MELIGHT of the DHAMMA

Vol. VII No. 3

2504 B.E.

JULY 1960 C.E.

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၁၉၅၉ ခုနှစ်၊ ပုံနှိပ်သူများနှင့် ထုတ်ဝေသူများ (မှတ်ပုံတင်) အက်ဥပဒေပုဒ်မ ၇ (၁) အရ၊ ပေးအပ်သော ဝန်ခံချက်များ

အောက်တွင် လက်မှတ်ရေးထိုးသူ ကျွန်တော် ဦးစိုးမြင့်သည် ၁၉၅၉ ခုနှစ်၊ ပုံနှိပ်သူများနှင့် ထုတ်ဝေသူများ (မှတ်ပုံတင်)အက်ဥပဒေ၏ ဒုတိယဇယားတွင် ဖော်ပြထားသည့် အောက်ပါ ဝန်ခံချက်, များနှင့်အညီ ထာဝစဉ်ဆောင်ရွက်ရန် ကတိဝန်ခံချက်ပြုပါသည်။

(က) ပြည်ထောင်စု မြန်မာနိုင်ငံ၏ဖွဲ့စည်းအုပ်ချုပ်ပုံအခြေခံ ဥပဒေတွင်ပါရှိသော မူလအခွင့် အရေး များကို ပျက်ပြားစေရန် ကြံရွယ်သော၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် ပျက်ပြားမည့်အကြောင်း ဖြစ်ပေါ် စေသော မည်သည့်အကြံပေးမှု၊ တိုက်တွန်းမှု၊ လှုံ့ဆော်မှု၊ အားပေးမှု၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် ဝါဒဖြန့်မှုမျိုးကိုမဆို မည်သည့်အခါမျှမပြုပါ။

(ခ) ဘာသာရေးဆိုင်ရာ ကိုးကွယ်မှုကိုသော်၎င်း၊ ယုံကြည်မှုကိုသော်၎င်း၊ မည်သည့်အခါမျှ

မပုတ်ခတ်၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် မရူတ်ချပါ။

(ဂ) နိုင်ငံရေးအာဏာကို လက်နက်ဖြင့်သိမ်းယူရန် မည်သည့်ရှေးရှူချက်၊သို့တည်းမဟုတ်ကျင့်သုံး ချက်မျိုးကိုမဆို မည်သည့်အခါမျှ ထောက်ခံခြင်း၊ တိုက်တွန်းခြင်း၊ လှုံ့ဆော်ခြင်း၊ အားပေးခြင်း၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် ဝါဒဖြန့်ချီပေးခြင်းမပြုပါ။

(ဃ) ပြည်ထောင်စု မြန်မာနိုင်ငံတွင် မည်သို့သော နိုင်ငံရေး အာဏာရှင်စံနစ်မျိုးကိုမဆို မျှေးရှူရန်၊ တည်ထောင်ရန်၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် ကျင့်သုံးရန်၊ မည်သည့်အခါမျှ ထောက်ခံခြင်း၊ တိုက်တွန်းခြင်း၊

လှုံ့ဆော်ခြင်း၊ အားပေးခြင်း၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် ဝါဒဖြန့်ချီပေးခြင်းမပြုပါ။

(င) အတိုက်အခံ နိုင်ငံရေး အဖွဲ့အစည်းများ ထားရှိခွင့်ပြုသော ပါလီမန် ဒီမိုကရေစီ စံနစ်ကို ပျက်ပြားစေရန် ကြံရွယ်သော၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် ပျက်ပြားမည့်အကြောင်း ဖြစ်ပေါ် စေသော၊ မည်သည့် အကြံပေးမှု၊ တိုက်တွန်းမှု၊ လှုံ့ဆော်မှု၊ အားပေးမှု၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် ဝါဒဖြန့်မှုမျိုးကိုမဆို မည်သည့် အခါမျှ မပြုပါ။

(စ) လျှို့ဝှက်ရဲအဖွဲ့ ()ဖွဲ့စည်း၍ စိုးမိုးအုပ်ချုပ်သည့်စံနစ်မျိုး တည်ထောင်ခြင်းကို သော်၎င်း၊ တည်ထောင်ရန် ကြိုးပမ်း အားထုတ်ခြင်းကိုသော်၎င်း၊ မည်သည့်အခါမျှ အကြံပေးခြင်း၊ လှုံ့ဆော်ခြင်း၊ တိုက်တွန်းခြင်း၊ ထောက်ခံခြင်း၊ အားပေးခြင်း၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် ဝါဒဖြန့်ချီပေးခြင်း

မပြုပါ။

(ဆ) အခြားနိုင်ငံတခုခုမှဖြစ်စေ၊ နိုင်ငံခြားသားများထံမှဖြစ်စေ ရံပုံငွေအတွက်ကြေးငွေ၊ သို့တည်း မဟုတ် ပစ္စည်းအကူအညီ၊အထောက်အပံ့ကို မှတ်ပုံတင်အာဏာပိုင်၏ကြုံတင် သဘောတူခွင့်ပြုချက်မရဘဲ တိုက်ရိုက်ဖြစ်စေ၊ သွယ်ဝိုက်၍ဖြစ်စေ မည်သည့်အခါမျ လက်ခံခြင်း မပြုပါ။

(c) ပြည်ထောင်စု မြန်မာနိုင်ငံ၏ ဖွဲ့စည်း အုပ်ချုပ်ပုံအခြေခံ ဥပဒေ၏မူများကို ဆန့်ကျင်သော အဖွဲ့အစည်းများနှင့် လုပ်ငန်းများကို မည်သည့်အခါမျှ ထောက်ခံခြင်း၊ အားပေးခြင်း၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် ဝါဒဖြန့်ချီပေးခြင်း ပြေုပါ။

အထက်ဖော်ပြပါ ဝန်ခံချက်များနှင့်အညီ ထာဝစဉ် ဆောင်ရွက်ရန် ကတိဝန်ခံချက်ပြုပါသည်။

ထုတ်ဝေသူ၏လက်မှတ်	တိးမြင်။
L 1L J	ι U °
1 1 L_1	ဓမ္မရောင်ခြည်စာစောင်ပုံနှိပ်ထုတ်ဝေရေးဌာန။
လိပ်စဉ်အပြည်အစံအ ပ် -ရိ-ခ	ျုပ်၊ နိုင်ငံတော်ဗုဒ္ဓသာသနာအဖွဲ့၊ ကမ္ဘာအေး။

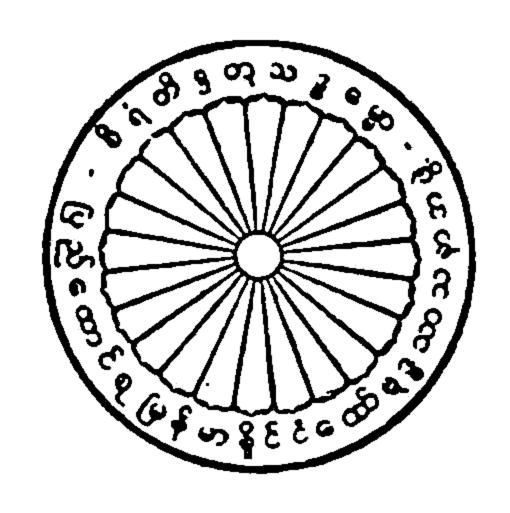


Vol. VII 2504 B.E. JULY 1960 C.E.

No. 3

CONTENTS

							PAGE.
EditorialAkusala (<i>Citta</i> (Imm	oral Con	sciousness)	• • •	•••	•••	1
Buddhism and Christianityby Professor Dr. Helmuth Von Glasenapp							6
Bodhipakkhiya Dīpan U Sein Nyo Tun	*	_			ous issue)	·•••	15
The Problems of Buddhismby Ven. C. Nyanasatta Thera							34
Mahāgapālaka Sutta of the Light of th		•	the Editors	•••	# • · •	•••	37
Mahāgopālaka Sutta V of the Light of the			slated by the	Editors	• • •	•••	41
The Ice is beginning t	o thaw	by U l	Ba Htu, B.J.	S. (Retd.))	•••	46
Some Thoughts on K	amma	by US	Sein Nyo Tui	n, I.C.S. (Retd.)	•••	49
Notes and News	•••	* • •	•••	••• .	•••	•••	53
Obituary	****	***	•••	•••	•••	• • •	54



THE LIGHT OF THE DHAMMA

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EDITORIAL

AKUSALA CITTA

(IMMORAL CONSCIOUSNESS)

Sabbapāpassa akaraņam, kusalassa upasampadā, sacittapariyodapanam, etam buddhāna sāsanam, *

(Abstinence from all evil, fulfilment of all good, purification of one's mind, this is the teaching of the Buddhas.)

Killing, stealing, sexual misconduct, lying, slandering, rude speech, idle chatter, avarice, ill-will and wrong views are all akusala kammas (unwholesome volitional actions). By abstaining from these evils, one is able to attain sila visuddhi (purification of virtue) and then practise oneself for other higher visuddhis. Hence the importance of understanding the types of immoral consciousness.

There are eight types of consciousness rooted in lobha (greed), two in dosa (hatred), and two in moha (delusion). Thus, there are altogether twelve types of immoral consciousness.**

Rooted in lobha:

When a man is pleased with his work, his consciousness is called *somanassasa-hagata* or 'accompanied by delight.' And his consciousness is *upekkhāsahagata* if it is accompanied by indifference.

It is often thought right by some people to sacrifice animals at a certain place, or to gamble on a certain day, or to tell a lie, or to befool others on a certain occasion or to molest a man if he does not belong to his faith. Such wrong views are called ditthi, which pretend to justify immorality, but have really lobha and moha at the root.

If the immoral consciousness is accompanied by such a ditthi it is called ditthi gata-sampayutta; and if it is not so companied it is called ditthigatavippayutta.

The consciousness of one who is swift in performing any moral or immoral act

is called asanhārika or that which is neither hesitating nor instigated by others.' Sasankhārika consciousness on the other hand is that which is either preceded by some hesitation or instigated by some one else.

Taking these classifications together, we have the following eight tyes of immoral consciousness rooted in *lobha*:

- 1. 'Delighted, accompanied by a wrong view, unhasitated and uninstigated.
- 2. 'Delighted, accompanied by a wrong view, hesitated or instigated.
- 3. 'Delighted, unaccompanied by a wrong view, unhesitated and uninstigated.
- 4. 'Delighted, unaccompanied by a wrong view, hesitated or instigated.
- 5. 'Indifferent, accompanied by a wrong view, unhesitated and uninstigated.
- 6. 'Indifferent, accompanied by a wrong view, hesitated or instigated.
- 7. 'Indifferent, unaccompanied by a wrong view unhesitated and uninstigated.
- 8. 'Indifferent, unaccommpanied by a wrong view, hesitated or instigated.

If an act is done unhesitatingly or without the instigation of any one else, it is of the first type. But if it is preceded by some hesitation, or if it is done at the instigation of some one else, it is an example of the second type.

We know that it is bad to kill, to harm others, or to steal, or to lie, or to do any evil act. Nevertheless, we do indulge in them frequently and also derive delight therefrom. These kinds of consciousness are of the third and the fourth type.

The fifth, the sixth, the seventh and the eighth type are the same as above, if the act is done not with delight but with indifference.

Rooted in dosa:

If we are displeased with anything, or if we are dissatisfied with anything we begin to

^{*} Dhammapada, verse 183.

^{**} Abhidhammatthasangaha

hate it. The sensation goes on intensifying, and a time comes when the idea of it would rouse an excitement in us—a sensation of deep antipathy. This state of mind is called domanassa.

Domanassa is accompanied by an urge to attack or annihilate the object of hate. This is called patigha or anger.

It is asankhārika if, in this angry state of mind, a man commits a crime unhesitatingly, without being instigated by anyone else. It is sasankhārika, if it is committed after some hesitation, or at the instigation of someone else.

Thus, the two types of conciousness rooted in dosa are:

- 1. 'Excited, accompanied by anger, unhesitated or uninstigated.'
- 2. 'Excited, accompanied by anger, hesitated or instigated.'

It should be noted that there can be no somanassa (delight) or upekkhā (indifference) in this agitated state of mind accompanied by antipathy. It cannot also be associated with any right or wrong view, for it is so charged with fury that at the instant of its occurrence it is hard to consider what is right or what is wrong.

For example, an executioner executes a criminal, not because he has any personal grudge against him, but simply because he has been ordered to do it by his superior officer. Here, he has to create an excitement in him accompanied by antipathy, and invoke a rage to hang the man. His consciousness is, therefore, sasankhārika, i.e. of the second type.

Rooted in moha:

The essential condition of all immoral consciousness is moha (delusion), because without it lobha and dosa cannot possibly arise. But, if there is only moha, it will make the consciousness thoroughly confused. This state of mind is called momūha citta (confused consciousness). It is difficult to understand a thing definitely in this state of consciousness. It is full of doubts. If the doubts are big it is called vicikicchā-sampayutta or a perplexed consciousness.

A momuha citta cannot also concentrate upon any object. It is restless. If the

distraction is strong, it is called uddhaccasampayutta or 'a restless consciousness.' There cannot be either somanassa or domanassa in this consciousness. It is essentially upekkhā-sahagata or 'accompanied by an ignorant indifference'.

Hence there are two types of consciousness rooted in *moha*, namely, (1) 'Accompanied by indifference, and is sceptical', (2) 'Accompanied by indifference, and is restless.'

Sceptical doubt or perplexity and restlessness arise in us due to ignorance. They are not created knowingly by us, either hesitatingly or unhesitatingly, for, knowledge, is quite opposed to them, like light to darkness. None else can instigate us to be perplexed or restless. Therefore, in these types of consciousness, the question of asankhārika and sasankhārika does not arise.

Thus, there are altogether twelve types of immoral consciousness.

We shall now describe the Dependent Origination of a single immoral consciousness by the *Abhidhamma* (Higher Doctrine) method.

When in contact with either a visible object, a sound, a smell, a taste, a touch or a mental object there arises an immoral conciousness accompanied by delight and a wrong view, and unhesitated or uninstigated, at that very consciousness moment,

- 1. Through Ignorance, cetanā sankhāra (volitional activities) arise;
- 2. Through cetanā sankhāra diţthigata sampayutta citta (consciousness accompanied by a wrong view) arises;
- 3. Through ditthigata sampayutta citta, nāmam (the constituent groups of sensation, perception and mental forma mations) arise;
- 4. Through nāmam, ditthigata sampayutta citta arises;
- 5. Through ditthigata sampayutta citta, Contact arises;
- 6. Through Contact Sensation arises;
- 7. Through Sensation Craving arises;
- 8. Through Craving Clinging arises;
- 9. Through Clinging the four Mental Groups except Clinging arise;

- 10. Through the four Mental Groups* except Clinging, jāti (in the form of uppāda—the genetic period of the consciousness moment) arises;
- 11. Through jāti, jarāmaraṇaṁ (thīti—the static period of the consciousness moment and bhaṅga—the dissolution period of the consciousness moment) arise. Thus arises the unalloyed mass of suffering.

Thus we shall find that it is slightly different from the Dependent Origination described by Suttanta method.

Herein, in the case of sankhārā (Kammaformations), cetanā (volition) alone is taken. In the case of viññānaṁ (consciousness), the first type of immoral consciousness is taken. Instead of nāma-rūpa, only nāma is mentioned; in the case of bhava (becoming) the four Mental Groups excepting Clinging are taken; in the the case of jāti, the 'rising' period of the conciousness moment is taken; and in the case of jarā-maraṇaṁ, thīti (static period) and bhaṅga (dissolution period) of the conciousness moment are taken.

The same principle holds good for the first four types of immoral consciousness.

In the cases of the fifth, the sixth, the seventh and the eighth type of immoral consciousness, as these four conciousness are not associated with ditthi, adhimokkho (the mental factor of Decision) is substituted for upādāna.

In the cases of the 9th and the 10th type, as these two consiousness are not associated with tanhā (Craving), paṭigha (anger) is substituted for tanhā. The remaining links are the same as the fifth type.

In the case of the 11th type, the Dependent Origination may be described thus:

- 1. Through Ignorance, cetanā sankhāra (volitional activities) arise;
- 2. Through cetanā sankkhāra diţihigata sanpayutta citta (consciousness accompanied by a wrong view) arises;
- 3. Through ditthigata sampayutta citta, nāmam (the constituent groups of sensation, perception and mental formamations) arise;

- 4. Through nāmam, ditthigata sampayutta citta arises;
- 5. Through ditthigata sampayutta citta, Contact arises;
- 6. Through Contact Sensation arises;
- 7. Through Sensation Craving arises;
- 8. Through Craving Clinging arises;
- 9. Through Clinging the four Mental Groups except Clinging artse;
- 10. Through the four Mental Groups except Clinging, jāti (in the form of uppāda—the genetic period of the consciousness moment) arises;
- 11. Through jāti, jarāmaraṇaṁ (thīti—the static period of the consciousness moment and hhaṅga—the dissolution period of the consciousness moment) arise. Thus arises the unalloyed mass of suffering.

Here, as this consciousness is not associated with ditthi and adhimokkho, vicikicchā is substituted for taṇhā, and it jumps up to bhavo, omitting the link 'upādāna.'

In the case of the 12th type, as this consciousness is not associated with tanhā, uddhacca (restlessness) is substituted for tanhā. The rest are the same as the two consciousness rooted in dosa.

Thus it will be seen that if any of these twelve immoral consciousness except udhaccha sampayutta (restlessness) arises in the life-continuum of a person, it will cause him to be reborn in the four Lower Worlds (apāya lokas).

If we desire to escape from this samsāra (round of rebirths), we shall have to get rid of tanhā which gives rise to the first eight types of immoral consciousness. The Satipaṭṭhāna Sutta** provides the method of contemplating on consciousness.

Cittānupassanā (Contemplation on Consciousness):

And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu live contemplating consciousness in consciousness?

Here, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu knows the consciousness with lust, as with lust, the consciousness without lust, as without lust:

^{*} The four Mental Groups are :--1. Sensation Group, 2. Perception Group, 3. Mental-formations Group, Consciousness Group.

^{**} Suttanta Piţaka, Maijhima Nikāya, Mūlapannāsa Pāļi, 1. Mūlapariyāya-vagga, 10. Mahāsatipaţţhāna Sutta, p. 76, 6th Synod Edition.

the consciousness with hate, as with hate; the consciousness without hate, as without hate; the consciousness with ignorance, as with ignorance; the consciousness without ignorance, as without ignorance; the shrunken state of conciousness as the shrunken state; the distracted state of consciousness as the distracted state; the developed state of consciousness as the developed state; the undeveloped state of consciousness as the undeveloped state; the state of consciousness with some other mental state superior to it, as the state with something mentally higher; the state of consciousness with no other mental state superior to it, as the state with nothing mentally higher; the concentrated state of consciousness as the concentrated state; the unconcentrated of consciousness as the unconcentrated state; the freed state of consciousness as the free state; and the unfreed state of consciousness as the unfreed.

Thus he lives contemplating consciousness in consciousness internally, or he lives contemplating consciousness in consciousness externally, or he lives contemplating consciousness in consciousness internally and externally. He lives contemplating origination factors in consciousness, or he lives contemplating dissolutionfactors in consciousness or he lives contemplating origination and dissolution-factors in consciousness. Or his mindfulness is established with the thought, 'Consciousness', to the extent necessary just for knowledge and mindfulness, and he lives indepedent. and clings to naught in the world. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu lives contemplating consciousness in consciousness.

In this respect the Venerable Mahāsi Sayadaw, Aggamahāpaņdita stated: "There is another point to note. While a vogī is contemplating the body in the body, he will find that his mind flits from one object to another. When such fanciful thought arises. the yogī should make a mental note of this also, saying to himself, 'going', 'thinking', 'knowing,' etc., and contemplating the arising and vanishing of the same. This is called cittānupassanā (contemplating consciousness in consciousness). The Buddha declared: 'Sarāgam vā cittam sarāgam cittanti pajānāti" (understands the consciousness that is accompanied by lust, as consciousness with lust)". The Commentator further points out that every consiciousness must be contemplated as it arises.

In his "The Power of Mindfulness", the Venerable Nyanaponika Mahāthera writes: "If anyone whose mind is not harmonized and controlled through methodical meditative training, should take a close look at his own every-day thoughts and activities, he will meet with a rather disconcerting sight. Apart from a few main channels of his purposeful thoughts and activities, he will everywhere be faced with a tangled mass of perceptions, thoughts, feelings, casual bodily movement, etc. showing a disorderliness and confusion which he would certainly not tolerate, e.g., in his living-room. Yet this is the state of affairs that he takes for granted within a considerable portion of his waking life and normal mental activity. Let us now look at the details of that rather untidy picture.

"First we meet a vast number of casual sense impressions, sights, sounds, etc., that pass constantly through our mind. Most of them remain vague and fragmentary, and some are even based on faulty perceptions, misjudgements, etc. Carrying these inherent weaknesses they often form the untested basis for judgements and decisions on a higher level of consciousness. True, all these casual impressions need not and cannot be objects of focussed attention. A stone on our road that happens to meet our glance, will have a claim on our attention only if it obstructs our progress or is of interest to us for any other reason. Yet, if we neglect too much these casual impressions, we may stumble over many an actual, or figurative stone, and overlook many a gem lying on our road.

"Next there are those more significant and definite perceptions, thoughts, feelings, volitions, etc., which have a closer connection with our purposeful life. Here too we shall find that a very high proportion of them is in a state of utter confusion......

"Such a look into long-neglected quarters of our mind will come as a wholesome shock to the observer. It will convince him of the urgent need for methodical mental culture extending not only to a thin surface-layer of the mind, but also to those vast twilight regions of consciousness to which we have paid now a brief visit. The observer will then become aware of the fact that a reliable standard of the inner strength and lucidity of consciousness in its totality cannot be derived from the relatively small sector of the mind that stands in the intense light of

purposeful will and thought, nor can it be judged by a few maximal results of mental activity achieved in brief, intermittent periods. The decisive factor in determining the quality of individual consciousness is the circumstance whether that twilight region of everyday mind and the uncontrolled portion of every-day activity are in the process of increasing or decreasing."*

It is the dark, untidy corners of the mind where our most dangerous enemies dwell. From there they attack us unawares, and much too often they succeed in defeating us. That twilight world peopled by frustrated desires and suppressed resentments, by vacillations and whims and many other shadowy figures, form a background from which upsurging passions—greed and lust hatred and anger—may derive powerful support. Besides, the obscure and obscuring nature of that twilight region is the very element and mother soil of the third and strongest of the Roots of Evil (akusala-mūla), i.e. Ignorance or Delusion.

We, who are encumbered with multifarious mundane affairs, may not have an opportunity to contemplate on consciousness according to Satipatthāna method. But while we are in a vacant or in pensive mood, we many pay Bare Attention to the conciousness that incessantly arise and vanish in our life-continua, and mentally note as follows:—

(1) When experiencing a pleasant feeling, we know, "We experience a pleasant feeling', etc.;

(2) We know of a lustful (state of) mind is. 'Mind is lustful,' etc.;

(3) If (the hindrance of) sense desire is present in us, we know,' 'Sense desire is present in us,' etc.;

(4) If the enlightenment factor Mindfulness is present in us, we know, 'The enlightenment factor Mindfulness is is present in us', etc.

Or, whenever any immoral consciousness rooted either in *lobha*, *dosa*, or *moha*, we may contemplate as follows:

'The consciousness rooted in *lobha* has arisen in our body and vanished immediately. It is *anicca* (impermanent), because of its non-existence after having been. Rise and

fall and change are the characteristics of impermanence, or mode alteration, in other words non-existence after having been'. We may contemplate in this manner for half an hour or an hour every day and gradually develop our mental faculties. This contemplation is known as aniccānupassanā (Contemplation of impermanence). If the nature of anicca can be clearly realized, the realisation of anatta (impersonality) follows as a matter of course.** There had been instances where people attained anagami magga (the Path of non-returner) or arahatta magga (the Path of Sainthood), by contemplating immoral consciousness and gradually developing his vipassanā (Insight) into the higher levels.

Here is an illustration. Long, long ago, there lived two friends in a certain village in the kingdom of Kāsi. One day they went to their fields together carrying drinking water with them. They kept their water bottles in suitable places and tilled their fields respectively. At that time, one of them had a desire to steal the other man's water and drink it. With this intention he wilfully stole the other man's water from the latter's water bottle and drank to his satisfaction. A few minutes later, he pondered thus: 'I have stolen my friend's water without his knowledge and consent. I have committed theft (adinnādānam).' After thus pondering, he continued to contemplate as follows: 'Consciousness accompanied by lobha (greed) which prompted me to steal my friend's water has arisen and vanished in my life-continuum immediately, and become *anicca*.' He continued to develop his vipassanā and finally attained Arahatship and became a pacceka-buddha (Solitary Buddha). While he was thus meditating, the other friend came to him and told him to return to their village. Then he replied: 'I do not desire to return home. I am now a pacceka-buddha'. His friend said: 'Friend, a pacceka-buddha is not like you. He must have robes on his body and a bowl in his hands'. Immediately he realised his situation and after rubbing his head thrice with his fingers, he transformed himself into a Solitary Buddha and proceeded towards Nandamūla cave in the Himalayas.***

^{*} See the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. III, No. 4, p. 43.

^{**} Kuddaka Nikāya, Udāna Pāļi, Meghiya-vagga, Meghiya Sutta, p. 120, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{***} Suttanta Piţaka, Khuddaka Nikāya, Jātaka Pāļi, II. Ekādasaka Nipāta, 459 Pānīya Jātaka, p. 234, 6th Syn. Edn.
Khuddaka Nikāya, Jātaka-aṭṭhakathā, II. Ekādasaka Nipāsa, 5. Pānīya Jātaka Vaṇṇaṇā, (459) p. 115, 6th Syn. Ed.

BUDDHISM AND CHRISTIANITY

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Among the five great relgions to which nearly nine-tenths of present-day humanity belong, Buddhism and Christianity have been the most frequent subjects of comparison. And rightly so. Because, together with Islam, and unlike Hinduism and Chinese universism, they are 'world religions', that is to say, forms of belief that have found followers not merely in a single though vast country, but also in wide regions of the entire world.

Buddhism and Christianity, however, differ from Islam in so far as, unlike the latter, they do not stress the natural aspects of world and man, but they wish to lead beyond them. A comparison between Buddhism and Christianity, however, proves so fruitful mainly because they represent, in the purest form, two great distinctive types of religion which arose East and West of the Indus valley. For two millenniums, these two religious systems have given the clearest expression of the metaphysical ideas prevalent in the Far East and in the Occident, respectively.

The similarity between these two religions extend, if I see it rightly, essentially over three spheres: (1) the life history of the founder, (2) ethics, and (3) church history.

1. The biographies of Buddha and Christ show many similar features. Both were born in a miraculous way. Soon after their birth, their future greatness is proclaimed by a sage (Asita, Simeon). Both astonish their teachers through the knowledge they possess, though still in their early childhood. Both are tempted by the devil before they start upon their public career. Both walk over the water (Jātaka 190; * Matth. 14, 26). Both feed 5000 persons respectively (Jātaka 78;** Mark 14, 16ff) by multiplying miraculously the food available. The death of of both is accompanied by great natural

phenomena. Also the parables ascribed to them show same similarities, as for instance the story of the sower (Samyutta 42, 7;*** Matth. 13, 3), of the prodigal son ('Lotus of the Good Law,' 'Chap. IV; Lk. 14), of the widow's mite (Kalpanamanditika; Mark 12).

From these parallels some writers have attempted to conclude that the Gospels have drawn from the Buddhist texts. But this contention goes much too far. If there is any dependence at all, of the stories in the Gospels on those of India, it could be only by oral tradition, through the migration to the West of certain themes which originated in India, and were taken over by the authors of the biblical scriptures. But that is in no way certain, because many of those similarities are not so striking as to exclude the possibility of their independent origin at different places.

2. Both Buddha and Jesus based their ethics on the 'Golden Rule'. Buddha told the Brahmins and householders of a certain village as follows: "A lay follower reflects thus: 'How can I inflict upon others what is unpleasant to me?' On account of that reflection, he does not do any evil to others, and he also does not cause others to do so" (Samyutta 55, 7). And Jesus says in the Sermon of the Mount: "Therefore all things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do so to them: for this is the law and the prophets" (Matth. 7, 12; Lk. 6, 31)—this being, by the way, a teaching which, in negative formulation, was already known to the Jewish religion (Tob. 15, 4).

Also the principle "Love thy neighbours like unto yourself" (Lk. 10, 27) which, in connection with Lev. 19, 18, was raised by Jesus to a maxim of ethical doctrine, is likewise found in Buddhism where it was

*** Samyutta Nikaya, Khettupama Sutta, p. 500, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{*} Khuddaka Nikāya, Jātakaatthakathā, Vol. III, 2 Duka-nipāta, 4. Asadisa.vagga.

^{10.} Sīlānisamsamjātaka-vannanā (190), p. 101, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{**} Khuddaka Nikāya, Jātakaţthakathā, Vol. 1, Ekaka-nipāta, 8. Varuna-vagga. 8. Illisa Jātaka-vannanā (78), p. 366; 6th Syn. Edn.

given a philosophical foundation mainly by the thinkers of Mahayana (S'āntideva, beginning of S'iksāsamucca). As to the injunction that love should also be extended to the enemy there is also a parallel statement by the Buddha. According to the Majjhima Nikāya No. 21 * He said: "If, O monks, robbers or highwaymen with a double-handled saw cut your limbs and joints, whoso gave way to anger thereat, would not be following my advice. For thus ought you to train yourselves: 'Undisturbed shall our mind remain, no evil words shall escape our lips; friendly and full sympathy shall we remain, with heart full of love, free from any hidden malice. And that person shall we suffuse with loving thoughts; and from there on the whole world."

A practical proof of the love of enemies was given, as the report goes, by the Buddhist Āriyadeva. After a philospohical disputation, a fanatical adversary attacked him in his cell with a sword, and Ariyadeva was fatally wounded. Inspite of that, he is said to have helped his murderer to escape by disguising him with his own monk's robe. Schopenhauer, and others after him, believed, in view of these ethical teachings, that the Gospels "must somehow be of Indian origin" (Parerga II, §179), and that Jesus was influenced by Buddhism with which he was said to become acquainted in Egypt. For such a supposition, however, there is not the slightest reason, since we encounter similar noble thoughts among Chinese and Greek sages, and, in fact, among the great minds of the whole world without having to assume an actual interdependence.

3. Also the historical development of both religions presents several parallels. Both, setting out from the countries of their origin, have spread over large parts of the world, but in their original home lands they have scarcely any followers left. The number of Christians in Palestine is very small today, and on the whole continent of India proper, these are at present not even half a million Buddhists. ** The Brahmanical counter-reformation starting about 800 A.C., and the onslaught of Islam beginning about 1000 A.C., have brought about the passing

of already decadent Buddhism in its father-land, while it counts millions of devotees in Ceylon, Burma, Thailand, China, Japan, Tibet, Mongolia, and so on. It is strange how little that fact of the disappearance of Buddhism from the land of the Ganges has been apprised by even many educated persons in the West. Some still believe that Buddhism is the dominant religion of India proper, though out of a population of 400 millions, about 95 millions belong to the Islam, and 270 millions are Hindus (that is devotees of Vishnu and Shiva) among whom the caste system prevails, with Brahmins constituting the hereditary priestly gentry.

It is also significant that today the overwhelming majority of the followers of Buddhism and Christianity belong to a race and linguistic group different from those of their founders. Buddha was an Indo-Aryan; but, with a few exceptions, most of his devotees are found today among yellow races. Jesus and the Apostles were Jews, but the main contingent of Christians is made up of Europeans speaking Indo-Germanic languages. This shows, very strikingly that race, language and religion are entirely different spheres. There is perhaps a deep law underlying that fact. Nations of foreign blood accept a new religion with such a great sympathy and enthusiasm probably because it offers them something which they did not possess of their own, and which therefore supplements their own mental heritage in an important way. This holds true also in the case of Islam, since, among the nearly 300 million Mohammedans, those of the Prophet's race, the Samites, are in a minority compared with the Muslims of Turkish, Persian, Indian, Malayan and African extraction.

In the course of their historical development and their dissemination among foreign nations, Buddhism as well as Christianity have absorbed much that was alien to them at the start. One may even say that, after a religion has gone through a sufficiently long period of development and has been exposed to divers influences, more or less all phenomena will appear which the history of religion has ever produced. Buddhism,

^{*} Suttanta Piţaka, Majjhima Nikāya, Mūlapaṇṇāsa, 3. Opamma-Vagga, 1. Kakacūpama Sutta, p. 173, 6th Syn. Edn.

Please also see the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. 1, No. 3 p. 1.

** Since this essay was written, the number of Buddhists in India has increased to an estimated 10-15 millions, in 1959, mainly due to the mass movement among the scheduled classes initiated by the late Dr. B.R. Ambedkar.

and Christianity, originally, had strict views on all matters of sex, but in both certain sects appeared again and again, which were given to moral laxity or even taught ritual sex enjoyment, as in Buddhism the Shakti cults of the 'Diamond Vehicle' (Vajra-yāna), or in Christianity certain gnostic schools, medieval sects and modern communities. Buddha and Christ reject extreme asceticism, but there arose numerous zealots who not only advocated painful self-mortification, but even castrated (as the Skpozi) or burned themselves. Pristine Buddhism taught selfliberation through knowledge. Later, however, a school arose which considered man too weak to win salvation by himself, and instead, expected deliverance by the grace of Buddha Amitābha. These Amitābha schools have developed a theology which, to a certain extent, presents a parallel to the Protestant doctrine of salvation by faith. In Japan, the most influential of these schools, the Shin sect, has even broken with the principle of monastic celibacy, and thereby produced a sort of Buddhist clergy of the Protestant type. On the other hand, Tibetan Buddhism has created a kind of Ecclesiatical State with the Dalai Lama as its supreme head.

Buddhism and Christianity teach to transcend the world. And, in conformity with the idea of the supremacy of the spiritual life over the conventions of the world, in the monastic order or the church community all class distinctions had to cease. The Buddha taught: "As the rivers lose their names when they reach the ocean, just so members of all caste lose their designations once they have gone forth into home-lessness, following the teaching and the discipline of the Perfect One" (Ang. 8, 19)*. And the Apostle Paul wrote (Gal. 3, 28): "There is neither Jew nor Greek, there is neither slave nor freeman, neither male nor female, for you are all one in Christ Jesus."

These postulates, however, did not change conditions prevailing in worldly life. Social reforms were entirely alien to the intentions of Buddhism and Christinaity in these early days. In various countries and up to modern times, there were not only house slaves, and even temple slaves, but even in Christain countries, slavery was abolished only in the 19th century (Brazil 1888).

Finally, both religions have in common certain features of cult and forms of worship. I mention here only: monasticism, tonsure of

the clergy, confession, the cult of images, relic worship, ringing of bells, use of rosary and incense, and the erection of towers. There has been much controversy about the question whether and to what extent, one may assume mutual influence with regard to these and several other similarities, but research has so far not come to an entirely satisfactory conclusion.

Though in many details there are great similarities between Buddhism and Chrisstianity, one must not overlook the fact that in matters of doctrine, they show strong contrasts, and their conceptions of salvation belong to entirely different types of religious attitude. Buddhism, in its purest form, presents a religion based on the conception of an eternal and universal law, a conception found in various forms in India, China and Japan. Christianity, on the other hand, belongs, together with the teaching of Zoroaster, the Jewish religion and Islam, to those religions that profess to have a divine revelation which is manifested in history, and these religions have conquered for themselves all parts of the world west of India. The contrast between Buddhism and Christianity will become clear by objectively placing side by side their central doctrines. I shall base that comparison on what are still today, just as nearly 2000 years ago, the fundamental doctrinal tenets of both religions, and shall not consider here differences of detail or modern interpretations. Since I may assume an acquaintance with the teachings of Christinaity, I shall begin each subsequent discussion of single points, with a very brief statement of the Christian doctrine concerned, following it up with a somewhat more detailed treatment of the different teachings in Buddhism. I hope that, in that way, I shall be able to bring out clearly the differences between these two religions.

1. Christianity differs from all great world religions first of all in that it gives to the personality of its founder a central position in world history as well as in the doctrine of salvation. In Buddhism, Zoroastrianism, Islam, Judaism, and still more so in religions having no personal founder but being products of historical growth, like Hinduism and Chinese universism, in all of them it is a definite metaphysical and ethical doctrine promulgated by holy men, which is the very centre of their systems. For the Christian,

however, it is faith in Jesus Christ that is the inner core of his religion. This evinces most clearly from the fact alone that the 22 scriptures of the New Testament contain only comparatively few sermons of Jesus concerned with doctrinal matters, while by far the greatest part of the Buddhist Canon is devoted to expositions of the Buddh's teachings. In the Scriptures of the New Testament, from the Gospel of St. Matthew up to the Revelation of St. John, the most important concern of the authors was to demonstrate that Christ was a supernatural figure unique in the entire history of the world. Christ's redemptory death on the cross, his resurrection, ascension, and his future advent, are therefore the core of the Christian doctrine of salvation.

Buddha's position in Buddhist doctrine bears in no way comparison with these features of Christianity. For the historical Gotama was not the incarnation of a God; he was a human being, purified through countless rebirths as animal, man or angel, until finally in his last embodiment, he attained by his own strength that liberating knowledge which enabled him to enter Nibbana. He was one who pointed out the way to deliverance, but did not, by himself, bestow salvation on other*. Though also to him a miraculous birth has been attributed, yet it was not described as a virginal birth. The whole difference, however, of the Buddha's status from that of Christ is chiefly demonstrated by the fact that a Buddha is not an isolated historical phenomenon, but that many Enlightened Ones had appeared in the past, teaching the same doctrine; and that, in the future too. Buddhas will appear in the world who will expound to erring humanity the same principles of deliverance in a new form. The later Buddhism of the Great Vehicle (Mahāyāna) even teaches that many, if not all men carry within themselves the seed of Buddhahood, so that after many rebirths they themselves will finally attain the highest truth and impart, it to others.

2. But even the historical personalities of Jesus and the Buddha differ widely. Jesus grew up in a family of poor Jewish craftsmen. Devoting himself exclusively to religious questions, he was a successor of the Jewish

prophets who enthusiastically proclaimed the divine inspirations bestowed upon them As a noble friend of mankind, full of compassion for the poor, he preached gentleness and love for one's neighbour; but on the other hand, he attacked with a passionate zeal abuses, for instance when he showed up as hypocrites the Scribes and Pharisees, when he drove from the Temple the traders and money-lenders; and held out the prospect of eternal damnation to those who refused to believe in him (Mark 16, 16). With the conviction of being the expected Messiah he preached the early advent of the Heavenly Kingdom (Matth. 10, 23). With that promise he primarily turned to the 'poor in spirit' (Matht. 5, 3), because not speculative reasoning, but pious and deep faith is the decisive factor: What is hidden to the clever and wise, has been revealed by God to the babes (Matth. 11, 25).

Gotama Buddha, however, stemmed from the princely house of the Sakyas that reigned on the southern slopes of the Himalayas. He lived in splendour and luxury up to his 29th year; then he left the palace and its womanfolk, and went forth into homelessness as a mendicant. After a six years' vain quest for insight spent with various Brahman ascetics, he won enlightenment at Uruvela. This transformed the Boddhisatta, i.e. an aspirant for enlightenment, into a Buddha, that is into one who has awakened to truth. From then onward, up to the eightieth year of his life, he proclaimed the path of deliverance found by him. He died at Kusināra about 480 B.C. Buddha was an aristocrat of high culture, with a very marked sense for beauty in nature and art, free from any resentment, and possessed of a deep knowledge of man's nature. He was a balanced personality, with a serene mind and winning manners, representing the type of a sage who with firm roots within, had arisen above the world. In the struggle with the systems of his spiritually dynamic time, he evolved out of his own thought a philosophical system that made high demands on the mental faculties of his listeners. As he himself said: "My doctrine is for the wise and not for the unwise." The fact that his teaching had an appeal also for the uneducated, is explained by his great skill in summarizing in easily

^{*} Dhammapada, Verse 276.
"You yourselves must strive.
Buddhas but point out the way"

intelligible language the fundamental ideas of his philosophy.

So far we have found the following difference between Buddhism and Christinaity: Christianity, from its very start, was a movement of faith appealing to the masses: and only when it won over the upper classes, a Christian philosophy evolved. Buddhism, however, was, in its beginnings, a philosophical teaching of deliverance. Its adherents were mainly from the classes of noblemen and warriors, and of the wealthy middle-class, with a few Brahmins. Only when Buddhism reached wider circles it became a popular religion.

3. The teachings of all great religions are laid down in holy scriptures to which an authoritative character is ascribed surpassing all other literature. Christianity regards the Bible as the "Word of God", as an infallible source of truth in which God, by inspiring the authors of these scriptures, revealed things that otherwise would have remained hidden to man. Contrary to Cristianity, Islam and Hinduism, atheistic Buddhism does not know of a revelation in that sense. Nevertheless it possesses a great number of holy texts in which the sayings of the Buddha are collected. That Canon comprises those insights which the Buddha is said to have won by his own strength through comprehending the true nature of reality. It is claimed that everyone who, in his mental development, reaches the same high stage of knowledge, will find confirmed by himself the truth of the Buddha's statements. In fact, however, Buddhists ascribe to that Canon likewise a kind of revealing character, in so far as they appeal to the sayings of the 'ominscient' Buddha which, are regarded by them as final authority. The interpretation of the Buddha word, however, has led among the Buddhists to as many controversies as Bible exegesis among Christians.

We shall now proceed to describe the fundamental tenets of Christian and Buddhist doctrines. In doing so, we shall have to limit ourselves to the general principles which, for two thousand years, have been common to all schools or denominations of these religions. I shall first speak about the different position taken by Christians and Buddhists towards the central questions of religion, that is God, world and soul, and later proceed to a treatment of their teachings on salvation.

4. The central tenet of Christian doctrine is the belief in an eternal, personal, omnipotent, omniscient and all-loving God. He has created the world from nothing, sustains it, and directs its destiny; he is law-giver, judge, the helper in distress and saviour of the creatures which he has brought into being. Angels serve him to carry out his will. As originally created by God, all of them were good angels. But a section of these turned disobedient, and breaking away from the heavenly hosts, formed an opposition to the other angels, a hierarchy which under its leader, the Satan, strives to entice man to evil. Though the devils' power is greater than that of man, it is restricted by the power of God so that they cannot do anything without God's consent, and at the end of the days they will be subjected to divine judgement.

The Buddhists, on their part, believe in a great number of deities (devatā: gods) which direct the various manifestations of nature and of human life. They also know of evil demons and of a kind of devil, Māra, who tries to turn the pious from the path of virtue. But all beings are impermanent though their life span may last millions of years. In the course of their rebirths they have come to their superhuman form of existence thanks to their own deeds; but when the productive power of their deeds is exhausted, they have to be reborn on earth again, as humans. Though the world will always have a sun god or a thunder god, the occupant of these positions will change again and again, in the course of time. It is obvious that these gods with their restricted life span, range of action and power, cannot be compared with the Christian God since they cannot, be it singly or in their totality, create the world nor give it its moral laws. Hence they resemble only powerful superhuman kings whom the pious devotees may well, to a certain extent, solicit for gifts and favours, but who cannot exert any influence on world events in their totality.

Many Hindus assume that, above the numerous impermanent dieties, exists an eternal, ominiscient, all-loving and omnipotent God who creates, sustains, rules and destroys the world, But the Buddhists deny the existence of such a Lord of the Universe. Because, according to them, in the first place, no such original creator of the world can be proved to exist, because every cause must

have another cause, and secondly, an omnipotent God will have to be also the creator of evil and this will conflict with his allloving nature; or, alternately, if he is to be good and benevolent, he will have to be thought of without omnipotence and omiscience, since otherwise he could not have called into existence this imperfect world of suffering or he would have eliminated evil. Buddhism, therefore, is outspokenly atheistic, in that respect. The world is not governed by a personal God, but by an impersonal law that, with inexorable consistency, brings retribution for every morally good or evil deed. The idea that there are numerous deities of limited power can be found also in other religions; and the ancient Greeks, Romans and Germans believed that above the gods, there is Moira, Anangke, Fatum or Destiny, which eventually rules everything. For the Chinese the highest principle is the 'Tao' which sustains the cosmic order and the harmony between heaven, earth and man. With the Indians, here appears already in Vedic times the idea that gods and men are subject to the moral world-order, the Rita (rta), and from about 800 B.C. this idea is linked with the doctrine of Kamma, the doctrine of the after-effects of guilt and merit. According to that doctrine, every action carries in itself, seed-like, its own reward or punishment. After death, an individual in accordance with his good or evil deeds, is reincarnated in the body of either an animal, a man, a deity or a demon, in order to reap the fruits of his previous actions. This retribution occurs automatically, as a natural, regular occurrence, without requiring a divine judge who shares out reward and punishiment.

As to the difference between Buddhism and Christianity, in the present context, we may say that the same functions which in Christian doctrine are related to the concept of a personal God, are in Buddhism divided among a number of different factors. The natural and moral order of the world and its periodical rise and fall are preserved by an impersonal and immanent cosmic law (Dhamma). The retribution for one's actions operates through the inherent efficacy of these deeds themselves. Helpers in need are the numerous, but transient deities, while the truths of deliverance are revealed by human beings evolved to the perfection of Buddha (Awakened Ones) who therefore are also made objects of a cult and of devotion. Saviour, however, is each man

for himself, in so far as he has overcome the world through wisdom and self-control.

The homage paid to the Buddha, as it may be observed in Buddhist temples, has a meaning quite different from the worship of God in Christian Churches. The Christian worships God in reverence due to the creator of the universe and the ruler of all its destinies; or he does so in order to be granted spiritual or material boons by God's grace. The Buddhist pays homage to the Buddha without expecting that he hears him or does something for him. Since the Buddha entered into Nibbana, he can neither hear the prayers of the pious nor can he help them. If a Buddhist turns to the Buddha as if to a personality that actually confronts him, his act has a fictive character. The devotee expects from his act only spiritual edification and a good Kamma. This theory as advocated today by orthodox Buddhism, has, however, often been altered in practice and in the teachings of some of the Buddhist schools. But even those who think it possible that a Buddha may intervene in favour of a devotee, regard the Buddha only as a Saviour, a bringer of deliverance, and not as the creator and ruler of the universe.

5. According to Christian doctrine, God has created the world from nothing, and he rules it according to a definite plan. The stopping of the cosmic process comprises the end of the world, the universal resurrection of the dead, the Day of Judgement, the eternal damnation of the sinners and the eternal bliss of the pious in a heavenly Jerusalem descended to earth. Until the 18th century, it was believed that the entire world history comprised only 6000 years, though the time of the creation has been calculated differently, The Byzantines made their world era start on the 1st. of September 5509 B.C. while Luther dated the creation at the year 3960 B.C. Although the calculations about the beginning and the end of the world process—mainly based on the statements about the generations between Adam and Christ (Matth. 1, 17 and Lk. 3, 21)— have been abandoned in recent times, yet for Christianity the view that the historical fact of creation and salvation constitutes a single and unrepeatable event, remains a guiding principle.

Buddhism, however, knows neither a first beginning nor a definite end of the world. Since every form of existence presupposes action in a preceding life, and since Kamma

produced in one existence must find its retribution in a future one, Buddhism teaches a periodical cycle of cosmic rise and fall, evolution and dissolution. Since the number of living beings that produce Kamma, is infinitely vast, and the unexhausted Kamma of beings inhabiting a world which is in the process of dissolution, has to find realization in a newly arising world, worldly existence will never come to an end, however large the number of human beings may be that reach deliverance. There is another essential difference between the Christian and the Buddhist conception of the world. Buddhists have always assumed an infinite number of world systems situated next to each other in space each of which consisting of an earth, a heaven above and a hell below.

6. According to Christian views, man is composed of body and soul. While the body is formed of matter in the mother's womb, the soul is a special creation of God, from nothing. A soul is a simple, spiritual, immaterial substance. Maintained in eternal existence by God, the soul continues after the dissolution of the body at death, and receives from God the rewards of its deeds, either in heaven or hell. At the end of time, God causes a resurrection of all flesh and unites again the souls with their former bodies. By the fact that thus the whole man, i.e. not only his soul but also his body, received reward or punishment, the bliss of the heavenly realm reward or the torment of eternal demnation is felt with still greater intensity. In Christianity, the significance of life on earth and of the decisions made in it, has been enhanced to the utmost through the idea that it is man's conduct during that short life-span which determines the soul's destiny for all eternity.

Also many Indian systems are based upon that anthropological dualism. It is the conception of an infintely large number of eternal and purely spiritual souls linked, since beginningless time, with bodies formed by particles of primordial matter. The souls are thought to change these bodies in the course of their existences, until they become free of them on attainment of deliverance. In contrast to all Indian teachings of deliverance, and most others, Buddhism denies the existence of eternal substances, essentially unchangeable. What appears to us as matter, actually comes into being only through the natural co-operation of a multitude of single factors like colours,

sounds, odours, tactiles, spatial and temporal qualities, etc. Also what we call 'soul' is only a play of ever-changing sensations, perceptions and cognitive acts, combined into an entirety, yet being devoid of any underlying entity. It is only because some of these complex phenomena seem to have a relative stability, that men believe in the existence of matter or soul. But in truth, only *Dhammas* exist, i.e. 'factors of existence' that arise in functional dependence on each other, and cease again after a short time. This doctrine of the Dhammas is the characteristic teaching peculiar to Buddhism. It was developed by the Buddha into a philosophy of becoming from an idea still noticeable in the Vedic texts ascribing positive subsistence to everything that exists including qualities, events, modal states, etc.

In that respect, Buddha is a precursor of Hume and Mach who likewise declared any substance to be a fiction. But for the Buddha the doctrine of the Dhammas combines with the acceptance of a moral law governing the efficacy of all actions. Just as nothing occurs without producting some effect in the physical world, so every morally good or evil act is the cause of definite effects. Though, when a being dies, a combination of factors is dissolved which had previously formed a personality, yet the deeds performed in the life now passed, become the cause of a new and separate being's birth. The newly born is different from the being that had died, but it takes over, as it were, the latter's inheritance. Thus the stream of the factors of existence is continued also after death, and one life form follows the other without break. Since any act can have only a retribution of limited duration, Buddhists do not know eternal bliss in heaven or eternal torments in hell, but believe that the inhabitants of heaven and hell are later reborn again on earth.

7. Christianity and Buddhism agree in their strong emphasis on the impermanency of things. In Christianity, the suffering, inherent in the world, is the outcome of sin, and sin is disobedience towards God's commandments. Because Adam had sinned, all his progeny is afflicted with Original Sin. Man is too weak to free himself from sin by his own strength. Therefore, God in his compassion became man in Christ, and died, as a vicarious redemptory sacrifice for all humanity. Through Christ's sacrificial death all men have become free from the

power of sin but that vicarious salvation from evil becomes reality only if man opens himself to divine grace through his faith in Christ.

The idea of collective guilt and collective salvation is far from the Bhddhist's way of thinking. According to Buddhism, everyone accumulates his own evil and everyone has to work out his own deliverance. The entire Christian conception of sin, as a matter of fact, is alien to a Buddhist. If man has to suffer in punishment for his misdeeds, it is not on account of his disobeying divine commandments, but because his actions are in conflict with the eternal cosmic law and therefore produce bad Kamma. In general, the suffering which is life for a Buddhist not stamped with the mark of sin, but carries only the character of impermanence and insubstantiality. This inherent characteristic of existence is the cause of life ever ending in death, of life with its aimless and meaningless wandering through always new forms of being. It is that which basically constitutes life's suffering. And the cause of this woeful conflict is a thirst for sense enjoyment, an attachment to existence, a will to live, a passion that either craves for possession or wants to escape. All these propensities and impulses have their original source in ignorance (avajjā), that is in lack of insight into the true nature of reality. He who sees that neither in the internal nor in the external world anything can be found that abides; and that there is also no Ego as a point of rest within the general flux of phenomena; who is aware that there is no self either as the eternal witness or temporary owner of sense perceptions and volitions—such a one, through that very knowledge, is set free of selfishness, of hate, greed and delusion. By a gradual preess of purification, extending through aeons over many existences, he finally discards the illusion of self-affirma-(sakkāyadiţthi). Through mindful tion observation, keen reflection and meditative calm he eliminates all selfish propensities, and sees also his own personality as a mere bundle of Dhammas, i.e. processes of natural law that arise and vanish conditioned by functional relations. Dispassionate without attachment, he pervades, as the Buddhist scriptures say, "the whole world with his heart filled with loving-kindness. compassion, sympathetic joy and equanimity"

(Digha No. 13).* Without clinging to life and without fear of death he waits for the hour when his bodily form breaks up and he reaches final deliverance from rebirth.

8. The definite and perpetual state of salvation which is the redeemed person's share according to Christian doctrine, is conceived as an eternal life in the heavenly kingdom. If, after the second advent of Christ, the resurrection of the dead and the 1st. Judgement, the final kingdom of God has been established, then, after the old world's destruction, on a new earth, the redeemed ones will live in an inseparable communion with God and Christ.

The Buddhist conception of Nibbana presents the most radical contrast to Christian eschatology. The Christian hopes infinite continuation of his entire personality, not only of his soul but also of his body resurrected from dust to a new life. The Buddhist, however, wishes to be extinguished completely, so that all mental and corporeal factors which form the individual, will disappear without a remainder. Nibbana is the direct oposite of all that constitutes earthly existence. It is relative Naught in so far as it contains neither the consciousness nor any other factor that occurs in this world of change or could possible contribute to its formation. Not wrongly, therefore, has Nibbana been compared to empty space in which there is no differentiations left, and which does not cling to anything. In strongest contrast to the world which is impermanent, without an abiding self-nature and subject to suffering, Nibbana is highest bliss that is not *felt*, i.e. beyond the happiness of sensation (Ang. 9. 34, 1-3)** In the conception of the final goal of deliverance there is expressed the ultimate and most decisive contrast between the Christian and the Buddhist abnegation of the world. The Christian renounces the world because it is imperfect through sin, and he bopes for a personal, active and eternal life beyond, in a world that, through God's power, has been freed from sin and purified to perfection. But the Buddhist thinks that an individual existence without becoming and cessation, and, hence, without suffering, is unthinkable. He believes, though, that in future, during the ever-recurring cyclical changes of good and bad epochs, also a happy age will dawn

^{*} Suttanta Pitaka, Silakkhandha-vagga, 13. Tevijja Sutta, p. 234, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{**} Anguttara Nikāya, Navaka-nipāta Pāli, 1. Pathama-pannāsaka; 4. Mahā-vagga, 3. Nibbānasukha Sutta, p. 213, 6th Syn. Edn.

upon mankind again. But that happy epoch will be no less transient than earlier ones have been. Never will the cosmic process find its crowning consummation in a blessed finality. Hence there is no collective salvation, but only an individual deliverance. While the cosmic process following unalterable laws continues its course, only a saint who has become mature for Nibbana, will extinguish like a flame without fuel, in the midst of an environment that, with fuel unexhausted, is still aburning.

9. The different attitude towards the world and its history tallies also with the dissimilar evaluation given to other religions by Christians and Buddhists respectively. stianity being convinced of the absolute superiority of its own faith, has always questioned the justification of other forms of faith. Buddhism, however, does not believe that man has to decide about it within a single life on earth. The Buddhist, therefore, regards all other religions as first steps to his own. Consequently, in the countries to which Buddhism spread, it did not fight against the original religions found there, but tried to suffuse them with its own spirit. Therefore, Buddhism has never claimed exclusive, absolute or totalitarian authority. In modern China, most Buddhists are similtaneously Confusions and Tabists, and in Jipin, menbership of a Buddhist sect does not exclude faith in the Shinto gods. This large-hearted tolerance of Buldhism is also illustrated in its history

which is almost free from religious wars and persecution of heretics.

The fundamental doctrines of Buddhism and Christianity as outlined here and accepted as concrete facts by the majority of the faithful, have sometimes been interpreted by thinkers of both religions in a rationalistic or in a mystical sense, and these interpretations have modified the meaning of these doctrines considerably. In our present context, however, we cannot enter into a treatment of these transformations. By doing so, our comparative study would lack that firm ground required, which, for a historian's purpose, can be provided only by the authoritative and clearly outlined tenets of the respective teachings.

Though Buddhism and Christianity differ from each other in their respective views about world and self, about the meaning of life and min's ultimate destiny, yet they agree again in the ultimate postulates of all religious life. For both religions proclaim man's responisbility for his actions and the freedom of moral choice; both teach retribution for all deeds, and believe in the perfectibility of the individual. "You may be perfect as your Father in Heaven is perfect" (Matth. 5, 48), says Jesus. And the Buddha summirizes the essence of his ethics in the words: "To shun all evil, to practise what is good, to cleanse one own heart: that is the teaching of the Enlightened Ones."*

* Dhammapada, verse 183. ——From The Wheel Publication No. 16, Buddhist Publication Society, Kandy, Ceylon.

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BODHIPAKKHIYA DĪPANĪ

THE MANUAL OF THE FACTORS LEADING TO ENLIGHTENMENT

By

Mahāthera Ladi Sayadaw, Aggamahāpaṇḍita, D. Litt.

(Translated from the Burmese by U Sein Nyo Tun, late of the Indian Civil Service)

CHAPTER IV

THE FOUR IDDHIPĀDĀS

I shall now give a brief description of iddhipādās.

Ijjhanam iddhi.

(ijjhanam: completeness; iddhi: completeness)

(The state of reaching completeness or perfection.)

(Note:—The PTS Dictionary says: "There is no single word for *iddhi*, as the idea is unknown in Europe. The main sense seems to be potency."—Translator.)

In the Buddha Sāsana there are five iddhis. They are:—

- 1. Abhiññeyyesu dhammesu abhiññāsiddhi,
- 2. Pariññeyyesu dhammesu pariññāsiddhi,
- 3. Pahātabbesu dhammesu pahānāsiddhi,
- 4. Sacchikātabbesu dhammesu sacchikiriyāsiddhi,
- 5. Bhāvetabbesu dhammesu bhāvanā-siddhi.
- 1. Completion of or perfection in acquiring special knowledge in those things in which special knowledge should be acquired, things such as rūpa (material phenomena), nāma (mental phenomena);
- 2. Completion of or perfection in acquiring full understanding in those things in which full understanding should be acquired, things such as dukkha saccā (the Noble Truth of Suffering);
- 3. Completion of or perfection attained in the task of abandonment of those things that should be abandoned, things such as samudaya saccā (the Noble Truth of the Cause of Suffering);

- 4. Completion of or perfection attained in the task of realization of those things that should be realized, things such as nirodha saccā (the Noble Truth of the Cessation of Suffering);
- 5. Completion of or perfection attained in the task of development or cultivation of those things that should be developed or cultivated, things such as magga saccā (the Noble Truth of the Path leading to the Cessation of Suffering).

These are the five essential iddhis within a Buddha Sāsanā.

Abhiñāsiddhi means: the completion of the task of knowing analytically the number and meaning of the paramattha dhammas (ultimate truths) which one had no knowledge of while one was beyond the pale of a Buddha Sāsanā. A thorough knowledge of the Abhidhammattha Sangaha (a resume of all the essential doctrines of the Abhidhamma) amounts to Abhiñāsiddhi.

Pariñāsiddhi means: the completion of acquiring full understanding of dukkha saccā (the Noble Truth of Suffering) either through a knowledge of their lakkhaṇa (characteristics), rasa (functions), paccupaṭṭhānas (manifestations), and padaṭṭhāna (proximate causes), or through a knowledge of the three chracteristics of anicca (impermanence), dukkha (suffering), and anatta (impersonality), which they possess.

Pahānāsiddhi means: the completion of the task of destroying the kilesas (defilements) which are samudaya saccā (the Noble Truth of the Cause of Suffering). In this book, since the main emphasis is placed on the attainment of the lowest class of Sotāpannas, namely the 'Bon-sin-san' Sotāpannas, and not on the higher classes of ariyas (Noble Ones), the completion of the task of destroying sakkāya-diţthi (Personality-belief) is pahānāsiddhi. The task of dispelling

vicikicchā (sceptical doubt) is comprised within the task of destroying sakkāya-diţthi.

Sacchikiriyāsiddhi means: the completion of the task of realizing nirodha saccā (the Noble Truth of the Cessation of Suffering) both bodily and mentally. This task consists of the suppression and destruction of the kilesas (defilements).

Bhāvanāsiddhi means: the development of the three sikkhās (Trainings) of sīla (Morality), samādhi (Mental Concentration) and paññā (Wisdom), until the attainment of lokuttara magga saccā (Supramundane Path leading to the Cessation of Suffering).

If the iddhis be classified according to the order of the visuddhis, the fulfilment of catupārisuddhi sīla in sīla visuddhi constitutes four iddhis. In citta visuddhi, the fulfilment of the eight samāpattis together with parikamma samādhi (Preparitory Concentration) and upacāra samādhi (Neighbourhood Concentration) as the case may be constitutes eight iddhis. The fulfilment of the five lokiya abhiñās (mundane Higher Spiritual Powers), such as iddhividha abhiñāā (Supernormal Powers), constitutes five iddhis. In the paññāvisuddhis the fulfilment of diţthi visuddhi constitutes one iddhi. In this way, further iddhis may also be recognised.

Here ends the discussion of iddhis within the Sāsanā.

Iddhipāda:—

Iddhiyā pādo iddhipādo (iddhiyā: of attaining completion or perfection; pādo root or basis. The root or basis of attaining completion or perfection. Hence it is called iddhipāda.)

There are four kinds of iddhipādas. They are:—

- 1. Chandiddhipādo—chanda;
- 2. Vīriyaddhipādo—vīriya;
- 3. Cittiddhipādho—citta;
- 4. Vīmamsiddhipādo— vīmamsa or paññā.

By chanda is meant desire to obtain, desire to attain, desire to reach, desire to fulfil, desire to accomplish. The desire indicated here

is extreme or excessive desire. There is nothing within or without one's personality that can obstruct that desire. It is the kind of desire that evokes the thought, "If I do not attain this accomplishment in this life, I shall not rest content. It is better that I die rather than that I shall not attain it."

It is the kind of desire nurtured by King Dhammasonda* of Benares during the time of the Kassapa Buddha,** when the king said to himself, "What use is there in my being king of Benares if I do not get the opportunity of hearing a discourse of the Kassapa Buddha?" The king, therefore, relinquished his throne and went out in search of one who could repeat to him a discourse of the Kassapa Buddha, no matter though that discourse consisted of a short stanza only.

Such desire is appeased if it is fulfilled as in the case of King Bimbisāra,*** Visākhā, and Anāthapindika. It is only when there are faint indications that the desire can be attained but is not fulfilled that the mind becomes troubled, and thoughts arise that it is better to die than live without attaining the desire.

Examples of such desire existed also in King Temiya,**** King Hatthipāla,**** and kings, nobles, and rich men in the time of the Buddha who discarded their palaces, retinue and other luxuries to live the lives of Bhikkhus in the Buddha Sāsanā.

Vīriya means sammappadhāna vīriya together with its four characteristics. A person with this vīriya is infused with the thought that the aim can be attained by energy and effort. He is not discouraged even though it is said to him that he must undergo great hardships. He is not discouraged even though he actually has to undergo great hardships. He is not discouraged even though it is said to him that he must put forth effort for many days, months, and years. He is not discouraged even though he actually has to put forth effort for such long periods.

Those who are weak in vīriya recoil from their task when confronted with work requir-

^{*} Rasavāhinī (Jambūdīpuppatti-kathā)

^{**} Predecessor of Gotama Buddha.

^{***} Khuddaka-pāţha, 7. Tirokuţţa Sutta, p 8. 6th Syn. Edn. Khuddaka-pāţha Aţţhakathā, Tirokuţṭa Sutta Vannanā p 168. 6th Syn. Edn. Visākhā and Anāthapindika—Dhammapada Commentary Story relating to Verse 1.

^{****} Khuddaka Nikaya, Jataka Pali Book II; Mūgapakkha Jataka, p 149, 6th Syn. Edn. **** Khuddaka Nikaya, Jataka Pali Book I. Hatthipala Jataka, p 35I, 6 th Syn. Edn.

ing great energy and effort. They shrink when told that they will have to stay apart from friends and associates. They shrink from the prospect of the necessity to be frugal in sleep and food. They shrink from the prospect of long periods of concentration. They resemble 'white dogs that dare not venture into thickets.' White dogs are afraid to enter brushes of reeds that are no more than a cubit high because they think that the brushes might harbour leopards, tigers, and elephants.

Citta means: attachment to iddhis when one comes in contact with the Sāsanā and hears the Dhamma. It is attachment that is extremely ardent and strong.

Although one lives amidst the beauties and luxuries of the world, amidst acquired powers and fortunes, amidst the sacred books and the study of them, one is not allured, but one's mind is always turned towards the iddhis. One attains satisfation and tranquillity only when one's mind is absorbed in matters connected with the iddhis. It is like the absorption of the alchemist engaged in the transmutation of the baser metals into gold or silver. Such an alchemist has no interest in anything else but his alchemy. He forgets to sleep or eat, or whether he had slept or eaten. He does not notice anything when out walking. Citta is great absorption or attachment of this nature.

Vimamsa means: knowledge or wisdom that can clearly perceive the greatness of the sufferings of hell, and of the sufferings attendant on the round of rebirths. It is knowledge that can clearly perceive the advantages and benefits of the iddhis. It is knowledge that can dwell on the deep and difficult dhammas, and on their nature. A person who possesses such knowledge can no longer find pleasure in any worldly pursuit except the pursuit of the iddhis. He finds gratification only in the acquisition of deep and profound iddhis. The deeper and more profound the dhammas, the greater is his desire to attain them.

Those who are endowed with any one of these four *iddhipādas* can no longer, during this life, admit or plead inability and remain without putting forth effort in the establishment of *kāyagatāsati*, and the higher

stages of the Sāsanā such as citta visuddhi, diţthi visduddhi, etc. It is only those who have never possessed any one of these iddhipādas, and who cannot differentiate between the shallowness and profoundness of life, between superficiality and deepness of the dhamma, who admit or plead inability and remain without making any endeavour.

A person endowed with any one of these four *iddhipādas* can attain, according to his *pāramī*, the *iddhis* until he reaches *lokuttara* (supramundane) *iddhi*, either in this life or as a *deva* in the next life. The cases of those endowed with two, or three, or four, *iddhis* need no lengthy explanation.

In the cases of those persons who (far from possessing any of the *iddhis*) do not even possess any of the *iddhipādas*, they should attempt to acquire one or other of these pādas. They admit or plead inability only because they have not the desire to acquire the higher benefits of the Sāsanā, such as the satipaṭṭhānas. They should regard this very admission of inability as a highway to the Apāyalokas. Thus, they should study, think and ponder, over the Suttanta discourses that can arouse chanda. They should approach a teacher who can arouse chanda and rely on him.

Hence did the Buddha say:

Chandiddhipādam bhāveti, Vīriyiddhipādam bhāveti, Cittiddhipādam bhāveti, Vīmamsiddhipādam bhāveti.*

(One should put forth effort to develop chanda; one should put forth effort to develop vīriya; one should put forth effort to develop citta; and one should put forth effort to develop vēmamsa.)

Some persons, far from attaining the iddhis, do not even try to attain the iddhipādas. If they do not possess chanda, they do not even know that it is necessary to acquire chanda. They are persons who admit and plead inability and defeat. The same is true in the cases of vīriya, citta, and vīmamsa.

Steady application of the mind to kāyagatāsati amounts to setting up pāda. Studying the anecdotes dealing with samvega,** applying oneself to dhutanga*** and such other practices of the dhamma, is setting up vīriya.

^{*} Samyutta Nikāya, Cāpāla-vagga, Samatta Sutta, p. 224, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{**} Samvega: Dread caused by the contemplation on the miseries of this world.

^{***} Dhutanga: Ascetic practice.

paññā-visuddhis beginning with ditthi-visuddhi,* the three anupassanāñāṇas**, the ten vipassanā-ñāṇas***, the four ñāṇas**** and phala-ñāṇas,**** and the nineteen paccavekkhana-ñānas.*****

This shows how the five indrivas occur together.

It is now proposed to show where each of these indrivas forms predominant factors.

> Kattha saddhindriyam datthabbam? Catūsu sotāpattivangesu ettha saddhindriyam datthabbam.*****

(Where should one look for saddhindriya? One should look for it in the four constituents of sotāpatti.)

This means that saddhindriva predominates in the four constituents of sotāpatti. These four constituents are:—

- 1. Unshakeable faith in the noble qualities of the Buddha, qualities such as araham, sammāsambuddho, etc.
- 2. Unshakeable faith in the noble qualities of the Dhamma, qualities such as svākhāta, etc.
- 3. Unshakeable faith in the noble qualities of the Samgha, qualities such as suppațipanna, etc.

4. Completely or perfectly endowed with the padațihānas (proximate causes) of lokuttarā-samādhi, i.e., sīlavisuddhi (Purification of Virtue).

These are the four factors that ensure the attainment of sotāpatti-magga-ñāṇa (Knowledge pertaining to the Path of the Stream Winner) within the compass of this life.

In the passage, "Buddhaavecca pasādena question, "aveccapasāda" means "unshakeable faith." It is the *saddhā* of those who have attained upacāra-samādhi (access concentration) while reflecting on of the Buddha. noble qualities the "Upacāra samādhi" means steady and fixed attention achieved while reflecting on the noble qualities of the Buddha (such as araham) just as in the case of those who have attained the samāpattis in the jhānas. When one sees such steady and fixed attention, one must know that saddha's control is predominant. Such a person is one who attains mastery over his mind in the matter of faith in the noble qualities of the Buddha. The same is true in regard to the noble qualities of the Dhamma and the Saṁgha.

"Foundation of lokuttara samādhi, i.e. sīla-visuddhi" means, ājī vatthamaka nicca

- * (1) Purification of View, (2) Purification by Overcoming Doubt, (3) Purification by Knowledge and Vision of What is and What is not Path, (4) Purification by Knowledge and Vision of the Way, (5) Purification by Knowledge and Vision.
- ** (1) Aniccānu passanā (Contemplation of Impermanence).
 - (2) Dukkhānupassanā (Contemplation of Suffering). (3) Anattānu passanā (Contemplation of Impersonality).

*** The ten Insight-Knowledges are:

(1) Sammasana-ñāṇa (Insight into the three characteristics of existence).

- (2) Udayabbayanu passanā-ñāņa (Insight into rising and passing away of phenomena).
- (3) Bhangānu pussanā-ñāņa (Insight into passing away).
- (4) Bhayānu passanā-ñāna (Insight into fearful condition).
- (5) Adinavānu passanā-ñāņa (Insight into faulty condition).
- (6) Nihbidānu passanā-ñāṇa (Insight into wearisome condition).
- (7) Muccitu-kumyatā-ñāṇa (Insight arising from desire to escape).
- (8) Paţisankhānu passanā-ñāṇa (Insight arising out of further contemplation).
- (9) Sankhāru pekkhā-ñāṇa (Insight arising from equanimity).
- (10) Anuloma-ñāṇa (Adaptation-Knowledge).
- **** Knowledges of the Four Holy Paths. ***** Knowledges of the Four Holy Fruitions.

***** Paccavekkhana-ñāṇa: Reviewing Knowledges.

He reviews the path in this way. 'So this is the Path I have come by'. Next he reviews the Fruition after that in this way 'This is the blessing I have obtained'. Next he reviews the defilements that have been abandoned "These are the defilements abandoned by me". Next he reviews the defilements still to be eliminated by the three higher paths. 'These are the defilements still remaining in me.' Lastly he reviews the deathless Nibbana in this way 'This is the state (Dhamma) that has been penetrated by me as object.' So the noble disciple who is a Stream Winner has five kinds of revewing. And as in the case of the Stream Winner, so also in the case of the Once-returner and Non-returner. has no reviewing of remaining defilements. So all the kinds of reviewing total nineteen.

——Visuddhimagga (Vol. II), p. 316, 6th Syn. Edn.

Please see Nanamoli's Visuddhimagga, p. 790. ***** Samyutta Nikāya, Mahāvagga, 4. Indriya Samyutta, 8. Daţthabba Sutta, p. 172, 6th Synod Edition. Samyutta Nikāya, Mahāvagga, II. Sotāpatti Samyutta, Dhammadinnā Sutta, p. 356, 6th Synod Edition.

sila (Morality ending with Right Livelihood as the eighth precept) which can enable one to attain lokuttara samādhi in this very life. When that sīla is unbroken and pure, it is free from the defilements of tanhā (craving), māna (conceit), and ditthi (wrong view), and as such one must understand that saddhā is prominent in that sīla. Inability to observe the requirements of the sīla is called "breaking" it. Although the sīla may be technically unbroken, if it is observed amidst ordinary worldly conditions, it is said to be "impure." In accordance with the saying "the worth of a bull can be known only on the ascent from the bed of a stream to the banks," lay persons and Bhikkhus who profess to be followers of the Buddha can know whether or not the turbulance and distractions latent in their minds have disappeared, i.e. whether or not they have obtained mastery over their minds, only when they arrive at these constituents.

Kattha vīriyindriyam daţţhabbam?
Catūsu sammappadhānesu ettha vīriyindriyam daţṭhabbam.*

(Where should one look for vīriyindriya? One should look for it in the four constituents of sammappadhāna.)

Lay persons and Bhikkhus who profess to be followers of the Buddha can know whether or not the dissettlement and turbulence of their minds in the matter of vīriya have disappeared and whether or not they are thus persons who have obtained mastery over their minds, only when they come to the four constituents of sammap-padhāna.

"Let my skin remain, let my sinews remain, let my bones remain, let my blood dry up, I shall not rest until the realm of sakkāya-diţţhi, the realm of the duccaritas, and the apāyasamsāra, that are in my personality, are destroyed in this life." This is the singleness of determination and effort in sammappadhāna. It is the effort of the same order as the Venerable Cakkhupāla's.** When one encounters such determination and effort, one must recognise in it the predominating control of vīriya over the mind. In the matter of vīriya, the dissettlement and turbulence of the mind have

disappeared in such a person, and he is one within the Buddha Sāsana who has obtained mastery over his mind.

Kattha satindriyam datthabbam?
Catūsu satipatthānesa ettha satindriyam datthabbam.***

(Where should one look for satindriya? One should look for it in the four satipat-thānas.)

Lay persons and Bhikkhus who profess to be followers of the Buddha can know whether or not the dissettlement and turbulence of their minds in the matter of sati (mindfulness) have disappeared, and whether or not they are thus persons who have obtained mastery over their minds, only when they arrive at the four constituents of the satipatthana. If the attention can be kept fixed on any part of the body, such as out-breadth and in-breadth, by the successful practice of kāyagatāsati for as long as is desired, then it must be recognised as the control exercised by sati. The dissettlement and turbulence of the mind of such a person disappeared. He is one who has obtained mastery over his mind.

> Kattha samādhindriyam daţṭhabbam? Catūsu jhānesu ettha sammādhindriyam daṭṭhabbam.****

(Where should one look for samādhindriya?

One should look for it in the four *jhānas*.)

If in the work of samatha, such as outbreath and in-breath, the successful accomplishment in the least of upacāra samādhi bhāvanā (contemplation of access-concentration) is attained, and if thereby the nīvaraṇas such as kāmacchanda (Sesuous Desire) byāpāda (Ill-will), etc., which have continuously in the past samsāra been running riot in the mind, are removed, the attention of the mind on the objects of samatha becomes specially steady and tranquil. This must be recognised as arising out of the function of the predominant control exercised by samādhi. The dissetlement and disturbances of the mind in the matter of samādhi have disappeared from such an individual. He is one who has obtained mastery over his mind.

^{*} Samyutta Nikaya, Mahavagga, 4. Indriya Samyutta,

^{8.} Datthabba Sutta, p. 172, 6th Synod Edition.

** See the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. I-No. 2, p. 13.

^{***} Samyutta Nikāya, Datthabba Sutta, p. 176, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{****} Samyutta Nikāya, Mahāvagga Samyutta, 8. Daţţhabba Sutta, p. 172, 6th Synod Edition.

Kattha paññindriyam datthabbam? Catūsu ariyasaccesu ettha paññindriyam datthabbam.*

(Where should one look for paññindriya? One should look for it in the Four Noble Truths.)

Among persons who encounter a Buddha Sāsanā, knowledge of the Four Noble Truths is of supreme value. Only when this knowlege is acquired can they obtain release from the realm of sakkāyadiţihi, and that of the duccaritas, and from the apāya samsāra. Hence, in order to acquire a knowledge of the Four Noble Truths, they attempt in the least to obtain insight into the six dhātus (or basic constituent elements) of pathavi, apo. tejo, vāyo, ākāsa and viññāņa,** or insight into their fleeting and unstable nature—how they do not last for more than the twinkling of an eye at a time (so to say) and how they are continually being destroyed—through such methods of practice as studying memorising, reciting cogitating, listening, discussing, questioning, practising insight exercises, and contemplating. If a clear insight is obtained into these six elements, there is no necessity for special practice with regard to the remaining dhammas.*** If the nature of anicca (Impermanence) can be clearly realised, the realisation of anatta (Impersonality) follows as a matter of course.****

The realisation of the nature of dukkha can be accomplished in its entirety only when one attains the stage of arahatta phala (Fruition of Holiness).

Thus, after putting forth effort for lengthy periods, when insight is obtained into the nature of the six elements both within and without oneself, as well into the nature of their Impermanency, fixity of attention on them is achieved. This must be recognised as arising out of the predominant control exercised by paññā. The unreliability that had been a feature of one's mind throughout past infinite samsāra gradually disappears.

Here, "unreliability of one's mind" means the perception of permanency in things that are impermanent, of happiness in suffering, of pleasantness in loathsomeness, of self in non-self, of individuals in non-individuals, of beings in non-beings, of human in non-humans, of devas, sakka and brahmās in non-devas, non-sakka, and non-brahmās, of women, men, bullocks, buffaloes, elephants, horses in non-women, non-men, non-bullocks, non-buffaloes, non-elephants, and non-horses. Freedom from unreliability means perceiving the true reality after having obtained mastery over the mind within the Buddha Sāsanā.

If dukkha-saccā or the Noble Truth of Suffering, be clearly perceived, it follows as a matter of course that the other three saccās can also be clearly perceived. In the perception of these four Truths, the way that puthujjanas perceive them is known as anubodha, while the way of the ariyas is known as paţivedha. Anubodha knowledge is like seeing a light at night but not the fire. Although the fire cannot be directly seen, by seeing the reflected light one can know without doubt that there is a fire. Seeing the fire directly is like paţivedha knowledge.

Saddhindriyam bhāveti, Virindriyam bhāveti, Satindriyam bhāveti, Samādhindriyam bhāveti, Pañnindriyam bhāveti.****

The meaning of these Pāļi passages uttered by the Buddha is that the five indrivas (mental faculties) should be practised and developed in order to facilitate the great work of samatha and vipassanā.

The aggregate that we call the body (khandhā) of a person who has not developed these five indriyas is like a country without a ruler or king. It is like the forests and mountains inhabited by wild tribes where no administration exists. In a rulerless or kingless country there is no law. There, the people are unrestrained. Like animals, the strong prey on the weak. In the same way, the mind of a person who has not developed the five indriyas is distracted, and runs riot with defilements. Just as a person possessed by evil spirits cannot bear to hear the sound of such verses as 'itipiso' or 'hetu paccayo', when persons without developed indriyas

^{*} Samyutta Nikāya, Mahāvagga Samyutta, 8. Datthabba Sutta, p. 172, 6th Synod Edition...

^{** (1)} Élement of Extension, (2) Element of Liquidity or Cohesion, (3) Element of Kinetic Energy, (4) Element of Motion or Support, (5) Element of Space, (6)) Consciousness-elements.

^{***} Such as Khandhā and Āyatana, etc.

^{****} Khuddaka Nikāya, Udana Pāļi, Meghiya-vagga, Meghiya Sutta, p. 120, 6th Synod Edition.

^{****} Samyutta Nikāya, Mahāvagga Indriya Samyutta, 6. Sūkarakhatā-vagga, 8. Sukarakhatā Sutta, p. 205 6th Syn. Edn.

hear talks connected with the cause of contentment (paccaya santosa) or with the practice of mental development (bhāvanā-rambha), they quickly discover antithetic criticisms. In them, the desire to exert themselves in the work of samatha and vipassanā never arise.

On the other hand, the khandhā of a person who develops the five indriyas resembles a country ruled by a just and lawful king. It resembles the towns and hamlets of the majjhima desa (mid-country) where governmental administration exists. Such a person is not disturbed by the variegated theories of various persons. He is confirmed in the sole way of the Buddha's teachings. When such a person hears talks connected with the cause of contentment, or the practice of mental development, his mind is clear and cool. He is confirmed in the desire to exert himself in the work of samatha and vipassanā.

In this way, the arising of two kinds of desires in this world is not the work of beings or individuals, but depends on the existence or otherwise of development of the five indrivas. If there is no development of the indriyas, one kind of desire arises. If there is development of the indrivas, that desire disappears and a new kind of desire invariably appears. The more the development of the indrivas proceeds, the more does this new desire increase and gather strength. When all the five indrivas are set up, the desire for the Paths and the Fruits will immediately appear. Thus must beings develop the five indriyas in order to raise pakati saddhā, vīriya, sati, samādhi and paññā (which are insignificant) to great heights.

CHAPTER VI

THE FIVE BALAS (OR BALĀNIS)

Bala is defined as:

Paţipakkha dhamme baliyantiti balāni.*
(Suppresses opposition. Hence called bala.)

The Pāli texts say:

Akampanatthena balāni.**

(Whenever opposition is encountered, there is fearless firmness. Hence called bala.)

As in the case of the *indrivas*, there are five balas, viz:

- 1. Saddhā.
- 2. Vīriya,
- 3. Sati,
- 4. Samādhi,
- 5. Paññā.

They are five generals or five commanders for the purpose of destroying the kingdom of sakkāyadiṭṭhi (Personality-belief). They are the five strengths that serve as reliance for Bhikkhus and layfolk in the Buddha Sāsanā.

As in the case of saddhindriya, saddhā is of two kinds, viz:

- 1. Pakati saddhā, and
- 2. Bhāvanā saddhā.

Pakati saddhā which has no development through specific practice, associates with taṇhā according to circumstances, and can thus produce only the pakati kusala kammas of dāna, sīla, etc. It cannot overcome taṇhā with strength. On the other hand, taṇhā keeps pakati saddhā under its power.

This is how tanhā keeps pakati saddhā under its power. The Pāļi texts mention (as clearly as exist the sun and moon in the heavens) four ariya vamsa dhammas.***
They are:

- 1. Being easily satisfied with food,
- 2. Being easily satisfied with clothing,
- 3. Being easily satisfied with dwelling place,
- 4. Finding pleasure and enjoyment in the work of bhāvanā.

They constitute the realm of saddhā. In the present-day world, this great kingdom of saddhā lies hidden and submerged. Today, beings take pleasure and enjoyment in material things (paccayāmisa); they take pleasure and enjoyment in worldly rank, dignity, and honour (lokāmisa); they take pleasure and enjoyment in the attainment of the pleasant life, in worldly riches, and in power and dominion ((vaṭṭāmisa); and thus is the great kingdom of taṇhā established as clearly as the great ocean round the island. This shows the weakness of pakati saddhā in this world.

Ariyavamsa Sutta, p. 336, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{*} Paramattha Dīpanī, Sangaha Mahā-tīkā by Ledi Sayadaw, page 299, Kawimyethman Press, Rangoon. ** Anguttara Nikāya, Ekaka Nipātaţţhakathā, 18. Apara accharāsanghāta-vagga-vannanā, p. 388, 6th Syn. Edn. Traditional practice of the Noble Ones. Anguttara Nikāya, Catukka Nipāta. 1. Paţhama-pannāsaka, 8

It is bhāvanā saddhā, which has its genesis in the successful practice of kāyagatā sati, such as out-breath and in-breath until the disappearance of the dissettlement and distraction of the mind, that can dispel taṇhā which takes pleasure and enjoyment in the three kinds of āmisa. It is this bhāvanā saddhā that can save Bhikkhus and layfolk, who are in the course of being drowned and submerged in the ocean of the three taṇhās, and enable them to reach the island haven of the kingdom of saddhā consisting of the four ariya vaṁsa dhanmas. In the matter of the bodhipakkhiya-dhammas, it is this saddhā that should be acquired.

Of the two kinds of vīriya, pakati vīriya which has no development practice, associates with kosajja (laziness) according to occasion and produces the pakati kusala kammas of dāna, sīla, the study of the sacred texts, etc. This pakati vīriya cannot dispel kosajja. On the other hand, it is kosajja which controls pakati vīriya and keeps it under subjection. This is how kosajja subdues pakati vīriya.

When beings encounter a Buddha Sāsanā, they acquire the knowledge that in the past infinite samsāra they have been the kinsfolk of sakkāyadiţthi, the duccaritas, and the apāya lokas. The sacred Pāļi texts clearly prescribe the method of the ariya vamsa, which consists of dispelling kosajja (laziness) and devoting the whole time to bhāvanārāma (delight in meditation) till release from such a state is attained.

The act of dispelling kosajja may be thus described. Having equipped oneself with the sikkhās (Trainings—which are the Buddha's heritage) and which one undertook in the sīmā (ordination hall) at the time of becoming a Bhikkhu, sikkhās such as the undertaking-

rukkhamūla senāsanam nissāya pabbajjā, tattha teyāva jīvam ussāho karaņīyo.* and in accordance with such sikkhās, if one makes trees and bushes in the forests as one's dwelling place,

lives only on alms-food one gathers on alms-round, does not associate with other persons, observes the *dhutangas* (ascetic practice) steadfastly, and practises kāyagatā sati scrupulously, these are acts of vīriya that dispel the akusala kammas (unwholesome volitional actions) arising out of kosajja. They are acts comprised within the realm of vīriya.

This realm of *vīriya* remains obscure and is unknown in the present-day world. Today, although Bhikkhus are aware that they belong to that class of beings possessed of sakkāyaditthi, the duccaritas, and the liability to rebirth in the apāya lokas, they live permanently in dwelling places constructed within towns and villages by dāyakās (or donors), they take pleasure and enjoyment in the receipt of large gifts and benefits, they are unable to discard the society of other people, etc., all of which acts are comprised within the realm of kosajja and this realm of kosajja is as conspicuous as the sea which has inundated an island. shows the weakness of pakati vīriya.

It is only bhāvanā vīriya, such as, being satisfied with the minimum of sleep, being always alert and active, being fearless, being bold and firm in living alone, being steadfast in mental advertence, that can dispel kosajja. In the matter of the bodhipakkhiya dhammas, it is this bhāvanā vīriya that should be acquired.

The detailed meaning of the balas of sati, samādhi, and paññā may be known by following the lines of explanation outlined above. Here, I shall give just a concise explanation.

The antithesis of sati is the akusala kamma called mutthasacca. Mutthasacca means inability to become absorbed in the work of samatha-bhāvanā—such as in kāyagatā sati—or in the work of vipassanā bhāvanā, inability to concentrate, inability to control one's mind, and the wandering of thoughts to objects other than the object concentrated on. The pakati sati that one possesses in its natal state from birth cannot dispel mutthasacca. It is only bhāvanā sati that can dispel it.

The antithesis of samādhi is the akusala kamma of vikkhepa** (restlesness of mind). It consists of the inability to concentrate, and of unquietness and restlessness of mind in the work of bhāvanā manasikāra. It is the arising of thoughts on objects other than the object of concentration. It is the inability

——Vinaya Piţaka, Vol I. Mahākhandhaka, 64. Cattāro Nissayā, p. 133, 6th Synod Edition. Wandering thoughts or idle fancies.

^{*} The Going Forth by depending on the foot of a tree as an abode; thus, they undertake the tree dweller's practice their whole lives.

to control the mind and keep its attention fixed on one object. Pakati samādhi cannot dispel that akusala kamma of vikkhepa. Only bhāvanā samādhi can dispel it.

The antithesis of paññā is the akusala kamma of sammoha*. It consists of ignorance, lack of clarity, mistiness, and absence of light of the mind. It is the darkness that surrounds the mind. This sammoha cannot be dispelled by pakati paññā, nor by pariyatti paññā which may comprise a knowledge of the whole of the Ti-Piţakas. It is only bhāvanā paññā that has set up kāyagatā sati which can gradually dispel sammoha.

This shows the meaning of the five paţipakkha akusala dhammas coupled with their respective balas.

The five paţipakkha akusala dhammas are: (1) tanhā, (2) kosajja, or laziness, or inability to take pains, or lack of fearlessness in the work of the paţipatti, (3) muṭṭhasacca (4) vikkhepa, and (5) sammoha. The five dhammas that can counteract and dispel these akusala dhammas are called bala. If any one of these five balas is weak and unable to dispel the respective paṭipakkha dhamma,** work in samatha and vipassanā cannot be very successful as far as Neyya individuals are concerned.

Hence, at the present day, some persons can emerge out of the realm of tanhā because of their strength in saddhā bala. They are rid of the attachments to paccaya āmisa and worldly dignities and honours. But since they are deficient in other four balas, they are unable to rise above stage of santuṭṭhi (state of being contented).

Some persons can emerge out of the realm of tanhā and kosajja because they are strong in saddhābala and vīriya bala. They are constant in the observance of the santosa dhamma***, in residence among hills and forests, and in the practice of the dhutangas. (ascetic practices). But because they are weak in the other three balas, they are unable to practise kāyagatā sati, or do the work of samatha and vipassanā.

Some persons are strong in the first three balas and thus can rise up to the work of kāyagatā sati. They achieve concentration in out-breath and in-breath, or in the bones of the body. But since they are deficient in the other two balas, they cannot rise up to the work of the Jhānas and vipassanā.

Some persons can rise up to the attainment of *Jhāna samāpatti* because they are strong in the first four *balas*, but since they are weak in *paññā bala*, they cannot rise up to the work of *vipassanā*.

Some persons are strong in paññā bala. They are learned in the Dhamma and the Piţakas. They are wise in the paramatha dhammas (ultimate realities). But because the back is broken in the four other balas, they cannot emerge from the realm of taṇhā. kosajja, muṭṭhasacca and vikkhepa. They live and die within the confines of these akusalas. In this way, whenever one is deficient in any one of the balas, one cannot emerge out of the realm of the respective paṭipakkha.

Of the five balas, vīriya bala and paññā bala are also iddhipāda. Hence, if these two balas are strong and co-ordinated, it does not happen that one cannot rise up to the work of vipassanā because of the weakness of the other three balas. As illustration, consider the case of the five crores and five lakhs of householders in Sāvatthi city during the Buddha's time who obtained release from worldly ills.

People who do not know the functions of the iddhipādas, the indriyas, and the balas, do not know why their desires are weak, and what paṭipakkha assails them. They do not know what dhammas they have to set up, and the desire to set them up never arises. It is thus that the ariya vamsa dhammas are on the verge of disappearance at the present day.

I shall give an illustration. There is a species of bull called *usabha*. It is a bull worth more than a thousand or ten thousand ordinary bulls. If the characteristics and

^{*} Sammoha: Delusion. ** Patipakkha: Opposite-

^{***} There are four kinds of santosa-dhamma. They are :-

^{1.} Cīvara s untosa: Contentment of robes;

^{2.} Pindapāta santosa: Contentment of food;

^{3.} Senāsuna santosa: Contentment of lodging; and

^{4.} Gilāna paccayu bhesajja parikkhāra santosa: Contentment of medicines. Samyutta Nikāya, Nidāna-vagga Samyutta, Kassapa Samyutta, p. 398, 6th Synod Edition.

Note.—Santosa and santutthi have the same meaning.

distinctive signs of that bull be recognised, and it be reared and nurtured properly, its limbs and marks will develop, and its strength and powers will increase. It can then guard even a hundred cattle pens from the incursions of lions and leopards. The cattle in the enclosures where such a bull exists will be free from major diseases and epidemics. People living in houses round the stockade, up to the seventh house in each direction, will be free from major diseases and epidemics. Like the bull Nandi Visāla* it can draw even five hundred carts at a time.

If the owner of such a bull is ignorant of all these, and if thus he does not rear and nurture it properly but keeps and tends it just as he would any other ordinary bull; if he employs it in ploughing and drawing carts in company with other bulls; its distinctive marks and limbs will fail to develop, and its strength and powers will remain dormant. It will thus live and die just like any other bull.

A knowing owner, however, will separate such a bull from the rest and keep it in a specially constructed shed. He will cover the floor of the shed with clean sand and will fix a ceiling to the roof. He will keep the shed clean of urine and excreta, and will feed the bull with paddy and pulses fit for human consumption. He will wash and bathe it, and apply cosmetics and unguents. In such a case, the distinctive marks and limbs will develop, and its strength and powers will increase enormously.

In this Buddha Sāsanā, Neyya individuals resemble the owner of the bull. The five balas of these Neyya individuals resemble the Usabha bull. The Satipatthana Vibhanga, Sammappadhāna Vibhanga, Iddhipāda Vibhanga, Indriya Vibhanga, Bojjhanga Vibhanga, and Magganga Vibhanga, of the Abhidhamma Piţaka, and the Mahāsatipaţthāna Sutta, Satipatthāna Samyutta, Sammappadhāna Samyutta, Iddhipāda Samyutta, Indriya Samyutta, Bala Samyutta, and Bojjhanga Samyutta of the Sutta Piţaka, resemble the worldly expository books which expound the distinctive signs, marks, and characteristics, of Usabha bulls, the methods how such bulls are to be reared and taken

care of, and the strength and powers that such bulls can attain if reared and nurtured properly.

Those Neyya individuals who through ignorance do not attempt to develop the five balas through the work of bhāvanā, and who thus remain satisfied with the lower attainments within the Sāsanā, such as dāna, sīla, and the study of pariyatti dhanma, resemble the ignorant owner of an Usabha bull who does not rear and nurture it properly.

In this world, there are many kinds of worldly undertakings. There are undertakings that can be accomplished by the strength of wealth, and there are undertakings that can be accomplished by the strength of knowledge. Even in the case of the cultivation of land, several kinds of strength are needed for its accomplishment. Sometimes the strength of wealth has to be garnered first, and at other times the strength of knowledge. Preparatory education and study constitute the garnering of the strength of knowledge.

Similarly, in the Buddha Sāsanā, there are five balas needed for the work of samatha, vipassanā, and the attainment of the Holy Paths and Fruits and Nibbana. It is only when these balas are first accumulated that the great works mentioned can be undertaken. Those persons who do not possess even one of the five balas cannot evoke a desire to undertake these great tasks. It does not occur to them that those great tasks can be accomplished in this life. They live forgetfully and without determination. If it is pointed out to them that the tasks can be accomplished, they do not wish to hear it. They do not know that such untoward thoughts occur to them because they are utterly impoverished in the balas. They lay the blame at the door of pāramī, or dvihetuka, or at the times.**

If, however, these people set up work in one of the satipaṭṭhàna, such as in ānāpāna sati, and if thereby they set up the three balas of saddhā, vīriya, and sati, such untoward thoughts will certainly disappear. It is inevitable that new wholesome thoughts must arise. This is because they have developed their strength.

^{*} Khuddaka Nikāya, Jātaka Pāļi, Ekaka Nipāta, Kurunga-vagga, 28. Nandi Visāla Jātaka, p. 7 6th Syn. Edn.

^{**} Some believe that these are times when the Holy Paths and the Fruits thereof can no longer be attained, and tend to defer effort till the pāramīs ripen. Some believe that persons of the present day are dvi-hetuka (i. e. beings reborn with two root-conditions, namely, Detachment and Amity), and as such they cannot attain the Holy Paths and the Fruits thereof in the present life.

This is how the strength is developed. Although such a person cannot as yet attain an insight into rūpa and nāma, the weak saddhā develops through the control exercised on paccayāmisa taṇhā and lokāmisa taṇhā. The weak vīriya develops through the control of kosajja. The weak sati develops through the control of muṭṭhasacca. Samādhi and paññā also gather strength through the control of vikkhepa and sammoha. When these balas develop it is inevitable that there must be a change in his mind.

A person who is afflicted with a major disease such as leprosy has no desire to take an interest in the ordinary affairs and undertakings of the world. But if after taking the proper medicines and treatment, the great sickness is gradually cured, and he is aroused from his apathy. This is inevitable. The group of five akusala kammas of tanhā, kosajja, mutthasacca, vikkhepa, and sammoha, resemble five major sickness.* In the Sasana the work of samatha and vipassanā bhāvanā resemble the affairs and undertakings of the world. The work of satipatthana, such as ānāpānas sati, resembles the taking of proper medicines and treatment. The rest of the comparison can be easily recognised.

Hence did the Buddha say:**

Saddhābalam bhāveti, Vīriyabalam bhāveti, Satibalam bhāveti, Samādhibalam bhāveti, Paññābalam bhāveti.

In this world, the strength of builders lie in good tools, such as awls, chisels, axes, knives, saws, etc. Only when he equips himself with such strength can he undertake to build monasteries, houses, etc. In the work of carpenters, blacksmiths, goldsmiths, artists, wood-carvers, etc., also, they have each their respective strength. Their strength consists of good tools and implements. Only with such can they accomplish their work.

Similarly, in the Sāsanā, the tools of samatha and vipassanā for the purpose of achieving magga ñāṇa and phala ñāṇa consists of bhāvanā saddhā. bhāvanā vīriya, bhāvanā sati, bhāvanā samādhi, and bhāvanā paññā, developed through one of the satipaṭṭhānas, such as ānāpānassati. These five balas are the strength of yogāvacaras.***

Hence, these five balas must be developed in order to undertake successfully the work of samatha and vipassanā within the Buddha Sāsanā. This is the meaning of 'bhāveti' in the stanza quoted above.

CHAPTER VII THE SEVEN SAMBOJJHANGAS

Catusaccadhamme suțthu bujjhatīti sambodhi. Sambodhiyā ango sambojjhango.

(Can clearly perceive the Four Noble Truths. Hence called sambodhi. N.B. This is lokuttara magga ñāṇa. Constituent of magga ñāṇa. Hence called sambojjhanga.)

Birds are first delivered from their mothers' wombs in the form of eggs. They are then delivered a second time by breaking the eggs. Thence, when they become full fledged with feathers and wings, they are delivered from their nests, when they can fly wherever they please. In the same way, in the case of yogāvacara individuals, they are first delivered from the distractions of mind which have accompanied them throughout infinite samsāra when they successfully set up kāyagatā sati, or accomplish the work of samatha. Secondly, when they attain vipassanā insight into rūpa, nāma, khandha, etc., they are free from coarse forms of ignorance. Finally, when the seven bojihangas develop and mature, they become full fledged in lokuttara magga ñāṇa, and attain the magga ñāṇa known as sambodhi, and thus they are delivered from the state of worldlings. They are delivered from the state of puthujjanas and attain the state of ariyas—of lokuttara or Nibbāna.

Samāahibalam bhāveti (develops samādhihala) and Paññābalam bhāveti (develops paññābala).

*** Yogāvacara: One who practises samatha or vipassanā or both.

^{*} Five major sicknesses are: -1. Leprosy, 2. Boil, 3. Tuberculosis, 4. Apoplexy, 5. Ecxema.

^{**} Idha bhikkhave bhikkhu (In this Sāsanā, the Bhikkhu) Saddhābalam bhāveti (develops saddhābala), Vīriyablam bhāveti (develops vīrivabala), Satibalam bhāveti (develops satibala),

There are seven bojjhangas, viz:

1. Sati sambojjhanga,

2. Dhammavicaya sambojjhanga,

3. Vīriya sambojjhanga, 4. Pīti sambojjhanga,

5. Passaddhi sambojjhanga,

6. Samādhi sambojjhanga.

7. Upekkhā sambojjhanga.

The sati cetasika (mental factor) called satipaţţhāna, satindriya, sati bala, sammā sati magganga, is sati sambojjhanga.

The paññā cetasika called vimamsiddhipāda, paññindriya, paññā bala, sammādiţhi magganga, are all dhammavicaya sambojjhanga. Alternatively, the five paññā visuddhis* beginning with diţhi visuddhi the three anupassanā ñāṇas, the ten vipassanā ñāṇas are called dhammavicaya sambojjhanga. Just as cotton seeds are milled, carded, etc., so as to produce cotton wool, the process of repeatedly viewing the five khandhas with the functions of vipassanā ñāṇa is called dhammavicaya.

The vīriya cetasikas called sammappadhāna, vīriyiddhipāda, vīriyindriya, vīriya bala, and sammā vāyāma magganga, are called vīriya sambojjhanga.

The joy and happiness that appears when the process of seeing and knowing increases after the setting up of satipatthāna, such as kāyagatā sati, is called pīti sambojjhanga.

The process of becoming calm and tranquil in both body and mind when the mental distractions, reflections, and thoughts abate, is called passaddhisambojjhanga. It is the cetasikas of kāya-passaddhi and citta-passaddhi.

The samādhi dhammas called sammādhindriya, sammādhi bala, and samādhi magganga, is called samādhi sambojjhanga. Alternatively, the parikamma samādhi, upacāra samādhi, appanā samādhi, or the eight sammāpattis, associated with the work of samatha and citta visuddhi, and suññata samādhi, animitta samādhi, appaņihita samādhi, associated with paññā visuddhi, are called samādhi sambojjhanga. The samādhi that accompanies vipassanā ñāṇa, or magga ñāṇa and phala ñāṇa, are called by such names as suññata samādhi, animitta samādhi and appaṇihita samādhi.

When the work in kammatthāna is as yet not methodical or systematic, much effort has to be exercised both in bcdy and mind; but when the work becomes methodical and systematic, one is freed from such effort. This freedom is called tatramajhatattā cetasika (mental factor of equanimity). It is upekkhā sambojhanga.

When a yogāvacara becomes endowed with these seven characteristics of sambodhi equally, he enjoys the joys and pleasures of a samana within the Sāsanā—joys and pleasures which are unequalled and unparallelled by any worldly joy—just as a universal cakka king**, lord of the four great islands and possessor of the seven jewels, enjoys unparallelled and unique ease and comfort.

Thus it is said in the Dhammapada:

Suññāgāram pavitthassa santacittassa bhikkhuno amānusī rati hoti sammā dhammam vipassato.

— Verse, 373.

Yato yato sammasati khandhānam udayabbayam, labhati pītipāmojjam amatam tam vijānatam.

— Verse, 374.

(The Bhikkhu who retires to a lonely abode and has a calm mind, experiences joy transcending that of men, as he clearly perceives the *dhamma*.

The formation and disintegration of whichever part of the body the Yogi contemplates, he experiences joy and happiness as he can thereby perceive the Deathless state (Nibbāna).

If the pleasure and joy experienced in vipassanā sukha which is complete with the seven characteristics of sambodhi be divided into 256 parts, one part of that joy and pleasure exceeds the worldly joys and pleasures of kings among humans, devas, and Brahmās—so great is the joy and pleasure inherent in the sambodhis. Hence also did the Buddha say:

"Sabba rasam dhammaraso jināti***", (The flavour of the dhamma exceeds all other flavours.)

*** Dhammapada, Verse, 354.

^{*} Please see footnote to Chapter V, ibid.

^{**} Universal Monarch Please see The Light of the Dhamma, Vol. VII, No. 1, p. 28.

There are stories wherein it is related that major diseases and ailments have been cured by the mere hearing* of the recitation of these seven characteristics of sambodhi. But, these diseases and ailments can be cured only when the hearers are fully aware of their meaning, and great and clear saddhā (faith) arises.

When these seven charcteristics of sambodhi are acquired in a balanced manner. the yogāvacara can rest assured that there is no deficiency in his kāyagatā sati. He can rest assured that there is no deficiency in his perception of anicca or anatta, and in his mental and bodily energy. Because his mind is set at rest in regard to these three factors, he experiences joy in the knowledge that he can now perceive the light of Nibbana which has never before appeared to him in the past infinite samsāra, even in his dreams. Because of that joy and ease of mind, his attention on the kammatthāna objects becomes extremely calm and steady, and upekkhā (equanimity) which is free from the anxieties and efforts for mindfulness, perception of anicca and anatta, and the necessity to evoke energy, arises.

All the above statements are made with reference to the stage at which the Sambojjhangas are in unison with one another and their respective functions are specially clear. As far as ordinary sambojjhangas are concerned, from the moment kāyagatā sati is set up, the *dhammas* such as sati are known as sambojjhanga.

When the Buddha said that the seven bojjhangas must be practised, as in: Satisambojjhangam bhāveti, viveka nissitam, virāga nissitam, nirodha nissitam, vossaggaparināmim.....upekkhā sambojjhangam bhāveti, viveka nissitam, virāga nissitam, nirodha nissitam, vossaggaparināmim,"** it is meant that in the ordinary course, the process of setting up kāyagatā sati (such as out-breath and in-breath) amounts to the setting up of the seven bojjhangas. For the distinctive and specific setting up of the bojjhangas, see the Commentary on the Bojjhanga Vibhanga.***

The meaning of the Pāli passage above is: "One should practise sati sambojjhanga which is dependent on the absence of all kinds of activities and anxieties, of lust and greed, or suffering attendant on the round of rebirths, and on the abandonment of the four substratum of upadhi.****

Viveka nissita, virāga nissita, nirodha nissita, mean, "having no leanings towards bhava sampatti**** and bhoga sampatti, ***** attempting to destroy the great realm of latent sakkāyadiţţhi in this very life, and thus is free from dependence on the round of rebirths." Vivatta nissita means, freeing oneself day by day from the attachments of sensuous passions, the meanings of bojjhanga, sambojjhanga, and sambodhi anga are identical.

CHAPTER VIII THE EIGHT MAGGANGAS

The definition of magga is:

Kilese mārentā nibbānam gacchanti etenāti maggo.

(These dhammas dispel the defilements such as sakkāyadiţţhi and thus enable one to reach Nibbana—end of apaya dukkha and vatta dukkha. Hence they are called magga.)

There are eight ingredients of magga, namely,

- 1. Sammā-diţţhi..Right View,
- 2. Sammā-sankappa..Right Thinking,
- 3. Sammā-vācā..... Right Speech,
- 4. Sammā-kammanta Right Action,
- 5. Sammā-ājīva..... Right Livelihood,
- 6. Sammā-vāyāma... Right Effort,
- 7. Sammā-sati......Right Mindfulness,
- 8. Sammā-samādhi...Right Concentration.
- * Please see the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. VII, No 1, p. 9. Samyutta Nikāya, Bojjhanga Samyutta, p. 12 6th Syn. Edn.
- ** Abhidhamma Pitaka, Vibhanga Pali, 10. Bojjhanga Vibhanga, p. 238. 6th Syn. Edn. *** Sammohavinodanī Aţţhakathā, 1. Suttanta-bhājanīya-vannanā, p. 296, 6th Syn. Edn.
- **** There are four kinds of upadhi. They are:—
 - 1. Kāmū padhi: attachment to sensuous pleasures; 2. Kilesupadhi: attachment to mind-defiling passions;
 - 3. Abhisankārū padhi: attachment to performance of merits etc; and
 - 4 Khanahūpadhi: Attachments to the five constituent groups of the body.
- ***** Attainment of happy planes of existence.

 ***** Attainment of wealth.

All these eight ingredients are present in lokuttara ñāṇadassana visuddhi (Supramundane Purification by Knowledge and Vision). In the preceding lokiya visuddhis (mundane Purifications), Sammā-vācā, Sammā-kammanta and Sammā-ājīva, are present only in sīla visuddhi (Purification of Virtue). They are not present in citta visuddhi (Purification of Consciousness), etc.

Hence, in the matter of the bodhipakkhiya dhammas, sīla visuddhi means viveka nissita and virāga nissita sīla in accordance with

"Sammāvācam bhāveti, viveka nissitam, virāga nissitam. nirodha nissitam, vossagga-pariņāmim.

Sammā-kammantam bhāveti, viveka nissitam, virāga nissitam, nirodha nissitam, vossaggapariņāmim.

Sammā-ājīvam bhāveti, viveka nissitam, virāga nissitam, nirodha nissitam vossagga-pariņāmim."*

It does not refer to sīla that has leanings towards bhava sampatti and dependency on the round of rebirths. The sīla visuddhi of those who have consciously given up attempts at attaining the Holy Paths and the Fruits in this life is not genuine ādibrahmacariyaka sīla**, and thus is not of the genuine bodhipakkhiya class. If effort be made, however, towards the attainment of Nibbāna in the next life, it can be pāramī sīla which is a part of vivaṭṭa-nissita-sīla.

Sammā-vācā. Sammā-kammanta, and Sammā-ājīva magganga are purely of the class of sīla and hence constitute genuine sīla visuddhi. They are also called the three virati cetasikas***.

Since it is the harbinger of paññā, it is included in the paññā category. There are three kinds of saṅkappa, namely nekkhama saṅkappa, abyāpāda saṅkappa, and avihimsa saṅkappa. Just as a person incarcerated in prison, or a person beseiged by enemy troops, or a person encircled by a forest fire, or a fish caught in a net, tank, or trap, or a bird caught in a cage, is absorbed (without being able to sleep or eat) in only one thought, that is in the attempt to eacape from these confinements, the attempts of those persons

who contrive with sammappadhāna vīriya to escape from the confinement of the old infinitely numerous uppanna akusala kammas and the new infinitely numerous anuppanna akusala kammas that are due to arise are called nekkhama sankappa magganga. It is the sort of sankappa which looks for the way to escape in this very life from the vaṭṭa-dukkha (round of rebirths).

The sankappa which associates with mettā jhāna is called abyāpāda sankappa. The sankappa which associates with karuṇā jhāna is called avihimsa sankappa. The sankappa which associates with the remaining jhānas is called nekkhama sankappa.

The four maggangas of sammā-diţţhi, sammā-vāyāma, sammā-sati, and sammā-sammā-sammā-sammā-sammā-sammā-bojjhanga.

Sammā-diţthi and sammā-sankappa are paññakkhandha. They constitute the paññā group. Khandha means group or aggregate. Sammā-vācā, sammā-kammanta, and sammā-ājīva are called sīlakkhandha. They constitute the sīla group. Sammā-vāyāma, sammā-sati, and sammā-samādhi are called sammādhik-khandha. They constitute the samādhi group.

The ājīvaṭṭhamaka sīla that is observed and kept with the pupose of destroying the great kingdom of diṭṭhi anusaya is lokiya sīlakkhandha maggaṅga. It is sīla visuddhi.

There are two kinds of ājīvaṭṭhamaka sīla, namely, sīla for layfolk, and sīla for the saṅghā. Abstention from the three kāya duccaritas and the four vacī duccaritas**** comprise the ajīvaṭṭhamaka sīla for layfolk. The atthaṅga uposatha sīla and the dasaṅga sīla are sīlas that refine or polish the ājīvaṭ-ṭhamaka sīla.

The observance of the 227 sikkhās laid down in the Vinaya Piţaka comprise the ājīvaţṭhamaka sīla for the saṅghā. These 227 sikkhās cover kāya kammas and vacī kammas, and are so classified in the Commentaries. The remaining sīla groups laid down in the Vinaya Piţaka constitute refinements to the ajīvaṭṭhamaka sīla.

^{*} Sammohavinodanī Aţţhakathā, 1. Suttanta-bhājanīya-vannanā, p. 305, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{**} Morality belonging to the principles or fundaments of moral life.

^{***} The three virati cetasikas are :—

Sammā-vācā, Sammā-kummanta, Sammā-ājīva.

^{****} Please see the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. VII. No. 2, p. 10.

There are stories wherein it is related that major diseases and ailments have been cured by the mere hearing* of the recitation of these seven characteristics of sambodhi. But, these diseases and ailments can be cured only when the hearers are fully aware of their meaning, and great and clear saddhā (faith) arises.

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- * Please see the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. VII, No 1, p. 9. Samyutta Nikāya, Bojjhanga Samyutta, p. 12 6th Syn Edn.
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arūpa lokas, they possess the liability to be reborn as ahetu duggati creatures such as dogs and pigs, whereas in the case of ariyas, they do not revert back to the stage of puthujjanas, but ascend with each rebirth to higher states of ariyas.

Thus, whether it be the lokas where rebirth takes place, or the status attained in each rebirth, the arivas do not regress, but proceed higher and higher from one loka to the next, or from one status to another, until after many rebirths and many worlds elapse they reach the highest loka and the highest status. when they discard the five aggregates called khandhā and cross over to anupādisesa nibbāna. The process by which this single path of ascent is traversed is called dhamma sota. They comprise sammā diţthi sota, sammā sankappa sota, sammā vācā sota, sammā kammanta sota, sammā ājīva sota, sammā vāyāma sota, sammā sati sota, and sammā samādhi sota.

Sammā diţthi sota means the establishment of the great kingdom of sammā diţthi which can perceive the light of the Four Noble Truths. This great kingdom of sammā ditthi is established in place of the great anusaya kingdom of sakkāyadiţthi.

It resembles the rising of the sun after the night is over, when the darkness is dispelled and the light is established. In the same way, the great kingdom of light of sammā ditthi remains established throughout many lives and many world-cycles until the attainment of anupādisesa nibbāna. The light increases and becomes more and more firmly established from one rebirth to another.

It also resembles a person born from his mother's womb without sight through cataracts covering both his eyes, who on coming across good medicines is cured of the cataracts and gains sight. From the moment the cataracts disappear, the view of the earth, mountains, sky, sun, moon, and stars, etc.. is opened to him and thereafter throughout his life.

In the same way, the sotāpanna ariyas gain the view of the three characteristics (ti-lakkhaṇa) and the Four Noble Truths. Just as the blind man in the illustration

above can see the sky, sun and moon, these ariyas can percieve the dhamma mentioned at their will. This is how sammā diļihi magga is established.

Sammā ditthassa sammā sankappo pahoti.*

(When sammā diţthi is established, sammā sankappa progresses.)

According to this, if sammā diţţhi is established, sammā sankappa, which consists of intention and design to escape from werldly ills, and to preserve others from destruction and suffering, becomes also established and thrives from one rebirth to another until the attainment of anupādisesa nibbāna. This is how sammā sankappa is established. The Commentary says: "Pahotīti vaḍḍhati" (Pahoti means vaḍḍhati, increase).

Sammā sankappassa sammā vācā pahoti.

If the intention and design to escape from worldly ills, and to see others in pleasure and ease, is established, speech free from the vacī duccaritas appear, and are progressively established. This is how sammā vācā is established.

Sammā vācassa sammā kammanto pahoti.

If speech free from the vācī duccaritas is established, acts free from kāya duccaritas appear, and are progressively established. This is how sammā kammanta is eatablished.

Sammā kammantassa sammā ājīvo pahoti.

When views, intentions, speech and acts become pure, the forms of livelihood also become pure, and one is free permanently from low and base forms of livelihood. This is how sammā ājīva is established.

Sammā ājīvassa sammā vāyamo pahoti.

When views, intentions, speech acts and livelihood become pure, energy or effort free from the duccaritas** and durājīva*** become permanently established. This is how sammā vāyāma is established.

Sammā vāyāmassa sammā sati pahoti.

Thus also does sammā sati magganga that has its roots in the work of sīla, samādhi, and paññā, become established from one rebirth to another. This is how sammā sati is established.

^{*} Samyutta Nikāya, Mahāvagga Samyutta Pāļi,

^{1.} Magga-sanyutta, 1. Avijjā vagga. 1. Avijjā, Sutta p. 2, 6th Syn. Ein.

^{**} Wrong doings.

^{***} Wrong livelihood.

Sammā satissa sammā samādhi pahoti.*

Thus also does sammā samādhi which has its roots in the work of sīla, samādhi, and paññā, and which possesses great control over the mind, become established. This is how sammā samādhi is established.

This is how the eight maggangas called dhamma sota become progressively established throughout many lives and many worlds form the moment a being attains the stage of sotāpanna and until he finally attains anupādisesa nibbāna.

Although from the moment kāyagatā sati is set up there is progress such as has been shown above, so long as the state of niyāma is not reached that being is not as yet an ariya, Sotāpatti magga is the starting point of ariya sota. As soon as beings reach sotāpatti magga, they enter the domain of ariyās. Hence it is said:

Sotam āditopajjimsu pāpunimsūti sotāpannā.

They are called sotapanna, as they reach ariya sota for the first time.

This ends the answer to the question, "Why are they called sotapānnas?"

Beings transcend the state of puthujjanas as soon as they reach the stage of ariyās. They are no longer worldlings or beings of the world. They have become beings of lokuttara. They are no longer beings subject to the suffering within the round of rebirths (vatta dukkha). They have become beings of Nibbāna. Throughout the series of many existences and many worlds, they

no longer emerge back again from the first stage of Nibbāna. They no longer possess the susceptibility to return to the ansuaya plane of sakkāya diţţhi, or to the state of puthujjanas. They are permanently established in the first stage of sa-upādisesa nibbāna, and throughout many lives and worlds they enjoy at will the pleasures of humans, devas, and brahmās.

For a detailed exposition see my "Catu Sacca Dīpanī", and "Paramattha Sankhitta."

These eight maggangas occur simultaneously to these ariyās only at the instant of the attainment of a Path or Fruition. With reference, however, to lokiya kusala kammas (mundane wholesome volitional actions), the three sīlakkhandha maggangas associate only with sīla kusala kammas. The three samādhikkhandha maggangas and the two paññakkhandha maggangas, however, associate with many kinds of kusala kammas.

Although the three sīlakkhandha maggaṅga associate only with sīla kusala kammas, they are firmly established in ariyās as avītikkama (non-contravention) throughout many lives and many worlds.

This ends the eight maggangas.

The pure dhammas involved in the thirty-seven bodhipakkhiya dhammas are: chanda, citta, tatra-majjhattatā, saddhā, passadhi, paññā, vitakka, vīriya, the three viratis, sati, pīti, and ekaggatā, and are fourteen** in number.

* Samyutta Nikāya, Mahāvagga Samyutta Pāļi,

1. Magga Samyutta, 1. Avijjā-vagga, 1. Avijjā Sutta, p. 2 6th Syn. Edn.

NEW APPRECIATION

SURREY, ENGLAND:

"The Light of the Dhamma is wonderful."

^{** 1.} chanda (desire), 2. citta (consciousness), 3. tatramajjhattatā, (equanimity), 4. saddhā (faith), 5. passadhi (tranquillity), 6. pañāā (wisdom), 7. vitakka (thought conception), 8. vīriya (effort), 9. sammā vācā (Right Speech), 10 sammā-kammanta (Right Action), 11. Sammā-ājīva (Right Livelihood), 12. sati (mindfulness), 13. pīti (joy), 14. ekaggatā (one-pointedness of mind).

THE PROBLEMS OF BUDDHISM

By

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Kolatenna Hermitage, Bandarawela

If a visitor to a Buddhist country like Burma and Ceylon studies the life of the Buddhists residing there, he will find that their problems are almost identical with those of most other people in the world. Food, clothing, shelter, employment, education, orderly government, fulfilment of civic duties and participation in the political and cultural life of the country are their basic needs, and their problem is how one is best to adjust oneself to the changing conditions of the modern world or halt the change.

The Buddhist in the West is ever anxious to study the Dhamma better and practise it better, so that he may propagate it by example and precept, teach directly and indirectly by his life the Theory and Practice of Buddhism. His constant problem is how to obtain from the Buddhist East the right type of Buddhist Literature, and not merely some propaganda material or little popular tracts repeating the same theme again and again. The usual popular tracts that he gets are scientifically of little value to him when he attempts to compare the Dhamma with modern thought and win new friends for Buddhism by pointing out to them the superiority of the Buddha-Dhamma over all modern science and philosophy or other religions.

The Buddhist in Eastern Europe like Poland and Czechoslovakia, and in those parts of Asia where socialism is built, is anxious to teach the wisdom of the Buddha in such a manner that even those who are at present wholly bent on constructing a socialist society and state first, before paying any attention to things spiritual, may feel that Buddhism would greatly help them even in building up socialism, for Buddhism begins where socialism ends. And of course, in the lands where the threat of communism makes all conservative Buddhists think how they could use the Dhamma to stem the tide of international revolutionary socialism, the

Buddhists are bent on defending their position by quoting the Word of the Enlightened One about the inequality of men owing to Kamma.*

What, then, are the real problems not of the Buddhists but of Buddhism, the problems which distinguish it from all other systems of thought? In order to discover the problems, we must abstract from the problems of individual Buddhists and Buddhist nations and find out what were the problems of Buddhism at the time of its origination more than 2,500 years ago. Now, what were the problems of Buddhism, the problems which the Buddha Himself and His first disciples and the early teachers of Buddhism set out to solve and which gave them the right of existence as distinct from other systems and communities following their own teachings?

The problems of the Buddha were indeed very clear and definite. When Prince Siddhattha became a homeless pilgrim, a wandering philosopher bent on the quest of the Path to Enlightenment about Ill and Liberation from III, the earliest Pāļi Texts formulate his problems thus: "What is the truth?" or "What is true?" and he is said to have been at that time before his Enlightenment one searching the truth and the highest good; in the Pali Texts he is called 'kimkusala-gavesi", which is paraphrased as "kimsaccam gavesi", and he speaks of himself in the Texts as one searching the incomparable, matchless path to Peace, the deathless, that is to say Nibbāna: anuttaram santivarapadam pariyesamāno, ajātam, anuttaram yogakkheman nibbānam pariyesamano.**

This truth or the true and the highest good and peace and bliss sought after by the Bodhisatta (the being bent on enlightenment), when found and realized was then called the Deathless, Amatam, that is to say, the element that is not subject to decay and death and rebirth. And when this deathless

^{*} Majjhima Nikāya, Uparipannāsa., Cūļakammavibhanga Sutta, p 243, 6th Syn. Edn. ** Majjhima Nikāya, Mūlapannāsa, Opamma-vagga, & Pāsarāsi Sutta, p. 221, 6th Synod Edition.

element was found and the highest good, the supreme peace and bliss had been finally realized and directly experienced in the morning of Enlightenment and experienced again and again at will in concentration, this condition was called Nibbana. Hence the problem of the Buddha has been first the realization of what is ill and unworthy of searching, and what is that not subject to any change and ill, and hence ought to be attained. When this goal has been once reached, there was no more any problem left for the Buddha: His only task was to teach all intelligent beings how they can also attain, under the guidance of the Buddha the same deathless element, the highest good, the true and abiding bliss and peace.

The very first disciples of the Enlightened One knew well how to state briefly the problem of Buddhism. It was one of the first five disciples, Assaji, who told it to the wandering philosopher *Upatissa*, who later became known as Sariputta, the foremost among the Great Disciples of the Master. To Upatissa's question: "What is the Teaching of the Master?" Assaji's reply was:— "The Great Sage, the Buddha, teaches the cause of all conditioned things, as well as the extinction of those things.*" The conditioned things are the elements of the Five Aggregates of experience and grasping, the Five Khandhas, our life and the world of our experience, or as it is so beautifully stated in the Sutta quoted above: wife and children, elephants and horses, gold and silver and similar things that are not lasting and yet are sought after by the igonorant worldling instead of the deathless element which ought to be the object of our search and research. The cause of the conditioned things is craving based on delusion. This is why the Buddha and His early disciples always briefly stated that the problem of Buddhism is Suffering and Extinction of Suffering. Suffering means: The world of our experience and object of grasping; extinction of suffering means: the attainment of Nibbana.

Now to define the problem of Buddhism as distinct and quite different from the statement of the problems of all other systems of thought, it is well to say that the Truth or the True discovered by the Buddha is frequently stated in the Four Pure Truths. The problems of Buddhism appear most clearly in these Four Pure Truths, and

nowhere else are they stated in this same lucid manner as in Early Buddhism: All elements of conditioned existence, the Five Aggregates of experience and grasping, that is to say bedily form and all physical or material phenomena; feeling, perception, volition, meantal formations and consciousness in the temporary manifestations as living beings, are impermanent, unsatisfactory, not-Self, hence causes of suffering. It is due to craving that the formation of new aggregates as new beings comes into existence; extinction of craving leads to enlightenment and direct knowledge of these things, which, in the highest form, means the attainment and knowledge of Nibbana; and the Pure Path of Purity of Morals, Mental Culture and direct knowledge or intuitive penetration of truth is the Method or Course for the Attainment of the Deathless, the highest good, matchless peace and bliss, that is to say, Nibbana.

All conditionally-arisen phenomena of existence and experience being impermanent, are unsatisfactory, hence not-solf, no self-contained essences but momentarily arising and conditioned processes. The process of repeated origination and conformation of the phenomena called the *Five Groups* or *Five Aggregates* is conditioned or caused by craving for sense-experience, continued existence or annihilation after death.

The extinction of craving, which comes about by the acquisition of direct knowledge about the true nature of the things means liberation from all Ill. The method leading to the self-realisation of liberation is the Pure Eightfold Path of Right Understanding, Right Thinking, Right Speech, Right Action, Right Livelihood, Right Effort, Right Mindfulness and Right Concentration of the purified mind that leads to the direct perception of truth and to the liberation from all craving and suffering. The real problem of Buddhism may be reduced to this: How to bring about the extinction of craving and delusion, how to apply these truths in our daily life, how to tread the path to enlightenment about the deathless element called Nibbāna?

The Teachings of Nibbana as well as all the other teachings of the Perfect One are based on the axiomatic truth, a direct knowlege and experience of the Perfect One and

^{*} Vinaya Piţaka, Mahā-vāgga, Mahākhandhaka, 14. Sāriputto-moggallāna-pabbajjā-kathā, P. 50, 6th Synod Edition.

His true disciples of that time, and conviction of the advanced student of Buddhism, that our present life is but a link in the chain of a cycle of rebirth caused or conditioned by delusion and craving. Enlightenment Buddhism means the direct knwledge and intuitive comprehension of this truth. If we once accept the fact of past lives, it is quite logical to accept a life after one's death so long as delusion and grasping last. It is yet an axiomatic turth of Buddhsim that grasping or craving is a real force, and this force is not dissipated at death, but is then at its height and becomes a link between this and the next life: according to the nature of this force, often called Kamma, our next birth takes place on levels and under conditions corresponding to our past craving, longing and actions, speech or thouthts. It is yet another axiomatic truth of Buddhism that out actions, speech and thoughts, as free voluntary acts, mould this force called Kamma, and rebirth is the final resultant of the accumulated sum of our actions. Direct knowledge and immediate perception of truth leads to the extinction of all delusion about life, hence new Kamma is no more created, and the result of past Kamma wears out with the last body and mind of the perfected one in his final existence in this world or another world.

The Buddha is a historical personage, who during this earthly life was called the Self-Enlightened One, the Compassionate Teacher of all intelligent beings. The Buddha attained his wisdem er Enlightenment after six years of research and experimenting with all the methods then known and practised in India. As a prince he had the highest education of that time, and during his six years of research he learnt all that was known about life in this world and in other worlds known to the experts in yoga. the highest self-realization of Enlightenment was attained by the All-Enlightened One only after his having given up the traditional methods of austerities and by following the Middle Path of Contemplation and Direct Perception of Truth by the Purified Mind.

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Publication of the Buddha Sāsana Samāgama originally founded in 1902.

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MAHĀGOPĀLAKA SUTTA

(GREAT DISCOURSE ABOUT COWHERDS)

-Suttanta Piţaka, Mūlapaņņāsa, p. 281, 6th Synod Edition.

(Translated by the Editors of "The Light of the Dhamma.")

Thus I have heard: On one occasion the Exalted One was staying at Sāvatthi at the Jetavana monastery of Anāthapindika. There the Exalted One addressed the Bhikkhus: "O Bhikkhus!" "Yes, Lord", answered those Bhikkhus to the Exalted One. The Exalted One delivered this discourse:

I

"Bhikkhus, a cowherd who has eleven defects is not qualified to look after a herd of cattle and make it prosperous. What are the eleven? In this world, a cowherd (1) is not coversant with $r\bar{u}pa$ (forms); (2) is not skilful in distinguishing the lakkhana (characteristics); (3) does not get rid of flies' eggs; (4) does not dress the sore; (5) does not make a smoke; (6) does not know the ford; (7) does not know whether water has been drunk or not; (8) does not know the path; (9) is not clever about grazing grounds; (10) milks dry; and (11) does not do special honour to those bulls who are the fathers and leaders of the herd. Bhikkhus, a cowherd who has these eleven defects is unable to look after the herd and make it prosperous.

"Bhikkhus, similarly, a Bhikkhu* who has eleven defects is not qualified to achieve growth, progress and full development in this dhamma-vinaya (Teaching cf the Buddha). What are the eleven? Bhikkus, in this Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu (1) is not conversant with $r\bar{u}pa$ (material qualities); (2) is not skilful in distinguishing the lekkhana (charateristics); (3) dccs not get rid cf flies' cggs; (4) does not dress the scre; (5) dces not make a smoke; (6) does not know the ford; (7) does not know whether water has been drunk or not; (8) does not knew the path; (9) is not clever about grazing grounds; (10) milks dry; and (11) does not pay special honours to those Bhikkhus who are of long standing, who have become Bhikkhus long ago, and who are the fathers and leaders of the order.

(1) And how, Bhikkhus, is a Bhikkhu not conversant whith $r\bar{u}pa$ (material qualities)?

In this Sāsanā. Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not understand as they really are, that all rūpas are the Four Great Primaries** and the material qualities derived from these four.

(I) Four Great Primaries, namely,

(1) the element of extension, (2) the element of cohesion or liquidity, (3) the element of kinetic energy. (4) the element of motion or support.

(II) The six bases, namely,

(5) the eye basis. (6) the ear basis, (7) the nose basis, (8) the tongue basis, (9) the body basis, (10) the heart basis.

(III) The two sexes, namely,

(11) the male sex. (12) the female sex.

(IV) Material quality of life, namely, (13) the vital force.

(V) (14) Material quality of nutrition. (VI) The four sense fields, namely,

(15) visible form, (16) sound, '17) odour, (18) savour.

(VII) Material quality of limitation, ramely, (19) space.

(VIII) the two communications, namely,

(20) intimation through the body, (21) intimation through speech,

(IX) The three plasticities, namely,

(22) lightness, (23) pliancy, (24) adaptability.

(X) The four salient factors, namely,

(25) integration (26) continuance, (27) decay,

(28) impermanence or death.

The Four Great Primaries are called underived material qualities.

The remaining twenty-four species are called derived material qualities.

^{*} This term also includes a lay devotee who follows the Teaching of the Buddha and practises the dhamma.

^{**} There are twenty-eight kinds of material qualities. They are:

Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu is not conversant with *rūpa*.

- (2) And how, Bhikkhus, is a Bhikkhu not skilful in distinguishing the characteristics? In this Sāsanā, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not understand, as it really is, that "A fool is characterised by his evil deeds only, and a wise man by his good deeds only." Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu is not skilful in distinguishing the characteristics.
- (3) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu not get rid of flies' eggs? In this Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu entertains a thought of sensuous pleasure (kāma vitakka) that has arien; he does not abandon it, does not dispel it; does not get rid of it, does not make it disappear. He entertains a malevolent thought (byāpāda) vitakka) that has arisen; he does not abandon it, does not dispel it, does not get rid of it, does not make it disappear. He entertains a cruel though vihimas vitakka) that has arisen; he does not abandon it, does not dispel it. does not get rid of it, does not make it disappear. He entertains whatever evil has arisen (in him); he does not abandon them, does not dispel them, does not get rid of them, does not make them disappear. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not get rid of flies' eggs.
- (4) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu not dress a sore? In this Sāsanā, Bhikkhus whenever a Bhikkhu perceives a form with the eye, he is led away by the general outward appearance or its details and he does not strive to guard his sense of sight to ward off such mean and evil things as covetousness and grief, which would flow him over him, if he were to remain with unguarded sense of sight. He does not enter upon this course in regard to faculty of sight; he does not guard his sense of sight; and he does not restrain his sense of sight.

Whenever he hears a sound with the ear,....

Whenever he smells an odour with the nose,.....

Whenever he tastes a flavour with the tongue.....

Whenever he feels a contact with the body,.....

Whenever he cognises a mental object with his mind, he is entranced with the general outward appearance or its details, and he does not strive to guard his mind and ward off such mean and evil things as covetousness and grief, which would flow in over him, if he were to remain with unguarded senses. He does not enter upon this course in regard to the faculty of mind; he does not guard his mind; and he does not restrain his mind. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not dress the sore.

- (5) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu not make a smoke? In this Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu does not teach dhamma in deltail to others as he has heard or as he has learnt by heart. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not make a smoke.
- (6) And how, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not know the ford? In this Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu occasionally visits those menks who are well informed and who have learnt dhammavinaya and pātimokkha by heart, yet he does not ask: "What is the etymology of this word, Sirs? What is the meaning of this word, Sirs?" Then those venerable monks do not disclose to him what is to be disclosed. do not make clear what is to be made clear, and on various doubtful points of doctrine they do not set his doubts at rest. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not know the ford.
- (7) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu not know whether water has been drunk or nct? In this Sāsanā. Bhikkhus, when the dhammavinaya (Teaching of the Buddha) is being expounded, a Bhikkhu does not get the knowledge of the meaning, does not get the knowledge of the Text, does not get that delight which is associated with realization of the dhamma. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not know whether water has been drunk or not.
- (8) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu not understand the path? In this Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu does not understand as they really are, the Noble Eightfold Path.* Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not understand the path.
- (9) And how, Bhikkhus, is a Bhikkhu not clever about grazing grounds? In this

^{* 1.} Right View,

^{2.} Right Thinking,

Right Speech,
 Right Action,

^{5.} Right Livelihood,

^{6.} Right Effort,

^{7.} Right Mindfulness, 8. Right Concentration.

Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu does not understand as they really are, the Four Applications of Mindfulness.** Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu is not clever about grazing grounds.

- (10) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu milk dry? In this Sāsanā, when devout householders offer him robes, alms, lodgings, and medicines for the sick, he does not know moderation in accepting them. Thus, a Bhikkhu milks dry.
- (11) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu not pay special honour to those Bhikkhus who are of long-standing, who have become Bhikkhus long ago, and who are the fathers and leaders of the Order. In this Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu does not treat such Bhikkhus with kind deeds, words and thoughts both in the public and in private. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not pay special honour to those Bhikkhus who are of long-standing, who have become Bhikkhus long ago, and who are the fathers and leaders of the Order.

Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu who has these eleven defects is not qualified to achieve growth, progress and full development in this Sāsanā.

II

"Bhikkhus, a cowherd who has the eleven qualities is qualified to lock after a herd of cattle and make it prospercus. What are the eleven? In this world, a cowherd (1) is conversant with $r\bar{u}pa$ (forms); (2) is skilful in distinguishing the lakkhana (characteristics); (3) gets rid of flies' eggs; (4) dresses the sore; (5) makes a smoke; (6) knows the ford; (8) knows whether water has been drunk or not; (9) is clever about grazing grounds; (10) does not milk dry; and (11) does special honour to those bulls who are the fathers and leaders of the herd. Bhikkhus, if a cowherd has these eleven qualities, he is qualified to look after the herd of cattle and make it prosperous.

"Bhikkhus, similarly, if a Bhikkhu has eleven qualities, he is qualified to achieve growth, progress and full development in this dhamma-vinaya (Sāsanā). What are the eleven? In this Sāsanā, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu (1) is conversant with rūpa (material qualities); (2) is skilful in distinguishing the lakkhaņa (characteristics); (3) gets rid of

flies' eggs; (4) dresses the sore; (5) makes a smoke; (6) knows the ford; (7) knows whether water has been drunk or not; (8) knows the path; (9) is clever about grazing grounds; (10) does not milk dry; and (11) pays special honour to those Bhikkhus who are of long-standing, who have become Bhikkhus long ago, and who are the fathers and leaders of the Order.

- (1) And how, Bhikkhus, is a Bhikkhu conversant whith rūpa? In this Sāsanā, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu understands as they really are, that all rūpas are the Four Great Primaries and the material qualities derived from these four. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu is conversant with rūpa.
- (2) And how, Bhikkhus, is a Bhikkhu skilful in distinguishing the characteristics? In this Sāsanā, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu understands, as it really is, that: "A fool is characterised by this evil deeds only, and a wise man by his good deeds only. "Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu is skilful in distinguishing the characteristics.
- (3) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu get rid of flies' eggs? In this Sarana, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not entertain a thought of sensuous pleasure. Whenever it arises, he abandons it, dispels it, gets rid of it and makes it disappear. He does not entertain a malevelent thought. Whenever it arises, he abandons it, dispels it, gets rid of it and makes it disappear. He does not entertain a cruel thought. Whenever it arises, he abandons it, dispels it, gets rid of it and makes it disappear. He does not entertain any evil thought. Whenever it arises, he abandons it, dispels it, gets rid of it and makes it disappear. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu gets rid of flies' eggs.
- (4) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu dress the sore? In this Sāsanā, Bhikkhus, whenever a Bhikkhu perceives a form with the eye, he is not led away by the general outward appearance nor its ditails, and he strives to guard his sense of sight to ward off such mean and evil things as covetousness and grief, which would flow in over him, if he were to remain with unguarded sense of sight. He enters upon the course in regard to the faculty of sight; he guards his sense of sight; and he restrains his sense of sight.

^{** 1.} Contemplation on the body.

^{2.} Contemplation on sensations.

^{3.} Contemplation on consciousness.

^{4.} Contemplation on mental objects.

- Whenever he hears a sound with the ear,.....
- Whenever he smells an odour with the nose,.....
- Whenever he tastes a flavour with the tongue,.....
- Whenever he feels a contact with the body,.....
- Whenever he cognises a mental object with his mind, he is neither entranced with the general outward appearance nor its delails, and he strives to guard his mind andward off such mean and evil things as covetousness and grief, which would flow in over him, if he were to remain with unguarded senses. He enters upon this course in regard to the faculty of mind; he guards his mind; and he restrains his mind. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu dresses the sore.
- (5) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu make a smoke? In this Sāsana, a Bhikkhu teaches dhamma in detail to others as he has heard or as he has learnt by heart. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu makes a smoke.
- (6) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu know the ford? In this Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu who occasionally visits those monks who are well informed and who have learnt dhamma vinaya and pātimokkha by heart, asks: "What is the etymology of this word, Sirs? What is the meaning of this word Sirs?" Then those venerable monks disclose to him what is to be disclosed, make clear what is to be made clear, and on various point of the doctrine they set his doubts at rest. Thus Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu knows the ford.
- (7) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu know whether water has been drunk or not?

- In this Sāsanā, Bhikkhus, when the dhammavinaya is being expounded, a Bhikkhu gets the knowledge of the meaning, gets the knowledge of the dhamma, gets that delight which is associated with the realization of the dhamma. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu knows whether water has been drunk or not.
- (8) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu understand the path? In this Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu understands, as they really are, the Noble Eightfold Path. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu understands the path.
- (9) And how, Bhikkhus, is a Bhikkhu clever about grazing grounds? In this Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu understands as they really are, the Four Applications of Mindfulness. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu is clever about grazing grounds.
- (10) And how, Bhikkhu, does not a Bhikkhu milk dry? In this Sāsanā, when devout householders offer him robes, alms, lodgings, and medicines for the sick, he knows the moderation in accepting them. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu does not milk the cow dry.
- (11) And how, Bhikkhus, does a Bhikkhu pay special honour to those Bhikkhus who who are of long-standing, who have become Bhikkhus long ago, and who are the fathers and leaders of the Order? In this Sāsanā, a Bhikkhu treats such Bhikkhus with kind deeds, words and thoughts both in the public and private. Thus, Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu pays special honour to those Bhikkhus who are of long-standing, who have become Bhikkhus long ago, and who are the fathers and leaders of the Order.

Bhikkhus, a Bhikkhu who has these eleven qualities is qualified to achieve growth, progress and full development in this Sāsanā.

MAHĀGOPĀLAKA SUTTA VAŅŅANĀ*

(Commentary on Mahāgopālaka Sutta)

In the case of the unskilful cowherd:

1. Na rūpañnū hoti: "Is not conversant with rūpa (form)". The cowherd does not know his cows by way of enumeration or by outward appearance. (1) By enumeration— He does not know how many heads of cattle he is tending, whether they are a hundred or a thousand. Even if some of his cows have been killed, or if they have gone astray, he does not count the number of his cows, saying to himself: "Today so many of my cows are missing." He does not endeavour to fetch the missing cows in the neighbouring forest nor in the spaces between two or three neighbouring forests nor in the spaces between two or three neighbouring villages. Even if other people's cows have come and mingled with his own, he does not endeavour to count the number of his cows and drive away the extra ones with his stave. When other people find that their cows have been in his herd, they frighten him saying: "This man has kept our cows in his herd so long." So saying, they take away their own cows. Thus, the number of his cows becomes diminished, and he is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products.* (2) By outward appearance—Again, the cowherd does not know: So many of my cows are of white colour, so many of red colour, so many of black colour, so many have specks on their bodies, and so many are of brown colour. Even if some of his cows have been killed or if they have gone astray, he does not count the number of his cows, saying to himself: "Today so many of my cows are missing", and look for the cows which have strayed into the neighbouring forests or into the spaces between villages. Even if other people's cows have come and mingled with his own, he does not endeavour to count the number of his cows and drive away the extra ones with his stave. When other people find that their cows have been in his herd, they frighten him saying: "This man has kept our cows so long." So saying, they take away their own cows. Thus, the number of his cows becomes diminished, and he is

precluded from enjoyment of five milk products.

III. Na āsātikam hāretā: "Does not get rid of flies' eggs'. It means thus: when cows are pricked with thorns or struck against tree stumps, they sustain wounds and eventually flies lay their eggs in them. These eggs should be removed from the wounds with a stick and the wounds dressed up. The unskilful cowherd does not do so. Thus it is said: "Does not get rid of flies' eggs". The cows' wounds get worse and worse and deeper and deeper, and the worms enter the internal organs of the cows. The cows are thus oppressed by those wounds. They are unable to eat grass or drink water to their satisfaction. Milk dries up in the breasts of those cows and they are reduced in strength. Both these endanger the cows. Thus the number of his cows becomes diminished and he is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products.

IV. Na vaṇam paṭicchādetā hoti: "Does not dress the sore." It means: Medicine should be applied to the aforesaid wounds and they should be dressed up and bandaged with fibres and cloth bandage. The unskilful cowherd does not do so. Impure blood and pus flow out from the cows' wounds. When their bodies rub against the bodies of other cows, the latter would sustain diseases through infection. Thus the cows are opperssed by those wounds. They are unable to eat grass to their satisfaction...

** Milk, cream, buttermilk, butter, ghee.

^{*} Mūlapannāsatthakathā, Vol. II, p. 159, 6th Syn. Edn.

...... Thus, the number of his cows becomes diminished, and he is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products.

VI. Na tittham jānāti: "Does not know the ford." It means: The cowherd does not know whether the ford is smooth or rough, whether it is infested with aqueous beasts of prey. When the cows are taken to a place other than the ford, they may tread on gravels and thus hurt themselves or break their legs. If they happen to be taken to a place where there are aqueous beasts of prey, they may be seized by crocodiles, etc. Then the cowherd comes to a stage when he has to say: "Today so many cows of mine are ruined. Today so many cows of mine are ruined." Thus, his herd decreases and he himself is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products.

VII. Na pītam jānāti: "Does not know whether water has been drunk or not." It means: The cowherd should know thus: "Such and such cows have taken water, and such and such have not: such and such cows have the opportunity to drink water at the ford and such and such cows have not." After tending his cows in the forest the whole day, that cowherd saying: "My cows shall take water," takes them to the river or a single-banked pond. Heifers, bells and strong cows gore old and weak cows with their horns, or take the opportunity of pushing them aside with their bodies, and having entered the water thigh-deep drink water to their satisfaction. The remaining cows having no opportunity to drink clean water are obliged to stand at the bank and drink the turbid water polluted with mud, or to remain without taking any water. Then that cowherd strikes the backs of his cows and drives them back to the forest. Then those cows which have not taken water are unable to eat grass to their satisfaction.....

Thus, the number of his cows becomes diminished, and he is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products.

IX. Nagocarakusalo hoti: "Is not clever about grazing grounds." It means: Surely the cowherd should know the grazing grounds, i.e. whether they are grazing grounds to which cattle can be sent only once in five days or once in seven days. Having allowed his cows to eat grass at one grazing ground one day, he should not send them to the same place again on the next day. The grazing ground where several cows take grass is as clean as the surface of a drum. There is no grass in it. The water there also is muddy. So the cowherd should send his cows to take grass at a grazing ground only once in five days or seven days. This statement is also true, because in this time fresh grass grows up and the water also becomes clean. The cowherd who does not know that the grazing ground is one to which he should send his cows only once in five or seven days, sends his cows to the same grazing ground every day. Then that cowherd's cows cannot get green grass and have to eat dry grass and take polluted water. In that cow-pen there is a shortage of milk. The cows cannot eat grass to their satisfaction Thus, the number of his cows becomes diminished, and he is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products.

X. Anavasesadohī hoti: "Milks dry." It means: A skilful cowherd should milk the cow leaving one or two nipplies, i.e., as much as will sustain the flesh and blood of its calf. The unskilful cowherd milks dry without leaving any milk for the calf. Then the young calf which lives on the mother's milk gets parched through hunger for milk,

and being unable to stand, it trembles, falls in front of its mother and dies. The cow, feeling "My child does not get even its mother's milk to drink," through grief for its child cannot take enough grass or water, and the milk ceases in her nipples. Thus, the number of his cows becomes diminished, and he is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products.

XI. Na atirekapūjā-ya: "Does not pay special honour." It means: A skilful cowherd does utmost honour to those bulls who are the fathers and leaders of the herd. He gives them decent food. He dips five fingers in the seent and besmears it on the bodies of these bulls, and adorn them with flowers. He fits silver and gold ferrules to the horns of these bulls. At night he lights a lamp for them and allows them to sleep under a ceiling made of cloth. The unskilful cowherd does not do so. The bulls do not look after the remaining cows and avert dangers as they do not get the utmost honour. Thus the number of his cows becomes diminished, and he is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products.

The case of the unskilful Bhikkhu may be explained as follows:—

Here in the text.

Idha means "In this sāsanā."

I. Na rūpaññū hoti: "Is not conversant with rūpa." The Bhikkhu does not understand the Four Great Primaries either by enumeration or by their origin (samutthāna). (1) Just as the unskilful cowherd does not know the rūpa (form) of the cows by enumeration, the unskilful Bhikkhu also does not know the following twenty-five parts of the bcdy as mentioned in the Pāli Texts: (1) the eye basis, (2) the ear basis, (3) the nose basis, (4) the tongue basis, (5) the body basis, (6) visible form, (7) sound, (8) odour, (9) taste, (10) touch, (11) the male sex, (12) the female sex, (13) the vital force, (14) bodily intimation, (15) verbal intimation. (16) material quality of limitation, namely, space, (17) the element of cohesion or liquidity, (18) lightness, (19) pliancy, (20) adaptability, (21) integration, (22) continuation, (23) decay, (24) impermanence or material quality. (25) nutrition.*

This Bhikkhu is like the cowherd who does not know his cattle by enumeration. Not knowing by enumeration he is unable to make his kammatthāna (practice of meditations) reach the climax by (1) grasping rūpa (matter) and determining arūpa (what is not matter, i.e. mind and mental factors.)

- (2) grasping rūpa and arūpa and noting their causes and
 - (3) meditating on their characteristics.

Just as the herd of that cowherd does not thrive, he does not thrive in this sāsanā with virtue, mental concentration, spiritual insight, path, fruition and nibbāna. Just as the cowherd is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products so he is precluded from the five kinds of Dhanmakhandhas, namely, (1) the morality of an Arahat, (2) the concentration of an Arahat, (3) wisdom of an Arahat, and (5) knowledge arising from such emancipation.

II. Na lakkhanakusalo hoti: The Bhikkhu does not know that good and evil deeds are the characteristics of the wise and the foolish as stated in the Text "A fool is characterised by his deed. A wise man is characterised by his decd." Thus, not knowing, this Bhikkhu does not shun the foolish nor associate with the wise; he does not know what he should do and what he should not do; what is good and what is evil; what is innocent and what is not innocent; what is a slight offence and what is a serous offence; what offence can be cured and what offence cannot be cured; what is reasonable and what is not reasonable. As he does not know all these, he cannot take a subject for meditation and develop his concentration thereon. Just as the herd of the cowherd does not thrive, this Bhikkhu also does not thrive in this Sāsanā with the above-mentioned sila, etc. Just as the cowherd is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products so he is precluded from the five kinds of *Dhammakkhandhas*.

^{*} Although only 25 are specifically mentioned, No. 10 'touch' comprises the remaining three elements of extension, motion and kinetic energy.

III. Na āsātikam haretā hoti: "Does not get rid of flies' eggs" means that the Bhikkhu does not get rid of the kāma-vitakka (thoughts of sensuous pleasure) which have arisen. As he does not get rid of evil thoughts he becomes one who is under the influence of evil thoughts and as he goes about as such he is unable to take a subject for meditation and develop his concentration thereon. Just as the hero of the cowherd does not thrive, this Bhikkhu also does not thrive in this Sāsanā with the abovementioned sīla, etc. Just as the cowherd is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products so he is precluded from the five kinds of *Dhammakkhandhas*.

IV. Na vanam paticchādetā hoti: "Does not dress the sore." Just as that cowherd does not dress the sore the Bhikkhu does not practice restraint as stated in the Texts like "Seeing a visible object with his eyes, he is swayed by its general outward appearance only." As he goes about with all his sense doors open he is unable to take a subject for meditation and develop his concentration thereon. Just as the cowherd is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products so he is precluded from the five kinds of Dhammak-khandhas.

V. Na dhūmam kattā hoti: "Does not make a smoke." Just as the cowherd does not make a smoke, this Bhikkhu does not make a smoke of the Teaching. He does not make a discourse of the Dhamma; he does not recite the Dhamma; he does not discuss the Dhamma while sitting together; nor does he utter any appreciation (e.g.on the occasion of almsgiving by others). So people do not know whether that Bhikkhu is learned and has noble qualities. As they do not know this, they do not support him with the four requisites. As he experiences difficulty about the four requisites, he is unable to recite the Teaching of the Buadha to fulfil his duties and obligation and to take a subject of meditation and develop his concentration thereon. Just as the herd of the cowherd does not thrive, this Bhikkhu also does not thrive in this Sāsanā with the above-mentioned sila, etc. Just as the cowherd is precluded from enjoyment of five milk products so he is precluded from the five kinds of *Dhammakkhandhas*.

VI. Na tittham jānāti: "Does not know the ford." It means that this Bhikkhu does not approach the well-informed Bhikkhus who resemble the ford. Even if he approaches

them he does not ask them: "What is the etymology of this word, Sirs? What is the meaning of this word, Sirs? What does the Text say in this connection? What does it make clear in this context?" As they are not asked thus, they do not explain to him what is to be been explained, do not teach him in detail, do not make easy to understand what is difficult, and do not make obvious what is obscure. Not having visited the well-informed Bhikkhus who resemble the fora, he is not free from sceptical doubt and is unable to take a subject of meditation and develop his concentration thereon. Just as that cowhere does not know the ford, this Bhikkhu does not know the Dhamma "Ford". Not knowing it he asks questions of wrong persons. Having approached one who is learned in Abhidhamma (philosophy) he asks questions as to what should be done and what should not be done according to the rules of Vinaya. Having approached one who is learned in Vinaya he asks him questions on delimitation of nama and rupa (Mind and Matter). As he asks questions of wrong persons, they cannot answer them; as he is not free from sceptical doubt he is unable to take a subject of meditation and develop his concentration thereon. Just as the cowherd..... Dhammakhandhas.

VII. Na pītam jānāti: "Does not know whether water has been drunk." Just as that cowherd does not know whether water has been drunk or not, this Bhikkhu does not know that delight which is associated with the realization, of the Dhamma, does not get any benefit which arises from the wholesome volitional act of hearing the Dhamma. Having gone to a place where religious Discourses are delievered, he does not listen to them with veneration. He either sleeps, while seated, or speaks to other people, or thinks of other things. As he does not listen the Dhamma respectfully, he is unable to take a subject of meditation and develop his concentration thereon. Just as

X. Anavasesadohī ca hoti: "Milks dry" here means milks ary, not knowing how much only should be taken." Herein, offerings are of two kinds, namely, (1) Invitation by word of mouth (2) invitation by production of things to offer. Verbal offering means thus: People go to a Bhikkhu and invites him thus "Sir, tell us what you want." Invition by production of things: People bring cloth, oil, treacle, etc. to a Bhikkhu and say to him: "Sir, please as much of them as you want." Bhikkhu does not know how much should be taken. Instead of taking only as much as is proper in accordance with Rathavinita Sutta* where in it is stated "A Bhikkhu should know (1) the donor's wish; (2) whether he offered thing is suitable for him and (3) his own capacity", he takes all the things.

XI. Te na atjrekapūjāya pūjetā hoti: "Does not do most honour to them." Just as the cowhered does not do most honour to the bulls which are the fathers and leaders of the herd, that Bhikkhu does not do most honours to the Elder Bhikkhus, deeds, words and thoughts of (loving-kindness) both publicly and privately. The elders, thinking "These young Bhikkhus do not treat us with respect," do not help them with two kinas of help. (1) They ao not help them with āmisa (materials) i.e. robes, bowls, accessories to bowls or loagings; and they do not look after them also when they are in difficulty or sorrow. (2) They do not teach them the Pāli Texts or the Commentaries, or ancient and difficult scriptures. Young Bhikkhus who do not get the two kinds of help at all from the elderly Bhikkhus are unable to remain in the Sāsanā. Just as the herd of the cowherd does not prosper, so the young Bhikkhu's morality etc. do not improve. Just as Dhammakhadhas.

The good part (i.e. comparison with a skilful cowherd) should be understood as the reverse of what has been said on the bad part.

* Majjhima Nikāya, Mūlapaņņāsa Pāļi, 3. Opama-vagga, 4. Rathavinīta Sutta, p. 199, 6th Syn. Edn.

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BUDDHA DHAMMA LOKA

A Weekly Journal in Burmese published by the

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THE ICE IS BEGINNING TO THAW

By

U Ba Htu, B.J.S. (Retd.)

[A talk on the Vesakh Full moon (9-5-60 C. E.)]

For some years now the world has indulged in excessive assertion of *I-ness*. Achievements and successes are proclaimed with enthusiasm and pride at all levels—personal, collective, and national, with the result that every part of the world is filled with praises and acclamations.

As time rolls on, excessive individualism or egoism grows more and more, giving rise thereby to rivalry and competition. This situation of rivalry and competition involves all spheres of human activities and soon develops into an ideological warfare based primarily on national pride and prestige. And as each year passes it gathers more force and momentum.

Media of information and communication:

Nowadays the media of information through the press, telephone, radio, television are perfect, and nothing remains to be desired. The method of communication too has vastly improved. Jet plane—the newcomer has halved the flying time of the present decade. What is predicted in the coming decede is that flying speed will mount up to 1800 miles per hour. With plans for occupying the neighbouring planets at a not distant future, the human imagination has become much more luxuriant and prospects of achievements are hailed with justifiable exuberance.

At this rate of human progress it is not possible to call a halt to human enterprise. It will be readily conceded by every one that modern man has good reasons to be proud of his achievements. In a small world like ours where both camps are armed with the latest scientific weapons of enormous destructibility, the people everywhere, at one time, anticipated and feared that the conflict and consequent conflagration was at hand and that it would probably put an end to life altogether.

Competition and rivalry:

Competition among nations may be healthy; nay it may even be friendly if it is pursued to bring about the favourable con-

ditions of health, better understanding or social relations. Where motives behind competition are pride and prestige, then it naturally becomes rivalry with its attendant hostilities. The recent trends clearly show that rivalry is rampant in the world today. This unhealthy race for leadership and supremacy in arms has been going on for some time and it is quite plain that the motive behind it is personal pride and national prestige, and they in turn are the outcome of *I-ness* or egoism. race continues at this terrific speed a headon collision is inevitable with the consequent colossal destruction to all. This problem before the world has become a vicious circle of evils.

Bertrand Russell, the eminent British philosopher, recently points out that, the spread of nuclear weapons to more nations makes unintended war more likely and if the present policies continue such a war would be almost certain sooner or later. He goes on to say: "It is the massed passions of hate and fear and pride which are the enemies of East and West alike. The enemies are in our own hearts and it is in our own hearts that victory must be sought." These are surely wise and timely words from a wise and noble man. The question that now confronts the human race is: 'How to bring about a change of hearts in man?'

Knowledge and Wisdom:

It would be admitted by most people that although the present age far surpasses the previous ages in knowledge, there has been no corresponding increase in wisdom. If one were to examine what constitutes wisdom it would raise a lot of controversies. However, it may be stated that wisdom generally flows from a wide range of knowledge but that does not necessarily mean that knowledge by itself is wisdom. Scientific and technological know-hows of the present day constitute knowledge in their own spheres, but the achievements of science and technology can in no way be said to characterise the wisdom of our age. Pursuit of

knowledge for its own sake has made the atom capable of destroying the human race. Knowledge may thus be harmful without the comprehensive vision which specialists do not necessarily possess.

What we do find nowadays as a result of increased knowledge among the nations of this tiny earth of ours is "insecurity, suspicion, fear, restlessness and strife."

This question may now be posed: "Can peace and happiness be built on these foundations?" The answer, of course, is an emphatic 'No.' With every increase of scientific and technological knowledge and skill, wisdom becomes a necessity. As knowledge continues to grow this world needs more and more wisdom commensurable with the increase of knowledge so that in the end wisdom may triumph over the forces of evil and direct the affairs of this Earth in the right direction. To give a short definition of what wisdom is would not be an easy thing. Any definition of wisdom would lack in comprehensiveness—The comprehensiveness which covers both mundane and supramundane wisdom. We are told that the world is round and that it revolves on its own axis. Naturally there ought to have no East or West in a world that is round and revolving. Yet in this tiny World of ours, problems of East and West often crop up and they resist solutions with the result that people are constantly entangled in bickerings and bitter resentment.

It is somewhat strange that at a time when the peoples of the World have unprecedented level an reached knowledge, they are unable to solve their problems amicably among themselves. On the slightest hitch, the iron fist is invariably drawn out accompanied by a threat of disaster or total annihilation in case of continued disagreement. This inflames the other fellow and he in turn comes out with towering threats of retaliation and revenge. It is amply clear that so far no satisfactory basis has been found on which to build up mutual understanding and perpetual agreement.

The Buddhist way of thinking:

The Enlightened Buddha teaches that man has his past, and out of the past, the present becomes and from the present the future will be made. As the past of one individual reaches back to infinity so the future of the

individual lengthens into infinity as well. Both behind and before, man is hemmed in by immense stretches of time. One may probably like to ask what is the motivating factor for this long and tedious journey? The Buddhist answer is "Kamma," that is one's own actions. For his actions good and bad, a man is accountable to himself in his future existences. There is no escape from the consequences of his actions. This is the inexorable decree of the Cosmic Law. It favours none and frowns on no one.

The individual span of life, say one hundred years, is lamentably short against the background of eternal time. In these circumstances a string of questions that suggests itself to a thoughtful person is, "How are we to use the heritage of the past and present store of knowledge? (1) Should it be used to kill one another to satisfy our national pride and prestige? (II) Should it be used to satisfy our earthly sense desires? (III) If it is so used, would it be justified under any system of faith? Of course, answers to such questions would come to individual persons according to their own intellectual and cultural levels.

A devout Buddhist, in conformity with the teaching of the Buddha will answer the major questions in the negative. It must however be admitted that it looks easier said than done. Here also the Buddha-Dhamma provides the necessary background to enable us to arrive at the above conclusions. According to Buddhist Philosophy man in the last analysis is made up of mind and corporeality only and nothing else. That being so, in the absolute sense, there are no Armenians, British, Burmese, Chinese, Americans, Chileans, Danes, in short running according to alphabetical order up to the Zulus of Africa. These are merely conventional names used for the sake of convenience only. Wherever they may be, either in the East, West, North or South, all beings are made up of mind and corporeality and nothing more. These two factors, therefore, point to the fundamental sameness in all beings. Men everywhere possess the six sense organs through which they respond to external environments. They share the same feelings and emotions of love, hate, anger, fear, faith, hope, foy, grief, etc.

It is true that there are differences and distinctions among men, among races. But it is generally the accepted opinion of all leading minds that differences among men

are due to varying degrees of environments and mental developments. It may be noted that these differences endure at the longest for this lifetime only.

These differences among men are superficial and not fundamental. These differences are temporal and not everlasting. These differences are caused and not created by any one. A true Buddhist regards all beings including the lower animals as fellow-travellers in this long and tedious stretch of samsāra. This attitude to life, coupled with the spreading of loving thoughts, begets a magnanimity of heart and soon the devotee finds that he dwells in the congenial atmosphere of "Live and let live." He daily sends out thoughts of love as follows: Inasmuch as I desire to be well and happy, may all beings be well and happy also. Inasmuch as I desire to be free from worry and enmity may all beings be free from worry and enmity also.

Since the beginning of this century the world has witnessed much of the pride and hate campaign that has culminated in two destructive wars due to excessive assertion of I-ness or egoism. The recent trends however show that the chapter on pride and hate campaign in the history of the world is being written with a semicolon at the end of the sentence. It appears that the ice on all fronts is beginning to thaw. The mutual goodwill visits of top leaders have proved to be the harbinger of peace to come. It remains to be seen whether from these auspicious omens, lasting peace and universal goodwill will follow or not. We are inclined to hold that for such a consummation, wisdom should be exercised by the top leaders of the world at the present juncture. Wisdom has been defined as the right use of knowledge for attaining the best ends. This

definition needs some amplification according to Buddhist ideas. So the amplified rendition reads: Wisdom is the right use of knowledge for attaining the best ends in both mundane and ultra-mundane spheres. Although this definition falls short of the Buddhist definition of Wisdom (Paññā) it suffices as a workable hypothesis in our present day world context.*

If only the Leaders of the World would think according to the Buddhist Way of thinking that

- (1) Against the background and foreground of eternity of time, this short span of life is just a twinkling of the eye fleeting and ephemeral;
- (2) Every action, good or bad, has its reactions in the future; and
- (3) The main purpose of individual life on earth for spiritual growth and perfection only;

then the people everywhere should see the return of peace and happiness in the world again. Thus a new attitude to life on the part of the top leaders would enable them to put an end to the pride and hate campaign and the peace-loving people of the world will look up to them fervently and expectantly to close the chapter on the above campaign this time with a full stop. With such a change of mental outlook the leaders of the world would not only enhance their personal reputation and national prestige but they will surely be remembered by history as those who bring peace and happiness on this distracted world and their names will be preserved in the hearts of men ever afterwards in loving memory and gratitude.

Peace to all beings!

^{*} According to Abhidhamma (Higher Doctrine), Paññā means "to penetratingly understand the menta and physical phenomena through the media of anicca, dukkha and anatta, and thus gain the knowledge of the four Noble Truths."

SOME THOUGHTS ON KAMMA

By

U Sein Nyo Tun, I.C.S. (Retd.)

Kamma is one of the imponderables. It is incomprehensible, unthinkable and impenetrable in its entirety. Thus, in the Anguttara Nikāya, the Buddha said:

Cattārimāni bhikkhave acinteyyāni na cintetabbāni.

Yāni cintento ummādassa vīghātassa bhāgī assa.*

Translated it means:

O Bhikkhus! There are four imponderables over which you should not ponder. To ponder over them is futile, and may lead to madness.

These four imponderables are enumerated as follows:

- 1. Buddha visaya—the sphere of the Buddha;
- 2. Jhāna visaya the sphere of the Jhānas;
- 3. Kamma vipāka—the resultants of Kamma;
- 4. Loka visaya the sphere of the worlds.

This means that the actions and interactions of the innumerable kammas of a person, as also their inter-factions with the other forces of nature called niyāma dhammas are so diverse and so infinite that no intellect—except that of a Buddha—can cover the entire domain of kamma, and understand completely all the incidents and manifestations of kamma resultants. It also means that in the large majority of cases it is an extremely difficult task to trace the direct connection between a particular kamma and its resultant.

But kamma is a basic concept of the Buddha's teachings. It is the very foundation of the Buddha-Dhamma. It is on kamma that the whole superstructure of duccaritas (evil conduct) and the sucaritas (good conduct), of dānā (almsgiving), sīla (moral conduct), and bhāvanā (mental concentration), is built. Without a proper

understanding of the workings of kamma, no proper grasp of the Buddha-Dhamma can be acquired. If kamma cannot be investigated in all its details, yet a sufficient knowledge of its general laws is necessary, and throught out the Pāli Scriptures, there are evidences that the Buddha took pains to ensure such a knowledge, so as to serve as a guide to right action, and to the avoidance of grave errors that may unwittingly cast one into the unimaginable lengths of misery of the apāya lokas (the Four Lower Worlds).

The basic nature of kamma was brought out by the Buddha in several places in the Pāli Canon. Thus in the Dīgha Nikāya, the Majjhima Nikāya, and the Anguttara Nikāya, the Buddha said:

"All beings have kamma as their personal property. Kamma is their heritage. Kamma is their origin, Kamma is their kith and kin. Kamma is the refuge. Whatever the deeds they do, good or evil, of such they will be the heirs."**

There is no personal property of beings, properly so called, apart from kamma. In this world, a person owns all manner of properties, such as lands, houses, clothes, gold, silver, jewellery, radio sets, refrigerators motor cars, money, etc. He employs them in the satisfaction of his many desires, but his use and enjoyment of them is limited to this life and this life alone, however much he may wish to take them along with him beyond the grave. Whether he wills it or not, he has perforce to leave them behind in this world, for other persons to use and enjoy, when he dies. Thus, these properties, in actual fact, are not in his permanent possessions, but are (so to say) temporarily leased to him for a lifetime.

Oftimes, this lease does not even last a whole lifetime. There are many forms of insecurity on this earth, many dangers, and many enemies, which threaten to deprive a

^{*} Vol I, p. 392, 6th Syn Edn.

^{**} Majjhima Nikāya, Uparipanņāsa, Cūļakammavibhanga Sutta p. 243, 6th Syn. Edn. See the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. VII, No. 1, p. 4.

man of his worldly possessions. There are many human enemies, such as thieves, robbers and kings (or governments); natural enemies such as floods, volcanic eruptions, and earthquakes; and there are others, such as fires, wars, insurrections, famines, and pestilences. In our modern age, new forms such as unemployment, speculation and inflation have appeared. The number of persons who have suddenly lost their properties through one or other of these causes even during our lifetime are beyond computation. In samsāra they are not unique events. But, if inspite of these evidences, we still harbour a stability and security—of permanency and complacency—it appears that we are living in a fool's paradise of our own creation—a creation made possible by our inability to see the realities of life in the long and torturous journey of samsāra (round of rebirths).

The only forms of property that a man can take away with him to the next life—and to the series of lives that are to follow until he attains Nibbana—are his kammas, the fruits of his deeds. These fruits are not subject to any of the forms of insecurity that man know of and over which they have no control. The natural law of kamma niyāma* ensures that a man becomes heir to his own deeds. Thus, of all his worldly possessions, only kamma can be truly said to be his permanent property, available for his use not only in this life but also throughout the samsāra. If he is wise and farseeing, therefore, he will lose no time in converting his temporary possessions into the permanent and stable possession of good kamma, before death overtakes him and it becomes too late to use the rare opportunity that is offered him as a human being in this life.

But if kamma is a basic concept in the Buddha-Dhamma, yet there are many among Buddhists who harbour serious misconceptions about its place and functions in the shaping of the destinies of men. Thus, the late the Most Venerable the Ledi Sayadaw, a profoundly learned and prolific writer of the later years of the last century and the beginning of the present, whose many works are looked upon as standard expositions of the Buddha-Dhamma by Burman Buddhists today, states, in his

Rūpa Dīpanī" (Manual of Material Qualities):

"Some people firmly hold the view that kamma is the main factor in regulating the destinies of men. Thus, they hold that the day and hour of death, the place of death and the mannner of death of a person is pre-ordained by his past kamma from the moment of his conception in his mother's womb. They hold that it is wrong, when people talk of death taking place through eating unsuitable food, or through going to uncongenial places, or through leading an unharmonious life. They hold that ñaṇa (knowledge) and vīriya (effort) but follow the promptings of past kamma."

These people ignore the part played by the other forces of nature such as bija niyāma (the natural law relating to germination), utu niyāma (the natural law relating to climatic conditions, or changes of temperature), citta niyāma (the natural law relating to processes of thought), and dhamma niyāma (other natural laws).** They ignore the very important role that present kamma, as distinguished from past kamma, plays in the creation of future destiny especially of human beings.

In the Milinda Pañhā, eight causes of vedanā (feelings or sensations) are given. In the Samyutta Nikāya and the Anguttara Nikāya, these same eight causes are given as cause of death. They are:

- 1. Vātasamuthānam—hurt, ailment, or death caused by the upset of the wind element;
- 2. Pittasamuthānam—hurt, ailment, or death caused by the upset of the bile;
- 3. Semha samuthānam—hurt, ailment, or death caused by the upset of the phlegm;
- 4. Sannipātikam— hurt, ailment or death caused by a combination of the three causes above;
- 5. Utuviparināmajam—hurt, aliment, or death caused by the upset of climatic conditions or conditions of temperature;

^{*} The Moral Order. Please see the Niyama-Dipani. The Light of the Dhamma, Vol. IV, No. I. p. I.

^{**} For the detailed explanation of the five-fold niyama see the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. IV, No. 1, p. 1 et seq.

6. Visamaparihārajam—hurt, ailment, or death caused by one's

own disagreeable acts;
7. Opakkamam— hurt, ailment, or death caused by the specifically directed acts of oneself or of others;

8. Kammavipākajam—hurt, ailment, or death caused by upapilaka (suppressive)
and upacchedaka
(destructive) kamma.

Of these eight causes, opakkama may be due either to past or present kamma. Thus, the Milinda Pañhā says:*

Kammavipākaja is wholly due to past kamma."

The remaining six causes are all due to present kamma.

The observation made by the Venerable Nāgasena with respect to these eight causes is:

"Kammavipākaja is few. The rest are many. But onwise persons attribute vedanā to only kammavipākaja. Thus they hold views that distort the truth."**

Also in the Samyutta Nikaya, the Buddha said:

"In this world, vedanā arises from eight causes, viz. vātasamuthāna, pittasamuthāna, etc. I have myself experienced them. Wise men also atrribute vedanā to these eight causes. Even so, some people attribute the cause of vedanā only to past kamma. These people distort my intellect. They also distort the truth as known in the world. I therefore say that their belief is wrong."

The Most Venerable the Ledi Sayadaw says in the "Rūpa Dīpanī," that forms of opakkama that are not due to past kamma, but are the results or kamma in the present existence, are, acts of self-immolation, suicide, fights and quarrels, war, etc. These are acts arising out of dosa (anger), māna (conceit), soka (grief), lobha (greed), etc.

In these cases, certain vedanās arise out of these acts. These vedanas are the results of past kamma, but their arising was made possible by present acts (or present kamma) through the creation of conditions suitable

for their appearance, or inducing their appearance. If present kamma had not created the suitable conditions, the edanās concerned would not have arisen, or in other words, the past kammas concerned could not have produced resultants.

The learned Sayadaw gives the simile of flies and bad smells. Flies do not cause bad smells. It is because bad smells exist that flies appear. In the same way, it is only when favourable circumstances are created by present kamma that past kamma produces resultants. The creation of the favourable circumstances can be prevented by ñāṇa and vīriya, or knowledge and effort. In this world, cases of hurt and death falling under opakkama occasioned by present kamma predominate. Cases of hurt and death caused purely by past kamma (without present kamma providing a contributory cause) are very rare.

The difference between visamaparihāraja and opakkama lies in the fact that, in the case of opakkama the acts are specific, while in the case of visamaparihāraja hurt or death may result although hurt or death may not be intended, or although the intention may have been to seek pleasure. In modern usage, many events are described as accidents or misadventures. 'Accidents' may be either opakkama or visamaparihāraja, but 'misadventures' are visamaparihāraja.

In a consideration of these eight causes, the important point to observe is that where the forces of past kusala kamma on the one hand and those of utu, vāta, etc. on the other, balance each other ñāṇa and vīriya become effective, and through their employment the kusala kamma can be induced to produce resultants. Here, the functions of ñāṇa and vīriya canstitue present kamma.

When the forces of past kusala kamma are stronger than utu, vāta, etc. than the kusala kamma is bound to produce resultants even though ñāṇa and vīriya are not invoked. But with the assistance of ñāṇa and vīriya, the strength of the past kusala kamma will be further reinforced and the incidence of the resultant will be commensurably greater.

It is only in the case where the forces of utu, vāta, etc. are stronger than the past kusala kamma which is in the course of

^{*} p. 137, Milinda - Pañhā, 6th Syn. Edn. ** Samyutta Nikāya, Vol. II, 428.

producing a resultant that the effect of the latter will be cut short, but even so, nana and viriya can soften the incidence of the former, while they can provent the entry of wrong views and wrong acts which can lead to extreme disadvantages in the future.

In the Dhammapada, the story is related of the son of Mahādhana, the millionaire. It is told by the Buddha that this young man had sufficient pāramī (perfection, or past kusala kammas of great strength) to enable him to become an Arahat during his lifetime. He, however, spent his time in excesses of drinking, gambling, and the company of women,

with the result that he not only lost all his inherited riches before his death but was doomed to be cast into the apāya regions when he died. He did not employ his ñāṇa and vīriya towards his betterment. This story emphatically illustrates the grear importance of ñāṇa and vīriya (which are present kammas) in the future of an individual. It is a story that reiterates the paramount importance of continual vigilance and continual effort in the performance of kusala kammas. That is why the Buddha admonished his disciples everyday. "Be accomplished in the three Sikkhās* with attentiveness." Appamādena sampādetha.

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^{* 1.} Morality, 2. Concentration, 3. Wisdom.
See the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. VII, No. 1, p. 10.
Digha Nikāya, Mahā-vagga, Mahā-parinibbāna Sutta, p. 61, 6th Syn. Edn.

NOTES AND NEWS

BUDDHA DAY CELEBRATIONS AT RANGOON

Buddha Day Celebrations were held at the Shwe Dagon Pagoda on the 9th May 1960, the full moon of Kason or Visākhā. Among those persent were the leading Mahātheras of Rangoon, H.E. the President U Win Maung, U Ba Saw, Minister for Religious Affairs, Thado Thiri Thudhamma, Agga Mahā Thray Sithu, Dr. U Thein Maung, Justice U San Maung, Parliamentary Secretary U Than Sein, Deputy Secretary U Ba Swe, the Trustees of the Shwe Dagon Pagoda and many thousands of devotees.

At 5-40 a.m., H.E. the President U Win Maung, accompanied by the officials of the President's Household, arrived at the Shwe Dagon Pagoda and was received by the members of the Kason Nyaung Ye Thun Pwe Daw Committee and the Trustees of the Pagoda. After paying homage to the Buddha the President proceeded to the foot of the Sacred Bo Tree on the south-eastern side of the Pagoda platform.

At 6-10 a.m., H.E. the President U Win Maung declared the commencenment of the "ceremony of pouring water on the Sacred Bo Tree." After the recitation of Gāthās by Wunnakyawhtin U Ba Swe, H.E. the President recited the stanza—" Mahābodhi dume nātho" and inaugurated the ceremony.

The presiding Mahāthera administered the precepts to the audience. U Ba Saw, Minister for Religious Affairs then recited the stanza beginning with "Uddhisiyam jinam buddham." This was followed by an address delivered by Thado Thiri Thudhamma, Agga Maha Thray Sithu, Dr. U Thein Maung on the significance of "pouring water on the Sacred Bo Tree."

After Dr. U Thein Maung's address, the President of the Union and the distinguished guests were conducted to the Sacred Bo Tree at the foot of which they poured water of libation. The ceremony came to a close at

7 a.m. with the acclamation of "Sādhu" thrice.

Later, the Buddha Day Celebration was held for the tenth time at the Buddha Jayanti Dhammayon on the western slope of the Shwe Dagon Pagoda. Among those present were 2500 Bhikkhus headed by His Holiness the Most Venerable Abhidhaja Mahāraṭṭha Guru Masoeyein Sayadaw, H.E. President U Win Maung, Thado Maha Thray Sithu U Chan Htoon, U Tha Win, Secy. of the W.F.B. (Burma Branch), many leading devotees and representatives from various Buddhist organisations of Rangcon.

U Tha Win acted as the Master of the Ceremony and when he announced that the time for commencement of the ceremony had arrived, Thado Maha Thray Sithu U Chan Htoon, President of the Central Committee for the Celebration of the Buddha Day, requested H.E. the President U Win Maung to open the ceremony. His Excellency proceeded towards the flag mast and recited "Cīram tiţţhatu saddhammo" thrice and unfurled the flag. He then paid his attention to the aura of six different colours emanated from a figure of the Buddha, and recited "Buddham pūjemi, dhammam pūjemi, sangham pūjemi" and the gathering repeated His Excellency's words.

His Holiness the Most Venerable Abhidhaja Mahāraṭṭha Guru Masoeyein Sayadaw gave the Nine Precepts to the audience, and the Mahātheras and Theras then recited Maṅgala Sutta and Mettā Sutta.

A minute silence was observed during which all present sent forth thoughts of loving-kindness and peace to all beings. The President U Win Maung then offered a bowl containing morning meal, and then poured water of libation and shared merits with all sentient beings.

Meals were also offered to the Bhikkhus and the ceremony terminated at about 10 a.m.

OBITUARY

VEN. SOMA THERA

The Ven. Soma Mahāthera was born of a Roman Catholic family on the 23rd. December 1898 C.E. He had his education at St. Benedict's College at Colombo. As a boy even, he had an unquenchable thirst for knowledge. His fearless search for Truth led him to profess Buddhism at the early age of twenty. He came to Burma and was ordained as a Bhikkhu in 1936 after renouncing the Roman Catholic faith. It was after this that he turned to missionary work.

He visited a number of foreign countries to propagate Buddhism. Among the countries he visited were India, China, Hong Kong, Singapore, United Kingdom and Germany. He was at one time resident at the London Vihāra where he lectured on Buddhism.

In 1957 he was in West Germany in connection with the propagation of Buddhism in that country. When he was there he won the praise and acclaim of the professors and lecturers there for his masterly exposition of the Buddha Dhamma.

He spent most of his time at the Island Hermitage, Dodanduwa, at Colombo where he translated the Buddha Dhamma from Pāļi into English. He earned the admiration of the learned Buddhists and was even respected as an authority on Satipaṭṭhāna (Way of Mindfulness). As a prolific writer and a convincing speaker, he spread the teaching of the Buddha and attracted men to him chiefly through his great learning.

He was a regular contributor to various Buddhist journals including the Light of the Dhamma.

He died at the Vajirarama temple of Colombo on 23rd. February 1960, following an attack of coronary thrombosis.

Sabbe sankhārā aniccā (All compounded things are impermanent).

THE VEN. ÑĀŅAMOLI THERA

We deeply regret to have to hear the unexpected death on 8th March 1960 of the Ven. Nāṇamoli Thera—an Oxford man, with a deep understanding of and love for the classics.

In World War II he saw active service in the British Army rising to the rank of Captain. He was in London during the "Blitz" serving in Anti-Aircraft Battery.

He was a quiet man and seldom spoke of his War experiences. But from the little he said one could see that they made a deep and lasting impression on him, driving home the truths of *Anicca* (impermanence) and *Dukkha* (suffering) as mere book learning could never do.

Coming to Ceylon in his early forties, his birth date being 25th June 1905 he renounced the lay life and was ordained as a Bhikkhu. A keen and brilliant student, he applied himself to the study of the Buddha Dhamma and of Pāli. His monumental book, "The Path of Purification," an English translation of the *Visuddhimagga*, published in 1956, bears eloquent testimony to his scholarship.

He was of a calm and understanding nature. He spoke quietly, in gentle, cultured tones. His words were pearls of wisdom, and through them ran a silver thread of humour. Speaking of Life, he once said that at times it reminded him of a joke, in rather bad taste. One feels that he met death too in the same spirit. He had faced it often enough, in its most violent form, during the War, and it held no terrors for him.

And surely death has seldom come to a man more unexpectedly, or inappropriately. The Ven. Nāṇamoli Thera was in his early fifties, strong and apparently in the best of health, at the height of his mental powers. Anybody who saw him would have confidently predicted that he had many more years of useful and rewarding life ahead of him. And yet death came, like an assassin, bringing to a sudden end his life and his work.

Sabbe sankhārā aniccā (All compounded things are impermanent).

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Published by The Union of Burma Buddha Sāsana Council, Kabā Aye P.O., Rangoon.

Telegram: "BUDHSASANA", Rangoon.

Printed at the Buddha Sāsana Council Press, Yegu.