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**Buddhist Studies in North America**

Contributions to a panel at the XVth Congress of the International Association of Buddhist Studies, Atlanta, 23–28 June 2008

Guest editor: Charles S. Prebish

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Though a considerable amount of work has been done on early Mahāyāna, one of the questions that has received relatively less attention in Western language sources is why Mahāyānists chose the word *mahāyāna*¹ to begin with. While there is a growing consensus that the term “Mahāyāna” did not refer to a single set of doctrines, practices or propositions, the fact remains that at a certain point in history a set of authors gravitated toward the term “Mahāyāna” (trailing a penumbra of affiliated terms such as śreṣṭhayāna, bodhisattvayāna, tathāgatayāna, agrayāna, ekayāna, etc.) as a kind of brand name for their project. Presumably there was a reason for the choice – or at least some reason why this moniker stuck and others did not. What did the term mean to those who first used it? We have become so accustomed to hearing about the “Great Vehicle,” that few have stopped to consider that there may be something odd about identifying a religion with what is essentially a carriage. In this paper I argue that early Mahāyānists may well have adopted the term from a non-technical usage found in passages from the Jānussonisūtra of the *Samyuktāgama* and the *Mahāparinirvāṇasūtra* of the *Dīrghāgama*. In these contexts, we find the term enmeshed in a

¹ In the following I will capitalize Mahāyāna when referring to the religious movement. I will use the lower case italic mahāyāna when I am simply referring to the word in a non-technical sense.

* An earlier draft of this paper was presented at the IABS Conference in Atlanta, GA. in June of 2008. I would like to thank the numerous scholars who gave me extensive feedback on various drafts, especially Jim Egge, Richard Gombrich, Ronald Davidson, Daniel Boucher, Sing-chen Lydia Chiang, Jan Nattier and Birgit Kellner.
complex metaphorical nexus spanning Buddhist and non-Buddhist literature. This nexus blurs together the Upaniṣadic concept of the “path leading to the gods” with the Vedic metaphor of the sacrifice as chariot and then infuses the whole with some pan-Indic ideas of a great vimāna chariot as a post-mortem reward for meritorious behavior. While these three ideas – the devayāna patha, the yajñā as ratha and the vimāna – may appear to have no obvious connection, I will argue that there was a precedent within non-Mahāyāna Buddhist literature connecting these ideas and that all three are specifically referenced in early Prajñāpāramitā literature.

The term mahāyāna in Mahāyāna literature

The place to begin our discussion of the term mahāyāna should be with the Mahāyānasūtras themselves. While the term may not have been as important at the beginning of the movement as it would become later, and not all texts that we would consider Mahāyānist even use the term, the fact remains that the term is there, scattered among our earliest translations of Mahāyāna texts, its meaning largely taken for granted. Indeed, somewhat surprisingly, there are no Mahāyāna texts that introduce the term as if its audience had never heard it before. In every case, our texts assume that the audience is already familiar with the term and its positive connotations. Since the term would take on great significance later on, it is worthwhile inquiring into its origins and early connotations to ask what early audiences heard in the word mahāyāna. For this we need to look at a relatively early Mahāyāna text that discusses the term itself at some length.

I would like to begin by looking at what has been argued to be the earliest extended discussion of the term mahāyāna, and if not

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2 The term is, for example, notably missing from every Indic manuscript of the Vajracchedikāsūtra.

the earliest at least the earliest discussion in Prajñāpāramitā literature – namely the excursus on the subject found in the first chapter of the Perfection of Wisdom in Eight Thousand Lines. Though this may not be the earliest Mahāyāna text,4 it is nevertheless one of the earliest to provide us with an etymology (if not an etiology) of the term itself. If we look at the earliest Chinese translation of the first chapter, we find the Venerable Pūrṇa asking, “What is the reason for saying that bodhisattvas are mahā-saṃnāha-saṃnaddha (armed with the great armor) and are mahāyāna-samprasthita (set out for the Mahāyāna)?”5 After a discussion of what it means to don the great armor, Subhūti asks the following:

Subhūti said to the Buddha, “For what reason does one set out in the Mahāyāna? What is the Mahāyāna? Where should one abide in the yāna? From where should one depart in the yāna? Who will perfect this yāna?

The Buddha said to Subhūti, “[To say] ‘Mahāyāna, Mahāyāna’ is not correct. It cannot be delimited.”

[428a] Subhūti asked the Buddha, “I wish to know where the yāna comes from. From the triple world… it goes forth. It spontaneously abides in omniscience, and nothing comes forth from it. Nothing will come forth in the future. Why, Deva of Devas?

The Buddha said, “If there are two dharmas of that which actually arises and that which will arise in the future, then both cannot be apprehended. If dharmas are not apprehended then from what dharmas do they come forth?”

In Thirty Years of Buddhist Studies (Oxford: Bruno Cassirer 1968), 124.

4 Indeed, Tilmann Vetter has argued that the Asta was not originally affiliated with the Mahāyāna at all. See esp. his “Once Again on the Origin of Mahāyāna Buddhism,” Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde Südasiens 45 (2001) 59–90.

Subhūti said to the Buddha, “The Mahāyāna is unsurpassed and without equal among the heavenly beings and among the beings below heaven. This yāna is equal to the sky. As the sky covers countless people, so the Mahāyāna covers countless beings. This is why it is called the Mahāyāna. And one cannot see when the Mahāyāna comes, or when it goes, or see its dwelling place. Nor can its center or edges be seen. Nor can it be seen or heard in this [discourse]. It cannot be seen anywhere and it cannot be seen in the triple world. Deva of Devas, this is why it has the name Mahāyāna.”

The Buddha said, “Well done, Subhūti! That is why it is called the Mahāyāna.”

Parallel to this passage we find the following two verses from the Ratnaguṇasamčayagāthā:

Great as a giver, as a thinker, as a power, He mounts upon a vessel (yāna) of the Supreme Jinas. Armed with the great armour he’ll subdue Mara the artful. These are the reasons why ‘Great Beings’ are so called...

What then again is said to be ‘the vehicle of awakening’ [bodhiyāna]? Having mounted it one guides to Nirvāṇa all beings. This vehicle [yāna] is a Great Chariot [mahā-vimāna] like space. Those who attain safety, delight and ease are the most excellent of beings.7

6 Ibid., 46–7. I have chosen to use T. 224 here, but the same points can be made with any of the extant versions of the Aṣṭa. The last paragraph quoted here became the standard formula for Mahāyāna in Prajñāpāramitā literature. It is quoted with some minor variations (and usually introduced with the phrase, “mahāyānam mahāyānam itīdaṃ bhagavann ucyate,” in all versions of the 8000 P.P., as well as all versions of the 25,000 P.P., the 18,000 P.P. and the 100,000 P.P.

Yāna as path/yāna as vehicle

Since my interest in the bulk of this paper lies in the origins and significance of the trope of the spiritual vehicle in Indic thought, I need to digress briefly to address arguments stating that it never was a vehicle in the first place. From the context of the Aṣṭa and the Ratnaguṇasamcāyagāthā, it makes sense to translate mahā-yāna as the “Great (mahā) Vehicle (yāna).” However, Tilmann Vetter,8 has argued for interpreting the second member of the compound, yāna as a “path” or an “approach” rather than a vehicle – an alternative that can be found in every Sanskrit dictionary.9 In this case, yāna would be a synonym for mārga and mahāyāna would mean something like “the great path.” To support his claim that the Aṣṭa was not originally affiliated with the Mahāyāna, he points to the fact that Lokakṣema renders the term as 摩訶衍 móhēyăn and continues to represent the word yāna by the phonemic 衍 yăn rather than translating it. The one time Lokakṣema does appear to translate the term (at the beginning of T. 418) he translates it as 大道 “great way” instead of “great vehicle.”10 Vetter also points to the same rendering in other early Chinese translations such as the anonymous Han dynasty translator of the Kāśyapaparivarta.11 All of this leads Vetter to the conclusion that Lokakṣema and other ear-

8 See Vetter, esp. pp. 62–70.

9 See, for example, Monier Williams who cites a few examples of this usage from the Upaniṣads. Monier-Williams, A Sanskrit-English Dictionary, s.v.

10 For what its worth, the translation 大道 appears quite a number of times in the verse portion of T. 418, which was probably completed by Lokakṣema’s school in 208 CE. [See Paul Harrison, The Pratyutpanna Samādhi Sutra Translated by Lokakṣema (Berkeley: The Numata Center for Buddhist Translation and Research, 1998), 8 and also Jan Nattier, A Guide to the Earliest Chinese Buddhist Translations: Texts from the Eastern Han 東漢 and Three Kingdoms 三國 Periods (Tokyo: Soka University, The International Research Institute for Advanced Buddhology 2008), 81–83].

ly Chinese translators understood *mahāyāna* to be a “great way” and not a “great vehicle.”

Vetter may be correct about Lokakṣema’s understanding of the term in T. 418, but it is not clear to me that we can generalize from this one instance. Transliterating the term in his translation of the *Aṣṭa* did not allow Lokakṣema to avoid interpreting it. In the underlined passage of the *Aṣṭa* translation above, Lokakṣema made a clear choice to interpret the *mahāyāna* as a vehicle. This is because the Sanskrit itself forces the vehicle imagery. The Sanskrit reads as follows:

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anena bhagavan paryāyeṇa mahāyānam idam bodhisattvānām mahā-
sattvānām | naivāsyāgam drṣṭyate, naivāsyā nirgam drṣṭyate, nāpy
asya sthānam saṃvidyate |12
```

In such a manner is the *mahāyāna* of the bodhisattvas, the *mahāsattvas*. Its coming isn’t seen, nor is its going seen, nor is its abiding perceived.

To understand the *yāna* here as a path is untenable, since vehicles come and go while paths do not. The vehicle nature of the *yāna* becomes even clearer in Lokakṣema’s Chinese:

爾故呼摩訶衍摩訶衍者亦不見來時亦不見去時亦不見住處…13

Here, the repetition of the character 時 adds a temporal dimension to the sentence, (“it is not seen *when* it comes, it is not seen *when* it departs…”) that would simply not make sense if he understood the *mahāyāna* to be a path. Thus, we can infer that at least in this translation, Lokakṣema understood *mahāyāna* as a vehicle and not as a path.

Vetter is, of course correct that there were translators in Lokakṣema’s school who rendered *mahāyāna* as *大道*, but if so, they were followed not long after by Kang Senghui and Zhī Qīān in

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13 T. 224, p. 428a9–10. All references to the *Taishō Tripitaka* throughout this paper are from the CBETA version.
the first half of the third century who habitually render it with 大乘, “great chariot.” If anything, I prefer to interpret Lokakṣema’s consistent transliteration as Eric Frondsal does, as simply an indication that Lokakṣema understood his audience to be already familiar not only with the foreign term mahāyāna as a compound\textsuperscript{14} but also with the foreign term yāna as a well established technical term.

In the end, it is difficult to know what to make out of the Chinese translators’ choices. On the one hand, it should be remembered that the term Great Dao (大道) was certainly a religiously weighted term in Chinese culture at the time these translators were working and may have been chosen for reasons other than technical precision. Finally, some translators are inconsistent in how they translate yāna. Kumārajīva’s Lotus sūtra translation, for example, may render Buddha-yāna as 佛道\textsuperscript{15} while still rendering mahāyāna itself either as 大車\textsuperscript{16} (Great Cart) or as 大乘 (Great Chariot). Indeed, he makes a clear distinction between yāna and path in his translation of the Dazhīdulun (T. 1509) when he translates an unnamed source as saying, “The Buddha’s omniscience serves as a great vehicle (travelling) the Noble Eightfold Path that leads into nirvāṇa.”\textsuperscript{17}

\textsuperscript{14} See Frondsal, 48.


\textsuperscript{16} Ibid, 69.

\textsuperscript{17} T. 1509, p.72a14: 佛一切智為大車 八正道行入涅槃. Another theory has been proposed by Karashima Seishi, who argues that we frequently find the word jñāna in Central Asian manuscripts of the Lotus sūtra in places where much later Nepalese Sanskrit manuscripts have the word yāna. He argues that the word mahāyāna may be an incorrect back-formation resulting from an attempt to Sanskritize a Prakrit form of “mahā-jñāna” (Great Knowledge). [See Karashima, Seishi, “Hokekyō ni okeru jō (yāna) to chie (jñāna) – daijō bukkyō ni okeru yāna no gainen no kigen ni tsuite.” In: Taga Ryūgen (ed.), Hokekyō no juyō to tenkai (Kyoto: 1993): 137–97.] Karashima’s argument delves into considerable detail regarding the manuscripts of the
Nevertheless, if we look at non-technical uses of the word yāna in Pali and in the Sanskrit Epics, the meaning of “vehicle” is by far the most common. Thus, while the term yāna may admit some ambiguity such that it may have even been possible for some native speakers to be confused as to its intended connotation depending on context, there are specific contexts in Mahāyāna literature that force us to understand the yāna as a vehicle not as a path. The mahāyāna of the bodhisattva in the Aṣṭa is that which will depart (niryāsyati) from the triple world – niryāsyati here functioning as an etymological play on words with yāna.\(^\text{18}\) Though it is of an uncertain date, this vehicular nature of the Mahāyāna is even further

*Lotus sūtra* and this is not the place for a full critique of his argument. As much as his hypothesis may apply to the *Lotus sūtra*, however, I have three main concerns as to whether his hypothesis applies to Mahāyānasūtras more broadly:

1) Since, presumably, the earliest Mahāyānists aspired to become Buddhas, we would expect to find the Buddha lauded as one with Great Knowledge in some authoritative non-Mahāyāna text. Mahāyānists could then tap into the legitimacy of the already established text through the adoption of the term. I have not been able to find the term mahājñāna applied to the Buddha in early biographies, though it does appear in later sources.

2) Barring (1), we should at least expect to find the Buddha’s enlightenment experience to be described as a special kind of jñāna, preferably a mahā-jñāna, in some other authoritative non-Mahāyāna text (preferably in an abhidharma treatise if not in one of the biographies of the Buddha). Again, this appears to be the case only in much later texts.

3) Finally, in the absence of (1) and (2), at the very least we should expect to find some Mahāyāna text to make a big deal about jñāna, preferably about mahājñāna. If the term had been so foundational to the early Mahāyāna movement, we should expect to find residual evidence of this fact in existing Mahāyāna texts. Though the term mahājñāna does appear in some early Mahāyāna texts its significance is certainly eclipsed by other terms like prajñāpāramitā.

\(^{18}\) Vaidya, *Aṣṭa*. 12, line 5ff.
amplified in the *Ratnaguṇasamcayagaṭha*, which associates the yāna with the term vimāna.¹⁹

**Mahāyāna as vehicle**

What kind of vehicle is it? Like many Mahāyāna texts, the *Aṣṭa* describes the bodhisattva mahāsattva as one who is armed in the great armor and set out on the great vehicle. The juxtaposition of these two ideas, whether intentional or not, gives the overall impression of going into battle. The martial imagery also becomes amplified in the *Ratnaguṇasamcayagaṭhā*, which states that the one so mounted and armed will subdue Māra, and that the Mahā-yāna is a mahā-vimāna. It adds that this war chariot belongs to the “Supreme jinas,” meaning of course the Buddhas, but amid the extended war metaphor, we might be forgiven for translating Jina as “conqueror” here. In this regard, it is perhaps not insignificant that, outside of the Buddhist context, the word mahāsattva is often used to refer to the heroes in the *Mahābhārata*, who do battle mounted on yānas of their own. On the other hand, when the *Ratnaguṇasamcayagaṭhā* presents the Great Vehicle as a “great vimāna,” it is alluding to the celestial mansions that took the shape of vehicles driven by gods

¹⁹ The term vimāna can, of course, mean quite a few things. It can be an estate or a palace, but the more common meaning is as a kind of flying vehicle (such as Rāvana’s puspavimāna). But to say, as the *Ratnaguṇasamcayagaṭhā* does, that the mahāyāna is a mahāvimāna constrains the semantic possibilities of both words to mean “vehicle.”
and siddhas in Buddhist, Jain and Brahmanical literature. This would explain its size and why in both texts the yāna is a great one that is vast like space.

What are the origins of vehicles as a spiritual metaphor in the South Asian context? Such a metaphoric use of the word yāna is rare in the Vedas, and non-existent in the Upaniṣads and the Epics. Similarly, there are no such references in Abhidharma texts prior to the Mahāvibhāṣā (which for its part seems to take the idea of “the three vehicles” for granted). Where did the ‘vehicle’ rheto-

20 The Pali canon devotes an entire work to vimānas, namely the Vimāna- vatthu [see Peter Masefield, Vimāna Stories (London: Wisdom Publications 1989)]. Though a similar collection does not appear to have been employed by other sects, there are enough references to vimānas in avadāna literature to suggest that the idea of vimānas was probably fairly widespread at the beginning of the Common Era.

21 Umāsvāti’s Tattvārthasūtra, 4.16 (SS 4.17) mentions that the fourth class of gods (the vaimānika gods) ride vimānas, though they are not the only ones to do so. Umāsvāti, Tattvārtha Sūtra: That Which Is, Nathmal Tatia, trans. (San Francisco: Harper Collins 1994), 104.

22 See MBh 13.110 (= section 107 in Ganguli’s translation).

23 I have only been able to locate two instances in the Vedas where the yāna in devayāna could be read as “vehicle.” At Rgveda 10.51.2, Agni’s fire sticks are said to be devayānī in which Mitra and Varuṇa reside. Again, at Rgveda 10.181.3 the Yajus is said to be the first devayāna to have fallen. In both cases, reading yāna as “path” is also possible, but reading it in the sense of “leading to” is a bit more awkward. There may be other examples, but in the vast majority of cases (and always in the Spaniards) devayāna modifies some other word, usually patha, pantha or adhvan.

24 See, e.g., T. 1547, p. 445c11ff. and T. 1545, 735b–c. The latter is translated by Fa Qing in her dissertation: The Development of Prajñā in Buddhism from Early Buddhism to the Prajñāpāramitā System: With Special Reference to the Sarvāstivāda Tradition (Ph.D. diss., University of Calgary, 2001), 87–88. Coincidently, the idea that arhants, pratyekabuddhas and buddhas constitute three separate spiritual attainments shows up in the archaeological record in a Gandhāran inscription dating from 55 CE; see Sten Konow, “A new Charsadda inscription.” In: D. R. Bhandarkar Volume, ed. Bimala Churn
ric that culminates in the term *mahāyāna* come from and what was its significance for those who adopted it?

The most likely hypothesis, and the one that I wish to expand on here, was first suggested by Surendranath Dasgupta in 1932 and expanded upon by Richard Gombrich sixty years later. The hypothesis is that the term *mahāyāna* is somehow derived from the *devayāna patha* and *pitṛyāna patha* of the *Bṛhadāraṇyaka- and Chandogyopaniṣad*. The idea of the two paths is in fact much older – appearing already in the *Atharvaveda* – but the point is still a valid one. The gist of Gombrich’s argument is that there is one text in the Pali Canon, the *Jānussoṇisutta* of the *Samyutta Nikāya*, that “puns” on the Upaniṣadic idea of ‘*yāna’* (which he argues should otherwise be taken as “way” rather than “vehicle”) to read it as a chariot, and that passages such as the above passage from the *Aṣṭa* merely extend the punning that was already in the canon. Let me state from the outset that I think that both Gombrich and Dasgupta are correct, but that they are correct in ways that perhaps neither anticipated.

I would like to begin with the Upaniṣadic passages to which Dasgupta and Gombrich refer because the Buddhist appropriation

Law (Calcutta: Indian Research Institute 1940), 305–10. This is certainly close to the time period of the *Mahāvibhaṣā*. Note however, that the inscription itself does not refer to the three attainments as “vehicles.”

25 Surendranath Dasgupta, *History of Indian Philosophy*, vol. I (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass 1975), 125, note 2: “The word *Yāna* is generally translated as vehicle, but a consideration of numerous contexts in which the word occurs seems to suggest that it means career or course or way, rather than vehicle.…. The word *Yāna* is as old as the Upaniṣads where we read of *Devayāna* and *Pitṛyāna*. There is no reason why this word should be taken in a different sense.”


27 See *Atharvaveda* 6.117.3 and 12.2.10.
of the concept of the *devayāna patha* is not always as direct as it might seem. In the *Brhadāraṇyakopanishad* we find the statement: “For we have heard even the saying of the seer: I have heard of two paths for men, the one that leads to fathers and the one that leads to the gods. By these two all that lives moves on, whatever there is between father (heaven) and mother (earth).”\(^{28}\) Gombrich states that this may be one of the earliest articulations in India of a post-mortem soteriology.\(^{29}\) Whether it is the earliest or not, it is certainly an articulation that held great authority in subsequent Indian thought. Authority, however, does not mean consensus. It appears that there were differing interpretations of these paths among Upaniṣadic authors. The *Kauṣītakī Brāhmaṇopaniṣad* for instance depicts the *devayāna pantha* as leading up through successively higher tiers of gods until the ultimate world of Brahmā (*brahmaloka*) is achieved in which one may converse with a thoroughly anthropomorphic Brahmā.\(^{30}\) On the other hand, the *Brhadāraṇyakopanishad* depicts the *devayāna* as the path leading ultimately to the *brahmaloka* where its traveler, “…becomes (transparent) like water, one, the seer without duality. This is the world of Brahmā.”\(^{31}\)

Radhakrishnan translates *yāna* in this passage in the sense of “leading to” instead of as the object of the verb itself. Indeed, in the Vedic context starting from the *Ṛgveda* onward *devayāna* is usually used as a *bahuviṃhi* compound modifying something else, usually *patha*, *pantha* or *adhvan*. In these contexts, *yāna* is read in the sense of “leading to the gods.” Reading it as a genitive *tatpuruṣa* in the sense of path of the gods is also possible (something like “the path that is the way to the gods”) but a “*path* that is a *vehicle*

\(^{28}\) *Brh.* 6.2.2; S. Radhakrishnan, *The Principal Upaniṣads* (Delhi: Indus Publications 1994), 310. See also *Chāndogya* 5.3.2 and (later) *Muṇḍ* 3.1.6.

\(^{29}\) Gombrich, 36.

\(^{30}\) *Kauṣ.* 1.5–7. Radhakrishnan, 758–60.

\(^{31}\) Radhakrishnan, 266: “*Salila eko draṣṭa-ādvaito bhavati, eṣa brahma-lakah.*”
of the gods” is awkward (how can a path be a vehicle?), and I can find no early text that continues the discussion as if the devayāna is a vehicle.

It is well known that Buddhists so thoroughly appropriated the idea of the brahmaloka, that few Buddhist texts make mention of it in its non-Buddhist context. Unlike the brahmaloka, appropriation of the devayāna by which one arrives at the brahmaloka is much less pronounced and always retains something of its non-Buddhist flavor. Nevertheless, the few examples in which the term appears in the Pali Canon seem to represent a progressive distancing of Buddhist interests away from this Vedic norm. Still, the lingering authority of this idea even for Buddhists is attested by the fact that no early Buddhist text simply rejects the idea outright.

Perhaps the earliest Buddhist reference to the devayāna is found in the Sutta Nipāta. In a discourse in which the Buddha argues with a Brahmin that caste is no obstacle to spiritual progress, the Buddha reminds the Brahmin of the untouchable named Mātaṅga who was revered by Brahmins and Kṣatriyas alike. According to the sutta, Mātaṅga:

… set out on the unpolluted great way which leads to the devas, (and) having discarded passion and sensual pleasures he reached the world of Brahmā. Birth did not keep him from being born in the world of Brahmā.32

This sutta references an explicitly Vedic idea (the devayāna mahā-patha) to argue that the one who follows Buddhist morality is the real Brahmin. It denigrates neither the Vedic Hindu goal of the devayāna patha nor the brahmaloka but simply says that it is the Buddhist practitioner who really achieves that goal.

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32 K.R. Norman, 16; SN verse 139 (= PTS p. 24): devayāṇaṃ abhiruyha, virajaṃ so mahāpathaṃ; kāmarāgaṃ virājetvā, brahmalokūpago ahu; na naṃ jāti nivāresi, brahmalokūpapattiya. Throughout the article, I have used the CSCD CD-ROM version of the Pali Canon, except where noted.
When the term appears again in the *Kevaddhasutta* of the *Dīgha Nikāya* the stance is more critical. There, the Buddha tells of a monk who “attained to such a state of mental concentration that the way to the deva-realms (*devayāniyo maggo*) appeared before him.”33 He then proceeds to pose a question to the gods of successively higher heavens, but receives no answer. Then in a separate concentration, the path leading to Brahmā (*brahmayāniyo maggo*) appears to him. That this text divides the path into two suggests a shared worldview with early *abhidharma* which relegates all heavens below that of Brahmā’s retinue to the *devaloka*, which is accessible via the “8 skillful states of mind motivated by non-attachment, friendliness and wisdom (*kusala-citta*)”34 By contrast, the heavens from Brahmā’s retinue upward are only accessible via the *dhyānas*. The two concentrations employed by the monk are surely to be understood as proper Buddhist fare, and yet the fact that none of the gods encountered along either path can answer the monk’s question displays a kind of parodic critique of the system’s Vedic parentage.

In neither of these references to the *devayāna* can the *yāna* be reasonably read as “vehicle.” This way of reading the compound only occurs late in the Pali Canon. The only canonical reference to the *devayāna* that can be interpreted as a “vehicle of the gods” can be found in a passage from the *Apadāna*. There an untouchable gives a couch (*mañca*) to the Buddha Anomadassī. As a result of that gift, the Buddha predicts that whether he be reborn among the gods or among men, he will attain (*paṭilabhissati*) a *yāna* in his future birth that will be the “counterpart (*paṭibhāga*)

33 Walshe, *The Long Discourses*, 177. DN I 215: *Atha kho so, kevaṭṭa, bhikkhu tathārūpaṃ samādhiṃ samāpajji, yathāsamāhite citte devayāniyo maggo pāturahosi*. The passage is virtually identical to that of the *Dīrghāgama* at T. 1, p. 102a26ff.

of the *devayāna*.”35 This passage seems to be blurring the idea of the *devayāna* as that which leads to a post mortem reward with the pan-Indian idea of a magnificent *vimāna*, or “estate,” as the fruit of meritorious activity.

We find a similar idea in the *Milindapañha*, albeit in one of the sections generally considered to be late. Here again context requires us to read *devayāna* as “vehicle of the gods” and, as in the *Apadāna*, the vehicle is explicitly said to be result of meritorious giving.

Suppose, O king, there were some virtuous Samana or Brahman, of high character, and he were paralysed, or a cripple, or suffering from some disease or other, and some man desirous of merit were to have him put into a carriage, and taken to the place he wished to go to. Would happiness accrue to that man by reason thereof, would that be an act leading to rebirth in states of bliss?

Yes, Sir. What can be said (to the contrary)? That man would thereby acquire a trained elephant, or a riding horse, or a bullock-carriage, on land a land-vehicle and on water a water-vehicle, in heaven a vehicle of the gods (*devesu devayānam*) and on earth one that men could use, – from birth to birth there would accrue to him that which in each would be appropriate and fit, – and joys appropriate would come to him, and he would pass from state to state of bliss, and by the efficacy of that act mounting on the vehicle of *iddhi* he would arrive at the longed-for goal, the city of Nirvāṇa itself.36

It is only in this passage that there appears to be no reference to Brahmanical practice, though even here it is the “*iddhiyāna*” that takes him to nirvāṇa and not the *devayāna*. Regardless, we have in this text and in the *Apadāna*, the idea of a spiritual vehicle (a *devayāna* or an *iddhiyāna*) as a postmortem reward for meritorious behavior – just like a *vimāna*. That *yāna* as practice might

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35 *Apadāna*, vol. 2. p. 147: *devaloke manusse vā, nibbattissati puñnavā; devayāna-paṭibhāgam, yānam paṭilabhissati.*

blend with the idea of yāna as vimāna is not as far fetched as it might seem. Though not all vimānas are vehicles, some certainly are. More important for our purposes, size figures into some of these reward vimānas – some of which are explicitly said to be either mahā-rathas or mahad-yānas. One such vimāna in the Vimānavatthu is said to be a mahārāthu measuring forty leagues on each side and one in the Mahābhārata is referred to once as a “mahad yāna.”

Further, as Jim Egge points out, most Buddhist texts discuss the vimāna as a reward for meritorious giving, although this is not always the case. The fact that some in the Vimānavatthu receive their vimāṇa in the brahmaloka suggests that one could merit a vimāṇa from the practice of meditation as well, since rebirth in the brahmaloka can only occur through meditation. For its part, the Mahābhārata passage referred to above offers different levels of austerities as an explicit alternative to expensive sacrifices. Each successive level of austerity results in a grander vimāna – thus not necessarily being the results of meritorious giving. Certainly the activities that lead to the awarding of a vimāṇa – dāna and prajñā –

37 MBh: 13, 110, 44; Vimānavatthu, 92. Most scholars consider MBh chapters 12 & 13 to be later additions to the Mahābhārata. While I have no intention of getting into that debate, the passage in question does not display any obvious influence from Mahāyāna texts and so should be considered at least to be an independent, even if later, tradition. The connection of the idea of a mahāyāna with the vimāna tradition may help to explain a curious fact pointed out by Vetter (p. 66): “I have further not found the idea of joint travelling in a great vehicle in connection with the word mahāyāna even in the basic texts of the Pure Land tradition, where it might be expected.” It is noteworthy in this regard that the size of the vimānas in this literature is simply to reward past behavior. There is no further discussion of those so rewarded transporting anybody.

38 See James Egge, Religious Giving and the Invention of Karma in Thera-vāda Buddhism (Richmond, U.K.: Curzon Press, 2002), 86–7. For the argument that the brahmaloka is attainable only through meditation, see Visuddhimagga, 415.
are consonant with those stressed in Mahāyānasūtras teaching the bodhisattva path. The idea that one’s spiritual accomplishments will result in the magnificence and/or the size of one’s spiritual vehicle may well be behind the Ratnaguṇasamcayagāthā’s reference to the Mahāyāna as a mahāvimāna. Further, this would explain the appearance of the word in early inscriptions and manuscripts. When the word mahāyāna does begin to appear in the archeological record (I am thinking particularly of one of the Niya documents, the Inscription of Amgoka, the Copper Scroll of the son of Opan-da in the Schøyen Collection, and the Huviska fragment), the phrase “one who has mounted the mahāyāna” appears to be a term of prestige. Finally, the only other parallel use of the word

39 As Jan Nattier has argued: “…even in texts like the Ugra that do contain the standard list [of six perfections] it is rare that equal attention is devoted to each. Indeed, most bodhisattvasūtras seem to fall into one of two basic categories: those (like the Ugra) that emphasize dāna, and those (like the sūtras belonging to the “perfection of wisdom” category) that emphasize prajñā.” Nattier, A Few Good Men, 153.


44 For the most part, even its latter day detractors refrain from attacking it using the name Mahāyāna, preferring to refer to the movement by the more pejorative designations of “Śūnyavādin” (advocates of emptiness), “Nāstivādin” (advocates of non-existence), or “Khapuspavādin” (advocates of ‘sky-flowers’). A notable exception being a report of an anonymous edi-
yāna is in the context of the “three vehicles” of the śrāvakayāna [meaning the attainment of the arhat], pratyekabuddhayāna, and buddhayāna. At least one discussion contrasting the three vehicles in the Mahāvibhāṣā makes it clear that the three yānas refer to the end results of practice, not to the paths leading to those results. Given the echoes of vimānas, we might understand mounting the mahāyāna to be less about getting somewhere than as a mark of prestige and power awarded for prior spiritual accomplishment.

**Great vehicles in the Sūtra Piṭaka**

*The Jāṇussoṇisutta: yāna as sacrifice*

Indeed, the image of vehicle as a mark of prestige is also very much apparent in the Jāṇussoṇisutta – the sūtra which inspired Gombrich’s study. But even here, I would argue that the Vedic associations seem to linger as well. The Vedic connotations of the devayāna are, in this case, amplified by what appears to be a reference to the Vedic idea of the chariot as a metaphor for the sacrifice. The following is from the translation of Bhikkhu Bodhi:

At Sāvatthī. Then, in the morning, the Venerable Ānanda dressed and, taking bowl and robe, entered Sāvatthī for alms. The Venerable Ānanda saw the Brahmin Jāṇussoṇi departing from Sāvatthī in an all-white chariot drawn by mares. The horses yoked to it were white, the reins, goad, and canopy were white, his turban, clothes, and sandals were white, and he was being fanned by a white chowry. People having seen this, said: “Divine indeed sir is the vehicle! It appears to be a divine vehicle indeed, sir!”


45 See note 24 above.
Ānanda reports all of this to the Buddha and asks if there is anything in Buddhism that would be like this brahmanical vehicle. He asks:

“…Is it possible, venerable sir, to point out a divine vehicle in this Dhamma and Discipline?” …the Blessed One said. “This is a designation for this Noble Eightfold Path: ‘the divine vehicle’ and ‘the vehicle of Dhamma’ and ‘the unsurpassed victory in battle’.”

“Right view, Ānanda, when developed and cultivated, has as its final goal the removal of lust, the removal of hatred, the removal of delusion. Right intention… Right concentration, when developed and cultivated, has as its final goal the removal of lust, the removal of hatred, the removal of delusion.”

“In this way, Ānanda, it may be understood how this is a designation for the Noble Eightfold Path: ‘the divine vehicle’ and ‘the vehicle of Dhamma’ and ‘the unsurpassed victory in battle’…”

[verses:]

Its qualities of faith and wisdom
Are always yoked evenly together.
Shame is its pole, mind its yoke-tie,
Mindfulness the watchful charioteer.
The chariot’s ornament is virtue,
Its axle jhāna, energy its wheels;
Equanimity keeps the burden balanced,
Desirelessness serves as upholstery.
Good will, harmlessness, and seclusion:
These are the chariot’s weaponry,
Forbearance its armour and shield,
As it rolls towards security from bondage.
This divine vehicle unsurpassed
Originates from within oneself.
The wise depart from the world in it,
inevitably winning victory.46

Jānuśsāṇi’s vehicle is initially described as a valavābhīratha, not a yāṇa. It is the crowd of onlookers that use the latter term, praising

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his carriage as being like a divine vehicle (brahmayāna-rūpaṃ). Ānanda, seeing how the people are attracted to this brahmayāna, asks the Buddha to describe what among his dharma and vinaya would be like this vehicle. The prose section has the Buddha saying that it is the Noble Eightfold Path that is “a brahma vehicle, a dharma vehicle and an unsurpassed victory in battle” (‘brahmayānaṃ’ iti pi, ‘dhammayānaṃ’ iti pi, ‘anuttaro saṅgāma vijayo’). The verses, on the other hand, make no reference to the Noble Eightfold Path, but rather portray a seemingly random collection of Buddhist virtues as the unsurpassed brahmayāna. Note that the Pali text does not use the term devayāna. Gombrich nevertheless takes the term brahmayāna as an allusion “to that ‘path to Brahman’ that the text of the Brhadāraṇyakopaniṣad calls the devayāna.” He might be right here, and it is worth noting that the Chinese version of the same sutra does have the Buddha call the vehicle (among other things) both a devayāna (天乘) and a brahmayāna (梵乘). Nevertheless, I think it best to read the brahmayāna here not as a punning reference to the devayāna (or even as a reference to the brahmayāna magga of the Kevaddhasutta) but as a direct reference

47 T. 99, p. 201a1. It is certainly anomalous that this verse would present the devayāna, brahmayāna, mahāyāna and the Noble Eightfold Path as synonymous since most of the later texts in the Canon assign distinct roles to these paths. In addition to the roles of the deva- and brahmayānas discussed above in regard to the Kevaddhasutta, we find a more developed paradigm in the 善臂菩薩 (T. 310 (26)) ascribed to Kumārajīva. It describes two different versions of the three vehicles. In the first version the three vehicles are the devayāna, the brahmayāna and the aryayāna. The devayāna consists of the four dhyānas, the brahmayāna consists of the first three brahmavihāras (karuṇā, maitrī and pramuditā – for the idea that the brahmavihāras were sometimes seen as yānas, see note 57 below). The highest vehicle is the aryayāna which consists of the Noble Eightfold Path. This taxonomy of three vehicles is distinct from the next set of three vehicles consisting of the śrāvakayāna, pratyekabuddhayāna and Mahāyāna. The Jānuṣsoonisūtra, on the other hand gives us no indication that the devayāna, brahmayāna and mahāyāna represent distinct phases of the path, perhaps reflecting a cosmology more like that behind the Sutta Nipāta verse discussed above. My thanks to Jan Nattier for pointing this passage out to me.
to the use of chariots as a literal vehicle for Brahman in the Śrauta sacrifice. We find this in the Gopatha Brahmāṇa’s commentary on the Agnyādheya Śrauta ritual. There the text asserts that the essence (or “rasa”) of Brahman becomes the chariot (ratha) on which the fire is to be carried to the appropriate altar in the agnyādheya rite.48 This is cited as the reason why the chariot (in addition to gold and cows) is to be given to the Brahman priest.49 Indeed, as M. Sparreboom has amply shown, the chariot is not only used as a metaphor for religious and martial prestige50 in Vedic texts, but it is also used as a metaphor (or one could even say metonym) for the sacrifice itself.51 Thus, the connection between Brahman and the chariot should not be surprising – the heart of the sacrifice lies in the chariot that carries the fire. Under this reading, when Ānanda asks the Buddha to point out the Brahma-vehicle in Buddhism his question is tantamount to asking what the core or essence of Buddhism is.

Here we have what is, in the Pali Canon, the use of the yāna metaphor that is closest to its usage in the Perfection of Wisdom in 8,000 Lines. Jānussoṇi’s yāna is a chariot employed as a metaphor for a spiritual essence. Further, just like the Aṣṭa and the Ratnaguṇasamcāyagāthā, the Jānussoṇisutta presents its yāna as alternately a war vehicle and a posh mode of transportation. Yet, since the text falls short of actually using the term mahāyāna itself we would be hard pressed to say that Mahāyānis looked to this text as a precedent for their use of the term mahāyāna. For that we will have to turn to the Chinese translation of the same text.

48 The agnyādheya rite is the status rite required for any who wish to establish the three fires in their household.


51 Ibid. 75–82.
The equivalent sūtra in the Northern tradition is found in the *Samyuktāgama* (T. 99) translated by Guṇabhadra, between 436 and 443 C.E.⁵² Here, we find a number of differences from the Pali, but for our purposes it will suffice to focus on the Buddha’s response to Ānanda’s query:

The Buddha said to Ānanda, “This common vehicle is not my dharma, vinaya nor a divine vehicle. Ānanda, my saddharma and vinaya vehicle is a vehicle of the gods (天乘 presumably “devayāna”), a divine vehicle (婆羅門乘 “brahmayāna”), and a great vehicle (大乘 “mahāyāna”) capable of subduing the army of klesas. Listen carefully, ponder well, and I will explain to you. Ānanda, how is the saddharma and vinaya a vehicle of the gods, a divine vehicle, a great vehicle capable of subduing the army of klesas? It is said to be the Eightfold Noble Path [comprising] Right View, up to Right Concentration. Ānanda this is the so-called vehicle of the true dharma and vinaya, the vehicle of the gods, Brahmā’s vehicle (梵乘), the great vehicle, capable of subduing the army of afflictions. The Blessed one then uttered these verses:

Faith and morality serve as dharma’s yoke,
Shame acts as its tether.
Right mindfulness protects well and serves as a good charioteer. *Upeksā* (捨) and *samādhi* serve as the poles (on either side of the horse).
Wisdom and valor are the wheels.
Detachment and patience are the armor.
Tranquil, like the dharma itself, it moves.
Charging straight ahead without turning.
Forever advancing to the place without sorrow.
The wise gentleman mounts this battle chariot that crushes ignorance and hatred.⁵³

What is important for our purposes is the high probability that there was a Northern Indic version of the *Jānussoṇisūtra* that refers to the

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Noble Eightfold Path as the “mahāyāna.” I do not think there is sufficient reason to argue that what we have here is a “contamination” or an “interpolation” inserted by an overeager Mahāyānist partisan. There is no obvious Mahāyāna agenda anywhere in this text.

Jonathan Silk has argued that the Āgamas in general are contaminated with Mahāyāna material: “The materials to which we are comparing our extant Mahāyāna Buddhist literature may well have been written or revised in light of that very Mahāyāna Buddhist material itself, and vice versa ad infinitum. Even theoretically, there is no way to produce a clean schematic of the relations in question, any more than it would be possible to clarify a mixture in a glass after orange juice had been poured into soda, that mix poured into coffee, then added back into the orange juice, and so on. The contamination is complete, its history irreversible.” (“What, if Anything, Is Mahāyāna Buddhism? Problems of Definitions and Classifications,” Numen 49/4 (2002, 355–405): 397–8.) Dealing with the issue of authenticity and contamination is indeed difficult (see note 56 below) and should not be underestimated. At the end of the day, we can only speak in probabilities concerning the authenticity of any text. However, to claim that the task is impossible is simply to ignore how much can be said about these texts – even if the end result falls somewhat short of “proof.”

Etienne Lamotte, for example, states that the “Mahāyānist interpolations” in the Ekottarāgama are “easily discernible.” History of Indian Buddhism: From the Origins to the Saka Era, Sara Webb-Boin trans. (Louvain: L’Institut Orientaliste de Louvain 1988), 156.

I say “high probability,” since Guṇabhadra’s many other translations were of indisputable Mahāyāna texts, and it is well known that Kumarajīva – a contemporary of Guṇabhadra – may have been a bit overzealous in his translation of terms like agrayāna and śreṣṭhayāna, jyeṣṭadharma and agradharma with the same “大乘” in his translations of the Lotus sūtra (see Frondal, 59–61) and in his translation of the Vajracchedikā [see T. 235, p. 750c13]. More to the point, Jan Nattier has pointed out that Guṇabhadra’s translation of the Samyuktāgama (T. 99) consistently translates the phrase ekāvana maggo with 一乘道 which points to the One Vehicle, a term that ordinarily populates Mahāyāna texts such as the Lotus sūtra, the Śrīmaladeviśūtra, and the Aṅgulimālasūtra. Indeed, she argues that Guṇabhadra’s choice of translation terms in this Āgama text was colored by his translations of Mahāyāna texts that legitimately contained the term ekayāna. Nevertheless, I think it would be hard to argue that Guṇabhadra harbored some covert agenda to slip
Mahāyāna terms into a canonical text, nor does Nattier claim that he was acting in bad faith. At the end of her investigation, she states, “the translation of ekāyana as yisheng dao is simply a mistake. Conditioned by his exposure to the term ekāyana in Mahāyāna texts, and perhaps unfamiliar with the very rare word ekāyana, Guṇabhadra may well have assumed that his source-text was mistaken and amended it to read ekāyana, which he then rendered into Chinese using the by then well established translation of yisheng.” (Jan Nattier, “‘One Vehicle’ (一乘) in the Chinese Āgamas: New Light on an Old Problem in Pāli,” Annual Report of The International Research Institute for Advanced Buddhology at Soka University 10 (March 2007): 197).

Unlike the ekāyana/ekayāna translation mistake, we cannot make sense of the presence of the term 大乘 in Guṇabhadra’s translation of the Jāṇussoṇisutta by a similar appeal to homophony, since we would either have to postulate a term that Guṇabhadra could have misheard as mahāyāna, or would have to explain how the Jāṇussoṇisutta lends itself to some kind of Mahāyānist agenda. There are a number of terms that theoretically could have been confused with mahāyāna, like mahājñāna, mahādhyāna, etc. [For a good discussion of possible homophones, see Daniel Boucher, “Gāndhārī and the Early Chinese Buddhist Translations Reconsidered: The Case of the Saddharmapuṇḍarīkasūtra” Journal of the American Oriental Society 118.4 (1998): esp. pp. 492–3.] Nevertheless, homophonic substitution is constrained by syntagmatic context, and this story is clearly about a chariot. Furthermore, the Pali refers unambiguously to yānas.

Could Guṇabhadra have simply played author here and inserted the terms mahāyāna, devayāna and brahmavāna into his text? Probably not. Marcus Bingenheimer has done a close comparison between the anonymous translation of the Samyuktāgama found in T. 100 with that of Guṇabhadra as well as with Pali parallels where available (Bingenheimer, Marcus. “A Digital Comparative Edition and Translation of the Shorter Chinese Samyukta Āgama (T.100).” http://buddhistinformatics.ddbc.edu.tw/BZA/ [accessed July 14, 2008]). While T. 100 does not include the Jāṇussoṇisūtra, Bingenheimer’s work does tell us a lot about Guṇabhadra’s translation style. In his comparison of extant copies of the Samyukta collections he found that T. 99 and T. 100 were very close, and every time T. 99 differed from the Pali Canon, the difference was also there in T. 100. He noticed no places where Guṇabhadra inserted extraneous material and no instances of obvious Mahāyāna interpolation – assuming, of course, that we take his 一乘 translations simply as mistakes. (Marcus Bingenheimer, personal communication 7/25/08). Finally, Guṇabhadra’s use of the word mahāyāna in this text does not mesh well with
since the Noble Eightfold Path is not a particularly Mahāyāna idea. Nor is there any indication in this text that the term mahāyāna is the most important of the epithets for the Buddhist path. Once the metaphor of spiritual practice as a vehicle was in place, to call the Buddhist yāna a “great yāna” is hardly a surprising development.\textsuperscript{57}

the doctrine of the other Mahāyānist texts he translated. His translation of the ṇussoṇisūtra uses the term 大乘 to describe the Buddha’s dharma itself. It does not distinguish Mahāyāna from any other form of Buddhist doctrine and, moreover, explicitly states that it is the Noble Eightfold Path. It is tempting to see this text identifying mahāyāna with Buddhism itself as a subtle allusion to the doctrine of the One Vehicle found in the Śrīmāladevisūtra and the Aṅgulimālasūtra. Both texts state that the three vehicles are all found in the Great Vehicle and hence the Great Vehicle is the One Vehicle. However, despite an apparent nod at ecumenicity both sūtras are keen to make a firm distinction between Mahāyāna doctrine and that of the śrāvakas and pratyekabuddhas. More to the point, the Aṅgulimālasūtra explicitly states that the śrāvakayāna’s Noble Eightfold Path is not Mahāyāna and the Mahāyāna’s Noble Eightfold Path looks nothing like the one described in the ṇussoṇisūtra. (See esp. T.120, p.532a24–b1). Thus, the term mahāyāna in the ṇussoṇisūtra of T. 99 was probably not inserted by Gunabhadra since it conveys a picture of Mahāyāna that contradicts the other Mahāyāna texts he was interested in. Carrying this argument a bit further, we can also say that the picture of mahāyāna we glean from the ṇussoṇisūtra is unlike that of any other Mahāyāna text of which I am aware. All of this suggests to me that this word was in the text prior to the advent of Mahāyāna, since it would be difficult to imagine someone consciously using an already loaded term in such a contextually naïve way.

\textsuperscript{57} There is one other context in the Pali canon where “yāna” may be interpreted as a spiritual practice. There are quite a number of passages in which the stock phrase “[x] bahulikatā yānikatā vatthukatā…” (x is made great, is made into a yāna, is made into a ground…) occurs. This phrase is used in two contexts. The first occurs in the Mahāparinibbānasutta (and all the texts that reference this conversation), in which the Buddha tells Ānanda, “… whoever has developed the four roads to power (iddhipādā), practiced them frequently, made them his vehicle, made them his base, established them, become familiar with them and properly undertaken them, could undoubtedly live for a century. The Tathāgata has developed these powers…” [Walshe, The Long Discourses, 246; DN II 103].
Nor do we find here any distinction being made between this practice and any other form of Buddhist practice. The only contrast here is between Vedic Hinduism (Jānussoni is a stock Brahmin character in the Tripitaka) and Buddhism. The only available reading of this passage is that Buddhism itself (especially the Eightfold Path) is the Great Vehicle. 58 In other words, we have here a text

The second context is discussions of the “six elements leading to deliverance” (the cha nissaraṇīya dhātuyo), these are referenced quite a number of places as well [e.g. DN III 244–5, AN III 324–6, IV 300, Patisambhidāmagga II 131ff. etc.]. The basic structure of the passages reads as follows:

Six Elements making for deliverance (nissaraṇīya dhātuyo): Here, a monk might say: (a) “I have developed the emancipation of the heart (ceto-vimutti) by loving-kindness (mettā), expanded it, made it a vehicle and a base, established, worked well on it, set it well in train. And yet ill-will still grips my heart.” He should be told: “No! do not say that! Do not misrepresent the Blessed Lord, it is not right to slander him thus, for he would not have said such a thing! Your words are unfounded and impossible. If you develop the emancipation of the heart through loving-kindness, ill-will has no chance to envelop your heart. This emancipation through loving-kindness is the cure for ill-will.” [Walshe, The Long Discourses, 500; DN III 247–8].

This is repeated for each of the six nissaraṇīya dhātuyo, pitting each of the six techniques to achieve cetovimutti (i.e., mettā, karunā, muditā, upekhā, animittā, and aversion [vigata] to the idea of ātman) against each of the respective hindrances to liberation (byāpāda, vihesā, arati, rāga, nimitta-anusāri and vicikicchā-kathankathā-salla). Unfortunately, neither the occurrences of this term in the root texts nor the commentaries thereupon give any indication whether yāna as path or yāna as vehicle is being indicated in this phrase.

58 Vetter points out one more verse in Pali that is similar in imagery. This occurs in the Bhikkhunī Subhā’s verses in the Therigāthā (verse 389 in PTS, verse 391 in CSCD): Sāhaṃ sugatassa sāvikā, maggaṭṭhaṅgikayānayāyīnī; uddhaṭtasallā anāsavā, suṇāgārāgata rāmāmahāṃ. Caroline Rhys-Davids translates this as, “Yea, the disciple am I of the Welcome One; onward the march of me. Riding the Car of the Road that is Eightfold. Drawn are the arrows out of my wounds, and purged is my spirit of drugging Intoxicants. So I am come to haunts that are Empty. There lies my pleasure.” [Caroline Rhys-Davids, Psalms of the Early Buddhists (London: Pali Text Society, 1980), 153]. Regarding this verse, Vetter (p. 64, note 23) makes some interesting observations on this verse: “… the demands of metre and the attempt for tonal
that uses the word Mahāyāna, which does not in fact appear to be what we would call “a mahāyāna text.” Does it pre-date the advent of (what we would call) Mahāyāna? I think that it does, but even if this cannot be established, this sūtra still presents us with a usage of the word mahāyāna that remained quite independent of what we would call Mahāyāna even in the 5th century.

The Mahāparinirvāṇasūtra: yāna across the river

The idea that Buddhism itself is a great vehicle shows up in one other āgamic text. It occurs in the Mahāparinirvāṇasūtra, although again only in Chinese translations. The episode occurs at the point when the Buddha wishes to cross a river outside of Rājagṛha. The earliest translation of this episode into Chinese is ascribed to Zhī Qiān59 sometime in the second quarter of the third century. The passage in question reads as follows:

At that time there was a crowd of people who boarded boats to cross (the river). There were those who boarded small boats, and boarded bamboo rafts and wooden rafts to cross. There were many such travelers. The Buddha sat in samādhi and thought: “In the past when I had not yet become Buddha, I came here repeatedly and boarded these boats more times than I can count. Now that I am emancipated, (I) no longer board them, but I will enable my disciples to be free of them.” When the Buddha awoke, he said the following verses:

The Buddha is the Capitan of the ocean ship. The Dharma Bridge crosses the river. The Great Vehicle is the carriage of the Way.

effect result in maggaṭṭhāṅgikayānayāyīnī expressing, rather awkwardly, the fact that a nun treads the eight-fold way. yāna here is not something with which she has herself transported; rather, she herself effects her movement, i.e., by her practice of an eightfold discipline. This discipline is normally indicated by the word magga, but magga of the relevant compound, its meaning superseded by that of yāna has become only a superfluous qualifier for aṭṭhāṅgikayāna.”

59 For the ascription of this to Zhī Qiān, see Nattier, A Guide to the Earliest Chinese Buddhist Translations, 126–8.
Each delivers gods and men and indeed produces liberation, delivering (those gods and men) to the (other) shore to attain transcendence. They enable my disciples to loosen their bonds and attain nirvāṇa.60

The same verse can also be found in Buddhayaśas’ translation of the Dīrghāgama, completed between 408 and 412, though the prose prelude differs somewhat.61 This pericope of the Mahāparinirvānasūtra plays upon the etymology of the word samsāra. “Samsāra” comes from the root √sr, meaning “to flow.”62 The “flow” of the river itself is samsāra. With the river as samsāra, Buddhism is the “great vehicle” (mahāyāna – here perhaps as a boat instead of a chariot) ferrying men and gods across to the other side. The verse also picks up on another common theme in the Tripiṭaka, namely that the Buddha’s dharma is that which one holds onto in order to cross the “flood” (Pali, ogham).63 Again, as with the

60 T. 6, pl78a24–b3. The verse in Zhī Qiān’s translation appears as:

佛為海船師 法橋渡河津
大乘道之典 一切渡天人
亦為自解脫 度岸得昇仙
都使諸弟子 縛解致泥洹

Buddhayaśas’ translation of the same verse is virtually identical in the first two lines with the exception that he substitutes 輿 for T. 6’s 典. This makes better sense to me in context and I think it is likely that 典 is a copyist’ mistake. I have translated the verse accordingly.

61 There are actually a number of different versions of this scene. Ernst Waldschmidt, in his study of the different versions of the Mahāparinirvānasūtra, gives the greatest attention to Mūlasarvāstivādin sources. Though he summarizes three Chinese versions of this scene, he fails to mention that two of them liken the path to a great vehicle. See Ernst Waldschmidt, Die Überlieferung vom Lebensende des Buddha, first part, groups I–IV (Göttingen: Vandehoeck & Ruprecht 1944), 60–65


63 See, e.g., SN 1069, “Alone (and) without a support, Sakyan’, said the venerable Upāsīva, ‘I am not able to cross over the great flood. One with all-round vision, tell me an object (of meditation), supported by which I may
Saṃyuktāgama passage, the image of a “great vehicle” appears to be quite natural to the setting (it has to be large, after all, to convey both gods and men across) and like the Jāṇussoni passage, does not appear to be forwarding any obviously Mahāyāna agenda. Indeed, this passage may well have been the inspiration for cases such as the Daśabhūmikasūtra in which the Mahāyāna is referred to as the mahāyānapātra (the Great Boat). Thus, to the extent that we can establish that this verse accurately reflects an Indic original we can argue that as early as the first half of the third century (and probably earlier), there was at least one version of the river crossing episode that included a verse in which the Buddha refers to Buddhism itself as a “great vehicle” capable of delivering gods and men across the waters of saṃsāra. Like the Jāṇussoni passage discussed above, the passage in question has nothing to do with Mahāyāna in contradistinction to any other form of Buddhism. Rather it is Buddhism itself that is referred to as “the Great Vehicle.”

Conclusion

At this point, I would like to offer a few observations by way of a conclusion and to suggest fruitful avenues for future inquiry. My argument can be divided into two parts. The first part traces vari-

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65 The issues surrounding the accuracy or authenticity of Zhī Qiān’s translation is much more complicated than that of Guṇabhadra’s, and a number of variables must be taken into consideration. In all, I believe that this verse probably does accurately translate an Indic original, although there is still considerable room for doubt. For a full discussion and arguments for and against, see my, “On the Authenticity of a verse from the Mahāparinirvāṇa Sūtra” (forthcoming).
ous contexts in early Indic literature that had to be in place in order for a term like *mahāyāna* as Great Vehicle to become meaningful. While the term *mahāyāna* does not appear in the Pali Canon proper, the metaphoric complex into which it fits was certainly in place among its later strata. It appears to be an organic outgrowth of specifically Buddhist appropriations of the Upaniṣadic idea of the *devayāna patha* cross-pollinated with Śrauta metaphors of the sacrifice as chariot and more generally Indic ideas of vehicle *vimānas* as a reflection of religious practice. Thus, when the term actually does appear in Chinese translations of the *Dīrgha- and Saṃyuktāgama*, we should not rush to see its presence there as an interpolation or xenotype of a partisan nature but rather consider the possibility that it appears there as a non-technical term, an organic development of elements that were already there. Further, when we find Mahāyāna texts talking about the *mahāyāna*, they may well be referring to a term that was already in vogue among Buddhists who were not in pursuit of the bodhisattva path. On the other hand, the fact that we find this usage in texts translated between the first half of the third and the beginning of the fifth centuries suggests that Buddhists continued to use the term *mahāyāna* in a non-Mahāyāna way even after the proliferation of Mahāyāna texts.

This part of the argument has a few implications for the future study of early Mahāyāna and the origins thereof. For the term *mahāyāna* to be coined as a spiritual metaphor, other ideas on whose authority it draws would have to be in place. The *devayāna patha* of the *Upaniṣads* alone would probably not be sufficient since it is far from clear that early Brahmanic sources “heard” its *yāna* as a vehicle. The literary context most conducive to the use of the term *mahāyāna* in the semantic range that we have come to expect would have to have already normalized the term *devayāna* as a vehicle of the gods. Further, if I am correct that such a technical usage only occurred in the context of discussions of post-mortem *vimānas*, then we should also look for a context in which a corresponding belief in such vehicles was *du jour*. Placing early Mahāyāna in the context of the *Vimānavatthu*, the *Tattvārthasūtra*,
the Śānti Parvan of the Mahābhārata and the later chapters of the Milindapañha, of course, hardly helps us in dating the origins of the movement since it opens up more chronological cans of worms than I care to deal with here. But it is a different tub of worms than scholars of Mahāyāna are used to wading through and so at least presents a change of scenery. Nor would our work be completed even if we could date the invention of the word “Mahāyāna.” It is quite probable that a movement that we can meaningfully call “Mahāyāna” pre-existed the term itself. Nevertheless, the invention of the term does appear to be an important piece of the puzzle since it reflects something of the worldview of those who adopted it and the expectations of (imagined) audiences whom they addressed.

The second part of the paper argues that two passages in the Chinese translation of the Āgamaś contain usages of the term mahāyāna that appear to be a kind of missing link between earlier ideas such as the devayāna patha and the term “Mahāyāna” used as a designation for the bodhisattva path in contradistinction to the Śrāvaka path. Though my argument for the authenticity of its presence in the Āgamas is not unassailable, neither can it be ruled out easily. If the word mahāyāna does occur there – and I have argued that these passages would be rather odd as conscious interpolations by Mahāyānist partisans – its presence would be independent of (and oblivious to) the any kind of partisan form of Mahāyāna. For that reason I see no reason to assume that it post-dates the advent of such a movement. If the term “Mahāyāna” was used in some Buddhist texts in a non-sectarian way independent of (or prior to) its adoption as a moniker by any particular Buddhist group, then we must be open to the possibility that the word mahāyāna evolved within the Āgamas themselves. By the same token, if the word mahāyāna evolved in the Tripiṭaka itself, and (if, as Paul Harrison has argued) our earliest Mahāyāna texts are second genera-

tion texts then the first generation of Mahāyāna texts might not be Mahāyāna texts at all, but rather texts from the Āgamas themselves, put to a different purpose.67

Bibliography


67 This was a suggestion first made by Jan Nattier in regard to the Jātakas, but may apply equally well to a number of other texts in the Sūtra Piṭaka. See Nattier, A Few Good Men, 186.