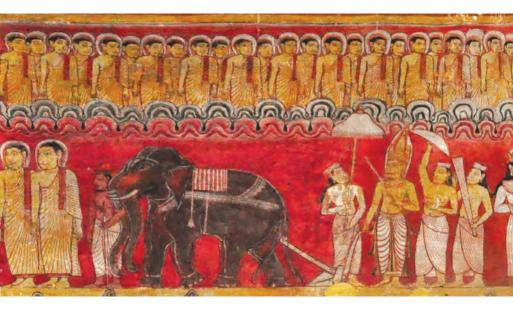
How Theravāda is Theravāda? Exploring Buddhist Identities







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How Theravāda is Theravāda? Exploring Buddhist Identities

Edited by

Peter Skilling Jason A. Carbine Claudio Cicuzza Santi Pakdeekham



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To the ācariyas of the past To the ācariyas of the present To the ācariyas of the future

May the parampara of practices, ideas, and discussion Continue unbroken.

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SOUTH AND SOUTHEAST ASIA

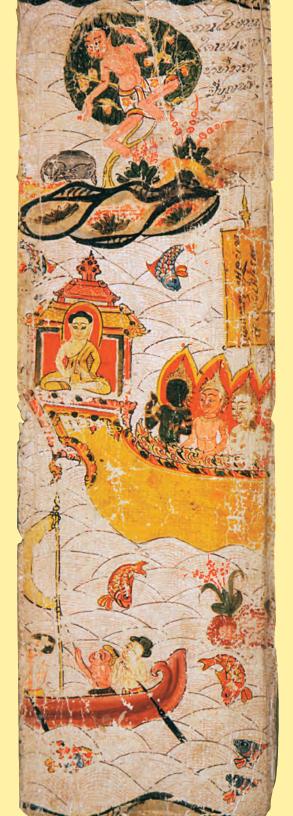


The map is geographically and historically hybrid, juxtaposing place names from different periods. It is a tool to help readers locate places mentioned in the individual chapters and does not pretend to be politically correct. The map is not to be used in local or international disputes.

SOUTH AND SOUTHEAST ASIA



MAP BY PIERRE PICHARD MARCH 2012



1

Was Buddhaghosa a Theravādin? Buddhist Identity in the Pali Commentaries and Chronicles

Rupert Gethin

The EXPRESSION 'THERAVĀDA BUDDHISM' IS USUALLY TAKEN AS REFERRING to a particular branch of Buddhism – a branch of Buddhism that was brought from India to Lańkā¹ in the middle of the third century BCE and thence spread to the lands of South East Asia, and which is found today, flourishing still, in Sri Lanka, Burma, Thailand, Cambodia and Laos.² It is commonplace to contrast this Theravāda branch with 'the other' great branch of Buddhism found both in history and the world today, namely Mahāyāna.³ Any scholar of Buddhism will immediately

¹ Throughout this article I use 'Laṅkā' in preference to 'Sri Lanka', since the latter as the name of a modern state is clearly anachronistic when speaking of pre-modern times, while the former can at least claim to be one of the ancient, general names for the island.

² R.F. Gombrich, Theravāda Buddhism: A Social History from Ancient Benares to Modern Colombo (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1988), p. 3.

³ Taking *Wikipedia* as an indicator of general perceptions, we find the second paragraph of its general article on Buddhism opens with: 'Two major branches of Buddhism are recognized: Theravada ("The School of the Elders") and Mahayana ("The Great Vehicle").' *http://en.wikipedia.org/*

point out that even while having a certain practical usefulness, such a characterization of Buddhism and Buddhist history is simplistic and misleading in a variety of ways. In the first place there is an imbalance of terminology: the term theravāda should strictly refer to one of several ancient monastic ordination lineages,⁴ whereas the term *mahāvāna* refers to a particular orientation in Buddhist practice. Ordination lineages pertain to the specific tradition of the monastic rule (vinava) that an individual monk follows; they do not pertain to whether his goal is to become an arhat or to become a buddha. Continuing in this vein, one might point out that the Buddhist tradition itself speaks of the ancient ordination lineages in terms of eighteen 'schools' ($nik\bar{a}va$); only three of these, however, survive – the Theravadins in Sri Lanka and South East Asia, the Dharmaguptakas in East Asia, and the Mūlasarvāstivādins in Tibet and Mongolia. Yet this is about as far as one can go without becoming ensnared by various problems, which despite the undoubted scholarship that has been devoted to them continue to resist easy solution. The problem in general is that we do not fully understand the nature of the ancient Buddhist schools: their origins, relative chronology and development, their relationship to particular teachers or geographical areas, their relationship to doctrine and practice. The reason for this is simple: the sources are complex and contradictory. In such circumstances it is not difficult to understand why we tend to retreat to the certainties of such categories as 'Theravāda' and 'Mahāyāna'. Yet as soon as we do so we create of Theravada a constant and enduring tradition to which Buddhists, both lay and monastic, in different times and places have belonged and continue to belong; a tradition that is moreover rather more than a simple ordination lineage. Pivotal in such a construction of Theravada

wiki/Buddhism, accessed on 5 March 2010. Kevin Trainor (ed.), *Buddhism: the Illustrated Guide* (London: Duncan Baird, 2001), effectively divides Buddhism along these lines: the section entitled 'Principles and Practice' gives 'an historical overview of the principal schools of Buddhism ... with detailed coverage of the Theravada and Mahayana traditions, including Zen and Vajrayana (Tantra), which are among the best known schools in the West' (p.9).

⁴ In fact, as discussed below, it might be better to use 'Theriya' than 'Theravāda' in this context.

3

is the figure of Buddhaghosa, a monk who probably in the early fifth century CE came from India to reside in the 'Great Monastery' – the Mahāvihāra – in the ancient capital of Laṅkā, Anurādhapura. Buddhaghosa's position as the quintessential Theravādin derives from his authorship of authoritative commentaries to some of the principal works of the Pali canon.⁵ These commentaries and especially his 'monumental' 'Path of Purification' (*Visuddhimagga*), 'a summary compendium of Theravādin doctrine',⁶ are taken as establishing 'a framework for the interpretation of the Tipiṭaka for Theravādins down to the present day'.⁷

Given the problematic nature of the notion of 'Theravāda', it seems appropriate to ask to what extent and in what sense a figure such as Buddhaghosa would have conceived of and identified himself as a specifically 'Theravādin' Buddhist, and pushing the question further back in time, to what extent and in what sense the monks who first brought Buddhism to the island of Lankā would have thought of themselves as belonging to the Theravāda as opposed to some other tradition of Buddhism.

In what follows I want primarily to consider the sense of Buddhist identity as revealed in Pali works composed in Lankā (or in some cases perhaps in Southern India) up to the end of the twelfth century CE, but I shall also make some reference to epigraphical evidence and consider briefly how Buddhists elsewhere might have perceived the

⁵ According to Gv 59,18–30, 68,34 (Norman, *Pāli Literature*, p. 121), Buddhaghosa was author of Vism, Sp, Kkh (= Pātimokkha-a), Sv, Ps, Spk, Mp, Pj I (= Khp-a), Dhp-a, Pj II (= Sn-a), Ja-a, Ap-a, As, Vibh-a, Dhātuk-a, Pugg-a, Kv-a, Yam-a, Patth-a; these commentaries end with a eulogistic 'signature' referring to Buddhaghosa (Sp 1416, Kkh 208, Spk III 308– 09, Mp V 99–100, Dhp-a IV 235–36, Pj I 253, Pj II III 308–09, As 430, Vibh-a 523–24, Ppk-a 367, Vism 712; the PTS editions of Sv and Ps omit this formula, but it is included in B^e and S^e.) However, his authorship of Kkh and the *Khuddaka-nikāya* commentaries is problematic, and I follow von Hinüber in accepting that Buddhaghosa was not the author of the Abhidhamma commentaries; von Hinüber also follows Finot in questioning whether Buddhaghosa was the author of Sp; see von Hinüber, *Handbook of Pāli Literature*, §§ 209, 220, 224, 259, 260, 312.

⁶ Gombrich, *Theravāda Buddhism*, p. 4.

⁷ Trainor, Buddhism: the Illustrated Guide, p. 194.

identity of the Buddhists of Lańkā. Throughout my concern is not so much to reveal the history of Buddhist sectarian development and affiliation that might lie behind the traditions, as to articulate what these traditions reveal about how Buddhists conceived of their own and others' Buddhist identity. Inevitably, though, these two issues impinge upon each other at certain points.

On the basis of the evidence I present I shall attempt to trace the way in which Buddhist identity in Lanka shifted and evolved in stages from something vague and not fully determined into something more definite and precise. I shall suggest that four more or less distinct phases can be distinguished. The earliest phase was marked by an emphasis not on rival Buddhist schools, but on the Buddhism of Lanka as a local branch of a pan-Indian lineage that was connected to the wider Buddhist world of India through the figures of Mahinda and Moggaliputta Tissa. This was followed by a more specific sense of identity which was conscious of the early divisions in the Buddhist Sangha and presented the Lanka lineage as specifically Theriya ('belonging to the Theras') as opposed to Mahāsanghika, with these seen as two broad traditions embracing several schools and which originally came into existence following a division soon after the second council. This sense of being Theriva rather than Mahāsanghika was subsequently consolidated in the specifically Mahāvihāra claim to be the only true Therivas in Lankā. Finally the Theriyas of Lankā came to be regarded both by themselves and others as the representatives par excellence of the ancient Therivas or Sthaviras.

Since the name 'Theravāda' is the one most often used in the modern literature, my starting point is the general use of the term *theravāda* in the Pali commentaries and chronicles (section 1). Having considered this, I shall turn to the indications of Buddhist identity given in the opening and closing verses of the Pali *atthakathās* (section 2). I shall then move on to a detailed examination of the account of the coming of Buddhism to Laṅkā in the *Samantapāsādikā*, which, although apparently postdating the *Dīpavaṃsa*, I suggest represents the oldest and fullest description of what the Buddhism of Laṅkā was taken to be and where it came from; significantly, it contains no account of the division of Buddhism into schools (section 3). Having briefly considered some inscriptional evidence and issues of chronology

(section 4), I shall turn to the earliest Pali sources for the division of Buddhism into schools, the $D\bar{i}pavamsa$ and the commentary to the *Kathāvatthu* (section 5). Finally I consider the perspective of the *Mahāvamsa* (section 6) and some later sources (section 7), before attempting to draw some conclusions (section 8).

1. The terminology: theravāda, theriya and theravādin

Although the term *theravāda* is routinely used in modern literature as the name of the school its usage in the ancient texts turns out to be somewhat problematic. In the Pali canonical texts the term is found in just one context: in the *Majjhima-nikāya* in the first-person account of the *bodhisatta*'s time as a pupil of first Āļāra Kālāma and then Uddaka Rāmaputta. The *bodhisatta* declares his initial mastery of their teaching in the following terms:

As far as mere mouthing of the words, mere repeating of what had been repeated to me was concerned, I declared a *ñāṇavāda* and a *theravāda*; I, along with others, claimed, 'I know, I see.'⁸

While it is clear that *theravāda* cannot be taken here as the name of a *Buddhist* school, it remains unclear how it should be rendered. I.B. Horner, for example, opted for 'I ... spoke the doctrine of knowledge and *the doctrine of the elders*',⁹ while Bhikkhu Ñāṇamoli and Bhikkhu Bodhi chose to follow the lead of the commentary with 'I could speak with knowledge and *assurance*'.¹⁰ What Horner's 'speaking the doctrine

⁸ M I 164 = 165: so kho aham bhikkhave tāvataken' eva oţthapahatamattena lapitalāpanamattena ñānavādañ ca vadāmi theravādañ ca jānāmi passāmī ti ca paţijānāmi ahañ c' eva aññe ca. The account of the bodhisatta's time with Ālāra Kālāma and Uddaka Rāmaputta is repeated in 4 different suttas: the Ariyapariyesana (M I 163–66), the Mahāsaccaka (M I 240), the Bodhirājakumāra (M II 93), and the Sangārava (M II 212); the expression theravāda thus occurs 8 times in the canon, although in the PTS edition of M I and M II it is edited out by abbreviations in all but the first of these 4 suttas.

⁹ Middle Length Sayings, vol. I (London: Pali Text Society, 1954), p. 208.

¹⁰ Middle Length Discourses of the Buddha (Boston: Wisdom, 1995), p. 257.

of the elders' should indicate in this context is not obvious; presumably 'speaking the doctrine of the elders' of \bar{A}] \bar{a} ra's and Uddaka's respective schools, but possibly the phrase is better understood as 'making the declaration of the elders', that is, making the declaration that those established in \bar{A}] \bar{a} ra's and Uddaka's traditions had also previously made. Yet on balance the commentarial explanation of *theravāda* seems to make the better sense: in as much as he had learnt the verbal formulation of their teachings the *bodhisatta* could make 'a declaration of knowledge and a declaration of *certainty*'.¹¹

The interpretation of this passage is not of crucial significance for what I want to argue below, but if *theravāda* here means a 'declaration of certainty' it does suggest that there is no general pre-existing tradition for the expression in the sense of 'the doctrine or tradition of elders' that is somehow inherited and adapted by later Theravāda tradition. The isolated occurrence of the term in the canon counts against this way of looking at the development of the term. It is worth noting that there appear to be no equivalents for *theravāda* or this whole sentence in the Chinese *Madhyama-āgama* parallel to this passage.¹²

The expression *theravāda* in the sense of 'the doctrine or tradition of elders' would seem then to be an expression that, if not coined by the Pali commentarial and exegetical tradition, is certainly characteristic of it. This is underlined by the fact that there appears to be no evidence for a Sanskrit equivalent of the term – whether **sthāviravāda* or **sthaviravāda* – in Sanskrit texts, Chinese or Tibetan translations of Indian texts, or in inscriptions.

¹¹ Ps II 171: 'A ñānavāda is a declaration that one knows. A theravāda is declaration of being certain; 'I am sure of this' is what is meant.' (ñānavādan ti jānāmī ti vādam. theravādan ti thirabhāvavādam; thero aham etthā ti etam vacanam.) There seems to be little problem in taking thera here as equivalent to a Sanskrit *sthera or *sthaira. It is, of course, possible that because of the negative context here the commentary deliberately chooses to avoid an explanation in terms of 'declaration of the elders'.

 $^{^{12}}$ MĀ (= Taishō 26) 204, T I 776b, 8–19. (I am grateful to Lin Qian for checking this parallel.)

Was Buddhaghosa a Theravādin? 7

But what is the extent and usage of the term *theravāda* in the Pali commentaries?¹³ I count thirty-four occurrences of the term in the PTS editions of the *atthakathā* literature. In the majority of instances *theravāda* appears to be used simply and unproblematically to refer to 'the opinion or view of an elder or elders', where the elders are monks of some authority.¹⁴ For example, a discussion (found repeated in three places) of what factors determine the precise constituents of awakening, the path and *jhāna* at the moment of attaining 'the noble path' (*ariya-magga*) sets out the different views (*vāda*) of three groups of elders (*thera*) on this issue, prefacing its comments in the second and third cases with 'in the opinion of the second [group of] elders' (*dutiya-tthera-vāde*) and 'in the opinion of the third [group of] elders' (*tatiya-tthera-vāde*) respectively.¹⁵

¹³ An electronic search of the Chatthasangāyana digital texts finds 213 occurrences in 36 pre-twentieth-century Pali texts. To this we can add 14 occurrences in the *Dipavamsa*, giving a total of 229 occurrences in 37 texts. Grouping the texts roughly in chronological order (canonical, atthakathā, $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$) and type (vinaya, sutta, abhidhamma, other, and vamsa) the statistics are as follows: M (8); Ps (1), Sp (9), Th-a (1), Patis-a (4), As (9), Vibh-a (2), Pp-a (1), Kv-a (7), Vism (2); Sv-pt (12), Sv-nt (5), Sp-t (21), Kkh-t (1), Pāc-y (3), Pālim (4), Pālim-nț (17), Vjb (27), Vmv (18), Spk-pț (6), Mp-t (8), Dhs-mt (6), Pp-mt (3), Kv-mt (2), Dhs-anut (2), Vibh-anut (3), Abhidh-av-nț (11), Abhidh-s-mht (1), Moh (3), Vism-mht (1), Mil-ț (1), Nett-pt (1), Sadd (1); Dīp (14), Mhv (4), Cūļavamsa (2), Thūp (1), Sās (4). Nine of these occurrences relate to *theravāda* in the Majjhima-nikāva passage just discussed (the 8 occurrences in M (see note 8), together with the comment at Ps II 171). Leaving these aside, we have 35 occurrences of the term in the atthakathā literature, and 18 in the earlier vamsa literature (Dīp and Mhv); the other 165 occurrences of the term are in the $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$ and subsequent literature. Two of the atthakathā occurrences concern a Be variant theravādanga for the E^e and S^e therarataranga, as do six of the tīkā occurrences. (I have left out of this reckoning the works of Ledi Sayadaw (1846–1923) and the twentieth-century Visuddhimagga-nidānakathā, which give a further 29 and 37 occurrences respectively.)

¹⁴ This covers 23 occurrences of *theravāda* at Sp I 231 (1), II 300 (1), III 538 (1), Sp IV 737 (1), 890 (1), Th-a 15 (1), Patis-a I 194–95 (2), III 574 (1), As (9), Vibh–a 343 (2), Pp-a 190 (1), Vism 666–67 (2).

¹⁵ As 228–89 = Vism 666–67 = Pațis-a I 194–95; the subcommentaries (Dhsanuț (B^e) 11, Vism-mhț (B^e) II 473) go on to explain that the first follow

The status of these 'views of the elders' is spelt out near the beginning of the *Samantapāsādikā* in a discussion of the sources of authority for one aspiring to mastery of Vinaya. These are in order of decreasing authority: Sutta, accordance with Sutta (*suttānuloma*), the view of the teachers (*ācariyavāda*), and individual opinion (*attano mati*). Significantly, in this hierarchy of authority, the 'view of elders' (*theravāda*) is equated with 'individual opinion' and so comes below the 'view of the teachers' (*ācariyavāda*), that is, of the 500 arahats whose views were understood to have been recorded in the original commentaries and brought to Lankā by Mahinda along with the canon:

'The view of the teachers' (ācariyavāda) refers to the series of expositions of meaning (atthakathā) constituted by the judgements passed down separately from the canonical text and established by the 500 arahats who were the compilers of the Teaching. 'Individual opinion' refers to exposition in a form established by one's own inference, reasoning and good understanding separate from Sutta, the principles of Sutta, and the tradition of the teachers. The entire [body of] opinion of elders (sabbo theravādo) that has come down in the commentaries to the Suttanta. Abhidhamma and Vinava is also called 'individual opinion'. But in adopting an individual opinion one should explain it without holding to it stubbornly and come to a conclusion; the evidence should be explained by considering the meaning of the canonical text and applying the meaning to the canonical text; individual opinion should fit with the view of the teachers: if it fits and agrees with this, it should be accepted; but if it does not fit and agree, it should not be accepted. For it is individual opinion that is certainly weakest of all: the view of the teachers is firmer, but it also should fit with the principles of Sutta; when it fits and agrees with this it should be accepted, otherwise it should not: the principles of Sutta are firmer than the view of the teachers.¹⁶

the opinion of Tipiṭaka-Cūlanāga-tthera, the second of Moravāpīvāsi-Mahādatta-tthera, and the third of Tipiṭaka-Cūlābhaya-tthera.

¹⁶ Sp I 231: ācariyavādo nāma dhammasangāhakehi pañcahi arahantasatehi thapitā pāļivinimuttā okkantavinicchayappavattā atthakathātanti. attanomati nāma sutta-suttānuloma-ācariyavāde muňcitvā anumānena attano anubuddhiyā nayaggāhena upaţthitākārakathanam. api ca suttantābhidhamma-vinayatthakathāsu āgato sabbo pi theravādo attanomati nāma. tam pana attanomatim gahetvā kathentena na daļhaggāham gahetvā

This passage, then, sees the commentaries (*atthakathā*) as containing both an original exposition, that of the earliest 'teachers' (namely the 500 arahats present at the first council), as well as a subsequent body of opinion deriving from various individual elders.¹⁷ The primary usage of the term *theravāda* in the Pali commentaries themselves is to refer to that body of opinion. And since all early Buddhists might wish to cite respected 'elders' as an authority for their traditions of exegesis, it is difficult to read this as a sectarian claim to the particular authority of the Theriya or Theravāda tradition.

A passage found near the beginning of the commentary to the *Theragāthā* explaining the introductory verses has a slightly different take on the 'elders' whose opinions are referred to in the expression *theravāda*. Here the 'views of the elders' (*therānam vādā/theravādā*) appear to be equated with the utterances of the elders whose words are contained in the *Theragāthā* itself. Significantly, these views are contrasted not with the views of some other tradition of Buddhism, but with the views of the followers of religious traditions other than the Buddhist (*aññatitthiyavāda*):

Just as a pack of animals cannot match a lion's roar, much less prevail against it, and on the contrary a lion's roar will prevail against them, so the views of the followers of other religions cannot match the views of the elders, much less prevail against them, and on the contrary the views of the elders will prevail against them.¹⁸

voharitabbam. kāraņam sallakkhetvā atthena pāļim pāļiyā ca attham samsanditvā kathetabbam. attanomati ācariyavāde otāretabbā. sace tattha otarati c' eva sameti ca gahetabbā. sace neva otarati na sameti na gahetabbā. ayañ hi attanomati nāma sabbadubbalā. attanomatito ācariyavādo balavataro. ācariyavādo pi suttānulome otāretabbo. tattha otaranto samento yeva gahetabbo itaro na gahetabbo. ācariyavādato hi suttānulomam balavataram. Cf. Nett-ţ (B^e) 56.

¹⁷ For the tradition that the commentaries were recited at the first council see Sv 1,15–18, = Ps I 1,21–24 = Spk I 1,17–20 = Mp I 1,18–21; As 1,27–30; cf. Norman, *Pāli Literature*, pp. 118–19; von Hinüber, *Handbook of Pāli Literature*, p. 101 (§ 206).

¹⁸ Th-a 15: yathā pana sīhanādam pare migaganā na sahanti, kuto abhibhavo, añňadatthu sīhanādo va te abhibhavati, evam eva añňatitthiyavādā therānam vāde na sahanti, kuto abhibhavo, añňadatthu theravādā va te abhibhavanti.

In the passages we have considered so far it is clear that *theravāda* is not used as the name of a particular school of Buddhism. There are in fact just ten occurrences of the term *theravāda* in the *atthakathās* where it is possible to take it as such. In three of these ten cases the meaning is ambiguous: two in the *Samantapāsādikā* (one in the introductory verses and one in the body of the 'Background Story'),¹⁹ and one in the closing verses of the commentary to the *Patisambhidāmagga*. I will discuss the former two in detail below in the context of a full consideration of the *Samantapāsādikā* account of the coming of Buddhism to Laṅkā, and the latter in the context of a general consideration of the introductory and closing verses of the Pali *atthakathās*. The other seven occurrences are all found in the introduction to the commentary to the *Kathāvatthu*, where the term is used in the context of the division of the Sangha into eighteen schools.

This means that outside the *Kathāvatthu-aṭṭhakathā* there is little evidence for the use of the expression *theravāda* in the *aṭṭhakathā*s as the name of a particular school or lineage of Buddhism contrasted with other schools or lineages of Buddhism. Moreover, three of the *Kathāvatthu* commentary's seven uses of the term *theravāda* occur as part of an extended quotation from the *Dīpavaṃsa*.²⁰ In sum, in the Pali *aṭṭhakathā*s the term *theravāda* appears to be used primarily to

¹⁹ Sp 2, 52. Two further Samantapāsādikā occurrences concern a Be variant theravādanga for the E^e and S^e therarataranga (cf. Sp I 235, Sp (B^e) I 200, Sp (S^e) I 277–78): 'In this way, by declaring each elder one after the other (theratarangam) and reaching his own teacher, he establishes the full lineage of teachers' (evam sabbam ācariyaparamparam theratarangam āharitvā attano ācariyam pāpetvā thapeti). It is not clear what theravādanga might mean in such a context: perhaps 'by declaring the full lineage of teachers whose members constitute the theravāda' or 'by declaring each part of the theravāda'? Sp-t (Be) II 49 glosses with 'the succession of elders' (therapatipātin ti attho) which suggests that therataranga is the preferable reading, though the fact that at some point the reading theravādanga was adopted is not entirely without significance. The context here is that of a specific lineage of Vinava teachers: the Buddha, Upāli, Dāsaka, Sonaka, Siggava, Moggaliputta Tissa. While such a lineage is related to the issue of ordination traditions and the early Buddhist schools, what seems to be the focus here is being able to legitimize one's ordination by being able to point to a specific lineage, rather than contesting the legitimacy of rival lineages.

²⁰ Cf. Kv-a 3–5 and Dīp V 30–53.

refer to the opinions of *theras* that come down in the commentaries but are distinguished from the 'original' commentary (*atthakathā*) that was considered to have been rehearsed at the first council soon after the Buddha's death.

The Kathāvatthu-atthakathā's use of theravāda in the context of different schools of Buddhism seems in fact to be borrowed directly from the *Dīpavamsa*; as we shall see, this usage is also taken up by the Mahāvamsa. It is worth noting that even where theravāda is used in the earlier sources in the context of the ancient schools of Buddhism, it is not clear that we should think of precisely *theravāda* as the name. It is not impossible that the compounded *thera* itself should be taken as the name of the school, either as the plural 'elders', or as an adjective in the sense of 'belonging to the elders' and qualifying a *vāda* or *nikāva*; thera in the expression theravāda might simply be an alternative form of *theriya*, a term that appears to be used unambiguously in the Mahāvamsa to refer to one of the parties in the first division of the Sangha after the second council.²¹ I make this suggestion on the basis of the way the Kathāvatthu commentary talks of the eighteen ancient schools of Buddhism as *ācariva-kula* or *ācariva-vāda*; the list includes the Mahisāsakas and Vajjiputtakas, who are then referred to as the Mahisāsaka-vāda and Vajjiputtaka-vāda, suggesting that vāda is not so much part of the name of the school as simply a term for 'school' or 'tradition', just like *nikāva*, which is also used here.²² Also of note in this context is the way in which the subcommentary to the Kathāvatthu commentary explains the Dipavamsa's (V 52) syntactically rather awkward theravādānam uttamo:

²¹ Mhv V 1, III 40.

²² Kv-a 2–3. In fact the terms vāda ('exposition' or 'doctrine'), kula ('community'), as well as ācariyavāda ('teachers' [tradition of] exposition') and ācariyakula ('community of teachers') all seem to be used in the introduction of Kv-a as equivalents of nikāya ('group').

Here *thera* is specified without any case ending; *thera* is in the sense of 'that of the elders'. What does it refer to? The tradition $(v\bar{a}da)$. 'That of the elders is the highest of traditions,' is what is meant.²³

In other words, we can understand the expression *theravāda* in the Dīpavamsa and Mahāvamsa as equivalent to theriva-vāda and as meaning strictly 'the tradition belonging to the elders';²⁴ Theravāda would simply be an alternative to Theriya-nikāya, although the latter expression seems not to be found in Pali literature. That there is some uncertainty about the use of the full expression *theravāda* as the proper name of a school is perhaps a minor point. Yet since the expected Sanskrit equivalent sthāviravāda seems not to be found in the ancient sources, it is a point still worth making as it suggests that the Pali sources may not be as out of line with other ancient Indian Buddhist sources in their use of terminology as might otherwise appear. For Buddhist Sanskrit sources, Edgerton cites simply Ārya-Sthāviras (paralleling Ārya-Sammatīyas and Ārya-Sarvāstivādas) and Ārya-Sthāvarīva-nikāva. All this suggests that strictly we should think of Pali Thera and Theriya as the proper names of a school, rather than Thera-vāda 25

We should note, however, that the Pali *theriya*, corresponding to the Sanskrit *sthāvirīya*, is itself extremely rare. Apart from the two occurrences in the *Mahāvamsa* just cited and some occurrences in the

²³ Kv-mţ (Be) 49: theravādānam uttamo ti ettha thera-iti avibhattiko niddeso. therānam ayan ti thero. ko so. vādo. thero vādānam uttamo ti ayam ettha attho. We can note that in his 1879 translation Oldenberg tends to treat theravāda as a proper name; he renders this Dīp passage: 'The most excellent Theravāda which resembles a large banyan tree, is the complete doctrine of the Jina, free from omission or additions.' (Dīp, p. 142). The expression theravādānam uttamo is found in three verses: Dīp V15, 16, 50.

²⁴ The term *theriyavāda* is found at Mhv XLII (= Cūlavamsa) 80, XLIV (= Cūlavamsa) 8.

²⁵ See BHSD s.vv. āryasammatīya, āryasarvāstivāda, ārya-sthāvira, sthavira. MW gives sthavira mfn. in the sense of 'old, venerable, etc.' and the vrddhi form sthāvira n. in the sense of 'old age' and also as mfn., equivalent to sthavira. Peter Skilling has drawn attention to the issue of the correct Sanskrit designation of the school we have come to call 'Theravāda' in his 'Theravāda in History', Pacific World, Third Series, n. 11 (2009), 61–93.

 $C\bar{u}|avamsa,^{26}$ the term appears to occur in just four places in the corpus of pre-twentieth century Pali literature.²⁷ I will have occasion to refer to two of these passages below, but the passages from the commentary to the *Khuddakapātha* is rather curious and is worth noting in passing. Commenting on the first question in the *Kumārapañha* series,²⁸ the commentary explains:

But with reference to the question 'what is one?' (*ekam nāma kim*), there are two readings: of these, *kiha* is the reading of the Sīhaļas, for they say *kiha* when what one should say is *kim*. Some suggest that *ha* is the [emphatic] particle and that this is also a reading of the Theriyas, but either way the meaning is the same, and one can read as one chooses.²⁹

What this passage seems to want to suggest is that the alternative reading was taken by some as not just a local Sinhalese 'corruption' but a legitimate reading accepted by a wider Buddhist tradition; and presumably the use of Theriya means that that wider tradition is being contrasted with the Mahāsanghikas.

Turning finally and very briefly to the term *theravādin*, we find that this is barely used at all in pre-twentieth century Pali literature, perhaps only three times, and only once before the twelfth century.³⁰ We should

²⁶ Mhv XXXVII 245; XLI 17, XLII 80, XLIII 30-31, XLIV 8.

²⁷ Vism 711, Sv-pt III 372 (although E^e reads *ther 'anvaya* for B^e *theriyena*), Pj I 78, Vin-vn-pt (B^e) I 2 (the twelfth-century commentary to Buddhadatta's *Vinayavinicchaya*, where Buddhadatta is described as a light in the lineage of the Theriyas (*theriyavamsadīpa*)).

²⁸ Khp 2: ekam nāma kim. sabbe sattā āhāraţţhitikā.

²⁹ Pj (=Khp-a) I 78: ettha ca ekam nāma kin ti ca kihā ti ca duvidho pāțho, tattha sīhaļānam kihā ti pāţho. te hi kin ti vattabbe kihā ti vadanti. keci bhaņanti ha-iti nipāto, theriyānam pi ayam eva pāţho ti. ubhayathā pi pana eko va attho. yathā ruccati, tathā paţhitabbam.

³⁰ An electronic search for forms of *theravādin* in the available digital editions of Pali texts (PTS, CS, Syāmarattha and BJT) finds just two or three occurrences in the whole corpus of pre-twentieth century Pali literature: one at Mhv XXXIII 98 (*theravādīhi*, but with a variant *theravādehi*) and two in the first part of the *Cūlavaṃsa* (twelfth century). The twentieth-century (?) introduction to a Ceylonese edition of the nineteenth-century *Sāsanavaṃsa* also uses the term once (Sās C^e iv); the body of Sās C^e also has *theravādīgaņo*

note in this context, however, that *theravāda* is occasionally used as *bahuvrīhi* compound in the sense of 'one who follows the exposition of the elders' in several places.³¹

In sum we can see that although *theravāda* is used by such texts as the *Dīpavamsa* and *Mahāvamsa* in their discussions of Buddhist schools, it is not clear that this is intended as the *name* of a school; *vāda* here seems to be an alternative to *nikāya*, and to talk of the 'Theravāda school' is like saying the 'Thera school school'. As in the Buddhist Sanskrit sources, the name of the school contrasted with the Mahāsanghikas is variously given in the early Pali sources as simply Thera or Theriya. As for the Pali *atthakathās*, the term *theravāda* is not used to refer to a school or Vinaya ordination lineage at all; it is used to refer to a general body of received interpretation of the canonical texts which is distinguished from the earlier traditions of interpretation thought of as deriving from the 500 arahats present at the first council.

2. The Elders of the Mahāvihāra: the commentaries' introductory and closing verses

In the introductions (*ganthārambhakathā*) and colophons (*nigamana-kathā*) of the commentaries we find statements that give some indication of where Buddhaghosa and the other authors of Pali commentaries position themselves in the Buddhist world. Tradition has it that Buddhaghosa wrote his *Visuddhimagga* first; this seems to be confirmed by the fact that his commentaries on the four *Nikāyas* refer

although Sās B^e has *theravādagaņo* (cf. Sās C^e 14 and Sās B^e 17); there are twelve occurrences in the *Visuddhimagga-nidānakathā*, a text composed in the context of the Sixth Council in the nineteen-fifties. This text also uses the term *mahāyana* in opposition to *theravāda* in speaking of, for example, the *mahāyāna-piţaka* and the *theravāda-piţaka* (Vism-nidānakathā B^e 29–30). This means that we only have one problematic occurrence of *theravādin* in Pali literature prior to the twelfth century, and only two clear occurrences prior to the twentieth century.

³¹ See e.g. Mhv V 6: puna pi theravādehi mahimsāsakabhikkhavo | vajjīputtakabhikkhū ca duve jātā ime khalu; see also Kv-a 3,10, Mhv XXXVII (= Cūļavamsa) 241, XLII (= Cūļavamsa) 80.

to it. In the concluding verses of the *Visuddhimagga*, Buddhaghosa twice mentions the Mahāvihāravāsins, stating that in presenting the *Visuddhimagga* he is 'relying on their method or system of teaching'.³² He goes on to say that he wrote the *Visuddhimagga* at the suggestion of the monk Sanghapāla, whom he describes as 'belonging to the lineage (*vaņsa*) of those who dwell in the Mahāvihāra, the best of *vibhajjavādins* and famed *theriyas*'.³³

If we take *vibhajjavādin* and *theriya* here as referring to 'schools' of those names we have a straightforward statement of school affiliation. The monks of the Mahāvihāra saw themselves as belonging to the Vibhajjavāda school which was related in some way to the Theriya as opposed to the Mahāsaṅghika branch of the Saṅgha. Certainly given the way the term *vibhajjavādin* features in the Mahāvihāra's own story of its origins and lineage – a story which I shall examine in some detail below – it seems reasonable to take *vibhajjavādin* as a proper name rather than as simply indicating 'those who advocate analysis'; and it seems unlikely that 'belonging to the theras' (*theriya*) can be anything other than a reference to the split between the Sthaviras and Mahāsāṃghikas witnessed generally in the ancient Buddhist sources.

Yet this is the only place where the Vibhajjavādins and Theriyas are explicitly and unambiguously mentioned in the introductions and colophons to the *atthakathās*. Elsewhere Buddhaghosa states his affiliation in more general and open terms. At the beginning of each of his commentaries to the four *Nikāyas*, Buddhaghosa states that:

In order to make the meaning [of the scriptures] clear, the commentaries were originally recited by the 500 masters [at the first council] and subsequently recited again [at the second council]; they were then brought to the island of Laṅkā (Sīhaladīpa) by the Master Mahā-Mahinda and rendered into the Sīhala language for the sake of the inhabitants of the island.

I will translate them from the Sīhala language, putting them into the pleasing language that conforms to the system of the canonical

³² Vism 711: Mahāvihāravāsīnam desanānayanissitam | Visuddhimaggam bhāsissam...

³³ Vism 711: vibhajjavādiseţthānam theriyānam yasassinam | Mahāvihāravāsīnam vamsajassa...

scriptures and is without fault, in the process not contradicting the consensus of the elders who dwell in the Mahāvihāra and are lamps in the lineage of the elders (*theravaṃsa*) and so wise in judgement.³⁴

This once more makes clear that Buddhaghosa sees his primary affiliation as the Mahāvihāra in Anurādhapura, and that he sees the residents of the Mahāvihāra as famed and renowned representatives of a tradition of elders; he also makes reference to traditions that can be traced back to the first Buddhist council through a particular master, namely Mahinda. Additionally, in the closing verses of the *Sumanglavilāsinī*, Buddhaghosa explains that he composed his commentary on the *Dīghāgama* at the request of the Sanghathera Dāthānāga, whom he also describes as 'a follower of the lineage of the Theras' (*theravaṃsanvayena*).³⁵

Buddhaghosa's affiliation to the Mahāvihāra lineage of elders is also emphasized in a eulogistic formula presumably not composed by him but at some point added to the conclusion of the works attributed to him. Here Buddhaghosa is described as 'a jewel in the lineage of the elders who dwell in the Mahāvihāra, the lights in the lineage of the elders' (*theravamsappadīpānam therānam mahāvihāravāsīnam vamsālankārabhūtena vipulavisuddhabuddhinā*).³⁶

Other Pali commentarial works attributed to Dhammapāla similarly emphasize that they follow the consensus of those who dwell

³⁴ Sv 1 = Ps I 1 = Spk I 1 = Mp I 1: atthappakāsanattham atthakathā ādito vasisatehi | pañcahi yā sangītā anusangītā ca pacchāpi || sīhaļadīpam pana ābhatā 'tha vasinā mahāmahindena | thapitā sīhaļabhāsāya dīpavāsīnam atthāya || apanetvāna tato 'ham sīhaļabhāsam manoramam bhāsam | tantinayānucchavikam āropento vigatadosam || samayam avilomento therānam theravamsappadīpānam | sunipuņavinicchayānam mahāvihārādhivāsīnam [B^e mahāvihāre nivāsīnam] ||...

³⁵ These verses are omitted in the PTS edition (Sv III 1064) but are commented on at Sv-pt III 372; the verses are found at Sv (B^e) III 250 and Sv (S^e) III 267: *āyācito Sumangalapariveņanivāsinā thiraguņena* | Dāţhānāgasanghattherena theravamsanvayena || Dīghāgamavarassa dasabalaguņagaņaparidīpanassa atļhakatham | yam ārabhim Sumangalavilāsinim nāma nāmena ||.

³⁶ Sp 1416, Kkh 208, Spk III 308–09, Mp V 99–100, Dhp-a IV 235–36, Pj I 253, Pj II III 308–09, As 430, Vibh-a 523–24, Ppk-a 367, Vism 712. The PTS editions of Sv and Ps omit this formula, but it is included in B^e and S^e.

in the Mahāvihāra,³⁷ while in the colophon to the commentary to the *Pațisambhidāmagga*, composed by Mahānāma in 499 or 559 CE,³⁸ we find the following:

Just as this commentary, which accords with the consensus of the elders who illuminate the tradition [or statements?] of the elders (*therānam theravādadīpānam*), has reached a conclusion, bringing benefit to people, likewise may those wishes of all beings that accord with the Truth and accomplish benefits for themselves and others reach a conclusion.³⁹

While we might take *theravāda* here as referring to a specific ordination lineage and school of the Sangha, in the light of the more general usage of *theravāda* outlined above it is equally possible to see it as characterizing a looser tradition of interpretation of the texts exemplified by a group of *theras*.

Apart from the occurrence of *theriya* at the close of the *Visuddhimagga*, the only place a name of a Buddhist school occurs unambiguously in the introduction or colophon of a commentary is in the *Jātaka* commentary, which may or may or may not be the work of Buddhaghosa. In the introduction a monk from the Mahimsāsaka

³⁷ Ud-a 2, Vv-a 1, Pv-a 1, Th-a I 2, Nett-a (B^e) 2, Vism-mht (B^e) I 2: *mahāvihāravāsīnam samayam avilomayam*. The questions of whether we should think in terms of two Dhammapālas and their dates have been much discussed. Oskar von Hinüber takes the cross reference between the Dhammapāla *atthakathās* and the Abhidhamma *tikās* as effectively doing away with the necessity for two Dhammapālas; he also follows De Silva in rejecting arguments for dating Vism-mht to the tenth century and suggests the possibility of an earlier date for Dhammapāla, namely the latter half of the sixth century (pp. 167–71, §§ 357–70) and that Dhammapāla was a pupil of Ānanda, the author of the Abhidhamma *mūlatīkā* (§§ 356, 360); in an unpublished paper Lance Cousins has suggested that Dhammapāla may have been a pupil of the author of the Abhidhamma *anutīkā*, which would place him in the early seventh century.

³⁸ von Hinüber, Handbook of Pāli Literature, p. 144 (§ 291).

³⁹ Pațis-a 704: samayam anulomenti therănam theravādadipānam | nițtham gatā yathāyam aţthakathā lokahitajanani || dhammam anulomentā attahitam parahitañ ca sādhentā | nițtham gacchantu tathā manorathā sabbasattānam ||

lineage is mentioned as one of three monks inviting the author to compile the commentary:

Having been approached and requested to do so by the Elder Atthadassin in his desire to perpetuate of the history of the buddhas, and likewise by Buddhamitta, who dwells at all times in purity in his isolated monastery, tranquil in heart and wise, and likewise by Buddhadeva, a monk from the Mahimsāsaka lineage who is skilled in the system [of exposition] and of clear intellect, I will present an explanation of the *Jātaka* – a work that illustrates the unlimited power of the deeds of the Great Man – based on the method of exposition of those who dwell in the Mahāvihāra.⁴⁰

The precise significance of this passage is difficult to gauge. Clearly in designating Buddhadeva a Mahimsāsaka it is implied that his school is different from Atthadassin and Buddhamitta's. Yet the author does not reveal what name he would use to designate this school. Would he have used Theriya, notwithstanding the fact that the Mahīmsāsakas too are Theriya in so far as they are regarded by the ancient sources as a school that derives from the Theriya rather than Mahāsanghika branch of the Sangha?⁴¹ There is no mention of the *thera-vamsa* or *thera-vāda* in the passage, only of 'the method of exposition' (*vācanā-magga*) of those who dwell in the Mahāvihāra, which the Mahīmsāsaka Buddhadeva seems happy to endorse.⁴²

⁴⁰ Ja I 1: buddhavamsassa etassa icchantena cirațțhitim | yācito abhigantvāna therena Atthadassinā || asamsațțhavihāre sadā suddhavihārinā [E^e saddhi-] | tath' eva Buddhamittena santacittena viññunā || mahimsāsakavamsamhi sambhūtena nayaññunā | Buddhadevena ca tathā, bhikkhunā suddhabuddhinā || mahāpurisacariyānam ānubhāvam acintiyam | tassa vijjotayantassa jātakass' atthavannanam || Mahāvihāravāsīnam vācanāmagganissitam | bhāsissam ...

⁴¹ Kv-a 2–3.

⁴² E. W. Adikaram (*Early History of Buddhism in Ceylon* (Migoda: D.S. Puswella, 1946), pp.94–95) relates this to the fact that Faxian obtained a copy of the Mahīšāsaka Vinaya in Lankā in the early fifth century. André Bareau (*Les sectes bouddhiques du petit véhicule* (Saigon: École française d'Extrême-Orient, 1955), p.183) has argued that the Mahīšāsakas and Theravādins are essentially representatives of the same school, the

Was Buddhaghosa a Theravādin? 19

Clearly it is possible to read the various passages considered above in light of the colophon of the *Visuddhimagga* and take *thera* in theravamsa or theravāda as equivalent to theriva and so as specifically referring to the Theriya as opposed to the Mahāsanghika school of Buddhism;43 we might then read these passages as an explicit and selfconscious statement of the school affiliation of those who dwelt in the Mahāvihāra Anurādhapura. Indeed, as we shall see when we turn to the Kathāvatthu commentary and the Dīpavamsa and Mahāvamsa, there can be little doubt that Mahāvihāra monks of the fifth century did understand their lineage as in general terms affiliated to the Theriva school. But what is not so clear is just how they understood the nature of that affiliation and how they saw their own lineage in relation to other lineages in the wider Buddhist world of the fourth to fifth centuries. Significantly, when the subcommentaries explain the phrase 'the elders' who dwell in the Mahāvihāra and are lamps in the lineage of the elders' found at the beginning of Buddhaghosa's commentaries, they make no reference to the split in the Sangha between the Mahāsanghikas and Theras, but instead explain it in a way that might include any Buddhist tradition that would wish to trace its lineage back to Mahākassapa and the first council – and which Buddhist tradition would not?

The Thera lineage is the succession of teachers that comes down from those Theras – [so called] because they are endowed with 'solid' (*thira*) complements of conduct, and so forth – beginning with Mahākassapa; belonging to that lineage, the Mahāvihāravāsins are lights in the lineage of Theras because of brightening it by the brilliance of their understanding which derives from their knowledge of scripture.⁴⁴

Vibhajyavāda: the Theravādins are the branch of the Vibhajyvāda that lived in Lankā, and the Mahīśāsakas that which lived on the Indian mainland.

⁴³ The term *vamsa*, however, is not used as an equivalent to *vāda* or *nikāya* in the discussions of schools in the Dīp, Kv-a and Mhv.

⁴⁴ Sv-pţ I 20 = Ps-pţ (B^e) I 17 = Spk-pţ (B^e) I 17 = Mp-ţ (B^e) I 19: theravamsapadīpānan ti thirehi sīlakkhandhādīhi samannāgatattā therā, mahākassapādayo. tehi āgatā ācariyaparamparā theravamso, tappariyāpannā hutvā āgamādhigamasampannattā paññāpajjotena tassa samujjalanato theravamsappadīpā mahāvihāravāsino therā; tesam.

Since all Indian Buddhist schools might wish to legitimize themselves by tracing their lineage back via a tradition of elders to the first Buddhist council, the introductions and colophons of the commentaries remain rather general affirmations of the Mahāvihara tradition's authenticity.

For more evidence on how a figure such as Buddhaghosa positioned his own lineage in relation to other lineages and to the wider Buddhist world of the fourth to fifth centuries we must now look in some detail at the accounts of the lineage of the Mahāvihāra tradition which relate how the Buddhist *sāsana* came to Laṅkā. There are four relatively ancient accounts of this in Pali literature: one traditionally regarded as the work of Buddhaghosa in the *Samantapāsādikā*,⁴⁵ another by a close follower of Buddhaghosa in *Kathāvatthu-atthakathā*,⁴⁶ and one each in the *Dīpavaṃsa* and *Mahāvaṃsa*. At over 100 pages the account found in the *Samantapāsādikā* is by far the longer of the two *atthakathā* accounts and can be taken as the principal Mahāvihāra account, which is supplemented by the *Kathāvatthu-atțhakathā* account at a mere eleven pages.

3. The coming of Buddhism to Lankā: the *Samantapāsādikā*'s background story

As a commentary on the Vinaya the *Samantapāsādikā* begins with a 'background story of its origin' (*bāhiranidānakathā*, Sp 3,13–105,22). The purpose of this Background Story is to explain how the Vinaya was originally recited by Upāli at the first council shortly after the Buddha's death, and how it was brought to Laṅkā and the Buddhist Order was established there. The story thus covers events from the first council down to the establishment of a branch of the Bodhi tree in Anurādhapura in the middle of the third century BCE.⁴⁷ The same events

⁴⁵ But see von Hinüber's comments, Handbook of Pāli Literature, §§ 209, 220.

⁴⁶ As noted above, I follow von Hinüber (*Handbook of Pāli Literature*, § 312) in accepting that Buddhaghosa was not the author of the Abhidhamma commentaries.

⁴⁷ A period of something over two centuries according to the 'long chronology' of the Sp, but of only about a century according to the 'short chronology' now generally more favoured in scholarly writings.

are covered by the slightly earlier *Dīpavamsa* (IV–XVI) in 60 pages and the slightly later *Mahāvamsa* (III–XIX) in 140 pages.⁴⁸ The Vinaya Background Story is the principal place in the Pali commentarial literature where an attempt is made to demonstrate the authenticity of the Vinaya traditions established in Lańkā; as Jayawickrama has observed, the author 'is anxious that no relevant detail, however insignificant, is left out in his description' (p. ix). The account divides into five main sections:

- (i) The first council (pathama-mahāsamgīti, Sp 4-30,14)
- (ii) The second council (dutiya-mahāsamgīti, Sp 30,15-37,7)
- (iii) The third council (tatiya-mahāsamgīti, Sp 37,8-61,25)
- (iv) The succession of teachers (*ācariyaparamparā* Sp 61,26-63,18)
- (v) The story of the successive events (*ānupubbīkathā*, Sp 63–105):
 (a) summary of the nine 'missions' (Sp 63,20–64,11);
 - (b) brief accounts of the first eight missions (Sp 64,12–69,14);
 - (c) extended account of Mahinda's missions to Laṅkā, including the establishment of relics (Sp 69,15–104,16)

The prologue

In his prologue the author⁴⁹ states that in commenting on the Vinaya he will rely on the authority of the teachers of the past (*nissāya pubbācariyānubhāvaṃ*): the Vinaya, he says, has been ably explained by these 'pre-eminent teachers of the past who are like banners of the Mahāvihāra' (*pubbācariyāsabhehi* ... *mahāvihārassa dhajūpamehi*), but since their explanation is transmitted in Sinhala, it is not accessible to monks from another country; he will therefore now undertake to provide their explanation in a manner 'conforming to the system of the

⁴⁸ The text of Mhv includes a full critical apparatus often amounting to half a page, which means that the Mhv account is in fact of similar length to the Sp account.

⁴⁹ Although Buddhaghosa is traditionally and generally assumed to be the author of Sp, this assumption is questionable; see von Hinüber, *Handbook* of Pāli Literature, §§ 209, 220.

canonical texts' (*pālinayānurūpaṃ*). This appears to involve translating it into the canonical language, namely Pali.⁵⁰ He then comments:

But in undertaking this explanation, I shall use the *Mahā-Aṭṭhakathā* as the main source; and not neglecting what is significant from the judgements stated in the *Mahāpaccarī* and likewise in such well-known commentaries as the *Kurundī*, I shall undertake a thorough explanation that incorporates the views of the elders from those works too.⁵¹

What precisely is meant by 'incorporates the views of the elders' (*antogadhatheravādam*) is unclear. It appears here to refer back to the past teachers he has just mentioned who are 'the banners of the Mahāvihāra'. What the author seems be saying is that his Vinaya commentary will encompass the whole body of opinion and views that derives from the elders recognised as having some authority by the Mahāvihāra lineage. This appears to be how the later twelfth-century Vinaya subcommentaries take this passage:

Having stated that he will give an explanation taking account of only the [Mahā-]aṭthakathā, since this might leave out the views of elders stated in the aṭthakathās [generally] and desiring to include these too,

⁵⁰ Cf. Sv 1 = Ps I 1 = Spk I 1 = Mp I 1: apanetvāna tato 'ham sīhaļabhāsam manoramam bhāsam | tantinayānucchavikam āropento vigatadosam, literally 'removing the Sīhala language from it, I will render it into the pleasing language that is free from faults and conforms to the system of the texts'.

⁵¹ Sp 2: saņvanņanam tañ ca samārabhanto tassā [E^e tasmā] mahāaţthakatham sarīram | katvā mahāpaccariyam tath' eva kurundināmādisu vissutāsu || vinicchayo aţthakathāsu vutto yo yuttam attham apariccajanto | tato pi antogadhatheravādam saņvaņņanam samma samārabhissam ||. My translation follows the exposition found at Sp-ţ (B^e) I 20 and Vmv (B^e) I 6 and differs from that of N.A. Jayawickrama, *The Inception of Discipline and the Vinaya Nidāna* (London: Pali Text Society, 1986), p.2: 'And in commencing the exposition I shall practically base it on the Mahā-aţthakathā as well as the Mahāpaccariya without discarding the relevant statements and the rulings given in the recognized commentaries such as the Kurundi; and thenceforth I shall proceed with the correct exposition of the Tradition of the Elders embodied therein.'

he says 'incorporating the views of the elders'; 'including the views of the elders' is what is meant. $^{\rm 52}$

This is in line with the use of the term *theravāda* to refer generally to the opinion or view of an elder or elders, where the elders are simply respected monks of some authority, that we have already seen in the *atthakathās*. Such a usage does not of itself involve a specific reference to a Thera or Theriya school in contrast to the Mahāsanghika school.

The narrative

The hero of the Background Story narrative is without a doubt Moggaliputta Tissa: he is presented as the leading Buddhist monk in Asoka's capital, who first resolves a crisis (*abbuda*) that has arisen in the Sangha, and then sends out Buddhist missions to nine different regions, including Lank \bar{a} .

According to the account given of the second council in the Background Story, the dispute that prompted the gathering at Vesālī and second council was settled (Sp 34: adhikaranam vūpasamitam) and there was then a recitation of the Dhamma and Vinaya by 700 monks. There is no mention of the defeated Vajjiputtaka monks establishing a separate Mahāsanghika group of teachers (ācariyakula), as we find in the Kathāvatthu commentary, following the Dīpavamsa (see below). Instead we move straight into the narrative that culminates in the third council. The elders who have taken part in the second council foresee that in 118 years, during the reign of Asoka, the Sangha will face another crisis (abbuda): it will become so successful and receive so much support that non-Buddhist ascetics (*titthiya*) will infiltrate the Sangha; again someone will be required to settle the matter and they see that this must be Tissa, who is currently nearing the end of his life span in the Brahma world. So these elders charge two younger monks (Siggava and Candavajji) to look out for Tissa when he is reborn a

⁵² Sp-ţ (Be) I 20 = Vmv (B^e) I 6: aţţhakatham yeva gahetvā samvannam karissāmī ti vutte aţţhakathāsu vuttattheravādānam bāhirabhāvo siyā ti te pi antokattukāmo antogadhatheravādan ti āha; theravāde pi antokatvā ti vuttam hoti.

brahmin, the son of Moggali, and to make sure he becomes Buddhist monk. The first act in the drama that culminates in the third council is thus the story of Moggaliputta Tissa's monastic education (Sp 37–41), Asoka's conversion to Buddhism (Sp 41–50) and the ordination of his son, Mahinda, with Moggaliputta Tissa as his preceptor (Sp 50–52). As the one who will bring the *sāsana* to Laṅkā Mahinda shows early promise and masters the Tipiṭaka and commentaries in the space of three years (Sp 52).

The narrative now moves on to recount how King Asoka then lavished so much wealth on the Sangha that, as predicted, non-Buddist ascetics (*titthiya*) decided that in order not to miss out they should ordain as *bhikkhus* or even just shave their heads, put on robes and masquerade as such. The consequence of this large number of false monks infiltrating the Sangha was that formal acts of the Sangha (*sanghakamma*) were compromised, and the true monks did not feel able to carry out the *uposatha* ceremony. Moggaliputta Tissa sees that things will get worse before they get better and decides that he will step in later. Leaving Mahinda in charge he retires to the mountain of Ahogangā.

It is important to note that the crisis is presented as resulting from *titthiya*s or non-Buddhist ascetics infiltrating the Sangha who are described as continuing with their previous practices such as performing *agnihotra*, enduring the five fires, and worshipping the sun (Sp 53).

The *uposatha* ceremony is interrupted for seven years at the Asokārāma, and finally Asoka decides to intervene, sending a minister to the *vihāra* who orders the monks to hold the *uposatha* ceremony. When they refuse the minister starts killing them, but hesitates when it comes to killing Asoka's brother who has also become a monk. The minister returns to Asoka to tell him what he has done. Asoka is horrified and goes straight to the monks and asks if it is he who is responsible for the deaths of the monks,⁵³ even though his only intention was that a unified Sangha should hold the *uposatha* ceremony (Sp 56: *samaggo*)

⁵³ Giving an order to kill is regarded as one of six means of effecting the act (*kammapatha*) of killing; cf. Sp 439–41; Sv 69–70 = Ps I 198 = Spk II 144 = Nidd-a 115 = As 97.

bhikkhusamgho uposatham karotu). The responses of the monks fail to satisfy Asoka; he is left full of doubt about his actions, and so asks the monks if there is any monk who might be able to help him. The monks recommend Moggaliputta Tissa who is duly sent for.

Moggaliputta Tissa arrives, performs a miracle, making a specific area of the earth shake, and resolves Asoka's doubts. He then gives Asoka instruction in the recognised teaching of the Buddha (Sp 60: samayam ugganhāpesi) for seven days. On the seventh day Asoka summons all the monks from the Asokārāma and tests them, asking them what the Buddha taught (kimvādī sammāsambuddho). The eternalists say he was an eternalist, the annihilationists an annihilationist, and so forth. The explicit reference here is to the sixty-two views set out in the Brahmajāla-sutta (D I 12-46). Since Asoka has already learnt what the recognized teaching is (rājā pathamam eva samavassa $uggahitatt\bar{a}$), he knows that these are not monks but followers of other religions (na ime bhikkhū aññatitthivā ime ti ñatvā), and so gives them white garments and expels them - all 60,000. Asoka then asks the remaining monks what the Buddha taught, at which they respond that he was an 'analyst' (vibhajjavādin). Asoka asks Moggaliputta Tissa whether this is the correct answer, and he confirms that it is. Asoka then tells Moggaliputta Tissa that the sāsana has been made pure and the *bhikkhusangha* should perform the *uposatha* ceremony; the unified (samagga) Sangha - amounting to six million bhikkhus duly does so. At the same assembly, to finally crush contrary views, Moggaliputta Tissa proclaims the Kathāvatthu (Sp 61,12-14: tasmiņ samāgame moggaliputtatissatthero parappavādam maddamāno kathāvatthuppakaranam abhāsi). Immediately after this Moggaliputta Tissa selects a thousand arahats from among the six million monks and, like Mahākassapa and Yasa before him at the first and second councils respectively, he organises a recitation of the Dhamma and Vinaya and so presides over the Third Council (Sp 61,14–20).

The final part of the *Samantapāsādikā*'s Background Story – which in fact constitutes a little over one third of the narrative (Sp 61–104) – tells the story of how Moggaliputta Tissa organized nine different missions (to Kasmīra-Gandhāra, Mahimsa, Vanavāsi, Aparantaka, Mahāraṭṭha, Yonakaloka, Himavanta, Suvaṇṇabhūmi,

Tambapannidīpa), and provides a full account of how Mahinda established Moggaliputta Tissa's lineage in Tambapannidīpa (Lankā).

The starting point is the full list of the lineage of teachers who have handed down the tradition in Lańkā, a list beginning with Mahinda and ending with Sīva and consisting of 30 names. We are then given the story in full. Immediately following the third council, Moggaliputta Tissa asks himself: 'Where in the future might the Sāsana be firmly established?' He concludes that it is in 'the border regions' (*paccantimesu janapadesu*) that the Sāsana will be well established in the future.⁵⁴

His reflection prompts him to send out Buddhist missions to nine different distant regions: the names of these regions are given along with those of the monks charged to take the Sāsana there (Sp 63,20-64,11). Brief accounts of the first eight missions (Sp 64,12–69,14) follow, but the main focus is, of course, the story of Mahinda's mission to Lankā and the establishment of the Sāsana there; this occupies over 30 pages (Sp 69,15-104,16). This story of the establishment of the Sasana in Tambapanni can be divided into four parts. The story begins with a brief introduction that has Mahinda delay his journey to Tambapanni and travel from Pātaliputta to Vedisa in central India to meet his mother.55 We are then told of Mahinda's journey to Tambapanni and his encounter with King Devānampiyatissa and how the Mahāvihāra was established and 62 arahats spent the first rainy season at Cetiyagiri (Sp 73-83), later known as Mahindatata or Mihintale. We are next told of the establishment of various relics in various shrines in and around Anurādhapura; this section includes the story of the bringing of the branch of the Bodhi Tree to Lanka by Asoka's daughter, the nun Sanghamitta, and culminates in the prediction of the future construction of the Mahācetiya by King Dutthagāmanī Abhava (Sp 83-102). The culmination of the story of the establishment of the Sāsana in Lankā and of the Samantapāsādikā's Background Story is the account of

⁵⁴ Sp I 63: moggaliputtatissatthero kira imam tatiyadhammasangītim katvā evam cintesi kattha nu kho anāgate sāsanam suppatiţthitam bhaveyyā ti. atha 'ssa upaparikkhato etad ahosi paccantimesu kho janapadesu suppatiţthitam bhavissatī ti.

⁵⁵ As an aside we are informed how on a visit to Vedisa Asoka married Devī and Mahinda was conceived (Sp 69–71).

Was Buddhaghosa a Theravādin? 27

Ariţţha's preaching of the Vinaya: the preaching of the Vinaya by a monk whose parents were themselves born in Tambapaṇṇi marks the true establishment of the Sāsana there (Sp 102–104).

Interpreting the narrative

It is possible to read this narrative as a memory or a way of talking of a past dispute that resulted in a schism in the Sangha: the other



Figure 1. King Devānampiyatissa and the Arahat Mahinda: Piṭaka Hall, Wat Pavaranives, Bangkok, mid-nineteenth century (courtesy Santi Pakdeekham).

side, branded as not even worthy of being acknowledged Buddhist *bhikkhus*, deserved to be summarily expelled from the Sangha. In which case this rhetoric might reflect the actuality of a schism that resulted in the emergence of two Buddhist schools, such as the Theriyas (the Buddhist *bhikkhus*) and the Mahāsanghikas (the non-Buddhist *titthiyas*), or, as Bareau seems to have wanted to argue, the

Vibhajyavāda and the Sarvāstivāda.⁵⁶ And yet this hardly fits with the tenor of doxographical discourse found in other Pali sources: when Buddhist schools come to be discussed explicitly in the *Dīpavaṃsa*, *Mahāvaṃsa*, and *Kathāvatthu* commentary, there is no suggestion that these schools are not Buddhist, that is, that they are *titthiya*.

Moreover, in the present context it is important to note that there is no reason to think that the monks of the Mahāvihāra in the fourth and fifth centuries read the *Samantapāsādikā* narrative as concerning an internal Buddhist dispute. In terms of their lineage's own self identity this is straightforwardly a narrative not about two rival Buddhist traditions out there in the wider Buddhist world, one (their own) authentic and the other (the Mahāsaṅghikas and friends) inauthentic, but about the hero of their lineage assisting the great emperor Asoka purge the Saṅgha of non-Buddhist ascetics. Though, as I shall discuss later, quite how the exposition of the *Kathāvatthu* fits into such a narrative is unclear.

One of the most surprising features of the *Samantapāsādikā*'s Background Story is that despite its being the principal Pali commentarial account of the origins of the Mahāvihāra lineage and how it arrived in Laṅkā is that it contains no mention at all of any split between the Vinaya lineages of the Theras and Mahāsaṅghikas. It thus appears to have no interest in Buddhist sectarianism. There is one occurrence of the term *theravāda* in the whole Background Story narrative (the term *theriya* does not occur at all):

Receiving (*pariyāpuņanto*) the Dhamma and Vinaya directly from his preceptor, within three years from the time of his ordination the Elder Mahinda learned (*uggahetvā*) the whole tradition of the elders (*theravāda*), together with the commentary collected with the Tipiţaka established at the two councils, and became the foremost of the thousand monks who were pupils of his preceptor.⁵⁷

⁵⁶ Bareau, Les sectes bouddhiques, pp. 33, 206.

⁵⁷ Sp 52: atha Mahindatthero upasampannakālato pabhuti attano upajjhāyass' eva santike dhammañ ca vinayañ ca pariyāpunanto dve pi sangītiyo ārūlham tipitakasangahitam satthakatham sabbam theravādam tinnam vassānam abbhantare uggahetvā attano upajjhāyassa antevāsikānam sahassamattānam bhikkhūnam pāmokkho ahosi.

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What the expression *sabbam theravādam* (or *sabbattheravādam* according to some mss and editions) refers to here is unclear: to take it in this context as the name of a school or monastic lineage hardly works. The verbs *pariyāpuņāti* and *uggaņhati* suggest the memorization and recitation of texts; in fact we might translate here 'learning *to recite* the Dhamma and Vinaya ... the Elder Mahinda *memorized* the whole *theravāda*^{3,58} But what textual tradition might *theravāda* refer to? It is possible to take it here in the sense I have already noted as most frequent in the *atthakathās*: an authoritative body of tradition and opinion associated with various elders – which, although recorded in the extant commentaries, is nevertheless distinguished from the 'original' commentary of the 500 arahats who conducted the first council.

The twelfth-century subcommentary of Sāriputta explains that what is meant by *theravāda* here is simply the canonical text $(p\bar{a}li)$, which is referred to as such because it constitutes the tradition $(v\bar{a}da)$ of the elders beginning with Mahākassapa.⁵⁹ The thirteenth-century (?) *Vimativinodanī* essentially repeats this explanation adding, however, that the canonical text $(p\bar{a}li)$ is called *theravāda* here 'in order to distinguish it from the canonical texts of schismatics such as the Mahāsanghikas'. Moreover, referring to the incident immediately prior to the third council when Moggaliputta Tissa confirms that the Buddha was a *vibhajjvādin*, it further adds that it is the *vibhajjavāda* that is referred to as the *theravāda*.

Significantly, perhaps, the *Vimativinodanī* goes on to cite a variant reading (apparently not recorded in any modern edition of the *Samantapāsādikā*): *sa-theravādam*; the commentator then glosses the phrase *tipiṭakasangahitam saṭthakatham satheravādam* as 'the word of the Buddha comprising the Tipiṭaka, along with its commentary including the traditions of the elders that have come down in the commentaries'.⁶⁰ This second explanation agrees precisely with

⁵⁸ Cf. Steven Collins, 'Notes on Some Oral Aspects of Pali Literature', *Indo-Iranian Journal* 35 (1992), pp. 121–35 (123).

⁵⁹ Sp-ţ (B^e) I 135: sabbam theravādan ti dve sangītiyo ārulhā pāliy' ev' ettha theravādo ti veditabbā. sā hi Mahākassapapabhutīnam mahātherānam vādattā theravādo ti vuccati.

⁶⁰ Vmv (B^e) I 30: sabbam theravādan ti dve sangītiyo āruļhā pāļi. sā hi mahāsanghikādibhinnaladdhikāhi vivecetum theravādo ti vuttā. ayañ

the usage of *theravāda* in the *atthakathās* to refer to a tradition of commentary and exposition that is additional to an original commentary thought to have been recited at the first council.

The suggestion of the *Vimativinodanī* that *theravāda* here refers to the scriptural tradition $(v\bar{a}da)$ of specifically the Theriyas in contrast to the scriptural traditions of other schools such as the Mahāsaṅghikas is not impossible. Yet strictly all we have in the *Samantapāsādikā* is a statement that the tradition mastered by Mahinda was one that had the authority of unspecified elders and the first two councils, a claim that all Buddhist traditions would want to make concerning their tradition. Of course, it might be countered that (given what we know from the *Kathāvatthu-atthakathā* and the *Dīpavaṃsa*) the connotation of the term *theravāda* would be taken for granted by both the author and his readers. While this may be true, it still seems to me that the complete absence of any account of the split between the Theriyas and Mahāsaṅghikas in the Background Story must carry some significance for our understanding of the earliest sense of Buddhist identity in Laṅkā.

If we only read the *Samantapāsādikā* account we would learn nothing about a split between the Theriyas and Mahāsanghikas, nor of any other splits in the ordination lineage of the Sangha. The narrative does not even present the crisis that led up to the third council as involving a split in the Sangha, let alone indicate which schools might have resulted from that split. And this is so even though according to the other accounts preserved at the Mahāvihāra, the splits that resulted in the emergence of the eighteen schools are all understood to have taken place between the second council and the convening of the third council, the precise period covered by the Background Story.

The identity and authenticity of the Lankan lineage of elders turns out not to be defined by reference to a true and authentic lineage contrasted with other lesser and inauthentic lineages of the Sangha and Vinaya that have split off, but simply by reference to a single lineage of

hi vibhajjavādo Mahākassapattherādīhi asamkarato rakkhito ānīto cā ti theravādo ti vuccati. satheravādan ti pi likhanti; tattha aṭṭhakathāsu āgatatheravādasahitam sāṭṭhakatham tipiṭakasangahitam buddhavacanan ti ānetvā yojetabbam.

teachers whose key figures are Moggaliputta Tissa and Mahinda – the first because having resolved a crisis (*abbuda*) in the Sangha, he then sends out Buddhist missions to nine different regions, including Lankā; the second because he is the monk charged with actually establishing the Sāsana in Lankā.

What is interesting about the Background Story narrative in the present context is the emphasis on how this is not an exclusive transmission to Lankā; on the contrary, the point seems to be to connect the Lankā tradition to a significant and broader tradition established across the Indian subcontinent and beyond. The purpose of the narrative seems to be to defend the Lankā tradition's credentials against an anticipated charge that it is a peripheral and insignificant tradition. We should recall at this point that in the *Nikāyas* one of the eight or nine inopportune circumstances for following the spiritual life (*akkhaņā asamayā brahmacariyavāsāya*) is said to be being reborn in the border regions 'among ignorant foreigners where there is no access to monks, nuns and laypeople'.⁶¹

The Background Story defends the authenticity of the Lankā tradition not by claiming a specifically Theriya lineage, but by making a series of other specific claims. First, it tells how the Lanka ordination lineage goes back to Moggaliputta Tissa whom it depicts as the most famed monk in Asoka's imperial capital: the teacher of the king himself who helped him purge the Sangha of non-Buddhist ascetics, expounded the final text of the Pali canon and like the great elders Kassapa and Yasa before him convened a Buddhist council. Secondly, the narrative demonstrates that far from being peripheral and isolated, the Lanka tradition shares its connection with the great Moggaliputta Tissa with eight other branches of the same tradition found in different lands; moreover Moggaliputta Tissa himself predicted that in the future it was precisely such 'peripheral' places as Lanka that would become the significant centres of Buddhism. Finally the narrative links the Lankā tradition to the centre and Asoka once more, through the figure of Mahinda, one of Asoka's sons, whose connections allowed

⁶¹ D II 264, 287, A IV 226: ayañ ca puggalo paccantimesu janapadesu paccājāto hoti, so ca hoti milakkhusu aviññātāresu yattha n' atthi gati bhikkhūnam bhikkhunīnam upāsakānam upāsikānam.

him to facilitate the bringing of important Buddhist relics to the island, including a branch of the Bodhi Tree brought by no less a person than Saṅghamittā.⁶²

The Background Story narrative seems to reflect a relatively early stage in the development of Buddhist identity in Lanka. That is, it is indicative of what its author found in and took over relatively unedited from a particular source available to him.63 The concern was not to tell the story of how something called Theravada - or even Theriya -Buddhism as opposed to some other, less authentic form of Buddhism (such as the Mahāsanghika) was brought to and established in Lankā. The concern was simply to demonstrate that what was introduced to Lankā was in itself authentic and significant. There is thus no exclusive claim to authenticity. On the contrary, the Buddhism brought to Lanka is the same Buddhism found at the centre of the Buddhist world and also, thanks to the vision of Moggaliputta Tissa, in far distant lands. In the Samantapāsādikā account the name of this tradition is never identified as Theriya (or Theravada) as opposed to Mahasanghika. The designation vibhajjavāda occurs, vet in something of a narrative aside. While it is used to characterize the genuine teaching of the Buddha, the contrast is not the teachings of other Buddhist schools, but the teachings of non-Buddhist ascetics who have entered the Sangha for

⁶² The continuing importance of the figure of Mahinda in the religious life of Lankan Buddhists in the early centuries CE is evidenced by the institution of the 'Mahinda festivals'; see Mhv XXXIV 68–86; Walpola Rahula, *History of Buddhism in Ceylon*, 2nd edition (Colombo: M.D. Gunasena, 1966), pp. 275–76, 282; R.A.L.H. Gunawardana, *Robe and Plough: Monasticism and Economic Interest in Early Medieval Sri Lanka* (Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1979), p. 233; Petra Kieffer-Pülz, 'Old and New Ritual: Advancing the Date of the Invitation ceremony (*pavāraņā*) with regard to the Mahinda festival' in *Jaina-itihāsa-ratna: Festschrift für Gustav Roth zum 90. Geburtstag*, ed. by Ute Hüsken, Petra Kieffer-Pülz and Anne Peters (Marburg: Indica et Tibetica Verlag, 2006), pp. 339–49 (346–47).

⁶³ Erich Frauwallner, 'On the Historical Value of the Ancient Ceylonese Chronicles', in *Erich Frauwallner's Posthumous Essays* (New Delhi: Aditya Prakashan, 1994), pp. 7–33, has argued on the basis of evidence from the *Vamsatthapakāsinī* that the author of the *Samantapāsādikā* follows the old Sinhala *Vinayatthakathā* (pp. 10–17).

material gain. Nevertheless *vibhajjavāda* does seem to form part of the identity of the Buddhists of Laṅkā.⁶⁴

The relationship of such a narrative to actual events and persons remains problematic, and preoccupation with such questions means that insufficient attention has been paid to the narrative's own concerns. Even if it is claimed that it is likely that such a narrative would preserve the names that constitute its lineage of teachers, it would be surprising if elements of hagiography had not also found their place in the narrative. Suspicions are raised especially about the figure of Moggaliputta Tissa when the Samantapāsādikā narrative is considered alongside the narratives of teacher lineages found in certain Buddhist Sanskrit sources.⁶⁵ As has long been recognised, there are striking parallels in the stories of Moggaliputta Tissa and Upagupta. Both are closely associated with Asoka as important monks in his capital, yet Pali sources know of no Upagupta just as northern sources know of no Moggaliputta Tissa.⁶⁶ Is it plausible that two monks of such importance and eminence should be completely forgotten by the other tradition? Of course, one possibility is that Moggaliputta Tissa and Upagupta are one and the same.⁶⁷ Yet this makes little sense of the narrative differences. While Upagupta shares with Moggaliputta Tissa a narrative association with Aśoka, Upagupta does not help Aśoka expel non-Buddhist ascetics from the Sangha, he does not preside over a third council, and he does not recite the Kathāvatthu. Rather than seeing the story of Upagupta as somehow corroborative evidence that

⁶⁴ A detailed consideration of the significance of the term *vibhajjavāda* is beyond the scope of the present article. For a discussion of some of the evidence see L. S. Cousins, 'On the Vibhajjavādins' *Buddhist Studies Review* 18 (2001), pp. 131–82.

⁶⁵ See Lamotte, *Histoire du bouddhisme indien*, pp.222–32; Strong, *Legend and Cult of Upagupta*, pp.60–61.

⁶⁶ Unless Moggaliputtatissa is to be identified with the Śramana Maudgalyāyana (Mùlián) who teaches that the past and future do not exist in the *Vijñānakāya* (Taishō 1539, T 26 531a, 25: 沙門目連作如是說 過去未來無); cf. Lamotte, *Histoire du bouddhisme indien*, 225.

⁶⁷ See Lamotte, *Histoire du bouddhisme indien*, 225; Strong, *Legend and Cult of Upagupta*, p. 147; Strong refers in particular to Waddell's article 'Identity of Upagupta, the High-priest of Açoka with Moggaliputta Tisso', *Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, 66 (1899), pp. 70–75.

Moggaliputta Tissa was associated with Asoka in the manner described in the *Samantapāsādikā*, it seems more reasonable to see the details of the stories that associate figures such as Moggaliputta Tissa, Upagupta and Mahinda with Asoka as part of a more general strategy to enhance the reputation and prestige of these teachers and their lineages.

4. Some epigraphic evidence

What seems to be brought out for the monks of Lankā is a basic sense of identity as the local branch of a broader school that is in principle to be found flourishing as far away as Gandhāra and Kaśmīra. It is also worth noting that the sense of identity is taken as applying to the Lankā tradition in general; there is no suggestion in the *Samantapāsādikā* that other monks in Lankā are not part of this lineage. The early inscriptional evidence from Lankā also suggests the non-sectarian nature of the Buddhism established there in the third to first centuries BCE; at least there is no mention of Theriya or any other sectarian affiliation, and the epithet *Mahaviharavasiska* appears to occur in just one relatively late Brāhmī inscription.⁶⁸ Local rulers from different parts of the island have left records of their donations at Mihintalē (the Cetiyagiri of the *Samantapāsādikā*),⁶⁹ while a second-century inscription at Rājagala in the east of the island, far from Anurādhapura and Mihintalē, proclaims a stūpa as the '*stūpa* of the elder Iţthiya and the elder Mahinda, who

⁶⁸ S. Paranavitana, *Inscriptions of Ceylon Volume 1* ([Colombo:] Department of Archaeology, 1970), p. 98 (No. 1206): 'The cave of the elder [Di]tima Apaya, a resident of the Mahāvihāra, has been donated to the Sangha of the four quarters, past and present.' With reference to the Mahāvihāra of this inscription, Paranavitana observes (p. cvii) 'presumably at Anurādhapura'; the inscription is from Kaduruväva, some 30 miles southwest of Anurādhpura.

⁶⁹ See R.A.L.H. Gunawardana, 'Prelude to the State: An early phase in the evolution of political institutions in ancient Sri Lanka', *The Sri Lanka Journal* of the Humanities 8 (1982), pp. 1–39 (pp. 25–27, 32–33); Paranavitana's *Inscriptions of Ceylon* gives 75 early Brāhmī inscriptions at Mihintalē; on the dating of the earliest of these inscriptions to the reign of Uttiya (207–197 BCE), successor of Devānampiya Tissa, see p. lii.



Figure 2. Brāhmī inscription from Kaduruväva: "The cave of the elder, [Di]tima Apaya, a resident of the Mahāvihāra, has been dedicated to the Sangha of the four quarters, present and absent." After S. Paranavitana, *Inscriptions of Ceylon*, Volume I, *Early Brāhmī Inscriptions* (The Department of Archaeology, Ceylon, 1970), PI. CXXVIII, No. 1206.

came to this island by its foremost good fortune';⁷⁰ Itthiya was one of the four monks said to have been sent with Mahinda to Tambapanni by Moggaliputta Tissa (Sp 64, 69–72).

A number of inscriptions discovered in Andhra Pradesh seem to have been composed by Buddhists with a rather similar sense of identity. A mid-third-century CE (that is, a date that perhaps postdates somewhat the substance of the *atthakathā* material)⁷¹ inscription from Nāgārjunakoņda recording the laywoman Bodhisiri's donation is dedicated 'to teachers who are Lankā (*tambapa[m]naka*) Theriyas, the

⁷⁰ Paranavitana, Inscriptions of Ceylon, p. 35 (No. 468): ye ima dipa paṭamaya idiya agatana Idika-[tera-Mah] ida-teraha tube; Paranavitana discusses the interpretation of this inscription, in particular of the phrase paṭamaya idiya (= prathamayā rddhyā), on p. ci.

⁷¹ Although Buddhaghosa should be dated to the late fourth century or early fifth century CE (von Hinüber, *Handbook of Pali Literature*, § 207), the substance of the material contained in the *atthakathā* seems not to be later than the first or second century CE; see Adikaram, *Early History of Buddhism in Ceylon*, p. 87; Norman, *Pāli Literature*, pp. 119, 121; von Hinüber, *Handbook of Pali Literature*, § 206.

bringers of faith to Kasmira, Gamdhāra, Cīna, Cilāta, Tosali, Avaramta, Vamga, Vanavāsi, Yavana, Damila, Palura, and Tambamnidīpa'.⁷²

Another Nāgārjunakoņda inscription of similar date refers to teachers who are 'Analyst (*vibhajavāda*) Theriyas, the bringers of faith to Kasmira, Gamdhāra, Yavana, Vanavāsa, and Tambapamnidipa, and who live in the Mahāvihāra'.⁷³ Whether or not the Mahāvihāra



Figure 3. Prakrit footprint slab inscription from Nāgārjunakoņda (after *Epigraphia Indica* 33, Pl. 46 A)

⁷² J. Ph. Vogel, 'Prakrit Inscriptions from a Buddhist Site at Nagarjunikonda', Epigraphia Indica, 20 (1930), 1–37: ācarīvānam Kasmira-Gamdhāra-Cīna-Cilāta-Tosali-Avaramta-Vamga-Vanavāsi-Yavana-Da[mila-Pa]lura-Tambamnidīpa-pas[ā]dakānam therivānam Tambapa[m]nakānam (p.22). Lamotte (Histoire du bouddhisme indien, pp. 326–27) reads the description as suggestive of the laywoman Bodhisiri's naïve belief that it was the Lanka tradition itself that brought Buddhism to the whole of India. Yet, given that Tambapamnidipa itself is included in the list of places to which Buddhism was brought, and that the teachers referred to seem to be third-century CE contemporaries of Bodhisiri, it is perhaps unlikely that they themselves are being referred to as the teachers who brought Buddhism to all these places, even by a naïve laywoman, assuming she is to be regarded as the actual author of the inscription. It is possible to construe the inscription as suggesting that the teachers in question are specifically Tambapannakas who belong to a more general Theriya lineage which was considered to have brought Buddhism to the various regions mentioned. This inscription has also been discussed by among others Walters ('Rethinking Buddhist Missions', pp. 303-05) and Cousins, 'On the Vibhajjavadins', pp. 142-43, 161-63. For some discussion of the actual locations these place names refer to see Frauwallner, Earliest Vinaya, pp. 15-17; Vogel, 'Prakrit Inscriptions', pp. 35–36; Cousins, 'On the Vibhajjavādins', pp. 161, 166.

⁷³ D.C. Sircar and A.N. Lahiri, 'Footprint Slab Inscription from Nagarjunikonda', *Epigraphia Indica* 33 (1960), pp. 247–50: *āchariyanam theriyānam vibhajavādānam kasmira-gamdhāra-yavana-vanavāsatambapamņidipa-pasādakanam mahāvihāravāsinam* (p. 250).

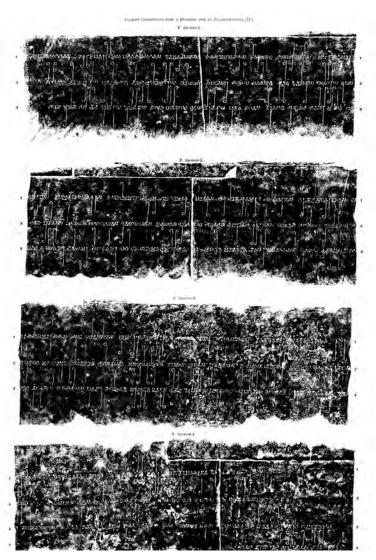


Figure 4. Nāgārjunakoņda inscription (after Epigraphia Indica 20, Pl. 1)

Figure 5. Reliquary inscribed with the names Kosīkiputa, Gotiputa and Mogaliputa, from Sanchi, Stūpa 2. (OA 1887.7-17.4, after Michael Willis, *Buddhist Reliquaries from Ancient India*, London: British Museum Press, 2000, cat. no. 25, figs. 57-60).

referred to here is a local monastery or the one at Anurādhapura,⁷⁴ these inscriptions seem to affirm that association with a set of Buddhist missions to various parts of India was part of what defined the identity of the tradition to which the Lańkā Theras considered they belonged. These inscriptions, after all, occur in a context where the identity of these explicitly Theriya teachers is implicitly being contrasted with the identity of teachers from other Buddhist schools: at Nāgārjunakoņda we find inscriptional evidence of the presence in the third century CE of Mahāsāmghikas, Mahīśāsakas, Bahuśrutīyas, and Aparaśailas.⁷⁵

How all this relates to the historical circumstances of the introduction of Buddhism to Lańkā is a complex issue that goes beyond the



⁷⁴ That there was a local Nāgārjunakonda mahāvihāra is clear: it is mentioned by name further on in the same inscription as a place where the same Bodhisiri has had a mandava pillar erected; it is also mentioned in one other inscription (Vogel, 'Prakrit Inscriptions', p.19); yet the picture is complicated by the fact that this local mahāvihāra appears to be the residence of Aparamahāvinaseliyas (i. e. Aparaseliya Mahāsāmghikas?), and by the mention of a local Sīhaļa-vihāra, once again in Bodhisiri's inscription (cf. Vogel, 'Prakrit Inscriptions', pp.4, 9). Sircar and Lahiri ('Footprint Slab Inscription', p.249) assume a reference to the local mahāvihāra, while Walters ('Rethinking Buddhist Missions', pp. 303–05) and Cousins ('On the Vibhajavādins', pp. 140–42, 144–46) assume the Mahāvihāra of Anurādhapura.

⁷⁵ Vogel, 'Prakrit Inscriptions', pp. 10–11; Lamotte, *Histoire du bouddhisme indien*, pp. 579–84; see also Cousins, 'On the Vibhajjavādins', pp. 148–51 for some useful reflections on the epigraphical evidence for the distribution of Buddhist schools in the early centuries CE.



Figure 6. Reliquary vase from Andher, Stūpa 2, inscribed with the name Mogaliputa. (OA 1887.7-17.18, after Michael Willis, *Buddhist Reliquaries from Ancient India*, London: British Museum Press, 2000, cat. no. 27, fig. 121).

scope of the present discussion, but it is worth commenting on three matters: chronology, the inscriptions from Vediśā in central India, and the Asokan inscriptions.

The fact that the *Samantapāsādikā* mentions no schisms in the Sangha and shows no interest in Buddhist sectarianism might in part reflect circumstances where schisms in the Sangha might occur in one place but not be known of, or at least not considered significant, in other places for some time. The 'short chronology', which in some version seems generally favoured by scholars since the nineteeneighties, gives the Buddha's death as occurring in *ca*. 400 BCE. This brings the Second Council and the split between the Mahāsāmghikas and Sthaviras to within twenty to forty years of the 'events' recounted in the *Samantapāsādikā* as having taken place during the reign of Asoka in Pāṭaliputta.⁷⁶ As I shall discuss below, the record of the identity and affiliation of Buddhist schools found in the Pali sources takes the form

⁷⁶ For some reflections on the implications of adopting the 'short chronology' for the early history of Buddhist sectarianism see Charles Prebish, 'Cooking the Buddhist Books: The Implications of the New Dating of the Buddha for the History of Early Indian Buddhism', *Journal of Buddhist Ethics*, 15 (2008), pp. 1–21.

of a bare and ideal schema;⁷⁷ it thus seems likely that this has been projected back in time in a mechanical fashion.

It has long been recognized that the names of the monks of mentioned in Pali sources as bringing Buddhism to the region of the Himālava (Himavanta-padesa-bhāga) bear some relationship to the names of the 'Hemavata' monks found on reliquaries from stūpas at Sāñcī and Sonārī in ancient Vediśā in central India. Michael Willis has explored this relationship in some detail and argued convincingly for a more or less precise correspondence.78 While this corroborates some details of the Pali tradition about the mission to the Himālava regions, it also raises questions. A reliquary from the Andher stupa refers to a 'Mogaliputa the pupil of Gotiputa'. As Willis shows, this Vedisa Mogaliputa must have lived in the middle of the second century BCE, so cannot in any straightforward way be identified with the Tissa Moggaliputta of the the Pali sources, a contemporary of Asoka a century earlier. As Willis further points out, this undermines the suggestion of Frauwallner and Yamazaki that we can take the Vedisa inscriptions as evidence that the Buddhist missions mentioned in the Pali sources actually originated in Vedisa.79 The early Brāhmī inscriptions from Lankā suggest that at the time of Mogaliputa of Vedisa Buddhist monks were already living in the caves of Mihintale.

Two Asokan inscriptions have long been discussed as having some bearing on the accounts given in the Pali sources: the thirteenth Rock Edict (which survives in four versions) and the so-called 'schism'

⁷⁷ Cousins ('On the Vibhajjavādins', p. 147) draws attention to the fact that as early as 1903 Hendrik Kern (*Histoire du bouddhisme dans l'Inde*, 2 vols (Paris: Ernest Leroux, 1901–03) II 481) pointed out that the number '18' must be ideal (like the 18 *Purāņas*); Gananath Obeyesekere has more recently made the same point in his 'Myth, History and Numerology in the Buddhist Chronicles', in *The Dating of the Historical Buddha/Die Datierung des historischen Buddha*, Part 1, ed. by Heinz Bechert (Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 1991), pp. 152–82.

⁷⁸ Michael Willis, 'Buddhist Saints in Ancient Vedisa', *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, 11 (2001), pp.219–28

⁷⁹ Erich Frauwallner, *The earliest Vinaya and the beginnings of Buddhist literature* (Roma: IsMEO, 1956), pp.13–19; Gen'ichi Yamazaki, 'The Spread of Buddhism in the Mauryan Age with Special Reference to the Mahinda Legend', *Acta Asiatica*, 43 (1982), pp. 1–17.

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edict found at Kauśāmbī, Sāñcī and Sārnāth. The former refers at its conclusion to Asoka's dispatching emissaries ($d\bar{u}ta$) to various kingdoms. K. R. Norman has recently re-examined this edict alongside the Pali sources and listed the various differences between Asoka's $d\bar{u}ta$ missions and Moggaliputta Tissa's Buddhist missions and concludes that 'it is hard to imagine why anyone should ever have thought they were the same'.⁸⁰ The 'schism' edict demonstrates Asoka's willingness to intervene in the affairs of the Sangha to avert 'schism',⁸¹ and some of the terminology of the edict is echoed in the Pali sources, yet it remains unclear what kind of 'schism' is being referred to and how the edict might bear on any schism mentioned in other sources.⁸²

Since the present focus is Buddhist identity rather than Buddhist history, it is worth taking stock of the evidence for the former so far reviewed. Both the textual and inscriptional evidence seems to suggest that the Lankā Buddhist tradition's identity comprises three ingredients: (1) a lineage of Theras, occasionally explicitly characterised as Theriya (*presumably* as opposed to Mahāsanghika), (2) a set of Buddhist missions, sometimes explicitly linked to a particular famed Buddhist monk in the figure of Moggaliputta Tissa, and (3) rather more vaguely, the notion of following the tradition of the 'Analysts' or Vibhajjavādins. A fourth ingredient is specific to one group within Lankā, the group whose writings have in the main come down to us: belonging to the Mahāvihāra (as opposed to the Abhayagirivihāra or Jetavana) in Anurādhapura. The sources combine these ingredients in different ways and in different measures.

⁸⁰ K. R. Norman, 'Asokan Envoys and Buddhist Missionaries', *Collected Papers* (Oxford: Pali Text Society, 1990–), 8 (2007), pp. 183–98 (196).

⁸¹ The terms Asoka uses are from the roots *bhid* and *bhañj*.

⁸² See in particular: Heinz Bechert, 'The Importance of Aśoka's so-called Schism Edict', in *Indological and Buddhist Studies*, ed. by L.A. Hercus, and others (Canberrra: Australian National University, 1982), pp. 61–68; K. R. Norman, 'Aśoka's "Schism" Edict', *Collected Papers* (Oxford: Pali Text Society, 1990–), 3 (1992), pp. 191–218.

5. The *Kathāvatthu-atthakathā* and *Dīpavamsa*: 'We are Theriyas, and not Mahāsanghikas'

Buddhaghosa and his fellow monks on Lankā in the fifth century CE certainly knew of the split between the tradition of the Theras and the Mahāsanghikas, and also of subsequent splits; the author of the *Kathāvatthu-atthakathā* outlines them at the beginning his of commentary where he goes over essentially the same material found in Sp, but in only eight pages instead of 100.⁸³ The account in Kathāvatthu commentary comprises three parts:

(i) reference to the Buddha's teaching of the Abhidhamma in the Heaven of the Thirty-Three and his foreseeing that in the future Moggaliputta Tissa will give the full exposition of the *Kathāvatthu* at the third council (Kv-a 1,1-2,9);

(ii) the stories of the first and second councils followed by an account of the split of the Sangha into eighteen traditions ($\bar{a}cariyav\bar{a}da$) during the second 100 years after the Buddha's death (Kv-a 2,10–5,25);

(iii) the story of non-Buddhist ascetics (*titthiyas*) infiltrating the Sangha culminating in the third council during the reign of Asoka (Kv- a 6,1-8,25).⁸⁴

According to the account of the second council provided here, the defeated Vajjiputtaka monks immediately established a separate Mahāsanghika group of teachers ($\bar{a}cariyakula$) (Kv-a 2). In a little less than a page we are then given the barest of outlines of the splits that resulted over the course of 100 years in eighteen different schools. This is followed by a substantial quotation of 51 lines from the $D\bar{i}pavamsa$ (V 30–53) which merely repeats the bare account of the split into 18 schools, concluding with the statement that:

⁸³ The Mahāsanghikas are also mentioned elsewhere in Sp, but apparently only once, at 874,11 where the Mahāsanghikas, etc., are given as an example of the latter of two types of enemy: personal (*atta-paccatthika*) and of the dispensation (*sāsana-paccatthika*). This appears to be the only occurrence of the term in the *atthakathā*s other than Kv-a.

⁸⁴ Kv-a 6–8 is more or less compiled from Sp 52,20–53,23, 56,26, 60,12–61,20, adding a slightly longer description of the *Kathāvatthu*.

Of the traditions, that of the Elders, which resembles a large banyan tree, is the best; it is the religion of the Jina in full, with nothing lacking or added.

The other traditions grew like thorns on the tree.85

The author then notes (as does the $D\bar{p}avamsa$) that six more schools ($\bar{a}cariyav\bar{a}da$) appeared subsequently, that is, some time after 200 BE, but in the author's eyes presumably after the reign of Asoka rather than during it, since the narrative of the Third Council immediately returns to talking in terms of eighteen schools.⁸⁶ Both the author of the *Kathāvatthu* commentary and the *Dīpavamsa* thus name a total of 24 schools (see Table 1).

The most likely reason for the omission in the *Samantapāsādikā* of any account of the splits in the Sangha is that it was also omitted in the author's principal source and that he felt no need to make good this omission.⁸⁷ When the author of *Kathāvatthu* commentary comes to comment on the contents of the *Kathāvatthu*, however, it seems likely that since the sources of his commentary went some way in tying the views of the *Kathāvatthu*'s anonymous opponents (*paravādin*) to named Buddhist schools, he felt a brief account of the evolution of the schools was appropriate.⁸⁸ Yet the list of schools he provides in his

⁸⁵ Dīp V 52: nigrodho va mahārukkho theravādānam uttamo | anūnam anadhikañ ca kevalam jinasāsanam || kantakā [B^e santakā] viya rukkhamhi nibbattā vādasesakā |

⁸⁶ Of the six additional schools (Hemavatikas, Rājagirikas, Siddhatthikas, Pubbaseliyas, Aparaseliyas, Vājiriyas), four seem clearly Mahāsanghika (Kv-anut (B^e) 133); but the Hemavatikas are Thera-derived; nothing is known of the Vājiriyas.

⁸⁷ It is clear that some version of the *Dīpavamsa* was one of Buddhaghosa's sources since he quotes from it by name at Sp 74,18 and 75,14, yet it does not seem to have been the principal source he was following; cf. n. 51 above. The twelfth-century subcommentary to the *Samantapāsādikā* finds it appropriate to make good Buddhaghosa's omission, and begins its explanation of the third council by quoting in full and verbatim, but without acknowledgement, the relevant section from the *Kathāvatthu* commentary; see Sp-t (B^e) I 116–19 (to Sp 37).

⁸⁸ The split between the Mahāsanghikas and Theriyas is also not mentioned in the introduction to the *Atthasālinī*, which is likely to be by the same author as Kv-a (see von Hinüber, *Handbook of Pali Literature*, §§ 308–11); this seems

introduction in the context of the account of the split of the Sangha into eighteen schools does not fit well with the schools he subsequently goes on to specify in the body of his commentary as holding the particular viewpoints set out in the *Kathāvatthu*: half of the eighteen schools given in the introduction are not mentioned at all in the body of the commentary, and some that are mentioned relatively frequently in the body of the commentary are not found in the introduction⁸⁹ (See Table 2. Number of views attributed to schools in Kv-a).⁹⁰ The Vibhajjavādas are mentioned neither in the introduction as one of the 18 original

to go against the principal stated in the introduction to the commentaries to the four $Nik\bar{a}yas$, namely to comment in full on issues the first time they are relevant, but not subsequently.

⁸⁹ Lance Cousins has argued that all this suggests that the Mahāvihāra commentarial tradition did not in fact preserve its own tradition of the origin of the eighteen schools and that the *Dīpavamsa* must have borrowed its account from a northern Sarvāstivādin source; see his 'The "Five Points" and the Origins of the Buddhist Schools', *The Buddhist Forum* 2 (1991), pp. 27–60 (31–34).

⁹⁰ Only four or five of the 18 schools given in the account of the division of the Sangha turn out to be relevant to the allocation of the Kathāvatthu's anonymous views to specific schools; it is an additional six to nine groups, not mentioned in the introduction, that feature most prominently in this exercise: the Andhakas first and foremost - presumably because their close proximity meant that their views were most familiar to the southern Tambapannikas - with the Uttarapathakas or 'northerners' - lumped together presumably because the southern Tambapannikas were vague about their precise affiliation - coming a very poor second. In detail, leaving aside the Theras, of the original 18 schools the Mahāsanghikas have 24 theses attributed to them, the Sammitiyas 22, the Mahisāsakas 9, the Sabbatthivādas 3, and the Vajjiputtakas 2; a further 3 schools (the Gokulikas, Kassapikas and Bhadrayānikas) have 1 thesis each attributed to them, while 9 schools (the Pannattivādas, Bāhuliyas, Cetiyas, Ekabyohārikas, Sankantikas, Suttavādas, Dhammaguttikas, Dhammuttariyas, Channāgārikas) have no thesis at all attributed to them and are never mentioned again. The 6 additional schools feature more prominently: the Pubbaseliyas have 29 theses attributed to them, the Rajagirikas 11, the Siddhatthikas 9, the Aparaselivas 5, the Hemavatikas and Vājirivas 0. The body of Kv-a mentions 4 other groups that are not mentioned at all in the introduction: the Andhakas have 72 theses attributed to them, the Uttarapathakas 45, the Hetuvadas 11, the Vetullakas 8; the Andhakas are explained as a collective name for the Pubbaseliyas, Aparaseliyas, Rājagiriyas, Siddhatthikas (Kv-a 52: andhakā

schools, nor in the body of the commentary; the term only occurs in the context of the expulsion of the non-Buddhist ascetics from the Sangha.

Moreover, relating the composition of the *Kathāvatthu* – and the views of the anonymous Buddhist opponents contained in it – to a series of splits in the Sangha that are supposed to have occurred during the century *before* the crisis that prompted the third council only further highlights the way in which the *Kathāvatthu* is ill suited to resolving a dispute that turns on the infiltration of the Buddhist Sangha by non-Buddhist ascetics.⁹¹

As has often been pointed out, the *Dīpavamsa* appears to be a text that combines material from a number of sources with little attempt to rework the material into a single, coherent whole. It provides two accounts each of the first, second and third councils.⁹² Frauwallner has suggested that this indicates that the *Dīpavamsa* as we have it is drawing on two ancient lost sources, a Mahāvihāra Mahāvamsa and an Abhayagirivihāra Mahāvamsa.93 Yet the account of the split into eighteen schools occurs only once in the *Dīpavamsa*, as a continuation of the second account of the second council (Dīp V 39-54); there is no reference to the splits in the Sangha in connection with either of the *Dipavamsa*'s accounts of the third council in chapter seven. Frauwallner takes the Dipavamsa's second version as deriving from the lost Abhayagirivihāra's Mahāvamsa. Whether or not that is so it seems likely that this *Dīpavamsa* account of the split into schools is the source of the Kathāvatthu commentary's account. All this reinforces the conclusion that the traditions available to Buddhaghosa and his fellow monks relating to the split of the Sangha into eighteen schools

nāma pubbaseliyā, aparaseliyā, rājagiriyā, siddhatthikā ti ime pacchā uppannanikāyā).

⁹¹ Norman ('Aśoka's "Schism" Edict', p. 214) suggests the conflation of three separate events in the Pali sources: a schism, a dispute about doctrine, and the third council.

⁹² See Dīp IV 1–26 and V 1–14 (first council), Dīp IV 47–53 and V 15–38 (second council), and Dīp VII 34–43 and VII 44–59 (third council); ('On the Historical Value of the Ancient Ceylonese Chronicles', pp. 20–21).

⁹³ Frauwallner, 'On the Historical Value of the Ancient Ceylonese Chronicles', pp. 19–21. The Uttaravihāra (or Abhayagiri) *Mahāvamsa* is mentioned by name at Mhv-t 134, 14–15; for the editor's discussion see Mhv-t lxv–lxvii.

were rather limited: essentially a footnote to one account of the second council. Moreover, it seems likely that the account of the splits did not originally form an integral part *either* of the earliest traditions concerned with the third council and the transmission of Buddhism to Lańkā *or* of the traditional exegesis associated with the *Kathāvatthu*.⁹⁴ The *Samantapāsādikā*, *Kathāvatthu* commentary, and *Dīpavaṃsa* all struggle to relate three separate traditions: the story of the transmission of Sāsana to Lańkā, the history of the division of the Sangha into various schools, and the technical doctrinal Abhidhamma debates that underlie the *Kathāvatthu*.

Despite the fact that the history of the splits in the Buddhist Sangha is not well integrated into the overall account of the Lankā tradition's lineage, bringing in the account of the split into eighteen schools (six Mahāsanghika and twelve Thera) does make clear that in the fourth and fifth centuries monks in Lankā identified their tradition as Theriya rather than Mahāsanghikas. But not only is the tradition understood to be Theriya, it derives directly from the original Theras; the other eleven Thera derived schools are considered to have split off from them in the second century BE:

All eighteen teachers' traditions emerged in the second century [BE]. It is just these that are also referred to as 'the eighteen schools' and 'the eighteen teachers' groups'. Of these eighteen traditions, seventeen should be considered schismatic, and the Tradition of the Elders not schismatic.⁹⁵

Yet, given that the story of Moggaliputta Tissa's missions continues to be emphasized,⁹⁶ the Thera tradition of Lankā remains one that is not exclusively Lankan; the Theras of Lankā are a branch of a

⁹⁴ Cousins ('On the Vibhajjavādins', p. 151) suggests that 'there can be no doubt' that the *Dīpavamsa*'s account of the schools must ultimately derive from Vasumitra's **Samayabhedoparacanacakra* (third or fourth century?); the precise grounds for this claim are not clear.

⁹⁵ Kv-a 3: sabbe va aţihārasa ācariyavādā dutiye vassasate uppannā. aţihārasa nikāyā ti pi aţihārasācariyakulānī ti pi etesam yeva nāmam. etesu pana sattarasa vādā bhinnakā, theravādo asambhinnako ti veditabbo.

⁹⁶ These are not mentioned in Kv-a, but are found in Dīp VIII.

broader tradition that is found, or at least was found, across the Indian subcontinent and even beyond; the claim is not so much to be *the* authentic Theras, but to be *a branch* of the authentic Theras.

6. The *Mahāvaṃsa*: 'The Mahāvihāravāsins are the only true Theriyas in Laṅkā'

When we turn to the *Mahāvaṃsa*, however, we find evidence that the claim to be the true inheritors of the tradition that derives from Mahinda and Moggaliputta Tissa came to be contested in Lankā. The fifth chapter of the *Mahāvaṃsa* begins with an account of the split into twenty-four schools (*ācariyakulavādakathā*, Mhv V 1–13) that follows exactly that found in Kv-a and *Dīpavaṃsa*. But at the conclusion it adds that two further schools split off in Lankā, the Dhammarucis and Sāgaliyas, also known as the Abhayagirivāsins and Jetavanīyas.⁹⁷ This thus refers to events connected with the establishment in Anurādhapura of the two *vihāra*s that were to become rivals of the Mahāvihāra: the Abhayagirivihāra (in the first century BCE during the reign of Vaṭtagāmanī) and the Jetavana (in the fourth century CE during the reign of Mahāsena).

The reigns of both these kings are dealt with in the *Dīpavamsa*, and while in the case of the former, the king's construction of Abhayagiri is mentioned, there is no mention of any formal split in the Lańkā Sańgha in connection with this; the establishment of Jetavana is passed over entirely.⁹⁸ According to the *Mahāvamsa* the initial founding of

⁹⁷ Mhv V 13c–d: Dhammarucī Sāgaliyā Lankadīpamhi bhinnakā ||; see Mhv-ţ 175, 176, 676–80.

⁹⁸ Dīp XIX 14–19 relates the founding of Abhayagiri (but makes no mention of a split) and also of the Dakkhiņavihāra (cf. Mhv XXXIII 88), a second Abhayagiri establishment; its monks later split from the Abhayagiri and went to live in the newly founded Jetavana (Mhv XXXVI 110 – XXXVII 39); the founding of Jetavana by Mahāsena seems not to be mentioned in the short account of his reign at Dīp XXII 66–75, though he is said to have fallen under the influence of shameless (*alajji*) and immoral (*dussīla*) bhikkhus; their names do not fit with those given in Mhv in connection with the dispute with the Mahāvihāra.

the Abhayagirivihāra did not involve a formal split, it was only subsequently when a monk was expelled from the Mahāvihāra (on Vinaya grounds) and his pupil took refuge in Abhayagiri that a separate 'faction' (*pakkha*) was formed.⁹⁹ Despite the use of the word *pakkha*, the author immediately treats this as a split in the Lańkā Saṅgha:

From that time these bhikkhus came no more to the Mahāvihāra: thus the bhikkhus of the Abhayagiri split from the tradition of the Elders (*theravādato*). From the monks of the Abhayagiri-vihāra those of the Dakkhiņa-vihāra split [afterwards]; in this way those bhikkhus who split from the followers of the tradition of the Elders (*theravādīhi*) were divided into two.¹⁰⁰

This indicates a shift in the Mahāvihāra monks' sense of their Buddhist history and identity. No longer is the lineage of the ancient Elders brought to Laṅkā by Mahinda something shared in common by all the monks of Laṅkā, it is now something that the Mahāvihāra attempts to lay exclusive claim to: only the Mahāvihāra is the authentic *theravāda*. This is no doubt to some extent a question of rhetoric: how you present yourself depends in part on whom you intend to impress and persuade.¹⁰¹ We should be wary of concluding that the implication of the

⁹⁹ Mhv XXXIII 78–83 (initial founding); XXXIII 93–98 (split, including reference to the subsequent Jetavana Sāgaliya split. It is not entirely clear whether the Mahātissa who is expelled (Mhv XXXIII 95) is the same as the Mahātissa to whom Vaţtagāmaņī gives Abhayagiri (Mhv XXXIII 82); Geiger's translation seems to suggest they are different as does DPPN (s.vv. 12 Mahātissa and 13 Mahātissa); but Rahula, *History of Buddhism in Ceylon*, pp. 82–83 takes them as the same.

¹⁰⁰ (Adapted from Geiger.) Mhv XXXIII 97–98: tato pabhuti te bhikkhū Mahāvihāram nāgamum | evam te 'bhayagirikā niggatā theravādato || pabhinnā 'bhayagirikehi Dakkhiņavihārikā yatī | evam te theravādīhi pabhinnā bhikkhavo dvidhā ||

¹⁰¹As Kulke suggests the significant reason for Mahānāma's writing 'his new chronicle appears to have been sectarian struggles'; a century or so before the composition of the *Mahāvamsa*, the Mahāvihāra had experienced real threats to its prestige and even survival in the form of King Mahāsena's (334–362/272–302 CE) patronage of its rival institutions. H. Kulke, 'Sectarian Politics and Historiography in Early Sri Lanka: Wilhelm Geiger's studies of the chronicles of Sri Lanka in the light of recent research', in

Mahāvamsa passage is that from then on all Mahāvihāra monks always thought of themselves as the only true *theravādins*. And it is unlikely that the monks of the Abhayagirivihāra accepted such a claim. We know from the eighth-to-ninth-century commentary to the Mahāvamsa that they preserved their own account of their lineage,¹⁰² and it seems likely that the monks of the Abhayagirivihāra regarded themselves just as much heirs of the Mahinda-Lanka lineage as the monks of the Mahāvihāra, and just as much belonging to the Theravāda or lineage of the Theriyas. When the point of contrast is the Mahāsanghikas, for example, even the Mahāvihāra Cūlavamsa would seem ready to include the Abhayagirivāsins within the fold of the Theriyas.¹⁰³ Yet with the purification and unification of the three Lanka nikayas by way of the Mahāvihāra *upasampadā* in the middle of the twelfth century during the reign of Parākramabāhu I, it can perhaps be said that the Mahāvihāra's claim to be the authentic *theravādins* is endorsed, at least de facto: henceforth 'Theravada Buddhism' is exclusively the lineage of the Mahāvihāra, but passed down to us not precisely by the monks of the *vihāra* in ancient Anurādhapura, but by their descendents in twelfth-century Polonnaruva.104

Wilhelm Geiger and the Study of the History and Culture of Sri Lanka, ed. by Ulrich Everding and Asanga Tilakaratne (Colombo: Goethe Institute and Postgraduate Institute of Pali and Buddhist Studies, 2000), pp. 112–136 (134).

¹⁰² On the Uttaravihāra-aţţhakathā (Mhv-ţ 125, 155, 177, 187, 247, 249, 289, 290) and Uttaravihāra-Mahāvāmsa (Mhv-ţ 134,14), see Malalasekera at Mhv-ţ 1xv–lxvii; Malalasekera takes these as different names for the same text; in any case the Uttaravihāra-aţţhakathā certainly contained an account of the second Council (Mhv-ţ 155,15); Walters, 'Rethinking Buddhist Missions', pp.271–72.

¹⁰³ Mhv (Cūļavamsa) L 68 talks of the construction of a monastic establishment / or monastic establishments within the Abhayagirivihāra for the use of both Mahāsanghikas and Theriyas, suggesting that Abhayagiri monks could be designated Theriyas, unless we are to assume that Mahāsanghika here is meant to characterise the Abhayagirivāsin monks (*katvā Vīrankurārāmam vihāre Abhayuttare* | *Mahāsanghikabhikkhūnam Theriyānañ ca dāpayī* ||); I will return to this passage below. Cf. Gunawardana, *Robe and Plough*, p. 252.

¹⁰⁴For primary accounts of the unification see Mhv (Cūlavamsa) LXXVIII 1–27; Epigraphia Zeylanica 2, 256–83; Nandasena Ratnapāla, The

7. The four great schools (*mahānikāya*): 'The Theriyas of Laṅkā are the Sthāviras'

In the material considered so far, there is no explicit expression of a sense of identity involving the claim to be the sole surviving Theravādins as opposed to the Lankā branch of a broader tradition of ancient Theriyas. Theoretically at least for the Lankā Buddhists the possibility remained that there were in India other surviving Theriya traditions descended from Moggaliputta Tissa's original missions. Nonetheless the evidence is that by the end of the seventh century such a possibility was no longer countenanced, either within the Lankā tradition or outside it.

Buddhists from the Indian mainland appear originally to have regarded the Buddhists of Lankā as simply the 'Lankā school', thus Vasubandhu writing in the fourth century cites the notion of the *bhavānga-vijnāna* of the Tāmraparņīya-nikāya as a forerunner of the *ālaya-vijnāna*.¹⁰⁵ But beginning with Yijing's account of his travels in India (671–695 CE) and Vinītadeva's eighth-century summary of the divisions of the Buddhist schools (*Samaya-bhedoparacana-*

Katikāvatas: laws of the Buddhist Order of Ceylon from the 12th century to the 18th century (Munich: Kitzinger, 1971), pp. 127–35; for discussion see Gunawardana, Robe and Plough, pp. 313–37 and Heinz Bechert, 'The Nikāyas of Mediaeval Sri Lanka and the unification of the Sangha by Parākramabāhu I', in Studies on Buddhism in honour of Professor A.K. Warder, ed. by N.K. Wagle and Fumimaro Watanabe (Toronto: University of Toronto, 1993), pp. 11–21 (15–19). Bechert criticizes Gunawardana's suggestion that the unification of the Sangha did not effect the disappearance of the nikāyas other than the Mahāvihāra and concludes that 'it is reasonable to say that the unification did amount to the "victory" of the Mahāvihāra and to the disappearance of the other two nikāyas as organised monastic groups' (p. 18).

¹⁰⁵ Šee L. S. Cousins, 'The Pațțhāna and the Development of the Theravādin Abhidhamma', Journal of the Pali Text Society, 10 (1981), pp. 22–46 (22); L. Schmithausen, Ālayavijñāna: On the Origin and Early Development of a Central Concept of Yogācāra Philosophy (Tokyo, 1987), I 7–8. The relevant texts are the Karmasiddhiprakaraņa § 35 (see É. Lamotte, 'Le Traité de l'acte de Vasubandhu', Mélanges chinois et bouddhiques 4 (1936), pp. 151– 264 (250)) and the Pratītyasamutpādavyākhyā (here the notion is ascribed to the Mahīšāsakas – see Schmithausen, Ālayavijñāna, II 255–56, n. 68).



Figure 7. Jetavanārāma Sanskrit Inscription No. 1, Siddhamātrka script, Sanskrit, ca. ninth century (after *Epigrapia Zeylanica* Vol. I, Pl. 1).

cakra-nikāya-bhedopadarśana-cakra), we find north Indian sources describing the Buddhist Saṅgha as comprising four *nikāyas*: (1) the Mahāsāmghikas, (2) the Sthāviras, (3) the Sarvāstivādins, and (4) the Sammatīyas. Significantly, the Sthāviras in turn comprise three sub-*nikāyas*: the Jetavanīyas, the Abhayagirivāsins, and the Mahāvihāravāsins.¹⁰⁶ The Buddhists of Laṅkā are thus no longer regarded as the 'Laṅkā school', they are *the* Sthāviras, despite the fact that both the Sarvāstivādins and the Sammatīyas were also understood as tracing their lineage to the Sthāvira side of the original split with the Mahāsāmghikas.¹⁰⁷ The reason for referring to the three Buddhist *nikāyas* of Laṅkā as *the* Sthāviras is probably not so much a recognition of an exclusive claim to be the authentic *theravāda*, as a reflection of the simple fact that the Laṅkā schools alone of the various Sthāvira schools continued to refer to themselves as *theriya* or *theravāda* in certain contexts.

Within Lanka, while the tendency to think of the Lanka Buddhist Sangha as comprising three principal nikāyas consisting of the Mahāvihāravāsins, Abhavagirivāsins (Dhammarucika), and Jetavanavāsins (Sāgalika) is clear from a variety of sources, the evidence for a conception of the Buddhist Sangha as a whole as comprising four principal nikāvas is, although not entirely lacking, more limited. I noted above that at the conclusion of the Sumanglavilāsinī, Buddhaghosa says that he composed his commentary on the Dighagama at the request of the Sanghathera Dāthānāga, whom he describes as 'a follower of the lineage of the Theras' (theravamsanvavena). Explaining this expression in his seventh-century (?) subcommentary, Dhammapāla states that it refers to 'someone who is a follower of the lineage or tradition of the Theras, beginning with Mahākassapa [the convener of the first council]; of those belonging to the four principal schools (mahānikāva), what is meant is someone who is a Theriva'.¹⁰⁸ This appears to be the only reference to four mahānikāvas in the Pali sources

¹⁰⁶ Bareau, Les sectes bouddhiques, pp. 24–25; Lamotte, Histoire du bouddhisme indien, pp. 601–03.

¹⁰⁷ See Lamotte, Histoire du bouddhisme indien, pp. 585–96.

¹⁰⁸ Sv-pţ III 372 (to Sp 1064): therānam mahākassapādīnam vamso pavenī, anvayo etassā ti theravamsanvayo; tena catumahānikāyesu theriyenā ti attho.

and whether the *mahānikāyas* referred to are the Mahāsanghikas, Theriyas, Sabbatthivādins, and Sammitiyas is uncertain but seems likely. There is, however, a further reference to four *mahānikāyas* in a ninth-century Sanskrit inscription written in a north Indian script and found within the grounds of the Abhayagirivihāra.¹⁰⁹ Towards the end of this inscription we find the following:

Twenty-five ascetics from each of the four principal schools [are to reside here], making one hundred residents; forty [of these should be] ascetics versed in the *sāstras*. Those who have received tutelage irrespective of division into schools ... Among all these [ascetics], those whose speech is coarse or untruthful, and whose behaviour is improper shall not reside [here], let alone those ascetics who carry clubs and knives. If there is a deficiency [in the number] of ascetics of any of these schools, with the agreement of that school it should be made good by [ascetics from] the other schools.¹¹⁰

Gunawardana has linked this Abhayagiri inscription to Vīraṅkurārāma, a monastery said in the *Cūlavaṃsa* to have been built by Sena I (833–53 CE) in the grounds of Abhayagiri-vihāra, and donated to monks belonging to the Mahāsaṅghika and Theriya schools,¹¹¹ and concluded

¹⁰⁹ The inscription was edited by Don Martino de Zilva Wickremasinghe and published under the title 'Jetavanārāma Sanskrit Inscription' (EZ I, 1–9); this is because at the time of its publication (1912) there was still confusion about the identifications of Jetavana and Abhayagiri.

¹¹⁰ EZ I, 5,33–37: cātur mahānikāyeşu pañcavimsatiķ pañcavimsatis tapasvinaķ tena satan naivāsikānām | catvārimsat sāstrābhiyuktās tapasvinaķ | nikāyabhedam vināpi grhītanisrayāķ ...| ... eşu sarveşu asabhyavādibhir asatyavādibhir ayuktakāribhir api na vastavyam | kim punar lākuţikasastradharakat[pasvi]bhiķ | yeşu nikāyeşv asampūrņatā tapasvinām tadanyanikāyais tadāśrayeņa sthātavyam | tan nikāyatapasvişu sa ...[apa]neyā anyanikāyatapasvinaķ sthāpyās ca tannikāyā eva... With regard to the reference to 'ascetics versed in the sāstras' see Upās 106–111 for a summary of evidence of Sanskrit Buddhist texts known in Lankā by the end of the thirteenth century.

¹¹¹ Mhv (Cūlavamsa) L 68: katvā Vīrankurārāmam vihāre Abhayuttare | Mahāsanghikabhikkhūnam Theriyānañ ca dāpayī || For Gunawardana's discussion see, Robe and Plough, pp. 247–54. Bechert has proposed reading Mahimsāsika- (Wilhelm Geiger and Heinz Bechert, Culture of Ceylon in

that the four principal *nikāyas* referred to in the inscription are thus indeed the Mahāsāmghikas, Sthāviras, Sarvāstivādins and Sammatīyas. While Bechert has disputed Gunawardana's argument, he offers no alternative suggestion; accepting 'that the inscription was meant to regulate the affairs of a monastic establishment which housed monks of Indian origin' he then concludes that 'the evidence available so far is not sufficient to identify these four *nikāyas*, and that all attempts to do so remain pure speculation'.¹¹² Neither Gunawardana nor Bechert refers to the passage from the *Dīgha-nikāya tīkā* just cited, but given that the passage contrasts the Theriya as one *mahānikāya* among three others, it tends to suggest that Gunawardana's conclusion that we have in the inscription a reference to Mahāsāmghikas, Sthāviras, Sarvāstivādins and Sammatīyas is the most plausible.

8. Conclusions

I suggested above that in defining its Buddhist identity Lankā Buddhist tradition made reference to four things:

- (1) a lineage of Theras,
- a set of Buddhist missions associated with the famed Moggaliputta Tissa,
- (3) the tradition of the 'Analysts' or Vibhajjavādins, and
- (4) the principal monastic establishments of Anurādhapura (the Mahāvihāra, Abhayagirivihāra and Jetavana).

On the basis of the material considered above it seems possible to distinguish four different phases in the development of Buddhist identity referring to these four things:

Mediaeval Times (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1986), pp.208, n. 1), an emendation rejected by Gunawardana (p. 248).

¹¹² See Heinz Bechert, 'On the Identification of Buddhist Schools in Early Sri Lanka', in *Indology and Law: Studies in Honour of Professor J. Duncan M. Derrett,* ed. by Günther-Dietz Sontheimer and Parameswara K. Aithal (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1982), pp.60–76; Bechert, 'The Nikāyas of Mediaeval Sri Lanka', p.15

(1) An initial phase when the Buddhists of Lankā see themselves as connected to an important lineage which they regard as pan-Indian. Through Mahinda and Moggaliputta Tissa, this lineage can trace itself back directly to the elders who presided at the first and second councils; yet, significantly, it does not define itself by reference to other Buddhist lineages. Such an initial phase is exemplified especially by the Background Story of the *Samantapāsādikā*.

(2) From this develops a more specific sense of identity which takes this lineage as that of the Theras from whom the Mahāsanghikas and others split after the second council. This phase is exemplified especially by the *Kathāvatthu* commentary and the *Dīpavaṃsa*.

(3) Next there is the development of the claim on the part of the Mahāvihāravāsins that they alone in Laṅkā are the authentic heirs of this Thera lineage. This phase is exemplified especially by the Mahāvamsa.

(4) Finally there is a phase in which the Theras of Lankā come to be seen as the only surviving representatives of the Theras from whom the Mahāsanghikas and others split after the second council. This perspective is explicit in the writings of mainland Indian Buddhists and implicit and probably assumed in later Pali commentaries.

The characterization *vibhajjavāda* is present and part of this identity, especially in the first and second phase, yet since it is never explained in the sources quite how the term *vibhajjavāda* relates to the list of schools preserved by the tradition, it remains unclear how precisely it contributed to the sense of belonging to a specific lineage and school.

We should no doubt be wary of seeking one fixed formulation as finally defining the sense of Buddhist identity embodied in the ancient Pali sources. After all, our sense of ourselves shifts depending on context and on what sense of identity we feel we need to project. The different senses of Buddhist identity that developed in Lankā overlie each other in a way that does not entail that what is later totally obscures what is earlier. Moreover, the pattern of *nikāya* formation, affiliation and identity in both ancient Lankā and India is likely to have been more complex and subtle than a simple model of three or four *nikāya*s suggests – just as it is in Sri Lanka today. As Richard Gombrich observes:

There are said to be three Nikāyas in Sri Lanka today: the Siyam, the Amarapura and the Rāmañña; and yet this is a kind of fiction, the pattern being set by the glories of the ancient past. The modern Nikāyas are much subdivided, some by disagreement over a point of *vinaya* and some geographically; and some forest hermitages recognize allegiance to none of the three ...¹¹³

Having made a similar point with regard to the ideal division of the modern Sri Lankan Sangha into three $nik\bar{a}yas$, Bechert goes on to comment:

It is almost certain that the real *nikāya* divisions in Sri Lanka during the mediaeval period as well did not always agree with the traditional tripartition. Thus, we know from the *Cūlavamsa* that the *Pamsukūlika* monks branched off from the Abhayagirivāsins during the ninth century. The situation concerning the validity of the traditional divisions of the Sangha was not very much different in India.¹¹⁴_

So what of the question posed in the title of this article: was Buddhaghosa a Theravadin? The answer to such a question must depend in part on what is understood by the term *theravādin*. What becomes apparent from a detailed consideration of the sources is that the ways we tend to use Theravada today do not correspond to the ways it is used in the sources known to and composed by Buddhaghosa, thus the question is in part anachronistic. Was Augustine of Hippo (354–430 CE) a Catholic? Modern notions of being a Catholic often assume such things as the eleventh-century schism between the Eastern and Western Church and the Protestant Reformation, which make this question inappropriate. The problem is that modern notions of Theravada also often assume certain things: a home in Lanka as the base for the school's missions to South East Asia, an opposition with Mahāyāna, the final pre-eminence of the Mahāvihāra, and the almost mythical status of Buddhaghosa himself as author of the defining works of Theravada - when in fact his authorship of a number of these works is problematic. It is as well to remind ourselves that it was not always so and that what we think of as

¹¹³ Gombrich, Theravāda Buddhism, pp. 159.

¹¹⁴ Bechert, 'The Nikāyas of Mediaeval Sri Lanka', p. 12.

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Theravāda is not some constant throughout Buddhist history. It would be unhelpful and misleading to end this discussion by concluding that Buddhaghosa was not a *theravādin*, suggesting that he was something else, a Mahāsāmghika perhaps. There can be little doubt that if pressed on the question of what *nikāya* he belonged to, Buddhaghosa would at some point have referred to the ancient division in the Sangha between the Theras and Mahāsāmghikas and would have suggested that his *nikāya* was related to the former. And yet it is extremely unlikely that he would have used the word 'Theravādin' of himself and not at all clear that he would have used the name 'Theravāda' of his *nikāya*.



the 18 schools	 Mahāsanghika 2. Gokulika 4. Paņņattivāda 5. Bāhulika (Bahussutika) 6. Cetiya(vāda) 3. Ekabbohārika 	the 6 Mahāsaṅghika schools		
	 Thera Mahimsāsaka Sabbatthivāda Kassapika Kassapika Sańkantika Sankantika Dhammaguttika Vajjiputtaka Dhammuttariya Bhadrayānika Channāgārika Sammitiya 	the 12 Thera schools		
	Hemavatika, Rājagirika, Siddhatthika, Pubbaseliya, Aparaseliya, Vājiriya	the 6 additional schools		
	Dhammaruci (Abhayagirivāsin), Sāgaliya (Jetavanavāsin)	the 2 schools that arose in Laṅkā (Mhv V 12–13)		

Table 1. Schools of Buddhism according to Dīp V 30–53, Kv-a 2,10–3,15, Mhv V 1–13

Table 2. Number of views attributed to schools in Kv-a

24 schools of Dīp, Kv-a, Mhv								
E) -)						4 schools		
18 schools				6 additional schools		exclusive to Kv-a		
Mahāsaṅghika	25	Thera	_	Hemavatika	0	Andhaka*	73	
	25				-		-	
Gokulika	1	Mahimsāsaka	9	Rājagirika	11	Uttarāpathaka	45	
Paņņattivāda	0	Sabbatthivāda	3	Siddhatthika	9	Hetuvāda	11	
Bāhuliya	0	Kassapika	1	Pubbaseliya	29	Vetullaka	8	
Cetiya(vāda)	0	Saṅkantika	0	Aparaseliya	5			
Ekabyohārika	0	Suttavādā	0	Vājiriya	0			
		Dhammaguttika	0					
		Vajjiputtaka	2					
		Dhammuttariya	0	* Identified as Pubbaseliya, Aparaseliya,				
		Bhadrayānika	1	Rājagiriya, Siddhatthika and as 'mostly'				
		Channāgārika	0	Mahāsanghikas (Kv-a 52, Kv-a-mṭ (B°)				
		Sammitiya	23	95, Kv-anuț (E	³ ⁰) 132).		

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Conventions

I generally give terms cited from Pali sources according to the Pali spelling, for excample, Mahāsanghika. The spelling Mahāsāmghika would be used with reference to sources originally written in Sanskrit. This may at times lead to inconsistencies, but I hope not to confusion.

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Plate Ib (next pages)



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