 564-74; Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 104-3; DPP, pp. 33-34.

^{871.} Akn-tīkā, pp. 248.5.3-49.4.2.

^{872.} Akn-tīkā, p. 249.5.3-4 See, for instance, Kośa, vi, p. 287; Abhidh-d, p. 362.12-13.

^{873.} Abhidh-h (W), ii, p. 140; Mvś, iv.8-10

There exists some disagreement on the distribution of the bodhyanga and āryāṣṭāngamārga to the darśanaand bhāvanāmārga. For the Kośa (vi, p. 288) and the Abhidh-d (p. 362), the bodhyanga represent the bhāvanāmārga with the darśanamārga being taken up by the eightfold path, while the opposite is asserted by the Vaibhāṣika (op. cit.) and the Akn-ṭīkā (p. 266.1.3). The differences between the two schemes have, however, little bearing on substance, since both paths form part of the transcendental realm; it is chiefly a question of reconciling the traditional order of the bodhipākṣika with the view that the meditative context of the bodhyanga should be associated with the contemplation of the bhāvanāmārga.

^{874.} Abhidh-d, p. 365; Kośa, p. 288; Mvś (N), pp. 33.14-16; Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 116-7 (different terminology); Abhidh-h (W), p. 140.

^{875.} Akn-ţīkā, p. 267.3.5.

^{876.} For references to examples in the nikāya, see: Gethin, 1987, pp. 501, 510, 524-6; for Mahāyāna references, consult any of the following texts: *Kp*, § 95; *Vkn*, p. 20; *Daśa-bh*, pp. 38.16-39.11; *Rcd*, pp. 235.3.4-44.2.6; *Akn*, pp. 66.4.3-71.2.1; *Arthav* (S), pp. 28-42; *Pañca*, pp. 204-208.

model is also endorsed in the *Bdp*, since the practices that immediately follow on the *āryāṣṭāṅgamārga*, that is, *śamatha* and *vipaśyanā*, do not belong to the *bodhipākṣika*. On their analogous occurrence in the *Akn*, the commentary remarks that *śamatha* and *vipaśyanā* constitute the means by which the practical aspects of the path are taught.⁸⁷⁷ I shall demonstrate below that this position, although unusual, is not irreconcilable with other path interpretations. The presence of the *samyakprahāṇa*, *indriya* and *bala* following *śamatha* and *vipaśyanā* poses far greater difficulty.

In order appreciate the problems given by this presentation, it may be helpful to recall some of the more general features of the bodhipākṣika dharma. Embodying Buddhist spiritual training at the higher stages of the path, the bodhipākṣika are not a random assortment of practices, but constitute a coherent body of methods specifically designed to bring about enlightenment. On the one hand, whether in the form of individual sets, or from the point of view of their 'ingredients' (dravya), each of the seven categories is understood to reproduce the Path in its own right. On the other hand, epitomising the collective and individual means of reaching awakening, full development of any one of the sets brings to fulfilment all seven. Thus, as a spiritual unity whose individual members stand in close relation to each other, they constitute the very hub of the path.

This and the mnemonic constraints of oral literature, led to an early standardisation in their presentation, including stockphrases and formulae to aid elucidation. As a result, beyond abhidharmic detail, explanations of their contents generally display few differences in substance. Also the number of practices shows little variation, so that all thirty-seven are usually discussed en bloc. The order in which they are treated is nearly always the same, starting with the smṛtyupasthāna and ending with the āryāṣṭāṅgamārga. Even in expanded lists it is extremely rare that the seven sets are separated. When juxtaposed to other practices, the thirty-seven dharma regularly stand at the centre with the remaining practices clustered around them.

When differences occur, these are mainly due to variations in context affecting the status of individual practices. In several works expanded lists of bodhipākṣika are met with. Generally, this occurs in the context of meditation practices. Depending whether they are addressed collectively on the lokottara path or individually in conjunction with higher applications of śamatha and vipaśyanā in the phase immediately preceding the emergence of lokottara consciousness, the bodhipākṣika are ranked either as lokottara or as laukika practices.

^{877.} Akn-tīkā, p. 267.3.6.

Finally, in their attempts to draw up a coherent scheme of the Buddhist experience, scholars have developed several models correlating the seven sets to the stages of the path. Of these, the best documented account is by the Sarvāstivāda school. However, even their distribution of the bodhipākṣika fluctuates, showing that these endeavours were never brought to a conclusion. Indeed, we also meet with propositions that indicate a continuous and simultaneous presence of all thirty-seven factors at the higher, transcendental levels of the path.

With these considerations in mind, let us return now to the bodhipākṣika in the Bdp and reassess those areas where anomalies occur. The first incongruity we have noted is the isolation of the smrtyupasthāna on the prayogamārga, with three of its traditional co-residents being separated from the bulk of the bodhipākṣika. Editorial adjustments in the order of their presentation in the Akn—resulting in the interpolation of the samyakprahāna, rddhipāda, indriya and bala between the smrtyupasthāna and bodhyanga—indicate that such positioning was already viewed with suspicion in ancient Indian Buddhist circles. Besides depriving the prayogamārga of much of its contents, their position at the very end overturns a whole tradition. For, as Gethin has shown, the order of the seven sets was already established during the four primary nikāya and rapidly assumed an air of inviolability. Indeed, judging by Gethin's survey of Pāli sources and my own reading in the Mahāyāna, the Bdp's sequencing has no parallel anywhere in Buddhist literature.

The sole presence of the *smṛtyupasthāna* on the *prayogamārga* is less problematic. First, as already noted, Buddhism never produced any fixed and final scheme of distribution of the *bodhipākṣika* to the stages. Discrepancies are greatest with regard to the first two path phases, some placing the *smṛtyupasthāna* on the *saṃbhāramārga*, others on the *prayogamārga* or their equivalents. Second, the very nature of the *smṛtyupasthāna* could conceivably be taken to allow for this interpretation. Since they are well-known from the *Mahāsatipaṭṭhānasutta* as embodying on their own the whole Buddhist path and of great importance as basic instructions in meditation, the *smṛtyupasthāna*—it could be argued—stand at the centre of all types of practice. This consideration, it seems, led the compiler of the *Kośa* to refer to the *smṛtyupasthāna* twice, distinguishing a lower and higher level of cultivation; first, as the practice dominating especially the *ādikarmikamārga* and, second, as the foundation to all

^{878.} Akn, pp. 66.4.3, 68.5.1, 69.3.2, 69.4.1, 69.5.6, 70.2.3.

^{879.} Gethin, 1987, pp. 500-26, and conclusions: pp. 527-533.

^{880.} Compare, for instance, the schemes of the Kośa, vi, pp. 287-88; Abhidh-d, p. 362; Abhidh-h (W), p. 140; Abhidh-sam (R), p. 116-7; Mvś (N), pp. 50-55 and Mppś, iii, pp. 1148-1149.

^{881.} D II, p. 290; M I, p. 55.

four *nirvedhabhāgīya*. Since the *nirvedhabhāgīya* are the very practices that make up the contents of the *prayogamārga*⁸⁸³, the *Bdp's* identification of the *smṛtyupasthāna* with the *prayogamārga* perhaps is less inept than it appears at face value.

Having already considered the omission of the rddhipāda and the inverted correlation between the bodhyanga/āryāstāngamārga and darśana/bhāyanāmārga, I shall proceed directly to the interpolation of śamatha and vipaśyanā. To be sure, the occurrence of śamatha and vipaśyanā alongside the bodhipāksika is by no means unusual. They are found in a great number of expanded bodhipākṣika lists from both the Pāli and Sanskrit traditions.⁸⁸⁴ Furthermore. the meditative experiences pertaining to perfect mental quietude and insight are integral to most aspects of bodhipāksika cultivation. While for some texts this connection is only manifest in selected sets⁸⁸⁵, others define all thirty-seven factors in terms of their association with śamatha and vipaśyanā. A good example of the latter approach is found in the Satyasiddhiśāstra where all but three of the bodhipāksika practices are identified as belonging either to śamatha or vipaśyanā. 886 However, the exact role of perfect mental quietude and insight in relation to the thirty-seven bodhipāksika is little discussed. Gethin, quoting a passage from the Nettippakaranāttha, suggests that in certain lists the seven sets might have served to exemplify how śamatha and vipaśyanā are fulfilled. 887 In other contexts, most notably the Dhammasangani and Visuddhimagga, they further the arising of active skilful consciousness that operates in the phase prior to (pubhabhāga) the lokottara path. 888 This would place śamatha and vipaśyanā in the final phase of the prayogamārga.

885. See, for instance, the Śbh (Śrāv-bh (Sh), pp. 325-7) relating śamatha and vipaśyanā to the bodhyanga, with praśrabdha, samādhi and upekṣā manifesting śamatha; dharmapravicaya, vīrya and prīti constituting vipaśyanā while smrti is held to consist of both śamatha and vipaśyanā.

^{882.} Kośa, vi, pp. 159-178, 287.

^{883.} This view is expressed in numerous texts. It is found in the Abhidh-sam (R), pp. 105-6; Kośa, vi, pp. 169-78; Mvś (N), pp. 33.14-16, 52; Abhidh-d, p. 362 and is discussed in DPP, pp. 20, 34-37. There are only a few texts that reject the nirvedhabhāgīya at the heart of the prayogamārga. One such example is the Abhidh-h (W), ii, p. 194. However, rather than outright rejection, their omission from the prayogamārga is perhaps the outcome of a different terminology, since the association of the perfect efforts, bases of success, faculties and powers with striving (vyāyāma), one-pointedness (cittaikāgratā), weak (mrdu) and sharp (tīkṣṇa) is also present in the description of its equivalent to the prayogamārga.

^{884.} For examples of such lists, see: Gethin, 1987, pp. 510, 524-26
See also: Śrotabhūmi (p. 287.3.2-7) which interpolates the pratisamvid between the eightfold path and śamtha and vipaśyanā.

^{886.} According to this text, śamatha is manifest in the first three types of smṛtyupasthāna, in all rddhipāda, in the first four indriya and bala, in three of the bodhyanga and two of the āryāṣṭāngamārga. All others, with the exception of the three śīla factors of the āryāṣṭāngamārga, the smṛtendriya and smṛtibala are held to pertain to vipaṣyanā (op. cit., ii, pp. 448-9).

^{887.} Gethin, 1987, p. 515.

^{888.} *Dhs*, pp. 9–29; *Vism*, pp. 137–38, iv.74–5; p. 459, xiv.121; pp. 669–70, xxi.129–30; *Sp*, ii, p. 494; *Sv*, ii, p. 564; iii, pp. 883–4; *Ps*, iii, 243–4. For these and further references, see: Gethin, 1987, pp. 625–27.

In Mahāyāna works, their relationship to the bodhipākṣika is explained differently. Typically cited after the description of the bodhipākṣika, they are given a firm place in the lokottara consciousness and interpreted as the culmination of the seven sets. Thus, we read in the Bbh that śamatha secures non-discrimination (avikalpana) of the bodhipākṣika, whilst vipaśyanā embodies their accurate perception in accordance with the highest truth and differentiation (vyavasthāna). It is probably in this context that one has to interpret the statement in the Akn-ṭīkā that śamatha and vipaśyanā jointly embody the practice of the bhāvanāmārga. That is to say, dwelling on the path of contemplation linked with wisdom the bodhisattva is no longer concerned with the individual practices or their particular fruits of realisation, but looks at them from the absolute point of view. Citing smṛti as example, the Bbh explains:

"In which fashion does the bodhisattva perceive the thirty-seven bodhipākṣika dharma from the viewpoint of the Mahāyāna? Here, the bodhisattva dwells considering the body as body, but he does not perceive the body as an existing body, nor as a body that does not exist in any way. He perceives the exact nature of the foundation of being of the body. This is for him to consider the body from the absolute point of view."

For the bodhisattva, śamatha and vipaśyanā are therefore not so much part of the dhyānic processes that lead to the acquisition of the bodhipākṣika, as the group of factors that establish their position in the Mahāyāna scheme of things. ⁸⁹⁴ In the Bdp, awareness of this frame of reference is dependent on composure and reflection and produces a vision of reality whose parameter consist in pudgalanairātmya, dharmanairātmya and animitta. Inevitably, the pursuit

^{889.} E.g., Śrotabhūmi, p. 287.2.4-5

This is only true if cited in conjunction with the bodhipākṣika dharma. Their overall functions in the path as a whole are far more multifarious and vary, depending on the respective phase of the training. A description of their changing roles on the path—starting with their function as causal basis to the attainment of the adhimukticaryābhūmi and ending with their contribution to the purification of the buddha-field during the eighth, ninth and tenth stages—is given in the Msl (p. 146.10-26).

^{890.} Bbh, pp. 260.11-261.2.

^{891.} R, folio 670.1.

^{892.} R, folio 671.3.

^{893.} Bbh, p. 259.15-22; cf. Msl, p. 146.6-27.

^{894.} Besides śamatha and vipaśyanā, these include the four pratisamvid and a general knowledge of means. They prompt the bodhisattva to look at the thirty-seven factors of enlightenment in accordance with reality, but without realising them (Bbh, p. 259.9-11).

of the bodhipākṣika within this framework cannot but be affected by such understanding, generating a novel type of consummation that is based on their very non-existence (anupaladhitām upādāya). This insight does not occur by chance, but is inspired by the meditative and cognitive exercises that lie at the heart of the seven sets themselves. Thus, as factors finalising the conceptual context for the bodhisattva's bodhipākṣika practice, the positioning of śamatha and vipaśyanā after the bodhipākṣika proper makes particularly good sense since it takes into account the role of the thirty-seven practices in securing their realisation. The securing their realisation.

This cannot be said about the position of the samyakprahāṇa, indriya and bala. Apart from infringing on the traditional order of exposition, their location beyond the bodhipākṣika series raises the question of their status. That is to say, since they follow on practices that are to all intents part of the lokottara consciousness, is it safe to conclude that they also pertain to the lokottara phase of the path? If not, what are the effects on our scheme? Does it mean that our signposts have to be cast aside or re-interpreted?

In order to answer these questions, it is necessary to consider the status of the bodhipākṣika in general, and that of the samyakprahāṇa, indriya and bala in particular. In the Kośa, echoing the ancient view that all bodhipākṣika pertain to the higher stages of the path, we learn that the seven sets may be without āsrava.⁸⁹⁷ By implication, this must mean that all thirty-seven factors are potentially part of the lokottara consciousness. Summing up the Theravāda position on this matter, Gethin writes:⁸⁹⁸

"Strictly speaking, from the point of view of abhidhamma, we can only say that the satipaṭṭhāna, sammappadhāna, iddhipāda, bala, bojjhanga and magganga function truly and fully when brought to the stage of the lokuttaracitta; this is their natural and proper level."

Conceding that this is not the whole truth since the Pāli commentaries do in fact allow for

^{895.} Mppś, iii, p. 1135.

^{896.} A very revealing passage to this effect is found in the *Msl*, where it says that śamatha, here likened to stillness (sthāna) of thought, and vipaśyanā, held to correspond to dharma investigation, are in fact based on the bodhipākṣika factors of samyaksamādhi and dharmapravicaya (p. 146.6-10). Indeed, their positioning following the bodhipākṣika is found in a number of important works. It is given in the *Bbh* (p. 259.15-22), *Msl* (p. 146.6-27), *Abhidh-sam* (R), (p. 126), *Pañca* (pp. 208-210; as parts of the string of meditative attainments) and in the *Vkn*, p. 40.

^{897.} Kośa, vi, pp. 284, 290.

^{898.} Gethin, 1987, p. 240.

laukika cultivation of the bodhipākṣika, Gethin draws attention to the work of Bareau who established that worldly indriya practice is also catered to in the Vātsīputriya path. Here, the indriya are ranked as laukika in the context of the four nirvedhabhāgīya, to be precise, as laukikāgradharma immediately preceding the emergence of lokottara consciousness. The proposition of the Vātsīputriya ties thus in with the distribution of the bodhipākṣika to the various path phases. As already indicated, according to the Sarvāstivāda, the samyakprahāṇa, indriya and bala fall all into the prayoga phase. Allocated to three of the four nirvedhabhāgīya—with the mūrdhan level reserved for the missing rddhipāda—in terms of the path at least, they are thus clearly of laukika rank.

For the commentaries of the Pāli tradition the situation is more fluid than that. Proposing that the shift from the *laukika* to the *lokottara* experience rests more than anything on the context in which they are pursued (that is to say, depending on whether they are practised during the 'prior stage' separating ordinary practice from transcendental practice or during the *lokottara* path and fruit itself) the *bodhipākṣika* are either *laukika* or *lokottara* in nature. In theory, it seems, this would allow for both levels of cultivation of the thirty-seven factors. Yet, in practice, as Gethin has shown, this principle does not apply evenly to all seven sets, but is only valid for the *samyakprahāṇa*, *indriya* and *bala*—with the other sets pertaining invariably to the *lokottara* mind.⁹⁰¹

Now, without going into the details of why this is so, we note that it is precisely these three practices which are 'out of order' in the *Bdp*. Bearing in mind what has been said on the *laukika/lokottara* potential of the *bodhipākṣika*, two explanations spring to mind. First, we cannot discount the possibility that the *samyakprahāṇa*, etc., had been randomly positioned in their present location. This would explain the presence of *laukika* practices in a section of the path that, by common agreement, arises within the *lokottara* consciousness. Spotted as an error by a learned reader, it was not allowed to perpetuate itself, but got redressed and brought into line with the traditional *bodhipākṣika* sequence when adopted for the *Akn*. The problem with this interpretation lies in the improbability that such a major structural defect

^{899.} Bareau, 1955, p. 118.

^{900.} Note that the interpretation of their status is far from resolved. To the Vibhajyavāda, for instance, the five *indriya* are exclusively *lokottara* because they are held to have immediate bearing on the acquisition of four fruitions of arhantship (Bareau, 1955, p. 172). The Sarvāstivāda protagonists, in contrast, appear to have adopted the Theravāda view and interprete the *indriya* as characterising the five components in their generality (*op. cit.*, pp. 143, 145-6). For a full treatment of the understanding of the *indriya* formula in Pāli literature, see: Gethin, 1987, pp. 231-269

^{901.} Gethin, 1987, pp. 240, 630.

should have escaped notice, particularly in view of the renown and early codification of the seven *bodhipākṣika* sets.⁹⁰²

Alternatively, if not a mistake, their placement is deliberate and grew out of some undisclosed consideration. Whatever the reason, their installation towards the end of the path suggests that the three were not interpreted as *laukika* practices in their *prayogamārga* context, but in the *bodhipākṣika's* original role as spiritual exercises of the highest order. ⁹⁰³ Epitomising the 'practice' of the *bhāvanāmārga*, they could arguably represent a phase that develops the meditative pursuits of the *smṛtyupasthāna*, *bodhyanga*, *āryāṣṭāngamārga*, *śamatha* and *vipaśyanā*. Their contents would seem to correspond to the practices that the bodhisattva undertakes after emerging from meditation. ⁹⁰⁴ Moreover, taken together, they cover most of the antidotes designed to prevent meditative defeat, viz., faith, zeal, effort, tranquillity, mindfulness, attentiveness, reflection and equipoise. ⁹⁰⁵

Needless to say, if this interpretation is accepted we cannot maintain the allocation in the Akn- $t\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}$, since this would interfere with the presumed lokottara status of the $samyakprah\bar{a}na$, indriya and bala. We would also be at a loss to explain the editorial modifications in the Akn. One would think that such carefully devised scheme would not be abandoned without due consideration. Equally intriguing is the fact that Buddhist literature does not record the rationale behind this scheme. I have not found a single text in which the $samyakprah\bar{a}na$, indriya and bala are similarly placed.

Taking all factors into consideration, it would thus appear that their positioning—novel but probably deliberate and, in a sense, consistent with the Bdp's path model—failed to attract support in Buddhist circles, became isolated and was soon forgotten. Even when encountered (as it must have been by the author of the Akn), its structure was not accepted but modified and brought into line with the established order of the $bodhip\bar{a}ksika$. While the rationale may therefore be lost, the very fact of its survival in the Bdp reminds us, once more, of the fluctuations in thought that influenced the shaping of the bodhisattva doctrine and the multiple

^{902.} The possibility that the *Bdp* was unaware of the traditional sequence can be safely ruled out, as it gives a complete and orderly listing of the seven sets at R, 630.3-6. In other places, however, without apparent reason or clear pattern, it gives only a selection of the *bodhipāksika* (R, folio 592.1; 596.5-98.1).

^{903.} Theoretically, there is still the possibility that their presence on what is to all purposes the *bhāvanāmārga* might point to the impure (*anāsrava*) or *laukika* phase of path of contemplation (*Kośa*, vi, p. 119, ii, p. 117, v, pp. 103-4). Their positioning after the noble eightfold path and after the *lokottara* practices of *śamatha* and *vipaśyanā*, however, does not give much credibility to this hypothesis. Cf. *Abhidh-sam* (R), p. 110, which distinguishes between a *laukika* and *lokottara* phase of the *bhāvanāmārga*.

^{904.} MBT, iii, pp. 9.1-11.20.

^{905.} MBT, iii, p. 10.8-12.

forces that were party to this process.

Leaving behind the intricacies of the $bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}m\bar{a}rga$, we shall now turn to the last phase of the bodhisattva path. Interpreted by the Akn- $t\bar{i}k\bar{a}$ as 'isolated awakening' (pratyekabodhi), it covers the attainment of enlightenment and the cognitive realisations that stand in wisdom at its very heart. For the Bdp, as for most other treatises, the chief components of $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$ are penetration into the laws of dependent co-origination and insight into the general characteristics of dharma. Accordingly, the Bdp divided the climax of the path into 'skill' in solitary wandering ($ekay\bar{a}nam\bar{a}rga$), 'skill' in dependent co-origination ($prat\bar{t}tyasamutp\bar{a}da$) and 'skill' in all dharma.

The connotations of 'skill' in solitary wandering are many and vary to some degree within each context in which they appear. Broadly speaking, we can distinguish five concepts that are united in the term *ekayānamārga*. First, there is the idea that the *ekayānamārga* covers the totality of Buddhist practices, specifically with reference to the seven categories of *bodhipākṣika dharma*. Second, it describes the mystical nature of a path that is well-delineated and easily followed since it does not deviate into side-roads. Third, being only wide enough for one person, it can only be travelled alone. Fourth, the path is one in the sense that it is traversed and accomplished only by the best, the Buddha. Finally, the *ekayānamārga* is one in as much as it leads to only one place, namely *nirvāṇa*.

The reason why I have reiterated the findings of previous research here is straightforward. Practically all of these aspects of the *ekayāna* concept are mirrored, in one way or another, in the *Bdp's* 'skill' in solitary wandering. That the 'single path' is all-encompassing and includes all practices corresponds to the bodhisattva's commitment to the six perfections. Its description as a path that unified, well-defined and without forks is played on when the bodhisattva's conduct is characterised as self-sufficient and independent of others. On a path whose course is straight and unambiguous, external guidance is obviously unnecessary. Next, as the path is

^{906.} The term *ekayāna* is, of course, not a new entity to Buddhist research and has already attracted the attention of several scholars. For interpretations of the term *ekayāna* in the context of the *smṛtyupasthāna*, see: Gethin, 1987, pp. 117–129 and Ruegg, 1969, p. 178; for an assessment in *Prajñāpāramitā* works, in the *Vkn* and *Saṃdhis*, see: Lamotte, 1976, pp. 109–111.

^{907.} Nidd, i, pp. 455-6.

^{908.} Böhtlingk; Roth (pw).

^{909.} These interpretations are largely taken from the Pāli commentaries where they occur at several places. See, for instance, Sv, iii, pp. 743-4, Ps, i, pp. 229-30 (ref. Gethin). The gist of these meanings is corroborated by the Wörterbuch (Bechert, vi, p. 442), attributing the following interpretations to ekāyana: 'zu nur einem Ziel gehend oder führend'; 'sicher, zuverlässing'; 'notwendiger Weise zu einem bestimmten Punkt hin oder vorbei führend' and 'der einzige Weg'.

narrow and grants place only to one traveller, the bodhisattva is unaccompanied and on his own. Knowing that it is only travelled by the best, the bodhisattva resolves to accomplish attainments that have not been achieved by any other member of the āryan-fold. The idea that the *ekayāna* is one in the sense that is has only one destination is expressed in terms of ending in enlightenment under the Bodhi-tree. Appropriately, this is attained through one thought-moment only after the bodhisattva has defeated the host of Māra single-handedly.

The import of this imagery for the path scheme is obvious. The presence of all $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$, the proposition that the $ekay\bar{a}na$ is only traversed by the most advanced practitioners, their total independence from other agencies, the vision that its final destination is nothing less than enlightenment—all these attest great achievement and place the bodhisattva very close close to the goal of buddhahood. In other words, 'skill' in solitary wandering is a metaphorical way of signalling the conclusion of the training in Perfect Wisdom. Drawing on imagery belonging to the $ekay\bar{a}na$ concept, it illustrates the bodhisattva's resolve, strength and independence as well as the uniqueness of the attainment itself.

The exact contents of these achievements are laid down in 'skill' in *pratītyasamutpāda* and 'skill' in *dharma*. First, the bodhisattva discerns the causal mechanisms underlying conditioned existence. Realising that causality is not limited to sentient life but lies at the basis of all phenomena, he perceives *dharma* as inactive, motionless and non-self and therefore fundamentally inapprehensible (*anupalambha*):⁹¹¹

"All *dharma* are subject to causes, conditions and their combinations. What is subject to causes, conditions and their combinations is not the basis of a self, life-force or person. It is without reckoning whatever."

Notwithstanding this recognition, the bodhisattva does not abandon sentient beings to their fate, but subscribes to attainments in 'non-cessation' and 'non-exhaustion'. Thus schooled in the conditioned and unconditioned, the bodhisattva now reaches the pinnacle of his training. No longer concerned with his personal advance or the prospect of merit, he dedicates his resources entirely to universal liberation. Since he is in perfect command of all practices and

^{910.} See, for example, the scheme of the *Abhisamayālaṃkāra* (I, 1e, 21) where the penultimate generation of the *bodhicitta* is linked with the *ekayānamārga*. Subordinate in importance only to the *cittotpāda* of the *dharmakāya*, the *ekayānamārga* manifests unmistakably only towards the very end of the path.

^{911.} R, folio 682.6-683.1.

fully acquainted with true reality, he does not fall prey to the defilements of the world in spite of constant exposure to their influence. The reason for this immunity lies in the integrated presence of 'skill' and wisdom that, being the underlying principles of his progress through the final path phases, will lead him eventually to all-knowing.⁹¹²

^{912.} The reference to the combined presence of 'skill' and wisdom in a truly accomplished bodhisattva adds another dimension to our perception of the role of 'skill'. We have seen that so far, 'skill' is primarily portrayed as a means bringing about understanding of reality—in short, wisdom. It contributes to the elimination of the belief in a self and involves training in a number of ancillary practices. Now, however, it is cited alongside wisdom as a separate factor of apparently equal importance. This shift in interpretation is not wholly unexpected but reflects the general drift in the description of 'skill' in *dharma*, announcing in clear terms the interaction between 'means' and 'wisdom'. The nature of their interaction and its manifestations are not discussed in the *Prajñā* Chapter, but are given separate treatment in the chapter twelve in the context of the *saṃgrahavastu*.

The Means of Conversion

No practice exemplifies the coordinated interaction between cognitive attainments and practical 'skills' better than the means of conversion (samgrahavastu). P13 Technically pertaining to Perfect Wisdom although essentially complementary, the samgrahavastu achieve great momentum particularly during the final stages of the path. They enable the bodhisattva to attract the attention of his fellow beings and secure conditions where he can effectively communicate the Dharma. By virtue of this capacity, the samgrahavastu are frequently considered as a sub-species of skilful means particularly concerned with the maturation of sentient beings. Like so many other bodhisattva practices, their presence in the path has its origin in the suttas of early Buddhism. Starting as secondary practices in the nikāya, their status increased dramatically in the Mahāyāna where they came to rank amongst the most important bodhisattva practices. The basic constituents of the samgrahavastu are giving (dāna), friendly speech (prīyavāditā), service rendered (arthacaryā) and pursuit of a common aim (samānārthatā). Judging by a passage in the Bdp and the explanations of the Bbh, acquisition and function of each member is to some extent dependent on the presence of the former.

First let us consider the account of the *Bbh*. People are attracted to the bodhisattva through his generosity, thinking that to listen and behave as proposed by the bodhisattva is profitable. Then, having shown generosity, the bodhisattva prompts them to accept his reasoning through

^{913.} Noting that in Sanskrit works often only one or two of samgrahavastu occur, Dayal infers that the set of four is a rather 'later development' in Sanskrit literature. Evidence in several early Rkt sūtras, however, suggests otherwise. In the Ug (p. 262.5.6-7), Kp (pp. 41, 50; § 19, § 25), Bhadra-vy (R) (pp. 44, 97) and, of course, in the Bdp references to the samgrahavastu are invariably to the set of four. Already well-known in pre-Mahāyāna texts, it seems more likely that the four were taken over en bloc by the newly emerging movement as part of the established and widely recognised features of the path, as indeed were many other of the early practices (viz., pratisaraṇa, pratisaṃvid, bodhipākṣika, etc.). Moreover, the texts to which Dayal points are markedly later in origin. He cites, for instance, the composite Mvu (iii, pp. 383.11, 407.13), Šsp (Ghoṣa, p. 280.12) and Jātakamala (pp. 2.1, 92.12), texts which hardly pertain to the first wave of Mahāyāna works.

^{914.} Bbh, p. 213.4-7.

^{915.} Bbh, pp. 261.20-62.8; Msl, p. 147.4.

^{916.} For occurrences of the four means of conversion in the nikāya, see: D III, pp. 152, 191, 232; A II, pp. 32, 248; IV, pp. 219, 364; S V, p. 330. In Pāli called sangahavatthu, they occur as dāna, peyyavajjam, atthacariyā and samānattatā. See, also, Mvu, i, p. 3.11; ii, p. 395.8; Dhsgr, § 19; and Lal, pp. 38.16, 160.6, 182.6, 429.13.

^{917.} For a measure of their prominence, see their position and the detail that is dedicated to them in the *Bbh* (pp. 217-230) and *Msl* (pp. 116.8-117.21). For a treatment of *upāyakauśalya*, see: Pye, *Skilful Means*, 1978.

friendly speech. Thus enchanted by his logic and instructed in the Dharma, they are separated from evil tendencies and introduced to virtue through his service. Finally, providing an example to others, the bodhisattva adjusts his own conduct to the ideal of the Dharma so that beings will not accuse him of hypocrisy, but will emulate his behaviour.⁹¹⁸

In the *Bdp*, while accepting the gist of this account, the connection between the individual elements is explained differently:⁹¹⁹

"Giving is of bodhisattvas who have generated the thought of enlightenment for the first time. Friendly speech is of bodhisattvas who persist in their practice. Service rendered is of bodhisattvas who are irreversible. Pursuit of a common aim is of bodhisattvas who are held back by only one birth."

This passage contains three important elements. First, it suggests that the practice of the samgrahavastu is not reserved to advanced bodhisattvas, but figures right from the beginning in the training. Second, it indicates that the acquisition of the members is separated by vast time-spans. Let us recall that even the most conservative estimate separates the four points that are mentioned here by one world-age (asamkhyeya) each. Third, it hints at some form of interconnection between the samgrahavastu and suggests that the attainment of each member builds on the preceding one. The exact nature of this link is eloquently expressed in the imagery of the next paragraph: 922

"Giving is the ground of the roots of enlightenment. Friendly speech is the developed shoot of enlightenment. Service rendered is the blossoming flower of enlightenment. Pursuit of a common aim is the resulting fruit of enlightenment."

In its characterisation of the *saṃgrahavastu*, the *Bdp* draws a great deal on material from the foregoing chapters. It describes giving as generosity inspired by thoughts of benevolence; friendly speech as charming words rich in sympathetic joy; service rendered as exertion in

^{918.} Bbh, pp. 112.18-113.6.

^{919.} R, folio 698.2-4.

^{920.} Compare this distribution of the samgrahavastu with the scheme that is drawn up in the Msl (p. 117.3-9).

^{921.} *Daśa-bh*, p. xvii For further detail on the length of the bodhisattva's career, see: *Siddhi*, pp. 731–33.

^{922.} R, folio 698.4-6.

worldly conduct born from compassion and pursuit of a common aim that is marked by equipoise transformed to all-knowing. Alternatively, it speaks of generosity in terms of the $d\bar{a}nap\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$; of friendly speech in terms of the $\dot{s}\bar{\imath}la$ - and \dot{k} - and \dot{k} - amit \bar{a} ; of pursuit of a common aim as the $dhy\bar{a}na$ - and $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$. To interpret the samgrahavastu in terms of the $apram\bar{a}na$ and $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ is rather unusual and not found in any of the standard reference works. This is perhaps of particular interest to the Bbh, since this work—like the Bdp—discusses the samgrahavastu immediately after the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$.

In substance, however, most sources give remarkably uniform descriptions of the means of conversion. Thus, the *dānasaṃgrahavastu* is invariably held to encompass material and spiritual gifts. Since a supreme value is placed on the giving of the Dharma, their focus rests invariably on *dāna*-factors that affect the bodhisattva's preaching activity. To a large degree this is also valid for the *Bdp*, although it includes 'protection' as the third object of giving. Also the *prīyavāditāsaṃgrahavastu* is chiefly referred to in conjunction with the gift of the Doctrine. Pas Having established the Dharma as focus, it is here the positive attitude to preaching that stands in the foreground. When practising *arthacaryā*, the bodhisattva's perspective in teaching shifts once more. Now, it is no longer the mode or tone of his words that matters, but the concern to demonstrate the practical and spiritual benefits of the Dharma. Pas For the spiritually more advanced, the bodhisattva acts as guide and supervises their progress along the path. That is to say, he dispenses instructions in the three vehicles, he establishes people in equipoise and the accumulation of merit and knowledge, he praises the advantages of solitude and meditation.

These characteristics, all taken from the *Bbh*, aim quite clearly at the benefit of others. For the *Bdp*, however, rendering service is also concerned with the bodhisattva's own progress. This proposition is surprising since, according to the *Bdp's* own scheme, the *arthacaryāsaṃgrahavastu* is not practised before the stage of irreversibility. The most likely explanation is that the *arthacaryāsaṃgrahavastu* is seen to link up with the *samānārthatāsaṃgrahavastu* at which the bodhisattva is expected to display personal achievements for others to emulate. For these to be perfect, he would naturally make his personal advance an objective of the previous *saṃgrahavastu*.

^{923.} R, folio 696.2-4.

^{924.} Bbh, pp. 217-230.

^{925.} Bbh, pp. 217.5-221.7; Msl, p. 116.2-9.

^{926.} Bbh, pp. 222.20-223.7, 225.4-20.

^{927.} R, folio 695.5.

According to the *Bbh*, progress in the *samānārthatāsaṃgrahavastu* falls into four phases.⁹²⁸ At first, the bodhisattva does not show his capabilities to the full as he does not wish to boast about them. Then, having become more confident, he modestly begins to explain them to beings, always looking for the most appropriate means. Next, in order to instruct in the accumulation of merit, he encourages to the maxims of his own conduct. Finally, now facing a well-disposed audience, he censures heterodox practices and warns his listeners not to swerve from the Buddhist path. His attitude during these phases does not change. He guides sentient beings to roots of virtue; he adheres to the *Vinaya* and acts in accordance with the Dharma, hoping that others will emulate his conduct.

These concerns also dominate the Bdp's understanding of the $sam\bar{a}n\bar{a}rthat\bar{a}samgrahavastu$. Committed to the liberation of beings, the bodhisattva promotes only those aspirations that he himself considers to be of highest quality. For this purpose he generates the thought of all-knowing with the firm intention to pass it on as soon as he himself acquired it. 929 As in the Bbh, the rationale is twofold, that is, to establish beings in the Dharma and to fulfil for himself the buddha-qualities. 930

The one issue in which the *Bdp* differs markedly from the views of the *Bbh*, and indeed most other works I have consulted, is the spiritual status of the persons to whom he addresses the *samgrahavastu*. For the bodhisattva of the *Bdp*, these are invariably mendicants (*yācanaka*) who have renounced worldly concerns and subscribe to a life of renunciation. Accordingly, giving means for him pleasing mendicants; friendly speech is paying respects to mendicants; rendering service means attaining the goal of the mendicants and to pursue a common goal is pursuing a goal similar to theirs. ⁹³¹ For the *Bdp*, the practice of the *samgrahavastu* is therefore confined in scope.

Several reasons could have led to this attitude. First, there is the possibility that the *Bdp* was composed at a time when the path was not yet fully open to the laity. If this could be proved, it would lend further support to my hypothesis that we are dealing in the *Bdp* with Mahāyāna text of very early origin. Then, it might reflect historical circumstances where the bodhisattva—himself a recluse or wandering ascetic—would shun the distraction of worldly life and mix only with like-minded practitioners. Alternatively, it is not inconceivable that

^{928.} Bbh, pp. 226.15-227.2.

^{929.} R, folio 696.7.

^{930.} R, folio 697.7.

^{931.} R, folio 695.6-7.

the mendicant audience was simply a device to raise the status of the bodhisattva. For a bodhisattva to be in the company of *bhikṣus* and ascetics would surely have added to his prestige, at a time when lay participation was on the increase.

Whatever the reasons for this limitation, it is clear from later literature that it was not destined to last. The vast majority of Mahāyāna sūtras, including many of the śāstras leave no doubt that the path with all its practices—if not expressively pursued by monks and laymen alike—was unanimously understood to embrace all categories of sentient beings in its final objective of universal liberation.

Conclusion

The foregoing analysis of the *Bdp's* practices and doctrines now provides sufficient data for us to establish the approximate position of the *Bdp* in Mahāyāna literature. Comparison with other texts has shown that its treatment of the bodhisattva ideal bears all the hallmarks of an early date of composition. Evidence of its antiquity is found in practically all areas of discussion, including the nature of the practices, the doctrinal frame in which they are developed, in the path structure and in the ideal itself.

First to the presentation of the practices. Repetitions in their discussion, the loose rambling style of presentation, the predominantly descriptive approach and a certain lack of organisation all suggest that the underlying structures of the practices were still fluid and had not yet been codified by the time the Bdp was composed. This is most evident in the treatment of the dāna-, kṣānti- and vīryapāramitā but applies also to the bodhipāksika dharma. In each of these we find repetitions, variant classifications, interjections of unrelated thought and outlines of contents that are not adhered to. In later writings many of these structural 'anomalies' are corrected and brought into line with the current thinking on the bodhisattva. Immediate evidence of this process is contained in the Akn whose editorial adjustments of the material of the Bdp clearly reflect discontent with some detail of its overall design. In addition, the Bdp gives little information on the interrelation between the various practices. Explanatory comments are generally restricted to the practices themselves and do not clarify the context where they occur. For instance, the Bdp goes to great lengths to enumerate the objects of generosity and to describe the hardship encountered during the training in patience. And yet, it gives little attention to the psychological processes underlying both dana and ksanti. This is particularly evident in its discussions of the apramāna and dhyāna where there is virtually no information on the meditative experience itself. Here, as in most other chapters, the Bdp is mainly concerned with providing a description of the practices themselves and to illustrate their implications for the bodhisattva's spiritual progress. Hence, we learn a lot about the scope of their implementation and the benefits they bestow, but are left in ignorance about the psychological mechanisms of their functioning. We have seen that such emphasis on detailed descriptions and lengthy enumerations is particularly widespread among the earlier

bodhisattva works.

The Bdp's antiquity is also borne out by the nature of its practices, many of which show traits of early Buddhism. The exposition of the akuśalakarmapatha in the Śīla Chapter, the detailed discussion of the bodhipāksika dharma and its insistence on traditional moral discipline indicate that the Bdp originated at a time when early Buddhist maxims had still considerable influence on Mahāyāna thinking. In its exposition of śīla, for example, the Bdp closely follows the prescriptive approach of the śrāvaka Vinaya and does not allow for adjustments in moral observance even if the bodhisattva's vow should require it. Furthermore, it identifies desire as the chief source of moral impurity. We have seen that in both respects significant shifts in interpretation occur in later literature. Further evidence is found in the Bdp's conception of prajñā. Unlike later sources which tend to conceive of prajñā predominantly as dharmanairātmya, the Bdp emphasises the destruction of the belief in a self and realisation of dependent co-origination. Also its threefold division of wisdom, distinguishing śruta, yoniśo manasakāra and pratipatti as the fundamental causes of prajñā is, in a variant form, already found in the earliest strands of Buddhist literature. The fact that the scheme in the Bdp shows some terminological divergencies indicates that it was conceived before the exact terms had been codified.

The description of the practices themselves is marked by a high degree of realism. That is to say, it is conceived in terms of real sacrifice, hardship and struggle. In all chapters, except for the eleventh, the impact of Mahāyāna ontology is very small and does not affect the implementation of the bodhisattva practice. Again, this is a common feature especially among the works belonging to the first waves of Mahāyāna sūtras.

Also of interest is the Bdp's position on skilful means. References to the term $up\bar{a}yakau\dot{s}alya$ occur at three places altogether. And yet, despite this lack of technical referral, there is an implicit employment of principle of skilful means throughout. In chapter eleven, for example, skilful means is closely associated with compassion and the welfare of others. Here, it becomes instrumental to both the bodhisattva's personal accomplishments and to the spiritual purification of sentient beings. In chapter ten, skilful means is placed at the very centre of the discussion and becomes the underlying force behind the bodhisattva's training in the $abhij\tilde{n}a$. Epitomised by the joint cultivation of 'means' $(up\bar{a}ya)$ and 'knowledge' $(j\tilde{n}ana)$, it allows the bodhisattva effective communication of his insights to this fellow beings. $Up\bar{a}ya$, in this context, stands above all for the practice of the $abhij\tilde{n}a$ which create the conditions through

which he learns of people's spiritual requirements. Adaptation to other people's needs is, of course, the very foundation of the concept of *upāyakauśalya*. And yet, there is no provision of a separate chapter of skilful nor is it treated in anywhere near the detail of the other *pāramitā*. The conclusion must be that at the time of the *Bdp's* composition *upāyakauśalya* had not yet received the status it was granted in later centuries when it became a *pāramitā* in its own right.

Training in the practices themselves proceeds within the narrow confines of the mendicant ideal and is only open to practitioners who have renounced all ties with society. Except for one brief section, the *Bdp* does not even contemplate the possibility of a lay path for bodhisattvas. On the contrary, the Buddha warms repeatedly of the blemish of worldly life and strongly urges that the mendicant life should be taken up. The dismissal of the lay ideal is not surprising if we recall that most of the discourse is set in a loose narrative of Śākyamuni's previous lives. Traditionally, his strivings have always been closely associated with the mendicant ideal and physical austerity.

Other indications for an early origin of the *Bdp* are found in the bodhisattva doctrine. The exposition of the *cittotpāda*, for instance, lacks several important elements that found their way into later discussions. It does not mention either *adhyāśaya* or *gotra* and is rather unclear about the relationship of the *cittotpāda* and *āśaya*. Also the distinctions between the various types of *cittotpāda* are rather vague. Although the *Bdp* speaks of ten different kinds of *cittotpāda* and indicates that these are generated successively, in content all ten are very similar and allocated only approximate places on the path. Since later treatises distinguish quite regularly between ten types of *cittotpāda*, it is fair to assume that the scheme in the *Bdp* must have been something of an 'embryo' for later developments.

This applies also to the Bdp's treatment of the $apram\bar{a}na$ and $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ which contains many of the ingredients that, in later times, were brought together into a coherent doctrine. For instance, it proposes the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ context for the practice of the $apram\bar{a}na$ and recognises three levels of training in $maitr\bar{i}$. It does not endorse the reward of a high rebirth, but distinguishes between a śrāvaka and bodhisattva way of $apram\bar{a}na$ practice. In $d\bar{a}na$ the Bdp differentiates between external and internal gifts and associates the practice of giving with the generation of the thought of enlightenment. When discussing $k\bar{s}anti$, it discriminates between patience with regard to suffering, hostility and dharma. Also its thought on vigour is divided into three spheres, that is, armoured vigour, vigour in the accumulation of roots of

virtue and vigour in benefiting sentient beings. In the context of $dhy\bar{a}na$, the Bdp speaks of nine preparatory types of meditation and distinguishes between meditation of production (marked by the $abhij\bar{n}\bar{a}$) and meditation that is aimed at the welfare of beings. We have seen that it was exactly these divisions that became the cornerstone of the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ practice in later works. The loose fashion in which the Bdp speaks of these divisions is evidence of its position at the beginning of the development of the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ doctrine. In the perfection of vigour and meditation, for example, no formal division is put forward, but the contents of their expositions allow us to identify three distinct categories of $v\bar{v}rya$ and $dhy\bar{a}na$. For $k\bar{s}\bar{a}nti$ the Bdp proposes its own division. Although the individual types differ by name, in contents, they run in fact very close to the $k\bar{s}\bar{a}nti$ categories of later treatises. In addition, the dynamics of the practices invariably match the order of the more advanced schemes. First, the Bdp expounds the preparatory practices, followed by the practice proper aimed at the bodhisattva's personal advance and finally it introduces a shift in concern towards the welfare of beings.

There are, however, issues that later writers criticised. When these were of little significance, they were simply not adopted and fell into oblivion. This appears to have happened to the threefold division of $upek s\bar{a}$, to the order of the $abhij\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ and their division into ordinary and non-regressing $abhij\tilde{n}\bar{a}$. More important matters were modified or supplemented with additional material. Examples of such changes are found in the Akn's $sam\bar{a}dhi$ list and in its eighty-four types of learning, both of which originated in the Bdp.

Other adjustments affected the arrangement of the practices. We have seen that the *Bdp* does not possess any formalised, linear path structure. Progress to buddhahood is primarily conceived in terms of practices, beginning with training in the *apramāṇa* and ending in mastery of the *saṃgrahavastu*. History has shown that this design did not win acceptance. The first changes occurred already in the *Akn* that places the *apramāṇa* well behind the *pāramitā* and brings the means of conversion forward into the middle of the path before the *pratisaṃvid*, *pratisaraṇa* and *bodhipākṣika dharma*. The *Akn* also altered the order of the seven sets of *bodhipākṣika dharma* to comply with their traditional presentation. Quite clearly, these changes were deliberate editorial adjustments that did not occur by chance, but were meant to improve on the *Bdp's* arrangement of practice.

These modifications are significant in two respects. First, they allow us to trace the development of the bodhisattva doctrine and highlight some of the concerns that led to changes in the perception of the training. Second, they are testimony of the communication

existing between the various Buddhist circles in ancient India. Although we do not know for how long this exchange of ideas persisted, it must have continued for several centuries since we find elements of the Bdp's path design in the Bbh and Msl. While it is not possible to establish that the parallels between the Bdp and Bbh/Msl are the result of direct borrowing, the fact that they occur in no other texts allows for few alternatives. This would mean then that the arrangement of practices in the Bdp—although criticised in detail—was highly esteemed even two or three centuries after its composition. Rivalry with the $da\acute{s}abh\bar{u}mika$ plan probably never occurred, since the Bdp's account of the training is not based on a set of codified career stages, but revolves around a concatenation of practices.

In summary, we can distinguish the following training-phases in the Bdp. First, having generated the thought of enlightenment, the bodhisattva subscribes to the preliminary aspects of the path. This involves the practice of the apramāna and schooling in the perfections of dāna, śīla, ksānti, vīrya and dhyāna. Coursing in the lower levels of their practice (that is, the preparatory level and the practice proper), the bodhisattva passes through the sambhāramārga, prayogamārga, darśanamārga and bhāvanāmārga. When he has reached the bhāvanāmārga, the bodhisattva begins to train in skill. In order to establish a sound psychological basis for the more advanced phases, he focuses at first on the destruction of the belief in a self. Next, the bodhisattva endeavours to acquire knowledge and merit to secure his personal progress. For this purpose he trains in the pratisamvid, pratisarana, punya and jñāna. These practices liberate the bodhisattva from the obstructions of defilements and mistaken views, establish him in moral conduct and bestow the powers and faculties. Thus schooled, he is able to embark on the pursuit of the bodhipākṣika dharma. He now devotes most of his attention to the practice of meditation through which he acquires proficiency in faith, vigour, recollection, wisdom, etc. On the basis of these attainments, the bodhisattva comprehends eventually the insubstantiality of dharma (dharmanairātmya). This insight is reached for the first time during the joint practice of samatha and vipasyanā and signals the high-point in his cognitive training.

In order to acquire mental stability the bodhisattva withdraws into seclusion. Referred to as 'solitary wandering', it establishes the bodhisattva in emotional independence and cuts him off from all worldly constraints. Moreover, as the penultimate phase of the training proper, it leads him directly to the seat of enlightenment, thus placing buddhahood within reach. The acquisition of wisdom occurs when the bodhisattva penetrates 'skill' in dependent co-origination

and attains mastery over all *dharma*. It brings the bodhisattva 'face to face' with reality and creates the preconditions for universal liberation. The scope and nature of the liberation-process are summed up by the four practices that are included in the means of conversion. The bodhisattva bestows gifts, uses benign language, renders service and adopts unsurpassed conduct for others to emulate. When he has mastered all four *samgrahavastu*, he is only one birth away from buddhahood. Apart from the immense gnoseologic realisation, this achievement marks also the bodhisattva's return to the world. That is to say, he abandons his training in the *ekayānamārga* and resumes his duties towards humankind.

This leads us to the bodhisattva ideal. For the Bdp, entry in the bodhisattva path is entirely in the hands of the practitioner and takes place independent of external forces. For this all important step to take place, the bodhisattva must acquire a high degree of moral purity and be equipped with a determined resolve towards enlightenment. In addition, he must possess personal initiative and self-responsibility as there is no outside support apart from the sustaining power of the buddhas. Although devotional elements such as teacher veneration occur in several passages in the Bdp, buddha-worship itself plays no active role in the process of purification.

The *Bdp's* position on the bodhisattva's relationship with sentient beings is ambiguous. On the one hand, it affirms repeatedly and with great eloquence that the overriding concern of all practices is universal liberation. However, this commitment is not borne out by the description of the practices. On balance, the *Bdp* gives notably more attention to their acquisition than to exploring how they could be used to liberate sentient beings. The discussion of the *samgra-havastu* covers less than five folios while the exposition of the perfections runs into hundreds of pages.

This kind of indifference is also found in its exposition of *dāna* where freedom from birth in the lower destinies is given among the benefits that accrue from perfect giving. The lower realms are clearly excluded as an outcome for more advanced bodhisattvas. Accordingly, hell figures only as a deterrent and is never promulgated as a particularly beneficial 'training ground'. Once bodhisattvas have attained the stage of the prediction their interaction with beings of the evil destinies abates and gods and men become the object of their attention.

Quite clearly, the *Bdp's* vision of the bodhisattva contains a high degree of spiritual realism. It is primarily concerned with the practical aspects of the training and shows little interest in the more breathtaking prospect of universal liberation. The picture it draws of the bodhisattva

is of a person who is wholly absorbed by his yearning for enlightenment. Aiming to show how this goal is realised, the *Bdp* goes to great lengths to explain the underlying processes of purification. In a sense, the spirit of the exposition is therefore not so far removed from descriptions of the śrāvaka training. It speaks of the importance of moral integrity, it emphasises the need for a disciplined spiritual environment, it urges self-reliability and warns of complacency. Moreover, references to the śrāvaka are generally amicable and free of antagonism. These factors alone would point to a period of composition when the two ideals had still very much in common.

Further weight is lent to this hypothesis by the fact that many of the Bdp's propositions belong to the incipient phase of the bodhisattva doctrine; the early nature of the practices and their loose divisions, the formal exclusion of skilful means, the basic path structure and the ill-organised form of presentation, they all imply an early origin of the Bdp. We have thus identified in the Bdp a text of fundamental importance in the evolution of the bodhisattva ideal. Looking back at the history of the Bdp, we notice that we are not the first to do so. The composers of the countless texts referring to the Bdp for its exposition of the $p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$, the compilers of the $Ratnak\bar{u}ta$ collection who placed the Bdp at the centre of their bodhisattva works and last, but not least, Hsüan-tsang, all of these have come to the same conclusion many centuries ago.

Chapter Five

Translation of Chapter Eleven of the Bodhisattvapitakasütra

Introduction

The original version of the Bdp in the Indic language in that it was composed is no longer extant. As so many other Mahāyāna $s\bar{u}tras$, it is preserved only in Chinese and Tibetan translations. For the present study, I utilised the following versions of the Bdp.

- 1. The ninth-century Tibetan translation made by Surendrabodhi, Śīlendrabodhi and Dharmatāśīla, entitled: ḥphags pa byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod ces bya ba theg pa chen poḥi mdo (ārya-bodhisattvapiṭaka-nāma-mahāyāna-sūtra).
 - In editing and translating chapter eleven, I used or consulted the following four editions of the Tibetan hKah-hgyur.
 - a. sTog Palace (R), Leh—1979, vol. 37, folio 590.1-695.1
 - b. sD-dge (D), vol. 42, folio 315.1-384.2
 - c. Peking (P), vol. 23, pp. 73.1.7-89.2.2
 - d. sNar-than (N), vol. 3 (ga), folio 327.3-386.4
- 2. Tun-huang Manuscript: Bibliothèque Nationale (Lalou, 1950), Pelliot, item no. 977
- 3. Tun-huang Manuscript: India Office Library (La Vallée Poussin, 1962), item no. 380.109, 635.32, 705.2

In addition, I utilised several works that either paraphrase passages of the *Bdp* or contain selected quotations. These are:

- 1. Akṣayamatinirdeśasūtra: ḥphags pa blo gros mi zad pas bstan pa żes bya ba theg pa chen poḥi mdo (P 34, pp. 35.2.3-74.2.2).
- 2. Akṣayamatinirdeśaṭīkā: ḥphags pa blo gros mi zad pas bstan paḥi rgya cher ḥgrel pa (P 104, pp. 137.1.1–273.3.7).
- 3. Arthaviniścayasūtra: Samtani, NH, 1971.
- 4. Arthaviniścayaţīkā: Samtani, NH, 1971.
- 5. Śikṣāsamuccaya: Bendall, C, 1902.

On several occasions, I was able to identify passages from the *Bdp* that are found in later Buddhist Sanskrit literature. For the most part these are not attributed to the *Bdp* but were taken from the *Akn*. While they show some minor divergencies from the Tibetan of the *Bdp*, they do give us a fairly good impression how the original Sanskrit text might have looked like.

Having said this, it is important to bear in mind that the conventional usage of the notion of a 'Sanskrit original' is rather misleading, since the Indic versions themselves were often subject to interpolation, rearrangement or shortening. Whether this was also the case with the Bdp is impossible to tell, although we have no reason to assume that it was exempt from such alterations. Assuming that certain changes were made, the Tibetan of the Bdp reflects only the Sanskrit text that existed in India in the eighth/ninth century that was used by the Indo-Tibetan translation team as basis for their work. Whether they founded their translation on only one version or had access to several manuscripts we cannot tell.

As we are dealing in the Tibetan with a translation from the Sanskrit (which turns my translation into a translation of translation), it was important not to lose the Sanskrit referent out of sight. For this purpose, I endeavoured to gain as close an understanding of the underlying Sanskrit as possible. In order to communicate my understanding to the reader, I provided in the notes Sanskrit equivalents to Tibetan technical terms. In establishing these, I drew generally on the vocabulary of the *Mahāvyutpatti*. While the use of (reconstructed) Sanskrit terms is helpful to demarcate the context of the discussion and to provide translation markers, it has the potential to create a whole series of linguistic problems. Wishing to avoid a fully-fledged discussion of each reconstruction, I limited myself to those terms that occur with some frequency in Buddhist literature. Even then, they are to some degree tentative and should be used only with caution.

In the translation of the technical terms my overall objective was to be as consistent as possible. Whenever the context allowed I would use the same English word for a given Tibetan/Sanskrit term. While this worked fine in many instances, in others it did not. When in difficulties, I provided the Tibetan or Sanskrit term in order to draw attention to my 'non-standard' rendering. In these cases my interpretation is generally based on the available commentarial sources that indicate the particular meaning of a word.

The most important commentary for the study of the Bdp is the Akn- $tik\bar{a}$. The textual parallels between the Bdp and Akn allowed me to draw quite regularly for explication on the annotations in the Akn- $tik\bar{a}$. Whenever the explanations of the Akn- $tik\bar{a}$ affected my translation, I indicated this in the notes. Other texts of importance are the Arthav and Siks since both contain quotations from the Akn.

With my English translation I hope to have produced an accurate and readable version of the meaning and contents of chapter eleven. In doing so, I found myself often confronted to chose between the literal meaning and that what I thought the text intended to say. The principle of guidance in those situations was to be as literal as possible so long as it was reconcilable with the syntactical requirements of the English language. At times, this generated a rather Tibetanised English. Whenever in doubt, I followed the literal reading of the Tibetan, hoping that future research will throw light on those passages that I failed to penetrate fully. Not wishing to temper with the wording of the Tibetan, I kept additions or interpolations in my translation to a bare minimum. Again, this did not always further its readability, but constitutes, I believe, a methodological requirement for every translation activity, especially if presented to an academic audience for scrutiny.

The division of the text into sections is not found in the Tibetan but was introduced by me in order to make it more manageable. In essence, the choice by which I divided the text and the wording of the section-headings reflects my understanding of the content and are thus interpretative. Apart from exposing the structure of the exposition, their value is primarily methodologic in that they facilitate references to my edition.

Finally, the in-text folio numbering to the *Bdp* in my translation and edition refers to the sTog Palace Edition. For reasons of legibility, I based the translation and edition on the large type of the sTog Palace manuscript. All other reference to the Tibetan canon, whether in the notes to my translation or elsewhere in this dissertation, relate invariably to the Peking Edition.

English Translation of Chapter Eleven of the Bodhisattvapitakasūtra

Section i

1.1 Accumulation

(590) O Śāriputra, what is the Perfection of Wisdom of a bodhisattva, mahāsattva who cultivates the bodhisattvacaryā whenever he applies himself to it? Concerning this, O Śāriputra, a bodhisattva listens diligently to the Dharma-enunciation of the Bodhisattvapiṭaka. He takes hold of it and retains it. He reads it and fully absorbs it. He also explains it to others and propounds it at length.

O Śāriputra, when a bodhisattva has diligently listened to the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapitaka*, when he has taken hold of it, retained it, read it, fully absorbed it, and when he has also explained it to others and propounded it at great length, he attains the following forms of wisdom. But that wisdom, what is its form and what is the method by which it is acquired? Its form is learning² and the method by which it is acquired is correct reflection³.

^{1.} hjug pa: praveša (Böhtlingk; Roth, pw, pp. 1082–1083).

^{2.} In the $Akn-t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$, founded on the variant reading in the Akn (34, p. 50.4.6) we read:

[&]quot;What is the form $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra)$ of wisdom? What is its mode of acquisition $(prave \hat{s}a)$? Learning is the form and correct reflection is its mode of acquisition."

Vasubandhu explains that the form of wisdom is learning (śruta) and that learning constitutes the own-being (śrutha) of wisdom, whereas discerning the marks of dharma indicates correct reflection. He qualifies this position by stating that the eighty-four types of learning originate in wisdom and says—with ākāra being likened to hetu—that the question 'What is the cause of wisdom?' corresponds to the question 'What is the form of wisdom?' (104, p. 181.3.2-6).

^{3.} tshul bžin yid la byed pa; yoniśo manasakāra

As a general term indicating close mental examination, the meaning of yoniso manasakāra is well-defined. According to the Kośa (ii, p. 154) it is "earnest application (ābhoga) of thought (cetas); submitting or applying the thought to its object". In the nikāya, it is depicted as the first sign heralding the acquisition of the āryāṣṭāngamārga and to be preparing the attainment of the samyakprahāṇa (S V, p. 31). For the Mahāyāna, manasakāra became an essential ingredient to wisdom that was thought to arise on the basis of learning (Msl, p. 7.3). Its role on the path grew steadily until it was proposed that "a single instant of seeing founded in wisdom-based correct reflection (yonisomanasakāraprajñāpratyavekṣanā) can eradicate innumerable defilements of action" (Kp, p. 106, § 71.8). Cf. Śrotabhūmi, 109, p. 287.5.3-4.

Buddhist sources came to differ, however, on the exact scope of yoniśo manasakāra. Depending on the context and viewpoint from which it is commented upon, we find a number of variant explanations. The Abhidh-sam (R), p. 7, defines manasakāra as earnest application of thought (cetasa ābhoga), intended to fix thought (cittadhāraṇa) on the object (ālambana). Discussing the means by which the bodhisattva enters into the first dhyāna (p. 112), the Abhidh-sam lists seven kinds of reflection, viz., (1) reflection penetrating the characteristics (lakṣaṇapratisamveda), (2) reflection adhering to determination (ādhimokṣika), (3) reflection adhering to the state of solitude (pravivikta), (4) reflection attracting contentment (ratisamgrahaka), (5) reflection that investigates (mīmāṃsaka), (6) reflection of accomplishing practice (prayoganistha) and (7) reflection of the fruits of the accomplishment of practice (prayoganisthāphala).

1.1.1 Seventy-Two Forms of Learning

What are the forms of learning? They are zest⁴, intent⁵, determination, spiritual friend, lack of conceit, (591) reverence⁶, veneration⁷, congeniality, compliance in speech, reverend service, willingness to listen, paying respect, correct reflection, attentiveness, considering the sacred word as a jewel, considering it as a remedy, considering it as calming all ailment, a

Capable of manifesting three different degrees of intensity (intense-weak, intense-mediocre and intense-intense, p. 160), it is either innate (upapattiprātilambhika), arising from learning (śrutamayī), arising from reflection (cintāmayī) or arising from contemplation (bhāvanāmayī). According to the Kośa (ii, p. 328), the first three types of manasakāra take place within the kāmadhātu, whereas the fourth can either operate in the rūpa or arūpyadhātu. See also Kośa (ii, p. 325) where—in a discussion of prerequisites for path-entry—we meet with three other types of manasakāra, viz., reflection directed at specific characters (svalakṣaṇamanasakāra), reflection directed at common characters (sāmānyalakṣaṇamanasakāra) and reflection of earnest application (adhimuktimanasakāra).

Edgerton's observation (p. 418, col. 1) that in its verbal form (manasi karoti) correct reflection appears often in conjunction with cintayati led Meadows (1986, p. 109) to infer that manasakāra represents specifically the "method by which one acquires prajāā consisting in pondering (cintāmayīprajāā)". While a general association of cintā with manasakāra is no doubt correct, the view of the Kośa linking manasakāra on equal terms with learning, reflection and contemplation (and inborness) casts some doubt on her narrow interpretation. Furthermore, according to the Abhidharmasamuccayabhāṣya (p. 81), the second type of manasakāra, ādhimokṣikamanasakāra, transcends both learning (śruta) and reflection (cintā) to realise śamatha and vipaśyanā. The Akn-tīkā (p. 185.4.1-4), commenting on the parallel passage in the Akn, explains:

"Reflecting and contemplating in accordance with [the noble path and cessation] is correct reflection. By means of correct reflection one penetrates things in accordance with reality, thus it is called penetration (praveśa) through correct reflection. Concerning penetration into meaning (artha); the meaning is understood after one has discerned through the wisdom arising from contemplation (bhāvanā) the dharma that were discerned with the wisdom arising from reflection (cintā). Hence, [correct reflection] is to be known as wisdom concerned with reflection and contemplation."

In the Bdp itself, $manasak\bar{a}ra$ figures at thirteenth place amongst the seventy-two kinds of learning. It is identified with the bodhisattva's keen wish that bad, unwholesome dharma that have hitherto not arisen are not produced (R, folio 672.1–3). It is said to prompt him to abandon those unwholesome dharma that have already arisen (R, folio 673.3–4) and it is accredited with the elimination of desire $(r\bar{a}ga)$ by way of contemplating impurity (R, folio 673.5–6).

Note that the *Patis* (p. 195), when discussing breathing exercises, speaks of seventy-two kinds of knowledge through insight. However, as these are exclusively concerned with the three marks of existence and restricted in their operation to a meditative context, it shows no parallels to our list.

4. Taking zest (chanda) as example of all other forms of learning, Vasubandhu explains their role as follows. First, as the cause of both learning and wisdom, each of them leads to wisdom. Second, the forms of learning itself becomes the cause of chanda, etc., with which it forms jointly the basis to wisdom. Third, each of the types of learning represents also the own-being of wisdom (Akn-tīkā, p. 181.3.6-4.1):

"Zest is the keen wish to hear the Dharma. From the keen wish to hear, learning and insight occur but without the keen wish they do not. Hence, zest should be understood as the cause (hetu) through which wisdom arises. Again, zest arises from learning, but not from non-learning. Hence, learning becomes the cause from which zest arises. If the two are taken together, they are therefore the one cause [of wisdom]. Again, what is the own-being of wisdom? The form of zest means that the own-being of insight is zest. With regard to the following items, the form of resolve, etc., should be understood accordingly."

- 5. As part of its explanation of intent (āśaya), the Akn-tīkā (p. 181.4.3-4) draws attention to a passage in the Bbh (p. 18.17-21). However, this passage deals with adhyaśāya and not with āśaya—a confusion that exemplifies the conceptual proximity of both terms (cf. Edgerton, pp. 17-18). A good definition of āśaya is found further below in the Bbh (p. 313.4-6), stating that the intent of the bodhisattva is based on faith and Dharma-discernment and manifests a resolute belief accompanied by certain knowledge and determination towards the Buddha's teachings.
- 6. Akn: bag yod pa (apramādya).
- 7. Akn: gus par byed pa (satkrtya).

receptacle of recollection, knowledge arising from awakening⁸, search for understanding, penetration of reason, insatiability through hearing the Buddha's doctrine, propagation of renunciation, erudition through restrain⁹, adherence to great learning, experiencing joy in devotion, bodily cheerfulness, joyful mind, untiring listening, pursuit of the own-being of things, pursuit of designations, pursuit of good conduct¹⁰, lack of desire for other vehicles, pursuit of the perfections, pursuit of the bodhisattvapitaka11, pursuit of the means of conversion. pursuit of skilful means, pursuit of the pure abodes, pursuit of the super-knowledge (592), pursuit of the bases of mindfulness, pursuit of the perfect efforts, pursuit of the bases of success, pursuit of dependent co-origination, pursuit of impermanence, suffering and non-self, pursuit of serenity, pursuit of emptiness, signlessness and wishlessness, pursuit of nonaccumulation of karmic formations, pursuit of the accumulation of roots of virtue, self-assertion, reflection on the Doctrine, contemplation of unsuitable associations, severing of all defilement, delight in skilfulness, adherence to noble ones and rejection of ignoble ones, pursuit of noble [qualities], faculties, bases of mindfulness, factors of enlightenment and the noble eightfold path, the Tathagata's powers, assurances, great benevolence, compassion, sympathetic joy, equipoise¹², unique knowledge (593) and eighteen exclusive buddha-qualities.

Now, the term rtogs pa ses pa (gatibodhana) is ambiguous as it may carry several meanings (Edgerton, pp. 208, 402). In his English rendering of the Siksāsamuccaya (1981, p. 185) Bendall translates gatibodhana—erroneously I think—as 'illuminating the destinies'. This interpretation was also adopted by Meadows (1986, p. 107), translating it as 'understanding the course', while Braarvig (1989, p. 254) follows Vasubandhu's understanding. Since gati may indeed mean 'awakening' (Edgerton, p. 208)—a meaning that brings it much closer to Vasubandhu's commentary of the term gatibodhana—Meadows and Bendall are probably misguided in their translation. In addition, to render gatibodhana as 'knowledge arising from awakening', being possibly an antecedent to the technical term cintāmayīprajñā fits the context in which it is cited in the Bdp, while the translation 'illuminating the destinies' does not.

9. This is one of the few instances in which, in spite of a common Sanskrit source term, the Tibetan translations of the Akn and Bdp do not correspond. While in the Bdp the Sanskrit term dāttājāneya is rendered as sbyin nas mi smod pa, we find in the Akn the phrase dul zin can śes pa. Notwithstanding these discrepancies in wording, both phrases concur closely in their respective meanings. Vasubandhu's explanation of that term runs as follows (Akn-tīkā, pp. 183.2.1–183.3.5):

"As regards restraint, he is restrained since he is endowed with improved meditative expedients and does not enter into the realm of the sense organs such as that of the eye, etc. He suppresses the defilements such as passion, etc. That is the cause. He who is restrained in that way is all-knowing. He is all-knowing, because he arrives at the place where he should be walking to all the time via the true path. That is the fruit. The true path is the union of knowledge and means, the noble eightfold path, that of the four noble truths and so forth. As regards the place to which he should be going, this is nirvāṇa. Thus it is that the learned one who originates in learning, although he is marked by the characteristic of the fruit and cause [of] the noble path becomes erudite through restraint."

- 10. According to the Akn-tīkā (p. 183.4.1), good conduct is here understood to apply to practices that are included in the āryāṣṭāṅgamārga since it is primarily these that liberate the practitioner from suffering.
- 11. Vasubandhu informs us in this context that the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* is the *vaipulya* of the twelvefold division of scriptures. (Akn-tīkā, p. 184.2.7).
- 12. These four preceding items constitute, of course, the four immeasurables (apramāṇa), (Mvy 1504-7). Note

Nasubandhu's commentary on this term runs as follows (Akn-tikā, pp. 182.4.5-7):

"Awakening is wisdom arising from reflection. Also, wisdom arising from reflection has two different aspects, e.g., the assumption and non-assumption of composure. But he who is awakened since he is knowledgeable, that one is of knowledge arising from awakening. By means of the teaching of the knowledge arising from awakening, he acquires composed wisdom."

1.1.2 Forty-One Methods of Acquiring Learning

Thus, O Śāriputra, in whatever one is learned in that one becomes knowledgeable and being knowledgeable one performs good conduct. Why?

One who aspires to the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*, he will listen to it. On hearing it, he becomes knowledgeable and being knowledgeable, he performs good conduct.

One who pursues with determination the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*, he will listen to it.¹³

One who applies himself to the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*, he will listen to it.

One who adheres to a virtuous friend, he will listen to it. ...

One who is free from conceit, he will listen to it.

One who is well-disposed towards the greatly learned, he will listen to it.

One who honours the greatly learned, he will listen to it. ...

One who persists in congeniality towards them, (594) he will listen to it.

One who is compliant towards them, he will listen to it.

One who pays respect to the greatly learned, he will listen to it.

One who is willing to listen, he will listen to it,

One who venerates the greatly learned, he will listen to it.

One who reflects on great learning¹⁴, he will listen to it. ...

One who considers the sacred word as a jewel, he will listen to it.

One who considers the sacred word as ambrosia, he will listen to it.

One who after hearing the sacred word thinks that it appearses desire, hatred and delusion, he will listen to it.

One who after hearing the sacred word considers holding on to it, he will listen to it.

One who penetrates the realisation of dharma, he will listen to it.

that unlike the ten powers (bala), four assurances ($vais\bar{a}radya$) and four unique knowledge (pratisamvid), the $apram\bar{a}na$ are listed individually and not subsumed under their title.

^{13.} Each of the following forty-one examples, specifying the acquisition of learning, concludes in the stock phrase | ... de ni thos par hgyur ro | thos nas bar du ses so | ses nas nan tan byed do ||

These I have translated as: "... will listen to it. On hearing it, he becomes knowledgeable (prajānati) and being knowledgeable, he performs good conduct (pratipadyate)."

In order to achieve a better English reading, I omitted these rather cumbersome, prolix and repetitive phrases. The omissions have been indicated by the insertion of three ellipsis points in the appropriate

phrases. The omissions have been indicated by the insertion of three ellipsis points in the appropriate hiatus. Of the forty-one methods of acquisition of learning, only sixteen have been directly taken from the list of seventy-two forms of learning, that is $\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra$ no. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 20, 22, 27. A further seven methods of acquisition have counterparts in spirit, though not in letter, in the list of learning. These are no. 16, 17, 18, 21, 22, 26, 28. None of the remaining nineteen methods of acquisition exhibits any immediate parallels to the forms of learning. More importantly, none of the Bdp's forty-one methods of acquisition corresponds to the thirty-two methods of acquisition of correct reflection that are given in the Akn. Both lists seem to have been construed along differing lines and have little in common except for the context in which they appear and the shared purpose to represent a further stage in the cognitive process leading to wisdom (Akn, p. 51.1.6-2.7).

^{14.} My translation of this phrase is based on a passage in the Abhidh-sam (R), p. 137, saying that application (ādhāna) is correct reflection (yoniso manasakāra) that has great learning (bahuśruta) as object.

One who wishes for understanding of the sacred word, he will listen to it.

One who after hearing the sacred word experiences mental inspiration, (595) he will listen to it.

One who is insatiable in hearing the sacred word, he will listen to it.

One who after hearing a discourse on giving considers the act of renunciation, he will listen to it.

One who after hearing a discourse on moral conduct guards morality, he will listen to it.

One who after hearing a discourse on forbearance acts with patience, he will listen to it.

One who after hearing a discourse on vigour acts with flawless vigour, he will listen to it.

One who after hearing a discourse on meditation acts with his mind free of inattention, he will listen to it.

One who after hearing a discourse on wisdom exerts his mind to suppress the impurities, (596) he will listen to it.

One who generates joy in great learning¹⁵, he will listen to it.

One who attains bodily cheerfulness¹⁶ on listening to the Dharma, he will listen to it.

One who rejoices on hearing the Dharma, he will listen to it....

One who on hearing of the Mahāyāna aspires to it, he will listen to it.

One who produces a friendly disposition on hearing about the means of conversion, he will listen to it.

One who embarks on mindfulness with regard to body, feeling, thought and *dharma* on listening to a discourse on the bases of mindfulness, he will listen to it.

One who becomes shameful and embarrassed by non-virtues that have already been sown and arisen on listening to a discourse on the perfect efforts, he will listen to it.

One who constantly retains in mind virtuous *dharma* that have already been sown and arisen, (597) he will listen to it.

^{15.} According to Edgerton the term man du thos pa (bahuśruta) carries several, albeit related, meanings. He gives 'sacred word' (p. 536, col. 1)—that is most often the Dharma—and 'great learning' (p. 399, col. 1) as the most frequently occurring ones. Monier-Williams (p. 726, col. 1) gives 'one who has studied much', 'very learned', 'being of deep erudition' as the principal meanings of the term bahuśruta. Already in the nikāya, great learning (bahussuta) assumed an important position and monks bearing this title were greatly revered. It occurs in the Vinaya (ii, p. 95), Majjhimanikāya (III, p. 11) and at two places in the Anguttaranikāya (II, p. 22; III, p. 114) where it is cited among the four things that bestow the rank of Elder on a monk:

[&]quot;He has heard very much and memorised what he has heard. He retains in his mind what he has heard; the teachings are good at the beginning, in the middle and at the end in the sense that the meaning and letter are good. He follows the way of the *brahmacariyā* in every respect and with great purity. To these teachings he has listened very often, he has borne them in mind, repeated them aloud, investigated them for their meaning and well understood them through right view."

The bahuśruta par excellence was, of course, Ānanda who was singled out in recognition of this quality as the person responsible for the preservation of the Doctrine (D II, pp. 144-46). Listed among important qualities (A I, pp. 24-25; for its place in an alternative list of seven see; D III, p. 252; M III, p. 23), it became a title that bestowed great prestige and covered the sutta, vinaya and mātikā (A II, pp. 147, 170).

^{16.} I follow here Bendall (1981, p. 185) in translating the term lus sim pa (kāyaudbilya) as 'bodily cheerfulness'.

On listening to a discourse on the bases of success, one whose body, mind and determination become agile, he will listen to it.

On listening to a discourse on meditation, one who establishes his mind in unfaltering reflection, he will listen to it.

On listening to a discourse on the immeasurables, one who becomes benevolent towards all sentient beings, greatly compassionate towards the poor, well disposed towards the Dharma and remains in the state of equipoise with regard to non-virtue, he will listen to it.

On listening to a discourse on the faculties, one who applies his mind to the faculty of faith, vigour, mindfulness, meditation and wisdom, he will listen to it.

On listening to a discourse on the factors of enlightenment, one who applies his mind in order to understand all the *dharma* perfectly, he will listen to it.

On listening to a discourse on the path, one who applies his mind to the pursuit of nirvāṇa, (598) he will listen to it.

One who directs his mind towards unsurpassed and perfect enlightenment on listening to the immeasurable teaching of the Buddha, studying the Tathāgata's powers, assurances, benevolence, compassion, joy, equipoise, unique knowledge and the eighteen exclusive buddhaqualities, such a person learns. On learning, he becomes knowledgeable and being knowledgeable, he performs good conduct.

O Śāriputra, these are the forty-one methods of acquiring the forms of learning.¹⁷ O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that a bodhisattva courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

1.1.3 Good Conduct

Furthermore, O Śāriputra, when a bodhisattva who courses in the Perfection of Wisdom has properly listened to the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*, when he has taken

^{17.} In the Akn (p. 51.1.6), the contents of this section is called "thirty-two methods of acquisition by means of correct reflection". For the Akn, this ties well to the introductory passage of 'learning' where learning is identified as the form (or cause) of wisdom and correct reflection as the method of acquisition. Accordingly, Vasubandhu explains that "acquisition (praveśa) is either to persist in correct reflection or realise own-being and distinction by means of these [manifestations of] correct reflection" (Akn-tīkā, p. 185.4.5-7). In view of the purely cognitive orientation of the Akn's thirty-two methods of acquisition this interpretation is appropriate (Akn, p. 51.1.5-2.7).

In spite of the fact that the list contained in the Bdp does not match the contents of that in the Akn, the same assumption can be made for the Bdp's enumeration. While it is true that the cognitive element in the forty-one kinds of penetration is less evident, its presence, joined with $bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}may\bar{p}raj\bar{n}\bar{a}$, is difficult to overlook in the phrase: "On hearing it, he becomes knowledgeable and being knowledgeable, he performs good conduct". The concept of knowledge implies no doubt the element of reflection and correct conduct could be interpreted to correspond to contemplation $(bh\bar{a}van\bar{a})$ of those insights that were revealed to the bodhisattva in the course of the foregoing cognitive process. In the Bdp we have therefore a catalogue of forces that promote the generation of wisdom, given in the order in which they influence each other. First, there is learning, divided into seventy-two kinds. Second, if combined with a wholesome mental disposition the forms of learning lead to knowledge of what has been learned. Third, comprehension then modifies the bodhisattva's practice and causes him to apply himself correctly to its cultivation.

hold of it, retained it, read it, fully absorbed it, when he has also explained it to others and propounded it at great length, he performs good conduct¹⁸.

What is his good conduct with regard to *dharma*? Just as one complies with the instructions, he performs good conduct with regard to *dharma*.

Furthermore, performing good conduct with regard to *dharma* is non-apprehension any *dharma*. Why? If one apprehends *dharma*, one's conduct becomes misguided. As regards people who adhere to grasping *dharma*; (599) there is no place or occasion¹⁹ that arises from these *dharma*. They are unestablished. But even people who do not apprehend them because they are cleansed and are established in good conduct become insecure²⁰ towards these *dharma*, how much more those who grasp *dharma*? Hence, non-apprehension of any *dharma* is good conduct.

Furthermore, one who is unobstructed with regard to *dharma* is of good conduct. One who lacks assertion, grasping and attachment towards *dharma* and realises that they are unarisen and unceasing is of good conduct. In addition, seeing the absence of increase and decrease in *dharma* is good conduct.

Furthermore, I have not explained much here. Just as it did not become perceptible in accordance with the explanation, in the same way all *dharma* are imperceptible, inapprehensible and have one characteristic. What is this characteristic? It is the lack of characteristic. The characteristic is without characteristic. This is due to two factors. Why? Binary reflection and right understanding²¹ themselves, I declare to be without characteristic. This is their characteristic, but it is a non-characteristic. Consequently, one who understands that all *dharma* are imperceptible, inapprehensible and without characteristic is of good conduct. Embark diligently on good conduct. Attain the vision that all *dharma* are pure. (600)

^{18.} nan tan ñin por byed pa yin pa: pratipattisāra (Mvy 1810)

According to the Bhāvanākrama (MBT, ii, p. 222 § 21), good conduct of bodhisattvas is at all times aimed at the welfare of sentient beings. Based on perfect knowledge and exempt from despondency, agitation or meditative faults, a bodhisattva ponders on the illusory nature of the skandha, dhātu, āyatana, etc., without, however, to bring the realisation of their insubstantiality to conclusion. Wishing to establish beings in true vision of all dharma (sarvadharmayathābhūtadarśana), he observes the three areas of practice (adhiśīla, adhicitta, adhiprajñā) in order to set an example and manifests vigour and purity in conduct of body, speech and mind. Judging by the number of references Edgerton cites in his entry of pratipatti, these elements constitute for most texts the cardinal aspects of good conduct (p. 364). Precise definitions, however, are rare largely because the concept of pratipatti itself is rather broad and ill-delineated, changing with context and doctrinal orientation.

^{19.} The Tibetan gnas dan skabs could conceivably represent a misinterpretation of the Sanskrit term avasthita (gnas skabs; Abhisaml, p. 119) or avastha (Mvy 7588), in which case the translation 'condition' would be more appropriate. While this would make better sense, expressing that unestablished dharma do not produce any conditions that might perpetuate the causal chain, the Tibetan reading does not support this interpretation.

^{20.} the tshom du gyur pa: saṃśayita (Edgerton, p. 542; Monier-Williams, p. 1117, col. 3).

^{21.} kun brtags pa: parikalpita; yan dag par brtags pa: sampratipannā.

Then, on that occasion, the lord composed these verses:

Whoever fares in truly good conduct
According to the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*Such a wise person does not cling to phenomena.
Thus, non-clinging emulates good conduct.

A man who obtains *dharma* does not profess emptiness. The wise one does not take pride in empty *dharma*. He has not attachment to empty *dharma* whatsoever. Thus non-attachment resembles good conduct.

One does not grasp nor reject the *dharma*.

There is non-practice of grasping *dharma*.

Hence non-grasping is the characteristic of *dharma*.

It is this kind of emulation that is good conduct.

Why is the bodhisattva never attached to *dharma*? His pristine cognition does not apprehend *dharma*. He does not even attach himself to the non-grasping pristine cognition. It is this kind of emulation that is good conduct.

The wise one should abide in the qualities of purification.²² He should apply himself to these *dharma*. When he has persisted in good behaviour and comportment. At that time, his introduction to the Doctrine²³ becomes pure.

When he has purified his deportment,
He understands such teaching.
Then, he also perceives the resolve of the thought of enlightenment.
Truly, at that time, once he has perceived this resolve, the wise one explains such teaching.

After he has acquired knowledge of the absolute truth of this profound teaching,

^{22.} sbyans pahi yon tan: dhūtaguṇa (Edgerton, p. 286, col. 1).

^{23.} sgo: mukha ('entrance', 'ingress', 'introduction')
Cf. Edgerton, p. 433, col. 2; Monier Williams, p. 819, col. 3 ff. See also entries for dharmamukha (Edgerton, p. 280, col. 1) and dharmālokamukha (Edgerton, p. 281, col. 2) on which my translation is based.

He will always abide in truth.

He is noble due to his infinite conduct and excellent qualities.

The great learning of this wise man is like an ocean.

Truly, as regards the meaning and words of this teaching (601),

Their limit is beyond comprehension.

Both, words and meaning are infinite.

One who fares in good conduct remains unperturbed.

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

1.1.4 Vision

Furthermore, O Śāriputra, after the bodhisattva who courses in the Perfection of Wisdom has properly listened to the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* and has taught it in great detail to others, he attains light as regards all *dharma*, because he has dispelled the impenetrable, shadowy darkness of clouding ignorance. This is the light of wisdom. Since he has attained this vision, he knows virtuous and non-virtuous *dharma*. For the sake of life, he never adheres to non-virtuous *dharma*. But, because he abandons non-virtuous *dharma* and comprehends the teachings that he has thus heard he is virtuous, mighty and calm²⁵.

Then, on that occasion, the lord composed these verses:

Just like one who has entered into a house That is dim and filled with darkness,

^{24.} śes rab kyi snan: prajñāloka If prajñāloka corresponds to jñānāloka, it would indicate the presence of the first nirvedhabhāgīya, viz., usmagata or 'heat'. Springing from the simultaneous pursuit of samatha and vipasyanā, light of knowledge reveals to the śrāvaka for the first time the meaning of the four noble truths in their sixteen aspects (DPP, p. 20). The evidence suggesting such identity of prajñā- and jñānāloka is, however, rather thinly spread and not necessarily conclusive. Even if one accepts the identity of prajñā and jñāna as it is postulated by the Kośa (vi, p. 246), we have little material to go by. Most of the standard treatises do not contain any reference to prajñāloka. It is not found in the Mpps, Kosa, Abhidh-sam, Msl or Msg and appears unknown even to the Bbh. Indeed, besides two highly ambiguous references in the Mvu (iii, p. 332.15), the only text in that I located the term prajñāloka is the Dbh. Here, it appears on its own on the ninth stage, standing for the 'light of wisdom' that the bodhisattva continually discharges into samsāra to benefit beings (p. 71, R). Elsewhere in the Dbh (p. 62, N), the bodhisattva applies himself on the seventh stage to all practices by means of the light of the attainment, wisdom and knowledge (samāpattiprajñājñānālokena). The most instructive reference yet to prajñāloka is found on the prabhākarībhūmi (Dbh, p. 32, H) where the bodhisattva—contemplating the nature of conditioned existence—realises that to perceive all things truly is impossible unless by unproduced wisdom whose light (aloka) is dependent for unfolding on 'skill' in learning (śrutakauśalya). It appears, therefore, that for prajñāloka to become manifest, the bodhisattva is required to devote himself to learning (and teaching)—a proposition that tallies well with the context in which *prajñāloka* is mentioned in the *Bdp*.

^{25.} dge ba thub pa źi ba: śubhamuniśānta.

Does not see with his eyes even those shapes That exist in that house.

In the same way, by some of those in whom impurity has arisen,
Virtuous and non-virtuous dharma
Are not perceived unless they listen to the Bodhisattvapiṭaka.

Once they have listened to it, they distinguish *dharma*. On listening to it, they relinquish sin.

Once they have listened to it, they renounce all harm.

On listening to it, they attain *nirvāṇa*. (602)

Since they desire to learn, their erudition increases.

By learning, their wisdom increases.

By wisdom, their intentions become pure.

Once they have attained pure intentions, they attain happiness.

Those who reach the goal have sharp minds. At the time when they reach *nirvāṇa*, Being secure in the Doctrine and skilled in purity, They attain great happiness.

As regards the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*; Once they have listened to it, they abide in the essence of the Doctrine. After they have realised it in the world, They will cultivate enlightened conduct.

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

1.2 Application

Furthermore, O Śāriputra, a bodhisattva who courses in the Perfection of Wisdom generates the notion of a virtuous friend towards a person who adheres to the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. Having done so he purifies him in this very Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. He purifies him completely. He generates in him a keen wish for this *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. He causes him to strive and apply himself diligently. He causes him to retain it in his mind and

to endeavour zealously to that end²⁶. Since he has fully penetrated the four perfect efforts he attains freedom from obstruction concerning any *dharma* whatsoever.²⁷

Then, at that time, the lord pronounced these verses:

A person who pronounces the Dharma
Is thought of as a virtuous friend.
Once he permanently fares in good conduct,
He applies himself to the Doctrine and studies it. (603)

He never reduces his determination.

His vigour is always unsurpassed.

His wisdom is irrevocably completely purified.

He constantly abides in pristine cognition.

He understands my Dharma.

Due to his faith, he lives in this world.

He understands it as the imperturbable Dharma

That was fully explained by the Buddha.

The wise ones are skilled in analysing words.

Being learned, they comprehend their meaning.

They practice perpetually wholesome conduct.

They renounce perpetually unwholesome conduct.

Their minds are always free of blemish.

They are truly free from despondency concerning any teaching.

Just as easily as a body, they attain swiftly

^{26.} yan dag par rab tu hjog par byed pa: samyakpradadhāti (cf. Edgerton, p. 370, col. 2).

^{27.} According to the Abhidh-sam (R), p. 120, adopting the line of reasoning that prevails in the nikāya, the fruit of the cultivation (bhāvanāphala) of the four correct efforts (samyakprahāṇa) consists chiefly of the abandonment of dharma that are detriment (vipakṣa) to skilful dharma and the growth of dharma that counteract (pratipakṣa) unskilful dharma. Marking the stage of uṣmagata, the practitioner succeeds in eliminating the coarse impediments and prepares for entry on the transcendental path (Kośa, vi, p. 287). In the Bdp, by saying that the samyakprahāṇa contribute to the elimination of all hindrances (āvaraṇa), no immediate connection to such a fruit of perfect effort is attested. Moreover, it is also left open whether the bodhisattva is freed from the kleśāvaraṇa and jñeyāvaraṇa—the standard division of the Bbh (pp. 3.13, 37.6) and Msl (pp. 2.25-3.4)—or whether he is still subjected to one of them. The fact that the Bdp makes a point in saying that he is liberated from hindrances of all dharma, suggests perhaps the former. In this event, the attainment of the samyakprahāṇa would establish the bodhisattva on the transcendental path—a remarkable progress from the cultivation of the uṣmagata phase of the prayogamārga that tallies ill with other path-schemes (cf. Kośa, vi, p. 184; Mvś (N), pp. 53.13-54.19). The likelihood of imminent entry into the lokottara path is however strengthened by the content of the following section since this lays down the attainments of the darśanamārga that mark the first phase of the transcendental path.

The mind of enlightenment, vigour and determination.

By listening to the Doctrine, their wisdom increases.

Because of realisation arising from pristine cognition, their recollection stays flawless.

Once they constantly persist in pristine cognition and recollection,

They fully understand virtuous and non-virtuous dharma.

On learning the highest teachings,

They attain the supreme powers of understanding, recollection and wisdom.

Having studied like myself for a long time,

They know the disposition of sentient beings.

Once they have listened to the Doctrine they acquire excellence.

On acquiring excellence, their pristine cognition having become pure,

They perceive the disposition of sentient beings.

For this reason they teach the Dharma in accordance with the disposition of sentient beings²⁸.

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva courses in the Perfection of Wisdom. (604)

1.3 Seeing

1.3.1 Right View

Furthermore, O Śāriputra, the bodhisattva who courses in the Perfection of Wisdom, having thus purified his mind and cleansed his entry into the light of the Doctrine, studies in the following way. So far as the emergence of the noble, right view is concerned, it has two causes and two conditions. What are the two? These are other people's statements and correct inner reflection.²⁹

He considers thus: "What are the statements of other people and what is correct inner reflection?" While he reflects correctly in this manner, he considers the following in his mind: "Those who cultivate yoga do not hear the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*.

^{28.} The word *sems can* is not found in the Tibetan text. I assume that its presence is implied, since *sems can* is the object of the preceding verse to which this verse is contextually closely related.

^{29.} The origin of this concept goes back to early Buddhism. It is found at several places in the nikāya and was adopted at a later stage by the Mahāyāna. "Statements of others (parataś ca ghoṣaḥ) and inner correct reflection (adhyātman ca yoniśo manasakāra) are the causes of right view" (A I, p. 87; Kośa, ii, p. 245; iv, p. 100; Msg, p. 65).

After they have obtained gratification through meditation alone without hearing the noble Dharma and *Vinaya*, they fall into great conceit through the power of pride. They are not liberated from birth, old-age, disease, death, misery, lamentations, suffering, grief and agitation. They are not liberated from the mass of suffering."

Pondering these, the Tathāgata proclaimed: "One who listens congenially to the statements of others becomes liberated from old-age-and-death."

The lord spoke again:

On hearing these teachings, bodhisattvas understand them.

On hearing them, they do not commit offences. (605)

On hearing them, they abandon harm.

On hearing them, they attain nirvāṇa.

A listener who wishes to learn becomes exuberant, Because it is by learning that wisdom increases. His intentions are purified through wisdom. When he reaches the goal, he gains happiness.

Those who reach the goal have sharp minds.

At that time, they reach nirvāṇa.

Those who are skilled in pure dharma are purified And attain supreme happiness.

1.3.2 Practice and Seeing

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva should study carefully the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* as the noble Dharma and *Vinaya*. He should take hold of it and retain it. He should read it and fully absorb it. He should also explain it to others and propound it in great detail. O Śāriputra, those who do not hear this Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* and do not engage in correct practice violate the noble path.

Pondering this, the Tathagata proclaimed: "Correct inner reflection is liberation from oldage-and-death."

He studies in this way: "On contemplating the bodhisattva's correct practice, viz., what this practice is actually like, he learns that a bodhisattva, *mahāsattva* does not pursue any *dharma*; he learns that he does not pursue any practice. Correct practice is an expression for non-practice.

Furthermore, the bodhisattva who practises correctly does not send out sound or murmurs. (606) He does not construe a place from which sound emerges. But, investigating its starting-

point and end-point, he thinks: "Sound emerges from and disappears into sound itself". He studies, thinking: "If one researches all sounds ever pronounced, by whom they were pronounced, for what purpose they were pronounced and in order to comprehend what they were pronounced, without apprehending sound as an aspect of the past, present or future, this is correct practice³⁰".

How does the bodhisattva who practises correctly in this manner see correctly? He studies in this way. At the time when the bodhisattva sees that all *dharma* are suppressed by their nature, at that time he sees correctly. At the time when he sees that all *dharma* are appeased by their nature, at that time he sees correctly. At the time when he sees that all *dharma* are tranquil by their nature, at that time he sees correctly. At the time when he sees that all *dharma* are unattained³¹ by their nature, at that time he sees correctly. At the time when he sees that all *dharma* are unborn by their nature, at that time he sees correctly. (607) At the time when he sees that all *dharma* are unarisen by their nature, at that time he sees correctly. At the time when he sees that all *dharma* are absolutely unbecome by their nature, at that time he sees correctly. At the time when he sees that all *dharma* are in a state of *nirvāṇa* by their nature, at that time he sees correctly. Also investigating by whom they are seen, he realises that they are altogether unseen and unexamined. If he sees it in this way he is of correct vision.

Once again, he studies in this way. A bodhisattva who practises correctly has no doubt or uncertainty concerning any *dharma* whatsoever. He is free from obstruction concerning any *dharma* whatsoever. He who practises correctly will always be at the door to liberation concerning any *dharma* whatsoever. He who practises correctly does not exert himself to renounce any *dharma* whatsoever. He who practises correctly does not exert himself to contemplate any *dharma* whatsoever. He who sees rightly all *dharma* and looks at them in accordance with reality is of right view.

What is looking at all *dharma* in accordance with reality³²? It is non-seeing. Non-seeing is an expression for unborn. Unborn is an expression for unarisen. What is unarisen? It is an expression for invisibility.

Pondering this, the Tathāgata proclaimed: "If one realises that all karmic formations are unborn, one penetrates the certainty of truth³³. (608) Penetration of the certainty of truth is

^{30.} The syntax of this paragraph is ambiguous and I am not certain that I have correctly interpreted the thought that stands behind it.

^{31.} sñom pa ma żugs pa: asamāpanna (cf. Edgerton, p. 570, col. 1).

^{32.} According to the *Bbh* (p. 294.14-20) to see *dharma* in accordance with reality involves four fields of cognition. These are (1) seeking out names (nāma), (2) seeking out things (vastu), (3) seeking out the manifestations of own-being (svabhāvaprajñapti) and (4) seeking out manifestations of distinction (višeṣaprajñapti).

^{33.} yan dag pa ñid du nes pa: samyaktvaniyata

The term samyaktvaniyata has two related, though conceptually somewhat different, meanings. On the one hand, it represents one of three categories (rāśi) classifying the various people according to the degree of spiritual attainments. First, there is the category of beings that are 'permanently fixed in falsehood'

right view."

He studies in this way, thinking: "Why is it called penetration of the certainty of truth? Because all *dharma* are completely uniform with the buddha-qualities; therefore it is penetration of the certainty of truth."

Hence, those who wish to penetrate the certainty of truth should listen carefully to this very Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapitaka*. They should take hold of it and retain it. They should read it and fully absorb it. Indeed, they should apply themselves correctly to this very Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapitaka*.

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

1.3.3 Penetration and Speech

Furthermore, O Śāriputra, when the bodhisattva who courses in the Perfection of Wisdom, having thus purified his mind and cleansed his entry into the light of the Doctrine, penetrates correctly he realises correct speech. What is correct penetration? What is correct speech?

A bodhisattva's correct penetration is as follows. He penetrates the basis of perfect mental quietude and the binary thinking of insight³⁴. This is correct penetration. (609) Although he

(mithyātvaniyata). People belonging to this group are permanently unable to comprehend the teachings of the Buddha and excluded from the tathāgatagotra. Having committed grave offences, they are always born in the lower destinies, unless they move up to the next rāśi. The second type, 'persons settled permanently in truth' (samyaktvaniyata) will come in contact with the Doctrine and understand it whether it is preached by a buddha or not. Springing from a combination of cognition and past virtuous conduct, it is the domain of advanced practitioners (according to the Dīgha 'non-returners'; D III, p. 217). Having entered into the path, their progress to nirvāṇa is assured and rapid. Third, the Buddha identified a group of people that are undetermined (aniyata) in the sense that they will only understand the Doctrine after lenghty expositions (Mvu, iii, pp. 318, 347). Numerically, this category is said to be largest of the three since it contains the majority of people. According to the Sukhāvatīvyūha (p. 44), the heaven of Amitābha is inhabited only beings of the first category. References to these three types of rāśi may be found in the S I, p. 196; II, p. 25; III, p. 225; Kathāvatthu, p. 186; Nett, p. 96; Dhs, p. 186; Kośa, iii, p. 137; iv, pp. 177, 202; Lal, pp. 351.9, 400.2; Bbh, p. 404.23).

On the other hand, as far as the path is concerned, entry into the certainty of truth marks an important turning-point in the spiritual advance of the adept. Being the point of embarkation on the *bhāvanāmārga*, samyaktvaniyata establishes the practitioner in the āryan-fold and guarantees liberation after no more than seven births (Abhidh-sam (R), p. 152). For the bodhisattva, the stages are as follows (Bbh, p. 290.11–23): First, he enters into the fold of bodhisattvas. Provided that he fulfils a number of spiritual conditions, he is certain to attain buddhahood in future. Second, there is the generation of the thought of enlightenment. At this point he cannot be turned away from buddhahood and is beyond conditions. The third stage is marked by the acquisition of the bodhisattva's special powers (vaśita). Being the outcome of his dedication to the welfare of beings and his correct vision of reality, he has now attained the certainty of the prediction and traverses the final phase of the path (cf. Aṣṭa, p. 33.18 ff, p. 322.5; Śikṣ, p. 270.4). For a sound discussion of a number of connotations associated with the term niyata/niyāma in the various strands of Buddhist literature, see: Bbh, Lexikalisches ..., pp. 28–31.

34. The association of binary thinking (vikalpa) and insight (vipaśyanā) indicates that we dealing here still with the preparatory phase of vipaśyanā. For, when brought to its highest point, vipaśyanā is no longer subject to recollection (smṛti) and reflection (manasakāra), but operates as non-discursive knowledge (nirvikalpajñāna) manifesting analytical investigation (of the real) (bhūtapratyavekṣā) that is devoid of mental and verbal proliferation (prapañcopaśama). According to the Bhāvanākrama (MBT, iii, pp. 15-16), recollective attention and reflection figure only during the initial stages of vipaśyanā development, while, at the pinnacle of its evolution, asmṛti and amanasakāra—springing from analytical investigation—become

penetrates the body of solitude³⁵, favourable dispositions, indestructibility, impermanence, the causes and conditions, dependent co-origination, the belief in a living being, a life-force and a person, the non-existence of the past, present and future, investigation into immutability, imperishability of causes and retribution, emptiness of causes as well as acquaintance³⁶ with signlessness and wishlessness, he does not realise emptiness and wishlessness.

Although he acquires meditations and attainments, he is not reborn through the power of contemplation. Although he acquires the knowledge of the super-knowledge, he does not enter into the suppression of impurity. Although he penetrates the notion of no-birth, he does not enter into the state of perfection. Although he penetrates the notion of non-self of all sentient beings, he does not renounce great compassion. Although he penetrates the notion of the destruction of all beings, he [does not] realise the inconceivable state of existence. Although he longs for *nirvāṇa*, he does not to embark on realising the Dharma. Although he penetrates the purity of objects of sense pleasure and abides in equipoise, he does not dismiss the joy of the Doctrine. Although he abandons all discursive proliferation³⁷, (610) he does not renounce skilful means³⁸. O Śāriputra, this is correct penetration.

the hub of the yogin's *vipaśyanā* experience (MBT, iii, pp. 15-17). This division is also borne out by the *vipaśyanā* account in the *Abhidh-sam* (R), p. 126, where, at first, insight is characterised by examination (*vicaya*), discernment (*pravicaya*), judgment (*prativitarka*) and investigation (*mīmāṃsā*). Cf. *Saṃdhis* (ÉLa), p. 90.3-22.

^{35.} The Śrotabhūmi (109, p. 286.5.2-3) distinguishes five objects from which the bodhisattva achieves freedom when abiding in the 'body of solitude'. These are bad conduct (duṣcarita), desire (kāma), utensils (pariṣkāra), sexual intercourse (saṃsarga) and defilements (kleśa).

^{36.} hdris pa: paricaya (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 593, col. 2).

^{37.} rtog pa spros pa: prapañca

Prapañca is a difficult term of which Edgerton's translation as 'spreading out', 'activity', 'error of false statement' or 'false imagining'—although linguistically sound—is not quite adequate (Edgerton, p. 380, col. 2). He comes somewhat closer when, on the basis of Chinese translations, he proposes 'frivolous talk' as its meaning. According to Stcherbatsky, prapañca is the "expression of conceptually differentiated reality in words" (Nirvāṇa, 1975, p. 38*, pp. 137, 168, 216). The same line of thinking is taken up by Honda, when (citing Stcherbatsky as authority) he defines prapañca as "diffusion or diversification as function of craving, the expression of conceptual conceit and wrongly differentiated reality in words and view, or the expression of conceptually differentiated reality in words" (1968, p. 233).

Note also that, according to the *Siddhi* (p. 607), this type of abandonment does not take place before the *bhāvanāmārga*. Although not explicitly linked with a path scheme, indications to this effect are also found in the *Bhāvanākrama* (MBT, iii, p. 17.10–11) and *Ratnameghasūtra* (cited in MBT, iii, p. 7.16–18).

The role of *upāyakauśalya* is twofold. On the one hand, it brings about personal welfare for the bodhisattva and, on the other hand, it furthers the liberation of beings. Taking this division as foundation, the *Bbh* (pp. 261.6–272.8) distinguishes several aspects within each category. First, as regards the bodhisattva's own welfare—epitomising the acquisition of buddha-qualities—it involves compassionate attention to sentient beings, accurate knowledge of all conditioned *dharma*, thirst for knowledge of unsurpassed enlightenment, non-defiled passing through the round of rebirth and ardent vigour (p. 261.6–19). Second, skilful means in the service of others—accomplishing the ripening of beings—is dominated by the cultivation of the four means of conversion (*samgrahavastu*). Through their presence, manifesting six kinds of effect, the bodhisattva multiplies the otherwise negligible fruits that accrue from the small roots of virtue of beings; he occasions the acquisition of great roots of virtue with little effort; he averts obstacles that would prevent beings from embracing the Buddha's teachings; he causes beings who are yet undecided to embark on the path; he ripens those who have already embarked on the path and he liberates those who have already ripened (p. 261.20–27).

The Msl (p. 147.3-9) speaks of five different types of means. First, there is non-constructive knowledge (nirvikalpajñāna) that occasions the acquisition of the buddha-qualities. Second, the means of conversion

O Śāriputra, what is correct speech? His speech is logical. Furthermore, O Śāriputra, it is attentive. It consists of sound and is articulate. It is investigative, non-contradictory and amiable. It is imperturbable, inapprehensive and compliant. It is judicious and well-balanced. It is unborn and lacks all foundation of quarrel. It is dependable and devoid of acrimony.³⁹

It is speech of suchness. It is speech of thusness, genuine thusness, unfailing thusness, truth and actuality.⁴⁰ It is speech of the sameness of the three times. It cuts off the fetters and is independent of form, feeling, perception, karmic formations and consciousness.

It is independent of the element of the eye, form and visual consciousness. It is independent of the element of the ear, sound and auditory consciousness. It is independent of the element of the nose, scent and olfactory consciousness. It is independent of the element of the tongue, flavour and gustatory consciousness. (611) It is independent of the element of the body, touch and tactile consciousness. It is independent of the element of the mind, its objects and mental consciousness.

His speech relies on the spirit, foundation of being, pristine cognition and on sūtras of precise meaning.⁴¹ O Śāriputra, this is correct speech.

It is in this way that a bodhisattva who applies himself to correct penetration and sees correct speech does not realise seeing. He sees just like one who lacks vision and clear insight⁴². When he sees in this way, he is of correct vision.

Again, O Śāriputra, the bodhisattva who practises correctly will never become confused concerning any *dharma* whatsoever. A bodhisattva who practises correctly will always be at the door to liberation concerning any *dharma* whatsoever. He who practises correctly does not exert himself to renounce any *dharma* whatsoever. He who practises correctly does not

that assist sentient beings to mature. Third, the confession of faults, joy in the Buddha, invitation to the buddhas and transference (of merit) that speed up the attainment of enlightenment. Fourth, cultivation of meditations (samādhi) and formulae (dhāranī) that purify his conduct. Fifth, generation of unsupported (apratisthita) nirvāṇa that prevents the bodhisattva from interrupting his course in saṃsāra (ref. Lamotte).

^{39.} Up to this point, the characterisation of correct speech shows many parallels to the discussion of the bodhisattva's 'unique knowledge of eloquence' (pratibhānapratisamvid) that is discussed at 2.5.4 in my translation of chapter eleven (folio 629.6-631.4). However, the cognitive element, associating correct speech with insight and thus turning the bodhisattva's speech into a mirror of his profound understanding of the nature of reality, is specific to correct speech and not touched upon in the discussion of the pratibhānapratisamvid.

^{40.} The four preceding attributes are translations of the following technical terms (Mvy 1709, 1711, 1716) that, but for the last, serve as synonyms for the absolute (paramārtha): (1) de bžin ñid: tathātā, (2) gžan ma yin pa de bžin ñid: ananyatathatā, (3) ma log pa de bžin ñid: tathatā, (4) ji lta ba bžin: yathāvat.

^{41.} This sentence, qualifying the foundation of speech, contains a reference to the bodhisattva's four types of reliance, viz., reliance on the spirit (artha) as opposed to the letter (vyañjana); reliance on the foundation of being (dharmatā) as opposed to the person (pudgala); reliance on pristine cognition (jñāna) as opposed to discursive insight (vijñāna); and reliance on sūtras of precise meaning (nīthārtha) as opposed to those of provisional meaning (neyārtha). The exact nature and scope of the bodhisattva's four reliances is considered in great detail at 2.6 as one of the skills leading to 'discerning-wisdom'.

^{42.} rnam par mthon pa: vidarśana (Mvy 1141)
On the conceptual closeness of vipaśyanā and vidarśana, see: Abhidh-d, pp. 355-7 (n. 440); Kośa, vi, pp. 279-281.

exert himself to contemplate any *dharma* whatsoever. He who sees rightly all *dharma* and looks at them in accordance with reality is of right view.

What is looking at all *dharma* in accordance with reality? It is non-seeing. What is non-seeing? It is an expression for unborn. What is unborn? It is an expression for invisibility.⁴³ (612) Just as it was previously discussed at great length, in the same way it should be formulated. It is in this way that the bodhisattva courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

Furthermore, O Śāriputra, the bodhisattva who courses in the Perfection of Wisdom studies in this way. "It is correct that all *dharma* are like the self." He realises that just as the self is non-self, so all *dharma* are non-self. He realises that just as the sentient being is non-self, so all *dharma* are non-self. When he looks at them in this way, he sees correctly.

Seeing correctly that the sphere of saṃsāra is endowed with the sphere of nirvāṇa; this is correct practice. 44 Then, he realises that the own-being of all dharma is invariably that of impurity. Indeed, he does not take pride in either yoga or non-yoga. Through correct practice, he sees correctly. Correct practice is as manifold as all bases of sentient beings. Not seeing the bases of sentient beings and to be imperturbable concerning the basis of the Doctrine; this is correct practice of the bodhisattva. O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the forms of learning, correct penetration, correct vision and those which are the result of accurate vision are called wisdom.

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva courses in the Perfection of Wisdom. (613)

1.4 Emancipation

Furthermore, O Śāriputra, the bodhisattva who courses in the Perfection of Wisdom is by virtue of his wisdom not linked to any conditioned *dharma*⁴⁵. That is to say, he is emancipated from from from strengthened through emancipation from karmic formations, he is emancipated from old-age-and-death. Since he is emancipated from the belief in a self, he is emancipated from the sixty-two heretical views that are based on the belief in a self.

^{43.} This passage starting with "Again, O Śāriputra" up to "invisibility" is almost identical with a previous section on folio 607 starting with "Once again, he studies ..." (folio 607.3–608.2).

^{44.} The thought of the identity of saṃsāra and nirvāṇa is taken up in greater detail at 2.3, discussing the bodhisattva's 'skill' in elements (dhātu).

^{45.} hdus byas la spyod pahi chos thams cad mi gnas pa lit.: 'to be independent of all dharma that participate in the conditioned'.

^{46.} Ihan cig tu mi gnas: sahānvasthāna.

^{47.} The doctrinal foundations to most of the sixty-two heretical views (dṛṣṭigata) are either the views of existence or non-existence (bhavābhavadṛṣṭi) or the views of eternity or annihilation (śāśvatocchedadṛṣṭi). Representing the beliefs in extremes (antagrāhadṛṣṭi) that run counter to the 'middle path' of the Buddhists, they are rejected in equal measure by early Buddhists and later Mahāyāna writers alike. For references in the nikāya, see: D I, pp. 52-59; S II, p. 17; S III, p. 135; fine expositions of the Mahāyāna position are

He is emancipated from lofty and wretched thoughts. He is emancipated from the eight worldly conditions. He is emancipated from the twenty secondary defilements⁴⁸ including self-conceit, grave conceit and perverted conceit.⁴⁹ He is emancipated from all defilements, including minor, mediocre and major ones. Having become ensnared by the impenetrable, obscuring, dark mist of delusion, he is emancipated from all lowly and wicked *dharma*. He is emancipated from the activity of all evil, including contentious and defiled activity, activity of the aggregates, activity of the lord of death and activity of the Evil One.⁵⁰

He is emancipated from all heretical views concerning the self, including the belief in a

found at Kp, pp. 86–108; Asta, p. 66; Madh. vrtti, pp. 272.14, 445.3. Additional material has been collected together by May (1959, p. 213, n. 720) and Lamotte (1976, p. 57, n. 36) from whom these references stem.

^{48.} According to the Siddhi (p. 362), the twenty secondary defilements include (1) anger (krodha), (2) spitefulness (upanāha), (3) hypocrisy (mrakṣa), (4) malice (pradāśa), (5) jealousy (īrṣyātha), (6) avarice (mātsarya), (7) deception (māyā), (8) concealment (śāthya), (9) complacency (mada), (10) violence (vihiṃsa), (11) lack of self-esteem (āhrīkya), (12) indecency (anapatrāpya), (13) inertness (styāna), (14) agitation (auddhatya), (15) lack of confidence (āśraddhya), (16) idleness (kauśīdya), (17) indolence (pramāda), (18) confused recollection (muṣitasmṛtitā), (19) inattentiveness (asamprajanya) and (20) distraction (vikṣepa).

Other lists that show comparable, but not identical, contents are found in the *Kośa* (v, pp. 88, 89–109), comprising twenty-one secondary defilements and in the *Dhsgr* (§ 69), listing twenty-four items.

^{49.} na rgyal: māna; che baḥi na rgyal: mahāmāna; log baḥi na rgyal: mithyāmāna
According to the Kośa (v, pp. 26-27), conceit falls into seven categories. Of these, only the first (viz., māna) and last (viz., mithyāmāna) are cited in the Bdp. Māna refers to a general arrogance of mind leading to feelings of superiority. Mithyāmāna, in contrast, is more specific and causes that one attributes to oneself spiritual qualities that one does not possess (Kośa, v, p. 27). I have not found a text where mahāmāna figures among the various types of conceit as an independent type of conceit. As māna and mithyāmāna constitute respectively the first and last limb in the list of seven, it likely that the Bdp made this selection in order to indicate the presence of all seven types without actually listing all of them (Mvy 1945-52).

^{50.} This, of course, is a reference to the four types of māra. Personifying the forces of evil, Buddhist texts distinguish (1) the 'evil of defilement' (kleśamāra), (2) the 'evil of aggregate' (skandhamāra), (3) the 'evil of death' (mṛtyumāra) and (4) the 'Evil One' (devaputramāra). This is the most common division (Mvu, iii, pp. 218.7, 273.2; Lal, p. 224.18-19; Madh. vṛtti, p. 49.10; Dhsgr § 80; Mppś, i, pp. 340-46), although we read elsewhere (Udāna-a, p. 216.11) also of other types of māra, viz., the 'evil of formation' (abhisaṃskāra-māra) and the 'evil of misdeed' (āpattimāra). Already in the nikāya, the internal armies of Māra are identified with personal faults, such as desire, sadness, hunger, thirst, greed, etc., (Sn, vss. 436-449) and were named accordingly as Taṇhā, Arati, Rāga, etc. (S I, p. 124; III, p. 286). On the moment of their destruction during the last existence of bodhisattvas, the Akn-ṭīkā says:

[&]quot;The four kinds of māra are the devaputramāra, kleśamāra, skandhamāra and the mrtyumāra. Among them, the devaputramāra is vanquished by the meditation of benevolence (maitrīsamādhi) underneath the tree of enlightenment. The kleśamāra is vanquished at the time of comprehension of enlightenment. The skandhamāra is vanquished by the reversal of the support of the storehouse consciousness (ālayavijñānāśrayaparāvrtti) at the time of comprehension of enlightenment. Shortening the formation of long life (āyuḥ-saṃskāra) in Vaiśālī three month prior to the parinirvāṇa, the mrtyumāra is vanquished by obtaining power over life."

For further details on interpretations of *māra* and the contexts in which they appear, see: E. Windisch, *Māra and Buddha*, Leipzig, 1895; A. Wayman, 'Studies in Yama and Māra', *IIJ*, 1959, pp. 112–32; *Mppś*, ii, pp. 880–884, 906–908; Malalasekera, *Proper Names*, ii, pp. 611–620. A list of disguises of Māra is given in the *Ratnaketudhāraṇī*, Dutt, vi, 1941–53, pp. 77.7–79.2. For further references to the notion of *māra* in Buddhist literature, see: Lamotte, 1976, pp. 99–101. In the same volume (pp. 169–70), Lamotte provides an excellent list of material that discusses the term *āśrayaparāvṛtti* (e.g., *Bbh*, pp. 367–70; see also: *Msg*, pp. 16*, 48*). On the circumstances accompanying the Buddha's abandonment of the long-life *samskāra*, see: Waldschmidt, 1950, ii, p. 218.

self, a living being, a life-force, a feeder, a person, a human being and an individual. (614) He is emancipated from all continuity brought about by the traces, including the obstruction of action, impurity, *dharma*, heretical views, retribution and nescience. He is emancipated from reflection, binary thinking, marks, mental constructions [brought about through] seeing, hearing and recollection, discursive knowledge and all adventitious bonds⁵¹. He is emancipated from [the dichotomy of] avarice and generosity, morality and immorality, patience and malice, vigour and indolence, meditation and disquietude, wisdom and folly, furtherance and impediments of the perfections, knowledge and nescience.

He is emancipated from antitheses of all *dharma*, including truth, falsehood and perjury, virtue and depravity, reproach and approval, *saṃsāra* and *nirvāṇa*. He is emancipated from all multiplicity, including multiplicity of buddha-fields, buddhas, sentient beings and *dharma*. He is emancipated from conditioned reflection⁵² of all sentient beings, including nescience, knowledge, discursive insight, conventional truth and absolute truth. (615) He is emancipated from the bases of all reflection, thought and consciousness; including perseverance [to] formlessness, signlessness, causelessness and unconditioned wisdom. He is emancipated from these and other incalculable, conditioned *dharma*. It is in this way that the wisdom of a bodhisattva who courses in the Perfection of Wisdom is emancipated from all conditioned *dharma*.

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

Section II

2. Skill

Furthermore, O Śāriputra, a bodhisattva who adheres to the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* and courses in the Perfection of Wisdom is skilled in discerning the Perfection of Wisdom. He attains skill in all *dharma*.

What is discerning wisdom? It is tenfold, viz., skill in aggregates, skill in sensefields, skill in elements, skill in truth, skill in unique knowledge, skill in reliance, skill in discursive insight and direct knowledge, skill in the factors of enlightenment, skill in the path and skill in dependent co-origination.⁵³ (616) Investigation by means of these ten kinds of skill is discerning wisdom.

^{51.} sgros hdogs pa: āropita (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 151, col. 1).

^{52.} mtshan ma yid la byed pa: nimittamanasakāra (cf. Edgerton, p. 207, col. 2).

^{53.} Skt.: skandha-, āyatana-, dhātu-, satya-, pratisaṃvid-, pratisaraṇa-, vijñāna-, jñāna-, bodhyangāni-, mārgaand pratītyasamutpādakauśalya. According to Vasubandhu, 'skill'—referring to the eight kinds of 'skill' in the Akn—constitutes the sphere of wisdom (Akn-ṭīkā, p. 193.5.7).

2.1 Skill in Aggregates

What then is skill in aggregates?⁵⁴ He expounds the aggregates by way of allegories. That is to say, he shows that they are like froth, a mirage, a water bubble, a plantain tree, an illusion, a dream, an echo, an illusory appearance and a reflected image.

Matter is like froth and froth too is without a self, a living being, a life-force, a person, a man, a human being or an individual. The own-being⁵⁵ of froth is also the own-being of matter. Skill concerning this is skill in aggregates.⁵⁶

Feeling is like a water bubble and a water bubble too is without a self, a living being, a life-force, a person, man, a human being or an individual. The own-being of a water bubble is also the own-being of feeling. Skill concerning this is skill in aggregates.⁵⁷

Perception is like a mirage and a mirage too is without a self, a sentient being ... or an individual. The own-being of a mirage is also the own-being of perception. Skill concerning this is skill in aggregates.⁵⁸ (617)

- Vasubandhu, in his commentary on the Akn, elucidates the meaning of 'skill' in aggregates on pages 193.5.8-195.5.1. The corresponding passage in the Akn is found on page 52.2.8-4.6. According to the Akn, 'skill' in aggregates means that the bodhisattva is capable of explaining the nature and role of the aggregates by way of comparisons. This is also the only instance where both Bdp and Akn cite an equally phrased, direct answer to the question that is posed at the beginning of each kind of 'skill'. After that, only the Akn provides brief direct answers to the initial questions, whereas the Bdp does not re-refer to the question (for details, see: Akn-ṣīkā, pp. 194.1.1-2.6, 194.2.6-195.3.6, 195.3.6-5.1).
- 55. According to the Mvy, the Tibetan term ran bžin has two principal meanings, viz., (1) svabhāva meaning 'own-being' (Mvy 3390, 4458, 7498) and prakrti meaning chiefly 'nature' (Monier-Williams, p. 1276, col. 1; p. 654, col. 1 respectively). Both meanings do overlap of course and it is difficult to decide with certainty which of the two is intended in this passage. Although prakrti is listed as the first, and thus principal term, I believe that it is in this context more appropriate to translate the term ran bžin as 'own-being' since reference is taken to the very nature, character or indeed 'own-being' of the dharma in question. The term 'nature' has a broader, slightly more encompassing and hence rather vague connotation that, I think, is here out of place.
- 56. The Akn-ṭīkā comments (p. 194.3.1-3; cf. Akn, p. 52.2.8-3.1):

 "That is to say, in the great ocean some people see froth possessing matter and colour like crystals. Believing that it possesses substance and own-being, they grasp for it with their hands, but it flies away and disintegrates, whereupon they think: 'Alas, this is only froth, this is worthless, vain and lacks own-being'."
- 57. In the words of the Akn-tīkā (p. 194.3.8-4.4; cf. Akn, p. 52.3.1-2):

 "When rains falls into water, some people perceive the water bubbles as if they constitute various types of crystals or gems. Thinking that they possess substance and are suitable [to be worn as] adornments, [people] grasp for them with both hands in order to arrange them but they disintegrate. Even those that they did not reach for burst as soon as they arise. Realising that they are devoid of substance, they learn and exclaim: 'Alas, these are water bubbles, without a self and own-being. They are worthless and vain.' It is in this way that also the aggregate of feeling [whether pleasant, unpleasant, etc.]—lacking a self or own-being—is worthless and vain just like the water bubbles. If grasped with the eyes and hands of wisdom, examining them whether they are existent or non-existent, one realises that all of them bear the mark of suffering and perish by nature as soon as they have arisen."
- 58. To quote again from the Akn-tīkā (p. 194.4.4-8; cf. Akn, p. 53.3.2-3):

 "Perception is to grasp the distinguishing marks of objects. Objects are matter, sound, etc. Distinguishing marks are the [colours of] white, red, etc. To grasp is to decide 'this is white—not red'. The perception aggregate is like a mirage. Why? It lacks a self and is insignificant. That is to say, thirsty people who are tormented by the sun during the hot season see mirages such as fountains of water with their eyes. Believing them to be of water, they hurry to drink it. On discovering that it is not water, they exclaim: 'Alas, this is a mirage. It lacks a self and own-being. It is worthless and vain.' Likewise, with the eye of wisdom,

Karmic formations are like a plantain tree and a plantain tree too is without a self, a living being, a life-force ... or an individual. The own-being of a plantain tree is also the own-being of karmic formations. Skill concerning this is skill in aggregates.⁵⁹

Consciousness is like an illusion and an illusion too is without a self, a living being, a life-force, a person, a man, a human being, an individual or a being that arises and feels. The own-being of an illusion is also the own-being of consciousness. Skill concerning this is skill in aggregates.⁶⁰

Furthermore, the aggregates are of this world and the world, too, bears the characteristic of destructibility.⁶¹ The own-being of the worlds is also the own-being of aggregates. But what is the own-being of the world? Its own-being is that of impermanence and suffering.⁶² This, too, is the own-being of aggregates. Skill concerning this is skill in aggregates.

It is in this manner that the bodhisattva who is skilled in aggregates courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

bodhisattvas realise that perception is full of thought construction concerned with misunderstandings."

^{59.} The Akn-tīkā explains (p. 194.5.1-6; cf. Akn, p. 52.3.3-4):

[&]quot;Karmic formation create various kinds of wholesome, unwholesome and neutral [actions]. The sum total of karmic formations is great. Why is the aggregate of karmic formation is like a plantain tree? It lacks a core. People who wish for a hard tree and cut down a plantain tree, stripping it off its bark from top to bottom, see that there is no core when they examine it in this regard and exclaim: 'Alas, this has the core of a plantain tree; it is empty, without substance or own-being.' In this way, when contemplating on the presence of a core or essence in the aggregate of diverse karmic formations [concerned with wholesome, unwholesome and neutral actions], one realises—when looking at it with the eye of wisdom—that it is thought-only (cittamātrata), unborn, beyond being and non-being. Having thus contemplated with effort on the duality of existence and non-existence, one sees that it is just like a plantain tree beyond one or many, self or others, without a core, essence or a self."

^{60.} In the words of the $Akn-tik\bar{a}$ (pp. 194.5.7–195.1.4; cf. Akn, p. 52.3.4–5):

[&]quot;Consciousness is perception of objects such as form, etc. It consists of eight types, viz., consciousness pertaining to the eye, etc. The consciousness aggregate is like an illusion. Why? It is insubstantial. A magician conjures up with his art of magic trickery various illusory forms of gods, men, demons and animals. But, even though they are perceived with the eye, if one examines them with the expectation that they might possess an own-being and a lasting existence, on realising that they lack own-being and perish all the sudden, one exclaims: 'Alas, this is only an illusion; it is empty and devoid of own-being.' In the same way, if one examines with the eye of wisdom the own and general own-being in the consciousness aggregate generated by the different traces of action, expecting it to possess own-being and lasting existence, one realises that it perishes each moment like an illusion and is empty of own-being."

^{61.} hjig rten yan hjig pa: loko 'pi lugla (cf. Mvy 3061 which gives hjig pas na hjig rten for luyjata iti loka).

This section is explained in the Akn-tikā in terms of Yogācāra thinking (p. 195.4.1—4; cf. Akn, p. 52.4.4—6):

"The meaning of impermanence is the meaning of non-existence. The imagined that is empty of own-being as it is universally non-existent—bearing the character of being imagined like the horn of a hare—is impermanent. The sūtra says that it is undergoing suffering by nature. The meaning of imagining the non-existent is the meaning of undergoing suffering by nature. Again, it bears the characteristic of dependence (paratantralakṣaṇa). To the degree to which one imagines object and subject through paratantra [vision], to that degree the own-being of suffering comes into being and becomes the cause of various types of suffering."

2.2 Skill in Elements

Next, what is skill in elements?⁶³ That is to say, although it is true that the sphere of the Dharma⁶⁴ is the element of earth, it has not the characteristic of compactness. Although it is true that the sphere of the Dharma is the element of water, it has not the characteristic of moisture. (618) Although it is true that the sphere of the Dharma is the element of fire, it has not the characteristic of heat. Although it is true that the sphere of the Dharma is the element

64. For alternative meanings and translations of the term *dharmadhātu*, see: Ruegg (1962, p. 327) and *Kośa* (i, pp. 54-65, 100).

Vasubandhu (pp. 193.5.1-196.4.5) explains that 'skill' in elements signifies 'skill' in pristine cognition that penetrates the elements of dharma—that is, the qualities and practices of a bodhisattya (p. 195.5.4)—with the element (dhātu) representing the cause and condition leading to the attainment of the individual buddha-qualities—that is the dharma themselves (p. 195.5.5). Note also the usage of the term dhātu in the Akn (pp. 52.4.6-53.2.3) that distinguishes carefully between khams and dbyins, a distinction that is not upheld in the Bdp. Theoretically, it is possible that chos kyi khams refers here to the twelfth dhātu or sixth kind of external object (visaya), viz., the class of non-sensuous objects. Contextual considerations render this explanation implausible, since they point to the 'sphere of the Doctrine' or Dharmadhātu—of which chos kyi khams is a highly unusual translation—and not to the series of elements (dhātu) that are represented in the composition of an individual stream of life (santāna). What is more, in the Akn's parallel reading the term chos kyi khams (except for one unambiguous reference to non-sensuous objects) is invariably replaced by the 'correct' rendering of chos kyi dbyins. This modification establishes beyond any doubt that, in the Akn, it is the Dharmadhātu and not the dharmadhātu that is referred to. All other occurrences of the term khams, whether in conjunction with nam mkhahi, hdod pahi or otherwise are preserved as they occur in the Bdp. Thus, the Akn puts forward what is in effect a (re)interpretation of the Bdp's reading. As we have seen, this is a general feature of their relationship and does not pose much of a problem. What is puzzles me is the mechanism by which this particular incongruity arose in the Tibetan, since their chronological order could not have been of any concern to the translators. They found presumably in both texts—assuming that they were translated from the Sanskrit which seems certain—the term dharmadhātu. And yet, they opted for a different term to translate the same word in the same sentence, passage and context, singling out chos kvi khams for the Bdp and chos kvi dbyins in the Akn. In the Akn, their choice might have been influenced by the explanation given in the $Akn-t\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}$ (pp. 195.5.1–7), since it establishes quite clearly the *Dharmadhātu* and not non-sensuous objects as point of reference. But again, we cannot be certain that the commentary was at hand when the translators set about their task. In search for an explanation, I thought to find the key to this discrepancy in the terminologic revision (sgra gsar bcad) that took place in Tibet at the beginning of the ninth century. That is to say, I expected to learn that the Bdp had been translated before the Great Revision and was then left unrevised. This assumption proved ill-founded, since its translation was carried out by the very persons who played a major role in the Great Revision, namely Surendrabodhi, Śilendrabodhi and Dharmatāśila (Simonsson, 1957, p. 241). Even if they translated the Bdp before receiving the royal command to undertake the general revision, they surely would have redrafted it afterwards. Moreover, already the first unrevised translation of the Akn contains the terms chos kyi dbyins. I then discovered that Dharmatāśīla had not only part in the translation of the Bdp, but also revised the early translation the of Akn. It is probably safe to assume that he would have employed consistent terminology had he held the word dharmadhātu to refer to the same concept in both texts. Alternatively, he might have contributed to the translation of the Akn after he had worked at the Bdp and neglected to go back to it for revision. In any event, it is quite unthinkable that he should have failed to notice the close parallelism that exists between the Akn and Bdp while working at them. Today, it is impossible to say whether Dharmatāšīla translated the Bdp before or after revising the old Akn version, but given that an unrevised translation of the Akn was already extant, one would expect him to turn first to the Bdp. On the other hand, being a thorough and accomplished scholar, he might as well have given priority to correcting the old faulty translations before looking at new texts. To whatever view one chooses to subscribe, there seems to be no hard and fast evidence to support either of them. As far as the translation of the passage is concerned, it is probably safe to follow the reading of the Akn. First, it fits the context very well and it is confirmed by Akn-tīkā. And yet, it fails to address the question that lies at the heart of the problem, that is, why such incongruence arose in the first place. Furthermore, it raises the methodological problem of basing the translation of a passage on a reading that is not found in the text itself, however close its affiliation to this text may be. Finally, it does not account for the highly unusual practice to employ the term chos kyi khams to render Dharmadhātu ('sphere of the Doctrine') into Tibetan.

of wind, it has not the characteristic of agitation.

Although it is true that the sphere of the Dharma is the element of visual consciousness, it has not the characteristic of seeing. Although it is true that the sphere of the Dharma is the element of auditory consciousness, it has not the characteristic of distinguishing sound. Although it is true that the sphere of the Dharma is the element of olfactory consciousness, it has not the characteristic of perceiving scent. Although it is true that the sphere of the Dharma is the element of gustatory consciousness, it has not the characteristic of savouring flavour. Although it is true that the sphere of the Dharma is the element of tactile consciousness, it has not the characteristic of contact. Although it is true that the sphere of the Dharma is the element of mental consciousness, it has not the characteristic of cognition.

The sphere of the self and the sphere of the Dharma are identical. The spheres of desire, form and non-form are identical. The spheres of *nirvāna* and *samsāra* are identical. Thus, the sphere of all *dharma* and the sphere of space are identical. Since they are identical with emptiness, they are uniform. Since they are identical with non-becoming, they are uniform. Because of penetrating the spheres of the conditioned and unconditioned, his teaching about them is infinite. ⁶⁶ (619) By means of that penetration, he investigates; this is skill in elements.

It is in this manner that the bodhisattva, mahāsattva who is skilled in elements courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.3 Skill in Sensefields

Next, what is the bodhisattva's skill in sensefields?⁶⁷ Concerning this, the bodhisattva perceives the eye in accordance with reality, thinking: "It is empty in itself and by itself, such is its own-being." This is the bodhisattva's skill in sensefields. Corresponding to the former, the bodhisattva perceives also the ear, nose, tongue, body and mind in accordance with reality, thinking: "They are empty in themselves and by themselves, such is their own-being." Not encouraging those who gather various objects and items in their sensefields for the sake of accumulating virtue, he does not discriminate virtuous and non-virtuous *dharma*⁶⁹. This is the bodhisattva's skill in sensefields.

Although he thus looks unperturbed at the eye and form, thinking: "This is the visual sensefield and that is the tactile sensefield", he does not realise [absolute] imperturbability.

^{65.} Cf. Akn-tikā p. 196.1.7-3.4.

^{66.} Akn-tīkā p. 196.3.4-4.3.

^{67.} Akn-tīkā, pp. 196.4.5-197.5.6

In the Akn, the corresponding passage is found on page 53.2.3–4.4. Here, the passage on sensefields is slightly longer than that of the Bdp, interpolating an introductory section modelled on that of the preceding topic which runs as follows: "Even though the sensefield of the Dharma ..., it has not the characteristic of "

^{68.} In my translation, I disregarded the Tibetan clause *yid kyi* since reference is clearly taken to all five remaining sense organs—not only to the mind (R, folio 619.4).

^{69.} Akn-tīkā, p. 197.1.3–2.1 (lit.: '... he does not embark on two notions (viz., dual thinking) concerning ...').

This is the bodhisattva's skill in sensefields. Corresponding to the former, although he thus looks unperturbed at the ear and sound, nose and scent, tongue and taste, body and touch as well as at the mind and mental objects, he does not realise [absolute] imperturbability. (620) This is the bodhisattva's skill in sensefields.

The sensefields consist also of noble and ignoble sensefields. Now, while a noble sensefield causes appreciation of the path, an ignoble sensefield causes withdrawal from the path.⁷⁰ This is to say, while the bodhisattva who persists in the path generates great compassion in support of sentient beings who have relinquished their zeal on the path, he himself never renounces the sensefields of the path. This is the bodhisattva's skill in sensefields.

It is in this manner that the bodhisattva who is skilled in sensefields courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.4 Skill in Truth

What then is the bodhisattva's skill in truth?⁷¹ The bodhisattva's skill in penetrating truth is fourfold. That is to say, it is knowledge of suffering, knowledge of its origin, knowledge of its cessation and knowledge of the path.

What is knowledge of suffering? Knowledge that the aggregates are unborn is knowledge of suffering. What is knowledge of its origin? Knowledge that thirst has been vanquished is knowledge of its origin. What is knowledge of its cessation? Knowledge that suffering is free from origination and destruction is knowledge of its cessation. What is knowledge of the path? Not drawing mistaken inferences⁷² concerning uniform *dharma* is knowledge of the path. (621) Even when he thus understands these four truths by means of wisdom, the bodhisattva does not realise them in order to develop sentient beings. This is skill in truth. ⁷³

^{70.} Quoting a passage from the *Msl* (p. 124.3-15), Vasubandhu cites ten kinds of ignoble paths. These are the paths of (1) beings that are set alight with desire for bliss and sense-pleasure, (2) beings that have fallen under the power of Māra, (3) beings that are afflicted by suffering, (4) beings that are enveloped by obstruction, (5) beings that follow a path leading to the evil destinies, (6) beings that are tied by great fetters, (7) beings that long for indulgence in food, (8) beings that lose their way, (9) beings that follow a wrong path and (10) beings that are of little strength. On the basis of his infinite compassion, the bodhisattva's does not forsake these wretched sentient beings but extends his sympathy to them (*Akn-ṭīkā*, p. 197.4.1-5.5).

^{71.} In the Akn, the corresponding passage is found on pages 53.4.4-54.2.8. Judging by the great attention Vasubandhu devotes to this section in the Akn-tīkā, he must have considered 'skill' in truth as central to the training in prajñā (pp. 197.5.6-203.4.8).

^{72.} sgro mi hdogs pa: adhyāropa (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 23, col. 2).

^{73.} Akn-tīkā, pp. 198.5.6–199.1.3:

[&]quot;To comprehend the own characteristic is wisdom, but to understand the general characteristic is pristine cognition. Here, however, the quoted wisdom is just wisdom and pristine cognition is to understand the notion of emptiness just as it is explained above; this is included (parigrhīta) in wisdom. For the sake of sentient beings [the bodhisattva] does not realise [wisdom and pristine cognition] but, according to the sūtra, ripens sentient beings. Although the bodhisattva understands the four noble truths, he does not realise nirvāṇa, but being totally at ease like the śrāvaka he ripens sentient beings with great compassion and numerous means for their benefit. This then is included in means. Knowledge of the four truths as expounded above is included in wisdom and means; this is the bodhisattva's 'skill' in truth."

Furthermore, skill in truth is threefold. These are the conventional truth, absolute truth and the truth of characteristic. Now, conventional truth is just worldly convention and is expressed by letters, language and symbols. This is the conventional truth. What then is the absolute truth? The mind itself does not wander, how much less letters? This is the absolute truth. What then is the truth of characteristic? That is to say, all characteristics are of one characteristic and one characteristic is also a non-characteristic. The bodhisattva does not tire of explaining the conventional truth. He does not lapse into realising absolute truth. He discerns the truth of the characteristic by way of the non-characteristic. This is the bodhisattva's skill in truth.

Furthermore, truth is one, not two. This is the truth of cessation. He does not draw mistaken inferences concerning the one truth, but establishes in truth sentient beings who have lapsed into mistaken inferences. This is the bodhisattva's skill in truth.

Furthermore, the five aggregates are suffering. (622) That the five aggregates bear the characteristic of suffering, this is the noble truth of suffering. Knowledge that the characteristic of suffering bears the characteristic of emptiness, this is the noble truth of suffering. That heretical views arising from thirst are the cause for the proclivity to the five aggregates, this is the noble truth of the origin of suffering. That heretical views are also the cause of thirst—without drawing mistaken inferences concerning them, holding on to them or asserting them—this is the noble truth of the origin of suffering. That due to complete exhaustion the five aggregates are in a state of cessation—that they have not arisen in the past, do not exist in the present and will not perish in the future—this is the noble truth of cessation. To attain, following persistence in the path, besides knowledge of suffering, its origin and cessation also consecutive knowledge⁷⁵ is the noble truth of the path that leads to the cessation of suffering. Reflection on knowledge of truth causes erroneously projecting sentient beings to discern it; this is skill in truth of bodhisattvas.

Furthermore, all feelings are suffering. Knowledge of feeling through discernment and understanding; this is the noble truth of suffering. The cause by which feeling is known as it is when it arises, the cause of its perception, this is the noble truth of suffering. Renouncing feeling and prompting [others] to experience non-feeling, investigating its cessation, but not realising the cessation of feeling, this is the noble truth of the bodhisattva's cessation of suffering. (623) The feeling by which one is attracted to the path is like a ferry; there is

^{74.} The structure of this sentence is unclear. I follow in my translation the interpretation given in the Akn- $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$ (p. 201.3.5–7).

^{75.} rjes las rtogs pa: anvayajñāna
According to the Kośa, 'consecutive knowledge' is a type of understanding that—being a non-propositional form of knowledge—arises in the practitioner after he has experienced and accepted the validity of the four noble truths in the three spheres of existence (Kośa, vi, p. 184). As a consequent knowledge bearing on the subject (grāhaka), it is one of the four factors that are brought in relation with each of the four truths (āryasatya). Arising in response to the gradual comprehension of each of these four truths, it represents three of the fifteen events making up the darśanamārga, while the appearance of consecutive knowledge in response to the experience of the last truth—the path—belongs already to the bhāvanāmārga.

neither a requirement for feeling nor is feeling a requirement of the path, this is the noble truth of the path that leads to the bodhisattva's cessation of suffering. After he has understood them in this way, realising that the four truths are uniform, his vision is never fully purified; this is the bodhisattva's skill in truth.

Furthermore, birth is suffering. Knowledge that arises from careful investigation in no-birth, this is knowledge of suffering. Birth arises through the condition of becoming. Knowledge that things existing perish is knowledge of its origin of suffering. Knowledge that everything born is unborn and that—there being absolutely no cessation in the unborn—it is unceasing, this is knowledge of its cessation and exhaustion. This kind of considering, evaluating, pursuing, discriminating and penetrating knowledge is knowledge of the path. Although he is placed in this knowledge of truth, [the bodhisattva] does not persist in this knowledge of truth; this is the bodhisattva's skill in truth.

It is in this manner that the bodhisattva who is skilled in truth courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.5 Skill in Unique Knowledge

Next, what is the bodhisattva's skill in unique knowledge?⁷⁷ The unique knowledge of the bodhisattva is fourfold. (624) What are the four? These are the unique knowledge of the own-being of things, the unique knowledge of designations, the unique knowledge of languages and the unique knowledge of eloquence.

2.5.1 Skill in the Unique Knowledge of the Own-being of Things

What is the unique knowledge of the own-being of things?⁷⁸ It is knowledge that the

^{76.} The Akn-tīkā (p. 203.2.3-4.3), quoting the Msl (p. 58.8-13), distinguishes eleven types of penetration. These are (1) sudden, adventitious penetration (āgantukatvaprativedhata), (2) penetration into the aspects of reckoning (saṃkhyānanimittaprativedhata), (3) penetration into the inconceivability of objects (arthānupalambhaprativedhata), (4) penetration into the inconceivability of reality (upalambhānupalambhaprativedhata), (5) penetration into the sphere of the Dharma (dharmadhātuprativedhata), (6) penetration into the insubstantiality of dharma (dharmnairātmyaprativedhata), (8) penetration into inferior intent (hīnāšayaprativedhata), (9) penetration into the most exalted intent (udāramahātmyāšayaprativedhata), (10) penetration into differentiation according to the accomplished Dharma (yathādhigamadharmavyavasthānaprativedhata); and (11) penetration into dharma arrangement (vyavasthāpitadharmaprativedhata).

^{77.} Vasubandhu's annotation of the corresponding passage in the Akn is found on pp. 240.2.7–244.5.4. In the Akn (and thus also in the Akn- $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$) the bodhisattva's unique knowledge (pratisamvid) is not being dealt with in the section on 'skill', but figures as an independent aksaya.

^{78.} The term artha carries several meanings, with 'purport', 'aim' and 'meaning' being probably the most frequent ones. In the present context, however, none of these renderings seems appropriate. As Lamotte has shown, the most accurate translation of the term artha here is 'thing' or 'object', referring to the 'own-being' (svalakṣaṇa) or 'chose désignée' (bhāṣitārtha) of the item in question (Mppś, pp. 1614, 1616, n. 1). This interpretation is supported by the Akn-ṭīkā (p. 240.3.3-4), stating that "in order to instruct in knowledge of the characteristic (lakṣaṇa), it is asked what is the unique knowledge of the own-being of things?" For further evidence of this position, see: Bbh, p. 258.8-10, Msl, pp. 138.21-139.1, Āloka, p. 455. 25 ff; Kośa, vii, pp. 89-94; Abhidh-d, pp. 393.1-94.1; and for the nikāya: A I, p. 24; II, p. 160; III, pp. 113, 120. For references to the pratisaṃvid in the āgama and Chinese translations of Sarvāstivāda Abhidharma

teachings of the Buddha are statements of absolute truth⁷⁹. It is knowledge of the causes, conditions and circumstances of non-duality. It is knowledge of the infinitude of interconnections. It is knowledge of the basis of spiritual fruition. It is knowledge of the pure sphere of the Dharma. It is knowledge in conformity with thusness. It is knowledge of the unclassifiability⁸⁰ of *nirvāna*.

It is knowledge arising from⁸¹ the realisation of emptiness. It is knowledge arising from the understanding of signlessness. It is knowledge that wishlessness is wishlessness. It is knowledge that the non-accumulation of karmic formations is a non-accumulation of karmic formations. It is knowledge penetrating sameness.⁸²

It is knowledge penetrating the non-existence of the living being and self. It is secure knowledge that the life-force comes to an end and that the non-existence of the person is the absolute truth. It is knowledge that the past is determined, that the future is without limit and that the present is everywhere. It is knowledge that the aggregates are an illusion, that the elements resemble venomous serpents and that the sensefields are defined as emptiness.⁸³ (625)

It is knowledge that diseases abate, that there is no agitation in the beyond and that there is no substance⁸⁴ to objects. It is knowledge that mindfulness is the basis of spiritual fruition. It is knowledge that comprehension is absorption, that understanding is realisation and that truth is awakening. It is knowledge that suffering is non-existent, that its origin is a non-accumulation of karmic formations, that its cessation is signless and that the path is salvation.

It is knowledge that the Doctrine consists of versatile statements. It is knowledge that the faculties penetrate and that the powers are invincible. It is knowledge that perfect mental quietude is the basis of spiritual fruition and that insight is true vision. It is knowledge that illusions are fabricated, that mirages are deceptive and that dreams are untrue vision. It is knowledge that echoes occur only in certain circumstances and that miraculous appearances are subject to change.

It is knowledge that diversity of characteristic is one-characteristic, that unity is separation.

works, see: Amrt (B), p. 214.

In the Tibetan, the following specification of the nature and scope of the bodhisattva's unique knowledge of things assumes the form of a long enumeration. In order to achieve a better English reading, I have treated each of the fifty-one items of that specification as an individual clause.

^{79.} Here, the *Bdp* agrees with the *Mppś* which gives also the absolute truth (*paramārtha*) as the object of the *arthapratisaṃvid* (*Mppś*, iii, p. 1616). Other texts, however, most notably the *Kośa*, *Vibh* and *Nyāyānusāra*, give *artha* as its object while, for the *Aloka*, it is *dharmalakṣaṇa* (*Mppś*, iii, p. 1616, n. 3).

^{80.} mi gnas pa: aniśrita (cf. Edgerton, p. 25, col. 2).

^{81.} rjes su rtogs pa šes pa: anvayajñāna (Mvy 1224, 1228, 1232, 1236).

^{82.} tsul gcig: ekarūpa

Akn-ţīkā, pp. 240.5.8-241.1.1:

[&]quot;That is, [the bodhisattva] realises that the characteristics of all *dharma* are of one characteristics, that their nature is of one characteristic."

^{83.} nes pa rtog pa: nirūpanā (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 554, col. 1).

^{84.} yul med pa: avisaya (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 110, col. 2).

It is knowledge that purification does not lead to future rebirth⁸⁵. When concerned with the Śrāvakayāna, it is knowledge understanding in conformity with statements. When concerned with the Pratyekabuddhayāna, it is knowledge understanding causal dependence and unsurpassed knowledge of solitude. When concerned with the Mahāyāna, it is knowledge of all kinds of accumulation of roots of virtue. This is the bodhisattva's unique knowledge of the own-being of things. (626)

Furthermore, as regards the unique knowledge of the own-being of things; it is to rely on the spirit conforming to reliance on the spirit of every *dharma*-foundation of all *dharma*. Why? All *dharma* being without exception empty, emptiness is the own-being concerned. All *dharma* being without exception signless, signlessness is the own-being concerned. All *dharma* being without exception wishless, wishlessness is the own-being concerned. All *dharma* being without exception non-manifest⁸⁶, non-manifestation is the own-being concerned. All *dharma* being without exception devoid of a living being, a life-force or a person, personlessness is the own-being concerned.⁸⁷

Such understanding of *dharma* is the unique knowledge of the own-being of things. The teaching of the own-being of things is an unestablished and inexhaustible teaching. This unique knowledge is a teaching of the awakened truth⁸⁸. It is conferred by the lord buddhas and gives lasting pleasure. It is genuine, authentic and factual; it is well-realised⁸⁹ through wisdom and altogether beyond reproach. This is the bodhisattva's unique knowledge of the own-being of things.

2.5.2 Skill in the Unique Knowledge of Designations

Next, what is the unique knowledge of designations?⁹⁰ It is knowledge penetrating dharma

^{85.} mtshams sbyor ba med pa: apratisamdhi (cf. Edgerton, p. 372, col. 1).

^{86.} rnam par pve ba: vicita (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 959, col. 1).

^{87.} According to the *Mppś*, reliance on *dharmatā* as opposed to *pudgala* and the resultant recognition of the own-being of *dharma* pertains to the sphere of the *dharmapratisamvid* (*Mppś*, iii, p. 1621).

^{88.} rtogs pahi don: adhigamartha (cf. Edgerton, p. 12, col. 2).

^{89.} śin tu rtogs pa: supratividdha (cf. Edgerton, p. 600, col. 1).

^{90.} In my translation of the term dharmapratisamvid I follow once again Lamotte (Mpps, iii, pp. 1614, 1617, n. 1), who cites several passages that liken it to 'knowledge of instruction' (deśanā) (Vibhanga), 'knowledge of enunciation' (paryāya) (Āloka) or 'knowledge of names' (nāman) (Nyāyānusāra). The dharmapratisamvid is hence primarily a knowledge that assists the bodhisattva to understand the designations (bhāṣitārtha), names (nāman), phrases (pada) or syllables (vyañjana) that are employed to designate any kind of object. In practice, however, the scope of the dharmapratisamvid is much more limited. That is to say, it is only concerned with the word of the Buddha (Vibh, p. 294.22-24). In the words of the Abhidh-d (p. 393.5-6):

[&]quot;The *pratisamvid* is the indestructible knowledge concerning the categories of names, etc., that are contained in the twelve branches [of the Dharma]. It relates to matters of expression and pertains to discussion."

In the Bbh (p. 258.4–8) no such detail is found as the *dharmapratisamvid* is only taken to address, rather generally, the characteristics of *dharma* (*dharmalakṣaṇa*). The text is similarly unhelpful with regard to the objects of the other *pratisamvid* (p. 258.8–24).

According to the Akn-tīkā (p. 242.3.5-8; cf. Akn, pp. 62.5.4-63.2.4), the difference between artha and dharma is one of voice:

[&]quot;While it is true that between artha and dharma there is no difference, artha should be

that pertain to virtue and non-virtue, reproach and approval, impurity and purity, (627) worldliness and supra-worldliness, conditioning and non-conditioning, contamination and the fortune of purification⁹¹, saṃsāra and nirvāṇa. It is knowledge of the sameness of the sphere of the Dharma, knowledge of the sameness of enlightenment and knowledge of the sameness of the elements. This is [the bodhisattva's] unique knowledge of designations.

Furthermore, as regards the unique knowledge of designations;⁹² it is knowledge of the thoughts of those who act with desire, fictitious desire, severe desire, slight desire, unarisen desire, constant and infinite desire as well as with presently conditioned desire.

It is knowledge of sentient beings who act with desire. That is to say, it is knowledge of those who, while being externally free from desire crave internally; of those who, while being internally free from desire crave externally; of those who are internally as well as externally free from desire; of those who crave internally and externally; of those who, while being free from desire for sound crave for form; of those who, while being free from desire for form crave for sound; (628) of those who crave for both form and sound; of those who do not crave for either sound or form; of those who, while craving for form are free from desire for scent; of those who, while craving for scent are free from desire for touch; of those who, while craving for flavour and of those who, while craving for flavour are free from desire for form or scent.

By means of this acumen, there being twenty-one thousand modes of desire, twenty-one thousand modes of hatred, twenty-one thousand modes of delusion and twenty-one thousand modes of conduct that partake uniformly in desire, hatred and delusion⁹³, it is knowledge of the thoughts of eighty-four thousand modes of conduct.⁹⁴

It is knowledge of appropriate instructions and knowledge of instructions that are neither too long nor too short. It is knowledge of sentient beings who transcend desire and knowledge of those who are superior receptacles. It is knowledge of instructions that are efficacious. This is the unique knowledge of designations.

perceived as the object that should be instructed in and understood, but *dharma* should be perceived as the agent that instructs and prompts understanding. Again, *dharma* are conditioned and unconditioned things, etc., that are cited by name, while *artha* is the meaning of them that should be discerned and examined. Again, knowledge of *artha* is accurate cognition (*aviparītādhigāma*) of the characteristics of all *dharma* while knowledge of *dharma* is knowledge of the names of these *dharma*."

^{91.} rnam par byan bahi cha dan hthun pa: vyavadānabhāgin (cf. Edgerton, p. 515, col. 2).
92. See, M I, p. 59 and Mppś, iii, p. 1199 for parallel passages. Cf. Akn-tīkā, p. 213.1.5–2.3.

^{93.} In the fourth item, 'partaking in the three uniformly', our text deviates from elsewhere well-established patterns. Most texts, like the Kośa (i, p. 47; ii, p. 297), cite 'pride' (lobhā) as the fourth member of the root-defilements of rāga, moha and dveṣa.

^{94.} The notion that the dharma-aggregate of the Buddha consists of 84. 000 units covering the mental conduct of all beings is, of course, an ancient one. It is found, for instance, in the Saddhp (p. 254.11), Kośa (i, pp. 46-47), Rgv (p. 232) and is cited in the Msg (p. 229). The division into the 21 000 varieties of desire, hatred, delusion and pride is less frequent as it is only found in the Kośa (i, p. 47). Note that according to the Mppś (iii, p. 1623) knowledge of the dispositions of sentient beings falls within the scope of the pratibhānapratisamvid—not the dharmapratisamvid.

2.5.3 Skill in the Unique Knowledge of Languages

Next, what is the unique knowledge of languages?⁹⁵ Penetrating all languages non-verbally, he explains the Doctrine to people by way of the language of gods, nāga, yakṣa, gandharva, mahoraga, southern mahoraga, kinnara and ancestors as well as by way of sounds and melodies. This is the unique knowledge of languages. (629)

It is in this way that he should discern, acquire and retain the practices. It is in this way that he should model his practice to the letter.

The bodhisattva knows the appellation of words that are in the singular, dual or plural. He knows words that are of feminine, masculine or neuter gender. He knows contracted and expanded words. He knows abusive and laudatory words. He knows words of the past, present and future. He knows how to infer by means of one letter. He knows how to infer by means of many letters. This is the unique knowledge of languages.

Again, as regards the unique knowledge of languages; it is free of error, neither repetitive nor hasty. He is well-acquainted⁹⁶ with texts that clarify the meaning of practices. By all means, this knowledge is of insightful cognition, profound, versatile and prompts delight in saṃsāra. It is embellished with conventional and absolute truth. It is subject to self-induced cognition. It is conferred by the Buddha and gives pleasure to all sentient beings. This is the bodhisattva's unique knowledge of languages.

2.5.4 Skill in the Unique Knowledge of Eloquence

Next, what is the bodhisattva's unique knowledge of eloquence?⁹⁷ It is articulate speech that teaches instructions free-speakingly. It is speech that is fluent, (630) eloquent, spirited and dynamic. It is impeccable and non-evasive. It is completely flawless, non-contradictory,

"In order to instruct in knowledge of language conventions (*vyavahārajñā*), it is asked what is the unique knowledge of languages?"

For further evidence of this interpretation see: Bbh (p. 258.11-13) and Msl (p. 139.1).

96. yons su byan ba: paricita (Mvy 2412).

97. Akn-tīkā, p. 243.5.4-5; cf. Akn, p. 63.3.5-4.8:

"In order to instruct in knowledge of expression ($abhil\bar{a}paj\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$), it is asked what is the unique knowledge of eloquence?"

Once again, this interpretation is also attested in the Bbh (p. 258.14–17) and Msl (p. 139.1–2). The reasons for the bodhisattva's eloquence are explained in the Sgs (p. 188):

"Pourquoi le bodhisattva est-il doué d'éloquence (pratibhānasampanna)? Le devaputra – Le bodhisattva parle sans utiliser la notion du soi (ātmasamjñā), sans utiliser la notion d'autrui (parasamjñā) et sans utiliser la notion de dharma: il est donc 'doué d'éloquence'. Lorsqu'il prêche la Loi, les phonèmes (akṣara) sont inépuisables (akṣaya), et les dharma aussi sont inépuisables. Parlant ainsi, il ne parle pas de dualité (dvaya): il est donc 'doué d'éloquence'. Kulaputra, si le bodhisattva ne rejette pas le caractère de magie (māyālakṣaṇa) inhérent aux dharma et ne rejette pas le caractère d'écho (pratiŝrutkālakṣaṇa) inhérent aux sons (svara), il est 'doué d'éloquence'."

^{95.} For the Mahāyāna, the object of the *niruktipratisaṃvid* is primarily knowledge of languages. This departure from the early conceptions according to which it covers chiefly grammar (*Kośabhāṣya*, p. 419.17–18) mirrors a revised understanding of the training requirements that sprang from the bodhisattva's pledge to universal liberation (*Akn-ṭīkā*, p. 243.3.3–4; cf. *Akn*, p. 63.2.4–3.5):

non-contentious and preoccupied with the Doctrine. It is patient, profound and versatile. It is eloquent in conventional and absolute truth. It is eloquent attending to all forms of giving, morality, patience, vigour, meditation and wisdom. It is eloquent in mindfulness, right efforts, bases of success, faculties, powers, factors of enlightenment, path, perfect mental quietude and insight. It is eloquent in that it knows all entrances into contemplation, liberation, meditation, attainment and truth. It is eloquent in all vehicles as well as in the mental activity of all sentient beings.

It is eloquent in that it is of resourceful, congenial and orderly speech. It consists of subtle, smooth, taintless, emancipated, nonpartisan, honourable, articulate, fitting, impeccable, renown, sympathetic and laudatory speech. It is speech that is praised by all noble ones. Its sound reverberates with knowledge of infinite buddha-fields. (631) Its pure sound resembles melodies. It is the one sound that induces awakening. By means of this buddha-bestowed eloquent, [the bodhisattva] teaches the Doctrine to humans and other living beings. Also this liberating Dharma-discourse of his brings to a halt suffering in those who practice it. This is the bodhisattva's unique knowledge of eloquence. This is bodhisattva's skill in eloquence.

It is in this manner that the bodhisattva who is skilled in eloquence courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.6 Skill in Reliance

Next, what is the bodhisattva's skill in reliance?⁹⁹ The reliances of bodhisattvas are four. What are the four? They rely on the spirit rather than on the letter. They rely on direct

^{98.} This is the only instance in the *Bdp* where the *bodhipākṣika dharma* are listed in their entirety. All other references to their categories, including their detailed discussion as one of the bodhisattva's skills under 2.7.2 and 2.8–10, fail to mention the 'four bases of success' (*rddhipāda*).

^{99.} For a commentary on the terms and concepts that are involved in this section, see: Akn-ţīkā (1) spirit/letter. pp. 244.5.8–246.3.8, (2) direct knowledge/discursive insight: pp. 246.3.8–247.2.5, (3) sūtras of precise/provisional meaning: p. 247.2.6–5.3 and (4) foundation of being/person: pp. 247.5.6–248.4.7.

The translations of the Sanskrit terms included in this category has not been agreed upon. Compare, for instance, those of Wayman (1974, p. 103), viz., 'meaning/letter', 'doctrines/personalities', 'knowledge/perception' and 'final meaning/provisional meaning' with those of La Vallée Poussin (Kośa, ii, p. 246). In my translation, I was guided by the terminology that is employed by Lamotte in his article: "La critique d'interpretation dans le bouddhisme' (Annuaire de l'Institut de Philologie et Histoire Orientales et Slaves, 9, 1949).

The concept of the four reliances is no doubt an ancient one. It is already found in several of the early suttas. For brief, often archaic statements on individual aspects of the four pratisaraņa, see for instance: D III, pp. 127–129; M I, p. 265; II, p. 240; A I, p. 60; Mahāvagga I, p. 23. 4; Nett, p. 21. Other early commentarial references to the pratisaraṇa are found in the Dīpavaṃsa (ed. Oldenburg, p. 36), in the introduction to the commentary on the Kathāvatthu (JPTS, 1889, p. 3), Vism (pp. 473, 499) and Atthasālinī (p. 91; ref. La Vallée Poussin).

In many of these early works comparatively little importance is being attached to their attributes. Their rise to one of the major sets of practices in the spiritual training of the religious seems to have taken place in the later scholastic or analytic period of Buddhist thought. In particular, Asanga has made major contributions to the process of defining the exact scope and application of the *pratisarana*. In both the *Msl* (p. 138.1–14) and *Bbh* (pp. 256.23–58.3), for instance, we have detailed passages where their significance is analysed with considerable scholastic exactitude. I have incorporated this material into my discussion of the *pratisarana* in chapter four.

knowledge rather than on discursive insight. They rely on $s\bar{u}tras$ of precise meaning rather than on $s\bar{u}tras$ of provisional meaning. They rely on the foundation of being rather than on persons.

2.6.1 Skill in Reliance on the Spirit and not on the Letter

What is the spirit? What is the letter? The letter penetrates the activity of mundane *dharma*. The spirit realises supramundane *dharma*. The letter instructs in generosity, benignity, discipline and bravery. The spirit perceives benignity, tranquillity, non-arising and non-decaying. (632) The letter proclaims the teachings¹⁰⁰ of *saṃsāra*. The spirit relies on inconceivability. The letter proclaims the qualities of *nirvāṇa*. The spirit does not discriminate *dharma* that by their nature are in *nirvāṇa*¹⁰¹. The letter preaches according to the differentiation of the vehicles. The spirit is knowledge that arises from realising *dharma*-sameness. The letter instructs not to abandon any sentient being. The spirit purifies the three spheres of giving ¹⁰². ¹⁰³

The letter—disciplining body, speech and mind—instructs in achieving all attainments of learning and purity. The spirit—not apprehending body, speech and mind—purifies the non-accumulation of karmic formations. The letter, suppressing malice, anger, pride and self-conceit instructs in patience and bravery. The spirit achieves the conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*. The letter instructs in vigour concerning all roots of virtue¹⁰⁴. The spirit is vigour independent of apprehension or renunciation. The letter instructs in contemplation, liberation, meditation and attainment. The spirit is knowledge of entering the attainment of cessation.¹⁰⁵ (633)

The letter, being the receptacle of all that has been heard, is the root of wisdom. The spirit is the ineffable meaning. The letter instructs in the practice of the thirty-seven bodhipākṣika dharma.¹⁰⁶ The spirit realises the fruit of the practice¹⁰⁷ of the thirty-seven bodhipākṣika

^{100.} Cf. Pelliot, 977, 1a.3 which has rgyus meaning 'knowledge', 'intelligence'; 'history', 'tale' instead of yons su bśad pa.

^{101.} ran bzin gyis yons su mya nan las hdas pa: prakrtiparinirvyta (cf. Edgerton, p. 356, col. 2).

^{102.} hkhor gsum: trimandalapariśuddha (Mvy 2537; cf. Edgerton, p. 258, col. 1).

^{103.} Pelliot, 977, 1a.2-4:

[&]quot;The spirit penetrates the meaning of the supramundane. The letter penetrates the activity of mundane *dharma*. The spirit perceives benignity, tranquillity, non-arising and non-decaying. The letter preaches generosity, benignity, diligence and great joy. Furthermore, the letter is proclaimed through causes of *saṃsāra*. The spirit looks at the inconceivable. The letter proclaims praise of the qualities of *nirvāṇa*. The spirit does not discriminate *dharma* that by nature are in *nirvāṇa*."

^{104.} I follow here the Pelliot reading.

^{105.} Pelliot, 977, folio 1a.5-1b.1:

[&]quot;The letter—disciplining body, speech and mind—instructs in achieving all attainments of learning and purity. The spirit—when seeing body, speech and mind—purifies the accumulation of karmic formations. Furthermore, the letter heals the defilement of malice, anger, pride and self-conceit and instructs in patience and joy. The spirit achieves the conviction of the non-arising of *dharma*. Furthermore, the letter instructs in vigour concerning all roots of virtue. The spirit is free from discrimination and discernment. It is vigour that is independent."

^{106.} Pelliot, 977, 1b.2-3;

[&]quot;The letter generates the practice of the thirty-seven bodhipākṣika dharma."

dharma. The letter instructs in suffering, its origin and the path. The spirit realises its cessation. The letter instructs in ignorance, etc., up to old-age-and-death. The spirit realises the cessation of ignorance, etc., up to the cessation of old-age-and-death. The letter instructs in the accumulation of perfect mental quietude and insight. The spirit realises knowledge and deliverance.

The letter explains the Doctrine to those who act with desire, hatred or delusion or who partake uniformly in all three. The spirit is the unperturbed liberation of the mind. The letter points to all *dharma* that cause obstruction. The spirit is the unobstructed pristine cognition and liberation. The letter displays the incalculable, excellent qualities of the three jewels. The spirit accomplishes the imperturbable state of being and the unconditioned qualities of the *Sangha*. 108 (634)

The letter instructs in learning and attainments that are accomplished by the bodhisattva, starting with the first production of the thought of enlightenment, the point of departure, up to the seat of enlightenment. The spirit is perfect enlightenment arising from pristine cognition of all-knowing since is endowed with a single moment of thought. In brief, that which instructs in up to eighty-four thousand *dharma*-aggregates is the letter. The ineffable meaning of all sounds, letters and syllables is the spirit. The ineffable meaning of all sounds, letters and syllables is the spirit.

^{107.} nan tan du byed pa: pratipatti (cf. Edgerton, p. 364, col. 2).

^{108.} Pelliot, 977, 1.b3-4:

[&]quot;Furthermore, the letter explains the Doctrine to those who partake uniformly in desire, hatred or delusion. The spirit is the unperturbed liberation. Furthermore, the letter points to all obstructing *dharma*. The spirit is the unobstructed pristine cognition and liberation. Furthermore, the letter analyses the colour of the qualities of the three jewels."

^{109.} byan chub kyi sñin po: bodhimanda

The Tibetan rendering of the term bodhimanda is explained in the $\bar{A}loka$ (p. 206.7):

[&]quot;The bodhimanda, used as a seat, is a spot so named because the manda, that is the quintessence of bodhi, is present there."

There exist two types of interpretation of the concept of bodhimanda. First, when understood as a seat, it refers to the seat underneath the Bodhi-tree under which all buddhas are held to attain enlightenment (Saddhp, p. 316.3-4). As a physical entity, the seat of enlightenment became soon subject to a cult. Already during Mauryan times, the tree of enlightenment received royal attention and became a sanctuary that was enclosed by brick walls and regularly worshipped (Bloch, Inscriptions d'Aśoka, p. 112, Divya, p. 404.2). By the seventh century the cult of the bodhimanda had progressed to assume cosmic dimensions. Hsüan-tsang (Beal, 1981, ii, pp. 115-6) saw in the enclosure surrounding the Bodhi-tree a 'diamond seat' (vajrāsana') of which he was told that it would appear at the beginning of a Bhadrakalpa and stood, immovably, at the exact centre of the trichiliomegachiliocosm. Second, as a spiritual concept, the term bodhimanda stands for the presence of the Dharma as it is preserved in the sūtras or as it is embodied by the dharmakāya of all buddhas. As such it is non-spatial and may be found in any location where the presence of the Dharma is manifest. To this effect, we read in the Saddhp (p. 391.6-13, trsl. Kern):

[&]quot;And wherever on earth, son of good family, this Dharma-enunciation shall be made known, read, written, meditated, expounded, studied or collected into a volume, be it in a monastery or at home ... in that place one should erect a $st\bar{u}pa$ in dedication to the Tathāgata; for such a spot must be regarded as a bodhimanda."

The same thought is also expressed in the *Vkn* (p. 99, trsl. Lamotte) when Vimalakīrti announces that all bodhisattvas "whether they go somewhere or return from it, whether they advance or stop ... come always from the seat of enlightenment." For these and further references to the development of the concept of bodhimanda, see: Lamotte, 1976, p. 94, n. 105.

^{110.} Pelliot, 977, 1b.6-7:

[&]quot;The spirit is perfect enlightenment arising from pristine cognition of all-knowing composed

Next, what are *sūtras* whose meaning is provisional? Texts that propound the letter should be absorbed meticulously just as they are preached. These are *sūtras* of provisional meaning.

What are *sūtras* whose meaning is precise? Texts that propound the spirit should be absorbed meticulously just as they are preached. These are *sūtras* of precise meaning.¹¹¹

Why does one rely on the foundation of being rather than on persons? Since the provisional meaning is that of persons, one does not rely on these. Rather, since the precise meaning corresponds to the foundation of being, one relies on it.

These are the bodhisattva's four reliances. 112 It is in this manner that the bodhisattva, mahāsattva who is skilled in reliance courses in the Perfection of Wisdom. 113

Next, what is the bodhisattva's skill in the letter?¹¹⁴ (635) Concerning this, the bodhisattva who is skilled in two *dharma* courses in the Perfection of Wisdom. What are the two

111. Pelliot, 977, folio 1b.7-2a.1:

113. Pelliot, 977, 2a.1–2a.2:

- 114. The sequence in which the material is presented is quite evidently out of order. This irregularity appears in all blockprint editions consulted by me, that is, the sDe-dge, sNar-than, Peking and sTog-Palace bKah-hgyur and, to a lesser extent, also in the Pelliot manuscript. Although it is true that one cannot speak of a universal agreement as to the sequence in which the four pairs of pratisarana should be cited (compare, for instance, the sequence proposed in Mvy 1545-49 and Kośa, ii, pp. 246-8), the actual order in which the pairs are discussed corresponds invariably to that put forward in the respective subject listings. To my knowledge, the Bdp is the only text in which this is not the case. What is more, in the Bdp the pairs nīthārtha/neyārtha and dharmatā/pudgala are dealt with twice. The sequence runs as follows:
 - 1. Artha/vyañjana (R, folio 631.6-634.4; Pelliot: 1a.2-2a.7)
 - 2. Nīthārtha/neyārtha (R, folio 634.4-5; Pelliot: 2a.7-2b.1)
 - 3. Dharmatā/pudgala (R, folio 634.5-6; Pelliot: 2b.1-2b.2)

Interpolation

- Stockphrase: 'It is in this manner that' This phrase concludes elsewhere major sections in the Bdp.
- Re-introduction of the theme, linking the discussion of jñāna/vijñāna to 'skill' in the letter. This connects not only the discussion of the pair jñāna/vijñāna to the previously interrupted exposition, but leads also to the sequence found in the subject heading (R, folio 631.3-6, viz., artha/vyañjana; jñāna/vijñāna; nīthārtha/nevārtha; dharmatā/pudgala)
- Coursing in the Perfection of Wisdom is acted out by 'skill' in two *dharma*, that is, *jñāna* and *vijñāna*. End of Interpolation
 - 4. Jñāna/vijñāna (R, folio 634.7-636.5; Pelliot: 2b.2-3a.1)
 - 5. Nīthārtha/neyārtha (R, folio 636.6-638.1; Pelliot: 3a.2-3b.1)
 - 6. Dharmatā/pudgala (R, folio 638.1-639.4; Pelliot: 3b.1-3b.7)

of a single moment of thought. In brief, that which preaches all eighty-four thousand dharma-aggregates is the letter. That which is truly ineffable through any sound or letter is the spirit."

[&]quot;Next, what are *sūtras* whose meaning is provisional? Sayings that should be absorbed meticulously just as they are preached, these are *sūtras* of provisional meaning. What are *sūtras* whose meaning is precise? Sayings should be understood in detail just as they are preached, these are *sūtras* of precise meaning."

¹¹² This is evidently not the case, as the pair jñāna/vijñāna has not yet been treated. For a discussion of this incongruity, see note 114. In the Akn, this confusion has been redressed.

[&]quot;How does one rely on the foundation of being rather than on persons? That which is the provisional meaning is the meaning of the person. Through that there is no liberation. That which is the precise meaning corresponds to the foundation of being. Through that there is liberation."

The whole interpolation is absent in the Pelliot manuscript. Here, the discussion of the pair $dharmat\bar{a}/pudgala$ is immediately followed by an exposition of $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na/vij\bar{n}\bar{a}na$.

dharma? He is skilled in discursive insight and direct knowledge. 115

2.6.2 Reliance on Direct Knowledge and not on Discursive Insight

What is discursive insight? What is direct knowledge? As regards discursive insight; there are four abodes of discursive insight. What are the four? Matter in which discursive insight rests and is firmly rooted is its abode. Feeling, perception and karmic formations in which discursive insight rests and is firmly rooted are its abodes. This is discursive insight.

What is direct knowledge? Cognition that persists in the five appropriating aggregates and knows the aggregate of consciousness, this is direct knowledge. 116 Perception of the element of earth, fire, water or wind is discursive insight. Cognition that does not attend to the four elements, but perceives the pure sphere of the Dharma, this is direct knowledge.

Furthermore, as regards discursive insight; perception of form, sound, scent, flavour, touch or mental objects through the respective consciousness is discursive insight. Tranquillity in internal sensefields, imperturbability in external sensefields and non-apprehension¹¹⁷ of any dharma whatsoever by relying on direct knowledge, this is direct knowledge.¹¹⁸

Furthermore, as regards discursive insight; knowledge that is born from false mental constructions and imagination is discursive insight. Imperturbability and refrain from grasping, asserting, construing and discerning, this is direct knowledge.

Furthermore, discursive insight persists in the sphere of conditioned *dharma* but does not wander in the unconditioned. Perception of the unconditioned, this is direct knowledge.

Furthermore, discursive insight attends to the notions of birth and decay. Independence of the unborn and unceasing, this is direct knowledge.¹¹⁹

2.6.3 Reliance on Sūtras of Precise and not on Sūtras of Provisional Meaning Next, what are the sūtras whose meaning is precise? What are the sūtras whose meaning is

^{115.} This paragraph is missing in the Pelliot manuscript.

In the Akn-ţīkā, this subcategory is explained on pages 246.3.7–247.2.5. For a discussion of the terms vijñāna/jñāna, see: Wayman, 1980, p. 251–267.

^{116.} Pelliot, 977, folio 2a.3-4:

[&]quot;What is direct knowledge? Cognition that does not persist in the five appropriating aggregates and knows the aggregate of pristine cognition, this is direct knowledge."

^{117.} gżog par mi byed pa: samnidhāpayate (cf. Edgerton, p. 58, col. 2).

^{118.} Pelliot, 977, folio 2a.5-6:

[&]quot;Furthermore, as regards discursive insight; [absorption of external objects through consciousness], starting with absorption of form through the eye and ending with absorption of mental objects through mentation, this is discursive insight. Tranquillity concerning internal sensefields, inactivity concerning external sensefields and non-apprehension of any *dharma* whatsoever for the sake of proceeding to pristine cognition, this is direct knowledge."

^{119.} Pelliot, 977, folio 2a.7-2b.1:

[&]quot;Furthermore, discursive insight penetrates conditioned *dharma*. Discursive insight does not participate in the unconditioned. Knowledge through the unconditioned, this is direct knowledge. Furthermore, discursive insight attends to the notions of birth and origination. Non-attending to the unborn and unceasing, this is direct knowledge."

provisional? $S\bar{u}tras$ that introduce to the path are of provisional meaning. $S\bar{u}tras$ that introduce to its fruit are of precise meaning. $S\bar{u}tras$ that cause to accomplish the conventional truth are of provisional meaning. $S\bar{u}tras$ that preach the absolute truth are of precise meaning. 121

Furthermore, *sūtras* that introduce to action and duties are of provisional meaning.¹²² (637) *Sūtras* that are taught in order to bring action and impurity to a final halt are of precise meaning.

Furthermore, sūtras that are taught in order to explain impurity are of provisional meaning. Sūtras that are taught for the sake of complete purification are of precise meaning. Sūtras that cause weariness with saṃsāra are of provisional meaning. Sūtras that do not partake in the duality of saṃsāra and nirvāṇa are of precise meaning. Sūtras that are taught with manifold words and letters are of provisional meaning. Sūtras that are profound, hard to fathom and difficult to understand are of precise meaning. Sūtras that delight the hearts of sentient beings with many words are of provisional meaning. Sūtras that cause sentient beings to gain confidence with few syllables and words are of precise meaning. 123

Furthermore, *sūtras* that proclaim with various words a self, a living being, a life-force, a person, a man, a human being, an individual or a being that arises and feels saying that there is an owner when there is no such owner¹²⁴ are of provisional meaning. *Sūtras* that instruct in

^{120.} This section contains a good example of the doctrinal advance of the Akn over the Bdp. Preserved in the Sanskrit of the Madh. vrtti (p. 43.4-6), the Akn reads:

[&]quot;Sūtras that have been expounded in order to teach the path of penetration (mārgāvatāra) are of provisional meaning. Sūtras that have been expounded in order to teach the fruit of penetration (phalāvatāra) are of precise meaning."

It continues:

[&]quot;All sūtras that instruct in emptiness, signlessness, wishlessness, non-accumulation (anabhisaṃskāra), non-birth (ajāta), non-origination (anutpāda), non-becoming (abhava), non-self, the absence of life-force, person and a master (svāmin), such texts are of precise meaning" (Madh. vṛtti, p. 43.6-9).

A corresponding section is found in the *Bdp* at 637.5–638.1.

^{121.} Pelliot (977, folio 2b.1-3) has:

[&]quot;Sūtras that preach the conventional truth are of provisional meaning. Sūtras that preach the absolute truth are of precise meaning."

According to the *Mppś* (ii, p. 539), *sūtras* are of provisional meaning if they contain the following sayings: "Among all omniscient, the Buddha is the foremost; among all texts, the *sūtras* are the foremost; among all beings, monks are the foremost."

These Lamotte identifies as the three agraprajñapti proclaiming the superiority of the triratna (A II, p. 34; III, p. 35; Itv, p. 87). In addition, nītārtha sūtras explain that "one acquires great merit through generosity, that morality allows for rebirth among the gods". Neyārtha sūtras, in contrast, are held to teach that a master of the Doctrine (dharmācārya) gains the following five advantages (anuśaṃsā): (1) great merit, (2) affection from human beings, (3) beauty, (4) renown and (5) eventual arrival at nirvāṇa. These, of course, are exactly the benefits that are said elsewhere (A III, p. 41) to accrue to persons who engage in generosity. Pelliot, 977, folio 2b.3-3:

[&]quot;Furthermore, sūtras that introduce to action are of provisional meaning."

^{123.} Pelliot, 977, folio 2b.3-6:

[&]quot;Furthermore, sūtras that are taught in order to cleanse impurity are of provisional meaning. ... Furthermore, sūtras that delight the minds of sentient beings with many classifications are of provisional meaning. Those which are straightforward for the mind in [showing] few classifications and words are of precise meaning."

^{124.} bdag po med pa bdag po yod pa: asvāmikasvāmika (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 124, col. 1).

emptiness, signlessness and wishlessness, in non-birth, non-arising and non-becoming, in the non-existence of a living being or person as well as in the gateways to liberation from the three times are of precise meaning.¹²⁵ (638)

2.6.4 Reliance on the Foundation of Being and not on the Person

Next, what is the foundation of being?¹²⁶ What is the person? One who attends to the belief of the existence of a person and pursues religious practice, this is the person.¹²⁷ The Dharmacontinuance of one who acquires the belief of the existence of a person, this Dharma-sphere is the foundation of being.

Furthermore, as regards the person; in order to convert sentient beings the Tathāgata explains everything with the help of conventional methods in terms of persons, saying: "The unique person who is born in this world and appears for the sake of the benefit and well-being of many sentient beings, who feels compassion for the world and accomplishes the welfare, benefit and happiness of hosts of beings among gods and men, viz., the Tathāgata, Arhant, Samyak Sambuddha as well as lay persons, virtuous lay persons, faithful persons, Dharma-observing persons, persons of the eighth rank¹²⁸, stream-enterers, once-returners, non-returners, arhants, pratyekabuddhas and bodhisattvas, [all] these are persons." Now, those who become attached to such [appellations] have nothing to rely on. 129 In order to establish beings in understanding, the lord said that rather than to rely on the notion of the person they should rely on the foundation of being. (639)

Next, what is the foundation of being? All *dharma* bear the characteristics of unbecome, unmade, unproduced and unaccomplished; of changeability, fluctuation, rootlessness and complete sameness, viz., sameness in equality, non-equality and in both equality and non-equality; of non-discrimination, non-undertaking, certainty and lack of own-being. This is the

^{125.} Pelliot, 977, folio 2b.6-7:

[&]quot;Furthermore, those which explain the assembly of a self, a living being, a being that feels and a person are of provisional meaning."

^{126.} Pelliot, 977, folio 3a.1-1:

[&]quot;Next, what is the foundation of being?"

^{127.} The structure of this sentence is ambiguous. I follow here the interpretation of the parallel passage in the *Akn* (p. 64.4.7-8) as proposed by Vasubandhu in the *Akn-ţīkā* (pp. 247.5.3-248.1.1).

The term aṣṭamaka is problematic. Given in the Pāli as aṭṭhamaka, it is interpreted by the PED and CPD as a reference to that person among the āriya-puggala who has reached the eighth stage, that is to say, he is a person who has just entered on the lowest stage of the śrāvaka-path (sotāpattiphala-sacchikiryāya paṭipanno; Puggalapaññati, p. 73). While such a definition is quite acceptable, difficulties arise since there appears to be no reference to a seventh, sixth, etc., person. In the Nett (pp. 49–50; ref. Gethin), the term aṭṭhamaka serves to define the anāgamin. On the basis of these findings, but somewhat evading the problem, Ñāṇamoli suggests to consider the meaning of aṭṭhamaka as corresponding with that of paṭipannaka ('one who has entered on the path')—an assumption that is probably correct in essence as the practice of aṭṭhamaka refers in the Netti (pp. 95–6) to a person practising on the transcendental path. La Vallée Poussin comes to a similar conclusion (1907, p. 266, n. 2). The Mvy (1143) speaks of a aṣṭamakabhūmi, being the third of the seven bhūmi of the śrāvaka (cf. Edgerton, p. 81).

^{129.} rton pa ma yin pa: apratisarana

foundation of being.

Those who rely on the foundation of being never rely on elements. Hence, because they rely on all *dharma* by means of penetrating the door to Dharma-observance, [they know that] the totality of *dharma* is such foundation of being.¹³⁰

These are the four reliances of bodhisattvas. This is the bodhisattva's skill in reliance. It is in this manner that the bodhisattva who is skilled in reliance courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.¹³¹

2.7 Skill in Accumulation

2.7.1 Skill in the Accumulation of Merit

Next, what is the bodhisattva's skill in accumulation? The accumulation of the bodhisattva is twofold. What are the two? These are the accumulation of merit and the accumulation of pristine cognition.

What is his accumulation of merit? It contains the bases of meritorious work that arise from generosity, moral conduct and contemplation.¹³² (640) It contains the bases of meritorious

130. Lit: 'the totality of *dharma* is such foundation of being.' Pelliot, 977, folio 3a.4–7:

"What is the foundation of being? Existence has the foundation of the unmade, unproduced, unestablished and unsupported. All *dharma* bear the characteristics of complete sameness, viz., non-equality and equality, of non-discrimination, non-undertaking, non-originating and lack of own-being. This is the foundation of being. The *dharma* of those who rely on the foundation of being do not reappear. Hence, having relied on all *dharma* by means of entering into the door of Dharma-observance, they seize them. All *dharma* are such a foundation."

131 This paragraph, starting with 'These are' up to 'of Wisdom' is missing in the Pelliot manuscript.

132. bsod nams bya bahi dnos po: punyakriyāvastu

In the *suttas* of the Pāli tradition, we find three kinds of bases of merit, viz., the basis of meritorious work arising from generosity, arising from morality and meditation (*dāna*-, *sīla*-, and *bhāvanāmayakriyāvatthu*). Brief references to these three are found in D III, p. 218 and *lttv*., p. 51. In the Anguttaranikāya IV, p. 241, the Buddha expounds the various fruits that accrue to practitioners of the three bases of meritorious work, in particular, the sublime spheres of rebirth.

The most instructive explanation of their role and functioning is found in the Kośa (iv, pp. 231-33). Distinguishing, like the Pāli, meritorious action arising from generosity, morality and meditation (dāna-, śīla-, bhāvanāpuṇyakriyāvastu), it characterises each of the three as merit (puṇya), action (kriyā) and basis (vastu). Dāna, śīla and bhāvanā themselves are the bases of meritorious action (puṇyakriyā), because in process of their realisation the practitioner undertakes the preparation for merit.

Generosity, consisting of vocal and physical action is that which produces the action. But it is not so much the object that is given that matters and determines the resulting merit, than the reason why a certain thing has been granted. Hence, volition (cetanā) or the collection of thought and mentation (cittacaittakalāpa) is crucially important to the accumulation of merit of which dāna, śīla and bhāvanā are merely objects (vastu) or bases (adhiṣṭhāna). Depending on cetanā, generosity can either display a pure or impure disposition. Founding its views on the eight factors of the Sangītisutta (D III, pp. 258-60), the Mppś (v, p. 2249) distinguishes sixteen types of impure giving, including generosity out of desire for retribution, out of hope for heavenly rebirth, fame, etc. Pure generosity, in contrast, is always motivated by the desire to purify one's thought and to adorn the spirit, and leads to nirvāṇa.

Morality as a basis of meritorious work is like generosity manifested in vocal and physical action. According to the *Mpps*, its scope of application is limited to the *pañcaśīla* consisting in abstention from killing, theft, lying, adultery and intoxication. Capable of showing three degrees of accomplishment (low, mediocre and high) and qualified by the motivation and circumstances surrounding moral violations, the amount of merit it produces varies with the integrity of the practitioner (A IV, pp. 241–43).

work that are furnished with a calm, benevolent disposition, compassionate conduct, exertion for all roots of virtue and the elimination of one's own and other peoples' sins.

It contains the bases of meritorious work that are furnished with gratitude¹³³ towards all sentient beings of all times for their roots of virtue, viz., towards all learned ones and unlearned ones, towards all pratyekabuddhas and those who have produced the thought of enlightenment for the first time, towards all who have embarked on virtuous conduct, towards all irreversible bodhisattvas, towards those who are separated from buddhahood by just one birth¹³⁴ and towards the buddhas of the past, present and future. It contains the bases of meritorious work furnished with the request of the Doctrine from all buddhas and noble ones. It contains the bases of meritorious work that are furnished with the transformation of all virtue into enlightenment.

He generates the thought of enlightenment in sentient beings who have not generated the thought of enlightenment. He teaches the Path of the Perfections to those who have generated the thought of enlightenment. He provides the poor with riches and dispenses medicine to the ill. He pays homage to the worthy ones. He is patient and congenial with the weak. He does not conceal his sins but eliminates evil. (641) He shows all forms of reverence and worship to those lord buddhas who dwell in the world and to those who have passed into nirvāṇa. He venerates his instructors and preceptors just as the teaching. He is diligent in seeking the Doctrine like a priceless jewel. He delights in the Dharma-pronouncement and even goes one hundred miles to hear them. He is not satisfied with hearing to the Doctrine, but explains it without aiming at worldly rewards. He honours his father and mother. He observes and stands by his deeds. He refrains from wickedness and is insatiable for accumulating merit. 135

Since he constrained his body, speech and mind with vows, he is free from physical, verbal

Meditation as the basis of meritorious work—according to the *Ittv* (pp. 19–22) the highest and most productive of all three types—is above all concerned with the generation of benevolent thought (*maitrīcitta*). Convinced of the prevalence of hatred (*dveṣa*) and distraction (*vikṣepa*) in the *kāmadhātu*, the *Mppś* (v, pp. 2255–7) argues that *maitrī* is the most urgent object of meditation that generates more merit than any of the other *apramāṇa*.

Finally, concluding the discussion of the *punyakriyāvastu*, the *Mppś* (v, pp. 2258-60) adds detail by highlighting the role that is played by material gifts and the gift of the Dharma as bases of merit. According to the *Kośavyākhyā* (pp. 352.31-354.31), citing a passage from the *Madhyamāgama* (T 26, k. 2, p. 427 c 25-428 c 25), merit consisting of material gifts (*aupadhikapunya*)—being sevenfold—is greatest if it is aimed at establishing and sustaining a monastic establishment. Immaterial bases of merit (*anaupadhikapunyavastu*), in contrast, concern primarily instructions and religious service but are as fruitful in terms of merit as material gifts.

In the Mvy (1699–1704) the number of bases of meritorious work is increased to five (dāna-, śīla-, bhāvanā-, aupadhika-, and gunyapunyakriyāvastu.), the last of which I have not been able to trace in any of the texts I consulted for this thesis.

^{133.} rjes su yi ran ba: anumodhanā (cf. Edgerton, p. 32, col. 2).

^{134.} skye ba gcig gis thogs pa: ekajātipratibaddha.

^{135.} Pelliot, 977, folio 3b.5-4a.1:

[&]quot;Bodhisattvas generate the thought of enlightenment for those who have generated the thought of enlightenment. ... They conceal their sins and eliminate sin. ... They are not satisfied with hearing to the Doctrine, but explain the stainless Doctrine. ... They know, recollect and feel their deeds."

or mental hypocrisy. He attains pure merit by building a Tathāgata-stūpa. He accomplishes the marks of a great person by gathering endless offerings. He accomplishes the eighty secondary marks by accumulating numerous stores of roots of virtue. His body is adorned with freedom from conceit. His speech is adorned with freedom from all offensive speech. His mind is adorned with freedom from intellectual impediments.¹³⁶

He is an embellishment of the buddha-field through the miracles of the super-knowledge. He is an embellishment of the Dharma-characteristic by virtue of his purified pristine cognition. He is an embellishment of the great retinue by renouncing slander, despondency and dissent-sowing words. (642) He is an embellishment of the imperturbable Doctrine by retaining the Doctrine. His Dharma-discourse does not intimidate since he applauds when he is pleased, saying: "Well done!". He explains in a fruitful manner by listening to the Doctrine with devotion and casting sin and ignorance aside. He is an embellishment of the Bodhi-tree by offering meditation-groves to the Buddha. He is an embellishment of the seat of enlightenment by virtue of retaining the thought of enlightenment—the factor that precedes all roots of virtue.

His life and death are pure since he does not generate actions and impurities. His hand is blessed since he gives away all his jewels and precious objects. His wealth is inexhaustible through the attainment of an inexhaustible resolution. Since he does not contract his eye-brows angrily, sentient beings gain faith as soon as they see him and greet with a smiling face He is an embellishment of sameness by directing light-rays at all sentient beings. Since he does not despise the ill-instructed, he emits much light. By virtue of accumulating moral merit, his birth is pure. Because he does not abuse lowly people, the womb is completely pure at his birth.

By virtue of the complete purity of his tenfold virtuous activity¹⁴¹, he is born as god or man.

- 136. Pelliot, 977, folio 4a.2-3:
 - "His body is adorned with emanations by accomplishing the marks [of a great person], by gathering endless offerings, by accomplishing the eighty secondary marks and by accumulating numerous stores of roots of virtue."
- 137. According to Vasubandhu's commentary on the *Dbh* (*Daśa-bh*, p. 219), the accumulation of merit is the first of four blessings (*guṇa*) that pertain to bodhisattvas who have progressed to the seventh stage with a set of ten superior practices and is held to generate great wealth:
 - "Superiority in wealth and personality is obtained according to requirement. Superiority of wealth and personality depends on the accumulation of merit."
- 138. bžin hdzum pas gson por smra ba: smitīmukhapūrvābhibhāsantā (cf. Edgerton, p. 614, col. 1).
- 139. I adopted here the argument found in Pelliot, 977, folio 4a.7.
- 140. Pelliot, 977, 4a.7-7:
 - "He attains sameness by uniformly [directing] light-rays at all sentient beings. Since he exerts himself for the ill-instructed, he emits adorned emanations. By virtue of accumulating moral merit, his birth is pure. On account of his prediction, the womb is completely pure at his birth."
- 141. Here, the tenfold virtuous conduct of the bodhisattva refers, in all probability, to abstention from of the traditional ten *akuśalakarmapatha*, viz., killing, theft, sexual misconduct, falsehood, slander, harsh and frivolous talk, covetousness, animosity and wrong views. This conclusion is, however, not completely safe as Buddhism developed several other enumerations of *dharma* consisting of ten kinds of virtue. There is, for instance, a group of ten *pārājika dharma* in the *Brahmajālasūtra*, containing besides the *pañcaśīla* (6)

He has conquered desire for worldly objects¹⁴² by contemplating all precepts.¹⁴³ Since he readily shares his knowledge¹⁴⁴ he masters the Doctrine. Due to his pure resolve, he appears in all worlds. He has faith in the magnificent Doctrine since he is not intend on the limited practice of the layman-observing-two-of-the-pañcaśīla¹⁴⁵. (643) Since he does not give up the mind of all-knowing, he retains all of his merit. He acquires the seven riches of the universal monarch¹⁴⁶ since he is motivated by faith. Acting in accordance with¹⁴⁷ his previous resolution, he does not deceive the worlds. He acquires all buddha-qualities by accomplishing virtuous dharma. This is the bodhisattva's skill in the accumulation of merit.

2.7.2 Skill in the Accumulation of Pristine Cognition

Next, what is the bodhisattva's skill in the accumulation of pristine cognition? Pristine cognition arises on the basis of causes. He contemplates all causes and conditions of pristine cognition in this way.

What are its causes and conditions? He endeavours zealously to procure the Doctrine. He adheres to friends who comply with pristine cognition. He relies on the pristine cognition of the Buddha rather than on that of śrāvaka and pratyekabuddhas. Rather than assuming a

bringing other in disrepute, (7) avarice, (8) boastfulness at the cost of others, (9) malevolence and (10) calumny of the *triratna* (DeGroot, 1967, pp. 32–39).

Even the ten duṣkaracaryā of the bodhisattva might be included among the candidates, viz., the exploit of (1) promise (pratijñā), (2) non-regression (avivartana), (3) not turning the back when facing misery (aparānmukhībhāva), (4) dedication (abhimukhībhāva), (5) purity in the face of constant exposure to saṃsāra (anupalepa), (6) commitment (adhimukti), (7) penetration (prativedha), (8) comprehension (avabodha), (9) non-abandoning and stainlessness (aparityāganiḥsaṃkleśa) and (10) effort (prayoga) in order to fulfil the tasks of a buddha (Msg, pp. 223-4). An alternative list of duṣkaracaryā is given in the Lal (pp. 243-60; trsl. Foucaux, 1988, pp. 210-224).

For a full study of the duşkaracaryā, see: J. Dutoit, 1905.

^{142.} gdon mi za bar: avaśya; lit.: 'hoarfrost' (cf. Edgerton, p. 76, col. 1).

^{143.} Pelliot, 977, folio 4a.7-4b.3:

[&]quot;By virtue of the complete purity of his tenfold virtuous activity, he is born as god or man. He attains certainty by holding steadfastly on to all precepts."

^{144.} slob dpon kyi dpe mkhyud pa: ācāryamuṣṭi; lit.: close-fistedness of a teacher to share things with his pupils (cf. Edgerton, p. 89, col. 1).

^{145.} ñi tshe bahi spyod pa: pradeśakārin (Mvy 1610)

The meaning of the term *pradeśakārin* is ambiguous. If one were to follow the context in which it is presented in the *Mvy* where *pradeśakārin* appears among the twenty-eight types of religious austerity, it would appear to refer to some form of ascetic practice that is practised in a certain region or place (*pradeśa*). This interpretation is not supported by the *Kośa* (iv, p. 73) and *Mppś* (ii, p. 821) that clearly associate the term *pradeśakārin* with a type of *upāsaka* adhering to a selection of the *pañcaśīla*. In the *Kośa*, this *upāsaka* is said to observe two of the five rules, while in the *Mppś* he may observe two or three of the *pañcaśīla*. As neither of these texts mentions which of the five rules the *pradeśakārin* chooses to observe, we learn little of the moral maxims pertaining to this class of *upāsaka*.

^{146.} According to the Mvy (3621-28), these are a parasol (cakra-ratna), elephant (hasti-ratna), horse (aśva-ratna), jewel (mani-ratna), royal consort (strī-ratna), householder (grhapati-ratna) and an officer or minister (parinayaka-ratna). Compare the contents of this enumeration with a list of seven treasures (dhana) of the bodhisattva (Mvy 1565-72), viz., faith (śraddha), morality (śīla), sense of shame (hrī), fear of blame (apatrāpya), learning (śruta), renunciation (tyāga) and wisdom (prajñā). The seven riches are well known from the nikāya where they occur, for instance, in D III, p. 163, p. 251 and in A IV, p. 4. The same list occurs in the Bdp on folio 337.5-338.3.

^{147.} ñams su len pa byed pa: asthitikrtya (cf. Edgerton, p. 111, col. 2; p. 86, col. 2).

proud attitude towards his superiors and teachers, he rejoices in them. When his virtuous friends have realised that he possesses a good resolve, they do not hesitate to instruct him in all discourses of pristine cognition. When they have realised that he is a receptacle, they instruct him constantly¹⁴⁸ with great concentration in the Doctrine. After he has heard the Doctrine, he exerts himself in the accumulation of virtuous practice. Exertion in the accumulation of virtuous practice itself is exertion in the accumulation of pristine cognition.

What is exertion in the accumulation of virtuous practice? (644) He is content with little profit, little activity and few words. He sleeps neither at dawn nor at dusk and applies himself diligently to yoga. He contemplates the meaning of dependent co-origination and attempts subsequently to grasp it. His mind is unperturbed. He conquers sin. He knows when he is liberated from sin. He is free from grudge and manifestations of evil tendencies He performs good conduct and endeavours in virtuous practice. He is inclined to, and has a propensity for, virtuous practice. He applies himself to it as if his head and clothes were constantly alight. He

He persists in his search for pristine cognition. He is vigilant and sustains his efforts. He gains distinction and withdraws into seclusion¹⁵². He takes delight in solitude and contemplates the bliss of quietude. He cherishes the [four practice of] the noble lineage. He does not turn away from purification. He takes delight in the great joy of the Doctrine and aspires to it. He does not heed the esoteric formulae of the materialists. He is impeccably mindful in his search for supramundane *dharma*. When contemplating, his mind his well-focused on the meaning. His understanding operates in accordance with the path. He exercises constraint

^{148.} bar chad med pa: nirantara (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 539, col. 2).

^{149.} ltun ba las hbyun bar ses pa;

The meaning of this sentence is ambiguous since it does not indicate the scope of the attainment. That is to say, it is not clear whether it refers to the sixth abhijñā conferring 'knowledge of the destruction of defilements' (āsravakṣayajñāna), or whether it is simply an expression of the bodhisattva's control over the process of purification. The wording of the Tibetan suggests that it has a more general meaning since, according to Mvy (209), āsravakṣayajñāna has its equivalent in zag pa zad pa śes pa. On the other hand, the concept of 'knowledge of the purification of sin' runs arguably rather close to that of āsravakṣayajñāna and might overlap. Since 'knowledge of the destruction of defilements' is a highly technical concept—its application being practically restricted to the attainment of arhantship or buddhahood—the taking of a more cautious approach, pointing to vague parallels only, is perhaps appropriate.

^{150.} kun nas Idan pa med pa: paryutthāna (cf. Edgerton, p. 335, col. 2).

^{151.} Pelliot, 977, folio 4b.7-5a.1:

[&]quot;Contemplating the meaning of exertion, he removes afterwards the defilement of indolence—the ruin of the mind. ... He is not covered by it. He is not encircled by it. Being endowed with good conduct, he endeavours in virtuous practice. ... In this way, he persists in his search for pristine cognition."

^{152.} ḥdu ḥdzis dben pa: saṃsarga

lit.: 'to be solitary as to commingling' (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 1119, col. 3).

Pelliot, 977, folio 5a.2:

[&]quot;He is vigilant and does not long for honour. He does not gain distinction but withdraws into seclusion."

^{153.} This last phrase is essentially a paraphrase of the Tibetan clause. The literal translation would run as follows: "When contemplating, he complies with understanding the meaning." See also: Pelliot, 977, folio 5a.3.

with regard to sense-pleasure. 154

He penetrates pristine cognition by way of its conditions.¹⁵⁵ He is an embellishment of modesty and chastity. He treads the path of the Buddha. He removes nescience, ignorance and the mist of delusion.¹⁵⁶ (645) His eye of wisdom is stainless. He is fully purified. His understanding is excellent. He reveres his superiors. His mind is extremely versatile. He acquires direct knowledge¹⁵⁷. In his attainments, he does not depend on others and he does not boast with them. He discerns alien attainments.¹⁵⁸ He undertakes wholesome actions¹⁵⁹. He does not refute the ripening of deeds, though he knows that deeds are perfectly pure. This is the bodhisattva, *mahāsattva*'s accumulation of pristine cognition.

Furthermore, his accumulation of pristine cognition is acquired through four kinds of giving.

- (1) He gives bark of the birch tree, pencils, ink and books to reciters of the Doctrine.
- (2) He gives various cushions to them.
- (3) He gives all kinds of goods, shows respect and composes verses for them.
- (4) He shows sincere gratitude to reciters of the Doctrine for bringing together all teachings.

These four kinds of giving augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. There are four kinds of guard that augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. What are the four?

- (1) He guards the body of the reciters of the Doctrine.
- (2) He guards their welfare. 160
- (3) He guards them when they enter into his region and district.
- (4) He guards propitious objects.

These four kinds of guard augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. There are four kinds of support¹⁶¹ that augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. What are the four?

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154. Pelliot, 977, folio 5a.2-3:
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[&]quot;He adheres to the vow."

^{155.} I follow here Pelliot, 977, folio 5a.3 which reads: rkyen gyis ve ses chud pa.

^{156.} Pelliot, 977, folio 5a.3:

[&]quot;Disapproving of nescience, he does not cleanse the mist of ignorance and delusion."

^{157.} mnon sum tu ses pa: pratyaksajñāna (cf. Edgerton, p. 374, col. 1).

^{158.} Pelliot, 977, folio 5a.3-4:

[&]quot;He does not (sic) discern alien attainments."

^{159.} legs par bya bahi las byed pa: sukrtakarmakārin (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 1220, col. 2).

^{160.} Omitted in Pelliot, 977, folio 5a.7.

^{161.} ñe par rton pa: upasthambana (cf. Edgerton, p. 143, col. 2)

The *Mahāvastu* (ii, p. 280.16–17) cites five kinds of support that enable the bodhisattva to display his noble, fearless smile (*āryasmīta*). These are zeal (*chanda*), vigour (*vīrya*), recollection (*smṛti*), meditation (*samādhi*) and wisdom (*prajīā*). According to the *Dbh* (*Daśa-bh*, p. 15), the bodhisattva depends for

- (1) It is support of the teachings of the reciters of the Doctrine. (646)
- (2) It is support of pristine cognition.
- (3) It is support of worldly possessions.
- (4) It is support of enlightenment. 162

These four kinds of support augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. There are five powers that augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. What are the five?

- (1) It is the power of faith in order to pay homage.
- (2) It is the power of vigour in order to attain learning.
- (3) It is the power of mindfulness as not to forget the thought of enlightenment.
- (4) It is the power of meditation in order to gain faith in dharma-sameness.
- (5) It is the power of wisdom for the sake of the power of learning.

These five powers augment his accumulation of pristine cognition.¹⁶³ There are four kinds of moral conduct that augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. What are the four?

- (1) It is moral conduct that is assured in the Doctrine.
- (2) It is moral conduct that pursues the Doctrine.
- (3) It is moral conduct that has faith in the Doctrine.
- (4) It is moral conduct that transforms into enlightenment.

These four kinds of moral conduct augment his accumulation of pristine cognition.¹⁶⁴ There

accomplishing the *cittotpāda* on (1) support of true instructions of the path of the stages, (2) support of instructions in the purifying impact of the six perfections and (3) support of generosity.

In the Abhidh-sam (R), p. 162, in contrast, support (upasthamba) is cited as one of eleven aspects in which the training of the bodhisattva differs from that the śrāvaka, specifically with regard to the duration of the training and the ensuing need for an accumulation of virtue. See, also Kośa (ii, p. 314) where upasthambahetu is interpreted as the 'cause of maintenance' since the mahābhūta are the cause of the continuation of the bhautika (cf. Edgerton, ārambaṇa, p. 103, col. 1).

Judging by the ill co-ordination of these references and the lack of common ground, it is doubtful whether the Mahāyāna ever developed a theory of the bodhisattva's support. In the eyes of many, this might have seemed quite superfluous with Mahāyāna writers readily adopting the four types of reliance (*pratisaraṇa*) from early Buddhism.

^{162.} Pelliot, 977, folio 5b.1:

[&]quot;It is support of intelligence (buddhi)."

^{163.} These five kinds of power (bala) correspond to the five bala of the thirty-seven bodhipākṣika dharma, viz., śraddhā, vīrya, smṛti, samādhi and prajñā. They are treated in greater detail in section 2.10.5 (R, folio 677.2-679.5).

^{164.} Compare these types of moral conduct with those proposed by later exegetical writers (*Bbh*, p. 138.21–23), distinguishing morality of the vow (*saṃvaraśīla*), morality involving the accumulation of virtue (*kuśaladharmasaṃgrāhakaśīla*) and morality involving efforts directed at the welfare of sentient beings (*sattvārthakrivāśīla*).

are four kinds of patience that augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. What are the four?

- (1) Since he exerts himself diligently to attain the Doctrine, he bears patience with the words of those who speak evil and utter slander.
- (2) Since he exerts himself diligently to attain the Doctrine, he endures patiently wind, warmth, cold, heat, thirst and hunger.
- (3) Since he exerts himself diligently to attain the Doctrine, he complies patiently with his instructors and preceptors.
- (4) Since he exerts himself diligently to attain the Doctrine, he is patient towards the empty, signless and wishless nature of *dharma*.

These four kinds of patience augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. ¹⁶⁵ (647) There are four kinds of vigour that augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. What are the four?

- (1) It is vigour in learning.
- (2) It is vigour in retaining.
- (3) It is vigour in teaching.
- (4) It is vigour in application.

These four kinds of vigour augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. There are four factors of contemplation that augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. What are the four?

- (1) He takes delight in seclusion
- (2) And in solitude.
- (3) He seeks pristine cognition and the super-knowledge.
- (4) He enters the pristine cognition of the Buddha.

These four factors of contemplation augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. There

^{165.} Of all classifications of bodhisattva practices presented in this section, it is the scheme of patience that bears closest resemblance to the divisions of later scholasticism (Bbh, p. 189.7–11). That is to say, the first type corresponds to the category of parāpakāramarṣaṇakṣānti, representing patience supporting injury and verbal abuse at the hand of other. The second type runs parallel to the bodhisattva's willingness to put up with painful sensations caused the four elements (duḥkhādhivāsanākṣānti), while the fourth type, 'patience towards the empty, signless and wishless nature of dharma' is close to the bodhisattva's 'conviction of the non-arising of dharma' (anutpattikadharmakṣānti) that is the highest development of patience contemplating dharma (dharmanidhyānakṣānti). It is only the third type of patience, bearing with instructors and preceptors, that is not accounted for as an independent category in later writings.

are four wisdom-manifesting *dharma* that augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. What are the four?

- (1) He refutes the notion of nihilism.
- (2) He impugns the notion of permanence.
- (3) He does not challenge dependent co-origination. 166
- (4) He rejoices in the belief of the non-existence of the self.

These four wisdom-manifesting *dharma* augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. There are four *dharma* that augment his accumulation of pristine cognition of means. ¹⁶⁷ What are the four?

- (1) He complies with the world.
- (2) He complies with the sūtras.
- (3) He complies with the Doctrine.
- (4) He complies with pristine cognition.

These four *dharma* become his accumulation of pristine cognition of means. There are four *dharma* that cause him to penetrate the pristine cognition of the accumulation of paths. (648) What are the four?

- (1) It is the path of the pāramitā.
- (2) It is the path of the bodhipāksika dharma.
- (3) It is the Noble Eightfold Path.
- (4) It is the path that leads to pristine cognition of all-knowing.

These four *dharma* cause him to penetrate the pristine cognition of the accumulation of paths. There are four kinds of insatiability that augment his accumulation of pristine cognition. What are the four?

- (1) He is insatiable for learning.
- (2) He is insatiable for instructions.
- (3) He is insatiable for investigation.
- (4) He is insatiable for pristine cognition.

^{166.} Pelliot, 977, folio 5b.6:

[&]quot;Assembling causes and conditions, he does not challenge origination."

^{167.} Cf. Pelliot, 977, 5b.7 which reads thabs dan ye ses kyi tshogs.

These four kinds of insatiability augment his accumulation of pristine cognition.

Furthermore, as regards his accumulation of pristine cognition; complying with all sentient beings and with all buddha-fields, the accumulation of pristine cognition should be seen as arising from giving. The accumulation of pristine cognition should be seen as arising from morality, patience, vigour, meditation, wisdom, benevolence, compassion, joy and equipoise. Why? Because all undertakings of the bodhisattva are dependent on, as well as motivated and supported by, pristine cognition. By persisting in pristine cognition, the holder of pristine cognition becomes a universal support. Moreover, none of the evil ones obtains an occasion to harm him. He acquires not only the sustaining power of the Buddha, but he is also established in the pristine cognition of all-knowing. 168 (649)

These two are the bodhisattva's accumulations of merit and pristine cognition. A bodhisattva, mahāsattva who is skilled in these two kinds of accumulation courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.¹⁶⁹

2.8 Skill in Bases of Mindfulness

Next, what is skill in the bases of mindfulness of bodhisattvas? They generate the four bases of mindfulness of bodhisattvas. What are the four? They generate the basis of mindfulness considering the body as body. They generate the basis of mindfulness considering feeling as feeling. They generate the basis of mindfulness considering thought as thought. They generate the basis of mindfulness considering dharma as dharma.¹⁷⁰

2.8.1 Skill in the Basis of Mindfulness concerning the Body

What is the generation of the basis of mindfulness considering the body as body? O

^{168.} Pelliot, 977, folio 6a.2-4:

[&]quot;Furthermore, as regards his accumulation of pristine cognition; complying with all sentient beings and with all buddha-fields, also giving should be seen as the accumulation of pristine cognition. Also morality, patience, vigour, meditation, wisdom, benevolence, compassion, joy and equipoise should be seen as the accumulation of pristine cognition. ... Having persisted in pristine cognition, he gathers all sentient beings [around him]. None of the evil ones obtains an occasion to harm him and he is established in the pristine cognition of all-knowing."

^{169.} This paragraph is missing in the Pelliot manuscript. The section that follows in Pelliot 977 on 'skill in accumulation' appears in all block-print editions of the *Bdp* at the very end of chapter eleven. In my edition, it corresponds to section 3.1 and 3.2 (R folio 686.4–690.1).

^{170.} On the relationship between the *smrtyupasthāna* and *prajñā*, the commentary on the *Arthaviniścayasūtra* remarks (*Arthav-t (S)*, pp. 210.6–211.3):

[&]quot;When considering the body, feeling, thought and *dharma*, the bodhisattva acquires a thought that is exempt from misconception (*viparyāsa*). He considers the body as body; that is to say, he considers it in accordance with reality; this is the sense of 'considering'. This is valid in equal measure with regard to mindfulness concerning feeling, thought and *dharma*. Because they take as object a personal series, a series of others and both (*svaparobhayasantatyālambanatvāt*), the bases of mindfulness have individually as own-being (*svabhāva*) the threefold science (*traividya*); that is to say, their own-being consists of wisdom springing from learning, reflection and contemplation."

Śāriputra, a bodhisattva who dwells, considering the body as body contemplates the origin, present condition and future destiny of the body:

"Alas, this body is arisen from delusion¹⁷¹. It is born from causes and conditions. It is motionless, inactive, non-self and without proprietor. For instance, by reason of *dharma* that are neither a self nor of a self, neither permanent, steadfast or abiding this body that resembles grass, bricks, wood, ass or a mirage and consists of the aggregates, sensefields and elements is empty just like the grass, tree branches, plants or forests, that too emerge from causes and conditions and are without a self or proprietor. Rather than developing a sense of owner-ship for my body, I should patiently put up with the fact that the own-being of my body is insubstantial.

What is substantial? The body of the Tathāgata is substantial. The Tathāgata's body is the body of the Doctrine. It is the *vajra*-body. It is imperishable and firm. ¹⁷² I shall accomplish this most distinguished body of all three worlds. Though indeed this body of mine has produced sin through many offences, notwithstanding, it will become the Tathāgata's impeccable body."

Once he has duly realised thus through his powers of investigation, he guards his body—the abode of the *mahābhūta*—carefully and thinks: "May this body of mine perish [complying with] every requirement whatsoever of sentient beings. May this body of mine that has arisen from the *mahābhūta* become the subsistence of sentient beings through the assorted doors, bases, enunciations and enjoyments, just like the four external *mahābhūta*, viz., the element of earth, water, fire and wind support sentient beings through the various doors, bases, (651) enumerations, favours and enjoyments."

Although it is true that he has discerned the body to be impermanent, he truly does not weary of death and birth. Although it is true that he has discerned the body to be suffering, physical suffering does not distress him. Although it is true that he has discerned the body to be non-self, he does not weary of developing sentient beings. Although it is true that he has discerned the body to be calm, he does not enter into indifference through a calm body. Although it is true that he has discerned the body to be empty and solitary, he does not enter into nirvāna.¹⁷³

When he dwells, considering the body as a body he does not consider it to be substantial or

^{171.} phyin ci log: viparyāsa (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 974, col. 2).

^{172.} The *Rcd* (p. 236.3.3-5) employs the same argument in its description of the bodhisattva's mindfulness concerning the body:

[&]quot;By means of this defiled body I shall attain unassisted the body of the Tathāgata; the body of the Dharma, the body of merit and pristine cognition, the *vajra*-body, the blissful and non-afflicted body; a body that exalts in innumerable deeds in the triple world, a body that, when seen in its shape, appearses all sentient beings."

Descriptions of the Tathāgata's body in these terms are by no means uncommon and found in several other sūtras. See, for instance: Mahāyāna Mahāparinirvāṇasūtra (T 374, k.3, p. 382c27; ref. Lamotte).

^{173.} Very similar thought is expressed in Bbh, p. 259.15-22.

real. When he dwells, considering the body internally he does not permit the arising of internal, consequential defilements. When he dwells, considering the body externally he is emancipated from external, consequential defilements.

Since his body is without defilements, the bodhisattva is rich in pure physical activity. After he has purified his body, he attains a body that is adorned with the eighty secondary marks. After his body has been adorned, he converts gods and men. This is the bodhisattva's generation of the basis of mindfulness considering the body as body. (652)

2.8.2 Skill in the Basis of Mindfulness concerning Feeling

Again, how does the bodhisattva generate the basis of mindfulness considering feeling as feeling?¹⁷⁴ Concerning this, the bodhisattva thinks: "Whatever I feel, it is all suffering." Even though he experiences pleasant sensations, because he realises feeling that is awakened¹⁷⁵ by pristine cognition, wisdom and means he is not inclined towards the propensity of desire. Although affected by painful sensation, he produces great compassion for all those who are born in the evil destinies, but he is not inclined towards the propensity of hatred. Even though he is affected by feelings that are neither pleasant nor painful, he is not inclined towards the propensity of delusion. He experiences every sensation—whether it be pleasant, painful, unpleasant or painless—through a recollection subsequent to that feeling and sees their origin. In order to fully understand and appease the feelings of all sentient beings, he penetrates these himself, thinking:

"Since sentient beings do not know the origins of their feelings, they rejoice in pleasant sensations. They become angry at painful sensations. At sensations that are neither pleasant nor painful, they are confused. But me, my sensations being awakened by wisdom and pristine cognition, I have carefully purified all feelings. (653) By virtue of my accomplishments that I attained through skilful means and great compassion, I shall teach the Doctrine in order to bring all feelings of sentient beings to a final halt."

Why is it called feeling? An awakened feeling leads to happiness. A feeling that is not awakened leads to suffering. What then are awakened feelings? Concerning this, although there is no self, sentient being, life-force or person that produces feeling, feeling is attachment; feeling is appropriation; feeling is grasping; feeling is delusion; feeling is binary thinking; feeling is inclination to false doctrines. Feeling is the notion of the eye up to the notion of the mind, this is feeling. Feeling is the notion of form up to the notion of mental objects, this is

^{174.} The Akn-tīkā explains (p. 256.2.2–5; cf. Akn, p. 67.2.1–4.4):

[&]quot;What is [the bodhisattva's] feeling? Persisting in mindfulness concerning feeling, he achieves transcendence beyond the three kinds of suffering and experiences an unstained, pure and peaceful feeling. Thus, it is asked how do bodhisattvas generate the basis of mindfulness considering feeling as feeling? Feeling is understood by bodhisattvas and should be contemplated. That feelings are pleasant or unpleasant is stated elsewhere."

^{175,} rtogs pahi tshor ba. adhigamavedanā.

feeling. Any sensation that emerges from the condition of touch in conjunction with the eye—whether it be pleasant, painful, unpleasant or painless—this is feeling. Corresponding to the former, any sensation that is linked with external or internal *dharma* and emerges from the condition of touch in conjunction with mental processes—whether it be pleasant, painful, unpleasant or painless—this is feeling. (654)

Furthermore, by way of enumeration feeling is one, viz., knowledge by a single moment of thought ¹⁷⁶; feeling is twofold, viz., internal and external; feeling is threefold, viz., knowledge of the past, present and future; feeling is fourfold, viz., knowledge of the four elements; feeling is fivefold, viz., reflection on the five aggregates; feeling is sixfold, viz., mistaken imagining of the six sensefields; feeling is sevenfold, viz., the seven states of consciousness ¹⁷⁷; feeling is eightfold, viz., the eight mistaken modes of practice ¹⁷⁸; feeling is ninefold, viz., the nine abodes of sentient beings ¹⁷⁹; feeling is tenfold, viz., the path of tenfold virtuous activity. ¹⁸⁰ Corresponding to the former, all this is feeling. To the degree that there exists mental construing and reflection, everything will be felt. Hence, the feeling of incalculable sentient beings is infinite.

Now, the bodhisattva who dwells, considering feeling as feeling generates pristine cognition of the feelings of all sentient beings as they arise, persist and disappear. He who knows feeling with regard to the virtuous and non-virtuous feelings of all sentient beings has generated

^{176.} sems gcig pus rnam par rig pa

It appears that this statement is an indirect reference to the sixteen moments (kṣaṇa) of thought that mark the practitioner's gradual cognition of the four noble truths (Kośa, vi, pp. 178–193). Rejecting the notion of gradual advance as postulated by the Sarvāstivāda (Kośa, vi, pp. 185–9), the Bdp follows the view of the Mahāsanghika and early Mahīśāsaka (Masuda, 1929, pp. 21, 59) suggesting that comprehension of the four noble truths occurs simultaneously and is not subject to measured progress. Since the reasoning on which this theory rests is very complex, I shall mention only one explanation for this proposition. According to the Āloka (ii.12, p. 171) intuition of the darśanamārga as a single-moment intuition (ekakṣaṇābhisamaya) takes place because of the emergence of pure knowledge (anāsravjñāna). This knowledge makes known the nature of all modes and has within its scope the totality of all factors (sarvadharmaviṣaya). Being fully comprehensive, it allows only for the presence of one thought-moment. An excellent account of the psychological intricacies that are involved in the controversy between those who propose that comprehension (abhisamaya) takes place on the basis of a gradual progress and those maintaining that it is subject to simultaneous/instantaneous attainment has been produced by Ruegg, 1989, pp. 150–182.

^{177.} According to the Kośa (iii, pp. 16, 21–22), the seven bases of consciousness are (1) beings diverse in body and mentation (nānātvakāyasamjñā), (2) beings diverse in body but identical in mentation (nānākāyayaikṣamjñā), (3) beings of identical body but diverse mentation (ekatvakāyanānātvasamjñā), (4) beings of identical body and mentation (ekatvakāyaikatvasamjñā), (5) beings belonging to the infinitude of space (ākāśānantyāyatana), (6) being belonging to the infinitude of consciousness (vijñānānantyāyatana) and (7) beings belonging to the infinitude of nothingness (ākincanyāyatana). References in the nikāya are found in D II, p. 68; III, p. 253 and in A IV, p. 39. The same list is also found in the Mvy (2289–95).

^{178.} log par nes pahi sbyor ba: samniyojana (lit.: 'to put into effect or employment').

^{179.} These nine abodes of beings (sattvāvāsa) consist of the seven basis of consciousness (vijñānasthiti), of the abode of beings beyond perception (asamjñisattva) and of the sphere of neither perception or non-perception (naivasamjñānāsamjñāyatana). For canonical references, see: D III, pp. 263, 263; A IV, p. 401, (cf. Amrt (B), p. 219).

^{180.} Canonical sources speak of two, three, five, six, eighteen, thirty-six and one hundred and eight kinds of feeling (S IV, pp. 231-32). The most common variety is that which distinguishes between pleasant (sukha), unpleasant (dukkha) and neither pleasant nor unpleasant (adukkhāsukha) feelings (cf. Mppś, iii, p. 1174).

the bodhisattva's basis of mindfulness considering feeling as feeling.

2.8.3 Skill in the Basis of Mindfulness concerning Thought

Next, what is the bodhisattva's basis of mindfulness considering thought as thought?¹⁸¹ (655) The bodhisattva is mindful of the thought of enlightenment; he guards it, secures it and does not turn his attention away from it.¹⁸² He looks at it in this way:

"Once a thought has arisen, it disintegrates. It is induced. Since it is fickle, it does not persist internally and it does not perish outwardly. The thought of enlightenment that I produced at first has disappeared. It does not exist. It changed. It is not found in any place. Since it is not found anywhere, I am not able to retain it. The thoughts that produced my roots of virtue have also disappeared. They do not exist. They changed. They are not found in any region or quarter.

Even the thoughts that transform [roots of virtue] into enlightenment do not bear any characteristic of own-being. Thought is not discerned by thought. Thought is not seen by thought. If thought is not known by thought, what then is the thought by which I shall attain supreme and perfect enlightenment? The thought of enlightenment is not tied to the thought of roots of virtue. The thought of virtue, too, is not tied to the thought of the transformation into enlightenment, too, is not tied to either the thought of enlightenment or to the thought of roots of virtue." ¹⁸³

If he ruminates thus, he does not become terrified, frightened or fearful but thinks again:

"Truly, in the profound law of dependent co-origination the causes and retribution are imperishable. (656) Yet, even though the foundation of thought has such own-being all *dharma* are dependent on causes and conditions; they are motionless, inactive and non-self. Because I act just as I wish, I shall apply myself diligently to creation¹⁸⁴ and not weaken this foundation of thought."

What is the foundation of thought? What is creation?¹⁸⁵ Thought is like an illusion. There is

^{181.} On the basis of mindfulness concerning thought, the Akn-tikā comments (p. 257.4.6-5.1; cf. Akn, pp. 67.4.4-68.2.5):

[&]quot;What is an established (pratisthita) bodhisattva? He traverses the basis of mindfulness concerning thought as thought. He transcends all states of consciousness and accomplishes the infinite bodhisattva-meditation. Thus, it is asked what is the bodhisattva's basis of mindfulness considering thought as thought? That which is to be cultivated by the bodhisattva is the thought of enlightenment."

^{182.} Akn-tīkā, p. 257.5.1-4:

[&]quot;Unlike the practice of recollection concerned with the impermanence of one's own thought of śrāvaka and pratyekabuddhas, bodhisattvas do not forget through mindfulness and unfailing memory the first thought of enlightenment."

^{183.} We find the same argument—investigating the nature of thought and reconciling its apparent transitoriness with role of the thought of enlightenment—in the *Rcd's* discussion of the mindfulness concerning thought (pp. 237.4.7–38.2.1).

^{184.} Cf. Akn (p. 67.5.5) which has rnam par sgrub pa (vithapanā) for the Bdp's sgrub pa. Both texts agree on the second member of the pair, that is, sems kyi chos ñid (cittadharmatā).

^{185.} Compare this section on cittadharmatā and vithapanā with Bdp's thirty-two pairs of mental vigour

nobody whosoever that causes its obstruction. This is the foundation of thought. To transform all possessions after one has renounced them into the pledge that effectuates the buddha-field is creation. Thought is like a dream and bears the characteristic of calm. This is the foundation of thought. Gathering the accumulation of the vow and transforming it swiftly into intuitive knowledge of all methods is creation. Since thought disintegrates like an illusion, decay is the foundation of thought. To transform the power of patience and bravery in order to accomplish the pledge of enlightenment is creation. Since thought is solitary like the reflected image of the moon in water, solitude is the foundation of thought.

To transform all undertakings of vigour in order to accomplish all buddha-qualities is creation. (657) Thought is inapprehensible and imperceptible. This is the foundation of thought. To transform all contemplations, liberations, meditations and composures of mind into buddha-meditation is creation. Thought is beyond form. It is inobservable, intraceable and not verifiable. This is the foundation of thought. To transform knowledge of all instructions in the various wordings as requested in order to accomplish buddha-knowledge is creation. Thought arises towards various objects. This is the foundation of thought. To produce the absence of its cause. This is the foundation of thought. To produce the mental conditions of the bodhipākṣika dharma is creation. Thought does not arise in the absence of an object. This is the foundation of thought. To produce the mental conditions of the buddha-sphere is creation.

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva generates the basis of mindfulness considering thought as thought.

When he dwells, considering thought as thought he converges with thought for the sake of acquiring the super-knowledge. After he has acquired the super-knowledge, the bodhisattva perceives the thoughts of all sentient beings by means of a single thought. (658) Truly, once he has perceived them he explains the teaching of such own-being. Furthermore, when the bodhisattva dwells, considering thought as thought he converges with thought for the sake of attaining great compassion. By virtue of the attainment of great compassion, he does not weary of developing all sentient beings.

When he dwells, considering thought as thought, he does not sustain thought for the sake of achieving the cessation and final end of thought. Rather, he generates thought through the fetters of the stream of existence. Even though knowledge of the recollection of thought persists by means of *dharma* that settle him in certainty of the unarisen and unbecome, he does not descend on to the level of śrāvaka and pratyekabuddha. And until he has accomplished all buddha-qualities he perpetuates the succession of thought. It is by virtue of wisdom that is endowed with a single moment of thought that he acquires supreme and perfect enlightenment.

⁽cittavīrya) that distinguish between activity (pravṛtti) and stillness (sthiti) of the mind (R, folio 474.2-76.5). 186. ñer bar sbyor ba: upasaṃhāra (cf. Edgerton, p. 142, col. 2).

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva generates the basis of mindfulness considering thought as thought.

2.8.4 Skill in the Basis of Mindfulness concerning Dharma

O Śāriputra, how does the bodhisattva generate the basis of mindfulness considering *dharma* as *dharma*?¹⁸⁷ O Śāriputra, concerning this, bodhisattvas who look at *dharma* with the eye of noble wisdom are not confounded until they reach the seat of enlightenment. (659)

When they dwell, considering *dharma* as *dharma* they do not see *dharma* of even the size of an atom that are exempt from emptiness, signlessness or wishlessness, the unborn, unarisen, non-accumulated or beingless. They do not perceive *dharma* of even the size of an atom that are exempt from dependent co-origination. When the bodhisattva dwells, considering *dharma* as *dharma* he perceives their foundation of being, but he does not perceive them incorrectly.¹⁸⁸

What is the foundation of being? The truth of the non-existence of a self, a sentient being, a life-force or a person, this is the foundation of being.

What is incorrect? Belief in a self, a sentient being, a life-force or a person, the belief in nihilism or permanence and belief in origination or destruction, this is incorrect.

Again, O Śāriputra, all *dharma* are truth. All *dharma* are error. Why? Because of understanding emptiness, signlessness and wishlessness, all *dharma* are truth. (660) Because of mistaken inclinations to consider *dharma* as a self or of a self, all *dharma* are error. 189

Now, when the bodhisattva dwells, considering *dharma* as reality he sees not even a *dharma* of the size of an atom amongst all *dharma* that is not a buddha-quality and becomes transformed into enlightenment, buddhahood, the path, liberation or deliverance. After he has realised that all *dharma* exist he acquires a great compassion called 'Unobstructed'.

188. According to a brief discussion of the Vaisesika understanding of *dharma* and *adharma* in the *Kośa* (iv, p. 7), *dharma* corresponds to merit and *adharma* to demerit. Elsewhere (*Kośa*, iv, p. 155; iii, p. 207), the meaning of *adharma* is given as stain or passion (*rāga*).

190. Akn-ṭīkā, p. 259.4.7-5.4 (cf. Akn, p. 68.3.5-6):

"Therefore, [because of universal emptiness, non-existence and non-apprehension] the bodhisattva who considers dharma does not see any dharma that is not a buddha-quality, deliverance, the path, liberation or the way leading out [of the triple world]."

^{187.} On the basis of mindfulness concerning *dharma*, the *Akn-ṭīkā* says (p. 259.2.8–3.2; cf. *Akn*, p. 68.2.5–5.1): "What is a purified bodhisattva? He persists in the basis of mindfulness concerning *dharma*. He transcends possession (*paryavasthāna*) of hindrances, fetters, ties, latent defilements and impurities and attains mastery over all *dharma*. Thus, it is asked"

^{189.} Philosophically, this interpretation of the nature of dharma and adharma evolves from the postulate of the sameness of all dharma (sarvadharmasamatā). Fundamentally, it rests on the proposition that "this indifferentiation (anānārthatā) is a mark of reality because of the sole flavour of emptiness (śūnyatāyaikarasatvāt)" (Madh. vṛtti, p. 375.7). On the moral level, suggesting that both dharma and adharma are causes of birth and destruction of all types of phenomena, the Bdp seems to follow the view of the Sarvāstivāda Abhidharma, postulating moral neutrality for dharma (Koša, iv, p. 7).

^{191.} ñon mons pa med pa: anāvaraṇa (cf. Edgerton, p. 23)

In the Śikṣ (p. 236.8), quoting the Akn, a samādhi bearing this name is found. This samādhi recurs in the Āloka (Obemiller (DDP), p. 36) where it signals—if accompanied by the anvayajñāna concerned with subjects (grāhaka)—acquisition of the fourth nirvedhabhāgīya, that is, the laukikāgradharma. It therefore constitutes the last psychic experience of laukika status and—being traditionally associated with the

Recognising that even the defilements of all sentient beings show no trace of impurity, he considers them to be contrived.

Why? Thus penetrating true meaning, bodhisattvas are enlightened because they themselves are awakened by the insight that there is neither an accumulation of impurity nor a substance to the aggregates. The own-being of impurity is also the seat of enlightenment. The seat of enlightenment is also the own-being of impurity. Although bodhisattvas are mindful of this, they do not achieve even a little. They do not advance or secure [anyone]. (661) They realise that intransitoriness is the foundation of being. Hence, the sphere of the Doctrine is intransitory. The place where the sphere of the Doctrine is situated, there is also the sphere of sentient beings. The place where the sphere of sentient beings is situated, there is also the sphere of space. Hence, all *dharma* are identical with space.

When the bodhisattva dwells, considering dharma as dharma he relies on the teaching of the Buddha. Even though considering all dharma, he delights in the teaching of the Buddha. Although it is true that he is aware of destruction, he does not realise unconditioned destruction. Although it is true that he is aware of no-birth, he does not give way to the conclusions of no-birth but reappears in order to look after sentient beings.

This basis of mindfulness establishes him in mindfulness of all *dharma*. However numerous the *dharma* and *dharma*-designations of the śrāvaka, pratyekabuddhas or buddhas are, he is established in their impeccable, unfailing recollection that is not darkened until the end of time.

This basis of mindfulness considering *dharma* as *dharma* is an infinite teaching because it does not belong to the sphere of ordinary conduct, but is included ¹⁹⁴ in all teachings of the Buddha and because it (662) appearses the minds of all sentient beings, suppresses all evil and is spontaneous awakening. O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva generates the basis of mindfulness considering *dharma* as *dharma*. These are the four bases of mindfulness.

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that the bodhisattva who is skilled in the four bases of mindfulness courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.9 Skill in the Factors of Enlightenment

Next, what is the skill in the factors of enlightenment of bodhisattvas?¹⁹⁵ The factors of

attainment in bala—allows the bodhisattva to pass into the $dar\dot{s}anam\bar{a}rga$. As the $dar\dot{s}anam\bar{a}rga$ itself is taken up by the cultivation of the seven bodhyanga—the next set of practices in the Bdp—it is probably safe to see in this reference (and, in particular, in the modification of the Akn, turning $an\bar{a}varana$ from a type of compassion to a form of meditation) a further indication of a consciously perceived path-structure in the Bdp.

^{192.} I take the Tibetan terms ne bar hjog pa to stand for upasthāpayanti; rab tu hjog pa for prasthāpayanti and hjog pa for sthāpayanti.

^{193.} gnas pa ñid: sthititā (Mvy 1720).

^{194.} yan dag par hdus pa: samavasarana (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 1157, col. 3).

^{195.} According to the Akn-tīkā (p. 266.1.3), the factors of enlightenment make up the path of seeing (darśana-mārga): "The title to summarise these seven factors is darśanamārga."

enlightenment of bodhisattvas are seven. What are the seven? These are the factor of enlightenment of mindfulness, the factor of enlightenment of Dharma-discernment, the factor of enlightenment of vigour, the factor of enlightenment of joy, the factor of enlightenment of tranquillity, the factor of enlightenment of meditation and the factor of enlightenment of equipoise. O Śāriputra, these are the seven factors of enlightenment of bodhisattvas.

What is the factor of enlightenment of mindfulness?¹⁹⁶ It is recollection by which they consider the Doctrine mindfully, by which they examine and investigate it thoroughly, (663) by which they research, analyse and distinguish it. By that recollection they are led to the characteristic of the own-being of *dharma*. Again, what is knowledge of the characteristic of the own-being of *dharma*? It is recollection and realisation that all *dharma* are empty of own-characteristic. This is the factor of enlightenment of mindfulness.

What is the factor of enlightenment of Dharma-discernment?¹⁹⁷ It is knowledge discerning the eighty-four thousand *dharma*-aggregates. It is discerning the Dharma just as it should be discerned, viz., discerning its teachings that are of precise meaning in terms of precise meaning, teachings that are of provisional meaning in terms of provisional meaning, teachings that are of conventional truth in terms of conventional truth, teachings that are of absolute truth in terms of absolute truth, symbolic teachings in terms of symbols and investigative¹⁹⁸ teachings in terms of investigation. This is the factor of enlightenment of Dharma-discernment.

What is the factor of enlightenment of vigour? It is exertion to attain joy of Dharma-discernment, purification, meditation, equipoise and the receptacle of pristine cognition; it is exertion to attain perseverance, power, valour, irreversible aspiration, strength, resolute ardour and intuitive perception of the path. (664) This is the factor of enlightenment of vigour.

What is the factor of enlightenment of joy? It is delight, joy and supreme pleasure in the Doctrine leading to fearlessness and courage. It is fearless delight that purifies not only the body and mind, but removes also impurity. This is the factor of enlightenment of joy.

What is the factor of enlightenment of tranquillity? It is pacifying body, mind and defilements, freedom from obstruction and one-pointedness while in meditation. This is the factor of

On the factors themselves, Vasubandhu comments ($Akn-t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$, p. 266.1.3-5; cf. Akn, p. 70.2.3-4.4): "As regards the factors of enlightenment; enlightenment is knowledge of destruction and

non-origination. It has the own-being of lack of thought-construction. These seven factors, mindfulness, etc., are its causes or associates (sahāya); hence they are called factors."

ote that according to the Abhidh-sam (R), p. 118, the sahāya are associates to the factors of enlightens.

Note that according to the *Abhidh-sam (R)*, p. 118, the *sahāya* are associates to the factors of enlightenment and not the factors themselves (ref. Braavrig).

^{196.} Akn-tīkā, p. 266.1.6-7:

[&]quot;A bodhisattva who is linked with mindfulness acquires certainty that he will reach truth and attains the factor of enlightenment of mindfulness."

^{197.} Akn-tīkā, p. 266.2-3:

[&]quot;A bodhisattva who is linked with discernment progresses in the factor of enlightenment of Dharma-discernment."

An identical formula is used in the commentary to introduce the remaining five factors of enlightenment. 198. rnam par gtan pa la bab pa: nirṇaya (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 555, col. 1).

enlightenment of tranquillity. 199

What is the factor of enlightenment of meditation?²⁰⁰ It is a composed mind by means of which knowledge and realisation of the Doctrine becomes—not a distracted mind. It is a composed mind by means of which awakening to *dharma* becomes—not a distracted mind. Apart from those who apply themselves to *dharma*-sameness and the Doctrine, no sentient beings understand this since they are ensnared by attachment. This is the factor of enlightenment of meditation. (665)

What is the factor of enlightenment of equipoise? It is thought that is quiescent because it is not seized by *dharma* taking part in pleasure or discomfort, that is not diverted by worldly *dharma*, but dwells in perfect rest. It is thought that is free from turbulence, discomposure and anxiety, that does not take up desire or hatred, but is in harmony with the noble path itself. This is the factor of enlightenment of equipoise.

O Śāriputra, it is in this manner that bodhisattvas who are skilled in the seven factors of enlightenment course in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.10 Skill in the Path

2.10.1 Skill in the Noble Eightfold Path

Next, what is the bodhisattva's skill in the path? The path of bodhisattvas is eightfold. What are the eight? These are right view, right resolve, right speech, right conduct, right livelihood, right effort, right mindfulness and right meditation. These are the eight limbs of the path of bodhisattvas.²⁰¹

What is right view? (666) It is a view that is noble and transcends the mundane realm. It

^{199.} In several places in the Samyuttanikāya (S V, pp. 66, 104, 111) a distinction is proposed between tranquillity of the body (kāyapassadhi) and tranquillity of the mind (cittapassadhi). Following this differentiation, the Dhs (pp. 14-5, 66) defines kāyapassadhi in terms of calmness of the aggregates of feeling (vedanā), perception (saññā) and formations (samkhāra), while explaining cittapassadhi as calmness of the consciousness-aggregate (viññāṇa). By implication, it is then vedanā, saññā and samkhāra that link the practitioner's physical and mental experience and might be taken to bridge the attainment in joy and tranquillity—with the former pertaining to the body and the latter to the mind (Waldschmidt, 1956, p. 292, 30.27).

^{200.} Akn-tīkā, p. 267.1.1–2:

[&]quot;Meditation by means of which thusness is known through one's own [effort] and then realised; this is the factor of enlightenment of meditation."

^{201.} Vasubandhu indicates in the Akn-tīkā that the eightfold path constitutes the bhāvanāmārga (p. 267.3.5-6): "Out of these, the summarising title (pindārtha) 'path of cultivation' is taught by means of the noble eightfold path while its 'practice' is taught by means of perfect mental quietude and insight."

The eightfold path itself is defined as follows (Akn-tīkā, p. 267.3.8-4.2; cf. Akn, pp. 70.4.4-71.2.1): "The path is pristine cognition by means of which the ārya attain unsurpassed enlightenment. The eight [factors], viz., right view, etc., are called limbs since they are associates of the pristine cognition of the path. They are right because they have turned away from mistaken views of the world."

does not arise from the belief in a self, a sentient being, a life-force or a person; it does not arise from the belief in nihilism or permanence, origination or destruction. It does not arise from heretical views, starting with that which distinguishes virtue and non-virtue and ending with the view of [permanent] nirvāṇa; this is right view.²⁰²

What is right resolve? A resolve through which impurities such as desire, hatred and delusion, etc., prevail does not suffice. Rather, it is a resolve through which morality, contemplation, wisdom, deliverance and the knowledge and vision of deliverance come into being²⁰³; this is right resolve.²⁰⁴

What is right speech? It is right speech through which neither oneself nor others are distressed. It is rich in utterances of beneficial application²⁰⁵. It is through this speech that one penetrates path-uniformity; this is right speech.²⁰⁶

What is right conduct? Concerning unwholesome action; a bodhisattva does not perform action of the kind that produces evil retribution. (667) Concerning wholesome action; he performs action of the kind that produces wholesome retribution. Concerning wholesome/unwholesome action; he does not perform action of the kind that produces wholesome/unwholesome retribution. Concerning action that is neither wholesome nor unwholesome; he performs action of the kind that leads to the exhaustion of action since it produces no retribution. Hence, confidence in one's doings and diligent exertion to right action, this is right conduct.²⁰⁷

What is right livelihood? It is to live without abandoning the noble lineage²⁰⁸ or the virtues

202. Akn-tīkā, p. 267.4.2-3:

"A bodhisattva who transcends binary thinking acquires right view on the path of contemplation."

203. Akn-tīkā, p. 267.5.1–2:

"Right resolve does not construct objects that generate *kleśa*, it does not generate the origination of *kleśa*."

204. Akn-tīkā, p. 267.4.7-8:

"A bodhisattva who professes good resolve attains right resolve on the bhāvanāmārga."

205. rjes su sbyor ba: anuyoga (cf. Edgerton, p. 32, col. 2).

206. Akn-tīkā, p. 267.5.1-2:

"A disciplined bodhisattva who is attracted to the *bhāvanāmārga* by right speech acquires moral conduct that was approved by the *ārya*."

207. Akn-tīkā, p. 267.5.6-7:

"A composed bodhisattva who is attracted to the *bhāvanāmārga* by right conduct acquires moral conduct that was approved by the *ārva*."

208. hphags pahi rigs: āryavamśa

To define right livelihood in terms of the $\bar{a}ryavamsa$ is significant, since it throws some light on the Bdp's position regarding the bodhisattva's sphere of conduct. The $\bar{a}ryavamsa$, literally 'lineage of noble ones' describes a set of ascetic disciplines that are held conducive to liberation. Their purpose is to lead to contentment and the eradication of desire. Although its practice is technically known as 'lineage', it is by virtue of one's way of life rather than birth that membership is attained. Unlike the notion of gotra to which one belongs by birth (for exceptions to this rule, see: Bbh, pp. 1–11), the $\bar{a}ryavamsa$ —although notionally parallel to gotra—is a matter of personal decision.

Its frequent occurrences in the nikāya suggest that the āryavaṃśa gained high esteem from relatively early on. Detailed discussions of the practices that belong to the āryavaṃśa are found, for instance, at M I, p. 2 and A II. 27, 28 (ref. Schuster). The practices that are included in the āryavaṃśa are (1) contentment with robes made of rags (cīvarā), (2) contentment with alms-food consisting of scraps (piṇḍiyālopa), (3) contentment with roots of trees (rukkhamūla) as lodging and (4) contentment with strong-smelling urine (pūtimutta) as medicine.

Besides the more explicit references, the four practices appear in number of other places in the early

of mendicant life²⁰⁹. It is to live without joking, hypocrisy or violent retaliation and to be easily satisfied with food and medicine²¹⁰. It is to live without assuming negligence in one's training or to envy other persons' property, but to be content with one's own belongings. It is to live beyond reproach as it was prescribed by the noble one; this is right livelihood.²¹¹

suttas. First, all but the last practice are included in the dhutānga (Vism, pp. 24, 30–36, 40). Second, among the practices that Devadatta wished to make obligatory for all monks, we note that it was mainly the concerns of the first three āryavaṃśa practices that stood at the centre of his aspirations (Vin, iii, x.1.1, Cullavagga, vii.3).

That the āryavaṃśa continued to enjoy high esteem is shown by Buddhaghoṣa's (Vism, pp. 93–94) recommendation of four texts that should be used by monks as guides to their practice. These include besides the Āriyavaṃṣsasutta, the Rathavinitasutta (M I, p. 24), Malakasutta (Sn, iii.11) and Tuvaṭakasutta (Sn, iv.14), all of which are concerned with issues of discipline and contentment. Similar concerns are also expressed in the seven suttas that are cited by Aśoka in his Bhābrā edict as works that monks, nuns and lay-persons should study in detail (Warder, 1980, pp. 255–57). Finally, mirroring the ideal of practitioners who elected the disciplinarian vigour of seclusion, the āryavaṃśa correspond to the four types of requisites that a pratyekabuddha is allowed to possess, viz., robes, almsfood, a place to rest and medicine (Kloppenberg, 1974, p. 26). All of this suggests that the ascetic ideal that is epitomised by the four āryavaṃśa practices—always voluntary and free from the extremes of self-mortification—enjoyed broad support among the Buddhist community during the first centuries of Buddhism.

Not surprisingly, this concern for discipline, moderation and self-control did not wane in the course of time, but maintained much of its appeal for later generations of Buddhists. In scholastic writings, the four $\bar{a}ryavam\dot{s}a$ are treated in the $Ko\dot{s}a$ (iv, pp. 146–8), $Mpp\dot{s}$ and the Sarvāstivāda Dharmaskandha (chpt. vi). Among the early $s\bar{u}tras$ of the Mahāyāna, they are given prominent treatment in the Ug (pp. 268.1.6–69.3.1), Rp (p. 13.17–18, p. 14.7–8) and Kp (pp. 13–14, 174, 179–181; § 6, 123, 126). In particular, the Ug stands out for its detailed discussion. Here, they dominate practically the whole of section seven and stand at the heart of the bodhisattva's training in solitude and contentment. Two aspects of its discussion are especially noteworthy. First, there is the fact that the Ug's presentation of the four practices corresponds almost verbatim to that of A II.28, pp. 26–7. This reinforces the assumption that the $\bar{a}ryavam\dot{s}a$ acquired great renown already in ancient times for it to enjoy the use of stockphrase in its description. Second, we note a tendency in the Ug, Kp and Rp to make the $\bar{a}ryavam\dot{s}a$ specifically the domain of the pravrajita bodhisattva. All three texts make it obvious that they consider it elemental to the proper conduct of recluse bodhisattvas. In them the $\bar{a}ryavam\dot{s}a$ epitomise the basic mental disposition that is conducive to a proper attitude in training, but are nowhere near the actual attainment of bodhi. In the Kp their mastery is also open to those of inferior understanding and is little more than preparatory to meditation practice.

Undoubtedly, this attitude reflects the Buddha's thinking when he decreed that their practice should not be made obligatory since he thought that they were of benefit only to those who already possessed a disposition of asceticism. It appears, therefore, that the interpretation of the *āryavaṃśa* had changed little since the early days. During the incipient Mahāyāna, the role of the *āryavaṃśa* is associated only with a minority of practitioners—the *pravrajita* bodhisattva—and is valued as a preliminary practice to meditation that instilled discipline, quietude and contentment in the adept. It is only with the rise of scholasticism, that this general appreciation became refined, leading to the detailed accounts in the *Kośa* and *Vism*.

The Bdp's position on the āryavaṃśa does not match fully either of these strands. On the one hand, to include them in right livelihood would seem to assign the āryavaṃśa practices to the general model of Buddhist conduct and not specifically to the pravrajita environment. On the other hand, their positioning as the first practice of right livelihood suggests that they enjoyed a certain preeminence over the other factors (e.g., absence of hypocrisy, violence, jest). This prominence appears strengthened through the practices that follow after the reference to the āryavaṃśa. Most of them speak of moderation, contentment and moral integrity as the ideal life-style of wandering mendicants. By implication their inclusion in the general category of right livelihood would seem to point to the modest, reclusive life epitomised by the āryavaṃśa as the model training for the Bdp's bodhisattva to follow.

- 209. sbyans paḥi yon tan: dhūtaguṇa (cf. Edgerton, p. 286, col. 1).
- 210. dgan sla ba: suposa; gso sla ba: subhara (cf. Edgerton, p. 600, col. 1; p. 601, col. 1).
- 211. Akn-tīkā, p. 268.1.2-3:

"A peaceful bodhisattva who is attracted to the *bhāvanāmārga* by right effort acquires moral conduct that was approved by the *ārya*."

Most other works on the bodhipākṣika include in the exposition of right livelihood as brief account of the five mistaken forms of livelihood (mithyājīva). These include (1) hypocrisy in order to obtain alms

What is right effort? Effort that preaches mistaken conduct, effort that leads to the propensities of defilements²¹² of desire, hatred and delusion—this is not intended. Rather, it is effort that—introducing to the noble path and truth—accords with the effort that establishes in the path leading to *nirvāṇa*; this is right effort.²¹³ (668)

What is right mindfulness? It is mindfulness that is well-composed, self-possessed, sincere and truthful; it is mindfulness that investigates the faults and defects of saṃsāra and guides the bodhisattva on the path to nirvāṇa; it is mindfulness that causes recollection and is not oblivious of the noble path; this is right mindfulness.²¹⁴

What is right meditation? It is composure towards reality and all *dharma*. When one dwells in this [type of] meditation, one penetrates reality. If one dwells in this [type of] bodhisattvameditation in order to liberate all sentient beings and penetrates reality, that is right meditation.²¹⁵

(kuhanā), (2) boasting (lapanā), (3) divination (naimittikatā), (4) extraction of gifts from the laity (naiṣpeṣikatā) and (5) unceasing concern for profit (lābhena lābham niścikīrṣatā). In the nikāya, they are found in D I, pp. 8, 67; M III, p. 75; A III, p. 111; for Sanskrit references, see: Kośavyākhyā, p. 420; Bbh, pp. 168.21–169.2; Abhidh-d, p. 309.9–11 and Śikṣ, p. 183.15. A fine summary of the significance of the five terms is given in the Abhidh-d (p. 310.1–5):

"The five mistaken forms of livelihood constitute particular thoughts. Hypocrisy is to resort to manifold posturing in order to demonstrate qualities that one does not possess. Boasting is to show off one's qualities out of own interest. Divination is to interpret signs either favourably or unfavourably [for one's own benefit] with the pretext to pay service [to others]. Extortion is to extract favour through threats. Unceasing concern for profit is to strive for new gains by virtue of previously obtained profit."

The best analysis of the five types of mistaken livelihood in European languages is probably that by Wogihara (*Bbh*, pp. 21–26*). For other references of their occurrence in Buddhist literature, particularly in exegetical material, see: *Mpps*, iii, pp. 1182–3.

212. ñon mons pa bag la ñal ba: kleśānuśaya (cf. Edgerton, p. 198, col. 1)

The exact relationship between the *kleśa* and *anuśaya* is frequently glossed over in Buddhist literature. In many texts both terms are used as near-synonyms and are only inadequately distinguished. Even in scholastic works, their differences are not always made clear. According to the *Dhsgr* (§ 67) and *Siddhi* (p. 343), the *kleśa* are sixfold, viz., desire (*rāga*), aversion (*pratighā*), conceit (*māna*), ignorance (*avidya*), mistaken views (*kudṛṣṭi*) and doubt (*vicikitsā*). In the *Kośa* (v, p. 2) these six factors (replacing the last two with *dṛṣṭi* and *vimati* respectively) are said to characterise the *anuśaya*.

In the Sarvāstivāda Abhidharma (Jñānaprasthāna, T 26, p. 943a27; ref. La Vallée Poussin), this list of anuśaya is extended to include ten kinds of anuśaya by subdividing the kudṛṣṭi into the (1) belief in a self (satkāyadṛṣṭi), (2) false views (mithyādṛṣṭi), (3) belief in the extremes (antagrāhadṛṣṭi), (4) the esteeming of views (dṛṣṭiparāmarṣ́a) and (5) the esteeming of moral and ascetic practices (ṣīlavrataparāmarṣ́a). Creating further subdivisions and addressing specific viewpoints, the basic list of six has been variously expanded with the highest number of anuṣ́aya amounting to ninety-eight (Koṣ́a, v, p. 13).

A key passage in the Kośa (v, p. 6) explains that the anuśaya are not different from the kleśa but constitute kleśa in a state of sleep. They are said to be the opposite of paryavasthāna (active defilement) that is, kleśa in an awakened state. Because the anuśaya are non-manifested they are in a latent state, bearing the characteristics of a seed belonging to a person who engendered the previous kleśa. While the anuśaya are the cause of the kleśa, they are not solely responsible since the kleśa depend for arising on the presence of dharma as objects and on incorrect preparation. In the words of the Kośa (v, p. 72):

"Kleśa arise from the non-abandoning of the anuśaya, from the presence of their object and from erroneous judgement."

213. Akn-tīkā, p. 268.1.6-7:

"A bodhisattva who has gone forth to mendicant life acquires right livelihood on the *bhāvanāmār-ga*."

214. Akn-tīkā, p. 268.2.1-2:

"A bodhisattva who is full of joy acquires the ability to retain words and meanings on the bhāvanāmārga."

215. As this sentence differs from the preceding one only by qualifying meditation as bodhisattva-meditation, it

After the bodhisattva has intuitively grasped the inexhaustible path of the lord buddhas of all times he preaches, explains and fully elucidates it. This is right meditation.²¹⁶

These are the eight limbs of the path of bodhisattvas. This is the bodhisattva's skill in the path.

2.10.2 Skill in Perfect Mental Quietude and Insight

Furthermore, as regards their skill in the path; the path of bodhisattvas is twofold. What are the two? (669) These are perfect mental quietude and insight. This is the twofold path.

What is perfect mental quietude? It is composure, serenity and stillness. It is imperturbability, restraint with regard to senses and congeniality. It is freedom from conceit, arrogance and folly. It is resoluteness, watchfulness and self-possession. It is non-delusion of mind, joy in solitude, quietude and seclusion. It is reflection on physical seclusion, mental quietude and the door to solitude. It is ease of mind and modesty. It is purity of life, excellence of practice and guarded conduct. It senses timeliness. It is contentment with food and medicine. It is analytical investigation²¹⁷. It is mental poise and patient endurance of the words of those who speak evil. It is generating the thought of enlightenment at the door to yoga. It is taking pleasure in deep absorption and contemplating the branches of meditation. That is to say, it producing benevolence, acquiring compassion, persisting in sympathetic joy, assuming equipoise and attaining successively all eight [types of] meditation. This is perfect mental quietude.²¹⁸

Again, the accumulation of perfect mental quietude is infinite. Guidance to that accumulation is perfect mental quietude.

What is insight? (670) It is the path of contemplation²¹⁹ connected to wisdom. It is knowledge

appears that the Bdp intends to point to a difference between the śrāvaka-meditation and the bodhisattva-meditation. That is to say, the śrāvaka is concerned with his own liberation and may pass from the state of meditation into $nirv\bar{a}na$, but the bodhisattva's motivation of his meditative practice is the goal of universal liberation.

^{216.} Akn-tīkā, p. 268.2.6-7:

[&]quot;A bodhisattva who is of great power attains the accomplishment of his intended aims on the bhāvanāmārga."

An Italian translation of the parallel passage in the Akn (as preserved in the Arthav) was composed by Alfonsa Ferrari, 1944, pp. 603–4. I have reproduced the Sanskrit of that passage in the notes to my edition. Note, however, that her translation is based on the Tibetan, since in 1944 the Sanskrit text of the Arthav was not yet available.

^{217.} so sor rtog pa: pratyaveksā

For a definition of pratyaveksā, see: MBT, iii, pp. 3, 5, 14–15, Bbh, p. 109.18–22.

^{218.} According to the *Bbh* (p. 260.15-23), *śamatha* falls into four categories. First, there is *śamatha* that is knowledge indicating the absolute truth (*paramārthikasāmketikajñāna*). Second, there is *śamatha* that—being the fruit of the first type—is effortless perception of discursive proliferation (*prapañca*). Third, *śamatha* is characterised as penetration of the ineffability of things and their signlessness. Fourth, by cleansing the mind of all discrimination, *śamatha* leads to the essentially uniform single flavour of all *dharma* (*sarvadharmasamatā*). By means of these four aspects of *śamatha*, its practice accomplishes the pristine cognition of enlightenment. Other, less specific, classifications of *śamatha* are found in the *Samdhis* (ÉLa), p. 93.1-10.

^{219.} sgom paḥi lam: bhāvanāmārga

At first sight, this reference to the path of cultivation (bhāvanāmārga) is surprising. According to the Siddhi (p. 569) vipašyanā constitutes the central vision of the daršanamārga and plays a decisive role in

seeing the imperturbability of *dharma*. It is knowledge seeing that there is no sentient being, life-force or person and that the aggregates are illusory. It is knowledge seeing that the elements are like the sphere of the Doctrine. It is knowledge seeing that the sensefields are like an empty city and that the eye scrutinises discursively. It is knowledge seeing that dependent co-origination is non-contradictory and that it is beyond the heretical view stipulating the existence of a sentient being. It is knowledge seeing that causes and effects ripen. It is knowledge seeing the manifestation of the fruit-attainment. It is knowledge seeing that penetrating reality is attainment.

Again, as regards insight; it is accurate seeing of *dharma*. It is seeing the suchness of *dharma*. It is seeing the unfailing thusness of *dharma*. It is seeing the emptiness, signlessness and wishlessness of *dharma*.

Again, as regards insight; it does not consist of seeing through causes or the absence of causes. It does not consist of seeing through causes that arise, abide and perish or that are mentally construed; and although it is insight, one sees not even a little.²²⁰ (671)

Furthermore, as regards insight; it is seeing by seeing and non-seeing by seeing. When one sees in this manner, then one sees rightly. When one sees rightly, one acquires skill in insight. Now, concerning the insight of bodhisattvas; they neither fall into karma-producing activity nor attend to accumulating roots of virtue; this is the insight of bodhisattvas.²²¹

the establishing of 'seeing'. Indeed, most texts agree that the practice of vipaśyanā belongs to the darśana-mārga and not to the bhāvanāmārga (examples, see: Ruegg, 1989, pp. 186–88). It could, however, be argued that bhāvanāmārga constitutes essentially a refined renewal of the 'non-constructive gnosis' (nir-vikalpajñāna) first intuited during the darśanamārga (Siddhi, p. 606). Judging by the characterisation of vipaśyanā in the Bdp, it is probable that it is this parallelism that is played at, since the content—affirming cognition of the emptiness, sameness and ultimate non-existence of dharma—corresponds to the definition of the bhāvanāmārga as "intuition dominated by supreme wisdom that is engaged in pondering, investigation and contemplation of the unreality of the separate elements of existence, their non-substantiality and relativity" (DPP, pp. 41–42). In the Bbh (pp. 109.7–110.4) both śamatha and vipaśyanā play a part in the cultivation (bhāvanā) of balagotra, leading to the elimination of evil dispositions and purification of the vision of knowledge. This might explain why we find in several texts (e.g., Akn-tīkā, p. 267.3.5–6, Abhidh-sam (R), p. 126) that the cultivation of śamatha and vipaśyanā is placed at the end of the bhāvanāmārga, indicating the final consummation of non-constructive gnosis.

^{220.} The syntax of this passage is ambiguous and I am not certain whether my translation represents its chain of reasoning accurately. The commentary on the *Akn* is of little help here, since the crucial portion is not found in the root text (*Akn*, p. 71.3.5–8; *Akn-tīkā*, pp. 268.4.1–269.5.6). However, some light is shed on the meaning of this passage by a paragraph in the *Samdhis* (*ÉLa*) (pp. 90.21–91.17) that discusses the ways in which thought perceived during meditation differs from ordinary thought.

^{221.} Like śamatha, also vipaśyanā displays four levels of operation. First, at the lowest level, vipaśyanā encompasses all four aspects of śamatha. Second, vipaśyanā removes the remaining mistaken mental assumptions (samāropa) concerning dharma. Third, vipaśyanā eradicates all blame and contradiction (apavāda) and fourth, through infinite methods of differentiation vipaśyanā penetrates dharma analysis (Bbh, pp. 260.23-261.5).

Compare these four types of vipaśyanā with the three types that are proposed in the Saṃdhis (ÉLa) (p. 92.14–29). Here, we learn that vipaśyanā may either spring from notions (nimittamayī), striving (prayeṣaṇāmayī) or from analytical investigation (pratyavekṣaṇāmayī). The first is concerned with images that carry reflection (vikalpabimba) perceived during meditation. The second addresses dharma that the bodhisattva penetrated only partially through wisdom. The third type of vipaśyanā investigates accurately the Dharma in order to reach the bliss of enlightenment. Further material on the various divisions and aspects of śamatha and vipaśyanā is found in the Abhidh-sam (R), p. 126.

It is in this way that the bodhisattva who is skilled in perfect mental quietude and insight courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.10.3 Skill in Perfect Efforts

Furthermore, as regards skill in the path; the path of bodhisattvas is fourfold. What are the four?

They generate the keen wish that bad, unwholesome *dharma* that have hitherto not arisen are not produced. They strive and apply themselves diligently, they control their mind and endeavour zealously to that end.

They generate the keen wish that bad, unwholesome *dharma* that have already arisen are abandoned. They strive and apply themselves diligently, they control their mind and endeavour zealously to that end.

They generate the keen wish that virtuous *dharma* that have hitherto not arisen are produced. They strive and apply themselves diligently, they control their mind and endeavour zealously to that end.

They generate the keen wish that virtuous *dharma* that have already arisen persist, reappear, (672) prevail and endure. They strive and apply themselves diligently, they control their mind and endeavour zealously to that end.²²²

'He generates the keen wish that bad, unwholesome *dharma* that have hitherto not arisen are not produced' is an expression for correct reflection. 'He strives and applies himself diligently to that end' is an expression for not abandoning this correct reflection. 'He controls the mind and endeavours zealously to that end' is an expression for correct, careful investigation. Why? Because correct practices do not manifest unwholesome *dharma*.

What are unwholesome *dharma*? Unwholesome *dharma* are the detriment of moral conduct, meditation and wisdom. What is the detriment of moral conduct? *Dharma* that corrupt moral conduct and some others that impair it, (673) viz., *dharma* that are detrimental to the morality-aggregate, these are the detriment of moral conduct.

What is the detriment of meditation? *Dharma* that corrupt religious practice and some others that distract the mind, viz., *dharma* that are detrimental to the meditation-aggregate, these are the detriment of meditation.

^{222.} Playing at the ambiguity of the word-formation of *prahāṇa/pradhāna*, Vasubandhu comments (*Akn-ṭīkā*, p. 260.5.4–6):

[&]quot;It is fitting to call 'bad, unwholesome *dharma* that have hitherto not arisen are not produced' and 'those that have already arisen should be abandoned' perfect abandoning (samyakprahāṇa). But how can 'so that virtuous *dharma* that have hitherto not arisen are produced' and 'those that have arisen should endure' be called perfect abandoning? To designate the two in this way appears illogical, but there is no inconsistency here since 'perfect abandoning' is taken to mean to abandon the detriment (vipakṣaprahāṇa), to produce and make the virtuous dharma endure and to abandon the detriment that takes place in order to produce and make endure [virtuous dharma]."

What is the detriment of wisdom? *Dharma* that corrupt vision and some others that obscure his vision overwhelmingly, viz., *dharma* that are detrimental to the wisdom-aggregate, these are the detriment of wisdom. These are bad, unwholesome *dharma*.

Due to correct reflection he generates the keen wish that such bad, unwholesome *dharma* are abandoned. He strives and applies himself diligently, he controls his mind and endeavours zealously to that end. Hence, these unwholesome *dharma* do not accumulate in his mind and do not prevail in any region or quarter.

He perceives that these unwholesome *dharma* that—wandering in the mind—have arisen from conditions and obstructions, viz., from desire by way of the disposition of affection, from hatred by way of the disposition of anger and from delusion by way of the disposition of ignorance. Then, the disposition of correct reflection acts to appease desire by way of contemplating ²²³ impurity, to appease hatred by way of contemplating benevolence and to appease delusion by way of contemplating dependent co-origination. ²²⁴ Pacification of these impurities is abandoning after having qualified them. ²²⁵ One who abandons does not apprehend anything. (674) Since he is aware that all *dharma* are uniform, because of that, he abandons correctly. This is the second right effort.

Again, the expression 'he generates the keen wish that virtuous *dharma* that have hitherto not arisen are produced. He strives and applies himself diligently, he controls his mind and endeavours zealously to that end' has an infinite basis. Why? Because the virtuous *dharma* that should be accomplished by the *mahāsattva*, bodhisattva are incalculable. Here, 'keen wish' is the foundation of all roots of virtue. 'Acquisition of diligence' is the foundation of all roots of virtue. 'Perseverance²²⁶ in controlling the mind' is the foundation of all roots of virtue. 'This is the third right effort.

Again, 'he generates the keen wish that all virtuous *dharma* that have already arisen persist, prevail and endure. He strives and applies himself diligently, he controls his mind and endeavours zealously to that end' is an expression for the roots of virtue that have been transformed into enlightenment.

Why? Roots of virtue that have been transformed into enlightenment endure until he has

^{223.} The word 'contemplating' (tib.: sgom pa) is not found in the Tibetan text, but is to be supplied on contextual grounds.

^{224.} Compare this proposition with the view expressed in the *Siddhi* (pp. 359, 351) that defilements of speculation (*parikalpitakleśa*) can be abandoned through seeing (*darśana*) because they are coarse and hence easily abandoned while innate defilements (*sahajakleśa*) because they are difficult to abandon are eliminated through contemplation (*bhāvanā*).

^{225.} tha sñad du btags pahi phyir (lit.: 'after having named them')

The idea behind this thought appears to be that the bodhisattva cannot proceed to eradicate unwholesome dharma until he has positively identified them.

^{226.} ñam su len par byed pa: āsthitikriyā (cf. Edgerton, p. 111, col. 2).

^{227.} Most other works do not elaborate the differences between the two poles of the *samyakprahāṇa*. For instance, in the *Kp* (p. 139; § 95) the four perfect efforts are collectively the remedy (*cikitsā*) that prompts the abandonment of non-virtuous *dharma* and leads to the fulfilment (*pāripūri*) of all virtuous *dharma*.

settled on the seat of enlightenment. Why? Because a thought thus produced is not dependent on the triple world. (675) Roots of virtue that depend on the triple world perish. Why? Because a thought thus produced is dependent on the triple world. All roots of virtue that are transformed into all-knowing are independent of the triple world and do not perish. This is the fourth right effort.²²⁸

It is in this manner that the bodhisattva who is skilled in the fourfold path courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.10.4 Skill in Faculties

Furthermore, as regards skill in the path; the path of the bodhisattva is fivefold. What are the five? These are the faculty of faith, the faculty of vigour, the faculty of recollection, the faculty of meditation and the faculty of wisdom.²²⁹

What is the faculty of faith? It is faith through which he gains confidence in four *dharma*. ²³⁰ What are the four?

(1) While in samsāra, he has faith in worldly right view²³¹. He relies on the ripening

- 228. For the Akn-ţīkā, the attainment of the four efforts mirrors the bodhisattva's progress in vigour. To begin with, during the first perfect effort, the bodhisattva exerts himself to produce the antidote to unwholesome dharma, viz., vigour (p. 260.5.7). Second, in order to abandon those bad dharma that have already arisen, he appeases them (p. 262.1.2-3). Third, now in possession of vigour, the bodhisattva promotes the becoming of wholesome dharma (p. 262.2.7-8). Fourth, being established in vigour, he consolidates those wholesome dharma that have already arisen (p. 262.3.6-7).
- 229. An Italian translation largely paralleling our 'skill' in faculties (as cited in the *Arthav* from the *Akn*, but made on the basis of the Tibetan) was composed by A. Ferrari (*op. cit.*, pp. 601–2). I have reproduced the Sanskrit of that passage in the notes to my edition of chapter eleven.
- 230. The section of 'skill' in faculties is one of the few passages of the *Bdp* that are extant in the Sanskrit. It is found in the *Siks* citing from the *Akn* (pp. 316.13-317.13). An abbreviated Sanskrit version of the parallel passage in the *Akn* is also found in the *Arthav* (S), pp. 31.6-33.2 and in its commentary (*Arthav-t* (S), pp. 223-25).

According to the Akn- $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$ (p. 263.5.4–5):

"A bodhisattva who posseses supreme faith progresses in the faculty of faith. Supramundane faith is superior to mundane faith, it is distinguished, greater and unsurpassed."

231. laukika samyagdṛṣṭi: 'worldly right view'

According to the commentary on the Arthav, faith in worldly right view refers to the bodhisattva's belief in the existence of the other world (paraloka) and pertains to laukika consciousness (Arthav-t (S), pp. 223-25). Merely concerned with the bodhisattva's receptivity to, and knowledge of, the structure of samsāra, it is to be distinguished from the samyagdṛṣṭi of the āryāṣṭāṅgamārga (Kośa, vi, p. 290). The Sarvāstivāda understood laukika samyagdṛṣṭi as 'prajñā associated with (saṃprayukta) mental perception (manovijñāna)' that allows for vision of dharma. Wholesome by nature, but impure (sāṣrava) it is not the right view of the arhant which is always pure (Kośa, ii, p. 81). This would establish the indriya in the Bdp as pertaining to the laukika consciousness—a possibility that is acknowledged by the Sarvāstivāda (Bareau, 1955, p. 143).

The issue of the feasibility of 'worldly right view' is hotly debated and the Sarvāstivāda view remained by no means unchallenged. Criticism came, for instance, from the Theravāda tradition, arguing that there exists neither a *laukika* right view nor a *laukika* faculty of faith (op. cit., p. 66). For them, all mundane qualities—be it faith, vigour, mindfulness, meditation or wisdom—exist, by definition, outside the way to deliverance. As such, they are clearly distinct from the *indriya*, because they do not fulfil the purpose of the *indriya*, namely, the abandonment of delusion and extermination of desire that can only be achieved through pure wisdom and pure faith (op. cit., p. 67). The Akn-tīkā (p. 264.1.2-5), defines 'worldly right view' as perception of the conduct of ignorant laymen, as knowledge of the ripening of deeds in retribution

- of deeds and refrains from sinful actions for the sake of life.
- (2) He has faith in the bodhisattva training and, once embarked on this training, does not long for another vehicle.
- (3) He has faith in the precise meaning of the absolute truth, in the profound law of dependent co-origination, in investigation concerning the sentient being and in the notion that all *dharma* bear the characteristics of emptiness and signlessness. (676) He does not harbour inclinations towards any heretical belief.²³²
- (4) He has faith in all buddha-qualities, in the powers and assurances. After he has heard of them, he becomes convinced and gathers these qualities trustingly. This is the faculty of faith.

What is the faculty of vigour? He produces *dharma* in that he has faith through the faculty of vigour; this is the faculty of vigour. He retains *dharma* that he gathered with vigour through the faculty of recollection; this is the faculty of recollection. He focuses his thought by means of the faculty of meditation on *dharma* that he retained through the faculty of recollection; this is the faculty of meditation. He examines by means of the faculty of wisdom *dharma* on which he focused his thought through the faculty of meditation; knowledge of these *dharma* is the faculty of wisdom.

It is in this way that his five faculties are connected with each other and cause him to accomplish all buddha-qualities. They cause him also to attain the stage of prediction. For instance, just like those who possess the five transcendental super-knowledge do not predict a foetus in the womb until he has attained male or female faculties, (677) in the same way also the lord buddhas do not predict bodhisattvas until they have attained these five faculties.²³³

and as knowledge of existence of the *triratna*. The issue of the *laukika/lokottara* distinction does not figure in the Akn- $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$'s explanation of the passage on the $\dot{s}raddhendriya$ beyond the statement that worldly observance of $\dot{s}raddh\bar{a}$, etc., contains the preconditions for the *indriya* to become a transcendental practice (pp. 263.5.4–6, 264.3.4).

^{232.} Ita bar byas pa: drstikrta (cf. Edgerton, p. 269, col. 2).

^{233.} This allusion to the prediction of buddhahood refers no doubt to the fourth and last prediction of the bodhisattva. Being public and made in the presence of the person concerned (sammukhapudgalavyākaraṇa), it is only conferred after the bodhisattva has developed the spiritual indriya (that, according to Kumārajīva, are of lokottara rank) and observes constantly the brahmacaryā ideal, when he has attained the conviction of the non-arising of dharma (anutpattikadharmakṣānti) and resides on the acalābhūmi (Śgs, pp. 212–13; Msl, p. 166.9–17; Bbh, p. 290.6–7).

The preceding three $vy\bar{a}karana$ are explained as follows: The first prediction (anutpāditabodhicittotpādavyākarana) is conferred on a person who abides in the lineage of the buddhas (gotrastha) but has not yet generated the thought of enlightenment. He is endowed with weak faculties (tīkṣṇendriya) but of honest aspiration (udārādhimuktika). Such a person is identified in the five destinies by the Buddha through his great sight (apratihatabuddhacakṣus) and prophesied to generate the bodhicitta in due course. The second prediction is conferred on a bodhisattva who has already generated the thought of enlightenment (upāditacittavyākaraṇa). It is conferred on those who have developed their roots of virtue, who have planted and cultivated the seed of enlightenment, who possess acute faculties, who accomplish superior conduct (kṛtacaryā) and show compassion towards beings. At this stage, their attainments are already irreversible (avaivartika) and free from the eight unfavourable conditions of birth (aṣṭākṣaṇa). The third prediction (asamakṣavyākarana or rohavyākaraṇa) is secret in the sense that it is only known to the

This is his fivefold path. It is in this way that the bodhisattva who is skilled in the fivefold path courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.10.5 Skill in Powers

Furthermore, O Śāriputra, what is the bodhisattva's skill in the fivefold path? The five limbs are the power of faith, the power of vigour, the power of recollection, the power of meditation and the power of wisdom.²³⁴

What is his power of faith? It is faith, confidence and devotion that is invincible. Even if Māra were to assume the appearance of the Buddha and approached [the bodhisattva], someone who has faith in the pristine cognition of the Doctrine would tell them apart, saying: "These teachings are not the Doctrine of the Buddha." Even if he deters him and dissuades him from his resolution, by persisting in thorough investigation the *mahābhūta* are completely transformed. However, this does not happen to a bodhisattva who trusts the power of faith. Thus, Māra cannot separate him from the bodhisattva's power of faith.

What is the bodhisattva's power of vigour? Whatever vigour they acquire and however many virtuous *dharma* they practice, although they attain a degree of firm power in these, the worldings including the gods are not able to repulse, describe or generate the degree of his power unless they are liberated in his place²³⁵. (678) This is the bodhisattva's power of vigour.

What is the bodhisattva's power of recollection? In whatever state or *dharma* his mind is established through the bases of mindfulness, no defilements whatsoever can perturb or distract him from them. Through the force of the power of recollection he overcomes all defilements. His recollection is truly invincible. This is the bodhisattva's power of recollection.

What is the bodhisattva's power of contemplation? He practises with composure in the midst of all bustle of worldly affairs. When he reflects on all sounds of worldly paths, the thicket of sound does not become an impediment to his first contemplation.²³⁶ Although he

assembly, but not to the bodhisattva concerned. The reason usually given in support of this secrecy is that, if conferred personally, the bodhisattva might forfeit his vigour in anticipation of what is by now certain buddhahood. On the other hand, the buddha's address to the assembly is meant to provide inspiration to the audience, to sustain their interest and to remove all remaining doubt of the feasibility of the goal ($\dot{S}gs$, np. 202–213)

^{234.} The difference between the practice of the *indriya* and *bala* is that (*Akn-tīkā*, p. 264.4.3–6): "When treated as faculties [the bodhisattvas] attain only mastery in realising and fulfilling the practices in which one should have faith, etc., but they are not such that they overcome their antitheses. When treated as powers, however, faith, etc., provided that they are cultivated and purified, gather force and become a *bala* in order to overcome its antitheses, viz., distrust, etc."

This explanation runs very close to the reasoning that is given in the *Abhidh-sam (R)*, p. 123, where we learn that the *pañcabala* are called power because they eliminate the danger posed by their antitheses and because of their distinction.

^{235.} The last subclause represents only an approximate translation of the Tibetan phrase gnas der ma bsgral gyi bar du (R, folio 678.1). A more literal rendering would be: "unless they are removed from that place".

^{236.} The allegory likening sound to a thicket is also found in the Kathāvatthu (pp. 202, 572-3; ref. Braavrig).

discriminates when pursuing virtuous investigation, it does not become an impediment to his second contemplation. Although delight and happiness arise in him and persist, it does not become an impediment to his third contemplation. Although he is not indifferent for the sake of developing sentient beings and to uphold the holy Doctrine, it does not become an impediment to his fourth contemplation. (679) When he dwells in these four contemplations, he is invincible by virtue of his contemplation and liberation. He does not renounce the state of contemplation and is not reborn by reason of the power of contemplation. This is the bodhisattva's power of contemplation.

What is the bodhisattva's power of wisdom. It is pristine cognition that is unconquerable by mundane and supramundane *dharma*. As soon as the bodhisattva is born in this world, he accomplishes without a teacher all excellent practices, formidable actions and arduous attainments in every manual skill. Indeed, it is by means of these supramundane *dharma* that he delivers the worlds. Gods or men cannot defeat these *dharma* since they originate in the bodhisattva's power of wisdom and pristine cognition. This is the bodhisattva's power of wisdom. This is the other fivefold path.

It is in this manner that the bodhisattva who is skilled in these five limbs courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.10.6 Skill in Solitary Wandering

Furthermore, in brief, the path of bodhisattvas is solitary²³⁷. That is to say, it is a path that is traversed alone. The bodhisattva is unaccompanied and on his own. (680) Being without companion, he puts on his armour with the resolution that upholds the force of his diligent power for the sake of unsurpassed and perfect enlightenment. He is self-sufficient and does not dependent on others.²³⁸ He practises all by himself. He excels by virtue of his own power. Having put on a hardened armour, he reflects:

"I shall achieve that which no other sentient being has achieved. I shall achieve that which no other noble one or newly-set-out bodhisattva has achieved. Generosity is not my companion, but I am a companion of giving.²³⁹ Moral conduct, patience, vigour, meditation and wisdom are not my companions, but I am their companion. I am not to be raised by the perfections, but the perfections are to be raised by me. Corresponding to the former, I shall meticulously

^{237.} mgo gcig pa: ekāṃśa (cf. Edgerton, p. 153, col. 2).

According to the Akn-ṭīkā (pp. 271.4.4–272.2.1), the bodhisattva who pursues solitary wandering approaches enlightenment. He practices his training effortlessly and is distinguished by four traits:

[&]quot;A bodhisattva who practices without effort is of four kinds. First, he is unable to dispense (avikṣipa). Second, he has attained patience (kṣāntiprāpta). Third, he persists in equality (samatāvihārin) and, fourth, he is free from hindrances (nirāvarana)."

^{238.} Akn-tīkā, p. 272.1.1:

[&]quot;A bodhisattva who is unable to dispense, strives to attain mundane and supramundane qualities only for himself."

^{239.} Akn-tīkā, p. 272.1.3:

[&]quot;A bodhisattva who has attained patience, purifies the perfections by himself."

understand all roots of virtue, that is, I shall not be raised by any roots of virtue, but all roots of virtue shall be raised by me.²⁴⁰ Once I took a seat on the *vajra*-throne without recourse to such *dharma*²⁴¹ and defeated Māra with his host single-handedly, I shall acquire supreme and perfect enlightenment by means of wisdom that is furnished with just one moment of thought."²⁴² (681)

Earnest and determined practice²⁴³ to that end, this is the bodhisattva's solitary wandering along the path. It is in this manner that one who is skilled in the bodhisattva's solitary wandering along the path courses in the Perfection of Wisdom. This is the bodhisattva's skill in the path.

It is in this manner that the bodhisattva who is skilled in the path courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

2.11 Skill in Dependent Co-origination

Next, what is the bodhisattva's skill in dependent co-origination? After the bodhisattva has thus retreated into solitude and become absorbed in meditation, he ponders:

"What is the origin of this whole mass of suffering?" Then, he reflects: "Because superficial reflection²⁴⁴ has arisen, ignorance arises. Because ignorance has arisen, karmic formations arise. Because karmic formations have arisen, consciousness arises. Because consciousness has arisen, name-and-form arise. Because name-and-form have arisen, the six internal sensefields arise. Because the six internal sensefields have arisen, contact arises. Because contact has arisen, feeling arises. Because feeling has arisen, thirst arises. Because thirst has arisen, grasping arises. Because grasping has arisen, becoming arises. (682) Because becoming has arisen, birth arises. Because birth has arisen, old-age-and-death arises. Because old-age-and-death has arisen, suffering, lamentations, misery, grief and despair arise."

And again, he reflects: "I know that just as all these *dharma* that emerge from causes of virtue, non-virtue, stillness and *nirvāṇa* are still, inactive and non-self and arise from conditions—sentient beings establishing by cause of action faculties that are the cause of correct

^{240.} Akn-tīkā, p. 272.1.4-5:

[&]quot;A bodhisattva who persists in sameness attains the four means of conversion, *dharma* that ripen sentient beings."

In the \$\frac{S}gs\$ (pp. 129-31), the Buddha addresses a brief discourse on the identity and non-reality of the Tathāgata to a Brahmā god called Samatāvihārin. Arguing from the empty and illusory nature of dharma, he shows that all dharma are in fact same—an attribute that he then applies to the Tathāgata. Having comprehended the gist of this teaching, Samatāvihārin, advancing to the eighth stage, gains at the end the 'conviction of the non-arising of dharma'.

^{241.} According to the Akn-tīkā (p. 272.1.7-8), dharma should here be taken to include mundane and supramundane qualities (guṇa), the six perfections and four means of conversion.

^{242.} Akn-tīkā, p. 272.1.6:

[&]quot;A bodhisattva who is without hindrances overcomes the hindrances so that he attains supreme enlightenment by himself."

^{243.} nes par rtog pahi bsam pahi sbyor pa: avakalpanāśayaprayoga.

^{244.} tshul bžin ma yin pa: ayoniša (cf. Edgerton, p. 64, col. 2) Cf. Šbh, Wayman, 1961, p. 170.

knowledge and by cause of fruition of correct knowledge superior practice²⁴⁵—in the same way arise the assembled causes for the acquired and non-acquired *dharma*." This is the bodhisattva's skill in dependent co-origination.

Then, he reflects: "But, what is cessation? Because superficial reflection has ceased, ignorance ceases. Only when by reason of the cessation of ignorance karmic formations have come to a final halt, only then ceases this whole mass of suffering."

It in this way that knowledge with regard to this [causal flow] becomes skill in dependent co-origination.

Then, he reflects: "But, all *dharma* are subject to causes, conditions and their combination. What is subject to causes, conditions and their combination is not the basis of a self, a life-force or a person. (683) It is without reckoning whatsoever."

Such reflection is skill in dependent co-origination. It is in this manner that, as conditions for his enlightened disposition, the bodhisattva raises all buddha-qualities and discerns that these conditions are truly exhausted and ceasing; but, for the sake of looking after sentient beings he attains also non-cessation and non-exhaustion. This is the bodhisattva's skill in dependent co-origination.

2.12 Skill in all Dharma

What then is the bodhisattva's skill in all *dharma*? As regards the sum total of *dharma*; it comprises conditioned and unconditioned *dharma*. Thus, the bodhisattva should be skilled in the conditioned and unconditioned.

What is skill in the conditioned? His predispositions of body, speech and mind are pure. He transforms the virtuous [predispositions]²⁴⁶ of body, speech and mind into all-knowing by reason of discerning them as unconditioned enlightenment; this is skill in the unconditioned.

^{245.} The meaning of this sentence is rather obscure. If one were to go by sense only, it would appear that the Tibetan have misinterpreted this passage, translating a bahuvrhi compound as a tatpuruşa compound (private communication with David Ruegg).

Vasubandhu's comments on this section run as follows (Akn-tīkā, p. 206.2.6–3.3; cf. Akn, p. 54.3.5–7): "If [the bodhisattva] knows that dharma are not only exhausted but also arise from the cause of unceasing action, thinking: 'Sentient beings who act in correct knowledge that penetrates the cause of faculties and think: 'This is the origin of the cause of faculties, this is the origin of the cause of action', are established in the cause of spiritual fruition. Because the faculties themselves are the cause that prompts and establishes virtue, non-virtue, saṃsāra and nirvāṇa, it is the cause of faculties. In this way, dharma emerge from the cause of faculties, but [the bodhisattva] perceives that the agent, etc., is not the object acts in correct knowledge that penetrates action—the cause of faculties. Although they are all virtue, non-virtue, saṃsāra and nirvāṇa and emerge from the cause of faculties and action, virtue, etc., are established as action and faculties—the cause of spiritual fruition.' This is 'skill' in dependent co-origination. It is in this way that 'skill' [seeing] that birth is the origin of causes because it turns into a force that is able to produce fruits after having gathered causes and conditions perceives spiritual fruition as birth."

Other examples that correlate the *indriya* with *pramāṇa* are found in the *Laṅkāv* (pp. 133.9, 151.6, 190.4–6, 242.9).

^{246.} Akn-tīkā, p. 218.2.5-3.1.

Furthermore, as regards skill in the conditioned; (684) it is gathering the five perfections that lead to the perfection of wisdom, viz., the perfection of giving, morality, patience, vigour and meditation. Again, due to knowledge of the unconditioned, he does not depreciate the perfection of wisdom with the five perfections; but, aspiring to skill in the entire accumulation of perfections and to unstained enlightenment, he transforms them into all-knowing; this is skill in the unconditioned.

Furthermore, as regards skill in the conditioned; it is attracting sentient beings by means of all-penetrating light-rays that are directed at all of them and through the four means of conversion. Because he is free from conceit, not believing in a self, he is skilled in the means of conversion; and since he aspires to unconditioned enlightenment, he transforms them into all-knowing; this is skill in the unconditioned.

Furthermore, as regards skill in the conditioned; he does not cut off the fetters of the stream of existence, but rids himself of the impurities of the stream of existence; he continues practices that are connected to enlightenment without taking up the practice of laymen who observe only one of the $pa\tilde{n}cas\tilde{\imath}la^{247}$; this is the skill in the conditioned.

Knowing that he should be acquainted with the teachings of emptiness, signlessness and wishlessness, he is manifestly skilled in them; (685) and although he settles in enlightenment without depending on others, he does not realise the unconditioned; this is skill in the unconditioned.

Furthermore, to be unaffected by the impurities of worldly conduct in spite of acting in the triple world, this is skill in the conditioned. Not to fall into the sphere of deliverance, in spite of knowing pristine cognition that liberates from the triple world; this is skill in unconditioned.

As regards skill in all *dharma*; it is an expression for 'all-knowing'. Since the attainment of realisation that arises from pristine cognition of all-knowing does not lead to liberation if it lacks wisdom or skill, on account of that, he is skilled in all *dharma*. It is in this manner that the bodhisattva who is skilled in all *dharma* courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.²⁴⁸

O Śāriputra, it is in this way that a bodhisattva, *mahāsattva* who persists in the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* and courses in the Perfection of Wisdom and—being skilled in discerning wisdom—is truly proficient in these ten kinds of skill courses in the Perfection of Wisdom.

^{247.} sbyor ba phyogs gcig pa: ekadeśaprayoga

Cf. Mvy 1609 which gives sna gcig spyod pa for ekadeśakārin (Kośa, iv, p. 73; Mppś, ii, p. 821).

^{248.} Cf. Akn-tīkā, p. 218,2.1-5.7.

3.1 Wisdom

What is wisdom? What is the meaning of perfection? Wisdom is comprehensive knowledge of virtuous and non-virtuous dharma. (686) Wisdom is realisation of dharma that are conducive to the four states of penetration²⁴⁹. Wisdom is correct knowledge because it leads to the realisation of the noble Doctrine. Accurate discernment of dharma leads to correct knowledge. Wisdom is discernment of all heretical views, manifestations of vices, impediments and obstructions. Wisdom is separation from prayers concerned with wishes, yearning or desires. Wisdom is the source of happiness²⁵⁰ by virtue of complete purification. Wisdom is the source of delight because it does not cut the connection to joy in the Doctrine. Wisdom is support because it realises complete pristine cognition. Wisdom is the basis of all bodhipākṣika dharma. Wisdom bears the characteristic of attainment, because it realises spiritual fruition in accordance with the vehicles. Wisdom bears the characteristic of perfectly knowing naturally illuminating pristine cognition. Wisdom is deliverance because it ferries across all rivers. Wisdom is guidance to true reality. Wisdom is the receptacle of all virtuous dharma.²⁵¹

For references to the *nirvedhabhāgīya* in Pāli sources, see: D III, pp. 251, 277; S V, p. 345; A III, p. 427; *Nett*, pp. 21, 48, 143 ff, 153 ff and *Vism*, pp. 15, 88. Note, however, that while the term *nibbedhabhāgīya* itself is canonical, the list of the four items is not. Most of these Pāli references are taken up by Rahula in his discussion of the *nirvedhabhāgīya* in śrāvaka sources (Rahula, 1980, pp. 105–6, n. 4).

^{249.} nes par hbyed pahi cha dan hthun pa: nirvedhabhāgīya

The four states of penetration are 'heat' (uṣmagata), 'summit' (mūrdhan), 'patience' (kṣānti) and 'highest mundane dharma' (laukikāgradharma). In the Sarvāstivāda scheme of the śrāvaka-training, the nirvedhabhāgīya constitute the four major practices of the prayogamārga. Being states conducive to enlightenment, they mark the practitioner's meditative progress particularly in respect to the understanding of the four noble truths. During the 'heat phase', representing a state of complete perfect mental quietude (samatha) and insight ($vipasyan\tilde{a}$), the light of knowledge ($j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}n\tilde{a}loka$) concerning the truths in their sixteen aspects is revealed for the first time. In due course, the other three states add to this understanding, leading to full intuition (abhisamaya) of the truths at the first moment of the darśanamārga. For the bodhisattva, the experience of the nirvedhabhāgīva is similar in order but different in contents. Having entered the 'uṣmagata phase', he sees with the clear light of intuition the unreality of external phenomena. Springing from the meditation on emptiness practised before the sambhāramārga, his attainment is still weak but is called 'heat' because it is "like the heat that precedes the fire of direct knowledge of the truth on the darśanamārga" (Aloka, Minaey, pp. 41a.16-41b.1; ref. Obermiller). The 'mūrdhan phase' consolidates the attainments of the 'usmagata phase', effectively preventing that the bodhisattva's accumulation of roots of virtue is brought to a standstill by kleśa. At the 'kṣānti phase', the bodhisattva is fully awakened to the unreality of worldly phenomena. Now he begins to focus his mind on the unreality of the subject of experience, leading to a "meditative state that is characterised by the origination, for the first time, of the clear light of knowledge, revealing the unreality of subjective elements" (Aloka, op. cit., p. 48a.5, ref. Obermiller). It bears the name ksānti because it establishes the bodhisattva in the 'conviction of the non-arising of dharma', leading to liberation from rebirth in the evil destinies. Subsequent to the 'ksānti phase', having shed all distinctions of the subject/object dichotomy, the bodhisattya passes into the unperturbable meditation (ānantaryasamādhi) from where he attains direct knowledge of reality. Entitled 'phase of highest mundane virtues' (laukikāgradharma), he is still an ordinary being and well below the rank of the arhant. Hence, the bodhisattva does not intuit as yet the Dharmadhātu and his knowledge of it is largely based on faith. Most path-schemes do not allocate the four nirvedhabhāgīya to any of the stages proper, but associate it to the preliminary efforts of the adhimukticaryābhūmi (Msl, p. 27.7-11, p. 93.6-23; Kośa, vi, pp. 169-177; Amrt (B), pp. 156–159).

^{250.} sim par byed pa: prahlādankārin (cf. Monier-Williams, p. 701, col. 3).

^{251.} Pelliot, 977, folio 6a.4-6b.2:

Wisdom is the source of purification of all propensities of impurity. Wisdom is the supreme attainment, the crown of all *dharma*. (687) Wisdom is excellence in the much needed realisation arising spontaneously from pristine cognition. Wisdom is separation from causation since it is not stained by the triple world. Wisdom is obtained by all noble ones. Wisdom is elimination of prayers since it abandons all reflection on the marks. Wisdom is detrimental to indolence since it is wholly separated from the darkness of delusion. ²⁵²

Wisdom is the practice of all those who are established on the stage of meditation. Wisdom is guidance to those who persist in the path to pristine cognition of all-knowing. Wisdom is a source of light since it suppresses the dark cloud of mist formed by the air of ignorance. Wisdom gives perfect sight to those who delight in its sight accordingly. Wisdom is free from impurity because it transcends the sphere of the eye and the sphere of form. Wisdom is absolute truth since it issues from truth. Wisdom is imperturbable because it is fully tamed. Wisdom is the light at the gates to pristine cognition. Wisdom, unfolding in all directions, is inexhaustible.

Wisdom is not contradicted because it is seen as the entrance to dependent co-origination. Wisdom is the path of liberation, since it prompts severing of all fetters of grasping. Wisdom is unstained since it is emancipated from all sinful *dharma*. 253 (688)

O Śāriputra, thus the scope and application of the bodhisattva's wisdom and pristine cognition

[&]quot;O Śāriputra, as regards wisdom; realisation of all virtuous practices is wisdom that realises because it realises all *dharma*. It is correct knowledge because it knows all *dharma* in accordance with reality. It is wisdom arising from awakening because it is not defiled by any sinful *dharma* that lead to heretical beliefs. It is separation from desire because it purifies constantly all wishes, yearnings or desires. It is the source of contentment since it appeases constantly all suffering. It is the source of happiness because it does not cut the connection to joy in the Doctrine. It is reliance because it realises understanding of the meaning. It is establishing because it establishes all *bodhipākṣika dharma*. It bears the characteristic of attainment, because it attains spiritual fruition in accordance with the vehicles. It bears the characteristic of wisdom of perfect knowledge because it realises the bright nature of pristine cognition. It is deliverance with compassion because it ferries across the streams of all rivers. It is comprehension because it comprehends that all *dharma* are truly unborn. It is agitation because it kindles all virtuous *dharma*."

^{252.} Pelliot, 977, folio 6b.2-5:

[&]quot;[Wisdom] is the source of purification, because it is separated from reflection of the defilements of the propensities of disease. It is unsurpassed because it proceeds to the crown of all *dharma*. It is contentment because it realises teachings through spontaneously arisen pristine cognition. It is separation from causes since it is not stained by the triple world. It is attainment because it is attained by all noble ones. It is elimination of prayers because it removes all reflection on the marks. It is non-self because it is wholly separated from the darkness of delusion."

^{253.} Pelliot, 977, folio 6b.5-7a.3:

[&]quot;[Wisdom] is practice because it accomplishes the deeds of all those who are established on the stage of meditation. It is travelling because it abides in all noble paths of pristine cognition.

... It is the source of vision because it guides everyone in accordance with that vision. It is freedom from impurity because it transcends the path of intrigues through the eye of wisdom. It is absolute truth because it understands the great noble truth. ... It is splendour because it becomes the gate of pristine cognition. It is inexhaustible knowledge because it illuminates all that which is moving. It is non-cessation because it sees constantly and extensively. ... It is separation from abodes because it is emancipated from all impure, defiled dharma."

are truly as manifold as the mental activity of all sentient beings. The exploring of the bodhisattva's wisdom and pristine cognition is truly as manifold as the aspiration of all sentient beings.²⁵⁴ The doors that lead to the bodhisattva's wisdom are truly as manifold as the doors to the impurities of all sentient beings. The basis of his persistence²⁵⁵ in wisdom is truly as manifold as the knowledge of śrāvaka, pratyekabuddhas and fully accomplished buddhas. 256 A bodhisattva should study this by all means. This is the wisdom of the bodhisattva. 257

3.2 Perfection

Next, what is the meaning of 'perfection'? What is wisdom is also the meaning of 'perfection'. Comprehensive knowledge of virtuous [and non-virtuous] dharma is the meaning of 'perfection'. Corresponding to the former, one should examine also the wording of all perfections accordingly.258

Furthermore, the meaning of excellently accomplishing the bodhisattva-training is the meaning of 'perfection'. Furthermore, the meaning of accomplishing pristine cognition of allknowing is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of withdrawing from conditioned and unconditioned dharma is the meaning of 'perfection'. (689) The meaning of realising the faults of samsāra is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of showing the inexhaustible Dharma-depository of knowledge is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of accomplishing unstained liberation is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of realising the uniformity of giving, morality, patience, vigour, meditation and wisdom is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of ascertaining is the meaning of 'perfection'. 259

^{254.} Cf. Pelliot, 977, folio 7a.4 which has sems can thams cad kyi mos pa instead of sems can thams cad kyi bsam pa, thus clarifying the meaning of bsam pa.

^{255.} Cf. Pelliot, 977, folio 7b.6, which has ses rab gyi spyod pa instead of ses rab la gnas pa.

^{256.} Cf. Akn-tīkā, pp. 218,5.7-222.5.7.

^{257.} Pelliot, 977, folio 7a.3-7:
"O Śāriputra, in this way I have instructed you briefly the characteristics of wisdom. As regards the wisdom of bodhisattva, mahāsattvas, it should furthermore be known to be infinite and without limit. Why? The scope and application of the wisdom and pristine cognition of bodhisattvas, mahāsattvas are truly as manifold as the mental activity of all sentient beings. The activity of the wisdom and pristine cognition of bodhisattyas, mahāsattyas should be known to be truly as manifold as the aspiration of all sentient beings. The magnificent gates to the wisdom of the bodhisattvas, mahāsattvas should be known to be truly as manifold as the gates to the impurities of all sentient beings. The basis of the activity of wisdom should be known to be truly as manifold as the knowledge of śrāvaka, pratyekabuddhas and fully accomplished buddhas. O Śāriputra, concerning all bases of wisdom; the bodhisattva, mahāsattva should study these attainments with vigour. This is the seizure of wisdom of bodhisattvas, mahāsattvas."

^{258.} This paragraph is missing in the Pelliot manuscript.

^{259.} Pelliot, 977, folio 7a.7-7b.6:

[&]quot;Furthermore, O Śāriputra, that is the meaning of the perfection of bodhisattvas, mahāsattvas? O Śāriputra, all knowledge that the joy of all virtuous dharma turns into the perfection, this should be known as the meaning of 'perfection', Again, O Śāriputra, corresponding to the former, the accumulation of wisdom should be known as the meaning of 'perfection's. Furthermore, all meanings of the excellent accomplishment of the conduct of bodhisattvas should be known as the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of nonattachment to any of the dharma of the past, present and future should be known as the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of constantly realising the incalculable great non-reality of samsāra should be

The meaning of penetrating the sphere of all sentient beings is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of attaining the conviction of the non-arising of *dharma* is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of accomplishing the stage of irreversibility is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of acquiring the buddha-field is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of developing sentient beings is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of [going to] the seat of enlightenment is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of defeating all evil ones is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of accomplishing all buddha-qualities is the meaning of 'perfection'. Furthermore, the meaning of being firmly planted in the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapitaka* is the meaning of 'perfection'. ²⁶⁰ (690)

SECTION IV

O Śāriputra, if one studies the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* one accomplishes all perfections. O Śāriputra, hence, a son or daughter of good family who persists in the Mahāyāna should retain the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*. He should take hold of it and read it. He should explain it also to others and propound it at great length.

Why? O Śāriputra, when he has listened to the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka*, when he has taken hold of it, retained it, read it, fully absorbed it and when he has explained it also to others and propounded it at great length he obtains ten excellent blessings. What are the ten?

- (1) When he is reborn in another existence, he is skilled in all arts
- (2) And crafts.
- (3) He is of high lineage and well-respected.
- (4) He is renown for his great powers.
- (5) His words are valued.
- (6) He possesses great wealth.

known as the meaning of 'perfection'. Knowledge of the meaning of non-absorbing or non-realising any *dharma* whatsoever should be known as the meaning of 'perfection'. Understanding the meaning of the absolutely inexhaustible Dharma-depository should be known as the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of accomplishing the unstained liberation should be known as the meaning of 'perfection'. ... The meaning of 'skill' in supreme discernment should be known as the meaning of 'perfection'."

^{260.} Pelliot, 977, folio 7b.6-8a.3:

[&]quot;The meaning of going to all spheres of sentient beings is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of attaining the conviction of the non-arising of dharma is the meaning of 'perfection'. Accomplishing the end of irreversibility is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of purifying the buddha-field is the meaning of 'perfection'. ... The meaning of taking a seat on the throne of enlightenment after having come to the seat of enlightenment is the meaning of 'perfection'. The meaning of defeating the host of Māra is the meaning of 'perfection'. ... Furthermore, the meaning of firmly abiding in the Dharma-enunciation of the Bodhisattvapiṭaka is the meaning of 'perfection'."

- (7) He is exalted among gods and men.
- (8) He becomes an universal monarch.
- (9) He becomes Brahmā.
- (10) He is never separated from the thought of enlightenment.

He obtains these ten excellent blessings. Furthermore, he obtains ten other excellent blessings. What are the ten?

- (1) He is not drawn into the disputes of the ascetics. (691)
- (2) He does not hold the belief of the existence of a self.
- (3) He does not hold the belief of the existence of a sentient being.
- (4) He does not hold the belief of the existence of a life-force.
- (5) He does not hold the belief of the existence of a person.
- (6) He does not hold the belief of nihilism.
- (7) He does not hold the belief of permanence.
- (8) He does not hold the view that all things exist.
- (9) When he goes forth to mendicant life, he accomplishes joyfully the production of the thought of enlightenment.
- (10) He understands swiftly the words that he has heard.

He obtains these ten excellent blessings. Furthermore, he obtains ten other excellent blessings. What are the ten?

- (1) He acquires recollection.
- (2) He acquires intellect.
- (3) He acquires spiritual realisation.
- (4) He acquires aspiration.
- (5) He acquires wisdom.
- (6) He obtains the favourable condition of birth²⁶¹.
- (7) He recollects his former lives.
- (8) His desire is small by nature and restrained; hence, he is not afflicted by the torment of desire.
- (9) His hatred is small by nature and restrained; hence, he is not afflicted by the

^{261.} These are the opposites of the conditions of birth that are unfavourable to the religious life (asamayā brahmacaryāvāsāya), viz., birth in the destiny of the hellbound (narakā), animals (tiryañca), hungry ghosts (preta), gods of long life (dṛghāyuṣo devā); possession of defect faculties (indriyavaikalya), false views (mithyādarśana) and life in periods when Tathāgata do not appear (tathāgatānām anutpāda). References in the nikāya are found in D III, pp. 263-64, 287; A IV, pp. 225, 227; for Sanskrit sources, see: Mvu, ii, p. 363.3; Lal, p. 412.14; Śikṣ, p. 2.4; Gv, p. 116.16; Dhsgr, § 34 (ref. Lamotte).

torment of hatred.

(10) His delusion is small by nature and restrained; hence, he is not afflicted by the torment of delusion.

He obtains these ten excellent blessings. Furthermore, he obtains ten other excellent blessings. (692) What are the ten?

- (1) He attains marvellous wisdom.
- (2) He attains astute wisdom.
- (3) He attains acute wisdom.
- (4) He attains sharp wisdom.
- (5) He attains awesome wisdom.
- (6) He attains profound wisdom.
- (7) He attains discerning wisdom.
- (8) He attains unproduced wisdom.
- (9) After he has met the Tathagata, he praises him with melodies of verse.
- (10) On posing well-contemplated questions to the Tathagata, he receives answers.

He obtains these ten excellent blessings. Furthermore, he obtains ten other excellent blessings. What are the ten?

- (1) He gives pleasure to all virtuous friends.
- (2) He loosens all fetters of evil.
- (3) He defeats all evil ones.
- (4) He rebukes all impure ones.
- (5) He is aggravated about actions that appertain to any karmic formation.
- (6) He shuns all paths that lead to the evil destinies.
- (7) He sees the path that leads to nirvāṇa.
- (8) He bestows offerings that deliver from the whole round of rebirth.
- (9) He complies with the methods of all bodhisattvas. (693)
- (10) He complies with the pronouncements of all lord buddhas.

He obtains these ten excellent blessings.

O Śāriputra, when he has listened to the Dharma-enunciation of the *Bodhisattvapitaka*, when he has taken hold of it, retained it, read it, fully absorbed it and when he has explained it also to others and propounded it at great length he obtains all of these excellent qualities.

Then, in order to elucidate in great detail this very meaning, the lord composed these verses:

Those who retain this king of *sūtras*,

These wise ones attain infinite wisdom.

They become not only skilled in practices and their meanings,
But excel also in parts of speech and accomplish the letter.

Every monk who retains this king of sūtras,
Once joy and delight have arisen in him,
Explains the Doctrine in this way
And bestows unceasingly the gift of the Doctrine.

After sentient beings have heard much about the Doctrine, They say: "Alas, when will he who explains the Great Attainment Instruct us in such a Doctrine? When will we take hold of such a *sūtra*?"

Chiefs who are endowed with such wisdom

Do not become dismayed about *dharma*.

By means of their recollection and wisdom

They teach sayings of noble and unsurpassed pristine cognition. (694)

Those who retain this king of *sūtras*,

Noble, eminent and praised, confer it unceasingly

And prompt others to seek the well-taught sayings of the Doctrine.

Since they have learned it, they are exalted in perpetuity.

After they have learned it, they cause others to grasp its meaning. He who is endowed with wisdom does not pursue the letter. By investigating the meaning his understanding increases. His pristine cognition is infinite in perpetuity.

Also the meaning of infinite pristine cognition is untold. He who is of infinite reflection is skilled in absolute truth. Apply yourself to his attainments, For his are the attainments of learning. His desire and hatred are small.

His delusion is very small.

Also his mind attains purity.

For his are the attainments of learning.

After he has obtained wealth he does not become self-conceited, But reflects on its purpose, thinking: "Is there substantiality in this wealth?" After he has realised that wealth is insubstantial, He disregards it and goes forth to mendicant life.

He withdraws from worldly life and abides in solitude. Being always free from indolence, He is not satisfied by listening to teachings. When he confers the Doctrine he is free from avarice.

Since he went and posed questions
To the protector of the world,
Because of that, his pristine cognition increases.
Now, there is no abating in his virtue.

O Śāriputra, this is the Perfection of Wisdom of bodhisattvas. A bodhisattva who applies himself diligently to it pursues the bodhisattva conduct; this is diligent application to the Perfection of Wisdom.

no.	Akşayamatinirdesa	Akn in Śikṣāsamuccaya	Bodhisattvapiţaka
1	ḥdun pa	chanda (1) ‡	ḥdun pa
2	bsam pa	āśaya (2)	bsam pa
3	hlag paḥi bsam pa	adhyāśaya*	sbyor ba
4	sbyor ba	prayoga (3)	dge baḥi bśes gñen
5	dge bahi bses gñen	nirmāņa (5)	na rgyal med pa
6	na rgyal med pa	pramāṇa (6) 1	rab tu hdud pa
7	bag yod pa	kalyāṇamitra (4)	ri mor byed pa
8	gus par byed pa	gaurava (7)	hthun pa
9	hthun pa hdzin pa	pradakṣiṇa (8)	bkah blo bde ba
10	bkah blo bde ba	suvacana (9)	bsñen bkur byed pa
11	bsñen bkur byed pa	paryupāsana (10)	rna ba blags te ñan pa
12	rna ba blags te ñan pa	avahitaśrotra (11)	bkur sti byed pa
13	yid la byed pa	manasakāra (13)	yid la byed pa
14	rnam par mi g.yen pa	aviksepa (14)	mi g.yen pa
15	gnas	vasthāna*	rin po cher hdu ses pa
16	rin po cher hdu ses pa	ratnasamjñā (15)	sman du hdu ses pa
17	sman du hdu ses pa	bhaiṣajyasamjñā (16)	nad thams cad rab tu źi bar
			byed paḥi ḥdu śes pa
18	ñon mons paḥi nad thams	sarvavyādhiśamana (17) ²	dran pahi snod
	cad źi bar byed pa		F
19	dran paḥi snod	smṛtibhojana (18)	rtogs pa ses pa
20	rtogs pa ses pa	gatibodhana (19)	blo gros ḥdod pa
21	blo gros hdod pa	matirocana (20)	blo la hjug pa
22	blo la hjug pa	buddhipraveśa (21)	sans rgyas kyi chos thos
		8 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	pas mi sgoms pa ñan pa
23	sans rgyas kyi chos thos	atṛptabuddhadharma	gton pa spel pa
	pas mi sgoms pa ñan pa	śravana (22)	g Fu sk k
24	gton pa spel pa	tyāgavṛhaṇa (23)	byin nas mi smod pa
25	dul źiń cań śes pa	dāntājāneya (24)	man du thos pa sten pa
26	man du thos pa brten pa	bahuśrutasevana (25)	gus par dgaḥ ba myoṅ bar
	•	` ,	byed pa
27	sti stan du byas te dgah ba	satkṛtyaprītyanubhavana	lus sim pa
	myon par byed	(26)	-
28	lus bde pa	kāyaudbiya (27)	sems rans pa
29	sems rab tu dgah	cittaprahlādana (28)	mi skyor bar ñan pa
30	mi skyor bar ñan pa	aparikheda śravana (29)	don ñan pa
31	don ñan pa	dharma śravaṇa (31)	chos ñan pa
32	chos ñan pa	(artha śravana) ³	nan tan ñan pa
33	nan tan ñan pa	pratipatti śravana (32)	theg pa gźan la hdod pa
	1		med pa ñan pa
34	gźan gis bstan pa ñan pa	paradeśanā śravaņa*	pha rol tu phyin pa ñan pa
35	chos mthos pa ñan pa	śruta śravana*	byan chub sems dpahi sde
		X	snod ñan pa
36	mhon par ses pa ñan pa	abhijñā śravaņa (39)	bsdu bahi dnos ñan pa
37	theg pa gźan la hdod pa	anyayānāspṛhaṇa śravaṇa	thabs mkhas pa ñan pa
	med pa ñan pa	(33)	

38	pha rol tu phyin pa ñan pa	prajñāpāramitā śravaņa (34)	tshans paḥi gnas pa ñan pa
39	byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod ñan pa	bodhisattvapiṭaka śravaṇa(35)	mṁon par śes pa ñan pa
40	bsdu baḥi dṅos ñan pa	saṃgrahavastu śravaṇa (36)	dran pa ñe bar gźags pa ñan pa
41	thabs mkhas pa ñan pa	upāyakauśalya śravaṇa (37)	yan dag par spon ba ñan pa
42	tshans pahi gnas pa ñan pa	brahmavihāra śravaņa (38)	rdzu ḥphrul gyi rkaṅ pa ñan pa
43	dran pa dan śes pa bźin ñan pa	smṛtisaṃprajanya śravaṇa (40) 4	rten cin hbrel par hbyun ba ñan pa
44	skye ba la mkhas paḥi ñan pa	utpādakauśalya śravaṇa*	mi rtag pa ñan pa
45	mi skye ba la mkhas pa ñan pa	anutpādakauśalya śravaṇa*	sdud bsṅal ba ñan pa
46	mi sdug pa	aśubha*	bdag med pa ñan pa
47	byams pa	maitryāḥ śravaṇa*	źi ba ñan pa
48	rten cin hbrel bar hbyun pa	pratītyasamutpāda śravaņa (43)	ston pa ñid ñan pa
49	mi rtag pa ñan pa	anitya śravaņa (44)	mtshan ma med pa ñan pa
50	sdud bshal ba ñan pa	duḥkha śravaṇa (45)	smon pa med pa ñan pa
51	bdag med pa ñan pa	anātma śravaņa (46)	mnon par ḥdu mi byed pa ñan pa
52	źi ba ñan pa	śānta śravaņa (47)	dge baḥi rtsa ba mṅon par ḥdu byed pa ñan pa
53	ston pa ñid ñan pa	śūnyatā śravaņa (48)	ran dban du gyur pa
54	mtshan ma med pa ñan pa	animitta śravaņa (50)	chọs ñam par hdu ses pa
55	smon pa med pa ñan pa	apraņihita śravaņa (49)	kun tu ḥdre ba mi ḥthun paḥi phyags su ḥdu śes pa
56	mnon par hdu mi byed pa	anabhisaṃskāra śravaṇa	ñon mons pa thams cad
	ñan pa	(51)	tshar gcod pa
57	dge baḥi mnon par ḥdu	kuśalābhisaṃskāra	mkhas pa la mṅon par
	byed pa	śravaņa (52)	bgaḥ ba
58	bden pas byin gyis brlabs pa	satyādhiṣṭhāna (53)	ḥphags pa sten pa
59	chud mi gzon pa	avipraṇāśa*	ḥphags pa ma yin pa yoṅs su spoṅ pa
60	ran gi kha na las pa	svādhīna*	ḥphags pa ñan pa
61	ran gi sems srun pa	svacittārakṣaṇa*	dban pa ñan pa
62	brtson ḥgrus mi gtod pa	vīryasyāsraṃsana	rjes su dran pa sgom pa ñan pa
63	sñon mons pahi gñen po	dharmanidhyapti*	byan chub kyi yan lag ñan pa
64	chos la nes par sems pa	kleśavipakṣa (56)	ḥphags paḥi lam yan lag brgyud pa ñan pa
65	rań gi phyogs sruń pa	svapakṣaparīkarṣaṇa*	de bżin gśegs paḥi stobs ñan pa

pha rol gyi phyogs dan	parapakṣakleśanigraha*	mi ḥjigs pa ñan pa
ñon mons pa tsar gcod pa		
nor bdun yan dag par ḥdu pa	saptadhanasamavasa śravaṇa*	byams pa ñan pa
dbul ba thams cad tsar gcod pa	sarvadāridryopaccheda*	sñin rje ñan pa
ḥdzaṅs pas bsṅags pa	sarvavidvatpraśasta*	dgaḥ ba ñan pa
mkhas pa mṅon par dgaḥ pa	paṇḍitābhinandana (57)	gtan sñoms chen po ñan pa
hphags pas kun ses pa	āryasaṃmata (58)	so so yan dag par rig pa ñan pa
ḥphags pa ma yin pa dad par byed pa	anāryaprasādana (59)	sans rgyas kyi chos ma hdres pa bco brgyad rnams ñan pa
bden mthon pa	satyadarśana (60)	
phun pohi skyon rnam par spons pa	skandhadoṣavivarjana*	
ḥdus byas yoṅs su ḥdzal pa	saṃskṛtadoṣaparitulana*	
don la rton pa	arthapratisaraṇa*	
chos la rton pa	dharmapratisaraṇa*	***************************************
ye ses la rton pa	(jñānapratisaraņa) 5	
nes paḥi don gyi mdo sde la rton pa	(nītārthapratisaraņa) 6	
sdig pa thams cad mi bya ba	sarvapāpākaraņa*	
bdag dan gźan la phan pa legs par byas paḥi las	ātmaparahita*	
mi ḥgyod pa	sukṛtakarmānanutapyana*	
khyad par du hgro ba	viśeṣagamana*	
sans rgyas kyi chos thams	sarvabuddhadharma-	*************************************
	nor mons pa tsar gcod pa nor bdun yan dag par hdu pa dbul ba thams cad tsar gcod pa hdzans pas bsnags pa mkhas pa mnon par dgah pa hphags pas kun ses pa hphags pa ma yin pa dad par byed pa bden mthon pa phun pohi skyon mam par spons pa hdus byas yons su hdzal pa don la rton pa chos la rton pa ye ses la rton pa nes pahi don gyi mdo sde la rton pa sdig pa thams cad mi bya ba bdag dan gźan la phan pa legs par byas pahi las mi hgyod pa khyad par du hgro ba	ñon mons pa tsar gcod pasaptadhanasamavasanor bdun yan dag par hdu pasaptadhanasamavasa śravana*dbul ba thams cad tsar gcod pasarvadāridryopaccheda*hdzans pas bsnags pasarvavidvatpraśasta*mkhas pa mnon par dgah papanditābhinandana (57)hphags pas kun śes paāryasammata (58)hphags pa ma yin pa dad par byed paanāryaprasādana (59)bden mthon pa phun poḥi skyon rnam par spons pasatyadarśana (60)hdus byas yons su ḥdzal pasamskṛtadoṣaparitulana*don la rton pa chos la rton paarthapratisaraṇa*ye śes la rton pa(jñānapratisaraṇa) 5nes paḥi don gyi mdo sde la rton pa(jñānapratisaraṇa) 6sdig pa thams cad mi bya basarvapāpākaraṇa*bdag dan gźan la phan pa legs par byas paḥi lasātmaparahita*mi hgyod pasukṛtakarmānanutapyana*khyad par du hgro baviśeṣagamana*

[‡] Numbers in brackets indicate Sanskrit equivalent to *Bdp* terms.

^{*} Items not cited in Bdp

 $^{^{1}}$ Siks: apramāņa 2 closer to Bodhisattvapiṭaka 3 omitted in Siks 4 gaurava is here repeated in Siks

⁵ omitted in $\dot{S}iks$ ⁶ omitted in $\dot{S}iks$

Akn: TTP pp. 50.4.7-51.1.5; Bdp: TTP pp. 73.2.3-4.1; Śiks: pp. 190.4-191.3

no.	Akşayamatinirdesa	Akşayamatinirdesa (Skt) 1	Bodhisattvapiţaka
1	glog gi sgron mas bgryan	vidyutpradīpālamkāra (Mvy 546)	rnam par snan (3) ^{‡‡}
2	zla baḥi ḥod	*candraprabha	mdzad źi ba
3	dge bkod rnam snan de	śubhavyūhapratibhāsa (Mvy	zla hod (2)
	bźin sems	556)	
4	mi khyab	*acintya	rnam pa bkod pa (3?)
5	ḥphags par snaṅ	udgataprabha (Mvy 511, 568)	de ñid glog gis rab tu
			brgyan pa
6	dri ma med pa	vimala (<i>Dbh</i> , p. 82.10)	mnon par hphags (56)
7	chos rnams kun la dban	*sarvadharmavaśavartin	de bźin sems dpaḥ (3?)
	byed		
8	yon tan ḥod	*guṇaprabha	dri ma med (6)
9	myan nan med	*aśoka	snan ldan
10	brtul źugs grub pa	*siddhavrata	yon tan ḥod (8)
11	grags pa brten	*dṛḍhakīrti	grub ḥod
12	kun nas ḥphags pa	samudgata (Mvy 512)	mya nan med (9)
13	chos kyi sgron ma	*dharmapradīpa	chos rnams thams cad la ni
			dban sgyur (7)
14	chos dpal lhun po che	*dharmaśrīmahāmeru	chos sgron (13)
15	chos kyi dban phyug	*dharmeśvara	de bźin chos dpaḥ
16	chos śes dbań byed	*dharmajñānavaśavartin	chos kyi dban phyug (15)
17	chos kyi phun po	*dharmaskandha	ri rab dpaḥ (14)
18	rnam par ḥthor ba	vikiraņa (<i>Mvy</i> 569)	dam paḥi chos kyi ye śes
			dban byed (16)
19	chos rnams ḥdzin pa	dharmadharaviśuddhi (Kv, pp.	dam chos kun ḥdzin śin tu
	rnam par dag pa	51.14, 83.12)	rnam dag (19)
20	pha rol sems kyi spyod	*paracittacaritacaryā	gźan gyi sems la rnam
	pa spyod pa		dpyod (21)
21	rgyal mtsan rtse mohi	dhvajāgrakeyūra (Mvy 530)	dam chos kyi mchog
	dpun rgyan		
22	ñon mons sel	*kleśāpaha	hod zer
23	bdud bźihi stobs rnams	*caturmārabalapramardin	rgyal mtsan rtse mo dpun
	rab tu hjoms pa	± 1 / 1 1 1 . 1 1	rgyan (21)
24	stobs bcu hphags pa	*daśabalodgatabalin	ñon mons sel (22)
	stobs dan ldan pa	* - 1 1	1. 1. 2. 1. 2 1
25	chags med chags pa śin	*asaṅgasaṅgātyantasamuccheda	bduń kyi stobs rnams
~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~	du gcod pa	*hogtodimo	hjoms pa (23) stobs beu dan stobs las
26	lag na sgron ma	*hastadīpa	
27	fin du gare baareas	*atronta6akdita	mnon hphags (24)
27 28	śin du sgra bsgrags sa hdzin	*atyantaśabdita *nimimdhara	kun bcad chags med
28 29	······································	*drdhasvabhāva	lag na sgron ma (26)
***************************************	brtan pa hdi dan ran bźin		bdud sbyin bsgrags pa
30	lhun po sgron ma	*merupradīpa	sa ḥdzin (28)
31	mi pham rgyal ba	*ajitamjaya ***********************************	legs par gnas pa (71?)
32	śes rab bkyed	*prajñotpāda	ri rab sgron (30)
33	ye śes tal la	jñānolka (Mvy 744)	rgyal ba mi hpham (31)
34	bsam gtan hbyun gnas	*dhyānākara	ye ses sgron (80?)
35	mthah yas dban byed	*anantavaśavartin	de bźin mig gtsań

36	sems rnams las su ruṅ par byed pa	*cittakarmaṇyatākāra	rgyal thams cad dran pa (45)
37	byed dan byas dan tshor byan med	*akārakakṛtakavedaka	chos dran yon tan ye ses hjug (46?)
38	chu yi zla ba	*udakacandra	ston par hjug (51)
39	ñi maḥi dbyans dag	*sūryaghoṣa	de bźin mtsan me (52)
40	tin hdzin mi gton	samādhyanutsarga	smon med (53)
41	bdud rnams hjoms pa	*jārapramardaka	de bźin źi bahi sa
42	rnam pa sna tshogs ḥdu śes med pa	*avicitrasamjñin	ḥdu śes sna tsogs bral (42)
43	stag śin du dul ba	*suvinītahastivyāghra	rab dul klu dbaṅ stag (43)
44	glaṅ po śin du dul ba	*sudāntahastivyāghra	ḥkhyil ba
45	rgyal ba kun gyi rjes su dran pa	*sarvajinānusmṛti	rnam par Idog pa
46	chos dran dge ḥdun ye śes dban byed	*dharmānusmṛti-	hjums pa med pa (49?)
47		saṃghajñānavaśavartin avivarta (Mvy 553)	stobs
48	mi ldog pa	**************************************	<u> </u>
~~~~~	ldog pa med pa	avinivartanīya (Mvy 740)	mig dag (49?)
49	mig mi hdzums	*animisa	rdo rje hdra (55)
50	bdag med rab dge	*nairātmyapraśuddhi	rdo rje sa
51	rtag tu ston paḥi rnam par ḥjug pa	*nityaśūnyākārapraveśa	mnon hphags (56)
52	rtag tu mtsan med	*nityānimitta	mi hjum lhun po lha bu
53	rtag tu mi smon	*nityāpraṇihita	kun nas gloń hkhyil (58)
54	gnas par bsam gtan byed pa mi chags	*saṃsthitāsaktadhyāyin	rnam pa dag sgra (59?)
55	rdo rje lta buḥi tin ne ḥdzin	vajropamasamādhi (Mvy 560)	nes rtogs (60
56	mnon par hphags	*abhyudgata	ñon mons bral ba (61)
57	nes par bcom pa	*nirghāta	nam mkhaḥ ḥdra (62)
58	kun nas ḥkhyil	*samāvarta	nam mkhaḥi bar skabs
59	rnam par dag pa	*viśuddha	yon tan thams cad gus par len pa (64?)
60	nes par sems	*nidhyapti	blo gros dran rtogs blo hphel (65?)
61	ñon moṅs bral ba	*apagatakleśa	stobs mi zad
62	yans pa nam mkhah lta bu	akāśasamavipula (Dbh, p. 82.13)	nes tsig bstan pa
63	gzuń ba hjug pa	*avatārana	mthah yas mi zad
64	yon tan hjug pa	*guṇāvatāra	legs byas byas pa (71)
65	dran rtogs bla gros śes rab bsgrub pa	*smṛtigatimatiprajñāsādhaka	chud mi za ba (70)
66	spobs pa dag ni mi zad byed pa	*pratibhānākṣayakārin	lha ba
67	sgra ston pa	*śabdaśāsana	hgro ba tsim byed (72)
68	bden pa mthon ba	*satyadarśana	byams pa mnon hphags (76)
69	hdzin pa	*dhātrana	sñin rje yans pahi rtsa (77)
70	chud mi za	*avipranāśa	dgaḥ la ḥdug pa

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71	legs byas sbyin	*sukṛtadāna	mchog tu dgaḥ la ḥdug pa (78)
72	hgro ba tsim par byed	*jagatsamtarpaņa	btan sñoms gñis la chags grol (79)
73	bltar mi mthon	*adṛṣya	chos don chos kyi hod zer (80)
74	rab tu rtogs	*prativedha	hgrug med (21)
75	dgaḥ mgu skyed pa	*susthityutpāda	ye śes sgron (82?)
76	byams pa hphags pa	*maitryudgata	ye śes mtso
77	sñin rje chen poḥi rtsa ba bsam dag pa	*mahākaruṇāmūlaśuddhāśaya	rnam grol sñin po hgro tsim byed (83)
78	dgaḥ rnam par dag la ḥjug pa	*muditākārapraveśa	rdo rje rgyal mtsan (85)
79	btan sñoms gñis la chags las grol ba	*dvayasangavimuktopekṣā	padma dam pa (87)
80	chos don chos byed ye	*dharmārthadharma-	chos kyis rgyal
	ses tal la	kāryajñānolka	
81	mi ḥgrugs pa	*avikopita	mi g.yo (69)
82	ye ses rgya mtso	*jñānasāgara	śes rab rtsibs
83	ḥgro ba tsim byed rnam par dul ba	*vinītajagatsamtarpaņa	źi ba
84	rnam par grol baḥi ye śes dban byed	*vimuktijñānavaśavartin	sans rgyas mtso
85	rdo rjehi rgyal mtsan	*vajradhvaja	hod zer mthah yas
86	sñin poḥi padma	*hṛdayakamala	rnam grol sbyin pa ye ses (96
87	padma ḥdas	*atikrāntakamala	de bźin gśegs kyi rgyan (97)
88	hjig rten chos bral	*lokadharmavirahita	bkod pa chen po
89	mi g.yo ba	aniñjya (Mvy 554)	źiń bkod snań na
90	rdo rje lta bu	vajropama (Mvy 516)	sems can bsam ba yons ran dgah (100)
91	dpaḥ bar ḥgro	śūraṃgama (<i>Mvy</i> 506)	rdzogs paḥi byan chub lam la rtag mthun (103)
92	sańs rgyas dgońs	*buddhābhiprāya	pha rol phyin pa rgyan bkod mchog gtsug (104)
93	de bźin mi ḥgrugs	*aprakampya	byan chub yan lag me tog sbyin (105)
94	gzi brjid can	tejovatī (Mvy 549)	rnam grol sñin po bdun rtsi sbyin (106?)
95	gzi brjid ḥod zer	*tejoraśmi	rlun dan rlun bźin hgro ba mi dmigs (108)
96	rnam par grol baḥi ye śes mchog sbyin	*vimuktijñānavarada	rgya mtso śugs ḥdzin (110)
97	sans rgyas rgyan rnams śin tu bkod pa	*buddhālaṃkārātyantavyūha	rin chen mdzod ldan (109)
98	kun tu snań	samantāloka (Mvy 562)	brag dan ri hthab rgyal po (111)
99	sans rgyas źin dag	*viśuddhabuddhaksetra	rdzu ḥphrul yaṅs (112)

100	sems can bsam pa rab tu	*sattvāśayapraveśa	śin tu don hdzin (112)
	hjug pa	• •	, , ,
101	mgu byed	*ārādhana	sans rgyas yul ston (113)
102	śin tu mgu	*atyantārādhana	
103	byaň chub lam gyi rjes su hthun pa	*bodhipathānulomika	
104	pha rol phyin bgryan gtsug na rin po che	*pāramitālaṃkāracūḍamaṇi	
105	byan chub lam na lag me tog sbyin pa	*bodhyaṅgapuṣpadāna	
106	rnam par grol baḥi ḥbras bu sbyin pa	*vimuktiphaladāna	
107	mi ḥchi dbyans	*amṛtasvara	
108	dmigs med rlun bźin hgro	*yathāvāyvanālambanagamana	
109	rin chen mthah	ratnakoti (Mvy 564)	
110	rgya mtsoḥ śugs ḥdzin	*arṇavavegadhārin	
111	ri dan brag rnams rdob par byed pa	*giriśailāsphalana	
112	rdzu hphrul don chen yan dag bkyed pa	*maharddhyarthasamutpāda	
113	sans rgyas dpag med pa mthon ba	*aprameyabuddhadarśana	
114	thos pa thams cad ḥdzin	*sarvaśrutadhāra	
115	mi g.yen	*avikṣipta	
116	g.yel ba med pa	*atandrita	
117	skad cig gcig la ye ses sbyin pa	*ekakṣaṇajñānadātṛ	
118	yon tan mthaḥ yas rgya mtso rnam par dag	*anantaguṇaviśuddhārṇava	

[‡] Reconstructed by Braavrig (1989; pp. 146–48)

Akn: TTP pp. 50.2.2-4.2; Bdp: TTP: pp. 72.4.5-73.1.3

^{**} Numbers in brackets indicate location of Bdp samādhi in the Akn samādhi list.

^{*} Conjectural reconstructions

Appendix III

The Mahāratnakūţa Collection

A Bibliographical Guide¹

Sanskrit Title:²

ārya-Mahāratnakūţa-dharma-paryāya3

Chinese Title:

Ta pao chi ching, forming the Pao chi pu (Ratnakūţa Section) of

the 'ching' (sūtra division of the Chinese Ta ts'ang ching).4

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa dkon mchog brtsegs pa chen pohi chos kyi mam grans

ston phrag brgya pa⁵

1. Trisamvaranirdeśaparivarta

Chinese Title:

1. San Lü'i hui [T. 310.1]6

2. Ta fang kuang san chieh ching [T. 311]⁷

Tibetan Title:

sdom pa gsum bstan pahi lehu zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 760.1; TTD 45]

2. Anantamukhapariśodhananirdeśa

Chinese Title:

Wu pien chuang yen hui [T 310.2]⁸

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa sgo mthah yas pa rman par spyon ba bstan pahi lehu zes

by a batheg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.2; TTD 46]

3. Tathāgatācintyaguhyanirdeśa

Chinese Title:

1. Mi chi chin kang li shih hui ching [T 310.3]⁹

^{1.} The bibliographical data listed here have been taken from the following catalogues: Demiéville, P. et al. (1978); Lancaster, L. (1979); Nanjio, B. (1883); Skorupski, T (1985).

^{2.} As reconstructed from the Tibetan versions.

^{3.} Hereafter, the pre/suffixes (ārya-... -nāma-mahāyāna-sūtra) will be omitted.

^{4.} Taishō Shinshū Daizōkyō, no. 310.1-49, vol. 11, pp. 1a 1-659a 27 (120 chüan).

^{5.} Tibetan Tripitaka Peking Edition (ed. by D.T. Suzuki, Tokyo; 1956), no. 760.1–49, vol. 22–24. Tibetan Tripitaka sDe-dge Edition. Berkeley: East Asiatic Library, University of California; no. 45–93, vol. 39–44.

^{6.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (572–727AD) (3 chüan), [T 2154–570b:15]. Bodhiruci, born a Brahmin, was of South Indian origin. He became a Buddhist in 631 AD and arrived in China in 693 AD where he died in 727 AD. His original name was Dharmaruci II. He also translated the Sukhāvatīvyūhasūtra and a number of works on tantric ritual [Bagchi, ii, pp. 540 ff].

^{7.} Trsl. by Dharmaksema between 414 and 426 AD [T 2154–520c;17].

^{8.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 4–7).

^{9.} Trsl. by Dharmarakşa I. He was born of an Indo-Scythian family in Tun-huang in 233 AD and worked at

2. Ju lai pu ssu i pi ta ch'eng ching [T 312]¹

Tibetan Title: hphags pa de bźin gśegs pahi gsan ba bsam gyis mi khyab pa bstan

źes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.3; TTD 47]

English (part. trsl.): Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 8, 125, 157, 225, 251, 283, 314 (quot.).

Obermiller (1931), i, pp. 15, 29, 84, 91, 94; ii, p. 101 (quot.).

German (part. trsl.): Winternitz (1930), pp. 37, 45.

4. Svapnanirdeśa

Chinese Title: Ching chü t'ien tzu hui [T 310.4]²

Tibetan Title: hphags pa rmi lam bstan pa ses bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 760.4; TTD. no. 48]

5. Amitābhavyūha

Chinese Title: no coresponding translation.³

Tibetan Title: hphags pa hod dpag med kyi bkod pa żes bya ba theg pa cben pohi

mdo [TTP 760.4; TTD 49]

English (trsl.): Beal (1882), pp. 378–383 (part.).

Chang (1983), pp. 339–363.

Müller (1883).

German (part. trsl.): Winternitz (1930), pp. 21–30.

Edition: Müller; Takakusu (1932).

6. Aksobhyatathāgatasyavyūha

Chinese Title: 1. Pu tung ju lai hui [T 310.6]⁴

2. A ch'u fo kuo ching [T 313]⁵

Tibetan Title: hphags pa de bźin gśegs pa mi hkhrugs pahi bkod pa źes bya ba

theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.6; TTD 50]

Ch'ang-an from 265 AD to 300/10/13 AD (chüan 8–14), [T 2154–493b:16].

^{1.} Trsl. by Dharmarakşa II between 1018 and 1058 AD (20 chüan), [Ono. vol. 12, p. 184a].

^{2.} Trsl. by Dharmarakşa I between 265 and 313 AD (chüan15–16) [T 2154–496c:20].

^{3.} No Sanskrit original appears to be extant. If the original version of the *Amitābhavyūha* corresponds to the Large *Sukhāvatīvyūha* [extant in Sanskrit and various Chinese translations], then the translation of Bodhiruci [T.: No.310.5] is the most relevant here. No corresponding Mongolian and Tibetan versions of the Large *Sukhāvatīvyūha* appear to have been preserved. Large *Sukhāvatīvyūha*:

a) Wu liang shou ju lai hui [T.: 310.5]

b) Wu liang ch'ing ching p'ing teng chiao ching [T 61].

Trsl. by Lokaksema between 147 AD and 186 AD in Loyang [T 2153-389a; 18].

^{4.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 19–20).

⁵ Trsl. by Lokaksema between 147 and 186 AD in Loyang (2 chüan), [T 2151-384c: 8; T 2146-115c: 2]. K'ai -yüan gives 147 AD for the date of translation [T 2154-478c: 5].

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 315-338.

French (trsl.):

Dantinne (1983).

7. Varmavyūhanirdesa

Chinese Title:

Pei chia chuang yen hui [T 310.7]¹

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa go chahi bkod pa bstan pa źes bya ba theg pa chen pohi

mdo [TTP 760.7; TTD 51]

8. Dharmadhātuprakrtyasambhedanirdeśa

Chinese Title:

Fa chiai t'i hsing wu fen pieh hui [T 310.8]²

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa chos kyi dbyins kyi ran bźin dbyer med pa bstan pa źes

by aba theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.8; TTD 52]

9. Daśadharmaka

Chinese Title:

1. Ta ch'eng shih fa hui [T 310.9]³

2. Ta ch'eng shih fa ching [T 314]⁴

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa chos bcu pa žes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP]

760.9; TTD 53]

English (part. trsl.)

Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 5, 8, 114 (quot.).

10. Samantamukhaparivarta

Chinese Title:

1. Wen shu shih li p'u men hui [T 310.10]⁵

2. P'u men p'in ching [T 315]⁶

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa kun nas sgohi lehu zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 760.10; TTD 54]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 134–148.

^{1.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 21-25).

^{2.} Trsl. by Mandrasena in 503 AD (chüan 26–27). He arrived in Nan-ching/Nanking in the same year from Fu-nan (Lower Cambodia) [T 2154–537b: 12].

^{3.} Trsl. by Buddhaśānta in 539 AD (chüan 28). Native of North India; in China from 508 to 539 AD (Loyang) [T 2154–542a; 26].

^{4.} Trsl. by Sanghabhadra between 506 and 520 AD [T 2151–364b: 24].

^{5.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 29).

^{6.} Trsl. by Dharmaraksa I in 287 AD [T 2154-493b: 22].

11. Raśmisamantamuktanirdeśa

Chinese Title:

Ch'u hsien kuang ming hui [T 310.11]¹

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa hod zer kun du bkye ba bstan pa zer bya ba theg pa chen

pohi mdo [TTP 760.11; TTD 55]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 191–222.

12. Bodhisattvapitaka

Chinese Title:

1. Ta p'u sa ts'ang hui [T 310.12]²

2. Ta ch'eng p'u sa ts'ang cheng fa ching [T 316]³

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa byan chub sems dpahi sde snod ces bya ba theg pa chen

pohi mdo [TTP 760.12; TTD 56]

English (part. trsl.):

Pedersen (1976).

13. (Ā)nandagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa

Chinese Title:

1. Fo wei a nan shuo ch'u t'ai hui [T 310.13]⁴

2. Pao t'ai ching [T 317]⁵

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa dgah bo mnal na gnas pa bstan pa theg pa chen pohi

mdo [TTP 760.14; TTD 57]

14. Äyuşmannandagarbhāvakrāntinirdeśa

Chinese Title:

Fo shuo ju t'ai ts'ang hui [T 310.14]⁶

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa tshe dan ldan pa dgah bo mnal du hjug pa bstan pa zes

by a ba theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.13; TTD 58]

German (trsl.):

Huebotter (1932)

^{1.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 30–34).

^{2.} Trsl. by Hsüan-tsang in 645 AD (556/600/602-664 AD), who travelled to Central Asia and India from 629 to 644/645 AD [T 2154-555c: 5].

^{3.} Alternative title: P'u sa tsang cheng fa ching; trsl. by Dharmarakṣa II between 1018 and 1058 AD [Ono. vol. 12, p. 184a].

^{4.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 55).

^{5.} Trsl. by Dharmaraksa I in 281 AD [T 2157–790c: 15] or 303 AD [T 2149–234b: 10].

^{6.} Alternative title: Fo wei nan t'u shuo chu chia ju t'ai ching; trsl. by I-ching (I-tsing) in 710 AD, who travelled abroad from 671 to 695/98 AD. He died in 713 AD (chüan 55).

15. Mañjuśrībuddhaksetraguņavyūha

Chinese Title:

1. Wen shu shih li shou chi hui [T 310.15]¹

2. Wen shu shih li fo t'u yen ching [T 318]²

3. Ta sheng wen shu shih li p'u sa fo ch'a kung te chuang yen

ching [T 319]³

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa hjam dpal gyi sans rgyas kyi źin gi yon tan bkod pa źes

by a batheg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.15; TTD 59]

English (trsl.):

Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 4, 14, 15, 170 (quot.). Chang (1983),

pp. 164-190.

French (part, trsl.):

Lamotte (1960), pp. 20-23.

16. Pitāputrasamāgama

Chinese Titie:

1. P'u sa ch'ien shih hui [T 310.16]⁴

2. Fu tzu ho chi ching [T 320]⁵

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa yab dan sras mjal ba zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 760.16; TTD 60]

English (part. trsl.):

Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 177, 226 (quot.).

Conze (1954), pp. 164-165.

Obermiller (1931), i, p. 134 (quot.).

17. Pürnapariprechā

Chinese Title:

Fu lou na hui [T 310.17]6

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa gan pos zus pa zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP

760.18; TTD 611

18. Rāṣṭrapālaparipṛcchā

Chinese Title:

1. Hu kuo p'u sa hui [T 310.18]⁷

^{1.} Trsl. by Śikṣānanda between 695 and 707 AD in Loyang. Native of Khotan (chüan 58-60), [T 2154-566a: 22f.].

^{2.} Trsl. by Dharmarakşa I in 290 AD in Loyang (2 chüan), [T 2148–289a: 4; T 2151–790c:18].

^{3.} Trsl. by Amoghavajra between 720 and 774 AD in Loyang (3 chüan), [T 2157-881a: 17; T 2157-980a: 8].

Trsl. by Narendrayasas in 568 AD. Arrival in China from Uddiyāna (North India) in 556 AD [T 2154–543c: 10].

^{5.} Trsl. by Jih-ch'eng and Dharmarakṣa II between 1058 and 1072 AD [Ono. vol. 12, p. 184b].

^{6.} Alternative titles: Fu lou na wen ching, P'u sa ts'ang ching; trsl. by Kumārajīva in 405 AD [T 2154-512: 15].

^{7.} Trsl. by Jñānagupta towards the end of the sixth century AD. Native of Gandhāra (523-600 AD), [T

2. Hu kuo tsun che so wen ta ch'eng ching [T 321]¹

Tibetan Title: 1. hphags pa yul hkhor skyon gis źus pa źes bya ba theg pa chen

pohi mdo [TTP 760.17; TTD 62]

2. hphags pa yul hkhor skyon gis źus pa źes bya ba theg pa chen

pohi mdo [TTP 833; TTD 166]

English (trsl.):

Ensink (1952). Finot (1910)

Edition:

19. Ugrapariprechā

Chinese Title: 1. Yü chieh chang che hui [T 310.19]²

2. Fa ching ching [Dharmādarśasūtra, T 322]³

3. Yü chieh lo yüeh wen p'u sa-hsing ching [T 323]⁴

hphags pa khyim bdag drag śul can gyis źus pa źes bya ba theg pa Tibetan Title:

chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.19; TTD 63]

Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 11, 21, 39, 83, 119, 130, 133, 141, 144, English (trsl.):

149, 176, 187, 188, 190, 191, 194, 245, 248, 263, 282 (quot.).

Schuster (1976).

20. Vidyutprāptapariprcchā

Chinese Title:

Wu chin fu ts'ang hui [T 310.20]⁵

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa glog thob kyis žus pa žes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 760.20; TTD 64]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 149–163.

21. Bhadramāyākāravyākarana

Chinese Title:

1. Shou huan shih po t'o lo chi hui [T 310.21]⁶

2. Huan shih jen hsien ching [T 324]⁷

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa sgyu ma mkhan bźan po lun bstan pa źes bya ba theg pa

Trsl. by Dānapāla in 994 AD (4 chüan), [Ta-chung-lu, vol. 8 p.23 b: 26b].

²¹⁵⁴⁻⁵⁵⁰b: 19].

Trsl. by Sanghavarman from Sogdia in 252 AD (chüan 82), [T 2154-487a: 3]. According to Schuster (citing Hirawaka, A.) by Dharmamitra I a Kasmirian who stayed in China from 424 to 442 AD.

Trsl. by An Hsüan (a Parthian layman) and Yen Fo-t'iao (the first known Chinese Buddhist monk from An Hui) in 181 AD (1 chüan), [T 2151-350a: 14].

Trsl. by Dharmarakşa I between 266 and 300/10/13 AD (1 chüan), [T 2151–353a: 26].

Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 83–84).

Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 85).

Trsl. by Dharmaraksa I (1 chüan), [T 2151–353a: 26 f.].

chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.21; TTD 65]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 3–26.

Edition:

Régamey (1938). Régamey (1938).

22. Mahāprātihāryopadeśa

Chinese Title:

Ta shen pien hui [T 310.22]¹

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa cho hphrul chen po bstan pa zes bya ba theg pa chen

pohi mdo [TTP 760.22; TTD 66]²

23. Maitreyamahāsimhanāda

Chinese Title:

Mo ho chia she hui [T 310.23]

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa byams pahi sen gehi sgra chen po zes bya ba theg pa

chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.23; TTD 67]

English (part. trsl.):

Obermiller (1931), i, p. 12 (quot.).

24. Vinayaviniścaya-Upālipariprcchā

Chinese Title:

1. Yu po li hui [T 310.24]³

2. Chüch ting p'i ni ching [T 325]⁴

3. San shih wu fo ming li ch'an wen [T 326]⁵

4. Yu po li wen fo ching [T 1466]⁶

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa hdul ba rnam par gtan la dbab ne bar hkhor gyis zus pa

źes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.24; TTD 68]

English (trsl.):

Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 161, 165, 173, 264 (quot.).

Chang (1983), pp. 262–279.

French (trsl.):

Python (1973).

Edition:

Python (1973).

^{1.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 86-89).

² TTP, TTD: Mahāprātihāryanirdeśa.

^{3.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 90).

^{4.} Translator unknown (Chin Dynasty 266 AD to 420 AD in Tun-huang). The text mentions Tun-huang San-ts'ang as the translator, who is often identified with Dharmarakşa I (1 chüan), [T 2145–12a: 21].

^{5.} Trsl. by Gunavarman during the Liu Sung Dynasty.

^{6.} Trsl. by Amoghavajra between 720 and 774 AD in Loyang. Completely different version which in many respects is remnisent to extracts of the Theravada Vinaya. No corresponding Tibetan translation is known to exist (ed. by H. Bechert, Göttingen 1984) (1 chüan), [T 2157–881a: 17].

25. Adhvāśavasamcodana

Chinese Title:

1. Fa sheng chih le hui [T 310.25]¹

2. Fa chio ching hsin ching [T 327]²

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa lhag pahi bsam pa bskul ba źes bya ba theg pa chen pohi

mdo [TTP 760.25; TTD 69]

English (part. trsl.):

Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 17, 100, 105–114, 310 (quot.).

26. Subāhupariprechā

Chinese Title:

1. Shan pei p'u sa hui [T 310.26]³

2. Su p'o hu t'ung tzu ch'ing wen ching [T 895]⁴
3. Miao pei p'u sa so wen ching [T: no. 896]⁵

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa lag bźans gis żus pa żes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 760.26; TTD 70]

27. Sūratapariprcchā

Chinese Title:

1. Shan shun p'u sa hui [T 310.27]⁶

2. Hsü lai ching [T 329]⁷

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa nes pa zus pa zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP]

760.27; TTD 71]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 243-255.

28. Vīradatta(grhapati)pariprcchā

Chinese Title:

1. Ch'üan shou chang che hui [T 310.28]⁸

2. P'u sa hsiu hsing ching [T 330]⁹

3. Wu wei shou so wen ta ch'eng ching [T 331]¹⁰

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa khyim bdag dpas byin gyis źus pa źes bya ba theg pa

chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.28; TTD 72]

English (part. trsl.): Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 37, 217 (quot.).

^{1.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 91–92).

^{2.} Trsl. by Jñānagupta in 595 AD (2 chüan), [T 2151-366a: 3].

^{3.} Trsl. by Kumārajīva between 402 AD and 412 AD (chüan 93–94), [T 2154–514c: 26].

^{4.} Trsl. by Subhakarasimha in 726 AD (3 chüan), [T 2157–874c: 3].

^{5.} Trsl. by Fa-t'ien between 973 and 988 AD (4 chüan), [T 2035–398b: 23; Ta-chung-lu vol. 6, p. 16b–17b].

^{6.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 95).

^{7.} Trsl. by Chih-shih-lun in 373 AD [T 2157–815c: 26].

^{8.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 96).

^{9.} Trsl. by Po Fa-tzu between 290 and 306 AD (1 chüan), [T 2153–399c: 25].

^{10.} Trsl. by Dānapāla in 983 AD (3 chüan), [T 2035-398b: 25].

German (part. trsl.): Winternitz (1930), pp. 45-46.

29. Udayanavatsarājaparipṛcchā

Chinese Title:

1. Yu t'o yen wang hui [T 310.29]¹

2. Yu t'ien wang ching [T 332]²

3. Ta ch'eng jih tzu wang so wen ching [T 333]³

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa bad sahi rgyal po hchar byed kyis zus pa zes bya bahi

lehu [TTP 760.29;TTD 73]

English (part. trsl.):

Bendall; Rouse (1981), p. 85 (quot.).

Obermiller (1931), ii, p. 169 (quot.).

30. Sumatidarikāpariprechā

Chinese Title:

1. Miao hui t'ung nü hui [T 310.30]⁴

2. Hsü mo t'i p'u sa ching [T 334]⁵

3. Hsü mo t'i ching [T 336]6

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa bu mo blo gros bźan mos źus pa źes bya ba theg pa chen

pohi mdo [TTP 760.30; TTD 74]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 256–261.

31. Gangottarapariprechā

Chinese Title:

Heng ho shang yu p'o i hui [T 310.31]⁷

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa gan gahi mchog gis zus pa zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi

mdo [TTP 760.31; TTD 75]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 37–40.

32. Aśokadattävyäkarana

Chinese Title:

1. Wu wei te p'u sa hui [T 310.32]8

2. A sheh shih wang nü a sha ta p'u sa ching [T 337]⁹

Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 97).

^{2.} Trsl. by Fa-chü between 290 AD and 306 AD (1 chüan), [T 2151–355a: 15].

^{3.} Trsl. by Fa-t'ien in 984 AD (1 chüan), [Ta-chung-lu, vol. 4, p. 1a: 3b].

^{4.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 98a).

^{5.} Trsl. by Dharmarakşa I between 265 and 313 AD (1 chüan), [T 2151-353a: 26].

^{6.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci in 693 AD (1 chüan).

^{7.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 98b).

^{8.} Trsl. by Buddhaśānta in 539 AD (chüan 99), [T 2154–542a: 28].

^{9.} Trsl. by Dharmaraksa I in 317 AD (1 chüan), [T 2154-493c: 9].

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa mya nan med kyis byin pa lun bstan pa źes bya ba theg

pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.32; TTD 76]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 115-133.

33. Vimaladattāpariprcchā

Chinese Title:

1. Wu kou shih p'u sa (fen pieh) ying pien hui [T 310.33]¹

2. Li kou shih nü ching [T 338]²

3. Te wu kou nü ching [T 339]³

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa dri ma med kyis byin pas źus pa źes bya ba theg pa chen

pohi mdo [TTP 760.33; TTD 77]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 73–99.

34. Guņaratnasamkusumitapariprcchā

Chinese Title:

Kung te pao hua fu p'u sa hui [T 310.34]⁴

Tibetan Title:

1. hphags pa yon tan rin chen med tog kun tu rgyas pas źus pa źes

by a batheg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760..34; TTD 78]

2. hphags pa sans rgyas bcu pa źes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 938; TTD 272]

35. Acintyabuddhavisayānirdeśa

Chinese Title:

1. Shan te t'ien tzu hui [T 310.35]⁵

2. Wen shu shih li so shuo pu ssu i fo ching chieh ching [T 340]⁶

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa sans rgyas kyi yul bsam gyis mi khab pa bstan pa źes

bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.35; TTD 79]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 27–37.

36. Susthitamati(devaputra)pariprcchā

Chinese Title:

1. Shan chu i t'ien tzu hui [T 310.36]⁷

2. Trsl. by Dharmarakşa I in 289 AD (1 chüan), [T 2154-493c: 11].

^{1.} Trsl. by Nieh Tao Chen and Dharmarakşa I between 280 and 312 AD at Ch'ang-an (chüan 100), [T 2154-501a: 2].

^{3.} Trsl. by Gautama Prajñāruci in 541 AD (1 chüan), [T 2157-840c: 24; T 2157-841b: 5].

^{4.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 101a).

^{5.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 101b).

^{6.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci in 693 AD (2 chüan), [T 2153–380a: 8].

^{7.} Trsl. hy Dharmagupta between 605 and 617 AD. Arrival from South India (Lata) in Ch'ang-an in 590 AD

2. Shen shan chu i t'ien tzu so wen ching [T 341]¹

3. Ju huan san mei ching [T 342]²

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa lhahi bu blo gros rab gnas kyis zus pa zes bya ba theg pa

chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.37; TTD 80]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 41–72.

37. Simhapariprechā

Chinese Title:

1. A she shih wang tzu hui [T 310.37]³

2. T'ai tzu shua hu ching [T 343]⁴
3. T'ai tzu ho hsiu ching [T 344]⁵

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa sen ges zus pa zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP

760.37; TTD 81]

English (part. trsl.):

Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 5, 53 (quot.).

38. Upāyakauśalyaparivarta

Chinese Title:

1. Ta ch'eng fang pien hui [T 310.38]⁶.

2. Hui shang p'u sa wen ta shan ch'üan ching [T 345]⁷

3. Ta fang kuang shan ch'iao fang pien ching [T 346]8

Tibetan Title:

1. hphags pa sans rgyas thams cad kyi gsan chen thabs la mkhas pa byan chub sems dpah ye ses dam pas zus pahi lehu zes bya ba theg

pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.38; TTD 82]9

2. hphags pa thabs mkhas pa žes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 927; TTD 261]

English (trsl.):

Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 70, 161, 163, 164, 165 (quot.).

Chang (1983), pp. 427–468.

Obermiller (1931), i, p. 134 (quot.).

Tatz, M. (1981).

German (part. trsl.): Winternitz (1930), p. 40.

⁽chüan 102–105), [T 2154–552b: 22].

^{1.} Trsl. by Prajfiāruci in 541 AD (3 chüan), [T 2149–269c: 24].

^{2.} Trsl. by Dharmarakşa I (3 chüan; var. 4), [T 2151–353a: 26].

Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 106a).

^{4.} Trsl. by Dharmarakşa I (1 chüan), [T 2151–353a: 26f].

^{5.} Translator unknown. Listed in the *Hsi-chin-lu* as having been translated between 265 and 316 AD (1 chüan), [T 2154–587b: 23].

^{6.} Trsl. by Nandi (from Western China) in 420 AD at Lo-yang (chüan 106b–108), [T 2154–509a: 6].

^{7.} Trsl. hy Dharmaraksa I in 285 AD (2 chüan), [T 2145–8a: 12].

^{8.} Trsl. by Dānapāla in 1005 AD (4 chüan), [Ta-chung-lu. vol. 13, p.1a-4a].

⁹ Title as listed in Tibetan bKah-hgyur. Ārya-sarvabuddhamahārahasyopāyakauśalyajñānottarabodhisattva-pariprechāparivarta-nāma-māhāyāna-sūtra (D, P, R).

39. Bhadrapālaśresthipariprcchā

Chinese Title:

1. Hsien hu chang che hui [T 310.39]¹

2. Ta ch'eng hsien shih ching [T 347]²

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa tshon dpon bźań skyon gis źus pa źes bya ba theg pa

chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.39; TTD.: 83]

English (trsl.):

Chang (1983), pp. 223–242.

40. Dārikāvimalasraddhāpariprechā

Chinese Title:

Ching hsin t'ung nü hui [T 310.40]³

Tibetan Title:

Bu mo rnam dag dad pas źus pa źes bya ba theg pa chen poḥi mdo

[TTP 760.40; TTD 84]

41. Maitreyapariprcchādharmāsta

Chinese Title:

1. Mi le p'u sa wen pa fa hui [T 310.41]⁴

2. Ta ch'eng fang teng yao hui [T 348]⁵

Tibetan Title:

1. hphags pa byams pas źus pa brgyad pa źes bya ba theg pa chen

poḥi mdo [TTP 760.41/2; TTD 85/6]

2. hphags pa byams pas źus pa źes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 816; TTD 149]

42. Maitreyapariprcchā

Chinese Title:

1. Mi le p'u sa wen hui [T 310.42]⁶

2. Mi le p'u sa so wen pen yüan ching [T 349]⁷

Tibetan Title:

1. hphags pa byams pas źus pahi lehu źes bya ba theg pa chen pohi

mdo [TTP 760.42/41; TTD 86/85]

2. hphags pa byams pas źus pahi lehu żes bya ba theg pa chen pohi

mdo [TTP 816; TTD 149]

Alternative title: I shih ching; trsl. by Jñānagupta (from Gandhāra) in 591 AD (chüan 109-110), [T 2154-548b: 8].

^{2.} Trsl. by Divākara in 680 AD (2 chüan), [T 2153-397a: 7; Ono.: 630 AD].

Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 111a).

^{4.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 111b).

^{5.} Trsl. by An Shih-Kao between 148 and 170 AD (1 chüan), [T 2151–349a: 12].

Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 111c).

^{7.} Trsl. by Dharmaraksa I in 303 AD (1 chüan), [T 2157–791a: 10].

43. Kāśyapaparivarta

Chinese Title: 1. P'u ming p'u sa hui [T 310.43]¹

2. I jih me ni pao ching [T 350]²
3. Mo ho yen pao yen ching [T 351]³

4. Ta chia she wen ta pao chi cheng fa ching [T 352]⁴

Tibetan Title: hphags pa hod sruns kyi lehu zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 760.43; TTD 87]

English (trsl.): Bendall; Rouse (1981), p. 52, n. 1; pp. 53, 54, 55, 144, 147, 190,

235 (quot.).

Chang (1983) pp. 387–414.

German (trsl.): Weller (1965).

Winternitz (1930), pp. 36-37.

Edition: Stael Holstein (1926).

Vorob'jev- Desjatovski (RO; 21).

44. Ratnarāśi

Chinese Title: Pao liang chü hui [T 310.44]⁵

Tibetan Title: hphags pa rin po chehi phun po zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi mdo

[TTP 760.45; TTD. no. 88]

English (trsl.): Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 56, 127, 129, 134, 135, 194, 278

(quot.).

Chang (1983), pp. 280–314.

Edition: Hoernle (1916), pp. 116–121.

45. Aksayamatipariprcchā

Chinese Title: Wu chin hui p'u sa hui [T 310.45]⁶

Tibetan Title: hphags pa blo gros mi sad pas žus pa žes bya ba theg pa chen pohi

mdo [TTP 760.44; TTD 89]

English (trsl.): Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 12, 24, 36, 37, 115, 118, 156, 163, 185,

204, 219, 221, 248, 254, 260, 261, 264, 283 (quot.).

Chang (1983), pp. 415–426.

German (part. trsl.): Winternitz (1930), p. 48.

^{1.} Alternative title: Ku ta pao shi ching; translator unknown (chüan 112).

^{2.} Trsl. by Lokaksema in 179 AD (1 chüan), [T 2149–223c: 18].

^{3.} Translator unknown; Ch'in Dynasty (265–420 AD); (1 chüan), [T 2153–382b: 17].

^{4.} Trsl. by Dānapāla in 985 AD (5 chüan), [Ta-chung-lu. vol.4, p.23a: 25b].

^{5.} Alternative title: Pao liang ching; trsl. by Tao-Kung between 401 and 412 AD at Ch'ang-an (chüan 113–114).

^{6.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 115a).

46. Saptaśatikaprajñāpāramitā

Chinese Title: 1. Wen shu shuo pan jo hui [T 310.46]¹

2. Ta pan jo po lo mi to ching (chapter 7) [T 220.7]²

3. Wen shu shih li so shuo mo ho pan jo polo mi ching [T 232]³ 4. Wen shu shih li so shuo pan jo po lo mi ching [T 233]⁴

Tibetan Title: hphags pa ses rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa bdun brgya pa ses bya ba

theg pa chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.46; TTD 90]

English (trsl.): Chang (1983), pp. 100–114.

Conze (1973), pp. 79–107.

Edition: Tucci (1923).

47. Ratnacūdapariprechā

Chinese Title: Pao chi p'u sa hui [T 310.47]⁵

Tibetan Title: hphags pa gtsug na rin po ches zus pa zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi

mdo [TTP 760.47; TTD 91]

English (part. trsl.): Bendall; Rouse (1981), pp. 115, 120, 217, 219, 222, 222, 249, 284

(quot.).

Obermiller (1931), ii, p. 115 (quot.).

48. Śrīmālādevīsimhanāda

Chinese Title: 1. Sheng man fu jen hui [T 310.48]⁶

2. Sheng man shih tzu hou i cheng ta fang pien fang kuang ching

 $[T 353]^7$

Tibetan Title: hphags pa lha mo dpal hphren gi sen gehi sgra zes bya ba theg pa

chen pohi mdo [TTP 760.48; TTD 92]

English (trsl.): Bendall; Rouse (1981), p. 44 (quot.).

Chang (1983), pp. 363–386.

Wayman (1974).

^{1.} Trsl. by Mandrasena in 503 AD (chüan 115b–116), [T 2154–537b: 12].

^{2.} Trsl. by Hsüan-tsang between 659 and 663 AD (2 chüan), [T 2154–555b: 28; T 2149–282b: 10].

^{3.} Trsl. by Mandrasena in 503 AD (1 chüan), [T 2154–537: 12].

^{4.} Trsl. by Sanghabhara between 509 and 520 AD at Lo-yang (2 chüan), [T 2151–364b: 24].

^{5.} Trsl. by Dharmarakşa I in 290 AD (chüan 117–118), [T 2154–493b: 21].

^{6.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 119).

^{7.} Trsl. by Gunabhadra in 436 AD (1 chüan), [T 2154–528a: 15]. A translation made by Dharmaksema in 433 AD was no longer extant by the time of the Yüan Dynasty. (See: Wayman, 1974, pp. 9–13).

49. (Ŗṣi)vyāsaparipṛcchā

Chinese Title:

1. Kuang po hsien jen hui [T 310.49]¹

2. P'i yeh p'o wen ching [T 354]²

Tibetan Title:

hphags pa dran sron rgyas pas zus pa zes bya ba theg pa chen pohi

mdo [TTP 760.49; TTD 93]

^{1.} Trsl. by Bodhiruci (chüan 120).

^{2.} Trsl. by Gautama Prajñāruci in 542 AD (2 chüan), [T 2157-841a: 1].

Appendix IV

Tibetan Text of Chapter Eleven of the Bodhisattvapiţakasūtra

SECTION I

1.1

(590) śā riḥi bu de la byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ chen po gaṅ la brtson na |¹ byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi spyad pa spyod par ḥgyur baḥi byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen poḥi śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa gan źe na | śā riḥi bu ḥdi la byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam graṅs rab tu ñan par byed |² ḥdzin par byed | ḥchaṅ bar byed | klog par byed | kun chub par byed | gźan dag³ la yaṅ ḥchad ciṅ rgya cher yaṅ dag par rab tu ston par byed de ||

śā riḥi bu de la byan chub sems dpas⁴ byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grans śin tu mñan | blans | bzun | bklags | gźan dag⁵ la yan bśad cin rgya cher yan dag par rab tu bstan na | śes rab kyi rnam pa ḥdi dag ḥthob par ḥgyur ro || śes rab de yan rnam pa gan⁶ | ḥjug pa gan źe na | de la śes rab⁷ thos pa ni rnam paḥo || tshul bźin yid la byed pa ni ḥjug paḥo ||

1.1.1

thos pa yan⁸ rnam pa gan źe na | hdi lta ste⁹ | hdun¹⁰ pahi rnam pa dan | bsam pahi rnam

- 2. P add: len pa byed.
- 3. D N gźan dag.
- 4. N dpah.
- N gźan dag.
- 6. D dan.
- 7. D N add: kyi; R add: kyis.
- 8. Ngan.
- I provide here the Sanskrit equivalents of the 72 technical terms that are given in the Tibetan:
 hdun pa: chanda; 2. bsam pa: āśaya; 3. sbyor pa: prayoga; 4. dge baḥi bśes gñen: kalyāṇamitra; 5. na rgyal med pa: nirmāṇa; 6. rab hdud pa: praṇama; 7. ri mor byed pa: mānanā; 8. hthun pa: anukula; 9. bkaḥ

^{1.} In my edition of chapter eleven, I have adopted the punctuation and Arabic page/folio numbering as it is found in the modern reprint of the sTog Palace Kanjur (Leh—1979). Whenever it seemed appropriate to point to the inclusion of additional śad in other editions of the canon, I have indicated thus in the footnote section. Round brackets serve to indicate conjectural insertions, while square brackets indicate deletions. Whenever available, I reproduced in the footnote section the reading of the Tun-huang manuscript (Pelliot 977) of the Bdp. Since it is independent of the various blockprint versions, I decided to treat the Tun-huang manuscript as a variant in its own right. Thus I have not edited the text, but faithfully recorded its readings. Like many Tun-huang works, it contains a fair amount of non-standard spellings, such as 'sa ri bu' for 'sā ri bu', 'myed' for 'med' or 'yin ba' for 'yin pa', etc. In order to keep the manuscript portions on the same page as the text of the sTog Palace reading, I have broken it up by paragraphs to match those to the main body of the text.

pa dan | sbyor baḥi rnam pa dan | dge baḥi bśes gñen gyi rnam pa dan | na rgyal med paḥi rnam pa dan | rab tu (591) hdud paḥi rnam pa dan | ri mor byed paḥi rnam pa dan | hthun¹ paḥi rnam pa dan | bkaḥ blo bde baḥi rnam pa dan | bsñen bkur byed paḥi rnam pa dan | rna blags te² ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | bkur sti byed paḥi rnam pa dan | yid la byed paḥi rnam pa dan | mi g.yen baḥi rnam pa dan | rin po cher³ hdu śes paḥi rnam pa dan | sman du hdu śes paḥi rnam pa dan | nad thams cad rab tu źi bar byed paḥi hdus śes kyi rnam pa dan | dran paḥi snod kyi rnam pa dan | rtogs pa śes paḥi rnam pa dan | blo gros hdod paḥi rnam pa dan | blo la hjug paḥi rnam pa dan | sans rgyas kyi chos thos pas mi noms paḥi rnam pa dan | gton ba spel baḥi rnam pa dan | byin nas mi smod paḥi rnam pa dan | man du thos pa sten⁴ paḥi rnam pa dan | gus par dgaḥ ba myon bar byed paḥi rnam pa dan | lus sim paḥi rnam pa dan | sems rans paḥi rnam pa dan | mi skyor ba ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | don ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | chos ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | nan tan ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | theg pa gźan (dag) la ḥdod pa med par

blo bde ba: suvacas; 10, bsñen bkur byed pa: paryupāsana; 11, rna ba blags te ñan pa; avahitaśruta; 12. bkur sti byed pa: satkāra; 13. yid la byed pa: manasakāra; 14. mi g.yen pa; atandrita; 15. rin po cher hdu śes: ratnasamjñā; 16. sman du hdu śes pa; bhaisajyasamjñā; 17. nad thams cad rab tu źir bar byed pahi hdu śes pa: sarvavyādhiśamana; 18. dran pahi snod: smrtibhojana; 19. rtogs pa śes pa; gatibodhana; 20. blo gros hdod pa: matirocana; 21. blo la hjug pa: buddhipraveśa; 22. sans rgyas kyi chos thos pas mi sgoms pa: atıptabuddhadharmasravana; 23. gton pa spel pa: tyagavrhana; 24. sbyin nas mi smod pa: dantajaneya; 25. man du thos pa sten pa: bahuśrutasevanā; 26. gus par dgah ba myon bar byed pa: *gauravanandānubhavati; 27. lus sim pa: kāyaudbilya; 28. sems rans pa: cittaprahlādana; 29. mi skyor bar ñan pa: aparikhedaśravana; 30. don ñan pa: arthaśravana; 31. chos ñan pa: dharmaśravana; 32. nan tan ñan pa: pratipattiśravana; 33. theg pa gźan la hdod pa med pa ñan pa: *parayānānarthika; 34. pha rol tu phyin pa ñan pa: prajñāpāramitāśravana; 35. byan chub sems dpahi sde snod nan pa: bodhisattvapitakaśravana; 36. bsdu bahi dnos ñan pa: samgrahavastuśravana; 37. thabs mkhas pa ñan pa: upāyakauśalyaśravana; 38. tshans pahi gnas pa ñan pa: brahmavihāraśravaņa; 39. mnon par śes pa ñan pa: abhijñāśravaṇa; 40. dran pa ñe bar gźags pa ñan pa: smrtisamprajanyaśravana; 41. yan dag par spon ba ñan pa: samyakprahānaśravana; 42. rdzu hphrul gyi rkan pa ñan pa: rddhipādaśravana; 43. rten cin hbrel par hbyun ba ñan pa: pratītyasamutpādaśravana; 44. mi rtag pa fian pa: anityaśravana; 45. sdud bsgnal ba fian pa: duhkhaśravana; 46. bdag med pa ñan pa: anātmasravaņa; 47. zi ba ñan pa: sāntasravaņa; 48. ston pa ñid ñan pa: sūnyatāsravaņa; 49. mtshan ma med pa ñan pa: apranihitaśravana; 50. smon pa med pa ñan pa: animittaśravana; 51. mnon par hdu mi byed pa ñan pa; anabhisamskāraśravaņa; 52. dge bahi rtsa ba mnon par hdu byed pa ñan pa: kuśalābhisamskāraśravana; 53. ran dban du gyur pa: *svādiṣṭhāna; 54. chos ñam par hdu śes pa: *dharmanidhyapti; 55. kun tu hdre ba mi mthun pahi phyags su hdu ses pa: *saṃsargapratipakṣasaṃjñā; 56. ñon mons pa thams cad tshar gcod pa: *sarvakleśanigrahasthāna; 57. mkhas pa la mnon par bgaḥ ba: paṇḍitābhinandana; 58. hphags pa sten pa: āryasammata; 59. hphags pa ma yin pa yons su spon pa: anāryapraśādana; 60. hphags pa ñan pa: satyadarsanasravana; 61. dban pa ñan pa: indriyasravana; 62. rjes su dran pa sgom pa ñan pa: *anusmrtibhāvanāśravaṇa; 63. byan chub kyi yan lag ñan pa: bodhyangāniśravaṇa; 64. hphags pahi lam yan lag brgyad pa fian pa: āryāstāngamārgaśravana; 65. de bzin gśegs pahi stobs fian pa: tathāgatabalāniśravana; 66. mi hjigs pa ñan pa: vaiśāradyaśravana; 67. byams pa ñan pa: maitrīśravana; 68. sñin pa fian pa: karuṇāśravaṇa; 69. dgaḥ ba ñan pa: muditāśravaṇa; 70. gtan sñoms chen po ñan pa: upekṣāśravaṇa; 71. so so yan dag par rig pa ñan pa: pratisamvicchravaṇa; 72. sans rgyas kyi chos ma hdres pa bco brgyad mams ñan pa: āvenikabuddhadharmaśravana (Śiks: pp. 190-191; Akn: pp. 50.4.7-51.1.5; see also Appendix i).

^{10.} P mos.

^{1.} R mthun (throughout the text).

^{2.} R rna ba blags te te.

^{3.} P dkon mchog.

^{4.} N bstan.

ñan¹ paḥi rnam pa daṅ | pha rol tu phyin pa ñan paḥi rnam pa daṅ | byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi sde snod ñan paḥi rnam pa daṅ | bsdu baḥi dhos po ñan paḥi rnam pa daṅ | thabs mkhas pa ñan paḥi rnam pa daṅ | tshaṅs paḥi gnas pa ñan paḥi rnam pa daṅ | mhon par śes pa ñan paḥi rnam pa (592) daṅ |

dran pa ñe bar báag pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | yan dag par spon ba ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | rdzu hphrul gyi rkan pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | rten cin hbrel par hbyun ba ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | mi rtag pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | sdug bsnal ba² ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | bdag med pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | źi ba ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | ston pa ñid ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | mtshan ma med pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | smon pa med pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | mnon par hdu mi byed pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | dge baḥi rtsa ba mnon par hdu byed pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | chos⁴ ñan par hdu śes paḥi rnam pa dan | kun tu hdre ba mi hthun paḥi phyogs su hdu śes paḥi rnam pa dan | ñon mons pa thams cad tshar gcod paḥi rnam pa dan | mkhas pa la mnon par dgaḥ baḥi rnam pa dan | hphags pa sten⁵ paḥi rnam pa dan | hphags pa ma yin pa yons su spon⁶ baḥi rnam pa dan | hphags pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | dban po ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | rjes su dran pa sgom pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | byan chub kyi yan lag ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | hphags paḥi lam yan lag brgyad pa ñan paḥi rnam pa dan | de bźin gśegs paḥi stobs dan | mi hjigs pa dan | byams pa dan | sñin rje dan | dgaḥ ba dan | btan sñoms chen po dan | (593) so so yan dag par rig pa dan | sans rgyas kyi chos ma hdres pa bcu brgyad rnams ñan paḥi rnam pa ste |

1.1.2

śā riḥi bu de ltar gan na thos pa de ni⁷ śes paḥo || gan na śes pa de ni nan tan no || de ciḥi phyir źe na | gan byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grans la mos pa de ni thos par ḥgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do ||

gan byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grans la bsam pa yod pa de ni thos par ḥgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grans la sbyor ba yod pa de ni thos par ḥgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || šes nas nan tan byed do || gan dge baḥi bśes gñen la rten⁸ par byed pa de ni thos par

- 1. P om: par ñan.
- 2. P sdug bshal.
- 3. P bdag la rag las paḥi rnam pa, for D N R ran dban du gyur paḥi rnam pa.
- 4. N kun tu chos.
- 5. DNR bsten; P bstan.
- 6. DR span.
- 7. DR na; N om: pa de ni.
- 8. D P sten; N brten.

hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan na rgyal med pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan man du thos pa (de) la rab tu hdud pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan man du thos pa de¹ la ri mor byed pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan hthun par hdzin pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan (594) tan byed do || gan bkah blo bde ba de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do ||

gan man du thos pa (de) la bsñen bkur byed pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan rna ba blags te nan pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan man du thos pa (de) la bkur sti² byed pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan hchad pa dan | gan man du thos pa (de la)³ yid la byed pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan man du thos pa (de) la rin po cher hdu ses pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan man du thos pa (de) la rtsir hdu ses pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan man du thos pa thos nas hdod chags dan | ze sdan dan | gti mug rab tu zi bar hdu ses pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan man du thos pa thos nas⁷ hdzin par hdu ses pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do gan chos rnams rtogs par khon du chud pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan man du thos par blo gros hdod pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan man du thos pa thos nas | blo rnam par mi⁸ g.yo ba de ni thos par hgyur ro || (595) thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gañ thos pas mi noms pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do 1

gan sbyin paḥi gtam thos nas gton bar rtog pa⁹ de ni thos par ḥgyur ro || gan tshul khrims kyi gtam thos nas tshul khrims srun¹⁰ ba de ni thos par ḥgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes

^{1.} Nom: de.

N bsti.

^{3.} DPR thos par; N pa.

^{4.} D N R om: la.

^{5.} P dkon mchog du.

^{6.} P sman du.

^{7.} DR na.

^{8.} D P R om: mi.

^{9.} N sbyin pa gton bar byed pa.

^{10.} N bsrun.

nas nan tan byed do || gan bzod paḥi gtam thos nas bzod par byed pa de ni thos par ḥgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan brtson ḥgrus kyi gtam thos nas brtson ḥgrus ma ñams par byed pa de ni thos par ḥgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan bsam gtan gyi gtam thos nas sems mi g.yen bar byed pa de ni thos par ḥgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan śes rab kyi gtam thos nas zag pa zad pa la¹ sems gźol bar byed pa de ni thos par (596) ḥgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do ||

gan man du thos pa (de la)² dgah ba skye ba de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan chos thos nas lus sim par byed pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan chos thos nas rans par byed pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do ||

gan theg pa chen po thos nas mos par hgyur ba de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan bsdu bahi dnos po thos nas gan bsdu bar sems skyed³ pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan dran pa ne bar bźag pahi gtam thos nas | dran pa lus la źugs pa⁴ dan | dran pa tshor ba la źugs pa dan | dran pa sems la źugs pa dan | dran pa chos la źugs pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan yan dag par spon bahi gtam thos nas mi dge ba skyes śin byun ba dag la⁵ khrel źin no tsha bar hgyur ba de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do ||

gan dge baḥi chos skyes śin byun ba la mi gton bar blo hjug pa (597) de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do ||

gan rdzu hphrul gyi rkan pahi gtam thos nas lus yan ba dan | sems yan ba dan | hdun pa⁶ yan ba skye ba de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan bsam gtan gyi gtam thos nas nes par⁷ rtog pa la sems gton⁸ ba de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do || gan tshad med pahi gtam thos nas sems can thams cad la byams pa dan | hphons⁹ par gyur pa rnams la sñin rje che ba¹⁰ | chos la dgah ba

^{1.} N las.

^{2.} DNPR thos par.

^{3.} N bskyes.

^{4.} P son ba (also in the following three instances).

^{5.} P gis.

^{6.} P sred pa.

^{7.} P om: nes par.

^{8.} P gźol.

D N phons; P des.

^{10.} Dom: che; N chen po.

dan | mi dge ba la btan sñoms pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan dban pohi gtam thos nas dad pahi dban po dan | brtson hgrus kyi dban po dan | dran pahi dban po dan | tin ne hdzin gyi dban po dan | ses rab kyi dban po la sems hjug¹ par byed pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan byan chub kyi yan lag gi gtam thos nas chos thams cad khon du chud par bya bahi phyir sems hjug par byed pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do || gan lam gyi gtam thos nas mya nan las (598) hdah bar hgro ba la sems hjug pa de ni thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu ses so || ses nas nan tan byed do ||

gan de bźin gśegs paḥi stobs dan | mi hjigs pa dan | byams pa dan | sñin rje dan | dgaḥ ba dan | btan sñoms chen po dan | so so yan dag par rig pa dan | sans rgyas kyi chos ma ḥdres pa bcu brgyad yan dag par bslab pa² sans rgyas kyi chos tshad med pa thos nas bla na med pa yan dag par rdzogs paḥi byan chub tu sems hjug ste | de thos par hgyur ro || thos nas rab tu śes so || śes nas nan tan byed do ||

śā riḥi bu ḥdi ni³ thos paḥi rnam pa la ḥjug pa rnam pa bźi bcu rtsa gcig ces bya ste | śā riḥi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ⁴ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la⁵ spyod do ||

1.1.3

śā riḥi bu gźan yaṅ byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod pa | byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam graṅs śin tu mñan | blaṅs | bzuṅ | bklags | kun chub par byas | gźan la yaṅ bśad ciṅ rgya cher yaṅ dag par rab tu bstan na nan tan sñiṅ por byed pa yin no || chos rnams la nan tan byed pa gaṅ źe na | gaṅ ji ltar bstan pa bźin du gnas pa ste | de ni chos la nan tan byed paḥo ||

gźan yan chos la nan tan byed pa de⁹ ni gan chos thams cad mi len paḥo || de ciḥi phyir źe na | chos rnams len na¹⁰ yan log paḥi nan tan du ḥgyur te | gan zag (599) gan chos len par gnas pa de¹¹ ni chos de dag las ḥbyun bar ḥgyur baḥi gnas dan skabs med de | de ni gnas med

^{1.} P gźol (also in the next three occurrences of the term 'hjug').

^{2.} P dag dan, for D N R yan dag par bslab pa.

^{3.} P gźan, for D N R hdi ni.

⁴ N dnahi

^{5.} Pom: la (also in all further instances of this regularly reoccuring stock phrase).

^{6.} Nom; yan.

^{7.} N P nas.

^{8.} NR do.

^{9.} D N P om: de.

^{10.} Nom: na.

^{11.} DPR om: de.

paḥo || gan zag mi len par spyod pa rnams kyan bsal¹ baḥi phyir | chos ḥdi dag la nan tan du bżag² pa the tshom du ḥgyur na | chos len par spyod pa rnams lta smos kyan ci dgos te | de bas na chos thams cad mi len pa ni³ nan tan no ||

gźan yan gan chos rnams la mi sgrib pa de ni nan tan źes byaho || gan chos rnams la rlom sems⁴ med pa dan | gan chos rnam mi len pa dan | mi rlom pa dan | mi skye ba dan | mi hgog pa de ni nan tan źes byaho ||

gźan yań chos rnams la bsnan pa med pa dań | bsal ba med pa de ni nan tan źes byaḥo || gźan yaṅ gaṅ du cuṅ zad kyaṅ ma bśad | ji ltar bśad pa bźin du mi snaṅ ba de lta bu ni chos thams cad mi snaṅ ba² | mi blaṅ ba | mtshan ñid gcig paḥo || mtshan ñid gaṅ źe na | ḥdi lta ste | mtshan ñid med paḥo || mtshan ñid ces bya ba³ ni mtshan ñid med pa ste | de ni gñi ga las ḥgyur ro || de ciḥi phyir źe na | kun brtags pa ḥam | yaṅ dag par brtags pa de ñid mtshan ñid par bśad pa yin no || ḥdi ni mtshan ñid do | ḥdi ni mtshan ñid ma yin paḥo źes | ḥdi lta ste | chos thams cad la mtshan ñid med pa | mi snaṅ ba | blaṅ ba med par rtogs pa de ni nan tan źes byaḥo || nan tan la brtson par gyis śig | chos thams cad mi sgrib par snaṅ ba thob par gyis śig || (600)

de nas dehi tshe bcom ldan hdas kyis tshigs su bcad pa hdi dag gsuns so ||

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gan zig byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod la ||
śin tu nes par nan tan gnas byed pa ||
mkhas pa de ni chos la ḥdzin¹0 mi byed ||
mi ḥdzin pas na nan tan de ḥdraḥo ||
mis ni chos rñed ston par mi byed do ||¹¹¹
chos laḥan de ni ston par rlom sems med¹² ||
ston paḥi chos la rlom sems¹³ gan yan med ||
```

^{1.} P bstsal (also in all subsequent occurrences of the word 'sel ba').

N gźag.

^{3.} N len pahi.

^{4.} DNR rlom sems; P sñems pa.

^{5.} P add: kyan.

^{6.} D P bstan.

N om: mi snan ba.

⁸ Nom: ba.

P om: mtshan ñid.

^{10.} P len (also in the next line).

^{11.} P chos rñed ston pa ñid du mi byed min.

^{12.} P ston pa sñems mi byed.

^{13.} P sñems pa (also in the following three occurrences of the word 'rlom sems').

rlom sems med phyir nan tan de hdraho ||

chos la len pa med cin hdor ba med ||
chos ni chos la len par byed pa med ||
len pa med phyir hdi ni chos kyi mtshan ||
hdi hdra ba ni nan tan zes byaho ||

gan phyir chos la nams kyan de mi chags ||
de la de yi ye ses blans mi hgyur ||
ye ses ma blans de lahan rlom sems med ||
hdi hdra ba ni² nan tan zes byaho ||

mkhas pa³ sbyans paḥi⁴ yon tan gnas par gyis || chos ḥdi dag la śin tu brtson par gyis || cho ga spyod pa dag la gnas gyur na || deḥi tshe de yi sgo ni dag par ḥgyur ||

sgo dag na ni chos ḥdi ḥdra ba śes ||
de na sems la bsam paḥaṅ śes par ḥgyur ||
mkhas pas de tshe bsam pa śes nas ni ||
ḥdi ḥdra ba yi chos kyaṅ ḥchad par ḥgyur ||

zab moḥi chos la don dam mkhas⁵ gyur nas ||
rtag tu don la rnam par gdon mi za⁶ ||
spyod pa mthaḥ yas yon tan rnams kyis ḥphags ||
mkhas pa maṅ du thos pa rgya mtsho⁷ ḥdra ||

^{1.} D N de.

^{2.} DPR la; N lahan.

D N pas.

^{4.} P nan tan.

^{5.} P bstsal.

^{6.} N add: ba.

P add: mi rnams.

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de yi don dan tshig hbru¹ dag la yan \parallel (601) mthah ma rtogs par run ba ma yin źin \parallel^2 don kyan mthah yas tshig hbru mthah yas te \parallel nan tan sñin por byed pa mi hkhrugs hgyur \parallel
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śā rihi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpah śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do³ ||

1.1.4

śā riḥi bu gźan yaṅ byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la⁴ spyod pa⁵ | byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam graṅs śin tu ñan pa nas | gźan la rgya cher bstan paḥi bar du byas nas ma rig paḥi mun pa mun nag mun pa rab rib stug po bsal⁶ baḥi phyir | chos thams cad la snaṅ ba thob ste | śes rab kyi snaṅ baḥo || de snaṅ ba⁻ thob pas dge ba daṅ mi dge baḥi chos rnams rab tu śes te | de srog gi phyir yaṅ mi dge baḥi chos la mi gnas te | de mi dge baḥi chos rnams spaṅ baḥi phyir | ji ltar thos paḥi chos rnams rtogs pas na | dge ba thub pa źi ba źes byaho ||

de nas bcom ldan hdas kyis dehi tshe tshigs su bcad pa hdi dag gsuns so ||

```
ji ltar mun pas khyab bsgribs pa<sup>8</sup> ||
khyim du źugs par gyur na ni ||
yod par gyur paḥi gzugs<sup>9</sup> rnams kyaṅ ||
mig gis mthon bar mi ḥgyur ro ||
de bźin du ni ḥdi la yaṅ ||
la<sup>10</sup> laḥi mi dag skyes gyur kyaṅ ||
dge ba dan ni sdig paḥi chos ||
```

P yi ge (also in all subsequent occurrences of the term 'tshig hbru').

^{2.} P mthah ma khon du chud par mi nus te.

^{3.} P paho (also in all subsequent ocurrences of this stock-phrase).

^{4.} D P R om: la.

^{5.} P add: na (also in all subsequent occurrences of this stock phrase).

^{6.} R gsal.

^{7.} D N add: de.

^{8.} P pahi; N pas.

N gzug.

^{10.} D rtal.

```
ma thos par ni ses mi hgyur | |
thos nas chos rnams rnam par ses ||
thos nas sdig pa sten<sup>2</sup> mi byed ||
thos nas gnod pa spon bar (602) byed ||
thos nas mya nan hdas pa hthob ||
thos par hdod pas thos pa hphel ||
thos pas ses rab hphel bar hgyur ||
śes rab kyis³ ni don rnams sbyon ||
don thob nas ni bde hthob hgyur ||4
don thob de ni yid rno<sup>5</sup> ste ||
tshe hdi la ni mya nan hdas ||
chos la sbyor źin gtsan la mkhas ||
sin tu bde ba hthob par hgyur ||
byan chub sems dpahi sde snod ni ||
thos nas chos ñid gnas par hgyur<sup>6</sup> ||
hjig rten la<sup>7</sup> ni snan gyur nas ||
byan chub kyi ni<sup>8</sup> spyad pa spyod ||
```

1.2

śā riḥi bu gźan yan byan chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod pa | byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod⁹ hdzin paḥi gan zag la dge baḥi bśes gñen du hdu śes bskyed nas |

śā rihi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpah śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

^{1.} R nus.

^{2.} N bstan; R bsten.

^{3.} P byan chub ses rab kyis; N ses rab kyi.

^{4.} Nom: entire last line of verse.

^{5.} P gźuńs.

^{6.} P thos nas chos ñid la gnas te.

^{7.} P gyi.

P byan chub sems dpaḥi.

^{9.} P add: kyi mam grans.

byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grans ḥdi ñid la śin tu byan bar byed | rnam par dag par byed do || byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod ḥdiḥi don gyi phyir ḥdun pa skyed | ḥbad par byed | brtson ḥgrus rtsom par byed | sems la rab tu ḥdzin par byed | yan dag par rab tu ḥjog par¹ byed de | de yan dag par spon ba bźi la rab tu źugs pas | chos thams cad la sgrib pa med pa ḥthob po ||

de nas deḥi tshe bcom ldan ḥdas kyis tshigs su bcad pa ḥdi dag gsuns so ||

```
chos smra ba ni gan yin pa \|^2 de la dge baḥi (603) bses su sems \|^3 rtag par nan tan gnas gyur nas \| chos la nan tan byas te ñan \|
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```
rtag par hdun pa hbri mi byed ||
rtag par brtson hgrus śin tu hphags ||
rtag par<sup>4</sup> śes rab rnam par sbyon ||
ye śes la ni rtag tu gnas ||
```

```
de ni bdag ñid<sup>5</sup> chos ses te ||
dad paḥi phyir ni ḥgro mi byed ||
saṅs rgyas kyis ni gaṅ bsad pa<sup>6</sup> ||
mi g.yo ba yi chos ses so ||
```

mkhas pa de dag tshig rnams hbyed la⁷ mkhas ||
bslabs pa don la khon du chud par byed ||
de dag dkar pohi phyogs ni rtag par sbyon ||
nag pohi phyogs ni rtag tu spyon bar byed ||

de yi sems la nams kyan ñams pa med ||

^{1.} P smon par, for D N R rab tu hjog par.

^{2.} P gan dag chos ni smra ba la.

^{3.} P dge bahi bses gñen du hdi sems.

N rnam rtag.

^{5.} P dan.

^{6.} P pahi.

^{7.} P gi rnam pa, for D N R rnams hbyed la.

```
de ni chos rnams gan laḥan źum pa med¹ ||
lus yan² de bźin sems dan brtson ḥgrus dan ||
ḥdun pa yan baḥan³ myur du ḥthob par ḥgyur ||
chos thos nas ni śes rab ḥphel bar ḥgyur ||
ye śes rnam par rtogs nas dran mi ñams ||
```

bla na med paḥi chos rnams bslabs nas ni ||
rtogs dan dran pa śes rab stobs mchog thob ||
ji ltar bdag ñid⁴ yun rin bslabs pa bźin ||
des ni sems can rnams kyi bsam pa śes ||

dran dan ye ses la ni rtag gnas nas ||

dge dan mi dgehi chos ni rab tu ses ||

chos bslabs nas ni khyad par ḥthob ḥgyur te ||
khyad par thob cin ye śes dag gyur nas ||
de ni sems can rnams kyi bsam pa śes ||
de phyir bsam pa bźin du chos ston to ||

śā riḥi bu de ltar na byan chub (604) sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do \parallel bam po bcu bdun pa \parallel ⁵

1.3

1.3.1

śā riḥi bu gźan yan byan chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin la spyod pa de ltar blo sbyans pa dan | de ltar chos snan baḥi sgo śin tu yons su dag pas ḥdi ltar slob ste | ḥphags paḥi yan dag par lta ba ḥbyun ba (de) ni rgyu gñis dan | rkyen gñis te | gñis gan źe na | gźan

^{1.} P mi hgyur.

^{2.} P yan ba; R kyan.

^{3.} P yod pa, for D N R yan bahan.

^{4.} Pgis.

^{5.} D P om: bam po bcu bdun pa.

gyi sgra dan | bdag ñid¹ tshul bźin yid la byed paho ||

de ḥdi sñam du sems te | gźan gyi sgra de gaṅ | bdag ñid tshul bźin² yid la byed pa de gaṅ źe na | de de ltar tshul bźin yid la byed pa na | ḥdi sñam du sems par ḥgyur te | rnal ḥbyor spyod pa gaṅ dag byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam graṅs ḥdi ma thos | ḥphags paḥi chos ḥdul ba ma thos par | tin ṅe ḥdzin tsam gyis dgaḥ ba rñed³ nas | ṅa rgyal gyi dbaṅ gyis che baḥi ṅa rgyal du lhuṅ ba de dag ni skye ba daṅ | rga ba daṅ | na ba daṅ | ḥchi ba daṅ | mya ṅan daṅ | smre sṅags ḥdon pa daṅ | sdug bsṅal ba daṅ | yid mi bde ba⁴ daṅ | ḥkhrug pa las yoṅs su mi thar | sdug bsṅal gyi phuṅ po las yoṅs su mi thar te | de dag la de bźin gśegs pas dgoṅs nas ḥdi skad gsuṅs so || pha rol la rjes su ḥthun pa thos pa ni rga ba daṅ hchi ba las rnam par grol baho ||

yan bcom ldan hdas kyis gsuns so⁵ ||

```
chos rnams thos nas rnam par ses || thos nas (605) sdig pa mi byed do || thos nas gnod pa spon bar ḥgyur || thos nas mya nan ḥdas pa ḥthob ||
```

thos hdod⁶ thos pa hphel bar hgyur ||
thos pas ses rab hphel bar hgyur ||
ses rab kyis ni don rnams sbyon ||
don rñed nas ni bde hthob hgyur ||

don rñed de ni yid rno ste ||
tshe ḥdi la ni mya nan ḥdas ||
chos gtsan mkhas pa gtsan ba⁷ dan ||
mchog⁸ tu bde ba ḥthob par ḥgyur ||

^{1.} P la (also in the next phrase).

^{2.} N add: du.

^{3.} P tshor.

^{4.} P yi mug pa, for D N R yid mi bde ba.

^{5.} DNPR pa.

^{6.} P pas.

^{7.} D gtsan ma.

^{8.} P šin.

1.3.2

śā riḥi bu de ltar byan chub sems dpaḥ¹ byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grans ḥphags paḥi chos ḥdul ba śin tu mñan par bya | blan bar bya | gzun bar bya | bklag par bya | kun chub par bya | gźan la yan rgya cher yan dag par rab tu bstan par byaḥo ||

śā riḥi bu gań byań chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grańs ḥdi mi ñan pa dań | tshul bżin du sbyor bar mi byed pa de dag ni ḥphags paḥi lam las yons su ñams par² ḥgyur te | de la dgońs nas de bżin gśegs pa ḥdi skad du | bdag ñid tshul bżin yid la byed pa (de) ni rga ba dań³ ḥchi ba las grol baḥo || żes gsuń no ||

de hdi ltar slob ste | byan chub sems dpahi tshul bźin sbyor ba ni gan ji ltar na⁴ byan chub sems dpah tshul bźin sbyor ba yin sñam nas | de hdi ltar slob ste | byan chub sems dpah sems dpah chen po ni chos gan lahan sbyor bar mi byed | rab tu sbyor bar mi byed do || tshul bźin du sbyor ba źes bya ba de ni mi sbyor bahi tshig bla dags so ||

gźan yaṅ byaṅ chub (606) sems dpaḥ tshul bźin du sbyor ba ni sgra ḥbyin par mi byed | zlos pa ḥbyin par mi byed | gaṅ nas sgra ḥbyuṅ ba de yaṅ mi dmigs | sgra de ñid gaṅ nas byuṅ gaṅ du ḥgag ces sňon gyi mthaḥ daṅ phyi maḥi mthaḥ la rtog par byed do || gaṅ smras ba daṅ | gaṅ smra ba daṅ | gaṅ smra ba daṅ | gaṅ smra ba daṅ | gaṅ gi smra ba daṅ | gaṅ gi smra ba daṅ | gaṅ spoṅ baḥi phyir smras ba daṅ | gaṅ spoṅ baḥi phyir smra ba daṅ | gaṅ spoṅ baḥi phyir smra ba daṅ | gaṅ spoṅ baḥi phyir smra ba daṅ | gaṅ khoṅ du chud par bya baḥi phyir smras ba daṅ | gaṅ khoṅ du chud par bya baḥi phyir smra bar ḥgyur ba de thams cad yoṅs su btsal na ḥdas paḥi rnam pa daṅ | ma ḥoṅs paḥi rnam pa daṅ | da ltar byuṅ baḥi rnam par mi dmigs pa de ni | deḥi tshul bźin du³ sbyor baḥo || źes de de ltar slob bo ||

byan chub sems dpaḥ de ltar tshul bźin du sbyor bas ji ltar na⁹ tshul bźin du mthon źe na | de ḥdi ltar slob ste | gan gi tshe na byan chub sems dpaḥ chos thams cad ran bźin gyis ḥgags par mthon ba deḥi tshe tshul bźin mthon no || gan gi tshe chos thams cad ran bźin gyis ñe bar

^{1.} DR dpas.

^{2.} P bri bar.

^{3.} Dadd: na ba dan.

^{4.} Nom: na.

^{5.} N hbyuń.

^{6.} D N gan gis (also in the following two clauses).

^{7.} P gan gi (also in the following two clauses).

^{8.} Nadd: du.

^{9.} Nom: na.

ži bar¹ mthoň ba deḥi tshe tshul bžin mthoň ňo || gaň gi tshe chos thams cad rnam par ži bar mthoň ba deḥi tshe tshul bžin mthoň ňo || gaň gi tshe chos thams cad raň bžin gyis sñoms par ma žugs par mthoň ba deḥi tshe tshul bžin mthoň ňo || (607) gaň gi tshe chos thams cad ma skyes par mthoň ba deḥi tshe tshul bžin mthoň ňo || gaň gi tshe chos thams cad ma byuň bar mthoň ba deḥi tshe tshul bžin mthoň ňo || gaň gi tshe chos thams cad šin tu yaň dag par ma byuň bar mthoň ba deḥi tshe tshul bžin mthoň ňo || gaň gi tshe chos thams cad mya ñan las ḥdas par mthoň ba deḥi tshe tshul bžin mthoň ňo || de gaň gis mthoň ba de la yaň rtog ste | ci nas kyaň mi mthoň ba daň mi rtog pa de ltar mthoň ste | de ltar mthoň na tshul bžin mthoň ba žes byaho ||

yan hdi ltar slob ste | byan chub sems dpah tshul bźin du sbyor ba ni | chos gan la yan the tshom dan rmons pa med do || tshul bźin du sbyor ba ni chos gan la yan sgrib pa med do || tshul bźin du sbyor ba ni chos gan la yan² thar pahi sgor mi hgyur ba med do || tshul bźin du sbyor ba ni chos gan la³ yan span bar bya bahi phyir hbad ba med do || tshul bźin du sbyor ba ni chos gan la yan rtogs par bya bahi phyir hbad ba med do || gan chos⁴ thams cad yan dag par mthon ba dan | ji lta ba bźin du mthon ba de ni yan dag par lta baho ||

chos thams cad ji lta ba bžin du mthoň ba gaň že na | ḥdi lta ste | ma mthoň baḥo || ma mthoň ba žes bya ba de ni ma skyes paḥi tshig bla dgas so || ma skyes pa žes bya ba de ni yaň dag par ma byuň baḥi tshig bla dgas so || yaň dag par ma byuň ba žes bya ba gaň že na | de ni mi snaň baḥi tshig bla dgas te | (608) de bžin gśegs pas de la dgoňs nas ḥdu byed thams cad mi skye bar mthoň na yaň dag pa ñid du ňes pa la ḥjug ste | ḥdi lta ste | yaň dag pa ñid du ňes pa la ḥjug pa de ni yaň dag par lta baḥo || žes de skad gsuň ňo ||

de ḥdi sñam du sems te | de ciḥi phyir źe⁷ na | yaṅ dag pa ñid du nes pa la ḥjug źes bya źes do⁸ || ḥdi ltar slob ste | chos thams cad gaṅ daṅ mñam pa saṅs rgyas kyi chos de daṅ mñam ste | de bas na yaṅ dag pa ñid du nes pa la ḥjug paḥo⁹ ||

de lta bas na yan dag pa ñid du nes pa la hjug par hdod pa rnams kyis | byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grans hdi ñid śin tu mñan par bya | blan bar bya | gzun bar bya | bklag par bya | kun chub par byaho || byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam

^{1.} Nom: źi bar; Pom: ñe bar.

^{2.} DPR add: gan.

D R om: la.

^{4.} N chos gan chos.

^{5.} N skyed.

^{6.} P skyon med pa, for D N R fiid du nes pa (also in all subsequent occurrences of the term 'fiid du nes pa').

^{7.} D N om: źe.

^{8.} P add: de ltar rtog pa las; N add: la.

^{9.} Nom: de bas na yan dag pa nid du nes pa la hjug paho.

grans hdi ñid lahan tshul bźin du sbyor bar bya ste | śā rihi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpah śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

1.3.3

śā riḥi bu gźan yan byan chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod pa¹ de ltar blo śin tu yons su sbyans pa dan | de ltar chos² snan baḥi sgo śin tu yons su dag pas tshul bżin du hjug pa la brtson na | tshul bżin gyi tshig mthon no ||

de la tshul bžin du hjug pa gan tshul bžin gyi tshig gan že na | de ltar byan chub sems dpaḥi tshul bžin du hjug pa ni | hdi lta ste | ži gnas kyi gnas³ la hjug pa dan | lhag mthon rnam par rtog pa la hjug pa⁴ ni (609) tshul bžin du hjug paḥo || lus dben par hjug pa dan | sems yid du hon bar hjug pa dan | chad pa ma yin par hjug pa dan | rtag pa ma yin par hjug pa dan | rgyu dan rkyen la hjug pa dan | rten cin hbrel par hbyun ba la hjug pa dan | sems can med pa dan | srog med pa dan | gan zag med pa la hjug pa dan | ma hons ma phyin mi gnas pa la hjug pa dan | mi hpho ba dan | rgyu dan hbras bu chud mi za ba dan | rgyu ston pa ñid du rnam par hbyed pa⁵ la hjug pa dan | mtshan ma med par hdris par bya ba la hjug pa dan | smon pa med par rab tu śes pa la hjug kyan ston pa ñid dan | mtshan ma med pa dan 6 smon pa med par hjug pa ma yin pa dan |

tin ne hdzin dan sñoms par hjug pa⁷ len pa la hjug kyan | tin ne hdzin gyi dban gis skye ba la mi hjug pa dan | mnon par ses pahi ye ses len pa la hjug kyan | zag pa zad pa la mi hjug pa dan | mi skye bar rtog pa la hjug kyan | nes par gyur bar hgro ba⁸ la mi hjug pa dan | sems can thams cad⁹ bdag med par rtog par hjug kyan | sñin rje chen po gton ba la mi hjug pa dan | skye ba thams cad hjig par mthon ba la hjug kyan | srid pa bsam gyis mi khyab pa len pa la (mi) hjug pa dan | mya nan hdas bar hdod pa la hjug kyan | chos mnon du bya ba la mi hjug pa dan | hdod pahi yon tan gyi dgah ba btan sñoms pa¹¹ la hjug kyan | chos kyi dgah ba hdor

^{1.} P add: na.

^{2.} Nom: chos.

^{3.} P byin gyi rlabs (also in the next occurrence of the term 'gnas pa' (adhisthāna)).

^{4.} Nom: hjug pa.

^{5.} P rab tu rtogs pa

In P, 'rab tu rtogs pa' regularly substitutes the D N R compound 'rnam par hbyed pa' (pravicaya).

^{6.} NPR om: mtshan ma med pa dan.

^{7.} P bźag pa; N hjug pa la.

^{8.} P skyon med pa las hdah pa, for D N R nes par gyur bar hgro ba.

^{9.} P add: kyi.

^{10.} N R dan.

^{11.} N dgaḥ bar btan snoms; P dgaḥ bar nes snoms pa.

ba la mi hjug pa dan | (610) rtog pa spros pa thams cad gton ba la hjug kyan | thabs mkhas pa gton ba la mi hjug pa ste | śā rihi bu de ni tshul bźin du hjug pa źes byaho ||

śā riḥi bu de la¹ tshul bźin gyi tshig ces bya ba gan źe na | rigs paḥi tshig de ni tshul bźin gyi tshig go | śā riḥi bu gźan yan tshul bźin gyi tshig de ni tshul gyi² tshig go | de ni sgoḥi tshig go | de ni khaḥi tshig go | de ni rgyuḥi tshig go | de ni rab tu rnam par hbyed paḥi tshig go | de ni mi hgal baḥi tshig go | de ni mi rtsod paḥi tshig go | de ni btan sñoms kyi tshig go | mi len paḥi tshig dan | mi hdor baḥi tshig dan | mi spros paḥi tshig dan | mi bsnan paḥi tshig dan | ma bri baḥi tshig dan | mi skye baḥi tshig dan | rtsod baḥi gźi med paḥi tshig³ dan | mi ldog paḥi tshig dan | gñen po med paḥi tshig dan |

de kho naḥi tshig dan | de bźin kho naḥi tshig dan | ma log pa de bźin ñid kyi tshig dan | gźan ma yin pa de bźin ñid kyi tshig dan | de bźin ñid kyi tshig dan | ji lta ba bźin gyi tshig dan | dus gsum mñam paḥi tshig⁴ dan | yons su chad paḥi tshig dan | gzugs rnam par śes paḥi gnas med paḥi tshig dan | tshor ba dan | ḥdu śes dan | ḥdu byed dan | rnam par śes pa gnas med paḥi tshig go |

de ni mig dan | gzugs dan | mig gi rnam par ses paḥi khams gnas med paḥi tshig go | de ni rna ba dan | sgra dan | rna baḥi rnam par ses paḥi khams gnas med paḥi tshig go | de ni sna dan | dri dan | snaḥi rnam par ses paḥi khams gnas med paḥi tshig go | de ni ltse dan | (611) ro dan | ltseḥi rnam par ses paḥi khams gnas med paḥi tshig go | de ni lus dan | reg dan | lus kyi rnam par ses paḥi khams gnas med paḥi tshig go | de ni yid dan | chos dan | yid kyi rnam par ses paḥi khams gnas med paḥi tshig go | de ni yid dan | chos dan | yid kyi rnam par ses paḥi khams gnas med paḥi tshig go | de ni don la rton paḥi tshig go | de ni chos la rton paḥi tshig go | de ni ye ses la rton paḥi tshig go | de ni nes paḥi don gyi mdo sde la rton paḥi tshig ste | sā riḥi bu de ni tshul bźin gyi tshig go |

de ltar byan chub sems dpaḥ tshul bźin du ḥjug pa la brtson pa | tshul bźin gyi tshig mthon ba (de) ni gan gis mthon ba de ñid mi mthon ste | ji ltar⁶ mi mthon | rnam par mi mthon ba⁷ de ltar mthon no || de ltar mthon na tshul bźin mthon ba źes byaḥo ||

śā rihi bu gźan⁸ yan byan chub sems dpah tshul bźin du sbyor ba ni chos gan la yan rmons par mi hgyur ro || byan chub sems dpah tshul bźin du sbyor ba ni chos gan yan⁹ thar pahi

^{1.} D P om: de la.

^{2.} P rigs paḥi, for D N R tshul gyi.

^{3.} DNR rtsod bahi gźi med pahi tshig; P mi hthab pahi tshig.

^{4.} P R dus gsum mñam pahi tshig, for D dus gsum mñam pa ñid kyi tshig.

P om; reg dan.

^{6.} P add: mi rtog.

^{7.} P om: rnam par mi mthon ba.

^{8.} DNR om: gźan.

^{9.} D P add: gan.

sgor mi ḥgyur ba med do || tshul bźin du sbyor ba ni chos gan yan spon baḥi phyir ḥbad pa med do || tshul bźin du sbyor ba ni chos gan yan rtogs par bya baḥi phyir ḥbad pa med do || gan chos thams cad yan dag par¹ mthon ba dan | ji lta ba bźin du² mthon ba de ni yan dag par lta baḥo ||

chos thams cad ji lta ba bžin du mthon ba gan že na | ḥdi lta ste | mi mthon baḥo || mi mthon ba gan že na | de ni ma skyes baḥi tshig bla dags so || ma skyes pa žes bya ba gan že na | de ni (612) mi snan baḥi bar gyi tshig bla dags te | rgya cher ji ltar snar bzlas³ pa de ltar de bžin du bzlas par bya ste | de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

śā riḥi bu gźan yaṅ byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod pa ḥdi ltar slob ste | chos thams cad ni bdag bźin du tshul bźin te⁴ || ji ltar bdag la bdag med pa de bźin du chos thams cad bdag med par mthon no || ji ltar sems can bdag med pa⁵ de bźin du | chos thams cad bdag med par mthon ste | de ltar mthon na tshul bźin du mthon no ||

gaṅ tshul bźin ḥkhor baḥi khams mthon ba [de tshul bźin]⁶ | mya ṅan las ḥdas paḥi khams daṅ ldan par mthon ba ste | de ni tshul bźin du sbyor ba źes byaḥo || de ni chos thams cad kyi raṅ bźin la ñon mons paḥi raṅ bźin du bye brag med pa daṅ ldan par mthon no⁷ || rnal ḥbyor daṅ rnal ḥbyor ma yin par yaṅ⁸ mi sñems so || tshul bźin du⁹ sbyor bas tshul bźin mthon ste | tshul bźin gyi sbyor ba ji sñed pa sems can gyi gnas thams cad kyaṅ de sñed do || sems can gyi gnas¹⁰ kyaṅ mi mthon no kyi gnas kyaṅ ḥkhrug par mi byed pa de ni byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi tshul bźin sbyor ba ste |

śā riḥi bu de ltar na rnam pa ḥdi daṅ | thos pa ḥdi daṅ | tshul bźin du ḥjug pa ḥdi daṅ | tshul bźin mthoṅ ba ḥdi daṅ | ji lta ba bźin du mthoṅ baḥi rgyu ḥthun pa ḥdi daṅ ḥdi dag ni śes rab ces bya byaḥo¹² | śā riḥi bu de ltar na byaṅ (613) chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

^{1.} P pahi.

^{2.} DNR om: du.

^{3.} R hdas.

^{4.} P bdag tshul bźin du byed paho

^{5.} N P add: de.

^{6.} P gan tshul bžin byed pa las hkhor bahi khams mthon ba de tshul bžin byed pa ni.

^{7.} P dan Idan par khyad par med par mthon no, for D N R du bye brag med pa dan Idan pa(r) mthon no.

^{8.} Nom: yan.

^{9.} N P R om: du.

^{10.} P byin gi rlabs (also in the next phrase).

^{11.} P gton.

^{12.} DNR ste.

1.4

śā riḥi bu gźan yan byan chub sems dpah śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod pa | ḥdus byas la spyod paḥi chos thams cad la śes rab kyis mi gnas pa yin te¹ | ḥdi lta ste | ma rig pa dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | ḥdu byed rnams dan lhan cig tu mi gnas pa nas rgyas par byas te² | rga śiḥi bar dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | bdag tu lta ba dan lhan cig tu mi gnas pa nas³ | bdag tu lta baḥi rtsa ba las byun baḥi lta ba rnam pa⁴ drug bcu rtsa gñis dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | mtho bar sems pa dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | dmah bar sems pa dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | ḥjig rten gyi chos brgyad rnams dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | na rgyal⁵ dan | che baḥi na rgyal dan | log paḥi na rgyal nas | ñe baḥi non mons pa ñi śuḥi bar dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | chen po dan | ḥbrin po dan | phra mo nas | non mons pa thams cad kyi bar dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | gti mug gi mun pa rab rib kyi lin thog sgrib pa dan chod par byed pa kun tu dkris te ḥdug pa nas⁶ | dmah baḥi chos thams cad kyi bar dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | rtsod paḥi rñog pa² dan | non mons pa dan | phun po dan | lhaḥi bu dan | ḥchi bdag gi bdud nas | bdud thams cad kyi las kyi bar dan lhan cig tu mi gnas |

bdag dan | sems can dan | srog dan | gso dan | gan zag dan | sed bu dan | sed las skyes pa (614) nas | bdag du lha ba thams cad kyi bar dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | las kyi sgrib pa dan | ñon mons paḥi sgrib pa dan | chos kyi sgrib pa dan | lta baḥi sgrib pa dan | rnam par smin paḥi sgrib pa dan | mi ses paḥi sgrib pa nas | bag chags kyi mtshams sbyor ba thams cad kyi bar dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | kun tu rtog pa dan | rnam par rtog pa dan | mtshan ma dan | dmigs pa dan | mthon ba dan | thos pa dan | dran pa dan | rnam par rig pa dan | mdud paḥi sgro ḥdogs pa thams cad dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | ser sna dan | gton ba dan | tshul khrims dan | ḥchal paḥi tshul khrims dan | bzod pa dan | gnod sems dan | brtson ḥgrus dan | le lo dan | bsam gtan dan | g.yen ba dan | ses rab dan | ḥchal paḥi ses rab nas | pha rol tu phyin paḥi

^{1.} P hdus byas kyi spyod pa thams cad la ses rab dan gnas pa yin te, for D N R hdus byas la spyod pahi chos thams cad la ses rab kyis mi gnas pa yin te.

^{2.} P rgya cher, for D N R rgyas par byas te.

^{3.} P om: nas.

^{4.} DNR lta bar gyur pa.

^{5.} DNR ha rgyal; P ha (also in all subsequent occurrences of the term 'ha rgyal').

^{6.} N tog gis bsgrib pa; P gti mug gi mun pa rab rib stug po sgrib pa sgrib par byed pa, for D R gti mug gi mun pa rab rib kyi lin t(h)og (b)sgrib pa dan chod par byed pa kun tu dkris te hdug pa nas.

^{7.} P nus nan pahi rñog pa; R rtson pahi rñog pa.

^{8.} P om: chos kyi sgrib pa dan.

^{9.} P rnam par ses pa.

^{10.} P tshul khrims nan pa, for D N R hchal pahi tshul khrims.

phyogs dan | mi hthun pahi phyogs dan | ses pa dan | mi ses pahi bar thams cad dan lhan cig tu mi gnas |

nes pa dan | ma nes pa dan | log par nes pa dan | dge ba dan | mi dge ba dan | kha na ma tho ba dan | kha na ma tho ba med pa dan | hkhor ba dan mya nan las hdas pa nas | chos thams cad kyi gñen pohi bar dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | źin sna tshogs dan | sans rgyas sna tshogs dan | sems can sna tshogs dan | chos sna tshogs nas | sna tshogs thams cad² kyi bar dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | mi śes pa dan | śes pa dan | rnam par śes pa dan | kun rdzob dan | (615) don dam pa nas | sems can thams cad kyi mtshan ma yid la byed dag dan lhan cig tu mi gnas | śes rab mi rgyu ba dan | lus med pa dan | mtshan ñid med pa dan | mtshan ma med pa dan | hdus ma byas pa³ nas | yid la byed pa thams cad dan | sems dan rnam par śes pahi gnas dag gi bar⁴ dan lhan cig tu mi gnas te | de dag dan gźan yan hdus byas la spyod pahi chos dpag du med pa dag dan lhan cig tu mi gnas so ||

de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod paḥi⁵ śes rab de ni ḥdus byas kyi spyod pa thams cad dan lhan cig tu mi gnas te | śā riḥi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

Section ii

2.

śā riḥi bu gźan yan byan chub sems dpaḥ byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod la gnas pa | śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod pa na⁶ | śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa rnam par ḥbyed mkhas pa yin te | chos thams cad la mkhas pa rjes su ḥthob po ||

de la ses rab rnam par hbyed pa gan ze na | hdi lta ste | phun po la mkhas pa dan | khams la mkhas pa dan | skye mched la mkhas pa dan | bden pa la mkhas pa dan | so so yan dag par rig pa la mkhas pa dan | rton pa la mkhas pa dan | rnam par ses pa dan ye ses la mkhas pa dan | byan chub kyi yan lag la mkhas pa dan | lam la mkhas pa dan | rten cin hbrel par (616) hbyun ba la mkhas pa dan bcu ste | mkhas pa rnam pa bcu po hdi dag gi rnam par hbyed pa gan

^{1.} P gñen po.

^{2.} Pom: thams cad.

^{3.} N om: pa.

^{4.} Pom: gi bar.

D P R add: gan.

D N R om: na.

^{7.} P rten pa (in P, 'rton pa' is frequently substituted by 'rten pa').

^{8.} DR gyi; P gan.

yin pa de ni ses rab rnam par hbyed pa zes byaho ||

2.1

de la phun po la mkhas pa gan ze na | gan hdi phun po rnams kyi dper bya ba bstan pa hdi lta ste | dbu² ba rdos ba lta bur bstan pa dan | smig rgyu lta bur bstan pa dan | chu bur lta bur bstan pa dan | chu śin³ lta bur bstan pa dan | sgyu ma lta bur bstan pa dan | rmi lam lta bur bstan pa dan | brag cha lta bur bstan pa dan | mig yor lta bur bstan pa dan | gzugs brñan lta bur bstan paho ||

gzugs ni chuhi dbu ba lta bu ste | dbu ba la yan bdag med | sems can med | srog med | gan zag med | skyes bu med | śed bu⁴ med | śed las skyes⁵ med do || dbu bahi ran bźin gan yin pa gzugs kyan deḥi ran bźin⁶ te | gan de la mkhas pa de ni phun po la mkhas pa źes byaho ||

tshor ba ni chuḥi chu bur lta bu ste | chu bur la yaṅ bdag med | sems can med | srog med | gaṅ zag med | śed bu med | śed las skyes med | skye ba po med⁷ | skyes bu med de⁸ || chu bur gyi raṅ bźin gaṅ yin pa tshor ba yaṅ deḥi raṅ bźin yin te | gaṅ de la mkhas pa de⁹ ni phuṅ po la mkhas pa źes byaḥo ||

hdu ses ni smig rgyu lta bu ste | smig rgyu la yan bdag med | sems can med pa nas | skyes buhi bar du med do || smig rgyuhi ran bźin gan yin pa hdu ses kyan dehi ran bźin yin te | gan de la mkhas pa de ni (617) phun po la mkhas pa źes byaho ||

hdu byed rnams ni chu śiń lta bu ste | chu śiń la yań bdag med | sems can med | srog med pa nas | skyes buhi bar du med do¹⁰ || chu śiń gi rań bźin gań yin pa hdu byed dag kyań dehi rań bźin yin te | gań de la mkhas pa de ni phuń po la mkhas pa źes byaho ||

rnam par śes pa ni sgyu ma lta bu ste | sgyu ma la yan bdag med | sems can med | srog med | gan zag med | śed bu med | śed las skyes med | skyes bu med | byed pa po med | tshor ba po med do¹¹ || sgyu maḥi ran bźin gan yin pa rnam par śes paḥan deḥi ran bźin yin te | gan de la mkhas pa de ni phun po la mkhas pa źes byaḥo ||

^{1.} P dpe hjog cin hchad pa.

^{2.} N lbu.

^{3.} P add; skyes (also in all further occurrences of the term 'chu śin').

^{4.} P sed can (also in all further occurrences of the term 'sed bu').

^{5.} N skyes pa (also in all subsequent occurrences of the term 'sed las skyes').

^{6.} D add: yin.

^{7.} P om: skye ba po med.

^{8.} Nom: skyes bu med de.

N hdi.

^{10.} DNPR med pa ste.

^{11.} DNPR med pa ste.

gźan yan phun po rnams źes¹ bya ba (de) ni hjig rten yin te | hjig rten yan hjig paḥi mtshan ñid do || hjig rten rnams kyi ran bźin gan yin pa phun po rnams kyan deḥi ran bźin yin no || yan hjig rten gyi ran bźin gan yin źe na | hdi lta ste | mi rtag paḥi ran bźin dan | sdug bsnal gyi ran bźin te | phun poḥan deḥi ran bźin no || gan de la mkhas pa de ni phun po la mkhas pa źes byaho ||

de ltar na byan chub sems dpah phun po la mkhas pa ses rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

2.2

de la khams la mkhas pa gan źe na | ḥdi lta ste | chos kyi khams de² ni saḥi khams mod kyi | chos kyi khams sra baḥi mtshan ñid ma yin no || chos kyi khams (618) (de) ni chuḥi khams mod kyi | chos kyi khams rlan paḥi mtshan ñid ma yin no || chos kyi khams (de) ni meḥi khams mod kyi | chos kyi khams tsha baḥi mtshan ñid ma yin no || chos kyi khams (de) ni rlun gi khams mod kyi | chos kyi khams g.yo bahi mtshan ñid ma yin no ||

chos kyi khams (de) ni mig gi rnam par ses paḥi khams mod kyi | chos kyi khams mthon baḥi mtshan ñid ma yin no || chos kyi khams (de) ni rna baḥi rnam par ses paḥi khams mod kyi | chos kyi khams sgra rtogs paḥi mtshan ñid ma yin no || chos kyi khams (de) ni snaḥi rnam par ses paḥi khams mod kyi | chos kyi khams dri snom paḥi mtshan ñid ma yin no || chos kyi khams (de) ni ltseḥi rnam par ses paḥi khams mod kyi | chos kyi khams ro myon baḥi mtshan ñid ma yin no || chos kyi khams (de) ni lus kyi rnam par ses paḥi khams mod kyi | chos kyi khams reg paḥi mtshan ñid ma yin no || chos kyi khams (de) ni yid kyi rnam par ses paḥi khams mod kyi | chos kyi khams rnam par sgom paḥi mtshan ñid ma yin no ||

chos kyi khams dan bdag gi khams de ni mtshuns so || ḥdod paḥi khams dan | gzugs kyi khams dan | gzugs med paḥi khams de (ni) mtshuns so || ḥkhor baḥi khams dan mya nan las ḥdas paḥi khams de (ni) mtshuns so || de ltar chos thams cad kyi khams dan nam mkhaḥi khams de (ni) mtshuns te | ston pa ñid dan mtshuns pas mthuns | mi ḥgyur ba dan mtshuns pas mtshuns te | ḥdus byas kyi khams su ḥjug pa dan | ḥdus ma byas kyi khams su ḥjug paḥi (619) phyir | de la bśad pa dpag du med do || gan khams la ḥjug pa des rab tu mam par ḥbyed pa de ni mkhas pa źes byaḥo ||

de lta na khams la mkhas pahi byan chub sems dpah sems dpah chen po ses rab kyi pha rol

^{1.} N ses (in N, all initial 'z' turn into 's' when preceded by a final 's').

D P R om: de.

^{3.} DPR mthuns par.

^{4.} P stsogs par byed pa; R rab tu hbyed pa.

tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

2.3

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi skye mched la mkhas pa gan źe na | ḥdi la mig bdag dan bdag gis ston pa te | byan chub sems dpaḥ mig gi ran bźin ni¹ ḥdi lta buḥo || źes yan dag pa ji lta ba bźin du rab tu śes te | de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi skye mched la mkhas paḥo ||

gon ma bźin du sbyar te | de bźin du rna ba dan | sna dan | ltse dan | lus dan | yid bdag dan bdag gis ston pa de | byan chub sems dpah yid kyi ran bźin ni hdi lta buho || źes yan dag pa ji lta ba bźin du rab tu śes te | dge ba² sogs pahi phyir gan skyed mched la kun sogs pa dan | sna tshogs sogs pa de dag sogs par mi byed cin | dge ba dan mi dge bahi chos rnams la hdu śes gñis su mi hjug ste³ | de ni byan chub sems dpahi skye mched la mkhas paho ||

hdi ni mig gi skye mched do || hdi ni gzugs kyi skye mched do || źes⁴ de ltar mig dan gzugs rnams la hdod chags med par mthon yan | hdod chags med pa mnon du mi byed pa de ni byan chub sems dpahi skye mched la mkhas paho || rna ba dan sgra | sna dan dri | ltse dan ro | lus dan reg | yid dan chos | gon ma bźin du sbyar te | de ltar byan chub sems dpah yid dan chos (620) kyi bar du hdod chags med par mthon mod kyi | hdod chags med pa mnon du mi byed pa | de ni byan chub sems dpahi⁵ skye mched la mkhas paho ||

skye mched ces bya ba de (ni) yaṅ ḥphags paḥi skye mched daṅ | ḥphags pa ma yin paḥi skye mched do || de la ḥphags paḥi skye mched ni gaṅ lam sdud par byed paḥo || ḥphags pa ma yin paḥi skye mched ni gaṅ lam gtoṅ bar byed pa⁶ | ḥdi lta ste | byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ lam la gnas pa ni sems can lam la brtson pa bor żiṅ gnas paⁿ la sñiṅ rje chen po ḥthob ciṅ | lam gyi³ skye mched kyaṅ mi gtoṅ ba ste | de ni byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi skye mched la mkhas paḥo ||⁰

de ltar na byan chub sems dpahi¹⁰ skye mched la mkhas pa ses rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

^{1.} DPR om: ni.

P add: las.

^{3.} P om: hdu ses gñis su mi hjug ste.

^{4.} P add: hdu ses gñis su mi hjug ste.

^{5.} P dpah.

^{6.} P add: ste.

^{7.} P om: la brtson pa bor źin gnas pa.

^{8.} R mi.

D add: de Itar na byań chub sems dpaḥi skye mched kyań mi gtoń ba ste | de ni byań chub sems dpaḥi skye
mched la mkhas paho.

^{10.} P R dpah.

2.4

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi bden pa la mkhas pa gan źe na | byan chub sems dpaḥi bden pa la hjug pa mkhas pa ni rnam par bźi ste | ḥdi lta ste | sdug bsnal śes pa dan | kun ḥbyun ba śes pa dan | hgog pa śes pa dan | lam śes paḥo ||

de la sdug bsňal šes pa gaň že na | gaň¹ phuň po rnams la mi skye bar šes pa de ni sdug bsňal šes pa žes byaho || de la kun hbyuň ba šes pa gaň že na | gaň sred pa hjoms pa² (šes pa) de ni kun hbyuň ba šes pa žes byaho || de la hgog pa šes pa gaň že na | gaň mi hbyuň (ba) mi hjig par šes pa de ni hgog pa šes pa žes byaho || de la lam šes pa gaň že na | (621) gaň mñam pa ñid³ thob pahi chos rnams la sgro mi hdogs pa de ni lam šes pa žes byaho || gaň gi tshe byaň chub sems dpas bden pa hdi bži de ltar šes rab kyis šes kyaň sems can yoňs su smin par bya bahi phyir mňon du mi byed pa de ni bden pa la mkhas pa žes byaho ||

gźan yan bden pa la mkhas pa (ni) rnam pa gsum ste | hdi lta ste | kun rdzob kyi bden pa dan | don dam pahi bden pa dan | mtshan ñid kyi bden paho ||

de la kun rdzob kyi bden pa (gan źe na)⁴ | hjig rten gyi tha sñad ji sñed pa dan | yi ge dan | sgra dan | brdar bstan pa⁵ ste | de ni kun rdzob kyi bden pa źes byaho || de la don dam pahi bden pa gan źe na | gan la sems kyi rgyu ba yan med na⁶ yi ge⁷ lta ci smos te | de ni don dam pahi bden pa źes byaho || de la mtshan ñid kyi bden pa gan źe na | hdi lta ste | mtshan ñid thams cad mtshan ñid geig la | mtshan ñid geig pa ni⁸ mtshan ñid med paho || de la byan chub sems dpah kun rdzob kyi bden pa hchad pas mi skyo || don dam pahi bden pa mnon du byed par mi ltun | mtshan ñid kyi bden pa mtshan ñid med pas rtogs par byed pa⁹ de ni byan chub sems dpahi bden pa la mkhas pa źes byaho ||

gźan yan bden pa ni gcig bu | gñis ma yin pa¹⁰ ste | ḥdi lta ste | ḥgog paḥi dben paḥo || de la dben pa gcig bu la gan sgro mi ḥdogs pa dan | sems can sgro ḥdogs par lhun ba rnams la bden pa sbyor bar byed pa de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi bden pa la mkhas pa źes byaḥo ||

gźan yan phun po lna (622) rnams ni sdug bsnal ba ste | gan phun po lna rnams kyi sdug bsnal gyi mtshan ñid de ni sdug bsnal (gyi hphags pahi bden pa) źes byaho || gan sdug bsnal

^{1.} Nom: gan.

^{2.} R add: źes bya ba.

^{3.} P gñis.

^{4.} DNPRni.

^{5.} P kun rtog pa hchad pa, for D N R brdar bstan pa.

^{6.} P gan sems de ñid kyan rab tu mi rgyun, for D N R gan la sems kyi rgyu ba yan med na.

^{7.} P add: dag.

^{8.} P han.

^{9.} Prtog pa, for DNR rtogs par byed pa.

^{10.} P gñis po med pa, for D N R gñis ma yin pa.

gyi mtshan ñid kyi ston pa ñid kyi mtshan ñid rtogs pa de ni sdug bshal hphags pahi bden pa źes byaho || gan phun po lna rnams kyi bag la ñal rgyu sred pa las byun bahi lta ba de ni kun hbyun bahi bden pa zes byaho¹ || gan sred pahi rgyu lta ba de la yan sgro mi hdogs (pa) mi len (pa) mi sñems pa de ni kun hbyun ba hphags pahi bden pa źes byaho || gan phun po lna² rnams śin tu zad pahi phyir hgog pa snon gyi mthar ma byun ba | phyi mahi mthar mi hpho ba | da lta byun bar mi gnas pa de ni hgog pa hphags pahi bden pa źes byaho || gan lam la brten nas3 sdug bshal ses pa dan | kun hbyun ba ses pa dan | hgog pa ses pa la yan reg par byed la | rjes las rtogs pahi ses pa yan thob par byed pa de ni sdug bshal hgog par hgyur bahi lam hphags pahi bden pa žes byaho || gan bden pa šes pa de la rnam par rtog pa dan | sems can yons su brtag pa la rtog par byed pa de ni byan chub sems dpahi bden pa la mkhas pa zes byaho ||

gźan yań tshor ba thams cad (ni) sdug bshal ba ste | de la tshor bar⁴ rnam par hbyed⁵ pa dan | blos rig pa niid de ni | sdug bsnal hphags pahi bden pa zes byaho || rgyu gan gis kun hbyun bar ses pahi rgyu de ji lta ba yan dag par rab tu ses pa de ni kun hbyun ba hphags pahi bden pa žes byaho || gan tshor ba gton žin ma tshor ba tshor bar byed pa dan | hgog pa la yan so sor rtog (623) la | tshor ba hgog pa yan mnon du mi byed pa de ni byan chub sems dpahi sdug bsnal hgog pa hphags pahi bden pa žes byaho || tshor ba gan gis gzins dan hdra bahi lam de sdud par byed la | tshor bar dgos pa yan ma yin | lam gyi dgos pa yan ma yin pa de ni byan chub sems dpahi sdug bsnal hgog par hgro bahi lam hphags pahi bden pa zes byaho || de ltar rtogs nas bden pa de6 bźi la mñam par mthon źin | mthon ba śin tu dag pa yan ma yin pa de ni byan chub sems dpahi bden pa la mkhas pa źes byaho ||

gźan yań skye ba (ni) sdug bsňal ba ste | gań mi skye ba la so sor rtog pa śes pa de ni sdug bsnal ses pa žes byaho | srid pahi rkyen gyis skye ba ste | gan srid pa hjig par ses pa de ni kun hbyun ba ses pa zes byaho || skye ba thams cad gan gis mi skye bar ses la | de la hgog pa gan yan med cin | gan mi hgog par ses pa de ni zad pa hgog pahi⁸ ses pa zes byaho || gan de ltar tshor ba⁹ dan | hjal ba dan | yons su tshol ba dan | rnam par rtog pa dan | hjug pahi ses pa de ni lam ses pa zes bya ste | gan bden pahi ses pa de la gzog par byed kyan | bden pahi ses

P R bden paho.

DPR om: lna.

P gan lam rtogs nas.

DNR add: bya ba; Akn (p. 54.1.8) om: bya ba.

P rdzogs.

^{6.} 7. P add: dag.

N pa.

P par.

DR bar.

pa de la mi gnas pa¹ de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi bden pa la mkhas pa ste |

de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ bden pa la mkhas pa śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

2.5

de la byań chub sems dpaḥi² so so yaṅ dag par rig pa la mkhas pa gaṅ źe na | (624) byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi so so yaṅ dag par rig pa ni bźi po ḥdi dag (yin te) | bźi gaṅ źe na | ḥdi lta ste | don so so yaṅ dag par rig pa daṅ | chos so so yaṅ dag par rig pa daṅ | nes paḥi tshig so so yaṅ dag par rig pa daṅ | spobs pa so so yaṅ dag par rig paho ||

2.5.1

de la don so so yan dag par rig pa gan źe na | gan chos rnams la don dam paḥi tshig tu śes pa dan | gñis su med paḥi rgyu śes pa dan | rkyen śes pa dan | hdus pa śes pa dan | mthaḥ³ med paḥi rjes su hgro ba śes pa dan | rten pa⁴ la hjug pa śes pa dan | chos kyi dbyins dbyer med pa śes pa dan | de bźin ñid kyi⁵ rjes su hjug pa śes pa dan | yan dag paḥi mthaḥ mi gnas pa śes pa dan | ston pa ñid rjes su rtogs pa śes pa dan | mtshan ma med pa rtogs pa śes pa dan | smon pa med pa la smon pa med par śes pa dan | mnon par hdu mi byed pa la mnon par hdu mi byed par śes pa dan | tshul gcig tu hjug pa śes pa dan | sems can med pa hjug pa śes pa dan | bdag med par hjug pa śes pa dan | srog med par byed pa gcig pa⁶ śes pa dan | gan zag med par² don dam par śes pa dan | hdas paḥi dus la ma chags par śes pa dan | ma hons baḥi dus la mthaḥ med par śes pa dan | da ltar byun baḥi dus la thams cad du śes pa dan | phun po rnams la sgyu mar śes pa dan | khams rnams la sbrul gdug pa lta burð śes pa dan | skye mched rnams la ston pa ñid du (625) nes par rtog par śes pa dan | nan (du) źi barð śes pa dan | phyi rol tu mi rgyu bar¹¹0 śes pa dan | yul la yul med par śes pa dan | dran pa la gnas su śes pa dan | rtogs pa la khon du chud par śes pa dan | blo gros la¹¹ mnon sum du śes pa dan | bden pa la rab tu rtogs par śes pa dan | sdug bsnal la mi hbyun bar śes pa dan | kun hbyun ba la mnon par

^{1.} P gnas par byed pa, for D N R gnas pa.

^{2.} N dpah.

^{3.} P hgog pa.

^{4.} P rten cin hbrel pa; N brten (also in the next occurence of the term 'rten pa').

^{5.} D kyis.

^{6.} R om: gcig pa.

^{7.} N P pa.

^{8.} D N dan mtshuns par.

^{9.} DNPRba.

^{10.} DNPR ba.

^{11.} Pom: la.

ḥdu mi byed par śes pa dan | ḥgog pa la mtshan ñid med par śes pa dan | lam la sgrol bar śes pa dan |

chos la tshig rab tu tha dad par śes pa dań | dbań po mams la hjug par śes pa dań | stobs rnams la mi rdzi¹ bar śes pa dań | źi gnas la gnas su śes pa dań | lhag mthoń la snań bar śes pa dań | sgyu ma la bsgrub par śes pa dań | smig rgyu la hkhrul² bar śes pa dań | rmi lam la mi bden pa mthoń bar śes pa dań | brag cha la rkyen la hjug par śes pa³ dań | mig yor la hpho bar śes pa dań | mtshan ñid sna tshogs la mtshan ñid gcig tu śes pa dań | hdu ba la hbral bar śes pa dań | rab tu sbyańs pa la phyir⁴ mtshams sbyor ba med par śes pa dań | ñan thos kyi theg pa la sgraḥi rjes su hgro bar hjug par⁵ śes pa dań | rań sańs rgyas kyi theg pa la rten pa la hjug pa śes śiń dben pa la⁶ mchog tu śes pa dań | theg pa chen po la dge baḥi rtsa baḥi tshogs bsags pa thams cad śes pa ste | de ni byań chub sems dpaḥi don so so (626) yań dag par rig pa źes byaḥo ||

gźan yań don² so so yań dag par rig pa ni gań don la rton pa ste | chos thams cad kyi chos ñid kun gyi don la rton pa ñid kyi rjes su ḥbrań baḥo³ || de ciḥi phyir źe na | chos thams cad ma lus par² ston pa ste | ston paḥi don gań yin pa de ni don no || chos thams cad ma lus par mtshan ma med pa ste | mtshan ma med paḥi don gań yin pa de ni don no || chos thams cad ma lus par smon pa med pa ste | smon pa med paḥi don gań yin pa de ni don no || chos thams cad ma lus par rnam par phye ba ste | rnam par phye baḥi don gań yin pa de ni don no || chos thams cad ma lus par sems can med | srog med | gań zag med pa ste | gań zag med paḥi don gań yin pa de ni don no || gań de lta buḥi chos rnams rtogs pa de ni don¹o so so yań dag par rig pa źes bya ste | gań don ston pa de ni gnas med pa ston paḥo || de ni mi¹¹ zad pa ston paḥo || so so yań dag par rig pa ni rtogs paḥi don ston pa yin te | sańs rgyas bcom ldan ḥdas rnams kyis gnań ba | rjes su yi¹² rań ba | yań dag pa | de kho na | gźan ma yin pa | śes rab kyis śin tu rtogs pa | thams cad tu kha na ma tho ba med pa de ni byań chub sems dpaḥi don so so yań dag par rig pa źes byaḥo ||

^{1.} P mi thoms pa; R mi brdzi pa.

^{2.} D hkhrug.

^{3.} P rten cin hbrel pa ses pa, for D N R rkyen la hjug par ses pa.

^{4.} P sbyans pa la slar, for D N R rab tu sbyans pa la phyir.

^{5.} P ries us rtogs pa hjug pa, for D N R ries su hgro bar hjug pa(r).

^{6.} D P om: la.

^{7.} DPR om: don.

^{3.} N hbran no; P chos thams cad kyi chos so | chog gi don la rten pa ñid la rten paho.

^{9.} P kun (also in the following five instances of the phrase 'ma lus par').

^{10.} P R om: don.

^{11.} P om: mi.

^{12.} N yid.

2.5.2

de la chos so so yan dag par rig pa gan źe na | gan dge ba dan | mi dge ba dan | kha na ma tho ba dan bcas pa dan | kha na ma tho ba med pa dan | zag pa dan bcas pa dan | (627) zag pa med pa dan | hjig rten pa dan | hjig rten las hdas pa dan | hdus byas dan | hdus ma byas dan | kun nas¹ ñon mons pa dan | rnam par byan bahi cha dan hthun pa dan | hkhor ba dan mya nan las hdas par ne bar hgro bahi chos rnams la hjug pa śes pa dan | chos kyi dbyins mnam pa nid śes pa dan | byan chub² mnam pa nid śes pa dan | khams mnam pa nid śes pa ste | de ni chos so so yan dag par rig pa źes byaho ||

gźan yaṅ chos so so yaṅ dag par rig pa ni | gaṅ ḥdod chags spyod pa rnams la sems³ ḥjug pa⁴ daṅ | bcos paḥi⁵ ḥdod chags spyod pa rnams daṅ | ḥdod chags brtan par spyod pa rnams daṅ | ḥdod chags chuṅ du spyod pa rnams daṅ | rnam par mi ldaṅ baḥi ḥdod chags spyod pa rnams daṅ | mthaḥ mar⁶ rtag tu med paḥi ḥdod chags spyod pa rnams daṅ | da ltar byuṅ ba la rkyen gyis hdod chags spyod pa rnams la ḥjug pa ste |

sems can gan dag nan du hdod chags la⁷ | phyi rol tu hdod chags med pa dan | phyi rol tu hdod chags la | nan du hdod chags med pa dan | nan duhan hdod chags med | phyi rol tuhan hdod chags med pa dan | nan dan phyi rol tu⁸ hdod chags pa dan | gzugs la hdod chags la | sgra la hdod chags med pa dan | sgra la hdod chags la | gzugs la hdod chags med pa dan | gzugs dan sgra la hdod chags pa dan | (628) gzugs dan sgra la hdod chags med pa dan | gźugs la hdod chags la | reg la hdod chags med pa dan | reg la hdod chags med pa dan | ro la hdod chags la | ro la hdod chags med pa dan | ro la hdod chags la | gzugs la hdod chags med pa dan | dri la hdod chags med pa dan | ro la hdod chags la | gzugs la hdod chags med pa dan | dri la hdod chags med pa dan | ro la hdod chags spyod pa rnams kyi hjug pa ste |

hjug pa dehi sgos hdod chags spyod pa rnams la ñi khri chig ston | źe sdan spyod pa rnams la ñi khri chig ston | gti mug spyod pa rnams la ñi khri chig ston | cha mñam par spyod pa rnams la ñi khri chig ston ste | gan de dag gi spyod pa brgyad khri bźi ston gi sems hjug pa

^{1.} P om: kun nas.

^{2.} N add: kyi.

^{3.} P spyod pahi sems, for D N R spyod pa rnams la sems.

^{4.} DPR add: ses pa.

^{5.} P sgyu mahi.

^{6.} DPR ma.

^{7.} P kyi (also in the seven following occurrences of the term 'la' of the present context).

B. Padd: yan.

^{9.} Nom: nan dan phyi rol tu hdod chags pa dan; R add: nan dan phyi rol tu hdod chags med pa dan.

^{10.} R om: gzugs dan sgra la hdod chags med pa dan.

^{11.} D gáugs la hdod chags la; N dan.

śes pa dań | ji ltar rigs par bstan¹ pa śes pa dań | mi mań mi ñuń bar bstan pa śes pa dań | ḥdod pa las yań dag par ḥdaḥ bar śes pa dań | snod kyi khyad par śes pa dań | ḥbras bu yod par bstan pa śes pa | de ni chos so so yań dag par rig pa źes byaḥo ||

2.5.3

de la nes paḥi tshig so so yan dag par rig pa gan ze na | gan skad thams cad la skad med par hjug pa ses pa dan | lhaḥi skad dan | kluḥi skad dan | gnod sbyin gyi skad dan | dri zaḥi skad dan | mi ham ciḥi skad dan | lto hphye chen pohi skad dan | mi dan mi ma yin paḥi skad dan | hgro ba snar skyes paḥi sems can rnams kyi skad dan | sgra dan dbyans² rnams las skad des de dag la chos hchad pa ste | de ni nes pahi tshig so so yan dag par rig pa zes byaho || (629)

de ltar chos de dag brtag par byaḥo || de ltar chos de dag bsdu bar byaḥo || de ltar chos de dag rjes su rgyun chags par byaḥo || de ltar chos de dag yi ge rnams kyis sbrel bar byaḥo || de tshig gcig gi bla dags śes | tshig gñis paḥi bla dags śes | tshig man poḥi bla dags śes | bud med kyi tshig śes | skyes paḥi tshig śes | ma nin gi tshig śes | bsdus baḥi tshig śes | rgyas paḥi tshig śes | smad paḥi tshig śes | stod paḥi tshig śes | ḥdas paḥi tshig śes | ma ḥons baḥi tshig śes | da ltar byun baḥi tshig śes | yi ge gcig gis sgro btags pa śes | yi ge man pos sgro btags pa śes | de ni nes paḥi tshig so so yan dag par rig pa źes byaḥo ||

yan deḥi nes paḥi tshig so so yan dag par rig pa ni hkhrul ba ma yin | zlos pa ma yin | brtags pa ma yin | don gsal baḥi yi ge⁴ yons su byan ba ste | ci nas kyan hkhor yan dag par dgah ba sna tshogs pa zab pa | zab par snan ba | kun rdzob dan don dam pas brgyan pa⁵ | bdag gis⁶ sems mthon baḥi śes pa la rag lus pa | sans rgyas kyis gnan ba | sems can thams cad dgaḥ bar byed pa ste | de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi nes paḥi tshig so so yan dag par rig pa źes byaho ||

2.5.4

de la byań chub sems dpaḥi spobs pa so so yaṅ dag par rig pa gaṅ źe na | gaṅ tshig bzaṅ ba⁷ | mi gnas par luṅ bstan pa ston (630) pa | rgyun mi ḥchad pa | spobs pa myur ba | spobs pa mgyogs śiṅ myur ba | spobs pa ma⁸ rmoṅs pa | spobs pa ji ltar dris pa bźin pa | spobs pa

^{1.} P hchad (also in the next two occurrences of the term 'bstan').

^{2.} N dbyins.

^{3.} D Rbstod pahi tshig ses; P om: bstod pahi tshig ses.

^{4.} NR ye ses.

^{5.} P dam pahi rgyan.

^{6.} NPR gi.

^{7.} P gan mdzes pahi tshig.

^{8.} N om: ma.

yons su ma ñams pa | spobs pa mi ḥgal ba | spobs pa rtsod pa med pa | spobs pa chos la rab tu dgaḥ ba¹ | spobs pa bzod pa la gnas pa | spobs pa zab pa | spobs pa sna tshogs | kun rdzob dan don dam pa la spobs pa | sbyin pa dan | tshul khrims dan | bzod pa dan | brtson hgrus dan | bsam gtan dan | śes rab thams cad la gnas paḥi spobs pa | dran pa ñe bar bźag pa dan | yan dag par spon ba dan | rdzu hphrul gyi rkan pa dan | dban po dan | stobs dan | byan chub kyi yan lag dan | lam dan | źi gnas dan | lhag mthon la spobs pa | bsam gtan dan | rnam par thar pa dan | tin ne hdzin dan | sñoms par hjug pa dan | bden pa la hjug pa thams cad śes paḥi spobs pa | theg pa thams cad la spobs pa | sems can thams cad kyi sems kyi² spyod pa la spobs pa |

tshig mi lkug paḥi spobs pa³ | tshig mi rtsub paḥi spobs pa | tshig mi ḥchal baḥi spobs pa | tshig rtsub mo ma yin paḥi spobs pa | tshig mñen⁴ paḥi spobs pa | tshig dag pa | tshig grol ba | tshig ma chags pa | tshig btsun pa | tshig ḥbrel ba | tshig ldan pa | tshig ma ñams pa | tshig sñan ba | tshig ḥjam pa | tshig ma smad pa | tshig ḥphags pa thams cad kyis bstod pa ste | źin mthaḥ yas paḥi rnam par śes paḥi rjes su (631) son baḥi sgra | tshans paḥi sgra skad kyi dbyans dan ḥdra ba | rtogs par byed paḥi sgra gcig pa | sans rgyas kyis gnan baḥi spobs pas sems can gźan dan gan zag gźan dag la chos ston⁵ to || deḥi chos bstan pa de yan ḥbyun bar byed pa | de byed paḥi sdug bsnal yan dag par zad par⁶ ḥgyur ba ste | de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi spobs pa so so yan dag par rig pa źes byaḥo || de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi spobs pa la mkhas pa ste |

de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ⁷ spobs pa la mkhas pa śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||⁸

2.6

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi rton pa la mkhas pa gan⁹ źe na | byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi rton pa ḥdi bźi dag¹⁰ ste | bźi gan źe na | ḥdi lta ste | don la rton¹¹ gyi | tshig ḥbru la ma yin pa dan | ye śes la rton gyi | rnam par śes pa la ma yin pa dan | nes paḥi don gyi¹² mdo sde

^{1.} P spobs pa chos dan hgrogs na bde ba.

^{2.} DNR dan.

^{3.} P tshig lug bžin du mi lkug pahi spobs pa.

N gñen.

^{5.} P hehad (also in the next phrase for 'bstan').

^{6.} Nom: zad par.

^{7.} D N dpahi.

^{8.} D add: bam po bcu brgyad pa; P add: hphags pa byan chub sems dpahi snod sde ces bya ba theg pa chen pohi bam po bcu brgyad pa.

D P R om: gan.

^{10.} D N R om: dag.

^{11.} N ston.

^{12.} N gyis.

rnams la rton gyi | dran baḥi don rnams la ma yin pa dan | chos ñid la rton gyi | gan zag la ma yin paḥo ||¹

2.6.1

de la don gan | tshig hbru gan źe na | tshig hbru źes bya ba ni gan hjig rten gyi chos kyi bya ba la hjug paho || don źes bya ba ni gan hjig rten las hdas pahi chos rtogs paho || tshig (632) hbru źes bya ba ni sbyin pa dan | dul ba dan | sdom pa dan | des pa bstan² paho || don źes bya ba ni dul ba dan | źi gnas dan | gsar³ pa ma yin pa dan | sñin ma yin par śes paho || tshig hbru źes bya ba ni hkhor ba yons su bśad pa sgrogs paho⁴ || don źes bya ba ni mi dmigs pa la rton⁵ paho || tshig hbru źes bya ba ni mya nan las hdas pahi yon tan yons su sgrogs paho || don źes bya ba ni chos ran bźin gyis yons su mya nan las hdas pa rnams la rnam par mi rtog paho || tshig hbru źes bya ba ni theg pa ji ltar rnam par bźag⁶ pa bźin du hchad paho || don źes bya ba ni chos tshul gcig pa rtogs par śes paho || tshig hbru źes bya ba ni sems can thams cad mi gton bar bstan paho || don źes bya ba ni hkhor gsum yons su dag paho ||²

tshig ḥbru źes bya ba ni lus daṅ | ṅag daṅ | yid sdom źiṅ bslab pa daṅ | sbyaṅs baḥi yon tan thams cad yaṅ dag par len par bstan paḥo || don źes bya ba ni lus daṅ | ṅag daṅ | yid mi dmigs śiṅ mnon par ḥdu mi byed pa yoṅs su dag paḥo || tshig ḥbru źes bya ba ni gnod sems kyi⁸ tha ba daṅ | khro ba daṅ | ṅa rgyal daṅ | rgyags pa daṅ | dregs pa ḥjom źiṅ bzod pa daṅ des pa bstan paḥo || don źes bya ba ni mi skye baḥi chos la bzod pa thob paḥo || tshig ḥbru źes bya ba ni dge baḥi rtsa ba la brtson ḥgrus rtsom pa thams cad bstan paḥo || don źes bya ba ni mi

l. Pelliot, 977, folio 1a.1–2 de la byan chub sems dpaḥi so sor rton pa la mkhas pa gan źe na | de ni rnam pa bźi ste | don la rton gyi tshig ḥbru la ma yin ba dan | ye śes la rton gyi rnam par śes pa la ma yin ba dan | nes paḥi don gyi mdo sde la rton gyi dran bahi don gyi mdo sde la ma yin ba dan | chos la rton gyi gan zag la ma yin ba dan bźiho ||.

^{2.} N brtan (also in the next occurrence of the phrase 'des pa bstan paho'); P hchad (also in the following thirteen occurrences of the word 'bstan pa').

D N sar.

^{4.} P tshig hbru żes bya ba ni hkhor bahi dam hchah ba yons su sgrogs paho, for D N R tshig hbru żes bya ba ni hkhor ba yons su bśad/bcad pa sgrogs paho.

^{5.} Prtog.

^{6.} DPR gźag.

Pelliot, 977, folio 1a.2–5
de la don ni gan | tshig hbru ni gan że na | de la don ces bya ba ni hjig rten las hdas paḥi don so sor chud
paḥo || tshig hbru żes bya ba ni gan hjig rten gyi chos gyi bya ba la gźug paḥo | don ces bya ba ni dul ba
dan żi gnas dan | gsar rflin myed par śes paḥo || tshig hbru żes bya ba ni sbyin ba dan dnul ba dan myi gyel
ba dan | śin tu dgaḥ ba bśad paḥo || gźan yan tshig hbru żes bya ba ni hkhor baḥi rgyus rab tu bgrags paḥo |
don ces bya ba ni myi dmyigs pa la ltas paḥo || tshig hbru żes bya ba ni mya nan las hdas paḥi yon tan
bsnags pa yons su bsgrags paḥo || don ces bya ba ni ran bźin gyis mya nan las hdas paḥi chos la rnams la
rtog pa myed paḥo || gźan yan tshig hbru żes bya ba ni ci ltar theg pa mam par gźag pa bśad paḥo || don ces
bya ba ni tshul gcig gyi chos so sor chud bar śes paḥo || gżan yan tshig hbru żes bya ba ni sems can thams
cad yons su myi gtan bar bśad paḥo | don ces bya ba ni khor sum yons su dag paḥo ||.

^{8.} P dan.

len (pa) mi gton ba la¹ gnas paḥi brtson ḥgrus so || tshig ḥbru źes bya ba ni bsam gtan dan | rnam par thar pa dan | tin ne ḥdzin dan | sñoms par ḥjug pa² bstan paḥo || don źes bya ba ni ḥgog paḥi sñoms par ḥjug pa³ (633) śes paḥo ||⁴

tshig hbru žes bya ba ni thos pa thams cad hdzin pa šes rab kyi rtsa baho⁵ || don žes bya ba ni brjod du med paḥi don to || tshig hbru žes bya ba ni gan byan chub kyi phyogs kyi chos⁶ sum cu rtsa bdun gyi chos rnams rab tu bstan paḥo || don žes bya ba ni gan byan chub kyi phyogs kyi chos gsum bcu rtsa bdun gyi chos rnams nan tan du byed paḥi hbras bu mnon sum du byed paḥo || tshig hbru žes bya ba ni sdug bsnal⁷ dan | kun hbyun ba dan | lam rab tu bstan paḥo || don žes bya ba ni hgog pa mnon sum du byed paḥo || tshig hbru žes bya ba ni ma rig pa la sogs⁸ te | rga śiḥi bar du bstan paḥo || don žes bya ba ni ma rig pa hgog pa nas | rga śiḥi bar du hgog paḥo || tshig hbru žes bya ba ni ži gnas dan lhag mthon gi tshogs bstan paḥo || don žes bya ba ni rig pa dan rnam par grol ba šes paḥo || ⁹

tshig ḥbru źes bya ba ni gan ḥdod chags dan | źe sdan dan | gti mug dan | cha mñam par spyod pa rnams la chos bstan paḥo || don źes bya ba ni sems kyi rnam par grol ba mi ḥkhrugs paḥo || tshig ḥbru źes bya ba ni sgrib par byed paḥi chos thams cad rab tu bstan paḥo || don źes bya ba ni sgrib pa med paḥi ye śes rnam par thar paḥo || tshig ḥbru źes bya ba ni dkon mchog gsum gyi yon tan bsnags pa mthaḥ med pa yan dag par rab tu bstan paḥo || don źes bya ba ni gan chos ḥdod chags (634) med pa dan | ḥdus ma byas paḥi dge ḥdun gyi yon tan bsgrub paho¹⁰ ||¹¹

^{1.} Nom: la.

^{2.} P bźag pa.

^{3.} P bźag pa.

^{4.} Pelliot, 977, folio 1a.5-1b.1

tshig hbru ni lus dan nag yid kyi sdom ba ste | bslab pa dan sbyans pahi yon tan thams cad gzun ba bśad paho || don ces bya ba ni lus dan nag yid mthon bar hdu byed pa yin bar yons su dag paho || gźan yan tshig hbru źes bya ba ni gnod sems kyi dri ma (...) khon khro ba dan rgyags pa dan | dregs pa kun bcos śin bzod pa la śin tu dgah ba bśad paho || don ces bya ba ni myi skye bahi chos la bzod pa so sor rñed paho || gźan yan tshig hbru źes bya ba ni dge bahi rtsa ba thams cad la brtson hgrus bśad paho || don ces bya ba ni rnam par myi rtog cin rtog pa myed de | myi gnas pahi brtson hgrus so ||.

^{5.} P rtsa ba ses rab tu hgyur baho, for D N R ses rab kyi rtsa baho.

^{6.} P om; kyi chos (also in the next occurrence of the phrase 'phyogs kyi chos').

^{7.} N sdug bsnal pa.

^{8.} Plas stsogs.

^{9.} Pelliot, 977, folio 1b.1–1b.3 gźan yaṅ tshig ḥbru żes bya ba ni thos pa thams cad ḥdzin pa śes rab kyi rtsa baḥo || don ces bya ba ni brjod du myed paḥi don to || gźan yaṅ tshig ḥbru żes bya ba ni byaṅ cub kyi phyogs sum cu rtsa btun gyi chos rab tu skye baḥo || don ces bya ba ni gaṅ byaṅ chub kyi phyogs kyi chos rnams kyi nan tan gyi ḥbras bu mnon du byed paḥo || gźan yaṅ tshig ḥbru żes bya ba ni sdug bsnal daṅ kun ḥbyun daṅ lam rab tu dbye baḥo || don ces bya ba ni hgog pa mnon tu byed paḥo || gźan yaṅ tshig ḥbru żes bya ba ni ma rig pa thog mar ḥgro bas na śi baḥi bar duḥo kun bye paḥo || don ces bya ba ni ma rig pa ḥgags pas rga śiḥi bar du ḥgag paḥo || gżan yaṅ tshig ḥbru żes bya ba ni żi gnas daṅ lhag mthon gyi tshogs bśad paḥo || don ces bya ba ni rig pa rnam par grol ba śes paḥo ||.

^{10.} D yon tan sgrub paḥo; N R yon tan bsgrub paḥo; P yon tan no.

tshig ḥbru źes bya ba ni gań byań chub sems dpaḥi thog ma sems bskyed nas | byań chub kyi sñiń poḥi bar du¹ bslab² pa dań yon tan rtsom pa bstan paḥo || don źes bya ba ni sems kyi skad cig gcig dań ldan pas³ | thams cad mkhyen paḥi ye śes mnon par rdzogs par byań chub paḥo || mdor na chos kyi phun po brgyad khri bźi stoń gi bar du bstan pa de ni tshig ḥbru źes byaḥo || sgra dań | yi ge dań | gań sgra dań yi ge thams cad kyis brjod du myed pa de ni don ces byaḥo⁴ ||⁵

de la draň baḥi don gyi mdo sde gaň dag yin⁶ źe na | gaň tshig ḥbru bśad pa ji ltar bstan pa bźin du rgya cher khoň du chud par bya ste | ḥdi dag ni draň baḥi don gyi mdo sde dag go || nes paḥi don gyi mdo sde gaň dag yin⁷ źe na | don gaň bśad pa ji ltar bstan pa bźin du rgya cher khoň du chud par bya ste | ḥdi dag ni nes paḥi don gyi mdo sde dag go ||⁸

de ji ltar na chos la rton gyi | gan zag la ma yin źe na | gan dran baḥi don de ni gan zag gi don yin pas de la mi rton gyi | gan nes paḥi don de ni chos ñid ji lta ba bźin pas de la rton pa ste | ḥdi dag ni byan chub sems dpaḥi rton pa bźi paḥo || de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen po rton⁹ pa la mkhas pa śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||¹⁰ bam po bcu brgyad pa¹¹ ||

de la byan chub sems dpah rnams kyi tshig hbru (635) la mkhas pa gan ze na | hdi la byan

^{11.} Pelliot, 977, folio 1b.3–1b.5 gżan yan tshig hbru żes bya ba ni hdod chags że sdan gti mug cha mñam ba spyod pa la chos hchad paho || don ces bya ba ni hkhrug pa myed pahi mam par grol baho || gźan yan tshig hbru żes bya ba ni bsgribs pa thams cad la chos hchad paho || don ces bya ba ni bsgribs pa myed pahi ye śes rnam par thar paho || gźan yan tshig hbru żes bya ba ni dkon mchog gsum gyi yon tan kha dog rab tu phye baho || don ces bya ba ni hdod chags myed pahi chos ñid de || dge hdun gyi yon tan hdus ma byas sgrub paho ||.

P kyi.

N bslabs.

P sems skad cig tu sbyor bas.

^{4.} I follow here Pelliot, 1b.7; P sgra dan yi ge thams cad kyi hbru ... ||, for D N R sgra dan | yi ge dan | tshig hbru thams cad ... ||.

^{5.} Pelliot, 977, folio 1b.5-7
gźan yan tshig hbru źes bya ba ni gan byan chub sems dpah thog ma sems bskyed pa nas sñin po byan cub
kyi bar du bslab pahi yon tan brtsam ba bśad paho || don ces bya ba ni sems skad cig ma gcig gyis sbyor ba
thams cad mkhyen pahi ye śes mnon bar byan chub paho || mdor na ci tsam tu chos kyi phun po brgyad
khri bźi ston bśad pa ni tshig hbru źes byaho | gan sgra dan yi ge thams cad kyis brjod du myed pa de ni
don ces byaho ||.

^{6.} DNR om: dag yin.

^{7.} DNR om: dag yin.

^{8.} Pelliot, 977, folio 1b.7–2a.1 de la dran baḥi don gyi mdo gan że na gan gsuns pa hbyed pa ji ltar bśad pa bźin rgyas par chud par bya ba ste | de ni dran baḥi don gyi mdoho żes byaḥo || de la nes paḥi don gyi mdo gan że na | gan gsuns pa gan ji ltar don bśad pa bźin du rgyas par śes par byaḥo || de ni nes paḥi don gyi mdo żes byaḥo ||.

^{9.} D ston.

^{10.} Pelliot, 977, folio 2a.1-2a.2 de la ji ltar na chos la rton gyi gan zag la ma yin (...) że na | gan dran baḥi don pa de gan zag gyi don te | de las ḥbyun ba ma yin no | gan nes paḥi don de chos ñid ji lta ba bźin te des ḥbyun no ||.

^{11.} D P om: 'bam po bcu brgyad pa'.

chub sems dpaḥ¹ chos gñis la mkhas pa ses rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do || chos gñis gan ze na | ḥdi lta ste | rnam par ses pa la mkhas pa dan | ye ses la mkhas pa yin no ||²

2.6.2

de la rnam par ses pa gan | ye ses gan ze na | rnam par ses pa zes bya ba ni | ḥdi lta ste | rnam par ses paḥi gnas pa bziḥo³ || bzi gan ze na | gzugs la zugs⁴ paḥi rnam par ses pa yons su gnas sin gnas pa dan | tshor ba la zugs pa dan | ḥdu ses la zugs pa dan | ḥdu byed la zugs paḥi rnam par ses pa yons su gnas sin gnas pa ste | de ni rnam par ses pa zes byaḥo ||⁵

de la ye śes gan że na | gan len paḥi phun po lna rnams la gnas pa | rnam par śes paḥi phun po yons su śes pa de ni ye śes żes byaḥo || gan saḥi khams rnam par śes pa dan | chuḥi khams dan | meḥi khams dan | rlun gi khams rnam par śes pa de ni rnam par śes pa żes byaḥo || gan yan ye śes khams bźi la mi gnas pa | chos kyi dbyins tha mi dad pa śes pa de ni ye śes żes byaho ||⁷

gźan yan rnam par śes pa źes bya ba ni gan mig gi rnam par śes pas śes par bya baḥi gzugs rnams⁸ śes pa dan | rna baḥi rnam par śes pas śes par bya baḥi sgra rnams dan | snaḥi rnam par śes pas śes par bya baḥi ro rnams | lus kyi rnam par śes pas śes par bya baḥi reg rnams dan | yid kyi rnam par śes pas śes par bya baḥi chos rnams śes pa de ni rnam par śes pa żes byaḥo || gan yan nan gi skye mched rnams la ñe bar źi źin | phyi rol gyi skye mched rnams la rgyu ba med pa ye śes la rton pas⁹ | gan yan chos gźog par mi byed pa de ni ye śes źes byaḥo || 10

^{1.} D dpahi.

^{2.} This paragraph is missing in the Pelliot manuscript.

P bźi dag ste.

^{4.} P su son, for D N R la źugs (also in the following three occurrences of the phrase 'la źugs').

^{5.} Pelliot, 977, folio 2a.1–2a.3

de la ji ltar na ye ses la rton gyi rnam par ses pa la ma yin ze na | de la rnam par ses pa zes bya ba ni rnam par ses pa gnas pa bzi ste | bzi gan ze na | gzugs la ñe bar son baḥi rnam par ses pa kun tu gnas pas gnas so || de bzin du tshor ba dan | hdu ses dan | hdu byed la son baḥi rnam par ses pa kun tu gnas pas gnas te | de ni rnam par ses pa zes byaḥo ||.

^{6.} Akn bźi.

^{7.} Pelliot, 977, folio 2a.3–2a.5

de la ye ses gan ze na | gan len paḥi lna phun la myi gnas śin ye ses kyi phun po yons su ses pa de ni ye ses ses byaḥo || gan saḥi khams rnam par rig pa dan | de bzin du chu dan mye dan rlun gi khams rnam par rig pa de ni rnam par ses pa zes byaḥo || gan khams bzi la myi gnas paḥi ye ses chos kyi dbyins ma bye bar ses pa de ni ye ses zes byaḥo ||.

^{8.} DP add: la.

^{9.} P mi rgyul ye ses la hjug pahi phyir, for D N R rgyu ba med pa ye ses la rton pas.

^{10.} Pelliot, 977, folio 2a.5–2a.6 gźan yan rnam par śes pa źes bya ba ni myig gis (...) rnam par śes paḥi gzugs rnam par chud pa nas yid kyi rnam par rig paḥi chos rnams chud paḥi bar de ni rnam par śes pa źes byaḥo || gan nan gyi ḥdu mched źi źin phyiḥi ḥdu mched la rab tu myi spyod de | ye śes la so sor ḥbyun baḥi phyir chos gan la yan myi hiog pa de ni ye śes żes byaḥo ||.

gźan yan rnam par śes pa źes bya ba ni dmigs pa las rnam par śes pa skye ba dan | yons su rtog¹ pa las rnam par śes pa skye ba ste | de ni rnam par śes pa źes byaḥo || gan yan mi hdzin pa | mi sñems pa | mi dmigs pa | rnam par mi rig pa | mi hkhrugs pa de ni ye śes źes byaḥo || gźan yan hdus byas la spyod paḥi chos rnams la rnam par śes pa² gnas kyi | hdus ma byas la rnam par śes pa rgyu ba med de | gan yan hdus ma byas śes pa de ni ye śes so || gźan yan skye ba dan hjig pa la gnas pa ni rnam par śes paḥo || gan yan³ mi skye (ba)⁴ mi hgag (ba) mi gnas pa de ni ye śes źes byaḥo ||⁵

2.6.3

de la nes paḥi don gyi mdo sde gan | dran baḥi don gyi mdo sde gan źe na | mdo sde gan dag lam la hjug par byed pa de dag ni dran baḥi don źes byaḥo || mdo sde gan dag hbras bu la hjug par byed pa de dag ni nes paḥi don źes byaḥo || mdo sde gan dag kun rdzob sgrub par byed pa de dag ni dran baḥi don źes byaḥo || mdo sde gan dag don dam par bstan⁶ pa de dag ni nes paḥi don źes byaho ||⁷

gźan yan mdo sde gan dag las kyi⁸ bya ba (637) la hjug pa de dag ni dran bahi don źes byaho \parallel mdo sde gan dag las dan ñon mons pa zad par bstan pa de dag ni nes pahi don źes byaho \parallel ⁹

gźan yan mdo sde gan dag kun nas ñon mons pa yons su bśad paḥi phyir bstan pa de dag ni dran baḥi don to || mdo sde gan dag rnam par byan ba rnam par dag paḥi phyir bstan pa de dag ni nes paḥi don to || mdo sde gan dag hkhor bas skyo bar byed pa de dag ni dran baḥi don to || mdo sde gan dag hkhor ba dan mya nan las hdas pa gñis su mi hjug pa de dag ni nes paḥi

- 1. N rtogs.
- 2 N add: la.
- R N om: van.
- 4. cf. Pelliot, 977, folio 2b.1 and Akn (p. 64.3.5).
- 5. Pelliot, 977, folio 2a.6-2b.1
 - gźan yan rnam par śes pa źes bya ba ni dmyigs pa las rnam par śes pa skyes pa dan | yons su rtog pa las rnam par śes pa skyes pa de ni rnam par śes pa źes byaho || gan myi hdzin | myi bsñems | myi dmyigs | rnam par chud pa myed cin myi skur de ni ye śes żes byaho || gżan yan hdus byas kyi spyod pahi chos la rnam par śes pa hjug go || hdus ma byas la rnam pa śes pa spyod pa myed do || gan hdus ma byas śes pa de ni ye śes so || gżan yan skye ba dan | hgyur ba la so sor gnas pa rnam par śes paho || gan ma skyes myi hgog pa | so sor myi gnas pa de ye śes żes byaho ||.
- 6. P ston (also in the following six occurrences of the term 'bstan').
- 7. Pelliot, 977, folio 2b.1-3
 de la nes paḥi don gyi mdo sde ni gan | dran baḥi don gyi mdo sde gan ze na | mdo sde gan gis lam la gjud
 pa de ni bkri baḥi don ces byaḥo || mdo gan gis dag ḥbras bu gjud pa de ni nes paḥi don ces byaḥo || gzan
 yan mdo sde gan gis kun rdzob bsad pa de ni dran baḥi don ces byaḥo || mdo sde gan las (...) don dam pa
 bsad pa de ni nes paḥi don ces byaḥo ||.
- 8. Akn (p. 64.3.7) dan.
- 9. Pelliot, 977, folio 2b.3-3 gáan yan mdo sde gan gis bya ba la gjud pa de ni dran baḥi don ces byaḥo || gan gis las dan ñon mons pa zad paḥi phyir bśad pa de ni nes paḥi don ces byaḥo ||.

don to || mdo sde gan dag yi ge dan tshig sna tshogs su bstan pa de dag ni dran baḥi don to || mdo sde gan dag zab pa | blta dkaḥ ba | rtogs par dkaḥ ba de dag ni nes paḥi don to || mdo sde gan dag tshig ḥbru man ba¹ sems can rnams kyi sems rans² par byed pa de dag ni dran baḥi don to || mdo sde gan dag tshig dan tshig ḥbru ñun la nes par rtogs par³ byed pa de dag ni nes paḥi don to ||⁴

gźan yaṅ mdo sde gaṅ dag bdag daṅ | sems can daṅ | srog daṅ | skyes bu daṅ | gaṅ zag daṅ | śed bu daṅ | śed las skyes daṅ | byed pa po daṅ | tshor ba poḥi sgra sna tshogs bdag po med pa bdag po yod pa bźin du bstan pa de dag ni draṅ baḥi don to || mdo sde gaṅ dag stoṅ pa ñid daṅ | mtshan ma med pa daṅ | smon pa med pa daṅ | mi ḥbyuṅ ba daṅ | ma skyes ba daṅ | yaṅ dag par mi ḥbyuṅ ba daṅ | sems can med pa daṅ | gaṅ zag med pa daṅ | dus gsum (638) las rnam par thar paḥi sgo bstan pa de dag ni nes paḥi don to⁵ ||⁶

2.6.4

gźan yan gan zag ni so soḥi skye boḥi gan zag dan | so soḥi skye bo dge baḥi gan zag dan | dad paḥi rjes su ḥbran baḥi gan zag dan | chos kyi rjes su ḥbran baḥi gan zag dan | brgyad

^{1.} Akn (p. 64.4.3) add: źiň.

^{2.} Prins.

^{3.} P sems rtog par; R nes par rtog par.

Pelliot, 977, folio 2b.3-6
gźan yan mdo sde gan gis ñon mons pa yons su bsal baḥi phyir bśad pa de ni dran baḥi don ces byaḥo ||
gan gis las byan ba rnam par dag pa bśad pa de ni nes paḥi don ces byaḥo || mdo sde gan gis ḥkhor ba la
skyo bar byed pa de ni dran baḥi don ces byaḥo || gan gis ḥkhor ba dan mya nan las ḥdas pa gñis su myed
par gjud pa de ni nes paḥi don ces byaḥo || gźan yan mdo sde gan las rnam par bkra baḥi tshigs dan ḥbyed
ba bśad pa de ni dran baḥi don ces byaḥo || gan las zab mo blta dkaḥ ba chud dkaḥ ba bśad pa de ni nes
paḥi don ces byaḥo || gźan yan mdo sde gan las ḥbyed pa man po sems can rnams kyi sems tshim bar byed
pa de ni dran baḥi don ces byaḥo || gan las tshig (...) dan ḥbyed pa ñun ba la sems la rtog pa myed pa de ni
nes paḥi don ces byaḥo ||.

^{5.} N źes byaho.

^{6.} Pelliot, 977, folio 2b.6-3a.1 gźan yań gań las bdag dań sems can dań | htsho ba dań | gań zag las btsogs (conjectural reading) pa bśad pa de ni drań bahi don ces byaho || gań las stoń pa dań mtshan ma myed pa dań | smon pa myed pa dań | ma skyes pa dań | sgra myed pa dań | ma byuń ba dań | sems can myed pa dań | gań zag myed pa dań | dus gsum las rnam par thar paḥi sgo de ni nes paḥi don ces byaho ||.

^{7.} Nom: gan.

^{8.} DNR add: kha cig.

^{9.} N gnas pahi dbyins de ni chos ses paho, for D P R gnas pa chos kyi dbyins de ni chos ses byaho.

^{10.} Pelliot, 977, folio 3a.1-1
de la chos ni gan | gan zag ni gan że na | gan gan zag tu lta ba la gnas te | gan chos la brtsom ba de ni gan zag ces byaho || gan zag tu lta ba rtsom ba dehi chos (la) gnas pa dan | chos kyi dbyins de ni chos ses byaho ||.

^{11.} P hjug pahi (also in the next clause).

paḥi gan zag dan | rgyun du źugs paḥi gan zag dan | lan cig phyir hon baḥi gan zag dan | phyir mi hon baḥi gan zag dan | dgra bcom paḥi gan zag dan | ran sans rgyas kyi gan zag dan | byan chub sems dpaḥi gan zag dan | skye bo man po la phan pa dan | skye bo man po la bde ba dan | hjig rten la thugs¹ brtse ba dan | lha dan miḥi skye bo phal po cheḥi don dan | phan pa dan | bde baḥi phyir gan zag gcig hjig rten du skye źin hbyun bar² hgyur ba | hdi lta ste | de bźin gśegs pa dgra bcom pa yan dag par rdzogs paḥi sans rgyas te | gan zag gi sgra de thams cad de bźin gśegs pas kun rdzob kyi gnas kyis sems can rnams gzud³ paḥi phyir bstan paḥo || de la gan mnon par chags pa de dag ni rton pa ma yin pa⁴ źes byaḥo || de dag rtog⁵ pa la dgod paḥi phyir chos ñid la rton par byaḥi gan zag la ma yin no || źes | (639) bcom ldan ḥdas kyis gsuns te |6

de la chos ñid gan źe na | ḥdi lta ste | mi ḥgyur ba | sgro ma btags pa | mi byed pa | rnam par mi byed pa | mi gnas pa | gnas med pa⁷ | rtsa ba med pa | thams cad du mñam pa | mñam pa la mñam pa | mñam pa la mñam pa | mnam pa mi rtog pa | mi rtsom pa | nes par hgyur ba⁸ | thob pa | chos thams cad la śin tu no bo ñid med paḥi mtshan ñid de ni chos ñid ces bya ste | gan dag chos ñid⁹ la rton par byed pa de dag¹⁰ ni khams gan laḥan rton par mi byed do || de bas na chos kyi tshul gyi sgo la hjug pa ḥdis chos thams cad la rton paḥi phyir chos thams cad de lta buḥi chos ñid yin no¹¹ ||¹²

^{1.} P om: thugs.

D N skye ba(r) hbyun bar.

^{3.} P gźag.

^{4.} N om: pa.

^{5.} N rton.

^{6.} Pelliot, 977, folio 3a.1-3a.4

gắan yan gan zag ni ma rabs so || gan zag ni ma rabs dge baho || dad pas rjes su hbran baho || chos kyi rjes su hbran baho || gan zag ni brgyad paho || rgyun tu źugs paho || lan cig phyir hon baho || phyir myi hon baho || sgra bcom baho || ran sans rgyas so || byan chub sems dpaho || hgro ba man po la phan bahi phyir bde bahi phyir | hjig rten las brtse bahi phyir | lha dan myi dan hgro bahi hdus pa chen po la phan ba dan bde bahi phyir gan zag gcig hjig rten du skye bas skyeho | de ni de bźin gśegs pa dgra bcom ba yan dag par rdzogs pahi sans rgyas so | gan zag gi sgra de thams cad ni de bźin gśegs pas kun rdzob kyi rims kyis sems can gzun bahi don tu bśad paho || de la mnon bar chags pa de ni so sor myi hbyun ba źes byaho || so sor rton pa de dag la gźag pahi phyir bcom ldan hdas kyis gsuns pa | chos ñid la so sor rton par kyahi (conjectural reading) gan zag la ma yin no ||.

^{7.} P mi hdug pa.

^{8.} DPR nes par gyur pa.

^{9.} N add: de.

^{10.} Nom: dag.

^{11.} P de lta ba dan hdra bar hgyur te, for D N R de lta buhi chos ñid yin no.

^{12.} Pelliot, 977, folio 3a.4–7

de la chos ñid gan ze na | de ni hgyur ba myed pa bskyed pa dan | rnam par myi bya ba dan | myi gnas pa dan | so sor myi gnas paḥi rtsa baho || thams cad tu mñam ba dan | myi mñam ba dan mñam ba | rnam par rtog pa myed pa | rtsom ba myed pa | myi hgyur ba thob pa | chos thams cad śin tu no bo ñid myed paḥi mtshan ñid ste | de ni chos ñid ces byaho || gan chos de la so sor rton pa ni chos gan gi phyir yan myi hbyun no || de bas na deḥi chos kyi sgor hjug pas chos thams cad la rton pa nas bzun ste | chos thams cad de ltar buhi no bo ñid yin no || zes gsuns so ||.

de dag ni byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi rton pa bźi (dag) źes bya ste | de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi rton pa la mkhas pa źes byaho || de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ rton pa la mkhas pa śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||¹

2.7

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi tshogs la mkhas pa gan źa na | byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi tshogs ni ḥdi gñis te | gñis gan źe na | ḥdi lta ste | bsod nams kyi tshogs dan | ye śes kyi tshogs so ||²

2.7.1

de la bsod nams kyi tshogs gan źe na | sbyin pa las byun baḥi bsod nams³ bya baḥi dnos po dan | tshul khrims las byun baḥi bsod nams bya baḥi dnos po dan | sgom pa las byun baḥi bsod (640) nams bya baḥi dnos po dan | byams paḥi sems la snoms par hjug pa dan | snin rjeḥi sbyor ba dan | dge baḥi rtsa ba thams cad la brtson⁴ pa dan | bdag dan pha rol gyi sdig pa ḥchags pa dan | dus gsum du gtogs paḥi sems can thams cad dan | slob pa thams cad⁵ dan | mi slob pa thams cad dan | ran sans rgyas thams cad dan | sems dan po⁶ bskyed pa rnams dan | spyod pa la źugs pa thams cad dan | phyir mi ldog pa rnams dan | skye ba² gcig gis thogs paḥi byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi sems bskyed pa la rjes su yi ran ba dan | ḥdas pa dan | ma byon pa dan | da ltar byun baḥi sans rgyas bcom ldan ḥdas rnams kyi dge baḥi rtsa bað thams cad kyi rjes su yi ran ba dan ldan paḥi bsod nams bya baḥi dnos po dan | sans rgyas thams cad dan | hphags pa thams cad la chos⁰ gsol ba ḥdebs pa¹o dan ldan paḥi bsod nams bya baḥi dnos po dan | dge ba thams cad byan chub tu bsno ba dan ldan paḥi bsod nams bya baḥi dnos po dan | dge ba thams cad byan chub tu bsno ba dan ldan paḥi bsod nams bya baḥi dnos po dan |

^{1.} The last paragraph is missing in the Pelliot manuscript.

Pelliot, folio 3a.7–7
 de la byań chub sems dpaḥi tshogs la mkhas pa gań źe na | byań chub sems dpaḥi tshogs ni rnam pa gñis te | de ni bsod nams dań | ye śes kyi tshogs so ||.

^{3.} P sbyin pahi bsod nams (also in all following instances of the same context).

^{4.} N rtsom.

^{5.} N thin.

^{6.} P thog mar.

^{7.} P tshe.

^{8.} DNP 'dge ba' only.

^{9.} N add: ston par.

^{10.} P om: hdebs pa.

^{11.} Pelliot, folio 3b.1-4
de la bsod nam gyi tshogs gan źe na | sbyin ba las bsod nams byaḥi dnos po dan | de bżin du tshul khrims
dan | bsgom na las bsod nams bya baḥi dnos po dan | byams paḥi sems sñoms par sgrub pa | sñin rjeḥi
sbyor ba dan | dge baḥi thams cad kyi rtsa ba rtsom ba | bdag dan pha rol gyi sdig hchags pa | dus gsum
gyis bsdus pa | sems can thams cad dan | bslob pa dan | myi slob pa thams cad dan | ran sans rgyas thams

sems can byan chub tu sems ma bskyed pa rnams byan chub tu sems skyed pa dan | byan chub tu sems bskyed pa¹ rnams la pha rol tu phyin pahi lam ston pa dan | dbul po rnams la lons spyod kyis sdud pa dan | nad pa rnams la sman² sbyin pa dan | gus par bsñen bkur byed pa dan | mthu chun ba rnams la bzod cin dan du len pa dan | lhun ba rnams mi hchab³ pa dan | sdig pa hchags pa dan | sans (641) rgyas bcom ldan hdas rnams⁴ bźugs pa dan yons su mya nan las hdas pa rnams la bsñen bkur dan ri mo⁵ thams cad byed pa dan | slob dpon dan mkhan po rnams la ston pa bźin du ri mo byed pa dan | chos la rin po che rin than med pa bźin du yons su tshol bahi brtson hgrus dan | chos smra ba la dgah źin dpag tshad brgyar yan son ste | chos ñan pas chog mi śes pa dan | zan zin med par chos hchad pa dan | pha dan ma la rim gro⁴ byed pa dan | byas pa gzo ba dan | byas pa śes pa dan | hgyod pa med pa dan | bsod nams (bya bahi dnos po) bsags pas chog mi śes pa dan |²

lus bsdams paḥi lus la⁸ tshul ḥchos pa med pa daṅ | ṅag bsdams paḥi ṅag la tshul ḥchos pa med pa daṅ | yid bsdams paḥi yid la tshul ḥchos pa med pa daṅ | de bźin gśegs paḥi mchod rten btsugs paḥi phyir tshaṅs paḥi bsod nams yoṅs su ḥdzin pa daṅ | mchod sbyin gtan pa med pa bsags⁹ pas mtshan ñid¹⁰ yoṅs su rdzogs pa daṅ | dge baḥi rtsa baḥi tshogs sna tshogs bsags pas dpe byad bzaṅ po yoṅs su rdzogs pa daṅ | ṅa rgyal med pas lus brgyan pa daṅ | ṅag gi ñes pa thams cad spaṅs pas ṅag brgyan pa daṅ | blo thogs pa med pas sems brgyan pa daṅ | ¹¹¹

cad dan | thog ma sems bskyed pa rnams dan | spyad pa rdzogs pa rnams dan | phyir myi ldog pa rnams dan | skye ba gcig gis thogs paḥi byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi sems bskyed paḥi rjes su yi ran no || ḥdas pa dan | ma hons pa dan | da ltar gyi sans rgyas bcom ldan hdas rnams kyi dge ba thams cad kyi rjes su yi ran ba dan | ltan gcig son baḥi bsod nams byaḥi dnos poḥo || sans rgyas thams cad dan | hphags paḥi thams cad la chos gsol ba dan ltan gcig son baḥi bsod nams byaḥi dnos poho || dge ba thams cad byan chub tu brjod pa dan ltan cig son baḥi bsod nams bya baḥi dnos poho ||.

^{1.} Nom: dan | byan chub tu sems bskyed pa.

^{2.} N add: gvi.

^{3.} P hchags.

^{4.} P R om: rnams.

^{5.} P gus pa (also in the following two instances of the term 'ri mo').

^{6.} P bsñen bkur.

^{7.} Pelliot, 977, folio 3b.5-4a.1

byan chub tu sems bskyed pa rnams byan cub sems dpah rnams kyis sems bskyed paho || byan chub tu sems bskyed pahi rnams la pha rol tu phyin pahi lam ston paho || dbul po rnams lons spyod kyis bsus paho || na ba rnams la sman rab tu byin te rim hgro dan bkur sti byed paho || mthu chun ba rnams la bzod chin żi baho | ltun ba so sor g.yogs baho || sdig bśegs paho | sans rgyas bcom ldan hdas bżugs pa dan | mya nan las hdas pa thams cad la ri mo bkur sti byed paho || slob dpon dan mkhan po la ston par ri mo byed paho | chos la rin than myed pahi rin po che tshol bahi brtson hgrus so || chos hchad pa la dgah ste dpag tshad brgyar kyan mñan pas myi noms pa | ma hdres pahi chos hchad pa | pha ma la rim hgro byed pa | byas pa ses pa | byas pa dran ba | byas pa tshor ba | hgyod pa myed pa | bsod nams bstsags pas myi noms pa |.

^{8.} DNR lus bsdams śiń.

^{9.} N bstsags (also in the next occurrence of the term 'bsags').

^{10.} DNR mtshan.

^{11.} Pelliot, 977, folio 4a.1-3 lus bsdams pas sgyu myed pa | nag bsdams pas nag la sgyu myed pa | yid bsdams pas yid la sgyu myed pa |

mnon par ses pa sprul pas sans rgyas kyi źin gi rgyan¹ dan | ye ses yons su dag pas chos kyi mtshan ñid kyi² rgyan dan | phra ma dan | źe gcod pa dan | dbye baḥi tshig yons su spans pas (642) hkhor man poḥi rgyan dan | chos hdzin pas hdod chags med paḥi chos kyi³ rgyan dan | rab tu dgaḥ nas legs so źes⁴ bya ba byin pas chos kyi gtam mi hjigs par byed pa dan | sgrib pa dan sgrib par byed pa⁵ rnam par spans śin gus par chos ñan pas hbras bu yod par chos hchad pa dan | sans rgyas rnams la dkaḥ thub kyi nags tshal phul bas byan chub kyi śin gi rgyan dan | dge baḥi rtsa ba thams cad snon du hgro źin byan chub kyi sems mi gton bas byan chub kyi sñin poḥi rgyan dan | 6

las dan ñon mons pa mi dmigs pas tshe dan śi hpho yons su dag pa dan | rin po che phans pahi dnos po thams cad yons su gton bas rin po cheḥi lag pa² dan | mi zad paḥi smon lam thob pas lons spyod mi zad pa dan | khro gñer med pas mthon ma thag tu sems can rnams dad cin bźin hdzum pas gson por smra ba dan | sems can thams cad la hod zer sñoms pas² mñam pa ñid kyi rgyan thob pa dan | ma lobs pa la mi brñas pas² hod man po gton ba¹o dan | tshul khrims kyi bsod nams bsags pas skye ba yons su dag pa dan | ltun ba la mi rtsod pas mnal yons su dag pa dan | 11

dge ba bcuḥi las yons su dag pas lha dan mir skye ba dan | rjes su bstan pa¹² thams cad la

- N kyis.
- 3. N kyis.
- 4. PR om; źes.
- 5. DNR chod pa.
- 6. Pelliot, 977, folio 4a.3–5 mnon bar ses pas rnam par sprul paḥi phyir sans rgyas kyi żin brgyan pa | ye ses yons su dag pas chos kyi mtshan brgyan pa | phra ma dan gla ma żid (conjectural reading) dbye baḥi tshig yons su spans pas hkhor gyi lus brgyan pa | chos hdzin pas hdod chags myed paḥi chos kyis rab tu brgyan to | rab tu dge ba dge bar sbyin nas chos kyi gtam myi hjigs pa | sgrib pa dan bsgribs pa mam par spans paḥi phyir bkur sti byas te | chos nan pas hbras bu yod paḥi chos hchad paḥo || sans rgyas rnams la dkaḥ thub kyi nags tshal phul bas byan chub kyi sin gis brgyan to || dge ba thams cad thogs par hgro bas byan chub kyi sems myi gton baḥi phyir byan chub kyi snin po brgyan to ||.
- 7. DNR lag na rin po che.
- 8. N pa.
- 9. P zil gyis mi gnon pas, for D N R mi brñas pas.
- 10. D mthon ba.
- 11. Pelliot, 977, folio 4a.5-7

las dan ñon mons par myi dmyigs pas tshe dan śi hphos yons su dag paho | rin po che bzan pohi dnos po thams cad yons su btan bas rin po chehi lag paho | myi zad pahi smon lam thob pahi phyir lons spyod myi zad paho || bźin ba hdzum źin gson por smra ste khro gñer myed pahi phyir mthon ma thag tu sems can rnams dad paho | sems can thams cad la hod sñoms pahi phyir sñoms pa ñid so sor thob paho || ma lobs pa la phyis brtsan bas hod kyis rgyan gton baho || tshul khrims kyi bsod nams bstsags pas skye ba yons su dag paho || lun bstan pahi phyir mnah yons su dag paho |.

12. P bstan par bya ba, for D N R rjes su bstan pa.

de bźin gśegs paḥi mchod rten so sor gźag paḥi phyir tshans paḥi bsod nams yons (...) | mtshan yons su rdzogs pa | phans pa myed pas sdud pa bskyed pa | dpe byad bzan po yons su rdzogs pa | rnam par bkra baḥi dge baḥi rtsi ba tshogs ba bstags pas sprul pas lus brgyan pa | nag gyi ñes pa thams cad rnam par spans pas nag brgyan pa | thogs pa myed paḥi blos sems brgyan pa |.

^{1.} Akn (p. 65.2.8-3.3) gives 'rgyan du hgyur ba dan' in this and in the following five instances of the phrase 'rgyan dan'.

rab tu rtog pas gdon mi za bar gnon pa dan | chos la slob dpon gyi dpe mkhyud med pas chos kyi dban phyug dan | lhag paḥi bsam pa yons su dag pas ḥjig rten thams cad la mnon sum pa dan | ñi tshe baḥi spyod pa mi (643) ḥdod pas rgya chen poḥi chos la dad pa dan | thams cad mkhyen paḥi sems mi ḥdor bas bsod nams thams cad yons su ḥdzin pa dan | dad pa snon du ḥgro bas nor bdun yons su rdzogs pa dan | snon dam bcas pa ñams su len par byed pas² hjig rten thams cad mi slu ba dan | dge baḥi chos yons su rdzogs pas sans rgyas kyi chos thams cad yons su rdzogs pa ste | de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi bsod nams kyi tshogs la mkhas pa źes byaḥo ||3

2.7.2

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi ye śes kyi tshogs la mkhas pa gan źe na | rgyu gan gis ye śes skye ba ste | de ltar rgyu dan rkyen4 gan gis ye śes rtogs paho ||

de la rgyu gaṅ | rkyen gaṅ źe na | chos tshol ba la rab tu ḥdun pa daṅ | ye śes kyi rjes su soṅ baḥi bśes gñen bsten pa daṅ | saṅs rgyas kyi ye śes la rton gyi | ñan thos daṅ raṅ saṅs rgyas kyi ye śes la mi rton pa daṅ | de dag la ṅa rgyal mi byed pa | bla ma la dgaḥ ba daṅ | ston pa la dgaḥ ba daṅ | deḥi dge baḥi bśes gñen de dag gis ḥdi ni bsam pa daṅ ldan bar śes nas | ye śes kyi gtam gaṅ yaṅ mi ston pa med pa daṅ | snod du śes nas bar chad med par sems rtse gcig tu chos ston pa daṅ | des chos de thos nas chos kyi tshogs la brtson par byed pa de ñid deḥi ye śes kyi tshogs la brtson pa yin no ||⁶

de la chos kyi tshogs la brtson (644) pa gan ze na | hdi lta ste | don ñun ba dan | bya ba ñun

^{1.} P chos la slob dpon gyis mi hchab pas chos la dban phyug dan, for D N R chos la slob dpon gyi dpe mkhyud med pas chos kyi dban phyug dan.

^{2.} D N ñams su lon par byed pas; P sgrol bas.

^{3.} Pelliot, 977, folio 4a.7–4b.3
dge ba bcuhi las yons su dag pas lha dan myir skyeho || bstan pa thams cad la yid ches pas bsgrims pa gdon myi za baho || chos la mkhan po myi hchab pas chos la dban paho | lhag pahi bsam pa yons su dag pas hjig rten thams cad kyi bla yin no | fii tse pahi spyod lam mos pas rgya chen pahi chos la dad paho || thams cad mkhyen pahi sems myi hdor bas bsod nams thams cad yons su hdzin paho || dad pa thog mar hgro bas nor btun yons su rdzogs paho | snon dam bcas pa las bsgal pahi phyir hjig rten thams cad myi bslu baho || dge bahi chos yons su rdzogs pas sans rgyas kyi chos thams cad yons su rdzogs paho || de ni byan chub sems dpahi bsod nams kyi tshogs la mkhas pa zes byaho ||.

^{4.} DPR add: gan dan.

^{5.} P rnal hbyor (also in the following three occurrences of 'brtson par': 1. D R P rnal hbyor, 2. P rnal hbyor, 3. P rnal hbyor pa).

^{6.} Pelliot, 977, folio 4b.3-6
de la byan chub sems dpaḥi ye śes kyi tshogs la mkhas pa gan źe na | rgyu gan gis ye śes bskyed pa ste | de
ltar rgyu dan rkyen gan gis ye śes chud paḥo || de la rgyu dan rkyen gan źe na || chos tshol ba la rab tu mos
pa | ye śes kyi rjes su son baḥi bśes ñen bsten pa | sans rgyas kyi ye śes la rton te | ñan thos dan ran sans
rgyas kyi ye śes la myi rton paḥo | de dag la na myed pa | bla ma la rans pa | mkhan po la rans pa | de dag
dge baḥi bśes ñen gyis bsam ba phun sum tshogs par rig nas ye śes kyi gtam gan yan myi ston pa myed do
|| snod tu rig nas htshams myed par hbad de | de la chos hchad do || des deḥi chos thos nas chos kyi tshogs
la brtson par byed do | gan chos kyi tshogs la rtson ba de ñid ye śes kyi tshogs la brtson baho ||.

ba dań | sgra ñuń ba dań | srod dań tho rańs la mi ñal źiń rnal ḥbyor la brtson pa dań | ḥbrel paḥi don la yońs su rtog pa dań | phyir źiń yońs su tshol ba dań | sems la rñog pa med pa dań | sgrib pa gnon pa dań | ltuń ba las ḥbyuń bar śes pa dań | ḥgyod pa med pa dań | kun nas ldań ba med pa dań | nan tan sñiń por byed pa dań | chos la gźol ba dań | chos la ḥbab pa dań | chos la bab pa dań | chos la brtul ba dań | rtag par mgo dań lus² la me ḥbar ba lta bu dań | 3

ye śes tshol ba de ñid la gnas pa dań | mi lhod pa dań | brtson ḥgrus mi gton ba dań | khyad par du ḥgro ba dań | ḥdu ḥdzi las dben pa dań | gcig pur⁴ dgaḥ ba dań | dgon paḥi bde ba yid la byed pa dań | ḥphags paḥi rigs la dgaḥ ba dań | sbyańs pa las mi ḥgyur ba dań | chos kyi kun dgaḥ (ba) la dgaḥ źiń mos pa⁵ dań | ḥjig rten rgyań phan paḥi gsań tshig la ri mo⁶ mi byed pa dań | ḥjig rten las ḥdas paḥi chos tshol ba la dran pa mi ñams pa dań | rtogs pa la don rtogs paḥi rjes su ḥgro ba dań | blo gros la lam gyi rjes su ḥthun par byed pa dań | mos pa la sdom pa dań | ⁷

rkyen la ye śes kyi rjes su rig pa⁸ dań | khrel yod pa dań⁹ | no tsha śes paḥi rgyan¹⁰ dań | sańs rgyas kyi hgros kyi rjes su hgro ba dań | mi śes pa sel ba dań | ma rig pa dań gti mug gi lin tog (645) sel ba dań | śes rab kyi mig rnam par dag pa dań | rab tu rnam par dag pa dań | blo rgya che ba dań | bla ma żum pa dań | blo rab tu tha dad pa dań | mnon sum du śes pa dań | gżan (dag) la rag ma lus paḥi yon tan dań | ran gi yon tan gyis mi sñems pa dań | pha rol gyi yon tan la rtog pa¹¹ dań | legs par bya baḥi las¹² byed pa dań | las kyi rnam par smin pa la mi¹³ hgal bar byed pa¹⁴ dań | las yons su dag par śes pa¹⁵ ste | de ni byań chub sems dpaḥ

^{1.} R om: chos la bab pa dan.

DPR gos.

^{3.} Pelliot, 977, folio 4b.6–5a.1

de la chos kyi tshogs la brtson ba gan ze na | de ni don ñun ba | bya ba ñun ba | sgra ñun ba | nam gyi cha stod dan cha smad la myi ñal bar brtson ba dan ldan ba | brtson baḥi don la yons su rtog pa phyi phyir yons su hjig pa sems ma sñoms paḥi (conjectural reading) bsgrib pa mam par sel ba | lhun ba las hbyun bar śes pa | hgyod ba myed pa | yons su bskor pa myed pa | nan tan gyi sñin po can chos la gżol ba | chos la hbab pa | chos la sgrim ba | rtag par mgo dan gos la mye hbar ba bżin du ye śes tshol baḥi de ñid la gnas pa |.

^{4.} P R bu; N pu.

^{5.} P chos la kun dgah żin dgah bas dgah ba, for D N R chos (kyi) kun dgah (ba) la dgah żin mos pa.

^{6.} N ri mor.

^{7.} Pelliot, 977, folio 5a.1-3

myi lhod pa bkur ba myi hdod pa | khyad bar du myi hgro ba | hdu hdzi dan tha dad pa | gcig pur dgah ba | dgon paḥi sgor yid la byed pa | hphags paḥi rigs la dgah ba | sbyans pa las myi hgyur ba | chos la kun dgaḥ żin dgah bas dgah ba | hjig rten pa (phyal baḥi) snags la bkur sti myi byed pa | hjig rten las hdas paḥi chos tshol baḥi dran ba myi fiams ba | rig paḥi don gyi hgros su hgro ba | blo hgros lam tu mthun ba | sdom ba brtan pa |.

^{8.} P ye ses su rtogs pa.

^{9.} Pom: khrel yod pa dan.

^{10.} P no tsha ba dad mdzes pahi rgyan.

^{11.} P mi rtog pa.

^{12.} DR legs par bya bahi las bya bahi las; P bthad por byed pahi.

^{13.} Nom: mi.

sems dpah chen pohi ye ses kyi tshogs zes byaho ||¹
gzan yan ye ses kyi tshogs ni sbyin ba rnam par² bzi ste |

- (1) chos smra ba la gro ga dan | smyu gu dan | snag tsha dan | glegs bam sbyin pa dan |
- (2) chos smra ba la chos kyi stan sna tshogs sbyin pa dan l
- (3) chos smra ba la rñed pa dan | bkur sti dan | tshigs su bcad pa thams cad sbyin pa dan |
- (4) chos smra ba la chos kun bsdu baḥi phyir g.yo med par legs so || źes bya ba sbyin pa ste |

sbyin pa bźi po de dag [ni] ye śes kyi tshogs sogs³ par hgyur ro || kun srun ba bźi⁴ rnams ye śes kyi tshogs sogs par hgyur te | bźi gan źe na |

- (1) chos smra ba rnams kyi lus [kun]⁵ srun ba⁶ dan |
- (2) dge ba srun ba dan |
- (3) yul dan ljons su hjug pa la srun ba dan |
- (4) phan pahi dnos po [kun]⁷ srun ba ste |

[kun]⁸ sruň ba bži po de dag (ye šes kyi tshogs sogs par ḥgyur ro)⁹ || ñe bar rton pa¹⁰ bži ye šes kyi tshogs (sogs par)¹¹ ḥgyur te | bži gaň že na |

- (1) chos smra ba rnams kyi chos ñe bar (646) rton pa dan |
- (2) ye ses ñe bar rton pa dan |
- (3) zan zin ne bar rton pa dan |
- (4) byan chub ne bar rton paho ||12
- 14. P byed pa mi gton ba, for D N R mi hgal bar byed pa.
- 15. R byed pa.
- 1. Pelliot, 977, folio 5a.3-5
 - rkyen gyis ye ses chud pa | no tsha dan khrel yod pahi rgyan | sans rgyas kyi hgro bahi rjes su hgro ba | myi ses pa hdor bab ma rig pa dan gti mug kyi bris (conjectural reading) ma sel ba | ses rab kyi myig rnam par dag pa | rab tu rnam par dag pahi blohi rgya che ba | blo ma hkhums pa | blo rab tu tha dad pa | mnon sum du ses pa | pha rol gyi kha na ma las pahi yon tan mnon bar myi bsñems | pha rol gyi yon tan la myi rtog pa | bzan por byas pahi las byed pa | las kyi rnam par smin pa la myi htshab pa | las yons su dag par ses pa de ni | byan chub sems dpahi ye ses kyi tshogs ses byaho ||.
- 2. DNP om: rnam par.
- 3. N stsogs (but for one, also in all further occurrences of the word 'sogs' in this tretrad section); this applies also to the parallel passage in the Akn (p. 66.1.3-3.6).
- 4. N add: po.
- 5. Akn (p. 66.1.3) om: kun.
- 6. R yons su srun ba (also in the next three clauses).
- 7. Akn (p. 66.1.4) om.
- 8. Akn (p. 66.1.4) om: kun.
- 9. Given in Akn (p. 66.1.4).
- 10. N ñe bar brtan pa; P rton pa (also throughout this stanza).
- 11. Given in Akn (p. 66.1.4) as 'stsogs par'.
- 12. Pelliot, 977, folio 5a.6-5b.1

(ñe bar rton pa bźi po de dag ye śes kyi tshogs sogs par ḥgyur ro ||)¹ stobs lha ye śes kyi tshogs (sogs par)² ḥgyur te | lha gan źes na | ḥdi lta ste |

- (1) mos pahi phyir dad pahi stobs dan |
- (2) thos pa tshol bahi phyir brtson hgrus kyi stobs dan |
- (3) byan chub kyi sems³ mi brjed pahi phyir dran pahi stobs dan |
- (4) mñam pa ñid kyi chos la nes par rtogs pahi phyir tin ne hdzin gyi stobs dan |
- (5) thos pahi stobs kyi phyir ses rab kyi stobs ste

stobs lna po de dag ye ses kyi tshogs su (sogs par)⁴ hgyur ro || tshul khrims bźi ye ses kyi tshogs sogs⁵ par hgyur te | bźi gan że na | hdi lta ste |

- (1) chos la nes pahi6 tshul khrims dan |
- (2) chos htshol bahi tshul khrims dan |
- (3) chos la nes par rtogs pahi tshul khrims dan |
- (4) byan chub tu bsno bahi tshul khrims te |

tshul khrims bźi po de dag ye śes kyi tshogs sogs par ḥgyur ro || bzod pa bźi ye śes kyi tshogs sogs par ḥgyur te | bźi gan że na | ḥdi lta ste |

- (1) chos tshol ba la mnon par brtson pas nan du smra ba dan | nan du brjod paḥi tshig (rnams)⁷ bzod pa dan |
- (2) chos tshol ba la mnon par brtson pas rlun dan | tsha ba dan | gran ba dan | dro ba dan | skom pa dan | bkres pa bzod pa dan |
- (3) chos tshol ba la mnon par brtson pas | slob dpon dan mkhan poḥi rjes su hjug pa dan |

gźan yan ye śes kyi tshogs rnam pa bźi ste | chos hchad pa la hgro ba dan | ga la ma dan snag tsa dan | glegs bam byin ba dan | chos hchad pa la mam par bkra bahi stan sbyin ba dan | chos hchad pa la brten pa dan | bku sti dan | tshigs su bcad pa thams cad sbyin ba dan | chos hchad pa la chos kun bsdu bahi phyir dgeho żes bya ba sbyin ba dan bźi ni ye śes kyi tshogs bstsogs par hgyur ro || gźan yan kun tu bsrun ba bźi ye śes kyi tshogs su hgyur te | bźi gan że na | chos hchad pahi lus kun bsrun ba dan | yul dan ljons su żugs la kun tu bsrun ba dan | phan bahi dnos po kun tu bsrun ba dan bźiho || gźan yan brtan ba bźi ye śes kyi tshogs su hgyur te | bźi gan że na | chos hchad pa la chos brtan ba dan | ye śes brtan ba dan | zan źin kun brtan ba dan | blo brtan paho || (R folio 645.3–646.1).

^{1.} Given in Akn (p. 66.1.6).

^{2.} Given in Akn (p. 66.1.6) as 'stsogs par'.

^{3.} P add: kun.

^{4.} Given in Akn (p. 66.1.8) as 'stsogs par'.

N bsags.

^{6.} P bde bar gnas pahi, for D N R nes pahi.

^{7.} P nan par hons pahi tshig rnams, for D N R nan du brjod pahi tshig.

(4) chos tshol ba la mnon par brtson pas | ston pa ñid [pa] dan | mtshan ma med pa dan | smon pa med pahi chos bzod pa ste |

bzod pa bži po de dag (647) ye šes kyi tshogs sogs par hgyur ro || brtson hgrus bži ye šes kyi tshogs sogs par hgyur te | bži gan že na | hdi lta ste |

- (1) thos paḥi brtson ḥgrus dan |
- (2) hdzin pahi¹ brtson hgrus dan |
- (3) bstan paḥi² brtson ḥgrus dan |
- (4) nan tan gyi brtson hgrus te |

brtson hgrus bźi po de dag ye śes kyi tshogs sogs par hgyur ro ||³ bsam gtan gyi yan lag bźi⁴ ye śes kyi tshogs [kyi] sogs par hgyur te | bźi gan źe na | hdi lta ste |

- (1) dben pa dan |
- (2) geig bur dgah ba dan |
- (3) ye ses dan | mnon par ses pa tshol ba dan |
- (4) sans rgyas kyi ye ses la hjug pa ste |

bsam gtan gyi yan lag bźi po de dag ye śes kyi tshogs sogs par ḥgyur ro || śes rab snan baḥi chos ḥdi bźi ye śes kyi tshogs sogs par ḥgyur te | bźi gan źe na | ḥdi lta ste |

- (1) chad pa la mi gnas pa dan l
- (2) rtag pa la mi hjug pa dan |
- (3) rten cin hbrel par hbyun ba dan mi hgal ba dan |

^{1.} D N R gzuńs kyi (Akn hdzin pahi).

^{2.} D R brtan paḥi; P ḥchad paḥi (Akn bstan paḥi).

^{3. •} Pelliot, 977, folio 5b.1–5 gźan yan stobs lna ye śes kyi tshogs su hgyur te lna gan źe na | lhag par grol bas dad paḥi stobs dan | thos pa tshol bas brtson hgrus kyi stobs dan | byan cub kyi sems kun tu ma stor bas dran baḥi bstobs dan | mñam ba fiid kyi chos la rtog pas ti ñe hdzin gyi stobs dan | thos paḥi stobs kyi phyir śes rab kyi stobs so || gźan yan tshul khrims bźi ye śes kyi tshogs su hgyur te | chos la dgaḥ baḥi tshul khrims dan | chos tshol baḥi tshul khrims dan | chos rtog paḥi tshul khrims dan | byan chub tu bsnos paḥi tshul khrims dan || gźan yan bzod pa bźiḥi ye śes kyi tshogs su hgyur te | chos tshol ba la mnon bar brtson bas nan tu smra ba dan skya skyoḥi tshig (conjectural reading) bzod pa dan | chos tshol ba la mnon bar brtson bas gran ba dan dro ba dan skom ba dan | bkris ba bzod pa dan | chos tshol ba la mnon bar brtson bas slob dpon dan mkhan poḥi rjes su hgyur ba dan | chos tshol ba la mnon bar brtson bas stop pa ñid dan mtshan ma myed pa dan smon pa myed paḥi chos bzod paḥo || gźan yan brtson hgrus bźi ye śes kyi tshogs su hgyur te | thos paḥi brtson hgrus dan | gzun baḥi brtson hgrus dan | nan tan gyi brtson hgrus so || (R folio 646.1–647.2).

^{4.} Akn add: byan chub sems dpahi.

(4) bdag med pa la mos pa¹ ste |

ses rab snan bahi chos bži po de dag ye ses kyi tshogs sogs par hgyur ro || chos hdi bži thabs kyi ye ses kyi² tshogs (sogs par)³ hgyur te | bži gan že na | hdi lta ste |

- (1) hjig rten pahi rjes su hjug pa dan |
- (2) mdo sdehi4 rjes su hjug pa dan |
- (3) chos kyi rjes su hjug pa dan |
- (4) ye ses kyi rjes su hjug pa ste |

chos bži po de dag thabs kyi ye šes kyi tshogs (sogs par)⁵ hgyur ro⁶ || chos hdi bži lam gyi ye šes kyi tshogs⁷ (648) la hjug par hgyur te | bži gan že na | hdi lta ste |

- (1) pha rol tu phyin pahi lam dan |
- (2) byan chub kyi phyogs kyi lam dan |
- (3) yan lag brgyad pahi lam dan |8
- (4) thams cad mkhyen pahi ye ses su hgro bahi lam ste |

chos bži po de dag lam gyi ye šes kyi tshogs⁹ la hjug par hgyur ro¹⁰ || mi noms pa hdi bži ye šes kyi tshogs sogs par hgyur te | bži gan že na | hdi lta ste |

- (1) thos pas mi noms pa dan |
- (2) bstan pas mi noms pa dan |
- (3) dpyod pas mi noms pa dan |
- (4) ye ses kyis mi noms pa ste |

mi noms pa bźi po de dag ye śes kyi tshogs sogs par ḥgyur ro ||11

- 1. Given in Akn (p. 66.3.1) as 'bzod pa'.
- 2. N thabs kyi; Akn (p. 66.3.1-2) has: thabs bźi po de dag byań chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi ye śes kyi tshogs stsogs par ḥgyur ro.
- 3. Given in Akn (p. 66.3.2) as 'stsogs par'.
- 4. Akn (p. 66.3.2) replaces 'mdo sde' with 'sems can'.
- 5. Given in Akn (p. 66.3.5) as 'stsogs par'.
- Akn (p. 66.3.3) has 'thabs bzi po de dag byan chub sems dpah rnams kyi ye ses kyi tshogs stsogs par hgvur ro'.
- DNPR lam gyi tshogs kyi ye śes.
- 8. Akn (p. 66.3.4) has 'saḥi lam dan' for 'yan lag brgyad paḥi lam dan' (D N P R).
- DNPR lam gyi tshogs kyi ye śes.
- 10. Akn (p. 66.3.4-5) has 'tshogs stsogs par hgyur ro', for 'tshogs la hjug par hgyur ro' (D N P R).
- 11. Pelliot, 977, folio 5b.5-6a.2 gźan yań bsam gtan bźi ye śes kyi tshogs su hgyur te | dben ba dań | dag pa (conjectural reading) | gcig pur

gźan yan ye śes kyi tshogs ni gan sems can thams cad kyi rjes su hgro ba dan | źin thams cad kyi rjes su hgro ba ste | sbyin pa las kyan ye śes kyi tshogs su bltaho || tshul khrims dan | bzod pa dan | brtson hgrus dan | bsam gtan dan | śes rab dan | byams pa dan | sñin rje dan | dgah ba dan | btan snoms las kyan ye śes kyi tshogs su bltaho ||

de ciḥi phyir źe na | ji tsam du byan chub sems dpaḥi rtsom pa de thams cad ye śes las rag las pa² | ye śes snon du hgro ba | ye śes la rton pa ste | de ye śes la gnas pas³ ye śes can thams cad kyi rton par hgyur te⁴ | bdud thams cad kyis kyan de la glags mi rñed do || sans rgyas kyi byin gyi rlabs kyan hthob | thams cad (649) mkhyen paḥi ye śes la yan hjog⁵ par byed do ||6

de gñis ni byan chub sems dpaḥi bsod nams kyi tshogs dan ye śes kyi tshogs te | byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen po tshogs rnam par gñis de⁷ la mkhas pa śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||⁸

2.8

de la byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi dran pa ñe bar bźag pa la mkhas pa gan źe na | ḥdi bźi ni byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom pa ste | bźi gan źe na | ḥdi lta ste | lus la lus kyi rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom pa dan | tshor ba la tshor baḥi rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom pa dan | sems la sems kyi rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe

dgaḥ ba daṅ | ye śes kyi mnon bar śes pa tshol ba daṅ | saṅs rgyas kyi ye śes la ḥjug paḥo || śes rab kyi snaṅ baḥi chos bźi ye śes kyi tshogs su ḥgyur te | chad pa la so sor myi gnas pa daṅ | rtag pa la myi ḥjugs pa daṅ | rkyen daṅ ḥdu ba tshogs te ḥbyuṅ ba ma bgags pa daṅ | bdag myed pa la dad paḥo || chos hdi bźi thabs daṅ ye śes kyi tshogs su ḥgyur te | hjig rten gyi rjes su hjug pa daṅ | mdo sdeḥi rjes su hjug pa daṅ | chos kyi rjes su hjug pa daṅ | ye śes kyi rjes us hjug paḥo || chos hdi lam gyi tshogs kyi ye śes la hjug par ḥgyur te | pha rol tu phyin paḥi lam daṅ | byaṅ chub kyi phyogs kyi lam daṅ | yan lag brgyad kyi lam daṅ | thams cad mkhyen paḥi ye śes kyi rjes su ḥgro baḥi lam mo || myi no(m)s pa bźis ye śes kyi tshogs su ḥgyur te | thos pas myi noms pa daṅ | bśad pas myi noms pa daṅ | dpyod pas myi noms pa daṅ | ye śes kyis myi noms paḥo || (R folio 647.2–648.4).

- 1. PR gtan.
- 2. DNR ye ses kyi khar las pa.
- 3. N gnas pa.
- 4. P ye ses thams cad mkhyen pahi ye ses la rten par hgyur zin.
- 5. DNR gźog.
- 6. Pelliot, 977, folio 6a.2-4 gźan yań ye śes kyi tshogs ni sems can thams cad kyi rjes su hgro ba dań | źiń tham cad kyi rjes su hgro ba ste | sbyin ba yań ye śes kyi tshogs su bltaho || tshul khrims dań | bzod pa dań | brtson hgrus dań | bsam gtan dań | śes rab dań | byams pa dań | sñiń rje dań | dgah ba dań | btań sñoms kyań ye śes kyi tshogs su bltaho || de jihi phyir że na | ji tsam tu byań chub sems dpahi brtson ba de thams cad ye śes kyi khar las so || ye śes thog mar hgroho || ye śes la so sor rton to | de ye śes la gnas nas sems can thams cad so sor hkhor bar hgyur ro || bdud thams cad kyis de la glags myi rñyed de | thams cad mkhyen paḥi ye śes su hjog go || źes gsuńs so ||.
- 7. DNPR rnam pa de gñis.
- 8. As in the previous instances, this connecting phrase is here missing in the Pelliot manuscript. Moreover, the next sentences do not correspond to those in the following section of the blockprint editions but are found in a much later part defining wisdom (cf. R folio 685.7), thus effectively jumping almost a third of the entire chapter.

bar bźag pa sgom pa dan | chos la chos kyi rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom paho ||

2.8.1

de la lus la lus kyi rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom pa gan źe na | śā riḥi bu ḥdi la byań chub sems dpaḥ lus la lus kyi rjes su lta źiń gnas pa de lus kyi sňon gyi mthaḥ la yań so sor rtog | lus kyi phyi maḥi mthaḥ la yań so sor rtog | lus kyi da ltar byuń ba la yań so sor rtog ste | kye maḥo lus ḥdi ni phyin ci log las byuń ba ste | rgyu dań rkyen las skyes ba | g.yo ba med pa | byed pa med pa | bdag po med pa | yońs su ḥdzin pa med pa | hdi lta ste | dper na phyi rol gyi rtswa dań | śiń gel ba dań | sman dań | nags tshal dag rgyu dań rkyen las byuń źiń (650) bdag po med pa¹ | yońs su ḥdzin pa med pa | de bźin du lus ḥdiḥaṅ rtswa | rtsig pa daṅ | śiń dań | boń ba² dań | mig yor lta bu dań³ | phuń po dań | khams dań | skye mched yońs su ḥdzin pa dań | bdag dań bdag gi ḥam | rtag pa ḥam | brtan pa ḥam | ther zug gam | mi ḥgyur baḥi chos kyis stoń ste | lus de la ńa yir mi byaḥi | lus sñiń po med pa des sñiń po blań bar byaḥo⁴ ||

de la sñin po gan ze na | ḥdi lta ste | de bźin gśegs paḥi skuḥo || de bźin gśegs paḥi sku ni chos kyi sku | rdo rjeḥi sku | mi phyed paḥi sku | sra baḥi sku | ḥjig rten gsum po thams cad dan khyad źugs paḥi sku bdag gis bsgrub par byaḥo || bdag gi lus ḥdi ñes pa du maḥi skyon chags mod kyi | ḥon kyan ñes pa thams cad dan bral baḥi de bźin gśegs paḥi sku thob par byaḥo || źes de so sor rtog paḥi mthus legs par mthon nas | ḥbyun ba chen poḥi gnas kyi lus yons su srun bar byed do || naḥi lus ni sems can thams cad kyi ci dgos par zad paḥo || ḥdi lta ste | dper na phyi rol gyi ḥbyun ba chen po bźi po saḥi khams dan | chuḥi khams dan | meḥi khams dan | rlun gyi khams sgo sna tshogs dan | dmigs pa sna tshogs dan | rnam grans sna tshogs dan | yo byad sna tshogs dan | lons spyod sna tshogs kyis sems can rnams ñe bar ḥtsho ba de bźin du | bdag gi ḥbyun ba chen po bźi las gyur paḥi (651) lus ḥdi sgo sna tshogs dan | dmigs pa sna tshogs dan | rnam grans sna tshogs dan | lons spyod sna tshogs rnams kyis sems can rnams kyi ñe bar ḥtsho bar gyur cig | sñam mo ||

^{1.} N om: pa.

^{2.} P gseg ma.

^{3.} Nom: dan.

^{4.} P de la sñin po med paho, for D N R des sñin po blan bar byaho.

^{5.} P brtan paḥi.

^{6.} P R om: po.

 ^{7.} N cir.

^{8.} DNR yons su spyod pa (also in the next occurrences for the term 'lons spyod').

^{9.} DPR mams kyis; N kyi.

de lus mi rtag pa ñid duḥan so sor rtog mod kyi | skye ba¹ dan śi ḥphos kyan mi skyoḥo² || lus sdug bsnal ñid duḥan³ so sor rtog mod kyi | lus kyi sdug bsnal bas kyan yons su mi gdun no || lus bdag med pa ñid du yan so sor rtog mod kyi | sems can yons su smin par bya baḥi phyir⁴ yan mi skyoḥo || lus źi ba ñid duḥan so sor rtog mod kyi | lus źi bas⁵ btan sñoms su yan mi ltun no || lus ston pa ñid dan lus dben pa ñid duḥan⁴ so sor rtog mod kyi | dben paḥi mur yan mi ltun no ||

de lus la lus kyi rjes su lta źiń gnas pa na lus la rdzas dań sñiń por rjes su mi mthoń ńo || (de) nań gi lus la yań lus kyi rjes su lta źiń gnas pa na nań gi rjes su soń baḥi ñon mońs pa rnams kyi go skabs mi ḥbyed do || de phyi rol gyi lus la lus kyi rjes su lta źiń gnas pa na phyi rol gyi rjes su soń baḥi ñon mońs pa rnams dań lhan cig mi gnas so ||

de lus ñon mons pa med pas lus kyi las yons su dag pa ldan pa yin no || de lus yons su dag nas mtshan (ñid) gyis yan dag par brgyan paḥi sku ḥthob po || de lus mtshan ñid kyis⁷ brgyan par gyur nas lha dan mi rnams mnon du ḥdul⁸ bar ḥgyur te | de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi lus la lus kyi rjes su lta ba⁹ (652) dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom paḥo ||

2.8.2

yan ji ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ tshor ba la tshor baḥi¹⁰ rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom pa yin źe na | ḥdi la byan chub sems dpaḥ gan ci tshor¹¹ yan run¹² de thams cad sdug bsnal lo || źes de sñam du sems te | de ye śes kyis rtogs pa dan | śes rab kyis rtogs pa dan | thabs kyis rtogs paḥi tshor ba śin tu rtogs pas bde bar tshor ba tshor bar¹³ byed mod kyi | ḥdod chags kyi bag la ñal ba yan bag la ñal bar mi byed do¹⁴ || sdug bsnal baḥi tshor bas reg nas kyan nan son du skyes pa thams cad la sñin rje chen po skyed cin khon khro baḥi¹⁵ bag la ñal yan bag¹⁶ la ñal bar mi byed do || bde ba yan ma yin | sdug bsnal ba yan ma yin paḥi tshor

^{1.} P tshe

^{2.} D N P R skycho; Akn (p. 66.5.8) skycho; see also next occurrence of term 'skycho'.

^{3.} Nom: han (also in the next clause).

^{4.} DNR bya ba la.

^{5.} N ba.

N om: han.

^{7.} NPR om: mtshan nid kyis.

^{8.} NR ḥdu.

^{9.} D N P R bahi (also in all subsequent occurrences of this stockphrase).

^{10.} P źiń.

^{11.} P cun zad, for D N R ci tshor.

^{12.} N add: ste.

^{13.} N add: bag la ñal yan.

^{14.} P mi fial lo, for D N R fial bar mi byed do (also in the following two occurrences of the phrase 'fial bar mi byed do').

N add: tshor bar.

^{16.} Nom: ñal yan bag.

bas reg¹ kyaṅ |² ma rig paḥi bag la ñal yaṅ bag la ñal bar mi byed do ||³ de tshor baḥi rjes su soṅ baḥi dran pas bde ba ḥam | sdug bsṅal ba ḥam | bde ba yaṅ ma yin | sdug bsṅal ba yaṅ ma yin paḥi tshor ba gaṅ tshor ba yaṅ tshor ba de dag las ḥbyuṅ bar lta ba yin no || sems can thams cad kyi tshor ba yoṅs su śes śiṅ źi baḥi phyir yaṅ hjug ste |

sems can ḥdi dag ni tshor ba las ḥbyun bar mi ses pas de dag bde baḥi tshor ba la dgaḥ bar byed | sdug bsnal baḥi tshor ba la ze sdan bar byed | bde ba yan ma yin | sdug bsnal ba yan ma yin paḥi tshor ba la rmons par byed kyir | bdag ni (653) ses rab dan ye ses kyis rjes su rtogs paḥi tshor ba | tshor ba thams cad so sor sbyans pa dan | thabs mkhas pa dan sñin rje chen pos yons su bzun baḥi rtsom pas | sems can de dag gi tshor ba thams cad rgyun gcod paḥi phyir chos bstan paḥo ||

cihi phyir tshor ba zes bya (ba) ze na | rtogs pahi tshor ba⁷ ni bde bar hgyur ro || ma rtogs pahi tshor ba ni sdug bshal bar hgyur ro ||

de la rtogs paḥi tshor ba gaṅ źe na | ḥdi la bdag gam | sems can nam | srog gam | gaṅ zag gaṅ du³ yaṅ tshor bar byed pa med do³ || chags pa ni tshor baḥo || yoṅs su ḥdzin pa ni tshor baḥo || len pa ni tshor baḥo || phyin ci log ni tshor baḥo || rnam par rtog pa ni tshor baḥo || lta baḥi bag la ñal ba ni tshor baḥo || mig tu ḥdu śes pa tshor ba yin pa nas | yid kyi ḥdu śes paḥi bar du ni tshor baḥo || gzugs su ḥdu śes pa tshor ba yin pa nas | chos su ḥdu śes paḥi bar du ni tshor baḥo || gaṅ mig gi ḥdus te reg paḥi rkyen las byuṅ baḥi tshor ba bde ba ḥam | sdug bsṅal ba ḥam | bde ba yaṅ ma yin | sdug bsṅal ba yaṅ ma yin paḥi bar du de ni tshor ba żes byaḥo || goṅ ma bżin du naṅ daṅ phyiḥi chos rnams la sbyar te | yid kyi bar du ḥdus te reg paḥi rkyen las byuṅ baḥi tshor ba bde ba ḥam | sdug bsṅal ba ḥam | bde ba yaṅ ma yin | sdug bsṅal ba yaṅ ma yin pahi bar du ni tshor żes byaho ||

gźan yan rnam grans kyis tshor ba gcig ste¹⁰ | de ni sems gcig pus¹¹ rnam par rig paḥo ||

P add: nas.

^{2.} P bde ba yan med | sdug bsnal yan med pahi tshor ba med kyi mdo | de.

^{3.} duşkhayā vedanayā spṛṣṭaḥ sarvapāpākṣaṇopapanneṣu sattveṣu mahākaruṇām utpādayati || pe || api tu khalu punar abhiniveso vedanā parigraho vedanopādānaṃ vedanopalambho vedanā viparyāso vedanā vikalpo vedanetyādi || (Akn as cited in Śikṣ, p. 233.6–8).

⁴ N ma yin pa, for D P R ma yin pahi tshor ba.

N P kyis

^{6.} Nom: phyir; P so sor sbyan bahi phyir; R rgyun bcad pahi phyir.

^{7.} P tshor bas ma rtogs pa ni, for D N R rtogs pahi tshor ba (also in the two following occurrences of the phrase 'rtogs pahi tshor ba').

^{8.} DNR om: du.

P rtogs par byed pa med paho, for D N R tshor bar byed pa med do.

^{10.} P ni hdi lta ste (also in the next six phrases of this paragraph in which the numerical structure of feeling (tshor ba) is introduced).

^{11.} P puhi.

tshor ba gñis te | (de ni)¹ phyi dan nan giho || tshor ba gsum ste | (de ni)² hdas pa rnam par rig pa dan | ma hons ba rnam par rig pa dan | da ltar byun ba rnam par rig paho || tshor ba bźi ste | de ni khams bźi rnam par rig paho || tshor ba lna ste³ | de ni phun po lna yid la byed paho || tshor ba drug ste | de ni skye mched drug yons su rtog paho || tshor ba bdun te | de ni rnam par śes pa gnas pa bdun no || tshor ba brgyad de | de ni log par nes pahi sbyor ba brgyad do || tshor ba dgu ste | de ni sems can gyi gnas dguho || tshor ba bcu ste | de ni⁴ dge ba bcuhi las kyi lam⁵ mo ||

gon ma bźin du sbyar te | thams cad ni tshor ba ste | dmigs pa ji sñed pa dan | yid la byed pa ji sñed pa de thams cad tshor bar byaho⁶ || de bas na sems can tshad med paḥi⁷ tshor ba tshad med pa źes byaho⁸ ||

de la byan chub sems dpaḥ tshor ba la tshor baḥi rjes su lta źin gnas pas | sems can thams cad kyi tshor ba skye ba dan | hjig pa dan | gnas pa la ye śes bskyed par bya ste | gan sems can thams cad kyi dge ba dan mi dge baḥi tshor ba la tshor ba śes pa de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi tshor ba la tshor baḥi rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe bar bźag paḥo ||

2.8.3

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi sems la sems kyi (655) rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe bar bźag pa gan źe na | 9byan chub sems dpaḥ deḥi¹⁰ mi brjed pa dan | sba ba dan | kun bsrun ba dan | mi g.yen baḥo || de ḥdi ltar so sor rtog pa ste | sems ni skyes nas hjig cin źu ste mi gnas pas¹¹ | nan na yan mi gnas | phyi rol tu yan mi hpho ste | gan bdag gis thog mar sems bskyed pa de yan zad | med¹² | rnam par gyur te | yul na mi gnas | phyogs na mi gnas pas de rñed par mi nus te | sems gan gis dge baḥi rtsa ba bsgrubs pa de dag kyan zad | med | rnam par gyur te¹³ | yul na mi gnas | phyogs na mi gnas so ||

gan yan byan chub tu bsnos paḥi sems de yan no bo nid kyis mtshan nid med pa ste | sems

^{1.} Akn (p. 67.3.7–4.3) upholds parallel phrasing throughout this passage, using the term 'gan hdi' instead of 'de ni'.

See previous note.

^{3.} R tshor ba lna gan źe na.

^{4.} Akn (p. 67.4.1) add: mi.

^{5.} P add: rnams.

^{6.} P yin par rig par bya ste, for D tshor bar bya baho.

^{7.} N pas.

^{8.} P de bas na sems can dpag tu med pa rnams kyi tshor ba dpag tu med pa źes byaho.

D N R add: gan.

^{10.} Akn (p. 67.4.5) add: byan chub kyi sems.

^{11.} N nas.

^{12.} N om: med.

^{13.} P med par gyur te, for D N R med | mam par hgyur.

kyis sems rab tu mi śes te¹ | sems kyis sems mi mthon | sems kyis sems mi tshor na | gan gis bdag bla na med pa yan dag par rdzogs paḥi byan chub mnon par rdzogs par ḥtshan rgya² paḥi sems de gan yin | gan byan chub kyi sems de ni dge baḥi rtsa baḥi sems dan mi ḥgrogs³ | gan dge baḥi rtsa baḥi sems de yan bsno baḥi sems dan mi ḥgrogs | gan bsno baḥi sems de yan byan chub kyi sems dan | dge baḥi rtsa baḥi sems dan mi ḥgrogs so || źes de | de Itar so sor rtog pa na⁴ | mi skrag mi dnan dnan bar mi ḥgyur gyi⁵ | de yan ḥdi sñam du sems te |

rten cin hbrel par (656) hbyun ba zab mo rgyu dan hbras bu chud mi za baho || gal te sems kyi chos ñid de lta bu sems kyi ran bźin ñid yin yan chos thams cad rgyu dan rkyen la rag las pa | g.yo ba med pa | byed pa med pa | bdag po med pa | ji ltar hdod pa de bźin du hgrub kyis | bdag gis sgrub⁶ pa la brtson par⁷ byaho || sems kyi chos ñid de mi hbri bar byaho ||

de la sems kyi chos ñid gan | sgrub pa gan ze na | sems ni sgyu ma dan hdra ba ste | de la sbyin⁸ par byed pa yan su yan⁹ med de | de ni sems kyi chos ñid de | gan yan bdog pa thams cad yons su btan nas sans rgyas kyi zin rnam par sgrub pahi rgyan du¹⁰ sno bar byed pa de ni sgrub par byed paho || sems rmi lam dan hdra ba rab tu zi bahi mtshan ñid de ni sems kyi chos ñid de | gan yan tshul khrims sdom pahi tshogs sogs so || chog¹¹ de thams cad myur bahi mnon par ses par sno ba de ni sgrub paho || sems smig rgyu lta bu sin tu zad pas zad par gyur pa¹² de ni sems kyi chos ñid de | gan yan bzod pahi stobs dan | des pa¹³ byan chub kyi rgyan bsgrub pahi phyir sno ba de ni dehi sgrub paho || sems chu zla lta bu sin tu dben pas dben pa de ni sems kyi chos ñid de | gan yan brtson hgrus rtsom pa thams cad sans rgyas kyi chos thams cad yons su rdzogs par bya bahi phyir sno ba (657) de ni dehi sgrub paho || sems gzun du med pa mi mthon ba de ni sems kyi chos ñid de | gan yan bsam gtan dan | rnam par thar pa dan | tin ne hdzin dan | mñam par gźag pa thams cad sans rgyas kyi tin ne hdzin du sno ba de ni deḥi sgrub paḥo ||

sems gzugs med pa | mi mthon ba | mi thogs pa14 |15 rnam par mi rig pa de ni sems kyi

^{1.} DPR om: te.

^{2.} P sans rgyas.

^{3.} Pldan (also in the following two occurrences of the word 'hgrogs').

⁴ N dan

^{5.} P mi hjigs mi skrag | skrag par mi hgyur gyi, for D N R mi skrag mi dhan dhan bar mi hgyur gyi.

^{6.} DNR bsgrub.

^{7.} P sbyor bar.

^{8.} N D sgrib.

^{9.} Nom: yan.

^{10.} P gyis.

^{11.} R chos.

^{12.} P śin tu zad ciń med pa.

^{13.} P hgrogs na bde ba.

^{14.} D mi thos pa.

^{15.} R add: rnam par mi thogs pa.

chos ñid de | gań yań dris paḥi tshig tha dad pa bstan pa thams cad śes pa | sańs rgyas kyi ye śes yońs su rdzogs par sňo ba de ni deḥi sgrub paḥo || dmigs pa sna tshogs la sems skye ba de ni sems kyi chos ñid de | gań yań dge baḥi rtsa ba la dmigs paḥi sems ñe bar sbyor ba¹ de ni deḥi sgrub paḥo || rgyu med pa las sems mi skye ba de ni sems kyi chos ñid de | gaṅ yaṅ byaṅ chub kyi phyogs kyi chos kyi rgyuḥi sems skyed pa de ni deḥi sgrub paḥo || gaṅ yul med par sems mi skye ba de ni sems kyi chos ñid de | gaṅ yaṅ saṅs rgyas kyi yul gyi rgyuḥi sems ñe bar sbyor ba de ni deḥi sgrub paḥo ||

śā riḥi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ sems la sems kyi rjes su lta ba² dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom paḥo || de sems la sems kyi rjes su lta źin gnas pa na | mnon par śes pa thob paḥi phyir sems śin tu ḥbrel par byed de | de (658) mnon par śes pa thob nas sems gcig gis sems can thams cad kyi sems rab tu śes te | śes nas kyan dehi ran bźin gyi³ chos hchad do ||

gźan yan byan chub sems dpaḥ (sems la)⁴ sems kyi rjes su lta źin gnas pa na | sñin rje chen po thob paḥi phyir sems ñe bar ḥbrel par byed de | sñin rje chen po thob pas sems can thams cad yons su smin par bya baḥi phyir⁵ yons su mi skyoḥo⁶ || sems la sems kyi rjes su lta źin gnas pa na | sems zad pa dan sems ḥgog par bya baḥi phyir sems gnas par mi byed kyi | ḥkhor baḥi rgyun gyi kun tu⁷ sbyor ba rnams kyis sems mnon par sgrub ste | sems kyi dran pa śes pa de ma skyes pa dan mi skye ba nes par gyur pa la źugs paḥi chos rnams kyis gnas te | ñan thos dan ran sans rgyas kyi sar yan mi ltun no || sans rgyas kyi chos thams cad yons su rdzogs par ma gyur kyi bar du | sems kyi rgyud de rgyun chags par byed de | sems kyi skad cig gcig dan ldan paḥi śes rab kyis bla na med pa yan dag par rdzogs paḥi byan chub mnon par rdzogs par ḥtshan rgya ste | śā riḥi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ sems la sems kyi rjes su lta ba⁸ dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom mo ||

2.8.4

śā riḥi bu ji ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ chos la chos kyi rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom pa yin źe na | śā riḥi bu ḥdi la byan chub sems dpas ḥphags paḥi śes rab kyi mig gis chos gan (659) mthon ba de dag byan chub kyi sñin poḥi bar du bar ma dor rmons par mi

^{1.} P bsñen par byed pa (also in the next occurrence of the phrase 'ñe bar sbyor ba').

^{2.} DNPR źiń.

^{3.} P no bo ñid du, for D N R ran bźin gyi.

^{4.} Given in Akn (p. 68.2.1).

^{5.} DNR bya ba la.

N skveho.

^{7.} P hkhor ba dan hbrel cin; R hkhor bahi rgyun gyi kun nas.

^{8.} DNPR źin.

^{9.} P sñin po tshun chad kyi bar du, for D N R sñin pohi bar du bar ma dor.

hgyur te | de chos la chos kyi rjes su lta źiń gnas pa na | gań stoń pa ñid du ma gtogs pa dań | mtshan ma med par ma gtogs pa dań | smon pa med par ma gtogs pa dań | mi skye bar ma gtogs pa dań | ma skyes par ma gtogs pa dań | mnon par hdu mi byed par ma gtogs pa dań | dnos po med par ma gtogs pahi chos rdul tsam¹ yań mi mthoń no ||

gan rten cin hbrel par hbyun bar ma gtogs pahi chos rdul tsam yan dag par rjes su mi mthon no || byan chub sems dpah de chos la chos kyi rjes su lta źin gnas pa na | chos ñid yan dag par rjes su mthon gi | chos ma yin pa mi mthon no ||

de la chos gan ze na | ḥdi lta ste | bdag med paḥi don dan | sems can med paḥi don dan | srog med paḥi don dan | gan zag med paḥi don te | de ni chos zes byaḥo ||

de la chos ma yin pa gan ze na | ḥdi lta ste | bdag du lta ba dan | sems can du lta ba dan | srog tu lta ba dan | gan zag tu lta ba dan | chad par lta ba dan | rtag par lta ba dan | ḥbyun bar lta ba dan | ḥjig par lta ba dan | de ni chos ma yin pa zes byaḥo ||

yan śā riḥi bu chos thams cad chos so || chos thams cad² chos ma yin paḥo || de ciḥi phyir (660) źe na | ston pa ñid dan | mtshan ma med pa dan | smon pa med pa śes paḥi phyir chos thams cad chos so || bdag dan bdag gir lta baḥi bag la ñal baḥi phyir chos thams cad chos ma yin paḥo ||

de la byan chub sems dpaḥ³ chos la chos rjes su lta źin gnas pa na | chos de dag la gan yan sans rgyas kyi chos ma yin pa gan las byan chub tu mi ḥgyur ba dan⁴ | gan las sans rgyas su mi ḥgyur ba dan | gan las lam du mi ḥgyur ba dan | gan las thar par mi ḥgyur ba dan | gan las ḥbyun bar mi ḥgyur baḥi chos rdul tsam yan mi mthon ste | de chos thams cad ḥbyun bar śes nas sgrib pa med pa źes bya baḥi sñin rje chen po ḥthob ste | sems can thams cad kyi kun nas ñon mons pa⁵ yan de dag ñon mons pa dan bcas pa ma yin gyi | de dag ñon mons pa med paḥo źes bcos mar ḥdu śes skyed do ||6

de cihi phyir że na | de ltar de dag ni nes pahi don la yan dag par hjug pa ste | ñon mons pa rnams la bsags pa ham | phun pohi dnos po⁷ med de | de dag ñid rjes su rtogs pahi phyir

^{1.} P phra rab tsam (also in all subsequent occurrences of the phrase 'rdul tsam').

^{2.} Nadd: ni.

^{3.} N dpahi.

^{4.} Pom: ba dan (also in the next three occurrences of the phrase 'mi hgyur ba dan').

⁵ D P add: la

^{6.} yathā tāvad atrāha | dharme dharmānudarśī viharan bodhisattvo na kañcid dharmam samanupaśyati | yato na buddhadharmā yato na bodhiḥ | yato na mārgo | yato na niḥsaraṇam | sa sarvadharmāniḥsaraṇam iti | viditva 'nāvaraṇam nāma mahākaruṇāsamādhim samāpadyate | sa sarvadharmeṣu sarvakleśeṣu ca kṛtrim asamijñām pratilabhate | niḥkleśā ete dharmā | na ete sakleśāḥ | tat kasya hetoḥ | tathā hy ete nītārthe samavasaranti nāsti kleśānām saṃcayo | na rāśībhāvaḥ | na rāgabhāvo na dveṣabhāvo na mohabhāva | eṣām eva kleśānām avabodhād bodhiḥ | yat svabhāvaś ca kleśās tat svabhāvā bodhir ity evaṃ smṛtim upaṣthāpayati iti || (Akn as cited in Śiks, p. 236.6–13).

⁷ Nom: hi dnos po.

byan chub po || ñon mons paḥi ran bźin gan yin pa byan chub kyi ran bźin yan de yin no || byan chub kyi ran bźin gan yin pa ñon mons paḥi ran bźin yan de yin te | de ltar dran pa ñe bar bźag¹ kyan | cun zad kyan ñe bar hjog pa med | rab tu hjog pa med | (661) mi hjog pa med de | chos ñid de gnas pa ñid du rab tu śes so || de bas na chos kyi dbyins de ni gnas pa ñid ces byaḥo || chos kyi dbyins gnas² gan la gnas pa | sems can gyi khams kyan gnas de la gnas so || sems can gyi khams gnas gan la gnas pa | nam mkhaḥi khams kyan gnas de la gnas te | de bas na chos thams cad nam mkhah dan mtshuns źes byaho ||

byan chub sems dpah de chos la chos kyi rjes su lta źin gnas pa na sańs rgyas kyi chos la rton pa yin | chos thams cad sańs rgyas kyi chos su mos par byed de | de zad pa śes pa yań bskyed mod kyi | hdus ma byas pahi zad pa yań mnon du mi byed | mi skye ba śes pa yań mnon par bsgrub [pa] mod kyi | sems can la lta bahi phyir yań skye la | mi skye bahi mthah de yań mi gtoń no || dran pa ñe bar bżag paho żes bya ba ni chos thams cad dran pa de la bżag par byed cin | ñan thos sam | rań sańs rgyas sam | sańs rgyas kyi chos ji sñed chos su btags³ pa de dag thams cad ma lus par dran pa de la bżag ste | dran pa de yań brjed⁴ par mi byed | phyi mahi mthahi bar du rmońs par mi byed do ||

chos la chos kyi rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe bar bźag paḥo żes bya ba de ni bstan pa dpag tu med pa ste | kun tu spyod yul ma yin pa | saṅs rgyas kyi chos thams cad la (662) yaṅ dag par ḥdu ba⁵ | sems can thams cad kyi sems tshim par byed pa | bdud thams cad ḥdul ba | raṅ byuṅ ba rtogs pahi phyir te |

śā rihi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpah chos la chos kyi rjes su lta ba dran pa ñe bar bźag pa sgom mo || de dag ni dran pa ñe bar bźag pa bźi źes byaho ||

śā riḥi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ dran pa ñe bar bźag pa bźi po de dag la mkhas pa śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

2.9

de la byan chub sems dpah rnams kyi byan chub kyi yan lag la mkhas pa gan źe na | byan chub sems dpah rnams kyi byan chub kyi yan lag hdi bdun te | bdun gan źe na | hdi lta ste | dran pa yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag dan | chos rnam par hbyed pa yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag dan | brtson hgrus yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag dan | dgah ba yan dag byan chub

^{1.} DPR gźog; N gźag.

N add: pa.

^{3.} D bdags; N P gdags.

^{4.} P brjod.

^{5.} D R yan dag par hdu ba; N yan dag par hdul ba; P yan dag par rjes su hjug pa.

kyi yan lag dan | śin tu sbyans pa yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag dan | tin ne hdzin yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag dan | btan snoms yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag ste | śā rihi bu de dag ni byan chub sems dpah rnams kyi byan chub kyi yan lag bdun no ||

de la dran pa yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag gan źe na | dran pa gan gis chos rtog par byed | chos la so sor rtog par byed | chos la dpyod par byed | chos (663) yons su tshol bar byed cin | chos rnam par hbyed par byed pa dan | chos la rnam par rtog par byed de | de dran pa des gan chos rnams kyi no bo ñid kyi mtshan ñid de yan rjes su rtogs so || yan chos rnams kyi no bo ñid kyi mtshan ñid de yan rjes su rtogs so || yan chos rnams kyi no bo ñid kyi mtshan ñid ses pa gan źe na | chos thams cad ran gi mtshan ñid kyi¹ ston pa ste | gan de ltar dran źin khon du chud pa de ni dran pa yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag ces byaho ||

de la chos rnam par hbyed pa yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag gan ze na | gan chos kyi phun po brgyad khri bzi ston rab tu rnam par hbyed pa ses pa ste | nes pahi don kyan nes pahi don du | dran bahi don kyan dran bahi don du | kun rdzob kyi don kyan kun rdzob kyi don du | don dam pahi don kyan don dam pahi don du² | brdahi kyan brdahi | rnam par gtan la bab pahi kyan rnam par gtan la bab pahi chos de dag ji ltar rab tu dbye bar bya ba de bzin du | de dag rnam par hbyed par byed de | de ni chos rnam par hbyed pa yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag ces byaho ||

de la brtson ḥgrus yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag gan źe na | gan chos rnam par ḥbyed pa de ñid kyi dgaḥ ba dan | śin tu sbyans pa dan | tin ne ḥdzin dan | btan sñoms dan | ye śes kyi bar du ḥdzin pa dan | spro ba dan | stobs dan | rtul ba dan | mi zlogs paḥi mos pa dan | mthu dan | brtson pa mi ḥdor ba dan | (664) lam mnon par rtogs paḥi phyir brtson ḥgrus rtsom pa ste | de ni brtson ḥgrus yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag ces byaḥo ||

de la dgaḥ ba yaṅ dag byaṅ chub kyi yan lag gaṅ źe na | dgaḥ ba gaṅ daṅ | chos la dgaḥ ba gaṅ daṅ | chos la mchog tu⁷ dgaḥ ba gaṅ gis sems mi źum źiṅ daṅ ba ste | ma źum paḥi dgaḥ ba des gaṅ lus sam | sems kyaṅ śin tu byaṅ bar⁸ byed la | kun nas ñon moṅs pa yaṅ sel ba de ni dgaḥ ba yaṅ dag byaṅ chub kyi yan lag ces byaḥo ||

de la śin tu sbyańs pa yań dag byań chub kyi yan lag gań że na | gań lus śin tu sbyańs pa

DNP kyis.

^{2.} Akn D don dam pa yan don dam par; P R don dam pahi don kyan don dam pahi don du.

^{3.} P mtshan ma yan mtshan mar mam par gdon mi za ba dan | mam par gdon mi za bar, for D N R brdahan brdar | mam par gtan la bab pa yan mam par gtan la bab par.

^{4.} P brtson hgrus mi gton ba dan.

^{5.} DNR nogs par bya ba la.

P om: rtsom.

^{7.} P rab tu.

^{8.} P spyod par, for D N R sin tu byan bar.

dan | sems śin tu sbyańs pa dan | ñon mons pa śin tu sbyańs pa dan | sgrib¹ pa med pa dan | tin ne hdzin du dmigs pa la sems ñe bar gźag pa ste | de ni śin tu sbyańs pa yan dag byań chub kyi yan lag ces byaho ||

de la tin ne hdzin yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag gan ze na | gan sems mñam par gzag pas² chos ses pa rtogs par hgyur gyi³ | sems mñam par ma gzag pas ni ma yin pa dan | sems mñam par gzag pas⁴ chos de dag mnon par rdzogs par htshan rgyahi | sems mñam par ma bzag pas ma yin te | chos mñam pa ñid dan | chos la gzol ba ma gtogs par rjes su chags pahi kun nas dkris pas rtogs par mi byed de⁵ | de ni tin ne (665) hdzin yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag ces byaho ||

de la btan sñoms yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag gan źe na | gan yid bde ba dan | gan yid mi bde baḥi cha dan ḥthun paḥi chos rnams la sems mi ḥdzin pa dan | ḥjig rten gyi chos kyis mi ḥphrogs pa dan | mtho dman du mi gnas paḥi phyir rab tu mi g.yo (ro) || mi ḥkhrug | rab tu mi ḥkhrug | yan dag par mi ḥkhrug | chags par mi byed | źe sdan bar mi byed kyi | ḥphags paḥi lam de ñid dan ḥthun par byed pa ste | de ni btan sñoms yan dag byan chub kyi yan lag ces byaḥo ||

 $\delta \bar{a}$ rihi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpah rnams kyi⁹ byan chub kyi yan lag de bdun la mkhas pa δe s rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do \parallel^{10}

2.10

2.10.1

de la byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi lam la mkhas pa gan źe na | byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi lam ni ḥdi brgyad do || brgyad gan źe na | ḥdi lta ste | yan dag paḥi lta ba dan | yan dag paḥi rtog pa dan | yan dag paḥi nag dan | yan dag paḥi las kyi mthaḥ dan | yan dag paḥi

^{1.} N sgribs; P R bsgribs.

^{2.} R ma bźag pas, for D N P bźag pas.

^{3.} DRN te.

^{4.} R ma bźag pa.

P Ita ba bag la ñal dan kun nas bskor ba de dag spans kyan mnon par rdzogs par htshan mi rgya ba, for D N R rjes su chags pahi kun nas dkris pas rtogs par mi byed de.

^{6.} DPR om: gan.

^{7.} P yid mi bde ba stan pa la phan pahi chos.

^{8.} N mthon.

^{9.} DPR om; rnams kyi.

^{10.} P add: hphag pa byan chub sems dpahi sde snod ces bya theg pa chen pohi mdo || bam po cu dgu pa; D has 'bam po bcu dgu pa' only.

htsho ba dan | yan dag paḥi rtsol ba¹ dan | yan dag paḥi dran pa dan | yan dag paḥi tin ne hdzin te | de dag ni byan chub sems dpah rnams kyi lam yan lag brgyad paho ||

de la yan (666) dag paḥi lta ba gan źe na | lta ba gan ḥphags pa ḥjig rten las ḥdas pa ste | bdag tu lta ba las lans pa ma yin | sems can du lta ba las lans pa ma yin | srog tu lta ba las lans pa ma yin | gan zag tu lta ba las lans pa ma yin | chad pa dan | rtag pa dan | ḥbyun ba dan | ḥjig par lta ba las lans pa ma yin | dge ba dan mi dge bar lta ba las lans pa ma yin pa nas | mya nan las ḥdas par lta baḥi bar las² lans pa ma yin pa ste | de ni yan dag paḥi lta ba źes byaḥo ||

de la yan dag paḥi rtog pa gan źe na | rtog pa³ gan gis ḥdod chags dan | źe sdan | gti mug la sogs paḥi ñon mons pa gnas par ḥgyur baḥi rtog pa de ldan bar mi byed⁴ kyi | rtog pa gan gis tshul khrims dan | tin ne ḥdzin dan | śes rab dan | rnam par grol ba dan | rnam par grol baḥi ye śes mthon ba ḥbyun bar ḥgyur ba de la rtog pa ste | de ni yan dag paḥi rtog pa źes byaḥo ||

de la yan dag paḥi nag gan źe na | yan dag paḥi nag⁵ gan gis bdag dan gźan la mi gdun źin | de phan paḥi rjes su sbyor baḥi nag dan ldan pa yin te | nag des lam mñam pa la ḥjug pa (ste) | de ni yan dag paḥi nag ces byaḥo ||

de la yan dag paḥi las kyi mthaḥ gan ze na | gan las (667) gnag la⁶ rnam par smin pa gnag pa de lta bu mnon par ḥdu mi byed pa dan | gan las dkar la⁷ rnam par smin pa dkar ba de lta buḥi las mnon par ḥdu byed pa dan | gan las dkar gnag la rnam par smin pa dkar gnag tu ḥgyur ba⁸ de lta buḥi las mnon par ḥdu mi byed pa dan | gan las dkar gnag ma yin (pa) la rnam par smin par mi ḥgyur ba las zad par ḥgyur ba de lta buḥi las mnon par ḥdu byed pa ste | de las bdag gir bya ba la⁹ rton pa yan dag paḥi las la brtson (pa ste | de ni)¹⁰ yan dag paḥi las kyi mthaḥ zes byaḥo ||

de la yan dag paḥi ḥtsho ba gan źe na | gan ḥphags paḥi rigs dan | sbyans paḥi yon tan mi gton ba dan | kha gsag¹¹ med pa dan | tshul ḥchos pa med pa | thob kyis ḥjal ba¹² med pa dan | dgan sla ba dan | gso sla ba dan | cho ga mi lhod pa dan | gźan gyi rñed pa la phrag dog med

^{1.} P hbad pa.

^{2.} Akn (p. 70.4.8) hdas par lta bahi bar las; D N R hdas par lta ba las; P hdas pahi bar lta ba las.

N om: pa

^{4.} P hgyur.

D R om: nag.

^{6.} P po.

^{7.} P po.

P om: tu ḥgyur ba.

^{9.} P de ran gi las (...) byun ba las, for D N R de las bdag gir bya ba la.

^{10.} DNPR pas.

^{11.} N bsag.

^{12.} P gźog slońs, for D N R thob kyis hjal ba.

pa dan | bdag gi rñed pas chog ses pa dan | kha na ma tho ba med pa dan | hphags pas gnan bahi htsho ba ste | de ni yan dag pahi htsho ba zes byaho ||

de la yan dag paḥi rtsol ba gan źe na | rtsol ba gan¹ log par spyod par bśad pa ḥdod chags dan | źe sdan dan | gti mug gi² ñon mons pa bag la ñal baḥi rtsol ba de mi ḥdod kyi | rtsol ba gan ḥphags paḥi lam dan bden pa la hjug pa mya nan las ḥdas par ḥgro baḥi lam du hjug par³ byed paḥi rtsol ba deḥi rjes su ḥgro ba ste | de ni yan (668) dag paḥi rtsol ba źes byaḥo ||

de la yan dag paḥi dran pa gan źe na | dran pa gan śin tu ñe bar gźag⁴ pa dan | tha mal pa ma yin pa dan | dran ba dan | gya gyu med pa dan | hkhor bahi ñes pa dan skyon la lta ba dan | mya nan las hdas paḥi lam du hdren paḥi dran pa dan | dran par byed pa dan | hphags paḥi lam mi brjed pa ste | de ni yan dag paḥi dran pa źes byaho ||

de la yaṅ dag paḥi tin ne ḥdzin gaṅ że na | yaṅ dag pa ñid du ḥjug ste | chos thams cad la mñam pa ste | tin ne ḥdzin de la rab tu gnas na yaṅ dag pa ñid du ḥjug ste | gaṅ yaṅ byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi tin ne ḥdzin de la gnas na sems can thams cad rab tu thar par bya baḥi phyir | yaṅ dag pa ñid du ḥjug pa de ni yaṅ dag paḥi tin ne ḥdzin źes byaḥo || ḥdas pa daṅ | ma byon pa daṅ | da ltar byuṅ baḥi saṅs rgyas bcom ldan ḥdas rnams kyi lam mi zad pa ḥdi byaṅ chub sems dpas mnon par rtogs nas ḥchad pa daṅ | ston pa daṅ | yaṅ dag par rab tu ston pa | de ni yaṅ dag paḥi tin ne ḥdzin źes byaḥo || 9

^{1.} Nom: gan.

^{2.} R gan; D dan.

^{3.} DR lam du hjug par; N lam du hjog par; P nan tan gton bar.

^{4.} DNPR gźog.

^{5.} P yan dag par (also in the next occurrence of the term 'yan dag da ñid du').

^{6.} P yan dag pahi mi hgyur ba la hiug par byed de, for D N R yan dag pa fiid du hiug ste.

^{7.} N nas.

⁸ Akn (p. 71.1.6) 'tin ne hdzin' for Bdp 'lam'.

tad yathā samyagdrstih samyaksamkalpah samyagvāk samyakkarmāntah samyagājivah samyaksmrtih samyaksamādhiśca || tatra katamā samyagdṛṣṭiḥ | yā lokottarā $n\overline{a}tm\overline{a}drstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapurusanapudgalanamanujanam\overline{a}navadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapurusanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapurusanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapurusanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapurusanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapurusanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapurusanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapurusanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapurusanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapurusanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthit\overline{a}nasattvanaj\overline{i}vanaposanapudgalanamanujanamanavadrstisamutthita$ nocchedaśāśvatadṛṣṭisamutthitā na bhavavibhavadṛṣṭisamutthitā na kuśalākuśalāvyākṛtadṛṣṭisamutthitā yā ca na samsāranirvāṇadṛṣṭisamutthitā | iyamucyate samyagdṛṣṭih || tatra katamah samyaksamkalpaḥ | yaih samkalpai rāgadvesamohakleśāh samuttisthanti | tān samkalpān na samkalpayati | yaih samkalpaih śilasamādhiprajñāvimuktijñānadarśanaskandha samuttisthanti | tān samkalpān samkalpayati | ayamucyate samyaksamkalpah || tatra katamā samyagyāk | yayā vācā nātmānam na parāmśca tāpayati nātmānam na parāmsca klesayati nātmānam na parāmsca upakaroti tayā āryayuktānukulyā vācā samādhiprītivacanairyukto bhavati | iyamucyate samayagvāk || tatra katamah samyakkarmāntah | yatkarma krsnam krsnavipākam tatkarma nābhisamskaroti | yatkarma suklavipākam tatkarmābhisamskaroti | yatkarma śulkakrsnam vartate śulkakrsnavipākam vartate tatkarma nābhisamskaroti | yatkarma krsnaśulkavipākam krsnaksayāya samvartate tatkarmābhisamskaroti | satkarmābhisamskaroti satkarmapratisaranakarmantah | iyamucyate samayakkarmantah || tatra katamah samyagajivah | yada āryavamšena gunasamlekhānutsarjanatā na kuhanatā na lapanatā na naispesikatā śuratācāraśīlatā paralābhesu na īrsyā ātmalābhasantustih anavadyatā āryānumatānavadyājīvikā | ayamucyate samayagājīvaḥ || tatra katamaḥ samyagvyāyāmaḥ | yo vyāyāmo mithyā yasmādrāgadveṣamohā anuśerate tam vyāyāmam necchati | yo vyāyāmah samyagāryamārgasatyāvatāro nirvānagāmi pratipadarpayati tam vyāyāmam samanugacchati | ayamucyate samayagvyāyāmah || tatra katamā samyaksmṛtih | yā supasthitā aprakampyā rjukā akutilā samsāradvesādinavadarsikā nirvāņapathapraņetrī smrtih

de dag ni byan chub sems dpah rnams kyi lam yan lag brgyad pa źes bya ste | de ni byan chub sems dpahi lam la mkhas paho || bam po bcu dgu pa ||¹

2.10.2

gźan yaṅ lam la mkhas pa ni byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi lam yan lag gñis pa ste | yan lag gñis gaṅ źe na | ḥdi lta ste | źi (669) gnas daṅ | lhag mthoṅ ste | de ni lam yan lag gñis pa źes byaho ||

de la źi gnas gań że na | gań sems kyi źi ba dań | rab tu źi ba dań | ñe bar źi ba dań | mi g.yeń ba dań | dbań po rnams bsdams pa dań | mi rgod pa dań | ma kheńs pa dań | mi ḥphyar ba dań | mu cor mi smra ba dań | des² pa dań | sbas pa dań | g.yo (ba) med pa dań | yid du hoń ba dań | gcig pur dgaḥ ba dań | hdu hdzi sel ba dań | dben par dgaḥ ba dań | lus dben pa dań | sems ma hkhrul ba³ dań | dgon paḥi sgo yid la byed pa dań | chog śes pa dań | hdod pa ñuń ba dań | htsho ba yońs su dag pa dań | cho ga phun sum tshogs pa dań | spyod lam sbas pa dań | dus śes pa dań | tshod śes pa dań | drod⁴ śes pa dań | dgań sla ba dań | gso sla ba dań | so sor rtog pa dań | mi mtho mi dmaḥ ba dań | tshig nan pa smras pa bzod pa dań | rnal hbyor gyi sgor sems skyed pa dań | nań du yań dag hjog la mnon par dgaḥ ba dań | bsam gtan gyi yan lag yid la byed pa dań | byams pa skyed pa dań | sñiń rje mnon par sgrub pa dań | dgaḥ ba la gnas pa dań | btań sñoms sgom pa dań | bsam gtan dań po nas | brgyad kyi bar du mthar gyis sñoms par hjug pa ste | de ni źi gnas źes byaho || yań⁵ źi gnas kyi tshogs tshad med pa ste | tshogs de la⁶ gań rjes su rtogs pa de ni źi gnas źes byaho || (670)

de la lhag mthon gan že na | gan šes rab kyi cha dan ḥthun paḥi⁷ sgom paḥi lam ste | chos rnams la g.yo ba med pa dan | sems can med pa dan | srog med pa dan | gan zag med pa dan | phun po rnams la sgyu maḥi phun por mthon baḥi šes pa dan | khams rnams la chos kyi khams su mthon baḥi šes pa dan | skye mched rnams la gron ston par mthon baḥi šes pa dan | mig la rab tu rnam par phye bar mthon baḥi šes pa dan | rten cin ḥbrel par ḥbyun ba la mi ḥgal bar mthon baḥi šes pa dan | sems can du lta ba dan bral bar mthon baḥi šes pa dan | rgyu

spharaṇamāryamārgāsaṃmoṣaḥ | iyamucyate samayaksmṛtiḥ || tatra katamaḥ samyaksamādhiḥ | yaḥ samyaktvena samādhiḥ | yasmin samādhau sthitaḥ sarvasattvapramokṣāya samyak sthiratvaṃ niyāmamavakrāmati | ayamucyate samayaksamādhiḥ || ayamucyate āryāṣṭāngo mārgaḥ || (Arthav (S), appendix, pp. 320–322)

^{1.} D P om: 'bam po bcu dgu pa' at this place.

^{2.} P mñen.

P hkhrug pa.

P ñid tshod.

^{5.} N gan.

^{6.} Plas.

^{7.} P cha la phan pahi, for D N R cha dan hthun pahi.

dan hbras bu rnam par smin pa mthon baḥi śes pa dan | hbras bu thob pa mnon sum du bya ba mthon baḥi śes pa dan | yan dag pa ñid du hjug pa la hjug par byed pa¹ mthon baḥi śes paḥo

yan lhag mthon źes bya ba ni | hdi lta ste | chos rnams ji lta ba bźin tu mthon ba dan | chos rnams kyi² de kho na ñid mthon ba dan | chos rnams kyi gźan ma yin pa ñid mthon ba dan | chos rnams kyi ston pa ñid mthon ba dan | mtshan ma med pa mthon ba dan | smon pa med pa mthon baḥo || yan lhag mthon źes bya ba ni rgyus mthon ba med pa dan | rgyu med par mthon ba med pa dan | skye ba dan | hjig pa dan | gnas paḥi rgyus mthon ba med pa dan | dmigs paḥi rgyus mthon ba med cin lhag par mthon (671) yan | cun zad kyan³ lhag par mi mthon baho ||

gźan yaṅ lhag mthon ni mthon bas kyaṅ mthon la | mthon ba yaṅ mi mthon ba ste | gaṅ gi tshe de ltar mthon ba deḥi tshe yaṅ dag par mthon baḥo || yaṅ dag par mthon na lhag mthon la mkhas pa yaṅ rjes su ḥthob ste | de la byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi lhag mthon la | mnon par ḥdu byed par yaṅ mi ltun źiṅ | dge baḥi rtsa ba mnon par ḥdu byed pa la yaṅ mi gnas te | de ni byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi lhag mthon no ||

de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ źi gnas dan | lhag mthon la mkhas pa śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

2.10.3

gźan yaṅ lam la mkhas pa ni byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi lam rnam pa bźi ste | rnam pa bźi gaṅ źe na | ḥdi lta ste | sdig pa mi dge baḥi chos ma skyes pa rnams mi skyed paḥi phyir ḥdun pa skyed | ḥbad bar byed | brtson ḥgrus rtsom | sems rab tu ḥdzin | yaṅ dag par rab tu ḥjog go ||⁷ sdig pa mi dge baḥi chos⁸ skyes pa rnams spaṅ baḥi phyir ḥdun pa skyed | ḥbad bar byed | brtson ḥgrus rtsom | sems rab tu ḥdzin | yaṅ dag par rab tu ḥjog go || dge baḥi chos ma skyes pa rnams bskyed paḥi phyir ḥdun pa skyed | ḥbad bar byed | brtson ḥgrus rtsom | sems rab tu ḥdzin | yaṅ dag par rab tu (672) ḥjog go || dge baḥi chos skyes pa rnams gnas pa

^{1.} P yan dag paḥi mi hgyur ba la hjug pa.

^{2.} Nom: kyi.

^{3.} Nom: kyan.

^{4.} DNR blta.

N add: de ltar mthon.

^{6.} P skye bar dad pa skyed, for D N R skyed paḥi phyir ḥdun pa skye (also in all subsequent occurrences of this phrase, with 'paḥi/baḥi phyir ḥdun pa skyed' being invaribaly replaced by the phrase 'par/bar dad pa skyed').

^{7.} P smon lam yan dag par rab tu hdebs pa dan, for D N R yan dag par rab tu hjog pa dan (also in the three subsequent occurrences of this phrase in this section).

^{8.} D R om: chos.

dan | phyir źin hbyun ba dan | ñams par mi hgyur ba dan | chud mi za bar bya bahi phyir hdun pa skyed | hbad bar byed | brtson hgrus rtsom | sems rab tu hdzin | yan dag par rab tu hjog paho ||

gan sdig pa mi dge baḥi chos ma skyes pa rnams mi skyed paḥi phyir ḥdun pa skyed ces bya ba ni tshul bźin yid la byed paḥi tshig bla dags so || ḥbad par byed | brtson ḥgrus rtsom źes bya ba ni tshul bźin yid la byed pa de mi gton ba(ḥi tshig bla dags so)² || sems rab tu ḥdzin | yan dag par rab tu ḥjog ces bya ba ni tshul³ bźin la so sor rtog paḥi tshig bla dags so || de ciḥi phyir źe na | tshul bźin la rab tu sbyor ba ni mi dge baḥi chos rnams mi ḥbyun baḥi⁴ phyir ro ||

de la mi dge baḥi chos rnams gan ze na | ḥdi lta ste | tshul khrims kyi mi ḥthun paḥi phyogs dan | tin ne ḥdzin gyi mi ḥthun paḥi phyogs dan | ses rab kyi mi ḥthun paḥi phyogs so ||

de la tshul khrims kyi mi hthun pahi phyogs gan že na | hdi lta ste | tshul khrims ñams pa dan | gan gźan la la⁶ tshul khrims ñams par hgyur bahi chos rnams (tshul khrims kyi phun pohi mi hthun pahi phyogs)⁷ te | de ni tshul khrims kyi mi hthun pahi phyogs žes byaho ||

de la tin ne hdzin gyi mi hthun pahi phyogs gan ze na | gan cho ga ñams pa dan | gan gzan la la sems g.yen bar byed pahi chos tin ne hdzin gyi phun pohi mi hthun pahi phyogs te | de ni tin (673) ne hdzin gyi mi hthun pahi phyogs zes byaho ||8

de la ses rab kyi mi ḥthun paḥi phyogs gan że na | ḥdi lta ste | lta ba ñams pa dan | gan gźan la la lta ba kun nas ldan baḥi⁹ sgrib par byed paḥi chos [gan] | ses rab kyi phun poḥi mi ḥthun paḥi phyogs de ni ses rab kyi mi ḥthun paḥi phyogs źes bya ste | de ni sdig pa mi dge bahi chos rnams źes byaho ||

tshul bžin yid la byed pa gan gis sdig pa mi dge baḥi chos de lta bu de dag span baḥi phyir ḥdun pa skyed | ḥbad par byed | brtson ḥgrus rtsom | sems rab tu ḥdzin | yan dag par rab tu

P sgom pa mi brjed pa dan | ma stor bar dad pa skyed, for D N R phyir źin hbyun ba dan | ñams par mi hgyur ba dan | chud mi za bar bya bahi phyir hdun pa skyed (also in partially corresponding passages below).

^{2.} Akn (p. 68.5.6) reads 'yid la byed pahi tshig bla dags so'. Bdp reads 'yid la byed pa de mi gton baho'.

N add: yid.

^{4.} P rgyu bar mi hgyur bahi, for D N R mi hbyun bahi.

^{5.} P log pahi gñen po, for D N R mi hthun pahi phyogs (also in all subsequent occurrences of this phrase in this section).

^{6.} P gan gáan yan la la (also in the following two occurrences of this phrase).

^{7.} Given in Akn (p. 69.1.1); see also the following parallel phrases in the Bdp.

^{8. [}pāpakānām akuśalānām dharmaṇām prahāṇāya chandam janayatotyatra prastāve yāni cānyāni punah] kānicid anyāny api cittavikṣepakarāṇi yāni samādhiskandhasya vipakṣāya saṃvartante | ayam ucyante samādhivipakṣah | yāvad ime ucyante pāpakā | akuśalā | dharmā iti || (Akn as cited in Siks, p. 117.13–16).

⁹ NR ba.

hjog pa ste | de bas na mi dge bahi chos de dag sems la phun por gyur pa ma yin | yul na mi gnas | phyogs na mi gnas so ||

gan yan mi dge baḥi chos de rnams sems la rgyu ba sdug paḥi¹ rnam pas ḥdod chags sam | khon khro baḥi rnam pas źe sdan nam | ma rig paḥi rnam pas gti mug gam | rgyu dan sgrib pa gan dag las byun ba śes śin | de la tshul bźin yid la byed paḥi rnam pa mi gtsan bas ḥdod chags źi bar byed | byams pas źe sdan źi bar byed | rten cin ḥbrel par ḥbyun bas gti mug źi bar byed de | gan kun nas non mons pa de dag źi ba de ni tha snad du btags paḥi phyir spon ba źes byaḥo || gan spon ba (674) ni gan yan rned par mi ḥgyur ro || mnam pa nid kyis² chos thams cad mnon sum pas [na] deḥi phyir³ yan dag par spon ba źes bya ste | de ni yan dag par spon ba gnis paḥo ||

gan yan dge baḥi chos ma skyes pa rnams skyed paḥi phyir ḥdun pa skyed | ḥbad par byed | brtson ḥgrus rtsom | sems rab tu ḥdzin | yan dag par rab tu ḥjog pa źes bya ba de ni gnas⁴ tshad med pa ste | de ciḥi phyir źe na | gan byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen pos yan dag par bsgrub par⁵ bya baḥi dge baḥi chos tshad med paḥi phyir ro ||

de la ḥdun pa ni dge baḥi rtsa ba thams cad kyi rtsa baḥo || brtson ḥgrus yan dag par bsgrub pa ni dge baḥi rtsa ba thams cad kyi rtsa baḥo || sems rab tu ḥdzin pa ñams su len par byed pa⁶ de ni dge baḥi rtsa ba thams cad kyi rtsa ba ste | de ni yan dag par spon ba gsum paḥo ||

gan yan dge baḥi chos skyes pa rnams gnas pa dan | ñams par mi ḥgyur ba dan | chud mi za bar bya baḥi phyir ḥdun pa skyed | ḥbad par byed | brtson ḥgrus rtsom | sems rab tu ḥdzin | yan dag par rab tu ḥjog ces bya ba de ni dge baḥi rtsa ba byan chub tu bsnos paḥi tshig bla dags so || de ciḥi phyir źe na | dge baḥi rtsa ba byan chub tu bsnos pa ni mthaḥ byan chub kyi snin poḥi rab tu slar chud za bar mi ḥgyur ro || de ciḥi phyir źe na | de ltar khams gsum la mi gnas par sems skyed paḥi phyir ro || (675) gan khams gsum la gnas paḥi dge baḥi rtsa ba de ni zad par ḥgyur ro || de ciḥi phyir źe na | de ltar sems bskyed pa de ni khams gsum la² gnas paḥi phyir ro || gan yan dge baḥi rtsa ba khams gsum la mi gnas pa thams cad mkhyen par bsnos pa de ni zad par mi ḥgyur te² | de ni yan dag par spon ba bźi paḥo ||

^{1.} P rgyu ba gtsan pahi, for D rgyu bahi sdug pahi.

^{2.} N kyi.

^{3.} D P add: phyir.

^{4.} P tshig.

^{5.} P bsdu bar, for D N R yan dag par bsgrub par (also in the next occurrence of the term 'yan dag par sgrub na').

^{6.} P sgrol ba, for D N fiams su lon par byed pa (also in all subsequent occurrences of the term 'fiams su len par byed pa').

^{7.} N om: gnas par sems skyed paḥi phyir ro || gan khams gsum la gnas paḥi dge baḥi rtsa ba de ni zad par hgyur ro || de ciḥi phyir ze na | de ltar sems bskyed pa de ni khams gsum la.

^{8.} DNR de la zad pa gan yan med de.

de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ lam yan lag bźi pa la mkhas pa śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

2.10.4

gźan yaṅ lam la mkhas pa ni byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi lam yan lag lha pa ste | lha gaṅ źe na | ḥdi lta ste | dad paḥi dbaṅ po daṅ | brtson ḥgrus kyi dbaṅ po daṅ | dran paḥi dbaṅ po daṅ | tin ne ḥdzin gyi dbaṅ po daṅ | śes rab kyi dbaṅ po ste |

de la dad paḥi dban po gan źe na | dad pa gan gis chos bźi la dad par byed pa ste | bźi gan źe na |

- (1) hkhor ba na spyod paḥi hjig rten paḥi¹ yan dag par lta ba la mnon par dad de | de las kyi rnam par smin pa la rton pa yin te | srog gi phyir yan sdig paḥi las mi byed pa dan |
- (2) byań chub sems dpaḥi spyod pa la yań dad de | spyod pa la źugs pa de theg pa gźan la ḥdod par mi byed pa dań |
- (3) don dam pa nes paḥi don dan | rten cin hbrel par hbyun ba zab mo dan | sems can la rnam par dpyod pa² dan | ston pa nid dan | mtshan (676) ma med paḥi mtshan nid kyi chos thams cad la dad de | lta bar byas pa³ thams cad bag la nal bar mi byed pa dan |
- (4) sańs rgyas kyi chos thams cad dań | stobs dań | mi hjigs pa mams la dad ciń thos nas the tsom med de⁴ | nem nur med par chos de rnams sdud par byed pa de ni dad pahi dbań po źes byaho ||

de la brtson hgrus kyi dban po gan źe na | chos gan la dad pa de brtson hgrus kyi dban pos skyed par byed pa ste | de ni brtson hgrus kyi dban po źes byaho || chos gan dag brtson hgrus kyis bsdus pa de dag dran paḥi dban pos chud mi za bar byed pa de ni dran paḥi dban po źes byaho || chos gan dag dran paḥi dban pos chud mi za bar byed paḥi chos de dag tin ne hdzin gyi dban pos rtse gcig tu byed pa de ni tin ne hdzin gyi dban po źes byaho || chos gan dag tin ne hdzin gyi dban pos rtse gcig tu byed pa de dag śes rab kyi dban pos so sor rtog par byed de | gan chos de dag śes pa de ni śes rab kyi dban po źes byaho ||

de ltar na dbañ po lña po de dag lhan gcig tu hbrel pa ste | sañs rgyas kyi chos thams cad yons su rdzogs par byed do || lun bstan paḥi sa yan thob par byed de | ḥdi lta ste | dper na phyi rol kyi mnon par ses pa lña dan ldan pa dag mnal na ḥdug pa | bud med dan skyes paḥi dban por ma gyur kyi bar du mnal na ḥdug pa la lun mi ston pa de (677) bźin du | sańs rgyas bcom

^{1.} P kyi (Akn, p. 86.3.4, gyi)

^{2.} N rnam par spyod pa; P rtog.

D bya ba.

^{4.} DPR med pa; N med.

^{5.} Nom: dag.

^{6.} DNPR pa.

ldan hdas rnams¹ kyan byan chub sems dpah dban po lna po de dag dan² mi ldan gyi bar du lun mi ston te | de ni lam yan lag lna paho ||³

de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ lam yan lag lna pa la mkhas pa śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

2.10.5

gźan yań śā riḥi bu byań chub sems dpaḥ lam yan lag lňa la mkhas pa gaň źe na | yan lag lňa ni | ḥdi lta ste | dad paḥi stobs daň | brtson ḥgrus kyi stobs daň | dran paḥi stobs daň | tiň ňe hdzin gyi stobs daň | śes rab kyi stobs so ||

de la dad paḥi stobs gaṅ źe na | gaṅ mos pa dad pa mgo gcig pa mi brdzi ba ste⁴ | gal te deḥi druṅ du bdud sdig can saṅs rgyas kyi gzugs su bsgyur te ḥoṅs nas | chos kyi ye śes la dad pa gaṅ yaṅ ruṅ ba la la źig gis chos ḥdi dag ni saṅs rgyas kyi chos ma yin no || źes ḥbral bar byed | ḥdun⁵ pa zlog par byed kyaṅ | yoṅs su brtag pa bzuṅ na ḥbyuṅ ba chen po bźi rnams ni gźan du ḥgyur gyi | dad paḥi stobs la mos paḥi⁶ byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ ni de lta bu⁷ ma yin no || de ltar byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi stobs las ḥbral bar mi nus pa de ni dad paḥi stobs so ||

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi brtson ḥgrus kyi stobs gan źe na | gan brtson ḥgrus rtsom źin dge baḥi chos (678) gan dan gan la mnon par sbyor ba de dan de dag la brtan⁸ paḥi stobs kyi mthu thob kyan | gnas der ma bsgral gyi bar du stobs kyi mthu de la lha dan bcas paḥi ḥjig

- 1. P om: rnams.
- 2. Nom: dan.
- katamāni pañca | śraddhendriyam vīryendriyam smrtīndriyam samādhendriyam prajñendriyamiti | tatra katamā śraddhā | yathā śraddhayā caturo dharmān ābhiśraddadhāti | katamāmś caturah | samsārāvacarīm laukikim samyagdıştim śraddadhāti | sa karmavipākapratiśarano bhavati | yad yat karma karisyāmi tasya tasya karmanah phalavipākam pratyanubhavisyāmīti | sa jīvitahetor api pāpam karma na karoti | bodhisattvacārikām abhiśraddadhāti | tat caryāpratipannaś cānyatra yāne spṛhām notpādayati | paramārthanītārtham gambhīrapratītyasamutpāda nairātmyanihsattvanirjīvanihpudgalavyavahārasūnyatānimittāpranihitalaksanān sarvadharmān śrutvā śraddadhāti | sarvadrstikrtāni ca nonuśete sarvabuddhadharmān balavaiśāradyaprabhrtīmś ca śraddadhāti | śraddhāya ca vigatakathamkathastān buddhadharmān samudānayati | idamucyate śraddhendriyam || tatra katamad vīryendriyam | yān dharmān śraddhendriyena śraddadhāti tān dharmān vīryendriyena samudānayatīdam ucyate vīryendriyam || tatra katamat smrtīndriyam | yān dharmān vīryendriyena samudānayati tān dharmān smrtindriyena na vipranāsayati I idam ucyate smrtindriyam I tatra katamat samādhindriyam | yān dharmān smrtindriyena na vipranāśayati tān samādhindriyenaikāgrīkarotīdam ucyate samādhindriyam | tatra katamat prajñendriyam | yān dharmān samādhindriyenaikāgrīkaroti tān prajňendriyena pratyaveksate pratividhyati | yad etesu dharmesu pratyātmajňānam aparapratyayajňānam idam ucyate prajñendriyam || evam imāni pañcendriyāni sahitāny anuprabadhāni sarvabuddhadharmān paripūrayanti vyākaraņabhumim cāpyayanti || (Akn as cited in Šiks, pp. 316.13-317.13)
- P phyogs gcig pa mi tshoms pa ste, for D N R mgo gcig pa mi brdzi ba ste (with 'mgo gcig pa' being below invaribaly rendered 'phyogs gcig pa').
- P dad.
- 6. P mos pahi stobs la gnas pahi, for D N R dad pahi stobs la mos pahi.
- 7. D N P om: bu.
- 8. R bstan.

rten rnams kyis¹ rnam par zlog pa ḥam | bstan pa ḥam² | rnam par bslan bar mi nus te | de ni byan chub sems dpahi brtson hgrus kyi stobs źes byaho ||

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi dran paḥi stobs gan źe na | chos gan dan gan la dran pa ñe bar bźag pas sems ñe bar bźag³ pa ste | de ni ñon mons pa gan yan run ba dag gis gtor ba ḥam⁴ | g.yen bar mi nus te | dran paḥi stobs kyi mthu⁵ des ñon mons pa thams cad ḥjom źin dran pa de yan mi choms pa ste | de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi dran paḥi stobs źes byaḥo ||

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi tin ne ḥdzin gyi stobs gan źe na | gan ḥdu ḥdzi thams cad du⁶ dben par spyod pa ste | gan dag gi lam gyi sgra thams cad la yan rtog la | deḥi bsam gtan dan poḥi sgraḥi tsher ma la sgrib par mi byed pa dan | dge bar rtog pa la yan rnam par rtog [pa] mod kyi | (deḥi) bsam gtan gñis pa la yan sgrib par mi ḥgyur ba dan | de dgaḥ ba dan bde ba skyes te gnas mod kyi | deḥi bsam gtan gsum pa la sgrib par mi ḥgyur ba dan | de sems can yons su smin par bya ba dan | dam paḥi chos yons su gzun bar bya baḥi phyir btan sñoms pa yan ma yin mod kyi⁷ | (deḥi) bsam gtan (679) bźi pa la sgrib par⁸ mi ḥgyur ba ste | de bsam gtan de bźi la gnas na bsam gtan dan rnam par thar pas gźom⁹ par mi nus te | de tin ne ḥdzin gyi gnas kyan mi gton la | tin ne ḥdzin gyi dban gis kyan mi skye ba ste | de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi tin ne ḥdzin gyi stobs so ||

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi śes rab kyi stobs gan źe na | gan hjig rten¹⁰ dan hjig rten las hdas paḥi chos rnams kyis mi choms paḥi ye śes te | byan chub sems dpaḥ skyes ma thag tu bzoḥi gnas hjig rten na ji sñed spyod pa dam pa dan | dkah¹¹ bar byed pa dan | rñed dkaḥ ba de dag thams cad slob dpon med par mnon du hgyur te | gan hjig rten las hdas pa de¹² dag kyan gan gis hjig rten dag sgrol bar byed de | de dag byan chub sems dpaḥi śes rab dan ye śes kyi stobs kyis¹³ byun ba | lha dan mi rnams kyis¹⁴ mi choms pa ste | de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi śes rab kyi stobs so || hdi ni yan lag lna paḥi lam gźan no ||

de ltar na byan chub sems dpah (lam)15 yan lag lna la mkhas pa ses rab kyi pha rol tu

^{1.} Nom: kyis.

^{2.} R om: bstan pa ḥam.

^{3.} NPR gźog.

^{4.} DR gtor ba ḥam; N bton ba ḥam; P bsre baḥi ma.

^{5.} Akn, DNR bskyed pa.

^{6.} D N om: du.

^{7.} P yal bor gton pa yan ma yin., for D N R btan sñoms pa yan ma yin mod kyi.

^{8.} DNR add: yan.

N gźog.

^{10.} N add: pa.

^{11.} N dgah.

^{12.} DPR om: de.

^{13.} N kyi.

^{14.} N kyi.

^{15.} Cf. concluding parallel phrases in the preceding passages on 'skill in the path'.

phyin pa la spyod do ||

2.10.6

gźan yan mdor bsdu na byan chub sems dpah rnams kyi lam ni mgo gcig pa ste | ḥdi lta ste | lam bgrod pa gcig paḥo || ḥdi lta ste | byan chub sems dpah gcig pu (680) gñis su med pa | bla na med pa yan dag par rdzogs paḥi byan chub tu grogs med par śin tu brtson paḥi stobs kyi mthu yons su gzun baḥi bsam pas go cha bgos pa ste | gźan gyis ma bstan² pa | gźan gyi³ drin mi hjog pa | bdag ñid⁴ byed pa | bdag gi stobs kyis yan dag par hphags pa ste | de ltar go cha sra bar⁵ bgos nas | gan sems can thams cad kyis ma thob⁶ pa de bdag gis thob par byaḥo || gan hphags pa thams cad dan | gan theg pa la gsar du źugs paḥi byan chub sems dpaḥ thams cad kyis ma thob pa de bdag gis thob par byaḥo ||

sbyin pa ni naḥi grogs ma yin gyi | na ni sbyin paḥi grogs poḥo⁷ || tshul khrims dan | bzod pa dan | brtson hgrus dan | bsam gtan dan | śes rab ni naḥi grogs ma yin gyi⁸ | na ni de dag gi grogs poḥo⁹ || na ni pha rol tu phyin pa rnams kyis bslan bar bya ba ma yin gyi | pha rol tu phyin pa rnams nas bslan bar byaho || gon ma bźin du sbyar te¹¹ | dge baḥi rtsa ba thams cad la rgyas par śes par byaho || na ni dge baḥi rtsa ba thams cad kyis bslan bar bya ba ma yin gyi | dge baḥi rtsa ba thams cad nas bslan bar byaho || źes de ltar buḥi chos rnams la grogs med cin na gcig pu gñis su med par¹² rdo rjeḥi gdan la hdug nas | bdud stobs dan bcas pa btul te | (681) skad cig¹³ gcig dan ldan paḥi śes rab kyis bla na med pa yan dag par rdzogs paḥi byan chub mnon par rdzogs par ḥtshan rgya bar byaho || ½es | de la nes par rtog paḥi¹⁵ bsam paḥi

- 1. D de nas; R de ni.
- 2. P bśad.
- 3. D gyis.
- 4. Pom: ñid.
- 5. DR sra bar; N sra ba; P dam du.
- 6. P r\(\text{fied}\) (also in the following three occurrences of the term 'thob').
- 7. DNPR so.
- 8. N gyis.
- 9. DNPR so.
- 10. N bslab.
- P de bžin du bsdus te, for D N R gon ma bžin du sbyar te (also in similarly phrased sentences of that sense below).
- 12. P R pas.
- 13. P cig ma.
- 14. eko bodhisattvo 'dvitīyo 'sahāyo 'nuttarāyām samyaksambodhau samnāham samnahyati | sa vīryabalaparigrhītenādhyāśayena aparāvakāśāsvayamkārī | svabalabalodgataḥ | sa evam drḍhasamnāhaḥ samnaddho | yat kiñcit sarvasattvānām pariprāpayitavyam bhavişyati tad aḥam pariprāpayiṣyāmi | yat sarvāryāḥ sarvanavayānasamprasthitā bodhisattvā na pariprāpayiṣyanti tad aham pariprāpayiṣyāmi | na mama dānam sahāyakam | aham punar dānasya sahāyaḥ | na mama śīlakṣāntivīryadhyānaprajñāḥ sahāyikāḥ | aham punaḥ śīlakṣāntivīryadhyānaprajñānam sahāyo | nāham pāramitābhir upasthātavyo mayā punaḥ pāramitā upasthātavyāḥ | evam samgrahavastuṣu sarvakuśalamūleṣu caleyam | yāvad ekākinā mayā dvitīyenāsahāyena vajramaye mahīmaṇḍale sthitena sabalam savāhnam māraṃ dharṣayittvā ekacittaksanasamāyuktayā prajñayā 'nuttarā samyaksambodhir abhisambodhavya || (Akn as cited in Śiks,

sbyor ba¹ de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi lam² bgrod pa gcig pu³ źes bya ste | de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥi lam bgrod pa gcig pu la mkhas pa śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

de ni byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi lam⁴ la mkhas pa ste | de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ⁵ lam la mkhas pa ses rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

2.11

de la byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi rten cin ḥbrel par ḥbyun ba la mkhas pa gan źe na | ḥdi ltar byan chub sems dpaḥ gcig pu dben par son ste | nan du yan dag par bźag nas ḥdi ltar sems la rtog pa ste | |

sdug bsňal gyi phuň po chen po hdi gaň las hbyuň bar hgyur sñam pa daň | de hdi ltar sems te | tshul bžin ma yin pa byuň bahi phyir ma rig pa hbyuň | ma rig pa byuň bahi phyir hdu byed hbyuň | hdu byed byuň bahi phyir rnam par šes pa hbyuň | rnam par šes pa byuň bahi phyir miň daň gzugs hbyuň | miň daň gzugs byuň bahi phyir skye mched drug hbyuň | skye mched drug byuň bahi phyir reg pa hbyuň | reg pa byuň bahi phyir tshor ba hbyuň | tshor ba byuň bahi phyir sred pa hbyuň | sred pa byuň bahi phyir len pa hbyuň | (682) len pa byuň bahi phyir srid pa hbyuň | srid pa byuň bahi phyir skye ba hbyuň | skye ba byuň bahi phyir rga ši hbyuň | rga ši byuň bahi phyir mya ňan daň | smre sňags hdon pa¹0 daň | sdug bsňal ba daň | yid mi bde ba daň | hkhrug pa rnams hbyuň bar hgyur ro || žes de sñam du sems so¹¹ ||

de yan hdi sñam du sems par hgyur te¹² | ji ltar mi g.yo ba dan | mi byed pa dan | bdag po med pa dan | dge bahi rgyu las byun ba dan | mi dge bahi rgyu las byun ba dan | mi g.yo bahi rgyu las byun dan | mya nan las hdas pahi rgyu las byun bahi chos de dag thams cad rkyen las byun ba ste | gan yan las kyi rgyu gan dag gis sems can gan dag gi dban pohi rgyu tshad ma

p. 278.4-14)

^{15.} DPR pa.

^{1.} P de ltar brtsam pahi sbyor ba rtog pa, for D N R de la nes par rtog pahi bsam pahi sbyor ba.

^{2.} DR om: lam.

^{3.} P lam phyogs geig pu.

^{4.} N add: bgrod.

^{5.} D add: rnams kyi.

^{6.} DPR om: par.

^{7.} N skyes te.

^{8.} P nan du yan dag źugs pa sdug bsnal gyi phun po chen po hdi gan las hdu bar hgyur te źes de ltar sems kyi rtog pa skye ba las tshul bźin ma yin pa hbyun ba las hgyur te, for D N R from nan du yan dag (pa) to rig pa hbyun.

^{9.} P byun ba las (also in the following occurrences of the phrase 'byun bahi phyir' in this section).

^{10.} P mya nan slos pa, for D N R smre snags hdon pa.

^{11.} DNR sñam mo.

^{12.} DNR de yan ltar sems te.

dan | lhag paḥi cho gaḥi rgyu tshad maḥi ḥbras buḥi rgyu ḥgrub pa dan | de ltar zin pa dan mi zin pa la gan rgyu ḥdus pa byun ba de thams cad rab tu śes pa ste | de ni byan chub sems dpaḥi rten cin ḥbrel par ḥbyun ba la mkhas pa źes byaḥo ||

de yan hgag gan ze na | tshul bzin ma yin pa¹ yid la byed pa hgags paḥi phyir ma rig² pa hgag go || ma rig pa hgag³ paḥi phyir hdu byed hgag pa nas | sdug bsnal gyi phun po chen po hbah zig gi bar du hgag par hgyur ro || zes de sñam du sems te | de ltar gan de la ses pa de ni rten cin hbrel par hbyun ba la mkhas pa zes byaho ||

de yan chos thams cad ni rgyu la rag las | rkyen la⁴ rag las | hdus pa la rag las pa ste | (683) gan rgyu dan | rkyen dan⁵ | hdus pa la rag las pa de ni bdag gi byin gyi rlabs ma yin | srog dan gan zag gi byin gyi rlabs ma yin te | de la bgran ba gan yan med do || źes de ltar (sñam du) sems te | gan de ltar sems pa de ni rten cin hbrel par hbyun ba la mkhas paho ||

de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ sans rgyas kyi chos thams cad byan chub kyi rnam paḥi rkyen du slon bar byed la | rkyen de dag la yan zad pa dan ḥgag par so sor rtog la | sems can la lta baḥi phyir zad pa dan ḥgag pa ma yin pa yan⁶ thob par byed pa de ni | byan chub sems dpaḥi rten cin ḥbrel par ḥbyun ba la mkhas paḥo ||

2.12

de la byan chub sems dpaḥi chos thams cad la mkhas pa gan źe na | chos thams cad ces bya ba ni | ḥdi lta ste | ḥdus byas dan ḥdus ma byas so || de la byan chub sems dpas ḥdus byas dan ḥdus ma byas la mkhas par bya ste |

de la hdus byas la mkhas pa gan źe na | gan lus kyi hdu byed dan | nag gi hdu byed dan | yid kyi hdu byed dag pa ste⁷ || gan yan⁸ lus dan | nag dan | yid kyi dge ba de dag hdus ma byas pahi byan chub la so sor rtog pahi phyir⁹ | thams cad mkhyen pa ñid du sno ba de ni hdus ma byas la mkhas paho ||

gźan yan hdus byas la mkhas pa ni | hdi lta ste | (684) gan sbyin pahi pha rol tu phyin pa dan | tshul khrims dan | bzod pa dan | brtson hgrus dan | bsam gtan dan | ses rab kyi pha rol tu

^{1.} D pahi; P la.

^{2.} N rigs.

N P heags.

^{4.} N las (also in the next clause).

^{5.} Nom: dan

^{6.} P mi zad pa yan hgag pa de yan, for D N R zad pa dan hgag pa ma yin pa yan.

^{7.} D N R hdu byed do; Akn (p. 55.5.3) add: mnon par hdus byas ba de dag thams cad byan chub la rtog pas thams cad mkhyen pa ñid du yons su bsno ba hdi ni dehi hdus ma byas la mkhas pa źes byaho ||

^{8.} DN gaṅ la.

^{9.} DNR yid kyi dge baḥi ḥdu byed kyis ḥdus ma byas paḥi byan chub la ḥdus ma byas par rtog pas, for P yid kyi dge ba de dag ḥdus ma byas paḥi byan chub la so sor rtog paḥi phyir.

phyin paḥi¹ daṅ | pha rol tu phyin pa lṅa rnams sdud paḥo || gaṅ yaṅ ḥdus ma byas paḥi śes pas | śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la pha rol tu phyin pa lṅa rnams kyis smod par mi byed ciṅ | pha rol tu phyin paḥi tshogs thams cad la mkhas pa daṅ | zag pa med paḥi byaṅ chub de la mos pas gaṅ thams cad mkhyen pa ñid du bsho ba de ni deḥi² ḥdus ma³ byas la mkhas paḥo ||

gźan yan ḥdus byas la mkhas pa ni (gan) sems can thams cad la ḥod zer thogs pa med pa dan | bsdu ba bźis sems can⁴ sdud paḥo⁵ || gan yan sñems pa med paḥi phyir sems can la bdag med par ḥdzin pa dan⁶ bsdu ba la mkhas śin | ḥdus ma byas paḥi byan chub la mos nas | thams cad mkhyen pa ñid du bsno ba de ni dehi hdus ma byas la mkhas paho ||

gźan yan ḥdus byas la mkhas pa ni gan ḥkhor baḥi rgyun gyi kun nas⁷ sbyor ba rnams yan dag par mi gcod la | ḥkhor baḥi rgyun gyi ñon mons pa rnams yan dag par gcod pa dan | byan chub tu dmigs paḥi sbyor ba rnams rgyun chags par byed pa⁸ dan | sbyor ba phyogs gcig pa rnams mi sdud par spyod pa⁹ de ni ḥdus byas la mkhas pa źes byaḥo || gan yan ston pa ñid dan | mtshan ma med pa dan | smon pa med paḥi chos rnams la ḥdris par (685) bya ba¹⁰ śes śin mnon sum du mkhas pa dan | byan chub tu gźan gyi drin la mi ḥjog mod kyi¹¹ | ḥdus ma byas kyan mnon sum du mi byed pa de ni ḥdus ma byas la mkhas paḥo ||

gźan yaṅ khams gsum na spyod kyaṅ khams gsum na spyod paḥi ñon moṅs pa rnams kyis mi gos¹² pa de ni deḥi ḥdus byas la mkhas paḥo || gaṅ yaṅ khams gsum las byuṅ baḥi ye śes rab tu śes kyaṅ | ḥbyuṅ baḥi khams su mi ltuṅ ba de ni ḥdus ma byas la mkhas paḥo¹³ ||

gan chos thams cad la mkhas pa žes bya ba de ni thams cad mkhyen pa ñid kyi¹⁴ tshig bla dags so || gan thams cad mkhyen pa ñid kyi ye šes rtogs pa yons su rdzogs pa de ni šes rab dan mkhas pa med na ḥbyun bar mi ḥgyur bas | deḥi phyir chos thams cad la mkhas pa žes bya ste | de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ chos thams cad la mkhas pa šes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

^{1.} DNR pa dan, for P pahi.

^{2.} Nom: dehi.

^{3.} Akn (p. 55.5.5) om; ma.

^{4.} N add: rnams.

^{5.} P bsdu pa ñid dan.

^{6.} DNR dag.

^{7.} P hkhor bar hjug pahi sbyor ba, for D N R hkhor bahi rgyun gyi kun nas sbyor ba.

^{8.} P kyi rjes su sbyor ba, for D N R rgyun chags par byed pa.

^{9.} P sbyor ba.

^{10.} Pom: bya ba.

^{11.} DNR cin.

^{12.} P chags.

^{13.} DPR mkhas pa źes byaho.

^{14.} N mkhyen pahi.

śā riḥi bu de ltar na byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen po byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod la gnas pa | śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod pa | śes rab rnam par ḥbyed pa la mkhas śin mkhas pa bcu po de dag la yan mkhas pas śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la spyod do ||

Section III

3.1

de la¹ śes rab ni gań | pha rol tu phyin pa rnams kyi don ni gań że na | śes rab ces bya ba ni dge ba dań mi dge baḥi chos (686) rnams rab tu śes paḥo || śes rab ni nes par hbyed paḥi cha dań ḥthun paḥi² chos rnams kyi mnon sum mo || hphags paḥi chos mnon sum du gyur paḥi phyir tshad mar gyur pa ni śes rab bo || chos yaṅ dag pa ji lta ba bźin du rtogs pa ni³ tshad mar gyur paḥo || śes rab ni lta bar gyur pa thams cad daṅ | kun nas ldaṅ ba daṅ | sgrib pa daṅ | sgrib par byed paḥi chos rnams rab tu rtogs paḥo || śes rab ni ḥdod pa daṅ | tshol⁴ ba daṅ | smon lam thams cad kyi smon lam daṅ bral baḥo || śes rab ni śin tu sbyans paḥi phyir

In P (pp. 87.5.5–88.2.2), large parts of the section on the nature of wisdom (R folio 685.5–688.1) are cast in a slightly different order from that of D N and R. In meaning, however, they correspond closely to that of the other editions. In P, they run as follows: de la ses rab ni gan | pha rol tu phyin pa rnams gyi don ni gan ze na | ses rab ces bya ba ni dge ba dan mi dge bahi chos rnam par rab tu ses paho || ses rab ni nes par rtogs pahi phyogs kyi chos rnams kyi mnon sum mo || hphags pahi chos mnon sum du gyur pahi phyir tshad mar gyur pa ni ses rab po || chos yan dag pa ji lta ba bžin du rtogs pa ni šes rab po || lta bar gyur pa thams cad dan kun nas ldan ba dan || sgrib pa dan sgrib par byed pahi chos mams la smon pa dan bral ba ni ses rab po || hdod pa tshol ba thams chad la smon par byed pa | sim par byed pa ni gdun ba thams cad gton pahi phyir ses rab po || chos kyi dgah ba la dmigs śin rnam par gcod paḥi phyir dgaḥ bar byed pa ni śes rab po || ye śes thams cad mnon sum du gyur paḥi phyir rten pa ni ses rab po || byan chub kyi phyogs kyi chos thams cad kyi gnas ni ses rab po || rñed pahi mtshan ñid ni ses rab po || theg pa ji lta ba bzin du hbras bu rtogs pahi phyir rab tu ses pahi mtshan ñid ni ses rab po || klun thams cad las sgrol bahi phyir | ran bzin ses pahi snan ba hjug pa ni ses rab po || yan dag par skyon med pahi bar du hdren pa ni ses rab po || dge bahi chos thams cad hdzin pa ni ses rab po || ñon mons pa bag la fial ba thams cad dan bar byed pa ni ses rab po || chos thams cad kyi sbyi bo thob pahi rab mchog ni ses rab po || ran byun bahi ye ses rtogs pahi phyir bzan ba ni ses rab po || khams sum la ma chags pas rgyu ba dan bral ba ni ses rab po || hphags pa thams cad kyis sin tu bzun ba ni ses rab po || mtshan ma med par yons su rtog pa thams cad spans pas smon lam mam par chad pa ni ses rab po || mun pa mun gnag thams cad dan bral bas bag med pahi gñen po ni ses rab po || rnal hbyor spyod kyis la gnas pa thams cad kyi sbyor ba ni ses rab po || thams cad mkhyen pahi ye ses kyi lam la gnas pa mams kyi rab tu hdren pa ni ses rab po || ma rig pahi klun gi mun pa rab rib kyi sprin hjom par byed pas snan bar byed pa ni ses rab po || mig la ji ltar mos pas mams kyi mig thams cad sbyin par byed pa ni ses rab po || mig dan gzugs kyi lam las hdas pahi phyir zag pa med pa ni ses rab po || bden pa las hbyun bas don dam pahi ni ses rab po || sin tu dul baḥi phyir mi hkhrugs pa ni ses rab po || ye ses kyi sgohi snan ba ni ses rab po || thams cad du rgyu bas mi zad pa ni ses rab po || rten cin hbrel ba la hjug par mthon bahi phyir | hgal ba med pa ni ses rab po || len pahi hcin ba thams cad gcod par byed pas thar pahi lam ni ses rab po || sgrib par byed pahi chos thams cad dan lhan du mi gnas pas ma hdres pa ni ses rab po || (continuation: sā rihi bu ...).

^{2.} P nes par rtogs pahi phyogs kyi.

^{3.} D pahi phyir; P R pahi.

^{4.} N tshor.

sim par byed paḥo || śes rab ni chos kyi dgaḥ ba la dmigs pa rnam par mi gcod paḥi phyir rab tu dgaḥ bar byed paḥo || śes rab ni ye śes thams cad mnon sum du gyur paḥi phyir rten¹ paḥo || śes rab ni byan chub kyi phyogs kyi chos thams cad kyi gnas so || śes rab ni theg pa ji lta ba bźin du² ḥbras bu rtogs paḥi phyir thob paḥi mtshan ñid do || śes rab ni ran bźin gyis ye śes snan ba rab tu śes paḥi mtshan ñid do || śes rab ni chu bo thams cad las grol baḥi phyir rab tu sgrol baḥo || śes rab ni yan dag par gyur pa la ḥdren paḥo | śes rab ni dge baḥi chos thams cad rab tu ḥdzin paḥo ||³

śes rab ni ñon mons paḥi bag la ñal thams cad dan bar byed paḥo || śes rab ni (687) chos thams cad kyi spyi bo thob paḥi mchog go || śes rab ni ran ḥbyun baḥi ye śes rtogs par bya ba la⁴ dam paḥo || śes rab ni khams gsum dan ma ḥdres pas rgyu⁵ dan bral baḥo || śes rab ni ḥphags pa thams cad kyis⁶ śin tu bzun baḥo || śes rab ni mtshan mar yons su rtog pa thams cad spans pas smon lam rnam par chad paḥo || śes rab ni mun pa mun gnag dan bral bas bag med paḥi gñen poḥo ||²

śes rab ni rnal hbyor spyod pahi sa la gnas pa thams cad kyi sbyor baho || śes rab ni thams cad mkhyen pahi ye śes kyi lam la⁸ gnas pa rnams kyi rab tu hdren paho || śes rab ni ma rig pahi rlun gi mun par rab rib kyi sprin hjom par byed⁹ pas snan bar byed paho || śes rab ni

^{1.} N brten.

^{2.} P tu, for D N R gyi.

^{3.} Pelliot, 977, folio 6a.4-6b.2

śa ri bu de la śes rab żes bya ba ni | ḥdi lta ste | dge baḥi chos thams cad rab tu rtogs pa gan yin ba de ni mnon sum mthon baḥi śes rab yin te | chos thams cad rjes su rtog paḥi phyir ro || yan dag paḥi tshad mi śes rab yin te | yan dag pa ci lta ba bżin du chos thams cad rab tu rtogs paḥi phyir ro || rab tu rtogs paḥi śes rab yin te | lta bar son baḥi kun nas dkris paḥi chos thams cad gyis bsgrib par myi ḥgyur baḥi phyir ro || smon pa dan bral baḥi śes rab yin te | hdod pa dan tshol ba dan | smon pa thams cad gtan du bspans paḥi phyir ro || tshim bar byed paḥi śes rab yin te | yons su gdun ba thams cad gtan du źi bar byed paḥi phyir ro || rab tu dgaḥ bar byed paḥi śes rab yin te | chos kyi dgaḥ ba la dmyigs ba rgyun chad pa myed paḥi phyir ro || rton paḥi śes rab yin te | don śes pa rnams mnon sum du gyur paḥi phyir ro || rnam par hjog pa śes rab yin te | byan chub kyi phyogs kyi chos thams cad rnam par hjog paḥi phyir ro || thob paḥi mtshan fiid gyi śes rab yin te || theg pa ci lta ba bżin du hbras bu thob par byed paḥi phyir ro || rab tu śes paḥi śes rab kyi mtshan fiid kyi śes rab yin te | ye śes kyi ran bżin śin tu gsal bar rtogs paḥi phyir ro || sfiin rjes sgrol bar byed paḥi śes rab yin te | dge baḥi śes rab yin te | chu bo thams cad lam sgrol bar byed paḥi phyir ro || sgul bar byed paḥi śes rab yin te | dge baḥi chos thams cad rab tu bskyod par byed paḥi phyir ro ||.

DPR om: la.

^{5.} D rgyu ba.

^{6.} N kyi.

^{7.} Pelliot, 977, folio 6b.2-5

dan bar byed paḥi śes rab yin te | snun gyi bag la ñal gyi ñon mons paḥi rtog pa dan bral baḥi phyir ro || mchog tu gyur paḥi śes rab yin te | chos thams cad kyi spyi bor phyin paḥi phyir ro || śin tu gya nom baḥi śes rab yin te | ran byun baḥi ye śes kyis chos rjes su rtogs paḥi phyir ro || rgyu dan bral baḥi śes rab yin te | khams gsum gyi chos dan ḥdres pa myed paḥi phyir ro || yons su bzun baḥi śes rab yin te | hphags pa thams cad kyis yons su bzun baḥi phyir ro || smon pa mam par gcod paḥi śes rab yin te | mtshan maḥi rnam par rtog pa thams cad yons su bsal baḥi phyir ro || bdag myed paḥi śes rab yin te | gti mug gyi mun nag thams cad spans pahi phyir ro |.

^{8.} N om: la.

^{9.} D byas.

mig la ji ltar mos pa rnams kyi mig thams cad sbyin par byed paḥo || śes rab ni mig dan gzugs kyi lam las ḥdas paḥi phyir zag pa med paḥo || śes rab ni bden pa las byun bas¹ don dam paḥo || śes rab ni śin tu dul baḥi phyir mi hkhrugs paḥo || śes rab ni ye śes kyi sgoḥi snan baḥo || śes rab ni thams cad du rgyu ba² mi zad paḥo ||

śes rab ni rten ciń hbrel par (hbyuń ba) la hjug par mthoń bahi phyir hgal ba med paho || śes rab ni len pahi hchiń ba thams cad gcod par byed pas thar pahi lam mo || śes rab ni sgrib par byed pahi³ chos thams cad dań lhan cig tu (688) mi gnas pas ma hdres paho ||⁴

śā riḥi bu de lta bas na sems can thams cad kyi sems kyi⁵ spyod pa ji sñed pa byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi śes rab kyi⁶ las daṅ | ye śes kyi spyod pa yaṅ de sñed do || sems can thams cad kyi bsam pa ji sñed pa byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ śes rab kyi dpyod⁷ pa daṅ | ye śes kyaṅ de sñed do || sems can thams cad kyi ñon moṅs paḥi sgo ji sñed pa byaṅ chub sems dpaḥ śes rab la ḥjug paḥi sgo yaṅ de sñed do || ñan thos daṅ | raṅ saṅs rgyas daṅ | yaṅ dag par rdzogs paḥi saṅs rgyas rnams kyi yoṅs su śes pa ji sñed pa śes rab la gnas paḥi gnas kyaṅ de sñed do || byaṅ chub sems dpas thams cad la⁸ bslab par bya ste | de ni byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi śes rab ces byaho ||⁹

sbyor baḥi śes rab yin te | rnal ḥbyor spyod paḥi sa la gnas pa thams cad las mnon bar grub baḥi phyir ro || bsgrod par byed paḥi śes rab yin te | hphags paḥi ye śes kyi lam thams cad la rab tu gnas paḥi phyir ro || snan bar byed paḥi śes rab yin te | ma rig paḥi rlun kyis rab rib gyi mun pa thams cad yons su bsal baḥi phyir ro || myig sbyin bar byed paḥi śes rab yin te | myig bżin du thams cad rab tu hdren par byed paḥi phyir ro || zag pa myed paḥi śes rab yin te | śes rab kyi myig gis gya gyuḥi lam las yan dag par hdas paḥi phyir ro || don dam paḥi śes rab yin te | hphags pa chen pohi bden ba rab tu rtogs paḥi pbyir ro | tha dad pa myed paḥi śes rab yin te | śin tu dul bar gyur paḥi phyir ro || snan baḥi śes rab yin te | ye śes mams kyi sgor gyur paḥi pbyir ro | zad myi śes paḥi śes rab yin te | riges su rgyu ba thams cad kun tu snan bar byed paḥi pbyir ro | hgag pa myed paḥi śes rab yin te | rtag par rgya cher mthon baḥi phyir ro || rnam par grol baḥi lam gyi śes rab yin te | hdzin paḥi hchin ba thams cad gtan du spon baḥi phyir ro || gnas dan bral baḥi śes rab yin te | fion mons paḥi sgrib paḥi chos thams cad dan ltan cig myi gnas paḥi phyir ro ||.

- 5. DNR dan
- 6. P dan (also in the next occurrence of the term 'ses rab kyi').
- 7. D R spyod.
- 8. Nom: la.
- 9. Pelliot, 977, folio 7a.3-7

śa ri bu de ltar ye śes kyi mtshan ñid nas mdor bsdus nas bstan pa yin te | byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen po rnams kyi śes rab ni gźan yan tshad myed dpag tu myed pa sñed yod par rig par byaḥo || de ciḥi phyir że na sa ri bu ḥdi ltar sems can thams cad kyi sems kyi spyod pa ci sñed pa | byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen po rnams kyi śes rab kyi lam dan | ye śes kyi spyod pa de sñed yod pas so | de bżin du sems can thams cad kyi mos pa ci sñed pa byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen po rnams kyi śes rab kyi spyod pa dan | ye śes kyan de sñed yod par rig par byaḥo || de bżin du sems cad kyi ñon mons paḥi sgra ci sñed pa byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen po | rnams kyi śes rab rgya chen poḥi sgra yan de sñed yod par rig par byaḥo || de bżin du ñan thos dan | ran sans rgyas dan | yan dag par rdzogs paḥi sans rgyas thams cad gyi yons su mkhyen pa ci sñed pa | byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen po rnams kyi śes rab kyi spyod paḥi gnas kyan de sñed yod par rig par byaḥo || śa ri bu de ltar śes rab kyi gnas thams cad la byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen po rnams kyis nan tan brtson ḥgrus kyis bslab par bya ste | ḥdi ni byan chub sems dpaḥ sems dpaḥ chen po rnams kyi śes rab kyi nom ba żes byaḥo ||.

^{1.} D ba.

^{2.} N bahi.

^{3.} D add: phyir.

^{4.} Pelliot, 977, folio 6b.5-7a.3

3.2

de la pha rol tu phyin paḥi don gan źe na | śes rab gan yin pa pha rol tu phyin paḥi don kyan de yin te | dge baḥi chos rnams rab tu śes pa de ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don źes byaḥo || gon ma bźin du sbyar te | pha rol tu phyin pa thams cad kyi tshig¹ kyan de bźin du dpyad par byaḥo² ||³

gźan yaṅ byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi spyod paḥi khyad par yoṅs su rdzogs paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || gźan yaṅ thams cad mkhyen paḥi ye śes yoṅs su rdzogs paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || ḥdus byas daṅ ḥdus ma byas (689) paḥi chos la mṅon par ma chags paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || ḥkhor baḥi ñes pa khoṅ du chud paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || zad mi śes paḥi chos kyi mdzod ston paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || sgrib pa med paḥi rnam par thar pa yoṅs su rdzogs paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || sbyin pa mñam pa ñid daṅ | tshul khrims daṅ | bzod pa daṅ | brtson ḥgrus daṅ | bsam gtan daṅ | śes rab mñam pa ñid rtogs paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || rnam par nes paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || s

sems can thams cad kyi khams la⁶ hjug paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || mi skye baḥi chos la bzod pa yons su rdzogs paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || phyir mi ldog paḥi sa yons su rdzogs paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || sans rgyas kyi źin yons su rdzogs paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || sems can yons su smin paḥi⁷ don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || byan chub kyi snin po yan dag par thob paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin

N om: kyi tshig.

^{2.} P sbyar ro, for D N R dpyad par byaho.

^{3.} This paragraph is missing in the Pelliot manuscript.

^{4.} Nom: hkhor bahi ñes pa khon du chud pahi don ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don to.

Pelliot, 977, folio 7a,7-7b.6 gźan yan śa ri bu byan chub sems dpah sems dpah chen po rnams kyi pha rol tu phyin pahi don gan źe na | sa ri bu hdi ltar ci tsam du dge bahi chos gya nom ba pha rol tu phyin par hgyur ba rab tu ses pa thams cad ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces bya bar rig par byaho || yan sa ri bu gon ma bzin du rgyas par sbyar te | ses rab kyi tshogs thams cad ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don yin bar rig par byaho | gźan yan byan chub sems dpah rnams kyi spyod pahi khyad bar yons su rdzogs pahi don gan yin ba thams cad ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don yin bar rig par byaho | hdus byas dan | hdus ma byas kyi chos thams cad la mnon bar zen pa myed pahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don yin bar rig par byaho | hkhor bahi ñes dmyigs chen po tshad myed pa rtag tu rtog pahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don yin bar rig par byaho | chos thams cad khon tu ma chud cin ma rtogs pahi don rab tu ses pa gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don yin bar rig par byaho | gan gyis mthar thug cin zad pa myed pahi chos kyi mdzod kyi don rab tu rtogs pa gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don yin bar rig par byaho || bsgrib pa myed pahi rnam par thar pa yons su rdzogs paḥi don gan yin ba de ni | pha rol tu phyin paḥi don yin bar rig par byaḥo | sbyin ba dan tshul khrims dan | bzod pa dan | brtson hgrus dan | bsam gtan dan | ses rab mñam ba ñid du rtogs pahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don yin bar rig par byaho | mchog tu rab tu rnam par hbyed pa la mkhas pahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don yin bar rig par byaho |.

^{6.} P om: la.

^{7.} DR smin par bya baḥi.

paḥi don to || bdud thams cad rab tu ḥdul baḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || saṅs rgyas kyi chos thams cad yons su rdzogs paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin paḥi don to || gźan yaṅ byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam graṅs bźag¹ par byed paḥi don ni pha rol tu phyin (690) paḥi don to ||

śā riḥi bu byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grans bslabs na | pha rol tu phyin pa thams cad kyi pha rol tu son bar hgyur ro $\|^2$

Section iv

śā riḥi bu de bas na theg pa chen po la gnas paḥi rigs kyi buḥam | rigs kyi bu mos byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grans ḥdi blan bar bya | gzun bar bya | bklag par bya | gźan la yan bśad par bya | rgya cher rab tu bstan par byaḥo ||

de ciḥi phyir źe na | śā riḥi bu byan chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam grans śin tu mñan | blans | bzun | bklags | kun chub par byas | gźan la yan bśad | rgya cher yan dag par rab tu bstan na | yon tan bcu po hdi dag hthob par hgyur ro³ || bcu gan źe na | hdi lta ste |

- (1) tshe rabs gźan du hphos nas4 bzohi gnas dan |
- (2) las kyi gnas thams cad⁵ rtogs par khon du chud par hgyur |
- (3) rigs mtho źiń btsun6 par hgyur |
- (4) dban che bar grags par hgyur⁷ |
- (5) tshig btsun par hgyur |
- (6) lons spyod che bar hgyur |
- (7) lha dan mi mams la hphans par hgyur |
- 1. DNPR gźog.
- 2. Pelliot, 977, folio 7b.6-8a.3

sems can gyi khams thams cad kun tu hgro bahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces byaho | myi skye bahi chos kyi bzod pa yons su rdzogs pahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces byaho | phyir myi ldog pahi ma mthar yons su rdzogs pa gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces byaho | sans rgyas kyi zin yons su sbyon bahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces byaho | sems can thams cad yons su smyin bar byed pahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces byaho | byan chub kyi shin por son nas byan chub kyi gdan la hdug pahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces byaho | bdud kyi dpun rnams rab tu btul bahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces byaho | sans rgyas kyi chos thams cad yons su rdzogs pahi don gan yin ba de ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces byaho | byan chub sems dpahi sde snod chos kyi rnam grans la yan dag par gnas pahi don gan yin ba ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces byaho | byan chub sems dpahi sde snod chos kyi rnam grans la yan dag par gnas pahi don gan yin ba ni pha rol tu phyin pahi don ces byaho |

- 3. N thob par hgyur ro (also in all subsequent occurrences of the phrase 'hthob par hgyur ro').
- 4. D add: kyan.
- 5. D N add: la.
- 6. N brtson.
- 7. P mthu che bar hgyu, for D N R dban che bar grags par hgyur.

- (8) hkhor los sgyur bahi rgyal po hthob par hgyur |
- (9) tshans par hthob par hgyur |
- (10) thams cad du byan chub kyi sems dan mi hbral bar hgyur te |

yon tan gyi phan yon hdi hthob par hgyur ro || de gźan yan yon tan gyi phan yon bcu hthob par hgyur te | bcu gan źe na | hdi lta ste |

- (1) gcer bu paḥi² rtsod pa dan | (691) ḥdres³ pa ma yin par hgyur ba dan |
- (2) bdag du mi lta ba dan4
- (3) sems can du mi lta ba dan |
- (4) srog du mi lta ba dan |
- (5) gan zag tu mi lta ba dan |
- (6) chad par mi lta ba dan |
- (7) rtag par mi lta bar hgyur ba dan |
- (8) dnos po thams cad la mi lta ba dan |
- (9) rab tu hbyun ba la dgah bar sems skyed pa hthob pa dan |
- (10) thos pahi tshig hbru myur du khon du chud par hgyur ba ste |

yon tan gyi phan yon bcu po de dag hthob par hgyur ro || de gźan yan yon tan gyi phan yon bcu hthob par hgyur te | bcu gan źe na | (hdi lta ste |)

- (1) dran pa dan ldan par hgyur ba dan |
- (2) blo gros dan ldan par hgyur ba dan |
- (3) rtogs pa dan ldan par hgyur ba dan |
- (4) mos pa⁵ dan ldan par hgyur ba dan |
- (5) ses rab dan ldan par hgyur ba dan |
- (6) dal ba phun sum tshogs pa⁶ rñed par hgyur ba dan |
- (7) tshe rabs dran par hgyur ba dan |
- (8) ran bźin gyis hdod chags chun ste | hdod chags bdo ba ma yin⁷ la | de śin tu hdod chags kyi gdun bas yons su mi gdun ba dan |
- (9) ran bźin gyis źe sdan chun ste | źe sdan bdo ba ma yin la | de śin tu źe sdan gi gdun bas

^{1.} P legs pa (also in all subsequent occurrences of the term 'phan yon').

^{2.} P gcer bu can gyi.

^{3.} N hdren.

^{4.} Pom: ba dan (also in the following four occurrences of the phrase 'lta ba dan').

^{5.} P dgah ba.

P om: phun sum tshogs pa.

^{7.} P mi drag, for D N R bdo ba ma yin (also in the next two occurrences of this term).

yons su mi gdun ba dan |

(10) ran bžin gyis gti mug chun ste | gti mug gi bdo ba ma yin la | de śin tu gti mug gdun bas yons su mi gdun bar mi hgyur ba ste |

yon tan gyi phan yon bcu po de dag ḥthob par ḥgyur ro || de gźan yan yon tan gyi phan yon bcu ḥthob (692) par ḥgyur te | bcu gan źe na | hdi lta ste |

- (1) ses rab no mtshar du hgyur |
- (2) ses rab myur bar hgyur |
- (3) ses rab rno bar hgyur |
- (4) ses rab mgyogs par hgyur |
- (5) ses rab rgya che bar¹ hgyur |
- (6) ses rab zab par hgyur |
- (7) ses rab nes par hbyed par hgyur |
- (8) ses rab ma chags par hgyur |
- (9) de bźin gśegs pa mnon du mthon źin mthon nas tshigs su bcad paḥi dbyans kyis bstod pa dan |
- (10) de bžin gšegs pa la tshul bžin du² žu ba yons su žu žin tshul bžin du³ žu ba⁴ žus nas lan ldon par hgyur ba ste |

yon tan gyi phan yon bcu po de dag ḥthob par ḥgyur ro || de gźan yan yon tan gyi phan yon bcu ḥthob par ḥgyur te | bcu gan źe na | ḥdi lta ste |

- (1) dge bahi bses gñen thams cad ma ñes bar byas par hgyur ba dan |
- (2) bdud kyi bcin⁵ ba thams cad lhod par byas par⁶ hgyur ba dan |
- (3) des bdud thams cad tshar gcod par hgyur ba dan |
- (4) non mons pa thams cad smad par hgyur ba dan |
- (5) hdu byed thams cad du gtogs pa las yid bskyod⁷ par hgyur ba dan |
- (6) hgro ba nan par hgro bahi lam thams cad la rgyab kyis phyogs par⁸ hgyur ba dan |
- (7) mya nan las ḥdas⁹ par ḥgro baḥi¹⁰ lam mnon du ḥgyur ba dan |
- 1. P om: rgya che bar.
- 2. DNPR gyi.
- 3. DPR gyi.
- 4. N add: la.5. N beins.
- 6. Nom; byas par.
- 7. DPR bskyed.
- 8. P las skyo ba, for D N R la rgyab kyis phyogs par.
- 9. DNP hdah.
- 10. D hgyur bahi.

- (8) hkhor ba thams cad las sgrol bahi sbyin pa byin par hgyur ba dan |
- (9) byan chub sems dpah thams cad kyi cho gahi rjes su źugs par hgyur ba dan | (693)
- (10) sans rgyas bcom ldan hdas thams cad kyi bkahi rjes su źugs par hgyur ba ste |

yon tan gyi phan yon bcu po de dag ḥthob par ḥgyur ro || śā riḥi bu byaṅ chub sems dpaḥi sde snod kyi chos kyi rnam graṅs śin tu mñan¹ | blaṅs | bzuṅ | bklags | kun chub par byas | gźan la yaṅ bśad ciṅ rgya cher yaṅ dag par rab tu bstan na | yon tan gyi phan yon ḥdi sñed ḥthob par ḥgyur ro ||

de nas bcom ldan ḥdas kyis don de ñid rgyas par² bstan paḥi phyir | deḥi tshe tshigs su bcad pa ḥdi dag gsuṅs so ||

gan dag mdo sdeḥi rgyal po ḥdi ḥdzin pa ||
mkhas pa de dag śes rab mthaḥ yas ḥgyur ||³
chos dan don rnams la yan mkhas par ḥgyur ||⁴
tshig kyan khyad par ḥphags śin yi ge rdzogs ||⁵

gan zig mdo sdeḥi rgyal po ḥdi ḥdzin pa ||
de ni rab dgaḥ śin tu mgu skyes nas ||
dge sloṅ de ni ḥdir yaṅ chos ḥchad de ||⁶
rtag tu chos kyi sbyin pa byed par ḥgyur ||

sems can rnams ni man du chos thos nas ||
kye maho yon tan chen po hchad byed pa ||
nam źig bdag cag hdi hdrahi chos ston cin ||
mdo sde hdi hdra hdzin par hgyur źes zer ||⁷

gan dag de ḥdra śes rab ldan mchog rnams || chos rnams gan la yan źum par mi ḥgyur te ||8

^{1.} Ngñan.

^{2.} P šin tu.

P mkhas pa śes rab mthaḥ yas bar yan ḥgyur.

^{4.} P chos mams dan ni don mams la hdi gsal.

^{5.} P tshig la mkhas śin yi ge yons su rdzogs par hgyur.

^{6.} P dge slon chos hdi hchad pa byed pa dan.

^{7.} P mdo sde hdi ni hdzin par hgyur źes hdod.

⁸ P chos gan lahan ses rab zum par mi hgyur te.

dran dan ye ses kyis ni hphags pa dan ||
bla na med pahi ye ses tshig ston¹ hgyur || (694)

gan dag mdo sdeḥi rgyal po ḥdi ḥdzin pa ||
de ni ḥphags pas rtag bsnags rgyal bas gnan ||
chos tshig legs par bśad pa tshol bar byed ||
de ni thos pas rtag tu ḥphags par ḥgyur ||²

thos nas don ni ñe bar³ ḥdzin par byed || śes rab ldan pa ḥbru la mi sñegs te⁴ || don la lta bas rtogs pa ḥphel bar ḥgyur || de yi ye śes rtag tu tshad med do ||

ye śes mthaḥ yas don kyaṅ mthaḥ yas te ||
sems dpaḥ⁵ mthaḥ yas dam paḥi don la mkhas⁶ ||
de yi yon tan phyogs dan phyogs su ḥgro⁷ ||
de yi thos paḥi yon tan ḥdi dag go ||

de yi ḥdod chags chuṅ la źe sdaṅ chuṅ ||
de yi gti mug śin tu rab tu chuṅ ||
sems kyaṅ⁸ śin tu dag pa⁹ rñed par ḥgyur ||
de yi thos paḥi yon tan ḥdi dag go ||

lons spyod rñed nas rgyags par mi hgyur te ||
hdi la sñin po ci zes don la rtog ||
lons spyod sñin po med par rab ses nas ||
de ni lons spyod mi lta rab tu hbyun ||

^{1.} P hchad.

^{2.} P thos nas rtag tu mnon par dgah bar hgyur.

^{3.} P mnon par.

^{4.} D sñems te; P rgyug ste.

^{5.} N P R sems pa.

P gstsal.

^{7.} N dgro.

^{8.} P kyi.

^{9.} D dgah ba.

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khyim nas¹ byun ste dgon par gnas ||
rtag tu g.yel ba² med pa dan ||
chos rnams thos pas mi noms te ||³
chos sbyin pa la ser sna med ||
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hjig rten mgon pohi drun ñid du ||
son ste źu ba źu byed pas ||⁴
de phyir de yi ye śes⁵ hphel ||
de la dkar po hbri ba med ||

śā riḥi bu de ni byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa ste | byan chub sems dpaḥ de la brtson pa byan chub sems dpaḥi spyad pa spyod do⁶ || de ni śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa la brtson pa źes byaḥo ||

^{1.} DNR mnon par.

^{2.} P sñom pa.

^{3.} P chos rnams thos nas chog mi ses.

^{4.} P son ste źu ba źus byas pas.

^{5.} N ses rab.

^{6.} P śā riḥi bu de ni byan chub sems dpaḥ rnams kyi gan la brtson na | byan chub sems dpaḥ byan chub sems dpaḥi spyad pa spyod par ḥgyur baḥi śes rab kyi pha rol tu phyin pa ste, for D N R śā riḥi bu de ni ... żes byaḥo.

List of Abbreviations

A: Anguttaranikāya (Hardy, E)

AAWG: Abhandlungen der Akademie der Wissenschaften, Göttingen

Abhidh-d: Abhidharmadīpa (Jaini, P)

Abhidh-h (A): Le Coeur de la Loi Supreme: Abhidharmahrdaya (Armelin, I)
Abhidh-h (W): The Essence of Metaphysics: Abhidharmahrdaya (Willemen, C)

Abhidh-sam (R): Le Compendium de la Super-Doctrine d'Asanga:

Abhidharmasamuccaya (Rahula, W)

Abhidh-sam: Abhidharmasamuccaya (Pradhan, P) Abhisaml: Abhisamyālamkāra (Conze, E)

Adsp (C): Aṣṭādaśasāhasrikā Prajñāpāramitā (Conze, E)

Akn: Akṣayamatinirdeśa (TTP 842)
Akn-ṭīkā: Akṣayamatinirdeśa-ṭīkā (TTP 5495)
Akv: Abhidharmakośa-vibhāsā (Haribhadra)

ALB: Adyar Library Bulletin, Madras

AM: Asia Major

Amrtar (B): La Saveur de l'Immortel: La version chinoise de l'Amrtarasa de

Ghosaka (T 1553) (Broek, J)

AOH: Acta Orientalia, Hungarian Academy of Science

Arthav (S): Arthaviniścaya Sūtra (Samtani, NH)
As: Atthasālinī (Buddhaghoṣa: Müller, M)
Aṣṭa: Aṣṭasāhasrikā Prajñāpāramitā (Vaidya, PL)
Āloka: Abhisamayālaṃkārāloka (Wogihara, U)
Bbh: Bodhisattvabhūmi (Wogihara, U)

BEFEO: Bulletin de l'École Française d'Extrême Orient

Bdp: Bodhisattvapiţaka (R 11.11)

Bhadra-vy: Bhadramāyākāravyākaraṇa (TTP 760.21)
Bhadra-vy (R): Bhadramāyākāravyākaraṇa (Régamey, C)
Bpm: Bodhisattvaprātimoksasūtra (TTP 915)

Brhad: Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad BRS: Bihar Research Society

BSHS: Buddhist Studies in Honour of Hammalaya Saddhatissa

BSHWR: Buddhist Studies in Honour of Walpola Rahula

BSR: Buddhist Studies Review
BTI: Buddhist Text Information

Bv: Buddhavamsa (Jayawickrama, NA)

Chānd: Chāndogya Upanisad

CPD: A Critical Pali Dictionary (Copenhagen, 1924)
CSTCC: Ch'u San tsang Chi Chi of Seng-yu (T 2145)
D: Dīghanikāya (Rhys Davids, TW; Carpenter, J E)

Daśa-bh: Daśabhūmika-Sūtram (Rahder, J: Daśabhūmika Sūtra et

Bodhisattvabhūmi)

Dbh-v: Daśabhūmikavibhāṣāśāstra (
Dbh: Daśabhūmikasūtra (TTP 572)
Dhs: Dhammasangaṇī (Müller, M)
Dhsg: Dharmasangītisūtra (TTP 904)

Dhsgr: Dharmasamgraha (Müller, M; Wenzel, H)
Divya: Divyāvadāna (Cowell, EB; Neil, RA)

DPP: The Doctrine of Prajñāpāramitā as exposed in the Abhisamayālamkāra

of Maitreya (Obermiller, E)

Gv: Gandavyūha Sūtra (Suzuki, TD; Idzumi, H)
HIB: History of Indian Buddhism (Lamotte, E)

HJAS: Harvard Journal of Asiatic Studies

IBK: Indogaku Bukkyūgaku Kenkyū (Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies)
 IBS: Indological and Buddhist Studies: Volume in Honour of Professor J.W.

de Jong on his Sixtieth Birthday. ed. Hercus et al. Canberra: Faculty of

Asian Studies, Canberra, 1982

IHQ: Indian Historical Quarterly

IIJ: Indo-Iranian Journal

IT: Indologica Taurinensia, Turin Itv: Itivuttaka (Windisch, E)

JA: Journal Asiatique

JAOS: Journal of the American Oriental Society
Jātaka: Jātaka with Commentary (Fausböll, V)

JIABS: Journal of the International Association of Buddhist Studies

JIH: Journal of Indian History
JIP: Journal of Indian Philosophy

JRAS: Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society

Karuṇāp (Y): Karuṇāpuṇḍarīka (Yamada, I) Kv: Kāraṇḍavyūha (Samasrami, SV)

Kośa: Abhidharmakośa (La Vallée Poussin, L) Kośabhāsya: Abhidharmakośabhāsya (Pradhan, P)

Kośavyākhyā: Sphuṭārthā Abhidharmakośavyākhyā (Wogihara, U)

Kp: Kāśyapaparivarta (Stael-Holstein, A)

Lalitavistara (Lefmann, S)
Lankāv:
Lankāvatāra Sūtra (Nanjio, B)
Lkdh:
Lokadharapariprechā (TTP 841)

M: Majihimanikāya (Trenckner, V; Chalmers, R)

Madh, vrtti: Prasannapadā Madhyamakavrtti (La Vallée Poussin, L)

MBT: Minor Buddhist Texts (Tucci, G)

Maybh: Madhyamakāvatāra (La Vallée Poussin, L)

MCB: Mélanges Chinois et Bouddhiques

Mil: Milindapañha (Treckner, V)
Mmg: Mahāmeghasūtra (TTP 898)
MN: Monumenta Nipponica

Mppś: Le Traité de la Grande Vertu de Sagesse: Mahāprajñāpāramitā Śāstra

(Lamotte, É)

Msg: La Somme du Grand Véhicule d'Asanga: Mahāyanasamgraha (Lamotte,

É)

Msl: Mahāyānasūtrālaṃkāra (Lévi, S) Mvś: Madhyāntavibhāga-bhāsya

Mvś (N): Madhyāntavibhāga-bhāsya (Nagao, G)

Mvu: Mahāvastu (Sénart, E)

N: A Catalogue of the Chinese Translation of the Buddhist Tripiţaka

(Nanjio, B)

NAWG: Nachrichten der Akademie der Wissenschaften in Göttingen

Nett: Nettippakarana (Hardy, E)

Nidd: Mahāniddesa (La Vallée Poussin, L; Thomes, EJ)

Ono: Ono Gemmyo, ed. Bussho kaisetsu daijiten

Otani: A Comparative Analytical Catalogue of the Kanjur Division of the

Tibetan Tripitaka at Otani University

Pañca: Pañcaviṃśatisāhasrikā Prajñāpāramitā (Dutt, N)

Patis: Patisambhidāmagga (Taylor, AC)

PED: Pali English Dictionary (Rhys Davids, TW; Stede, W)
PEFEO: Publication de l'École Française d'Extrême Orient

PIT: Publicazioni di Indologica Taurinensia Pps Pitāputrasamāgamasūtra (TTP 760.16)

PraS: Pratyutpanna-Buddha-Sammukhāvasthita-Samādhi-Sūtra

Prbh: Pratyekabuddhabhūmi (Wayman, A)
Prn: Pūrnapariprechā (TTP 760.18)

Ps: Papañcasūdanī (Buddhaghoşa: Woods, JH; Kosambhi, D; Horner, IB)

PTS: The Pali Text Society

pw: Kleines Petersburg Wörterbuch (Böhtlingk; Roth)

R: sTog Palace Kanjur (Leh—1979)
Rcd: Ratnacūdapariprechā (TTP 760.47)
Rgv: Ratnagotravibhāga (Takasaki, J)

RO: Rocznik Orientalistyczny

Rp: Rāṣṭrapālaparipṛcchā (Finot, L)

Rtm: Ratnameghasūtra

S: Saṃyuttanikāya (Feer, L)

Saddhp: Saddharmapundarīka (Kern, H.; Nanjio, B)

Samādh: Samādhirājasūtra (Dutt, N) Satya (S): Satyasiddhiśāstra (Sastri, A)

Saṃdhis (ÉLa): L'Explication des Mystéres: Saṃdhinirmocana Sūtra (Lamotte, É)

SBE: Sacred Books of the East (Müller, M)
Sgm: Sāgaramatiparipṛcchā (TTP 819)

Siddhi: Vijñaptimātratāsiddhi (La Vallée Poussin, L)

SII: Studien zur Indologie und Iranistik Sn: Suttanipāta (Andersen, D; Smith, H)

Sp: Samantapāsādikā (Buddhaghoṣa: Takakusu, J.; Nagai, G) Sv: Sumangalavilāsinī (Buddhaghoṣa: Rhys Davids, TW)

Śbh: Śrāvakabhūmi

Śbh (S): Śrāvakabhūmi (Shukla, K)

Śgs: La Concentration de la Marche Héroique: Śūramgamasamādhisūtra

(Lamotte, É)

Śikṣ: Śikṣāsamuccaya (Bendall, C)

Śms: Śrīmālādevīsimhanāda (TTP 760.48) Śsp: Śatasāhasrikā Prajñāpāramitā (Ghosa, P)

T: Taishō Shinshū Daizōkyō Edition of the Chinese Buddhist Canon

(Takakusu, J; Watanable, K)

Th: Theragāthā (Oldenberg, H)

To: A Complete Catalogue of the Tibetan Buddhist Canon (Ui, H)

TP: T'oung Pao

TSWS: Tibetan Sanskrit Works Series
TTD: Tibetan Tripiṭaka sDe-dge Edition

TTP: Tibetan Tripitaka Peking Edition (Suzuki, DT)

Ug: Ugrapariprechā (TTP 760.19)

Vibh-a: Vibhanga Commentary (Buddhadatta, AP)

Vibh: Vihbanga (Rhys Davids, CAF)

Vism: Visuddhimagga (Buddhaghosa: Warren, HC; Kosambhi, D)

Vin: Vinayapitaka (Oldenberg, H)

Vkn: The Teaching of Vimalakīrti: Vimalakīrtinirdeśa Sūtra (Lamotte, É)

Vup: Vinayaviniścaya-Upāliparipṛcchā (Python, P)

WZKSO: Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde Süd- und Ostasiens ZDMG: Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft

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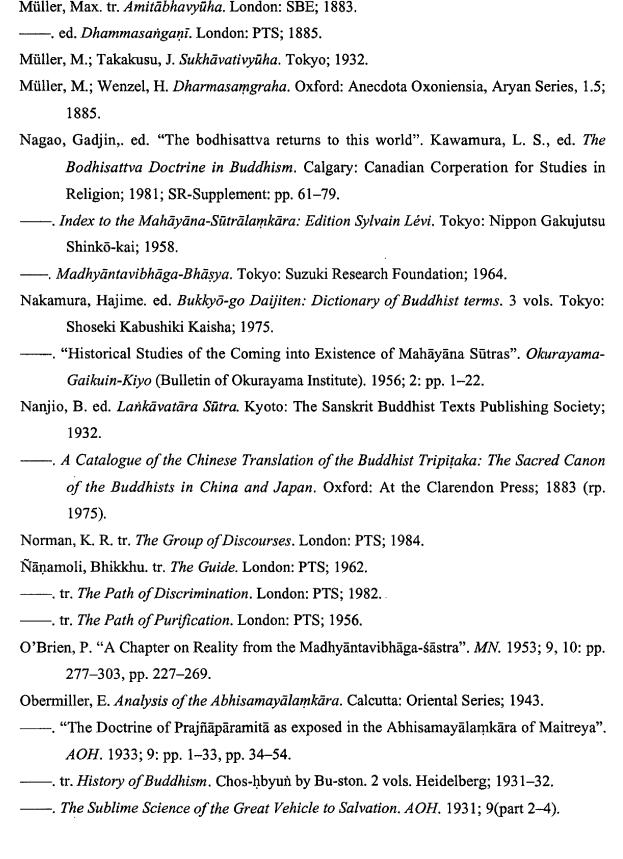
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Errata Corrige

•	
p. 19.17	for: Sukhāvativyūha, read: Sukhāvatīvyūha (ibid., p. 50, n. 111)
p. 21.15	for: Bodhisattvapiţakasūtra, read: Bodhisattvapiţaka
p. 23.21	for: forth, read: fourth
p. 26, n. 45	for: additional, read: variant
p. 33.7	for: chapters, read: discussions
p. 40.10	for: Asanga while Aśvabhāsa, read: Asvabhāva while Asanga
p. 49.13	for: bodhisattva, read: bodhisattvas
p. 54, n. 129	for: Rşivyasapariprechā, read: Rşivyāsapariprechā
p. 54, n. 129	for: Śubhākarasimha's, read: Śubhakarasimha's
p. 56, n. 139	for: T 1526, read: T 1521
p. 56, n. 139	for: In the Chinese translation of the Suvikrāntavikrāmaparipṛcchā
• ,	Prajñāpāramitāsūtra, read: In Seng-yu's catalogue
p. 56, n. 139	for: include it under, read: include its abstract under
p. 63.23	for: nineteen, read: twenty
p. 66.17	for: Vimaladattaparipṛcchā, read: Vimaladattāparipṛcchā
p. 71, n. 2	for: Hsuan-tsang, read: Hsüan-tsang
p. 90, n. 10	for: Trisamvsranirdeśaparivarta, read: Trisamvaranirdeśaparivarta
p. 90, n. 13	for: Bdp, read: Ug
p. 94, n. 25	delete: and, of course, the Bdp
p. 99.15	for: selected the pāramitā, read: selected pāramitā
p. 99, n. 36	for: twenty-one, read: twenty-three
p. 103, n. 57	for: Viradattagṛhapatiparipṛcchā, read: Vīradattagṛhapatiparipṛcchā (ibid., p.
-	107, n. 70)
p. 108.17	for: out the, read: out of the
p. 110, n. 80	for: pp. ix–x, read: pp. 5–15
p. 117, n. 5	for: Msl, read: cf. Msl
p. 118.6	for: signals, read: signal
p. 118.13	for: stage nine and ten, read: stage eight and nine
p. 121.11	for: parārthālaṃbana, read: parārthālambana
p. 121.4	for: calm nirvāṇa, read: that nirvāṇa is calm
p. 125, n. 47	for: Teviggasutta, read: Tevijjasutta
p. 126, n. 52	for: arūpyadhātu, read: ārūpyadhātu (ibid., p. 129, n. 63; p. 136.11; p. 162, n.
	213; p. 243.8; p. 315, n. 3)
p. 128.15	for: giving?, read: giving.
p. 129.14	for: friendliness, read: benevolence
p. 130, n. 68	for: are presented, read: is presented
p. 138, n. 104	
p. 141.6	for: to follow in, read: to follow
p. 148, n. 158	••
p. 149.1	for: manifest, read: manifesting
p. 149.20	delete: (sarvadharmatā)
-	for: by absence of duality, gift, read: by absence of duality, his gift
p. 157.22	for: śrāvakayāna, read: Śrāvakayāna
p. 161, n. 212	
p. 166.15	for: daśakuśala, read: akuśalakarmapatha
•	for: holders of little worth, read: holders are of little worth
p. 175, n. 283	•
p. 176, n. 287	<u> </u>
p. 177, n. 295 p. 177, n. 297	
p. 1//, 11. 49/	for: bhavişanti, read: bhavişyanti

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p. 180, n. 309 for: higher patience (sātyantaksānti), read: absolute patience (atyantaksānti)
p. 189.25
                for: apakāramarsanaksānti, read: parāpakāramarsanaksānti
p. 195.14
                delete: the bodhisattva's
                for: between ksānti and vīrya, read: between ksānti and śruta, and ksānti and
p. 197.13
p. 197,14
                for: it, read: the joint presence of ksanti and śruta
                for: rddhividhya, read: rddhividhyabhijñā
p. 214.9
p. 219, n. 518 for: willing to comply and, read: willing to
p. 221, n. 522 for: cetāna, read; cetanā
p. 224, n. 540 for: concentration agrees is, read: concentration is
                for: in first, read: in the first
p. 226.13
p. 231, n. 570 for: Śrotabhūmi, read: Śrutamayībhūmi (ibid., p. 245.14; p. 247, n. 655, 688,
                p. 266, n. 750; p. 267, n. 757; p. 291, n. 884; p. 292, n. 889; p. 314, n. 3; p.
                329, n. 35)
p. 233, n. 584 for: This very thought is also, read: The opposite thought is
p. 234, n. 588 for: vidhyā, read: vidyā
                for: mūrdhan, read: usmagata
p. 237.7
p. 243.5
                for: repeated meditation, read: repeated confrontation in meditation
                for: 'skill' prior, read: 'skill' in them prior
p. 253.17
                for: Up, read: Ug
p. 256.6
p. 262, n. 734
                for: pity, read: compassion
p. 263.2
                for: caturvidha, read: caturvidyā
p. 273.14
                for: vyakaranabhūmi, read: vyākaranabhūmi
                for: many these, read: many of these
p. 279.7
p. 281.19
                for: images, read: reflection (ibid., p. 281.20)
p. 288, n. 872
                for: p. 287, read: pp. 159-78
                for: other, read: bodhyanga and āryāṣṭāngamārga
p. 294.17
p. 296.23
                for: that unified, read; that is unified
p. 296, n. 909
                for: ekāvana, read: ekavāna
                for: with Mahāyāna text, read: with a Mahāyāna text
p. 302.26
p. 311.11
                for: hKah-hgyur, read: bKah-hgyur
p. 315, n. 4
                for: itself becomes, read: themselves become
                for: insight, read: wisdom; for: resolve, read: intent
p. 315, n. 5
                for: adhyaśāya, read: adhyāśaya
p. 316, n. 8
                for: Braarvig, read: Braavrig
p. 317, n. 13
                for: acquisition of correct reflection, read: acquisition by correct reflection
p. 318, n. 15
                for: brahmacariyā, read: brahmacariya
p. 324.21
                for: any teaching, read: any teachings
                for: the heaven of Amitabha ... of the first category, read: the Pure Land of
p. 328, n. 33
                Amitābha ... of the second category
                for: ma log pa de bźin ñid: tathāta, read: ma log pa de bźin ñid:
p. 330, n. 40
                aviparyāsatathatā; for tathātā, read: tathatā
p. 351, n. 128 for: atthamaka, read: atthamaka
                for: passed into nirvana, read: passed into parinirvana
p. 353.17
p. 355, n. 146 for: śraddha, read: śraddhā
p. 365, n. 181 for: thought as thought, read: thought
p. 383, n. 245 for: is not the object, read: not the object
p. 387, n. 257 for: briefly the characteristics, read: briefly in the characteristics
p. 387, n. 259 for: that is the meaning ..., read: what is the meaning ...?
p. 387, n. 259 for: great non-reality of samsāra, read: great punishment of samsāra
p. 389.14
               for: that all things exist, read: that all things are inherently existent
p. 501.29
               for: May, Jacques M, read: Lounsberry, G.C.
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