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# COMMON ELEMENTS IN EARLY JAIN AND BUDDHIST LITERATURE \*

Formerly Buddhist and Jain Scriptures were studied independently of each other. But, if we come to take note of the fact that there are many common elements in them, we will be able to take a wider scope of both religions.

As Buddhism came into existence in the same period and in the same area as Jainism, basing itself on the same sociological background, it is quite natural that there are many common elements in both religions. Buddhism underwent quite a great deal of change in the lapse of time. The earlier the stage of the development of this religion was, the more conspicuous the Jain influence which can be noticed.

# I. Common phrases which can be located in both scriptures

In the scriptures of both religions, especially in the  $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$  portions of both scriptures, common phrases can be noticed. This means that these phrases were derived from the spiritual atmosphere of the earlier period in which both religions were not distinctly separated, probably from the pre-Asokan period.

Especially in the  $\bar{Aya}$  ranga-sutta I (= Bambhacerāim)¹ there are some phrases which are in common with, or similar to, those in early Buddhist scriptures, such as the Suttanipāta, the Dhammapada, the Sagāthavagga of the Samyutta-nikāya, etc.

1. The text used in this connection is W. Schubring, Ācārângasūtra, Erster Srutaskandha, Text, Analyse und Glossar (Leipzig, 1910) (references to page and line of this edition).

<sup>\*</sup> Abbreviations of the titles of Pāli texts are quoted following A Critical Pāli Dictionary, Copenhagen; those of Jaina texts following Walther Schubring, Die Lehre der Jainas, Berlin, Leipzig, 1935 = The Doctrine of the Jainas, Delhi, 1962 (infra).

- Some of them have already been pointed out by the late W. Schubring. But there are still many more. They have been pointed out by Michiko Yajima<sup>2</sup>, myself and others. In the following, I shall mention them in due order.
  - Āyār 3, 9: jāe saddhāĕ nikkhanto yāya saddhāya pabbajito, SN I, 198; evaṃ s. nikkhamma, Thī 341; s. gharā n., Sn 337 = Th 195; cf. Ja IV, 33; V, 176; SN I, 120; Th 249, 789; Ap 426, 1; Thī 8 = 92; 90.
  - Āyār 5, 24: nāvakankhanti jīvium; 17, 2: nāva-jīviyam nāvakankhasi jīvitam, Ja IV, 371; -āmi jī-, Ja V, 340; -anti jī-, Ja V, 348, etc.
  - $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r$  5, 8 = 19, 8: mahab-bhayam dukkham ti bemi ...  $br\bar{u}mi$ , dukkham assa mahabbhayam, Sn 1033.
  - Āyār 6, 19: appaṃ (ca khalu) āuṃ (iha-m-egesiṃ) māṇavāṇaṃ (Prosa)
     appaṃ āyu manussānaṃ SN I, 108 (śloka): cf. MN II, 73;
    SN I, 2. Schubring explains that originally it was appaṃ khu
    āum iha māṇavāṇaṃ (Triṣṭubh-Stil, cf. Ācārânga, Analyse p. 53).
  - Āyār 6, 24: nâlam te tava tāṇāe; Sūy I, 9, 5 = Utt VI, 3 n'atthi ñātisu tāṇatā, Dhp 288; MN II, 73.
  - $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r$  8, 22:  $j\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ -maraṇaṃ parinnāya. (In this passage pari - $J\bar{N}\bar{A}$  means « to give up »).  $jahetv\bar{a}$   $j\bar{a}ti$ -maraṇaṃ asesaṃ, Sn 500.
  - Āyār 8, 23: n'atthi kālass'aṇāgamo; 18, 8: nâṇāgamo maccu-muhassa atthi n'atthi maccussa nāgamo, Ja VI, 82 (nāgama = an-, CPD); cf. n'atthi jātassa amaraṇaṃ, DN II, 246; AN IV, 137-138; Ja V, 80.
  - Āyār 8, 24-25: suha-sāyā dukkha-paḍikūlā appiya-vahā piya-jīviņo jīviu-kāmā jīvitu-kāmo amaritu-kāmo sukha-kāmo dukkha-patikulo, SN IV, 172 = 188 = MN I, 341.
  - $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r$  8, 25: savvesim jīviyam piyam sabbesam jīvitam piyam, Dhp 130.
  - Āyār 10, 4: na me dei na kuppejjā alābhe na ca kuppati, Sn 854.
  - Āyār 10, 28, 29: «lābho» tti na majjejjā, «alābho» tti na soyae. bahum pi laddhum na nihe laddhā parabhojanam na majje, Sn 366; bhoge laddhā na majjeyya, Ja III, 88; laddhā na sannidhim kayirā, na ca parittase tāni alabhamāno, Sn 924; cf. 712.
  - Āyār 11, 14: veram vaḍḍhei appaņo rajam vaḍḍheti attano, Sn 275.

<sup>2.</sup> Some sayings of  $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r$  I find their parallels in early Pāli scriptures. They have been pointed out by Michiko Yajima, in « Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies », vol. 29, no. 2 (March 1981), pp. 148-49.

- Āyār 12, 7: jassa n'atthi mamāiyam yassa n'atthi mamāyitam, Sn 950.
- Āyār 12, 11: nâraiṃ sahae vīre no sahae raiṃ 3 We find a Buddhist counterpart: nāratī sahatī dhīraṃ na ratī dhīraṃ sahati, / dhīro ca aratiṃ sahati dhīro hi aratiṃsaho, AN II, 28.

The use of the verb SAH with the negative particle na (which means « not to tolerate; nicht zu dulden ») is quite unusual in Jain literature, whereas the use of the verb in the meaning of « to conquer, overcome » is quite common in Buddhist literature. Mr. Yajima conjectures that originally there was a complete śloka in the  $\bar{A}y\bar{a}ranga$  as in the  $Anguttara-nik\bar{a}ya$ , but that in the process of transmission the latter half was lost, and the first half was changed to the form which is written down.

- Āyār 12, 16 = 23, 28: pantaṃ lūhaṃ ca sevanti (ca is lacking in 12, 16); 42, 29: pantaṃ sejjaṃ seviṃsu āsaṇagāiṃ c'eva pantāiṃ sevetha pantāni senâsanāni, Sn 72 = SN I, 154 = Th 142 = Mil 402.
- Āyār 12, 28-29: uḍḍhaṃ ahaṃ tiriyaṃ disāsu; se savvao savva-parinna-carī... uddhaṃ adho ca tiriyañ cāpi majjhe / parivajjayitā pariñña-cāri... Sn 537.
- Āyār 13, 17 = 16, 16: evaṃ dukkhā pamokkhasi evaṃ dukkhā pamuccati, Sn 171-172; kathaṃ d.p., Sn 170 = SN I, 16; sabba-d. p. Sn 80; cf. Ja I, 97; SN I, 18; 38; 57; II, 278; Dhp 189; 192; 361; It p. 52; Thī 319, etc.
- Āyār 13, 23: māī pamāī puṇar ei gabbhaṃ; 14, 15: saṃsiccamāṇā puṇar enti g.; 21, 3: moheṇa g. maraṇa'āi ei; 23, 12: cue hu bāle gabbh'āi rijjai puṇappuṇaṃ gabbhaṃ upeti mando, Dhp 325 = Th 17 = Nett 34, 129; cf. Sn 29; 152; 535; Dhp 126; Ja III, 434, etc.
- Āyār 14, 12: ummuñca pāsan iha macciehim maccupāsā pamocanam. Sn 166; yo vedī sabba-sattānam m. p. AN II, 37.
- Āyār 15, 17: no pāṇiṇaṇ pāṇĕ samārabhejjāsi no pāṇo pāṇiṇaṇ haññe, Ja I, 168.
- $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r$  15, 19:  $\bar{a}yao$  bahiy $\bar{a}$   $p\bar{a}sa$ ;  $tamh\bar{a}$  na hant $\bar{a}$  na vi gh $\bar{a}yae$  ( $tamh\bar{a}=25, 24$ ) att $\bar{a}nam$  upamam katv $\bar{a}$  na haneyya na gh $\bar{a}taye$ , Sn 705 = Dhp 129; 130 = Ja III, 292; cf. Ja VI, 139; Sn 394.

<sup>3. (</sup>V.1. sahaī 2mal BGbβ, dhīre 2mal A, na BGb, raī ADG) Jacobi: «The hero does not tolerate discontents. The hero does not tolerate lust» (SBE XXII, p. 26); Schubring: «Der Tapfere duldet [bei sich] nicht Unlust [am Mönchtum], der Tapfere duldet [bei sich] nicht Lust [an weltlichen Dingen] (Worte Mahāvīras, Kritische Übersetzungen aus dem Kanon der Jaina [Göttingen, Leipzig, 1926], p. 80).

- Āyār 16, 1: na hammai kaṃcanam savva-loe, cf. Sūy I, 5, 2, 24. na so hiṃsati kañci sabba-loke, Sn 515; cf. Sn 368.
- Āyār 16, 10-11: kā araī ke y' ānande... savvaṃ hāsaṃ pariccajja ko nu hāso kiṃ ānando, Dhp 146; cf. Ja IV, 396.
- Āyār 20, 13: jassa n'atthi purā pacchā, majjhe tassa kuo siyā; cf. yassa pure ca pacchā ca majjhe ca n'atthi kiñcanaṃ, Sn 645.
- Āyār 23, 7: puvvâvarāyam jayamāņe pubbāpararattam appamatto, Th 413.
- Āyār 24, 2; 5: dujjāyam dupparakkantam bhavai aviyattassa bhikkhuņo / sambāhā bahave bhujjo duraikkamā ajānao apāsao dukkaram duttitikkhañ ca avyattena ca sāmaññam / bahū hi tattha sambādhā yattha bālo visīdati, SN I, 7; cf. Sn 701.
- Āyār 33, 20 (gāthā): gāme vā adu vā raṇṇe gāme vā yadi vā 'raññe, Dhp 98 = Th 991 = SN I, 69; 233; Sn 119; AN I, 281; III, 354.
- Āyār 35, 9: nihāya daṇḍaṃ pāṇehiṃ nidhāya daṇḍaṃ bhūtesu, Dhp 405; Sn 629.

Two portions of the *Isibhāsiyāiṃ* have their parallels in Buddhist scripture.

In *Isibhāsiyāiṃ*, chapter 26 and chapter 32 <sup>4</sup>, the religious practice of the Jain ascetic is compared to cultivation or farming by a farmer. A teaching to the same effect is found in *Saṃyutta-nikāya* <sup>5</sup>.

These portions of text show us the development of a thought, which made use of the idea of agriculture to teach religious exercises. When we examine these portions, we find that the Buddhist version is more complete in its descriptive form than those in the Jain scripture.

Inculcating forgiveness, *Isibhāsiyāiṃ* chapter 34, p. 537, describes how people are caught and afflicted. We find Buddhist parallels in *Saṃyutta-nikāya* 6. In this case it is difficult to decide which version is older 7.

In *Isibhāsiyāiṃ* chapter 39, Saṃjaya's thought is set forth. This approximately corresponds to the thought ascribed to Saṃjaya in the Pāli Canon.

<sup>4.</sup> Isibhāsiyāim. Aussprüche der Weisen. Aus dem Prākrit der Jainas übersetzt von W. Schubring. Nebst dem revidierten Text. Hamburg, 1969, pp. 529; 536.

<sup>5.</sup> I, 17, 2 = no. VII, 2, 1, « Kasi » (= Sn pp. 12-6 = no. I, 4, « Kasi-Bhāradvāja-Sutta »); Chinese version of the Saṃyuktāgama 4, 11, Taisho Tripiṭaka vol. II, p. 27a; another Chinese version of the Saṃyuktāgama 13, 15, Taisho Tripiṭaka vol. II, p. 466b.

<sup>6.</sup> SN IV, 60-63 (= no. XXXV, 88, « Puṇṇa »); MN III, 267-270 (= no. 145, « Puṇṇovādasutta »). Chinese versions, *Taisho Tripiṭaka* vol. II, pp. 89b; 502.

<sup>7.</sup> SEIREN MATSUNAMI, Buddhistic Variants of Two Portions of the Isibhāsiyāim, in «Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies», vol. 9, no. 2 (March 1961), pp. 741-48.

In the same work, chapter 38, Sātiputta's thought is described. He is probably the same person as Sāriputta, the topmost disciple of Sakyamuni. When we examine this chapter, we find some sayings parallel to those in early Buddhist scriptures. Sātiputta is called « *Buddha*, *arahat*, *isi* » (verse 1). The application of the term « Buddha » to him is noteworthy <sup>8</sup>.

In this text also we can find correspondences:

evam buddhāṇa sāsaṇaṃ, Isibhāsiyāiṃ 38, 4 etam buddhāna sāsanam, Dhammapada 183; Milindapañha p. 394.

Parallel passages to the  $Suttanip\bar{a}ta$  can be found in Jain canonical literature.

Sn 17 tiṇṇa-kathaṃkathā; cf. tiṇṇe chinna-kahaṇkahe, Āyār 38, 1; 38, 20.

Sn 119:  $g\bar{a}me\ v\bar{a}\ adu\ v\bar{a}\ ranne,\ \bar{A}y\bar{a}r$  33, 20; cf. Dhp 98= Th 991= SN I, 233; AN I, 281; SN I, 69.

Sn 136: Utt XXV, 33.

Sn 250 ajjava-maddava: ajjaviam maddaviyam, Āyār 32, 2; cf. Utt XXIX, 48; AN I, 94; III, 248.

Sn 2: Utt XXV, 27 (the simile of lotus leaves).

Sn 271 nidāna; cf. Āyār 19, 27 (Śloka-Stil).

Sn 275: cf. veram vaddhei appaņo, Āyār 11, 14.

Sn 469: cf. *Utt* XXIX, 1; cf. 67 f.; XXXIV, 29; Sūy I, 1, 3, 7, etc.; Tattvārthādhigama-sūtra VIII, 10; Sarvadarśanasaṃgraha III, 1, 291.

Sn 515: cf. na hammai kaṃcaṇaṃ savva-loe, Āyār 16, 1; cf. Sn 368.

Sn 568-9: (Oblation to fire) *Utt* XXV, 16; cf. Vinaya, Mahāvagga VI, 35, 8; Mahāvastu III, 246, 7 ff.; Bhag. Gīta X, 23 f.

Sn 598: cf. Utt XXV, 17.

Sn 605 macche... odake vāri-gocare: cf. udae udaya-carā, Āyār 27, 24; Glossar p. 70.

Sn 629: *Utt* XXV, 19-29, 33, 34; cf. Dhp 396-423. Mahāvīra is called *māhaṇa* = *brāhmaṇa* (*Sūy* I, 2, 1, 15).

Sn 625: cf. Utt VII, 27; cf. na karmaṇā lipyate pāpakena (Bṛhad Āraṇyaka Up. IV, 4, 28).

<sup>8.</sup> HAJIME NAKAMURA, Genshi Bukkyo no Seiritsu (The origination of Early Buddhism) (Tokyo, Shunjusha, 1969), pp. 379-89.

Sn 628: cf. Utt XXV, 28, 29; 23.

Sn 629; cf. Dhp 405: nihāya daṇḍam pāṇehim, Āyār 35, 9.

Sn 631: *Utt* XXV, 21; cf. Mbh III, 206, 33. In Jainism *rāga, dosa* (= *dveṣa*), *moha* and *annāṇa* (= *ajñāna*) are enumerated (*Utt* XXVIII, 20).

Sn 632: cf. Utt XXV, 24.

Sn 633: cf. Utt XXV, 25.

Sn 645: cf. jassa n'atthi purā pacchā, majjhe tassa kuo siyā?, Āyār 20, 13 (aloluya, akimcana, Utt XXV, 28).

Sn 646: cf. Utt XXV, 3.

Sn 655: on tapas: Utt III, 20; XXX, 17 f.; XVIII, 31; Dhp 395: Utt XXV, 22.

Sn 705: cf. na hantā na vi ghāyae, Āyār 25, 24: cf. Dhp 129.

Sn 809: pariggaham amamāyamāne, Āyār 10, 20; 35, 15.

Sn 813: cf. Utt XXXIII, 1-12.

Sn 927: cf. Utt XV, 7-8.

Sn 932: cf. Sūy I, 14, 21.

Sn 934, abhibhū hi so anabhibhūto: cf. abhibhūya addakkhū aṇa-bhibhūe, Āyār 26, 1.

Sn 950: mamāyita: cf. Āyār 12, 7; mamāyate, mamāyita are used in India only in Jain and Buddhist literature; jassa n'atthi mamāiyam, Āyār 12, 7 (cf. DN II, 241, gāthā).

Sn 968: kodhâtimāna, cf. kohâimāṇaṃ haṇiyā ya vīre, Āyār 15, 10. The Jain gloss: krodhâdi-māna is wrong 9.

Sn 1040: cf. dohim antehim adissamāne tam parinnāya mehāvī viittā logam (Āyār 14, 4); majjhattho nijjarā-pehī samāhim anupālae; anto bahim viosajja ajjhattham suddham esae (Āyār 39, 1-2).

Sn 1078, viseni-katvā: visseņī-katṭu, Āyār 30, 1; cf. gloss.: viśreņīṃ  $krtv\bar{a}^{10}$ .

Moreover, see infra section III. Disciplines.

<sup>9.</sup> Schubring, Ācārânga, Glossar, p. 75.

<sup>10.</sup> Schubring interprets viśrennn kṛtvā as viśrayaṇī (kṛtvā) « den Kausalnexus » oder « die Reihe der Existenzen unterbrechend » (Ācārānga p. 101 f.). Probably this is the original meaning, which was later adopted in Buddhist literature.

Some verses of the Sagāthavagga of the Saṃyutta-nikāya find their parallels in Jain scriptures.

SN I, 7, 13 f.: dukkaram duttitikkhañ ca avyattena ca sāmaññam bahū hi tattha sambādhā yattha bālo visīdati.

Āyār 24, 2-5:

dujjāyaṃ dupparakkantaṃ bhavai aviyattassa
bhikkhuṇo
vayasā vi ege buiyā kuppanti māṇavā,
unnayamāṇe ya nare mahayā moheṇa mujjhai
sambāhā bahave bhujjo duraikkamā ajāṇao
apāsao;
cf. Sūy I, 3.

SN I, 7, 15 f.: kati-haṃ careyya sāmaññaṃ cittaṃ ce na nivāreyya pade pade visīdeyya sankappānam vasānugo.

Dasav II, 1: kahaṃ nu kujjā sāmaṇṇaṃ jo kāme na nivārae pae pae visīyanto saṃkappassa vasaṃ gao?

SN I, 7, 17 f.: kummo va angāni sake kapāle samodaham bhikkhu mano-vitakke anissito aññam aheṭhayāno parinibbuto va upavadeyya kañcī ti

Sūy I, 8, 16-17: jahā kumme sa-angāim sae dehe samāhare evam pāvehim appāṇam ajjhappeṇa samāhare (16). sāhare hattha-pāe va maṇam savvêndiyāṇi ya pāvagam ca parīnāmam bhāsādosam ca tārisam (17); [16° v.l. for e. pāvāī medhāvī]; cf. Isibhāsidm XVI, 2; Mahābhārata XII, 168, 40;

XII, 313, 39 11.

Even verses of the *Dhammapada* can be explained in the light of parallelism with Jain verses, e.g. *Dhammapada* 285: *Utt* X, 28ab, 36c <sup>12</sup>.

As the Suttanipāta and the Sagāthavagga of the Samyutta-nikāya appear to represent the earliest portions of the Pāli Tipiṭaka, it is quite natural that there is a lot of common diction and phrases between these texts and earlier Jain scriptures.

<sup>11.</sup> These verses are fully investigated by Taikyo Tanikawa, in «Mikkyō Bunka», no. 132 (Nov. 1981), pp. 69-96.

<sup>12.</sup> Kenji Watanabe, in « Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies », vol. 26, no. 1 (Dec. 1977), pp. 128-29.

#### II. Some technical terms

Some technical terms that are used in the older gāthās of Buddhist scriptures are similar to those in the gāthās of Jain scriptures, and quite different from those in Abhidharma and Mahāyāna dogmatics.

One illustration can be found in the way of enumerating mental afflictions.

It was customary among the Jains to enumerate as the principal lusts (impurities of the mind) the following four, i.e. anger (koha = krodha), pride ( $m\bar{a}na = m\bar{a}na$ ), deceit ( $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ ), greed (loha = lobha) <sup>13</sup>. This set of these four was inherited in later Jain works also. These four are called afflictions ( $kas\bar{a}ya = kas\bar{a}ya$ ). Jain ascetics should conquer them <sup>14</sup>.

On the other hand, the same thought was expressed in the *Suttani* $p\bar{a}ta$ , as follows:

yamhī na māyā vasatī na māno yo vīta-lobho amamo nirāso panuṇṇa-kodho abhinibbut-atto, so brāhmaṇo soka-malaṃ ahāsi, tathāgato arahati pūralāsam (Sn 469 = Mahāvagga IV, 15).

«He in whom there lives no deceit, no arrogance, he who is free from cupidity, free from selfishness, free from desire, who has banished anger, who is calm, the Brāhmaṇa who has removed the taint of grief, Tathāgata deserves the oblation » <sup>15</sup>.

In another passage the four are mentioned as a group, with a slight change of expression, as follows:

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hassam jappam paridevam padosam
māyā-katam kuhanam giddhi-mānam
sārambha-kakkassa-kasāva-muccham
hitvā care vīta-mado ṭhit-atto (Sn 328 = Vin, Cullavagga 9, 5).
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« Having abandoned ridiculous talk, lamentation, corruption, deceit, hypocrisy, greediness and haughtiness, clamour and harshness, depravity and foolishness, let him live free from infatuation, with a steady mind ».

Again,

māyam mānam atho pi lobha-kodham pariyantam akāsi nāma-rūpam, tam « paribbājakam » āhu patti-pattam (Sn 537).

In a Jain scripture, love  $(r\bar{a}ga)$ , hate (dosa = dvesa), delusion (moha) and ignorance  $(ann\bar{a}na = aj\tilde{n}\bar{a}na)$  are mentioned as impurities of the

<sup>13.</sup> E.g. Āyār 17, 8 ff.; Utt XXIX, 1, cf. 67 f.; XXXIV, 29; Sūy I, 1, 3, 7, etc.

<sup>14.</sup> Tattvārthādhigama-sūtra V, 10; Sarvadarśanasamgraha III, 2, 291.

<sup>15.</sup> Tr. by Fausböll, SBE X, p. 77.

mind <sup>16</sup>. Corresponding to this, love  $(r\bar{a}ga)$ , delusion (dosa = dveṣa) conceit (māna) and hypocrisy (makkha) are mentioned together (Sn 631; Vinaya, Mahāvagga). We are led to the conclusion that the way of mentioning impurities of the mind used by the early Buddhists has much in common with that used by the Jains, and is very different from that of later Hīnayāna Buddhists who established the abstruse theology of Abhidharma.

According to the dogmatical system of the Sarvāstivādins which was adopted by Mahāyāna in its essentials, krodha and māyā are paritta-kleśa-bhūmikāh dharmāh 17 or upakleśāh, whereas māna and rāga (= lobha) are aniyatāh dharmāh 18, among caittāh. So they are quite different.

Moreover, we have to discuss another Jain term. A gāthā in an early Jain scripture runs as follows:

kohâimānam haniyā va vīre, Āyār 15, 10.

A later Jain commentator explains the term kohâimāṇaṃ as krodh'ādi-māna 19. However, this must be rendered as krodhâtimāna, as Schubring explains, taking other passages into consideration. Interestingly enough to specialists, this term is found in the Suttanipāta:

krodhâtimānassa vasam na gacche.

« Let him not fall into the power of anger and arrogance » (Sn 968). This is indeed, an unusual term for Buddhists. As far as the writer of the present article knows, this term is not used as a generic term meaning « arrogance » or « conceit » in later Buddhist scriptures.

In later Buddhist dogmatics the term atimāna is a special kind of arrogance, i.e. one of the seven mānas. It means « arrogance in regarding oneself as superior to equals or in regarding oneself as equal to superiors » 20. The Jains also have lost this term so completely that later Jain scholars misinterpreted it. It is likely that the term krodhâtimāna (in the Sanskrit form) was current among the Jains, and perhaps in other religions also, in the days when both Jainism and Buddhism came into existence, and that Buddhism adopted the term into its scriptures.

In this connection we can say that the Atthaka-vagga of the Suttanipāta that contains these gāthās must be old from this point of view also.

The terms āsava (Sanskrit āśrava) and parissaya (Sanskrit pariśrava) mean « flowing in » in Jain literature, whereas in Buddhist Abhidhar-

<sup>16.</sup> Utt. XXVIII, 20.

<sup>17.</sup> Abhidharmakośa II, 27, p. 58, line 12.
18. Abhidharmakośabhāṣya ad II, 27; Abhidharmakośavyākhyā p. 132.
19. Schubring, Ācārānga, Glossar, p. 75 (supra; cf. n. 9).

<sup>20.</sup> Abhidharmakośabhāsya p. 284 f.

mika and Mahāyāna literature both terms meant traditionally « oozing out ». But in early Buddhist gāthās they meant « flowing in » just as in Jain literature <sup>21</sup>.

In a very early Buddhist scripture, diṭṭha, suta, muta, viññāta are mentioned in a set. This set is found in a Jain scripture in exactly the same order: diṭṭhaṃ suyaṃ mayaṃ vinnāyaṃ <sup>22</sup>.

The term guṇa is used in Sanskrit literature in general to mean « virtue », « Tugend ». In the Sāṃkhya philosophy it means the three constituents or strands of the primordial matter (prakrti). However, in the earliest portion of the Jain scripture this term means « objects of the senses ». This term is used in the sense of « objects of the senseorgans » (indriya-viṣaya), such as śabda,  $r\bar{u}pa$ , rasa, etc., only in the  $\bar{A}y\bar{a}ranga$ <sup>23</sup>.

It is quite rare in other Jain works. According to my investigation, the usage of this term in this sense is found only in the gāthās of the first khaṇḍa of the  $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r^{24}$ , and also in Utt X, 21 25.

In the *Mahābhārata* also the five objects experienced with the five sense-organs are called *guṇa* (Mbh XIII, 203, 1). In one case Nīlakaṇtha, the commentator, expressly interprets *guṇa* as « object » (*guṇa* = viṣaya, ad Mbh XIII, 242, 1). In one case *guṇa* is glossed as « object of experience or enjoyment » (*guṇāh bhogya-vargaḥ*, Nīlakaṇtha ad Mbh III, 210, 21). We may assume that, as an object has a property or potentiality to make experience or enjoyment possible, *guṇa*, originally meaning « property » or « virtue » could mean « object ». Of course, in the great Epic, especially in the Mokṣadharma, the term *guṇa* is used very often in the same sense as in the Sāṇkhya philosophy (e.g. XII, 219, 36). But we should not forget the fact that this term was occasionally used in the Great Epic also in the same meaning as in the Jain scriptures.

Moreover, in the Pāli Tipiṭaka the term guṇa is used in the sense of « object ». For example in the Anguttara-nikāya III, 411, 4-10, rūpa, sadda, gandha, rasa and phoṭṭhabba are called kāma-guṇa (kāmaguṇā nām' ete ariyassa vinaye vuccanti).

In the prose section also there is an example: pañca kho ime, Ānanda, kāmaguṇā. Katame pañca? Cakkhu-viññeyyā rūpā iṭṭhā kantā manāpā piyarūpā kāmûpasaṇhitā rajanīyā; sota-viññeyyā saddā; ghāna-viññeyyā gandhā; jibhā-viññeyyā rasā; kāya-

<sup>21.</sup> Sn 770-771; AN II, 196-197; 113. The change of meaning of these terms was traced by Fumio Enomoto, in «Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies», vol. 27, no. 1 (Dec. 1978), pp. 158-59 [Also see L. Alsdorf, Les Etudes jaina ([Paris], 1965), pp. 4 f.; J. Bloch, Les inscriptions d'Asoka (Paris, 1950), p. 119, n. 8. — ED.].

<sup>22.</sup> E.g. Sn 1086; 1121; 1122 etc.; cf.  $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r$  17, 28, etc.,  $\bar{S}utt\bar{a}game$ , ed. by Pupphabhikkhu, 1953, p. 14.

<sup>23.</sup> According to RATNACHANDRA'S Ardamāgadhī Dictionary (p. 631, s.v. guṇa).

<sup>24.</sup> Ayar 4, 3; 6, 8 ff.

<sup>25.</sup> Cf. Ardhamāgadhī Dictionary, s.v. kāmaguņa p. 448.

viññeyyā phoṭṭhabbā iṭṭhā kantā manāpā piyarūpā kāmûpasamhitā rajanīyā. Ime kho Ānanda, pañca kāmaguṇā $^{26}$ .

In a Chinese version corresponding to the above-mentioned passage, the term  $k\bar{a}maguna$  is translated as «the five colours »  $^{27}$ . In another version it is translated as «the five desire-meritorious virtues »  $^{28}$ . This translation is too literal, and does not make any sense. Hsuan-tsang translated it as «wonderful or attractive objects of the world », which seems to be smile-evicting. The usage of guna in early Jain gāthās corresponds to that in early Pāli gāthās and in some verses of the  $Mah\bar{a}$ -bhārata, and such a usage became extinct in later Jain and Buddhist literature. So we are led to the conclusion that the Jain and Buddhist verses in which such a usage is found must be very old.

Of course there are exceptions. The term pañca-kāmaguṇa appears in a Vajrayāna text.

pañca-raśmi-samākīrṇaṇ samantāt parimaṇḍalam pañca-kāmaguṇâkīrṇaṇ pañca pahāra-maṇḍitam (Guhyasamāja III, 2).

Danapāla, the Chinese translator, translated it as « the five sensual pleasures »  $^{29}$ .

In this connection I would like to discuss one more item.

In later Buddhist Abhidharma and Mahāyāna literature the six objects are enumerated as a set, i.e. rūpa, śabda, gandha, rasa, sprastavya and dharma. But in an old gatha only the first five are mentioned; dharma, the last one, is not mentioned30. This may reflect the stage of the development of thought before the technical term sad-visaya was adopted. The Isibhāsiyāim, the Jain work, conveys the thought of Sāriputta 31. In this passage the five sadda,  $r\bar{u}va$  (=  $r\bar{u}pa$ ), gandha, rasa, phāsa alone are enumerated. The technical term sadvisaya must have been devised at a later date. There is a peculiar term, sāta in Pāli, meaning « pleasant, agreable ». This is a rather rare word according to the Pāli-English Dictionary of the Pāli Text Society, but this word is used in the Suttanipāta 32. The meaning « pleasant » or « pleasure » of the Sanskrit equivalent sata is seldom found in Sanskrit literature in general. But we can find the use of the word in this meaning in Ardhamāgadhī Jain scriptures. The meaning of the feminine word sātā is « the feeling produced by the experience of feeling, producing karmaic

<sup>26.</sup> MN III, 114 (no. 122).

<sup>27.</sup> Sanıyuktāgamasūtra vol. XXVIII; Taisho Tripiţaka vol. II, p. 199a. 28. Madhyamakāgamasūtra vol. XLIX; Taisho Tripiţaka vol. I, p. 739b.

<sup>29.</sup> Dānapāla's translation of the Guhyasamāja, chapter III; Taisho Tripiṭaka vol. XVIII, p. 472c.

<sup>30.</sup> E.g. Sn 974; AN III, 411.

<sup>31.</sup> *Isibhāsiyāim* 38, vv. 5-6.

<sup>32.</sup> Sn 773; 867; 869; 870.

molecules at their rise »; (in Hindī) uday prāpt vedanīya karm ke pudgalom ke anubhava se utpann sukharūp vedanā 33. Therefore it means « pleasant feeling ». The passages in Buddhist scriptures in which such a Jain term is found seem to be old, as a general rule.

Some ideological features are held in common, although they may lack particular technical terms. For example, there are some passages in which it is said that philosophers in the world blame each other, and that, blaming each other, they miss the essential point 34.

The canonical scriptures of the Ajīvakas are not extant now, and their doctrines can be known only from fragmentary, casual references. It is certain that they flourished under the patronage by Mauryan monarchs such as Aśoka and Daśaratha. If some Buddhist sayings or sermons are found to be similar to those uttered by the Ajīvakas, they must be old.

#### III. Disciplines

It is likely that at the outset Buddhism did not necessarily have a special word meaning « disciplines ». In Suttanipāta 961, sīla-bbatāni for the bhikkhu are enjoined. It looks quite strange, when we consider the fact that in later Buddhist texts sīlabbatāni (Sk. śīla-vratāni) are always repudiated. It is likely that we can explain away this discrepancy or contradiction as follows. When Buddhism was in the process of formation or origination, the Buddhist order had no special term for « disciplines », so that it adopted the common term sīlabbatāni, as was used by ascetics in general in various religions. When the Buddhist order developed, Buddhists formed elaborate systems of the Vinaya, and they rejected the term sīlabbatāni, which was used by other religions.

The Buddhist sīlabbatāni are common to Jainism and the Upaniṣads to some extent.

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Suttanipāta 967 — Chāndogya Up. III, 17, 4.
            968 — Dasav IX, 3, 12.
            971 — Dasav V, 1, 2; V, 1, 3.
                  Manu VI. 68.
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Their disciplines were very simple, and similar to those of Jainism. Probably in the next stage, Buddhism coined a new term, pātimokkha 35.

The Buddhist Pātimokkha in its incipient stage was very simple and quite different from the patimokkha which is mentioned in the

<sup>33.</sup> Pannavaṇā 35; Sūy I, 1, 2, 30; cf. Ratnachandra, An Illustrated Ardha-Māgadhī Dictionary, vol. IV, 1932, p. 713.
34. E.g. Sn 1080-1083; 887; 888; Sūy II, 6, 11-13.

<sup>35.</sup> Cf. Udāna IV, 6; Th 583.

extant Pāli Vinaya. The earliest and most simple Pātimokkha is set out in the *Suttanipāta* 921 f., and we can mention Jain parallel teachings as follows <sup>36</sup>.

- « Having obtained boiled rice and drink, solid food and clothes, let him not store up (these things), and let him not be anxious, if he does not get them (924).
- « Let him be meditative, not prying, let him abstain from misbehaviour, let him not be indolent, let the Bhikkhu live in his quite dwelling » (925):
  - cf. Dasav X, 16; X, 6; VI, 19 (cf. Baudh Dh S II, 6, 11, 18) -
- « Let him not sleep too much, let him apply himself ardently to watching, let him abandon sloth, deceit, laughter, sport, sexual intercourse, and adornment (926).
- « Let him not apply himself to practising (the hymns of) the Āthabbana(-veda), to (the interpretation of) sleep and sings, nor to astrology; let not (my) follower (māmakka) devote himself to (interpreting) the cry of birds, to causing impregnation, nor to (the art of) medicine (927):
  - cf. Utt XV, 7;  $S\bar{u}y$  I, 14, 20, cf. SBE vol. XLV, pp. 70-1; Jain ascetics should not receive medicines (Dasav III, 9). Mahāvīra did not like to resort to medicines, even when he was wounded ( $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r$  36, 5-6) —
- « Let the Bhikkhu not tremble at blame, nor puff himself up when praised; let him drive off covetousness together with avarice, anger and slander (928).
  - cf. Dasav IX, 3 10; VII, 45 -
- « Let the Bhikkhu not be engaged in purchase and sale, let him not blame others in anything, let him not scold in the village, let him not from love of gain speak to people (929):
  - cf. Dasav X, 6; VII, 31; Utt III, 6; XXV, 28 —
- « Let not the Bhikkhu be a boaster, and let him not speak coherent language; let him not learn pride, let him not speak quarrelsome language (930).
- « Let him not be led into falsehood, let him not consciously do wicked things; and with respect to livelihood, understanding, virtue, and (holy) works let him not despise others (931):
  - cf. Dasav VII, 5; IX, 3, 12 —

<sup>36.</sup> I cite from Fausböll's translation (SBE X, p. 176 f.). [For vācaṃ payutaṃ, 930°, see Pj II 564 f., = cīvarâdīhi sampayuttaṃ, tad-atthaṃ vā payojitaṃ — ED.].

« Having heard much talk from much-talking Samanas let him not irritated answer them with harsh language; for the good do not thwart others (932):

— cf. Dasav VIII, 21; 47; Sūy I, 24, 21 —.

In a Buddhist gāthā <sup>37</sup> introducing the doctrine of Nigaṇṭha Nāṭaputta, the Jains are called «those who observe the four vows» (cātuyāma-susaṃvuto). On the other hand, in the first khaṇḍa of the Āyāranga «the Three Vows» <sup>38</sup> are mentioned (tiṇṇi jāmā; according to the Ṭīkā, trīṇi vratāni = prāṇâtipāta, mṛṣāvāda, parigraha). According to the Ardhamāgadhī Dictionary (s.v. cāujjāma), «the Four Vows» appear from Uttarajjhāyā and Sūyagaḍanga onwards.

The Sagāthavagga of the Saṃyutta-nikāya belongs to the oldest layer of the extant Pāli Canon. But, on this point, we can say that it synchronizes with scriptures a little later than the Āyāranga, and it is chronologically later than the first khaṇḍa of the Āyāranga. Needless to say, even the first khaṇḍa of the Āyāranga was composed after Buddha and Mahāvīra, so even the Sagāthavagga, one of the oldest Buddhist scriptures, was composed at a period rather distant from the lifetime of Buddha and Mahāvīra.

#### IV. Ideal Persons

Ideal persons are described in a similar way.

There are some common stock expressions or materials in both scriptures. The description of Mātanga <sup>39</sup> and the description of Pinga <sup>40</sup> correspond to a section of the *Suttanipāta* <sup>41</sup>. The description of Isigiri in *Isibh* 34, vv. 1-15 corresponds to SN IV, 60-63<sup>42</sup>. As these Buddhist passages were composed later, it is known that Buddhists incorporated these materials from elsewhere <sup>43</sup>.

These correspondences do not necessarily mean that Buddhist scriptures adopted materials from Jain sources. Such sages as Mātanga, Pinga, Isigiri were not Jains, but Brahmins. They are called māhaṇa-parivvā-yaga (brāhmaṇa-parivrājaka) 44. So, it is likely that in those days there

<sup>37.</sup> SN I. 66.

<sup>38.</sup> Āyār 33, 23.

<sup>39.</sup> Isibhāsiyāim 26, vv. 8-15.

<sup>40.</sup> *Ibid.*, 32, vv. 1-4.

<sup>41.</sup> Sn pp. 12-6, nos. 1-4, «Kasibhāradvāja-sutta»; Taisho Tripiṭaka vol. II, pp. 27a; 466b; 493a.

<sup>42. =</sup> no. XXXV, 88; cf. MN III, 267-270 = no. 145, « Puṇṇovāda-sutta »; Taisho Tripiṭaka vol. II, p. 89b.

<sup>43.</sup> Seiren Matsunami, in « Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies », vol. 9, no. 2 (March 1961), pp. 16-23.

<sup>44.</sup> Cf. W. Schubring, in « Nachrichten der Ak. der Wiss. zu Göttingen », no. 6 (1942), p. 492.

were Brahmin wandering ascetics who expounded various ideas or theories, and that Jains conveyed their teachings in the *Isibhāsiyāiṃ* fairly faithfully to their original teachings, whereas Buddhists conveyed them in a fairly modified form.

Moreover, some phrases of the  $Isibh\bar{a}siy\bar{a}im$  correspond to, or resemble, those in the Dhammapada and the  $J\bar{a}takas$  45.

The tendency to regard Gotama, the founder of Buddhism, and Mahāvīra, the founder of Jainism, as the supreme personages appeared very early. Already in the Pārāyanavagga of the Suttanipāta, Gotama is called « bhagavat », and in gāthās of the first khaṇḍa of the  $\bar{A}y\bar{a}ranga$ , Mahāvīra is called « bhagavat ». But some notions or epithets contrary to later ones are often found in the gāthā portions of early scriptures of both religions.

# 1) māhaṇa.

In gāthā portions of early Buddhist scriptures a sage or an ascetic whose virtues are perfected is called « brāhmana ». But in prose portions he is seldom so called. When Buddhism was in its incipient stage Brahmins were highly respected throughout the society so that Buddhists had to admit the fact, and Buddhists had to call the Buddha « brāhmana ». But, when the Buddhist order grew to be a very powerful one in later days, Buddhist bhikkhus came to be respected more than ordinary Brahmins, and there was no need to call the Buddha or ascetics « brāhmanas ». In Jain scriptures an ideal person is called « māhana », which is a corrupted Ardhamāgadhī form of brāhmana. According to Ratnachandra's Dictionary, the first meaning of this term is brāhmaṇa. The second meaning is « an ascetic who preaches that none should slay any one ». In the latter case the term was interpreted as  $m\bar{a} + HAN$ . The latter meaning can be found only in Uttarajjhāyā, Āyāranga, Sūyagadanga and Thananga according to that dictionary. It means that the ideal ascetic was called a « brāhmaṇa » only in early Jainism.

From the above-mentioned fact we are led to the conclusion that the Jain and Buddhist gāthās in which the ideal ascetic is called « <code>brāh-maṇa</code> » were composed prior to King Aśoka, because in Aśokan edicts Buddhism and Jainism are separately mentioned from Brahmanism. In a slight later text also Mahāvīra is called <code>mahāmāhaṇa</code>, as in <code>Uvāsaga-dasāo</code>. In this case it seems to me that the old appellation was not completely given up, but was inherited by later Jains.

<sup>45.</sup> Shinkō Sayeki, in «Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies », vol. 6, no. 1 (Jan. 1958), p. 172. This fact should be explained in this light.

#### 2) jakkha.

In some gāthās of the Pāli Canon, the Buddha or Sakyamuni is called yakkha <sup>46</sup>. In later Buddhist literature a yakkha or yakṣa is a being opposed to the Buddha. In one case yakkha means a human being. Yakkhasṣā ti sattaṣṣa naraṣṣa mānavaṣṣa poṣaṣṣa puggalaṣṣa jīvaṣṣa jaguṣṣa jantuṣṣa indaguṣṣa manujaṣṣa <sup>47</sup>. The term yakṣa appears often in the Rgveda <sup>48</sup>. Although scholars have discussed its meaning enthusiastically, it is not yet clear. A certain scholar ṣayṣ that, originally, it meant « Zauberding », « Zauberwesen » (RV), « unheimliches Wesen » (Kauś.); « übernatūrliches, grosses Wesen höherer Art » (AV) <sup>49</sup>.

In spite of current different explanations it is certain that the meaning of yakkha in early Buddhist gāthās is not the same as that in the later Buddhist literature. It is similar to the meaning of the term jakkha which is found in early Jain scriptures, in which jakkha is mentioned side by side with nāga and bhūta. In Sūy II, 2, 1, jakkha is regarded as a gentle being. In Utt V, 24, he is said to be virtuous and effulgent (visālisehiṃ sīlehiṃ jakkhā uttara-uttarā / mahā-sukkā va dippantā..., Utt III, 14). When we examine yakkha images deriving from the Maurya and Śunga periods with the inscription yakkha, their countenance is gentle, soft, mild, and bright, not bizarre nor dreadful at all.

Therefore we are led to the conclusion that the Buddhist gāthās in which the Buddha or Sakyamuni is extolled as a *yakkha* and the Jain gāthās in which *jakkha* is extolled as an ideal being were probably made after the Sunga period.

### 3) kevalin.

In ancient religions, such as Jainism, an ascetic who had perfected his personality and attained spiritual liberation was called « kevalin » chiefly among śramaṇas 50. This appellation was retained among the Jainas till late. In early gāthās Buddhists also used this appellation to mean the Buddha 51.

In the prose section also the Buddha was (rarely) called a  $kevalin^{52}$  but in later days Buddhists gave up this appellation and the Buddha was never called a kevalin.

<sup>46.</sup> E.g. MN I, 386, gāthā; cf. Sn 478; 875; 876.

<sup>47.</sup> Mahāniddesa p. 281.

<sup>48.</sup> MACDONELL and KEITH, Vedic Index, II, p. 182.

<sup>49.</sup> A. HILLEBRANDT, Vedisch yakşa, Aus Indiens Kultur. Festgabe für Richard von Garbe, Erlangen, Verlag von Palme und Enke (1927), pp. 17-23.

<sup>50.</sup> Sn p. 105 f., « Selasutta ».

<sup>51.</sup> Sn 481; 519; 878 f.; AN II, 23, gāthā.

<sup>52.</sup> E.g. SN III, 61.

#### 4) similes.

In both Buddhist and Jain literature many similes are used to describe the ideal state of an ideal person who is perfected. On this point also comparative studies are useful. To illustrate, parallel sayings to *Dhammapada* verse 285 can be found in *Uttarajjhāyā* X, 28, 36:

ucchinda sineham attano, kumudam sāradikam va pāṇinā santi-maggam eva brūhaya nibbāṇam Sugatena desitam (Dhp 285). vocchinda siṇeham appaṇo, kumuyam sāraiyam va pāṇiyam (Utt X. 28ab).

santī-maggam ca vūhae (Utt X, 36c) 53.

Jacobi translated the passage as follows:

« Cast aside from you all attachments, as the (leaves of) a lotus let drop off the autumnal water, exempt from every attachment, Gautama, etc. »  $^{54}$ .

The idea « autumnal water » sounds romantic. But, if we compare the above-mentioned verses with each other, we have probably to translate the phrase *kumuyaṃ sāraiyaṃ* as « the autumnal lotus », which represents the ideal, sublime state of a perfected person. This explanation can be justified by comparison with *Utt* XXV, 27 and SN III, 140.

#### V. Conclusion

The above mentioned facts are just pieces of evidence that Buddhism owed much to Jainism in the days of its rise, or we can at least say that, in order to make clear the aspects of Buddhism in its incipient stage, studies of early Jain scripture are indispensable. We can also say that comparison with parallel passages in early Buddhist scripture is quite helpful in clarifying the meanings of terms and phrases and the purport or thought of passages of Jain scriptures which would otherwise be dubious or obscure. So, studies of early Buddhism or Jainism in the broadest sense will lead to the clarification of various aspects of Indian religions and culture.

#### **ABBREVIATIONS**

 $\bar{A}y\bar{a}r = \bar{A}y\bar{a}rangasutta$ ; cf. n. 1.

Dasav = The Dasaveyāliyasutta, edited by Dr. E. Leumann and translated, with Introduction and Notes, by Dr. W. Schubring, Ahmedabad, 1932 = Kleine Schriften, Wiesbaden, 1977, pp. 111-248.

SBE = Sacred Books of the East, Oxford, 1879-1900.

Sūy = Sūyagadamga, edited by Pupphabhikkhu, in «Suttāgame», I (Gurgaon, 1953).

Utt = The Uttarādhyayanasūtra, edited by J. Charpentier, 2 vols., Upsala, 1921-22.

<sup>53.</sup> These parallels were discussed by Kenji Watanabe, in «Journal of Indian and Buddhist Studies», vol. 26, no. 1 (Dec. 1977), pp. 128-29.
54. SBE XLV, p. 44.

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