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Book Review

BHAVA PAHUDA, edited by Late Ajit Prasad with an English translation and a commentary and published by All India Digambar Jain Mahasabha, Aishbagh, Lucknow, 1992. Pages XV+105. Price Rs. 50.00.

The All India Digambar Jain Mahasabha, Aishbagh, Lucknow, is to be congratulated for publishing the *Bhāva-pāhuda* of Kundakundācārya, a treatise on the discourse of soul activity with an English commentary by late Pandit Ajit Prasad who died on 17 September, 1951. Naturally the translation and the commentary were done before 1951. It was K. B. Jindal who took the labour of redrafting and recasting the whole matter and prepared a fresh manuscript for the press. Thanks for his honest and scholarly endeavour.

Though difference of opinion will never be swept away as long as the world endures, it is the general belief of the scholars that Kundakunda belonged to the first century A.D. He is a Digambar Jain and a prolific writer. It is said that the birth place of Kundakundācārya is the town Kundakunda in Anantapur District near the Guntakul Railway Junction in modern Andhra Pradesh in the South. His writings are many. Eightyfive books are generally ascribed to him, out of which Pravacanasāra, Niyamasāra, Samayasāra, Pañcāstikāya are well-known. He has also written Aṣṭa-pāhuḍas for the Jaina monks who are reminded not to deviate from the path of rectitude and asceticism prescribed for them. Of these eight pāhuḍas, the Bhāva-pāhuḍa is the fifth one, others being on Darśana, Sūtra, Cāritra, Bodha, Moksa, Linga and Śila.

In his preface K. B. Jindal has explained the meaning of pāhuda on the basis of the discussion found in the Kasāya-pāhuda. These meanings of pāhuda are suggested:

- 1. All that is written in Prakrit verse-form is pāhuḍa (pāhuḍa tti kā nirutti? jamhā padehi phuḍam tamhā pāhuḍam).
- 2. All that is laid down by the Tirthenkaras is pāhuda (prakṛṣṭeṇa Tīrthankarena ābhṛtam prasthāpitam iti prābhṛtam).

3. All that is imbibed by the Ācāryas and later on, preached and carried over from predecessor to successor is pāhuḍa (prakṛśṭairācāry-air vidyāvittavadbhirābhṛtaṁ dhāritaṁ vyākhyātamānītamiti vā prābhṛtaṁ).

From this point of view all sastras offered at the feet of the Masters are pāhudas.

The $Bh\bar{a}va$ - $p\bar{a}huda$ has four elements. It has the original in Prakrit with Sanskrit rendering $(ch\bar{a}y\bar{a})$ together with an English translation. It has a very good commentary in English also. It has no verse index and no analysis of the topics is added to it. Even then the treatise itself is very nicely and neatly printed with a very good paper befitting the publication of the Sacred Books of the Jains. It is a pity that the book is published after the lapse of forty years of the demise of the author. However for the future generation it is a welcome treatise.

The commentary and the English translation are well executed. The language of the author is lucid and simple, and every point of it is clearly explained. I believe that this edition will be adorned by all Jain scholars.

VARDHAMAN-JIVAN-KOSA, compiled and edited by Mohanlal Banthia and Srichand Choraria, Jain Darshan Samiti, 16C Dover Lane, Calcutta-600029, 1988. Pages 80+448. Price Rs. 75.00.

The Volume three of Vardhamān-Jīvan-Kośa compiled and edited by Mohanlal Banthia and Srichand Choraria is a valuable source-book on the life and teachings of Vardhamāna Mahāvīra. Some few years ago, the two other volumes (Vol. I, 1980 and Vol. II, 1984) of the same series came out. In all the volumes the plan and scope are the same. The methodology adopted in all these volumes is not only unique of its kinds, but also totally new in this type of cyclopaedic work. The material collected in all these volumes is very systematic, and will remain as a source-book for years to come to the scholarly world.

The book is well-printed and the binding is carefully executed. The printing mistakes are exceptionally few. It supersedes all the previous volumes.

For preparing a Dictionary on the life and teachings of Vardhamana, the erudite editors are to be thanked for presenting such a research work. The book is divided into several sections as far as 99 and these sections are again sub-divided into several other decimal points for easy references. Each decimal point is arranged in accordance with the subject matter connected with the life and teachings of Lord Mahāvīra. The table of contents of this work will tell us how to use this Cyclopaedia. All the facts of Mahāvīra's life are authenticated by quotations from over 100 books followed by Hindi translations. These quotations are necessary for making this volume useful. This unique feature of the book shows the critical outlook and deep scholarship of the editors. The project of this research work indicates that there could be some two or more volumes of this Vardhamān-Jīvan-Kośa. The Jain Darshan Samiti is to be heartily congratulated for undertaking such a laborious and tedious project on Jainism.

This Cyclopædia of Vardhamana will be very useful for the source-material on the life and story of Lord Mahavira. As the editor has ransacked both the Svetambara and Digambara source-books, this volume is free from all sorts of parochial outlook. I hope, this book must be in the library of every learned scholar.

-Dr. Satyaranjan Banerjee

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Sacred Literature of the Jains

[from the previous issue]

Following upon the enumeration of the seven groups in the significant statement⁴⁸³ that six of this number (according to the schol the first six) belong to the system $\kappa \alpha \tau' \in \mathcal{E}o \times \eta' \nu$ (sasamaivāni) and that the number seven belongs to the ajīviyas. The six are then characterized as caükkanaivāni (caturnavikāni); the seven as terāsivāni (°vāim navāim N. trairāšikāni). The scholia explain one of these two names of schools by [351] Gośālapravartitājīvika (°tā ājīvikāh N) = pāsaņdasiddhāmta (pāsandinah N), the second by trairāsikapāsandasthās. The mention of this second name leads us, so to speak, to the domain of history. The Terāsiyas represent the six schism, 484 which $\bar{A}v\bar{a}\dot{s}v$. 8. 56. 72. refers to the year 544 after Vira; 485 and this name is perhaps attested by epigraphic testimony of the time of Gotamiputra Satakarni. If we suppose that the reading Terāsikā, proposed by Bühler (Archaeolog, Survey of West India, 1882, p. 104) for the inscription Nāsik No. 11a, is conclusive, it is not improbable that it refers to the Terāsiyas quoted above. Bühler, it must be confessed, has adopted another explanation of the name in his Survey.

The explanations of the scholiasts have as yet not assisted me in the endeavour to discover what is referred to by the four nayas, 486 &c [352]. It is a significant fact that the twelfth anga, according to the above statements, treated not merely of the proper but also of heterodox doctrines, or, as the case may be, of hermeneutic methods; and the title of this anga seems to refer to this peculiarity in its contents.

- 493 In the Berlin MS. of the Nandī this passage is omitted in the text, though it is explained by the scholiast
- 484 See above p. 275; accord to Abhayadeva however:—ta eva cā "jīvikās trairāsikā bhanitāh, or, accord. to the schol on the Nandī which is identical:—ta eva Gośalapravartitā ājīvikāh pāṣandinas trairāsikā ucyamte—the trairāsikā are the same as the adherents of Gośala. In § 6 of the Therāvalī of the Kalpasūtra Chalua, the founder of the sixth schism, is stated to have been the scholar of Mahāgiri, who was the successor of Thūiabhadda (Vīra 215, cf. p. 348), and is placed about 300 years earlier than Vīra 544. These are discrepancies not easily overcome. The further explanation of the name trairāsika in the schol. on N. is: te sarvam vastu trayātmakam icchamti. tad yathā; jīvo' jīvo jīvājīvas ca. loko'loko lokā-lokās ca sat asat sad-asat, nayacimtāyām dravyāstikam paryāyāstikam ubhayāstikam ca; tatas tribhi(h) rāsibhis caramtī 'ti trairāsikās, tanmatena saptā'pi parikarmāni ucyamte. It is worthy of note that the triad form ascribed to the Trairāsikas is made use of—cf. p. 266 in anga 4, where the statement of the contents of angas 2-5 is given, and in fact with the citation of two of the examples quoted here. Accord. to the schol. on Kalpas., cf. Jacobi, p. 119, the Vaisesikadaršanam took its rise from the Terāsiyas.
- 485 Cf. Āvašy. 8,37 : eehim (ebhir naigamādibhir nayaiḥ) diṭṭhivāe parūvaṇā suttaatthakahaṇā ya.
- 486 nayāḥ sapta naigamādayaḥ, naigamo dvidhā, sāmānyagrāhī višesagrāhī ca, tatrā "dyaḥ samgrahe dvitīyas tu samvyavahāre pravistaḥ, tato dvau samgrahavyavahārau, rijusūtras cai' kaḥ sabdādayas ca trayo 'py eka eva nayaḥ kalpate, tata evam

which was probably of great moment in determining the fate of the last of the angus. See pp. 248,342.

The suttāi are cited as constituting the second part of the diṭṭhivāa. In all there are 88 suttāi, a number ascribed487 to the second part in anga 4, 88. In reality, however, there are but 22, beginning with ujjuya (ujjusua N; rijuka), but conceived as divided into four parts. The proper orthodox (sasamaya) doctrine and the heterodox views are represented as being equally authoritative. The former are divided into two different forms which are also represented by the ājīviya (Gośālakaprava·titapāṣaṇḍa Abh.), or terāsiya. The 22 names are not explained by the scholia. They refer488 the name sūtra to the explanation of the meaning of the pūrvas, and consider this as well as the first part as an introduction to the third part of the ditthivāa which follows.

the 14 $p\bar{u}rv\bar{a}ni$, which the Tirthankara (Mahavira) himself is said to have imparted to his scholars, the ganadharas—see above p. 216,217—who then composed the angas ($a\bar{c}a\bar{r}adikam$). Besides this explanation which represents the $p\bar{u}rvas$ as older and earlier doctrines anticipating the angas, there is another which is possible. If our second conjecture is correct, we should have to understand by the $p\bar{u}rvas$ that preliminary knowledge necessary to the comprehension of the doctrine. The titles of the 14 $p\bar{u}rvas^{490}$ quoted here in the text and enumerated before in § 14 are explained singly in the scholia, and the number of their padas, is stated. The enormous size of these figures greatly exceeds as a rule that which the scholiasts—see above p. 288 state to be the number of the padas of the angas, each one of which was said to contain twice the number of padas of the preceding

- catvāra eva nayāh, etais caturbhir, nayair ādyāni sat parikarmāņi svasamayavaktavyatayā cimtyamte; on this see Šīlānka on anga 1, 1, 8, above p. 347n.
- As regards other names reference is made to the Nandi and not to the independent treatment of the subject further on in anga 4. See above p. 284.
- 488 Sarvasya pūrvagatasūtrārthasya sūcanāt sūtrāņi, tāni ca sarvadravyānām sarvapar yāyānām sarvanayānām sarvabhamgavikalpānām prakāšakānī dvāvinšatih prajnaptāni, tathā rijusūtram iti ādi.
- 489 Cf. Schol, Hem. 245; pūrvanām gatam jūānam asmin pūrvagatam. The anonymous author of the Vicārāmttasamgraha which contains in 25 vicāras a grouping of siddhānta passages, ā'āpakas, states that the pūrvagatasrutadharas were called vācakar, or, accord, to the Nandīvītti cited by him, but which I have not seen, three other names vādiya khamāsamane divāyare vāyaga tti egaṭṭhā ļ puvvagayammi tu sutte ee saddā pauṭṭamti. Can the Vicārāmttasamgraha be identical with the Siddhāntālāpakoddhāra of Kulamamana, Samv. 1409-55 cited in Kl. 255b?
- 490 They agree in general with those in Hem. 247,248. The explanation is likewise identical; see the schol. *ibid*. The number of *padas* is the same as that stated in

The names of the $p\bar{u}rvas$ [354] are as follows:—

1. uppāyapuvvam, 491 utpādapūrvam; 10 vastu and 4 cūliya vastu; ekā padako tī, 10 millions.

- 2. aggeniyam (ABC), agge-anīyam N (aggānīyam N ed., according to Leumann); agreniyam Abh., 492 and agrāyanīyam 493 Schol. on N; 14 vastu (so also in § 14) and 12 cūliya vastu; sannavatih padalakṣāḥ (9,600,000). A direct citation from this is found in Āvaśy. 10,42494 and in Malayagiri on upānga 4 (agrāyanīyākhye dvitīyapūrve karmaprakṛti prābhṛte bamdhavidhāne sthitibamdhādhikāre catvāri anuyogadvārāṇi...). An anonymous avacūri on Candra-mahattara's Saptatīkā (ms. or. fol. 690) calls this work an excerpt from the diṭṭhivāa, especially from the fourth prābhṛtam (karmaprakṛtināmam of the fifth vastu of the second pūrva ("agrāyanīya"). In the Vicārāmṛtasamgraha we find the following interesting statement taken from the "Nandīvṛtti:—Sivaśarma-Sūryādibhir agre 'nīyādipūrvebhyaḥ samuddhṛtāḥ śatakādi karmagramthāḥ. There actually [355] exists a siddhapāhuḍam in 120 gāthās, which is characterized as having taken its rise from the aggeniyapuvva; see p. 361.
- 3. vīriyam, vīryapravādam; 495 8 vastu and 8 cūliya vastu; tasyā 'pi(!) saptatiķ padasahasrāņi Abh., but in the schol. on N: 78 padalak ṣāḥ 7,800,000.—Citation from this in Haribhadra on Āvaśy. 10,42 (see p. 354, note 4).
 - 4. atthinatthippaväyam, astinästipravädam; 496 18 vastu (also according

the introduction to the Kalpāntarvācyāni. In this work the number of vasti (? vastu) of each $p\overline{u}rva$ is said to increase from 1 on by geometrical progression (8192 in the case of $p\overline{u}rva$ 14). Here however in the text itself—see p. 366—we find entirely different figures which are quite credible. The figures in the case of 1.3.7.10 vary somewhat in the enumeration of the $p\overline{u}rvas$ in Nemicandra's $pravacanas\overline{a}rodh\overline{a}ra$ § 92, v. 719-25.

- 491 sarvadravyāṇām paryavāṇām (! paryāyāṇām) co'tpādabhāvam amgīkṭṭya prajñāpanā Abh., sarvadravyāṇām utpādam adhikṭṭya prarūpaṇā N.
- 462 tatrā' pi sarvesām dravyānām paryavānām (!) jīvavisesānām cā 'gram parimānam varnyate ity agrenīyam. Abh. ; agram parimānam tasyā 'yanam paricchedas tasmai hitam agrāyaniyam sarvadravyādi-parimānakāri Schol. on N.
- 493 The Schol. on Hem. Kalpāntarvācyāni has the same.
- 494 aggeniammi jahā Divāyana jattha ega tattha sayam jattha sayam tatthe 'go hammai vā bhumjae vā vi/|Haribhadra says: jahā agrianīnie (!) vīrie atthinatthipavāyapuvve ya pādho: jatthe 'go Dīvāyano bhumjai tattha Dīvāyanasayam bhumjai, jatthā Dīvāyanasayam bhumjai tattha ego Dīvāyano bhumjai; evam hammai. According to this the similar passage should be found also in puvvas 3 and 4. See the remarks on Ambada in Aup. § 89; Ambada is mentioned ibid § 76 together with Dīvāyaṇa.
- 495 padaikadese padasamudāyopacārāt sakarmetarānām jīvānām ajīvānām ca vīryam pravadatī 'ti vīryapravādam Schol. on N.
- 496 yat loke dharmāstikāyādi vastu asti yac ca nā 'sti kharaśrimgādi tat pravadati 'ty astino odam, Schol. on N. yal loke yathā vā nā (del,?) 'sti athavā syādvādābhi-

- to § 18) and 10 cūliya v.; 60 padalakṣāḥ, 6 millions.—Citation as above.
- 5. nāṇappavāyam, 497 jñānapravādam; 12 vastus; ekā padakoṭī eka-padonā (Abh., padenai 'kena nyūnā schol. on N), i. e., 9,999,999(!) Malayagiri on N has, according to Leumann, 10,000,006.
- 6. saccappavāyam, satyapravādam :498 2 vastus, ekā padakotī ṣaḍ-bhir adhikā, 10,000,006(!) 060 Malay., according to Leumann.
- 7. āyappavāyam ātmapravādam; 499 16 vastus (also according to § 16); 26 padakotayah 260 millions. Leumann says that a passage, which caused the second schism, is found in the schol. on anga 3,7 (see above, p. 275). Uttarajjh. 3,9, Āvasy. 8,65.
- [356] 8. kammappavāyam, karamapravādam⁵⁰⁰; 30 vastus; ekā padakotī 80 padasahasrāni, 10,080,000(!). A passage from this, which caused the Abaddhiā or Gotthāmāhila to inaugurate the seventh schism is found in the extract just quoted, and in Haribhadra on Āvaśy., 8,89, where he remarks: aṭṭhame kammappavāyapuvve kammam parāvimti upon the following passage of the text: Goṭṭhāmāhila navamaṭṭhamesu pucchā ya Vimjhassa.
- 9. paccakkhānappavāyam⁵⁰¹, pratyākhyānapravādam; 20 vastus (also in § 20); 84 padalakṣāḥ, 8,400,000. For this pūrvam we have quite a number of references. The above cited passage of $\bar{A}vasy$. 8,89-91 and Haribhadra's scholion seem to prove that the Abaddhiā stood in some relation to the ninth $p\bar{u}rva$. The statement is frequently made that the kalpasūtram, which forms the eighth adhyayanam of the dasā
 - prāyatas tad eva nā 'sti 'ty evam pravadatī 'ti, Abh. The syādvāda, which the Brāhmins consider to be a distinguishing mark of the Jains, comes here for once into prominence.
- 497 matijāānādibhedabhinnam saprapamcam vadatī 'ti Schol. on N; matijāānādipamcakasya bhedasya prarūpanā Abh
- 498 satyam samyamo vacanam ca, tat prakarsena vadati, Schol. on N; tad yatra sabhedam apratipaksam ca varnyate Abh.
- 499 ātmānam jīvam anekadhā nayamatabhedena yat pravadati, Schol. on N.
- 500 karma jāānāvaranīyādikam astaprakāram, tat prakarsena prakrtisthity-anubhāga-pradešādibhir bhedaih saprapamcam vadati. Schol. on N....bhedair anyais co'ttarottarabhedair yatra varnyate, Abh.
- 501 tatra sarvapratyākhyānasvarūpam varnyate, Abh, in the Schol. on N merely; atrā 'pi padaikadese padasamudāyopacārāt.
- 502 The text reads puttho jahā abaddho | kamcuinam kamcuo samunnei | 'evam puttham abaddham | jivo kammam samannei||90||paccakkhānam seam|aparimānena hoi kāyavvam|jesim tu parimānam | tam dathum (duttham BH) āsasā. hoi ||91|| Haribh. has: pratyākhyānam śreyah aparimānena kālāvadhim vihāya kartavvam—jam tassa avasesam navamapuvvassa tam sammattam; tato so abhinivesena Pūsamittasayāsam ceva gamtūna bhanai—Pūsamitta's name is elsewhere brought into connection with the fourth schism. See schol. on up 1, below p. 381. This name occurs frequently in the legends of the Brahmins and Buddhists.

śrutaskandha, and the fourth chedasutra, was "uddhrta" by Śri Bhadrabāhusvāmin from the ninth pūrva. Thus, for example, in the introduction 1357] to the Kalpāntarvācyāni. 503 This appears to me to rest upon a misunderstanding (as will be developed further on) of the statement that is frequently met with elsewhere, e. g. in Dharmaghoşa in the Rsimandalasūtra v. 167 (see Jacobi, Kalpas, p. 11,12), to the effect that Bhadr. extracted dasa⁵⁰⁴ kappavvavahārā from the 9th puvva. By these are meant the chedasūtras 3-5, and by kappa, not the kalpasūtram, but the fifth chedasūtram is implied. Haribhadra, too, on Avasy. 6, 88, characterizes the ninth purvam in general as chedasutra laksanam and especially the twentieth prābhrtam (by name oghapr.), the third vastu (by name ācāra) as the source of the oghaniryukti treating of the oghasamācārī. He says that the oghanir yukti is nirvyūdhā therefrom. In an avacūri (composed⁵⁰⁵ A. D. 1383) on Dronacārya's vṛtti of the oghaniryukti, the chedasutras, especially kalpa and vyavahāra, are referred to the same source. See also the scholiast on Uttarajjh. 26.

- 10. vijjānuppavāyam, vidyānupravādam; 506 15 vastus (also in § 15); ekā padakoṭiḥ daśa ca padasahasrānī (daśa ca p. omitted in N) 10,010,000. The cause of the formation of the fourth schism is a passage from this puvva, cited in the passages quoted on puvva 7, or Āv. 8,59. [358] neuniā 'nuppavāe, on which Haribhadra says: anupravādapūrve ņeuniyam vacham [vatthu?] padhati) Leumann compares the 9 neuniyam vatthus in anga 3,9.
- 11. avamjham, avamdhyam ; 507 kalyāṇam Hem, ; abandhyam iti vā Schol. : 12 vastus ; 26 padakoṭayaḥ, 260 millions.
- 12. pāṇāum, prāṇāyus; 508 prāṇāvāyam(!) Hem.; 13 vastus (cf. § 13); 1 padakoṭī 56 padaśatasahasrāṇi, 15,600,000.
- 503 This is the chief passage, which contains the statements in reference to the pūrvas.
- 504 Dasa is not to be connected with kappa, as is assumed by Jacobi (The ten kalpas), but denotes the dasāo, the fourth chedasūtram itself, a part of which exists to-day under the title of the kalpasūtram.
- 505 navamapūrvāmtarvarti tritīvam sāmācārīvastv asti, tatrā 'pi vinsatitamāt prābhītāt sādhvanugrahārtham Bhadrabāhusvāminā nirvyūdhā. The following fact speaks decisively against Bh. as author of the oghan. In v. 1 not only are the caūddasapuvvins praised to which he himself belongs, but also the dasapuvvins which reach to Vajra; consequently the existing text must have been composed at a period considerably posterior to Vajra.
- 506 tatrā 'nekavidyātisayā varņitāh Abh., vidyā anekātisayasampannā ānukūlyena siddhi prakarsena vadatīti, Schol. on N. On sātisayatva in connection with vidyā, cf. p. 251n.
- 507 yandhyan nāma nihphalan, avandhyam saphalan ity a., tatra hi sarve jūnatapahsanyamayogāh subhaphalena saphalā vainyante, aprasastās ca pramādādikāh sarve asubhaphalā varnyante, Abh.
- 508 prnāh pamce 'mdriyāni 5, trīni mānasādīnī valāni 3, uchvāsa-ni (ḥ) śvāśo 1, āyūśca, tāni yatra varnyamte tad upocārāt prānāyuh schol. on N.

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- 13. kiriyāvisālam, kriyā (bhiḥ) višālam ; 509 30 vastus ; 9 padakoṭayaḥ, 90 millions.
- 14. logavimdusāram (without loga in § 14), vimdur iva sāram⁵¹⁰; 25 vastus (also in § 25); ardhatrayodaśa (sārdha° N) padakoṭayah 125 (135 N) millions. This pūrvam is often mentioned as the conclusion of the angas or of the suanāna. See above p. 245,346.

It is now perfectly clear that the number of padas which has been handed down to us is purely a matter of fiction. The exact figures in the case of 5 and 6 are simply amusing. It is easy to revel in detail, when the fancy is the only controlling agent.

The enumeration of the names in the text is followed by detailed statements in reference to the number of each of the vatthus, 1359] vastus and $c\bar{u}liyas$ or $c\bar{u}la$ -vatthus, 11 i. e. sections into which each of the 14 puvvas are divided. These numbers, in all 225 vatthus ($m\bar{u}lav$.) and 34 $c\bar{u}lav$., are also mentioned in three $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}s$, which have been inserted; and each of which has been quoted in its proper place.

The fourth part is called anuyoga; Hem. calls it $p\bar{u}rv\bar{a}nuyoga^{512}$ and places it (cf. p. 347) in the third position, the $p\bar{u}rvagatam$ occupying, according to him, the fourth place. A contents of historical character is ascribed to this fourth part. The anuyoga⁵¹³ is divided into two sections: (1) into the $m\bar{u}lapratham\bar{a}nuyoga$, treating of the root (of the tree of the sacred doctrine), or, according to the scholiasts, of the Tirthankaras, ⁵¹⁴ i.e., the history of the beginning, of the preliminary birth, of the existence and of the final completion of the bhagavamtāṇam arahamtāṇam; and (2) into the gaṇḍikānuyoga, i. e., the doctrine of the

⁵⁰⁹ kriyābhih samyamakriyādibhih visālam, schol. on N; tatra kāyikyādayah kriyāh sabhedāh samyamakriyā-chedāh (chamda?) kriyāvidhānāni ca varnyamte, Abh. (Malay. has according to Leumann: samyamakriyāchamdakriyādayas ca).

⁵¹⁰ loke jagati śrutaloke vā'kṣarasyo 'pari vimdur iva sāram, sarvākṣarasamnipātalabdhihetutvāt, schol. on N.

⁵¹¹ N has cullavatthuni, which is explained by the schol. by kṣullavastuni, whereas culā is explained by śikharam! Abh. understands here, as in anga 1, cudā to be secondary additions. See p. 360n.

⁵¹² cf, Wilson Scl. W. 1, 285, pūrvānuyoga on the doctrines and practices of the Tīrthankaras before attaining perfection,...pūrvagate on the same after perfection(!)

⁵¹³ anuyogah, sūtrasya nijenā 'bhidheyena sārdham anu (rūpah?) sambamdhah ity a. Abh.

⁵¹⁴ ihu dharmapranaya(na) mulam tāvat tīrthakarās, tesām prathamam samyaktvāvāptilakṣanapurva(bha) vādi gocaro nuyogo mu gah, Abh.

"little knots," single knotted points, members, sprouts,⁵¹⁵ of the sacred doctrine, i.e., the history of the numerous figures of the Jaina hagiology which are stated to be—[360] kulakara, tīrthakara, gaṇadhara, cakkadhara, Dasāra,⁵¹⁶ Baladeva, Vāsudeva. The history of Harivamśa is added to this group and, strangely enough, that of Bhadrabāhu himself, whom tradition represents to be the last teacher of the ditthivāa. Other "knots" are finally added, viz. tavokammagaṇḍikā cittamtara (citrāmtara) gamḍikā, osappiṇi° and ussappiṇi°, and also all sorts of stories illustrating the way how beings become gods, men animals or hell-beings.

Abhayadeva is unfortunately very brief here, and to add to our difficulties the MS. is full of corruptions. Abh. refers especially to a Nandīṭīkā⁵¹⁷ composed probably in Prakrit, which is, however, not the same as the commentary on N, which I have before me. This too, is very brief and presumably contains a direct citation from one of the sections which belong here. See below p. 368 on cittamtarag.

The fifth part is composed of the $c\bar{u}liy\bar{a}s$ —additions, which were referred to p. 358 in the discussion on part 3 to which they belong. They belong however to the first four puvvas alone. According to the schol. (and also to the schol. on Hem. 246) by these $c\bar{u}liy\bar{a}s$ we are to understand $c\bar{u}l\bar{a}$ -like (i. e., like excrescences) paddhatis, which embrace that which was not treated of in all the four preceding parts of the drstivāda. [361] The text, however, takes pains to limit them to the first four puvvas.

In the final remarks in reference to the complete extent of the ditthivāa, the following parts are ascribed to it,—1 suyakkhandha, 14 puvvas, samkheyya "computable" (perhaps "innumerable," see above p. 281) vatthu and cūla (culla N) vatthu⁵¹⁹ and pāhuḍa (prābhṛta), pāhudapāhuḍa, pāhuḍiyā and pāhuḍiya pāhuḍiyā, to which the same epithet is attached. The payasahassa, ⁵²⁰ akkhara, &c., are characterized by the same epithet, i. e., samkheyya.

⁵¹⁵ ikṣy-ādinām pūrvāparaparvaparicinno madhyabhāgo gamdikā gamdike 'va gamdikā, ekārthādhikārā, gramthapaddhatis tasyā anuyogah, schol. on N; ihai 'kavaktavyatārthādhikāranugatāvākyā (°tavākyāh?) paddhatayo gamdikā ucyamte tāsām anuyogo 'rthakathanavidhir ga' gah, Abh.

⁵¹⁶ See Pet. Dict. s. v. daśārha, attribute of every Buddha.

⁵¹⁷ Doubtless that of Haribhadra is meant. See schol. on Gaṇadhara-sārdhaśata v. 55. This, too, is indicative of the fact (see p. 284, 352) that the Nandī is strictly the proper place for that entire treatment of the 12 aṅgas. which later on found a home within the fourth aṅga. See p. 349, 363.

⁵¹⁸ iha distivāde parikarma-sūtra-pūrvagatā 'nuyogoktānuktārthasamgrahapaddhatayaḥ (samgrahaparā gramthapaddh. N. Schol.) cūlāḥ.

⁵¹⁹ The number of vatthu and cular for the 14 puvva at least, was shortly before (cf. p. 359) stated with exactness in the text itself.

⁵²⁰ See above for the fabulous accounts of the scholia.

Though the scholia fail to explain further the words $p\bar{a}huda$, &c., they manifestly signify the same as chapter, paragraph, &c., and are actually so used in $up\bar{a}ngas 5$, 7; and in anga 10 (see p. 333), the word $p\bar{a}huda$ is used in connection with the 14 puvvas. In the Anuyogadvārasūtra (end of the pamāṇa section), the diṭṭhivāa is said to be computed according to $p\bar{a}huda$, $p\bar{a}huda$, $p\bar{a}huda$ pāhuda, and according to vatthu. This method of counting is said in the Anuyogadvārasūtra to be similar to the division of the $k\bar{a}lia$ sua, i. e., into uddesaga, ajjhayana. suakkandha, anga, which is there contrasted with the ditthivāa. Vatthu appears in up. 6 as the name of the sections of up. 5 and 7 in which it no longer occurs in the signification.

If we now cast a glance at the entire field of information which we possess in regard to [362] the twelfth $a\dot{n}ga$, it is manifest that, though this $a\dot{n}ga$ had a genuine existence, nevertheless the information at our command produces an impression of less weight than that concerning the previous eleven $a\dot{n}gas$. In the case of the latter we possess the texts themselves as a means of verification, but in the case of the twelfth $a\dot{n}ga$ there is no such help upon which we can rely.

These statements, and especially those in reference to the 14 pūrvas, are, however, not purely fictitious. This is clear from the citations adduced above in our consideration of each, and especially of 2-4, 7-10, and from traditions in reference either to the extracts from them or to their relations to the origin of some of the seven schisms. Another proof of the validity of these statements lies in the fact that the number of the vatthus, māuyāpadāni and suttāni, contained in the diṭṭhiv, which is mentioned in anga 4 §§ 13-16, 18.20.25.26 and 88 is in direct agreement with the later statement of contents. Finally the name pāhuda in anga 10 appears in direct connection with the 14 puvvas. At the period of the Āvaśyakasūtra, especially, and at that of the Anuyogadvārasūtra these texts must still have existed, and perhaps even at the time of the older commentaries (cf. e. g., p. 347n.), if the statements of the latter are not mere reproductions of old traditions. See p. 225.

The statement of the contents of anga 12 is found in anga 4, or Nandī (N), and is as follows:

Se kim tam diṭṭhivāe? diṭṭhivāe ṇam savvabhāvaparūvaṇayā522 āghavijj-

⁵²¹ The name pāhuḍa is found in the Siddhapañcāšikā of Devendrasūri in 50 gāthās.

The author, in v. 1, says that he has taken his material sirisiddhapāhuḍāo. See above v. 354.

⁵²² ABC, °vanā N.

amti, 523 se samāsao pamcavihe pam [363] (natte), tam : parikammam 524 suttāim puvvagayam 525 anuyogo 526 cūliyā;— se kim tam parikamme? 2 sattavihe pam, tam : siddha 527 seņi yāparikamme, 528 maņussase, buddhase, 529 uggahaņa āse, 530 uvasampajjanāse, 531 vippajahaņa se, cuyācuyase;—se kim tam siddhase, 528

2. coddasavihe pannatte, tam jahā: māuyāpayāni⁵³³ egaṭṭhiyapayāim pāḍho aṭṭhapayāṇi⁵³⁴ āgāsapayāṇi⁵³⁵ keūbhūyam rāsibaddham egaguṇam duguṇam tiguṇam keubhūya⁵³⁶—paḍiggahe⁵³⁷ samthārapaḍiggahe⁵³⁸ namdāvattam siddhāvattam, se'ttam siddhase'; - se kim tam maņussase'? 2 coddasavihe pam, tam: tāim ceva māuyāpayāim⁵³⁹ jāva namdāvattam maņussāvattam,⁵⁴⁰ se'ttam maņussase',⁵⁴¹— avasesāim parikammāim pāḍhāiyāīm ekkārasavihāṇi⁵⁴² pam; - icc [364] eyāim⁵⁴³ satta parikammāim, cha⁵⁴⁴

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523 ABC, °jjai N.
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- 529 BC, putthase° AN.
- 530 BC. ugādha A, ogādha N.
- 531 °nā BC, °na AN.
- 532 siddhi A.
- 633 A, °dāņi BC, māugāpayāim N.
- 134 BC, attha AN; in N before padho.
- 535 BC, anāsa A, āmāsa N.
- 536 N, bhuye BC, bhuyam A,
- 537 ggāho AN.
- 538 BC, samsā° ho AN.
- 539 māuyāim pa° BC, māuyap, A, māugāp N.
- 540 AN, ssabaddham BC, incorrectly.
- 541 In N this § is differently understood, since all the 14 names are again enumerated, and, in fact, just as above with the same variations:—māugā°, pāḍho after aṭṭhā-payāim, āmāsa° (sic!), keubhūyappaḍiggaho, saṁsārapaḍiggaho.
- 542 It follows from this ekkārasavihāni that the reading of N. which gives pādho after atṭhāpayāin, is correct; otherwise there would be twelve species, not eleven. N consequently has preserved the original form of the text. N is also more exact in another point:—From the text we conjecture merely that the last member of each of the seven series (after namdāvattam) begins in each case with the first part of the name of the series. In N, however, where as in the case of manussase and in all the foll. series, the enumeration of the 14 members is in each case complete, the readings being the same as heretofore, the last member of each always varying, or it is expressly called puṭṭhāvattam, ogāḍhāvattam, uvasampajjanāvattam vippajahanāvattam, cuācuāvattam. Further on N has frequently, sometimes in agreement with A, the better reading. Some omissions are due to the incorrectenss of the Berlin MS.
- 543 eyātim BC, eiyāim AN.
- 544 cha s. s. āj. omitted in N, the schol. however says: eteşām ca saptānām pari

⁵²⁴ ABC, °mme N.

⁵²⁵ ABC, gae N: when 1 henceforth cite N alone, ABC agree.

⁵²⁶ BC, ougo A, oge N.

⁵²⁷ siddhi AN.

⁵²⁸ etāni siddhaśreņikāparikarmādi (dīni) mūlabhedatah saptavidhāni, mātīkāpadādyuttarabhedāpekṣayā tryaśītividhāni, schol. on N.

sasamaiyāni satta ājīviyāni, cha caukkanaiyāni. 545 satta terāsiyāni. 546 eyām eva⁵⁴⁷ sapuvvāvarenam satta parikammāim tesīim bhavamti 'ti-m-akkhāvāim : se 'ttam' parikammāni ;—se kim tam suttāim ? suttāim 548 atthāsīī bhavmtī 'ti-m-akkhāyātim,⁵⁴⁹ tam ;⁵⁵⁰ ujugam,⁵⁵¹ parinayāparinayam, bahubhamgiyam, vinavapavvativam.552 anamtaram, 553 paramparam, sāmānam, 554 ham. 555 bhinnam, ahavvāyam, 556 sovatthiyam, 557 ghamtam, namdāvattam, bahulam, putthāputtham⁵⁵⁸ vivāvattam, ⁵⁵⁹ evambhūvam, duyāvattam vattamānuppayam, 560 samabhir ūdham, 561 savyatobhaddam, 562 panāsam 563 dupadiggaicc-eivāim bāvīsam suttāim chinnacevaņaiyāni⁵⁶⁴ sasam [365] haṁ. avasuttaparivādīe; icc-eivāim⁵⁶⁵ bāvīsam suttāim achinnachevar aivāni⁵⁶⁶

(karmaņā)m ādyāni (Abh. has; sat ādimāni parikarmāni) sat svasamayavaktavyatānugatāni svasiddhāmtaprakāšakāni 'ty a.. ye tu Gošalapravartitā ājivikāḥ pāṣamāinas tanmatena saptā pi (cyutācyutašreņikāparikarmasahitāni Abh.) prajnapyamte.

- 545 nayāim N; ādyāni sat caturnayopetāni, schol. on N.
- 516 yāim N; trairāšiukāni, trairāšikamatam avalambya sapta parikarmāni trividhanayacimtayā cimtyamte, schol. on N.
- 547 Instead of evām eva to akkhāvāim N has merely navāim parikamme.
- 548 Instead of suo to akkhāvātim N has suttāim vāvīsam pam.
- 549 BC akkhāvam A.
- 550 A omits.
- 551 BC, ujjāyam A, ujjusuam N.
- 552 C, pacc° B; vijayavirayam A, vijayacariyam N.
- 553 ra BC.
- 554 BCN, sāmº A.
- 555 °bū B, simply jūhan A.
- 556 BC, cc A, āyaccāyam N.
- 557 sāva N.
- 558 merely puttham A.
- 559 °vaccam N.
- 560 °payam A.
- 561 ruddhain N.
- 562 BC, savvāo° N, savvaü A.
- 563 AC, pannāsam BN.
- 564 °yāim N; iha yo nāma nayah sūtram chedena chinnam evā'bhipraiti, na dvitīyena sutrena saha sambamdhayati; tatha hi: dhammo mamgalam ukkittham iti slokam chinnachedanayamatena purvasurayah tatha vyäkhyämti sma yatha na dvitiyädislochinnachedanayamatena pūrvasūrayah tathā vyākhyāmti sma yathā na dvitīyādislo-kānām apekṣā syāt, tathā dvitīyādin api tathā vyākhyāmti sma yathā na tesām ādyaślokāpekšā syāt; tathā sūtrāny api yatrayābhihprāyena (yan nayābhi) parasparam nirapekṣāṇi vyākhyāmti sma, sa chedachinnanayah tatah, svasamayavaktayyatām adhikṭtya chinnachedanayatvam, tathā yah sūtram sūtrāmtarena sahā chinnam arthatah sambamdham abhipraiti, sa achinnachedanayah, yathā dhammo mamgalam ukkiṭṭham ity ayam śloko chinnachedanayamatena vyākhyāyamāno dvitīyādin apekṣate, 'py etam ślokam, evam anyonya(m) dvāvinsati (h) sūtrāni akṣararacanām adhikṭtya parasparam vibhaktāny apy dvitīyādayo arthasamvamdham apekṣya sāpekṣāṇi, schol. on N.
- 565 A. N. etāim BC.
- 666 °navaim BC.

ājīviyasuttaparivādīe; icc-eiyāim⁵⁶⁷ bāvīsam suttāim tika⁵⁶⁸ nayāṇi⁵⁶⁹ terāsiya⁵⁷⁰ suttaparivādīe; icc-eiyāim bāvīsam caukkanaiyāṇi⁵⁷¹ sasamay-asuttaparivādīe⁵⁷² evām eva sapuvvāvareņam⁵⁷³ aṭṭhāsīī⁵⁷⁴ suttāim⁵⁷⁵ bhavamti 'tti⁵⁷⁶ m-akkhāyam;⁵⁷⁷ se 'ttam suttāim'.

Se kim tam puvvagae ?578 puvvagae coddasavihe579 pam, tam: uppāyapuvvam, aggenīyam580 viriyam atthinatthippavāyam, nāṇappavvāyam, saccappvāyam, āyapp., kammapp., paccak-khāṇapp.581 vijjāṇuppavāyam, avamjham, pāṇāum,582 kiriyāvisālam, logabimdusāram;—uppāya [366] puvvassa ṇam588 dasa vatthū cattāri cūliyā584 vatthū pam°, aggeniyassa585 nam puvvasso coddasa v. bārasa586 cūliyā v. pam, vīriyapuvvassa aṭṭha v. aṭṭha cūliyā v. p., atthinatthipavāyassa587 aṭṭhārasa v. dasa cūliyā v. p., nāṇappavāyassa ṇam puvvassa bārasa v. p., saccappavāyassa ṇam p. do588 v. p., āyapp. ṇam p. solasa v. p. kammapp, ṇam p. tīsam v. p., pacchakkhāṇassa ṇam p. vīsam v. p., vijjāṇupp. ṇam p. pannarasa v. p. avamjhassa ṇam p. bārasa v. p. pāṇāussa ṇam p. ṭerasa v. p. kiriyāvisālassa ṇam p. tīsam v. p., logavimdusārassa ṇam p. paṇavīsam

- 568 tikka A. tiga N.
- 569 yāim N.
- 570 stim A.
- 571 °yāim N. nayāini A.
- 572 N adds suttālin.
- 573 pūrvāparasamudāyarūpena sarvasamkhyayā, schol. on N.
- 574 °sītī B, °sītā C, °sīi A, °saī N.
- 575 °ni A.
- 576 titti A, tīti N, bhavatiti BC.
- 577 °iyāim BC, °iyāņi A, °iyam N.
- 578 See Abhayadeva's scholion. above, p. 216. The anonym. schol. on Nandī has the foll. iha tīrthakaras tīrthapravartanakāle gaṇadharān adhikītya pūrvam pūrvagatasūtrārtham bhāṣate tatah pūrvāny ucyamte; gaṇadhara api tathai 'va racayamti paścād ācārādikam.
- 579 caüdd° N.
- 580 ABC aggeaniyam N, aggāni, Ned. (accord. to Leumann).
- 581 BC, onuppavāyam A, kkhānam N.
- 582 BC, pāṇāu A, pāṇāo N.
- 583 N adds puvvassa.
- 584 cullaº N.
- 585 °niassa N.
- 586 duvālasa N.
- 587 °yapuvvassa N.
- 588 donni N.

⁵⁶¹ eyāim A; atha nayavibhāgāmtaram adhikţtya bhedam āha: trairāsikanayamatena sūtraparipātyām vivaksitāyām trikanayikāni, svasamayavaktavyatām adhikţtya su° vi° samgrahavyavahārarijusūtrasabdarūpanayacatuskayo (! omission) schol. on N (Malay. accord, to Leumann, continues catustayopetāni samgrahādinayacatustayena cimtyamta ity a.)

v. pam; dasa coddas' aṭṭha aṭṭhāraseva (°sa N) bārasa duve ya vatthūṇi⁵⁸⁹/solasa tīsā vīsā pannarasa aṇuppavāyammi/|bārasa ekkārasame bārasame terase' va vatthūṇi/tīsā puṇa terasame coddasame⁵⁹⁰ pannavīsā u/|cattāri duvālasa aṭṭha ceva dasa ceva cūla⁵⁹¹ vatthūṇi/āillāṇa cauṇham sesāṇam cūliyā na 'tthi//; se 'ttam puvvagayam.⁵⁹²

Se kim tam aņuyoge ?⁵⁹³ a°ge duvihe p., tam : mūla⁵⁹⁴ paḍhamāṇuyoge ya gamḍiyaṇuyoge ya : Se kim tam mūlapa° ge ? ettha⁵⁹⁵ ṇam arahamtāṇam bhagavamtāṇam puvvabhavā⁵⁹⁶ devalogagamaṇāim⁵⁹⁷ āum⁵⁹⁸ cavaṇāim⁵⁹⁸ jamma [367] ṇāṇi ya abhiseyā rāyavarasirlo⁶⁰⁰ sīyāu⁶⁰¹ pavvajjāo⁶⁰² tava ya bhattā⁶⁰³ kevalanāṇāuppāyā⁶⁰⁴ titthappavattaṇāṇi ya, samghayaṇam,⁶⁰⁵ samṭhāṇam uccattam āum⁶⁰⁶ vannavibhāgo,⁶⁰⁷ sīṣā gaṇā⁶⁰⁸ gaṇaharā ya, ajjā pavattiṇīo,⁶⁰⁹ samghassa cauvihassa jam cā 'vi⁶¹⁰ parimāṇam, jiṇa⁶¹¹ maṇapajjava⁶¹² ohiṇāṇi⁶¹³ sammatta-suyṇāṇiṇo ya vādī⁶¹⁴ amuttaragatī ya⁶¹⁵

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589 mulavatthunam N.
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- 592 gae A; se 'ttam p. omitted in N.
- 593 BC, oge N, uge A; and so throughout.
- 594 N. omits.
- 595 ABC, muo ge N.
- 596 arhatām bhagavatām samyaktvabhavād ārabhya pūrvabhavāh, devalokagamanāni, teşu pūrvabhaveşu cā'yuh, devalokebhyas cyavanam, tīrthakarabhavatveno 'tpādas, tato janmāni, tatah sailarāje surāsurair vidhīyamānā abhişeka ity-ādi pāthasiddham yāvan nigamanam; iha sarvatrā 'py apāmtarāle vartibhyo vadvyah (vaho ?) pratiniyataikārthādhikāras, tato vahuvacanam; schol. on N.
- 597 NA, °nāni BC.
- 598 N, aum A, au BC.
- 599 N, cayaṇāṇi BC, ciyāṇi A.
- 600 N. rīto BC, rīu A. (Ned. breaks off, Leumann says, at abhiseyā and is merely prāthamabhāga,)
- 601 N, omits.
- 602 N, jjāto BC, jjāu A.
- 603 ABC, uggā N.
- 604 A, ppāyātā BC, ppāyāo N.
- 605 samgha° to vibhago omitted in N.
- 606 āu A.
- 607 vaņavibhāu A.
- 608 ABN, gani C.
- 609 N, niu ABC.
- 610 vāvi ABC, ca N.
- 611 jinā BC.
- 612 vā N.
- 613 nāṇi N; hiṇāṇi to siddhā omitted in A.
- 614 BC, pavāi N.
- 615 °gaī a N.

⁵⁹⁰ AN. caudaº BC.

⁵⁹¹ cullaº N.

uttaraveuvvino⁶¹⁶ ya munino jättiyä 2 siddhā, siddhapaho⁶¹⁷ jaha desio jacciram kālam, pāovagao⁶¹⁸ ya jo jahim jattiyāim⁶¹⁹ bhattāim cheyaittā⁶²⁰ amtagade⁶²¹ munivaruttame⁶²² tamaraoghavippamukke⁶²³ siddhipaham⁶²⁴ anuttaram ca patte,⁶²⁵ ee anne ya evam-āī⁶²⁶ bhāvā mūla⁶²⁷ paḍhamānuoge kahiyā āghavījjamti⁶²⁸ pannavi parūvi; se 'ttam mūlapaḍhamānuyoge; — se kim tam gamḍiyānuyoge? 2 anegavihe pannatte, tam jahā⁶²⁹ kulagaragamḍiyāo⁶³⁰ titthayarag, ganadharag,⁶³¹ cakkaharag.⁶³² Dasārag, Baladevag, Vāsudevag, Harivamsag,⁶³³ Bhaddabāhug, [368] tavokammag, cittamtarag.⁶³⁴ osappinīg.⁶³⁵ ussappinīg.⁸³⁶ amaranaratiriyaniraya⁶³⁷ gati⁶³⁸ gamaņa viviha pariyaṭṭāṇanuyoge,⁶³⁹ evam-ādīyāo⁶⁴⁰ gatigamḍiyāo⁶⁴¹ aghavijjamti panna⁶⁴² parū ; se' ttam gamḍiyāṇuyoge.⁶⁴³

- 616 utt. ya m. in N alone.
- 617 siddhapaho to kālam in N alone.
- 618 N, pātovagato BC, pāuvagau A.
- 619 AN, jetti° BC.
- 620 ABC, cheittā N.
- 621 N, °do BC kado A.
- 622 N. °mo ABC.
- 623 N, kka ABC.
- 624 BC, sidha A, mukkhasuham N.
- 625 N, pattā ABC.
- 626 ādī A.
- 627 A omits.
- 628 āgh. p. p. omitted in N.
- 629 jahā omitted in A; instead of 2 ane° jahā N has ga°ge nam jahā.
- 630 Thus N, "yāto BC, "yāu A; so also further on; kulakarāṇām Vimalavāhanādinām pūrvabhavajanmanāmādīni saprapamcam upavarņyamte evam tīrthakaragamdikādisv abhidhānavasato bhāvanīyam schol. on N
- 631 In N after Vāsudevag.
- 632 BC. cakkavatti AN.
- 633 In N after Bhadda°.
- 634 In N after osapp. citrā anekārthā amtare Rsabhājitatīrthakarāpāmtarāle Rsabhavamsasamudbhūtānām bhūpatinām sesagativvudāsena sivagatigamanānuttaropapātapratipādikā gamdikās, tāsām ca prarūpanā Subuddhināmnā Sagaracakravartino mahāmātyenā 'stāpade Sagaracakravartisutebhya Ādityayasahprabhītīnām Rsabha, vansarājānām narapatīnām samkhyāpradarsanena kītā sācā' iccajasāinām Usabhasse 'ty-ādinā 'vaseyā, schol. on N.
- 635 N usa° BC, ussa A; nī BCN, nī A.
- 636 BN omit; usa° A, n C.
- 637 niraya omitted in A; amare 'ti vividhesu parivarttesu bhavabhramanesu jamtunām iti gamyate 'maratiryagnirayagatigamanam, evam ādikā gamdikā vahava (!) ākhyāyamte, schol. on N.
- 638 gaī N.
- 639 BC, ouge A Hanesu N.
- 640 yāu A. ātiyāto BC, merely āī in N.
- 641 A omits.
- 642 N omits.
- 613 AN, go BC.

Se kim tam cūliyāo ?⁶⁴⁴ jan nam⁶⁴⁵ āillāņam cauņham puvvāņam cūliyāo⁶⁴⁶ sesāim puvvāim acūliyāim⁶⁴⁷ se 'ttam cūliyāo.

At the conclusion of this review of the 12 angas, I present the apostrophe to eternity, which is given in anga 4 and in Nandī, in entire agreement with each other, at the close of their statement of the contents of the anga. With all the unwavering firmness of this apostrophe it looks like a protest against all who might either doubt or attempt to undermine its validity (see p.293):—

Icc eiyam duvālasamgam ganīpidagam atīte⁶⁴⁸ kāle anamtā jīvā ānāe⁶⁴⁹ virāhittā cāuramtasamsārakamtāram anupariyaṭṭimsu;⁶⁶⁰ icc eiyam du° ga° paduppanne [369] kāle (bis) anupariyaṭṭimti⁶⁵¹ icc eiyam du° ga° anāgae kāle (bis) anupariyaṭṭissamti;—icc eiyam du° ga° atīte kāle a. j. ānāe ārāhittā ca° vītivatimsu,⁶⁵² vītivaimti. vītivaissamti;—icc eiyam du° ga° na kayāi na āsi,⁶⁵⁸ na kayāi na tthi, na kayāi na bhavissaī, bhuvim⁶⁵⁴ ca bhavamti ya⁶⁵⁸ bhavissamti ya⁶⁵⁸ dhuve niae⁶⁵⁷ sasae akkhae⁶⁵⁸ avvae⁶⁵⁹ avaṭṭhie⁶⁶⁰ nicce; ⁶⁶¹ se jahā nāmae pamca atthikāyā na kayāi na āsi na kayāi na tthi na kayāi na bhavissamti ya bhavissamti ya dhuvā nitiyā⁶⁶⁸ jāva niccā, evām eva du° ga° na kayāi na āsi (bis) nicce;—ettha⁶⁶⁴ ṇam du° ge ga° ge aṇamtā bhāvā a. abhāvā, a. heū a, aheu, a.

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644 N yāto BC, yāu A.
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⁶⁴⁵ BC, AN omit.

⁶⁴⁶ BC, °yāim N, yāu A.

⁶⁴⁷ N. has avasesā puvvā aculivā.

⁶⁴⁸ tie N.

⁶⁴⁹ āinavā.

⁶⁵⁰ anuparivittavamtah Jamālivat.

⁶⁵¹ bhramainti.

⁶⁵² vyativrajitavantah

⁶⁵³ nāsī N (thus in every case).

⁶⁵⁴ bhūim N. (always)

⁶⁵⁵ bhavai a N (always).

⁶⁵⁶ bhavissai a N (always).

⁶⁵⁷ nivatam.

⁶⁵⁸ Nomits; aksavam.

⁶⁵⁹ avyayam,

⁶⁶⁰ avasthitam.

⁶⁶¹ Instead of av. nicce N has here supariffhie. In the following repetition, however, it is the same as in the text.

⁶⁶² ssai N.

⁶⁶³ niyayā N.

⁶⁶⁴ The following is omitted in N.

kāraṇā a. akāraṇā, a. jīvā a. ajīvā, a. bhavasiddhiyā a. abhavasiddhiyā, a, siddhā a. asiddhā āghavijjamti parū° panna° damsi° nidamsi° uvadamsi,° eyam du° gam ga° gam.

Before I proceed further I should like to state that beside the Vidhiprapā of Jinaprabha (A.D. 1307) (see above p.223) in the meantime two other samācārī texts. unfortunately anonymous, have come to my They are both written in Prakrit with an occasional intermingling of Sanskrit, and are in agreement throughout with the statements in the Vidhip, which they antedate. The first of these texts. ā vāravihi. in 21 dāra. contains in its tenth dāram, jogavihi, not merely the enumeration of the angabahira texts, as Nandi [370], Pāksikas, and Vidhiprapa. especially in the form of the two latter, but also the same detailed exposition and examination of the single portions of the angas. upāngas. &c., according to the period of time requisite for their study (measured according to dina and ayambila). The order of succession is the same as in the section of the Vidhiprapā which treats of this point. It is especially interesting that ten, and not five. aith. are here—see p. 322 – ascribed to each of the first two vargas of the second part of the anga 6: dusu dusu vaggesu kamā aijhayanā humti dasa ya cauppanna|battīsā caii attha ya dhammakahā bīa suakkhamdhe. The text which we possess does not agree with this allotment of ajjh. The same holds good of the second of these two texts. bears the name sāmāvārīvihi. We read in it the concerning the first vagga: tammi dasa ajjhayanā and immediately thereupon vie dasa ajjhayanā. Since this second text is twice-at the conclusion of the jogavihi section and at the conclusion the whole—expressly ascribed665 to Abhayadeva, or to his author Paramananda, it is very surprising instruction of the that we find such differences between it and the present text, Abhayadeva himself in his commentary commenting upon that text which allots to both vagga only five ajjh. each. If the sāmāyārīvihi appears to be more than two hundred years older than the Vidhiprapa on account of its pretended relation to Abhayadeva (A. D. 1064, above p. 277), [371] the āvāravihi must be regarded as of greater antiquity. Its author refers, at the conclusion of dara 21, "etāni gurukrtyāni, śrāvakakrtyam punah śrīmad Umāsvātivācaka-sri Haribhadrasūri pratisthākalpādibhyo. 'vasevam'' to two authors considerably before his time. In v. 50, 51 of the Ganadharasārdhaśatakam composed by Jinadattasūri, the scholar of

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Jinavallabha who died A.D. 1112, (see Kl. 248 b), the former of the two authors is called the first teacher after the interval following upon Āryaraksita and Durbalikāpuspa (above p. 348)666 In Sarvarājagaņi's schol, on the Ganadharas rdhasatakam a śravakaprajnapti is cited among the 500 (or 105?) payaranas (prakarana), composed by him in Sanskrit according to the statement in the text. The title śrāvakaprajñapti is in entire harmony with the statement of the ayaravihi just quoted. According to the Gurvāvali of Tapāgaccha Kl, 253a (28) there lived Umāsvātikara in 1190 Vīra (= Samvat 720), who is, however, distinguished from the author of the śrāvakaprajñapti (°ptyādi) — (yataḥ sammativṛttau, of, above p 347, Śrī Umāsvātivācaka ity uktam). The latter is probably, as Klatt kindly informs me, the person of this name who appears in the Bombay MS, of a pattavali of the Vrhat-Kharataragaccha. in the continuation of the old Sthaviravali immediately after its last member. Dūşagani, the teacher of Devarddhigani, and separated by one gradation alone from Haribhadra who is mentioned together with him in the ayaravihi. Since the date of Devarddhigani is 980 Vira, and the death of Haribhadra is placed in [372] 1055 Vira, see Kl. 253a (27). tradition seems to place Umāsvātikara, the author of the śrāvakāprajñanti, about 1000 Vira (= Samvat 530)! While it is true that the ayaravihi does not claim to stand in direct connection with Umasv. and Haribh. merely citing them, yet this citation is of such a character that it is calculated to afford ancient testimony concerning a treatise which mentions, not sources of information of later date, but merely these two names which are manifestly of tolerable antiquity. The statements contained in this work gain consequently in authority and the same conclusion holds good of the information of a literary and other nature in harmony therewith, contained in both sāmācārī texts (sa°vihi and vihipavā). In continuing from this point on to adduce the testimony of the Vidhiprapā (V) especially, I do so, partly because it has a fixed date, and partly because it contains the most detailed statements. I shall however, not fail to state where Ayaravihi (Avi) or Sam iyarivihi (Svi), which takes an intermediate position between Avi. and V. as regards fullness, offer anything worthy of particular note.

The second part of the Siddhānta is formed by the 12 uvamgas, upāngas. This title is applied in the angas to the Brahmanical upāngas alone. In anga 3, three of the existing uvamgas are apparently mentioned, but under the title angabahira and not under that of

⁶⁶⁶ The very faulty MS. reproduces the Umāsāyi of the text by Umāsvāmi in the commentary! This form of the name is found elsewhere, e. g., in the Vicārāmṛtasamgraha as that of the author of the śrā°pti.

uvaringa. In the uvaringas themselves this appellation occurs at the beginning of the eighth alone, but there, according to all probability, it is a special designation of uv. 8-12 alone, and had consequently [373] not yet acquired its present signification. The Nandī, too, does not accept it in its present meaning. It enumerates all the texts in question, which now bear this name, but enumerates them among the anangapaviṭṭha (for which term the Pākṣikasūtram &c. present aṅgabāhira) and in an order different from the usual one at present in vogue. The solitary passage, in which I have been able to discover this title used in the Siddhānta in its general signification, is in the Mahānisīha, Book 3 (aṅgovaṅga...).

At the present day there are 12 texts bearing this name, corresponding to the number of the angas. This arrangement is probably intentional and dates from a period (see p. 344), in which the twelfth anga either really existed or at least was counted in with the others. There is an alleged⁶⁶⁷ inter-relation between the 12 angas and the 12 uvangas, uvanga 1 being placed in connection with anga 1, uvanga 2 with anga 2, and so on. In the three sāmāyārī texts, ⁶⁶⁸ uv. 8-12 are called nirayāvaliyāsuakkhamdho uvangam (Āvi., Svi.), in the Vidhipr. egamuvangam; each of the five vaggas of which respectively corresponds⁶⁶⁹ to angas 8 to 12. It is not improbable that [374] the existing order of the 12 texts may have been the result of such considerations; and the similarity in extent of each of the different members of both series renders this assumption the more worthy of credence. There are, however, so far as I can see, no instances of real inner connection

⁶⁶⁷ cf. Abhayadeva on uv. 1, Malayagiri on uv. 2,4, Śanticandra on uv. 6.

⁶⁶⁸ The order of succession adopted there, and which I follow from this point on, varies so far as the position of uv. 5-7 is concerned from that of Bühler—see above p. 226 where these appear as Nos. 6,7,5.

⁶⁶⁹ In the Vidhiprapā we read; Some, however, regard both uv. 7 and uv. 5 as belonging to anga 5, and according to their view the uvangam belonging to angas 7-11 is the śrutaskandha formed by uv. 8-12: anne puna camdapannattim sūrapannatim ca bhagavaī-uvamge bhanamti tesim maena uvāsagadasāṇa pamcanham angānam uvamgam nirayāvaliyāsuyakkhamdho. This is manifestly an arrangement of those who no longer count the dithivāa as belonging to the angas and is in entire harmony with the actual facts of the case. The statement in V. that follows is a riddle: orāji annavanā sūjamcamcikakapupphavanhidasā ayārāi-uvamgā nāyava ānupuvvē (this is the close of the uvamgavihi). The same remarkable statements are repeated in the Jogavihāṇa in v. 60: vaccai satta-dinehth nirayāvaliyāsuyakkhamdho ||59|| orāji paṇṇavaṇā sūjamcamnikakapupphavanhidasā|| āyārāi-uvamgā neyavvā ānupuvvē ||60||. A solution of this riddle is, however, not far to seek, if we read o ra²ji sū jamo camo nio kao kao. By this means we have the beginning syllables of uvamgas 1-3, 5-10 in their present order; and here again there is reference to 12 uvamgas and to 12 angas.

⁶⁷⁰ The last members in both series have the least, those in the middle the greatest, extent.

between the angas and the uvangas having the same position in the series. I say this, despite the fact that the scholia are only too zealous in attempting to establish such an inter-relation.

Definite groups are recognizable here as in the case of the angas. Though all the uvamigas with the exception of uv. 3 begin with the legendary introductory formula tenam-kāleņam ... yet in the case of uv. 2.4 the pamcanamukkāra, which we have met with already in anga 5, is placed before this introduction. In uv. 4 a verse, designed to glorify this pamcanamukkāra, follows upon it, and then come several other verses of an introductory character. In the case of uv. 5, there is a larger number of introductory verses or of verses descriptive of the contents of the whole, before the legendary beginning; in the case of uv. 7 these are placed after the legendary beginning. Both of these uv. (5 and 7) differ from the others in the following particular,— [375] they make use of the title pāhuda for their sections, a title which we have met with in the case of the 14 $p\bar{u}rvas$. In the introduction of uv. 7 and in uv. 4 there is a direct reference to the puvvas. These two uv. are peculiar in being identical or at least in representing two recensions of one and the same text. Uv. 5, 7 and 6 are mentioned together in anga 3, and share an introduction that is completely identical, mutual references in the text to each other, and above all in the concluding part of their titles, the common factor pannatti. prajñapti. A part of uvamga 3, the dīvasāgarapannatti, belongs to the same category with them, since it has on the one hand the same termination in its title, and on the other is mentioned in anga 3 with them. At the period of the Nandi and of that of anga 3 it appears to have enjoyed a separate existence. Finally the title of upanga 4, pannavanā, is to be brought into this connection, so that upāngas 3-7 may be regarded as a group which is bound together by external criteria. The word pannatti which is here the link between them, was found in the title of anga 5. The words pannatta (prajnapta) and pannatti (prajñapti) and the finite verb prajñapay have such a special use in the Bhagavati and, as was discovered later, in the entire Jaina Siddhānta, that (Bhag, I, 368) I called attention to the [376] Pannattivāda. or Prajnaptivadins, who are mentioned by the northern and southern Buddhists⁶⁷¹ among the 18 chief sects of Buddhism at the time of the second council of Asoka. According to Wassiljew, pp. 228, 244 (German transl. pp. 251, 268), this sect dates from the second century after Buddha's nirvāna.

^{671 °}pannatti is found in Pali as the title of a work. See Childers s. v. pannatti (Abhi-dhammap). Works of the name were produced by the later Jains. See (above p. 371) my remarks on the śrāvakaprajnapti of the Umāsvāti(mi) vācaka.

Upāngas 8-12 form a second group closely connected with each other (see above). They form, as tradition itself asserts, in reality but five chapters of a single śrutaskandha, and are counted as five special texts merely to complete the parallel with the twelve angas. The title of uv, 8 is later on, e.g. in the Vidhiprapā, regarded also as the collective title of all five; and a special name, kappiyāo, kalpikās, is allotted to uv. 8. In the Nandī all the 6 titles are placed together.

According to the introduction of the avacūrņi to the Oghaniryukti (see above, p. 217), the daśapūrvins gained especial honour in performing the meritorious service of composing samgrahaṇā to the uvamgas (or of composing the uv. and the samgr.?), and therefore had just claim to the salutation (namukkāra) in the first verse of that Niryukti. Tradition calls Ajja Sāma the author of the fourth uvamga the Pannavanā; see verse 4 of the introduction to that uvamga. There is, however, another, who in this passage characterizes himself as the real promulgator, and introduces himself with the word "1".

[377] In the case of the first *uvamga*, secondary additions are, according to Leumann, clearly demonstrable. The second *uvamga* appears however to have suffered more, and the present text may, in fact, be a different one from the original. The reader is further referred to my remarks made on *angas* 8-10 and especially on *anga* 10.

In the remarks of the redactor scattered here and there in the angas, there were many references to the upāngas, their titles being directly mentioned or the names of particular divisions cited. In the upāngas vice versa there is no lack of reference both to the angas and to other upāngas. Apparently we must recognise in these remarks of the redactor a hand aiming at unity (see above, p. 228), a hand which has dealt uniformly with the angas and upāngas in that form of the text which both at present possess.

The varying statements in the MSS. in reference to the extent of each of the $up\bar{a}ngas$ are as follows: up, 1 has 1320 $granthas^{672}$ —2, 2079,—3.4750,—4,7785—5. (2000?) 673 —6,4454,—7·1600, 674 —8.12, 1109.

⁶⁷² The statements vary here e. g. between 1167 (Kielhorn's Report, 1880-81, p. 50) 1200, 1267, 1320 and 1500. Leumann counts 1220.

⁶⁷³ The statement is here omitted; cf uv. 7.

⁶⁷⁴ Other statements are: 1854, 2000.

XIII, The first upangam, uvavaiyam, aupapatikam, of renewed births The explanation of the name by aupapatika is (see above, p. 323. Leumann, p. 2) an incorrect Sanskrit rendering, since the formation is from Jpad+upa and not from Jpat+upa. The work is divided into two parts, which are however, not separated by any recognized dividing line. The first, which is greater in extent than the second [378], treats in great detail of the appearance and sermon of Mahavira in Campa under king Kuniva Bambhasāraputta,675 and of the pilgrimage of the king to Mahāvīra. The many varnakas, which, on such sions as this, are found in the legendary introduction to the angas. uvamgas. occur in this intance in their full form. They are consequently cited elsewhere merely by their introductory words; and for anything bevond this, reference is generally made to our text. The law proclaimed by Mahāvīra is here (§ 57) designated partly as agaradhamme and partiv as agarasamaie. See remarks on page 244 ad anga 1. The second part, which contains the essence of the work, is in extent scarcely more than a third of the whole, and looks, as Leumann says. like a more detailed treatment of Bhag, 1,1,77 (see Bhag, 1,162). It is divided into divisions of tolerably small compass, which all possess a form equally solem. These small divisions are not equal in extent nor are they counted on to the end. At the end there are 22 kārikās which describe the abode &c. of the Siddhas, viz. of those that have escaped migration of souls. We find the teaching of Imdabhuti by Mahavira treated of, partly in a general way, partly in reference to 15 definite categories of men as regads their uvavāya among the neraivas. &c.. up to the heavenly worlds, and to the final perfection and residence of the blessed in the Isipabbhārā pudhavi, Dr. Ernst Leumann has given a detailed account of its contents in the introduction to his edition of the text ("the aupapātikasūtra," Leipzig., 1883), accompanied by an excellent glossary.

Among the interesting facts contained in the middle part of the work, the following is of especial importance. In § 76 there is an enumeration of alien sects, [379] parivvāyā, viz., the Samkhā Jogī Kāvilā⁶⁷⁶ Bhiuccā⁶⁷⁷ hamsā⁶⁷⁸ paramahamsā bahuudagā kulivvayā⁶⁷⁹ Kanhaparivvāyā⁶⁸⁰. In immediate connection with this is an enumera-

⁶⁷⁵ cf. chedasutra, 4,10.

⁶⁷⁶ Kapilo devatā yesam, Samkhyā eva nirīśvarāh.

⁶⁷⁷ Bhrigur loke prasiddha rsivišesas, tasyai 'va šişyāh Bhārgavāḥ (!).

⁶⁷⁸ In reference to the following names see Wilson Sel. warks 1,231 (ed. Rost).

⁶⁷⁹ kutivratah; kuticara in Wilson, also in the Arunikop. Ind, Stud. 2,179.

⁶⁸⁰ Nārāyanabhaktikā iti kecit.

tion of the 8 representatives of each class⁶⁸¹ from the Brāhmaņa caste; tattha khalu ime aṭṭha māhaṇaparivvāyā bhavaṁti Kaṇṇe⁶⁸² ya Karakaṁṭe ya Ambaḍe ya Parāsare/Kaṇhe Dīvāyaṇe ceva Devagutte ya Nārahe⁶⁸³//, and from the warrior caste: tattha khalu ime aṭṭha khattiyaparivvāyā bhavaṁti, taṁ. Sīlaī Masihāre⁶⁸⁴ Naggai Bhaggai Tiya (Tīkā?) Videhe rāyā Rāme Bale 'ti ya. After this follows an enumeration of the works of Brahmanical literature which is identical in every particular with that in the fifth aṅga⁶⁸⁵. See above p. 304.

The sage Ambada, 686 who is enumerated among the 8 māhanaparivvāyās, must have played no unimportant role in the opinion of his Jain colleagues or enemies, either at the time of the composition of this upānga or at that of those who interpolated the statements in reference to him. There have been inserted two detailed legends concerning him, the first of which deals especially with his [380] scholars, 687 the second with himself, with his second birth in the person of the boy Dadhapainna, and with his final perfection. Here occurs an enumeration of the (§107) 72 kalās, which are in fact essentially the same as those in anga 3, and (§ 105) of the foreign peoples from whom the female attendants of the boy (as in anga 6) came. These names are in general identical with those enumerated in angas 5 and 6, and are also mentioned in a previous passage (§ 53) where the maid-servants of the queen are treated of. The list is as follows - bahūhim khujjāhim Cilāīhim vāmanīhim vadabhīhim Babbarīhim Pausiyāhim (baii°) Joniyāhim Isiniyāhim Cāruiniyāhim (Vāru° Palhaviyāhim Thāru°) Lāsivāhim Laüsiyāhim Damilīhim Simhalīhim Ārabīhim Pulimdihim Pakkanihim Bahalīhim Marumdīhim Sabarīhim Pārasīhim nāņādesīhim. For v. 1. sec Leumann, p. 60.

The 18 desibhāṣās⁶⁸⁸ unfortunately are merely mentioned here

⁶⁸¹ Kamţtā (Kamqv-ā?) Kanne refers, it is true, to kanva as Leumann affirms in his glossary) dayah soqasa parivrājakāh lokato' vaseyāh.

⁶⁸² Kanhe var. 1.

⁶⁸³ These Jains, possessed by the desire of changing everything, have not allowed even the name of the old Nārada to remain unaltered. Some MSS, have even Nārabhe.

⁶⁸⁴ var. Masimo, Masamo, Masaho, also ohāre. The Masnāra name of a country in the Ait. Br. may perhaps be compared.

⁶⁸⁵ sadamgavi is here too explained by: şadamgavidah and satthitamtavisāraā by: Kāpilīyatamtrapamditāh.

^{*686} Also Ammada, Ammattha,—This name must be derived from Amrata, short form of Amrabhata.—L.

⁶⁸⁷ Who once wandered jetthāmulamāsammi along the Gangā from Kampillapura to Purimatālam nagaram. The name of the month is explained as follows: jyesthā mulam vā (!) nakṣatram paurnamāsyām yatra syāt sa jyeṣṭhāmulo māsaḥ, jyaiṣṭhaḥ.

⁶⁸⁸ See below pp. 399,400 for the 18 different methods of writing.

(§ 109) and not enumerated by name. We might readily conjecture that the 18 foreign peoples, just mentioned, were here referred to, though the expression desī is not in harmony with such an assumption. For the expression desibhāsāvisārae, which we meet with here we find a fuller form in anga 6 (cf. above, p. 313) atthārasavihipagāradesībhāsāvisārae. Dr. Leumann has had the kindness to inform me that the commentary has at least the appearance of referring this to the 18 modifications of one desībhāsā and not to 18 special languages; astādaśa vidhiprakārāḥ [381] pravṛttiprakārāḥ usṭādaśabhir vā vidhibhir bhedaih pracārah pravṛttir yasyāh sā, tathā tasyām desībhāsāyām sabhedena varnāvalīrūpāyām visāradah pamditah. By the annautthiya (§§ 26,99) of the text, i. e. according to the scholia anyayūthika (see p. 299), which are opposed to the niggantha pāvayana (§ 16) of the genuine doctrine of the Jains, we are to understand the śākyādayah. By the ceiyas (§ 99) we must understand the arhaccaityāni jinapratimāh, and by the ājīviyas (§ 120) the adherents of Gośāla. The seven pavā yananinhagās (§ 122) i. e. representatives of the seven schisms, which, to use the expression of Abhayadeva, Jināgamam nihnūyate (! nihnuvate ?) apalapamti ca, are enumerated one by one in the text. They are as follows: - bahurayā, jīvapadesiyā, avvattiyā sāmuccheiyā, dokiriyā, terāsiyā (see p. 351), abaddhiyā (avvaṭṭhiyā var. 1.). Abhayadeva characterizes them according to their order as Jamālimatānusāriņah, Tisyaguptācāryamatāvisamvādinah, Āsādhācāryasisyamatāmtapāhtinah, Puspa (sya) mitramatānusārinah, 690 Gamgācāryamatānuvartinah, Rohagupta 691 matānusārinah, Gosthā-māhila-matāvalambinah; on this see p. 275. on anga 3, p. 355-6 on pūrvas 7-9 and below my remarks on Avasy. Nijj. 8, Uttarajjh. 3,9.

[382] There is a commentary by Abhayadeva, a vārttikam or avacūri by Pārśvacandra. In reference to the difference of the constituent parts which were united to form this uvamgam, the reader is referred to Leumann, p. 20, who has made some pertinent remarks upon the subject.

^{*689} On this point cf. the interesting statements in Nemicandra's pravacanasāroddhāra, § 94,v. 739-41. Leumann tells me that these statements are found earlier, viz., in Sīlānka on anga 1, 2.2 and in Abhayadeva on anga 3,2. They are as follows:—niggamtha-Sakka-tāvasa-geruya (gairukāh)-ājīva pamcahā samanā || tammi ya niggamthā te je Jiṇasāsaṇabhayā muṇṇo||Sakkā ya Sugayasissā, je jaḍilā te u tāvasā gīyā | je dhāurattavatthā tidamḍino geruyā te u || je Gosālaga-mayam aṇusaramti bhaṇṇamti te u ājīvā | samaṇatteṇa bhuvaṇe pamca vi pattā pasiddhim ime|| Here then all the five kinds of śramaṇas are represented as possessing equal authority; geruā is doubtless for gairikās "ruddles," according to their dhāurattavattha, cf. Bhag. 1,255.273, where, "metals and jewels," is an error. The first line of the above quotation (nigg°.....samaṇā is drawn from Niśīthabhāṣya XIII. 163a—L,

⁶⁹⁰ Or Asvamitra; on Pusyamitra, see pp. 348,356.

⁶⁹¹ Or Chalua.

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XIV. The second upangam, rayapasenaiyyam, which is always translated by rājapraśnīyam. This is perhaps to be explained as a complete misunderstanding of the Prakrit title by which this text is always cited in those passages from the hand of the redactor which refer to our text in the angas, etc. For pasenaiyyam cannot properly be praśniyam, since the latter words rather pre-supposes a Prakrit form panhiyam. Pasenaiyyam seems, according to the conclusion at which I arrived ad Bhag. 1,382, to refer to the name of king Prasenajit who is well-known in the legends of the Jains. 692 There is, however, one important objection to this conclusion, - there is no mention of this king in our text, which mentions a king Paesi but no Pasenai. In as much as the authenticity of the form of the name pasenaiyyam cannot be gainsaid, 698 there remains but one possibility open: that the original title of the text has been preserved and either the name of Paesi has been substituted for that of Pasenai⁶⁹⁴ (see p. 384) in the text, or there has been substituted an entirely different text for the whole of the old one. [383] Though the latter conjecture savours of boldness, we are not without analogous examples as we have seen in the case of angas 8-10. Our first means of explanation appeals much more to our sympathy, especially as we have a perfect parallel in a later legend. We possess two recensions of the Samyaktva-kaumūdīkathā, in the first of which the scene is laid at the time of "Śrenika, son of Prasenajit", in whose place Uditodaya, son of Padmodbhava appears in the second. This is, however, brought about in such fashion that Srenika is referred to in a two-fold introduction. The legend in question appears to be old and to antedate the two existing recensions of the Samyaktva-kaumudīkathā.

The Sanskrit translation of the title Rāyapasenaiyyam by rājapraśnī-yam is very far from being in harmony with the contents of the work. The burden of the very smallest portion of its extent is in our text the questions of a king. The questions play here no greater role than in any other of the legends similar to this in which a king requests instruction. The irreconcilability of this Sanskrit title with the content of the work itself makes co ipso for the conclusion that the title is nothing but a mere makeshift to conceal the original contents.

It is, therefore, of no little significance that a beautiful conjecture

⁶⁹² See e. g. añga 8, p. 320.

⁶⁹³ In Nandī, Pākṣikas, and Āvi. the name is rāyapa (ppa) seniya; Svi. and V. have °seṇaīya; the passages in the texts showing the hand of the redactor always have the form °seṇaiyya.

⁶⁹⁴ Leumann is of the opinion (Aupap. p. 2) that the name Rāyapasenaiyya arose by "connection with Rājā Prasenajit by a popular etymology". It seems to me, however, that Rāyapasenaiyya is the prius and rājapraśnīyam the posterius.

elaborated into an investigation by Dr. Leumann has shewn that one of the Pali texts of the Buddhistic Tipiṭaka viz. the Pāyāsi-suttam (Dīghanikāya 1,22),—is especially closely connected [384] with that part of our upānga which treats of king Paesi. It is apparent, then, that we must assume either a common foundation for both or the use of a special Buddhistic work as a ground-work. That the original text of the Rāyapasenaiyyam might easily have suffered a transformation, is indicated by the irreconcilability of this title with the Sanskrit translation and with the contents. Thus the old name Prasenajit gave place to that of our text Paesi (Pāyāsi in Pali).

It is noteworthy that at the conclusion of the work there is an exclamation of reverence addressed to the Jinas, to the suyadevayā (śruta°) bhagavaī, to the pannatti bhagavaī, and to the bhagavat arahat Pāsa. Joined to this exclamation are some very corrupt words, which are perhaps to be restored as follows, 695 Passasuvassa vānte. It is at least certain that Pasa, and not Mahavira, is glorified in this paragraph. Could this not be a residuum of the original text, which had a right to the title raya pasenaiyya and which perhaps treated of the relations of King Prasenajit and Pasa? Pasa, it should be noticed, appears as a teacher in up. 10, 11. The seer glorified in our present text is at least called Pāsāvacciyya, i. e. scholar of Pāsa; and appears in a recital put in the mouth of Mahavira as the teacher of king Paesi. In the other legends, in which [385] any such Pāsāvacciyvas occur, they are invariably characterized as converts to the teachers of Mahavira. See above p. 300. Malayagiri attempts to find this reference to the Pāsāvaccivyas a special proof of the connection of upānga 2 with anga 2, which, he maintains, treats of the views of the foreign pāṣaṇḍas.

We were for some time left in doubt whether the references in the angas to the Rāyapasenaiyyam were in reality all contained in the Rāyapasenaiyyam (cf. Jacobi Kalpas. p. 107); but Leumann has shown that this doubt is without foundation. See above, p. 299. But, granted the actual occurrence of all these citations, this fact only makes for the conclusion, that, at the period of these remarks by the redactor, the substitution, which I assume, was already a fait accompli. Nor does this exclude the assumption that our text originally possessed a content that was really in harmony with its title.

^{695 (…}namo bhagavao) arahao, Pāsassa, passe supasse, passavāņi namo e A, arahamto passe supasse passavāņte namo E, arahamto passe supassa vāņīe namo E, arahamto passe suyassa vāņīe namo G.

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The subject of the largest portion (almost two-thirds) of the existing text, which after the paincanamukkāra begins with the customary legendary introduction tenam kāleņam, is as follows: - The god Sūriyābha, who has his throne in the Sohammakappa, makes a pilgrimage with a numerous retinue to Amalakappa, the city of king Sea (Sveta) in order to offer his reverence to Mahāvīra (who is abiding in that city), especially by means of music, dancing and singing. 696 Furthermore, the information is treated of which, in long spun-out details, is imparted in reference to Sūriyābha, his synonymous vimāna and all his splendour, by Mahāvīra to Goyama (Imdabhūti) who questions him on these points. [386] The discussion of the subject consists in reality of a mere heaping together of compounds; and the sentences often extend over several pages. It is idle to talk of this as style, since it exceeds even the widely extended license which is customary in these sacred texts. We recall Bana's Kadambari in this connection, though the latter possess a wealth of poetic thoughts and images which elevates it above this dreary and insipid hodge-podge. We have, however, the right to propound the question whether there may not be a genetic connection between works like the Kādambarī and this species of Jain literature, since at least the confused style of the Indian novel may have been influenced by Jain legends of this sort. 697

On page 205 of the edition⁶⁹⁸ (of the text of 296 pages printed in India), Mahāvīra finally comes to the point and informs us how Sūriyābha reached this glory of his, and of his first birth as king Paesi (Pradešī) in Seyaviyā. The latter sent his charioteer Citta [387] with presents to his vassal Jiyasattu at Sāvatthī in the land of Kuṇālā.⁶⁹⁹. At that place Citta heard the sermon of the "Pāsāvaccijje Kesī nāmam kumāre."⁷⁰⁰ and was so much edified thereby that after his return home

^{696 32} naţţavihi, 4 vāitta, 4 geya, again 4 naţţavihi and 4 naţṭābhinaya are given here in great detail. The commentator, Malayagiri, however, offers scarcely any explanation on this point,

for the simple jātāka tales of the Buddhists. Likewise, the modern stories as Sinhāsanadvātrinšikā etc. are without doubt influenced by the kathānakas which were gradually cultivâted more and more by the Jains. It is noteworthy, that in Bāṇa as in the Daśakumāra, the style of which is much better than that of Bāṇa, the same persons are frequently born thrice. This three-fold birth is the special delight of the Jain legends. Our text, in this very place, affords an example of this fact. Cf. the verse quoted. Ind. Stud. 16 page 156 from the Anuvogadv. in reference to the abbhuarasa.

⁶⁹⁸ This quarto edition contains the commentary of Malayagiri and a gloss in *Bhāṣa*. The text gives the year *Saṃvat* 1732 (!) the gloss 2732 (!). Iṭāvāgrāṃma is mentioned in the latter as being the scene of the events narrated.

⁶⁹⁹ Reference to this point is found in upānga 8.

⁷⁰⁰ See Uttarajjh. Chap. 23. See the statements of Dharmaghoşa in his Kupakşaka-

he induced his master Paesi to let him drive him to the sanctuary, where Keśi happened to be preaching at that very time. Citta brought about that conversation between Paesi and Keśi to which the translation of the name Rāyapaseṇaiyyam by Rājapraśṇīyam refers. This conversation, which starts with the question in reference to the relation of the jīva to the śarīra, reaches in the printed text from page 242 to page 279 and contains, therefore, about an eighth part of the whole. In reality, however, there is more than an eighth, since the beginning contains a good deal of commentary.

With the relation of the former birth of Sūriyābha as Paesi. Mahāvira connects his prophecy in reference to his future birth as Dadhapainna. This prophecy is in all essentials completely identical (though somewhat more detailed) with that form of the history of this person, which we met with in up. 1 and in up. 8 (cf. also Bhag, 11,11)⁷⁰¹. We have then discovered here a fact that is likely to cast a somewhat suspicious light upon the history of the text of up. 2. The enumeration of the 72 kalās (p. 290) varies here but inconsiderably; and Malayagiri does not help us by giving any explanation of the names. The enumeration of the foreign peoples is in essential agreement with Bhag. 9,33 (above p. 302), with the single exception [388] that here, too, the Causiyā (Vau, Pau, and the Joniya have been included in the list. There are, however, some few variations in the names and in the order of their succession. See Leumann, Aup. p. 60. On page 52 cinapittharāsi is adduced among the redstuffs, and likewise in up. 3; cf. cīnapaţţa in anga 10, p. 333.

The commentary of Malayagiri dates, according to Aufrecht, Catalogus, p. 396b, from the year (Vira?) 1772; according to Leumann this is merely the date of the tabā based upon Malayagiri.

XV. The third upāngam, jīvābhigamasūtram, = instruction, in dialogue form, of Goyama (Imdabhuti) in reference to the different forms and groups of animated nature. This instruction is not placed in the mouth of Mahāvīra, but in that of a person who is not designated. The introduction is composed without any legendary ballast, and reads as

usikādītya (1,7), in my treatise on this subject page 22, Journal of the Berlin Acad. of Sciences 1882, p. 812, in reference to modern descendants of this Kesikumāra, who themselves claim this title until the end of the XVI century.

⁷⁰¹ s. Leumann, Aup, p. 75 fg.

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follows:—Iha702 khalu Jinamayam Jinānumayam Jinānulomam Jinappanītam Jinaparūviyam Jinakkhāyam Jinānucinnam Jinapannattam Jinadesivam Jinapasattham anuvītīyam (?) tam saddahamānā tam pattiyamānā tam roemānā therā bhagavamto Jīvājīvābhigamam nāma 'jihayanam pannavaimsu. In up. 10 these therā bhgavamto are adduced by Mahavira himself cf. chedasūtra 4. The introduction then proceeds to give, in response to the question se kim tam ilvabhigame? a species of division of the entire work. No smaller sections, except some, 708 are marked off in the text. [389] The various views of those⁷⁰⁴ are here enumerated⁷⁰⁵ who characterize the jiva either as duviha (to 17a of the MS.—ms. or fol. 1081—consisting of 212 leaves) or as follows,—as tiviha (to 34a), as caivviha (to 184a; this is the chief part, almost $\frac{3}{4}$ of the whole, 706) as pamcaviha (to 186a), as chavviha (to 193a), sattaviha (to 193b), attha° (to 195a), nava° (to 195b), and dasaviha (to 197b). Then the same padivatti, follow in the same order, but according to another guiding principle. Within this system there are innumerable groups, species and sub-species of each of the jīvas according to their properties and relations. The contents is remarkably dry and offers but little of genuine interest. Very frequent are the references to the fourth upānga, which is quite similar to it in contents and form. At present it is impossible to decide which text has the better claim to priority. Many single verses and sometimes whole series of gāthās, or kārikā-like verses are inserted.

The section which treats of the dīvas (and samuddas) (i.e. 89b to 167a) appears at the date of aṅga 3 and of the Nandī⁷⁰⁷ to have had a separate existence under the name dīvāsāgarapamatti which is mentioned twice in aṅga 3. See p. 268. This section unfortunately contains almost nothing of real geographical value [390] and nothing but fantastic conceptions concerning mythology. This holds good in reference to the astronomical (if we may use the expression) remarks concerning the different numbers (!) of the suns, moons and stars in each of the dvīpas, which appear to harmonize completely with the statements of the fifth (or seventh) upāṅga. See Ind. Stud. 10, 283. The 28 nakṣatras

⁷⁰² This is preceded by a reverential exclamation namo Usabhadiyānam cauvvisāe titthagarāṇam, an unusual form, which appears to belong to the text itself and not to emanate from the copyists.

⁷⁰³ In the MS. chiefly used by me the conclusion of an uddesa is given three times.

⁷⁰⁴ ege evam āhamsu.

⁷⁰⁵ In nine groups (padivatti, Vidhiprapā), introduced in a way that is quite identical in each separate case.

⁷⁰⁶ We find treated here the division into neralya to 52b, tirikkhajoniya to 59b, manussa to 74b, deva to 183a, and then a few further remarks to 184a.

⁷⁰⁷ In the Vidhiprapā there is a saingrahanī on it cited among the painnavas.

consequently begin with Abhijit and not with Kṛttikā. There are no legends whatsoever. Dr. Leumann sends me the following detailed statement of the contents of this upāṅgaṁ:—

I. Introduction: II. Two-fold division of creatures: 1-10 thāyarā. 1-5. pudhavikkāivā egimdivā, 6-7. āukkāivā eg., 8-10. vanassaikkāivā eg., 11-26 tasā, 11. teukkāiyā eg. 12. vāukkāiyā eg., 13. beimdiyā. 14. teimdiyā, 15. caurimdiyā, 16-26, pamcimdiyā, 16. neraivā, 17-20. sammucchima tirikkhajoniyā, 21-24, gabbhayakkamtiyatir, 25, manussā, tasā and thāvarā (in general); III. Three-fold 26. devā. 27. division of creatures: 1-6. itthiyāo, 7-12. purisā, 13-18. napumsagā, 19-26. the three together and among themselves; IV. Four-fold division of creatures. A geographical text is inserted called the dīvasamuddā. 1. padhamo neraiva-uddeso, 2. bitivaneraiya tāio nārava-uddesao. 4. tirikkhajoniya-padh. udd. 5. udd. bio., 6. manussā, 7 31-33. devā. 8-28. dīvasamuddā. 8-16 the Jambudiva. the inmost part of the world, of circular form. 8. Description of the above, in general the same as that of Surivabhavimāņa in Rājapr. 9. the gate of the east. Vijava dāra 10. The residence rāvahānī of the god Vijaya who rules there. 11. [391] The walk of reverence of Vijava within his vimāna. 12. duration of the existence of Vijava. 13. The gates of the three remaining regions of the world: Vejavamta dāra, Javamta dāra and Aparāiva dāra. and the distance of the dāras from each other, 14. Jambuddīva as bounded by the Lavana sea which surrounds it on all sides like a ring, 15. Explanation of the name Jambuddiva, 16. Number of the constellations moving over Jamb., 17. The Lavana sea, the first ocean surrounding Jambuddiva like a ring; the description here corresponds to that of Jamb, and from this point on is in the same strain. 18. The Canda-diva and Sūradiva of the different parts of the earth and oceans 19. Appendix to 17; Bbb and flow etc., 20. The second part of the globe, Dhāyaisanda, that in circular form is contiguous to the Lavana sea; then the second ocean Kāloda which, in the form of a ring, is adjacent to Dhay,; and finally the third part of the globe. Pukkharavara, contiguous to Kaloda, 21. The Samaya or Manussa Khetta, consisting of the above mentioned two first parts of the globe and the first two oceans together with the inner half of the ring of the third part of the globe, which is separated from the outer half by the circular mountain, Manussuttara. 22. The following parts of the globe and oceans which are connected with one another as rings; Pukkharoda, Vāruņavara dīva, Vāruņoda, Khīravara dīva, Khīroda, Ghatavara dīva, Ghatoda, Khodavara diva, Khododa. 23. The following world-ring, Nandisaravara diva, 24. The following oceans and world-rings: Nandi-

saroda. Aruna diva. etc.. to Haravarobhasoda. 25. The remaining oceans and world-rings up to Sayambhūramana diva and Sayambhuramanoda, 26. The names of all these parts of the globe and oceans, 27. The [392] waters and aquatic animals of the different oceans. 28 In reference to the divasamudda in general (namadheija, uddharasamava, parināma and uvavāya). 29. 30. A brief insertion, perhaps an appendix to the dīvasamuddā. 29. About pariņāma 30. Concerning the ability of gods to catch an object that has been thrown, to split a hair ? gadhittae), to lengthen or to shorten one. 31-33 devā continuation; (see 7), 31. joisa-uddesao. 32. padhamo Vemäniya-udd. 33 bīo Vemāniyaudd. 708 34. Final collective statements (duration of existence, etc.) in reference to the four divisions of creatures. V.-X. Five-fold to the ten-fold division of creatures, XI. Introduction to the following analogous divisions of all creatures. XII.-XX Two-fold to ten-fold division of all creatures.

XVI. The fourth upāngam, pannavana (prajnāpanā) bhagavaī, likewise treats of the different forms, conditions of life, etc., of the $j\bar{\imath}\nu a$.⁷⁰⁹ It is divided into 36 payas, (padas), of which several (15,17,23,38) consist of from two to six uddeśakas. According to the fourth of the nine verses of the introduction, it is the work of Ayya Sāma (Ārya Śyāma, also Syamarya), who at the same time is called the "twenty-third dhirapurisa" i. e. after Vira (after Sudharmasvāmin, according to Malayagiri. [393] This statement causes no little difficulty. According to Klatt, I,I. p. 247^b and 251^b (9,23) and in the Journal of the German Oriental Society 33,479 the modern Jain lists of teachers place, with some few difference,710 Syama in the fourth century after Vira; but the "twentythird successor of Vira is placed by one list immediately before Devarddhigani, 980 after Vira,, and is regarded by the other as contemporaneous with the destruction of Valabhi (Valabhibhanga), 845 after Vira. The Gurvāvalī of the Tapāgaccha expressly enumerates Syāmārya as a contemporary of the ninth patriarch; and in both of the old Therāvalīs of the Nandi (or Āvaśyaka) and of Merutunga he is enumerated as the

⁷⁰⁸ This concluding title, says Leumann, is incorrectly placed after Chapter 34 instead of after 33 in the Berlin MSS and in those of Prof. Monier Williams.

⁷⁰⁹ Cf. in the Schol. on the Nandī: jīvādīnām padārthānām prajnāpanām yatra sā prajnāpanā, sai 'va vīhattarā mahāprajnāpanā. Two texts of this name are referred to there, a simple panno and a mahāpanno. The latter is adduced as the sixth upāngam by Kashinath Kunte (p. 227) p. 5 and p. 7, who calls it, however, "obsolete and extinct". He does not mention the candapannatti.

⁷¹⁰ The Patt (āvalī of Kharataragaccha) dates his birth 376 (or 386) after Vīra; in the same year the Gurv (āvalī of Tapāgaccha) assumes his death to have occurred. He was also called Kālaka and was one of the three celebrated teachers of this name. See Jacobi, Journ. Germ. Orient, Soc. 34,251 ff.

13th (not the 23rd) successor of V̄ra. This apparent contradiction is done away with by the explanation of Bhāu D̄aji, referred to p. 217ⁿ, according to which the eleven gaṇadharas of V̄ra are regarded as being included in the designation of Śyāma as "23rd" successor. This method of including the gaṇadharas has however not been traced elsewhere.

The text begins with the paincanamukkāra, followed by the following glorification; eso paincanamukkāro savvapāvapaņāsaņo|maingalāṇam ca savvesim paḍhamam hoi maingalam||. This glorification is to be ascribed to the last daśapūrvin, śrī Vajra (584 Vīra) according to modern tradition. See Kup. 811 (21) on this point also the same passage in reference to the question whether in the last pada we must read hot or havai,711 about which there is fierce contention among the Jain theologians.

[394] Then follows⁷¹² in nine verses the real introduction of which Jacobi (Journ. Germ. Orient. Soc. 34,231) says "it is manifestly the production of Devarddhiganin, the redactor of the Siddhānta." The first verse praises Mahāvīra; the second characterizes the pannavaṇā savvabhāvāṇam as uvadamsiyā by him (bhagavayā); the third and fourth pay reverence to that saint, Ajja Sāma, the "23rd dhīrapurisa," whose wisdom, perfected by listening to the pūrvas, gave to his scholars this śruta-jewel after he had brought it up from the śruta-sea: vāyagavaravamsāo tevīsatimeṇa dhīrapuriseṇa|duddharadhareṇa⁷¹³ muṇinā puvva-suyasamiddhabuddhīe⁷¹⁴||3|| suyasāyarā viṇeūṇa jeṇa suyarayaṇam uttamam dinnam sīsagaṇassa, bhagavato tassa namo Ajja Sāmassa||4||.

In verse 5 an "I" promises to describe (or proclaim) the work in the same way as the 'bhagavant' has described it; and the work is characterised as "dripping with drstivāda": ajjhayaṇam iṇam cittam suyarayaṇam diṭṭhivāyanīsamdam⁷¹⁵/jaha vanniyam bhagavayā aham avi taha vaṇṇaissāmi.//5// It is, of course, clear⁷¹⁶ that some one else than the previous speaker is to be understood by this "I"; and Jacobi's [395]

- 711 Thus in the beginning of the Kalpasūtra, see Jacobi, p. 33, and Āvašy. 9,132.
- 712 The preceding is omitted by Malayagiri, whose commentary begins here.
- 713 Jacobi translates "undergoing a severe test". I propose "holding that (in his head) which is difficult of retention"; cf. the use of dhārae p. 304n (Bhag. 2,245n).
- 714 buddhinam var. 1., construed by Jacobi with vāyagavara, as if we had ovarāņam.
- 715 dvādasasyā 'mgasya nisyamdam iva. The expression di nisamdam recurs in the words "aggeniya-puvyanissandā" at the end of the siddhapāhuḍa. See above, page 355.
- 716 Malayagiri refers "bhagavayā" to Mahāvīra and not to Ayya Sāma as the one who in the text carries on the dialogue with Goyama. According to his conception then the work of Ayya Sāma begins with this verse; and this is probably correct.

conjecture, mentioned above, must be referred and indeed limited to v. 1-4 alone in so far as these verses appear as a prelude of secondary origin. In the four verses which then follow are contained titles of the 36 sections:—

1. Pannavaṇā, 2. ṭhāṇāim, 3. bahuvattavvam, 4. ṭhiī, 5. visesā yaļ 6. vukkamtī, 7. ussāso, 8. sannā, 717 9. joṇī ya, 10. carimāim//6//, 11. bhāsā, 12. sarīra, 13 pariṇāma, 14 kasāe, 15. 'mdiya, 16. ("- is wanting) ppaoge yaļ 17. lesā, 18. kāyaṭṭhiī ya, 19 sammatte/(samyaktva), 20. amtakiriyā ya//7//, 21. ugāhaṇāsamṭhāṇe, 718 22. kiriyā, 23. kamme i yāvare (?), 24. kammassa bamdhae, 25. vedassa bamdhae, 26. kammassa vedae, 719 27. veyaveyae//8//, 720 28. āhāre, 29. uvaoge, 30. pāsaṇayā (darśanatā), 31. sanni⁷²¹ (samjnin), 32. samjame ceva/33. ohī (avadhī), 34. paviyāraṇā⁷²² (read °raṇā ya), 35. veyaṇā (vedanā), 36. tatto samugghāe//9//.

Then comes the text $\kappa \alpha \tau' \in \xi \circ \chi \eta' \nu$ which begins with the questions se kim tam ajivapannavanā? It consists furthermore of the questions of Go-(yama) and the answers probably of Mahavira, though it is uncertain whether Mahavira be meant or not, since there is absolutely no addition of a legendary colouring. These questions and answers are couched in the style and manner of the dialogues in the Bhagavatī, and though there is here a connecting thread (which we do not find in the Bhagayati, every padam forming a connected whole, nevertheless, there is, as a rule, [396] no genetic succession of the padas, despite the fact that Malayagiri makes every effort at the beginning of every padam to restore723 the connection with what has gone before. Many gāhās are found in the middle of the text, and many of the padas begin with a short statement of contents clothed in gāthā form—dāragāhā (dvāragāthā). There are no legends whatsoever. The "contents" is as dreary as that (cf. above p 389) of the third uvanga which is closely connected with it, is dogmatic, speculative or even fantastic, and contains but little of general interest. There is much, however, that is important in the first book in the section on Man, who is divided into two classes; milikkha and āriya. First there is an enumeration of 53 Mleccha peoples, secondly an enumeration of 25½(!) Aryan peoples with their

⁷¹⁷ āhārāi dasasannāpayam, Vidhiprapā (V).

⁷¹⁸ agāhaņāpayam V.

^{719 25} and 26 are transposed in BCV; in V we read kammaveyagapayam 25, veyagabamdhagapayam 26, veyagapayam 27.

⁷²⁰ The metre is faulty in v. 8.

⁷²¹ manovinnāņasannā payam 31 V.

⁷²² paviyār aņāpayam 34 V.

⁷²³ Malayagiri claims in the beginning of his discussion of the subject that there is a special connection between this upānga and anga 4.

chief cities, and lastly an enumeration of 18 manners of writing. All this possesses some chronological value which would be more apparent if the names had not been so corruptly handed down to us. Malaygiri offers us no assistance in the case of the first and third enumeration.

In the list of the Milikkhas (Milakkhas) the names are frequently the same as those cited, p. 332 from anga 10, and are arranged in the same order of succession. Various differences of detail are, however, not wanting, and in fact the names here make a less favourable impression upon us and seem to be of less antiquity724. They are:725 Saga [397] Javana Cilāya Savara Pappara (Babbara BC) Kāya (only ya BC) Murumdo 'dda (ddha C) Bhadaga Ninnaga Pakkaniyā Kulakkhā Komda⁷²⁶ (Gomda C) Sihara (Sihala) Pārasa Godhova (Gādhodamba B, Gadhāi C) Damila Vilala (Villana B) (Cillala C) Pulimda Hārosā Domva (Tova B, Doca C) Boṭṭhakāṇa (Vokkāṇa BC) Gamdhahāravā (°hāraga B) Pahaliliya (Bahayaliya B, Pahaliya C) Ayyala Rāma Pāsa Paüsā Nalayā (Navayā C) va Bamdhuyā ya Suyali komkana gā Meya (Mopamya B) Palhava Mālava Maggarī (°ra BC) Abhāsiyā Nakvavīnā (Kaṇavīra B) Lhasiya (Lhā° B) Khagga (Kkhasa B) Ghāsiya (Khāsiya B) Noha (Nedū B, Naddu C) Ramadha⁷²⁷ (°tha B) Dombilaga (Do°C) Lausa (°osa C) Paosa Kvokvatā (! Kakkveyā B, Kakveya C) Arakāga (Aravāga BC) Hūņa Romagā Bharu Maruya Visalāpavāsī (Cilāyavisavāsī ya B, Vilāyavisavavāsī vā C) evamādī, se 'ttam Milakkhā.

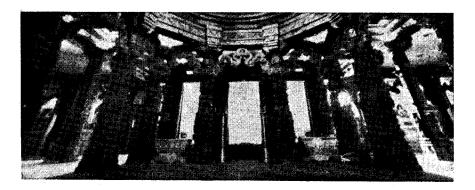
The āriyas are divided into nine groups, the first of which is formed by the Khettāriya, and is in gāthā form. It is as follows:—

Rāyagiha Magaha, Campā Amgā taha, Tāmalitti Vamgā ya|Kām-caṇapuram Kalimgā, Bāṇārasi (!) ceva Kāsī ya //

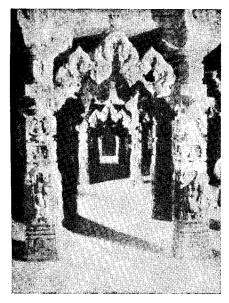
[to be continued]

- 724 The Cīṇa have disappeared or their name is concealed under that of another people The name of the \$\overline{A}rava\$ has received another form \$-Arava\bar{a}y\bar{a}\$—and its position has been changed.
- 725 Malayagiri has merely: sakadeśanivāsinah Śakāh, Yavandeśanivāsino Yavanāh evam sarvatra, navaram amī nānādeśā lokato vijneyāh. The names are found partly in the thematic form and partly in the Nom. Plur.—In Nemicandra's pravacanasāroddhāra § 274 v. 1594-7 we find 38 names, among which only 20 agree with those given here; and there are important variations. His enumeration decked out in a modern dress is as follows:—Saga Javara Savara Vavvara Kāya (Kāyāh) Marumdo'dda (Murumdāh Udrāh) Goda Pakkanayā | Aravāga (Aukhāga C, Akṣāgāḥ!) Hūna Romaya Pārasa khasa Khāsiyā ceva | 194 | Dumvilaya Laüsa (Lakuśāh) Bhokkasa Bhillimdha (Bhillā Amdhrāh) Pulimda Kumca Bhamararuyā (!! Bhrāmararucāh) | Kovāya (Korpakāh) Cīṇa Camcuya (Cīnāh Camcukāh) Mālava Damilā (Dravidāh) Kulagghā (Kulārghāh!) ya | 195 | Kokaya Kirāya Hayamuha Kharamuha Gaya-Turaya-Mimdhayamuhā (Mimdhakamukhāh) ya | Hayakannā Gayakannā anne vi anāriyā bahave | 96 | . It is of interest that the name Aravāga has been completely misunderstood.
- 126 B. omits.
- 727 An acceptable reading instead of Marahattha (!) in anga 10.

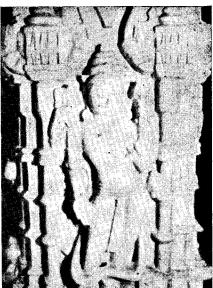
Having its moorings in the past, Jain Centre, Leicester is trying to project itself in the future by organising a Jain Academy offering undergraduate and post-graduate courses of Jain Studies and teaching for children and adults within the community. A noble task. Here are some views of the centre.



Mandap of Jain Centre, 32 Oxford Street, Leicester, U. K.



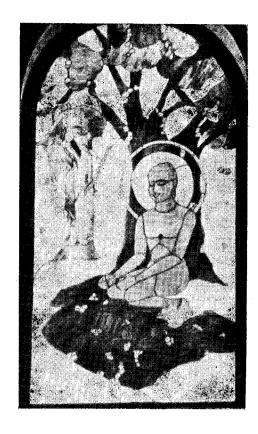




Carving on Pillar



Window at Jain Centre: Candanbala fulfilling the vow of Mahavira.



Another Window at Jain Centre: Enlightenment of Mahāvīra

The Doctrines of Mahavira¹

Satya Ranjan Banerjee

The time of Mahāvīra, that is, the sixth century B. C., is extraordinarily important in the intellectual history of mankind. Some great men were born at that time. In India we have Vardhamāna Mahāvīra and Gautama Buddha, in Persia Zoroaster, in China Confucius and Lao-tzu and in Greece Pythagoras—all were promulgating their new doctrines in their respective countries, and as a result, some basic human religious ideas emerged out of their doctrines. All these great men revolutionized some of the then fundamental ideas of human beings. Mahāvīra's contribution towards the religious development of mankind is a great landmark and unparalleled in many ways in the annals of human history.

It is to be noted that seers and saints, philosophers and poets, theologians and thinkers, playwrights and writers, great men and reformers are born in this world only to mould the destiny of men from generation to generation. They have left their riveted thoughts and trenchant ideas only to influence the opinions of their followers with the instructiveness and values of their lives which lay in the means which they had shown to prove themselves what they were. The history of human civilization would not have been like this to-day, had not these great men left their contributions for the betterment of human beings. In fact, "No great men", says Carlyle, "lives in vain. The history of the world is but the Biography of great men."

Such was the life and activities of Lord Vardhamāna Mahāvīra, an almost forgotten saint of India, who came to the arena of intellectual battlefield over 2500 years ago, when the majority of the world were in the infernal gloom and cimmerian darkness of colossal

¹ For Mahāvīra and his doctrines, see Hermann Jacobi, Jaina Sūtras, SBE, Vol. 45, 1895; see also his article on Jainism in Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics ed by Hastings, Edinburgh, 1908-21; H. L. Jhaveri, The First Principles of the Jaina Philosophy, London, 1910. Jagmander Lal Jain, Outlines of Jainism, Cambridge, 1940; A. Chakravarti, Samayasāra, Bhāratīya Jūānapīṭha, Delhi, 1944.

ignorance. He dedicated his life to the cause of mankind, consecrated the most extraordinary energies ever conferred upon a man, beaconed the path of human knowledge and created a new horizon in the domain of Religion and Philosophy. He is great and divine, not because he dedicated his life to the right cause of humanity, not because he had a high feeling of honour for all sorts of living beings, not because he respected the rights of conscience, but because he found the eternal truth of peace and happiness for mankind, but because all his utterances, full of wisdom, have the "trumpet of a prophecy", but because he nobly advocated equality of privileges and the universal brotherhood of man. That is why, even after the lapse of 2500 years of ever-new expansion of human ideas, we feel to remember him, to analyse his ideas and principles, to vivisect his doctrines and to resuscitate his thoughts from the pages of forgotten history.

I

Lord Vardhamāna Mahāvīra², a contemporary of Gautama Buddha and a new interpreter of human life, was born in 599 B.C. at the site of the modern village of Basarh about 27 miles north of Patna. His father Siddhartha was a ruling Kşatriya ('a warrior class') in the republic of Vaisāli in Bihār. He was born at a time when Magadha. an area in Eastern India, was, perhaps, both politically and spiritually in the height of its power. Vardhamana seems to have lived with his parents till they died. At the age of 30 Vardhamana, with the consent of his brother Nandivardhana, entered the spiritual career. For twelve years he led a very austere life and visited many places in Rādha, a country adjacent to his birth place. Vardhamāna (lit, 'the prosperous one') attained kevala-ship (lit. 'one who is recognized as omniscient') at the end of the twelve and a half years. Then he virtually got the titles Mahavira ('the great victorious'). Jina ('the conqueror'), Tirthankara ('the one who has crossed the ocean of this world'). After attaining this omniscient knowledge, he started preaching and teaching his doctrines for the last 30 years of his life. During this time he organized his order of ascetics and gave it a proper shape. At the age of 72 in 527 B.C. he attained nirvana ('salvation').

The basic tenets of Jainism are found in the epithets by which Mahāvīra is often described.³ He is called Jina ($<\sqrt{ji}$, to conquer +

² J. L. Jain, Outlines of Jainism, p. xxvii-viii.

³ See A. Chakravarti, Samayasāra, pp. 80ff.

the suffix nak), because he has conquered the five senses and thereby destroyed all the karmas, and ultimately attained sarvajña-hood ('omniscience') by performing tapas ('penance'). People who worship the Jinas and follow their paths are Jainas. Jainism is. therefore. the tenets or doctrines of the Jinas. The Jinas are also called Tirthankaras and Arhats, and therefore, Tirthankaras and Arhats can also be used as synonymns of Jaina religion. "The term Tirthankara means one who helps human beings to cross the ocean of samsāra by providing them with a vessel to sail with in the form of dharma. Jinadharma is the boat which is provided for the human beings for the purpose of crossing the ocean of samsara and because of this noble task of helping the mankind Jina is called Tirthankara." The designation arhata shows that Jina is "worthy of adoration and worship". "Arhat Paramesthi is, therefore, the Lord worshipped by all the Jainas." "He is represented by a pratibimba, or image which is installed in a caityālaya ('a Jaina temple') built for the purpose. The pratibimba is always in the form of a human being, because it represents the Jina or the Tirthankara who spent the last portion of his life on earth in the noble task of proclaiming the moksa-marga ('path to salvation') to the world. The idol will be either in a standing posture or kayotsarga ('renunciation of body') or in the posture of padmāsana. Whether standing or sitting it represents the Divine Lord absorbed in the self-realisation as a result of tapas or yoga. Therefore the facial expression would reveal the intrinsic spiritual bliss as a result of self-realisation and omniscient knowledge (kevala-jñāna). People who worship the Jina in the form installed in the jinalaya ('a Jaina temple') and who follow the religious tenets proclaimed by the Jina are called the Jainas and their religion is Jainism."

The Jina is, therefore, the divine person (sarvajña) who lived in the world with his body, and it refers to the period after attaining sarvajña-hood and the last period of the parinirvāna, when the body is cast away and the self resumes its own intrinsic pure spiritual nature and it becomes paramātmā or siddha. This is the last stage of spritual development and is identical with the self completely liberated or mukta-jīva or the self which attains mokṣa. This siddha-svarūpa or paramātmā-svarūpa is without body (aśarīra) and without form (arūpa). Hence its nature can be understood only by yogic contemplation.4

II

According to the belief of the Jainas themselves, the Jaina dharma 4 *Ibid*, pp. 79-80.

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is eternal, and it has been revealed again and again, in every one of the endless succeeding periods of the world, by innumeral Tirthankaras. In the present period which is avasarping according to the Jainas, there are 24 Tirthankaras, the first of them was Rsabha and the last three were Aristanemi. Parsvanatha and Mahavira. All these Tirthankaras have reached nirvana at their death. Because of their attainment of moksa, all these Tirthankaras are regarded as ideal man-god (deva) by the Jainas. In order to honour and worship them, the Jainas have erected temples where the idols or images of these 24 Tirthankaras. the favourite being the first and the last three ones, are found. Some sects, especially a rather recent section of the Syetambaras, the Dhundiya or Sthanakavasins, reject this kind of worship. Except the last two (Pārsvanātha and Mahāvīra), all the Tīrthankaras belong to mythology rather than to history. But the 22nd Aristanemi is connected with the legend of Kṛṣṇa as his relative. Though Pārśvanātha was the real reformer of Jainism. Mahāvīra gave it a shape in the present form in which we get it in the canonical literature.

Ш

Historically the Jaina religion is very old, older than Buddhism. In Buddhist literature⁵ some references to Niggantha-Nataputta are found, and this is nothing but another name for Jina or Jaina religion. Similarly, the Jaina literature composed at the time of Mahavira contains cross references to Buddha and his vows. In the dialogue of Pāvāsi and Kumāra Kassapa in the Pāvāsi-sutta of the Dīghanikāva (No. 23), the existence of a soul substance is denied by Pāvāsi as it was done by Bauddha himself. A version of this dialogue is also found among the Jainas. In the *Upāli-sutta* (No. 56) of the *Majihima-nikāva*. there is a dialogue between Bauddha and Jaina with regard to the practice of asceticism. In the Anguttara-nikāva (III, 27) eight powers of people belonging to the different strata of the society are described. and these are also found in the Thananga and Samavayanga suttas of the Jainas. Some of the verses of the Dhammapada are also found in the texts of the Jainas, particularly in the Uttarajihayana-sutta. The parable of the blind man and the elephant (andha-gaja-nyāya) is also found in the Jaina Syādvāda-mañjarī as well as in the Udāna (VI. 4).

The idea of a true brāhmaṇa is dealt with in the Uttarajjhayaṇa-sutta (XXX) as well as in the Sela-sutta (III. 7) of the Sutta nipāta, in the

⁵ M. Winternitz, *History of Indian Literature*, Vol. II, Calcutta, p. 44f. Winternitz thinks that both the sects might have borrowed their ideas from an earlier source.

Dhammapada (ch. 26.343 - 423), in the Udāna (I) and in many other The Jātaka No. 530 (Samkiccajātaka) has a specimen in the Jaina text. About the influence of the Jātakas, Winternitz says, "Directly and indirectly the Jātakas have also enriched the literatures of many other peoples, and have therefore been of immense importance in Universal literature, even though today we no longer believe, with Th. Benfey, that the entire fairytale literature of the World is of Buddhist origin. Nevertheless, however, largely the Brahmanas, Jainas and other sects might have contributed to Indian narrative literature, Buddhism alone pressed forward far beyond the limits of India as a world-religion, thus diffusing Indian civilization and literature far and wide in all countries of the East and West." There are some other references to Jainism in the Buddhist literature. In the story of Moggallana a very hostile attitude towards the Jaina monks is described. So also in the Kalpanā-mandiţikā the religious views of the Brāhmanas and Jainas are confuted. In the Divyāvadāna (p. 427), the persecutions of Jaina monks are mentioned.

There is one interesting point to note that in the Sumāgadhāvadāna, there is a legend of Sumāgadhā, the daughter of Anāthapindada, a merchant, who alienates her husband from the Jaina monks, and then converts the whole town into Buddhism. So also in the Lankāvatāra sūtra I, Aristanemī, among others, is mentioned.

"As a matter of fact", says A. Chakravarti⁶, "Buddha was a younger contemporary of Lord Mahāvira. Buddha himself in his conversation with his friend and disciple Sariputta, narrates the fact that he himself in his earlier days was adopting Jaina practice of austerity which he had to give up because of the rigorous discipline which he did not like." The date of Mahavira's parinirvana is 527 B.C. According to Cambridge History of India, the 23rd Tirthankara, Pārsvanātha lived 220 years prior to Mahāvīra. If that is taken to be partially true, then Jainism must have been prevalent in India nearly three centuries before Gautama Buddha. Though Charpentier did not go beyond Pārśva, we may add here that the 22nd Tirthankara, Aristanemi is said to have preached and practised Jainism and to have attained nirvāņa on the Mount Girņār in the Junāgar State. If Śrikrsna is to be taken as a historical person, then Aristanemi may also be regarded as such. The above discussion, at least, shows that the Jaina religion is very old, though Mahavira in the sixth century B. C. gave it a final shape into the present order which we find these days.

⁶ Chakravarti, Samayasāra, p. 81.

The doctrines of Jainism are embalmed and treasured up in the canonical literature⁷ of the Jainas compiled at a much later time. After the nirvana of Mahavira, in the fourth-third centuries B.C., after a famine in Pataliputra, the Jainas were divided into two broad sects: Svetāmbara and Digambara after the return of some monks from the South. So their canonical literature (Agamas), though originally based on the sermons of Mahāvīra, is also different. Mahāvīra was not the composer of these texts, but these were compiled by his disciple Indrabhūti Gautama who, in turn, preached these doctrines to Sudharmā who again related these texts to his disciple Jambūsvāmī. It is belived by both the sects that originally the Jaina sacred texts were preserved in the 14 Pūrvas and 12 Angas including the Dṛṣṭivāda. The knowledge of the 14 Pūrvas continued only down to Sthūlabhadra. the 8th patriarch after Mahavira, the next 7 patriarchs down to Vaira knew only ten $P\bar{u}rvas$, and after that time the remaining $P\bar{u}rvas$ were gradually lost, until at the time when canon was written down in books in 980 after the nirvana of Mahavira (i.e. 454 A.D.). So all the Pūrvas and the 12th Anga Drstivāda were lost. What remains is the 11 Angas and these eleven Angas are the oldest part of their Siddhānta. The Svetāmbaras accept the Agamas which consist of 45 texts divided into 11 Angas, 12 Upāngas, 10 Painnas, 6 Cheda-sūtras, 1 Nandī, 1 Anuyogadvāra, and 4 Mūlasūtras. The Digambaras do not accept these Agama texts at all; on the contrary, they have their own canonical texts comprising of almost 45 books under the name of Satkhandagama, Kasayapahuda, Mahabandha, Tiloyapannatti, etc., and they claim that the lost Drstivada has been restored and preserved by them in their canonical literature. Without going into controversy it can be said that for Jainistic studies all these books are complementary and supplementary to each other. It is a fact worth noting that the Svetāmbara Agama texts are written in Ardhamāgadhī, while the Digambara texts are in Sauraseni. In both cases, the texts are either in prose or in verse, or in prose and verse mixed. In course of time, a large literature of glosses and commentaries grown up round the Agama texts of both the sects. Besides these. the Jainas possess separate works in close material agreement with the former, which contain systematic expositions of their faith in Prakrit and Sanskrit. Gradually, the Jainas have covered all branches of literature, such as, cosmogony and cosmology, theogony and philosophy, folk-lore and tradition, tales and stories, ornate $k\bar{a}vyas$

⁷ See Jacobi, Jainism, ERE, p. 467.

and dramas, grammar and rhetorics, and so on. All these treatises will tell us all about Jainism.

V

It is generally said that Jainism is basically a revolt against some of the fundamental issues of Vedic religion. But to me it appears that it is not. It is one of the ways of interpreting human life and society, and from that point of view it is, in a sense, unique of its nature. Mahāvīra has, of course, challenged some of the fundamental issues of Vedic religion, but they are interpreted in a more straight forward way than it was done before. His logic is more mundane and acute than the previous one. And from that point of view it seems revolutionary, but it is really not. Let us discuss some of the points in a nutshell.

First, the Vedic conception of the ultimate Reality or Divinity as an outside creator-God is challenged. Not only that the conception of God as a perfect being is questioned—it was often asked if God were perfect, then why his creations were imperfect? If the world is the creation of a perfect Being how is it that there are sorrows and sufferings, miseries and want, and iniquities in his created beings? Whatever may be the position of God as a perfect Being, it is an undeniable fact that there are miseries in the world. The Jainas and the Buddhists went on further to emphasize that if the woes and troubles of the creatures are to be accounted for by the act of the creatures themselves, and if the creator-God could not be held responsible for them, then what is the point of accepting the outside creator-God? So they eliminated the outside creator-God from their process of thinking. They accepted this world as it is and tried to account for the miseries. Buddhism says that the miseries of the creatures are due to tanhā ('unquenchable thirst') for existence on the part of the creatures themselves. Jainism asserts that miseries and imperfections are due to karma ('a series of actions') on the part of the unemancipated soul for which he comes to live in this world again. Hence if any Godhood is attached, it is to be attached to a person who is a perfectly emancipated soul being possessed of Omniscience. and a perfectly all powerful man being absolutely free from all taints of selfishness. He is a person who saw the eternal verities as they were and realized the truth as they came to him. So to the Jainas there is no need to accept an outside creator-God. This is the first thing which the Jainas did with regard to the Vedic conception of creator-God.

Secondly, when the foundation of a creator-God is questioned, the other elements based on it naturally dwindled down. The question about the validity of sacrifice is criticised, particularly the element of animal sacrifice. As the main object of Jainism is to establish the doctrine of ahimsā ('non-violence'), sacrifice has no place in it. So the Jainas do not even believe in the authoritative character of the Vedas. They contend that these Vedas cannot be said to be eternally selfexistent. "The fact of non-remembrance of any author (kartur asmaranat) of the Vedas does not prove that they had not any author at any time. In order to justify their case, they have given an example: In the case of an ancient well, an ancient house. or an ancient garden people may not know who in olden times made it, the name of its maker may long have been forgotten, but nobody would be prepared to say that the well or the house or the garden is self-existent from the eternal past. So the doctrine of the eternal existence of the Vedas is thus untenable. The Jainas further point out that the very fact that the Vedas are a collection of words, so arranged as to carry an intelligible sense, shows that they were carefully made." In this way, the Jainas have refused to accept the validity of the Vedas as well as the sacrificial rites.

Thirdly, in Vedic literature self or $\bar{A}tman$ (or ultimate Being or Reality) is maintained as permanent, without beginning, change or end. The Jainas oppose this view, and declare that Being or Sat (as it is called), is not persistent, unchangeable, or endless. Reality is permanent and changeable, there is a growth, development and destruction in it. So the Reality has two aspects, and this is what is known as anekāntavāda in Jaina philosophy.

Lastly, about the origin of the idea of ahimsā. The cult of ahimsā is very old in India. It is found in Vedic as well as in the Buddhist. But in Buddhism the doctrine of ahimsā is not as fully and rigorously stressed as it is done in Jainism. In a sense, the doctrine of ahimsā is mainly associated with Jainism. According to the Jaina tradition (also corroborated by the non-Jaina sources, such as, Bhāgavata (skandha V), Vāyupurāṇa, Viṣṇupurāṇa), it is maintained that the ahimsā-cult was first preached by Rṣabha, the first Tirthankara of the Jainas. Rṣabha was a hero of the Ikṣvāku family. His periods represent a complete change of world conditions. Prior to this, the country was called bhoga-bhūmi ('land of enjoyment') where people were satisfied with all their wants by the mere wish through the help of the traditional kalpa-vṛkṣa. During the time of Rṣabha these happy conditions completely disappeared and the people were in a perplexity

as to the way of life which they were expected to carry on. Then they all went to Rsabha for help. He is said to have consoled them by showing how to cultivate land how to weave. And through his people, he established a sort of social organization by dividing his society into agriculturists, traders and soldiers. After ruling over his kingdom for a long period, he abdicated his throne in favour of his son. Bharata, and went into the forest to perform tanas. After the practice of tapas for several years he attained kevala-jñāna ('omniscience'). Then he went on preaching his ahimsādharma to the people of the land, so that they might have also spiritual relief. The idea of ahimsā might not have developed at that time, as it was at the time of Mahāvīra, or that idea of ahimsā was, perhaps, on a par with the Vedic idea of ahimsā, but the doctrine of ahimsā as a system of philosophy is the contribution of Mahavira and his disciples. It is to be noted that the doctrines of ahimsā are based on the above mentioned fundamental ideas of the Jainas. According to the Jainas, the basic idea of ahimsā is not just to control the outward events of one's life, but to control the inward temper in which he faces these events. So the practice of ahimsā will teach us not how to control events in the world around us, but how to preserve a purely inward integrity and balance of mind; in other words, how to conquer the world around us from a world both hostile and intractable

The Jainas have a sense of sacredness of all lives, and this idea is followed both in positive and negative ways. In the negative way, it teaches the principles of ahimsā ('non-violence'), and the positive side of it is upekṣā ('ignoring evils received'), muditā ('the spirit of graciousness and happiness in all circumstances'), karuṇā ('a feeling of pity and charity') and maitrī ('a spirit of active friendship by doing good'). This idea is equally found in Buddhism.

Though it seems that Jainism has many things in common with Buddhism, there is a wide divergence between the two in some essential points. Jainism stresses far more on asceticism and all manner of cult exercises than Buddhism. Buddha was silent about soul, while Mahāvira taught a very elaborate belief in it. Of all Indian religions, the Jainas only emphasize the doctrine of ahimsā in more rigorous way than the others. The common characteristic feature of both the religion is the "ascetic morality".

⁸ For the rest of the ideas, see my article, The Philosophy of Mahāvīra, Sri Puskara Muni Abhinandana Graniha, Bombay, 1979, pp. 259-261.

Unlike Buddhism, which developed into a sort of world-wide religion, Jainism has always been a national religion. But the Jainas claim that their religion is "world-religion" in a sense that its tenets are being practised and followed by all human beings of the world. Jainism has a closer and stronger affinity with Hinduism, so much so that they have retained many things of Hindu system of social structures.

In the evolution of Indian thought and culture, the Jaina literature can supply us material as free-thinking and sophistic ideas. Herein lies the value of Jainistic teachings and practices. The Jainas afford us many an interesting glimpse of the every-day life of a section of people of India which is identified as a part and parcel of Indian life, not only of the life of the monks themselves, but of that of the other classes of people as well.

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It is to be noted here that Mahāvīra, and for that matter Jainism, has not asked the people to renounce this world. It will be a great mistake if we think so. In all his teachings he wants to emphasize that we must not be goaded or swayed by the passions and impulses of this mundane existence. But, to all intents and purposes, we must control them to allow us to grow stronger mentally, so that our life can become serene, pure and holy. This does not mean that we should not enjoy life to its fullest extent, but the enjoyment should not be of a beastly type, but of a divine nature. It must not transgress the purity and serenity of life and of Dharma ('Religion').

Through his doctrines of $ahims\bar{a}$, Mahāvīra stresses on social equality and justice. He stood up both for the rich and the poor, the strong and the weak, and for the ruler and the ruled. He did not allow any body to be exploited and oppressed, but through his principles of non-violence, he wanted to maintain peace and tranquility in a society with his splendid and imperishable excellence of sincerity and strength.

It seems somewhat paradoxical to think of any religion in this advanced age of science and technology, It may seem outlandish too to think of a religion at the present day, which speaks of non-violence, when the spectacular contribution of science erode the foundations on

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which our beliefs and values of life have rested for centuries. But in spite of all these achievements one thing is still true; Are men really happy? Has science been able to bring mental peace and tranquility? Is it not true that one violence has brought back another violence? Has one war stopped another war? Material world does not and cannot bring happiness. It did not happen in the past and it does not happen now. People have realized now that spiritual and ethical teachings and practices may restore happiness in our life. And in this respect Mahavira's doctrines have profound significance in the present society as it had in the past. To be precise, if Jaina philosophy is properly understood, one is inclined to believe that it will contribute much to the development of human personality and will make life worth living. A proper understanding of Mahavira's teachings will lessen the misery and dishonesty, corruption and fear, malice and hatred under the pressure of which the present world is so helplessly groaning.

It is to be remembered that Mahāvīra's intellectual empire as reflected in his principles of non-violence is imperishable, and the heart of a great number of people burst up into a boundless admiration has been greatly moulded from deep thousands of years over the whole terrain of Indian life, A section of people still belives that Mahavira's doctrines of ahimsā should be preached and practised in this world of today, a world which is full of toil and turmoil, a world which is full of violence and conflicts. a world where the values of human lives are ieopardised at the altar of human power, a world where beastly propensities of human beings are increasing rapidly; where the human finer qualities are sacrificed for the cause of material expansion and prosperity, and where lives of all sorts are butchered as food for powder. It can be said that if Mahāvīra's basic tenets imparted to the present generation as a part of their education, a new world may usher in in course of time. where there will be no violence, but a permanent bliss will pervade all over the world. To conclude, his teachings will deepen our ideas and thoughts, broaden our vision, heighten our mental horizon, strengthen our mind with a new vigour and enlighten our future generation for the betterment of our life.

Studies on Jaina Art

-a Brief Survey and Prospects -

Maruti Nandan Tiwari

Jainism as one of the three principal religions of India has contributed immensely to the field of Indian art. The study of Jaina art has drawn considerable interest of the scholars both from India and abroad for well over past fifty years. As a consequence, the studies of different aspects of Jaina art, including architecture, iconography and painting—have been published in the forms of numerous books, monographs and articles. Among the earliest scholars, the mention may be made of A. Cunningham, J. Burgess, V. A. Smith, T. N. Ramachandran, D. R. Bhandarkar and few others. A. Cunningham in his reports published valuable data about some of the Jaina sites namely, Mathura, Khajuraho, Gwalior and Budhi Canderi, 1 Cunningham, besides giving the correct identification of some of the Tirthankara images, also published the inscriptions. The works of subsequent scholars were confined mainly to the Jaina antiquities and inscriptions from Mathura. G. Bühler (1892-94) published articles on Jaina inscriptions from Mathura, besides an article on Jaina sculptures. discussions on Jaina dyagapatas, Naigamesi and a narrative patta showing the scene of transfer of embryo from the life of Mahavira are of particular interest. The Kuṣāṇa Jaina inscriptions distinctly show that the Jaina art activity of Mathura was a mass activity, 2 joined alike by the śresthin, sārthavāha, gandhika (perfume seller), suvarnakāra, vardhakin, lauhakarmaka, nāvika, nartaka and vesyās. V. A. Smith (1901) published the first exhaustive work on Mathura entitled The Jaina and Other Antiquities of Mathura wherein the detailed and authentic study has been done of Jaina ayagapatas and Tirthankara images, besides discussion on the antiquity of Jaina stūpa of Mathura.8

¹ A. Cunningham, Archaeological Survey of India—Annual Report, 1964-65, Vol. II and III.

² G. Bühler, 'New Jaina Inscriptions from Mathura', Epigraphia Indica, Vol. II; 'Further Jaina Inscriptions from Mathura', Epigraphia Indica, Vols. I and II; 'Specimens of Jaina Sculptures from Mathura', Epigraphia Indica, Vol. II.

³ V. A. Smith, The Jaina Stupa and Other Antiquities of Mathura, Varanasi, 1969 (Rep.)

The specific writings on Jaina iconography started with the beginning of 20th century and J. Burgess and H. M. Johnson were the pioneers. J. Burgess wrote on Digambara Jaina iconography on the basis of some Kanarese dhyāna mantras⁴ while Johnson wrote on Svetāmbara Jaina iconography, enunciating the iconographic features of Jaina Śāsanadayatās on the basis of important Jaina work of the 12th century, the Trisastiśalākāpurusacaritra.⁵

J. Burgess, H. Cousens, J. Fergusson, D. R. Bhandarkar and Percy Brown dealt with the architectural remains and other antiquities of the Jainas in their works on Indian architecture under different titles which further enlarged the scope of Jaina art study, furnishing varied architectural and sculptural data. D. R. Bhandarkar in his article on Jaina iconography identified a sculpture depicting the aśvāvabodha tīrtha and śakunikāvihāra story associated with the life of Tīrthankara Munisuvrata and also discussed the Jaina samavasarana in his other article on Jaina iconography. The study was further widend in course of time and some scholars concentrated on identifying the earliest Jina image from Lohanipur, datable to the Mauryan period, while significant contributions were made on Jaina remains from Rajgīr, Udaygiri and Khandagiri caves, Deogarh and Tiruparuttikunaram followed by comprehensive and detailed study of Jaina iconography by some scholars. Such a study was first presented by B. Bhattacharya

⁴ J. Burgess, 'The Digambara Jaina Iconography', Indian Antiquary, Vol. XXXII, 1903.

⁵ H. M. Johnson, 'Svetāmbara Jaina Iconography', Indian Antiquary, Vol. LVI, 1927.

⁶ J. Burgess. 'Antiquities of Kathiāwād and Kacch', Archaeological Survey of Western India, Vol. II, New Imperial Series. Reprint, Varanasi, 1971; Historical Information in Connection with Mt. Satruājaya, Bombay, 1969; 'The Architectural Antiquities of Northern Gujarāt', Archaeological Survey of Western India, Vol. IX, New Imperial Series, London. 1903; H. Cousens, 'Revised Lists of Antiquarian Remains in the Bombay Presidency', Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. XVI, New Imperial Series, Bombay, 1897; The Architectural Antiquities of Western India, London. 1926; Calukyan Architecture; J. Fergusson and J. Burgess, History of Indian and Eastern Architecture, 2. Vols. Delhi, 1967 (reprint); D. R. Bhandarkar, 'The Temples of Osiāā', Archaeological Survey of India—Annual Report. 1908-09 (1912); 'Jaina Caumukha Temple at Rāṇakapur', Archaeological Survey of India-Annual Report. 1907-08; Percy Brown, Indian Architecture (Buddhist and Hindu), Bombay, 1956 (reprint).

⁷ D. R. Bhandarkar, 'Jaina Iconography'; Archaeological Survey of India-Annual Report, 1905-06; 'Jaina Icongraphy—Samavasarana', Indian Antiquary, Vol. XL, 1911.

⁸ K. P. Jayaswal, Jaina Image of Maurya Period', Jr. Bihar Orissa Research Society, Vol. XXIII. Pt. I, 1937; A. Banerji-Shastri, 'Mauryan Sculptures from Lohānīpur, Patna', Jr. Bihar Orissa Research Society, Vol. VI, Pt. II. 1940; R. P. Chanda, 'Jaina, Remains at Rājgir'. Archaeological Survey of India-Annual Report, 1925-26; 'The Svetāmbara and Digambara Images of the Jainas', Archaeological Survey of India-Annual Report, 1925-25; T. N. Ramachandran, 'Tiruparuttikuṇaram and its Temples', Bulletin Madras Govt. Museum, New Series Vol. I, Pt. III, 1934.

(1936) in the form of an article followed by a book by B. C. Bhattacharya (1239) on Jaina Iconography which filled a desideratum. B. C. Bhattacharya in his pioneering work has utilised for the first time the iconographic data available in the texts like the Nirvāṇakalikā, the Ācāradinakara, Tirṣaṣṭiśalākāṇuruṣacaritra and Pratiṣṭhāsārasaṅgraha. The iconography of all the important Jaina deities of Jaina pantheon has been discussed in his book and an appropriate corroboration with actual art specimens has also been attempted which illustrate mainly the iconic data from Mathurā, and in some cases Deogarh.

The study of Jaina iconography was further advanced and was made in true historical perspective by U. P. Shah who made tremendous contributions through his writings in the form of articles and books for about fifty years beginning from 1940 and continuing upto 1988 till the time of his demise. In his wide ranging authentic writings he discussed variety of subjects pertaining to Jaina iconography and Jaina paintings. He was the first to make detailed, indepth and critical use of the literary data belonging to both the Syetambara and Digambara sects and also making their comparisons with the concrete manifestations in sculptural art and painting. Although sporadic references to archaeological data from all over the country was made by U. P. Shah, he has been exhaustive particularly in reference to western India. In his books and articles Shah discussed intensively the Jaina avagapatas and other symbols and auspicious dreams popular in Jaina art alongwith the important discovery of Jaina bronzes from Ākotā, His writings on Jīvantasvāmin, Śāsanadevatās, Bāhubalī. Minor Jaina deities and several other deities and aspects have been pioneering. His recent book entitled Jaina Rūpamandana (1987) monumental work on Jaina iconography which, besides the Jaina Tirthankaras, gives the iconography of the Sasanadevatas particularly of Rsabhanatha, Neminatha, Parsvanatha and Mahavira detail.10

Besides U. P. Shah, a number of scholars like V. S. Agrawala, K. D. Bajpai, H. D. Sankalia, R. C. Agrawala, Debala Mitra, Klaus Bruhn, Balchand Jain, Niraj Jain, R. P. Mohapatra, R. C. Sharma, B. N. Sharma, K. C. Jain, Muni Sri Jayant Vijaya, P. B. Desai, S. Settar and many others have been writing either on different aspects of Jaina

B. Bhattacharya, 'Jaina Iconography', Jinācārya Śrī Atmānand Janma Śatābdī Smārak Grantha, Bombay, 1936; B.C. Bhattacharya, The Jaina Iconography, 1939.
 U. P. Shah, 'Iconography of the Jaina Goddess Ambikā', Jr. University of Bombay, Vol. IX, 1940-41; Studies in Jaina Art, 1955; Ākoṭā Bronzes, 1959; Jaina Rūpamanḍana, 1987.

art and iconography or have confined their study to the archaeological material from sites and areas like Deogarh, Chāndpur, Mathurā, Osiān, Khajurāho, Delvādā, Ellorā, Khandagiri, Śravanabelgol etc. I have also tried to contribute a bit to the field of Jaina iconography.¹¹

While the study of Jaina iconography progressed fast, the study of Jaina architecture was comparatively a bit slow. Krishna Deva, M. A. Dhaky, Michael W. Meister, R. Nagaswamy, K. V. Soundara Rajan, M. C. Joshi, R. N. Misra, D. R. Das, K. R. Srinivasan and others have contributed immensely to the field of Jaina architecture. But for architectural difference occasioned by the 24 devakulikās all around to enshrine the images of the 24 Jinas and trikmandapa and navacatuṣkī (Vimala vasahī, Lūṇa vasahī, Kumbhāriā), the Jaina and Brahminical temples appear to be identical in architectural framework.

The contributions of Krishna Deva to the field of Jaina architecture are undoubtedly most extensive covering a vast span of time and area in respect of the Jaina monuments of north India which include Khajurāho, Gyāraspur, Osiāñ, Un, Jhālarāpāṭana, Ghāṇerao, Sevāḍi etc 12 M. A. Dhaky has written extensively on the Jaina temples of western India, particularly on Osiāñ, Ghānerao, Sadari, Nāḍol and Naḍlai. Both these scholars have presented the integrated study of Jaina architecture and sculpture alongwith the iconographic features of the icons. Their couclusions and observations tracing the evolution of Jaina architecture in relation to Indian architecture are of great consequence.

In recent years the study of western Indian Jaina temples has been done in greater detail by K. F. Sompura and Harihar Singh. In almost all the recent studies on Jaina temples a synthesis between architecture and sculpture has been established to show their correspondence and interdependence.

- 11 Maruti Nandan Tiwari, Jaina Pratimāvijāāna, 1981; Elements of Jaina Iconography, 1983; Khajurāho kā Jaina Purātattva, 1987; Ambikā in Jaina Art and Architecture, 1989.
- 12 Krishna Deva, 'The Temples of Khajurāho in Central India', Ancient India, No. 15, 1959; 'Mālādevī Temple at Gyāraspur', Mahāvīra Jaina Vidyālaya Golden Jubilee Volume, Bombay, Pt. I. Bombay, 1968; Temples of North India, New Delhi, 1969; Aspects of Jaina Art and Architecture (Ed. U.P. Shah), 1975; Jaina Art and Architecture (Ed. A. Ghosh) Vol. I, 1974, Vol. II, 1975.
- 13 M. A. Dhaky, Some Early Jaina Temples in Western India', Mahāvīra Jaina Vidyā-laya Golden Jubilee Volume, Pt. I. Bombay, 1968; 'The Chronology of Solanki Temples of Gujarat', Jr. Madhya Pradesh Itīhās Parishad, No. 3, 1961; Aspects of Jaina Art and Architecture (Ed. U. P. Shah), 1975.
- 14 K, F. Sompura, The Structural Temples of Gujarāt, 1968; Harihar Singh, Jaina Temples of Western India, 1982.

The veritable heritage of Indian art and culture is preserved in Jaina paintings which are found from different Jaina Bhandaras, most of them being in western India. Since very beginning (1914), the scholars have been writing on Jaina paintings. The most important subjects of the Jaina painting relate to the Kalpasūtra, Kālakakathā, Uttarādhyayanasūtra, Dasavaikālikasūtra and caritas of Rsabhanāthā, Neminatha, Śantinatha, Parśvanatha and Mahavira Jinas mainly on the basis of Trisastisalākāpuruscaritra (of Hemacandra), Ādipurāna (of Jinasena) and Padmānand Mahākāvya. These paintings in most of the cases are of Svetambara origin and are datable between 11th century A. D. to atleast 15th century A. D. The Jainas fostered tradition of painting of even non-Jaina themes. After the initial and important writings by A. K. Coomaraswamy and W. Norman Brown, Moti Chandra, U. P. Shah, C. Sivaramamurti, Karl Khandalavala. Sarvu Doshi and few others have contributed immensely to the field of Jaina paintings. 15

The publication of Jaina Art and Architecture in three volumes by Bharatiya Gyanpitha is the most comprehensive and upto date publication on Jaina art and architecture which comprise articles of scholars from different areas and expertise. The volumes published in 1974-75 cover a time span from 0.300 B. C. to 1800 A. D. The entire study has been presented in the backdrop of different regions like East India, West India, North India, Deccan and South India. Apart from the integrated study of architecture and sculpture with appropriate textual corroboration, an account of Jaina inscriptions, symbols on coins, textual references to Jaina iconography and architecture and Jaina antiquities in different museums in India and abroad have further added to the value of the work.

Thus the study of Jaina art and architecture has now attained a stage where investigations are to be concentrated in terms of different areas or sites or even problems. The problem oriented critical and comprehensive studies are now required to project even better picture of Jaina art underlining its contribution to the field of Indian art.

¹⁵ A. K. Coomaraswamy, 'Notes on Jaina Art', Jr. Indian Art and Industry, Vol. XVI, No, 120, London, 1914; W. Norman Brown, A Descriptive and Illustrated Catalogue of Miniature Painting of Jaina Kalpasutra, Washington, 1934; Moti Chandra. Jaina Miniature Paintings from Western India, Amedabad, 1949; Moti Chandra and U. P. Shah, New Documents of Jaina Paintings, Bombay, 1962; U. P. Shah, More Documents of Jaina Paintings, Ahmedabad, 1965, Treasures of Jaina Bhandāras Ahmedabad, 1978; Karl Khandalavala, Jaina Art and Architecture (A. Ghosh), Vol. III, 1975; Saryu Doshi, Masterpieces of Jain Painting. Bombay, 1985.

Refutation of the Jaina View of Moksa Criticised

Rabindra Kumar Panda

Jainism is an important ideological phenomenon in the religio-philosophical history of mankind. By nature it attempts a reapproachment between the warring systems by a breadth of vision which goes in the name of syādvāda or anekāntavāda.1 "It shares the realism of the Vedas, the idealism of the Upanisads, the worship-cult of the Purānas, the colourfulness of the Epics, the logical analysis of the Naiyavikas. the atomism of the Vaiseşikas, the metaphysical dualism of the Sankhyas, the mysticism of the Yogins and most surprisingly even the monistic trends of Advaita Vedanta." In spite of this, the Brahminical systems of Indian philosophical thought have considerably neglected the Jaina school and the philosophical tenets of the Jaina philosophers. While the Jaina authors have shown a desire to classify and codify other systems and shown the place of Jaina thought among them rather than to criticise or refute them, the Advaita Vedantins programatically set out to demonstrate the superiority of Advaita by way of refutation of their view points. The philosophers of the Vaidika schools have little good to say about Jainism. Sankarācārya has set the example in his Brahma-sūtra-bhāsva. All Vedānta commentators have also criticised Jainism in a similar fashion in their commentaries in the naikasminnadhikarana of the Samayapāda in the second chapter of the Brahma-sūtra. In this paper I attempt to introduce Anandabodha, an outstanding Advaita philospher of eleventh century A. D. who has wrongly presented the Jaina view of moksa in his Nyāyamakaranda for the sake of refutation and establishment of the Advaita View.

The Jaina View of Moksa

According to the Jaina school mokṣa is total deliverance of the Soul from all karmic veil—sarvāvaraṇa vimuktirmuktiḥ. Mokṣa is the total and final freedom from all karmic matter, owing to the non-existence of

¹ Jain, H. L., "What Jainism Stands For", Jaina Antiquary, Vol. 11. No. 2. Cf. Shastri, K. C., Jaina Dharma (2nd ed. Hindi, p. 63).

Singh, Ram Jee, Jaina Moksa in the Perspective of Indian Philosophy", Jain Journal, Jain Bhawan Publication, Vol. XXIV No. 3, 1990, p. 75.

the cause of bondage and the shedding of all the karmas.³ Āsrava is the influx of the karma-particles into the Soul. Jīva takes matter in accordance with its own karma because of self-possession.⁵ Since the karmic inflow is the principle of bondage and hence its stoppage must be a condition of mokṣa. So samvara is opposite to āsrava.⁶ Samvara literally means controlling; it only arrests fresh-flow of karma-particles, but what is required is not only stoppage of the fresh flow but also dissipation of the old one. This shedding or dissipation called nirjarā is possible by austerities.⁷ Umāsvāmi has two prefixes-vi (viśeṣarūpeṇa), pra (prakṛṣṭarūpeṇa)⁸ in defining mokṣa, meaning thereby that mokṣa is the total and exhaustive dissolution of all karmic particles, which is the condition of omniscience.

The jiva attains moksa when it is free from the snares of karma (karma-phalavinirmuktah moksa). The moksa is either bhava (objective) or dravya (subjective). When the soul is free from four ghāti karmas, viz., jñānāvaranīya, darśanāvaranīya, mohanīya, antarāya, it is bhāvamoksa. and when it is free from aghāti karmas, viz., nāma, āyu, gotra, vedanīya it is dravya moksa. The former is negative since in this state the Soul is in the process of nirjarā which is not complete. But after freedom from aghāti karmas (action currents of non-injury) the Soul attains a state of never-ending blissful beautitude. A person attains a state of omniscience when mohantya (deluding) jñānāvarantya (knowledge-obscuring), darśanāvaranīya (faith-obscuring), antarāya (obstructive) karmas are destroyed.9 After the attainment of kevalajñana, a person is free from all kinds of karmas and attains final liberation. 10 The Soul comes into its own and regains infinite knowledge, infinite faith, bliss and infinite power. When the jiva attains freedom, it rises higher and reaches the summit of lokākāśa which is called Siddhaśila or moksa-sthāna (region of the free and liberated). Thus "moksa in Jainism is not the product of something new. It is a rediscovery of man himself through self realisation".11

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3 Tattvārtha-sūtra, X. 2.
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⁴ Ibid., Vl. 1-2.

⁵ Ibid., VII. 3.

⁶ Ibid., IX. 1.

⁷ Ibid., IX. 3.

⁸ Ibid., X. 1.

⁹ Ibid.

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¹¹ Singh, Ram Jee, "Jaina Moksa in the Perspective of Indian Philosophy", Jain Journal, Jain Bhawan Publication, Vol. XXIV No. 3, 1990, p. 81.

Anandaboda's Refutation

Anandabodha Yati (1150 A.D.), a Sankarite philosopher in his celebrated work Nyāyamakaranda¹² puts forth the Jaina view as pūrvapakṣa for refutation. He presents the Jaina view without mentioning the name of the school as: anye tu pralinanikhilopādheḥ kṣetrajñasya satatordhagatilakṣaṇam¹³ (final release consists of the permanent rising up of the individual self whose entire limiting adjuncts are at rest). But his commentator Citsukhācārya informs us by saying that the above view is of Jaina, Jainamatamāha,¹⁴ Ānandabodha refutes this view by arguing that since the doctrine of madhyamaparimāṇa (mediocre size) of the jīva is not accepted by the Advaita school, the Jaina view advocating final liberation as eternal going up of the individual soul does not stand to reason.¹⁵

Further, Anandabodha mentains that the eternal going up cannot be conducive to liberation (moksa) because it is the cause of great worriness. On the other hand it deserves to be induced among those which bring disaster.¹⁶

This exposition of Anandabodha of the Jaina view is not faithful to the original Jaina texts. We saw in the above going pages that conception of mokṣa as satataūrdhagati is not in fact said by the Jaina thinkers which finds place in Anandabodha's exposition. The Jaina school admits ūrdhagati (upward movement) of Jīva after his complete liberation. When the Jīva attains freedom, it rises higher and higher and reaches the summit of lokākāśa which is called the region of the free and liberated. To this effect, Dr. Robert remarks "Jaina view that mukti consists in the everlasting upward movement of the soul (which the Jainas have never said, and which is a misrepresentation of how the Jainas conceive of the condition of the Soul in the few moments immediately following death in the final incarnation." Radhakrishnan

¹² Published with Pramāṇamālā and Nyāyadipāvalī of the same author in Chaukhamba Sanskrit Series, Benaras, 1907.

¹³ Nyāyamakaranda, p. 270.

¹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵ Ibid., p. 281.

io Ibid.

¹⁷ Zydenbos. Robert J., "On the Jaina Background of Dvaita Vedānta", Journal of Indian Philosophy 1991, p. 259; cf. Zydenbos, Robert J., "Moksa in Jainism according to Umāsvāti", wiedbaden Fr. Steiner, 1983, Beitrage Zur sudasien—Forschung, sudasien—Institute Universitat Heidelberg, Bd. 83, pp. 21, 26-27, 36-7; Tattvārtha-sūtra X. 5; also see, The Sarva Daršona Sangraha of Mādhavācārya, edited by K. L. Joshi, Parimal Publications, Delhi, p. 77.

also implies the same while he says: "The loka or the universe. is held in the middle of the aloka, in the form of the trunk of the man. with Siddhaśilā at the top, the place where the head should be. Siddhaśilā is the abode of the omniscient souls, and may be called the spiritual eve of the universe. So moksa is said to be eternal upward movement. On liberation the soul goes upward, because of the momentum due to its previous activity, the non-existence of the relation to the elements which kept it down, breaking of the bondage and its natural tendency to go unwards."18 All this goes to point out clearly that moksa accestding to the Jaina school of Indian philosophy, is not constant upward movement (satata ūrdhagati) as presented by Anandabodha in his Nyāvamakaranda. It may be said in passing that like Anandabodha there are a number of prominent philosophers who have made such attempts in presenting wrongly the major tenets of the Jaina school. For example, Madhya, the propounder of the Dvaita school of Vedanta has also presented¹⁹ the Jaina doctrine of moksa as we see in the Nyāya makaranda of Anandabodha.

Conclusion:

This aforegoing discussion leads to the conclusion that the Jaina school does not expound moksa (emancipation) as satata ūrdhagati (constant upward movement) as presented and refuted by Ānandabodha. It is undoubtedly a misrepresentation which is not found in the original Jaina texts. Since Ānandabodha's purpose was to refute this view of of Jaina School delebararely in order to establish the logical validity of the Advaita Vedānta doctrine of moksa he has wrongly put it forth in his work.

¹⁸ Radhakrishnan, S., Indian Philosophy, Vol. 1. p. 333.

¹⁹ Zydenbos, Robert, J., op. cit.

Anekantavada

-The Theory of Relativity-

Hem Chandra Jain

The foundation of Jaina philosophy is the conception of reality which is manyfold or infinitefold hence highly complex and pluralistic in character. It is why the Jainism is also called the philosophy of anekānta or anekāntavāda. 'Aneka' means many, 'anta' means aspects or qualities and 'vāda' means ism or theory. Anekāntavāda is also termed as the philosophy of non-absolutism | because it is opposed to absolute monism (ekāntavāda) and nihilism, (sūnyavāda)], as the theory of relative pluralism, the theory of relativity, the theory of realism (yathārthavāda) and the theory of co-existence.

Each object has many facets, many qualities, nay many pairs of contradictory qualities. Only a dispassionate study based on rational analysis and sympathetic examination can help mutual understanding and a happy reconciliation even in the face of severe antagonism. Hence the Tirthankaras declared—"If one sticks only to one of the many aspects of the thing, ignoring and rejecting all the others, he can never realise the truth. It is therefore, essential to comprehend fully the anekānta (logic) as qualified by the term "syāt." Closely associated with anekāntavāda is the syādvāda which is the theory of conditional predication and is based on the "saptabhangī-naya" (seven modes of predication),

The term 'syāt' is most significant. It means 'in a way', 'from a certain point of view', 'also' or 'not absolutely'. Thus syādvāda is the method of expressing multifacetedness of objects, i. e., anekānta is expressible and syādvāda is expression since many qualities of an object cannot be stated together with a single word or sentence and so one quality is highlighted at the cost of the rest. While listening about one quality which is highlighted one should not get the impression that others are denied.\(^1\) In fact this is taken care by the use of the word 'syāt'.

Jainendra Siddhāntakoşa, Vol. 4, p. 501.

In the appendix to the 'Atmakhyāti'—commentary of Samayasāra Ācārya Amṛtacandra writes on this principle as follows:

"Syādvāda is the uninterrupted prescription of the Arhantas to establish the nature of all objects. According to this, because of their being multifaceted in nature all objects are multifaceted. ... What is 'that' may not be that, what is one may be many, what is existent may be non-existent, what is eternal may be transient. In this manner, the manifestation of two contradictory qualities in an object which imparts to its objectivity is Anekānta."²

Further the same Ācārya Amrtacandra in his original book Puruṣārtha Siddhyupāya has offered salutation to this great principle of anekānta as under:

"I bow to 'anekānta' (the manysided view of Jaina philosophy) which is the root basis of the Highest scripture, which dispels the wrong notions about elephant of persons born blind and which removes the contradictions amongst all those who entertain one-sided or limited points of view."

The famous parable of six blind persons who went to ascertain the shape and form of an elephant is known to all of us. Each touching one part of the elephant maintained that only his conception was right and the others were wrong. The fact was that each of them had only grasped a portion of the body of the elephant and formed only a partial conception, which though true partially, was not the whole truth. Each one of them had a limited but not a perfect knowledge of the elephant as a whole. The man with eyes who could see the whole of the elephant all at once explained to each one of the blind persons that though correctly asserting a part, he was ignorant of the whole truth and thus helped them to understand the whole truth.

The vast majority of philosophers are so very much engrossed in their own theories that they would not care to look beyond. Each is so very partial, one sided and prejudiced that he would not, like a

² Samayasāra Ātmakhyāti, p. 571-572.

³ Purusārtha Siddhyupāya, Verse 2.

person born blind, examine the other systems. Looking at things from different angles of vision each has been disputing with the others, asserting his own system to be correct and the others wrong. Such disputations among the various systems of philosophy are reconciled by the all embracing all encompassing anekānta—the universal system, the all comprehensive science of thoughts and the so called "intellectual ahimsā."

Those qualities in an object which do not clash are accepted by all without raising any controversy but the simultaneous existence of two opposite qualities is not easily accepted by the one who is not follower of $sy\bar{a}dv\bar{a}da$. The $sy\bar{a}dv\bar{a}da$ explains the multifaceted nature of a substance with respect to different view points as it makes use of 'also' $(bh\bar{i})$, not the emphatic 'so' $(h\bar{i})$. Nevertheless to emphasize one particular aspect the use of 'so' $(h\bar{i})$ is also made by the speaker but the other qualities and aspects are not denied by him.

When we use the preposition 'also', it signifies that there is something more but the preposition 'so' tells that so far as it goes this much is correct and no further. Hence the two prepositions do not contradict each other, rather they supplement. Thus 'syādvāda' is not a doctrine of probability it is very much a certainty.

In a 'pramāṇa' sentence which engulfs all parts or qualities the term 'syād' is used to denote many facettedness while relative to 'naya' which covers only one part or aspect the term 'so' ($h\bar{\imath}$) is used to denote one facet. In other words when a statement is wholly correct about a part, the use of 'so' ($h\bar{\imath}$) is imperative and when a sentence is partly correct in the context of the whole the use of 'also' ($bh\bar{\imath}$) is imperative.⁴

Anekānta does not mean that all reverse qualities can exist simultaneously, but it accepts only those consistent qualities which establish the objectivity. For example we may fall in the error of sometimes saying that the soul is animate and sometimes saying that the soul is inanimate. The soul is never inanimate. While applying anekānta, cases like this have to be qualified as 'is' or 'is not'. For instance the soul is animate (embodiment of knowledge) and never inanimate. Though

Bharilla, Dr. H. C., Tirthankar Mahāvīra and His Sarvodaya Tīrtha, p. 113.

animate, and inanimate are truly contrary but not transience and permanence which are only apparently so, they simultaneously co-exist in an object. Anekānta expresses only those consistent qualities which appear to be contrary to each other but they really are complementary forming the nature of substance. Anekānta and syādvāda are very intricate and important doctrines whose understanding must be thorough and deep.

Saptabhangi-naya—the logic of seven conditional modes of predication is the dialectical process in which thesis and anti-thesis reconcile in a higher synthesis. This is a syadvadic reconciliation of conflicting approaches about the reality.

When we speak of a thing as self existing entity we mean that it exists in its own substance (dravya), space (ksetra), time (kāla) and essence (bhāva). Without a clear conception of this quadruplet pertaining to a thing, we can not know of that thing as an existential reality. Thus from the point of view of its own quadruplet the "is-ness" of the thing in question is established. At the same time, from the point of view of the quadruplets of all things other than this one, its "is-not-ness" is implied. Thus a thing is (astī) and also "is-not" (nāsti) and since it can not be said to be "is" and "is-not" at one and the same time it is also "inexplicable" (avaktavya). These three conditions produce seven permutations: asti, nāsti, asti-nāsti, avaktavya, asti-avaktavya, nāstiavaktavya and asti-nasti-avaktavya. And in order to avoid the pitfall of being misunderstood the speaker uses the adverb 'syāt' before everyone of these modes of predication. Thus syādvāda curbs down, limits and harmonises the absolutist views conveyed by individual stand-points (nayas).5

The theory of relativity formulated by Einstein, the great scientist cum philosopher of the modern age matches very much with the ane-kāntavāda and syādvāda of Jainism. The four directions - East, West, North, South are relative to one another. If East is East and West is West, which is East and which is West? India which is East to the Americans, has always been and will remain West to the Chinese and Japanese. It is this powerful instrument in the hands of Jain philosophers with the help of which they have steered clear of nihilism and absolute monism. The theory of relativity fosters a rational outlook

⁵ Jain, Dr. J. P., Religion and Culture of Jainas, p. 66.

and provides a thinker an appropriate attitude of looking at things, conditions and relations, gives a breadth of vision to evaluate properly the ultimate realities. It infuses in the believers of this theory a healthy spirit of sympathetic understanding, reconciliation, tolerance, co-operation and co-existence in the every day conduct of their life and in their relations with their fellow beings.

It should not be out of place to quote here the views of some modern thinkers who after a careful study of syādvāda and anekāntavāda of the Jainas have admired and appreciated it for the benefit of mankind.

The late M. M. Dr. Ganganath Jha, a great Sanskritist and Vedantist, remarked - "When I read the refutation of this Syādvāda by Sankarācārya", I came to the conclusion that "the doctrine of 'Syādvāda' was very sound and that the Ācāryas of Vedānta failed to understand it. I am sure if Sankarācarya had taken the trouble to study the Jaina scriptures, he would not have taken the pains to criticise this doctrine."

- Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, the representative philosopher of modern India, said "Individual freedom and social justice are both essential for human welfare. We may exaggerate the one or under-estimate the other, but he who follows the Jaina concept of Anekantavada, Sapta-bhangi naya or Syādvāda will not adopt that kind of cultural regimentation. He will have the spirit to discriminate between right and wrong in his own and in the opposite views and try to work for a greater synthesis that should be the attitude which we should adopt."
- De. Rajendra Prasad, the first President of India, observed, "This decreise of Syadvada is a valuable contribtion of Jainism to Indian religions and world philosophy. It consists of catholic views along with the capability to appreciate others approaches to reality".8

"This intellectual attitude of impartiality" says Prof. P. B. Adhikari, "without which no scientific or philosophical researches can be success-

- 6 Ibid., p. 71.
- 7 Ibid.
- 8 Ibid., p. 72.

ful, is what $Sy\bar{a}dv\bar{a}da$, stands for. Even the learned Sankarācarya is not free from the charge of injustice that he has done to the doctrine. Syādvāda emphasies the fact that no single view of the universe or any part of it would be complete. There will always remain the possibilities of viewing it from other stand points."

Dr. Harisatya Bhattācharya says "The Syādvāda is a theory presenting things as they really are; it is not a set of formal propositions divorced from and unconnected with matters of experience."

Dr. Hermann Jacobi, a German scholar of Jain philosophy, stated firmly before the 3rd International Congress of the History of Religions as under.—"In conclusion let me assert my conviction that Jainism is an original system, quite distinct and independent from all others and that therefore, it is of great importance for the study of philosophical thought and religious life in ancient India." 10

Science and Religion

Science is the reasoned knowledge based on experimental facts. Science is a series of approximations towards the truth but not the ultimate truth. Einstein the discoverer of the theory of relativity said that "knowledge and faith are the two inseparable companions in the universe. Knowledge is science and faith is religion. Religion without science is blind and science without religion is lame." And I would say that Jainism is a perfect science with true religion. Every aspect of Jainism is based on scientific principle aiming at to understand the living and non-living entities of the universe and to set free the mundane beings from pain and miseries of embodied existence and instal them in the liberated state of supreme bliss. Its message of peace and happiness is for all beings of the world. Jainism does not allow you to accept or believe any statement with blind faith. There is no room for superstitions in Jainism because it is not based on imaginations.

Many persons believe that religion and science both are opposite to each other and the religion seems to reduce the importance of science and vice versa. But if seen in the light of reason and logic they appear

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ Diwakar, S. C., Glimpses of Jainism, p. 10.

to be inextricably inseparable. Religion (when) divorced from science makes people superstitious and blind followers of lifeless rituals and consequently the people become narrow-minded and self-centred. It is the need of the time to explain the principles of religion through logically approved facts and scientific methods. Religion is most essential for life but there should be no place for blind faith in religion. According to Jaina philosophy the religion has two-fold connotation—primarily it means the nature of substance that exists and secondarily it connotes the means or path by adopting which that essential inherent nature of the self—soul is realised.

We are, at present, in the last decade of 20th century and in this century the man has made an unbelievable tremendous progress in the field of science and technology. Today's man can not be compared with that of the so-called stone age. We have entered the space age and advanced in materialism so fast and so high that makes us to feel surprise and we give it the name of "the wonders of science". But on rational thinking we find that "wonder is nothing but the effect of ignorance" and "ignorance is no defence". Though the materialistic science has provided all luxuries to man yet the real and lasting peace is not within his reach. How could it be when it is not there?

Science no doubt, can afford correct explanation and logical thinking about any object, e.g. prediction of weather, evolution of the amount of energy in the explosion of an atom bomb, the distance between two planets etc., but if it attempts to explain human behaviour through its logical thinking, the explanation is likely to be incorrect. Science is an effective means for the study of living beings, because the ultimate end can be determined only through the preachings of all knowing Lord, the omniscient.

An exact science is that which gives an all-round satisfaction to all human beings and that science or scientific approach is available only in Jaina philosophy. A true aspirant of liberation is required to study the Jain religion impartially and unbiasedly. He should give up the individual's opinions and accept the facts which really produce conclusions. He should try to know and realise the true nature of the self and non-self objects. Because true knowledge and conduct with true belief are the pre-requisite of attaining 'Moksa' (liberation). He should believe in his words only whose blemishes like attachment, aversion, delusion etc. are totally destroyed; may he be Brahmā or Viṣṇu or Hari or Jina.

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