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THE VIMALAKIRTI NIRDEŚA SÜTRA. Translated and edited by Charles Luk. Shambala Books: Berkeley and London, 1972, 157 pp.

The Vimalakirti-nirdela, "The Teaching of Vimalakirti," is one of the most highly regarded of all Mahayana sutras. Vimalakirti, a householder and Buddhist layman living in Vaisali, is depicted as an eminent Bodhisattva. His dialogues with the Bodhisattva Mañjuśri and others give the sutra a fine dramatic composition, through which the essence of the Mahayana thought is elaborately and profoundly expounded.

There are three Chinese translations and one in Tibetan. There is no Sanskrit original now extant. Among these versions, the Chinese translation by Kumāra-jiva has been the most popular and most widely studied in the East. This new translation by Charles Luk is based on the Kumārajīva version. A French translation by Étienne Lamotte appeared in 1962. It was based upon a study and collation of all the Tibetan and Chinese versions, and accompanied by very detailed footnotes. It may be considered the best translation so far into a modern European language. There is also a German translation by Yokota Takezo and Jakob Fischer, Dai Sūtra Vimalakīrti (Tokyo, 1944), and an English one by Idumi Hokei, Vimalakīrti's Discourse on Emancipation, which appeared in the original series of the Eastern Buddbist (Vol. III, no. 1, 1924—Vol. IV, no. 3-4, 1928). Another English translation, by the late Richard Robinson of the University of Wisconsin, has had a limited circulation in mimeograph form, but has not yet been published. Since most of these are very difficult to come by, we must welcome the appearance of Mr. Luk's new English rendering.

Charles Luk (alias Lu K'uan Yü) was born in Canton in 1898. He studied under the guidance of Lamaistic masters and, later, under the Ch'an master Hsu Yun. He has produced many books and translations, mostly concerned with Ch'an and Ch'an thought. They were executed with the sole ambition "to present as many Chinese Buddhist texts as possible so that Buddhism can be preserved at least in the West, should it be fated to disappear in the East as it seems to be." The present work may be said to have emerged from this same background.

The translator explains the outlines of the sutra in the Foreword, and has added a Glossary of important words at the end. He tells us that when he worked on this translation he used only the Kumarajiva version, and made use of annotations by Kumarajiva and Seng Chao, and a Ming commentary made in 1630 by

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the Ch'an master Po Shan. Thus, he did not refer to any other Chinese or Tibetan translations, not to speak of the Western language translations mentioned above. Kumarajiva's version is highly celebrated for its graceful and yet simple wording (simple, that is, when compared to the original Sanskrit), harboring keen wit and profound meaning. Luk is successful in following after Kumarajiva and transmitting this characteristic of his version. Although there is no doubt the fine English owes to the translator's intelligence, he seems to be inspired by Kumarajiva to a great extent.

The principal aim of the book as stated in the dedicatory remarks, is "to present translations of Chinese Buddhist texts to keen students of the Dharma in the West." It is not an academic exercise but derives from the translator's deep feeling of compassion for all mankind. I think it can be said that the translator's aims have been mostly achieved in the approachability and readableness of the book.

However, seen from an academic viewpoint, the book is not free from a variety of shortcomings. Of course, in light of the intention expressed above, it would be wrong to expect a strictly scholarly treatment or procedure. Still, I do think it highly desirable that any translation should be supported by accurate scholar-ship. This is even more the case with a sacred and spiritual text such as this, that is rendered into a foreign language for the benefit of students of Buddhism. What they need above all is an accurate text, as accurate and precise as possible. An erroneous translation can only serve to distort the Buddha Dharma.

The translator is weak in Sanskrit, as evidenced by misspellings: gandbāra (p. 4, 7) instead of gandbarva, bodbipāksita (p. 86) instead of bodbipāksika (or could this be careless proofreading; these words are correctly spelled on other pages). The Sanskrit term for it is bodbimanda, not bodbimandala (p. 39 ff, p. 87); this is an error often made by other scholars as well. The personal names rendered in Sanskrit as Ratnarāsi (for it, p. 5) and Merukalpa (for it it, p. 64) should be Ratnakūta or Ratnakara, and Merupradiparāja, respectively. Instead of conjecturing Sanskrit equivalents, however, these terms should perhaps have been rendered into English, inasmuch as they are mostly names and words with meanings significant enough to translate, and Kumārajīva too has translated them, not transliterated. In view of the overall character of the book, the author should perhaps have avoided meaningless Sanskrit words as far as possible. The name Āmradārikā (p. 139) is unknown to me; it is usually Āmrapālī or -pālikā.

There are numerous mistakes in translating the Chinese text. For example, is not "flame" (p. 18), but "mirage." The words a text, wrongly rendered:

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"Since I left the Buddha..." (p. 32) simply mean: "Except the Tathagata..." as Robinson renders it. In the sentence 本自不然,今則無疑 the character 然 is equal to 如 (to burn): this can be verified not only from the Tibetan text but also from Hsüan-tsang: 微然. It is translated (p. 23): "... since fundamentally they are not self-existent they cannot now be the subject of annihilation." But the sentence means, metaphorically, that all beings are neither burning nor extinguishing. Robinson is right to translate it: "As they themselves have never burned, they are not extinguished now."

The translator seems to understand the Buddhist terms 12 and 22 according to their intrinsic Chinese sense or with a Taoist flavor. He gives their Chinese pronunciations: yu-wei and wu-wei, and translates them "active" and "inactive" respectively (pp. 30, 63, 94; on pp. 32, 35, 94 he puts them as "the worldly" and "the transcendental," or "mundane" and "supramundane"). The character 26, however, means not only "to act" but also "to make." Being derived from the root 17, the Sanskrit original samples for 126 can also imply "act, deed" (harman). With prefix, however, samples usually means "put together," "constructed," etc., and as a Buddhist term it means "produced by cause and effect." Often the two terms are translated as "conditional" and "unconditioned," that is, the relative versus the absolute. Putting aside whether it was the author's intention to introduce the Taoist idea by his translation of these terms, I think the reader should be made aware of their original Indian, Buddhistic significance.

There is a general lack of common knowledge about things Indian and Buddhist. For example, the listing (p. 4, n. 2) of the so-called "eight classes of divine beings" is wrong (see the Glossary, p. 143, where it is correct). The name 常歌 is given as "Śakras and Indras" (p. 17) as if it were two distinct divinities.

The term bodbimanda is sidescribed as "a holy site" (p. 39; see also p. 140 f.) and is said to include various sacred pilgrimage places in China, such as O Mei and Wu T'ai Shan. But bodbimanda, originally and primarily, refers to the spot under the Bodhi-tree in Bodhgaya where Sakyamuni Buddha first obtained his enlightenment; the spot is also called the vajrasana and the The translator mentions nothing about this. On p. 39, line 1, Vimalakirti declares to Bodhisattva "Glorious Light" that he comes from "the (not a as in Luk's translation) bodbimanda." This means that he, equating himself with Sakyamuni, comes from the vajrasana, that is, he is already enlightened. It does not mean he is coming from any holy place such as O Mei in China, as might be inferred from the translator's footnote.

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The important passage to the passage to the passage to passage to

Page 68 depicts a scene in which the first of the Buddha's disciples, Mahākāśyapa, who has reached the stage of arhatship, the Hīnayāna's highest goal, is
lamenting the fact that his attainment of arhatship has cut him off from the root
of compassionate love for living beings, and that accordingly he is not entitled
for the Mahāyāna's supreme bodbi. The text reads A TARALLE ARE
Robinson rightly translates: "Why have we forever cut off its roots,
so that in this Great Vehicle we are like ruined seed?" Luk misunderstood the
whole idea, saying: "What should we do to uproot for ever the rotten frāvaka root
as compared with this Mahayana, so that...?" The difference between these
is self-evident. Robinson correctly has: "its (i.e., Mahāyānic bodbi) roots," while
Luk wrongly makes it "rotten frāvaka root," confusing seed twith root the
Luk's "as compared with..." does not make sense either. Note in this connection p. 85, where Mahākāsyapa makes a similar lamentation, the "defective
organs" the on line 15 corresponding to the "ruined seeds" here.

On p. 88 (line 2) we read: "He is reborn to show himself to all." In the Chinese

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示核故有生 the character 故 stands for 故意 (willingly, at will). It does not mean "to," "for the sake of." On the basis of the Tibetan we can surmise a Sanskrit form: "samcintya-(bhava-)upapatti," which corresponds to Kumārajīva's 故有生 and Hsüan-tsang's 故思文生. The translation should read something like: "He manifests himself (is reborn) at will." This passage is very important in revealing the Mahāyāna bodhisattva ideal. A bodhisattva does not abide in nirvāna but comes repeatedly down to the world of samsāra; this rebirth in samsāra is not due to his karma and kleša (defilements) but solely due to his own volition, own decision. Without "at will," the meaning of the passage is reduced almost to nothing. Here, Robinson and Idumi have also failed to grasp the exact meaning. Lamotte's "ils manifestent volontairement (samcintya) des naissances (jāti)," is correct, although jāti would be better replaced by upapatti.

Misunderstandings and mistranslations are found almost throughout the book. Those pointed out above are merely representative. If the translator had only consulted some of his predecessors' translations, Lamotte's in particular, or if he had referred to Hsüan-tsang's version, most of these faults could have been avoided. I admire the translator's zeal and deep devotion, and I am second to none in respect for the great effort he has made in presenting Chinese Buddhist texts to the West. But translation works must be established on a firm base. And, in that sense, to point out faults may be our duty. In sum, the reader will easily obtain in this readable and handsome book the general outline and the general atmosphere of the sutra's funyatā teaching. But, unfortunately, so far as details and exactness are concerned, it must be accepted with reservation.

NAGAO GADJIN