

The LIGHT of the DHAMMA

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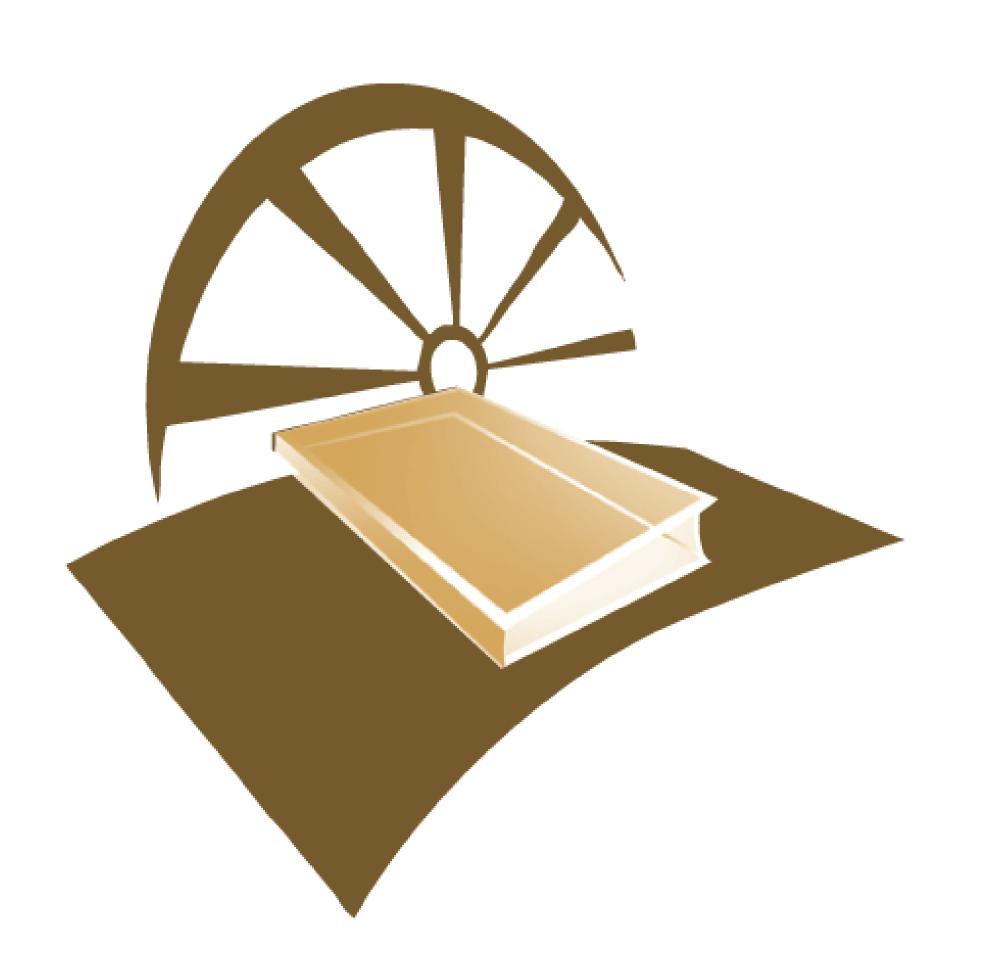
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MELIGHT of the DHAMMA

Vol. VII No. 4

2504 B.E.

OCTOBER 1960 C.E.

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

အောက်တွင် လက်မှတ်ရေးထိုးသူ ကျွန်တော် ဦးသိမ်းမောင် သည် 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၊ မည်သည့်အခါမျ

မပုတ်ခတ်၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် မရှုတ်ချပါ။

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

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

လှုံ့ဆော်ခြင်း၊ အားပေးခြင်း၊ သို့တည်းမဟုတ် ဝါဒဖြန့်ချီပေးခြင်းမပြုပါ။

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

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

မပြုပါ။

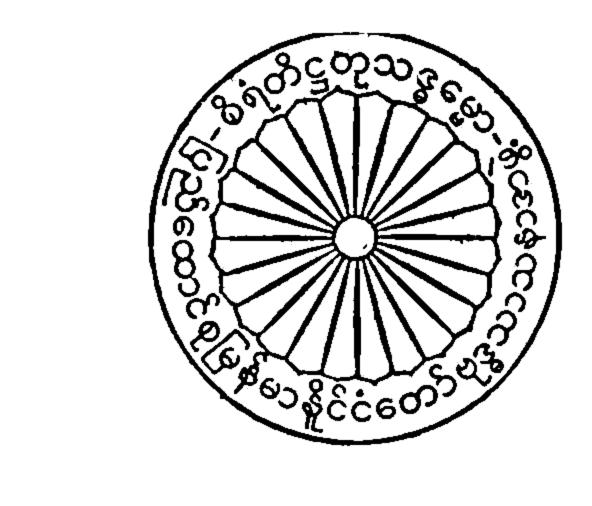
(ဆ) အခြားနိုင်ငံတခုခုမှဖြစ်စေ၊ နိုင်ငံခြားသားများထံမှဖြစ်စေ ရံပုံငွေအတွက်ကြေးငွေ၊ သို့တည်း မဟုတ် ပစ္စည်းအကူအညီ၊အထောက်အပံ့ကို မှတ်ပုံတင်အာဏာပိုင်၏ကြိုတင် သဘောတူခွင့်ပြုချက်မရဘဲ တိုက်ရိုက်ဖြစ်စေ၊ သွယ်ဝိုက်ရှိဖြစ်စေ မည်သည့်အခါမျှ လက်ခံခြင်း မပြုပါ။

(ဇ) ပြည်ထောင်စု မြန်မာနိုင်ငံ၏ ဖွဲ့စည်း အုပ်ချုပ်ပုံအခြေခံ ဥပဒေ၏ မူများကို ဆန့်ကျင်သော အဖွဲ့အစည်းများနှင့် လုပ်ငန်းများကို မည်သည့်အခါမျှ ထောက်ခံခြင်း၊ အားပေးခြင်း၊ သို့တည်းမဟု**တ်**

ဝါဒဖြန့်ချီပေးခြင်း မြှေပါ။

အထက်ဖော်ပြပါ ဝန်ခံချက်မျှားနှင့်အညီ ထာဝစဉ် ဆောင်ရွက်ရန် ကတိဝန်ခံချက်ပြုပါသည်။

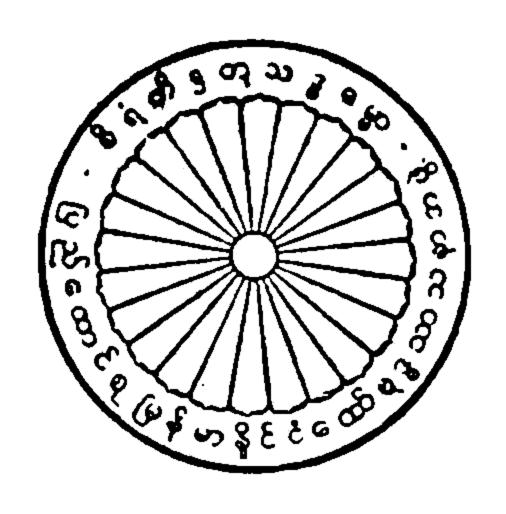
ထုတ်ဝေသူ၏လက်မှတ်.......(ပုံ) သိမ်းမောင်။ လုပ်ငန်းအမည်.....သာ...သာသနာ့ရောင်ခြည်စာစောင်ပုံနှိပ်ဖြန့်ချီရေးဌာန။ လိပ်စာအပြည့်အစုံ.......အုပ်ချုပ်ရေး အရာရှိချုပ်၊ နိုင်ငံတော်ဗုဒ္ဓသာသနာအဖွဲ့၊ ကမ္ဘာအေး။ နေ့စွဲ ၁၉၆၄-ခု၊ ဇွန်လ ၄-ရက်။



Vol. VII 2504 B.E. OCTOBER 1960 C.E. No. 4

CONTENTS

			PAGE.
EditorialAnicca (Impermanence)	•••	•••	1
Devotionby Ven. Nyanaponika Mahāthera	•••	• • •	4
Bodhipakkhiya Dīpanī by Ven. Ledi Sayadaw, translated by U Sein Nyo Tun, I. C. S. (Retd.) (continued from pre-		****	7
Buddhism among the International Religions of the World t	odayby		
U Ba Htu, B.J.S. (Retd.)	• • •	***	18
The Dhammapada and the Present-world Situationby			
Myanaung U Tin	***	•••	21
The Buddha's Message is Simple by Dr.G.P.Malalasekera	••••	•••	28
Buddhist Meditationby Anagarika Sugathananda	• • •	• • •	31
Anattalakkhana SuttaTranslated by the Editors			
of the Light of the Dhamma	•••	•••	36
The Four Great Omensby U Sein Nyo Tun, I.C.S. (Retd	.)	•••	38
Buddhism and the Vital Problems of our Timeby			
Prof.Dr.H.von Glasenapp	•••	•••	41
Some salient features of Buddhismby Ven. Nārada Thera	a	•••	50
Dhammapada Commentary (Story of a certain monk)T	ranslated by	,	
the Pāļi Department, University of Rangoon	•••	•••	54



THE LIGHT OF THE DHAMMA

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EDITORIAL

ANICCA (IMPERMANENCE)

Sabbe sankhārā aniccā`ti yadā paññāya passati, atha nibbindati dukkhe: esa maggo visuddhiyā.

—Dhammapada, verse 277.

(When one realises with wisdom that all conditioned things are impermanent, one gets disgusted with the unsatisfactoriness of life. This is the Path to Purity.)

Anicca is usually translated as "impermanence", and is one of the three characteristics of existence (ti-lakkhaṇa). The universe is in a state of constant change. Nothing remains the same for two consecutive moments. From the very moment a thing is built, it tends down to destruction with all certainty. The newly erected beautiful building becomes older day by day, till one day it is brought down, and not even a trace of it is to be found. Each beat of our heart brings us nearer to death.

Impermanence is not a philosophical dogma but it is a fact—a reality, which we feel and experience so very strongly in our every day life. It is only due to avijjā (ignorance) that we fail to see things as they really are (yathā bhūta). We have heard a man say, "I was using a particular motor car for a period of more than twelve years." During these twelve years he had often to change and replace almost each and every part of it, to get it repaired, overhauled and varnished it. Still, he said that it was the same motor car that he had bought twelve years ago. It is so, because his purpose of riding the car was fulfilled all along. And so, he continued to identify it to be the same throughout. Though we have to make such identifications everywhere for our practical mundane purposes, from the standpoint of the ultimate truth, such idea as 'permanent' or 'lasting' is the outcome of ignorance.

In the ultimate sense the life-moment of living beings is extremely short, being only

as much as the occurrence of a single conscious moment. Just as a chariot wheel, when it is rolling, rolls or touches the ground only on one point of the circumference of its tyre, and, when it is at rest, rests only on one point, so too, the life of beings lasts only for a single conscious moment. When that consciousness has ceased, the being is said to have ceased, according as it is said: 'In the past conscious moment he did live, not he does live, not he will live. In the future conscious moment not he did live, not be does live, he will live. In the present concious moment not he did live, he does live, not he will live.'

"Life, person, pleasure, pain—just these alone

Join in one conscious moment that flicks by.

Ceased aggregates of those dead or alive Are all alike, gone never to return

No (world is) born if (consciousness is) not

Produced; when that is present, then it lives;

When consciousness dissolves, the world is dead;

The highest sense this concept will allow".

-Mahā Niddesa 42.

"The five aggregates are impermanent. Why? because their essence is to rise and fall and change. Impermanence is the rise and fall and change in those aggregates, or it is their non-existence after having been; the meaning is, it is the breaking-up of produced aggregates through their momentary dissolution since they do not remain in the same mode."*

The commentaries of Venerable Buddhaghosa elaborate the Sutta definitions further, distinguishing between anicca (the impermanent) and anicca-lakkhana (characteristic of impermanence). "The five categories are impermanent. Why? Because their

essence is to rise and fall and change, and because, after having been, they are not. But the characteristic of impermanence (anicca-lakkhana) is their state of rise and fall and alteration, or it is their modetransformation (ākāra-vikāra) called non-being after having been."

"These modes are not included in the aggregates because they are states without individual essence (asabhāva-dhammā); and they are not separate from the aggregates because they are unapprehensible without the aggregates. But they should be understood as appropriate conceptual differences (paññatti-visesa) that are reasons for differentiation in the explaining of dangers in the five aggregates, and which are allowable by common usage in respect of the five aggregates."*

Impermanence is observable empirically and is objectively and publicly evident, always if looked for, and from time to time forcing itself upon our notice. Externally it is found in the inconstancy of 'things', which extends even to the periodical destruction of world-systems; and in oneself it can be observed, for instance, in the body's blemishes (ādīnava) because it ages, is prone to sickness, dies and gradually decays after death; life is short. But it would be better for an unskilled lay person to treat as self (atta) this body, which is constructed upon the Four Great Primaries (mahābhūta), than cognizance (citta). Why? Because this body can last one year, two years.....even a hundred years; but what is called "cognizance" and "consciousness" (viññāṇa) arises and ceases differently through night and day, just as a monkey roaming in a forest from tree to tree seizes a branch. and, letting that go, seizes another.'**

IMPERMANENCE AS A SUBJECT FOR CONTEMPLATION:

Handa dāni bhikkhave āmantayāmi vo vayadhammā sankhārā, appamādena sampādetha.***

(Indeed, Bhikkhus, I declare to you: all formations are subject to destruction; work out your own salvation with earnestness.) A little earlier He had said 'Has it not been

repeatedly said by me that there is separation, division and parting from all that is dear and beloved? How could it be that what is born, come to being, formed and inseparable from the idea of fall, should not fall? That is not possible.'

In the Samuelta Nikāya the Buddha declared:

"Bhikkhus, the eye is impermanent. What is impermanent, that is ill. What is ill, that is impersonal. What is impersonal, that is not mine: I am not it: it is not my personality. That is how to see things, with right knowledge, as they really are.

The ear is impermanent. What is impermanent, that is ill. What is ill, that is impersonal. What is impersonal, that is not mine: I am not it: it is not my personality. That is how to see things, with right knowledge, as they really are. The nose....,the tongue...,the body......, the mind is impermanent. What is impermanent, that is ill. What is ill, that is impersonal. What is impersonal, that is not mine: I am not it: it is not my personality. That is how to see things, with right knowledge, as they really are. So seeing, Bhikkhus, the well-trained Noble disciple is disgusted with eye, ear, nose, tongue, body and mind. Being disgusted with them, he has no craving for them. Having no craving for them, he is set free. In him, thus set free, there arises the knowledge of his freedom, and he realises: 'Rebirth is no more; I have lived the pure life; I have done what ought to be done; I have nothing more to do for realisation of Arahatship."****

"When a man abides thus mindful and fully aware, diligent, ardent and self-controlled, then if pleasant feeling arises in him, he understands: 'This pleasant feeling has arisen in me; but this is dependent and not independent. Dependent on what? Dependent on this body. But this body is impermanent, formed and dependently originated. Now how could pleasant feeling, arisen dependent on an impermanent,

^{*} See Ñāṇamoli's Visuddhimaggu, paga 747.

^{**} Suttanta Pijaka, Samyutta-Nikāya, Nidāna-vagga Samyutta Pāļi 7. Mahā-vagga, Assutavā Sūtta, p. 320, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{***} Suttanta Pijaka, Digha Nikaya. Mahā-vagga Pali, L. Mahāparinibbana Sutta, p. 100, 6th Syn. Edn.
**** Samyutta Nikāya, Šaļāyatana Samyutta Pāli, L. Saļāyatana Samyutta, L. Ajjhatta Sutta, p. 236, 6th Syn. Edn.

formed, dependently arisen body, be permanent? In the body and in the feeling he abides contemplating impermanence and fall and fading and cessation and relinquishment. As he does so, this underlying tendency to lust for the body and for pleasant feeling is abandoned. Similarly, when he

contemplates unpleasant feeling his underlying tendency to resistence (patigha) to the body and unpleasant feeling is abandoned; and when he contemplates neither-pleasantnor-unpleasant feeling his underlying tendency to ignorance of the body and of that feeling is abandoned." *







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^{*} Samyutta Nikāya, Saļāyatana-vagga Samyutta Pāļi, 1. Sagāthā-vagga, 7. Pathama-gelañña Sutta p. 412, 6th Syn. Edn

DEVOTION IN BUDDHISM

Ву

Ven. Nyana ponika Mahāthera.

The Buddha repeatedly discouraged any excessive veneration paid to him personally. He knew that an excess of purely emotional devotion will obstruct or disturb the development of a balanced character, and that it may become a serious obstacle to progress on the path to deliverance. The history of religion has since proved him right, as illustrated by the extravagancies of emotional mysticism in East and West.

There is the story of the monk Vakkali* who full of devotion and love for the Buddha, was every desirous to behold him bodily. To him the Buddha said: "What shall it profit you to see this impure body? Who sees the Teaching (Dhamma) sees me."

Shortly before the Buddha passed away, he said: "If a monk or a nun, a devout man or a devout woman, lives in accordance with the Teaching, is correct in his life, walks in conformity with the Teaching—it is he who rightly honours, reverences, venerates, holds sacred and reveres the Perfect One (Tathāgata) with the worthiest homage."**

A true and deep understanding of the Dhamma, together with a conduct that is in conformity with that understanding—these are vastly superior to any external homage or mere emotional devotion. That is the instruction conveyed by these two teachings of the Master.

It will be a mistake, however, to conclude that the Buddha disparaged a reverential and devotional attitude of mind when it is the natural outflow of a true understanding and a deep admiration of what is great and noble. It would also be a grievous error to believe that the "Seeing of the Teaching" (spoken of in the first saying) is identical with a mere intellectual appreciation of the doctrine and a purely conceptual grasp of it. Such a one-sidedly abstract approach to the very concrete message of the Buddha all too often leads to intellectual smugness. In its barren-

ness it will certainly not be a substitute for the strong and enlivening impulse imparted by a deep-felt devotion to what is known as great, noble and examplary. Devotion being a facet and natural accompaniment of Confidence (saddhā), a necessary factor in the 'balance of faculties' (indriva-samatā) required for final deliverance. Confidence, in all its aspects (and among them, the devotional) is required for resolving any stagnation and other shortcomings resulting from a onesided development of the intellectual faculties (intelligence, insight, wisdom; paññā) which often tend to turn around in circles endlessly, without being able to effect a break-through. Here, Devotion, Confidence, Faith (in whatever way we wish to render the Pāļi term saddhā) may be able to give quick help.

Though the Buddha refused to be made the object of an emotional 'personality cult', he, on the other hand, knew that "respect and homage paid to those who are worthy of it, is a great blessing." The Buddha made this statement in the very first stanza of one of his principal ethical injunctions, the Blessings (Mahā-Mangala verses on Sutta).*** Mentioning the value of a respectful, reverential attitude together with the blessings of "avoiding fools and associating with the wise", the Buddha obviously regarded such attitude as fundamental for individual and social progress and for the acquisition of any further and higher Blessings. One who is incapable of any reverential attitude will also be incapable of any spiritual progress beyond the narrow limits of his present mental condition. One who is so blind as not to see or recognize anything higher and better than the little mud-pool of his own petty self and environment, will for a long time suffer from 'retarded growth'. And he who out of a demonstrative self-assertion, scorns any reverential attitude in himself and in others, is imprisoned in his self-conceit which is a most

*** Khuddakapātha-Atthakathā, 5 Mangalasutta-vannanā, p. 75, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{*} Khuddaka Nikāya Dhammapada Aţţhākathā, 25. Bhikkhuvagga, II. Vakkali Thera Vatthu, p. 380;

⁶th Syn. Edn. ** Dīgha Nikāya, Mahāvagga Pāļi, 3. Mahāparinibbāna Sutta, Tathāgatapacchimavācā, p. 127; 6th Syn. Edn.

effective bar to a true maturity of character and to spiritual growth. It is by reconizing and honouring someone or something higher, one honours and enhances one's own inner potentialities.

"When the high heart we magnify,
And the sure vision celebrate,
And worship greatness passing by,
Ourselves are great."

Since respect, reverence and devotion are partial aspects of the Buddhist concept of Confidence (saddhā), one will now understand, also from this angle, why Confidence has been called the seed of any other beneficial quality.

The nobler the object of reverence or devotion, the higher is the blessing bestowed by it. "Those who have joyous confidence in the highest, highest fruit will be theirs."* The supreme object of a Buddhist's reverence and devotion are his Three Refuges, also called the Three Jewels or Ideals: the Buddha, his Teaching (*Dhamma*) and the Community of saintly monks (Saighā). Here, too, the Buddha is revered not as a personality of such and such a name, nor deity, but as the embodiment of Enlightenment. A text often recurring in the Buddhist scriptures, says that a devout lay disciple "has confidence (saddhā), he believes in the Enlightenment of the Perfect One." This confidence, however, is not the outcome of blind faith based on hearsay, but it is derived from the devotee's reasoned conviction based on his own understanding of the Buddha Word which speaks to him clearly with a voice of unmistakable Enlightenment. This derivation of his assurance is emphasized by the fact that, along with Confidence, also Wisdom is mentioned among the qualities of an ideal lay follower.

We may now ask: Is it not quite natural that feeling of love, gratitude, reverence and devotion seek expression through the entire man, through acts of body and speech as well as through his thoughts and unexpressed sentiments? Will one, for instance, hide one's feelings towards parents and other beloved ones? Will not one rather express them by loving words and deeds? Will not one cherish their memory in suitable ways, as for instance, by preserving their likeness in one's

home, by placing flowers on their graves, by recalling their noble qualities? In such a way, also one who has become alienated from the devotional aspects of religion, may seek to understand the outward acts of homage which are customary in Buddhist lands: when, with reverential gesture, flowers and incense are placed before a Buddha image and devotional texts are recited which are not prayers but meditation. Provided that such practice does not deteriorate into a thoughtless routine, a follower of the Dhamma will derive benefit if he takes up some form of devotional practice adapting it to his personal temperament and to the social customs of his environment.

Buddhism, however, does not in the least impose upon its followers a demand to observe any outward form of devotion or worship. This is entirely left to the choice of individuals whose emotional, devotional and intellectual needs are bound to differ greatly. No Buddhist should feel himself forced into an iron-cast mould, be it of a devotional or a rationalistic shape. As a follower of the Middle Way, a Buddhist should, however, avoid one-sided judgement also in this respect, and should try to appreciate individual needs and preferences of others which differ from those of his own.

More important and of greater general validity, however, than these outward forms of devotion, are the basic capacity for respect and reverence discussed at the beginning, and the practice of meditations or contemplations devotional character. Many benefits accrue from these and it was for good reasons that the Enlightened One recommended strongly and repeatedly the meditative Recollection of the Buddha (*Buddhānussati*), along with other kindred Recollections.** Here, again, the reference is to the embodied ideal; and, therefore, the Buddha as a being freed from all traces of vanity and egotism, could well venture to recommend to his disciples a meditation of the Buddha.

What, then, are the benefits of such devotional meditations? Their first benefit is mental purification; they have been called by the Buddha "efficacious procedures for purifying a defiled mind"*** "When a noble

^{*} Anguttara Nikāya, Catukkanipāta Pāļi, I. Pathamapannāsaka, 3. Uruvela-vagga, 4. Kāļakārāma Sutta, p. 333, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{**} The Path of Purification by Nanamoli, page 206,
*** Anguttara Nikaya, The Threes, No. 71; Channa Sutta, p. 216, 6th Syn. Edn.

disciple* contemplates upon the Enlightened One, at that time his mind is not enwrapped in lust, nor in hatred, nor in delusion. At such a time his mind is rightly directed: it has got rid of lust, is aloof from it, is freed from it. Lust is here a name of the five sense desires. By cultivating this contemplation, many beings become purified."

If, by practising that devotional meditation, one endeavours to live, as it were, 'in the Master's presence' (satthā sammukhī bhūto), one will feel ashamed to do or speak or think anything unworthy, one will shrink back from evil; and as a positive reaction, one will feel inspired to high endeavour, in emulation of the Master's example.

Images, and not abstract concepts, are the language of the subconscious. If, therefore, the image of the Enlightened One is often created, within one's mind, as the embodiment of the Man Perfected, it will deeply penetrate into the subconscious mind, and, if sufficiently strong, will act as an 'automatic brake' against evil impulses. In such a way, the subconscious may become a powerful ally in gaining self-mastery while normally it is too often the hidden enemy of such endeavour. For that purpose of 'educating the subconscious', it will be helpful to use a Buddha image or a picture, as an aid in visualization, and in that way concentration of mind may be attained fairly soon. For evoking and deeply absorbing some features of the Buddha's mentality, his qualities should be contemplated for instance, in the way described in the 'Path of Purification' (Visuddhi Magga).

The Recollection of the Buddha, being productive of joy (pīti), is an effective way of invigorating the mind, of lifting it up from states of listlessness, tension, fatigue, and frustration, which occur during meditation as well as in ordinary life. The Buddha himself advised: "If (in the strenuous practice of a subject of meditation, for instance) in the Contemplation of the Body, bodily agitation (including sense desires), or mental lassitude or distraction should arise in the meditator, then he should turn his mind to a gladdening (or elevating) subject."** And here the

Teachers of old recommend especially the Recollection of the Buddha. When under its influence those hindrances to concentration have vanished, the meditator will be able to return to his original subject of meditation.

For a beginner especially, attempts at gaining concentration are often frustrated by an uneasy self-consciousness; the meditator squints, as it were, back upon himself; he becomes disturbingly aware of his body with its little discomforts, and of his mental state struggling against obstacles and thereby strengthening them. This may, for instance, happen when the subjects of meditation are one's own physical or mental processes, but it may also occur with any other subject. In such a situation, it will be profitable to follow the advice given earlier and to turn one's attention from one's own personality to the inspiring visualization of the Buddha and the contemplation of his qualities. The joy thus produced may bring about that self-forgetfulness which is such an important factor for gaining concentration. Joy (pīti; "joyful interest") produces calm (passaddhi), calm leads to ease (sukha) and ease to concentration (samādhi). Thus devotional meditation can serve as a valuable aid in attaining mental concentration which is the basis of liberating insight. This function of devotional meditation cannot be better described than in the words of the Master.

When a noble disciple contemplates upon the Enlightened One, at that time his mind is not enwrapped by lust nor by delusion and at that time his mind is rightly directed towards the Perfect One (Tathāgata). And with a rightly directed mind the noble disciple gains enthusiasm for the goal, enthusiasm for the Dhamma, gains the delight derived from the Dhamma. In him thus delighted, joy arises; to one joyfully minded body and mind become calm; calmed in body and mind, he feels at ease; and if at ease the mind finds concentration. Such a one is called a Noble disciple who among a humanity gone wrong, has attained to what is right; who among a humanity beset by troubles, dwells free of troubles."***

^{*} Anguttara Nikāya, The Sixes, No. 25, Anussatithāna Sutta, n. 275, 6th Svn. Fdn

^{**} Samyutta Nikāya, 3. Satipatthāna Samyutta, 10, Bhikkhunupassaya-sutta, p. 134, 6th Syn. Edn. *** Anguttara Nikāya, The Sixes, No. 10, p. Mahānāma Sutta, p. 252, 6th Syn. Edn.

BODHIPAKKHIYA DĪPANĪ

THE MANUAL OF THE FACTORS LEADING TO ENLIGHTENMENT

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(Continued from previous issue)

CHAPTER IX

HOW TO PRACTISE THE BODHIPAKKHIYA DHAMMAS

Beings who encounter a Buddha Sāsanā have to set up sīla visuddhi first and practise the bodhipakkhiya dhammas in order to attain the status of ariya sota.

I shall now give a brief description of how the practice may be undertaken.

The practice of the seven visuddhis amounts to practising the bodhipakkhiya dhammas.

In particular, citta visuddhi concerns only persons who follow the way of the samatha yānika.

Maggāmagga ñāṇadassana visuddhi concerns only those adhimānika persons* who think that they have attained the Holy Paths and the Fruits although they have achieved no such attainment.

Sila visuddhi, kankhāvitaraņa visuddhi, paţipadā ñāṇadassana visuddhi, and lokuttara ñāṇadassana visuddhi, relate to many kinds of persons.

Of these five visuddhis, sīla visuddhi has been dealt with under sīlakkhandha mag-gaṅga. It consists of keeping the ājīvaţ-thamaka sīla.

Citta visuddhi, in general, consists of setting up kāyagatā sati. Some persons set up kāyagatā sati through out-breath and inbreath. It may be said generally that if one's attention resides on out-breath and in-breath, whenever one wills it, no matter what the posture of the body may be, kāyagatā sati has been set up. Some persons set up kāyagatā sati through the four body postures in accordance with the statement in the Text**: "gaccanto gacchāmīti pajānāti", while some

set it up through sati sampaiañña (Clearness of Consciouness) on bodily movements. Yet others set up kāyagatā sati through attention on the thirty-two parts of the body. Here, hairs of the head, hairs of the body, nails, teeth, and skin, are called tacapañcaka.*** If attention on these parts can be firmly and steadily placed at will, whatever may be the postures of the body, kāragatā sati is set up. Attention can also be directed to the bones of the body. Kāyagatāsati is set up if attention can be steadily and firmly placed on the bones of the head. If, from the beginning, the rūpa and nāma groups of the body can be analytically differentiated, and if attention on such work is steady and firm, the work of kāyagatā sati is accomplished. This gives concisely the method of kāyagatā sati.

In the work of ditthi visuddhi, if the six elements (dhātu) of pathavī, āpo, tejo, vāyo, ākāsa, and viññāṇa, can be analytically perceived, it is accomplished.

In the work of khankhāvitaraņa visuddhi, if the causes for the appearance of the dhātus mentioned above can be clearly perceived, it is accomplished. It must be clearly perceived that the causes for the appearance of pathavī, āpo, tejo, vāyo and ākāsa are kamma, citta, utu, and āhāra, and that the causes for the appearance of the six viññāṇas are the six objects of perception.

By paţipadāñāṇadassana visuddhi is meant the three characteristics of anicca, dukkha, and anatta. If these three characteristics can be clearly perceived in the six dhātus mentioned above, paţipadāñaṇadassana visuddhi is attained.

Lokuttara ñaṇadassana visuddhi means the four magga ñāṇas.

^{*} Highly conceited persons.

^{**} Digha Nikāya, Mahā-vagga, Mahāsatipatthāna Sutta, p. 231, 6th Syn. Edn. *** Anguttara Nikāya, Duka-nipāta, 9. Upannāta Sutta, p. 53, 6th Syn. Edn.

This shows concisely the five visuddhis.

For a more detailed account see my "Lakkhana Dīpanī", "Vijjāmagga Dīpanī", and "Āhāra Dīpanī".

These thirty-seven bodhipakkhiya dhammas are the heritages of the Buddha. They are the heritages of the Sāsanā. They constitute gems of the Sāsanā that are priceless and invaluable.

CHAPTER X

HERITAGE OF THE SĀSANĀ

I shall now examine what constitutes sāsanadāyajja.

Sāsanadāyajja means the act of receiving the heritage of Sāsanā.

"Dātabbanti dāyam".

(That which is given as heritage is called dāya.)

Property that should be given as heritage by parents to their children.

"Dāyam ādadālīti dāyādo."

(Fit to receive heritage. Hence called dāyādo.)

Children or heirs who are fit to receive heritage.

"Dāyādassa kammanı dāyajjani."

(The act of receiving heritage by heirs. Hence called dāyajjani.)

"Sāsanassa dāyajjam sāsanadāyajjam."

(The act of receiving the heritage of the Sāsanā. Hence called sāsanadāyajjam.)

It is also called Buddhadāyajja (the act of receiving the heritage of the Buddha.)

First, I shall show the nature of the heritage.

In the Sāsanā there are two kinds of heritages, namely. Amisa and Dhamma.

The four requisites of a Bhikkhu, namely, alms-food, robes, dwelling place, and medicines are called āmisa heritage. The three sikkhās of sīla, samādhi and paññā, the seven visuddhis, such as sīla visuddhi, citta visuddhi, etc., the thirty-seven bodhipakkhiya dhammas, such as the four satipaṭṭhānas, the four sammappadhānas, etc., are called dhamma heritage.

There are two kinds of dhamma heritage, namely.

- 1. lokiya dhamma heritage.
- 2. lokuttara dhamma heritage.

The lokiya sikkhās of sīla, samādhi, and paññā, the six lokiya visuddhis, and the thirty-seven bodhipakkhiya dhammas associated with the lokiya visuddhis, are called the lokiya dhamma heritage. The sikkhās associated with the Holy Paths and the Fruits, the lokuttara ñāṇadassana visuddhi, and the thirty-seven lokuttara bodhipakkhiya dhammas are called lokuttara dhamma heritage.

Lokiya dhamma heritage may be divided into:

- 1. Vațța nissita dhamma heritage,
- 2. Vivațța nissita dhamma heritage.

or into:

- 1. Niyata dhamma heritage.
- 2. Aniyata dhamma heritage.

The practice of sīla, samādhi, and paññā, directed towards the attainment of worldly positions, such as mentor and teacher of kings, or towards the acquisition of dignity, power, retinue, and property, or towards the attainment in sanisāra of rebirth as noble and highly placed humans and devas, is called vaṭṭa nissita dhamma heritage.

There are three forms of rounds of rebirths (vațța), namely, kilesa vața, kamma vațța and vipāka vațța.* Vivața means Nibbāna which is the end of these rounds of rebirths. The practice of sīla, samādhi, and paññā, directed, towards the ending of the three forms of rounds of rebirths is called vivațţa nissita dhamma heritage.

The practice of kusala kammas directed towards the ultimate attainment of Nibbāna, as well as of worldly benefits and pleasant rebirths in the interim before Nibbāna is attained, is related to both vaṭṭa and vivaṭṭa, and hence is called ubhaya nissita. In the Pāṭi Texts, however, only vaṭṭa and vivaṭṭa are mentioned. Those who are more inclined to the attainment of vaṭṭa results may be said to perform vaṭṭa nissita kammas, and those who are more inclined to the attainment of vivaṭṭa results may be said to perform vivaṭṭa nissita kusala kammas.

With reference to the classification of niyata and aniyata, the great realm of sak-kāya-diṭṭhi anusaya that puthujjanas (world-lings) possess is like a great wide and deep ocean of hot burning embers. The sīla, samādhi and paññā, that occasionally occur to puthujjanas may be compared to droplets

of rain falling on that great ocean of burning embers. "I fulfill sīla. I possess sīla. I develop samādhi. I am knowing. I am wise. I am clever. I perceive rūpa and nāma. I contemplate rūpa and nāma" are declarations of accs of sīla, samādhi, and paññā, which revolve round the sakkāyaditthi that is "I", and thus resemble the droplets of rain falling on the great ocean of burning embers. Just as the great ocean of burning embers scorch and dry-up the droplets of rain and cause their disappearance, so does the great kingdom of sakkāya-diţţhi cause the disappearance of such sīla, samādhi, and paññā. Hence, the sīla, samādhi, and paññā, appearing in puthujjanas are of the aniyata class. Although puthujjanas may possess sīla, samādhi, and paññā, the possession is tadanga or temporary.

The ājīvaṭṭhamaka lokiya sīla of sotāpannas, their lokiya samādhi which resides steadily on the noble and incomparable qualities of the Buddha, the Dhamma, and the Saṅgha, and their lokiya paññā which perceives the Four Noble Truths, are of the niyata class. Like droplets of water falling on the great lake of Anavatatta, such lokiya sīla, samādhi, and paññā, do not disappear throughout many lives and many world-cycles.

This shows the nature of lokiya dhamma heritage.

The lokuttara dhammas of sīla, samādhi, and paññā, ñāṇadassana visuddhi, and the thirty-seven bodhipakkhiya dhammas, which accompany the eight kinds of lokuttara consciousness are vivaṭṭa nissita. They are niyata. The lokiya sīla, samādhi, and paññā, which occur to ariyas who have attained lokuttara sīla, samādhī, and paññā, also reach the niyata stage. In such persons there is no longer any possibility of their becoming dussīla (immoral), asamāhita (not composed), duppaññā (unwise), and andhabālā (silly).

This shows the heritage of the Sāsanā.

The heirs of the Sasana are:

- 1. Bhikkhu,
- 2. Bhikkhūnī,
- 3. Sāmaņera,
- 4. Sāmaņeri.
- 5. Sikkhamāna (female).
- 6. Upāsakā,
- 7. Upāsikā.

Here, sikkhamāna means "embryo Bhik-khūnī."

Of the above seven heirs, the first five are called "fellow workers or colleagues within the Sāsanā." Men, devas, and Brahmās, who are not "fellow workers or colleagues within the Sāsanā." but who are established in Ti-saraņa, are included in Upāsakā and Upāsikā.

Among the seven heirs, the āmisa heritage of the four requisites can be received only by the five "fellow workers or colleagues within the Sāsanā." The lokiya and lokuttara dhamma heritages, however, can be received by all the seven. In the receipt of such heritages, there are special considerations in respect of the heritage of lokiya sīla. There are special considerations with respect to the heritages of lokuttara sīla, lokiya and lokuttara samādhī, and lokiya and lokuttara paññā.

The special considerations with respect to lokiya sīla arise because, the five "fellow workers or colleagues within the Sāsanā" receive the heritages of both the Vinaya sīla and Suttanta sīla, while upāsakās and upāsikās receive only the Suttanta sīla.

Suttanta sīla means:

- (1) in respect of the five "fellow workers or colleagues within the Sāsanā," the sīlas enumerated in the Brahmajāla Sutta (Dīgha Nikāya),*
- (2) in respect of *upāsakās* and *upāsikās*, ājīvaṭṭhamaka sīla and dasaṅgā sīla.

Dhūtaiiga sīla, indriya sīla, and paccaya-sannissita sīla, are also Suttanta sīlas.

Sammā-vācā, sammā-kammanta, and sammā-ājīva, included in lokuttara magganga are called lokuttara sīla. These sīlas can be received by the five "fellow workers or colleagues within the Sāsanā" as also upāsakās and upāsikās. Hence no special considerations arīse with respect to lokuttara sīla. The same is the case in the two kinds of heritages of samādhi and paññā. The seven visuddhis and the thirty-seven bodhi-pakkhiya dhammas are included within these sīla, samādhi, and paññā.

Of the seven heirs of the Sāsanā, the five "fellow workers or colleagues within the Sāsanā," who are in the service of the Sāsanā,

^{*} See The Light of the Dhamma, Vol. III, No. 2, and the Brahmajala Sutta published by the Union Buddha Sasana Council.

are heirs for their own benefit as well as heirs who act as caretakers of the heritages of the Sāsanā in order that the Tipiţaka and the other requisites of the Sāsanā may endure for the duration of 5000 years. The remaining two are heirs of the Sāsanā only for their own benefit.

The status of caretakers of the Sāsanā, on whose shoulders rest the responsibilities of the Sāsanā, is much higher than that of the status of being merely heirs. Thus, a householder who has been an ariya for sixty years has to pay respect and obeisance to a young puthujjana sāmaņera of seven years of age who has been initiated for only a day. Thus also, a Bhikkhu who is an arahat has to pay respect and obesiance to a puthujjana Bhikkhu who was ordained just an hour before him.

This shows the heirs of the Sāsanā.

The three sikkhās, the seven visuddhis, and the thirty-seven bodhipakkhiya dhammas, are practices that are in consonance with the nine lokuttara dhammas,* and hence are called dhammānudhamma-paţipatti. The heirs of the Sāsanā who practise these dhammas well are called suppatipanna individuals. They are also called ujuppatipanna individuals, ñāyappaţipanna individuals, and sāmicippațipanna individuals**. Although they may be puthujjanas, they are included among the sotapatti-maggatthasekha individuals (persons in training for the sotapatti magga), who constitute the first group (orthe group in the first stage) of the eight ariyas. They constitute dhammānudhammapaţipanna ariyas. Since they are still puthujjanas, they are not yet paramattha ariyas (Purified Noble Ones).

I shall substantiate what I say. In the Sekhappatipadā Sutta,*** Buddha said:

"Iminā ariyena sīlakkhandhena samannāgato hoti." meaning thereby that the practices which are comprised within the bodhipakkhiya dhammas, such as ājīvaţthamaka sīla, constitute ariya sīla, ariya samādhi, and ariya paññā. Hence, in the Buddha Sāsanā, the upāsakās and upāsikās who are permanently confirmed in the ājīvaṭṭhamaka sīla and in the Ti-saraṇa, are persons who are partly endowed with the suppaṭipanna quality, and the sāmicippaṭipanna quality, and hence are dhammānudhammappaţipanna ariyas.

When these qualities are enumerated coupled with the name of the Sanghā, such as in:

Sangham saranam gacchāmi. Suppaţippanno bhagavato sāvaka sangho, etc.,

Only the Bhikkhus and Bhikkhūnīs who are sīlavanta kalyāņa puthujjanas (worldlings who are morally good and virtuous) should be understood. In the matter of the Vinaya, all persons other than upasampanna saṅgha (ordained saṅgha), that is, sāmaṇeras, sāmanerīs, sikkhamānas, upāsakās, and upāsikās, are excluded.

A person who practises the dhammānu-dhammapaṭipatti, which may also be called the bodhipakkhiya dhammas, is called samaṇa and brāhmaṇa in the Suttanta discourses, although he or she may be only an upāsakā or an upāsikā.

Thus it is said in the Dhammapada:

Alankato ce pi saman careyya santo danto niyato brahmacārī, sabbesu bhūtesu nidhāya daṇḍam, sa samaṇo, sa bhikkhu.

—Dhammapada 142.

[Though dressed in gay and festive clothes, if he practises an even mind, if his passions are subdued, if his senses are controlled, if he is confirmed in the four Paths, if he permanently observes conduct that is chaste and pure, that person is a recluse (samana), he is an ariya (brāhmana), he is a Bhikkhu.]

This passage shows that a person who practises the dhammānudhammapatipatti, which are the bodhipakkhiya dhammas, and lives with pure mind and body, can be called a Bhikkhu even though he dons the clothes of an ordinary layman.

This shows the nobility and high status of the heirs of the Sāsanā.

In the matter of the heritages of the Sāsanā, there are two kinds of heritages, namely, good and bad. There are also two kinds of heirs, namely, good and bad.

^{*} Four maggas, four phalas and Nibbana.

^{**} See Nāṇamoli's Visuddhimagga, page 236 et. seq.

*** Samyutta Nikaya, Mahā-vagga Samyutta Pāļi, 1. Magga Samyutta, 3. Sekha Sutta, p. 12, 6th

Syn. Edn.

I shall here show the essentials in the Dhamma Dāyāda Sutta*, Mūla Paṇṇāsa, Majjhima Nikāya.

Dhamma dāyādā me bhikkhave bhavatha, mā āmisadāyādā. Atthi me tumhesu anukampā.

Kinti me sāvakā dhamma dāyādā bhaveyyum,

no āmisa dāyādā ti.

(Bhikkhus: Let you be heirs of the Dhamma. Let not you be heirs of the material requisites. I have compassion and anxiety for you. How do I have this compassion and anxiety? How can my disciples become heirs of the Dhamma; how can they avoid becoming heirs of the material requisites? It is thus that I have compassion and anxiety for you.)

The meaning of this passage is as follows:

The Buddha's heritage consists of the two kinds of āmisa heritage and dhamma heritage. Āmisa heritage is of three kinds, namely, (1) paccayāmisa, (2) lokāmisa, (3) vaṭṭāmisa.

The benefits consisting of alms-food, robes, dwelling place and medicines, are called paccayāmisa. Worldly renown, grandeur, dignity, power, worldly positions, such as teachers and mentors of kings, ministers, persons of wealth and influence, and possession of followers and retinue, are called lokāmisa. Pleasant rebirths such as rebirth in high stations, rebirth in affluent families, or rebirth in circumstances where one's wants and needs are fulfilled, are called vaṭṭāmisa.

I have already expounded dhamāmisa.

The Buddha foresaw that after his attainment of parinibbāna the Sāsanā would be overwhelmed by the excessive increase of the three categories of āmisa heritage, in just the same way as islands within the ocean are overwhelmed and submerged by the three waves of rising floods. Hence did he leave behind the exhortation:

Dhammadāyadā me bhikkhave bhavatha, mā āmisadāyādā.

Anukampa means the anxiety or concern nurtured by the Buddha.

The Buddha's anxiety was that, just as when the flood waters of the ocean rise the

people inhabiting the islands are submerged and cast adrift. His disciples in the Sāsanā would in time be submerged and cast adrift by the rise and expansion of āmisa heritage, thus severing them from the invaluable heritage of the dhamma. Hence did He leave behind the exhortation:

Kinti me sāvakā dhammadāyādā bhaveyyum, no āmisa dāyādā.

The three āmisa heritages are therefore heritages which caused anxiety and concern in the Buddha, and thus are heritages which the Buddha discouraged. Hence, these three āmisa heritages are bad heritages. On the other hand, the thirty-seven bodhipakkhiya dhammas, such as satipatthāna are heritages which the Buddha extolled with a clear mind free from anxiety, and thus are good heritages.

Having shown good and bad heritages, bad and good heirs should also be examined.

In particular, it must be remembered that there are certain heritages in the āmisa category which the Buddha extolled. They are pindivālopa (morsel) alms-food, pamsukūla robes (robes made out of rags and cast away cloth such as from dust and heap), rukkhamūla dwelling place (dwelling place constructed in a lonely place at the foot of a tree), and pūtimutta medicine (strong smelling urine of cattle used as medicine). These four are called Buddhadāyajja. They are the four great heritages which the Buddha approved.

If that is the case, it needs to be explained why the Buddha permitted the acceptance of atireka lābha (surplus acquisition) āmisa given by lay donors, as when He said:

Atireka lobho vihāro aḍḍhayogo, etc. (Surplus monastery, dwelling place, etc.)

The pariyatti Sāsanā** consisting of the Tipiṭaka is the base—the foundation—of the paṭipatti (practice of the Dhamma) and the paṭivedha (realisation) Sāsanās. Only when the pariyatti Sāsanā stands firmly established can the other two Sāsanās be also firmly established. The burden of preserving the pariyatti Sāsanā for 5000 years is indeed great, since these are times of a waning kappa (world-cycle) when the life-span of men is

** Learning of the Doctrine.

^{* 1.} Mūlapariyāva-vagga, 3. Dhammadāyāda Sutta, p. 15, 6th Syn. Edn.

also on the wane. The physical and mental strength of the members of the sanghā, who are the servants and caretakers of the Sāsanā, are as a result on the wane too. The Buddha thus foresaw that it would not be possible for these servants and caretakers, in the future, to shoulder the burden of preserving the pariyatti and at the same time live in lonely places under trees—without the concession of atireka lābha. This is one reason.

In the cases of those persons whose pāramīs are yet immature, the Buddha foresaw that the opportunity afforded them of practising the works consisting of acquiring the pariyatti, performing dāna, observing sīla, and giving paccayānuggaha (assistance in kind) extensively, would secure for them escape from the apāya lokas in the next birth, and enable them to obtain release from worldly ills during the next Buddha Sāsanā. This is another reason.

It may be argued here that if what has been said above is true, it would amount to the Buddha himself having contrived to submerge beings and cast them adrift in amisa heritage. In this particular, it may be pointed out that the Buddha prescribed and left behind the practice of paccavekkhana suddhi (purity of contemplation or purity of review). such as "paţisankhāyoniso cīvaram paţisevati," which should be observed and practised with proper attention and care, in order that the servants and the caretakers of the parivatti Sāsanā who have to associate themselves unavoidably with paccayāmisa and lokāmisa may not be overwhelmed and submerged in āmisa taṇhā. Hence, if such persons ride the ship which consists of the wisdom arising out of paccayasannissita sīla cetanā according to the prescription in paccavekkhana suddhi that is free from the association of the two kinds of āmisa taṇhā, they cannot become submerged and be adrift in the ocean of amisa although they are obliged to live in association with āmisa tanhā.

The meanings of the expressions "submerged" and "adrift" are as follows: The non-appearance of ādīnava-ñāṇa (awareness of blemishes) in the three āmisas of paccayā-misa, lokāmisa vaṭṭāmisa, is what is meant by "submerged." To be non-aware of blemishes for a lengthy period, and to derive joy and pleasure in the three āmisas throughout the whole of the three periods of life, is what is meant by "adrift".

Hence, in order to prevent being so "sub-merged" and "adrift", the Buddha said in the Dhammapada:

Tiṇṇam aññataram yāmam paṭijaggeyya paṇḍito.

—Dhammapada, verse 157.

(The wise man should purify himself during one of the three periods of life.)

This means that if one is "submerged" and be "adrift" in the first period of life, one should attempt to purify oneself during the second period. If, however, one continues to remain "submerged" and "adrift" during the second period of life, one should attempt to purify oneself in the third period.

Here, "purifying oneself" means establishing oneself in the bodhipakkhiya dhammas after ridding oneself of the attachments to āmisa heritages. It means establishing oneself well in the four ariyavamsa dhammas (practices of the noble family of Ariyas), which are:

Cīvarasantosa—being easily contented in robes,

Piṇḍapātasantosa—being easily contented in alms-food,

Senāsanasantosa—being easily contented in dwelling place,

Bhāvanārāma—deriving joy in meditation.

The Buddha said that if one remains "submerged" and "adrift" within the āmisa heritages during the whole of the three periods of life, one will be cast into the apāya lokas. Thus in the Dhammapada, He said:

Ayasāva malam samuţṭhāya, taduṭṭhāya tameva khādati. evam atidhonacārinam, tāni kammāni nayanti duggatim.

—Dhammapada, verse 240.

(Just as rust springs from iron and eats away that self-same iron, the deeds arising out of āmisa taṇhā of a person who lives without reflection lead him to the apāya lokas.)

This discourse * was delivered by the Buddha in connection with a Bhikkhu who dies in the Jetavana monastery, and who was reborn as a louse in his erstwhile Bhikkhu's robes, because he harboured an attachment

to those robes just before he died. If the attachment to a set of robes can east one in the apāya lokas, what more need be said on greater attachments?

The robes were received as a share from sanghika property (property belonging to the Order of the Sangha), and hence were dhammika property (righteous or lawful property). The Bhikkhu in question was also one who scrupulously observed the 227 sikkhās of the Vinaya. Thus it may be said that a set of lawful robes cast a Bhikkhu endowed with the 227 sikkhās into the apāya lokas. What more need be said about properties acquired with lust and greed ordinary layfolk endowed with only five sikkhās? It is thus that one should contemplate and acquire agitation (samvega).*

I shall now give an illustration.

There was a wealthy man who possessed many crores worth of silver, many crores worth of pearls. In order that these properties may not be lost during bad times, he buried the bulk of them in the ground, and kept only sixty-thousand worth of money, rice, paddy, wearing apparel, and ornaments for immediate and ready use.

This wealthy man has six sons. On his death, the six heirs divided the properties among themselves in six equal shares. The properties buried beneath the earth were also similarly allocated. These buried properties could be secured by the heirs only if the owners personally dug them out of the ground.

One of the sons was full of greed. He was not content with the property he could immediately use. He was satiated with the desire for the buried property and could not bear to wait long in order to get it. He therefore exerted himself and dug up the property, thus becoming a wealthy man.

One of the sons was full of energy. He did not look on the prospect of having to exert himself for days and months as burdensome. He therefore put forth effort and applied himself to the work of unearthing the buried treasure, thus becoming a wealthy man.

One of the sons was strong in his attachment. From the moment he received the heritage, his mind was always on the property. Sleep and food are of no consequence, so greatly was his mind attached to the property. He thus put forth effort and dug up the buried property, becoming a wealthy man.

One of the sons was clever and ingenious. He contrived to construct machinery and dug up the buried property, thus becoming a wealthy man.

One of the sons lacked greed. He imagined himself to be well-off with even ten thousand worth of property. He had no desire to acquire the buried property. He was satisfied with the property that he received for his immediate use.

One of the sons was a spendthrift. He squandered all the property not even leaving the price of a spade for the exhumation of the buried property. He sunk to bad ways and was eventually banished from his native place.

In this illustration, the Buddha resembles the wealthy father. Sīla visuddhi and the parivatti dhamma resemble the treasure available for immediate use. Jhāna and abhiññā which constitute citta visuddhi resemble the buried silver treasure. The four lokiya paññā visuddhis, such as ditthi visuddhi, resemble the buried gold treasure. The lokuttara ñāṇadassana visuddhi resembles the buried pearl treasure. The layfolk and Bhikkhus of the Buddha Sāsanā resemble the six heirs.

Those persons within the Sāsanā who are filled with the iddhipāda of chanda (desire) resemble the first son who was filled with greed. Persons filled with the iddhipāda of chanda are not satisfied with the mere acquisittion of sīla visuddhi and the pariyatti dhamma. They do not think that by such acquisition they have encountered the Buddha Sāsanā, or that they have become heirs of the Sāsanā. They nurture great desire for attaining the higher visuddhis and will not rest until they are achieved.

Those persons who possess the *iddhipāda* of *vīriya* (effort) resemble the second son who was full of effort. Such persons are happy and easy in mind only when they are engaged in the attempt to acquire the higher achievements which they do not as yet possess.

^{*} Dread caused by the contemplation on the miseries of this world. See the Light of the Dhamma Vol. VII, No. 3, p. 17.

Those persons who possess the iddhipāda of citta (attachment) resemble the third son who possessed strong attachment. Whenever such persons come to know of work productive of great benefits, they invoke great attachment for it, and their minds do not wander to any other matter.

Those persons who possess iddhipāda of paññā (wisdom) resemble the fourth son who was clever and ingenious. Such persons attain happiness and ease of mind only when they are engaged in the attempt to acquire great knowledge that is difficult of acquisition, deep, and productive of great benefits.

Those persons who do not possess any of the iddhipādas, who possess only inferior chanda, vīriya, citta, and paññā, resemble the fifth son who is easily satisfied with the unburied property. Such persons who lack saddhā and chanda do not even possess the idea that the higher attainments of the visuddhis are the heritages which they can acquire in this very life. Because they lack vīriya, they are reluctant to put forth effort that requires the encountering of privations. They are liable to reject such effort as impossible. Because they are weak in their volitions, their minds are not fixed on such kinds of work. They change their minds whenever they listen to various theories and expositions. Because they lack knowledge and wisdom, they reject such work as beyond their capabilities. It is because the Buddha had such persons in view that He said:

> Chandiddhipādam bhāveti, Vīriyiddhipādam bhāveti Cittiddhipādam bhāveti, Vimamsiddhipādam bhāveti.

In these words the Buddha urged all beings to strengthen their weak iddhipādas such as chanda, etc. Then only can new desires and new thoughts arise.

In the Buddha Sāsanā, layfolk and Bhikkhus who are defective in their moral conduct resemble the sixth son. Among layfolk, those persons who are defective in the establishment of the Ti-saraṇa, and the nicca sīlas of pañca sīla and ājīvaṭṭhamaka sīla, do not possess the qualities of an upāsakā or an upāsakā, who only are the heirs of the Sāsanā. Among Bhikkhus and sāmaṇeras, those who commit the pārājika* offences do not possess the qualities of a good Bhikkhu or a good

sāmaņera, who only are the heirs of the Sāsanā. If layfolk vow that they would keep the pañca sīla or the ājīvaṭṭhamaka sīla from today, they can immediately become upāsakās and upāsikās who are heirs of the Sāsanā.

This illustration shows how of the many persons who are truly in the line of heritage of the one Father (the Buddha), only those who possess one or other of the four iddhipādas as foundation can enjoy the full benefits of the heritages. Persons who do not possess one or other of the four iddhipādas get the opportunity to enjoy only some of the superficial benefits of the heritages. They do not get the opportunity to enjoy the real essence of the heritages. Some persons do not get the opportunity of enjoying even the superficial benefits because they squander their heritages and thus become severed from the Buddha's and the Sāsanā's heritages.

The heirs of the Sāsanā may also be classified into:

- 1. Nivata heirs, and
- 2. Aniyata heirs.

People who have never once obtained anicca ñāṇa and anatta ñāṇa within themselves are called aniyata heirs. Aniyata means that they may be the disciples of the Sabbaññuta Buddha (Omniscient Buddha)—or the heirs of the Sabbaññuta Buddha—today, but they may become the disciples and heirs of another teacher tomorrow. They may even scorn and destroy the Sāsanā of the Sabbaññuta Buddha. Even in the present world there are persons who have changed their faith from the Buddha Sāsanā to Christianity, and who scorn and undermine the Buddha Sāsanā. How easily they can change after death in another birth can be imagined.

One can be a disciple of the Sabbaññuta Buddha this month, and the disciple of another teacher next month. One can be the disciple of the Sabbaññuta Buddha this year, and the disciple of another teacher the next. One can be the disciple of the Sabbaññuta Buddha in the first period of life and the disciple of another teacher in the second. One can be the disciple of the Sabbaññuta Buddha in the second period of life and the disciple of another in the third. One can be the disciple and their of the Sabbaññuta Buddha in this life and the

disciple and heir of another teacher in the next.

Thus in the Patisambhida Magga, the Buddha said:

Nānāsatthārānam mukham ullokentīti puthujjanā.*

(A puthujjana is so called because he looks up to the faces of various teachers.)

The meaning of this passage is that in the infinite past samsāra, puthujjanas have never been constant in the choice of the teachers in whom they have taken refuge. It has been one teacher today and another tomorrow. One teacher this month and another the next. One teacher this year and another the next. One teacher this life and another the next. The number of occasions on which they have approached and taken refuge in the Sabbañnuta Buddha during the infinite past samsāra is very few indeed. Sometimes, they have taken refuge in the Brahmā, sometimes in the Sakka, sometimes in the various devas, sometimes in the sun, sometimes in the moon. sometimes in the planets, sometimes in the spirits of the earth, and sometimes in the ogres, and they have done so as if these 'refuges' were almighty.

In the world, the number of false teachers is very numerous. The number of existences in which puthujjanas have approached and taken refuge in these false teachers is also very numerous. Sometimes they have taken refuge in the nagās, sometimes in garulas, sometimes in rivers, sometimes in mountains, sometimes in forests, sometimes in trees, sometimes in hillocks, sometimes in fire, and sometimes in water.** Thus, in nature, the number and kinds of teachers which puthujjanas, afflicted with sakkāya-diţţhi have approached and taken refuge in, are extremely numerous. The more they approach and take refuge in these false teachers, the more do they sink into the apāya and nirava lokas.

If further, beginning with this life, they continue to wander and drift in sainsāra replete with false attachments of sakkāya-dṛṭhi, they will continue to change the teachers whom they approach and take refuge in. How frightful, terrible, and nasty is the state of a puthujjana'.

This is the meaning of the passage, "nānāsatthārānam mukham ullokentīti puthuj-janā."

On every occasion a puthujjana changes his teachers and refuges, a change also occurs in the doctrines and principles that he depends on for his guidance. Sometimes puthujjanas have depended on the adhisila dhamma (purified morality) expounded by the Sabbañnuta Buddha; sometimes on gosila govata dhamma or the practices of cattle; sometimes on the practices of dogs; sometimes on the practices of horses; and sometimes on the practices of elephants. Thus the moral practices which they have adopted and depended on are also very numerous. In the matter of diphi (views), the number of existences in which they have adopted and depended on sammāditthi (right views) are extremely few. On the other hand, the number of existences in which they have adopted and depended on micchā dițțhi (wrong views) are extremely numerous. The more they have adopted and depended on these wrong views and practices, the more have they sunk—deeper and deeper—into the *apāya* and *niriya lokas.*

Of the countless and infinite number of errors and perversities possessed by puthujjanas, wandering and drifting in sanisāra, the error of seeking refuge in wrong protectors (teachers) is one of the greatest errors conducive of causing them great harm. This is because the error of seeking refuge in wrong teachers leads to wrong moral principles and practices, and the difficult achievement of rebirth as human beings (manussatta dullabha), which may be compared to a great padesā*** tree producing the fruits of good rebirths, becomes in its entirety a tree producing the evil fruits of rebirths in the niriya regions.

This shows the future path of aniyata heirs of the Sāsanā.

Those persons who perceive the anicca and anatta characteristics in themselves are freed from the kingdom of sakkāya-diṭṭhi. They become the niyata heirs of the Sāsanā. Niyata means that they are freed from the susceptibility of approaching and seeking refuge in erroneous teachers throughout future infinite samsāra. They become the true children of the Sabbaññuta Buddha

^{*} Paţisambhidāmagga Aţţhakathā, 9. Sankhārupakkha-nānadassana-vannanā, p. 245, 6th Syn. Edn. ** Cf. Dhammapada, versc 188.

^{*** &}quot;Wishing tree"—

throughout the future succession of rebirths. They become members of the "bon-sin-san" family, and though they may pass through many rebirths and many world-cycles in sainsāra, their views of the unbounded and incomparable qualities of the Buddha, the Dhamma, and the Sanghā, become clearer and brighter from one rebirth to another.

The three sāsanās of sīla, samādhi, and pañāā, the seven visuddhis, such as sīla visuddhi, and the thirty-seven bodhipakkhiya dhammas of satipaṭṭhāna, sammappadhāna, iddhipāda, indriya, bala, bojjhanga, and magganga, are dhamma heritages that prosper and increase in their minds from one rebirth to another. The three sāsanas of the pariyatti, paṭipatti, and the paṭivedha, become permanently established in them throughout the succession of rebirths and the succession of world-cycles.

Although they continue to wander in samsāra enjoying the joys and pleasures of humans, devas, and brahmās, they are no longer beings of the world who change their teachers and refuges from one existence to another. They continue to wander in samsāra as being of the lokuttara, or the region of the ariyas. They are no longer beings of samsāra liable to the miseries inherent in the round of rebirths, and who thus are subject to being submerged, suffocated, exhausted, and east adrift in sainsāra's great whirlpool. They have become the true beings of the first stage of Nibbana called Sa-upādisesa Nibbāna. They are beings who will invariably ascend to Anupā-Nibbāna through the joys disesa pleasures of "bon-sin-san" existences.

In infinite samsāra, all wise humans, devas, brahmās, desire to become niņata beings who only are the true children of the Sabbañnuta Buddhas, and this they hope and look forward to encountering the Buddha, the Dhamma, and the Sanghā. They have to perform many acts of dāna and establish the wish that such acts may lead to such encounter. They have to perform many acts of sīla and establish the wish that such acts may lead to such encounter. They have to perform many acts of bhāvanā and establish the wish that such acts may lead to such encounter. They have to perform many acts of bhāvanā and establish the wish that such acts may lead to such encounter.

This shows the undeviating path of niyata heirs of Sāsanā.

It is to reveal this path that the Buddha, in several places of the Suttanta and Abhidhamma Pitakas, said:

Tiṇṇam samyojanānam parikkhayā sotāpanno hoti, avinipāta dhammo niyato sambodhiparāyaṇo.*

(Because the three Sainyojanas cease, the person becomes a Sotāpanna. He becomes free from rebirth in states of suffering. He becomes confirmed as heir of the bodhipakkhiya dhammas. He finds rest and support in the higher Paths and Fruits.

Note: The three samyojanas are sakkāya diţihi, vicikicchā, and sīlabbataparāmāsa. Of these, sakkāya diţihi is the essential or ruling factor.)

This ends the part showing the aniyata and iniyata heirs.

Good and virtuous persons who perceive what constitutes good heritage and bad heritage, what is fixed or niyata heritage and what unstable or *aniyata* heritage, what are good heirs and bad heirs, what are heirs of tixed heritage and heirs of unstable heritage, these good and virtuous persons did not put forth effort in past successive existences and successive worlds because they desired to become heirs of bad heritages of the Buddha Sāsanā. They put forth effort because it was their desire to become heirs of the good heritages. They did not practise dāna, sila, and bhāvanā, because they desired to become heirs of the unstable temporary heritages, but because it was their desire to become heirs of the *nivata* heritages.

Taking these facts into account, and taking heed of the fact that the Buddha disapproved of the bad heritages of the sāsanā, those persons who have in this existence become the disciples and heirs of the Buddha should not permit themselves to become bad heirs. They should not permit themselves to become temporary unstable heirs. They should attempt to become heirs of the good heritages which are the bodhipakkhiya dhammas. They should attempt to become stable heirs.

In the lengthy period of the series of rebirths known as samsāra, whenever acts of dāna, sīla and bhāvanā, are performed it is ususally because beings desirethat by virtue of these good acts they may in a future existence

as a human being encounter a Buddha and attain release from worldly ills, or attain the Path knowledge, the Fruit knowledge, and Nibbāna. Thus it is usual for them to wish for the heritages of the dhamma. It is not usual for them to desire that by virtue of these good acts they may in future existence encounter a Buddha and attain worldly riches and worldly positions. It is not usual for them to wish for these āmisa heritages. It is not usual for them to desire the gaining of opportunities for the performance of good acts leading to bhava sampatti, bhoga sampatti, and issariya sampatti.

But, at the present day, the bad heritages of paccayāmisa taṇhā, lokāmisa taṇhā, and vaṭṭāmisa taṇhā, constitute to be ruling factors. Modern men and women do not like to hear the mention of the four ariya vamsa dhamnas which are the antitheses of the three taṇhās mentioned. The four ariya vamsa dhamnas are, as has already been mentioned previously, being easily satisfied with almsfood, robes, and dwelling place, and deriving joy and pleasure in the work of bhāvanā. They are called ariya vamsa dhammas because they are dhammas on which Buddhas, the disciples of Buddhas,

and the heirs of Buddhas, should not release their hold.

This is a reminder to those persons who possess wisdom.

As regards persons deficient in wisdom, the mere performance of many good and meritorious, acts has to be extolled as good.

Those persons who are endowed with wisdom, however, should, if they desire to become heirs of the niyata dhamma heritages either in this life, or in the next in the deva lokas, establish the ājivaṭṭhamaka sīla, set up kāyagatā sati, and try (for at least three hours a day) to achieve perception of the three characteristics of existence in the five aggregates of the body. If they perceive either of the three characteristics in the five aggregates, they can become niyata heirs and achieve the status of a "bon-sin-san".

For this purpose, see my "Lakkhaṇa Dīpanī," "Vijjāmagga Dīpanī," "Āhāra Dīpani," and "Kammatthāna Dīpanī". For the path of niyata "bon-sin-san" individuals, see my "Catusacca Dīpanī", and the Chapter on Nibbāna in my "Paramattha Sankhitta".

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BUDDHISM AMONG THE INTERNATIONAL RELIGIONS OF THE WORLD TODAY

(A talk on the Mahāsamaya Day)

By

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

There are three Great International Religions in the world today. They are described as international in the sense that their influence is not confined to one particular race or country but extends far beyond racial and geographical boundaries. They are: Buddhism, Christianity and Islam.

Although Hinduism is the oldest religion, yet it sought no conversion outside India and perhaps for that reason it was not considered an international religion in the world.

Foundation Principles of Christinity and Islam:

The two fundamental principles on which both Christianity and Islam are built up are God and Soul. In fact, these two factors are also found to be the main pillars in all other systems of faith. They are so closely interrelated that it appears as if one depends upon the other for existence. Inasmuch as God creates the soul of manit becomes necessary for God to salvage the soul from the spirtual consequence of sin.

Salvation in Christianity is contingent upon faith, hope, prayer and grace. In this respect, Buddhism is unique, because it is the only religion that denies the existence of God and Soul. This denial of the existence of both God and Soul is surprisingly striking to the Western student of Buddhist philosophy for any other religion worthy of the name builds up its fundamental doctrines on or around the two themes of God and Soul. In this connection the remarks made by an eminent Western writer may be quoted: "It will seem strange to many that a religion which ignores the existence of God and denies the existence of Soul should be the very religion which has found most acceptance among men."*

Western Scholar's Interest in Buddhism:

Western scholars are interested to know what special features there are in Buddhism that stand for God and Soul. After an intensive study of the scriptural texts they find that the entire Cosmos functions at the behests of the Universal Laws of Nature that reign supreme from eternity to eternity. They are described in the texts as "Niyāma Dhammas". They exist on their own rights as the Universal Cosmic Order; in this context they are synonymous with the Universal Truths of Nature. And as the Universal Truths they endure for all times. It is quite plain that the entire structure of the Buddha Dhamma stands on the unshakeable foundation of the Universal Truths of Nature. For this reason alone, Buddhism has nothing to fear from the shattering discoveries of Modern Science.

In place of Soul there is in the Buddha Dhamma the continuum of consciousness or life-processes motivated by the moral Law of Cause and Effect. This moral Law of Cause and effect is one of the five Universal Laws of nature** mentioned above. No one can put a stop to the operation of this Law of Cause and Effect. Successive rebirth immediately after the termination of one life is the result of the unrelenting operation of this Law and not due to any creator from outside. Naturally, a true Buddhist does not look up to any agency for liberation from suffering. On the other hand, he is self-reliant on his personal efforts while treading the Middle Way chalked by the Omniscient Buddha. As they come to understand significance and inner core of the Teaching, it is easy for foreign students of Buddhist philosophy to find that it is founded on Universal Truths and nothing else.

* T. W. Rhys Davids. Buddhism, 1910, p. 156.

^{**} The Five-fold Niyāma is as follows:— (1) Utu-niyāma (The Caloric Order), (2) Bija-niyāma (The Germinal Order), (3) Kamma-niyāma (The Moral Order), (4) Citta-niyāma (The Psychical Order), (5) Dham na-niyāma (Natural Phenomenal Sequence). See the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. IV. No. I. p. 1.

Past, Present and Future:

The Buddha Dhamma, unlike other systems, speaks about the past, present and future existences. On the basis of the operation of the Universal Laws of Nature, it becomes quite reasonable and justifiable for the Dhamma to speak about the past, present and future. In Buddhism nothing ever comes out of nothing. The Jātaka stories fully explain how the Buddha in his embryonic stages had to pass through millions of lives in the past existences.

The Dhamma not only deals with different stages of time but also speaks about millions of universes that have gone by and are now no more; it speaks about millions of universes that are existing at present in space and it speaks about millions of universes that are to come in the future. This fact about millions of universes existing at present is fully supported and substantiated by modern science. In this connection it may be interesting to point out the instructive discourse in which the exploits of Rohitanatha (God) are explained. This celestial Rohita possessed iddhi (supernormal powers) or moving about in the air at tremendous speed and had a desire to go to the end of the Cakkavālas (Universes). He tried his utmost for one hundred years when he found that his span of life came to an end and he expired in the midst of adventure.* Not only do we have subjects on time and space fully discussed in the Buddha Dhamma, but it also deals with the infinity of beings that are tirelessly travelling to and from this Samsaric existence against the immense background of time and space mentioned above.

Inasumch as there is the infinity of beings one notices also the diversities that distinguish one from the other. Could you, for one moment find any justification or reason for these appalling, nay staggering diversities among creatures if they issued from a single source? The Buddhist answer for those diversities is that all living beings performed multitudinous acts in the past for which they inherit dissimilarities in status both good and bad in this life and as they still continue to perform variegated acts in this life which will in time produce varying resultants in the future. This view satisfies all who advocate rationalism in religion.**

Infinity of Beings:

Now Science reveals that millions of life matter are to be found in a drop of water. It also tells us that each grain of sand on the seashore holds a film of water about itself and that inconceivably minute beings swim through the liquid film surrounding a grain of sand as fish would swim through the ocean covering the sphere of the Earth. And in this miniature world of their own round a single grain of sand, the immeasurably small creatures are living, dying, feeding, breathing and reproducing in a way most incomprehensible to ordinary human intellect.*** Surely, this question forces itself upon us: "If there are millions of living creatures in a film of water around a grain of sand, then in all the waters of the seas and occans, what would be the magnitude of life?" Another query that strikes us is: "If this gigantic magnitude of life is the result of creation, then what is the aim and puropse of it all?" Here, the discourse given by the Omniscient Buddha fully answers the question when He asked the monks after taking some grains of sand on the tip of His finger, "Bhikkhus, which is greater in number, the grains of sand on the tip of my finger or all the grains of sand on the Earth?" The Bhikkhus replied: "Immeasurably greater, Oh Lord, is the number of sands on the Earth." The Omniscient Buddha continued: "So too, Bhikkhus, are the beings in the heavens and in the human world comparable to sands on my finger tip; the rest of the grains on the Earth represents beings in the four abodes of suffering." The Buddha speaks about the infinite vastness of space and inordiantely huge number of beings which Modern supports in this Twentieth Science Century. Against this background of the immensity of time and space the pettiness of man is apparent. In time of crisis man displays his pettiness to the extreme. It is certain he can rearely rise above the crowd and environment And if environment lifts him up he is capable of being haughty to the extreme. On the other hand, if his mind is tamed and cultivated, he can rise to the height of nobleness. Man's position and potentiality cannot be underrated. Unlike adherents of other systems of faith, a Buddhist does not look up to an outside

^{*} Samyutta Nikāya, Sagāthā Samyutta Pāļi, 2. Devaputta Samyutta-vagga, 6. Rohitassa Sutta, p. 60, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{**} Readers' Digest, March 1956 Mystery of Life on a Seashore.

^{***} Majjhima Nikāya, Cūļakammavibhanga Sutta, Uparipanņāsa, page 243, 6th Syn. Edn.

agency for liberation from suffering or going to higher abodes of celestial Gods. According to the Buddha Dhamma man's liberation depends upon the practice of morality, meditation and attainment of intuitive knowledge. It emphasises the need for personal efforts to improve one's own mind. The human mind can be brought to the heights of excellence and perfection by following the grand Middle Way prescribed by the Buddha. In the last analysis it is the personal efforts that count on the way to Liberation—to Nibbāna.

Criticism Against Religion:

Eminent men in the West are voicing misgivings against their own religion in the light of modern research. The discoveries of Science have undermined the traditional beliefs of the past. Buddhism is unique in this respect as no responsible criticism has been levelled that its tenets are not tenable in face of scientific progress.

The Buddha Dhamma has not only the answer for solving the riddle of life but also for peace and happiness of all beings. As one walks the Way, peace and happiness comes by spontaneously and when he reaches the Upper heights on the Way he finds that he is at peace with himself and with the world around him.

The Buddha after attaining Omniscience untiringly preached the Dhamma for fortyfive years. His teaching is deep and profound and is meant primarily for the wise. It exhaustively deals with ethics, physiology, psychology and philosophy.

In short, it comprises the entire range of subjects leading to knowledge and wisdom for the attainment of both mundane and ultra-mundane objectives in this life. It may be compared to a deep ocean in which invaluable treasures of centuries lay hidden or it is like a precious mine from which priceless stones and jewels may be dug out and owned.

Current Trends of our Small World:

The present World conditions do not lead anyone to hope or to complacency. On the other hand, all thinking men sense the imminence of the third global War. Just a handful of men on top seem to think that it is time to uphold their pride and prestige. Surely, by their persistence and waywardness they will knowingly throw this world into a state of abomination or annihilation. As citizens of the World we are constrained to ask: "Is it civilisation by any standard East or West?" Through the misguided manipulations of a few, this World is again heading for a major catastrophe. The peace-loving peoples of the World should unanimously raise a note of protest and indignation. There is no justification whatsoever, either morally or politically for a small group of men to put an end to life on Earth. At no time in the history of the world is there such a need for men as now the sobering influence of the Buddha Dhamma: Conciliation-Forbearance ----Mettā.

With Metta, May there be peace and happiness to all beings.

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THE DHAMMAPADA AND THE PRESENT-WORLD SITUATION

By Myanauug U Tin,

(Broadcast from B.B.S. on 27-6-60 C.E.)

The recent Paris Summit Conference ended before it had scarcely begun. And we are now living in a period which we might call, to use the words of Turgenev, an eminent Russian writer, "that dim, murky period when regrets come to resemble hopes, and hopes are beginning to resemble regrets."

The so-called East and West blamed each other for the break-down. Canon John Collins, Preceptor of St. Paul's Catherdral, London, observed, "Both sides are to blame for the collapse of the Summit, for both sides have built their house upon the sands of fear."

Now what is meant by fear? According to the Buddhist philosophy, fear is a phase of hate or anger. The Buddha teaches us that greed arises through unwise reflection on an attractive object; hate, through unwise reflection on a repulsive object. Thus, greed comprises all phases of attraction towards an object from the faintest trace of personal desire to the grosset egotism, whilst hate comprises all phases of ill-humour up to the highest pitch of hate or wrath. Fear is, obviously, a phase of hate or anger.

The so-called East and West hate each other for reasons that go down deep into history. They have been going all out to dominate, if possible, to destroy each other. And yet, because of increasing atomic power which both possess, they fear each other much more than ever. It appears that this mutual fear is a blessing in disguise.

In 1945, Albert Einstein said, "Since I do not foresee that atomic energy is to be a great boon for a long time, I have to say it is a menace. Perhaps it is well that it should be. It may intimidate the human race into bringing order into its international affairs, which, without the pressure of fear, it would not do so."

Atomic power has now become Frankenstein's monster, a monster that becomes formidable to the person who has created it. A war between the two blocs will certainly bring about not merely mutual destruction, but spell radioactive disaster in the whole world.

Canon Collins further observed, "Yet after the failure of the Summit Conference, we now turn more hysterically than before to the false prophets of fear, who insist that we rely on military strength, espionage, economic warfare, threats propaganda and the nuclear deterrent. As Christians, we should be more realistic, understanding and sympathetic to both sides."

We, as Buddhists, should like to endorse fully the observations of Canon Collins. The Buddha enjoins upon us to show our loving-kindness and compassion to all without any discrimination. To us Buddhists, the peoples of both sides are our fellowbeings, be they Russians or the Chinese, the Americans, the British or the French. However, we must say that both sides are seized with hate, anger and fear, and they will be well advised to ponder a few verses of the Dhammapada, uttered by the Buddha over 2500 years ago. They are as fresh as ever and relevant to the contentions and disputes between the two sides.

"He abused me, he beat me, he defeated me, he robbed me," the hatred of those who harbour such thoughts is not appeased."—Verse 3.

'He abused me, he beat me, he defeated me, he robbed me," the hatred of those who do not harbour such thoughts is appeased."—Verse 4.

"Hatred never ceases by hatred in this world; by love alone it ceases. This is an ancient law."—Verse 5.

In connection with a dispute that arose between two parties of Bhikkhus or monks, the Buddha said, "The quarrelsome persons

For the story relating to Dhammapada, verses 3 and 4, see the Light of the Dhamma, Volume 1, No 4, p. 26.

For the story connected with Dhammapads, verse 5, see the Light of the Dhamma, Vol II-No. 1 p. 19. For the story connected with Dhammapada, verse 6, see the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. II-No. 2, p. 30.

know not that in this quarrel they perish; those of them who realize it have their quarrels calmed thereby."—Dhammapada, Verse 6.

On another occasion, when King Pasenadi of Kosala lay writhing in shame and pain because he was defeated in battle by his nephew King Ajātasattu of Rājagaha, the Buddha observed, "Victory breeds hatred; the defeated live in pain. Happily the peaceful live, giving up victory and defeat."—Dhammapada, Verse 201.

The Buddha gave six discourses to 500 Bhikkhus at Mahāvana forest on a certain Full moon day, which is known as Nayon Full moon in this country. It is recognised Mahāsamaya, Great Occasion. This year it fell on the 8th day of this month of June. The discourses relate to the six types of character:— (1) The greedy-natured; (2) The hateful-natured; (3) The stupid or dull-natured; (4) The faithful-natured; (5) The intelligent-natured; and (6) The ruminant-natured. The discourses may be read in the Khuddaka Nikāya. Here, it will suffice to point out that the 500 Bhikkhus to whom these six discourses were addressed were drawn, 250 each from among the Sakyas, members of the Buddha's own clan, and their neighbours the Koliyas, who quarrelled about the use of the water of the Rohini river. The Buddha went and disuaded both clans from fighting, finally uttering three verses as contained in the Dhammapada.

"Ah! happily do we live without hate among the hateful; amidst hateful men we dwell unhated."—Verse 197.

"An! happily do we live in good health amongst the ailing; amidst ailing men we dwell in good health."—Verse 198.

"Ah! happily do we live without yearning (for sensual pleasures) amogst those who yearn; amidst those who yearn for them we dwell without yearning."—Verse 199.

Of the six discourses given on the Mahā-samaya Day, Kalahavivāda Sutta* deals with the hateful-natured. It is the discourse on Contentions and Disputes. The Buddha teaches thus:

"From dear things rise contentions and disputes,

Grief with laments and envy in their train, Pride and conceit with slander's tongue in wake:

Contentions and disputes are envylinked.

And slander's tongues born amidst disputes.

"Desire's the source of dear things in the world.

And all the greed that in the world prevails;

From that is hoping's and fulfilment's sources,

Which bring man to the common lot beyond.

"'Tis pleasant, 'tis pleasant" says the world.

From trust in such there riseth up desire, Man sees in forms becomings and decay, And shapes his theories about the world.

"Anger and falsehood and perplexity,
These things prevail when those twin

states exist.

Let doubter in the path of knowledge

train.

These things by the recluse are taught—he knows."

This is exactly what is happening in this world. Delusion breeds greed. Greed leads to hate, anger and fear. Because of these three roots of evil—Delusion, Greed and Hate, so-called Big Powers and little individuals plan and strive for world conquest. Surely, they will not achieve world conquest: world destruction is more likely.

The Jātakas (the Buddha's Birth Stories) mention that, in the days of yore, the monarchs ruled in righteousness, observing the ten-fold code of the king or ten rules of governing, one of them being non-anger. The Buddha says, "Anger knows no reason or consequences."** Non-anger is ever desirable, more so in a ruler or rulers.

In one of the Jātakas,*** the King of Banaras was given a piece of advice to which any ruler of any age should pay attention: "A monarch should check his anger. Whilst

^{*} Khuddaka Nikāya, Suttanipāta Volume 1, p. 413, 6th Syn. Edn. Khuddaka Nikāya, Mahāniddesa Volume 1, p. 196, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{**} Khuddaka Nikāya, Itivuttaka, p. 252, 6th Syn. Edn. *** Jātaka-aţţhakathā, Volume IV, Verses Nos. 227-234, 6th Syn. Edn.

anger in an ordinary person is not so dangerous, anger in a monarch can easily lead to dire consequences. A monarch's word is a weapon. A monarch's glance in anger may bring destruction in its wake. A monarch should be more careful than an ordinary person to check his anger. A monarch should show forbearance, loving-kindness and compassion. An angry monarch is not capable of guarding even his own interests."

It appears that the destiny of mankind is. at the moment, in the hands of the rulers of five mighty States: Soviet Russia, People's China, United States of America, United Kingdom and France. May these rulers be able to check their anger. The Buddha remarks: "Whosoever pulls back rising anger as a driver to a rolling chariot, him I call a charioteer; others merely hold the reins."*

We, as Buddhists, wish to make an appeal with all the good-will and earnestness to all concerned to pause and ponder the Buddha's counsels. In the words of the Dhammapada (Verse 223) may they be able to "conquer anger by love; conquer evil by good; conquer the stingy one by giving; conquer the liar by truth!"

APPENDIX

"Victory breeds hatred; the defeated live in pain. Happily the peaceful live, giving up victory and defeat."

—Dhammapada, Verse 201.

This religious discourse was given by the Master while He was staying at Jetavana monastery with reference to the defeat of King Pasenadi of Kosala.

Tne story runs as follows:—

King Pasenadi of Kosala fought against his nephew Ajātasattu near the village of Kāsika and suffered defeat thrice. As he returned from defeat the third time, he thought to himself, "Since I have not been able to subdue this tender youth, what is the use of my living any longer?" So he refused to eat and took to his bed. The news of what he had done, spread throughout the city and monastery. The monks reported the matter to the Master, saying, "Reverend Sir, report has it that the king, who thrice suffered defeat near the village of Kāsika and has just now returned from defeat, has refused to eat and has taken

to his bed, saying, "Since I have not been able to defeat this tender youth, what is the use of my living any longer?" "When the Master heard this report, He said," Monks, by winning a victory, a man produces hatred; and he that is defeated is afflicted with suffering." So saying, the Master uttered the following stanza:

"Victory breeds hatred; the defeated live in pain.

Happily the peaceful live, giving up victory and defeat."

—Dhammapada, Verse 201.

A Quarrel Among Bhikkhus

"Ah! happily do we live without hate among the hateful; amidst hateful men we dwell unhated."—Verse 197.

"Ah! happily do we live in good health amongst the ailing; amidst ailing men we dwell in good health."—Verse 198.

"An ! happily do we live without yearning (for sensual pleasures) amongst those who yearn; amidst those who yearn for them we dwell without yearning."—Verse 199.

This religious discourse was given by the Teacher while He was staying among the Sākyas with reference to the cessation of a quarrel among kinsmen.

The story runs as follows:—

The Sākyas and the Koliyas caused the waters of the river Rohini to be confined by a single dam between the city of Kapilavatthu and the city of Koliya, and cultivated the fields on both sides of the river. Now in the month Jetthamūla the crops began to droop, whereupon the labourers employed by the residents of both cities assembled. Said the residents of the city of Koliya, "If this water is diverted to both sides of the river, there will not be enough both for you and for us too. But our crops will ripen with a single watering. Therefore let us have the water."

The Sākiyas replied, "After you have filled your storehouses, we shall not have the heart to take ruddy gold and emeralds and black pennies, and, baskets and sacks in our hands, go from house to house seeking favours at your hands. Our crops

also will ripen with a single watering. Therefore let us have this water". "We will not give it to you". "Neither will we give it to you." Talk waxed bitter, until finally one arose and struck another a blow. The other returned the blow and a general fight ensued, the combatants making matters worse by aspersions on the origin of the two royal families.

Said the labourers the Koliyas, "You who live in the city of Kapilavatthu, take your children and go where you belong. Are we likely to suffer harm from the elephants and horses and shields and weapons of those who, like dogs and jakals, have cohabited with their own sisters?" labourers employed by the Sākiyas replied, 'You lepers, take your children and go where you belong. Are we likely to suffer harm from the elephants and horses and shields and weapons of destitute outcasts who have lived in jujube-trees like animals?' Both parties of labourers went and reported the quarrel to the ministers who had charge of the work, and the ministers reported the matter to the royal households. Thereupon the Sākiyas came forth armed for battle and cried out, "We will show what strength and power belong to those who have cohabited with their sisters." Likewise the Koliyas came forth armed for battle and cried out, "We will show what strength and power belong to those who dwell in jujube-trees.'

As the Teacher surveyed the world at dawn and beheld his kinsmen, he thought to himself, "If I refrain from going to them, these men will destroy each other. It is clearly my duty to go to them." Accordingly, he flew through the air quite alone to the spot where his kinsmen were gathered together, and seated himself cross-legged in the air over the middle of the river Rohini. When the Teacher's kinsmen saw the Teacher, they threw away their weapons and did reverence to him. Said the Teacher to his kinsmen, "What is all this quarrel about, great king?" "We do not know, Reverend Sir." "Who then wo .ld be likely to know?" "The commander-in-chief of the army would be likely to know." The commander-in-chief of the army said, "The viceroy would be likely to know." Thus the teacher put the question first to one and then to another, asking the slave-labourers last of all, The slave-labourers replied, "The quarrel is about water, Reverend Sir"

Then the Teacher asked the king, "How much is water worth, great king?" "Very little, Reverend Sir." "How much are Khattiyas worth, great king?" "Khattiyas are beyond price, Reverend Sir." "It is not fitting that because of a little water you should destroy Khattiyas who are beyond price." They were silent. Then the Teacher addressed them and said, "Great kings, who do you act in this manner? Were I not here present today, you would set flowing a river of blood. You have acted in a most unbecoming manner. You live in enmity, indulging in the five kinds of hatred. I live free from hatred. You live with the sickness of the evil passions. I live free from disease. You live in eager pursuit of the five kinds of sensual pleasure. I live free from the eager pusuit of aught." So saying, he pronounced the following Stanzas:

- "Ah! happily do we live without hate among the hateful; amidst hateful men dwell unhated." —Verse 197.
- Ah! happily do we live in good health amongst the ailing; amidst ailing men we dwell in good health." —Verse 198.

"Ah! happily do we live without yearning (for sensual pleasures) amongst those who yearn; amidst those who yearn for them we dwell without yearning." —Verse 199.

The Tree-Spirit and the Monk:

"Whosoever pulls back rising anger as a driver to a rolling chariot, him I call a charioteer; others merely hold the reins."

This religious discourse was given by the Teacher while He was staying at Aggalava Shrine with reference to a certain monk.

For after the Teacher had given permission to the Congregation of Monks to lodge outside the walls of monastery, and while the treasurer of Rajagaha and others were busy providing such lodgings, a certain monk of Alavī decided to build himself a lodging, and seeing a tree which suited him, began to cut it down. Thereupon, a certain spirit who had been reborn in that tree, and who had an infant child appeared before the monk. carrying her child on her hip and begged him not to cut down the tree saying,

"Master, do not cut down my home; it will be impossible for me to take my child and wander about without a home." But the monk said, "I shall not be able to find another tree like this," and paid no further attention to what she said.

The tree-spirit thought to herself, "If he but look upon this child, he will desist," and placed the child on a branch of the tree. The monk, however, had already swung his axe, was unable to check the force of his upraised axe, and cut off the arm of the child. Furious with anger, the tree-spirit raised both her hands and exclaimed, "I will strike him dead." In an instant, however, the thought came to her, "This monk is a righteous man; if I kill him, I shall go to Hell. Moreover, if other tree-spirits see monks cutting down their own trees, they will say to themselves, 'Such and such a tree-spirit killed a monk under such circumstances,' and will follow my example and kill other monks. Besides, this monk has a master; I will therefore content myself with reporting this matter to his master."

Lowering her upraised hands, she went weeping to the Teacher, and having saluted him, stood at one side Said the Teacher, "What is the matter, tree-spirit?" The tree-spirit replied, "Reverend Sir, your disciple did this and that to me. I was sorely tempted to kill him, but I thought this and that, refrained from killing him, and came here." So saying, she told him the story in detail. When the Teacher heard her story, he said to her. "Well done, well done, spirit! you have done well in holding in, like a swift speeding chariot, your anger when it was thus aroused." So saying, he pronounced the following Stanza:

"Whosoever pulls back rising anger as a driver to a rolling chariot, him I call a charioteer; others merely hold the reins."

At the conclusion of the discourse the treespirit was established in the Fruit of Streamwinner; the assembled company also profited by it.

But even after the tree-spirit had obtained the Fruit of Stream-winner, she stood weeping. The Teacher asked her, "What is the matter, tree-spirit?" "Reverend Sir," she replied, "my house has been destroyed; what am I to do now?" Said the Teacher, "Enough, tree-spirit; be not disturbed; I will give you a place of abode." With these words he pointed out near the Perfumed Chamber at Jetavana a certain tree from which a tree-spirt had departed on the preceding day and said, "In such and such a place is a tree which stands by itself, enter therein." Accordingly the tree-spirit entered into that tree. Thenceforth, because the tree-spirit had received her place of abode as a gift from the Buddha, although spirits of great power approached that tree, they were unable to shake it. The Teacher took this occasion to lay down and enjoin upon the monks the observance of the precept regarding injuring of plants and trees.

Story of Uttarā and Sirimā:

From the day Uttarā went to the house of her husband, she was no longer privileged to approach a monk or a nun, to give alms, or to listen the Dhamma. After two and a half month she asked the maid-sevants:"How much of the rainy season still remains?" "Half a month, your ladyship". So Uttara sent the following message to her father: "Why have they incarcerated me? It would be far better to put a brand on me and proclaim me as a slave-girl, than to give me over to such a *micchādiţţhi* (heretic) household as this. From the day I first entered this house, I have not so much as seen a monk, nor have I had the opportunity to perform any wholesome volitional action".

When her father received this message, he was displeased, saying: "Oh, how unhappy my daughter is". And he sent fifteen thousand pieces of silver to his daughter, together with the following message: "There is a concubine in this city named Sirimā, who receives a thousand pieces of silver a night. With this money have her brought to your hasband's house and install her as your hasband's mistress. Then you can devote your time to perform wholesome volitional actions."

So Uttarā caused Sirimā to be summoned to her house and said to her: "Friend, take this money and minister to your friend during the coming fortnight." "Very well" replied Sirimā, consenting to the proposal. So Uttarā took Sirimā to her husband. When Uttara's husband saw Sirima, he asked, "What does this mean?" Uttarā-replied, "Husband, during the coming fortnight my friend is to be your mistress. For my part, during the coming fortnight I desire to give alms and listen the

Dhamma." When Uttarā's husband saw Sirimā who was a beautiful woman, he desired to take her as his mistress, and immediately consented to the arrangement, saying, "Very well; so be it".

Thereupon Uttarā invited the Company of Monks presided over by the Buddha, saying, "Reverend Sir, during the coming fortnight may the Exalted One take morning meals here and nowhere else." On obtaining the Teacher's consent, she rejoiced at heart and said to herself, "From this day forth, until the Great Pavāraṇā (ceremony at the termination of the Vassā), I shall have the privilege of waiting on the Buddha and listening the Dhamma." And she bustled about the kitchen making the necessary arrangements, saying, "Cook the porridge thus; cook the cakes thus."

"Tomorrow will be the Great Pavāraṇā," thought her husband as he stood at his window looking towards the kitchen. "What is that foolish woman doing?" When he saw her going to and fro arranging for the ceremony, her body moist with sweat and sprinkled with ashes and smeared with charcoal and soot, he thought to himself, "Ah, in such a place the fool does not enjoy luxury and comfort." "I will minister to the samaṇas with shaven heads," thinks she; and her heart rejoices as she goes about. He laughed and left the window.

As he left the window, Sirimā who stood near him, thought to herself, "What did he see to make him laugh?" Looking out of the same window, she saw Uttarā. "It was because he saw her that he laughed", thought Sirimā; "doubtless an intimacy exists between them." Although Sirimā had lived in this house for a fortnight as a concubine, in the enjoyment of splendour and luxury, she did not realize that she was only a concubine, but thought that she was the mistress of the house.

Sirimā immediately conceived hatred towards Uttarā and said to herself, "I will make her suffer." So descending from the palace-terrace, she entered the kitchen; and going to the place where the cakes were being fried, she took some boiling ghee in a spoon and advanced twards Uttarā. Uttarā saw her advancing and said, "My friend has done me a great service. This universe may be narrow, and the World of Brahmā low; but the goodness of my friend is great indeed, in that through her help I have received the

privilege of giving alms to the monks and listening the Dhamma. If I cherish anger and hatred towards her, may this ghee burn me. If not, may it not burn me." So saying she suffused her enemy (Sirimā) with thoughts of mettā (loving-kindness). When Sirimā flung the boiling ghee on her head, it felt like cold water. "The next spoonful will feel cool," said Sirimā sarcastically. And filling the spoon again, she advanced towards Uttarā with the second spoonful of boiling ghee in her hand.

When Uttarā's maid-servants saw her, they tried to frighten her away, crying out, "Get away you benighted heathen. What right have you to fling boiling ghee on the head of our mistress?" And springing to their feet in every part of the kitchen, they beat her with their fists and kicked her with their feet and flung her to the ground. Uttarā although she tried to stop them, was unable to do so. Finally, she stood over Sirimā, pushed all of her servants away, and admonished Sirimā, saying, "Why did you do so wicked a deed?" So saying, she bathed her with hot water and anointed her with oil a hundred times refined.

At that moment Sirimā realized that she was only a concubine. And straightaway she thought to herself, "It was indeed a most wicked deed I committed when I flung boiling ghee on the head of this woman, merely because my master laughed at her. As for this woman, instead of ordering her maid-serants to seize me, she pushed them all away when they tried to harm me, and then did for me all that could possibly be done. If I do not ask her to pardon me, my head is kely to split into seven pieces." And forthwith Sirimā fell at the feet of Uttarā and said to her, "Pardon me, my lady."

Uttarā replied, "I am a daughter and my father is living. If my father pardons you, I will also pardon you." "Very well, my lady, I will also ask pardon of your father the treasurer Puṇṇa." "Puṇṇa is my father in this round of rebirths. If my father to whom rebirth is no more will pardon you, then I will also pardon you." "But who is your father to whom rebirth is no more?" "The Buddha, the Supremely Enlightened One." "I am not acquainted with him." "I shall introduce you to Him. Tomorrow the Teacher will come here with his company of Bhikkhus; bring such offerings as you can and come right here and ask His pardon."

"Very well, my lady", replied Sirimā. And rising from her seat, she went home and ordered her five hundred companions to keep ready to accompany her. Then she procured various kinds of foods and curries. and on the following day, taking these offerings with her, she went to Uttara's house. Not daring to place her offerings in the bowls of the company of Bhikkhus headed by the Buddha, she stood waiting. Uttarā took all of her offerings and made proper use of them, and after the Teacher had taken the meal, Sirimā together with her retinue prostrated herself at the Teacher's feet. Thereupon the Teacher asked her," What offence have you committed?" "Reverend Sir, yesterday I did this and that. But my friend only made her servants stop beating me, thereby showing a turn of kindness to me. Recognizing her goodness, I asked her to pardon me. But she said to me, "If the Teacher will pardon you, I will also pardon you." "Uttarā, is this true." "Yes, Reverend Sir. My friend flung boiling ghee on my head." "What thoughts do you then entertain?"

"Reverend Sir, I suffused her with mettā, thinking to myself, 'This universe may be narrow, and the World of Brahmā low; but the goodness of my friend is very great indeed, in that through her help I have received the privilege of giving alms to the Bhikkhus and listening the Dhamma. If I cherish anger and hatred towards her, may this ghee burn me. If not, may it not burn me.'" The Teacher said. "Well done, well done Uttarā; That is the right way to overcome anger. Anger should be overcome with loving-kindness He that utters abuse and slander may be overcome by him who refrains from uttering abuse and slander. An obstinate miser may be overcome by the giving of one's own. A liar may be overcome by speaking the truth." So saying, he uttered the following stanza:

> "Conquer anger by love; conquer evil by good; conquer the stingy one by giving; conquer the liar by truth."

> > - Dhammapada 223.

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THE BUDDHA'S MESSAGE IS SIMPLE

By

Dr. G.P. Malalasekera, Ceylon's Ambassador in Moscow.

To all those who put the question, "Has the Buddha any message that can be of use to the modern world?", I have one answer. The Buddha stated that His teachings were timeless, that they were true, that they were effective for all peoples in all places.

Perhaps I can amplify this statement. When we Buddhists go to our temples for worship, we utter three formulas of adoration. One of these deals with the Buddha Himself, with his personal qualities as teacher, as sage, as guide, philosopher and friend of mankind. Our worship consists not in prayer but in the hope that by striving to practise those qualities in our own lives we too may acquire those virtues which the Buddha embodies. So we hold the Buddha before our minds as an exemplar, and we show our respect to Him by lighting a lamp. offering flowers and burning incense. In the formula which is uttered last, we enunciate the qualities that should be found in a follower of the Buddha, in order that he may in the end reach the goal of Nibbana.

But it is the second of these formulas which I should like to speak of especially; an expression of the qualities of the Buddha's own teaching. This formula, like the others, is stated in Pāli:

Svakkhāto Bhagavatā dhammo sandiţthiko akāliko ehipassiko opanayiko paccattam veditabbo viññūhi'ti.

Translated, this means that we honour the Buddha's teaching, first, because it is plainly stated; it contains nothing hidden or esoteric. Just as the palm of one's hand can be clearly seen and understood, so are the Buddha's teachings plain, explicable, understandable. This established a tradition quite different from the custom of teaching in ancient India called guru musthi*. This term indicated that there was something which the teacher held in reserve, as in his closed fist, because he felt that if the pupil

were told everything he might lose respect for the teachers, or he might not understand it. Therefore the knowledge had to be given in small doses. The teaching of the Buddha was not of this kind; the whole was there for all to see.

That is the first characteristic of the Buddha's teaching. The second is that it is sandithika, that is, its efficacy is direct and immediate. "Is it a good thing," the Buddha asked, "to show greed?" The answer comes at once: "No, it is not a good thing to be greedy." "Is it a good thing to practise anger and ill-will and hatred?" "No, it is not a good thing to show anger, ill-will and hatred." "Therefore the Buddha would say, "Do not have greed or ill-will or hatred or anger in your hearts, because, as you yourself admit it is a bad thing." "Is it a good thing to practise compassion and friendliness and good-will to everybody?" The answer comes immediately, "Yes it is a good thing." And then the Buddha says, "Therefore practise good-will and compassion and sympathy." The efficacy of the Buddha's teaching can be shown, it can be demonstrated at once. It is self-evident.

The Buddha's teaching is, as I mentioned, akāliko; it is timeless and universal; it is true of all places and all people. It is also ehipassiko, that is, it is the come-and-see doctrine. The Buddha's teaching invites investigation: it is not something to be accepted and believed on faith or authority. Rather, the seeker is asked to examine the teaching for himself, to consider it in all its details, and then accept it or reject it.

Acceptance by the individual is predicated only upon his own conviction that the teaching is meaningful and valid for him. This is the proper basis for acceptance. Once a group of men told the Buddha, "There are many wise men who try to convert us to their points of view, which are often contradictory and in conflict with one

^{*} Ācariya-muţţhi; "Close-fistedness in teaching." Suttanta Piţaka,, Dīgha Nikāya, Mahāvagga Pāļi, 3. Mahāparinibbāna Sutta, p.85, 6th Syn. Edn.

another. What are we to do in such cases?" The Buddha said, "The only thing you can do is to examine what each man says and accept what you think is reasonable and correct. But when you feel you cannot accept something, do not condemn it outright. Never say, 'I do not accept this, and therefore it cannot be right.' That is not the path of wisdom. Put it by, saying, 'I do not understand this thing and therefore it is not for me, but perhaps I shall come back to it later.' In this way no idea is rejected arbitrarily."*

The teaching of the Buddha is also paccattam veditabbo; it must be realised by each man for himself. It is also opanayiko, i.e., it has a definite goal. The goal which the Buddha set for Himself and for every man is the discovery of truth. And what is truth? He defined truth as that which is as it is. When we understand truth, then we see things as they really are, then we possess knowledge of what is—not as what we would like it to be, not as other people say things are, but reality as it is. And this reality has to be appreciated by each man for himself. It is like the curing of a disease. If I am ill, I go to a physician. The physician diagnoses my ailment and gives me a prescription for its cure. I take this prescription to a chemist, have it made up, and then I must drink the medicine. It is not enough for the physician to be clever and to understand my difficulty. I can never be cured by singing his praises and saying what a wonderful man he is, or holding festivals in his honour, or trying to persuade others that he is the one they should consult. None of this would cure my disease. Nor is it enough for me to accept his written prescription, put it in a casket, place it on the back of an elephant and carry it in a procession to the accompaniment of music and dancing. That is not going to cure my disease either. Nor is it enough for me to obtain the medicine from the chemist, put it

on a shelf and place before it a vase of flowers, burn incense and light candles to it, and say "How wonderful is this prescription given by a great and wise physician, may my disease thereby be cured." That is not enough. Nor is it enough for my wife, anxious to spare me trouble, to say, "This man, my husband, has been sick; he is old and feeble and weak and it is very unpleasant for him to take this bitter medicine. Therefore I will swallow it for him." None of these things will cure me. I myself must make the effort and swallow the medicine. I must follow the directions given with regard to my diet and conduct. Then it is that I will be cured, and when at last I have become whole and healthy, I shall have done it myself, by my own action.

It is the same with the realization of truth,** that is to say, the attainment of Nibbāna. Each must achieve it for himself. But the Buddha qualifies this statement: the realization of truth is possible only for the wise. That is why the teaching is called Buddhism; it is designed to attain bodhi, or wisdom. And what is wisdom? It is awakening. And what is awakening? It is the realization of the truth. It is Nibbāna.

When the Buddha was asked to define Nibbāna He gave his answers in many different ways to suit the capacities and the temperaments of His hearers. But one of the commonest answers He gave was that Nibbāna is the attainment of bodhi, and bodhi*** is enlightenment.

The Buddha is unlike other religious teachers, in that He did not make any claims to personal uniqueness. Rather, in calling Himself the Awakened One, He spoke of Himself as a pioneer whose task was to discover the way to enlightenment and to point it out for others to follow. He said

Visuddhimagga, Vol. II, 22. Nāṇadassana-visuddhi-niddesa, p. 331, 6th Syn. Edn. *** Knowing the four Noble Truths.

^{*} Cf, Dīgha Nikāya, Sīlakkhandha, Brahmajāla Sutta. See The Light of the Dhamma, Vol. III, No, 2., p. 29. ** The four-fold Noble Truth comprises the Noble Truth of Suffering, the Noble Truth of the Cause of Suffering, The Noble Truth of the Cessation of Suffering.

Now at the times of penetrating to the truths each one of the four Path knowledges is said to exercise four functions in a single moment. These are full-understanding, abandoning, realizing, and development. Just as a lamp performs four functions simultaneously in a single moment—it burns the wick, dispels darkness, makes light appear, and uses up the oil—, so too, Path knowledge penetrates to the four Noble Truths simultaneously in a single moment—it penetrates to suffering by penetrating to it with full-understanding, penetrates to origination by penetrating to it with abandoning, penetrates to the Path by penetrating to it with developing, and penetrates to cessation by penetrating to it with realizing.

See Nāṇamoli's Visuddhimagga, p. 808.

that He did not create this way, He only rediscovered it. This is the ancient road which has been trodden for thousands of years by countless men and women in their unending search for enlightenment, and others before Him achieved their goal of Nibbāna and became Buddhas. Just so, also, many who follow after the Buddha will so achieve.

But for the task of winning enlightenment, wisdom is necessary. The opposite of wisdom is folly or ignorance, and according to Buddhism, this ignorance is the root cause all unhappiness, of all sorrow, of all misery. Therefore, for happiness wisdom is necessary. That is why Buddhism became the religion of enlightenment, and that is why Buddhism encourages men to pursue all the ways that they can find for the acquisition and development of wisdom. Throughout the history of Buddhism wherever the teachings have spread, every possible encouragement has been extended to fostering all the ways of knowing that would deepen and broaden men's minds, that would make them learned and wise, skilful and accomplished. To be wise one must have skills, and skills are acquired by practice. If the skills are good and the practices are good, then wisdom will follow. That is why in Buddhism the word for good is kusala, which means skill, and the word for evil is a-kusala, which

means lack of skill. If one wants to acquire wisdom and attain Nibbāna, one must cultivate skill—those things that make the attainnment possible. Herein resides the ethics of Buddhism, which enunciates the skills whose attainment leads to the goal of enlightenment.*

How did the Buddha discover these things? Those who have read His life will remember how, as He sat at the foot of the Bodhi tree, enlightenment came to Him. The story is an interesting one, which the Buddha has given in His own words. He said, "As I sat there on the last watch of the night in the month of the full moon of May—the month when all nature is beautiful—the moon shone bright in the blue sky and all was still, for the whole world was awaiting this great event which it had expected for centuries. Knowledge appeared in me, the eye of wisdom appeared in me, light appeared in me, vision appeared in me." This wisdom bodhi, comes as what might be described as a vision of transparency. Just as in a mountain pool of crystal water, shells and pebbles on the bottom are to be seen, and the fish floating in the water, and the plants that grow therein appear throught the limpidness and clarity of the water, so in the transparency of the awakened mind the facets of truth are perceived.

^{*} One should establish himself in sīla (Morality) and then practise samatha bhāvanā (Mental Concentration). When one's mind becomes tranquil and purified, one should practise vipassanā bhāvanā (Insight practice) such as nāmarū pa-paricchedañāņa (Knowledge determining Mind and Body), paccaya-pariggahañāṇa (Knowledge determining the relations of one phenomenon to another), etc., so as to accomplish the seven visudahis (Paths of Purification) step by step, and finally attain to Deliverance.

[&]quot;Appamāda (earnestness), O king, is the one quality by which you can acquire and keep welfare both in this life and in life to come. As the elephant, of such creatures as can walk, combines all pedal characters in its foot, and as the elephant's foot in point of size is the chief among all kinds of feet, even so, O king, this one quality acquires and keeps welfare both in this life and in life to come."

⁻Samyutta Nikāya, Bk. I, III. 2-6.

BUDDHIST MEDITATION

By

Anāgārika Sugathananda

(Former Mr. Francis Story)

The mental exercise known as meditation is found in all religious systems. Prayer is a form of discursive meditation, and in Hinduism the reciting of slokas and mantras is employed to tranquillise the mind to a state of receptivity. In most of these systems the goal is identified with the particular psychic results that ensue, sometimes very quickly, and the visions that come in the semi-trance state, or the sounds that are heard, are considered to be the end-result of the exercise. This is not the case in the forms of meditation practised in Buddhism.

There is still comparatively little known about the mind, its functions and its powers, and it is difficult for most people to distinguish between self-hypnosis, the development of mediumistic states, and the real process of mental clarification and direct perception which is the object of Buddhist mental concentration. The fact that mystics of every religion have induced in themselves states wherein they see visions and hear voices that are in accordance with their own religious beliefs indicates that their meditation has resulted only in bringing to the surface of the mind and objectifying the concepts already embedded in the deepest strata of their subconscious minds. The Christian sees and converses with the saints of whom he already knows; the Hindu visualises the gods of the Hindu pantheon, and so on. When Sri Ramakrishna Paramahamsa, the Bengali mystic, began to turn his thoughts towards Christianity, he saw visions of Jesus in his meditations, in place of the Hindu Avatars of his former visions. The practised hypnotic subject becomes more and more readily able to surrender himself to the suggestions made to him by the hypnotiser, and anyone who has studied this subject is bound to see a connection between the mental state of compliance he has reached and the facility with which the mystic can induce whatever kind of experiences he wills himself to undergo. There is still another possibility latent in the practice of meditation: the development of

mediumistic faculties by which the subject can actually see and hear beings on different planes of existences, the *Devalokas* and the realm of the unhappy ghosts, for example. These worlds being nearest to our own are the more readily accessible, and this is the true explanation of the psychic phenomena of Western Spiritualism.

The object of Buddhist meditation, however, is none of these things. They arise as side-products, but not only are they not its goal, but they are hindrances which have to be overcome. The Christian who has seen Jesus, or the Hindu who has conversed with Bhagavan Krishna may be quite satisfied that he has fulfilled the purpose of his religious life, but the Buddhist who sees a vision of the Buddha knows by that very fact that he has only succeeded in objectifying a concept in his own mind, for the Buddha after his *Parinibbāna* is, in His own words, no longer visible to gods or men.

There is an essential difference, then, between Buddhist meditation and concentration and that practised in other systems. The Buddhist embarking on a course of meditation does well to recognise this difference and to establish in his own conscious mind a clear idea of what it is he is trying to do.

The root cause of rebirth and suffering is Avijjā conjoined with and reacting upon Tanhā. These two causes form a vicious circle: on the one hand, concepts, the result of ignorance, and desire arising from concepts. The world of phenomena has no meaning beyond the meaning given to it by our own interpretation. When that interpretation is conditioned by Avijjā we are subject to the state known as Vipallāsa, or hallucination. Saññā-vipallāsa, hallucination of perception, Citta-vipallāsa, hallucination of consciousness, and Ditthi-vipallasa, hallucination of views, cause us to regard that which is impermanent (Anicca) as permanent; that which is painful (Dukkha)

as a source of pleasure, and that which is unreal (Anatta), or literally, without any self-existence, as being a real, self-existing entity. Consequently, we place a false interpretation on all the sensory experiences we gain through the six channels of cognition, that is, the eye, ear, nose, tongue, sense of touch and mind (Cakkhu, Sota, Ghāna, Jhivhā, Kāya and Mano āyatanas). Physics, by showing that the realm of phenomena we know through these channels of cognition does not really correspond to the physical world known to science, has confirmed this Buddhist truth. We are deluded by our own senses. Pursuing what we imagine to be desirable, an object of pleasure, we are in reality only following a shadow, trying to grasp a mirage. It is Anicca, Dukkha, Anatta—impermanent, associated with suffering, and insubstantial. Being so, it can only be the cause of impermanence, suffering and insubstantiality, since like begets like; and we ourselves, who chase the illusion, are also impermanent, subject to suffering and without any persistent ego-principle. It is a case of a shadow pursuing a shadow.

The purpose of Buddhist meditation, therefore, is to gain a more than intellectual understanding of this truth, to liberate ourselves from the delusion and thereby put an end both to Ignorance and Craving. If the meditation does not produce results tending to this consummation—results which are observable in the character and the whole attitude to life—it is clear that there is something wrong either with the system or with the method of employing it. It is not enough to see lights, to have visions or to experience ecstasy. These phenomena are too common to be impressive to the Buddhist who really understands the purpose of Buddhist meditation. There are actual dangers in them which are apparent to one who is also a student of psycho-pathology.

In the Buddha's great Discourse on the practice of mindfulness, the Mahā-Satipaţthāna Sutta*, both the object and the means of attaining it are clearly set forth. Attentiveness to the movements of the body, to the ever-changing states of the mind, is to be cultivated in order that their real nature should be known. Instead of identifying these physical and mental phenomena with the false concept of "Self", we are to see them

as they really are: movements of a physical body, an aggregate of the Four Mahā bhūtas**, subject to physical laws of causality on the one hand, and on the other a flux of successive phases of consciousness arising and passing away in response to external stimuli. They are to be viewed objectively, as though they were processes not associated with ourselves but belonging to another order of phenomena.

From what can selfishness and egotism proceed if not from the concept of "Self" (Sakkāyadiţthi)? If the practice of any form of meditation leaves selfishness or egotism unabated, it has not been successful. A tree is judged by its fruits and a man by his actions; there is no other criterion. Particularly is this true in Buddhist psychology, because the man is his actions. In the truest sense they, or the continuity of Kamma and Vipāka which they represent, are the only claim he can make to any persistent identity, not only through the different phases of this life but also from one life to another. Attentiveness with regard to body and mind serves to break down the illusion of self, and not only that; it also cuts off craving and attachment to external objects. so that ultimately there is neither the "self" that craves nor any object of craving. It is a long and arduous discipline, and one that can only be undertaken in retirement from the world and its cares. Yet even a temporary retirement, a temporary course of this discipline, can bear good results in that it establishes an attitude of mind which can be applied to some degree in the ordinary situations of life. Detachment, objectivity, is an invaluable aid to clear thinking; it enables a man to sum up a given situation without bias, personal or otherwise, and to act in that situation with courage and discretion. Another gift it bestows is that of concentration—the ability to focus the mind and keep it steadily fixed on a single point (Ekagattā, or one-pointedness), and this is the great secret of success in any undertaking. The mind is hard to tame; it roams here and there restlessly as the wind, or like an untamed horse, but when it is fully under control it is the most powerful instrument in the whole universe. He who has mastered his own mind is indeed master of the Three Worlds.***

^{*} Suttanta Pițaka. Dīgha Nikāya, Mahāvagga Pāļi, 9. Mahāsatipațțhana Sutta, p. 231, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{**} Four Great Parimaries..1. Element of extension, 2. Element of cohesion or liquidity, 3. Element of kinetic energy, 4. Element of motion or support.

^{*** 1.} World of beings, 2. World of space, 3. World of kamma-activities.

In the first place he is without fear. Fear arises because we associate mind and body (Nāma-Rūpa) with 'Self', consequently any harm to either is considered to be harm done to oneself. But he who has broken down this illusion by realising that the Five Khandhā process is merely the manifestation of cause and effect, does not fear death or misfortune. He remains equable alike in success and failure, unaffected by praise or blame. The only thing he fears is demeritorious action, because he knows that no thing or person in the world can harm him except himself, and as his detachment increases he becomes less and less liable to demeritorious deeds. Unwholesome action comes of an unwholesome mind, and as the mind becomes purified, healed of its disorders, bad Kamna ceases to accumulate. He comes to have a horror of wrong action and to take greater and greater delight in those deeds that are rooted in Alobha, Adosa and Amoha—generosity, benevolence and wisdom.

One of the most universally-applicable methods of cultivating mental concentration is Anāpānassati, attentiveness on the in-going and out-going breath. This, unlike the Yogic systems, does not call for any interference with the normal breathing, the breath being merely used as a point on which to fix the attention, either at the tip of the nostrils. The attention must not wander, even to follow the breath, but must be kept rigidly on the selected spot. In the initial stages it is advisable to mark the respiration by counting, but as soon as it is possible to keep the mind fixed without this artificial aid it should be discontinued, and only used when it is necessary to recall the attention. As the state of mental quiescence (Samatha) is approached the breath appears to become fainter and fainter, until it is hardly discernible. It is at this stage that certain psychic phenomena appear, which may at first be disconcerting. A stage is reached when the actual bodily Dukkha, the sensation of arising and passing away of the physical elements in the body, is felt. This is experienced as a disturbance, but it must be remembered that it is an agitation that is always present in the body but we are unaware of it until the mind becomes stabilised. It is the first direct experience of the Dukkha which is inherent in all phenomena—the realisation within oneself of the first of the Four Noble Truths, Dukka Ariya Saccā. When that is passed there

follows the sensation of *Piti*, rapturous joy associated with the physical body. The teacher of *Vipassanā*, however, is careful never to describe to his pupil beforehand what he is likely to experience, for if he does so there is a strong possibility that the power of suggestion will produce a false reaction, particularly in those cases where the pupil is very suggestible and greatly under the influence of the teacher.

In Kammatthāna it is permissible to use certain devices, such as the earth and water Kasina, as focal points for the attention. A candle-flame, a hole in a wall, or some metal object can also be used, and the method of using them is found in the Pāļi Texts and the Visuddhi Magga. In the texts themselves it is to be noted that the Buddha gave objects of meditation to His Disciples with their accordance individual characteristics, and His unerring knowledge of the right technique for each came from His insight into their prevous births. Similarly with discursive meditation, a subject would be given which was easily comprehensible to the pupil, or which served to counteract some strong unwholesome tendency in his nature. Thus, to one attracted by sensual indulgence, the Buddha would recommend meditation on the impurity of the body, the "cemetery meditation". Here the object is to counterbalance attraction by repulsion, but it is only a "skilful means" to reach the final state, in which attraction and repulsion both cease to exist. In the Arahat there is neither liking nor disliking: he regards all things with perfect equanimity, as did the Thera Mahāmoggallāna when he accepted a handful of rice from a leper.

The use of the rosary in Buddhism is often misunderstood. If it is used for the mechanical repetition of a set formula, the repeating of so many phrases as an act of piety, as in other religions, its value is negligible. When it is used as a means of holding the attention and purifying the mind, however, it can be a great help. One of the best ways of employing it, because it calls for undivided attention, is to repeat the Pāļi formula of the qualities of Buddha, Dhamma and Sanghā, beginning "Iti pi so Bhagavā—"with the first bead, starting again with the second and continuing to the next quality: "Iti 'pi so Bhagavā, Araham—" and so on until with the last bead the entire formula is repeated from beginning to end. This cannot be carried out successfully

unless the mind is entirely concentrated on what is being done. At the same time the recalling of the noble qualities of Buddha, Dhamma and Sanghā lifts the mind to a lofty plane, since the words carry with them a meaning that impresses itself on the pattern of the thought-moments as they arise and pass away. The value of this in terms of Abhidhamma psychology lies in the wholesome nature of the Cittakkhana, or "consciousness-moment" in its uppāda ((arising), thiti (static) and bhanga (disappearing) phases. Each of these wholesome Cittakkhana contributes to the improvement of the Sankhāra, or aggregate of tendencies; in other words, it directs the subsequent thought-moments into a higher realm and tends to establish the character on that level.

Samatha bhāvanā, the development of mental tranquillity with concentration, is accompanied by three benefits: it gives happiness in the present life, a favourable rebirth, and the freedom from mental defilements which is a prerequisite for the attainment of insight. In Samatha the mind becomes like a still, clear pool completely free from disturbance and agitation, and ready to mirror on its surface the nature of things as they really are, the aspect of them which is hidden from ordinary knowledge by the restlessness of craving. It is the peace and fulfilment which is depicted on the features of the Buddha, investing His images with a significance that impresses even those who have no knowledge of what it means. Such an image of the Buddha can itself be a very suitable object of meditation, and is in fact the one that most Buddhists instinctively use. The very sight of the tranquil Buddha image can calm and pacify a mind distraught with worldly hopes and fears. It is the certain and visible assurance of Nibbana.

Vipassaņā bhāvānā is realisation of the Three Signs of Being, Anicca, Dukkha and Anatta, by direct insight. These three characteristics, Impermanence, Suffering and Non-self, can be grasped intellectually, as a scientific and philosophical truth, but this is not in itself sufficient to rid the mind of egoism and craving. The final objective lies on a higher level of awareness, the direct "intuitional" plane, where it is actually experienced as psychological fact. Until this personal confirmation is obtained an hour daily to the practice of Mettā

the sphere of sense-perceptions (Ayatana) and sensory-responses remain stronger than the intellectual conviction: the two function side by side on different levels of consciousness, but it is usually the sphere dominated by Avijjā which continues to determine the course of life by volitional action. The philospher who fails to live according to his philosophy is the most familar example of this incompatibility between theory and practice. When the direct perception is obtained, however, what was at its highest intellectual level still merely a theory become actual knowledge, in precisely the same way that we "know" when we are hot or cold, hungry or thirsty. The mind that has attained it is established in the Dhamma, and paññā, wisdom, has taken the place of delusion.

Discursive meditation, such as that practised in Christian devotion, is entirely on the mental level, and can be undertaken by anyone at any time. It calls for no special, preparation or conditions. For the more advanced exercises of Samatha and Vipassanā. however, the strictest observance of Sila becomes necessary. These techniques are best followed in seclusion, away from the impurities of worldly life and under the guidance of an accomplished master. Many people have done themselves psychic harm by embarking on them without due care in this respect. It is not advisable for anyone to experiment on his own; those who are unable to place themselves under a trustworthy teacher will do best to confine themselves to discursive meditation. It cannot take them to Englightenment but will benefit them morally and prepare them for the next stage.

Mettā bhāvanā is the most universally beneficial form of discursive meditation, and be practised in any conditions. Thoughts of universal, undiscriminating benevolence like radio waves reaching out in all directions, sublimate the creative energy of the mind. With steady perseverance in Mettā bhāvanā a point can be reached at which it becomes impossible even to harbour a thought of ill-will. True peace can only come to the world through minds that are at peace. If people everywhere in the world could be persuaded to devote half bhāvanā we should see more real advance towards world peace and security than international agreements will ever bring us. It would be a good thing if, in this new era of the Buddha Sāsanā, people of all creeds could be invited to take part in a world-wide movement for the practice of Mettā bhāvanā and pledge themselves to live in accordance with the highest tenets of their own religion, whatever it may be. In so doing they would be

paying homage to the Supreme Buddha and to their own particular religious teacher as well, for on this level all the great religions of the world unite. If there is a common denominator to be found among them it is surely here, in the teaching of universal loving-kindness which transcends doctrinal differences and draws all beings together by the power of a timeless and all-embracing truth.







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ANATTA-LAKKHANA SUTTA*

(DISCOURSE ON THE CHARACTERISTIC OF ANATTA)**

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

Thus I have heard. On one occasion the Exalted One was staying at Banaras, in the Deer Park at Isipatana.*** There the Exalted One addressed the Bhikkhus: "O Bhikkhus!" "Yes, Lord," answered those Bhikkhus to the Exalted One. The Exalted One delivered this discourse:

"Bhikkhus, rūpa (corporeality) is anatta (not-self). If rūpa be self, then this rūpa would not be subject to disease, and one should be able to say, 'Let my rūpa be thus, let my rūpa be not thus'. And since rūpa is not-self, so it is subject to disease, and none can say, 'Let my rūpa be thus, let my rūpa be not thus'.

"Bhikkhus, vedanā (sensation) is not-self. If sensation be self, then this sensation would not be subject to disease, and one should be able to say, 'Let my sensation be thus, let my sensation be not thus.' And since sensation is not-self, so it is subject to disease, and none can say, 'Let my sensation be thus, let my sensation be not thus'.

"Bhikkhus, saññā (perception) is not-self. If perception be self, then this perception would not be subject to disease, and one should be able to say, 'Let my perception be thus, let my perception be not thus'. And since perception is not-self, so it is subject to disease, and none can say, 'Let my perception be thus, let my perception be not thus'.

"Bhikkhus, sankhāra (kamma-activities) are not-self. If kamma-activities be self, then these kamma-activities would not be subject to disease, and one should be able to say, 'Let my sankhāra be thus, let my sankhāra be not thus'. And since sankhāra are not-self, so they are subject to disease, and none can say, 'Let my sankhāra be thus, let my sankhāra be not thus'.

"Bhikkhus, viññāṇa (consciousness) is notself. If consciousness be self, then this consciousness would not be subject to

*** Now identified with Sarnath, Banaras.

disease, and one should be able to say, 'Let my consciousness be thus, let my consciousness be not thus'. And since consciousness is not-self, so it is subject to disease, and none can say, 'let my consciousness be thus, let my consciousness be not thus.'

"Bhikkhus, what do you think: is rūpa permanent or impermanent?—Impermanent, venerable sir.—Now, is what is impermanent painful or pleasant?—Painful, venerable sir—Now, is what is impermanent, what is painful, what is subject to change, fit to be regarded thus: 'This is mine this is I, this is my self'?—No, venerable sir.

"Bhikkhus, what do you think: is vedanā permanent or impermanent?—Impermanent, venerable sir.—Now, is what is impermanent painful or pleasant?—Painful, venerable sir.—Now, is what is impermanent, what is painful, what is subject to change, fit to be regarded thus: 'This is mine, this is I, this is my self'?—No, venerable sir.

"Bhikkhus, what do you think: is saññā permanent or impermanent?—Impermanent, venerable sir.—Now, is what is impermanent, painful, or pleasant?——Painful, venerable sir.—Now, is what is impermanent, what is painful. what is subject to change, fit to be regarded thus: 'This is mine, this is I, this is my self'?—No, venerable sir.

"Bhikkhus, what do you think: are sankhāra permanent or impermanent?— Impermanent, venerable sir.—Now, are what are impermanent, painful or pleasant?—Painful, venerable sir.—Now, are what are impermanent, what are painful, what are subject to change, fit to be regarded thus: 'This is mine, this is I, this is my self'?—No, venerable sir.

"Bhikkhus, what do you think: is viññāṇa permanent or impermanent?—Impermanent, venerable sir.—Now, is what is impermanent painful or pleasant?—Painful, venerable

^{*} Samyutta Nikāya, Khandha-vagga Pāļi, 1. Khandha Samyutta, 1. Upaya-vagga, 7. Anatta-lakkhana Sutta, p. 55, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{**} Anatta: Not-self; impersonality; soulless-ness; without soul-essence; without ego-entity.

sir.—Now, is what is impermanent, what is painful, what is subject to change, fit to be regarded thus: 'This is mine, this is I, this is my self'?—No, venerable sir.

"So, Bhikkhus, any kind of rūpa whatever, whether past, future, or present, whether gross or subtle, whether internal or external, whether inferior or superior, whether far or near, must, with right understanding of things as they really are, be regarded thus: 'This is not mine, this is not I, this is not my self'.

"Bhikkhus, any kind of vedanā whatever, whether past, future, or present, whether gross or subtle, whether internal or external, wheher inferior or superior, whether far or near, must, with right understanding of things as they really are, be regarded thus: 'This is not mine, this is not I, this is not my self'.

"Bhikkhus, any kind of saññā whatever, whether past, future, or present whether gross or subtle, whether internal or external, whether inferior or superior, whether far or near, must, with right understanding of things as they really are, be regarded thus: 'This is not mine, this is not I, this is not my self.'

"Bhikkhus, any kind of sankhāra whatever, whether past, future, or present,

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whether gross or subtle, whether internal or external, whether inferior or superior, whether far or near, must, with right understanding of things as they really are, be regarded thus: 'This is not mine, this is not I, this is not my self.'

"Bhikkhus, any kind of viññāṇa whatever, whether past, future, or present, whether gross or subtle, whether internal or external, whether inferior or superior, whether far or near, must, with right understanding of things as they really are, be regarded thus: 'This is not mine, this is not I, this is not my self.'

"Bhikkhus, seeing thus, the learned noble disciple becomes wearied of rūpa, of vedanā, of sankhāra and of vinnāṇa. Becoming wearied of all those he gets detached, and from detachment he attains to Deliverance.

"And he realises: "Rebirth is no more; I have lived the pure life; I have done what ought to be done; I have nothing more to do for the realisation of Arahatship."

That is what the Exalted One said. The delighted Bhikkhus rejoiced at His words.

Now, during this discourse the minds of the Bhikkhus of the group of five were liberated from desilements through clinging no more.

CORRECTION

The Light of the Dhamma, Vol. VII. No. 2:—Line 30 on page 45.—For "and to be born many times is more miraculous than to have been born once", read "and to be born many times is no more miraculous than.....". We regret for omissions and misprints in the article "The Case For Rebīrth." Ed.

THE FOUR GREAT OMENS

Being a broadcast talk from B.B.S by U Sein Nyo Tun, i.c.s. (Retd.)

Namo Tassa Bhagavato Arahato Sammā-sambuddhassa.

Every devout Buddhist knows the story of the Four Great Omens—the omens or signs that appeared to Prince Siddhattha, the Future Gotama Buddha, and which led Him on to make the Great Renunciation. These omens are landmarks which are full of meaning and import in the illustrious and inimitable life of Sammāsambuddha.

When the young prince, Siddhattha, was born, there was a prophecy that he would become either an Universal Monarch—a Cakkavattin, a powerful King of Kings—or an Universal Teacher—an All Enlightened Buddha, a Teacher of brahmās, devas, and men. It was foretold that in the latter eventuality, He would decide to become a Buddha after seeing four omens, namely, an old man, a sick man, a dead man, and a bhikkhu or recluse. As is the case with mundane men endowed with earthly power, luxuries, and riches, the prince's father, King Suddhodana of Kapilavatthu, desired to see his son become an Universal Monarch, and was extremely anxious to prevent the possibility of the prince becoming an Universal Teacher.

The King therefore gave the prince in marriage to his beautiful cousin, Princess Yasodhaya, at the early age of sixteen, and surrounded him with a surfeit of worldly luxuries and worldly sensual pleasures. On the other hand, he placed strong guards and patrols within the city and its environments to see that the omens did not and could not appear to the prince. Thus did Siddhattha live in the lap of luxury, ease, sensuality, and forgetfulness, surrounded and guided by vigilant watchmen and protectors.

But this state of affairs could not last indefinitely. The pāramīs or perfections that had been attempted and fulfilled by this Man of great destiny during four asankheyyas and a hundred thousand world-cycles could not forever remain dormant. Soon after He entered his twenty-ninth year, the devas of the Tusita deva world, took it upon themselves to penetrate the elaborate precautions and guards, and to show the four Great

Omens to the pleasure and luxury wrapped prince.

The prince was greatly disturbed by the sight of the omens. On the first occasion, when He saw the omen of the decrepit old man while on a pleasure drive in the Royal Park, He asked His charioteer, "Who is this strange man? He appears to be so full of misery and is unlike any man I have seen before." "He is an old man, Sir," replied the charioteer. "Shall I also become like him one day?" again asked the prince. "Without a doubt, Your Royal Highness," said the charioteer, "Where there is birth, old age follows inevitably." The prince was greatly upset and turned back immediately to his palace. He asked similar questions on the second and third occasions when he saw the sick man and the dead man, and received similar replies. Again, on each of these occasions, he was greatly upset and returned immediately to his palace.

On the fourth occasion when the prince saw the yelllow robed recluse, he asked, "Who is this man who looks so composed, dignified, and serene?" "He is a recluse, a holy man, Sir," replied the charioteer. "And who is a recluse?" again asked the prince. "He is a man who has renounced the world in order to seek a way of escape from the suffering that exists in the world," replied the charioteer.

The charioteer was further inspired to embark on a lengthy praise of the many excellent qualities of a recluse. The prince was greatly pleased with this inspired eloquence and listened to it with a willing ear. He thereupon resolved that he too would forthwith renounce the world and become a recluse for the purpose of sceking a way of escape from worldly miseries, not only for himself, but also for the sake of the whole of animate nature, and agitations of the mind that had assailed him on the occasions when he saw the first three omens now became appeased, and he experienced a new-won happiness and serenity unlike any he had felt before.

This, in short, is the story of the Four Great Omens.

Now, if we pause to consider the nature and intensity of Prince Siddhattha's reactions to the sight of the four omens, we cannot but be struck by the contrast between them and those of the countless millions of men and women that we know and see around us in this modern world. Despite the fact that He lived amidst the mental-vacuum-inducing atmosphere of distracting pleasures and luxuries, the intrinsic thoughtful nature of the prince immediately produced in him a fear and an agitation in regard to the fundamental nature of all worldly life. The pleasures and luxuries that were at his beck and call were transformed in a moment from attractive pursuits to empty, chimerous, and falsely alluring pitfalls when faced with the prospect of the inevitableness of decaying old age, distressing disease, and the vast uncertainty that lay beyond death.

On the other hand, the infinite number of ordinary humans who are born into this world, live their humdrun unthinking lives, and untimely die—from day to day, year to year, and generation to generation—are unmoved by these meaningful omens which are common sights they see practically every day of their lives. In their work as in their leisure, the realisations that they also are subject to old age, decay, disease, and death, do not occur to them. And, if they do, they are fleeting flashes that exercise little effect on the decisions and acts which they make and perpetrate every waking moment of their lives.

In their absorption and pre-occupation with present events, their daily acts seemingly emerge from the standpoint that they themselves would never become old, nor decay, nor be subject to disease, nor to death. It is as if they labour continually under the strongly wishful delusion that they are the exceptions to the inexorable natural law that whoever is born into this world is subject to old age, decay, disease, and death. And these remarks apply not only to the men in the street but also to the many leaders of men in every walk of life—in politics, religion, commerce, education, etc. The world would be a vastly changed place for the better, if the man and women who inhabit it are continually mindful and alert to the inevitability of old age, decay, disease, and death.

There is nobody in this world who can avoid old age, disease, and death, or who can in the future be able to avoid old age, disease, and death, and yet there are very few persons who live under the continual realisation that these are sure and certain eventualities to which they are willy-nilly subject. Everybody tries in his or her own way to postpone the occurance of these banes of mankind with varying degrees of failure, and behind the facade of this attempt they build a wishful fools' paradise wherein they tacitly believe that old age, disease, and death can be indefinitely deferred. Even science is hope hopeful in this particular, for there have been scientifically sponsored attempts throughout the last few centuries of scientific advancement not only of deferring old age, disease and death for a time but also of preventing their occurrence altogether. The fallacy of science in this context consists not in the belief that there is a way of avoiding old age, disease and death altogether, but in the assumption that this way can be found within the vicious circle of worldly life.

Prince Siddhattha, at the age of twenty-eight, was in the prime of his life when he saw the four Great Omens. He was as hale and healthy as any human being could wish to be, and he was as remote from death as any human being could possibly be. And yet, the moment he saw the omens, he was immediately shaken out of his forgetfulness, which the sedatives of ease and pleasure had induced, and his realisation of the inevitablity of old age, disease, and death was so strong that he felt that he would be afflicted by them at the very moment.

Therein lies the difference between men of great destiny who have aeons of work towards greatness behind them and the common place men and women whose future after death is enshrouded in anxious uncertainty. While in the case of these great men their sensibilities are so sharp and delicate that the prospect of old age, disease, and death becomes imminent the moment they see signs of them; in the case of the mass of ordinary humans of uncertain destiny their senses are so gross and undeveloped that even repeated sights of such signs day-in and day-out every day of their lives do not produce any impression.

The ability to acquire an internal realisation of the Truth, a realisation which is more than an intellectual or logical acceptance, comes out of a lengthy process of specifically directed work which comprises more than one lifetime. In fact it involves an infinite number of lifetimes or rebirths. It is because individuals vary in this foundation of previously attempted specific work that there exists in this present world infinite varieties and degrees of reactions to the portents that they see around them every day of their lives. In the Buddhist teachings, five extremely difficult acquisitions are mentioned. Of them, saddhamma savanam dullabham means "Hard is it to hear the doctrine of the good" and dullabha saddhā sampatti means "hard is it to acquire a fullness of faith in the doctrine of the good." They imply that the opportunity to have the way to truth presented is not easily acquired but is the result of an infinite number of years of hard work, while having obtained the opportunity to hear the presentation of the way to truth, it is a still more difficult

task to acquire a realisation—an internal realisation—of the truth of that way.

In the Buddhist teachings, the realisation of the tuth is a personal concern. Truth cannot be taught or otherwise conveyed from one person to another. All that can be done is to show the way to truth—the method of how truth can be achieved—and each individual will have to put forth effort according to that method in order to obtain a realisation of that truth. That is why the Buddha said, "Buddhas only show the way."* Buddha embodied Truth in the word Nibbāna. Let us therefore take heed and put forth unrelenting effort in order to realise Nibbāna. As human beings we have a certain amount of previous effort to sustain us. Let us continue the good work in this life and persevere in that effort so that Nibbāna may be ours before long.

Sabbe sattā sukhitā hontu!

* Dhammapada, verse 276.

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BUDDHISM AND THE VITAL PROBLEMS OF OUR TIME

By

Professor Dr. Helmuth Von Glasenapp, Professar of Indology, Tuebingen (Germany)

Buddhism venerates as its founder the Indian Prince Siddhattha of the family of the Sakyas (c. 560-480 B.C.), whom his contemporaries were accustomed to call by his surname Gotama or by the honorific "Buddha". The word Buddha means the Awakened, the Enlightened, and was applied to the Indian men of those times who were believed to have fathomed the mystery of the world and to have discovered the way to salvation, by their own efforts and not through revelation, The gospel of Gotama spread quickly over the whole of India in his lifetime and after his death, but sell into decay by about 1000 A. D., and had to give way, in the country of its origin, to Hinduism and Islam.

But Buddhism found ample recompense for this loss in Ceylon and Further India, in Chian, Japan, Tibet and Mongolia. The number of Buddhists in the Far East is estimated at 500 to 600 million, but this figure does not give a clear idea of its extension, since the acceptance of some of its doctrines or the observance of Buddhist customs is not incompatible with adhesion Confucianism, Taoism. Shinto and the various popular cults. For it has always been foreign to the spirit of Buddhism to claim exclusive validity. On the countrary, in its all-embracing tolerance, it has always lived peacefully side by side with other religions, and has absorbed ideas originally foreign to it, trying to permeate them with its own spirit.

Present-day Buddhism florishes in two different forms. In Ceylon and Further India the original doctrine prevails, which is called the Lesser Vehicle, or *Hinayāna*; in the Far East and the Tibetan cultural area this "simple doctrine" has undergone a significant broadening as regards pholosophy and cerimonial. This is called the Great Vehicle to salvation, *Mahāyāna*. But the basic ideas of all forms of Buddhism have remained more or less the same, so that in our survey we need take no notice of the differences in detail.

Among the world religions, Buddhism is the one wnose area of influence lies farthest from the West, and also that which is most different in its doctrine from the teachings of Christianity and Islam.

God

First and foremost, Buddhism does not teach the existence of any personal god who created and rules the world. It admits the existence of many gods; but these are only transitory beings with limited powers. They are born and pass away; they can exert no influence on the world process as a whole. Also the great saints and saviours, the Buddhas and Bodhisattavas do not have the position which the Western religions ascribe to their one God. They can enlighten individuals, and according to the Great Vehicle can lead them by their grace to the path of salvation. But they are not able to interfere with the cosmic process or change the world.

The Universe follows its own unalterable natural and moral laws. The most important of these is the law of Kamma, the law of retributive moral causality. This brings it about that every ethically good or bad action inexorably finds its rewards or punishment, because the doer of the deed is born again after his death as a new being, and in that life' reaps what he has sown in theprevious life.

The Soul

Another point which differs from Christianity and Islam is this: both Western religions assume immortal souls created by God, which after death continue to exist in heaven or hell. Buddhism however denies that there can be anything in the world which persists unchanged. According to its theory, life is a stream of elements which are always coming into existence and ceasing to exist, which influence each other according to certain laws. The life-stream of man continues after his death as a new being which has to pursue its happy or unhappy existence, as god, man, animal or inhabitant of hell, in accordance with the good or evil nature of his deeds. A life continues until the kamma, the power of the deeds which called the being

into existence, is exhausted. Then, on the basis of the actions performed in that life, a new being comes into existence which is the heir of the previous life, and so on.

Since each life is the consequence of the actions of a piev ous life, no beginning of the world can be conceived. Since in each life new actions are performed which produce kamma, there can in the natural course of things be no end of the world. A few beings. however, succeed, through knowledge of truth, in getting rid of the passions which are the root cause of the *kammic* process. They withdraw from the world, they enter into Nibbāna, into the great peace. But .however many beings may enter into Nibbana, the cosmic process will never come to an end. For the number of beings who inhabit the infinitely vast number of worlds as animals, men, spirits, gods and inhabitants of hell, is infinitely great.

Thus as little can be said about an end of the world as about a beginning. And with this we come to a third important point where Buddhism differs from Islam and Christianity. Both of these teach that the world was created by God out of nothing, that it remains under his governance for some thousands of years and that on the Last Day it will come to a definite end, when the dead will rise again, all men will receive their eternal reward or eternal punishment, and a new earth of eternal duration and splendour will be created. The ideas of a primodial creation and a definite end of the world are as foreign to Buddhism as that of a providential direction of cosmic events in accordance with a divine plan. It will be evident that, because of these divergences from the conceptions and dogmas of theistic religions, Buddhism must arrive at different answers concerning many of the questions which concern us here.

Before I proceed to discuss these questions, I must say a word about my own personal attitude towards Buddhism. I am not a Buddhist, but one engaged in Buddhist research. I have concerned myself for over thirty years with the Buddhist scriptures in the Indian languages, and have studied the principal Buddhist countries (except Tibet and Mongolia) at first-hand on three prolonged visits. In view of my knowledge of the Buddhist sacred writings, and the man, discussions I have had with Buddhist monks and laymen, I believe I can answer these questions objectively and correctly in the spirit of Buddhism. I hope that in this way

I shall be able to add to the understanding of a doctrine the study of which has been my life's work, and a knowledge of which, in my opinion, is necessary for anybody who seriously concerns himself with the various solutions which the riddle of existence puts before us.

The Meaning of Life

(1). The first question which has been addressed to me is: "So far as we can see, both the life of the individual, and the history of mankind as a whole, proceed according to definite laws and indefinite phases. Apart from such causal regularities, has life any meaning which is comprehensible to us? Has man any definite task within this world? Or does this task merely consist in preparing himself to leave the world?

"Regarded from the religious standpoint, is it ultimately unimportant how man behaves in this world? If not, where can he find directions as to his behaviour, and how can he know the validity of these directions? If the world has a comprehensible meaning, how is the suffering of innocent people to be explained?"

As I see it, there are in this group of questions no fewer than six separate questions. I shall answer them one by one.

(a) What is the goal of the cosmic process? According to the Buddhist view, which I have already outlined, this question cannot be answered. For Buddhism does not believe in a final state of things towards which history progresses. The cosmos is in eternal movement, and the numerous world systems of which it consists, pass periodically through the four phases of coming into being, existence, dissolution and non-existence.

Cosmology

Buddhist cosmology usually starts by describing how an existing world which is ripe for dissolution, is emptied of its inhabitants. These beings, after death, are born again in another world, and the uninhibated world is destroyed completely by fire, water or wind. The world thus destroyed disappears for an enormous period of time, and there exists in its place only empty space. When the lawfully fixed period of nonexistence comes to an end, there arises a new world system by virtue of the latent kammic power of the beings of the world which was destroyed. In empty space there first springs up a faint breeze which grows ever stronger finally the heaven worlds, earth and hell are

formed. These are then populated with the beings who have had to live through the intervening period in other worlds.

At the beginning of such a newly arisen world, men are without sex. They are endowed with a radiant body, they hover over the earth's surface, and they need no physical nourishment. But because of curiosity they feed on the finer substance of the earth, they become earth-bound creatures with gross and perishable bodies. Desire which grows ever stronger in them, causes them gradually to lose their original purity and virtue; they give themselves to bodily pleasures and quarrel with each other over their possessions which had so far been held in common. So that order may be re-established, property is introduced, and one man is installed as king. The need for a division of labour then leads to the formation of special callings and castes.

Over a period of millions of years, the natural and moral condition of the world deteriorates from generation to generation, so that human beings who in the beginning had an unimaginably long life, now never live beyond a hundred years. This position in which we find overselves now, will in the futhre become still worse. At last Armageddon, "the time of the swords", breaks out, which lasts for seven days, during which the greater part of mankind is killed.

During this period of horror a few men have gone back to live in the forest, and subsist peacefully on fruit and roots. Taught by catastrophe, they determine for the future to live a peaceful, moral life. Henceforth conditions improve so that men become good and happy. This better state of things again lasts only for a time, and then decline sets in. Twenty periods of this kind, of falling and rising culture, follow in succession. When in the last, the twentieth period, the optimal point is reached, an emptying of the world from all living beings takes place, and finally its destruction, as described before. In this manner the cosmos undergoes continuous change, as in accordance with eternal laws many worlds, one after another, come into existence and pass away.

(b) Thus Buddhism knows no ultimate goal of world evolution. Nevertheless the world has a meaning. It is the ever-changing scence of the retribution of good and and evil deeds (Kamma).

- (c) The duty of man consists in the first place, to see to it that, through leading a moral life, he is reborn in a good environment, with a happy future. As a distant and supreme goal Nibbāna beckons to the religious man, but it can be attained only after long purification. Hence the final task of man is to prepare himself to leave the world.
- (d) From the foregoing it follows that according to the Buddhist view the present conduct of man is of fundamental importance for his future fate. The entire Buddhist teaching is based on a belief in the moral structure of the universe. Such a belief rests not only on the conviction that everything good and evil will have its retribution and that it is possible for man continually to perfect himself; it also presupposes that there exists an objective criterion of what helps man on the way to perfection and of what obstructs his progress.

The Buddha proclaimed an ethics of intention. What decides whether an action produces good or bad kamma is the intention which which it is performed. Therefore actions which are not performed as the result of a moral decision, positive or negative have no kammic results.

It is understandable that this lofty philosophical view has not been preserved for long. In the course of its history Buddhism has developed, in many different forms, the theory that the giving of gifts to monks, and the performance of certain sacred rites, produce a store of meritories works. Indeed in many of the schools of the Great Vehicle, ritualism has obtained such importance that the performance of magical rites, like the mechanical turning of prayer-wheels or the muttering of certain sacred formulae, have become a principal activity of the devotees. This is a regrettable though understandable, degeneration, which indeed is not unknown in other religions.

Rebirth

(e) For the doctrine that good or evil deeds receive their reward or punishment in a new existence, Buddhists find empirical confirmation in this, that according to their opinion, men who have reached a certain height of spiritual development are able to look upon their own previous lives and rebirths, of other beings. Since only a few individuals have reached so high a stage of

spiritual maturity, the rest of us must rely on the testimony of these saints, just as those who have not visited a foreign country have to put their trust in the statement of reliable travellers.

First among possessors of such knowledge come the Buddhas, i.e., men to whom, by virtue of the enlightenment they have attained the connection between natural events and the moral realm has become evident. The word of a Buddha therefore ranks as the highest authority for all conduct; and from sayings of Gotama preserved in the holy scriptures, a Buddhist derives guidance for his life.

(f) The doctrine of moral causality offers the Buddhists an explanation why one man is distinguished, rich and happy, and the other lowly, poor and miserable. The fact that good man often fare badly, while evil men are happy, is explained according to the doctrine by assuming that the good men have still to expiate in this life the sins of a previous existence, while a bad man who has done good deeds in his previous life is now getting the reward for them. For the whole of the circumstances in which anyone now lives is a consequence of the actions of his previous existence, while on the other hand what he does now is done by the free decision of his will.

It can be objected against this theroy that in his behaviour man is very largely determined by his predispositions, and that it is therefore difficult to establish the freedom of his moral decisions. Buddhism replies on this point that, against the fatalistic teachings of his time, the Buddha always emphasised: "I teach (the efficacy of) action and energy," and that the workings of the law of kamma are beyond the grasp of the ordinary man.

(2) The second question which I have to answer from the standpoint of Buddhism runs thus; "If man has a normative ideal to which he has to conform, what are the conditions of life which guarantee him the quickest fulfilment of this task?"

According to the Buddhist view, man occupies an exceptional postition among beings. He alone is in a position to question life itself and to achieve a transcending of it. Animals cannot do so, since they are wholly absorbed by the life of the senses. The heavenly beings also cannot do so, since because of their long life and the happiness

they enjoy, the idea never occurs to them that life is transient and therefore unsubstantial and unsatisfactory.

In consequence of this middle position in the hierarchy of living forms which man occupies, existence as a man is always praised as a rare piece of good fortune. On this point it is said: "The chance is as small as that a blind turtle, emerging from the sea once in a hundred years, should put its head straight into a single-necked basket—so small is the chance that being in the course of his repeated rebirths should once become a man (Majjhima, 159).

Man should, therfore, make use of the precious boon which has fallen to his lot, and take care that he improves himself morally, in order gradually to attain perfection. A famous saying in the Dhammapada (v. 183) shows the way to the fulfilment of this task: "Shun all evil, do good, and purify your own heart: that is the teaching of the Buddhas". The avoidance of evil consists in not killing, not stealing, not lying, not committing fornication and not using intoxicating drinks which reduce man's mental capacity or deaden his sense of resposibility. He should, therefore, follow no calling in which he is bound to come into conflict with these postulates: he cannot be a hunter, a butcher, an executioner, a publican, and so on. It is easiest for him if he detaches himself from the world, and thus avoids its temptations. But only a few are mature enough to enter the monastery or to live as a pious hermit.

Thus the Buddhist ought not to be content with conditions as he finds them; he must try, wherever he can, to change them in accordance with Buddhist principles, Where that is not possible, his effort must be to make himself inwardly free from his environment so that he may detach himself from it and rise above it.

(3) We now come to the third question which raises the following problem:

"Are all men equal? If not, in what do they differ? In what respects is equality of all men desirable, and how far should existing differences be preserved?"

Since not even twins are completely alike in their abilities and their destiny, there can be in practice no complete equality of all men. Buddhism has therefore never tried to make all men alike. According to Buddhism mankind as a whole resembles to a certain extent a great pyramid, the borad base of which consists of the crude worldlings who are still far removed from the light of truth, while the narrow summit comprises only the few perfected ones. And between these two extremes, men are ranged in infinitely many degrees of virtue and knowledge. But for all of them, Buddhism tries to show the way to spiritual progress, by prescrib for them a spiritual diet to their individual needs. And just as it answers to the many different levels of comprehension of men, it also tries to adapt itself to the peculiarities of various cultures and races.

The Amitabha Cult

In its eagerness to satisfy the most varied needs of people, the Great Vehicle in particular has taken over many features and conceptions which were originally foreign to Buddhism. Thus in East Asia today, the cult of Buddha Amitabha is very widespread. This mythical saviour calls to his heavenly paradise all those who, in their hour of death, in faith seek refuge in him; so that, being protected there from all evil influences, they can prepare themselves for Nibbana. Here Buddhism has adopted modes of thought from the theistic religions of divine grace. But in doing, so it has not abandoned its principle of an eternal consmic law which governs everything, for Amitabha is only the bringer of good tidings into this sorrowful world. He has no part in creating or ruling it, for how could an omniscient spiritual being bring into existence this world full of pain, or hurl the wicked down into the abyss of hell for their misdeeds, or condemn them to reincarnation in miserable forms of life?

Thus Buddhism aknowledges the differences among men in spiritual-religious matters, and has therefore presented its doctrine of salvation in the most variegated forms. On the other hand, it attaches no weight to differences of race, nationality, class or caste. In contrast to Brahmanism it has not excluded wide sections of the people from its gospel of salvation, and entry into its order is open to all strata of society.

(4) The fourth question which has been put to me is this: "Which social institutions

belong to the foundations of mankind and which are susceptible of alteration and development whithout harm to what is truly human? How does it stand in this regard with marriage, the family, the State, property, the right of self-determination of the individual, and so on?"

According to its doctrine that all things are in a continual process of change, Buddhism recognises no social institution as eternal or unalterable. While the Chinese consider the State an institution belonging to makind from its earliest times, Buddhism holds that it arose at a definite period of the cosmic process and will later disappear. Caste, which for the Hndus rests on God-given foundations, is for Buddhism a system arising from needs of the time, and having value only for India. Likewise marriage, the family, and property are obligatory only for worldly men of a limited historical period. With the giving up of the worldly all these institutions lose their life significance. The monk, who has renounced worldly life, has at least in theory, risen above these obligations.

It is not surprising that this standpoint, adopted by the Buddha and by the authoritative fathers of the Buddhist church, has been much modified in the course of history. Under the pressure of outside forces, Buddhism had to make concessions to the state in several countries, and the prevailing ideal of nationalism is not without influence on the thought of many Buddhists. It is well-known that in Japan among many sects loyalty to the monarch and patriotism have become articles of religious faith, and that in Tibet a kind of theocratic state has arisen.

No Central Authority

All these facts in no way alter the basic position which Buddhism adopts in relation to all earthly institution. They have their value and their sphere of application at a certain stage; tbut for those who can see everything from a higher plane, they are in themselves only temporary means whereby order is maintained in the world.

As I understand it, Buddhism is, all throughout a doctrine of salvation for the individual; the idea of a human collectivity, which has sinned and can be redeemed, is alien to it. Therefore it has no central authority which claims the right of issuing

orders or proclaiming dogmas binding on all the Buddhists of the world. When the Buddha lay on his death bed and was asked who henceforth would lead the community, he said "In future the *dhamma* will be your master."

It is clear that this pronouncement of the Exalted One had various unfortunate consequences for the community. For the absence of a generally aknowledged supreme spiritual authority had the result that very soon after the Nibbāna of the Perfect One dissensions arose over the interpretation of controversial points in the doctrine or over individual cases of monastic discipline, and that again and again new sects appeared.

Buddhism has accepted this with open eyes, for the right of self-determination of the individual and of the local congregation represented by the monastic chapter, have always seemed to it to outweigh these disadvantages. How far-reacing this right of self-determination is can be see from the fact that it not only was, and is open to the layman, under certain conditions, to enter at any time into the circle of devotees of the Exalted One, and to leave it again but it was and is even possible to belong at the same time to other religious communities and cults. The monk was alwaays free to leave the order, and it often happened that people repeatedly during their lives became monks and returned to the world again.

In the twenty five centuries of the history of Buddhism one naturally comes across instances in which the conditions described here have undergone modification for a time. But in general both the Lesser and the Great Vehicle have maintained the basic principle of the right of self-determination.

Buddhism and Politics

(5) The fifth question addressed to me runs as follows:

"As far as it appears possible and necessary to alter institutions, how far and by what means is it permissible to act against the existing system and its defenders? When may cooperation be refused in the undertakings carried on by the current holders of power? When is obedience to the coventions of the society into which one was born, obligatory?"

The answer to this can be given briefly, Since Buddhism tried to establish a spiritual order, which is not for this world, it does not claim to be a protagonist of social reforms. It is a common error to believe that the Buddha wished to destroy the caste system in india; he did not interfere with the social order as it existed, when he laid down that caste differences should no longer be observed within his order. This was no innovation, for this principle was observed among other Indian ascetics.

To change existing conditions by violence must appear to all Buddhists completely opposed to the teaching of the Master. For any exercise of brute force is alien to the merciful spirit of the pure doctrine. The Buddha condemned any thought of hateinspired retaliation (Dhammapada 3-5).

Certainly, departures from this hallowed principle occured, but in the whole course of the history of Buddhist history they play no important part. It has, therefore, never known either a socila revolution, nor crusades, nor wars of religion. The struggle against conditions which were found to be oppressive, and against the ununrighteous claims of the mighty, was therefore mostly conducted in a peaceful manner by way of passive resistance.

The Perfectibility of Man

(6) The answer to the sixth question will also not accupy us long. It is as follows:

"Is man capable of changing, transforming himself, induced by instruction or revelation, and has he perhaps that capacity even to an unlimited extent? And which are the limits of his capacity to become good and wise?"

Buddhism does not recognise any fundamental difference between the children of light and children of darkness, foreordained to eternal bliss or to eternal damnation. On the contrary, it assumes that there are infinitely many stages in spiritual development, and in the achievement of them, beings rise or fall in accordance with their actions performed in the course of their rebirths. The story of the robber-chief Angulimāla who had committed many murders, shows that a man may by virtue of right instruction, evolve from a criminal to a saint in the course of one existence. Converted by the

Buddha, Angulimāla became an Arahat and entered into Nibbāna.

That even the worst sinner can finally attain perfection is also shown by the story of the Buddha's cousin Devadatta. This man committed the two worst sins known to Buddhism: he had sought, inspired by ambition, to murder the Buddha, and he had brought about a schism in the order. As punishment he died of a haemorrhage and went to hell. When he will have atoned for his misdeeds by staying in hell for a hundred thousand aeons, he wil be purified of evil, and finally attain enlightenment and become a Solitary Buddha. The belief in man's unlimited capacity for change could hardly go farther than that.

The related question, whether all beings have the capacity, in the course of their rebirths, to become wise and good and thereby finally attain deliverance, was not anwered by the Buddha. Later teachers expressed themselves on this subject in various ways. While many seem to have accepted such a belief, others thought that there are beings who areby nature incapable of assimilating the highest knowledge, and therefore must remain forever subject to the cycle of rebirths.

Buddhism and Modern Science

(7) I now turn to the seventh and last question. It runs: "How far is what contemporary science has to say about man and world, in harmony with the teaching of Buddhism, or in contradiction to it?"

Buddhism originated 2500 years ago in India, and until the beginning of the last century it was confined to countries which were entirely untouched by modern science. It, therefore, goes without saying that many of its doctrines, so far as they touch upon scientific, cosmological, and geographical matters, are irreconcilable with the results of modern Western science. It was born and grew in an era when an unlimited credulity prevailed; if we read the holy scriptures as we should read works of later times, in the spirit of literal history, we shall find things which do not fit into our modern picture of the world. We read that the Buddha was conceived by his mother miraculously, that he was able to fly through the air to Ceylon three times, that he increased food by magic.

walked on water, and so on. And similar miricles are reported of his followers and of later saints; visions, magical cures, fantasies and the like, in short almost all those things which were natural to the mode of thought of antiqunty and mediaeval times in all parts of the world.

A Law-governed Universe

Notwithstanding many such features, so strangeto us, which like a thick undergrowth over spread more especially the later literatture, we do, on the other hand, find much, even in the old texts, which strikes us as quite modern.

- (a) First and above all is to be noted the principle of general and throughgoing conformity to natural law which rules the whole Buddhist system. Again and again it is said: "This basic principle stands firm, this universal confirmity to law, the conditioning of one thing by another" (Samyutta, 12-20-4). "Profound is this law of dependent origina-Since it does not know, understand or grasp this law, this generation has become confused, like a ball of thread" (ib. 12. 4). But a well-trained disciple ponders thoroughly the dependent origination, for he knows thus: "When that is, this comes into being; through the destruction of that, this is destroyed" (ib. 12. 41-51, etc.).
- (b) A further point of agreement is its positivistic character. For the Buddhist doctrine denies the existence of eternal substances: matter and spirit are false abstractions; in reality there are only changing factors (dhamma) which are lawfully connected and arise in functional dependence of each other. Like Ernst Mach, the Buddha therefore resolves the ego into a stream of lawfully co-operating elements, and can say with him: "The ego is as little an absolute permanent entity as the body. The apparent permanence of the ego consists only in its continuity."

In the philosophy of the Great Vehicle, Buddhism goes to the point of denying the reality of the external world. It is characteristic of the philosophical spirit of Asia that such epistemological doctrines do not, as with us, remain without close realtion to the true religious life, but enter deeply into it and occupy the thought of wide circles. The consistent idealism of the theory of 'Consciousness only' forms the

basis of the Zen sect, widespread in China and Japan, which tries through meditation to realise the "void" which is above contradictions; and is also the basis of the priestly magic and mysticism of Tibet.

- (c) It resembles modern modes of thought when the Buddha teaches that there are many problems that man, with his limited intellectual capacity, will never be able to solve, but in his cogitations about them entangles himself again and agin in contradictions concerning problems such as the workings of kamma, the nature of the world, the question whether the world is eternal or not, finite or infinite, how the vital principle connects with the body, and what is the state of the saint who has entered into Nibbana.
- (d) Buddhism also agrees with modern science in its picture of a nuiverse of a vast spatial extent and unending time. The Buddha taught that there exist side by side infinitely many world systems which continually come into existence and perish again. It is not that he anticipated Copernicus; for each world system has an Earth at the centre, and sun, moon and stars revolve round it. It is rather that the conception of a multiplicity of worlds appears in his teaching as the natural consequence of the principle of retributive causality of actions. The number of actions which have to find reward or punishment is so infinitely great, that the appropriate retribution could not be comprised within one world, with its regular alternation of rising and falling cultural levels.
- (e) Buddhism finds itself again in agreement with modern biology in that it acknowledges no essential difference, but only a difference of degree, between man and animal. However, it is far from the Darwinian line of thought.
- (f) Finally, it can also be said that the Indians discovered the unconscious earlier than the Western psychologists. For them the unconscious consists in the totality of the impressions which slumber in the individual as the inheritance from his previous existence. The Buddhist technique of meditation, which is concerned with these latent forces, is thus a forerunner of modern

psychoanalysis, of autogenic mental training, etc.

The attitudes of present-day Buddhists towards modern science vary. So far as I can see, three attitudes can be distinguished:

- (a) The great mass of Buddhist laymen and monks in Asia are still untouched by the modern natural sciences. For them the words of the Buddha and the commentaries on them are still the infallible source of all knowledge of the universe and its phenomena.
- (b) Many Buddhists try to prove that the cosmological ideas and miraculous stonies of the Canon conform to fact, and for his purpose interpret the texts in an aritificial sense or draw upon the assertions of modern occultism as proofs. It is noteworthy that they do not consider miricles to be vioulations of the law of nature brought about by a supernatural power, but assume that there are unknown forces and laws which cause events that to us appear as miricles but are really not.
- (c) Other Buddhists again, regard the statements of the text on natural phenomena as conditioned by the ideas prevailing in those times and therefore no longer authoritative. They say that the Buddha was not concerned to put forward a scientific world view valid for all time, but that the essential core of Buddhism is rather its practical doctrine of salvation. The Buddha always maintained that everything of this earth is transitory, unreal and therefore unsatisfactory and that so long as man is still under the subjection of the three cardinal vices of hatred, greed and ignorance he will never attain to inner peace and serene clarity of vision. Only through the purification from all desires and the complete realisation of absoluate selflessness, though a moral conduct of life and constant practice of meditation, can he approach a state in which he lives in peace with himself and with the world. Man can elevate himself and raise his stature by emulating the great example of the Buddha seated in calm meditation, whose face shines in triumphant peace. Then man can lift himself above the fierce current of time, up to the imperishable state that is beyond all the unrest of the inexorable nexus of Becoming and Suffering. And the ideal

that presents itself here is that unshakable composure of mind which a Buddhist verse describes:

He whose mind is like a rock. Firmly anchored, shakes no more, Who has escaped from all passion, Is no more angry and no more afraid, He whose mind is thus without equal, How can sorrow defeat him?

(*Udāna 4.4*)







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SOME SALIENT FEATURES OF BUDDHISM

By

Venerable Nārada Mahāthera

The foundations of Buddhism are the four Noble Truths, namely, Suffering (the raison'detre of Buddhism), its cause, i.e. Craving, its end, i.e. Nibbāna (the summum bonum of Buddhism), and the Middle Way.

What is the Noble Truth of Suffering?

"Birth is suffering, old age is suffering, disease is suffering, death is suffering, to be united with the unpleasant is suffering, to be separated from the pleasant is suffering, not to receive what one craves for is suffering; in brief the five Aggregates of Attachment are suffering."

What is the Noble Truth of the Cause of Suffering?

"It is the craving which leads from rebirth to rebirth accompanied by lust of passion, which delights now here, now there; it is craving for sensual pleasures (kāma taṇhā), for existence (bhavataṇhā) and for annihilation (vibhavataṇhā).

What is the Noble Truth of the Annihilation of Suffering?

"It is the remainderlessness, total annihilation of this very craving, the forsaking of it, the breaking loose, fleeing, deliverance from it."

What is the Noble Truth of the Path leading to the Annihilation of Suffering?

"It is the Noble Eightfold Path which consists of Right Understanding, Right Thinking, Right Speech, Right Action, Right Livelihood, Right Effort, Right Mindfulness, and Right Concentration."

Lay Hidden:

Whether the Buddhas arise or not these four Truths exist in the universe. The Buddha only reveal these Truths which lay hidden in the dark abyss of time.

Scientifically interpreted, the Dhamma may be called the law of cause and effect. These two embrace the entire body of the Buddha's Teachings.

The first three represent the philosophy of Buddhism; the fourth represents the ethics of Buddhism based on that philosophy. All these four Truths are dependent on this body itself. The Buddha states: "In this very one-fathom long body along with perceptions and thoughts, do I proclaim the world, the end of the world, and the path leading to the end of the world." Here the term world (samsāra) is applied to suffering.

Pivot of Sorrow:

But it does not thereby follow that Buddhism is pessimistic. It is neither totally pessimistic nor totally optimistic, but on the contrary, it teaches a truth that lies midway between them.

One would be justified by calling the Buddha a pessimistic if He had only enunciated the Truth of suffering without suggesting a means to put an end to it. The Buddha perceived the universality of sorrow and did prescribe a panacea for this universal sickness of humanity. The highest conceivable happiness, according to the Buddha is Nibbāna, which is the total extinction of suffering.

The author of the article on Pessimism in the Encyclopaedia Britannica writes: "Pessimism denotes an attitude of hopelessness towards life, a vague general opinion that pain and evil predominate in human affairs. The original doctrine of the Buddha is in fact as optimistic as any optimism of the West. To call it pessimism is merely to apply to it a characteristically Western principle to which happiness is impossible without personality. The true Buddhist looks forward with enthusiasm to absorption into eternal bliss."

Ordinarily the enjoyment of sensual pleasures is the highest and only happiness of the average man. There is no doubt a kind of momentary happiness in the anticipation, gratification and restrospection of such fleeting material pleasures, but they are

illusive and temporary. According to the Buddha non-attachment is a greater bliss.

The Buddha does not expect His followers to be constantly pondering on suffering and lead a miserable unhappy life. He exhorts them to be always happy and cheerful, for rapture (pīti) is one of the factors of Enlightenment.

Real happiness is found within, and is not to be defined in terms of wealth, children, honours or invasions. If such possessions are misdirected, forcibly or unjustly obtained, misappropriated or even viewed with attachment, they will be a source of pain and sorrow to the possessor

Seek the Cause:

Instead of trying to rationalise suffering, Buddhism takes suffering for granted and seek the cause to eradicate it. Suffering exists as long as there is craving. It can only be annihilated by treading the Noble Eightfold Path and attaining the supreme bliss of Nibbana.

These four Truths can be verified by experience. Hence the Buddha Dhamma is not based on the fear of the unknown, but is founded on the bedrock of facts which can be tested by ourselves and verified by experience. Buddhism is, therefore, rational and intensely practical.

Such a rational and practical system cannot contain mysteries or esoteric doctrines. Blind faith, therefore, is foreign to Buddhism. Where there is no blind faith there connot be any coercion or persecution of fanaticism.

To the unique credit of Buddhism it must be said that throughout its peaceful march of 2,503 years no drop of blood was shed in the name of the Buddha, no mighty monarch wielded his powerful sword to propagate the Dhamma, and no conversion was made either by force or by repulsive methods. Yet, the Budddha was the first and greatest missionary that lived on earth.

Aldous Huxley writes: "Alone of all the great world religions Buddhism made its way without persecution, censorship or inquisition."

Lord Russell remarks: "Of the great religions of history, I prefer Buddhism,

especially in its earliest forms; because it has had the smallest element of persecution."

In the name of Buddhism, no altar was reddened with the blood of a Hypatia, no Bruno was burnt alive.

Intellectual:

Buddhism appeals more to the intellect than to the emotion. It is concerned more with the character of the devotees than with their numerical strength.

On one occasion Upāli,* a follower of Nigantha Nāṭaputta,** approached the Buddha and was so pleased with the Buddha's exposition of the Dhamma that he instantly expressed his desire to become a follower of the Buddha. But the Buddha cautioned him, saying:

"Of a verity, O householder, make a thorough investigation. It is well for a distinguished man like you to (first) make a thorough investigation."

Upāli, who was overjoyed at this unexpected remark of the Buddha, said: "Lord, had I been a follower of another religion, its adherents would have taken me round the streets in a procession proclaiming that such and such a millionaire had renounced his former faith and embraced theirs."

"But, Lord, Your Reverence advises me to investigate further. The more pleased am I with this remark of yours. For the second time, Lord, I seek refuge in the Buddha, the Dhamma and the Sangha."

Buddhism is saturated with this spirit of free enquiry and complete tolerance. It is the teaching of the open mind and the sympathetic heart, which, lighting and warming the whole universe with its twin rays of wisdom and compassion, sheds its genial glow on every being struggling in the ocean of birth and acath.

Tolerance:

The Buddha was so tolerant that He did not even exercise His power to give commandments to His lay followers. Instead of using the imperative, He said: "It behoves you to do this; it behoves you not to do this." He commands not, but does exhort.

This tolerance the Buddha extended to men, women and all living beings.

^{*} See the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. V. No. 1, p. 57.

^{**} See the Light of the Dhamma, Vol. V. No. 1, p. 25, and also Samaññaphala Sutta published by the Union Buddha Sasana Council.

It was the Buddha who first attempted to abolish slavery and vehemently protested against the degrading case system which was firmly rooted in the soil of India. In the words of the Buddha it is not by mere birth one becomes an outcast or noble, but by one's actions.*

Caste or colour does not precelude one from becoming a Buddhist or from entering the Order. Fishermen, scavengers, courtesans, together with warriors and Brahmin were freely admitted to the Order and enjoyed equal privileges and were also given positions of rank.

Upāli, the barber, for instance, was made in preference to all others the chief in matters pertaining to Vinaya discipline. The timid Sunita,** the scavenger, who attained Arahatship, was admitted by the Buddha Himself into the Order. Angulimāla.*** the robber and criminal, was converted into a compassionate saint. The fierce Āļāvaka**** sought refuge in the Buddha and became a saint. The courtesan Ambapāli***** entered the Order and attained Arahatship.

Such instances could easily be multiplied from the Tipiţaka to show that the portals of Buddhism were wide open to all, irrespective of caste, colour or rank.

Women:

It was also the Buddha who raised the status of downtrodden women and not only brought them to a realisation of their importance to society but also founded the first celibate religious order for women with rules and regulations.

The Buddha did not humiliate women, but only regarded them as feeble by nature. He saw the innate good of both men and women and assigned to them their due places in His teaching. Sex is no barrier to attaining Sainthood.

Sometimes the Pāli term used to denote women is mātugāma which means mother-folk or society of mothers. As a mother, woman holds an honourable place in Buddhism. Even the wife is regarded as

"the best friend" (parama sakha) of the husband.

Hasty critics are only making ex parte statements when they reproach Buddhism with being inimical to women.

Although at first the Buddha refused to admit women into the Order on reasonable grounds, yet later He yielded to the entreaties of His foster-mother, Pajāpati Gotamī, and founded the Bhikkhūnī Order.

Just as the Arahats Sāriputta and Moggallāna, were made the two chief disciples in the Order of monks, even so He appointed Arahats Khemā and Uppalavanna as the two chief female disciples.*******

Many other female disciples were named by the Buddha Himself as His distinguished and pious followers.

Free Atmosphere.

On one occasion the Buddha said to King Kosala who was displeased on hearing that a daughter was born to him:

"A woman child. O Lord of men, may prove

Even a better offspring than a male."

Many women, who otherwise, would have fallen into oblivion distinguished themselves in various ways and gained their emancipation by following the Dhamma and entering the Order.

In this new Order, which later proved to be a great blessing to many women, queens, princesses, daughters of noble families, widows, bereaved mothers, destitute women, pitiable courtesans—all, despite their caste or rank, met on a common platform, enjoyed perfect consolation and peace, and breathed that free atmosphere which is denied to those cloistered in cottages and palatial mansions.

It was also the Buddha who banned the sacrifice of poor beasts and admonished His followers to extend their loving-kindness (mettā) to all living beings— even to the tiniest creatures that crawl at one's feet.

^{*} Dhammapada, verse 393.

^{**} Khuddaka Nikāya, Theragātha Pāļi, 2. Sunītattheragāthā, p. 310, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{***} Theragāthā, 8. Angulimāla Thera Gātha, p. 333, 6th Syn. Edn. **** Samyutta Nikāya, 12. Āļāvaka Sutta, p. 216, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{*****} Dīgha Nikāya, Ambapālīgaņikā, p. 81, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{******} Vinaya Pitaka, Mahākhandhaka, 14. Sariputtamogallāna-pabbajjākathā, p. 50, 6th Syn. Edn.

^{******} Khuddaka Nikāya, Therī Gāthā Pāļi, 1. Uppalavaņņā Gāthā, p. 404, 6th Syn. Edn.

No man has the power or the right to destroy the life of another as life is precious to all.

A genuine Buddhist would exercise his loving-kindness towards every living being and identify himself with all, making no distinction whatsoever with regard to caste, colour or sex.

It is this Buddhist mettā that attempts to break all the barriers which separate one from another. There is no reason to keep aloof from others merely because they belong to another persuasion or another nationality. In that noble toleration Edict which is based on Culla-Vyuha and Māha-Vyuha Suttas, Asoka says: "Concourse alone is best, that is, all should harken willingly to the doctrine professed by others."

Buddhism is not confined to any country or any particular nation. It is universal. It is not nationalism which, in other words, is another form of caste system founded on a wider basis. Buddhism, if it be permitted to say so, is supernationalism.

To a Buddhist there is no far or near, no enemy or foreigner, no renegade or untouchable, since universal love realised through understanding has established the brother-hood of all living beings. A real Buddhist is a citizen of the world. He regards the whole world as his motherland and all as his brothers and sisters.

Buddhism is, therefore, unique, mainly owing to its tolerance, non-aggressiveness, rationality, practicability, efficiency and universality. It is the noblest of all unifying influences and the only lever that can uplift the world.

These are some of the salient features of Buddhism, and amongst some of the fundamental doctrines may be said to be *Kamma* or the Law of Moral Causation, the Doctrine of Rebirth, *Anatta* and Nibbāna.

There are five groups of clinging, Rādha. What five? They are the group of body-clinging, the group of sensation-clinging, the group of perception-clinging, the group of mental-fomation-clinging, the group of consciousness-clinging.

Now Rādha, when the Noble disciple understands in their true nature the arising, and the passing away, the satistaction in, the miscry of the escape from these five groups of clinging, this Noble disciple, Rādha, is called "steam-winner", "saved from disaster", "assured", "bound for enlightenment".

-Samyutta Nikāya, Bk. III, XXIII-9.

THE DHAMMAPADA COMMENTARY

The Story of a Certain Monk

(Aññatarabhikkhussa Vatthu)

(Translated by the Department of Pāļi, University of Rangoon.)

Appamādarato bhikkhu pamāde bhayadassi vā samyojanam aņum thūlam daham aggīva gacchati.

Dhammapada, Verse 31.

(A monk, who takes delight in heedfulness and sees danger in negligence, goes on destroying, like fire, the fetters big and small.)

While residing at Jetavana, the Teacher delivered this religious discourse beginning with, "A monk who takes delight in heed-fulness" (appamāda rato bhikkhu) with reference to a certain monk.

It is said that he, having begged of the Teacher to speak on the subject of meditation (leading) to Arahatship, entered the forest, but was unable to attain it although he did strive and exert. With the idea of requesting the Teacher to explain specifically a subject of meditation, he left the place and as he was approaching Him, on the way he came across a big forest-fire blazing. Running up to the top of a bare mountain he sat down and observing the forest on fire, he accepted it as the object of his meditation with the thought, "Just as this fire proceeds burning big and small fire-wood, in the same way the fire of Knowledge of the Noble Path will have to proceed burning big and small fetters of life."

Even as He remained seated in the scented chamber, the Teacher became aware of his line of thinking and said, "This is so, O monk, like the big and small pieces of fire-wood are big and small fetters of life that arise within the beings. It is proper to burn them by the fire of Knowledge, and to make them incapable of arising again". The Buddha radiated light, appeared as if He was

right in front of that monk and spoke this illuminating verse:

Appamādarato bhikkhu pamāde bhayadassi vā

samyojanam anum thūlam daham aggīva gacchati.

(A monk, who takes delight in heedfulness and sees danger in negligence, goes on destroying, like fire, the fetters big and small).

Therein, Appamādarato means 'taking pleasure and intense delight in heedfulness—i.e. living in heedfulness'.

The expression "pamāde bhayadassivā" means "seeing danger in negligence with reference to birth in hell and so on, or looking at negligence as danger, on account of it being the root-cause of the dangers".

Samyojanam means 'chaining or fettering with suffering in the round of existences. The ten kinds of fetters which are capable of making (people) sink in the (whirlpool) of the round of rebirths."

Anum thūlam means "small and big".

This expression "daham aggīva gacchati" means "just as the fire proceeds burning big and small firewood, in the same way the monk who takes delight in heedfulness (appamādarato bhikkhu) proceeds burning this fetter by the fire of Wisdom acquired through heedfulness, making it impossible to come into existence again".

At the end of the verse the monk destroyed all his fetters even as he remained seated and attained Arahatship together with Analytical Knowledge. (Then) he went through the sky, extolled and praised the golden hued body of the Tathāgata, and departed paying respects to Him.

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