On the Theory of Buddha-Body (Buddha-kāya)

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Ι

How to conceive the true significance of the concept "Buddha" has been one of the most important themes discussed among Buddhist disciples and followers ever since the religion originated in India. Theories concerning the Buddha-body (buddha-kāya) underwent various developments during the course of a history ranging from India to Japan and from Ceylon to Mongolia. They may present interesting problems in comparison with the concept of deities in Brahmanism and Hinduism of India, or with the theological concepts in Christianity and other religious, or with the concept of god, godhead, the absolute, and so forth, in religious studies in general. Here, however, I would like to confine myself to reviewing some aspects of the theory of Buddha-body formulated in Indian Mahāyānism, viewing them from within Buddhism.

It is needless to say that the word "Buddha," which means "an awakened one" or "an enlightened one," is an epithet of respect for Gautama Sakyamuni, the founder of Buddhism. Different from a so-called deity, a transcendent being, the Buddha is, above all, none other than a way a human being should be. The attributes and virtues attached to the Buddha came to be variously readjusted in later years. Of these, wisdom (prajna) and benevolence (karuna), the intellect that penetrates human life and the love for all living beings, are said to be the two principal pillars. From the name "Buddha" (an awakened one), and a word such as "bodbi" (enlightenment), it may be easily discerned that a greater emphasis is put on wisdom. Gautama Buddha's (the historical Buddha, Śakyamuni) breaking the bonds of transmigration and entering nirvana signifies the perfection of this wisdom.

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All his disciples, of course, showed infinite respect for Gautama Buddha. But this was not the awe-inspiring reverence such as for a deity, but respect for a great elder and forerunner. They did not place much importance in a transcendental god, an omniscient and omnipotent god as the creator of the universe, or a god that governed and punished human beings, even though they did not necessarily repudiate such concepts. To them the Buddha was a great elder and teacher, but neither a prophet nor even an authority, such as the leader of a religious order. This can be understood from the following words of the Buddha uttered on his deathbed in answer to the Venerable Ananda, who, overcome with grief, had asked whom he should revere as teacher when the Buddha had passed away: "Let the self be a lamp, let the self be a refuge; let the dbarma (truth) be a lamp, let the dbarma be a refuge." And also: "After I am gone the dbarma (teaching) and the vinaya (discipline) which I have expounded will be your teacher."

But later this Buddha came to be superhumanized and divinized, until, as will be described, the theories of the twofold and threefold body of the Buddha were gradually systematized, and finally a highly theistic conception even materialized.

The theory of the twofold body of the Buddha advocates that the Buddha had two bodies, the Dharma-body (dharma-kāya) and the Physical-body (rūpa-kāya). This theory became stabilized in various of the earlier sūtras, and in early Mahāyāna sūtras, the Prajītāpāramitā, the Saddharmapundarīka, and so forth. The rūpa-kāya is the Buddha seen in a human body, while the dharma-kāya is the Buddha's personality seen in the dharma or dharma-nature. The disciples, quite bewildered at the loss of their teacher, decided first of all to confirm in themselves the Buddha's teachings and then to compile them in order to transmit them to future generations. To the disciples, the sayings which the teacher had left behind—the expounded dharma—were now their only lamp, just as the Buddha had instructed on his deathbed. Though the Buddha's body had perished, the dharma he had left behind was imperishable. The teacher they should address their questions to lived in the dharma; the dharma itself was the teacher. The Buddha once said: "Those who see 'dependent origina-

¹ Digbanikaya, xvi (Mabāparinibbāna-sūtra), 2. 26 (Vol. II, p. 100); 6. I (do. p. 154).

tion' (pratitya-samutpāda) will see the dbarma; those who see the dbarma will see 'dependent origination.'" He also said: "Those who see the dbarma will see me; those who see me will see the dbarma."

In this way the concept of dbarma-kaya was produced. The Buddha as dbarma-kaya in eternal aspect, which could not be seen with the naked eye, was conceived in addition to the Buddha's earthly form which the disciples still vividly remembered. The word dbarma has many meanings. Besides signifying the "teachings" which the Buddha expounded, it has as its original meaning the "essence" which makes a thing what it is. In this sense, it is also a "law" that lies at the basis of things, and also the "beings" that are formed by the laws and which shoulder the laws. Dbarma designates "religious rites" as well, and also "religion" itself. When the dbarma-kaya as the dbarma itself was discussed in relation to the Buddha, people seem to have understood it with these different meanings in mind. The word thus included religious and ethical as well as philosophical and metaphysical meanings.

Later in the advanced stages of Mahayana Buddhism, the word dbarmatā (dbarma-nature) came to be also used to represent the essence itself of this dbarma. Therefore, the dbarma-kāya is the body of the dbarma-nature as well. Again, when the universe is conceived in the dimension of such dbarma, the universe is none other than the dbarma-dbatu (dbarma-realm). Being the true way of the universe, the notion of dbarma-dbatu is further identified with that of dbarmatā or tatbatā (suchness) or even sunyatā (emptiness). The dbarma-dbatu

² Majjbima-nikāya (Sutta 28), Vol. I, pp. 190–1.

³ Samyutta-nikāya (Samyutta 22, 87), Vol. III, p. 120.

Besides the dbarma-kāya in this sense, there is one called pañca-dbarmakāya of Sarvās-tivāda, which says that the Buddha, or dbarma-kāya, has the five attributes of moral conditions (sīla), meditation (samādhi), wisdom (prajītā), emancipation (vimukti), and the awareness of emancipation (vimukti-jñāna-darśana). The same idea can be seen in such works as the Abbidbarma-kośa-lāstra, the Satyasiddbi-lāstra, Milinda-pañba, and Vimddbi-magga. Nāgārjuna has also referred to this idea (N. Dutt, Aspects of Mabāyāna Buddbirm, p. 108). However, as for the five attributes, which afford various interpretations, the general view is that they are the substantialized stages of self-cultivation. Moreover, this dbarma-kāya can be interpreted as a gathering of the dbarma; therefore, it is doubtful whether it can be regarded as identical with the dbarma-kāya as a way of the Buddha. Also confer fn. 8.

extends over the two realms of enlightenment and of deluded human beings. The Buddha is a self-manifested form (of enlightenment) of the dbarma-dbātu when it has become purified of every human delusion.

Thus, the Buddha was made to be more and more superhuman, constantly tending towards absoluteness. Such is a rough sketch of the Mahāyāna development of the doctrine of Buddha-body.

In Mahayana Buddhism, however, together with these metaphysical views of the universe, to which the doctrine of the Buddha's body is closely related, there is, on the other hand, a well-established concept of the bodhisattva, which may be said to constitute the core of Mahayanism. A bodhisattva as a seeker after enlightenment, a seeker after truth, is a concept that came into existence quite early. It may be said to have developed from investigations that were made concerning Buddha(-hood), or independently and in parallel with them. The fact that Gautama realized the highest enlightenment in human flesh, that is, with the defilement of joy and sorrow, was regarded by his disciples as an extremely marvelous event, unheard of in the history of humankind. Furthermore, they found it inconceivable that this great event had been brought about through the discipline of one short lifespan. As a seeker of truth, Gautama must have accumulated from time without beginning a great stock of merit in innumerable past lives, and finally, in this life, this must have born fruit in the marvelous event of his enlightenment. Such beliefs gave rise to the many narratives of Gautama Buddha's former lives, the Jataka tales. In former lives Gautama accumulated merit by performing good deeds as a rabbit, a monkey, a deer, or as a wealthy man, a minister of state, a king, and so forth. The rabbit, the monkey, and others were all Gautama himself, the seeker of truth. His long career as a seeker of truth (bodhisattva) finally perfected the "human Buddha."

The seeker of truth, however, is not to be limited to Gautama alone. There were and will be innumerable seekers of truth in the past and in the future, as there are also at the present time. In some sense all living beings essentially have the potentiality of becoming seekers of truth. The dbarma-dbātu may be regarded as being filled with such bodbisattvas.

Inquiry into the essential meaning of the one called a bodbisattra or seeker of truth brings forth the subject of the bodbisattra's vow and discipline. His vow (pranidbana) is a pledge intrinsic to a bodbisattra, his discipline (pratipatti)

designates all the practices he performs to fulfill this vow. There are different vows and disciplines in accordance with the way of each individual bodbitattva. The vow and disciplines of Gautama, too, being restricted by historical circumstances, were accordingly various and individual. But generally speaking, the vows of a bodbitattva, which arise from profound love and benevolence, aim at the deliverance and emancipation of all living beings. Pure wisdom and indefatigable practice are required for the realization of this aim. An innumerable number of such bodbitattvas have been conceived in Mahayana: benevolence was especially emphasized and personified in the Bodhisattva Avalokitesvara; discipline was represented by the Bodhisattva Samantabhadra; and wisdom was concretized in the Bodhisattva Manjuśri.

It is probably in Mahāyāna sūtras such as the Avatanuaka and, especially, the Pure Land sūtras, such as the Sukhāvatīvyūha, that the above-mentioned careers of bodhisattvas are most typically expounded. According to the Larger Sukhāvatīvyūha, the Bodhisattva Dharmākara made forty-eight primal vows, which he fulfilled in a long period of discipline, until he became Amida Buddha. Amida Buddha signifies both unlimited wisdom (Amitābha) and unlimited benevolence (Amitāyus).

The way such as that of Amida Buddha came to be understood by the name Reward-body (probably sambboga-kāya in Sanskrit; see footnote 11) of the Buddha.⁵ Here appeared the third concept, the Reward-body, apart from the Dharma-body and Physical-body, mentioned above. The Reward-body is the body of the Buddha in which the fulfillment of his above-described vows and disciplines has been rewarded. Therefore, the Reward-body is not limited to Amida Buddha. If it is reason and universal principle that one becomes a Buddha by fulfilling one's vows and disciplines, all Buddhas, in this sense, must be Reward Buddhas. The idea of the bodbisattva necessarily indicates the way of reward which follows his vows and disciplines.

It may be said that in this way all the materials (or the elements) for the later theory of the Buddha's threefold body had made their appearance: the elements of the Dharma-body and the Physical-body plus the elements of the

Reward-body. Until the time of the Prajnaparamita Sutra and the time of Nagarjuna who developed the Madhyamika philosophy based on the sutra, only the twofold body of Dharma-body and Physical-body7 was conceived as a theory of the Buddha's body. It was in the philosophy of the Yogacara school (or the Vijnana-vada school) represented by Asanga and Vasubandhu that the two-body theory developed until it was consummated into a threebody theory. The ideas and faiths that became the materials for the three-body theory must have been established in various forms before that time. There was already a tendency toward the universalization of the concept of Buddha. It was thought that Gautama Buddha was not the only Buddha; that there had been many Buddhas in the past, and there would be many Buddhas in the future; and that actually there existed innumerable Buddhas in the innumerable Buddha-lands in the ten directions. Thus, names of Buddhas, such as Vairocana, Aksobhya, Amitabha, Amitayus, Bhaisajya-guru, and countless others had already been conceived. It was the Yogacara-vijnana school that organized the three-body (tri-kāya) theory by synthesizing these conceptions of the Buddha.

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In the tri-kāya theory of the Buddha brought to perfection by the Yogācāravijnāna school, the three Buddha-bodies were called successively svābhāvika-kāya,

In the Chinese translations there are various names given for the three bodies. This variety is largely due to the different terms used in different texts, and the different translations given to them by different translators. Among the various systems of enumerating the three bodies, the most popular are the following two: (1) a set of Dharma-body (法身), Reward-body (無身), and Assumed-body (思身); (2) a set of Dharma-body, Assumed-body and Apparitional-body (比身). Again, in a system that appeared a little later, the following three bodies are given: Essence-body (nābbārika-kāya 自己). Enjoyment-body (nāmbbagika-kāya 食用身), and Transformation-body (nāmbbagika-kāya 食用身), They will be explained in the following section. Although some subtle differences in ideas can be seen between these groups, which probably underwent historical development, as far as the three bodies are grouped into a doctrinal system, the content is not as disparate as it first appears to be.

⁷ Mülamadbyamakakārikās, XXII; Ratnāvalī, III. 13. Also cf. Prajāāpāramitopadeša (大智 政論), Taishō, Vol. 25, p. 121c (Lamotte, Le traité, p. 513), p. 278a, etc.

sāmbbogika-kāya, and nairmānika-kāya, which can be said to be more theoretic names⁸ than those mentioned in the last chapter.

The svābbāvika-kāya (Essence-body), the first of the three bodies, corresponds to the dbarma-kāya (Dharma-body) described above. All the three bodies came flowing out of the dbarma-dbātu—they can be taken as "revolvings" (vrtti) of the dbarma-dbātu. (In this sense they are all Dharma-bodies.) The svābbāvika-kāya (Essence-body), especially, is called such perhaps because the dbarmatā

The kāyā (身) of buddha-kāyā is generally understood vaguely to designate the 'body.' In the Yogācāra-vijnāna school studies were made on the meaning of the word kāyā. Namely, the Ch'eng-wei-shib-lun (成章無論, chāan 10, Shindo ed., p. 25³), following the view of the Buddhabbūmy-upadelā (佛地區論) by Bandhuprabha and others (Taishō, Vol. 26, p. 325b), says: "The meanings, 'substance' (體), 'dependence' (微), and 'assemblage' (景), combine to make the word kāyā (身)." These three meanings are further annotated to mean respectively, "essential nature" (體性), "basis" (微止, probably "foundation" for Buddha's virtues), and "accumulation of merits" (意識景). Thus, we can surmise various meanings such as "body" (not only physical body but also essential body), "totality," "collection," "group," etc., in the word kāyā. With the exception of "dependence" or "basis," most of these meanings can be traced in a dictionary. (cf. Edgerton, Buddhirt Hybrid Sankrit Dictionary, pp. 177-8.)

⁹ However, there being delicate nuance in the method of description in the śastras, the dbarma-kāya is not necessarily identical with the svābbāvika-kāya. That is, in these śastras the concept of the old rūpa-kāya (Physical-body) hardly became an issue; all Buddha-bodies were, on the one hand, emancipated bodies (vimukti-kāya), free from "the barrier of delusions," and on the other hand, dbarma-kāyas, rid of "the barrier of the known." In this dbarma-kāya can be recognized the three Buddha-bodies of svābbāvika-kāya, sāmbbogika-kāya, and the nairmānika-kāya. Of these, the svābbāvika-kāya, especially, corresponds to the dbarma-kāya (dbarmatā-kāya). Books in which the word dbarma-kāya seems to have been used both in the broad and the narrow sense as here described are the Mabā-yānasamgraba, Abbisamayālamkāra, Ch'ēng-wei-sbib-lun, and so forth.

The Mabāyānarūtrālamkāra (hereafter referred to as MSA) expounds the significance of the purification of the dbarma-dbātu in Chapter IX (56-59), and in its last section named "The Meaning of its Revolution" (ntty-artba) it treats of the trikāya. Similarly, in the Ratnagotra-vibbāga, various meanings of the word 'ālraya-parivrtti' (操张, revolving of the basis) are given (II. 1-2), and as "The Meaning of its Revolution," the trikāya is explained in detail (II. 38-61). That the dbarma-dbātu, which is essentially immovable, starts revolving and manifests itself in some way has something in common with the concept of "the absolute in the phenomenal relativity" (其如風歌) in later ages.

(dbarma-nature) or dharma-dbātu (dbarma-realm) or tatbatā (suchness) or funyatā (emptiness) is itself the Buddha's real essence. The word reabbāra (own being) which Nagārjuna once rejected, is used here to mean the Buddha's enlightenment which is one with the absolute, free from the agony of life and death of the world of relativity. It exists all over the world with the dharma-dbātu as its own being; it is an immovable wisdom, an eternal body of the Enlightened One. Being absolute, it transcends human understanding and speculation; it is incognizable, invisible, inconceivable, without color or form. Moreover, as it makes the dharma-dbātu its own being, it can be the foundation and basis for the two other bodies, the sāmbbogika-kāya (Enjoyment-body) and the nairmānika-kāya (Transformation-body). In contrast to the fact that the svābbāvika-kāya is immovable, invisible, and is the basis, the sāmbbogika-kāya and the nairmānika-kāya are movable, changeable, visible, and are dependent on the svābbāvika-kāya.

The sāmbbogika-kāya, the second Buddha-body, is the same as the Reward-body described above. Sambboga means "enjoyment." It is understood that one can enjoy the Pure Land and the dbarma as a result of the fulfillment of his vow and discipline. From this enjoyment of the Pure Land, we see that the Reward-body is closely connected with the Pure Land teaching. But to the sāmbbogika-kāya, the enjoyment of the dbarma is of prime importance. The Buddha's biography tells us that after he attained his enlightenment under the bodhi-tree, the Buddha spent several weeks pondering, with appreciation, over the dbarma which he himself had realized. This is called "the Buddha's own enjoyment of the dbarma-delight" (自受用法案). Having finally attained his enlightenment, the Buddha, standing on the top of the mountain, as it were, might have looked back, with serene delight, at the winding road of suffering he had just climbed. But this "for one's own enjoyment" (自受用)

The original word for the Reward-body (報身) was generally understood to be the tāmbbogika-kāya, which will be interpreted to mean "to enjoy (tambboga) the result as a reward for the vow which is its source" (因數明報). However, as explained in the following Note 17, there is an example in which the word 'nityanda' (美麗, lit., flowing down) has been translated as 報 (reward). Again, the word nipāka or naipākika (異熟, lit., ripening, fruition) has also been considered as the original for the Reward-body. (Cf. Yamaguchi Susumu and others, 表表子說, An Introduction to Buddhist Studies, p. 216.)

later developed into "for the enjoyment of others" (他使用). This is the sharing of one's own dbarma-delight with others, i.e. the preaching of the dbarma to others. Therefore, the sambbogika-kāya is said to be the Buddha-body seen at an assembly for sermons—a gathering of people who wish to hear the Buddha's preaching. This is none other than a Buddha-body that is visible, in the sense that human beings can understand it intellectually (and emotionally, as well).

The third Buddha-body, nairmanika-kaya (Transformation-body), is not only equally visible but is truly a physical body of a corporal human being. The Buddha Śakyamuni is its best example: he was a being born from the womb of his mother, Queen Maya, possessing human sufferings, and conforming to the physical law of life and death. It was none other than a Buddha-body that appeared temporally as an actual historic being. The reason of its being called a Transformation-body is that the dbarma-dbatu, limiting itself, has transformed itself to appear in a form of physical human body. As regards the Transformation-body, there is a view to include not only the case of Gautama Buddha but also the cases of the rabbit, the monkey, and so forth, in the Jataka tales, or other beings such as nirmita (transformed) and upapāduka (self-produced). In the former case of Gautama, it is clear to everyone that it is the Buddha; but in the latter cases of the rabbit and other beings, it cannot immediately be known whether it is a bodbisattva or a Buddha in his former lives.

Now, of the three Buddha-bodies, the svabbavika-kāya becomes the foundation of the other two Buddha-bodies, itself remaining as the nature of a principle, abstract and invisible. In contrast to this, the sāmbbogika-kāya and the nairmānika-kāya are concrete and visible—they are Physical-bodies belonging to the phenomenal world. Various differences, however, are found between the sāmbbogika-kāya and the nairmānika-kāya.

In the first place, the nairmānika-kāya was the Buddha from whom his disciples were able face to face to hear the teachings. In contrast to this, the sāmbbogika-kāya is the Buddha-body that can be seen only by bodbisattvas in the Buddha-land, not by ordinary unenlightened men. The sāmbbogika-kāya is, above all, one that enjoys the dbarma; it is said to be the Buddha who preaches to the assembly of bodbisattvas. However, if this point is considered with radical

thoroughness, it ensues that, according to the trikaya theory of Mahayana, the true teaching of the dbarma may belong only to the sāmbbogika-kāya.¹²

It is well known that the Buddha-body has thirty-two physical marks characteristic of a great man. They are, to mention some of them, a fleshy protuberance on the crown of the head, a white hair between the eyebrows emitting light, webbed fingers, and so forth. Although sculptors of Buddhist images have made efforts to represent these marks, there are some among them that are conceptual and impossible to visualize, and some which are abstract and almost impossible to represent in sculpture and painting. The trikāya theories of later ages tell about these marks of the Buddha only in relation to the sāmbbogika-kāya, and do not recognize them in the nairmānika-kāya. In view of this fact, it can be said that in the story of Asita, the seer¹³ who shed tears when he saw the new-born Gautama and told his fortune, what he saw was not a physical body but was in reality the sāmbbogika-kāya.

Furthermore, as for the Buddha's acts, those of the sambbogika-kāya are said to be steady and indestructible, while those of the nairmānika-kāya are tem-

It has been traditionally interpreted that the physical body of the Buddha preached to bravakas or his disciples, and the sambbogika-kāya preached to bodbisatīvas. In the Mahāyāna sūtras, however, it is told that both brāvakas and bodbisatīvas joined the same assembly and listened to the same sermons. Gautama Buddha actually preached at Benares and then at various places for forty-five long years. But, at the same time, those sermons by Gautama (nairmānika-kāya) were totally annihilated in the Prajiāpāramitā sūtras. Was there no bodbisatīva listening to Gautama's preaching? If both the brāvakas and bodbisatīvas were admitted to have attended the same assembly, in which capacity, the sāmbbogika or the nairmānika-kāya, did the Buddha teach? In such a case, who and where were the brāvakas and bodbisatīvas? Was Queen Vaidehī in the Amitāyur-dbyāna Sūtra really an ordinary sinful woman, not a bodbisatīva? Although these questions are not easy to answer, investigations into them might offer suggestions with regard to what true sermons should be. In a later period, there also appeared sūtras that advocated sermons by the dbarma-kāya.

The thirty-two physical marks are said to belong exclusively to either calravartin (a king who has conquered the whole world) or the Buddha. As a worldly king possessed them, it is clear that they were said of the physical body. But later this idea was elevated so that the physical marks were limited to the sāmbbogika-kāya, which, though a sort of rūpa-kāya, is visible only to bodbisattvas. All Buddha's biographies record about Asita, an ascetic, who, holding the baby Gautama in his arms, noticed the thirty-two marks and predicted that the child would become a Buddha, but who, at the same time, shed tears because he was too old to be able to hear the Buddha's sermons.

porary and unsteady.14

Putting these points together, we know that all the superhuman elements found in Gautama Buddha became the elements which constituted the sāmbbogika-kāya. That is to say, compared with the nairmānika-kāya, a higher universality and divine nature are attributed to the sāmbbogika-kāya. In this sense, the sāmbbogika-kāya is transcendental to human beings. Again, this sāmbbogika-kāya is connected with the way of the Reward-body. An accumulation of innumerable virtues in the past lives of Gautama Buddha transcending the eighty years of his human life was conceived, and this concept served as a model for the idea of the Reward-body as fulfillment of a vow and discipline. This body is, therefore, the universal Buddha, transcending history and the Buddha as a human being.

But the trikaya theory's peculiarity can be seen in the point that such transcendency of the Reward-body cannot immediately be regarded in the same light with the dbarma-kaya or the svabbavika-kaya. In contrast to the svabbavikakāya, which is entirely abstract, theoretic, and absolutely immovable, the sāmbbogika-kāya is, above all, one that enjoys the dbarma. Although the svābbāvika-kāya is dharma-kāya which has the dharma as its essence, nothing is said here about the enjoyment of the dbarma. It is improbable that stirrings of "enjoyment" should be found in the svābbāvika-kāya, which is immovable. In order to enjoy the dbarma, the svābbāvika-kāya must become concrete and relative by descending a step from the seat of the absolute. It must come down from the seat of immutable sūnyatā or dbarma-dbātu, and enter into the realm of mutability-where the Buddha-land is to be established through the act of purification, or where the Reward-body will be realized as a result of the cause, the bodhisattva's vow and discipline. Therefore, Sthiramati even said: "the kāya, abiding in which the svābbāvika would attain enlightenment... is the sāmbbogikakāya."15 That there is no such thing as the svābhāvika-kāya attaining enlightenment or enjoying the dbarma is probably because it was originally the enlightenment itself, the so-called "original enlightenment" (本党). In contrast

¹⁴ Mabāyāna-samgraba-bbāsya (無大東論報), Taishō, 31, 374c.

Yamaguchi, Susumu, Stbiramati: Madbyāntavibbāgatīkā, p. 1911: "rrābbāriko yamim kāye vyavastbito 'bbisambudbyate... sa sāmbbogikab kāyab." Tib.: "no bo mid kyi sku steļsku gan la bjugs nas mnon par rdsogs par byan chub steļ... de ni lons spyod rdsogs pabi skubo." Japanese translation, p. 304.

to this, the sambbogika-kāya is, as it were, "initial awakening" (始党). 16 Human deliverance can be established in such Buddha-body as the sāmbbogika-kāya, not in the svābbāvika-kāya. The sāmbbogika-kāya as the concretization of the svābbāvika-kāya is also called the msyanda-kāya (等元身). Nīsyanda means outflow, that is, the outflowing of the Buddha-body from the dbarma-dbātu, urged by the "great compassion." The great compassion crystallizes itself into the preaching—a form in which the dbarma-dbātu manifests itself.

Thus, we know that the sambbogika-kāya is composed of a twofold character. While, on the one hand, there is the aspect of transcending the human Buddha, the nairmānika-kāya, there is, on the other hand, the concretization of the absolute, the svābbāvika-kāya. Therefore, the sāmbbogika-kāya has the two aspects of being at once transcendental and phenomenal, and at once historic and super-historic. When the historic Buddha is contrasted with the super-historic Buddha, it is commonly done in the light of the two-body theory, signifying the Physical-body and the Dharma-body. Contrary to this, the sambbogika-kāya, while modelling itself after the historic Buddha, is a temporal and spatial presentation of the absolute dbarma-nature. The story of Amida

The words, 'original enlightenment' (本党) and 'initial awakening' (地党), are borrowed from examples in the *Mabāyāna-Iraddborpāda Sāstra* and others. The former is the enlightenment as one's Buddha-nature found amidst defilement, while the latter is the enlightenment realized when the defilement is removed.

¹⁸ A. K. Chatterjee, The Togācāra Idealism (Varanasi, 1962), p. 226: "Though He (=Tathāgata) is in phenomena and is Himself but phenomenal, He yet knows that true nature of phenomena and therefore transcends it at the same time." In connection with these two aspects, the same author quotes from the MSA, XVIII. 38. This gatha expounds the two kinds of tambbāra (equipment): "The equipment of merits" promises an existence in this world like that of a god or of a cabravartin (Emperor as a conqueror); "the equipment of knowledge" signifies that in spite of the above, there is transcendence of it. This can be regarded as describing the two aspects of, as it were, 'the non-abiding in nirvāna' (不住主席) and 'the non-abiding in samsāra' (不住主席). See below, pp. 40-41.

Buddha as the Reward-body is not something like a myth of a stage before history; even if we might call it a myth, it was produced by the association of history with super-history. It is due to this character of the sāmbbogika-kāya that such things as the thirty-two physical marks of the Buddha are attributed to the sāmbbogika-kāya, and the Buddha-land as the Pure Land is exclusively told in connection with the sāmbbogika-kāya.

The same double nature of the sāmbbogika-kāya has also been described from the aspect of self-profit and others' profit, as follows: It is told that Gautama Buddha's acts both in his past and present lives were all altruistic. In comparison with this, the sāmbbogika-kāya is rather egocentric in that it is a body that has been accomplished by virtue of "self-perfection," that is, by virtue of perfecting every one of the Buddha's own merits (buddbadbarma-paripāka). On the other hand, however, the svābbavika-kāya is "indifferent," transcending both ego-centeredness and altruism. Compared with this, the enjoyment or the preaching of the dbarma by the sāmbbogika-kāya is explained to be a perfectly altruistic deed.

The sāmbbogika-kāya, through this double character, lies between the svābbāvika-kāya and the nairmānika-kāya, serving as a link between the two. No, the sāmbbogika-kāya rather occupies the central position in the triple-body doctrine; especially, the soteriology in Buddhism is developed revolving around the axis of this double character of the sāmbbogika-kāya. In this sense, the sāmbbogika-kāya can be called the Buddha par excellence. However, if it is so, it might be possible to say that the one Buddha-body of sāmbbogika-kāya is sufficient, and neither the svābbāvika-kāya nor the nairmānika-kāya is necessary. In fact, such a position is possible, and it might have been supported especially from the standpoint of religious monotheistic demand. But the special characteristic of the Mahāyanic doctrine of Buddha-body lies in the persistent maintenance of the triangular position of the three Buddha-bodies. For in that respect there is something fundamentally different from either the one-body or the two-body theory.

In the simple one-body theory, Gautama was the only Buddha. But later with the discovery of the dbarma-kāya concept, the two-body theory was formed. The dbarma-kāya in this stage, however, was the dbarma-kāya of Gautama himself, without any universal meaning. The historic Buddha then existed with the physical-body, and his Dharma-body was something abstract,

with less reality than his corporal body. Later on, to the contrary, this abstract dbarma-kāya must have gained universal reality—the reality that claimed equal realness with the corporal body. At this stage, however, there was nothing that could reconcile the two realities of dbarma-kāya and rūpa-kāya. The sāmbbogika-kāya was discovered here as something that would fill the gap. In the trikāya theory, the dbarma-kāya alone, under the name of rvābbāvika-kāya, is regarded really to exist, and to be the sole basis and principle of all Buddhabodies. Therefore, here the Physical-body, which had been a reality in the sphere of historical time, became shadowy and was slighted as a transient existence under the name of nairmānika-kāya. Historicity came to be regarded as illusionary, so to speak. Against this, the sāmbbogika-kāya shouldered a temporary meaning while being a true reality, and regained its historic nature while transcending history. It can be said that with the birth of this sāmbbogika-kāya, the doctrine of Buddha-kāya reached a stage of perfection in the trikāya theory.

All the attributes and virtues of the Buddha were also clarified in the system of the trikāya. As it is impossible to describe them here one by one, I shall only give a few examples: the Buddha's wisdom was regarded as an attribute especially belonging to the svābbārika-kāya; his will (ālaya, vow) was especially treated in the sāmbbogika-kāya; and his acts (buddba-karman) especially in the nairmānika-kāya. But at the same time, since the three Buddha-bodies are not independent of each other but are in the relation of a basis and a thing based on it, these virtues are also considered transferable to each other. Similarly, the elucidation of such questions as whether there is only one Buddha or other Buddhas numerous in number, or for what reason the Buddha is said to be everlasting and always abiding, and so forth, has been attempted through the system of the trikāya. I will not go into these problems here, but I would say that, in short, these problems would not likely be answered thoroughly without the trikāya theory. The theoretic perfection of the doctrine of Buddhabody lies in the triangular concept of the three Buddha-bodies;¹⁰ the two-body

As has been described in note 6, between the Reward-body and the Assumed-body, there is some conceptual indistinctness in their spheres. In order to set up a system of the three bodies and clarify the distinctions between them, some people adopted a method called 開東合意: the True body (英書) is divided (unfolded) into the Dharma-body and the Reward-body; to these two, the Assumed-body (周書) is added to form the three*

theory would be insufficient, and the four-body and other many-body theories would be plethoric in principle.

Ш

It may be possible to say that the structure of the tri-kāya, as described in the last chapter, is akin to the concept of the Trinity in Christianity. For example, A. K. Coomaraswamy says that the mābbāvika-kāya, sāmbbogika-kāya, and nairmānika-kāya correspond respectively to "the Father," "the figure of Christ in Glory", and "the visible Jesus." But the way of the Reward-body in which one's vow and discipline have been rewarded, as described above, is especially Buddhistic and seems to be quite removed from the Christian idea. We find rather something closer than Christianity in the same author's comparison using the view of deity in Hinduism. According to him, "the Dharmakāya is the Brahman, timeless and unconditioned; the Sambhogakāya is realized in the forms of Iśvara; the Nirmānakāya in every avatār." When Brahmā (the god creator) is regarded as a personification of the Brahman (the Absolute), he is the first of the triad (trimūrti) of Hindu gods, the other two being Iśvara (Siva, the destroyer) and Visnu (the preserver).

^{*}bodies. Some others, conversely, adopted the method of Machie: first the Assumedbody (商身) is divided into the Assumed-body and the Apparitional-body (化身); to these the True body is added. (Cf. Hui-yüan, Ta-ch'eng-i-chang ** * chilan 19, Taisho, Vol. 44, pp. 8392-840c.) According to the former, the Reward-body is different from the Assumed-body, but according to the latter, the said Assumed-body is almost the same as the Reward-body of the former in content. But, in short, these ways of thinking only figured out the three Buddha-bodies by dividing either the True body (黃身) or the Assumed-body (思身); therefore, they precisely took the position, in principle, of the twobody theory composed of the True body and the Assumed-body. For their principle was to 'unfold' (開). On the other hand, it seems that in Indian lästras, the system of the triangular concept of the three Buddha-bodies has been established by instituting the sambogika-kāya. The Chinese interpretation by 'unfolding' (III) will make ambiguous the meaning of the triangular concept, which differs in principle from the meaning of the twobody theory, which simply treats of diametric bodies. But at the same time it may be said that this ambiguity rather serves to manifest the significance and the double character of the sambbogska-kaya or the Reward-body.

A.K. Coomaraswamy, Buddha and the Gospel of Buddhism (Bombay, etc., 1956), p. 239.

Chatterjee also observes that among the trikaya, the sambbogika-kaya represents "the concept of God par excellence." But at the same time he explains important differences between the Buddha and Vedantic Iśvara. Namely, unlike the Brahman as the principle, "Iśvara, though phenomenal, yet acts always from above." The Buddha, on the other hand, "actually takes birth as man," as historic human being, his training for realizing the truth being conducted from below; in him the truth was concretized and personified. The ultimate object here was the attainment of Buddhahood by all mankind as an ideal of the phenomenal world. Chatterjee further continues: "To Iśvara are ascribed the cosmic functions as well; He is the creator and the sustainer of the world....indeed in all Buddhism, this notion of a god is vehemently opposed.... The Tathagata is merely a spiritual preceptor. He cannot, or rather does not, interfere with other cosmic functions."²¹

Chatterjee's opinion mentioned above can be generally approved, but some supplement may be acceptable. If an expression such as "a personal God" is applied to Buddhism, the closest equivalent would be the sāmbbogika-kāya or the Reward-body, as Chatterjee says. In this case, the word "body" of Buddhabody may certainly correspond to "personality." But in the ways of such as rrābbāvika-kāya or dbarma-kāya there is no theistic personality whatever, although this may depend on how one interprets. For the rrābbāvika-kāya is a concept which makes dbarma or dbarmatā itself as the Buddha-body or Buddha's being. Furthermore, this dbarmatā or dbarma-dbātu is something that should be directly equated with sūnyatā or absolute emptiness—herein can be seen the Buddhistic peculiarity of the doctrine of Buddha-body. The Buddha, together with the rrābbāvika-kāya and dbarma-dbātu, is not positively "existent", but is sūnyatā, transcending "existent" and "non-existent".

Mahayana Buddhism expounds a specific idea called "non-abiding in mr-vāna" (side by side with "non-abiding in saṃsāra"), in addition to the usual ideas of nirvāna. Nīrvāna is the ultimate aim of practitioners and śrāvakas (disciples). Translated as or equated with "annihilation" (ik nirodba) in Chinese, it is also related to śūnyatā mentioned above; it is a realm of absolute calmness and quietness on "the other shore." But in Mahāyana Buddhism one does not care to remain on the absolute and transcendental "other shore", but per-

²¹ A.K. Chatterjee, op. cit. p. 230 ff.

—this is his ideal of non-abiding in nirvana (apratistbita-mrvāna). It may be said that the structure of the trikāya doctrine also follows this idea. The svābbāvika-kāya, because of its being wisdom, is not abiding in tamāra, and is equal to the "Emancipated Body" (vimukti-kāya), freed from every obstacle of defilement, and itself corresponding to absolute nirvāna. But, on the other hand, its function never ceases, insofar as "non-interruption" or "eternalness" is attributed to the dbarma-kāya; it does not remain in nirvāna but positively returns to this shore of the phenomenal world as sambbogika-kāya and nairmānika-kāya for the sake of benevolence.²²

In parallel with this, there is a term called "the intentional birth" (samcintya-bbaropapatti), meaning that a bodbisattra volunteers to be born into a life of suffering.²³ A bodbisattra appears in this world of transmigration; this is, however, not an ordinary physical result of his former karman, but it is due to his own "delusion" which he has purposely left unextinguished with the intention of entering into samsaric existence. Such a power to be reborn "at will" may be said to originate by nature from sunyata, which is characteristic of the svābbāvika-kāya; but, at the same time, to take birth "in samsāra" is solely due to his great compassion (which is attachment, hence delusion, in a bodbisattva) for the living beings that are afflicted in the whirl of samsāra. It is understood that Jesus Christ, too, was born on the horizon of history as a child of

Various sastras can be referred to with regard to the idea of 'non-abiding in nirvana.' Among them, however, special mention may be made to Sthiramati's *Madbyāntavibbāgatikā*, ed. Yamaguchi, p. 68¹²⁻¹⁷ (in Tib.)=p. 267¹²⁻¹⁶ (in Skt. restored); p. 187¹⁴⁻²², etc., (Japanese tr., pp. 105, 299-300, etc.), where we can clearly see ideas related with the three Buddha-bodies.

The word 'sameintya-bbavopapatti' (literally, taking birth at will, *** or *** or *** in Chinese) appears in various Prajūāpāramtā-sutras, and is expounded in the Mabāyā-nasūtrālamkāra (XI. 30, XVIII. 44, XX-XXI. 12, etc), the Mabāyān-samyaba (Taishō, 31, p. 140b²⁹), the Bodbisattvabbūmi (p. 414; Taishō, 30, p. 576b), and so forth. In the Bodbisattvabbūmi (p. 226; Taishō, p. 532b), the bodbisattva is said 'to let himself be born even among the candāla (outcasts), or as far down as among dogs, for the purpose of benefiting others. In the Cb'eng-wei-sbib-lun, the following phrases, probably conveying the same meaning, are found: ** ** Ti ('one acts just intentionally,' Shindo ed., cbitan 9, p. 295), and ** ** Ti ('detaining the obstacles of defilement, one takes birth in accordance to his vow,' ibid., p. 31¹⁰).

man by emptying (kenosis) divine attributes. In Buddhism a similar idea has been universalized as a way of the bodbisattra, without being confined to the life of Gautama Buddha.

The trikaya doctrine developed as a system with a background of these Mahayana concepts, which in their turn became ever more firmly solidified by having recourse to the trikaya doctrine. Therefore, we must say that the trikaya doctrine is fairly different from the Trinity of Christianity or the trimurti of Hinduism.

Later on the Buddha-body theory made a further development, giving rise to four-body and other theories. For example, Hui-yüan of Ching-ying ssu temple says that the Laikāvatāra Sūtra enumerates the following four Buddhas: bodola (Suchness-Buddha), *** (Wisdom Buddha), *** (Merit Buddha), *** (Incarnation Buddha).24 Again, it is well known that the Buddha-

The Ta-ch'eng i-chang (大乘長章), chiian 19 (Taishō, 44, p. 841b). In mentioning these four Buddhas, Hui-yuan seems to refer to the 'Four chium Lankavatara' (四急符如), translated by Gunabhadra of the Liu-Sung dynasty (cf. Taisho, 16, p. 481b8-9 and p. 482b17-19). In this sutra, however, the Merit Buddha, the third of the four Buddhas mentioned by Hui-yuan, does not appear; instead, the names 'Reward Buddha' (報佛) or 'Rewardingly-born Buddha' (報生佛) can be seen. Since the sāmbbogika-kāya is especially the source of the Buddha's merits, Hui-yüan must have called it the Merit Buddha. These passages correspond respectively to the gātbās II. 49 and II. 95 in the Skt. original (B. Nanjio, Lankavatāra Sūtra, pp. 28, 34). According to this, the Incarnation Buddha (the fourth) reads nairmānika (buddba), and the Merit Buddha (the third) reads vipākaja or vipākastba, which exactly corresponds to the Chinese translation, 標生佛 (Buddha born as a result or as a reward). The Wisdom Buddha (the second) and the Suchness Buddha (the first), taken together, correspond to the one word tathatājnana-buddha (Suchness-wisdom Buddha), which is translated in other Chinese versions of the Lankavatāra into 如智佛 or 其如 智慧佛. Judging from these points, it is questionable to divide this one word into two and make the total four Buddhas; because, it might be that the sutra originally gave only three, not four, Buddhas or Bodies, namely, the Incarnation Buddha, the Reward Buddha, and the Suchness-wisdom Buddha. This last one, the tathatājiāna-buddha, is probably equal to the dbarma-kāya or svābbāvika-kāya, but at the same time, it reminds us of the name jilāna-dbarma-kāya (Wisdom-dharma Body) which appears in the Abbisamayālamkārāloka (see note 26). By the way, the name sambbogika-kaya has been scarcely used in the Lankavatara. Again Hui-yüan gives here many four-body theories other than the one described above. His book was, in fact, originally devoted to the enumeration of almost all the Buddha-body theories, ranging from a theory of one body to that of ten bodies, of which, however, I shall not go into detail.

bhūmi-lastra and the Ch'eng-wei-shib-lun expound a theory of four Buddha-bodies by dividing the Enjoyment Body into the Own-enjoyment Body and Other's-enjoyment Body.²⁵ Furthermore, in the Abbisamayālamkārāloka, in addition to the three Buddha-bodies, the Buddha-body called jāna-dharma-kāya (Wisdom-dharma Body) is given, placed in the second place among them, forming the four Buddha-bodies.²⁶ Many other theories of Buddha-bodies were formed by introducing various concepts, such as the Emancipation Body (ripmukti-kāya), Outflowing Body (mīyanda-kāya), Result-maturation Body (ripāla-kāya), and so forth. They may present characteristic developments both in doctrine and in spiritual history, but I shall not treat each of them here. For, as stated above, the trikāya theory may be regarded as a consummated theory, establishing the fundamental principle of the doctrine insofar as the ways of Buddha-body are concerned.

However, it does not mean that because of this every problem has been completely solved. It is true that by this trikaya theory the nature of the Buddha and all his virtues and functions has been delineated. But as for how Gautama, a human being, was able to become a Buddha possessing virtues equal to those of a divine being, almost nothing has been said in these theories. How can a leap from the relative world to the absolute world be made? Since Gautama was an exceptional person, as his disciples thought, it might have been possible for him to become a Buddha by dint of his innumerable virtuous deeds accumulated in the past. But if only that, Gautama would have only been a divine existence from the beginning, and not a human being. Moreover, that would be a unique case for Gautama alone, and would not explain anything about

²⁵ Buddbabbumi-lästra (佛地區論), chüan 7 (Taisho, 26, p. 326a). Ch'eng-wei-shib-lun (成性論論), chüan 10 (Shindo, pp. 15 ff.).

Cf. U. Wogihara (ed.), Abbisamayālamkārālokā-prajūāpāramitāvyākbyā (Tokyo, 1935), p. 21 (I. 17), p. 914 ff. (VIII. 1 ff.). However, both in the gātbās I. 17 and VIII. 1 of the Abbisamayālamkāra, the four-body theory is not necessarily clear. The commentator Haribhadra also states that there are different views, some advocating the threefold body and some the fourfold body. He himself seems to favor the theory of fourfold body (the svābbāvika-kāya, dbarma-kāya, sāmbbogika-kāya, and the nairmānika-kāya). Among these four kāyas, the second one, dbarma-kāya, is specified and called jūāna-dbarma-kāya (Wisdom-dharma Body) in the Hor chos bbyun (The Buddhist History of Mongolia, written by Ayurvardhana or Jigme Rigpi-dorje). The tradition of this specification was probably created in Tibet and has been widely accepted in Tibetan Buddhism.

the existence of all the Buddhas in the ten directions. In Mahayana Buddhism, it is specifically told that all living beings are expected to attain Buddhahood, but then, it must be asked: In what way is it possible for a common living being to become a Buddha?

IV

The possibility of all living beings attaining Buddhahood is a problem that seems to have been answered from two sides. One is the idea that all living beings possess Buddha-nature—the idea that is mainly advocated by the tatbagata-garbba (tatbagata-matrix) theory. The other is the introduction of the concept of alraya-paravrtti (the revolving of the basis). Let me take up the latter first.

The concept of alraya-paravrtti is frequently used by the Yogacara-vijnana school that consummated the trikaya doctrine. Afraya-paravrtti means, as the word indicates, the basis on which one relies revolves and turns into a different basis (or non-basis); the ground itself on which one stands overturns, revealing a new world, illuminated by a new light. There is the anxiety of one's foothold being fundamentally challenged—the anxiety that it might collapse and disappear, meaning death. But through this death, there is the possibility of the same basic structure coming to life again by being illuminated with a new light. This is not simply the renovation of the mind, which is a part of oneself, or that of the body, or simply the one's disappearance and becoming non-existent; it is the conversion and the transmutation of one's whole existence. For example, if we imagine a magnetic field flowing through man's being then the airaya-paravrtti would be the flow of this magnetic field in the opposite direction from its usual flow. One's acts are based upon and determined by such a magnetic flow. The matter also of purification in human beings is not the removal of something filthy, but is none other than the backward flow of man's mechanism or magnetic field, with its structure unchanged. A negative film may look like a positive picture when the light shines on it from different angles; in the same way, when the light permeates into one's whole system, it receives light in a new scene, whereby the same existence which has been in darkness begins to shine brilliantly.

In the Yogacara-vijnana school, the idea of älraya-paravrtti had already been prepared in the school's unique theory of the "Threefold nature" (trisvabbāva). This theory explains the system of the world by means of the true way of the world or by its three aspects or natures, namely: (1) the relative nature (paratantra-svabbava or dependent-on-other nature), (2) the imagined nature (parikalpita-svabbava), and (3) the consummated nature (parimspanna-svabbava). Basing upon the relative nature of the world (1), the world appears with its imagined, unreal, and polluted character (2) to the ordinary man on the one hand, and, on the other, it appears with the consummated and purified nature (3) to the saints. The magnetic field spoken of above may be conceived as related to this relative nature (1). A detailed explanation here of these three natures is not possible in the space allotted. In short, the revolving of one's own foundation means that on the field of relative nature the state of being polluted with delusions (i.e. the world of imagined nature) revolves its basis to become a state of purity, a world of consummated nature. The principle that makes this revolution possible can be found in the fact that the world is essentially of the nature of relativity or of "dependent origination" (pratity as a mutpāda), and this world of relative nature has been turned around into a polluted condition to form the world of imagined nature; it has been turned around, and is like a positive picture which appears on the negative itself under certain light conditions. One's foothold, hitherto believed to be firm and unshakable, is now realized to be something unreal and polluted, being covered with fundamental ignorance (avidya)—with something called original sin or radical evil, in religious terms. Through this self-realization one's foothold revolves and becomes purified.

The Buddha-body is described as a result of this "revolving of the basis," which can be explained in various ways. For one thing, the eight vijnanas (cognition or consciousness; originally "dependent-on-other" in character), including the ālaya-vijnāna (store-cognition), by revolving their own foundations, become four kinds of Buddha's wisdom. "Cognition is revolved and Wisdom is acquired" (釋意得智), it is said, and this wisdom is none other than the essence of the threefold body of the Buddha.²⁷ Thus, the doctrine of ālraya-parāvrīti tries to clarify that the human way of being, along with its basis, revolves itself and becomes the Buddha's way of being, or realizes the

Buddha's body, his basis. And the direction of this revolution, therefore, can be said to be ascendent.

Contrary to this, what is descendent is the concept of tathāgata-garbha, the idea that all beings have Buddha-nature. According to the tathāgata-garbha theory, it is strongly advocated that the human mind is essentially

Trikāya

Four Wisdoms

Eight Vijilānas

dbarma-kāya

— Revolving of the ālaya-vijilāna

(mirror-wisdom)

samatā-jilāna

— Revolving of the defiled manas

sāmbbogika-kāya

— Revolving of the mano-vijilāna

(wisdom of intellectual mastery)

nairmānika-kāya

— krtyānustbāna-jilāna

— Revolving of the five primary vijilānas

(wisdom of duty-fulfillment)

Of these, as for the relationship of the eight vijitings and the four wisdoms, views same as the above can also be seen in the general explanation of alrayapararetti in Sthiramati's commentary on MSA, IX. 12 (Peking ed., ibid., p. 251-3); the same can also be seen in the commentary by Asvabhava on the Mahayana-samgraha, translated by Hsuan-chuang (Taisho, 31, p. 4382). (Its Tibetan translation differs from it.) In the Chinese translation of the MSA, IV. 67-74, there exist a number of phrases which are not contained in the Sanskrit text, but refer to the relationship between the eight vijianas, the four wisdoms and the trikāya. According to them the relationship between the eight pijāānas and the four wisdoms is the same with Sthiramati's interpretation given above, but the relationship between the four wisdoms and the trikāya is different: the ādarļa-jāāna and the samatā-jāāna are apportioned to the svābbāvika-kāya; the pratyaveksā-jīlāna to the sāmbbogika-kāya; and the krtyānustbāna-jūāna to the nairmānika-kāya. The Ch'eng-wei-shib-lun has adopted this Chinese translation of the MSA as it is, relating to the eight vijāānas and the four wisdoms (Shindo ed., 10, p. 15), and for the relationship with the trikāya, it gives a view close to Sthiramati's interpretation (Shindo ed., 10, p. 26). Obermiller introduces what is called Candragomin's theory, whose description, however, includes indistinct points (E. Obermiller, The Sublime Science of the Great Vehicle to Salvation, p. 101).

It seems to be quite late in history that the mutual relationship between the eight vijitānas (ālaya-vijitāna, klista-manas, mano-vijitāna, the five primary vijitānas), the four wisdoms (ādarla-jitāna, samatā-jitāna, pratyavekṣā-jitāna, krtyānustbāna-jitāna), and the threefold body (ābarma-kāya, sāmbbogika-kāya, nairmāmka-kāya) came to be clearly recognized and consolidated, though views on it are not necessarily the same. It is Sthiramati's commentary on the Mabāyānasūtrālamkāra (MSA), IX. 60 (Tibetan Tripitaka, Peking reprint ed., Vol. 108, p. 261-1 to -2) that describes at a single place the relationship between the above three, which can be graphed as follows:

identical with the tathagata, or the dharma-dhatu or the dharma-body. It is true that human beings are steeped in the world of suffering, and are far removed from the world of the Buddha. But viewed from the ultimate standpoint, the essence of the human mind is transparently luminous; it has lost its light only because of its being covered with adventitious defilement (agantuka-klela). When the adventitious defilement has been removed, the true mind or Buddhanature becomes apparent—this is the älraya-paravrtti. No living being can exist outside the world of the absolute called tathata or funyata; they cannot escape from the dbarma-dbatw. Just as the birds fly freely in the air, all sentient beings breathe in the Buddha-nature. Just as all things are filled with air, all living beings are filled with the Buddha-nature. It is because all living beings store such Buddha-nature concealed within themselves that they are regarded as the germ which produces the Buddha. Therefore, every living being is said to be a tathagata-garbba (tathagata-matrix). As for the term tathagata-garbba, various interpretations appeared in later ages, but its original meaning seems to have been that it was the embryo that conceived the tatbagata, nurtured it, and gave birth to it. A being is a tathagata-garbba in essentially belonging to the Buddha's lineage (gotra), and possessing the Buddha's essence or Buddha-nature by birth.

It is believed that this idea of Buddha-nature or tathāgata-garbha appeared fairly early in Indian Buddhism, in parallel with the philosophy of "cognition-only" or "mind-only." Buddhism made great advancement with this discovery of Buddha-nature within the ordinary living beings. The relative importance of this concept within Buddhism gradually increased as time advanced, especially in Chinese and Japanese Buddhism, where it became the central, basic concept. As this was almost the same with Tibetan Buddhism as well, it can be inferred that this concept had probably become the core of Buddhist thought in the last stages of Indian Buddhism.

As for the problem of the possibility of attaining Buddhahood by common beings, it can be said that an answer has been tentatively given by the idea that all beings possess Buddha-nature. But at the same time, many new difficulties have arisen. For example, if common beings already possess Buddha-nature equal to the dbarma-body, why is it that they are still sunk in the depths of transmigration? Why is it that the essentially undefiled minds of the common beings are still roots of delusions? The declaration that all beings are

tathagata-garbba is sure to encourage them greatly, and their efforts toward enlightenment will not be fruitless. But at the same time, if they already possess the dbarma-body, or at least possess it in its possibility, efforts to attain it will in effect be unneeded.

The characteristic of the doctrine of tathagata-garbba lies not so much in theory as in its religious poignancy and literary beauty, which must have been products of mystical experience. In Japan this literary mystery was further enhanced, advocating that not only sentient beings but also insensible beings, such as mountains and rivers, trees and grasses, all possessed Buddha-nature and the possibility to attain Buddhahood. This religious, mystical, intuitive attitude can be seen unfolded in many sutras. But these descriptions in sutras can be said to derive from the standpoint of the Buddha who has already attained enlightenment; they are the descriptions of the tathagata-garbba or Buddha-nature seen from the Buddha's viewpoint and not from the viewpoint of ordinary beings. For, if something is to be declared by ordinary beings when they envisage truth, it must be always a confession of sin or of delusion and impurity, not of the possession of Buddha-nature. Therefore, it is probably only natural that Indian Buddhist philosophers were not able to fully theorize and systematize the idea of the tathagata-garbba, the substance of this religious intuition. For it was something whose nature would not apply to human logic and category. The book called Ratnagotra-vibbaga is almost the only treatise extant which has attempted the systematization of the theory of tathagatagarbba. It is a "sastra" that is expected to be theoretical in nature, but rather than a theoretic, philosophical book, the Ratnagotra-vibbaga is a literary work, revealing religious faith, and filled with beautiful expressions and figures of speech of praise to the Buddha. The theory of the threefold body of the Buddha is also adopted in this book, where more pages are devoted to it than even in the treatises belonging to the Yogacara-vijnana school. The theoretic structure between the three bodies, however, is not necessarily clarified. And the keynote of this book seems rather to be the idea of twofold body, not the theory of threefold body²⁸—a fact which might signify that this book is more religious than philosophical.

Theories on the Buddha-body, mostly following the three-body system, are expounded in the Ratnagotra, I. 149–152 and II. 38–41, but the limits between the three bodies are not clearly shown so far as the virtues attributed to them are concerned. Simi-*

The fact that, contrary to the theories of trikaya and alraya-paravrtti of the Yogacara-vijnana school which is ascendent, the theory of tathagata-garbba is descendent, as I have already said, can also be surmised from the tendency of this theory of tathagata-garbba. Above all, the ordinary mind of living beings is called the tathagata-garbba on the basis that the ordinary mind is presupposed to be the dbarma-body or dbarma-realm; that is, the dbarma-body or dbarma-realm is first set up, and then flowing out from the dharma-body, which is regarded as the real basis, the world of ordinary beings manifests itself. In such a way, the theory of tathagata-garbba also treats of the human being and human mind, but since the mind is first grasped29 as something sublime that flows out from above, the problem of the ugly minds of actual human beings cannot help being left behind, forgotten. While the mind is believed here to be pure and luminous in its original nature, the delusions (klela), which bring forth every human ugliness, are apt to be regarded simply as something accidental, foreign, and non-essential. And it seems that the delusions are believed not to be serious but rather to be easily dispelled, because of their being adventitious and nonessential.

The "Buddha's lineage" (gotra) mentioned above has been discussed also by the Yogacara-vijñana school in its Mabāyānasūtrālankāra and other treatises. A bodhisattra is a bodhisattra because he belongs to the Buddha's lineage and is endowed with the Buddha-nature. But at the same time bodhisattras are here described as existences that are tortured with excessive delusions in spite of the lineage. Some bodhisattra, being a king's vassal, is forced even to commit murder, and some does the same when confronted with robbers and rascals. To these bodhisattras, the delusion, not the lineage, is their grave concern in the actual world. Reflections are further extended even to beings who are completely devoid of any "possibility of getting into nirvana," the so-called "beings without any (Buddha) lineage" (agotra). We see here the forerunner of

^{*}larly in II. 61 and II. 68, there is a tendency rather to pull back the concept of the three-fold body to that of the twofold body. In III. I and the rest, especially, discussions are carried on in the form of a mutual confrontation involving the twofold body, such as the Body of Ultimate Truth and the Body of Conventional Truth.

²⁹ In this regard the idea is somewhat closer to Hinduism. Confer note 21.

MSA, III. 7, especially in its Sthiramati's commentary.

³¹ Ibid. III. 11.

the theory of the "five distinct gotras" (including agotra), which later met with severe criticisms from the advocates of the doctrine of tathagata-garbba.

Such essentially negative aspects of inherited nature can hardly be seen in the Ratnagotra-vibbaga, where only beautiful words of praise to Buddha's virtues can be seen. This is so probably because the Ratnagotra-vibbaga discusses only the ratnagotra (gem-lineage) or Buddha-nature and takes no account of human nature (gotra) in general; but if this ratnagotra is the source of all beings' deliverance, it is insufficient to simply discard the faults of actual living beings as non-essential. An excellent study on this treatise has recently been introduced to the academic world.32 According to it, in the theory of tathagata-garbba, the idea of āsraya-parāvrtti (or -parivrtti) is likewise not a rotation upward from below, but is a self-manifestation of the dharmadhatu existing above, or its realization into the human world below. This, in truth, is exactly opposite to the alraya-paravrtti of the Yogacara-vijiana school. It can be said that such unfolding from above is the basic point of view of the theory of tathagatagarbba. However, because of it, the unrestricted and independent human existence, the existence which might revolt against his god and become the subject of evil, has been ignored, and what is optimistically emphasized is only the fact that the common human beings are endowed with the tathagata-garbba.

In contrast to this, the asraya-paravrtti of the Yogacara-vijiana school exists within samsara through and through, as already described, and the whole of one's existence, whose basis is always the basis for transmigration, revolves itself and realizes the Buddha-body. As the whole of one's existence is none other than an existence of paratantra nature, the aforesaid revolving means the revolving of the paratantra; the Mabāyānasamgraba³³ expounds that the paratantra converts itself sometimes into the parikalpita and at other times into the parimispanna. We may say, in accordance with this, that when the imagined, polluted world revolves itself into the consummated world, this revolving

Takasaki Jikidō, A Study on the Ratnagotra-vibbaga (Uttaratantra), Serie Orientale Roma XXXIII (Roma, 1966). The author has many other treatises, among which confer "Abrayaparivetti and Abrayaparavetti" (Nippon Bukhyō Gakkai Nempō, XXV, 1960); in the above book especially the Introduction, III.

Taisho, Vol. 31, p. 139b. E. Lamotte, La somme du grand vébicule (Louvain, 1938), Tome II, p. 110.

takes place on the plain of paratantra, the paratantra being the basis for everything that exists. These ways of revolving should all be sought thoroughly within the sphere of human existence, that is to say, within the structure of the human cognition, vijnanas. This is the reason why, in the Yogacara-vijnana school, the problem of the eight vijnanas became the focus of their extensive investigation and analysis. Thus, the logical meaning of the āfraya-paravrtti will also be sought in the structure of vijnanas—the way they recognize, judge, discriminate, imagine, and so on—the latter, the structure of the vijnanas, being reflected in the former, the āfraya-parāvrtti. In this case of āfraya-parāvrtti, contrary to the case of the theory of tathāgata-garbba described above, the Buddha-body has been understood from below. While in the theory of tathāgata-garbba the understanding of the Buddha-body is religious and intuitive, in the āfraya-parāvrtti the understanding of its structure is more philosophical and theoretical.

A treatise belonging to the Yogācāra-vijñāna school is also aware of the name tatbāgata-garbba and explains it;³⁴ another text interprets, with the tatbāgata-garbba theory, that the mind is essentially pure and luminous.³⁵ In the latter case, however, the mind can be so explained because lūnyatā (absolute negativity) is found rightly in the discrimination (abbūta-parikalpa) itself, not outside it—the mind being lūnya, negated, and not affirmed as in the tatbāgata-garbba theory. Now, lūnyatā is none other than another name for the dbarma-realm or dbarma-nature, which should be realized later in the āfraya-parāvrtti, i.e. when every human āfraya (basis = cognitions) is negated, turned over, and revolved. It is at this moment and only at this moment that the mind can be pure and luminous.

It is a fact that the mind is essentially pure and luminous; but, contrary to this, it is also a fact that the human mind actually gives rise to evil acts. From where do human evils come? They cannot, at any rate, be products of the dbarma-dbātu, nor of any divine beings; it is not from above, from the pure dbarma-realm, that the evils flow down. Therefore, the origin of human evils should not be sought outside of human existence, but only within the structure of cognitions, through whose contradiction and self-negation the evils

³⁴ MSA, IV. 37.

³⁵ Madbyantavibbaga, I. 22c.

can be elevated to the level of the dbarma-nature. The analysis of the cognitions thus becomes a clue to the research of the Buddha-body which is the goal of the dkraya-paravetti.

In the discussion of the Buddha-body following the theory of trikaya, the dharma-realm and the Essence-body are described as a "basis." But it is the "basis" for the other Buddha-bodies such as the Enjoyment-body and Transformation-body, or the "basis" from which the true and pure dbarma-preaching flows out; it is never the "basis" for human transmigration, samsara. The fact, again, that the Essence-body is the basis for the other two Buddha-bodies can be interpreted as reflecting or corresponding to the structure of the eight vijnanas. Among these eight vijnanas, the alaya-vijnana (store-cognition) becomes the basis for the other seven working cognitions, which include atmacogitation (manas), mind-consciousness (mano-vijnana), and five other vijnanas. When these eight cognitions revolve, the four wisdoms of the Buddha, including the adarla-jnana (the mirror wisdom), manifest themselves (see note 27). With this mirror-wisdom—the wisdom which reflects the reality of everything like a transparent mirror—as the basis, the other three wisdoms, including the samatā-jiiāna (the wisdom which sees the equality of beings), arise on the mirror. The mirror-wisdom itself is called "non-differentiated wisdom" (nirvikalpajiiāna), which is like a mirror that reflects everything without discrimination. With this wisdom as the basis, the Buddha is further said to have a wisdom called "the wisdom acquired succeedingly" (prstbalabdba-jnāna), which agrees with the mundane actuality. That the mirror-wisdom (or the non-differentiated wisdom) becomes the basis for all other wisdoms is in parallel with the fact that in the Buddha-body theory the Essence-body becomes the basis for other Buddha-bodies. These facts seem to correspond, albeit conversely, to the system of the eight pijnanas. In the mundane world, the system of the eight vijnanas, taking the alaya-vijnana as its fundamental, forms the basis for every human activity, owing to the fact that the vijnanas are paratantra in nature. I said conversely corresponding, because the system of the vijnanas can be regarded as having been brought into and reflected in the understanding of the Buddha-world, although the direction is "converse," the former being ascending, the latter descending.

We should say that, originally, questions such as the manner of the Buddha's existence are beyond human thought, beyond speech, just as nirvana is. In this

sense, even the Yogācāra-vijñāna school which consummated the trikāya theory of the Buddha could not directly make it an object of theoretic consideration. They could at most only represent it in a negative or paradoxical way. In radical terms, any attributes transcending and invisible to human beings might be ascribed to the Buddha. But these attributes do not exist simply high above as transcendental and isolated existences; by the revolving of the structure of the vijnānas, they exist as things that conversely correspond to the earthly structure of the vijnānas. If the Buddha-body were not thus conceived as what had been turned over from below, the Buddha would simply be a transcendental, isolated existence, something unrelated to human beings. If it were so, the search for enlightenment by common beings or their deliverance by the Buddha would become impossible or meaningless. But if it is correct to conceive a "converse correspondence" in connection with the Buddha-body, it would seem that a passage from the relative to the absolute and from the absolute to the relative could naturally be opened.

I have merely introduced the theories of Buddha-body in India and touched on several questions relating to them. The Buddha-body theory made complicated and variegated development later on in the various Buddhist sects in China and Japan. The triad concept of the trikaya theory has been generally accepted, studied, and developed by most of these sects. In a case of a strong religious demand, however, the triad system, which is highly theoretic in character, might have been felt not necessarily exigent; rather, the two-body system, in which a strong contrast between the relative and the absolute is predominant, might have been thought to be sufficient. Or it seems that there also developed a tendency toward the one-body theory which solely treated of the absolute dbarma-body. It is impossible now to refer to each of these Buddhabody theories. Generally speaking, however, Gautama the historic Buddha has been in many cases expelled from the most important position, and the so-called celestial Buddhas or Dhyani-buddhas have come to the fore. Furthermore, the relation between the Buddha-body theory and the concept of god or the absolute in religions other than Buddhism would present another interesting problem, one which is, however, beyond my present capacity.

Translated by Hirano Umeyo