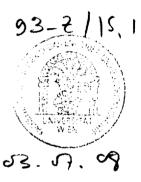
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# Is the *Dharma-kāya* the Real "Phantom Body" of the Buddha?<sup>1</sup>

#### by Paul Harrison

#### I. Introduction

The Trikaya doctrine of Buddhism, i.e., the doctrine that the Buddha has three "bodies," is notorious for its complexities. Attributed to the Yogācāra, but regarded as typical of the Mahāyāna in general, it is customarily cited in books on Buddhism in terms of the triad dharma-kāya, sambhoga-kāya (or sāmbhogika-kāya) and nirmāna-kāya (or nairmānika-kāya). Taking these in ascending order of abstraction, the nirmana-kaya, usually translated "apparitional body," "phantom body," "transformation body," etc., is the physical manifestation of Buddhahood, the ordinary perishable human form, as exemplified by the "historical Buddha," Siddhartha Gautama. The sambhoga-kava ("body of bliss," "reward body," "enjoyment body," etc.) is a more exalted and splendid manifestation of the enlightened personality, still in the realm of form, but visible only to bodhisattvas, those of advanced spiritual capabilities. By contrast, the dharma-kaya ("Dharma-body," "Body of Truth," "Cosmic Body," "Absolute Body," etc.) is both formless and imperishable, representing the identification of the Buddha with the truth which he revealed, or with reality itself. As such the dharma-kāya is often linked with various terms for reality, such as dharmatā, dharma-dhātu, and so on, and has even been regarded as a kind of Buddhist absolute, or at least at one with it.<sup>2</sup> In this light the dharma-kāya is understood as the primal "source" or "ground" from which the other two types of bodies emanate.<sup>3</sup> While many scholars are content to describe this in purely abstract terms, others impute personal characteristics to it;<sup>4</sup> and at least one writer has gone so far as to compare it to the Christian idea of Godhead.<sup>5</sup>

As a summary of the Trikaya doctrine this is, of course, oversimplified. We are dealing here with a complex theory which underwent many accretions and refinements, as Buddhists continued down through the centuries to speculate on the nature of Buddhahood, on the nature of reality, and on the relationship between them.<sup>6</sup> It is hardly surprising, then, that attempts to plot the course of such arcane speculations have not always been entirely successful in reaching a clear consensus, although the arguments advanced, even in recent writing on the subject, do tend to follow similar lines. A good example of this is the authoritative treatment by Nagao, "On the Theory of Buddha-body (Buddha-kāya)," first published in English in 1973.7 Generally Nagao distinguishes three phases: an initial one-body theory, a two-body theory, and the three-body theory elaborated by the Yogācāras. According to him (p. 104), the two-body theory (i.e., rūpa-kāya and dharma-kāya) "became stabilized in a variety of earlier sutras,<sup>8</sup> and in early Mahāyāna sūtras, the Prajñāpāramitā, the Saddharmapundarika, and so forth. The rupa-kaya is the Buddha seen in a human body, while the dharma-kaya is the Buddha's personality seen in the dharma or dharma-nature." Elsewhere (pp. 106-7) Nagao states that the two-body theory was the one held "until the time of the Prajñāpāramitā Sūtra and the time of Nāgārjuna," even though the raw materials for the third body, the sambhoga-kaya, were also to hand before the time of Asanga and Vasubandhu, as a consequence of the bodhisattva-concept and the idea that a bodhisattva's performance of meritorious actions produced a body which was their manifest "reward." Nagao's article contains many valuable observations, but, as we shall see, some of its assertions are rather too imprecise, both chronologically and philosophically, to be of much use in unravelling the early development of the doctrine at issue. Another recent treatment of the subject by Makransky (1989) also describes certain features of the putative earlier two-body theory before the Yogācāras remodelled it (see esp. pp. 51-53), and distinguishes it sharply from the previous Mainstream<sup>9</sup> (in this case, Sarvāstivādin) formulations. This analysis, too, is open to question in certain respects, as I shall show. In these and other articles on the subject<sup>10</sup> there is a general tendency to postulate a one-body/twobody/three-body progression, in terms of which a single personality is divided into a physical and a "spiritual" body, and then the physical body is further split in two, yielding the final complement of three. Some writers, however, point to the existence of three bodies even in the Pali sources, what one scholar has called the "primitive triad," i.e., pūti- or cātur-mahābhūtika-kāya, manomaya-kaya, and dhamma-kaya.<sup>11</sup> The first is the corruptible physical body formed out of the four elements, while the second is the mind-made body with which the Buddha visits the celestial realms (believed by some to be a forerunner of the sambhoga- $k\bar{a}ya$ ); the third is the so-called "Dhamma-body." Now, although both these ways of approaching the subject-the assumption of a linear process, and the belief that the Pali Canon contains an embryonic Trikāva schema—raise certain difficulties, I do not propose in this paper to discuss the evolution of the Trikava theory in its entirety. since that would be a mammoth undertaking. What I wish to do is address one aspect of it only, viz., the early development of the idea of dharma-kaya, in the hope that clarifying this will open the way to a better understanding of Mahāvāna buddhology as a whole.

### II. Dharma-kāya in Texts Translated by Lokakșema

One possible way of investigating the initial development of the *dharma-kāya* idea in the Mahāyāna context is to look for it in the small group of *sūtras* translated into Chinese by Lokakṣema towards the end of the 2nd century C. E., given that these texts constitute our earliest datable literary evidence for Mahāyāna Buddhism.<sup>12</sup> What, if anything, do these ancient documents tell us about the "prehistory" of the Yogācāra Trikāya theory, and about Mahāyānist notions of *dharma-kāya* in particular? Fortunately, we need not start from scratch: preliminary work in this area has already been done by Lewis Lancaster, who some time ago examined the various Chinese versions of the *Astasāhasrikā-prajñā-pāramitā-sūtra* (*AsPP*) with careful attention to the development of a number of key doctrinal concepts, among them *dharma-kāya*.<sup>13</sup> In view of the importance of the *AsPP* as the seminal Prajñāpāramitā text, clearly the most influential of all the scriptures

on which Lokaksema worked, let us begin by reviewing Lancaster's findings.

Lancaster (1968: 92-100) originally isolated five occurrences of the term dharma-kaya in the Sanskrit text of the AsPP, and examined the relevant portions of the various Chinese translations in order to determine the development of this concept in that sūtra.14 He found that the term does not appear in what he called the "early text" (represented by the first three Chinese versions, the oldest of which is Lokaksema's, the Daoxing [banruo] jing, T.224), except for one passage, but is attested by the "middle" and "late" texts. even though these do not entirely agree with the Sanskrit and Tibetan versions. On this basis he concluded (1974: 36) that although the later texts display the two-body theory ( $r\bar{u}pa-k\bar{a}ya$  and dharma-kaya), "it appears that the earliest ideas in Mahavana sutras were neither the two-body nor the three-body ones, but rather the notion of one Buddha-body." Although this statement in particular points us in the right direction, and Lancaster's findings are indeed interesting, some of the inferences he drew from them now merit closer scrutiny. If we look carefully at the passages in question, attending at the same time to what previous scholarship has made of them, it will become apparent that what Lancaster saw as the progressive introduction into the text of the "uniquely Mahāyāna" doctrine of the dharma-kaya can be understood in quite different terms.

The five occurrences of *dharma-kāya* in the Sanskrit text of the AsPP are:<sup>15</sup>

1. Chap. IV (Vaidya 1960: 48).	Not found in T.224.
2. Chap. IV (Vaidya 1960: 50).	Not found in T.224.
3. Chap. XVII (Vaidya 1960: 168).	Not found in T.224.
4. Chap. XXVIII (Vaidya 1960: 228).	Found in T.224.
5. Chap. XXXI (Vaidya 1960: 253).	Not found in T.224.

The first of these is perhaps the most important; the passage is worth citing in full (the key sentences are underlined):

Śakra āha sacen me bhagavan ayam jambudvīpah paripūrnas cūlikābaddhas tathāgata-sarīrānām dīyeta iyam ca prajnā-pāramitā likhitvopanāmyeta tata ekatarena bhāgena pravāryamāno 'nayor dvayor bhāgayoh sthāpitayor imām evāham bhagavan prajfiā-pāramitām parigrhniyām / tat kasya hetoh yathāpi nāma tathāgata-netri-citrikārena / etad dhi tathāgatānām bhūtārthikam śariram / tat kasya hetoh uktam hy etad bhagavatā <u>dharmakāyā buddhā bhagavantah / mā khalu punar imam bhiksavah sat-kāyam kāyam manyadhvam / dharma-kāya-parinispattito mām bhiksavo draksyatha / esa ca tathāgata-kāyo bhūta-koti-prabhāvito drastavyo yaduta prajfiā-pāramitā /</u>

Although there can be no doubt about the fundamental intent of the text here-that the Buddhas and their relics are worthy of veneration solely by virtue of their realisation of perfect wisdom, which is therefore pre-eminent-many previous treatments of this important passage of the AsPP have failed to take account of one crucial point. Translations by Conze (1975: 116), Kajiyama (1984: 11) and Makransky (1989: 65) have all rendered dharma-kaya in the phrase dharma-kāyā buddhā bhagavantah as a noun, Kajiyama in the singular ("Buddhas consist of the Dharma-body"), Conze and Makransky in the plural ("The Dharma-bodies are the Buddhas, the Lords").<sup>16</sup> However, this raises a problem: if *dharma-kāya* here is a noun, how can it possibly stand in the plural, as it most certainly does in the Sanskrit? Given the later understanding of this term in the Buddhist tradition, can there be more than one dharma-kāya? After all, not one of the other similarly elusive words which are supposed to do duty for "reality"-dharmatā, tathatā, bhūta-koți, etc.,-ever occurs in the plural, indeed could not: since these "things" are supposed to be formless, beyond quantification, beyond all duality, how could there be more than one of them?

The same problem pertains to two of the other citations listed above. In the passage in Chap. XVII, in fact, the relevant wording (underlined below) is identical:

tasmād bodhisattvo mahāsattvo 'vinivartanīyah sad-dharma-parigrahāya paramudyogam āpadyate atītānāgata-pratyutpannānām buddhānām bhagavatām premnā ca gauraveņa ca / <u>dharma-kāyā buddhā bhagavanta</u> iti dharme prema ca gauravam copādāya sad-dharma-parigraham karoti

Here the *iti* following the key phrase suggests that it is taken from another source, as is more strongly indicated in Chap. IV by the

words uktam hy etad bhagavatā, which in Mahāyāna sūtras commonly introduce citations from Mainstream canonical texts. Again, Conze (1975: 207) translates: "the Dharma-bodies are the Buddhas, the Lords."

In Chap. XXXI, however, the wording is somewhat different:

evam eva kula-putra ye kecit tathāgata-rūpeņa vā ghoseņa vā abhinivistāņ te tathāgatasyāgamanam ca gamanam ca kalpayanti / ye ca tathāgatasyāgamanam ca gamanam ca kalpayanti sarve te bāla-jātīyā dusprajnājātīyā iti vaktavyāh tadyathāpi nāma sa eva puruso yo 'nudake udakasamjnām utpādayati / tat kasya hetoh <u>na hi tathāgato rūpa-kāyato</u> <u>drastavyah</u> / <u>dharma-kāyās tathāgatāh</u> / na ca kula-putra dharmatā āgacchati vā gacchati vā / evam eva kulaputra nāsti tathāgatānām āgamanam vā gamanam vā /

The key words here are paraphrased by Kajiyama (1984: 14) as "a Tathāgata should not be considered as a  $r\bar{u}pak\bar{a}ya$ ; Tathāgatas consist of *dharmakāyas*," and translated by Conze (1975: 291) as "For a Tathagata cannot be seen from his form-body. The Dharmabodies are the Tathagatas..."<sup>17</sup>

This way of construing the texts has certain theoretical implications. For example, it is on the basis of his understanding of these passages that Kajiyama (1984: 12-13) speaks of a change in the idea of the "Buddha-body," and the emergence of a "theory of the two-bodied Buddha" at a comparatively early stage in the development of the Sanskrit text of the AsPP. Thus, he concludes (p. 13), "the physical Buddha body came to be called  $r\bar{u}pak\bar{a}ya$ , while the Buddha body equated with prajñāpāramitā was called dharmakāya," and he infers that the two-body theory using these terms must have been formed by the middle of the 4th century, since the passage from Chap. XXXI is attested in Kumārajīva's translation of the AsPP (although the passages from Chaps. IV and XVII are not).

This is, however, problematical, for imposing a two-body schema on these passages leads us into the philosophical incoherence mentioned above: if there is such a thing as *the dharma-kāya*, how can it be plural? Fortunately, the solution to this problem lies ready to hand, having been pointed out by Edgerton as long ago as

1953 (BHSD, s.v.):<sup>18</sup> the compound dharma-kāya in these particular citations is not a tatpurusa (or karmadhāraya) substantive but a bahuvrihi adjective.<sup>19</sup> This usage, as Edgerton noted, is the only one attested for Pāli; in fact, the term occurs but once in the entire Pāli Canon. The sole citation in question is in the Aggañña-sutta of the Digha-Nikāya (D iii 84), where dhamma-kāya, brahma-kāya, dhamma-bhuta and brahma-bhuta are listed as designations for the Buddha. These are all adjectives, although not all translators have recognised or preserved them as such.<sup>20</sup> The message of the text is that followers of the Buddha may claim to be his sons, not because they have been engendered by his physical body, but through being the offspring of the dhamma,<sup>21</sup> because the Buddha is "dhammabodied" or has the dhamma as his body (dhamma-kaya),<sup>22</sup> the Buddha is the dhamma itself (dhamma-bhūta).<sup>23</sup> This equation of the Buddha with the dhamma is also found in a number of wellknown passages in the Pali Canon, for example at S iii 120, where Gautama says to Vakkali, long stricken by illness and desperate to see the Buddha, "What is the point of your seeing this corruptible body (pūti-kāya)? Whoever sees the dhamma, Vakkali, sees me; whoever sees me sees the dhamma."24 Along similar lines are Gautama's celebrated instructions to his followers to take the dhamma itself as their guide following the demise of his body.<sup>25</sup> The use of the adjective dhamma-kāya in the Aggañña-sutta can be seen as reflecting these ideas. The Buddha is equated with the dhamma; therefore, he is said to be dhamma-kaya, to "have the dhamma as his body." To put it in more elegant English, the Buddha is truly "embodied" in the dhamma, rather than in his physical person, which, as Vakkali is reminded, has no real significance at all. The adjective dhamma-bhūta is virtually synonymous, i.e., to describe the Buddha as *dhamma-bhūta* is to say that the Buddha is the dhamma itself.26

Turning back to the AsPP, we see then that the three passages thus far in question are making the same point: not that the Buddhas are the *dharma-kāyas*, but that they are those who are embodied in the *dharma*. While this assertion may still require explication, it seems not to lead us straight into the philosophical quicksands of

the developed Trikaya theory. In fact, there is nothing particularly Mahāyānist about it at all, as it occurs in the Pāli scriptures, even if only once. Indeed, as we have noted, in two of the Aspp occurrences in question there are indications that the crucial phrase may well have been a quotation from a Mainstream text, although we have vet to identify the source. It is certainly the case that the Mainstream-in this case Theravadin-interpretation of the term suits the context perfectly, far better, in fact, than the Trikavainfluenced reading. This is especially clear in the passages in Chaps. XVII and XXXI, where the interpretation suggested resolves the awkward non sequiturs of Conze's translation. Thus in Chap. IV Sakra, faced with a choice between the world packed to the ceiling with relics of the Buddha and a written copy of the teaching or dharma of the Perfection of Wisdom, expresses his preference for the latter "out of reverence for the guide of the Tathagatas, since it is their genuine bodily relic. Why? Because the Lord has said 'The Buddhas and Lords have the dharma as their body," i.e., the dharma is their true body, and thus it is their true relic as well.<sup>27</sup> Similarly, the passage in Chap. XVII may be rendered freely as follows:

"Therefore the *bodhisattva* and *mahāsattva* who is incapable of regression makes a supreme effort to take up the true *dharma* out of love and respect for past, future and present Buddhas and Lords. Feeling love and respect for the *dharma*, with the thought 'The Buddhas and Lords have the *dharma* as their body,' he/she takes up the true *dharma*."

That is to say, the Buddhas are embodied in the *dharma*, and so to love and respect the *dharma* is to love and respect the Buddhas. And lastly, the relevant passage in Chap. XXXI may be translated like this:

"In the same way, son of good family, those who fixate on the Tathāgata's physical appearance or his voice imagine that the Tathāgata comes and goes, but it has to be said that all those who imagine that the Tathāgata comes and goes are inherently foolish and stupid, just like the man who perceives water where none exists. Why is that? Because a Tathāgata is

not to be seen through his physical body; *Tathāgatas* have the *dharma* as their body. The nature of *dharma*, son of good family, neither comes nor goes. In the same way, son of good family, there is neither coming nor going for the *Tathāgatas*."

What is important here is the *dharma* which constitutes the true identity of the Buddhas, not any particular "body," however abstract. Just as coming and going cannot be predicated of the *dharma* itself, or of the nature of *dharma(s)* (*dharmatā*), it cannot be predicated of the Buddhas insofar as they are identified with the *dharma*.<sup>28</sup>

We are still left, however, with three instances in the AsPP where  $dharma-k\bar{a}ya$  appears as a noun. The first is the sentence  $dharmak\bar{a}ya$ -parinispattito  $m\bar{a}m$  bhiksavo draksyatha in the Chap. IV passage cited at length above. This is rendered by Kajiyama as "Monks, you should see me as the accomplishment of the Dharmabody," by Conze as "Monks, you should see Me from the accomplishment of the Dharma-body." However, since we are dealing here with a continuation of a (probably Mainstream) scriptural quotation, we ought first to consider interpretations of dharma-k\bar{a}ya which are consistent with Mainstream doctrine, to see whether they fit the context better.

Although *dharma-kāya* as a noun is not attested in the Pāli Canon, it does occur in other Mainstream sources. To begin with, there is a handful of passages in the Chinese translations of the Āgamas where the appearance of the term *fa-shen*, "body of *dharma(s)*,"<sup>29</sup> indicates that the underlying Indic may have had *dharma-kāya* as a substantive. These passages were exhaustively studied by Anesaki (1982),<sup>30</sup> whose findings may be found summarised in Demiéville's article in the *Hōbōgirin*, s.v. *busshin* (1930: 176-177). There is one clear reference in the *Saṃyuktāgama*, now generally assigned to the Mūlasarvāstivādins,<sup>31</sup> and three in the *Ekottarāgama*, thought by many to be part of the Mahāsāṃghika canon.<sup>32</sup> In the *Saṃyuktāgama* passage King Aśoka justifies his lavish veneration of the *stūpa* of Ānanda with reference to the latter's key role in the preservation and transmission of the *dharma*. Asked by his ministers why these offerings surpass all others, he says "The body of the *Tathāgata* is the body of *dharma(s)*, pure in nature. He [Ānanda] was able to retain it/them all; for this reason the offerings [to him] surpass [all others]."<sup>33</sup> In the opening verses of the *Ekottarāgama* (T.125, I, 549c14), which have no Pāli counterpart, we read: "The appearance of the Master of the Śākyas in this world was very brief. Although the physical body has passed away, the body of *dharma(s)* endures." And later, in the same passage (550a 1-2): "The body of *dharma(s)* of the *Tathāgata* is indestructible; it abides in the world forever, and does not cease. When gods and human beings get to hear it, they perfect the fruit of the Way." This idea is subsequently thematised in Section LXIV, where the Buddha and Ānanda discuss the survival of the *dharma* after the death of the *Tathāgata* (787b17-29):

Then  $\overline{A}$  nanda said to the Lord: "The Buddhas and Lords of the distant past had an extremely long lifespan, precept-breakers were rare and there was no impurity. Now, however, people have a very short lifespan, not exceeding ten decades. After the Buddhas of the past attained extinction, how long did the *dharma* they left behind remain in the world?"

The Buddha said to Ananda: "After the Buddhas of the past attained extinction, the *dharma* did not remain for long."

Ānanda said to the Buddha: "After the Tathāgata attains extinction, how long will the true dharma remain in the world?"

The Buddha said to Ānanda: "After I attain extinction, the *dharma* will remain for a long time. After the extinction of the Buddha Kāśyapa, the *dharma* which he left behind lasted seven days. Right now, Ānanda, you [may think] the *Tathāgata* has few disciples. Don't hold this view: there are countless thousand *koțis* of disciples in the east, and countless thousand *koțis* of disciples in the south. Therefore, Ānanda, you should think: 'The lifespan of our Buddha Śākyamuni is extremely long. Why? Although the physical body undergoes extinction, the body of *dharma(s)* persists. This is its meaning, which we should ponder, take up and put into practice.'"

Finally, in Section XXXI (719b7-8), Anuruddha remarks that "The body of the *Tathāgata* is the body of the true *dharma* (*rulai shen-zhe zhenfa zhi shen*)."

As becomes especially clear when one considers the contexts in which they are embedded, all these  $\overline{A}$  gama citations make a specific identification of the term translated as *fa-shen*, "body of dharma(s)," with the dharma or dharmas demonstrated by the Buddha, or with the true dharma, i.e., with his teachings or his Teaching considered as a whole. It is this which is described as pure, indestructible, eternal, remaining after the nirvāna of the physical body, and, according to one telling passage, something that one can hear. But there is a problem: can we be sure that the underlying Indic word was indeed dharma-kaya? For there is at least one other candidate for the position, and that is dharma-śarira. The occurrence of this compound in the AsPP has already been noted above. To what extent its meaning differs from dharma-kaya remains to be determined, but some light is thrown on this in the lengthy discussion by the unknown author of the Karmavibhangopadeśa (see Lévi 1932: 157ff., 172ff.).<sup>34</sup> In this text we find an explicit equation of dharma-sarira with the teaching of the Buddha, the hearing or realisation of which far outweighs the vision of the Buddha's physical body, the "body produced by mother and father."<sup>35</sup> The theme of the text, then, is similar to that of the Aggañña-sutta, viz., that the dharma in the sense of the teaching is the true body (and in this case "relic")<sup>36</sup> of the Buddha; and in line with the text's own definition the noun dharma-sarira is best interpreted as a karmadhāraya, i.e., as "the body/relic which consists in the dharma(s)." Since all this is obviously congruent with the Agama passages we have just looked at, one has to ask whether the word translated in them as fa-shen was not dharmaśarira rather than dharma-kāya.

In the absence of Indic fragments or parallels, we cannot answer this question with certainty. Only for the Samyuktāgama passage can we refer to the Divyāvadāna, where we see that neither compound is attested;<sup>37</sup> the other Āgama passages remain in doubt. However, it is quite clear that dharma-kāya is at least possible, for it definitely occurs in the sense required in other Mainstream sources. One of these is the Milinda-pañha, a non-canonical Pāli text preserved by the Theravādins. The relevant passage, as translated by Horner (1965: 99-100), runs as follows: "the Lord has attained final nibbāna in the element of nibbāna that has no substrate remaining (for future birth); it is not possible to point to the Lord who has gone home and say that he is either here or there;

but, sire, it is possible to point to the Lord by means of the body of Dhamma, for Dhamma, sire, was taught by the Lord."<sup>38</sup> This echoes a previous statement in the same section, to the effect that "He who sees the dhamma sees the Lord, for the dhamma was taught by the Lord."39 These variations on what are by now familiar themes indicate that the substantives dharma-kaya and dharmasarira certainly overlap in meaning, even if they may not be entirely synonymous. A second Mainstream citation of interest here is a passage in the Mülasarvāstivādin Vinava (see Dutt 1950: 185-186). where Srona Kotikarna expresses his strong desire to see the physical body of the Buddha, since the "seeing" (darśana) of Buddhas is as rare as the Udumbara flower. His words are: "On the authority of my preceptor [my emphasis] I have seen the Lord by means of the body of dharma(s), but not by means of the physical body (drsto mayopādhyāyānubhāvena sa bhagavān dharma-kāvena no tu rūpa-kāyena)." In both these sources I would maintain that dharma-kāya clearly refers not to some "spiritual body,"40 but, in line with the Agama passages cited above, to the Buddha's teachings, acquired, in Srona Kotikarna's case, on the authority of his preceptor Mahākātyāyana.<sup>41</sup> However, one question remains. which I have left open up till now: if we accept that the first element of the nominal compound dharma-kaya denotes the Buddha's teachings, should we continue to translate it in the singular, as is customary, or in the plural?

Although it may not seem so at first sight, the answer to this question is suggested by a number of scholastic Sarvāstivādin sources, which use the term *dharma-kāya* to refer to the special, undefiled *dharmas* or qualities which make a Buddha a Buddha.<sup>42</sup> There appear to have been differences of opinion as to the identity of these *dharmas*. According to Vasubandhu's *Abhidharma-kośabhāşya* some scholars identified them with the 18 qualities exclusive to a Buddha (*āveņika-dharmas*),<sup>43</sup> viz., the ten powers (*bala*), four assurances (*vaiśāradya*), three applications of mindfulness (*smṛtyupasthāna*) and great compassion (*mahākaruņā*).<sup>44</sup> Other Sarvāstivādin sources, however, equated them with the more modest list of the five anāsrava-skandhas, or "incorruptible constituents," viz., *śīla, samādhi, prajñā, vinukti* and *vimukti-jñāna*-

darśana (see, e.g., Lamotte 1958: 689-690), an identification which is also found in the work of the great Theravadin commentator Buddhaghosa.<sup>45</sup> Whatever the composition of the list, however, dharma $k\bar{a}ya$  in this context clearly means the *collection* of the (undefiled) qualities or principles which the Buddha has realised in his own person and revealed to others. That is to say, the use of the Sanskrit word  $k\bar{a}ya$  turns on the same ambiguity possessed by the English word "body" or the Latin corpus; it means "body" in the sense of a complete collection of constituent parts, ensemble, entirety, totality. And this is in itself an indication that the first term in the compound-at least when it is a substantive-is indeed to be construed as plural.<sup>46</sup> Further, there is a second ambiguity built into the term: the dharmas in question are both taught by the Buddha, in which case we might call them "teachings" or "truths," and they are realised in his person, in which case we might call them "qualities" (in the latter sense they are more obviously plural). This ambiguity is probably intentional and fundamental. We find it acknowledged, for example, in a commentary on the Vajracchedikā ascribed to Asanga, who distinguishes two types of dharma-kaya: the "dharma-kaya as words" and the "dharma-kaya as realisation."47 If we accept then that this interpretation, "body of dharmas," with its multiple ambiguities, well established for Mainstream scholastic sources, can also be applied to Mainstream scriptural texts in which the substantive dharma-kaya appears, we must concede that renditions such as "Body of the Dharma," "Body of Truth" or "Body of the Teaching" are mistaken, or at the very least too limiting, since a collection cannot consist of one thing.48

To return now to the Mahāyāna sources, it can be seen that the rather multivalent Mainstream interpretation of the substantive form of our term—"body/collection of qualities/truths/teachings" is consistent with the AsPP citations under consideration. The remainder of the passage from Chap. IV, therefore, may be translated as follows: "Again, *bhikşus*, you ought not to think that this existing body is [my real] body. *Bhikşus*, you should see me in terms of the full realisation of the body of *dharmas* (i.e., the totality of undefiled qualities or truths)."<sup>49</sup> And one ought to see that this [real] body of the *Tathāgata* is constituted by<sup>50</sup> perfect truth, i.e., by the Perfection of Wisdom." This interpretation fits the context, and raises fewer philosophical difficulties.

A similar reading can be applied to the other occurrence of *dharma-kāya* as a noun in Chap. IV (no. 2 in the list above; no equivalent in any Chinese translation), where it is said that just as the king's representative is inviolable and worthy of worship by the great mass of people because of the authority (*anubhāva*) of the king, so too the preacher of the *dharma* (*dharma-bhānaka*) is inviolable and worthy of worship because of the authority of the body of *dharmas* (*dharma-kāyānubhāvāt*).<sup>51</sup> It seems to me far more likely that the preachers in question owe their reception to the inherent power of the teachings they purvey than to some abstract but nonetheless awe-inspiring theistic principle; that is to say, the king's servants represent the king, and derive their authority from him, the *dharma*-preachers represent the *dharma*, and derive their authority from it.

Finally, the same reading is also preferable for the fourth passage listed above, which happens to be the only one represented in the early Chinese versions. The Sanskrit text reads:

sumanasikrtā ca sudhrtā ca suparyavāptā ca supravartitā ca tvayā Ānanda iyam prajnā-pāramitā kartavyā / suparivyaktenākşara-pada-vyanjanena suniruktā codgrahītavyā / tat kasya hetoh <u>atītānāgata-pratyutpannānām hi</u> <u>Ānanda tathāgatānām arhatām samyak-sambuddhānām dharma-kāyateti</u> <u>tām dharmatām pramānīkrtya</u> /

Most previous commentators have recognised that this has nothing to do with the Trikāya,<sup>52</sup> even though Conze's rendition (1975: 267) blurs the issue: "For as the dharma-body of the past, future and present Tathagatas is this dharma-text authoritative." Lokakṣema's Chinese translation (468c16-18) reads:

"You should carefully study [the Prajñāpāramitā] and accept it in its entirety, bear it all in mind, keep it, and copy out its words correctly without error or loss [since] it is equivalent to and not different from the body of the scriptures of the Buddhas [*fo-jing-shen*] of the past, future and present."

The use of the Chinese word *jing* (canonical text, scripture) for *dharma* is standard with Lokaksema, and so the presence of the word *dharma-kāya* in the earliest accessible version of the *AsPP* is hardly to be doubted. Here the text is obviously playing on the aforementioned ambiguity of the term *dharma*, meaning both teaching and principle or law of existence, as the Buddha advises Ananda to ponder, remember, master, etc., the Prajñāpāramitā with minute care, because "one ought to accept that nature of things [which the Prajñāpāramitā teaches] as authoritative, as being the body of *dharmas* of all past, future and present *Tathāgatas.*"<sup>53</sup>

My contention is, then, that even in the later Sanskrit text of the AsPP, where dharma-kāya clearly occurs as a noun, it is perfectly comprehensible in terms of the multivalent Mainstream interpretation of the word, as the body or collection of qualities, principles, truths, or teachings. Elsewhere it appears as an adjective, a usage which is also found in Mainstream sources. What is common to both grammatical forms in the different Mainstream sources we have reviewed is that the emphasis is on the prior member, dharma, not on kāya. The same is true for all occurrences in the AsPP. Therefore there is no real support for Lancaster's contention that dharma-kāya is one of the specifically Mahāyāna doctrines inserted into the text of the AsPP in the course of its development, even though it is true that many of the citations are not attested in the three early Chinese translations.<sup>54</sup>

Is there, then, any support in the rest of the Lokaksema corpus for a distinctively Mahāyānist interpretation of *dharma-kāya*? It is in the *Lokānuvartanā-sūtra* (*LAn*)<sup>55</sup> that we would most expect to encounter material relating to this question, for the *LAn* is in essence a meditation on buddhology proper. In this work, which is closely affiliated with the Mahāsāmghika-Lokottaravādins, we do indeed find a sustained attempt to harmonise conflicting notions of Buddhahood, in particular to reconcile the obvious frailties and limitations of the historical human being with a more glorious conception of the physical and spiritual attributes of an enlightened personality. Most of the text, then, turns on the discrepancies between what are in the classical Trikāya theory called the *nirmāna-kāya* and the *sambhoga-kāya*, even though the second of these terms is not used in the extant Tibetan version.<sup>56</sup> The Tibetan for *dharma-kāya* does occur twice, however, in verses 37 and 79, in both of which it appears in the predicative position, i.e., it is almost certainly rendering the *bahuvrīhi* adjective.<sup>57</sup> The relevant verses read as follows:

Verse 37:

/ yid kyi sku dang ldan pas na<sup>58</sup> / / de bzhin gshegs pa chos sku yang / / mag can sku ni ston mdzad pa / / 'di ni 'jig rten 'thun 'jug yin / "Even though, being endowed with a mental body, The Tathāgatas have the dharma for a body, They manifest a corruptible body; This is conformity with the world."

Verse 79:

/ de bzhin gshegs pa chos sku ste /
/ gcig ci 'dra bar de bzhin kun /
/ 'on kyang tha dad ston mdzad pa /
/ 'di ni 'jig rten 'thun 'jug yin /
"Since the Tathāgatas have the dharma for a body,
As one is, so are they all;
Nevertheless, they make a show of multiplicity;
This is conformity with the world."

There can be no doubt that the text which Lokaksema had in front of him also contained these two verses, in much the same form. His version of them (T. 807) runs:

The Buddha's body is like an illusion. [He] calls the scripture/dharma(s)  $(jingfa)^{59}$  [his] body. To others he displays an impure body. It is in conformity with worldly custom that he engages in such a manifestation. (752a18-19) All Buddhas share the one body; [they] regard the scripture/dharma(s) (jingfa) as [their] body. The Buddhas manifest teaching the scripture/

dharma(s) to others. It is in conformity with worldly custom that they engage in such a manifestation.  $(753a19-20)^{60}$ 

Not only does Lokaksema's translation demonstrate the existence of the term  $dharma-k\bar{a}ya$  in his text of the LAn, but the Chinese wording, almost identical in both verses (yi jingfa ming

wei shen, yi jingfa wei shen), shows clearly that he construed it as a bahuvrihi. Using the classical Chinese yi X wei Y construction ("to take X as Y," "to regard X as Y," etc.), he split the compound just as we might.<sup>61</sup> Neither the Chinese nor the Tibetan version of the LAn, then, attests dharma-kāya in its nominal form. Both versions suggest, in addition, that the Sanskrit text of the relevant  $p\bar{a}da$  in both verses read dharma-kāyā tathāgatāħ, which is the same phrase found in Chap. XXXI of the AsPP.

Although a full discussion of the buddhology of the LAn is beyond the scope of this paper, we ought to note that in v. 37 the Tib. term yid kyi sku is attested, which the Chinese glosses as a body "like an illusion," but which must represent manomaya-kāya, normally translated as "mental body" or "mind-made body." Set beside dharma-kāya, this is contrasted with rnag can sku, which is surely Skt./Pāli pūti-kāya.<sup>62</sup> We have here what Lancaster calls the "primitive triad" (see above), the three bodies supposedly found in the Pāli Canon. However, since dharma-kāya is an adjective, only two actual bodies in the proper sense of the word are attested in this verse, as indeed they are in the Pāli Canon. Both these bodies, the mind-made and the corruptible, belong to the world of material forms.

Turning next to the Pratyutpanna-buddha-sammukhāvasthitasamādhi-sūtra (PraS), we find a single obscure citation, at Section 1X, where the Tib. has chos kyi sku dang 'dra bar rtogs pas nam mkha' lta bu rnams su 'gyur ba. In my English translation of this text I tentatively rendered this as "become those who resemble space in their understanding [of it as?] similar to the Body of Dharma," the problem being partly the presence in all three Chinese versions of what seems to be an equivalent for animitta. Thus I suggested that the original sense of the passage may have been "become those who understand the Body of Dharma to be signless like space."<sup>63</sup> T.418's (Lokakṣema's) equivalent for dharma-kāya here is jing-zang-shen, literally "body of the treasury of scriptures," while T.416 has simply "all dharmas," suggesting once again that dharma-kāya means the totality of dharmas.<sup>64</sup> The citation is obscure, but the presence of dharma-kāya as a substantive in the earliest known version is beyond doubt, in a context which seems to have nothing to do with buddhology as such.

In the Kāśyapa-parivarta (KP), another important text in the Lokaksema corpus, the word dharma-kaya does not appear, but rūpa-kāya occurs once, in Section 125, in a context which is relevant to the discussion. The Sanskrit text runs: dharmato pi tathagatam na samanupaśvati kah punar vada rūpakāvena, i.e. "[the bodhisattva] does not view the Tathagata even in terms of the dharma(s), how much less in terms of his physical body."65 Lokaksema's version-""he is not even attached to the Buddhadharma(s), how much less constantly [?] attached to form?"--conveys the intent of the Sanskrit reasonably well. The Jin dynasty translation accords with it too, but the Qin and Song versions both introduce the term fa-shen (=  $dharma-k\bar{a}ya$ ). This could represent translator's license, or a different Sanskrit recension of the text which sought to clarify its sense along the lines suggested by the passages in Chaps. IV and XXXI of the AsPP. That is to say, one does not "view" the Buddha even in terms of the body of qualities or principles which he has realised (dharma-kaya-parinispattitas), to say nothing of viewing him in terms of his physical person (rūpakāyatas).

As we move on to other less well-known works of early middle Mahāyāna sūtra-literature, a significant new pattern begins to emerge. In the Druma-kinnararāja-pariprechā-sūtra (DKP),<sup>66</sup> to begin with, although there are no occurrences of the term chos kyi sku in the Tibetan text, Lokakṣema's Chinese version (T.624) contains several occurrences of fa-shen, the standard Chinese equivalent for dharma-kāya. In Section 2D (349c27-28), for example, we find: "What does it mean to say that bodhisattvas know the realm of all human beings without being separated from the body of dharmas?" which in the Tib. text is ji ltar na byang chub sems dpa' khams sna tshogs la yang mam par blta la chos kyi dbyings las kyang mi g.yo ba rnams lags. Here Lokakṣema appears to have used fa-shen to render dharma-dhātu (Tib. chos kyi dbyings), which is also indicated by the appearance of fa-jie, the standard Chinese equivalent for dharma-dhātu, in Kumārajīva's rendition of the same passage (T.625, 368c17-18).<sup>67</sup> The same wording is repeated in the Tib. text at 2M, and the renditions in T.624 (350c15) and T.625 (369c8) agree with those for the first citation. There can be little doubt, therefore, that Lokaksema has rendered *dharma-dhātu*, contrasted with *sattva-dhātu*, as *fa-shen*, presumably because he believed both terms to refer to the totality of *dharmas*. The same thing happens at 2G where Tib. has *chos kyi dbyings*, T.625 (369a18-19) has *fa-jie* and T.624 (350a21) has *fa-shen*.<sup>68</sup>

A more pertinent citation is found at 7K, where the Tibetan reads chos kyi dbyings bsam gyis mi khyab pa la zhugs pas / sangs rgyas thams cad sangs rgyas gcig tu shes pa, "knowing that all Buddhas are one Buddha, by virtue of [their] entry into the inconceivable dharma-dhātu"; i.e., all Buddhas are the same by virtue of their common "entry" into, or understanding of, the inconceivable dharma-dhātu (Skt. acintya-dharma-dhātvavatāra). T.624 (358b5-6) has "all Buddhas are nothing but one Buddha. For what reason? Because [their] penetration of the body of dharmas (fa-shen) is incalculable,"<sup>69</sup> while T.625 (377b18-19) agrees exactly with the Tibetan, i.e., construing acintya as qualifying dharma-dhātu rather than avatāra. At 8Cv54 T.624 (360b26) again has fa-shen where Tib. has chos kyi dbyings and T.625 (379c14) has fa-jie. A further occurrence at 9G is especially interesting: in enumerating the six anusmrtis, the Tib. text has sangs rgyas kyi sku thob par bya ba'i phyir / sangs rgyas rjes su dran pa, i.e., "commemoration of the Buddha in order to acquire the body of a Buddha." Here too T.625 (381a13-14) agrees with the Tibetan, but T.624 (361b29) has "constantly think of the Buddha and obtain the body of dharmas (fa-shen)." This is unexpected; we could postulate corruption, but it is also possible that the translator has settled on fa-shen as conveying the true sense of buddha-kaya. It is not easy to see how Lokaksema has arrived at his translation of 10Hv25, but the appearance of fa-shen in T.624 (363a11), zhu-fa in T.625 (383a16), and chos rnams kun in Tib. suggests that sarva-dharma stood in the original Indic text. At 11D, in a list of 64 "dharmasounds," we again find fa-shen in T.624 (363c18) where Tib. and T.625 (384a18) indicate dharma-dhātu. The three versions differ

substantially from this point on, and it is interesting to note that the following items in T.624 are the ten powers, the four assurances and the eighteen exclusive dharmas (not listed in the two other versions), suggesting an association between these qualities and dharma-dhātu as equated with dharma-kāya. At 14D chos kvi dbyings in Tib. again finds a counterpart in fa-shen in T.624 (366a22), but the sentence in question is missing from T.625 (see 387b22-26). Finally, a less clear-cut case occurs in Section 15E, where T.624 (366c5) has: "they are able to practice and guard the dharma; through this they obtain the body of dharmas (fa-shen)." The Tib. text at this point (Section 15E) has dam pa'i chos yongs su srung ba dang / sangs rgyas bcom ldan 'das mams kyi dam pa'i chos 'dzin par 'gyur ba, i.e., "they [the bodhisattvas] protect the true dharma, and they obtain the true dharma of the Buddhas and Lords," while Kumārajīva's version (T.625) reads "they protect the true dharma and uphold the treasury of the Buddha-dharma(s) (fofa-zang)." Although not attested by the Tibetan, therefore, dharmakāya is suggested by both Chinese versions of 15E, in a context which implies it carries the meaning "collection of dharmas." The most significant finding in relation to the DKP, however, is that in some half-a-dozen cases Lokaksema has translated dharma-dhatu by fa-shen.

Despite the doctrinal richness of the  $Aj\bar{a}tasatru-kaukrtya$ vinodanā-sūtra (AjKV), as well as the presence in it of apparent Yogācāra tendencies, I have not been able to locate a single occurrence of dharma-kāya in the Tibetan text. However, once again Lokakṣema's translation (T.626) contains a number of uses of the term fa-shen, and the passages in question need careful investigation. At 390b1, to begin with, we read that bodhisattvas "do not deviate from twelvefold causation; they consider the body of dharmas (fa-shen) to be neither increasing nor decreasing." This corresponds to Tib. rten cing 'brel bar 'byung ba dang mi 'gal ba'i phyir des chos tharms cad (Derge: nyid for tharms cad) la brtag par bya'o // thog ma nas ma skyes pa'i phyir chos gang yang ma bri ba dang ma 'phel bar bya'o (Peking Mdo Tsu 225a6-7). None of the other complete Chinese versions (T.627, T.628) supports dharmakāya, so it appears fa-shen has been used by Lokakṣema to denote

all dharmas. At 390b28-29 the text states: "They see the Buddhas, but do not think of seeking them through form. Why is that? Because of the body of dharmas (or: because they have the dharma as body?)." However, Tib. (Peking 226b2-3) has only sangs rgyas thams cad mthong mod kyi / gzugs la dmigs pa'i 'du shes kyang mi skyed, "although they see all the Buddhas, they do not give rise to any conception based on form," which is supported by the other Chinese translations, indicating that T.626 has probably incorporated a gloss. At 392b we also come across a number of occurrences of fa-shen (392b2, 4-5, 15), but the corresponding Tibetan text has only chos or chos nyid (see Peking 232a1-8), while the Chinese version of Dharmaraksa (T.627, 410b18-c3) has fa-jie or fa, that of Fatian (T.628, 432b17-29) simply fa. At 398b6-7, in the course of Mañjuśri's exposition of the bodhisattva-pitaka, Lokaksema's text states: "The dharmas of bodhisattvas are unsurpassed, because they penetrate the body of *dharmas*, because of great compassion." But when we compare this with the Tibetan, we find: by ang chub sems dpa'i bslab pa ni tshad med pa'i rjes su song ba / snying rje chen pos zin pa'o // (Peking 253a2-3), "The bodhisattva's training starts with the immeasurable states and is completed by great compassion. Similarly, T.627 (418a15) and T.629 (439c21) mention only compassion." Taken with the clumsy repetition of "because" in T.624, the testimony of the later versions indicates again that a gloss has been incorporated in the text. Later occurrences, however, follow the pattern laid down in the DKP. At 398c1 fa-shen corresponds to chos kyi dbyings in the Tibetan text (see Peking 254a2), fa-jie in T.627 (418c1) and T.628 (440a14); at 401b9-12 fa-shen occurs several times, corresponding to chos kyi dbyings or possibly chos thams cad (sarva-dharma) in the Tibetan (see Peking 263a7-263b1) and to fa-jie in both T.627 (422b1-7) and T.628 (443a3-4); and finally, at 402c1-3, fa-shen again occurs several times, corresponding to chos kyi dbyings in the Tibetan (see Peking 267b7-268a2) and fa-jie in the later Chinese versions (see T.627, 423c15-18, and T.628, 44b25(?)).

It would be inappropriate here to give the full text of all the passages cited, but it is clear enough that Lokaksema has used fashen throughout the AjKV to designate the totality of dharmas,

generally in places where his Indic original had *dharma-dhātu*. The two exceptions to this rule are almost certainly glosses which have been erroneously incorporated in the text.

There are three other texts belonging to the Lokaksema corpus: T.458, the Wenshushili wen pusa-shu jing (WWP); T.280, the Dousha jing (DSJ, an early version of a small section of the Avatamsaka-sūtra); and T.313, the Achu-fo guo jing, a translation of the Aksobhya-tathagatasya-vyuha (AkTV).<sup>70</sup> Lokaksema's translations of the first two of these texts contain no references to dharma-kaya, and the same is true, as far as I am aware, of the later Chinese or Tibetan versions, where they exist.<sup>71</sup> A perusal of the various versions of the AkTV, however, reveals one problematical occurrence of the term, in Chap. 1, Sections 69-70 (according to the divisions in the translation by Dantinne).<sup>72</sup> Here the Tibetan text states that when the Buddha Aksobhya used to pursue the course of training of a bodhisattva he never once experienced any bodily or mental fatigue while expounding or listening to the dharma, the reason being that, ever since the time he conceived his initial aspiration to awakening, he had realised the dharma-kāya. Further, when he was pursuing the course of training of a bodhisattva and listening to the dharma he thought "In the same way that I now love the dharma, so too may beings in my Buddha-field also be lovers of the dharma, and not those who do not love it!"73 At first blush this seems coherent, coherent enough for Dantinne to have translated it without comment-but is it? I think not; a closer inspection of the Chinese translations shows us why. Bodhiruci's Chinese translation (T.310, No. 6), produced in the period 706-713, reads (104c8-13):

"Śāriputra, when in the past he was practising the course of practice of a *bodhisattva*, the *Tathāgata Arhat Samyaksambuddha* Akşobhya did not experience physical or mental tiredness when expounding the *dharmas* or listening to them. Why? Because when he first conceived the aspiration to cultivate the course of practice of a *bodhisattva*, he obtained the awesome power (*weili*, usually = *anubhāva*) of the body of *dharmas* (*fashen*). Śāriputra, when in the past he was practising the course of practice of a *bodhisattva*, the *Tathāgata Arhat Samyaksambuddha* Akşobhya made the following vow: 'May all the *bodhisattvas* and *mahāsattvas* in my

buddha-ksetra obtain the perfection of the body of dharmas, just like me!"74

In Lokaksema's version, however, the passage in question runs as follows (755a4-8):

The Buddha said to Śāriputra: "Long ago, when the Tathāgata Arhat Samyaksambuddha Akşobhya was practising the way of the bodhisattva and listening to or expounding the dharma, his body experienced no fatigue, and his mind felt no fatigue either. Śāriputra, long ago, when the Tathāgata Akşobhya was pursuing the way of the bodhisattva and listening to or expounding the dharma, [he said:] 'This is how [I] love the dharma. May the bodhisattvas and mahāsattvas in my buddha-kṣetra love the dharma like this!'"

At first sight we might be disposed to accept Bodhiruci's text: Aksobhva possesses a "dharma-body" which is immune to fatigue, and he wishes that on other bodhisattvas. But how can bodhisattvas (especially those at the beginning of their career) be said to "realise" the dharma-kaya before they become Buddhas? And why is there only one occurrence of the term in the Tibetan, as opposed to two in Bodhiruci's version? Lokaksema's text, with no occurrences at all, offers the solution: in the transmission of the Indic. dharma-kāma has been corrupted to dharma-kāya, quite possibly under the influence of Yogācāra Trikāya speculations.<sup>75</sup> The Tibetan translation, which stands closer to Lokaksema's version than to Bodhiruci's,<sup>76</sup> represents a half-corrupted text, since it still preserves one dharma-kāma (chos 'dod pa). Originally the AkTV was making the unproblematical point that from the very first Aksobhya was indefatigable in teaching and hearing the *dharma* because he loved it so much, and so he vowed that the bodhisattvas of his Buddha-field would be similarly endowed with this unwearying love for the dharma. The "because he loved it so much" appears to have been missing from the earliest version of the text, if we go by T.313. The Tibetan wording (chos kyi sku rab tu bsgoms par gyur pa'i phyir ro) suggests that a gloss containing the words dharma-kāma-prabhāvita<sup>77</sup> may have been subsequently incorporated into the text before being corrupted to dharma-kaya $prabhavita.^{78}$  In an even later form of the text this corruption appears to have infected the last sentence of the passage as well, leading to the peculiar message of Bodhiruci's rendition.<sup>79</sup>

Let us now review our findings. We have seen that in the small group of texts translated into Chinese by Lokaksema in the latter half of the 2nd century C. E. there is no evidence for any developed Mahāvāna notions of dharma-kāya, even though this term was clearly familiar to him and does occur, albeit rarely, in several of his translations in the two grammatical forms and senses attested in Mainstream sources. That is to say, it is either (1) a bahuvrihi adjective, meaning "having the dharma as body" or "embodied in the dharma" (twice in the LAn), or (2) a tatpurusa substantive, with the sense "body of dharmas," dharmas in this case being understood as qualities, principles of existence, truths, or teachings (once in the AsPP, once in the PraS, possibly once in the DKP). Furthermore, even when the term does appear more frequently in later Chinese, Tibetan and Sanskrit versions of the scriptures in question, it still exhibits the same forms and meanings, as was demonstrated in particular for the Sanskrit text of the AsPP. An additional and unexpected discovery was that the Chinese term fa-shen, the standard equivalent for the substantive dharma-kāva. sometimes occurs in Lokaksema's translations at points where the Indic original is almost certain to have had dharma-dhatu.<sup>80</sup> This suggests that he regarded the two terms (viz., dharma-dhātu and dharma-kāya as a substantive) as interchangeable; for him both meant the totality of dharmas.<sup>81</sup> While this is of course in keeping with the Mainstream interpretation, and therefore supports our thesis, two things remain puzzling. The first is that Lokaksema also used renditions of dharma-dhatu which do approximate the standard Chinese equivalent.<sup>82</sup> Why then was he not consistent? The second enigma is his insistence on employing the Chinese word shen, given that this never means "collection." Unable to replicate the ambiguity of the Sanskrit in Chinese, Lokaksema was clearly faced with a difficult choice. That he opted for shen suggests that he regarded the primary meaning of the word kaya as more important, as somehow worth preserving, and could indicate that even by his time there were Buddhists who were already starting

to regard the *dharma-kāya* as a "body" of some kind, even if only metaphorically. While these questions relating to Lokakṣema's stylistic preferences will only be clarified by the continuing examination of his translations, they do not, I believe, invalidate our general thesis, which is that the use of the term *dharma-kāya* in this important body of early middle Mahāyāna *sūtras* is continuous with Mainstream interpretations.

#### III. Dharma-kāya in Other Māhāyana Sources

There we might be content to let the matter rest, but before attempting to formulate some general conclusions it might be useful to look for corroborating evidence in Mahāyāna sūtras outside the Lokakṣema corpus, especially those often cited in discussions of the Trikāya theory.<sup>83</sup> Clearly there are limits to what we can undertake here, but one obvious candidate for re-appraisal is the Vajracchedikā-prajñā-pāramitā-sūtra (Vaj) and the wellknown verses which run, according to Conze's (1974: 57) edition of the Sanskrit text (I have regularised the spelling):

ye mām rūpeņa cādrāksur ye mām ghoseņa cānvayuḥ / mithyā-prahāṇa-prasṛtā na mām draksyanti te janāḥ //

dharmato buddhā drastavyā dharma-kāyā hi nāyakāḥ / dharmatā ca na vijfieyā na sā šakyā vijānitum //

Once again, Conze's translations—for there are several in existence—are far from adequate. In one version (Conze 1973b: 136) we find the second verse rendered:

From the Dharma should one see the Buddhas, From the Dharmabodies comes their guidance. Yet Dharma's true nature cannot be discerned, And no-one can be conscious of it as an object.

Here, too, we encounter errors in linguistic interpretation compounding philosophical incoherence. What on earth can it mean to say that the Buddhas are guided by the "Dharmabodies"? Conze has, of course, mistaken the subject for the predicate and vice versa, in the belief that dharma-kāya is a substantive. What the text says is that the Guides or Leaders are dharma-kāya, i.e., this word is once again functioning as an adjective. Even for the (6th century?) Gilgit version, recently re-edited by Schopen (see Gomez & Silk 1989: 89-139), where the words hi nāyakāħ in the relevant line are replaced by tathāgataħ (i.e., singular), the same interpretation is in my opinion the correct one.<sup>84</sup> However, Schopen, following Conze's example, translates dharma-kāya as a noun ("The Tathāgata is the body of Doctrine"), thus continuing a long tradition. The second verse makes much better sense if we translate it properly: "The Buddha is to be seen in terms of the dharma; the Tathāgata has the dharma for a body. The nature of dharma(s), however, is indiscernible [to the senses]; it is not possible to discern it."<sup>85</sup>

What this means is that in the Vaj there is no use of the term dharma-kaya in the nominal sense, although the term rupa-kaya does occur, in a passage which may at first have directly preceded the above, but become separated from it in the course of time (see Conze 1973b: sections 20a, 26a). This is possibly a further indication of the age of the Vaj, in that no Trikaya-related notion of the dharma-kaya is found in it.<sup>86</sup> Both verses are apparently drawn from a Mainstream text, although Mainstream parallels have been found only for the first one.<sup>87</sup> The second verse, of greater interest to us here, has so far proved elusive. One notes, however, the similarity of the wording in the Gilgit version (viz., dharmakāyas tathāgatah) with that of the passage from Chap. XXXI of the AsPP and the two verses from the LAn cited above, and the fact that the point being made by the Vai here is precisely that which KP 125 is attempting to trump, as it were. That this second verse is missing from some recensions of the Vaj, such as the Central Asian MS<sup>88</sup> and the earliest Chinese translation by Kumārajīva (T.235, dated 402 C. E.), indicates that it has been inserted later in the history of the text, possibly under the influence of a different Perfection of Wisdom or other Mahāyāna sūtra.<sup>89</sup> In one sense, however, the date of its insertion is beside the point: even with it, the Vaj never goes beyond the Mainstream position.

Another text occasionally cited in connection with Trikāya theory is the Samādhi-rāja-sūtra (SR), in particular the 22nd chapter dealing explicitly with the bodies of the Buddha, which was edited and translated by Regamey (1938b). As Regamey remarks in his comments on the doctrinal standpoint of the text (pp. 23-25), its buddhology is akin to that of the Perfection of Wisdom sūtras in knowing only two bodies, the *rūpa-kāya* and the *dharma-kāya*. Its notion of the rūpa-kāya encompasses many features which are commonly assigned to the sambhoga-kaya (in this regard it resembles the LAn), but here we are more concerned with its description of the dharma-kāya. We find many statements with a familiar ring. For example, in Section 7 (Regamey 1938b: 81), we are told that the Tathagata is not to be discerned on the basis of his physical body, because the Buddhas and Lords are distinguished or constituted by the dharma-kaya, not by the physical body (na rupakāyatas tathāgatah prajñātavyah. tat kasya hetoh? dharma-kāyaprabhāvitāś ca buddhā bhagavanto na rūpa-kāya-prabhāvitāh). This dharma-kava is then described in fairly abstract terms in the prose (Sections 9-12) and verses (Sections 13-37) which follow. Although Regamey translates it consistently as "Absolute Body," there is no reason why we should not render it as "body of dharmas," except for Section 34, where the words dharma-kayo mahāviro ought to be rendered "The great hero has the dharma for a body" (i.e., dharma-kāya is a bahuvrihi).

What then of the Sad-dharma-pundarika-sūtra (SP), which is said by Nagao (1991: 104) to be one of the Mahāyāna sūtras in which the two-body theory "became stabilized"?<sup>90</sup> In fact, there is only one occurrence of the term dharma-kāya in the entire Sanskrit text, in v. 82 near the end of Chap. 5 (Vaidya's edition, p. 96), which clearly has the sense of "body of dharmas," "totality of dharmas," "all dharmas."<sup>91</sup> The context places this beyond any doubt. Therefore, while it is certainly true that the SP teaches a developed Mahāyāna buddhology, it does not explicitly invoke the concept of dharma-kāya to support it.<sup>92</sup>

Let us turn finally to the  $L\bar{a}nk\bar{a}vat\bar{a}ra-s\bar{u}tra$  (LA), where we might reasonably expect to find traces of Yogācāra doctrines, given the well-known affinity of this text with that school. As Suzuki

points out (1930: 316ff.), there are adumbrations of the Trikāya doctrine, but although "the idea of Dharmakāya is not wanting in the Lānkāvatāra ... it is used not in the sense of the Dharmakāya of the Triple Body dogma." And yet Suzuki's own interpretation of the relevant passages is heavily influenced by Trikāya notions, or perhaps by Christian theology, and therefore the text needs to be re-interpreted in a number of places.

For example, at LA 30.7-8,93 the words tathagato dharmakāya-vaśavarti bhavisyati dharma-nairātmya-darśanāt mean "he will become a Tathagata who has mastery over the body/collection/ totality of dharmas through seeing the absence of self in dharmas."94 Here dharma-kaya probably has the same sense it carries in the SP passage cited above. Suzuki's translation ("endowed with the perfect freedom of the Dharmakāya") is ambiguous, but could easily give one the impression that dharma-kaya possesses the quality of "perfect freedom," rather than being merely the object of vaśavartin. The same problem arises at LA 55.11-12, which reads: Punar api lokottarānāsrava-dhātu-paryāpannān sambhārān paripūrya acintya-dharma-kāya-vaśavartitām pratilapsyante. One could translate this roughly as "Further, having acquired all the requisites pertaining to the supramundane and incorruptible realm, they will obtain mastery over the body of inconceivable dharmas." Unaccountably, Suzuki (1932: 116) speaks of "the attainment of the Dharmakāya which is of sovereign power and beyond conception,"95 but here acintya, which usually means "inconceivable in number or extent," is just as likely to qualify dharma as it is kāya, and dharma-kaya must again be the object of vasavartita, as in the preceding citation.<sup>96</sup> Other passages where dharma-kaya is best understood as the totality of dharmas are LA 10.11-12 (Chap. II. v. 4);<sup>97</sup> LA 20.12, where Mahāmati invites the Buddha to expound the dharma-kaya-surely the collection of dharmas understood as teachings-praised (anugita) by the Tathagatas;<sup>98</sup> LA 23.16, where as a result of the teachings of the Tathagatas the bodhisattvas are said to obtain the dharma-kaya;99 and LA 94.19, where the dharmakāya of the Tathāgatas is said to be as indestructible as the sands of the Ganges.<sup>100</sup> While these passages could at a pinch be interpreted in terms of some kind of "cosmic body," "body of

*dharmas*" is a perfectly adequate rendition in all cases, and a better one in most.

There are, however, a number of passages where buddhology seems to be the issue. At LA 58.11-14, for example, the bodily identity ( $k\bar{a}ya$ -samat $\bar{a}$ ) of all Tath $\bar{a}gatas$  is explained in terms of the sameness of both the dharma- $k\bar{a}ya$  and the  $r\bar{u}pa$ -laksa $n\bar{a}nuvyan\bar{n}jana-k\bar{a}ya$ , except when Tath $\bar{a}gatas$  assume different forms to convert beings.<sup>101</sup> This passage is a definite echo of LAn v. 79 (see above), even though dharma- $k\bar{a}ya$  is a substantive here; we noted the same idea in the DKP, the Up $\bar{a}ya$ -kausálya-s $\bar{u}tra$  and the Kosá.<sup>102</sup> As Suzuki points out (1930: 318), this passage certainly implies all three bodies, but dharma- $k\bar{a}ya$  here may still be interpreted along the lines already established. A more puzzling passage occurs at LA 78.6-8:

kim tu mahāmate manomaya-dharma-kāyasya tathāgatasyaitad adhivacanam yatra sarva-tirthakara-śrāvaka-pratyekabuddha-sapta-bhūmipratisthitānām ca bodhisattvānām avişayah / so 'nutpādas tathāgatasya [/] etan mahāmate paryāya-vacanam.

Although the faulty punctuation is easily remedied, the compound *manomaya-dharma-kāyasya* is potentially troublesome, given that there is such a thing as the *manomaya-kāya*. However, if we take it as a *bahuvrīhi* adjective qualifying *tathāgatasya*, the passage yields the following sense:

"However, Mahāmati, there is a designation for the *Tathāgata*, insofar as he is embodied in the *dharma* which is mind-made [or better: in the *dharmas* which are mind-made], which is beyond the reach of any sectarians, *śrāvakas*, *pratyekabuddhas* or *bodhisattvas* on the [first] seven stages. It is 'non-production.' This, Mahāmati, is a synonym for the *Tathāgata*."<sup>103</sup>

That is to say, the term manomaya-dharma-kāya is probably to be explained as an allusion to the celebrated opening verses of the Dhammapada, which say that all dharmas are, among other things, manomaya or "mind-made."<sup>104</sup> Thus the designation anutpāda, "non-production," applies to the Tathāgata insofar as he is embod-

ied in or identified with the *dharma* or *dharmas*, which are *manomaya* and therefore essentially "unproduced." Non-movement also follows from this, as we saw in the *AsPP*. Of course, the Buddha's physical body is a different matter, since it is corruptible; it is produced and destroyed, which is exactly the message of *LAn* v. 37 (see above).<sup>105</sup> Finally, we encounter the *bahuvrīhi* adjective again at *LA* 104.2-3, in the section prohibiting meat-eating, where we find the words *dharma-kāyā hi mahāmate tathāgatā dharmāhāra-sthitayo*, i.e., "for the *Tathāgatas* have the *dharma* as their body, they are dependent on the *dharma* for their food."<sup>106</sup> The phrase *dharma-kāyās tathāgatā*h is by now an old friend; the adjective *dharmāhāra-sthiti*<sup>107</sup> is reminiscent of another of the Āgama pas-sages studied by Anesaki, *Ekottarāgama* XV (T.125, 623b7): *rulai-shen-zhe yi fa wei shi*, "the *Tathāgata*'s body has the *dharma* as its food."<sup>108</sup>

We must conclude, then, that although the LA may well contain many allusions and references to the Yogācāra Trikāya theory, its use of the term *dharma-kāya* itself does not differ in any significant way from the other *sūtras* we have studied, a fact of which Suzuki himself was aware. Despite this, he was frequently seduced by a somewhat theistic interpretation of the Trikāya doctrine into misconstruing the relevant passages, so that his readers were left thinking that the LA did in fact teach such a thing as the "Dharmakāya which is of sovereign power and beyond conception."<sup>109</sup>

#### IV. General Conclusions

In the context of this paper I cannot survey the full range of *dharma-kāya* references in the scriptural and scholastic literature of the Mahāyāna, but I hope that I have covered enough major works to demonstrate that a case can be made for a different reading of the concept. At least as far as the early and middle Mahāyāna are concerned, there is little in the texts I have studied to suggest a departure from Mainstream interpretations. I see this paper, therefore, as yet another attempt at what I might call the abolition of imaginary discontinuities in Buddhist history. In this case what is

done away with is the prevailing notion that the dharma-kaya is some kind of Buddhist "Godhead" or "Cosmic Body" invented by the followers of the Mahāyāna in the philosophical exuberance of their headlong rush towards theism. Pioneers in the field like Suzuki and Conze can be excused for falling under the spell of this idea, but, as we have seen, even recent writers on the subject of the Trikāya have continued to ignore such basics as Edgerton's observations concerning the use of *dharma-kava* as an adjective in early and middle Mahāvāna sūtras, and have therefore obscured more than one important moment in the development of the concept. Too ready to assimilate all occurrences of the term to a particular understanding of the nominal dharma-kaya of the developed Trikaya theory, they have misconstrued many key passages, thereby collapsing what may have been centuries of gradual doctrinal development, into a single incoherent theoretical position. Further, this incoherency has become enshrined in the standard English translations of key Mahayana sutras, to the extent that it now goes unchallenged by some of the leading lights of Buddhist studies. Nor is it merely that the adjective, even when recognized as such, has been misinterpreted as the noun; the noun has also been misinterpreted. Where dharma-kaya does appear as a substantive, to continue to translate it as "Dharma-body" or "Body of Dharma" may not seem a serious error, but when that term appears in conjunction with the other "bodies" of the Buddha, the temptation is to impute some kind of unitary ontological status to it, and to engage in theological flights of fancy which are unsupported by the texts. Thus metaphor gives way to metaphysics. That  $k\bar{a}ya$  means both "body" in the ordinary sense and "body" in the sense of collection obviously provided Buddhists of both Mainstream and Mahāyāna persuasions with an ambiguity which they found exceedingly useful and suggestive, but one presumes they were always in a position to construe the term  $dharma-k\bar{a}ya$  in a way which did not involve hypostatisation of a non-existent entity, however abstract, even when it occurred alongside other kaya terms which did relate to the material world. Reification of the nonexistent is a cardinal sin as far as Buddhists are concerned. We Buddhist scholars should avoid it too. Since the English expression "the body

of *dharmas*" does not carry the same potential ontological freight as "the Body of *Dharma*" or "the *Dharma*-body," we could do worse than use it from now on, assuming, of course, that we are dealing with the substantive.

All this raises the question: is the "Dharma-body" understood as an actual body of the Buddha purely a figment of the modern Buddhological imagination, or does it go back to the Yogācāras or some other followers of the Mahāyāna at a later point in its history? The study of the texts translated by Lokaksema demonstrates that an actual "Buddha-body" called the dharma-kaya is not attested in the earlier versions, but we have also seen that even in their later forms many sūtras did not move very far (if at all) beyond a position which was also acceptable to at least some of the Mainstream schools, and were a long way from postulating the "cosmic body" or "absolute principle" which we have come almost automatically to identify with the dharma-kaya. For we must remember in this connection that the Tibetan and Sanskrit versions of the texts referred to in this study date for the most part from a relatively late period; if they show no trace of this idea, it can hardly have been common coin. Would it then be appropriate to suggest that the standard notion of dharma-kāya as a unitary cosmic principle was, in Indian Buddhism at least, exclusively a matter of Yogācāra scholastics, and not one of the staple Mahāyāna doctrines as is commonly supposed? At this point I arrive at the limits of my own competence, but in the light of my findings with respect to the LA, a text rich in Cittamatra elements, I am tempted to ask if even the Yogācāra discussions of the subject, as well as those writings influenced by them, may also need to be reconsidered. I hope therefore that others might be prompted by this paper to re-evaluate dharma-kāya passages in the later sūtra and śāstra literature, in order to see if less "reifying" interpretations make better sense of them, or are at least possible.110

Although my conclusions may well have wider application, they relate in the first instance to the Mainstream and early and middle Mahāyāna understanding of *dharma-kāya*. Let us be clear about the central issue here, since that may well have become obscured by the sheer mass of textual detail which this paper has thrown up. As far as the Buddhists who wrote the texts were concerned, what was important was the identification of the Buddha with the *dharma* or *dharmas*, of the Teacher with the truth which he taught or the principles which he realised, considered either in the abstract, or concretely embodied in scripture. A simple equation perhaps, but with far-reaching consequences, especially for Buddhist cult-practice, in which the cult of relics eventually coalesced with the cult of the book. In light of this we ourselves should always opt for an interpretation which emphasises the *dharma* of *dharma-kāya*, rather than the *kāya*, that is, the *dharma* or *dharmas* by which Buddhahood is truly constituted and in which it finds its expression, and not some ill-defined transcendental "body."<sup>111</sup>

I trust that this paper has in passing illustrated some of the benefits to be derived from a close study of the early Chinese translations.<sup>112</sup> Undoubtedly it illustrates the complexity of such an undertaking, since even the attempt to run a single technical term to ground has led us a merry chase, through and around scores of textual and philosophical difficulties, deep into the four-dimensional labyrinth of Mahāyāna sūtra-literature. We have seen, I hope, that careful linguistic analysis is our equivalent of Ariadne's thread, enabling us to keep our bearings as we move slowly---if not always surely!---towards the clarification of the issues central to our concern. It is not enough to count the occurrences of this or that term in this or that translation: each and every occurrence has to be weighed in the balance, considered in its context. Of course, it is stating the obvious to say that the study of Buddhist ideas should always proceed like this, carefully and on the basis of sound philology, but let us not be too quick to pass judgement on those who in preceding us have lost their way. At this point the labyrinth harboured something particularly deceptive, in a way which is not unusual. It is common knowledge that Buddhist texts, scriptures and treatises alike, often use puns, double meanings, plays on words and fanciful etymologies to get their message across, and that this poses exceptional difficulties for translators and commentators. The beast in this instance not only had the power to appear

in two grammatical forms, but those forms were also cloaked in multiple ambiguities. Even when cornered, it continued to resist its interpreters. In the ensuing struggle the ambiguities and the twin forms perished. Worse still, from their mangled remains arose a ghostly entity which continues to haunt us, insubstantial but yet substantivised (and provided with imposing capitals to boot), the cosmic or absolute *Dharma*-Body of the Buddha—a "body" which is more of a phantom than any of the apparitions ever conjured up by the *Tathāgatas* out of compassion for suffering sentient beings.<sup>113</sup>

### NOTES

1. A preliminary version of this paper was presented at Berkeley and at the 10th Congress of the International Association of Buddhist Studies in Paris in July, 1991. I wish to thank all those friends and colleagues who either heard or read this first draft and made helpful comments on it, in particular Rolf Giebel, Richard Gombrich, Kevin Lee, Jan Nattier, David Seyfort Ruegg, Lambert Schmithausen, Gregory Schopen and Jonathan Silk.

2. See, e.g., Murti 1955: 284-287.

3. See, e.g., Reynolds and Hallisey 1987: 330-331.

4. See, e.g., Murti 1955: 285: "The Dharmakāya is still a Person, and innumerable merits and powers etc. are ascribed to him."

5. See Suzuki 1930: 308-338. Suzuki's discussion of the whole subject has a distinctly "theological" flavour (see especially pp. 308, 310), to which we shall return later.

6. For example, sometimes the *dharma-kāya* is also referred to as the  $sv\bar{a}bh\bar{a}vika-k\bar{a}ya$  or "essential body," sometimes this latter is said to constitute a fourth body. The dispute over this issue is the focus of the article by John Makransky (1989).

7. This article was reprinted with inconsequential changes in Nagao 1991: 103-122. All citations are from this later version.

8. Presumably Nagao means Mainstream Buddhist scriptures here. "Mainstream Buddhism" is the term I employ to refer to non-Mahāyāna Buddhism, in preference to the other terms in current use, none of which is totally satisfactory. "Theravāda" is patently inaccurate and anachronistic, "Hīnayāna" is pejorative and potentially offensive, "Śrāvakayāna" is more subtly pejorative, and also makes it hard to place the Pratyeka-buddhayāna (whatever that was), while "Nikāya" or "Sectarian Buddhism," although neutral, are historically misleading, given the fact that the Mahāyāna was a pan-Buddhist movement running across Nikāya or Vinaya school/ordination lineage boundaries. This means that monks and nuns converted to the Mahāyāna continued to belong also to the Nikāya in which they had been ordained, to uphold its Vinaya, and so on. However, they



remained in the minority, at least in India. The term "Mainstream" reflects this situation.

9. See above, n. 8.

10. Other valuable recent contributions are by Kajiyama (1984/1989) and Williams (1989: 167-184). The lengthy discussion by Dutt (1977: 141-177) cannot be recommended. For an excellent survey of earlier scholarly work on this question and of the Buddhist sources themselves, see de La Vallée Poussin 1929: 762-813.

11. See Lancaster 1968: 92; see also de La Vallée Poussin 1929: 764.

12. For a short survey of these texts see Harrison 1987 and forthcoming.

13. Although a detailed treatment can be found only in Lancaster's unpublished doctoral dissertation (1968), indications of some of his findings appear in Lancaster 1974 & 1975.

14. A sixth passage containing the term *dharma-sarira* (in Chap. III; see Vaidya 1960: 29 and Conze 1975: 105-106) was also studied in Lancaster's dissertation, but was not considered in his published work. Although it seems to have nothing to do with Trikāya theory, it is in certain respects relevant to our subject, as we shall see.

15. References to the Sanskrit are to Vaidya's text, on account of its general availability.

16. A similar rendering of dharma-kāya as a noun is also found in Kajiyama's Japanese translation of the AsPP (Kajiyama 1974: I, 128).

17. Makransky's rendering (p. 66) agrees substantially with Conze's, as does that of Dutt (1977: 175).

18. The same point was made by S. Bagchi in the "Glossary and Critical Notes" appended to Vaidya's edition of the AsPP (p. 576).

19. Bahuvrihis are exocentric possessive compounds. Although their final member is a substantive, they function primarily as adjectives, qualifying other substantives. A bahuvrihi of the form "XY" may be often be translated as "having a Y which is X." Analogues in English are expressions like "two-car family" and "wide-body jet."

20. The four terms mean "having the *dhamma* for a body," "having brahman for a body," "become *dhamma*," "become brahman." Cf. T. W. & C. A. F. Rhys Davids 1921: IV, 81; de La Vallée Poussin 1929: 765; Lamotte 1958: 689; and Takasaki 1987: 64. The translation by de La Vallée Poussin (accepted by Lamotte) seems to me the most accurate: "les Bouddhas ont pour corps le Dharma, le Brahman, sont le Dharma, sont le Brahman" (see also Lamotte 1988: 622). Similarly, the listing for *dhamma-kāya* in this passage in the *Pali Tipițaka Concordance*, s.v., is: "having dh. as body." However, the translation by Demiéville (1930: 176) misleadingly renders *dhamma-kāya* and *brahma-kāya* as substantives, as does the recent translation by Walshe (1987: 409). Reynolds (1977: 379) follows the same tendency, and even Mus, in his lengthy ruminations on this passage (1978: 624-625, 712-717), constantly substantivises the term. These writers, one assumes, have been unduly influenced by Trikāya formulations. The worst offender is Mus, who, largely on the basis of this passage, discerns in the Pāli canon "une doctrine ésotérique du dhammakāya: le Corps du Buddha est fait de la substance transcendante du dharma,

et les Saints ont part à cette substance" (1978: 761).

21. Throughout this study I refrain from capitalising the Sanskrit word *dharma* (Pāli: *dhamma*), since doing so restricts its possible range of meanings. In Sanskrit, which has no capitals in any case, the word is often ambiguous, and this ambiguity ought to be preserved in English.

22. I take *dhamma-kāya* to be that kind of *bahuvrihi* composed of two nouns and termed "appositional possessive" by Whitney (1962: 506), where the form "XY" may be translated "having a Y which is X" or "having X for Y." I can think of no exact analogue in English, but an ersatz example like "snake-hair(ed) woman" as a description of Medusa illustrates how such compounds work; i.e., they can be literal as well as metaphorical in meaning.

23. There is no equivalent of dhamma-kāya in the Chinese translations of the corresponding text in the Dirghāgama; see Demiéville 1930: 176. The pair dhamma-bhūta, brahma-bhūta also occurs at M iii 195.

24. See also Itivuttaka 91 and Milinda-pañha 71 (translated in T.W. Rhys Davids 1890: 110; Horner 1965: 96-97; see also below) for similar statements.

25. See, e.g., the Mahāparinibbāna Sutta (D ii 154). Cf. S i 71, where Gautama observes that although the body succumbs to aging, the dhamma of the good does not (satam ca dhammo na jaram upeti).

26. See, e.g., the equation of the two terms by Dhammapala, cited in Mus 1978: 707.

27. I shall return to the remainder of this passage below. Let us note in passing, however, the crucial ambiguities embedded in this passage. Just as the word *sarira* refers both to the living body and to the physical remains or relics of that body in which its life-force is believed to inhere, so too does "*dharma*" here refer to the law or truth in itself and to the physical objects in which it is concretised, i.e., the written copies of the scriptures. Much depends on this equation of the text with the truth (and thus the power) which it conveys.

28. Note that the correct interpretation of these three passages in the AsPP is also given by Dantinne (1983: 175), who, however, still cites them as evidence for a conception of the dharma-kāya.

29. I adopt the translation "body of *dharma(s)*" to avoid prejudicing the issue, for reasons which will become clear shortly.

30. The original work appeared in 1901; I have used the 1982 reprint of the revised version which appeared in the Collected Works in 1956.

31. The complete translation of the Samyuktägama (T.99) was done by Gunabhadra 435-443 C. E.

32. The translation (T.125) was made by Gautama Sanghadeva during the Eastern Jin Period (317-420). For recent studies on the school affiliation of the Agama literature see Bechert 1985.

33. See T.99, XXIII, 168b16. Cf. Anesaki 1982: 155, especially his citation of the

parallel passage in Divyāvadāna XXVII (pp. 396-397), the first two lines of which run: yat taccharīram vadatām varasya dharmātmano dharma-mayam visuddham (also quoted in de La Vallée Poussin 1929: 766). A further reference in T.99, XXIV, 171c14-16, to the mingjuwei-shen, the "body of words, phrases and syllables," is relevant to our subject too: "The teachings of the Tathāgata are immeasurable and limitless; the body of words, phrases and syllables is also immeasurable and endless." This reflects the Sanskrit terms nāma-, vyañjana-, and pada-kāya (cf. BHSD, s.v. kāya); the peculiar use of the character wei (literally, "flavour") to translate vyañjana presumably relates to its other meaning of "sauce" or "condiment." For the sense of kāya here, see below.

34. I am indebted to Gregory Schopen for bringing this reference to my attention. The school affiliation of the text is undetermined.

35. I refer here to such statements as "The *dharma* taught by the Lord is the body of the Lord" (p. 157: ya eşa dharmo Bhagavatā deśitah etad Bhagavatah śarīram) and "The *dharma* is the body of the Lord" (p. 160: *dharma* eva [or *dharmaś* ca] Bhagavatah śarīram), together with the frequent use of the noun compound *dharma-śar*ira (at one point—p. 157—described as Bhagavatah śarīram pāramārthikam, cf. the AsPP passage cited above). Bahuvrīhis also crop up in the expressions *dharma-śarīras tathāgata* (p. 158) and *dharmakāyāh tathāgatāh* (pp. 158-159), which have the same meaning we saw above: "The Tathāgata(s) is/are *dharma*-bodied." It is to be noted that *dharma-kāya* as a substantive does not make an appearance. Further, athough there are many quotations of Mainstream scriptures, almost all of the above-cited material appears in the commentary appended to them by the author. By my reckoning there is one citation from the Bodhimūla-sūtra which contains the phrase dharmaś ca Bhagavatah śarīram. A parallel text is found in the Vinaya of the Mūlasarvāstivādins; see Lévi 1932: 160, n. 2 and T.1451, 224c-225c.

36. On the ambiguity of the word *sarira* (living body, dead body, physical remains, relic) see above, n. 27.

37. See above, n. 33.

38. See Trenckner's edition (1986: 73): dhamma-kāyena pana kho mahārāja sakkā bhagavā nidassetum, dhammo hi mahārāja bhagavatā desito. On this passage, see also Mus 1978: 708-709; and Horner's own comments (1965: x1-x1i).

39. Trenckner 1986: 71: yo dhammam passati so bhagavantam passati, dhammo hi... bhagavatā desito.

40. Contra Edgerton (BHSD, s.v. dharma-kāya), in his discussion of the parallel to this Vinaya passage in the Divyāvadāna. Note that this parallel has the words upādhyāyānubhāvena, whereas according to Dutt the Gilgit MS omits the word anubhāvena.

41. For further evidence for a Theravādin understanding of the *dhamma-kāya* as "body of the teachings," see Reynolds 1977: 376-377.

42. See de La Vallée Poussin 1929: 766-768, Makransky 1989: 51-52, and Williams 1989: 170-171 for a discussion of this Sarvāstivādin usage.

43. Note that this Sarvāstivādin list does not tally with Mahāyāna enumerations of the 18 exclusive Buddha-dharmas. See Traité, III, pp. 1625-1703, and, for one

Mahāyāna example, Harrison 1990: 169-171.

44. Cf. the understanding of the *dharma-kāya* as consisting of the ten powers, four assurances, four special types of knowledge (*pratisamvid*), the 18 exclusive qualities (here a separate category), and other qualities, as attested by the *Dazhidu-lun* attributed to Nāgārjuna (T.1509, 274a); see *Traité*, IV, pp. 1913-1914, and de La Vallée Poussin 1929: 783-784. This notion is also echoed in Candrakirti's *Tri-sarana-saptati*, pp. 10-11 (see Sorensen 1986: 20-21; I am indebted to Peter Skilling for this reference).

45. See Reynolds 1977: 380.

46. On the various meanings of the word kāya, see Makransky 1989: 63, n. 2, and BHSD, s.v.

47. See T.1510, 584b. Cf. also Ratna-gotra-vibhāga, v. I.145, which distinguishes two aspects of dharma-kāya, one being the utterly pure dharma-dhātu and the other being its "outflow" (nişyanda), the teaching; or, in other words, dharma as realisation (adhigama-dharma) and dharma as teaching (deśanā-dharma); see Takasaki 1966a: 182, 284-285; Ruegg 1969: 275.

48. The alternative is to construe dharma-kāya as a karmadhāraya with the first term being a noun used appositionally or in an adjectival sense, but this is totally unsuited to the Sarvāstivādin scholastic context. In effect I am proposing a single interpretation which will fit all contexts, viz., as a tatpuruşa, the case relationship being genitive plural, as in the compounds deva-senā or mūrkha-satāni (cf. Whitney 1962: 489-490). Of course, the compound dharma-sarīra cannot be understood like this; it is a karmadhāraya, with an appositional relationship between the two terms (i.e. "the body/relic which consists in the dharma(s)"), and is thus different in meaning. This is presumably why, when the author of the Karmavibhangopadeśa wants to talk about this type of "body" or "relic," he uses only dharma-sarīra, and avoids the substantive dharma-kāya, even though he is quite prepared to use both terms interchangeably as bahuvrīhis.

49. I assume that the scriptural quotation ends at this point, as is indicated by the Tibetan version. I have consulted only the Derge edition, Sher phyin Brgyad stong section, Volume Ka; see folio 53b1-2.

50. On the various ways of interpreting prabhāvita, see Conze 1974: 98-99; Conze 1973a: 284; BHSD, s.v. dharma-kāya; and especially the lucid discussion by Schmithausen (1969: 109-111). The word's nuances include "produced," "manifested," "recognised," "characterised," and "distinguished"; Schmithausen proposes the rendering "constituted by" (konstituiert durch) in order to cover most of these senses. See also Ruegg 1969: 347-351 and Takasaki 1966a: 290, 314, & 355 for further examples of the use of prabhāvita.

51. Cf. Conze's translation (p. 118), which is in error in various respects, as has been pointed out by de Jong (1979: 375). This is possibly an echo of the Samyuktāgama passage concerning Ananda quoted above.

52. See, e.g., Lancaster 1968: 93-94, 1975: 36, and Kajiyama 1984: 14.

53. Cf. Kajiyama 1974: II, 286. The Tibetan text (Derge Ka 249b3) suggests that pramāņikrītya is to be taken as a gerundive.

54. It is worth noting that not one of the *dharma-kāya* citations in question is represented in the text of the *Ratna-guna-samcaya-gāthā*, the so-called verse summary of

the AsPP; see Yuyama 1976.

55. For an introduction to this text, see Harrison 1982. A full study of the LAn in its two extant versions is in preparation.

56. The verb sprul pa (= Skt. nir-mā-) is, however, found twice, once in v. 54 (sku lus sprul pa mdzad pa ni), and once in v. 89 (sku lus dag ni sprul mdzad pa). In the first case nirmāņa-kāya could underlie the Tibetan.

57. I take David Seyfort Ruegg's point (personal communication, July, 1991) that one cannot be absolutely sure that the Tibetans have construed bahuvnhis here. Indeed, classical Tibetan lacks the grammatical resources to make a clear distinction between a bahuvrihi and a tatpurusa, unless it separates the two terms of the compound, which it appears to be reluctant to do. If the two terms are kept together there is no way of marking the difference, since even locutions like chos (kyi) sku can or chos (kyi) sku dang Idan pa might render an expression containing dharma-kāya as a noun, such as dharma-kāyasampanna (unattested in Sanskrit as far as I am aware). Hence, while bahuvrihis may be indicated by the use of particles like can (cf. Rucgg 1969: 510), they may also be indicated simply by the predicate *position*, and perhaps by the refusal to translate the plural. This can be seen in the Tibetan text for the dharma-kaya passages of the AsPP discussed above, those in which the Sanskrit clearly has a bahuvrihi (the Tibetan is taken from the Derge edition, Sher phyin Brgyad stong section, Volume Ka). In Chap. IV, Skt. dharma-kāya buddhā bhagavantah = Tib. sangs rgyas bcom Idan 'das mams ni chos kyi sku yin (53b1), in Chap. XVII, Skt. dharma-kāyā buddhā bhagavanta = Tib. sangs rgyas bcom Idan 'das mams chos kyi sku'o (187a6), and in Chap. XXXI, Skt. dharma-kāyās tathāgatāh = Tib. de bzhin gshegs pa ni chos kyi sku'o (277b2).

58. Variant reading in the Tshal pa Kanjurs: rab Idan pas for Idan pas na.

59. Lokaksema uses a number of words to translate Skt. *dharma*; see Harrison 1990: 241. In order to reflect what I take to be his attempt to convey the polyvalency of the term, I adopt the strict rule of rendering his *jing* as "scripture," *fa* as "*dharma*."

60. To say that the Buddhas are the same insofar as they are embodied in the *dharma*, which is always the same, is somewhat different from saying that they are the same because they all possess the same *dharma-kāya*, or body of pure qualities, etc., but there is definitely a connection between the two. The *dharma* as a whole is the same, the ensemble of *dharmas* which constitute it is the same. The second idea appears in the *Abhidharma-kośa-bhāsya*, Chap. VII, v. 34 (Pradhan 1975: 415):

sambhára-dharma-kāyābhyām jagataś cārtha-caryayā /

samatā sarva-buddhānām nāyur-jāti-pramāņataņ //

See also the translation of this verse and the following discussion in de La Vallée Poussin 1971: V, 79ff., and the English translation by Pruden (1990: IV, 1145ff.). Cf. also Mus 1978: 627-628.

61. Here I cannot resist underlining the fact that, even though the early Chinese translations are often dismissed as too crude and imprecise to be of much use to us, in this case Lokaksema has handled a crucial phrase with far greater precision and accuracy than many of his twentieth-century counterparts have contrived to do, with all the resources at their disposal.

62. Cf. TSD, where the equivalent mag gi lus is given for pūti-kāya.

63. See Harrison 1990: 22, n. 42 for the Chinese versions. In the light of the present article this passage in the *PraS* ought to be retranslated, with "Body of *Dharma*" replaced by "body of *dharmas*."

64. Cf. de La Vallée Poussin 1929: 708: "Plusieurs textes...disent que ce corps est commun à tous les Tathāgatas, pénètre tous les Dharmas, est semblable à l'espace, sans marques (animitta), sans causes (asaṃskṛta); qu'il n'est pas Rūpa ou Citta." Cf. also Mus 1978: 686.

65. See KP, Section 125. Cf. Tib.: de de bzhin gshegs pa la chos nyid du yang mi lta na / gzugs kyi skur lta ci smos.

66. A critical edition of the Tibetan translation of this text is in progress. The chapter and section divisions cited refer to this edition, to be published by the International Institute for Buddhist Studies, Tokyo, in 1992.

67. T.625 also indicates that the original had sattva-dhātu rather than the nānadhātu suggested by the Tibetan.

68. The term fa-shen occurs again in Lokaksema's version of 2M (350c16), at a point where Tib. has only chos. Although his version of the latter half of the passage is rather obscure, neither Tib. nor T.625 suggests dharma-k $\bar{a}ya$  here.

69. Note that the Song, Yuan and Ming editions read jingfa (i.e., scripturedharmas) for fa-shen. This may well represent the original wording of Lokaksema's text.

70. T.313 is here accepted as a translation by Lokaksema or members of his school, which may subsequently have been partially revised, with the result that it now possesses various stylistic features which are not characteristic of Lokaksema. Given that the same thing has happened to a number of Lokaksema's works (most notably the *Banzhou sanmei jing*), I now see no reason to reject the traditional attribution entirely. Cf. Harrison 1990: 275, n. 43.

71. However, the WWP, a sūtra for which only the version ascribed to Lokaksema is extant, does contain some interesting episodes where several brahmans who were previously unaware of the superiority of the Buddhist path report the decisive experience of seeing the Buddha with a body endowed with the 32 marks and the minor characteristics (see, e.g., 438a26 et seq.). This suggests that the vision of what we now think of as the sambhoga-kāya was not restricted to advanced bodhisattvas, at least as far as some Buddhists were concerned.

72. See Dantinne 1983: 120.

73. The Tib. text (Derge ed., Dkon brtsegs Kha 18b7-19a2) reads:

sha ra dwa ti'i bu yang bcom ldan 'das de bzhin gshegs pa dgra bcom pa yang dag par rdzogs pa'i sangs rgyas mi 'khrugs pa de sngon byang chub sems dpa'i spyad pa spyod pa na chos ston pa 'am chos nyan pa'i tshe / lan dga' [read 'ga'] yang de'i lus ngal ba 'am sems ngal bar gyur pa med de / de ci'i phyir zhe na / sha ra dwa ti'i bu 'di ltar de bzhin gshegs pa des dang po sems bskyed pa nas bzung ste / byang chub sems dpa'i spyad pa spyod pa na chos kyi sku rab tu bsgoms par gyur pa'i phyir ro // sha ra dwa ti'i bu yang bcom ldan 'das de bzhin gshegs pa dgra bcom pa yang dag par rdzogs pa'i sangs rgyas mi 'khrugs pa de sngon byang chub sems dpa'i spyad pa spyod cing chos nyan pa na 'di snyam du sems te ji ltar bdag da ltar chos 'dod pa de bzhin du bdag bla na med pa yang dag par rdzogs pa'i byang chub mngon par rdzogs par sangs rgyas pa'i sangs rgyas kyi zhing de na sems can mams kyang chos mi 'dod par mi 'gyur zhing chos 'dod par gyur cig snyam mo //.

74. This passage is part of a long section of the text (one of many) omitted in the translation of T.310, No. 6 by Garma C. C. Chang *et al.* (Chang 1983: 320).

75. For proof that this corruption is possible, see BHSD, s.v. Dharmakāma, and Regamey 1938b: 58, n. 11.

76. Cf. Dantinne 1983: 3-4, 38-39. Dantinne postulates two separate recensions of the text, one represented by T.313 and the Tib., the other by T.310.

77. Prabhāvita meaning "distinguished by," etc. See above, n. 50. Presumably this word was construed somewhat differently by Bodhiruci.

78. This corruption may well have been influenced by the phrase dharma-kāyaprabhāvita which occurs, e.g., in Chap. 22 of the SR (this passage is discussed below). It also occurs in the Tathāgata-guhya-sūtra, as quoted in the Šikṣā (Vaidya 1961: 89), where the bodhisattva is said to be dharma-kāya-prabhāvita, i.e., "distinguished by [their possession of] the body of dharmas." It seems highly unlikely that this is the same body which suffering beings see, hear and touch to such good effect, although Bendall and Rouse's translation of the passage would have it so (1971: 157-158). Cf. also Conze 1974: 99. On prabhāvita, see above, n. 50.

79. Note that this interpretation of the passage clashes with Dantinne's Sanskrit "reconstructions" and, indeed, his division of the text into two separate sections. However, I am in agreement with Dantinne's translation of *dharma-kāya* as "l'ensemble des qualités." See also his lengthy note on the term (pp. 175-180), which provides a number of useful references to passages concerning *dharma-kāya*, which he also translates as "corps de qualités."

80. Examples found so far only in the DKP and the AjKV. A close re-reading of Lokaksema's other works may turn up further instances.

81. This is, of course, a perfectly acceptable equation; see, e.g., Takasaki 1966b, Ruegg 1969: 275, King 1991: 13, and above, n. 47. A similar instance of interchangeability in translation is found in the Upāya-kausalya-sūtra, in a passage which echoes a number of themes we have already raised. If we go by the Tibetan text translated from Indic (see Derge, Dkon brtsegs Cha 32a2-6), this passage says that bodhisattvas skilled in the use of creative stratagems (upāya-kusala) who worship one Buddha know that by doing so they worship them all, through reflecting that "the Buddhas and Lords have arisen from one and the same dharma-dhātu, and have one and the same morality, samādhi, wisdom, liberation, knowledge and vision of liberation, cognition and understanding (Tib. sangs rgyas bcom Idan 'das mams ni chos kyi dbyings gcig las nges par byung ba dang / tshul khrims gcig pa dang / ting nge 'dzin gcig pa dang / shes rab gcig pa dang / ye shes gcig pa dang / rig pa gcig pa yin no)." The earliest Chinese translation, that of Dharmarakṣa (T.345, 156b20f.), states that the Buddhas are equal in their dharma-kāya (fa-shen); the second, of Zhu Nanti (T.310, No. 38, 595al8f.) states that "all Tathāgatas share one and the same *dharma-dhātu* and *dharma-kāya* (yiqie rulai tong yi fajie yi fashen)"; while the latest version by Dānapāla (T.346, 166b20) says only that they share one and the same *dharma-dhātu* (fa-xing). In the words which follow, the two older versions also list only the five anāsrava-skandhas, which, as we have already noted, comprise a classic Mainstream definition of *dharma-kāya*.

82. See, e.g., his version of the LAn (T.807), where jingfa-benjie (753b2, 15) and jing-benjie (753b18) correspond to chos kyi dbyings in the Tib. version (vv. 87, 93 & 94).

83. Here we transgress against one of the basic methodological principles of the "Lokaksema Project," viz., to consider only those scriptures known to have been used in a certain place at a certain time, but it is to be hoped that the results achieved will make up for any departure from methodological purity.

84. The Gilgit text reads:

ye mām rūpeņa adrāksur ye mām ghoseņa anvayuh / mithyā-prahāna-prasītā na mām draksyanti te janāh // drastavyo dharmato buddho dharma-kāyas tathāgatah / dharmatā cāpy avijneyā na sā šakyam vijānitum //

85. Dantinne also provides a correct interpretation (1983: 176), as does Nagao (1973b: 62); see also Takasaki (1987: 66). I take avijñeya here to mean "not able to be made the object of sensory consciousness (vijñāna)."

86. Cf. Schopen 1975: 153.

87. A partial parallel in Thera-gatha 469; see Conze 1974: 57.

88. This is the Sanskrit MS of the Vaj, dated to around the end of 5th century, edited by Pargiter in Hoernle 1916: 176-195 (see especially p. 192).

89. The second verse is to be found in all the later Chinese translations of the Vaj, beginning with Bodhiruci's version of 509 (T.236, 756b & 761b). An equivalent also appears in the Khotanese version edited by Sten Konow in Hoernle 1916: 214-288; the verses appear on pp. 270-271; note also the English translation on p. 286: "The Exalted Ones should be viewed as being the Law; their body consists of the Law; he is rightly understood as being the Law, and he is not to be understood by means of expedients." It is to be observed that the relevant passage in Chap. XXXI of the AsPP makes its first appearance in Chinese in Kumārajīva's translation, i.e., early 5th century.

90. See also Reynolds & Hallisey 1987: 331: "According to such texts as the Saddharmapundarika, the dharma-kāya is the true meaning of Buddhahood." While not exactly wrong, this statement is quite misleading in its context.

91. Cf. BHSD, s.v. kāya.

92. Cf. Mus 1978: 678-703. Although he identifies its magnificent central figure as a kind of sambhoga-kāya, Mus contends at length that the entire buddhology of the SP rests ultimately on a notion of dharma-kāya—the relevant chapter of his book is even entitled "Le Dharmakāya du Lotus de la Bonne Loi" —without ever drawing attention to the virtual non-occurrence of the term in the text! The relationship of the buddhology of the SP to dharma-kāya is also considered at length in Lai 1981.

93. References are to Vaidya's edition, 1963.

94. Cf. Suzuki 1930: 317 and 1932: 62: "become a Tathagata endowed with the

perfect freedom of the Dharmakāya, because of his insight into the egolessness of things."

95. In full Suzuki's translation reads: "Now being taken into a super-world which is the realm of no-evil-outflows, they will gather up all the material for the attainment of the Dharmakāya which is of severeign [sic] power and beyond conception." It is small wonder that the LA is thought to be so confused, if this is all non-Sanskritists have to go on.

96. Note the matching verse at the end of the chapter (55.29) which says te buddhadharmākhyam kāyam prāpsyanti māmakam, "they will attain the body of mine which is known as the Buddha-dharmas."

97. Cf. Suzuki 1932: 22, and BHSD, s.v. kāya. A possible alternative interpretation would be to take *dharma-kāya* as a noun based on a *bahuvrihi*: "How can one praise him who has the nature of an illusion or a dream, who has the *dharma* for a body?"

98. Cf. Suzuki 1932: 40.

99. The Sanskrit reads; sarva-śrāvaka-pratyckabuddha-tirthakara-dhyāna-samādhisamāpatti-sukham atikramya tathāgatācintya-vişaya-pracāra-gati-pracāram pañca-dharmasvabhāva-gati-vinivrttam tathāgatam [?] dharma-kāyam prajñā -jñāna-sunibaddha-dharmam māyā-vişayābhinivrttam sarva-buddha-kşetra-tuşita-bhavanāk anişthālayopagam tathāgatakāyam pratilabheran. This is without doubt an extremely difficult passage; cf. Suzuki 1932: 46.

100. Cf. Suzuki 1930: 318-319 & 1932: 200. Note the following comments about the *dharma* being bodiless (94.25-27). This is rather reminiscent of the Agama passages cited above.

101. Skt.: tatra katamā kāya-samatā? yaduta aham ca te ca tathāgatā arhantah samyak-sambuddhā dharma-kāyena ca rūpa-lakṣaṇānuvyañjana-kāyena ca samā nirvišiṣṭā anyatra vaineya-vašam upādāya / tatra tatra sattva-gati-višeṣeṇa tathāgatā rūpa-vaicitryam ādarśayanti. Cf. Suzuki 1932: 123.

102. See above. ns. 60 & 81.

103. Cf. Suzuki 1930: 318 & 1932: 165: "...there is another name for the Tathāgata when his Dharmakāya assumes a will-body. This is what goes beyond the comprehension of the philosophers, Śrāvakas, Pratyekabuddhas, and those Bodhisattvas still abiding in the seventh stage. The unborn, Mahāmati, is synonymous with the Tathāgata."

104. See Carter & Palihawadana 1987: 89-94. My thanks to Richard Gombrich (personal communication, 30/7/91) for suggesting this interpretation.

105. Cf. also de La Vallée Poussin 1929: 704, quoting Madhyamakāvatāra, p. 361.

106. Cf. Suzuki 1932: 219: "The Tathāgata is the Dharmakāya, Mahāmati: he abides in the Dharma as food."

107. Cf. Pāli āhāra-thitika (PTSD, s.v. āhāra, thitika).

108. Cf. Anesaki 1982: 155 (with several similar citations in the Mahāparinirvāņasūtra); also quoted in Demiéville 1930: 177: "Le Corps du Tg. a pour nourriture la Loi." Note the use of the *yi... wei...* construction to render the bahuvrihi.

109. In fact the buddhology of the LA is so chaotic and complex that a full study of it would be a truly Herculcan task. For the purposes of this paper it is enough to show

that its use of *dharma-kāya*, both as an adjective and a noun, can be satisfactorily interpreted along traditional lines.

110. Sallie King's recent book on the "Buddha Nature" is a good example of the "non-reifying" approach, applied *inter alia* to *dharma-kāya* (see King 1991: 65-68, 101ff.).

111. It should be noted that even if my attempt to apply a single grammatical interpretation to the substantive *dharma-kāya* is rejected, and it is read in some contexts as a *karmadhāraya* like *dharma-śarira*, viz., as "the body which is the *dharma*," a "non-reifying" approach emphasizing *dharma* can still be defended.

112. On this see, e.g., Lancaster 1977.

113. As David Seyfort Ruegg has pointed out (personal communication, July, 1991), the evolution of the tathagata-garbha concept also poses problems which are in some respects similar to those outlined above. In both cases semantic and grammatical difficulties compound the philosophical complexity of the issues involved. On this and on the use of tathagata-garbha and related terms as bahuvrihis see Ruegg 1969: 499-516. It may well be, as Ruegg suggests (p. 512), that the occurrence of the term as a bahuvrihi is historically prior to its appearance as a tatpurusa. This raises the possibility that in the case of tathagata-garbha, too, we are faced with many different textual strata, deposited over time by the gradual process of hypostatisation (of something that began life as pure metaphor), but now hopelessly jumbled in heterogeneous sources whose dates we can only guess at. Once again, the matter is further complicated by the ambiguity of the word garbha, which means both "womb" and "embryo." Hence, for example, the statement in the Tathagata-garbha-sutra to the effect sarva-sattvas tathagata-garbhah (cited Ruegg 1969: 510; see also Takasaki 1966a: 196) may be understood as "all sentient beings are Tathagata-wombs" (i.e., contain the Tathagata, a common use of garbha in fine compositi), or as "all sentient beings have the Tathagata as embryo." While these two senses are much the same, and may be read purely as a figure of speech-inside every unenlightened sentient being is a Buddha trying to get out-secondary and possibly later interpretations of tathagata-garbha as a substantive meaning "the embryo of the Tathāgata" entail quite different and much more complex philosophical consequences. But that of course is another story....

#### **ABBREVIATIONS**

Α	Anguttara-Nikāya (Pali Text Society Edition).
AjKV	Ajātašatru-kaukrtya-vinodanā-sūtra.
AkTV	Akșobhya-tathāgatasya-vyūha.
AsPP	Vaidya, P. L., ed., Astasāhasrikā-prajñāpāramitā-sūtra, Darbhanga:
	Mithila Institute, 1960.
BHSD	Edgerton, F., Buddhist Hybrid Sanskrit Dictionary, New Haven:
	Yale University Press, 1953 [Reprinted Delhi: Motilal Banarsi-
	dass, 1970, 1972].
D	Digha-Nikāya (Pali Text Society Edition).

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DKP	Druma-kinnararāja-paripŗcchā-sūtra.		
DXJ	Daoxing jing or Daoxing banruo jing (T.224).		
DZDL	Dazhidu-lun (T.1509).		
HBGR	Hōbōgirin: Dictionnaire encyclopédique du Bouddhisme d'après		
	les sources chinoises et japonaises, Tokyo, 1929.		
JIABS	Journal of the International Association of Buddhist Studies.		
КР	von Staël-Holstein, A., ed., The Kāyapaparivarta, Shanghai:		
	Commercial Press, 1926.		
LA	Vaidya, P. L., ed., Lankāvatāra-sūtra, Darbhanga: Mithila		
	Institute, 1963.		
LAn	Lokānuvartanā-sūtra.		
М	Majjhima-Nikāya (Pali Text Society Edition).		
Р	Peking Edition of the Tibetan Kanjur (Suzuki Daisetz T., ed., The		
	Pcking Edition of the Tibetan Tripitaka, Tokyo-Kyoto: Suzuki		
	Research Foundation, 1955-61).		
PraS	Pratyutpanna-buddha-sammukhävasthita-samādhi-sūtra.		
PTC	Hare, E. M., et al., eds., Pali Tipitaka Concordance, London:		
	Pali Text Society, 1955.		
PTSD	Rhys Davids, T. W. & W. Stede, eds., The Pali Text Society's		
	Pali-English Dictionary, London: Pali Text Society, 1921-25.		
S	Samyutta-Nikāya (Pali Text Society Edition).		
Śikṣā	Vaidya, P. L., ed., <i>Šikṣā-samuccaya</i> , Darbhanga: Mithila		
	Institute, 1961.		
Skt.	Sanskrit.		
SP Vaidya, P. L., ed., Saddharma-pundarika-sūtra, Darb			
	Mithila Institute, 1960.		
SR	Vaidya, P. L., ed., Samādhirāja-sūtra, Darbhanga: Mithila		
	Institute, 1961.		
Т.	Takakusu Junjirõ & Watanabe Kaikyoku, eds., Taishō shinshū		
	daizōkyō, 100 vols., Tokyo: Taishō Issaikyō Kankōkai, 1924-		
	34.		
Tib.	Tibetan.		
Traité	Lamotte, E., Le Traité de la grande vertu de sagesse de		
	Nāgārjuna (Mahāprajñāpāramitāśāstra), 5 vols., Louvain:		
	Institut Orientaliste, 1944-80 [Vols. 1 & 2 reprinted 1966 &		
	1967].		
TSD	Chandra, Lokesh, Tibetan-Sanskrit Dictionary, New Delhi:		
	International Academy of Indian Culture, 1961 [Reprint edition,		
	Tokyo: Rinsen, 1971].		
Vaj	Vajracchedikā-prajñāpāramitā-sūtra.		
WWP	Wenshushili wen pusa-shu jing (T.280).		

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## GLOSSARY OF CHINESE CHARACTERS

Achu-fo guo jing	阿閦仏国経	
Banzhou sanmei jing	般舟三味経	
Daoxing banruo jing	道行般若経	
Dazhidu- lun	大智度論	
Dousha jing	鬼沙経	
fa	法	
fa-jie	法界	
fa-shen	法身	
Fatian	法天	
fa-xing	法性	
fo-fa-zang	仏法蔵	
fo-jing-shen	仏経身	
jing	経	
jin3-benjie	経本界	
jingfa	経法	
jingfa-benjie	経法本界	
jing-zang-shen	経蔵身	
mingjuwei-shen	名句味身	
rulai-shen-zhe yi fa wei shi		
	如来身者以法為食	
rulai shen-zhe zhenfa zhi shen		
	如来身者真法之身	
shen	身	

wei味weili威力Wenshushili wen pusa-shu jing<br/>文殊師利問菩薩暑経yi jingfa ming wei shen以経法名為身yi jingfa wei shen以経法為身yiqie rulai tong yi fajie yi fashen<br/>一切如来同一法界一法身yi... wei...以...為...zhu-fa諸法