## Notes and Queries.

BY THE

REV. R. MORRIS, M.A., LL.D.

## 1. LÜHA, LUHASA, LÜKHASA.

In Divyāvadāna (ed. Cowell and Neil) we find the curious form Lüha in lüha-cīvara (pp. 81, 427) and lūha-pranīta (p. 425). It has evidently puzzled the editors, who have conjecturally glossed it by 'bad.' But the sense of the passages in which the word occurs shows that lūha does not mean 'bad,' but 'coarse,' 'rough,' and corresponds to Sanskrit rûksa or lúksa, which in Pāli takes the form of lūkha, and is used exactly in the same way as lūha (see Vyut. § 134, p. 41). Childers gives a number of passages in which lūkha is employed in connection with panīta (see Samyutta xvi. 4, 5), but none where it is employed with reference to cīvara. In Anguttara Nikāya I. xiv. 5, 6, Th. Gāthā II. p. 197, Mil. p. 342, we have lūkhacīvaradhara, 'wearing a coarse robe.' Lūkha is also found in the sense of 'rough,' as applied to person and life, in Mahāvagga (ed. Oldenburg), p. 55; Majjhima Nikāya, pp. 77, 78; Jāt. I. 390, II. 136.

We do not, however, find  $l\bar{u}ha$  in Pāli, as we should naturally expect, though it is undoubtedly a Prakrit form (cf. Jain Pkt.  $l\bar{u}ha$  in  $\bar{A}y\bar{a}rangasutta$  I. 2-6); but, as we have lahu for laghu, there is no reason why we should not find  $l\bar{u}ha$  for  $l\bar{u}kha$ . We meet with something like it in

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, July 12, 1890.

Pāli. In the Ambattha-sutta (Dīgha Nikāya III. 1. 12, p. 90) we have the following interesting and curious passage: "Candā bho Gotama Sakyā-jāti, pharusā..., LAHUSĀ..., rabhasā." Cf. "Dakṣiṇapāncālas tu... caṇḍo rabhasaḥ karkaço dharmena rājyaṃ kārayati (Divyāvadāna, p. 435. Here karkaça=lahusa).

Buddhaghosa, while confirming the readings of the text, had some difficulty in explaining at least two words in this quotation. His note on lahus ā is as follows: "Lahusāti lahukā, appaken' eva tussanti vā russanti vā udakapitthe lābukatāham viya appakenāpi uppilavanti" (Sumangala Vilāsinī I. p. 256). The commentator evidently connected lahusa with lahuka (=lahu=laghu), 'light,' Now the context shows that this cannot ' frivolous.' possibly be the meaning of lahus a in the text, and we are compelled to assign to it some such meaning as 'rough,' 'uncouth.' It represents a form luhasa or lūhasa. This transposition of vowels is not uncommon in Pāli. I have shown that Sanskrit mūrvā becomes in Pāli not only mubbā, but marūvā or maruvā (see "Journal" of the Pali Text Society for 1889, p. 208).

Luhasa, with the force of 'rough,' ought to correspond to a Pāli lūkhasa, a form that is not to be found in Childers's Dictionary, but for which, however, there is good authority. In Sutta Nipāta (v. 244, p. 43) we find, "Ye lūkhasā dārunā pitthimamsikā mittadduno nikkarunātimānino." Those who are rough, harsh, backbiting, treacherous, merciless, arrogant.

The word  $l \bar{u} h a$  was probably adopted by the compilers of the Divyāvadāna from a Pāli source, and it is not unlikely that, when we get more texts, we shall find  $l \bar{u} h a$  to be a genuine Pāli form.

### 2. RABHASA.

RABHASA, in the passage quoted above from the Ambatthasutta, is not registered by Childers. Buddhaghosa renders it incorrectly by bahubhānī, 'loquacious'; and, curious enough, one of the variant readings of the Burmese

MSS. is bhassā. Rabhasa needs, however, no emendation. It is a well-known Sanskrit word, with the meaning of 'violent,' 'fierce,' and makes very good sense along with the epithets canda, pharusa, and lahusa.

## 3. ARAŅAVIHĀRĪ.

ARAŅĀVIHĀRĪ occurs in the Divyāvadāna, p. 401, and is conjecturally explained as 'hermit.' The correct reading is a r a n a v i h ā r ī, a term that occurs in Anguttara Nikāya I. xiv. 2, and Petavatthu, iv. 1. 33, signifying 'living free from care.' According to the commentary on the Petavatthu, it is equivalent to mettā v i hā r ī, 'living in friendship,' 'friendly disposed'; but, see mettā v i hā r ī, in Anguttara Nikāya I. xiv. 7.

#### 4. SĀLITTAKA.

Sālittaka occurs in Jātaka I. p. 418, in the compound sālittakasippa=sakkharākhipanasippa, the art of slinging stones, potsherds, &c., from a catapult or bow. The Jātaka story tells of a cripple who was such an adept at the art that he was able to cut out the figure of an elephant or horse on a tree. There is another reference to the term in the Petavatthu iv. 16. 7—"Sālittakappahārena vo¹ bhindissan tassa matthakam," upon which the commentator has the following remark: "Sālittakappahārenāti sālittakam vuccati dhanukena aṅgulīhi eva vā sakkharākhipanapayogo ti."

Childers has no notice of the word, and its etymology is by no means clear. It might possibly come from sankhittaka, from kship, with the preposition sam, through the intermediate forms sakkittaka, sākittaka, and by dissimilation of the consonants sālittaka (cf. Pāli phāsulika = pārçukika and sallalīkata=çalyakīkrita). It might, however, represent an original sallittaka=sallikhitaka, from likh, with

The printed text has this vo, which seems against the sense and metre.

preposition sam (cf. sārambha, sāraddha, for samrambbha, samraddha).

#### 5. PITTA.

We find PITTA in a metaphor often used in Buddhist works: "Seyyathāpi bhikkhu candassa kukkurassa nāsāya pittam bhindeyyum, evañhi so kukkuro bhyyosomattāya candataro assa" (Samyutta Nikāya xvii. 36.6; Cullavagga vii. 2. 5). The editors of the Vinaya Texts (iii. p. 237) translate this passage as follows: "Just, O bhikkhus, as if you were to burst a gall [bladder] before the nose of a fierce dog, the dog would thereby become so much the fiercer." As nāsāya is here in the locative case, and means on the nose, not before the nose, pitta cannot signify 'a gall' or 'gall bladder.' In Pāli its usual acceptation is 'bile.' The Sanskrit nāsa-raktapitta, 'a bleeding of the nose,' does not help us here, unless we take pitta to mean a 'blister' or bladder filled with blood or pus. Pitta is evidently a pimple or gathering of some kind on a dog's nose, and we can easily understand why, if by a blow this should be broken, a fierce dog would become fiercer; but it is hard to see why breaking a gall (bladder) before the nose of a dog should have this effect.

PITTA may here stand for phitta, i.e., phīta, corresponding to Sanskrit sphīta 'swollen,' and denote 'a gathering' or 'swelling.' For the shortening of the vowel, compensated by the doubling of the consonant, compare vanibbaka = vanīpaka and niddha = nīda.

In the Commentary on the Udāna, i. 7 (see Pāli Text Society's "Journal" for 1886, pp. 98-9), the passage under discussion occurs with some slight variations—"... canda-kukkutassa cittam bhindeyya...," in which kukkutassa 'cock,' is substituted for kukkurassa 'dog,' and cittam 'comb?' for pittam 'swelling.' These alterations may be due to the Burmese original from which the Sinhalese scribe copied his text. We can thus understand how kukkutassa appears for kukku-

lassa, i.e., kukkurassa. A similar confusion is found in Sanskrit (see Benfey's Dictionary, s.v. kukkuta).

## 6. SAMĀSĪSĪ.

Samāsīsī occurs in Puggala Paññatti (i. 19, p. 13), and is there defined as 'one who has simultaneously attained an end of human passion and of existence.' It seems to represent an original samāsimsī from the root cas (cis), cf. Pāli āsimsati, 'to desire.'

#### 7. SATAKKATU.

"Yathā hi megho thanayam vijjumālī sa ta k k a t u." (Samyutta Nikāya III. 3. 4, p. 100.)

SATARKATU corresponds to Sanskrit çatakratu, 'honoured by a hundred sacrifices,' one of the names of Indra, but in the passage quoted above, it is an epithet of megha, and is equivalent to satasikhara or satakoti, 'having a hundred points,' one of the epithets of the 'thunderbolt.' The various readings are satakkaku, satakkuku, the former of which should perhaps appear in the text—kkaku or kakū, representing Sanskrit kakud, 'a peak.'

## 8. sāhunnavāsī.

"Sāhunnavāsino eke aññe kesanivāsino."

(Petavatthu iii. 1. 6.)

The commentary explains  $s\bar{a}hunnav\bar{a}sino$  by chinnabhinna-pilotikakhandanivāsanā. This enables us to see that Sāhunna means 'a strip of ragged cloth,' 'a ragged or dirty robe'; but it has nothing corresponding to it in Sanskrit by which we can get at its derivation. It may be a mere error for  $s\bar{a}hula$ , which we find in Majjhimaka Nikāya (pp. 509, 511), in  $s\bar{a}hula$  cīvara (v.l.  $s\bar{a}hula$ -,  $s\bar{a}huli$ -), but of which the meaning is by no means clear.

"Tam en' aññataro puriso telamasikatena sāhula cīvar en a (v.l. sāhulicīvarena) vañceyya" (Majjhima i. pp. 509, 511).

The reading sāhulicīvarena seems to show that sāhuli is the right reading, and signifies a sort of coarse robe. In Hāla 607, p. 294, we find sāhuli in the sense of a garment—" Vāuvellia-sāhuli"—vātuvellita-sāhuli.

Sāhuli=vastrāmcala, vastraviçesa. Dr. Weber (269 p. 98) quotes the authority of Pāiyalacchi (ed. Pischel) for sāhulī, 'a lower dress.' The reading sāhuli-cīvarena would seem to connect sāhuli with the Prākrit sāhulī, 'a branch,' from sākhā. Was the sāhuli cīvara a dress made of 'bark fibre'?

Can sāhunna vāsino be a blunder for sānani vāsino, 'wearing a coarse robe'?

## 9. ANDAKA.

ANDAKA, not in Childers's Dictionary, occurs in Jāt. III. 260, l. 10, in the compound a n d a k a-vāca, explained by the commentary as sadosa-vāca. There is a variant (Burmese) reading, k a n d a k a-vāca; and Prof. Kern, attaching somewhat too much importance to this lection, takes Dr. Fausböll to task for not adopting k a n t a k a-vāca, a likely reading, suggested by the Sanskrit vāk k a n t a k a in Mahābhārata V. 1267.

At one time I was disposed to regard a n d a k a as a scribal blunder for c a n d a k a (see Pāli Text Soc. "Journal" for 1886, p. 105); but as we find in Dhammasaiganī 1343, the same form in the phrase, "Yā sā vācā a n d a k ā asātā kakkasā," &c., I have no doubt that the reading in the Jātaka book is correct, and should be retained. But what is the origin of the word a n d a k a? One MS. reads a tt h a k a vā c o for a d d h a k a vā c o. This looks as if a n d a k a were a derivative of the root a r d, 'to hurt, pain,' which in Pāli assumes the form a d d (as well as a d d and a t t), whence we get the adjective a d d a n a, corresponding to Sanskrit a r d a n a. This might become (1) andana,² and (2) a n d a k a, the primary meaning of which

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, Sept. 27, 1890.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See William's Edition, p. 71; Burkhard's, p. 43, l. 6.

would be 'paining, vexing,' hence 'sharp, bitter,' as opposed to the meaning of san ha and sakhila.

10. avāṭuka—арāṭuka. 11. vedhavera. 12. nekatika. "nekatikā vañcanikā kutasakkhī avāṭukā." (Thera Gāthā v. 940, р. 86.)

AVĀTUKA looks at first sight as representing an original avrātaka, 'hypocritical'; but two MSS. of the Thera Gāthā read apātuka, 'sly, crooked, disingenuous' (?), formed from the adjective apatu, 'unskilled, awkward.'

In Jātaka IV. p. 184, we find the following passage: "Sukkacchavī vedhaverā thullabāhā a pātu b hā," where the last adjective is a mere blunder of the scribe, due to the ending of the previous word, for a pātu kā, which is explained in the commentary to the Jātaka book by a pātu b hā vā, dhanuppādavirahitā."

The form VEDHAVERA is very curious. It is explained in the commentary by vidhavā, apatikā, a 'widow'; but vedhavera, according to Kaccāyana, signifies a 'widow's son,' and represents Sanskrit vaidhaveya, which, however, does not give here the sense required by the context. Ought we not to read vedheyakā or vedherakā, 'foolish, blockish'?

Perhaps the Sanskrit vaidhaveya had the meaning of 'fool,' for in one passage in Çakuntala we find "pralapatyesha vaidhaveyah" for "pralo vaidheyah," where vaidheya is explained by one commentator as mūrkha, 'a blockhead.' In another commentary that I have seen vaidheya is glossed by vālisha, i.e., bālisha, 'a fool, foolish, childish.' In Amarakoça III. i. 48, we find these terms associated: "ajňamūdhayathājātamūrkhavaidheya bālisha." Perhaps vaidhavera and vaidhaveya had also, like bāla, the meaning of child, childish, and hence 'foolish.'

Childers gives nekatika, 'fallacious,' without any

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See William' Edition, p. 71; Burkhard's, p. 43, l. 6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Benfey assigns this meaning to Sk. naikritika. Burnell renders it 'malignant' in Manu IV. 196.

authority, but 'dishonest' seems to be the more correct sense, cf.

"Kūtassa hi santi kūtakutā bhavati cāpi nikatino nikatyā" (Jāt. II. p. 183).

The commentary has the following note:

"Bhavati cāpi nikatino nikatyā ti nikatino nekatissa vañcanakassa puggalassa nikatyā aparo, nikatikārako vañcanakapuriso bhavati yeva" (see Jāt. III. 102); compare:

" Māyāvino nekatikā" (Jāt. IV. p. 184, l. 12).

Nekatika, in Jāt. IV. p. 42, is glossed by vañcaka (see Majjhima I. p. 180).

Nikati and nikaranā are employed in Puggala Pañnatti (pp. 19, 23) to explain māyā, 'deceit' (Pet. p. 44).

#### 13. ASUROPA.

The word asuropa, not registered by Childers, occurs in Puggala Paññatti as a synonym of kodha, 'anger,' and in Dhammasañgani as a synonym of dosa (i.e., dvesa), 'enmity, hatred.' While the meaning is tolerably clear, its etymology is by no means self-evident. If it be regarded as a-suropa, from \*a-surūpa, we might get from the compound some such meaning as 'displeasure'; but if we look upon it as a su-ropa, from an adjective \*āsu-rūpa corresponding to an original \*āçu-rūpa, we might attach to it the primary sense of 'hastiness, quickness of temper.' Or it is possible that a suropa is from \*assuyya-rūpa, through \*asūrarūpa, 'angry,' 'malevolent.'

Dr. Grierson in the Academy, Oct. 4, 1890, has the following note:—

As uropa, mentioned by the Rev. Dr. R. Morris in his "Contributions to Pāli Lexicography" (Academy, Sept. 27) as occurring in Puggala Paññatti as a synonym of kodha, 'anger,' and in the Dhammasañgani as a synonym of dosa, 'enmity,' 'hatred,' may be compared with āsulopa of the Asoka inscriptions (Dhauli, det. ed. i. 10; Jaugada, det. ed., i. 5). The meaning of this word is

doubtful. Burnouf took it as a su-lopa, 'le retranchement de la vie,' 'le meurtre'; and Dr. Kern corrects it to  $\bar{a}$  sulosa ( $\bar{a}$  su-rosa), 'a quick temper.' M. Senart analyses it as  $\bar{a}$  su-lopa, 'abandon précipité,' and hence 'readiness to be discouraged.' 'Anger' would suit the passage nearly as well, but it would be interesting to know if M. Senart's translation would agree with the passages referred to by Dr. Morris. The only difficulty in the way of the identification of these two words is the long  $\bar{a}$  in Piyadasi's  $\bar{a}$  sulopa. Dr. Morris, however, seems inclined to derive his own a suropa from an original \* $\bar{a}$  su-r $\bar{u}$ pa, which would solve the question so far as the long vowel is concerned. It is hardly necessary to point out that these Dhauli and Jaugada inscriptions everywhere substitute l for r.

To this I rejoined on Oct. 11th:—

Dr. Grierson has pointed out that ā s u l o p a occurs in the Asoka inscriptions. (Academy, Oct. 4th.) There is no doubt as to the connection of the two words a s u r o p a and ā s u l o p a. The Dhauli det. ed. i. 10 reads—"imehi cu jatehi no sampatipajati isāya ā s u l o p e n a nithuliyena," &c., which Prof. Senart renders as follows: 'Mais il est des dispositions avec les quelles on ne réussit pas: ce sont l'envie, le manque de persévérance, la rudesse,' &c.

The nouns is ā, ā sulopa, nitthuriya correspond to Pāli is sā, 'envy, ill-will,' a suropa, 'anger,' nitthuriya, 'harshness.'

But 'anger' is but one of the meanings attached to a suropa; it has also the sense of 'impatience,' 'want of forbearance,' as in the following passage in Dhammasangani 1341: "Yā khantī khamantā adhivāsanatā acandittam anasuropa attamanatā cittassa—ayam vuccati khantī." Here anasuropa corresponds exactly to anāsulopa in the Asoka inscription, Dh. det. i. 12.

The great difficulty is with the initial vowel. Should it be short or long? The shortening of an initial long vowel is uncommon in Pāli, while the lengthening of a short one

is not rare in the Asoka inscriptions. The form ā sulopa does not settle the question as to the original form. A-suropa may have originally meant 'lack of good nature,' i.e., ill-nature, bad temper, want of forbearance, just as \*su-ropa='good-nature' would be opposed to \*viropa,='ill-nature.' Cf. Sk. virūpa, 'wicked, deformity.' If ā suropa be the true reading, the second element ropa may come from the root rup, 'to break, pain,' which Pāli possesses in the passive ruppati= rupyati.

Dr. Kern's ingenious emendation of rosa cannot, of course, stand before the reading furnished by the Pāli texts.

#### 14. ASSA.

We find the word assa, 'ashes,' in the compound assaputa, 'a basket of ashes.' It occurs in Anguttara Nikāya IV. 242-3, "assa-putam khandhe āropetvā," where the Burmese MSS. read bhasma-putam. We find it also in Dīgha Nikāya III. i. 26—"assa-putena [v.l. bhasma-vadhitvā," explained in the commentary by "bhasma-putena." The passage in the Anguttara shows that the addition "sīse chārikam okiritvā" is a mistake (see Sumangalavilāsinī, p. 267). The etymology of the word is not clear. Can it be for amsa, and come from a root ams, 'to shine,' as seen in amçu?

## 15. ANAKA.

In Sanskrit ANAKA is the name of a kind of kettledrum beaten only at one end. We have a trace of it in Pāli in the following passage from the Samyutta Nikāya XX. 7.3:—

"Bhūtapubbam... Dasārahānam ā nako nāma mudingo ahosi. Tassa Dasārahā ā nake ghatite aññam ānim odahimsu; ahu kho so... samayo yam ā nakas sa mudingassa porānam pokkharaphalakam antaradhāyi, ānisanghāto va avasissi."

From this quotation and the application that follows we

gather that when the injured drum received another set of pins or pegs ( $\bar{a}n$ isangh $\bar{a}ta$ ) which were not suitable for the purpose, the head (pokkhara-phalaka) was damaged and rendered useless. This use of  $\bar{a}ni$ , as applied to the fixtures of a drum, is very curious. For other senses of the word see Cullavagga x. 16, 2; Thera Gāthā, vv. 355, 744, pp. 39, 73; Sumangala I. p. 39.

#### 16. INĀYIKA.

In the "Journal" of the Pāli Text Society for 1887, p. 109, I showed that the word Ināvika, though usually explained as a 'debtor,' is usually found in the sense of 'creditor,' cf. 'ināyikehi codiyamāno,' in the commentary to Petavatthu I. i. p. 71. There is only one passage in our printed texts (Mahāvagga i. 46) where it has the signification of 'debtor,' answering in meaning to the Sanskrit rinika. It is quite possible that ināyika may represent (1) Sk. rinika, a debtor, and (2) Sk. \*rināyika (cf. rinayāvan), one who goes after a debt, a creditor.

There is, however, a word to which it may be related, namely, the Sanskrit anika (=rinika?) in Āpastamba I. i. 16, rendered, according to Prof. Bühler, by one commentator, 'a money-lender,' cf. Sk.  $\bar{a}nrinya$  with Pāli  $\bar{a}nanya$  (Suttavibhanga I. p. 284; Sum. I. p. 215); 'freedom from debt,' and anana, 'free from debt.'

## 17. UJJANGALA.

Ujjangala occurs in Vimāna, lxxxiv. 5, p. 78, and is written ujjhangala in Petavatthu ii. 9. 70, where it is glossed by ativiyathaddhabhūmibhāga.

18. kanhābhijātika. 19. rumma, rummī.

"Brahmabhūtam atitulam Mārasenappamaddanam. Ko disvā na-ppasīdeyya api kanhābhijātiko."

'Who having seen him (Buddha) the most eminent, the matchless, the crusher of Māra's army, is not appeased, even if he be "of black origin" (Sutta Nipāta, v. 563;

Thera Gātha, v. 833). What is meant by kanhābhijātika, 'of black origin'? Namuci, or Māra, is called 'the black one' in Sutta Nipāta, v. 438, just as the devil is traditionally represented as 'black.' In the passage quoted above, 'of black origin' does not refer to Māra, but to one of the 'demon-race,' more especially to a pisāca.

There is a good story with reference to the use of kanha, 'black,' as applied to a pisāca in the Ambattha-sutta (Dīgha Nikāya III. i. 18; see also Jāt. IV. 9). Disā, a slave of Okkāka, king of the Sakya race, gave birth to a black child, who received the opprobrious designation of Kanhā, 'black.' He was neither pleased with his name nor complexion, and used to say to his mother: 'Have me washed, mammy, and cleansed from this dirtiness, and I shall then be of some use to you." In those days, the story adds, pisācas were called 'black.' "Yathā kho pana . . . etarahi manussā pisāce pisācāti sañjānanti, evam eva kho...tena samayena manussā pisāce pi kanhāti sañjānanti." In the older Sanskrit literature non-Aryans and demons seem to have been called 'blackskins.' For kanhábhijāti, see Sumangala I. p. 163, and compare Thera Gāthā, v. 140, p. 19. In the Jātaka book a dirty and untidy person is compared to a mudsprite (pamsupisācaka).

> "Kuto nu ägacchasi Rumma-vāsī Otallako pamsupisācako va." (Jāt. IV. pp. 380, 384.)

Rumma, not in Childers's Dictionary, seems to have the sense of (1) dark, tawney; (2) dirty. Compare rumma-rūpī (Jāt. IV. 387), "Pajam imam passatha rumma-rūpīm." Sanskrit rumra means 'tawny,' and might possibly become rumma, though it would ordinarily take the form of rumba. Rumma might represent an original rumya, but cf. tamba—Sanskrit tāmra. We have the form rummī, 'dirty,' in Jāt. IV. p. 322 ("Rummī rajojalladharo aghe vehāsayam thito"), which evidently points to the Sanskrit rukmin (from ruc, to shine); cf.

English black and blank); so that rumma corresponds to Sanskrit rukma, just as Pāli rumma vatī represents Sanskrit rukma vatī.

The commentary explains rummī and rummarūpí as anañjitamanditā; rummavasī is glossed by "anañjitamanditaghattitasaṅghāti-pilotikavasano."

#### 20. KĀCA.

In Cullavagga, v. 9. 2, we find kācamaya, 'made of glass,' or more properly, 'made of crystal.' In Sīmāvivādavinicchayākathā (p. 28, Pali Text Society's "Journal," 1887), we have kācalimpita, 'glazed.' In Divyāvadāna mention is made of kācamani (crystal) that shone like a real gem, and in Jat. II. p. 418, a precious stone (mani) is described as a - k ā c a, 'without kāca,' free from im-"Ayam mani veluriyo akāco vimalo subho." The commentary explains akāca by a-kakkasa (Sk. akarkaça), which usually means 'not rough, smooth' (see Jat. III. 282); but here a-kakkasa must mean 'free from grit.' Compare the following passage, where kakkasa signifies 'gritty': "Kāmadadassāpi . . . maniratanassa ekadesam kakkasam uppajjati, na ca tattha kakkasa-uppannattā maniratanam hīlitam nāma hoti." (Mil. p. 252.) The Sanskrit karkara, Marathi kan kar, means both 'hard' and also a nodule of limestone, and kakkasa must-kāca. Kakkasa is used as a noun, meaning 'harshness,' in Sutta Nipāta v. 328, p. 58-

"Sārambha-kakkasa-kasāva-muccham hitvā."

Akācī, 'smooth,' occurs in Vimāna, 60, 1, p. 55-

"Susukkakhandham abhiruyha nāgam A kā c i n a m dantibalim r mahājavam."

21. Kunda, san-kundita, kundalīkata.

"Kena te angulī kundā mukhañ ca kundalīkatam" (Petavatthu ii. 9. 27).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Read dantim balim (?).

Kuṇṇa=kunita, anujjubhūta, probably connected with the root kund, 'to maim' (originally to twist, wring?) signifies crooked, twisted; cf. san-kundita in quotation below. See Saddhamma-Puṇḍarīka (S. B. E. p. 93 v. 119) where kundaka is referred by Prof. Kern to the root kunt=vikalīkaraņe.

Kuṇṇalīkata, in form, but not in meaning, represents Sanskrit ku n d a līk r it a, 'ring-streaked,' 'coiled-up' (?).

According to the commentary on the Petavatthu it signifies 'contorted, awry'—"mukhavikārena vikucitam sankunditam."

## 22. кијј-кивј.

The verb KUBJ is not a very productive root in Sanskrit, and is of very limited application.

Childers gives from this root ukkujjeti, and nikkujjeti, but has no mention of kujja (Sutta Nipāta, v. 242, p. 42); nikkujja, 'turned upside down' (Puggala, p. 31).

AVAKUJJA seems to occur in the sense of 'all of a heap, huddled together,' in a vakujjā patāmase (Petavattha iv. 10.8, p. 66). It also means 'lying face downwards' (Jāt. I. 13).

In Puggala Paññatti, p. 31, "avakujja-pañña" is an epithet applied to a person who does not bear in mind what he hears, 'whose wits are muddled,' 'muddleheaded.'

This use of a vakujja seems to show that Childers's explanation of nikujjati is correct. It means 'to take in,' 'to lay to heart,' and represents kubj+ni, and should always be written with one k and not with two, as in some MSS. and texts. (See Sumang. I. p. 160; Dīgha II. 17, 21; Mahāvastu I. 393.)

In Sumangala I. p. 287, Buddhaghosa has "nikkuj-jita-mukha," 'with the face towards the ground,' 'with closed mouth,' in contradistinction to "uttāna-mukha," 'with open countenance,' 'communicative' (?) This use of nikkujjita looks like a confusion with the roots kubjand kucc=kuñc.

We have in Pāli from the root kuc, 'to bend,' sankucita (-mukha), 'frowning' (Sum. I. p. 287); vikucita (Petavatthu ii. 9, 27).

The root kut, 'to bend,' occurs in sankutita (Mil. p. 257); patikutati (Mil. p. 297, ll. 15, 22); sankutila (Ib., p. 297, l. 19).

PAŢIKUJJETI, omitted by Childers, signifies 'to enclose,' "Sa pātim aññāya suvanna-pātiyā patikujjetvā" (Jāt. I. p. 69). See I. p. 50, "tucchapātim eva aññāya patiyā patikujjetva pesesi" (Dhammapada, p. 140, l. 24). At p. 140, l. 1, it is miswritten patikujjitvā.

#### 23. $KRI KR\overline{I}$ .

Childers has no instances of the root Kri, 'to injure, hurt;' but compare "karato kārayato, chindato chedāpāyato" (Majjhima Nikāya I. p. 516; Dīgha Nikāya II. 15, 17). In the Jātaka book we find kata, 'injured,' and kattā, 'injurer.' "Na katassa ca katta (kattu?) ca mettī sandhīyate puna" (Jāt. III. p. 136). In Jāt. IV. p. 42 we find katana.

"Yam me tva m samma akkāsi Sākhena katana m katam."

There are various readings: (1) kadhanam=ka-tana for kantana; (2) kantam. The first would represent a Sk. kritana or krintana, the other Sk. kranta.

The commentary contains the following note: "Kata-nam katan ti ākaddhana-vikaddhana-pothana-kottana-sankhātam katanam katan ti attho."

In Sumangala Vilāsinī I. p. 137, we find massu-ka-rana-'tthāya, 'for the purpose of hair-cutting.' Cf. Pāli kāranā, 'torture,' in kāranaghara, Jāt. II. 128; and see kārana, Majjhima Nikāya I. p. 446.

Childers says: "Massu-karana" = 'shaving.

## 24. KĀLUSSIYA.

Disā-kalussiya is employed by Buddhaghosa in Sumangala Vilāsinī I. p. 95, to explain disādāha (Dīgha I. 1. 24). Kālussiya, 'obscurity,' ought properly to be written kālusiya or kālussa, representing Sanskrit kālushya, 'foulness, turbidity;' the Burmese MSS. read kālusiya.

## 25. KELANĀ, PATIKELANĀ, KELĀYATI.

Childers has no notice of these words, which occur in Sumangala Vilāsinī I. p. 286: "Vigata-cāpallo ti pattamandanā cīvara-mandanā senāsana-mandanā imassa vā pūtikāyassa kelanā patikelanāti evam vutta-cāpalya-virahito." The Burmese MSS. have kelāyanā and patikelāyanā. Kelanā in the above quotation seems to signify 'adornment.' If connected with kil, 'to play,' keli, 'sport,' it ought to mean 'amusement.' Hemacandra, in his Praksit grammar, tells us that kelāya may be substituted for samarac, 'to adorn;' hence from a verb kelāyati we get the noun kelāna, or kelāyanā. But the Pali kelayati (not in Childers) always signifies 'to desire.' (See Jat. IV. p. 198; Milinda Panha, p. 73, where it is explained by mamāyati, piheti.) The root is probably kel, 'to quiver, shake.' We find a verb kalāyati for kelāyati (?) in the sense of 'to sport with, deceive,' in Jat. I. p. 163.

#### 26. KHALAYATI.

"Gale gahetvā k h a l a y ā t h a jammam" (Jāt. IV. 205, 382). The note in the commentary is "khalayātha khalī-kāram pāpetvā niddhamatha." K h a l a y a t i in meaning corresponds to niddhameti. Compare Sk. k sā l a y a t i, 'to remove,' from the root k s a l, 'to wash.' See p a k-k hā l e t i (Sum. i. p. 46; Vimāna 62. 4); vik k hā l e t i (Petavatthu, p. 97).

Khalati, from the root skhal, 'to stumble,' occurs in Milanda, p. 187; Thera Gāthā 45; pakkhalati in Sum. i. p. 37; avakkhalita (v.l. apakkhalita), ib. p. 66.

## 27. GACCHA.

The only meaning assigned to gaccha in Childers is 'shrub, plant;' but in Jāt. III. p. 287, gaccha is used

for 'meadow.' "Kaham so [sūkaro] ti?" "Ayam etasmim gacche ti." "So gacchā nikkhamitvā (ib. p. 288). There are no various readings, nor is there any Sanskrit gaccha to which it can be referred. It seems to represent, however, Sanskrit kaccha, 'grass-land, marshland.' In Sutta Nipāta (v. 20), we have "kacche (v.l. gacche in Burmese MSS.) rūlhatine caranti gāvo"= 'in meadows abounding with grass cows are grazing.' In a Gāthā attached to this story (Jāt. IV. p. 288) su vāminī (=sāminī) = Sk. svāminī, 'mistress.'

#### 28. CANDITTA.

Childers has canda, but not canditta. We find the latter, however, in Puggala Paññatti as a synonym of kodha, and in Dhammasaṃgani (418) of dosa. It is sometimes misprinted, owing to the confusion of t and k in the MSS., as candikka (Dhammasaṃgani 1060; Suttavibhanga I. p. 297).

Canditta is an abstract noun formed from canda, and represents Sanskrit candatva, which in Pāli would become (1) candatta and (2) canditta.

### 29. CALAKA.

Calaka, not in Childers's Dictionary, occurs in Dīgha Nikāya II. 14, and is explained by Buddhaghosa (Sum. p. 156) as an official who assisted in marshalling the troops by acting as herald, and crying out, 'Here make room for the king,' or 'Here make room for such a state-officer.'

Calaka, 'a herald,' can hardly be referred to the root cal, 'to shake;' most likely it is connected with a root cal (a softened form of kal), 'to call or shout out.'

## 30. VANI.1

In Dr. Wenzel's interesting communication to The Academy of August 30 (No. 950, pp. 177-8), the poetical word vani is wrongly explained as 'voice.' No doubt the writer was thinking of  $v\bar{a}ni$ , 'voice,' without paying much heed to the exact sense demanded by the context; hence the origin of the mistake.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, November 8, 1890.

For vanim we ought properly to read vanim, with dental and not cerebral n; but this change may be due to the preceding labial, as we find in the best texts on at a for a vanata. The corresponding Sanskrit word is vani, 'wish, desire,' from the root van, 'to ask, beg.' It belongs to the older language of poetry; the only authority for its use given by B and R, is the Atharva Veda Sanhita.

The passage where v a n i occurs is as follows:

"Tenānusitho idhamāgato 'smi Vanibbako cakkhupathāni yācitam: Vanibbako [vanibbino? <sup>1</sup>] mayha v a n i m anuttaram. (Jāt. IV. p. 404.)

'Commanded by him [Indra], here am I come, a oeggar, to ask-for (your) eyes: for me, a beggar [this is an] incomparable request.' The play upon the related words vani and vani-bbaka (= Sk. vanīpaka = vanīyaka) cannot be adequately represented in a translation. The commentator is quite right in explaining vani by yācana, 'request.'

In Udāna, p. 53, v. 5, to which Dr. Wenzel refers, van i has the sense of 'begging;' and "dhammena na van i m care," must mean 'one should not go about begging or soliciting alms by means of the Dhamma'—that is, one should not preach the Dhamma for the sake of getting a living, as some false Bhikkhus or mendicants of the Buddhist and other religious orders were wont to do. For the expression "vanim carati," compare the Sanskrit phrase, "vanim āyati," 'to come a-begging.'

We often find in the Gāthās of the Jātaka stories curious uses of words not found in Sanskrit; for example, in Jāt. I. p. 283, dhamati, 'to blow,' is used in the sense of vādeti, 'to beat or sound the drum.' "Dhame dhame nātidhame, atidhantam hi pāpakam dhantena satam laddham atidhantena nāsitan ti,"

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Jat. III. p. 312.

sound, sound the drum, (but) do not overbeat it, for mischance (befell) him that overdid it. By one playing the drum (in moderation) a hundred coins were earnt, (but) grievous loss by overbeating.

Dr. Wenzell is naturally puzzled as to the etymology of kirāsa (Jat. IV. p. 223). There appears to be no such vocable in Sanskrit, though an original \*kim-rāsa in the sense of 'gambling' might possibly be the source of the word. Some corruption has evidently crept into the Jātaka text, to judge by the various readings given by the editor—gharāsa, kīrāsi, &c. Looking at the line wherein kirāsa occurs ("Gottham majjam kirāsa m vā sabhāni kiranāni ca"), it seems probable that the kir of kirāsa m is wrong, and is due to the kir in kiranāni. We ought, perhaps, to amend the text by reading vilāsa m, 'sport, pastime.'

The Brahmacarī was bound (1) to avoid all idle conversation (gotthī)—he must, therefore, keep away from all assemblies, public meetings, and family gatherings; (2) to abstain from all spirituous liquors (majja)—he was, therefore, to keep away from the grogshop (pānāgāra); (3) not to engage in any sport or pastime (vilāsa), whether innocent or otherwise. Singing, dancing, music, wrestling and boxing matches, dice, games of every description, would come under this head. The word s a b h ā n i (= sabhāyo, 'assemblies') refers, probably, to gottha; and k i r a n ā n i, 'squanderings' (?) to both majja and kirāsa (vilāsa?).

In explaining kirāsa by dhuttakerātikajana, 'gamblers and cheats,' the commentator had in view only that kind of sport which involved gambling and trickery. The compound dhuttako does not occur in Sanskrit literature, the equivalent term being dhūrttakitava. The word kerātika (not very common in Pāli) is usually referred to the Sanskrit kairāta, from ki-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Dhuttakerātikajana does not, I think, signify 'the society of tipplers and charlatans,' as tippling is included in majja.

rāta, the name of a savage people; but Pāli always has the cerebral t, as in Sumaṅgala, p. 289—"te kerāti kā c'eva andhabālā."

It is somewhat curious that both  $dh\bar{u}rtta$  and  $kitava^r$  signify the 'thorn apple,' as well as 'sharper' (compare Sk.  $kr\bar{u}ra = c\bar{a}ta = k\bar{a}rpatika$ ,  $k\bar{a}patika$ , 'a cheat'), from some root meaning 'cutting, sharp.' Kirāta and Kairāta are used to denote a sort of gentian, probably from a root signifying 'biting, bitter.' Wilson gives  $kair\bar{a}tika$  (with cerebral t) in the sense of 'a species of poison,' and this is nearer in form (though not in sense) to the Pāli  $ker\bar{a}tika$ .

To go back to the form kirāsa, the variant reading gharāsa, probably for girāsa, suggests a possible etymology for this word. There is no doubt that kirāsa means 'gambling, dicing.' There is in Sanskrit a root glah, 'to play at dice,' from which we get a noun \*glāha (like grāha, from grah) with the same meaning as Sk. glaha, 'gambling, dicing.' This would become in Pāli—(1) kilāha = gilāha (for the change of gl to kil compare Sk. glāsnu with Pāli kilāsu); (2) kilāsa (for the change of h to s compare Sk. snaihika, goliha with Pāli snesika, golisa); (3) kirāsa (for the change of l to r compare Sk. kila, ālambana, with Pāli kira, ārammana).

Dr. Wenzel clearly shows that the commentator did not always know the true signification of the old words in the Jātaka verses. We have a very good instance of this in Jāt. IV. p. 221—"Aggi pi te na hāpito"—'the fire has not been kept up by thee.' The commentator wrongly explains hāpita by jalita ('lighted'). He did not see that aggim hāpeti was equivalent to aggim paricarati, to keep a sacrificial fire (aggihutta) constantly burning. Hāpeti paricarati (used also in the sense of 'to worship') may represent an original \*hāvayati (cf. Pāli hāvaka,

The usual etymology of kitava is kintava!

one who sacrifices,' the causal of the root hu), or hvā\*payati (=hvāyayati), from the root hū or hvā.

There is another and very common verb hāpeti in Pāli, which is the causal of ja hāti, from the root hā.

#### 31. KAROTI.

Karoti, not in Childers's Dictionary, signifies a bowl or cup. In Pāli, according to Dr. Trenckner, it assumes the form kalopi or khalopi (Dīgha VIII. 14; Majjhima I. 77; Mil. 107; Aṅguttara III. 151; IV. 198, 4; Puggala IV. 24, Jāt. V. 252), and represents Sanskrit karoti, 'basin, skull,' with which we may compare Marathi karotī, karatī, 'a skull, shell'; Hindi katorī, 'a shallow cup or bowl.' In Jāt. I. p. 243; II. p. 363; III. p. 225, rasa-karoti means 'a sauce-bowl.'

In Jāt. I. p. 204, karoti seems to be employed in quite a different sense as a substitute for supanna = suparna, a winged creature, something like a vulture, a garuda or garula. "Uraga-karoti, payassa ca hārī, Madanayutā, caturo ca mahantāti." The commentary has the following explanation: "Karoti saddena supannā gahitā, tesam kira karoti nāma pāna-bhojanam tena nāmam labhimsu."

For pānabhojanam = food and drink, one is tempted offhand to read pāna-bhājanam, 'a bowl of water.' The old commentator probably connected supan na with pāna and panna (= pañña = pānīya), 'water, drink,' taking karoti, perhaps, to mean 'a water-bowl,' which suits the original sense of the word. But karoti is used in the passage quoted above in the sense of 'bowl-holder,' corresponding to the Sanskrit karotapāni.

In Mahāvastu, p. 30, we find Yaksas called 'bowl-holders,' "karotapānayo nāma yaksā mālādhārā nāma yaksā sadāmattā nāma yaksā." See Divyāvādāna, pp. 218, 319, where the karotapānis are called devas.

Burnouf, in his Introduction (2nd ed.), pp. 536, 7, gives,

I am indebted to Prof. Senart's Mahāvastu for this reference.

on the authority of Csoma, a Thibetan word gnod-sbyin lag-na-gjong-thog, 'a mischievous imaginary spirit who holds a basin in his hand,' which is evidently a translation of the Sanskrit karotapāni yaksah, and this evidently answers to the Pāli karoti. Burnouf adds:

"Tout ce que nous en savons est dû à Georgi qui les [yaksā] représente occupés à puiser avec leur vases l'eau que les flots de la mer rejaillir sur le mont Mêru. . . . Le nom que leur donnent les Thibétans rappelle en partie celui de kumbhā $n\ d$ a."

In the Jātaka story, however, the epithet karo  $t\bar{\imath}$  is not applied to Yaksas or to Kumbhāndas, but to Supannas. The latter were included among the classes regarded as deceased ancestors, to whose names presentation of water in a bowl (ornamental?) was made daily (see Manu III. 196, 202). There may have been a kind of water-bowl, called karoti, in shape resembling a bird, or ornamented with the figure of a bird.

It is perhaps a kar o ti that figures in one of the Hindu signs of the Zodiac as Aquarius. '[The Sun.] The first of the jar (Aquarius) is a man with a vulture's head... busied in obtaining... water and food [pāna-bhojana].' See Colebrook's Essays, ii. p. 234.

The passage we have quoted from the Jātaka book has a few more curious expressions that need some special notice. Payassa hārī for payahārī is, according to the commentary, used with reference to kumbhā $nd\bar{a}$ , which Prof. Rhys Davids renders by 'dwarfs.'

The phrase payassa hārī seems to mean 'water-carriers,' and, as applied to the kumbhāndas, denotes a class of supernatural beings attendant on Virūlhaka, the regent of the Southern quarter. Perhaps they appear also in the old signs of the Zodiac, for, according to Hardy, the eleventh sign of the Zodiac among the Buddhists was Kumbha, a white man holding a water-jar. Cf. '[Venus] a man . . . carries and transports vases. . . .

He is the last of the Kumbha' (Colebrook's Essays, ii. pp. 324, 5).

In calling Kumbhandas "payassa hārī" there may have been an attempt at supplying a popular derivation for the word kumbhanda from kumbha. The corresponding epithet to payassa hārī in the Mahāvastu is mālādhārā, in Thibetan phreng-thogs, 'having garlands.' The original term may have been vāridhārā, 'water-carriers,' i.e., clouds.'

Madanayutā, an epithet of yaksas, corresponds to the Buddhist Sanskrit sadāmattā, but with a slight variation of meaning.

Madanayutā may signify 'fond of drink,' and would in a rough way answer to sadāmattā, 'always drunk.' The Jātaka Commentary adds that the Yaksas are said to be yuddhamsondā, 'war-drunk.' But madanayutā may also mean 'fond of sexual delights,' an epithet more strictly applicable to the Gandhabbas than to the Yak-khas.<sup>2</sup>

"Ascending this mountain (Meru) by stages of 10,000 yojanas, there are the abodes of various dêvas; the first are called 'strong-handed'; the second 'chaplet-holding'; the third the 'ever-free.'... Above these the four kings." (Beal's "Catena of Buddhist Scriptures for the Chinese," p. 81).

'Strong-handed' implies the reading kota-pāni = having a fortress or stronghold in hand, or kratu-pāni; 'ever-free' is based on a Skt. sadāmuktā.

The Kulāvaka Jātaka story is evidently a Buddhist version of an old Hindu legend. Cakra or Indra, in order to keep

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Kumbhanda may be a Prakrit form of kabandha, (1) a cloud, (2) the name of a demon. The Jātaka Commentary says that some explain kumbhandā as equivalent to dānavarakkhasā.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In the Meghadūta we are familiar with the affectionate Yaksa who employs the cloud as a messenger to his banished wife.

off the Asuras or Titans from his territories, is said to have placed 'guards' in five quarters. Taking these in the order they stand in the Jātaka tale, they are as follows:

- 1. Nāgas or Uragā (placed in the West).1
- 2. Suparnas or Karotī (placed in the East).
- 3. Kumbhāndas or Payassa hārī (placed in the South).
- 4. Yaksas or Madanayutā (placed in the North).
- 5. Cattaro mahārājā or Caturo mahantā (the four great kings) are the rulers or regents of the four quarters, and lords over the four classes of guards:
  - 1. Virūpakkha, regent of the West.
  - 2. Dhatarattha, regent of the East.
  - 3. Virūlhaka, regent of the South.
  - 4. Kuvera or Vessavana, regent of the North.

According to Buddhist traditions, the abode of Indra was surrounded by four mansions inhabited by Nāgas, Garulas (Supannas), Kumbhāndas, and Yakkhas. In the Mahāsamayasutta we find Dhatarattha mentioned as ruler of the Gandhabbas, a race always described as hostile to the Supannas. This seems quite at variance with the account that places the Supannas in the Eastern quarter; but both Gandhabbas and Supannas were sky-dwellers, and hence, perhaps, the confusion.

Popular etymology may have had something to do with the change. In Sumangala I. p. 40 Dhatarattha is called Hamsa rājā, king of swans or king of flamingos; but, in Pāli, Hamsa-rājā may mean King Hamsa, who in Hindu mythology was a chief of the Gandharvas. Dhatarattha represents Sk. Dhrita-rāstra (1) the name of a king, (2) a sort of hamsa; and this may account for the Supannas or fine-winged creatures being placed by later writers under the rule of Dhatarattha (see Jāt. III. pp. 104, 257).

The Jātaka tale does not give the position of these 'guards.' This agrees with Dhammapada, p. 194: "Sakko hetthā samudde nāgānam ārakkham adāsi, tato supannānam kumbhandānam yakkhānam tato catunnam mahārājānam."

For some few details respecting the Regents of the Quarters see Ātānatiya-sutta in Grimblot's Sept Suttas Palis, pp. 321-337; Mahāsamaya-sutta, Ib., p. 285; Petavatthu I. 4, 2; Hardy's "Manual of Buddhism" (2nd edit.), pp. 24, 25; Kern's Saddharma-Pundarīka, pp. 4, 373.

# 32. ARE THERE ANY TRACES OF BABYLONIAN OR ASSYRIAN NAMES IN PĀLI LITERATURE?

There is, in the Jataka, Book III. p. 126, a story entitled Bāveru Jātakā where mention is made of a Bāveru territory or kingdom. The late Professor Minayeff identified Baveru with Babila or Babylon. No other attempt has been made to find traces of Babylonian or Assyrian names in the Pali scriptures. Their identification is not an easy matter, owing to the great change such foreign names would undergo in the speech or writings of an Aryan people. We may, I think, see another Babylonian name in Seruma or Soruma (Sussondi Jātika III., p. 187), which looks like a corruption of Shumir (Sumer), the ancient designation of Southern Chaldea. The form Seruma might spring from an original Sumira, through the immediate stages of Simura, Semura. The other (Sinhalese) reading Soruma would come from Sumira through Somira, Somura. But Seruma may, after all, be a syncopated form of the Sanskrit Ka-serumant, one of the nine divisions of Bharatavarsa, but quite distinct from Nagadvipa. It would seem as easy a matter to have turned Shumir into Sumira or Sumera, as Babila into Baveru, Zend Bawru without any further change; but, perhaps, Seruma is due to an endeavour to differentiate it from Su-meru, Sineru, Mount Meru.

In Jat. I. p. 111 we find Seriva as the name of a country. Bearing in mind the interchange of v and m, we may have here another form of Seruma.

From the Sussondi Jātaka we learn that Serumadīpa was the older name of Nāgadīpa, which, according to Buddhist authorities, denotes an island near Ceylon; but there was

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, October 14, 1890, No. 963.

a more ancient Nāgadīpa, which may not have been the name of any part of Ceylon. In making Serumadīpa equivalent to Nāgadipa there was probably an attempt of the later prose writer to explain the uncommon appellation Seruma, which he found in the older gāthā, but did not know quite what to make of.

The proper names in the Sussondi Jātaka have a strange and foreign appearance. The ruler of Benares is called Tambarājā or 'Copper-King'; and his wife bears the curious designation of Sussondi, which some of the old scribes have tried to render more significant by turning it into Sussoni, Sayonandi, Suyonandi. We find, too, that in this story the Bodhisat is represented as having been reborn as a supanna, a fabulous winged creature, a vulturelike bird, but here said (as in Kākāti Jātaka III. p. 91) to have been able to take the human form. In fact, these two Jataka stories show that the supanna was a 'winged But Buddha (so far as we can gather from the history of his many previous births) is never represented as having been re-born either as a supanna or a winged-man. Did the Hindus get their notions of a fabulous supanna from the Dravidians or non-Aryans, and they again from the Babylonians, who had all sorts of winged creatures in their mythology? The Vedas, we believe, do not use supanna to designate a fabulous bird, but it occurs later on in the Laws of Manu.

The Copper-King has a musician realled Sagga, a most extraordinary name for a man, which has not been met with elsewhere. No one would assume the title of Sagga (=Svarga, 'heaven') any more than he would that of Inda or Sakka. It may, perhaps, be a corruption of a non-Aryan Sarg or Sargi.

The Kākāti Jātaka III. p. 91 has "katham patari Ke-

In this Jātaka, gandha bba does not mean a heavenly musician or Gandharva; it has also the meaning of music (see Jāt. III. pp. 188, ll. 19-21; Childers, s.v. Gandhabbo).

bukam" for "katham adakkhi Serumam" in Jāt. III. p. 189. The commentary explains Kebuka as the name of a river, and makes the Simbali-rukkha (silk-cotton tree) to be the abode of the Supannas. Simbali answers to the Sanskrit Çālmali, one of the seven dvīpas, wherein silk-cotton trees abounded, while Çālmalin is a name of Garuda.

In the Sussondi Jātaka the king's musician is represented as starting from Bharukaccha for Nāgadvīpa, but is shipwrecked, and gets to the place on a raft.

In the Kākāti Jātaka he arrives at the abode of the supannas by getting on to the end of the monster's wing; but seven oceans had to be crossed before he reached his destination. The seven oceans, corresponding to the seven continents, are, we suppose, those mentioned in the Purānas. The Çālmaladvīpa, outside Plaksadvīpa, was said to be surrounded by a sea of wine. There was a Simbali-lake on Mount Meru, round which dwelt the Supannas in a forest of Simbali-trees (see Jāt. I. pp. 202-3; IV. p. 257; and Childers s.v. Simbali). In Dhammapada, p. 194, —Jāt. I. p. 202-3, supannas are called garulas; and Garuda, the bird of Vishnu, is represented in Hindu mythology as king of the Supannas.

According to Purānic accounts, Meru is in the centre of Jambudvīpa, and cannot, therefore, be the same locality as Nāgadvīpa or Seruma.

There appears to be in the Buddhist traditions a mixing up (1) of Supannas and Gandhabbas, and (2) of two kinds of mythical winged creatures. Perhaps those better versed in Sanskrit literature than the writer of these notes may be able to throw some light upon the subject. There is also, perhaps, a confusion of real with mythical names in regard to Seruma, Kebuka, &c.

It has been shown that in the Jātaka book Seruma and Simbali are in some way connected as the abode of the Supannas. There is an Avesta Sairima which appears in the Pahlavi texts (Bund. XX. 12) as Salmān (the source of the Tigris). The Sanskrit Cālmala, as

the name of a Dvīpa is not very ancient, and may after all be a corruption of some proper name like Salmān.

The second element in Ka-serumant may be compared with the Avesta Haétūmant Haétūmat, Pahlavi Hétumand, which in Bund. XX. 34 is said to be identical with the spring Zarīmand. There is another Haétumant, the modern Helmend, the  $E\rho \hat{\nu}\mu a\nu\theta os$  or  $E\tau \hat{\nu}\mu a\nu\nu\delta\rho os$  of Arrian.

With regard to the Calmala groves the old tradition respecting this delightful abode is still current in Thibet. The author of an article in *The Edinburgh Review* (No. 352, p. 405), October, 1890, speaks of a most popular Thibetan work entitled "A Guide for the Journey to Shambala."

"Shambala," he says, "is a supernal city supposed to exist on the borders of Mongolia; and every Mongol pilgrim visiting Lha-sā prays the great deities and the living celebrities of the place to grant that at his next rebirth he may be born in the blessed groves of Shambala."

33. √ "cagh" of the asoka inscriptions.

Mr. Grierson writes as follows in the Academy:

This root occurs in (a) the Delhi columnar edict (iv. 10, 11) and in the detached edicts at (b) Dhauli (i. 19; ii. 11) and (c) Jaugadā (ii. 16).

The Delhi passages are:

- "(a), (1) yēna mam lajūkā caghamti ālādhayitavē.
  - (2) viyatadhāti caghati mē pajam sukham palihatavē."

The Dhauli and Jaugada passages are all nearly word for word the same. The first runs:

"(b), (1) hēvam ca kalamtam tuphē caghatha sampatipādayitavē."

The general meaning of all the passages is clear.

The Jains knew something of this tradition—"Rukkhesu nāte jaha sāmalīvā jassim ratim veyāmtī suvannā" (Sāy. I. 6, 18, p. 315).

√ Cagh must have some such meaning as 'striving,' 'endeavouring,' followed by a dative of a verbal noun. We may render a, 1 by 'so that my officers may set themselves to please me'; a, 2 by 'a skilful nurse sets herself to care for the happiness of my child'; and b, 1 by 'and acting thus, set ye yourselves to cause (the people) to walk (in the Good Way).' The exact original meaning of the word, and its equivalent in Sanskrit, remain, however, still subject to M. Senart's proposal to connect it with jagrati is admittedly conjectural. There is a very common root cagh in the Chattīsgarhī dialect of Bihārī. It means 'to rise,' 'to ascend.' I derive this from the Sanskrit u c c arghati (Prākrit uccagghati), with loss of the inital u (a very frequent occurrence). The Sanskrit root cargh, 'to go, to move,' is given in Wilson's Dictionary, but is omitted from the St. Petersburg Wörterbuch, probably for want of authority. This authority is now supplied in the Chattīsgarhi dialectal form. Piyadasi's V cagh, with a dative of a verbal noun, therefore means to go to, and hence, metaphorically, to set oneself to, to 'go for' a thing.

On this I wrote in reply:

Dr. Grierson's derivation of caghati (see Academy, No. 964, October 25, 1890, p. 369) from a root cagh, 'to rise, ascend,' found in the Chattisgarhi dialect, is open to many grave objections. The Sanskrit cargh, 'to go,' with which he connects it, is an "unquotable form," not more real than vargh, 'to go,' also quoted in Wilson's Dictionary.

The root cagh in the Chattisgarhi dialect is probably a provincial variety of the root cad, 'to mount, ascend,' found in Hindi carhnā, Marathi cadanem, Bengāli cadite. This root is not found in classical Sanskrit; but Hemacandra (iv. 206) gives cada as one of the substitutes for āruh, 'to ascend.' This cad seems to have no secondary meanings in the dialects referred to that can connect it with the sense of striving or endeavouring. The Asoka cagh cannot, therefore, be referred to the  $\checkmark$  cagh,

'to rise,' or  $\sqrt{\operatorname{carg}} h$ , 'to go.' M. Senart's proposal to connect cagh with Pāli jaggati (Sk. jāgrati), in the sense of patijaggati, 'to take care of,' does not take into account the strict syntactical use of the verb. There is a Bengāli cāg, 'to arouse, 'to begin to exert oneself'; and a causative cāgā, 'to excite,' 'stimulate' (from jāgri?). But Hindi cāh or chāh (proposed by Kern as the source of cagh, but objected to by Senart) is by no means a recent coinage in the sense of 'to desire,' for it goes back to the Sanskrit denom. verb, utsāhayati, Prakrit ucchāhai(cf. Pāli ussolhi, 'effort'), from the root sah (cf. Pāli ussahati, Dīgha Nikāya D. v. 11). The Asoka cagh, if from this source, would represent a derivative of the Vedic sagh for sah (see Westergaard's "Radices," p. 94).

Hemacandra (iv. 86) gives a form caya, as a substitute for çak, which Dr. Pischel refers to Sk. tyaj; but the meaning of cayati is not that of the Sk. tyajati or Pāli cajati. This cayati is for cakati or cagati in the sense of 'to be able' (cf. ca-ati in Setubandha X. 10), and may be a later form of the Asoka cagh.

34. SOME OTHER WORDS IN THE ASOKA INSCRIPTIONS.

In D. v. (ed. Senart, ii. pp. 43-46) we find a list of birds, beasts, and fishes, that are forbidden to be killed. Many of these are by no means easy to identify with their Sanskrit names.

- 1. Among aquatic birds we find Gelāṭa (=gerāta), which may signify 'a crane.' Cf. Bengāli g i lā; Gr. γέρανος.
- 2. Ambāka-pīlike (v. l. ambākī-pilikā) M. Senart takes ambā as the equivalent of Sk. ambā, 'water,' and makes kapīlika the same as Pālikipillika, 'an ant,' so that the compound would signify 'water-ants.' There are, however, some phonetic and other difficulties in this identification which make it well-nigh impossible to adopt this ingenious explanation. The variant reading ambākī-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, November 22, 1890.

- p likā seems to point to two distinct words—the first being probably an error for a m̃ d hā hī, 'eels,' and pilikā = Sanskrit pilla kā, 'lizards,' or iguanas.
- 3. The word that follows is DADĪ, which M. Senart looks upon as equivalent to  $\mathrm{d} u d \bar{\imath}$ , 'tortoises.' The variant lection is d u b h i; and, as tortoises are supposed to be mentioned later on among the 'four-footed' creatures, the true reading may be d u  $d \bar{\mathrm{u}} = \mathrm{d} \, \mathrm{u} \, d \, d \, \bar{\mathrm{u}}$ , 'lizards.' Cf. Pāli d e  $d \, d \, \mathrm{u}$  b h a = Sk. d u  $n \, d \, \mathrm{u}$  b h a. If for j a t  $\bar{\mathrm{u}}$  k  $\bar{\mathrm{a}}$ , 'bats,' we read j a l  $\bar{\mathrm{u}}$  k  $\bar{\mathrm{a}}$ , 'leeches,' we should get four kinds of non-venomous creatures, forming a group that would naturally come in between the water-fowls and fishes.
- 4. Anathika-maccha is explained by M. Senart as 'a boneless fish.' "Le poisson en question étant désigné comme n'ayant pas d'os, peut-être figurement et à cause, par exemple, de sa souplesse extrême." Perhaps a fish resembling what we term 'jelly-fish' is here referred to. As far as Sanskrit is concerned, the term 'boneless' is not used with reference to fish, but is applied to such 'small deer' as bugs, lice, &c. One would like to read a n a t t h a k a, 'snoutless'—i.e., not having a long or protuberant snout, like the crocodile, &c.
- 5. Vedaveyaka is a crux most difficult to solve. M. Senart regards it as standing for \*v a i d a r v e y a k a, "quelque poisson comme analogue au serpent 'moins le chaperon'" (v i d a r v i). Were it possible to read velave s a k a, it would denote a certain kind of fish frequenting the beach.
- 6. Ganga-puputaka. The second element in this term M. Senart connects with Sk. pupputa ('a disease in which there is a swelling at the palate or teeth'), and thinks the epithet denotes a fish in the Ganges remarkable for some protuberance. If puputaka is undoubtedly the correct reading, it may represent a Sk. \*pupputaka (cf. pupphula), 'puffing,' 'blowing,' and be applicable to crocodiles, &c. But, bearing in mind (1) the similarity of the letters p and s, (2) the frequent allusions elsewhere to Gangetic porpoise (Delphinus Gangeticus), we ought,

perhaps, to read Gangās usuka, where the latter part of the compound corresponds to Sk. çiçuka, 'a porpoise.'

- 7. Samkuja-массна may here mean 'a skate,' cf. Sk. çanku, çankoci, Hindi sāngus.
- 8. Kaphatasayake (v. l. kapataseyake), in M. Senart's analysis, represents Sk. ka m a tha ('a tortoise') and salyaka ('a porcupine'). The first is, of course, a possible correction, though ph for m occurs mostly in certain pronominals; but sayaka for sallaka or salyaka would be an unusual prakritisation. The word seems to be compounded of kapāta and sayyaka (or seyyaka), which might mean 'creatures living in shells' (cf. Sk. kuçeçaya, 'lying in the water,' 'a lotus'; Pāli seyyaka, Mahāvagga, p. 39), and include shell-fish, as well as turtles, tortoises, &c. Kaphata or kapata seems to answer in meaning to the Pali kapalla or kapala, Prakrit kavāla, 'a shell,' the shell of a tortoise, &c. (cf. Samyutta I. p. 7). Here the cerebral t ought, strictly, to represent a cerebral l, for which there is no symbol in the Asoka inscriptions; but the Prakrit dialects often exhibit much confusion between the dental and cerebral liquid, the tendency being to cerebralize the dental. Hence kapata may represent kapalla or kapāla. Some confusion between  $kap\bar{a}ta$  (or  $kav\bar{a}da$ ) and  $kav\bar{a}la$  is seen in Haripāla's explanation of k a m a d ha-k a v ā l a by k a m atha-kapā ta = kamatha-koça, 'a tortoise shell' (Gaüdavaho v. 390). Here kapāta = kavāda = kapāla. Gaüdavaho v. 263, the Sk. kapāta appears as kapphā $d \, a^{\, \text{\tiny I}} (= \text{guhā})$ . There cannot be therefore much difficulty in identifying the Asoka kaphata with kapāla or kapalla.
- 9. Pamnasasa. The latter part of this compound is clear enough, and means a hare or rabbit; the former is regarded by M. Senart as the equivalent of the Sk. parna, 'a leaf,' here used to mark a particular species. For pam na we

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Prakṛit kapphāda represents strictly Sk. karpāta, kapāta, Pāli kavāta.

might read vam̃na = vañña = Sk. vanya; so that vam̃nas as a would mean a wild (or wood) rabbit. *Cf.* Sasakā arañña van a-gocarā (Pet. ii. 6, 5, Jāt. IV. p. 85).

10. Simala. With regard to this term, M. Senart says: "Pour simala, je ne puis découvrir aucun équivalent Sanscrit dont la correspondance soit phonétiquement régulière ou au moins justifiable."

11. Okapinda. This word M. Senart rightly compares with the Paliukkapindaka, which he thinks is one of the names for 'a fox,' referring the first element oka or ukka to Sk. ulkā. This ingenious explanation does not sufficiently take into account the usual meaning of -p i m da (food). If we look at the previous word, sa  $\tilde{m}$  daka, 'a bull allowed to roam at large,' it would seem probable that the okapim das or ukkapin dakas refer to certain creatures found in or near houses, and that ate the food they found about dwelling-places. According to Buddhaghosa, the ukkapin d akas comprise the cat (bi $l\bar{a}$ la), rat (mūsikā), lizard (godha), and mungoose (mungusa). The first part of the compound, okka or ukka, seems to stand for an original \*aukya, from oka, 'a house,' so that the epithet would mean 'living on house-food'; and this sense would suit the general meaning of the context. The city bull, cat, rat, lizard, mungoose, although apt at times to be very troublesome about a house, were, nevertheless, not to be killed.

The Com. to Gaüdavaho (v. 682) explains gharaghulaka = gharagolaya by mūsakādi, rat, &c. as if it meant 'house-frequenter.'

35. BUDDHAGHOSA'S DESCRIPTION OF OLD HINDU ASCETICS. 1

The Dhārmaçāstras give us many interesting details of hermit life in the forest; but in Pāli texts we meet with, comparatively speaking, very few allusions to the practices of the Brahminical ascetics, even in the oldest Buddhistic records.

From Baudhāyana III. 3, 2 we learn that some hermits lived on cooked food, while others always ate theirs raw. Buddhaghosa (Sum., pp. 270, 271) mentions eight kinds of ascetics, two of whom received, as alms, (cooked) food from the dānāgāra; two ate food cooked by a fire (agyāgāra), the rest lived on uncooked food picked up in the forest.

Buddhaghosa does not (so far as we can judge from the present state of his text) seem to have understood all the terms he employs to describe the various kinds of hermits; but some little light may be thrown upon the subject by a reference to the customs of the Brahminical ascetics.

The eight kinds mentioned by Buddhaghosa are as follows:—

(1) Saputtabhariyā, (2) Uñchācariyā, (3) Anaggipak-kikā,² (4) Asāmapākikā, (5) Asamamutthikā,³ (6) Dantavakkalikā, (7) Pavattaphalabhojinā, (8) Pandupalāsikā.

The first epithet needs no explanation. The second has already been explained by the writer of these notes in the *Journal* of the Pāli Text Society for 1887 (pp. 115-16). The Uñchācariya mode of life corresponds to the older Samūha livelihood called in Pāli Samuñchaka (?). This word is not recorded by Childers, but there is some authority for its use:

"Dhamme care yo pi samuñchakam care" (Jāt. IV. p. 66), on which the Commentator has the following note: "Samuñchakan ti gāme vā āmapakkabhikkhā-cariyam uncham yo careyya so pi dhammam eva care."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, January 10, 1891.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Printed text reads a naggapakkhikā.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Printed on p. 271 asammutthika.

The Pāli sam uñchaka may be an attempt to express the older sam ūha or sam ūhaka. In a parallel passage (in Samyutta Nikāya I. 4. 2. 7) we find sam ucchakam (v. l. samuñjakam).

In verse 440, p. 76, of the Sutta Nipāta we have the following line—"Esa munjam parihare."

A variant (Burmese) reading has muñcam, which does not help us much in solving the difficulty presented by "esa muñjam." On turning to Prof. Fausböll's translation in "Sacred Books of the East," verse 439, p. 71, we find, by some inadvertence, that the line containing these words has been left untranslated. The sense of the whole verse, however, is not much affected by the omission; but still a footnote is needed for the information of the reader. Esa appears to be a mere blunder arising out of esā in the preceding verse, and has no meaning in gāthā 440. For "esa muñjam" we might indeed read "esāham uñcham"; but this would be against the metre, unless we pronounce  $e s \bar{a} h a m$  as two syllables. The line would then mean, 'I must practise gleaning,' i.e., 'I must live away from the world.' We must, I think, amend the text by reading "samuñchakam parihare," which would correspond exactly to "samuñchakam care" as already quoted from the Jataka book.

The phrase "dhamme care yo pi samunchakam care," which makes the practice of the dharma to be identical with the gleaning mode of life, reminds us of a passage in Manu IV. 5: "Ritam unchasilam jneyam" = 'Rita (truth) is to be understood as practising gleaning,' that is, gleaning is the true or virtuous mode of life.

3. The Anaggipakkikas, according to Buddhaghosa, cooked the husked grains they received as alms; but this explanation can hardly be correct, as it would be more appropriately a description of the Aggipakkikas. The epithet must mean 'eating food not cooked by fire.' In Jāt. IV. p. 8 we read of a hermit who was a Dantamusalika, and ate uncooked food—"Danta-

musaliko hutvā a n a g g i p a k k a m eva khadati, thusaparikkhitam kiñci na khadati."

4. The Asāmapākikas, according to Buddhaghosa, gleaned cooked food; they were therefore agnipakväçins or aggipakkikas, but we do not at once gather as much from the Pāli designation. Asāmapākika must refer to those 'living on food that had not ripened spontaneously (sāmam),' that is, to those who followed the livelihood called Siddhoñçhā 'gleaning cooked food.'

Asāmapākikā might possibly be an attempt to represent an older  $a - s a m a y a - p \bar{a} k i k \bar{a} = a k \bar{a} l a p \bar{a} k i k \bar{a}$  applied to hermits 'eating what had not been ripened by time.' Compare the following passage from Manu VI. 17:

- "Agnipakvāçano vāsyāt kālapakvabhugeva vā Açmakuttobhāved vāpi dantolūkhalikopi vā."
- 'He may eat what is cooked by fire, or eat only what is ripened by time; he may either use a stone-pounder, or else make use of his teeth as a pestle.'
- 5. The Asamamutthikas ate the bark of trees, which they broke off with a stone or piece of iron, used as a hammer.

The passage quoted above from Manu helps us to solve the crux in a samamutthika. We see that it answers to the Sanskrit açmakuttaka or açmakutta, so that the Pāli asama (?asma) corresponds to Sk. açma, 'stone.' Childers has no such form, because the Sk. açman usually in Pāli becomes amha (Sutta Nipāta, p. 71). The word mutthika, from mutthi ('a hammer'2) = Sk. musthi ('a fist'), corresponds in meaning to Sk. kutta, kuttaka (cf. Pāli kotta, kottaka, Jāt. I. 477; II. 262; Sum. I. 252; kettana, Sum. I. 296, 'breaking, cutting, pounding').

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare Pāli pamha and pakhuma from Sk. paksman.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> A blacksmith's hammer, also a 'fist.'

6. The Dantavakkalikas, who stripped off the bark of trees with their teeth, are the same as the Dantamusalikas of Jāt. IV. p. 8. Dantavakkalika corresponds in sense to Sk. dantolūkhalika, of which the second element is from ulūkhala (Pāli, udukkhala for udūkhala; Bengāli, umkkhali; Hindi and Marathi, ukhal; Prākrit, okkhala or ulūhala), 'a pestle." The form okkhala, referred to by Hemacandra and Vararuci (I. 21), seems to point to a Prakrit dantokkhalika, which the later Buddhist scribes did not know what to make of. They probably imagined that the letter o represented the syllable ava (as it so often does as a prefix, but rarely in the body of a word), and that vakkhalika stood for vakkalika, from vakkala, 'bark' 2

These ascetics, who used their teeth for a pestle, or ate unground corn, were probably the same as the Mukhenādāyins, who took the food with their mouths, like brute beasts.

Dantukkhaliya occurs in the Aupapātika-sūtra, § 74, and is glossed in the commentary by phalabhojin. Dr. Leumann explains the term by 'mit ausgebrochenan Zahnen?' He takes ukkhaliya as equal to Sk. utskhalita.

- 7. The Pavattaphalabhojins correspond to the Pravrittāçins of the Hindu Law Books.
- 8. The Pandupalāsikas ate fallen or withered leaves (see Manu VI. 21), and correspond to the Çirnaparnāçins.

The Law Books throw light upon other ancient usages alluded to in Pāli records, as, for instance, the Mosalla penance.

Mosalla, from an original \*mausaliya or \*mau-

<sup>1</sup> Cf. Hindi okhali, 'a wooden mortar.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> We find, in a different sense, danta-udūkkhala and danta-musala (Sum. I. 200). The upper teeth are danta-musala and the lower teeth danta-udukkhala.

salya, has the same meaning as the Sk. musalya, 'deserving of death by beating with a club or by pounding with a pestle' (Anguttara IV. 242. 2). The culprit meriting this 'pounding,' clothed in black, with hair flying about, and with a club placed upon his shoulder, made public confession of his offence. There is an allusion to this in Āpastamba I. 9. 25. 4; Gautama XII. 43; Manu VIII. 314-5; Yaj. III. 357, where we learn that the offence was 'stealing a Brahman's gold.' Buddhaghosa says nothing of the crime of theft.

The Anguttara (IV. 242. 3) makes mention of the Assaputa punishment, where the culprit bore a basket of ashes (? stones) on his shoulder. From Dīgha (III. 1. 26) we learn that this particular punishment was inflicted on a Brahman before he was expelled from the order, and banished from his native place. Buddhaghosa gives us no explanation of the punishment or of the offence.

The Hindu Law Books do not, we believe, contain any reference to the Assaputa penance.

In later Pāli works we have occasional allusions to ancient usages, as in the following passage relating to the consecration of a king:

"Atthatimsā ca rājapurisā nata-naccakā m u k h a m a ń-galikā sotthivācakā samana brāhmana sabbapā-sandaganā abhigacchanti, yam kiñci pathaviyā pattana-ratanākara-nagara-sunkatthāna-verajjaka-chejjabhejjajana-m-anusāsanam sabbattha sāmiko bhavati" (Milinda, p. 359).

With the latter part of this extract compare Sum. I. p. 246.

In mukhamangalika the first element has probably the meaning of Sk. mukhya, 'a principal rite or ordinance.' The mukhamangalika were Brahmans, who had to decide whether the day fixed upon for the ceremony of consecration was auspicious or no. It might be roughly translated by 'soothsayers.' We have no term corresponding etymologically to it in Sanskrit.

In the Kalpa-sūtra (Jinacarita, p. 113) we find the cor-

responding Jaina-prākrit term muha-mamgaliya, of which the commentator gives a very unsatisfactory explanation (mukhamangalikā mukhe mangalam yeshām te ta thā cātukārina ity arthah.

The Sotthivācakā or 'augurs' were those who performed the sotthivācana or svasti-vācana, 'a religious rite preparatory to any important observance, in which the Brahmans strewed boiled rice on the ground, and invoked the blessings of the gods on the undertaking about to commence.'

The Pāli ought, perhaps, to be sotthivācanaka. Compare Sk. svastivācanikā (fem.), Prakrit sotthivā-anakā (Çakuntala, ed. Williams, p. 152), and sotthivāana (Mālat, ed. Sk. P. Pandit, p. 82. 4).

36. ON A PASSAGE IN THE DHAMMAPADA.1

"Sabbattha ve sappurisā vajanti na kāma kāmā lapayanti santo."

(Dhammapada V. 83.)

This part of a verse from the Dhammapada has given some trouble to the translators, who have derived but little help from the commentary.

Prof. Fausböll's rendering of these lines is:

"Ubique certe homines probi versantur, a mori dediti non queruntur probi."

That of Prof. Max Müller's is somewhat different:

"Good people walk on whatever befall; the good do not prattle, longing for pleasure."

Gray's version, based on the commentary, is as follows:

"Good men, under all circumstances, are truly self-sacrificing; good men, being desirous of objects of gratification, do not express (their desires)."

These various renderings agree in ascribing to good men,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, April 25, 1891.

that is, to Buddhists, the longing for sensual gratification; but this is quite against true Buddhist doctrine, for good men are free from all evil or low passion and desire, and cannot be kāmakāmā. Compare "kāmakāmā nām'ete asanto" (Therī Gāthā, p. 216).

In a Chinese collection of Scripture verses, which Beal wrongly calls a version of the Dhammapada, we find a verse that may possibly be meant for a rendering of the two lines quoted above:

"The great man is entirely free from covetous desires—he dwells in a place of light, himself enlightened" ("The Dhammapada from the Buddhist Canon," c. xiv. p. 81).

The Chinese translators did not make the serious blunder of ascribing kāma to a good man, though they have made sad havoc in the paraphrase of their original text. This version presupposes some curious variant readings, corresponding in Pāli to sabbaññū for sabbattha and ālayam santam (=padam santam) for lapayanti santo?

The mistake made by recent translators seems due to taking kāmakāmā as an adjective in the nominative plural. Childers gives only one reference, and that from the passage we have quoted, for the use of this term, which he defines as 'fond or desirous of sensual pleasure.' Unfortunately kāmakāma does not occur very frequently in our Pāli texts, though kāmakāmī (not in Childers's) is somewhat less rare. (See Jāt. III. p. 154; Itivuttaka 107; Anguttara IV. 53, 7; 54. 7; Petavatthu I. 3. 3.)

In Therī Gāthā there is a verse (506) that Prof. Pischel declares to be "hopelessly corrupt" which contains kā makā mā, employed much in the same way as it is in the Dhammapada:

"Mokkhamhi vijjamāne kin tava kāmehi yesu vadhabandho?

kāmesu hi vadhabandho kāmakāmā dukkhāni anu-bhonti."

Here  $k\bar{a}mak\bar{a}m\bar{a}$  might easily be mistaken for an adjective, but the commentator explains it by  $k\bar{a}mesu$   $k\bar{a}mahetu$ . This agrees with  $k\bar{a}mahetu$  in the Dhammapada Commentary; and shows us that  $k\bar{a}mak\bar{a}m\bar{a}$  is not a nominative plural, but an ablative singular, and means 'from (or on account of) a longing for sensual gratification,' the real nominative to anubhonti being the word sattā understood. Compare "purimabuddhesu  $kat\bar{a}dhik\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ "—'on account of service rendered unto former Buddhas' (Therī Gāthā, p. 180).

Dr. Pischel's "conjectural text" makes very good sense, and we venture to translate it:

"If thou hast attained to Arhatship (and art free from all lusts), what then hast thou to do with sensual pleasures, in which (are involved) death and bonds? Since death and bonds (are inherent) in lusts, (therefore) from a desire of sensual indulgence creatures suffer the pains (of death and bonds)."

For the use of vadha, bandha, see Therī Gāthā, verse 345.

With these few remarks upon kāmakāmā we risk another translation of the foregoing extract from the Dhammapada:

"Good men, indeed, walk (warily) under all conditions; good men speak not out of a desire for sensual gratification."

# 37. ANĪGHA, KUMINA, PĀSAKA, ETC.1

Childers, following the commentator on the Dhamma-pada, explains  $a - n \bar{\imath} g h a$  by 'free from suffering, uninjured, scatheless,' and refers to  $n \bar{\imath} g h a$ , 'grief, suffering, woe.' With regard to the origin of the word, he says: "I have not found any equivalent of this word in Sanskrit. Prof. Fausböll suggests the etymology n i + a g h a; but this is far from probable." We may add that  $n \bar{\imath} g h a$  (with long i) has not, as yet, been found in any Pāli text; and the word rests

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, May 2, 1891.

only on the authority of the Abhidhānappadīpikā. Looking at the passages not quoted by Childers, we find a trace of two distinct meanings. In Itivuttaka 112, p. 123 = Anguttara IV. 23, it has the force of 'independent,' 'free (from all human passions)':

"Esa khināsavo buddho anīgho chinnasamsayo."

(See also Itivuttaka 97, p. 97.) It has this sense in Petavatthu IV. 1. 34, p. 49:

" Santo vidhūmo a n ī g h o nirāso."

The commentary explains it by niddukkho, 'free from grief or pain.' (See Dhammapada, vers 294, and Com., p. 390, Thera Gāthā, v. 1234.)

In a corresponding verse of the Thibetan version, a nīgha is rendered 'without sin,' as if the original were anagha. (See "Udānavarga from the Buddhist Canon," v. 70, p. 197.)

The second meaning is 'harmless,' 'innocent':

"Sabbe sattā averā hontu abyāpajjhā anīghā sukham attānam pariharanti." (Jāt. II. p. 62.)

"Ime sattā averā abyāpajjhā anīghā sukhī attānam parihareyyum" (Milinda-Pañhe, p. 410).

In the sense of 'scatheless,' that is, not suffering harm, we find a good example in Thera Gāthā, l. 745, p. 73.

" Pañca pañcahi hantvāna a n $\bar{\imath}$ g h<br/> o yāti brāhma $n_0$ ."

All these meanings seem to arise out of the original sense of  $n\bar{\imath}gha$ , as an adjective signifying 'dependent,' 'tied.' The corresponding Sanskrit is nighna, which might become (1) by transposition ningha, (2) by loss of nasal  $n\bar{\imath}gha$ . For the transposition compare Sanskrit cihna, budhna with Pāli cinha and bunda; and for the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> On killing the five, see Dhammapada, l. 294 and p. 390.

lengthening of vowel after loss of nasal compare Sanskrit a m d a m s a, s i m h a with Pāli  $s a m d \bar{a} s a$  and  $s \bar{i} h a$ .

As Sanskrit nighna and nihan are connected with the root han, 'to strike, hurt, kill,' there must have been in Pāli a form nīgha in the sense of 'hurting, hurt,' from which the other meanings of anīgha, 'harmless,' 'scatheless,' would arise. Dr. Fausböll's suggestion of ni-agha is based upon the use of an-agha, 'free from suffering.' Compare Prākrit anaha, 'unhurt' (Paīyalacchī, p. 115), 'free from sorrow' (Setubandha XI. 120); Jainaprākrit aniha:—

"Anihe sahie susamvude,"

Free (from human passion), wise, and well restrained (Sūyagadamga-sutta I. 2. 2, § 30, p. 141). This in Pāli would be

"Anīgho sahito susamvuto."

The commentators give two etymologies—(1) from a - s n i h a =mamatva-rahita; (2) from h a n + ni, "parīshahopasargais na nihanyata iti a n i h o va." Curiously enough there is the  $v.\ l.$  a n - a g h a =niravadya."

We have another example of a n i h a in i. 2. § 12, p. 111—

"Anihe se putthe ahiyasae."

We might with a slight alteration turn this into Pāli-

"Anīgho so phuttho 2 adhivāsaye,"

Free from all worldly cares, he should, if beset (by trouble), patiently endure (it).

The Guzerātī comment explains an i ha by (1) sneharahita, (2) krodhādika-rahita. The Dipikā has the following note: "tathā nihanyata iti n i ha h, na niho 'n i hah." It also gives as an alternative explanation "krodhādibhirapīditah."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Thera Gāthā V. 116; Majjhima I. p. 418; Milinda-Pañha, p. 500.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Or perhaps phuto would be the more correct reading, but phuttho is common in Sinhalese MSS.

But what is the source of the Jainaprākrit aniha with short instead of long i?

Here, again, we must have recourse to the Sanskrit nighna, which in Prākrit could become, by dropping the n, instead of assimilating the compound consonants, in iha (= nigha), from which the negative would be formed. But we have as yet produced no Prākrit niha corresponding to a Pāli nīgha or Sanskrit nighna. We have, however, come across a solitary example of a noun niha in Sūyagadamga-sutta I. 5. 11, p. 291:

"Sayā jalam nāma n i h a m mahamtam jamsi jalamto aganī akattho,"

Always blazing, indeed, there is a place of torment, of vast extent, wherein there burns a fire without wood.

The Dīpikā gives the following explanation: "nihantyante prānino yasmin n i h a m āghātasthānam."

There is in Marāthi a word nigha, 'care,' and anighā or anigā, 'want of care,' 'neglect.' This presupposes an original nighan (?) for nighna. But it seems to be a provincial term, and may be altogether unconnected with the words under discussion. In regard to anīgha, with the meaning of 'free from passion,' there may, perhaps, have been some confusion between it and an-īha, 'free from desire or exertion.'

In Vyutpatti (ed. Minayeff), 901, p. 92, we find n i g h a in the sense of 'sin.' B. and R. cite this, and refer to a g h a; but it does not help us. The Northern Buddhist term may, after all, be a mere attempt at Sanskritising the Pāli n ī g h a by one ignorant of its etymology, or he might be guided by a word like p a t i - g h a, 'anger.'

In Therī Gāthā, verse 491, n ĭ g h a occurs in the sense of 'suffering.'

"Sattisūlūpamā kāmā rogo gando agham nīgham." Here nīgha, if the right reading, may be ni + gha, and is to be compared with the Jaina nīha.

This would give us niggha or negha (cf. viggha from vighna), a form that we have not come across.

Jaina-prākrit would, we believe, throw much light upon some difficulties in Pāli, had we before us a number of well-edited texts like Prof. Jacobi's Āyāramga-sutta or Dr. Leuman's Aupapātika-sutta. The old Māhārāstrī has many forms in common with Pāli, and not a few peculiarities that are considered to belong only to Buddhistic phraseology. There are forms in Pāli that are explained by other Prākritisms, for instance, vi t a b hī, 'the fork or branch of a tree' (Jāt. II. 107; III. 202), must come from Sanskrit vi t a pi n, through a Prākrit \* vi t a bī for vitavī. For this change of v to bh compare Pāli and Hindī b h i s a, Prākrit b h i s i n ī (Hem. I. 238) from Sanskrit vi s a.

We have in Milinda-Pañha (p. 368) sumanta, 'sleeping,' and in Jaina-prākrit sumina and suvina (Pāli supina) = Sanskrit swapna. This substitution of m for an original phelps us to an etymology for the Pāli kumina, a 'fish-net.' Childers cites no textual authorities for the employment of the word, and says nothing of any Sanskrit equivalent. Examples of its use may be found in Jāt. I 427, II. 238; Thera Gāthā, v. 297; Dīpa-vamsa XV. 110.

There is in Sanskrit a feminine noun kup-inī, 'a small net for fish'; but there must have been also a neuter kupina, which becomes in Pāli kumina, and is exactly on all fours with sumina from supina.

In Jaina-prākrit (Sūyagadamga-sutta) we find kunim a for the 'flesh' of a slaughtered animal used for a lion-trap. This must go back to \*kunip a and be connected with Sanskrit kunapa, 'dead body.

A reference to Jaina-prākrit enables us to correct a false reading in Therī Gāthā, v. 411, p. 163:

"Koccham pasādam (v.l. pasāyam) añjanañ ca ādā-sakañ ca ganhitvā."

In Sūyagadamga-sutta we find k e y a n a, 'a fish-net,' glossed k e t a n a. We ought, perhaps, to read k h e y a n a = k s e p a n a (cf. Pāli k h i p a, 'a net').

The commentary (p. 212) explains  $p a s \bar{a} d a m$  by "kanha cunnādimukhavilepanam." It gives, however, a various reading:  $p a s \bar{a} d h a n a m^{\tau} = pas\bar{a}dhanabhandam$ , 'an ornament' of some kind. The true reading is perhaps "Koccham  $p \bar{a} s a k a \bar{n}$ janañca." With  $p \bar{a} s a k a$ , as here used, we may compare its employment in Cullavagga V. 29. 3.

The Jaina equivalent is pāsaga, as in the following passage from the Sūyagadamga-sutta I. 4. 11, p. 250:

"Samdāsagam ca phaniham ca sihala <sup>2</sup> -p ā s a g a m ca ānāhi ādāsagam ca payacchāhi damta-pakkhalanam pavesāhi."

The explanation of p  $\bar{a}$  s a g a is thus given by the  $T\bar{a}$ :

"Sihalipāsagam ti vināsamyaman artham ūrnā mayam kankanam."

Here we see that pāsaka is an ornament for the hair and is in keeping with the comb, the collyrium, etc., in the Pāli Gāthā quoted above.

The word p h a n i h a , 'a comb,' in the Jaina Gāthā is an error for p h a n i y a = p h a n i k a , Pāli p h a n a k a (Cull. v. 23), or p a n a k a (Milinda, p. 210). Compare Marāthī p h a n  $\bar{\imath}$ ; Sinhalese p a n  $\bar{a}$  w a , 'a comb.'

In Thera Gāthā, v. 101, p. 15, we find the strange compound mukha-naṅgalī in the sense of 'greedy.' It might, of course, be explained as 'having a mouth like a plough,' 'large-mouthed'; but the true reading seems to be mukha-mangalī, 'devoted to the mouth,' 'fond of eating.'

"Hitvā gihitvam anavositatto m u k h a-n a n g a l ī odariko kusito.

The Jaina form is pasāhana.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The text has sīhali; but compare Pāli sithala, 'soft,' 'loose.'

Mahāvaraho va nivāpa-puttho punappunam gabbham upeti mandoti" (See also vv. 17 and 784).

In Sūyagadamga-sutta I. 17. 25, p. 346, we find muh a mamgaliya, i.e., mukha mamgalika in the sense of 'given to the mouth,' 'fond of dainties':

"Nikkhamma dine parabhojanammi m u h a m a m g a l i e udarānugiddhe N ī v ā r a-giddhe va mahāvarāhe adūrae ehai phātam eva."

The *T*ikā's explanation differs from ours—" M u k h a m ām g a l i k o bhavati mukhena mamgalāni prasamsāvākyāni idriacstadricas-tvam ity evam."

Childers make no mention of mangalika, but it occurs frequently in the Jātaka Book in the term devatāmangalika, 'devoted to festivities in honour of treesprites.' In the Milinda-Pañha we find kotūhala-mangalika, 'fond of excitement.'

The use of nīvāra in the Jaina text for nivāpa is worth nothing. (See Dhammapada verse and Majjhima Nikāya I. pp. 151-160, where we find nivāpika and nivapati, as well as nivāpam. Cf. nivāpakabhojana, Mahāvastu, p. 25, 1. 2.)

The Jaina texts have some curious readings arising out of an attempt to restore an older lection, especially where the letter h represents the weakening, or y the loss, of a consonant. Thus the Pāli bimbohana answers to Jaina bibboyana; Pāli parissaya, 'danger' (= pariçraya, compare apassaya, upassaya, nissaya from the root çri), appears in Jaina-prākrit as parīsaha and parissaha, and is explained by the Commentators by its so-called Sanskrit equivalent parīshaha as if from the rootsah with pari. There is, however, no 'quotable' authority for such a word as parīshaha in the sense of 'risk,' 'danger'; while parissaya is not uncommon in Pāli (see Jât. II. 405).

Hemacandra uses parīshaha, but only in a sense peculiar to the Jains.

Another good instance of a wrong re-setting of a well-known term is the Jaina purisādānīya, 'the people's favourite,' he who is to be chosen among men because of his preferable Karma.' Cf. purisādānīyā h purisānām ādānīyā āçrayanīyā mahato pi mahīyāmsah (Com. to Sūyagad I. 9. 34, p. 394). But the older form was purisāyānīya (see Ayār. I. 4. 492, p. 20), representing an original purisājānīya, 'a distinguished person,' 'a person of noble birth'; a term applied to Buddha and to Arahats; ājānīya is the equivalent of the Sanskritājānēya. It would seem that in the redaction of the Jaina canon the origin of āyānīya was forgotten, and it was explained not byājānīya but byādānīya.

Prof. Jacobi has already pointed out how the Pāli Seniya has been wrongly turned into Grenika by the Jains. We have come across two or three verses in a Jaina text which bear a close resemblance to some Pāli Gāthās. The latter seem to have better readings, but both may have been borrowed from a common source:

"Sauni jahā pamsugumdiyā vidhuniya dhamsayaī sitam rayam evam davīovahānavam kammam khavāi tapassī māhane":

Just as a bird covered with dust shakes off and gets rid of the dust clinging (to its wings), so the Brahman ascetic striving for final beatitude gets rid of (his) Karma. (Sūyagad. I. 2. 6, p. 113.) (Guṇḍiya, 'covered with dust,' occurs in Pāiyal, p. 131, for guṇḍita.) The Pāli corresponding passage occurs in Samyutta Nikāya IX. 1., pt. i., p. 197:

"Sakuno (v.l. sakunī) yathā pamsugunthito vidhūnam pātayati sitam rajam

The printed text has—k u n d i t o with the various readings—kunthito, kunditā. In Petavattha II. 3. 5, pp. 15,

evam bhikkhu padhānavā satimā vidhūnam pātayati sitam rajam":

Just as a bird covered with dust shakes off and gets rid of the clinging dust, so does the mendicant (bhikkhu) energetic and thoughtful shake off, and get rid of, the (defiling) dust (of human passion) clinging (to him).

For pātayati in the sense of dhamseti, apanayeti there is a various reading, sātayati, 'to get rid of.' Compare sāteta, 'a destroyer,' Majjhima Nikāya I. p. 220.

From the metre, etc., we should be inclined to say that the Jaina verse is a 're-setting' of the Pāli Gāthā.

In Milinda-Pañha, p. 371, there is a quotation from Saṃyutta Nikāya I. 2. 7.

- "Kummo va angāni sake kapāle Samodaham bhikkhu mano-vitakke." "anissito aññam ahethayāno
- parinibbuto na upavadeyya kañcīti."

 ${\bf A}$ similar Jaina verse occurs in Sūyagadamga-sutta I. 8. 13, p. 364.

"Yathā kumme sa-amgāim sae dehe samāhare evam pāvāim medhāvī ajjhappena samāhare."

As the tortoise guards its own limbs within its own body, even so should the sage restrain (the impulses of) sin within himself.

Here there is no doubt about the superiority of the Pāli over the Jaina version. The metaphor of the tortoise is very common in Jaina texts. (See Kalpa-sūtra, Jin., p. 118):

- "His senses were well protected like those of a tortoise."
- "He remains with his hands and feet drawn well together like a tortoise" (Ov. vi. p. 30).

There is a passage in Pāli ridiculing those who taught that religious merit could be got by 'bathing' or 'water-

70, we find pamsu-kutthitā (!) explained in commentary by ugunthitā (= ogunthitā).

sprinkling.' If, as some say, final beatitude is obtained by contact with water, then frogs, tortoises, etc., would first attain to bliss. This heretical notion appears also in a Jaina text:

"Udagena je siddhim udāharamti sāyam ca pāyam udagam phussamtā udagassa phāsena siyāya siddhi sijjhamsu pānā bahave dagamsi." Maechā ya kummā ya sirivā ya m a g g ū ya u t t h ā daga-rakkhasā ya atthānam eyam kusalā vadamti udagena je siddhim udāhāramti

"Udayam jai kamma-malam harejjā evam suham iccāmittam evam amdham va neyārām anussarittā pānāni cevam vinihamti mamdā"

(Sūyagadamga-sutta I. 7. 14–16, pp. 337–339.) "Yo ca vuddho vā daharo vā pāpakammam pakubbati

.

Udakābhisecanā nāma pāpakammā pamuccati Saggam nūna gamissanti sabbe m a n d ū k a - kac chapā Nāgā sumsumārā ca ye c'aññe udakecarā S a c e i m ā n a d i y o t e p ā p a m p u b b e k a t a m

Sace ima nadiyo te pāpam pubbekatam vaheyyum

Puññam p'imā vaheyyum tena tvam paribāhiro assa."

(Theri Gāthā 240–243, p. 146; see Saṃyutta VII. 2. 11, pt. i., p. 182.)

The Pāli s u d d h i is better than s i d d h i. M a g g u = m a d g u, 'a water-crow,' looks like a substitute for Pāli manduka, 'frog.' U t t h ā in the Jain text evidently puzzled the commentators, who Sanskritised it as u s h t r ā h, and explained it by jala-cara-viçesāh. But Sanskrit u s h t r a (Pāli o t t h a) is a camel, and not an aquatic creature. The original text may have had u d d h ā = Pāli u d d ā from u d r a, 'an otter.' We sometimes find aspira-

tion of d through a following r; compare Jaina-prākrit a n ā d h ā y a m ā n a = a n ā d r i y a m ā n a (Spec. der Nāyādhammakahā, § 69). The water-demons d a g a r a k k h a s ā (= jalamānusāh) seem to be a substitute for the Pāli s u m s u m ā r ā.

### 38. A BUDDHIST AND JAINA GĀTHĀ.1

In Jataka Book iv., p. 383, v. 9, we find the following stanza:—

"Gīrin nakhena khanasi ayo dantena khādasi jātavedam padahasi yo isim paribhāsasīti."

"The rock with nail thou diggest, the iron with tooth thou eatest,

The fire (to put out) thou strivest who a sage revilest."

The commentator, not understanding "jātavedam padahasi" = 'the fire (to put out) thou strivest,' paraphrases it by "aggim gilitum vāyamasi" = 'the fire thou strivest to swallow'! But, as 'nail' and 'tooth' are mentioned in the first line of the gāthā, we naturally expect 'foot' in the line following.

The verb padahati does not take an accusative in Pāli; niddahasi, 'to extinguish,' with pādena, 'understood,' would seem at first sight more appropriate. Pradhā does not occur in Sanskrit nor in Jaina-prākrit in the sense of to 'strive'; in the latter dialect upahāna, 'exertion,' is equivalent to the Pāli padhāna.

Some MSS. for dantena read the plural dantehi; perhaps the original verse had nakhehi, dantehi, and pādehi, instead of nakhena, etc.

In the Jaina Uttarādhyayana XII. 26, p. 365, we find a parallel passage that seems to throw some light upon the reading padahasi in the Pāli gāthā:—

"Girim nahehim khanaha ayam dantehi khāyaha jāyaveyam pāehim hanaha je bhikkhum avamannaha."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, May 9, 1891.

Here we see that, while the metre of the second line of the Jātaka verse is tolerably correct, that of the Jaina is faulty, having two syllables more than are required. If we write the short form of the instrumental plural pāde for pādehi (for which there is very good authority) and hat ha for hanatha, we shall get in the following Pāli version a better reading in the second line:

"Girim nakhehi khanatha ayam dantehi khādatha jātavedam pāde hatha ye bhikkhum avamaññatha."

In the Jaina verse bhikkhum and avamannaha replace Pāli isim and paribhāsasi. The verb paribhāsh is not used in Sanskrit nor in Jaina-prākrit in the sense of apabhāsh or avaman.

Taking a hint from our Pāli rendering of the Jaina verse, we may proceed to restore the true reading of the Jātaka verse by removing padahasi from the text, and substituting pāde hāsi or pade hasi, the equivalent of pāde hatha, 'with feet thou extinguishest.' The Sanskrit hamsi would become, in Pāli, hāsi (cf. sandasa, Sanskrit samdamça) or hasi (cf. dasana, Sanskrit damsana andāsasati forāsamsati). As the phrase pade hasi comes nearer to the faulty lection padahasi, we would, therefore, read:

"Girim nakhehi khanasi ayo dantehi khādasī jātavedam pa de has i yo isim paribhāsasīti."

There is not a very great difference in form between pade hasi and padahasi; the former, however, gives us a line that can be both translated and construed.

Compare the following from the S. N. IV. 3. 5:

The stem ha for han occurs in abhihessati = abhihanissati in Jāt. IV. p. 92. We also find hanasi for hamsi, together with hanāsi (Jāt. III. p. 199) = hanasi, on account of the metre.

"Bālā kumudanālehi pabbatam abhimatthatha Girim nakhena khanatha ayodantehi khādatha

Selam va siras' ūhacca pātāle gādham esatha Khāṇum va uras' āsajja nibbijjāpetha.''

### 39. $T\bar{A}DIN = T\bar{A}YIN$ .

"Uvanīyatarassa tāino bhayamānassa vivikkam āsanam sāmāiyam āhu tassa jam jo appāna bhaena damsae?" (Sūyagadamga-sutta I. 2, 2, § 17, p. 132.)

Of this very excellent holy sage, frequenting a sequestered seat, all declare the virtuous conduct, who then would show himself with fear (in his presence, since there is no harm in him?)

 $T \bar{a} i n o$  is explained in the commentary by "tāyinah parātmopakārinas trāyino vā."

Sāmāiya (= sāmāyika) is glossed by cāritra. Dr. Hoernle, who renders it by 'inward peace,' has a long note on this word in the Uvāsagadasāo (i. 5, 3, p. 31). He says that the logical outcome of the scholiast's explanation of the term "is that sāmāyika is the same as samat va or sāmya. . . . Etymologically the word is always derived by means of the vriddhi suffix ika from the compound of sama ('equal') and āya ('gain,' 'profit')." Sāmāyika appears, however, to be a derivative of samaya ('religious obligation'). The noun sāmāyika does not occur in Pāli in the sense of cāritra; but we have the use of an adjective formed (by double vriddhi) from samaya in Milinda-Pañha (p. 305): "Sāmāyika maranam upagato" = "samaye maranam upagato."

"Kujae aparājie <sup>2</sup> jaho akkhehim kusalehim dīvayam <sup>3</sup> kadam evam gahāyano kalim no tiyam no ceva dāvaram <sup>4</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, June 16, 1891.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Pāli akkhaparājita.

<sup>3</sup> Cf. Pāli dibbati and jūtam kīlitum (Jāt. III. p. 188).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The metre of this line is faulty; as kadam signifies

Evam logammi tā i nā buie je dhamme anuttare tam ginha hiyam ti uttamam kadam iva sesa vahāya pamdie." (Ib. i. 2, 3, vv. 22, 23, p. 136.)

As a gambler, not beaten (at play), playing skilfully with dice, having thus got the lucky throw, (takes) no tray nor deuce, so do thou take that highest good, the law declared by the all-knowing sage to be unrivalled in the world, just as the clever (dicer takes) the winning die, rejecting all else.

The commentators explain  $t \bar{a} i n \bar{a}$  by "tāyinā trāyinā vā," as well as by sarvajnena.

The form tāyin occurs in Buddhist Sanskrit; and Prof. Kern has pointed out that the word is common in the "Lotus." He was the first to see its radical connection with the Pāli tādin. "As tāyana (Pānini I. 3, 38) is explained to have the meaning of thriving, prospering, it may be supposed that tāyin, on the strength of its derivation, denotes thriving, prosperous, mighty, holy, as well as making prosperous, blessing, sanctifying. Burnouf derives it from a supposed Sanskrit trāyin, and translates it by 'protector.' It is indeed by no means unlikely that tāyin was used synonymously with 'nātha' or 'nāyaka'; but it seems not necessary to derive it from trāyate" (see Saddharmapundarīka, S. B. E., p. 25).

Prof. Kern has also noticed the false reading tāpin for "tāyin" which has found its way into some Sanskrit

<sup>&#</sup>x27;the lucky die' marked with four spots (cataska), k a lim, 'the unlucky die,' is quite inadmissible here (cf. Pāli kataggaha in Journal of Pāli Text Society for 1887, p. 159; see also Majjhima Nikāya I. pp. 403, 407). The last line of this gāthā is incorrect; but it cannot be amended without leaving out sesa (m) pahāya (a mere gloss?), and reading kadam seiva pandite.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathtt{r}}$  The commentators say he rejects the trika, dvika, and ekaka.

dictionaries. In Divyāvadāna, p. 392, 1.4, we find tāpitā, which is glossed in the Index of Words 'roused,' 'converted,' as if it were the passive participle of the causal of tap:

" Udrakārādakā nāma rishayosmin tapovane adhigatācāryasattvena purushendrena tāpitā."

We ought to read tāyinā; for tāpitā is not in adjectival relation to the subject of the sentence; and in Buddhist phraseology tāpita never has the meaning of 'roused' or 'converted.'

The prose passage has the following:

"Asmin pradeçe Bodhisattvo rājñā Bimbisārenārdharājyenopanimantritah | asmin pradeçe Ārādodrakam abhigatah."

Here we see that adhigata = abhigata, and that tā yi nā is to be taken with ācāryasattvena and purushendrena.

The Buddhist-Sanskrit tā yin may be referred to a root tā y (1) extenderi, augeri; (2) tueri, servare, which seems related to the root tā, 'to stretch.'

But  $t\bar{a}y$  in may be a prakritised form of an original  $t\bar{a}d$  in. Childers derives the Pāli  $t\bar{a}d$  i from Sanskrit  $t\bar{a}d$  riç, which, however, does not give us a stem  $t\bar{a}d$  in. He thinks the primary meaning was 'such,' 'like that,' then 'like that Buddha,' holy, tranquil, firm. The form  $t\bar{a}d\bar{i}$  (gen.  $t\bar{a}d$  in o) is old (see Thera Gāthā, 878, 905, 1067), and cannot well be connected with  $t\bar{a}d$  riç, either in form or meaning. There seems to have been in Pāli two forms,  $t\bar{a}d$  i and  $t\bar{a}d\bar{i}$  (=" $t\bar{a}d$ in"), the latter of which has puzzled the commentators. (See Thera Gāthā, 1096.)

As the Jaina-prākrit tā y in is probably connected with  $\sqrt{t}$  ā, so tā d in may be derived from tā d, an extension of the same root. Vaniček connects with  $\sqrt{t}$  ad (="tan"), the Doric  $\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial t}$  (Theoc. 7. 42), "intente, sorgfaltig, mit Vorbedacht, absichtlich."

### 40. NÜMA.

The word n ū m a occurs several times in the Āyāraṁgasutta, and is translated by Prof. Jacobi in various ways—by 'inferiority,' 'underground,' 'moat.' These different meanings are at first sight somewhat puzzling, because of the apparent want of connection between them. An examination, however, of the several passages where the word n ū m a is employed will show that one sense underlies its various usages:

"Bhiduresu na rajjejjä kämesu bahutaresu vä icchälobham na savejjä dhuvam vannam sapehiyä Säsaehim nimamtejjä divvam mäyam na saddahe tam padibujjha mähane savvam n ü m a m vihüniyä." (Äyäramga-sutta I. 7, 8, vv. 23, 24.)

Prof. Jacobi, following the scholiast's interpretation, gives the following translation:

- "He should not be attached to the transitory pleasures, nor to the greater ones; he should not nourish desire and greed, looking only for eternal praise" (23).
- "He should be enlightened with eternal objects, and not trust in the delusive power of the gods; a Brāhmana should know of this and cast off all *inferiority*" (24).
- (1) In verse 23, 'looking only for eternal praise' seems forced, for the true Brāhman ought to look for what is lasting, and not for what is transitory. We ought, doubtless, to read "icchālobham na savejjā 'dhuvam vannam sapehiyā," where 'dhuvam = adhuvam, 'transitory,' 'impermanent,' and sapehiyā = 'regarding.'
- (2) In spite of the commentator's explanation, we do not think that  $n i m a m t e j j \bar{a}$  (= nimantrayet) can mean 'should be enlightened,' but 'should set before.' The usual meaning of the verb, both in Jain and Pāli, is 'to invite, offer' (with inst.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, August 1, 1891.

- (3) The note in the commentary on n ū m a is "nūmam karma māyā vā."
- (4) The phrase divvā māyā does not seem to denote 'the delusive power of the gods,' because neither Jains nor Buddhists held that divine beings, such as Indra, had no real power. It was real enough while it lasted. The phrase 'divine illusion' may, perhaps, refer to the belief in the māyā of Içvara, which was supposed to bring about transmigration, or to the wiles of Māra. We find māyā associated with Māra in the following passage from Sūyagadamga-sutta (I. 1, 3, 7, p. 74):
  - "Sayambhunā kade loe iti vuttam mahesinā Mārena samthuyā māyā tena loe asāsae."

But the real origin of sorrow and rebirth was not owing to any 'divine illusion,' but to a man's own evil actions, the true source of all karma.

With these few remarks we would venture to suggest a slightly different rendering of the Jaina verses:

- "He should not be attached to transitory pleasures nor to those that seem more (enduring). He should not cherish desire and greed, looking (only) at (that which has) an impermanent form."
- "He should set before him lasting (joys), and should not believe in any divine illusion (as the cause of sorrow and rebirth); a Brāhman should know this, and cast off all illusion (and so get rid of Karma)."

We find the phrase "savvam nūmam vihūnia" in Sūya-gadamga-sutta I. 2, 12, p. 54:

- "Savvappagam viukkassam savvam n ū m a m vihūniā appattiam akammamse 2 eyam attham mige cue."
- "Eradicating all desire and getting rid of illusion (as the cause of what is) sinful (i.e., anger, etc.), he is free from
  - <sup>1</sup> That is, such as arise from samādhi, etc.
- <sup>2</sup> Cf. Pāli kammassaka = kammaṃsaka, wrongly referred by Childers to Sk. karman + svaka!

Karma (therefore) the (ignorant) creature <sup>1</sup> should give up this (sinful) desire (kāmābhāvarūpa)."

"Etehim tihim thanehim samjae satatam munī ukkassam jalanam n ū m a m majjhattham ca vigimcae." (Ib. I. 1-4, p. 97.)

Here  $n \bar{u} m a$  is explained by the scholiast as having the sense of g a h a n a or  $m \bar{a} y \bar{a}$ .

In Āyāramga-sutta II. 3, 3, §§ 1–2, we find that the Bhikkhu is enjoined to avoid n ū m a-gihāni ('underground houses'), n u m ā n i ('moats') valayāni ('fortified places'), and gahanāni ('thickets').

In nūm a-gihāni the first element has the sense of 'a sequestered spot,' 'a hiding-place,' and nūmāni must mean 'places of concealment.'

In Sūyagadamga-sutta I. 3, 3, § 1, p. 186, we get a good instance of n ū m a in the singular as 'a hiding-place.'

- "Jahā samgāmakālammi pitthato bhīru vehai valayam gahanam nūm a m ko jānai parājayam."
- "When in the time of battle a coward sees behind him a dry ditch, a sequestered spot, or a thicket (to which he runs) who knows (in the midst of the fray of his) defection?"

The Dīpikā has the following note on the words valaya, etc.:

- "Valayam yatrodakam valayākārena sthitam udukarahito vā gartā. Gahanam dhavādivriksā vritam sthānam.
- "N ū m a m prachannagiriguhādikam ityādisthānam nāçahetor ālokate."

The various passages we have quoted show clearly that the true meaning of  $n \tilde{u} m a$  is (1) 'concealment, a place of concealment'; (2) 'illusion.'

Since writing the above, I find that Prof. Weber, in his edition of Hāla's Saptaçataka (p. 32), has noted the Jaina

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The ignorant creature is a foolish man.

nūma-giha — Versteck, Gewahrsam, which he connects with the Prākrit verb nūmati or nūmeti. This, however, may be a denominative of nūma, from the root hnu, 'to conceal.' Cf. ninhuvijjanti (Hāla 657), a-nin-havamāna (Spec. der Nāna, § 83).

"No ninhavejja vīriyam" (Āyāramga I. 5. 3, § 1) is translated by Prof. Jacobi by 'one should not abandon firmness'; but, if the text is correct, it ought to mean 'one should not conceal firmness'—i.e., 'one should display firmness.'

# 41. CANDĀLA, CANDĀLAKA.

"Ca $m\;d$ ā la gamca karagamca vaccagharamca āuso khanāi."

(Sūyadamga-sutta I. 4. 2. § 13, p. 252.)

In Hāla 227, p. 84, we find a reference to candāla-kuti, the former element of which is connected with the Jaina candālaga = candālaka :: "Pāna-udīa vi jaliuna huavaho jalai jannavādammi." Of pāna-udī we have the following explanations:

"Yajnasthāne 'pi cām dālāgninā 'pi yajnakarma. kriyata ity arthah.— Căm dāla-kuti madirā pānakuti vā pānakutī cam dālakuti."

Prof. Weber is doubtful as to there being such a word as candāla in the sense of vessel; but the Jaina-prākrit shows that there was a sacrificial vessel called a candāla or candālaka, and the commentators inform us, moreover, that it was make of copper, and that the term was used in Mathurā:

"Camdālagam iti devatārcanikādyartham tāmramayam bhājanam etacca Mathurāyām camdālakatvena pratītam iti."

### 42. DHASATTI.

"Tao nam sā Dharīnī devā . . . kottimatalamsi sav-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, April 22, 1891.

vamgehim, dhasatti padiyā" (Spec. der Nāyā-dhamma-kahā, § 135).

The commentary states that dhasatti is an imitative word. Prof. Jacobi suggests a connection with Skt. a d h as tāt; but this latter usually becomes hetthā in the various Prākrits. The scholiast is doubtless right in his explanation of the term; and "dhasatti padiyā" means 'fell down with a sudden shock.' Compare the colloquial phrase 'fell down flop,' that is, with a sudden flap. Here the word flop was originally an onomatopoeia, imitative of the fall, made by a soft, flabby substance. The imitative element is not dhasatti, but dhasa, the tti standing for ti or iti, after a short vowel. We might for dhasatti write "dhasāti," showing the word to be clearly, as the commentator describes it, an anukarana.

Dhasa may be compared with Marāthi dhas, 'a sudden impression of grief or terror;' dhaskā, 'a sounding stroke'; dhasdhas, 'palpitation, alarm.' As English 'shock' is probably connected with 'shake,' so dhasa may be related with the Skt. root dhvas or dhvams, 'to fall.' Compare Skt. sā-dhvasa; Hindī dhas, 'a sloping ground'; dhasna, 'a quagmire'; dhaskanā, 'to sink'; Marāthī dhāsdhūs, 'trepidation,' dhāsla-nem, 'to give way,' 'fall to pieces.'

But dhasa, though of imitative origin, may be here used adverbially, like Prākrit jhatt = Skt. jhatiti, 'on a sudden,' from an anukarana jhat.

# 43. AÑCHATI AND AMCHĀVEI.

The verb añchati, not in Childers's dictionary, occurs in Majjhima Nikāya I. p. 56. Trenckner compares Skt. añch áyame (Westergaard's Rad., p. 347). The causative of this root, añchāpayati or añchāpeti, though not found in Pāli, appears in Jaina-prākrit under the form amchāvei, glossed ākārsayati (see Kalpa Sutra, § Jina-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Dhasatti 'plötzlich 'occurs in Jacobi's "Ausgewählte Erzählungen in Māhārāshtrī," 82. 12.

carita,  $\S$  63, and the parallel passage in Spec. der Nāyā-dhammakahā,  $\S$  37.

44. THE NEW SANSKRIT MS. FROM MINGAL.

Professor Bühler wrote as follows in the *Academy* for August 15, 1891:—

At the monthly meeting of the Asiatic Society of Bengal on November 5, 1890, Colonel Waterhouse exhibited a birchbark MS., obtained by Lieutenant Bower from the ruins of the ancient underground city of Mingai, near Kuchar, in Kashgaria. According to the notes in the Proceedings (No. ix. of 1890 p. 223), the MS. consists of fiftysix leaves, most of which are written on with black ink on both sides. A string runs through the middle of the leaves, and two boards protect the volume. According to the same authority, the MS. was made over for deciphering to Babu Sarat Chandra Das, who, however, as well as Lama Phantshog, failed to make out its contents. The notice concludes with the remark that, as the MS. appears to be particularly rare and interesting, heliogravures of two leaves are published in the Plate III., added to the number of the Proceedings, "in the hope that some of the members may be able to decipher it."

As the photo-etchings, which give the  $s\bar{a}n kaprisht$  has of fols. 3 and 9, are very good, and as the MS. really possesses a very great interest for all Sanskritists, I subjoin my reading and translation of the piece on fol. 3, together with some remarks on the alphabet, language, and contents of both the pieces.

By the shape of its leaves the Mingai MS. differs from all other birchbark MSS. known to me. All those which I have seen in Kashmir, as well as the Bakhshali MS., consist of sheets of quarto size. The leaves of the Mingai MS.,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This paper has already appeared—with the original Sanskrit of the passages here given only in translation, and also accompanied by notes—in the *Vienna Oriental Journal*, vol. v. No. 2.

on the other hand, are narrow, long strips, cut according to the usual size of the palm-leaves. Like the palm-leaf MSS., they are held together by a string, which is not used for any other birchbark volume, because the brittle nature of the material would make such a proceeding dangerous for its preservation.

The writing on fol. 3, which is very large and clear, exhibits the type of the characters of the Gupta period. There are only two letters which slightly differ from those used in the Gupta inscriptions. The initial a (see a na vataptena, L. 5) shows a peculiar form in which the upper half of the left limb, represented by a curve open to the left, has been placed in front of the lower half and has been connected with it by a short stroke. Further, the left limb of sa shows mostly a wedge (as in the Horiuzi palm-leaf) instead of a small circle.

The writing on fol. 9 shows in general the same type as that of fol. 3. But it is very much smaller, and there are a few more advanced cursive forms. The initial a looks exactly like the a of the Horiuzi palm-leaf. For the ya we find besides the old tripartite form, a peculiar looped one, and the form of the Horiuzi palm-leaf. In the letter  $\dot{sa}$  the continuity of the top line is mostly broken. There are also several instances of a sa with an open wedge in the syllable sya. Among the numerals the figure 3 shows the ancient Gupta form, consisting of three horizontal lines one above the other. The figure 9 resembles those occurring on the Valabhi plates and in the S'āradā MSS. In fol. 3 two different signs of interpunction are used. Between words to be taken separately, and at the end of half verses and verses occurs a short horizontal stroke or a small curve, open to the left. Once, in L. 2 after  $s v \tilde{a} h \tilde{a}$ , we have two upright strokes with hooks at the top.

Babu Sarat Chandra Das is no doubt right, when he says (*Proceedings*, *loc. cit.*), that the Mingai MS. appears to have been written by different hands. The volume may even be made up of different pieces, written at different times. The parts resembling fol. 3 belong, to judge from

the characters, to the fourth or to the fifth century A.D. Those resembling fol. 9 may be somewhat later. But it is not impossible that the cursive forms already existed during the earlier period named, and that the exclusive use of more antiquated signs on some sheets is owing to individual idiosyncrasies of the writers. These questions can only be settled when the whole MS. has been thoroughly examined. For the present, this much only appears certain: (1) that the MS. contains a page showing the same characters as the Gupta inscriptions; (2) that both the leaves, published in facsimile, look older than the Horiuzi palm-leaf; and (3) that the Mingai MS. has, therefore, a claim to be considered the oldest Sanskrit MS. hitherto found.

As regards the contents of the MS., fol. 3 apparently contains a charm which is intended to force the Nagas or snake-deities to send rain. The mutilated line 1 enumerates, it would seem, various plants which are to be used as ingredients for an oblation. L. 2 gives the Mantra for the oblation, which ends with the word svāhā. The latter word, as is well known, always indicates the moment of the tyāga, when an oblation is thrown into the fire. The Mantra probably consisted originally of an entire Anushtubh S'loka, the first half of which may have begun with the mutilated word m a d a n a (?) in line 1, which and certainly ended with the syllables kta me in line 2. The end of line 2 and the following lines down to the end of the page contain the so-called Anumantrana, a further invocation of the snake-deities, intended to propitiate them by a declaration of the worshipper's friendly relations with various individual Nagas. This snake-charm, which appears to be Buddhistic, was probably composed in Southern India. For it mentions "the district on the banks of the Gola," i.e., the Godavarī which, rising near Nasik, flows through the whole Dekhan until it reaches the Bay of Bengal in the Madras Presidency.

The language of this piece is the incorrect Sanskrit, mixed with Prākrit forms, which is common in the Buddhist

works of the early centuries of our era, as well as in the Buddhist and Jaina inscriptions of the same period, and is found also in the mathematical Bakhshali MS. In line 2 we have the faulty Sandhi devosamamitena; in line 3 the faulty compound  $n \bar{a} g a r \bar{a} j \tilde{n} \bar{a}$ ; in line 4 the insertion of a meaningless m between  $v \bar{a} s u k i n \bar{a} - m - a p i$ , which in Pāli is commonly used in order to obviate a hiatus, and the faulty compound n a n d o p a n a n d o; in line 5 the Prākritic form pi for the particle api. It is also possible that  $p a r i v e l \bar{a} y a$  in line 2 may be a Prākritic locative for  $p a r i v e l \bar{a} y \bar{a} m$ .

The metrical portion consists of exceedingly irregular Anushtubh S'lokas. The Mantra ought to end in samantatah instead of in samanitena and has one syllable in excess. The last three verses of the Anumantrana have also more syllables than they ought to have. It is noteworthy that this small piece contains a dozen words and meanings not traceable in the dictionaries.

### TRANSLATION OF FOLIO 3.

- . . . "Dundubhī, Gārjanī, Varshanī, cucumber, Patanī, Terminalia Chebula, Hārinī, Kampana. . . .
- . . . "May the god send rain for the district on the banks of the Golā all around; Ilikisi Svāhā!

"I keep friendship with the Dhritarāshtras, and friendship with the Nairāvanas. I keep friendship with the Virūpākshas and with Krishna and the Gautamakas. I keep friendship with the king of snakes Mani, also with Vāsuki, with the Dandapādas, with . . ., and ever with the Pūrnabhadras. Nanda and Upnanda, [as well as those] snakes of [beautiful] colour, of [great] fame and great power, who take part even in the fight of the gods and the demons—[with all these], with Anavatapta, with Varuna and with Samhāraka I keep friendship. I keep friendship with Takshaka, likewise with Ananta and with Vāsumukha, with Aparājita and with the son of Chhibba I keep friendship; likewise always with great Manasvin."

The contents of fol. 9 seem to be different. All the portions which are legible in the facsimile contain medical prescriptions for the cure of disease and for giving to sickly children vigour and health. In line 3 we have at the end of a prescription which is not entirely decipherable:

"[This is a medicine] which increases the body of a lean boy or of one who is in a decline."

Immediately after these words follows another prescription:

"I will declare the most effective prescription [which gives] strength and a [healthy] complexion. Kus'a-grass, Moringa pterygosperma, the root of Andropogon muricatus, grapes. . . . A decoction of these, [mixed] with sugar, must be given to a lean person; or let him smear on Ghī, boiled with those [above-mentioned ingredients] and with Jīvanīya."

Again I read in lines 10-11:

"Schreberia Swietenioides, Curcuma longa, Rubia Munjista, pepper and Pinus Deodaru—clarified butter mixed with a powder of these [ingredients], also (?) white Moringa pterygosperma (?), Clitoria ternatea and pomegranates, mixed with water, one shall prescribe for a child, that is suffering from thirst, looks ill and is in a decline. Pounding Aglaia odorata, or also Ciperus into a paste, one shall give it, together with rice-water and mixed with honey."

These specimens are amply sufficient in order to establish the character of the contents of the second page. Possibly they may have been extracted from the chapter of a medical work on bālachikitsā. I may add that the whole page will become probably legible, if the leaf is well soaked in water and afterwards dried, as the Kashmirians invariably do with old birchbark MSS.

Lieutenant Bower believes the ruins of Mingai and the MS. to be Buddhistic. The latter conjecture is, as already stated, probably correct. For verse 101 of the Khandavatta Jātaka (Fausböll, Jātakas, vol. ii. p. 145),

Virūpakkhehi me mettam mettam Erāpathehi me [

Chabbyāputtehi me mettam [mettam] Kanhāgotamakehi cāti||

corresponds with portions of the first and last verses of the Anumantrana on fol. 3. This agreement shows at all events that similar verses occurred in Buddhist literature.

I trust that Dr. A. F. R. Hoernle, the able and learned secretary of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, will take the volume in hand, and give us a full account of its contents. If the society wishes to render a real and great service to the students of Indian palaeography it will publish photoetchings of the whole volume. Every line of the MS. is of the highest importance.

In the next issue of the Academy I published the following note:

The "Rain-charm," translated by Prof. Bühler (Academy, August 15, 1891, pp. 138, 139), is certainly Buddhistic, but appears to conform, for the most part, to the North Buddhist type. The Mantra l. 1 contains a list of words which the translator thinks are the names of various plants to be used as ingredients for an oblation; but the Buddhists did not offer sacrifices and oblations. These terms, therefore, may be merely magical or talismanic words, such as we often find in North-Buddhist sūtras (see Lotus, ch. xxvi., Kern's Translation S.B.E., pp. 434-5), and are probably epithets of "Çiva's female counterpart Durgā." In the usual invocations we find these magical terms in the vocative case; and perhaps Dundubhī, etc., are Prākrit vocatives for Dundubhī, etc. See Megha-sūtra in J.R.A.S. xii., pt. 2, p. 301 (1880).

Dundubhī, Garjanī (thundering), Varshanī (raining),

In the Tantra ceremonies flesh and even ordure were thrown into the sacred fire.

Hārinī (? Harinī), are the feminines of epithets that could well be supplied to Çiva as the representative of Rudra; and Durgā in the Mantra may be regarded as the devī causing thunder, lightning, and rain. Compare the use of j v a lā, u k kā, etc., as applied to the goddess Durgā in the Lotus, ch. xxi. (Kern's Translation, p. 372).

What "cucumber" is I cannot tell, as I have not the Sk. text before me; probably jālī, which is a Prākrit form of an original \*jvālī, 'flame,' or jyotsnī.

Swāhā = "Durgā," is the usual ending of a N. Buddhist dhāranī. Ili kisi = "ilikēsi," is perhaps the vocative of a Prākrit ili kā + ī çī = 'the earth-goddess.'

The Anumantrana contains a list of the Ahirājakulas and Nāga-rājas, which are those usually met with in North-Buddhist works. We may compare this list with that in the Vardha-vārsha-sūtra, entitled in Chinese "The Great Cloud-wheel Rain-asking-sutra" (Beal's Catena, p. 420), the Lotus, etc.:

3.61 1.160	<i>α</i>	<b>-</b> .	Southern $Bud$ -
$Mingai\ MS.$	Chinese Sutra.	Lotus.	dhist.
$\mathrm{Dh}r$ itarāshtra	Dhritarāshtra	$\mathrm{Dh}r$ itarāshtra	$\mathrm{Dhatara}\mathit{tt}\mathrm{ha}$
$\mathbf{N}$ aīrā $\mathbf{v}$ a $n$ a		<del></del>	Erāvana (?)
Virūpāksha	Virūpāksha	Virūpāksha	Virupakkha
Krishna )	<del></del>		(Kanhā-
Gautamaka J		_	(Gautamaka
$\mathrm{Ma}n\mathrm{i}$			Mani-akkhi (?)
Vāsuki	Vāsuki	Vāsuki	
$\mathrm{Da}nd\mathrm{a}\mathrm{p}ar{\mathrm{a}}\mathrm{d}\mathrm{a}$	_		
$P\bar{u}rnabhadra$	_		_
Nanda	Nanda	Nanda	Nanda
Upananda	Upananda	Upananda	Upananda
Anavatapta	Anavatapta	Anavatapta	Anotatta*
Varuna	Varuna		
${f Sa}m{f har a}{f ra}{f ka}$	Sāgara	Sāgara	
Takshaka	Takshaka	Takshaka	Tacchaka
Ananta			<del></del>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In North-Buddhist Sanskrit writers we find about 80 nāgarājas; the Chinese sutras have over 200.

Mingai MS.	Chinese Sutra.	Lotus.	Southern Bud- dhist.
Vāsumukha		<del></del>	
Aparājita			_
Chibbā-putra	<del></del>		Chabbyāputta
Manasvin	Manasvin		_
	Mucalinda		${f Mucalinda*}$
<del></del>	Elapatra (Ela- pana)		Erāpatha
	Pindara		_
	Tejasvin		<del></del>

- 1. Dhritarāshtra =the regent of the East; also a Nāgarāja.
- 2. Nairāvana = Vaiçravana (Pāli Vessavana = Kuvera), regent of the North (?). It may be a misreading for Airāvana.
- 3. Virūpāksha = the regent of the West, and also a Nāga-raja. Virūdhaka = the regent of the South, is left out, because he was not regarded as a snake-king. Erāpatha is also omitted, though mentioned in the Chinese Sūtra and the Pāli Jātaka, etc.
- 4. Nanda and Upananda are mentioned in Hardy's M. B., second edition, p. 313. These Nāgarājas assisted the Devas in a struggle with the Asuras (see Jāt. I. p. 204; Beal's Catena, pp. 52-55).
- 5. An avatapta is not mentioned as a Nāgarāja in Southern Buddhist works; but he was doubtless the guardian of the Anotatta daha (lake), just as Mucalinda was the Nāgaking that guarded the Mandākinī waters. For Mucalinda, the seven-headed snake, see Udāna, p. 10.
- 6.  $Samh\bar{a}raka$  is evidently a misreading for  $S\bar{a}m$   $gara = S\bar{a}gara$ .
- 7. Chibba = Pāli Chabyā or Chabbyā, seems to point to an original \*ehaviyā = \*chavikā (see Cullavagga, v. 6).
- 8.  $P \ddot{u} r n a b h a d r a$  and  $A p a r \ddot{a} j i t a$  occur in the Mahābhārata;  $V \ddot{a} s u m u k h a = Sumukha$  (?). Of  $D a n d a p \ddot{a} d a$  the legends are silent.

- 9. Krishna and Gautamaka are mentioned in the Divyāvadāna as two snake-kings.
  - 45. ON THE WORD "BUJJHAKA" IN THE DĪPAVAMSA.
  - "Orohetvāna Suppāram satasatañ ca te tadā vipulam sakkārasammānam akamsu te Suppārakā...
    Tesu sakkāriyamānesu Vijayo ca sahāyikā sabbe luddāni kammāni kurumānā n a b u j j h a k ā."

    (Dīpavamsa IX. 16-17.)

The following is Professor Oldenberg's translation:

"The people of Suppāra then invited these seven hundred men to disembark, and offered them lavish hospitality and honours. During this hospitable reception Vijaya and all his followers unnoticed (?) committed barbarous deeds."

The editor suggests that na-bujjha-kā is equivalent to \*na-budhya-kā, 'unnoticed.' But this sense of the word deprives the passage of all point. It is not at all probable that Vijaya and his lawless band could commit the foul deeds attributed to them without being noticed. Their treacherous actions did not pass unnoticed, but were well known to the people of Suppāra, who threatened to slaughter them.

The meaning of the last verse, in the passage quoted above, is this: though Vijaya and his band were guests of, and not at war with, the folk who so generously entertained them, yet they shamefully ill-treated them.

The term  $na - bujha - ka = a - vujjha ka = a - yujjha ka = a - yudhya - ka, 'not fighting' (compare Sanskrit a - yuddha), hence 'not at war.' The change of bujjha for vujjha is like that of buddha for vuddha, 'old.' But vujjha represents an older yujjha, 'battle,' 'fighting.' For the interchange of vandy we may compare <math>\bar{a}$  vudha with  $\bar{a}$  yudha, 'weapon.'

Childers gives no examples of y u j j h a, but under y u d -

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, October 3, 1891.

dh a he notices the occurrence of yujjhāya for yuddhāya (in the Mahāvamsa), the dative of a noun derived from yudhya (?). There is good authority for the use of yujjha with the sense of yuddha: "Tumhe mā bhāyatha yujjhe sati aham jānāmi" (Jāt. III. 4). We also find yujjhana in Jāt. III. p. 82, ll. 6, 18, "So... elakānam yujjhana tthānam sampāpuni." With yujjhana, which corresponds in meaning to Sanskrit yodhana, we may compare bujjhana (Mil. 194), as if from \*budhyana, with the sense of Sanskrit bodhana. It is quite possible, since yujjhana and bujjhana do not belong to the oldest remains of Pāli, that they are formed from the stem found in the verbs bujjhati and yujjhati. Compare yujjhāpana in Milinda, p. 178.

In Sumangala, p. 85 (Dīgha, I. l, 13), nibbuddha (explained by malla-yuddha, 'wrestling,' 'boxing') answers in meaning to Sanskrit niyuddha, though in form it corresponds to a Sanskrit niryuddha, through an intermediate nir-vuddha. See Milinda, p. 232; Cullavagga I. 13, 2; Suttavibhanga I. p. 180.

# 46. "āuṛṛi." <sup>1</sup>

"Egayā gunasamitassa rīyato kāyasamphāsam anucinnā egatiyā pānā uddāyamti: ihalogavedanavejjāvadiyam: jam āutti-kammam (vl.-kayam) tam parinnāya vivegam eti."

(Ayāragam-sutta I. 5 4, § 3.)

'Sometimes, though a monk be endowed with 2 virtue and walking (in righteousness), living things, coming into contact with his body, will be killed. (If this happens through mere carelessness) then he will get his punishment in this life, but if it be done contrary to the rules he should repent of it and do penance for it' (Jaina Sūtrās, p. 48).

The commentator explains  $\bar{a}utti-kamma$  by  $\bar{a}kutti-karma$ ; but we fail to see how this can be translated by

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, October 31, 1891.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Samita generally means 'circumspect'; sahita=endowed with.

'contrary to the rules,' unless there be some authority for ā k u t t i in the sense of 'transgression,' then āuttikamma might signify 'an act of transgression,' 'a breach of rule.' As there is no such form as ā k u t t i in the P. W., it is probably after all a coinage of the scholiast, who was put to some trouble in finding a satisfactory Sanskrit equivalent.

It would seem that āuttikammam has here the sense of 'an intentional act (of injury),' a deadly sin in the eyes of the Jains, for which the offender would have to undergo severe penance, by going into seclusion, and there, on a bed of Kusa-grass or straw, expose his body to the attacks of insects, and finally starve himself to death.

The word i halogavedanavejjāvadiyam seems to be an attributive compound qualifying āuttikammam. Vejjāvadiya corresponds in form to a Pāli veyyāvatika which Childers wrongly refers to the root, vrit + vyā. There is a Jaina veyāvacca explained by the scholiast as vaiyāvritta.

The root is pri, 'to be busy.' Compare Sk. vyā prita = Pāli vyā vaṭa (Jat. II. p. 207; III. pp. 65, 129, 315; IV. p. 371. Thera Gāthā Com. to v. 54, p. 181; Sumangali I. p. 207; Pet. II. 9, 51, where we must read vā vaṭa for pā vaṭa). See Cullavagga I. 9. 1, p. 7; where pa-kaṭa = vā vaṭa = Prākrit vā vaḍa (Cowell's Pr. P. XII. 4).

A slight modification of Prof. Jacobi's rendering is needed to bring out the more literal, and less traditional, meaning of the passage quoted above: 'Sometimes though a monk be circumspect in his behaviour and walk (warily), living things, coming into contact with his body will (accidentally) be killed; (but) whatever wanton act, involving punishment in this life, (he commits) that he should confess and retire into solitude (to do penance for it).' <sup>I</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Without food he should lie down and bear the pains that attack him. . . . When crawling animals . . . feed on his flesh and blood, he should neither kill them nor rub the wound (Āyār. I. vii. 8, §§ 8, 9; Translation, p. 75).

The epithet an- $\bar{a}utt\bar{\imath}$  occurs in  $\bar{A}y\bar{a}ra\dot{m}ga$ -sutta I. 8. 1, v. 16:

"Ativātiyam a n ā u t t i m satam annesim akaranayāe jass' itthīo parinnāyā savvakammāvahāo addakkhū."

'Practising the sinless abstinence from killing, he did no acts, neither himself nor with the assistance of others: he, to whom women were known as the causes of all sinful acts, saw (the true state of the world).'

Prof. Jacobi renders "ativātiyam anāuttim" by 'practising the sinless abstinence from killing'; but it rather means that the destruction of animal life was purely accidental or unintentional on the monk's part. A tivā tiyam represents Sanskrit a tipā tikam, 'the deadly sin of injury to living creatures,' and a nā u t tim must be in adjectival relation to it. Here again the meaning of 'not wanton' or 'unintentional' seems to suit the context.

Prof. Jacobi does not give us the scholiast's explanation of anāutti, but fortunately it occurs elsewhere: "Janam kāena nāuttī abuho jam ca himsati" (Sūyagadamga-sutta I. 1, v. 25, p. 65). Here we see that nā u t t  $\bar{t}$ , 'not wantonly injuring,' is used antithetically to himsati. The Tīkā has the following note:

"Yo hi jānannavagacchan prānino hinasti kāyena cā' nākuttī | kuttachedane ākuttanam ākuttah."

The scholiast evidently connected āutti with the root kutt 'to cut, strike.' The Dīpikā explains nāuttī by ahimsaka 'harmless, doing no (wilful) injury.'

As the original sense of  $\bar{a}utt\bar{\iota}$  seems to be 'intentional,' 'wanton,' it cannot well be connected with a Sanskrit  $\bar{a}$  k u t t  $\bar{\imath}$ , but is, perhaps, related to some such form as  $\bar{a}$  k  $\bar{u}$  t in (producing a Pr $\bar{a}$ krit  $\bar{a}$ k u t t  $\bar{\imath}$ , and, by connecting it with a wrong root,  $\bar{a}$ kutt $\bar{\imath}$ ), from the root k  $\bar{u}$  'to design, intend.' Cf. Sanskrit  $\bar{a}$ k  $\bar{u}$  t a,  $\bar{a}$ k  $\bar{u}$  t i.

Curiously enough we find a verb,  $\bar{a}$  u t t a i, which appears to be related to the foregoing word  $\bar{a}utt\bar{i}$ , "Aratim  $\bar{a}$  u t t e

se mehāvi" (Āyār. I. 2. 2. 1), which Prof. Jacobi renders by 'a wise man should remove any aversion to (control).'

Āuttai, he adds, usually signifies 'to exercise,' but, according to the commentary, it here answers to nivartayati. But āuttai or ākuttati may signify here 'to undergo voluntarily,' and we might translate the phrase by 'a wise man should of his own set purpose undergo discomfort'—that is, he should not only not shirk the hard life of a monk, but should actually court it. In explaining āuttai by nivartayati the scholiast was perhaps thinking of some such verb as āuttai — ātuttati, from the root trut.

We find  $\bar{a}$  u ttai in the sense of to propose, try in the following passages:

"Se se paro suddhenam vā vaibalenam teiccham ā utte" (Āyār. II. 13. 22).

'If the other tries to cure him by pure charms,' etc.

"Vāsāvāsam pajjosavie bhikkhū ya icchijjā annayarim teicchim ā u t t i t a e " (Kalpasūtra. S., § 49).

During the Pajjusan a monk might wish to try some medical cure. The commentary explains āuttittae by kārayitum. Ā k u t t a i, if standing for ākuttai, may be a denominative formed from kū t a from the root kū, hence the meaning of 'to attempt,' 'to try,' that seems to be attached in all cases to the verb āuttai.

### 39. VIDDHA.

"Seyyathā pi bhikkhave vassānam pacchime māse saradasamaye visuddhe vigatavalāhake nabhe ādicco nabham abbhussakkamāno sabbam ākāsagatam tamagatam abhivihacca bhāsate ca tapat ca virocati ca" (Itivuttaka III. 7. p. 20; see Anguttara III. 92. 2; Samyutta II. 3. 11).

The MSS. of text and commentary give a general authority to the reading viddhe, but Dr. Windisch, in his excellent edition of the Itivuttaka, has preferred to adopt an inferior lection (not well supported by the MSS.), and

has introduced vis u d d h e, 'clear' or 'pure,' into his text in lieu of viddh e. The commentary explains viddhe by u d dhiddhe (? u d-diddhe, i.e., u d-digdhe' polished, clear, bright').

But viddha, in the sense of 'clear, bright,' as applied to the sky or heavens, is the exact representative of the Sanskrit vīdhra (cf. Sk. abhra with Pāli abbha), which is applied to the bright sky. Compare Vīdhre sūriyam-iva sarpantam, A.V. IV. 20. 7.

#### 40. NIDDHĀPETI.<sup>1</sup>

This verb, not in Childers's Dictionary, seems peculiar to the Jātaka-book, where the following passage occurs: "Tato galavinītena purisā niddhāpayimsu mam" (Jāt. iv., p. 41), (Then the men having taken me by the throat put me out). In prose this would be expressed by "Atha mam gīvāya gāhāpetvā nīharāpayimsu" (see Jāt. iv., p. 41, ll. 6, 21, and compare Jāt. iv., pp. 205, 382).

In Jāt. iv., p. 48, "Niddhāmase tam sakā agarā," the true reading appears to be niddhāpaye (the reading of the Burmese MSS.)="Panāmetum vattati" of the prose text (Jāt. iv., p. 48, l. 12), and equivalent to nikkaddhi (Jāt. iv., p. 48, l. 27).

In Jāt. iii. 99, "Katham nu sākhāmigam dakkhisāma nibbāpitam rājakulato va jammam" we find nibbāpita for niddhāpita, explained in the Commentary by nicchuddha, nikkhamita, and in the prose text by nikkhaddhāpita. Prof. Kern suggests that nibbāsitam is true reading; Dr. Fausböll, however, defends his lection, and would refer niddhāpayati to the Skt. nirdhmāpayati from dhmā, 'to blow.' But this root with nis gives us in Pāli the causal niddhamayati or niddhameti, 'to expel,' so that niddhāpeti probably comes from some other source.

The reading nibbāpita, 'extinguished,' is due perhaps to some confusion of nibbāpeti with nibbāhāpeti (see Mil., pp. 134, 139); Suttavibhanga I., pp. 17, 43). Compare Prakrit

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Academy, December 26, 1891.

nivvāhida = nirvāhita, explained by the Com. K as nibbāsita (Çakuntalā, ed. Williams, p. 256).

In proposing a different explanation of nidhāpeti, we must bear in mind the common interchange of p and v. Compare Pāli dhopana with Skt. dhovana, &c. This enables us to refer niddhāpeti to a form \*niddhāveti = \*niddhāva-yati (a causal from the root dhāv, 'to run') 'to cause to go out,' 'to expel.' Compare Mahāvastu, pp. 359, 364); Saddhamma-P. iv. 6a. In Saddhamma-pundarīka iii. 89 (see Kern's translation, S. B. E., p. 88), we find nirdhāvanārthāya 'for evading,' 'for escaping from,' 'for getting rid of," for which there is the various reading nirvāpanārthāya, which exhibits the same sort of confusion of nirdhāvana with nirvāpana as the Jātaka text does with regard to niddhāpeti and nibbāpeti.

With regard to the two forms, Prof. Fausböll says: "Enten vi vaelge nibbāpitam eller niddhāpitam kommer omtrent ud paa et. De kunne naturligvis ligesom ethvert andet egentligt Udtryk bruges i metaforisk Betydning."