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The Ascetics of Mount Aṭṭhāvaya Become Jain Monks

Approaches to the Interpretation of an Āvaśyaka Cūrņi Narrative

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Abstract

This study presents a detailed analysis of the narrative of Goyama and the ascetics of Mount Aṭṭḥāvaya in the Āvaśyaka Cūrṇi, including text and translation. By identifying a range of themes, intertexts and allusions in the narrative, a variety of Jain perspectives on the nature of asceticism are uncovered. Topics covered include the Āvaśyaka Cūrṇi as "commentary", the Āvaśyaka Niryukti background to the Āvaśyaka Cūrṇi narrative, some possible Śaiva allusions in the narrative, the significance of Goyama's physical appearance, Goyama's explanation of the canonical story of Puṇḍarīa, and Goyama's power of bestowing limitless food. In addition to the narrative told in the Āvaśyaka Cūrṇi, its earliest metrical version in the Uttarādhyayana Niryukti is discussed and translated as well.

Keywords

Goyama – Jainism – Śvetāmbara *āgama* – asceticism – Āvaśyaka literature – Prakrit

A Introduction

The tenth chapter of the Uttarādhyayana Sūtra can be regarded as one of the oldest portions of the Śvetāmbara Jain āgama. In this poem of thirtyseven verses entitled *Dumapattayam*, "The Leaf on the Tree", Mahāvīra repeatedly exhorts his senior disciple Goyama² with the celebrated words "Do not squander the opportunity" (samayam, Goyama, mā pamāyae): that is, take advantage of the possibility of deliverance afforded by human birth and subsequent renunciation.³ At *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra* 10.28a Goyama is specifically instructed: "Shake away affection from yourself as the water lily does autumnal rain". This affection may be of a generalised type since the following verse refers to the necessity of abandoning wealth and wife. However, the biography of Mahāvīra found in the *Jinacarita* section of the *Kalpa Sūtra*, one of the later texts of the *āgama*, describes how, immediately after the death of the Jina, Goyama gained omniscience only "when the tie of love (pijjabamdhana) for his master had disappeared", apparently an actualisation of the advice given in the Uttarādhyayana Sūtra.⁵

¹ For the text of the *Dumapattayam* see Charpentier's edition of the *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra* pp. 101-105 and for an English translation see Jacobi 1895; 41-46. Alsdorf 1974; 226-230 discusses the metrical background of the *Dumapattayam* which is written in the old Vaitālīya Aupacchandasaka metre, with the exception of vv. 5-15 which are interpolations. According to the commentarial tradition the *Dummapattayaṃ* poem represents a sermon by Mahāvīra prompted by Goyama lamenting his failure to gain omniscience. For manuscript illustrations see Brown 1941: 15.

² Imdabhūi Goyama, to give him his full Prakrit name. Throughout this contribution I refer to this figure as Goyama and by the name's Sanskrit equivalent Gautama when it occurs in a quotation or a Sanskrit source which I have translated. Following broad Indian convention I refer to canonical Prakrit texts by their Sanskrit titles.

³ Cf. Alsdorf 1974: 228: "Do not squander your opportunity, Gautama". For samaya, see Mette 1991: 76 who draws attention to the commentarial interpretation of samayam as "for an instant" and also notes the possible relevance of the term sāmāyika, "mental and physical equanimity".

⁴ vocchinda sineham appano kumuyam sāraiyam pāniyam. The point of this verse line derives from word play: affection (sineha) should have no influence in the same way that moisture (sineha) does not adhere to the lily. I take appano as ablative; cf. Jacobi 1895: 44: "cast aside from you ...". However, compare the Pali parallel at Dhammapada 285a and b (285c = Uttarādhyayana Sūtra 10.36c): ucchinda sineham attano / kumudam sāradikam va pāṇinā, rendered by Norman 2001: 42 as "Cut out the love of self, as you would an autumn lily by the hand." Here sineham attano seems to have a more overtly Buddhist sense. In his note on this verse Norman 2001: 141 points to pāṇinā possibly being an old error for pāniyaṃ,

⁵ Jinacarita p. 65 para 127: Nāyae pijjabaṃdhane vocchinne. Cf. Mette 2010: 52 and 294. For the

The *Jinacarita*'s brief description of Goyama's belated gaining of omniscience subsequent to Mahāvīra's death does not seem to be repeated elsewhere in the Ardhamāgadhī canon, although those familiar with early Buddhist tradition might view it as akin to the account in the Pali Mahāvagga of Ānanda, the Buddha's close disciple, whose attainment of the state of arhat took place only after his master's decease.6 While there is an intriguing reference in the *Upāsakadaśāh Sūtra*, one of the later canonical texts, to Goyama being called upon by Mahāvīra to perform the ritual of repentance for doubting the advanced state of knowledge attained by a layman, this episode is not framed in terms of the disciple's lack of omniscience, and there is no sense of him being chided as a flawed or unfulfilled individual.⁷ Nonetheless, the story of the tardiness of Goyama's attainment of omniscience which will bring liberation from rebirth remained a significant subject for Śvetāmbara Jain writers as the biography of Mahāvīra and the renunciant teachers who followed him began to take more developed shape from around the middle of the first millennium CE.8

expression *pijja*- or *pejjabaṃdhaṇa* used of unbroken (*avvochinna*) ties of affection towards relatives see *Bhagavatī Sūtra* 8.5 (Amaramuni vol. 3 p. 104) and cf. Deleu 1970: 148. I take *nāyaa* to be the equivalent of Sanskrit *nāyaka*, "leader" rather than as connected with a supposed clan name Jñāta / Jñātṛ frequently assigned to Mahāvīra.

⁶ Anālayo 2016: 87 and 172; Shulman 2021: 113-118 and Silk 2020: 29-30.

⁷ The *Upāsakadaśāḥ Sūtra* describes how the Jain householder Āṇaṃda while following the vows of the advanced layman attained clairvoyant knowledge (*avadhijñāna*) of a significantly developed type. Goyama refused to accept that a layman could gain such a mode of knowledge, and insisted that for speaking falsely Āṇaṃda should repent and perform appropriate penance. Āṇaṃda appealed to Mahāvīra, who confirmed the validity of his attainment and called upon his disciple to repent, perform austerity and seek the layman's pardon, to which Goyama duly assented. See Hoernle, trans pp. 59–60 para 86, and Amaramuni pp. 83–87 paras 82–86, *Aṃgasuttāṇi* p. 414 para 66. Cf. Wiley 2012: 146. It might be possible to interpret the foregoing episode as reflecting a period when the laity was gaining a more pronounced and autonomous role within the Jain community. On the other hand, a Jain might regard the significance of the episode as lying in Goyama's deference and disciplined demeanour in the presence of his teacher Mahāvīra. See Vinayasāgar 1987.

⁸ In his *Cauppannamahāpurisacariya* (pp. 334–335) Śīlāṅka (ninth century) expands this fleeting reference into an account of Goyama's introspective reflection about the nature of affection. Later vernacular poets were to further develop this narrative theme into a psychodrama indicative of Goyama's deep devotion, in which heartfelt lamentation for the passing of Mahāvīra leads him to apprehend that his immoderate feeling for the Jina had hindered his own attainment of omniscience. See Desāī 1974 for an illustration. Such a theme appears to be absent in Digambara literature. This may reflect the fact that in Digambara tradition the teacher lineage is regarded as descending directly from Mahāvīra himself, and accordingly his disciples have less emphasis placed on their role.

Descriptions of Goyama in the Śvetāmbara āgama are as idealised as those of Mahāvīra⁹ and it has to be accepted that as a historical figure he will remain elusive outside the restricted perspective afforded by textual analysis. ¹⁰ This study will discuss one particular narrative involving Goyama which in its earliest prose form occurs in the $\bar{A}va\acute{s}yaka$ $C\bar{u}rni$ (= $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$), a post-canonical text largely composed in Mahārāṣṭrī Prakrit.¹¹ In this narrative we are told how Goyama, vexed by his inability to gain omniscience when others less advanced on the renunciant path were able to do so with ease, receives his master Mahāvīra's permission to go to Mount Atthavaya in order to worship the shrines on its summit and thus guarantee liberation at a later point. He encounters on the lower slopes of Atthavaya three ascetics and their respective bands of followers who despite their austerities have been unable to ascend the mountain. They express misgivings about what is to them Goyama's less than ascetic appearance, but to their astonishment he disappears, utilising the magic power of flight to reach the summit of Atthavaya where he preaches a sermon to the god Vesamana. The ascetics accept him as teacher when he descends the mountain and they become Jain monks. Goyama further displays his powers by feeding the new monks from a bowl whose contents never diminish. Subsequently

The standard description of Goyama in terms of idealised physical perfection and spiritual attainment is to be found at Bhagavatī Sūtra 1.1. He has a substantial interlocutory presence throughout the Bhagavatī Sūtra as regular instigator and auditor of a wide range of Mahāvīra's teachings, but little if any biographical context is provided. Modern accounts of Goyama by Jain authors have tended to produce a standardised composite biography by drawing on the few specific details from chronologically disparate canonical sources, along with commentarial descriptions of the disciple's previous existences and presenting this material in integrated historical terms. See for example Vinayasāgar 1987: 4-18. Such accounts of Goyama's life also regularly refer to the story of how he and his priestly brahman brothers became Mahāvīra's disciples after witnessing his miraculous preaching ceremony, and then having the unsatisfatory nature of their various brahmanical philosophical views decisively demonstrated to them by the Jina. However, the earliest source to record this tradition is Jinabhadraganin's Viśesāvaśyakabhāsya, which dates from the very end of the sixth century or the beginning of the seventh cen-

Goyama is not associated by Śvetāmbara Jain tradition with any sort of disagreement 10 within the renunciant community. In this respect he is different from Ānanda, the Buddha's closest disciple, about whom there is a wide and often thematically complex range of narratives owing to his status and also his advocacy of women being admitted to the saṅgha being of concern to various early Buddhist sectarian traditions. See Anālayo 2016: 160-161.

The AvCū also contains passages of Sanskrit. The earliest metrical version of the narrative 11 occurs in the *Uttarādhyayana Niryukti*; see Appendix 1.

despondent when these monks quickly attain omniscience, he is reassured by Mahāvīra about his eventual success. The Jina's subsequent exhortation to his disciple to exert himself forms the repeated refrain of the poem entitled *Dumapattayam*, referred to above.

This story has received little scholarly attention apart from a short study by the late professor Adelheid Mette, who argues for the possible influence of Buddhist teaching at the end of Goyama's sermon to Vesamaṇa. 12 While acknowledging the value of Mette's contribution, I will attempt to cast the interpretative net somewhat wider by identifying a range of themes, intertexts and allusions which combine to enrich a narrative revealing a variety of Jain perspectives on the nature of asceticism. In the following section I offer some orientation within the early stages of the $\bar{\text{A}}$ vaśyaka literature to assist those who may not be entirely at home in this area.

B The Āvaśyaka Cūrņi as "Commentary"

As the narrative is formally a commentary on a verse from the $\bar{A}va\acute{s}yaka\,Niryukti\,$ ($\bar{A}vNiry$), I will first offer some clarifying remarks about the $\bar{A}vC\ddot{u}$'s status within the domain of the $\bar{A}va\acute{s}yaka\,$ literature. The point of origin of the $\bar{A}va\acute{s}yaka\,$ literature is the $\bar{A}va\acute{s}yaka\,$ $S\bar{u}tra\,$ ($\bar{A}vS\ddot{u}$), a short liturgical anthology containing the Prakrit formulae for the six component elements of Jain devotional and confessional procedure. Chronology is inevitably imprecise, but as the $\bar{A}vS\ddot{u}$ is composed largely in Mahārāṣṭrī it must be dated in its current form to around the fifth century. It is remarkable that this short work should over the centuries have attracted into its ambit such an extensive body of textual materials encompassing legendary history, philosophical theory and exemplary narrative. Unfortunately the complex and multilayered nature of the

¹² See Mette 1987: 147 and also 2010: 182 and 381.

¹³ See Bruhn 1981: 21-25 and 1998: 120 and 124.

Cf. Bruhn 1998: 124. The attraction of the Āvaśyaka Sūtra may have lain in a simplicity redolent of ethical and devotional integrity. For the basic components and structure of the Āvaśyaka textual "cluster", see Bruhn 1981: 43–44 and also Balbir 1993a. Patel 2014: 4–5 uses the term "tradition" to describe the lengthy process of narrative reworkings of and commentarial engagements with a central literary work, specifically in this case Śrīharṣa's Naiṣadhīyacarita. While it might in that light be convenient to refer to the "Āvaśyaka tradition", the Āvaśyaka Sūtra has a much less substantial role in generating later readings in Jain literary culture than a large-scale kāvya such as the Naiṣadhīyacarita.

Āvaśyaka corpus has ensured that it has not yet been adequately assimilated into modern scholarly discussions of early Indian textual culture. Indicative of this is the fact that the most significant development in the study of this body of texts has been the publication of an English translation of Ernst Leumann's Übersicht über die Āvaśyaka Literatur, a monograph originally published in 1934 but incorporating research carried out as far back as the 1880s. It would not be too controversial to claim that the parameters of investigation established by Leumann in this philological field almost one hundred and fifty years ago have not radically altered since that time. ¹⁵

While the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{vS}\bar{\text{u}}$ has come to be identified, and in modern times published, as an independent component of the Śvetāmbara $\bar{a}gama$, it is in fact embedded within the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{vNiry}$, ostensibly a commentary upon it. ¹⁶ This work, probably not too distant chronologically from the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{vS}\bar{\text{u}}$, is the most significant of the eight niryuktis (to use the Sanskrit equivalent of Prakrit nijjutti) which have survived, gaining a particular authority in its own right, ¹⁷ and as Leumann saw long ago, it can be regarded as the truly foundational text of the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{va}\dot{\text{sy}}\text{aka}$ literary corpus. ¹⁸ Traditional Jain scholarship has viewed the main function of a niryukti as providing exegesis of a particular root $s\bar{u}tra$, ¹⁹ but as a genre the niryuktis are not reducible to mere procedures of textual elucidation as generally understood. ²⁰ While hitherto etymologies of the term niryukti have generally been predicated on the term necessarily having a meaning corresponding to "expla-

¹⁵ Leumann 2010. Fundamental though Leumann's study remains, it will still strike most consulting it today as dauntingly technical in its formulation. Fortunately this new incarnation of \(\tilde{U}\)bersicht has the benefit of an important contextualising introduction by Nalini Balbir, whose own magisterial work is essential for understanding the \(\tilde{A}\)vasyaka literature. See Balbir 1993a.

¹⁶ Cf. Balbir 1993a: 34.

¹⁷ See Alsdorf 1998: 822 and Balbir 1993a. Scholarship has generally been content with a broad dating of the *niryuktis* between the first and fifth centuries CE. See for example Ollett 2017: 76. However, there seems little reason to dissent from the view of eminent Jain scholars such as Muni Puṇyavijaya and Dālsukh Malvāṇia that these works most likely originate in the late Gupta period. See Dhaky 2012: 124 n. 16.

Leumann identified four redactions of the Āvaśyaka Niryukti. The oldest he claimed to have originated with Bhadrabāhu in the first century CE, a judgement that seems to have been partly prompted by a consideration of the location of this teacher in the traditional lineage records. The three main commentaries, namely the ĀvCū and the tīkās of Haribhadra and Malayagiri, are viewed by Leumann as deriving from a further three differing versions of the root text. See Leumann 2010: 80–84 and Wu 2017: 315 and cf. Gough 2021: 236 n. 68.

¹⁹ For a recent statement from this perspective, see Kusumaprajñā's introduction to ĀvNiryL.

²⁰ See Jyväsjärvi 2010: 150–151.

nation",²¹ Balbir has convincingly shown that "connection" or "link" are more plausible renderings, and that accordingly a *niryukti* should be regarded as an introduction or a grounding for a *sūtra* to which it is attached, a parallel text to it rather than a derivative exegetical examination of its constituent elements.²²

The eight examples of the Prakrit prose commentary (sporadically interspersed with Sanskrit) called in Sanskrit $c\bar{u}rni$ (the equivalent of Prakrit cunni) are traditionally ascribed to Jinadāsagaṇin, although the ĀvCū in fact makes no mention of this teacher's authorial role, and on that basis can be located in the last quarter of the seventh century. The standard Jain explanation understands the sense of $c\bar{u}rni$ as deriving from both the process of "grinding" (Sanskrit $\sqrt{c\bar{u}rn}$) the text and the product of this, the "flour" ($c\bar{u}rni$) of explication, powder-like yet still substantial. However, whatever the term's semantic background, in practice it appears to designate little more than simple prose as distinct from the metrical niryuktis. The ĀvCū is the most important example of the $c\bar{u}rni$ genre; regrettably, the sole edition, that published in Ratlām by the ŚrīŖṣabhdevjī Keśarīmaljī Śvetāmbarsaṃsthā, is not based on any obvious critical principles, often seeming simply to reflect the transcription of a single manuscript, and is of only provisional value for any full evaluation. 25

²¹ See for example Norman 2001: 212.

²² See Balbir 2020: 59–60. Mahetā 1989: 57 states that the purpose of a *niryukti* is to establish the connection (*sambandh*) of meaning with the words of a *sūtra*.

See Sen 1975: 6–9 and also Balbir 1993a: 61, and Wu 2014: 162 nn. 40 and 41. The conclusion of the colophon of the Ratlām edition of the ĀvCū makes no reference to authorship but simply states that the copy of the work was given by Dīpavijayagaṇin to Pannyās Nyāyasāgaragaṇin in saṃvat 1774. For the likely order of composition of the cūrṇis, see Mahetā 1989: 266–267.

See von Hinüber 2019: 1183 n. 15. For the traditional explanation, see Alsdorf 1998: 817. For remarks on the cūrni's commentarial procedures vis-à-vis sūtra and niryukti see Balbir 2022b: 403–404. Unfortunately analytical synopses and studies of the cūrnis remain lacking; Sen 1975 is a notable exception.

Cf. Alsdorf 1998: 823. Although there is nothing in the Ratlām edition of the ĀvCū, whether by way of frontispiece information or an introduction, to suggest who was responsible for editing it, the likelihood is that the scholar involved was Sāgarānandasūri; see Tripathi 1981: 304 (where the name is imprecisely given as "Ānandasāgara sūri"). Cf. Malvania ViĀvBh Pt. 1 intro p. 4 for Ānandasāgara having edited Hemacandra Maladhārin's *Viśeṣāvaśyakabhāṣya* for the ŚrīŖṣabhdev Keśarīmaljī series in 1936. The version of the ĀvCū given in Muni Dīparatnasāgara's edition would seem to reproduce the Ratlām edition. Muni Jambūvijaya's edition of the *Anuyogadvāra Cūrni* which forms part of his larger edition of the *Anuyogadvāra Sūtra* and related commentarial material is the most significant recent edition of a *cūrni*.

In general, a *cūrni* is closely connected with its corresponding *niryukti* in terms of following the latter's verse order and topic of discussion.²⁶ However, while the ĀvCū does indeed largely follow the ĀvNiry, it does not always engage with the verses upon which it is ostensibly commenting in terms of offering a close gloss and thoroughgoing exegesis. Typically a catchword (*pratīka*), that is to say the opening word or compound cluster of an ĀvNiry verse, is cited, and that verse is then elaborated upon, often by means of incorporating the sense of the immediately succeeding verse(s) into a discursive prose treatment.²⁷ Catchwords in the ĀvCū arguably do not so much point to the portion of the ĀvNiry to be commented upon as they function as markers to orient the student within the framework of the ĀvCū's argument or narrative. 28

There is one significant dimension of the relationship between the ĀvCū and the AvNiry which provides some relevant background to understanding the story examined below. Almost a century ago Charpentier speculated that the *niryuktis* "presuppose the existence of an earlier commentarial tradition, presumably oral, of which they are merely a summary."29 Alsdorf sought to clarify further this claim by positing the original orality of the *cūrni*s as a genre: "In the Cūrni we come for the first time to know the full text of the traditional exe-

²⁶ See Mahetā 1989, opening of each chapter on cūrņis, and p. 275 for the ĀvNiry and ĀvCū.

Koch 1990: 26 characterises the ĀvCū, which he regards as having been written by Jinadāsa, 27 as commenting on a substantially shorter version of the ĀvNiry which has not survived (presumably one of the recensions identified by Leumann; see note 18), but which can be identified through inspecting the catchwords employed and the version commented on by Haribhadra. However, the author of the ĀvCū could have been deliberately selective about which verses he discussed and furthermore AvNiry verses are not always cited by catchwords when they can be readily dealt with in the cūrņi proper. An example relevant to some of the textual material discussed below is ĀvNiry vv. 742-763, a group of verses which deals with scriptural transmission and interpretation as they relate to the Jina, Goyama and the teacher Vaira; only vv. 742, 744, 745, 749, 750, 756, 759, 760, 761, and 762 are specifically singled out by catchword by the ĀvCū, with the rest being paraphrased or expanded in the running commentarial prose.

While the ĀvCū is not solely a repository of exemplary narrative, it is this aspect of the 28 work which has attracted most scholarly attention, as most notably Balbir's extensive work deriving from Leumann's 1897 edition Die Āvaśyaka Erzählungen; see Balbir 1993a. Koch 1991-1992 uses the ĀvCū in conjunction with other relevant commentaries to give an analysis of a selection of *Āvaśyaka*-related narratives; see also Koch 1995–1996, 1998 and 2009. Most recently, Wu 2017 has revealed the differing ways in which shared narrative themes are used in the ĀvCū and the Buddhist Mūlasarvāstivāda Vinaya.

Uttarādhyayana Sūtra, introduction, p. 50. 29

gesis, and it is clear that though the form of the text we now have before us may be centuries younger than the old mnemonic $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}s$ of the Nijjutti, yet originally the Nijjutti is but a secondary mnemonic aid for mastering the primary oral precursor of the written $C\bar{u}rni.$ "30

While speculating about unidentifiable oral precursors of written texts without providing any specific substantiating examples will be dubious to some, the possible existence of such versions at some point, as Charpentier and Alsdorf suggested, is nonetheless a hypothesis which can enhance understanding of the ĀvCū and its narratives. Traces of variants in respect to narrative details betokening an original orality are regularly found in the *cūrnis*;³¹ one such alternative, introduced by the phrase keī bhaṇaṃti, "some say", occurs in section D11 of our ĀvCū story. Orality in the Indian context and elsewhere has generally been regarded as guaranteeing the fixity of a particular textual transmission. Yet in respect of the ĀvCū it might be held that the preexistence of one or more oral versions may have also been responsible for an evident degree of syntactic and structural untidiness verging on the disorderly to be found in the story below. The prose of the ĀvCū story is distinctly inelegant, and its clipped and largely unornate style, apart from an occasional lengthy compound formation, 32 seems to indicate an original context where a degree of oral expansion and embellishment, now inaccessible, may have taken place. Indicative of this unsophisticated style is the manner in which the story continually and interchangeably repeats the honorifics bhagavam, "blessed" and sāmī, "lord" to refer to both Goyama and his master Mahāvīra, often in such close proximity that it can be difficult to distinguish which of the two eminent figures is being designated.³³ Such unpolished usage may be an indicator of traces of an original version which have survived in the ĀvCū narrative, to be analysed below.

³⁰ Alsdorf 1998: 817. Alsdorf goes on to refine this insight by explaining (p. 818) that "the *cuṇṇi*, that is in the form we have it now, has taken the form of a commentary on parts of the *nijjutti* and of the *sutta*, thus reflecting the original oral instruction, of which only certain parts had been epitomized in the form of mnemonic verses." For observations on orality in early Indic textuality, see Pollock 2018: 30–32.

³¹ See Balbir 1993a: 115 and 2020.

³² See section D6 and note 93. The ĀvCū as a whole evinces varying degrees of stylistic sophistication.

The term $s\bar{a}m\bar{\iota}$ is used of Mahāvīra fifteen times, of Goyama fourteen times (according to Mette 2010: 184 this is a term peculiar to Goyama). The honorific *bhagavaṃ* (and the variants *bhayavaṃ* and *bhagava*) is used eight times of Mahāvīra and eight times of Goyama. For a discussion of the rendering of *bhagavaṃ* in the Buddhist context ("Lord" or "Blessed one"), see Shulman 2021: 15 n. 28.

This story takes its pratīka Tumbavanasannivesāo ("From a way station in Tumbavana") from ĀvNiry v. 764 which introduces a biography of the teacher Vairasāmī (Sanskrit Vajrasvāmin). I will discuss this verse and the likelihood of it being an interpolation in Appendix 2. The ĀvCū story to be analysed below should not be regarded in formal terms as a commentary generated by this verse. ĀvNiry v. 764 can better be viewed as part of a secondary summary of an underlying, probably oral version of the biography which, following Charpentier and Alsdorf, has assumed written form in the ĀvCū. The original version of the story, however it was framed, must predate (perhaps by several centuries) the seventh century, the floruit of whoever produced the version of the ĀvCū we have now.

\mathbf{C} The Āvaśyaka Niryukti Background to the Āvaśyaka Cūrņi Narrative

The overall background to the story of the ascetics of Mount Aṭṭhāvaya can be understood from the ĀvNiry's summary account of the process of scriptural hermeneutics given in a sequence of verses (vv. 736–764).³⁴ ĀvNiry v. 742 poses the question "why" (kimkāraṇaṃ) the titthakara (Sanskrit tīrthankara; the term is generic but here must be interpreted as referring specifically to Mahāvīra) "utters" (bhāsai) the Sāmāiya (Sanskrit sāmāyika) chapter, which, as the first section of the Āvaśyaka Sūtra dealing with the principal mental and physical disciplinary performance to be performed by Jains, effectively represents by synecdoche the Jain scriptural tradition in toto.35 This enunciation is effected through the agency of the particular types of karma which define the *titthakara* state (vv. 743-744).36 Mahāvīra's disciples, of whom Goyama is the main rep-

See Balbir 1993a: 64–68. This sequence has its origin in the list of 26 $d\bar{a}ra$ ("topic") words 34 given at ĀvNiry vv. 140-141 (= Anuyogadvāra Sūtra sū. 604, for which Hanaki 1970: 208-210); for the 26 *dāra* words starting with v. 141 which constitute a programme developed as far as v. 879 and represent a form of exegetical framework, see Balbir 1993a: 55-56 and 64 and cf. Kusumaprajñā's introduction to ĀvNiryL: 28-36.

See Williams 1959: 343: sāmāyi'-āī-ekkārasa-anga: the normal phrase in canonical legends 35 to designate the *āgamas*.

titthayaro kiṃkāraṇaṃ bhāsai sāmāiyaṃ tu ajjhayaṇaṃ / titthayaraṇāmagottaṃ ka-36 mmam me veiyavvam ti // 742 "Why does the tīrthankara utter the Sāmāyika chapter (of the Āvaśyaka Sūtra)? Because (he knows that) he must experience the "name and clan" karma of all tīrthankaras (which is the cause of uttering the chapter)." tam ca kaham veijjai agilāe dhammadesanāīhim | bajjhai tam tu bhagavao taiyabhavosakkaittā nam || 743 "So how is it experienced? Through actions like unwearied teaching of the doctrine. That

resentative, are motivated to hear what the *titthakara* has uttered in order to gain knowledge of efficacious and negative (*maṅgula*) dispositions (v. 745).³⁷ There follows a condensed delineation of the Jain soteriological path to deliverance (vv. 746–748)³⁸ and an analysis of various terms relevant to the overall description (ĀvNiry vv. 749–753).³⁹ A sequence of six verses then surveys the seven *ṇaas*, "perspectives" (vv. 754–759), described as being ubiquitous in the scriptural tradition, which are to be mediated to a pupil according to his aptitude.⁴⁰

This stipulation entails a prescription about the context in which interpretive "application" ($samoy\bar{a}ro$) of the naas to scriptural discourse should take place. ⁴¹ ĀvNiry v. 762b accordingly states that the perspectives are applied when there is apuhutta, "non-separateness", and are not applied when there is puhutta, "separateness". ⁴² These technical terms (whose Sanskrit equivalents are aprthaktva and prthaktva) relate to the methodology employed in scriptural hermeneutics and the role of anuoga (Sanskrit anuyoga), "correlating", "conjoining"—in effect "investigation" or "examination"—in understanding the agama. ⁴³ ĀvNiry v. 763 then explains that subsequent to the teacher Vaira there was a transition from what had originally been an integrated her-

karma is bound by the lord on the conclusion of (lit. having emerged from) his third previous existence." For osakkai < ava-| apa-svask, see Bollée 1994: 167 and Bollée 1998 vol. 3: 57 and Oberlies 1993: 48 (quoting Pali apasakkati, go away). I discuss ĀvNiry v. 744 at section I.

³⁷ Goyamāmāī Sāmāiyam tu kiṃkāraṇam nisāminti / ṇāṇassa taṃ tu suṃdaramaṃgula-bhāvāṇaṃ uvaladdhī // 745, with translation following Haribhadra and Malayagiri. For maṅgula see Oberlies 1995: 131 s.v maṅgura, "hässlich", and Norman 1992: 262–263. Sanskrit maṅgula, for which see Monier-Williams s.v. (the word is not found in PWB), would appear to be a Prakritism.

³⁸ See note 229.

³⁹ These *dāra* words (*kāraṇa*, *paccaya*, *and lakkhaṇa*) represent elements 9–11 of the programme identified by Balbir 1993a; see note 34. For *kāraṇa*, see section I.

⁴⁰ ĀvNiry v. 144 mentions only five main *naas* with the first, *negama*, and the fifth, *sadda*, subdivided; cf. Ohira 1982: 16. Traces of perspectivism in the Śvetāmbara *āgama* are infrequent and undeveloped; see Deleu 1970: 24 and cf. Ohira 1994: 229.

⁴¹ The *dāra* word is *somoāraṇa*; cf. Hanaki 1970: 209 and 227 and also Balbir 1993b: 67 and Krümpelmann 2021: 217 (translating *samayatāra* as "Inhärenz").

apuhutte samoyāro natthi puhutte samoyāro. My translation of *apuhutta* and *puhutta* is literal. Cf. Schubring 1935: 26 where *apuhatta* is rendered by "Häufung". In the English version *apuhatta* is rendered by "accumulation" and *puhatta* by "isolation"; see Schubring 1978: 119 n. 1. See also Balbir 2020: 59 and Krümpelmann 2021: 214 n. 88.

The *aṇuyoga*s consist of four broad generic categories of exegetical analysis falling under the rubrics of "behaviour" (*caraṇa*), "doctrine" (*dharma*), "enumeration" (*saṃkhyā*) and "substance" (*dravya*) which are to be regarded as encompassing the meaning of the *suttas*. Cf. Schubring 1977: 299 and Krümpelmann 2021: 192 and 208.

meneutical procedure involving simultaneous application of the four *anuogas* to their less rigorous separate application.44

After paraphrasing and expanding ĀvNiry vv. 762-763, ĀvCū then poses the following questions: "Who was the noble Vaira who brought about (jammi) that there was non-separateness of the anuogas? For what reason was separateness introduced?⁴⁵ I want to hear about the birth and subsequent career of the noble Vaira. How did separateness of the anuogas come about?"46 The narrative which ensues is not mentioned in the AvNiry, but serves as an extended prologue to the ĀvCū's account of Vaira's career.

D The Āvaśyaka Cūrṇi Narrative of Goyama and the Ascetics of Mount Atthavaya

I have segmented into sections the Prakrit text (ĀvCū pp. 381–390) and my accompanying translation; while broadly reflecting narrative units, these are intended to facilitate cross-reference and discussion. In translating, throughout I generally mirror the pared-down style of the Prakrit and have deliberately not attempted to produce a "smooth" rendering. The spelling of the ĀvCū edition is reproduced, including forms containing intervocalic -ta-, although these are most likely scribal hypercorrections. I retain the bulk of editorial punctuation of the text, although I have adjusted this where clarity is required. Particles have been separated from preceding forms. I regularly cite in the notes the version of the narrative found in Haribhadra's tīkā on the Āvaśyaka Niryukti

jāvamta AjjaVairā apuhattam kāliyānuyogassa / tenārena puhattam kāliyasuya Diṭṭhi-44 *vāde* // 763 "Up to the time of the noble Vaira there was non-separateness of the *aṇuyoga*s with regard to kāliya texts. After him there was separateness with regard to the kāliya textual tradition and the *Dṛṣṭivāda*." ĀvNiry and the AvCū give Vaira (c. 1st century CE) the honorific ajja (Sanskrit ārya). He is also known also known in Prakrit as Vairasāmī (Sanskrit Vajrasvāmin). Tatia, in the introduction to Hanaki 1970: vii, explains the *kāliya* (Sanskrit kālika) scriptures in this context as those whose "study required a monk to be of a definite standing in respect of the period of his monkhood." The *Drstivāda* is the twelfth anga of the Ardhamāgadhī scriptural canon which from relatively early times came to be accepted as having been lost.

According to ĀvNiry v. 774 the change in exegetical procedure was introduced by Vaira's 45 pupil Rakkhiya who wished to assist pupils who were deficient in intellectual ability.

ĀvCū p. 381 ll. 4–9: ko puṇo ajjaVairo jaṃmi apuhuttaṃ āsi? jeṇa [read keṇa] ya kāraṇeṇa 46 puhuttam katam iti icchāmi tesim ajjaVatirānam uṭṭhāṇapāriṇāmiyam sotum, kiha puhuttam jātam. Henceforth citations from the ĀvCū text are taken from the first volume of the Ratlām edition.

 $(H)^{47}$ where this clarifies or supplements the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$, and I also occasionally refer to the commentaries on the $Uttar\bar{a}dhyayana\,Niryukti$ by the eleventh century Śāntisūri (Ś) and on chapter ten of the $Uttar\bar{a}dhyayana\,S\bar{u}tra$ by Devendra $(D).^{48}$

The narrative commences with a brief reference to the teacher Vaira 's previous existence as a deity.

D1 ĀvCū p. 381 l. 11

puvvabhave⁴⁹ Sakkassa devaranno Vesamaņassa sāmāņio āsi,

In his previous existence he was a $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}nika$ deity attendant upon Vesamaṇa, one of the guardians of the directions in the entourage of Sakka, the king of the gods.⁵⁰

D2 ĀvCū pp. 381–382 l. 3

ito ya Vaddhamāṇasāmī, teṇaṃ kāleṇaṃ teṇaṃ samaeṇaṃ Piṭṭhicaṃpāṇāma nagarī,⁵¹ tattho Sālo rāyā, Mahāsālo juvarāyā, tesiṃ SālaMahāsālāṇaṃ bhagiṇī Jasavatī, tīse Piḍharo⁵² bhattāro, Jasavatīe attao Piḍharaputto Gāgalī ṇāma kumāro, sāmī samosaḍho subhūmibhāge, Sālo ni-

⁴⁷ Āryarakṣitavijaya's edition vol. 3: 102–109.

⁴⁸ D's version of the story is also found in the Prakrit commentary entitled *Sukhabodhā* on the *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra* by Devendra (on becoming ācārya, Nemicandrasūri) composed in samvat 1129 which was an adaptation of Ś.

⁴⁹ H: Vairasāmī puvvabhave.

The translation makes more explicit Vesamaṇa's status in respect to Sakka and that of the sāmāṇia god, to be reborn as Vaira, in respect to Vesamaṇa. For Vesamaṇa (Sanskrit Vaiśravaṇa, commonly known in Hindu tradition as Kubera) as guardian of the northern region see Deleu 1976: 246 and cf. Kirfel 1967: 265 and 305. For sāmāṇika as a generic term for a type of god of a status comparable to that of a prince, see Kirfel 1967: 262. The designation may denote that such gods are "equivalent" (samāna) to Indra in terms of powers; see Abhidhānarājendrakośa s.v. sāmāṇiya-sāmānika: samānatayā Indratulyatayā ṛddhyā carantīti sāmānikāḥ and cf. Lalwani 1973—1985 vol. 2: 319.

H: ito ya bhagavaṃ Vaddhamāṇasāmī Piṭṭṭhicaṃpāe nayarīe subhūmibhāge ujjāṇe samosa-dho ("And at that time the venerable Lord Vaddhamāṇa had arrived to preach in a garden in a pleasant part of the city of Piṭṭhicaṃpā"). For Piṭṭhicaṃpā see Stein 1948: 50 and Stein 1967: 187: "not the suburb, but a certain part of the town of Campa: something like 'High-Campa' or the Acropolis of Campa'". This is questionable. Mehta and Chandra 1970: 455, s.v. Piṭṭha-Campā: "to the west of Campā on way to Rāyagṛha."

⁵² Correcting Pīḍharo; H: Piṭharo.

ggato, dhammam soccā jam navaram Mahāsālam rajje thāvemi, 53 so atigato, tena āpucchito Mahāsālo 'vi bhanati-aham pi samsārabhatuvviggo jahā tubbhe iham meḍhīpamāṇam tahā pavvatiyassa vi,⁵⁴ tāhe Gāgalīm Kampillāo saddāveūna patto baddho, abhisitto, 55 rāyā jāyo, tassa māyā Kampillapure nagare dinnayā Pidharassa, tena tato saddāvito, so puna tesim do siviyāo kārei, jāva te pavvatiyā, 56 sā bhagiņī samaņovāsiyā jātā. tae nam te samanā homtagā ekkārasa amgā ahijittā.⁵⁷

And lord Vaddhamāna was flourishing then. At that time, at that period there was a city called Pitthīcampā. Sāla was king there and Mahāsāla the crown prince; their sister was Jasavatī and her husband was Piḍhara. Jasavatī's offspring, the son of Pidhara, was a prince named Gāgali. The lord arrived to preach in a pleasant location. Sāla went out to listen to him and having heard the dhamma ... "I will first establish Mahāsāla as ruler"; he approached him. He took his leave of Mahāsāla who said, "I also am disturbed by fear of rebirth. Just as you have represented a measuring post for me in the world, so you will also be for me even when I have renounced the world." Then Gāgali was summoned from Kāmpilla, the royal insignium was tied on him, he was consecrated and became king. His mother had been given in marriage to Pidhara in the city of Kampilla so he had been summoned from there. He got prepared two palanquins for them ... They renounced and their sister became an advanced laywoman.⁵⁸ Then on becoming ascetics they studied the eleven anga scriptures.

This appears to be an abbreviated passage. The expression *jam navaram* is usually picked 53 up in the main clause of a sentence by an expression such as tato, tao or tao nam. For jam navaram see Roth 1983: 158 and Schubring 1978: 70. H conveys the sense more clearly: tato Sālo bhagavato samīve dhammam soūņa bhaṇai—jam navaram Mahāsālam rajje abhisimcāmi, tato tumham pādamūle pavvayāmi ("Then Sāla having heard the doctrine from the blessed one said, "I will first consecrate Mahāsāla as ruler over the kingdom, then renounce the world in your presence"".)

H: so bhanai-aham pi pavvayāmi, jahā tubbhe iha amhānam medhīpamānam tahā 54 pavvaiyassa vi tti. For medhi see Turner 1966: 10317 s.v. methi, "pillar in threshing floor to which oxen are fastened, prop for supporting carriage shafts"; Roth 1983: 125 (p. 124 for medhīpamānam: Maßstab, i.e. standard).

H: tāhe Gāgalī Kampillapurāto āņeum rajje abhisimcito. 55

This phrase appears to be an abbreviated description of a royal renunciation of the sort 56 found in e.g the Jñātādharmakathāḥ Sūtra; see Roth 1983: 159-163. For a list of jāva occurrences with their textual correlates which occur in the Nirayāvaliyāo, see Deleu 1996: 31-36.

Absolutive used as finite verb? See Bollée 2010: 159 n. 594. 57

For the status of the *samaṇovāsiya*, see More 2020: 428–429. 58

D₃ ĀvCū p. 382 ll. 3-9

tate nam samane bhagavam Mahāvīre bahitā janavayavihāram viharati. tenam kālenam 2⁵⁹ Rāyagiham nagaram, Rāyagihe samosadho, tāhe sāmī puņo niggao Campam padhāvito, tāhe SālaMahāsālā sāmīm āpucchamti⁶⁰—amhe Piṭṭhīcampam⁶¹ vaccāmo, jati nāma tāna ko 'pi bujjhejjā, sammattam labhejjā,⁶² sāmī vi jānati jahā tāni sambujjhīhimti, tāhe sāminā Goyamasāmī se bitijjao dinno, sāmī Campam gato, tattha samosaranam,⁶³ Gāgalī Piḍharo Jasavatī ya niggayāṇi, bhagavam dhammam kaheti, tāṇi dhammam soūṇa saṃviggāṇi, tāhe Gāgalī bhaṇati—jam ṇavaram ammāpiyaro āpucchāmi jeṭṭhaputtam ca rajje ṭhavemi, tāṇi āpucchitāṇi bhaṇaṃti—jadi tumam saṃsārabhayuvviggo amhe' vi, tāhe se puttaṃ rajje ṭhāvettā ammāpitīhiṃ saha pavvatito.

Then the ascetic, the blessed Mahāvīra wandered abroad through the region. At that time, at that moment there was a city called Rāyagiha. ⁶⁴ He arrived at Rāyagiha to preach. Then the lord went out on his wanderings once more and proceeded ⁶⁵ to Campā. Then Sāla and Mahāsāla asked the lord for permission: "Let us go to Piṭṭhīcampā, in case one of them might be awakened or gain correct religious disposition." ⁶⁶ The lord knew that they would in fact be awakened and so the lord assigned lord Goyama to be their companion. The lord reached Campā and held his preaching

⁵⁹ An abbreviation of the expression tenam kāleņam tenam samaeņam.

⁶⁰ Correcting the edition's *āpucchati*; H: sāmim pucchamti.

⁶¹ Correcting the edition's *Piţţhīcaṃpaṃ*.

⁶² H: pavvaejja sammattam vā labhejja. This gives slightly better sense. I omit the edition's inserted question mark.

H: sāmī Caṃpaṃ gato, Goyamasāmī 'vi Piṭṭhicaṃpaṃ gato, tattha samosaraṇaṃ. While it does not have any significant impact on interpreting the narrative, there is a slight lack of clarity at this juncture concerning the itinerary of the protagonists. H seems to be clarifying by introducing a clause specifying that Mahāvīra went to Campā and Goyama went to Piṭṭhicaṃpā, but the statement in the following clause that "a preaching assembly (took place) there" is awkward since it can only refer to the Jina, as is clear from the ĀvCū text.

⁶⁴ Sanskrit Rājagrha.

Jain monks today can move at an impressive pace as they journey between the various destinations on their mendicant itinerary, and given that the Sanskrit root √dhāν frequently means "run", it is possible that *padhāvita* signifies "proceeded briskly" (cf. Mette: "eilten"). However, the context here and later in the story suggests that "proceeded" ("or proceeded confidently") is a more appropriate rendering. See Bodewitz 1974 for *dhāv* as meaning "move" and also Harzer 2015: 216–230.

⁶⁶ That is, through seeing them.

assembly there. Gāgali, Piḍhara and Jasavaī came out to listen to him. The lord preached the doctrine. They heard the doctrine and felt anxiety about worldly things.⁶⁷ Then Gāgali said, "I will straight away take my leave of my mother and father and install my eldest son on the throne." Then when he had taken leave of his parents, they said, "If you are disturbed by fear of rebirth, we are also." So after installing his son on the throne, he renounced the world with his parents.

ĀvCū p. 382 ll. 9-13 D_4

Goyamasāmī tāṇi ghettūṇam Campam vaccati, tesim SālaMahāsālāṇam paṃthaṃ vaccaṃtāṇaṃ hariso jāto—jahā⁶⁸ saṃsāraṃ uttāriyāṇi, evaṃ tesim subhenam ajjhavasānenam kevalanānam uppannam, itaresim pi cimtā jātā jahā amhe etehim rajje thavitāni samsārā moitāni,69 evam cimtemtānam subhenam ajjhavasānenam tinha vi kevalaņāņam uppannam, evam tāṇi uppannanāṇāṇi Campam gayāṇi, sāmīpayāhiṇam karemāṇāṇi tittham ṇamiūṇa kevaliparisam⁷⁰ padhāvitāṇi, Goyamasāmī vi bhagavam vamdiūna tikkhutto⁷¹ pādesu padito utthito bhanati—kahim vaccaha? eha titthakaram vamdaha, tāhe sāmī bhaṇati—mā Goyamā! kevalī āsāehi, tāhe āutto khāmeti, samvegam ca gato, tattha Goyamasāmissa saṃkā jātā⁷²—mā 'haṃ ṇa sijjhijjāmi tti,

Lord Goyama proceeded to Campā with them. 73 Sāla and Mahāsāla experienced joy as they proceeded along the road, thinking that they had escaped from rebirth; and so because of their morally positive attitude⁷⁴ they attained omniscience. The others thought, "We who had been appointed to rule by them have become freed from rebirth." As they reflected on this, the three attained omniscience because of their morally pos-

⁶⁷ That is, they experienced samvega. For observations on samvega in Jainism, see Acri 2015: 204-205. Cf. Walker 2018: 277-279. See also Detige 2020: 101.

⁶⁸ I follow the editorial bracketed insertion.

H: jahā amhe etehim rajje thāviyāni punar avi dhamme thāviyāni samsārāto moiyāni. 69

Correcting the edition's kevalaparisam. 70

For tikkhutto see Marciniak 2020: 22 n. 14. 71

D p. 154a l. 13: tattha Goyamasāmissa sammattamohaṇīyakammodayavaseṇa ciṃtā jāyā. 72

As observed in note 63, there is some slight uncertainty here. As the ĀvCū description 73 stands, Goyama journeys from Piţţhicampā to Campā with Sāla and Mahāsāla who gain omniscience on the road, while Piḍhara, Jasavatī and Gāgali gain omniscience in Campā. However, the narrative seems to be implying that all five journey to Campā with Goyama.

For *subha* see Jaini 2000 and for *ajjhavasāa* see Wiley 2012. 74

itive attitude. So having attained omniscience they arrived at Campā. After circumambulating the lord and saluting the Jain community,⁷⁵ they approached the gathering of omniscient ones. Lord Goyama paid homage to the blessed one, fell at his feet three times and then said on standing up, "Where are you going? Go, pay homage to the *titthakara*." Then the lord said, "Do not, Goyama, disrespect the omniscient ones." Then in contrition⁷⁷ he asked pardon and felt anxiety about wordly things. At that moment apprehension arose in lord Goyama that he might never gain liberation.

D5 ĀvCū p. 382 l. 13-p. 383 l. 3

evam ca Goyamasāmī cimteti,⁷⁹ ito ya devāņa samlāvo vaṭṭati—jo Aṭṭhā-vayam vilaggati cetiyāni ya vamdati dharanigoyaro sa teneva bhavagga-hanenam sijjhati,⁸⁰ tāhe sāmī tassa cittam jāṇati tāvasāṇa ya sambo-haṇayam, eyassa vi thiratā bhavissati tti do vi katāṇi,⁸¹ eyassa vi paccato,⁸² te vi saṃbujjhissaṃti tti, so vi sāmim āpucchati Aṭṭhāvayam jāmi tti,

⁷⁵ Mette 1987 takes *tittha* as "der heiligen Stätte", possibly because this links up with the imminent reference to the shrines on Mount Aṭṭhāvaya. I understand the term here to denote the fourfold Jain community, present to hear Mahāvīra's preaching. For this sense of *tittha*, see *Bhagavatī Sūtra* 20.8 (cf. Deleu 1970: 257). For *tittha* as the scriptures, see *Senapraśna* 27.1.

⁷⁶ I take āsāehi as equivalent of the Sanskrit imperative āśātaya. However, the form might also be taken as equivalent to āsādaya, with Mahāvīra telling the non-omniscient Goyama not to "join" or "approach" the kevalins since he does not belong among the enlightened. Both forms would normally contain the phonetic development -t- / -d- > -ν-.

⁷⁷ The expression āuṭṭa, "turned", which is common in ĀvCū, denotes a change of attitude or, occasionally, physical state (cf. section D12). See Ghatage 2004: 927 s.v. āuṭṭa "turned over (to one's side), won over (to one's views), made favourable"; also "turned back (from some mistake or from a wrong view)" and "turned towards, determined". Cf. Mette 1987 "respektvoll um Verzeihung".

⁷⁸ According to D Goyama was under the influence of that type of deluding (*mohaṇijja*) karma which undermines correct religious attitude (*sammatta*).

I have omitted the edition's *daṇḍa* at the end of this phrase, which suggests that it is to be taken with the previous phrase about Goyama's apprehension. However, I interpret the phrase as representing Goyama's awareness of what the gods say about Mount Aṭṭhāvaya (see Mette 1987 and 2010).

⁸⁰ For the phrase *ten' eva bhava-ggahaneṇa sijjhejjā | sijjhittae* at *Āyāradasāo* 10 para. 72 see Schubring 1966: 26.

⁸¹ D p. 154 ll. 15–16: tāhe sāmī tassa cittam jāṇai—tāvasāṇa ca sambohaṇayaṃ, eyassa thirayā bhavissai tti do vi kayāṇi bhavissaṃti.

⁸² The phrase *eyassa vi paccato* seems awkward and is reflected in my tentative translation; *eyassa vi* in the previous clause refers to Goyama, while as dependent on *paccato*, the

83

tattha bhagavatā bhanito—vacca Atthāvayam cetiyānam vamdao, 83 tae nam bhagavam⁸⁴ hatthatuttho vamdittā gato,

And lord Goyama thought thus: "In this world the gods are saying among themselves that any mortal who scales Mount Atthavaya⁸⁵ and pays homage to its shrines⁸⁶ can attain liberation in that same existence."⁸⁷ Then

equivalent of paccayo (= Sanskrit pratyayah with -t- as intervocalic), it seems to refer to Mahāvīra. Cf. Mette 1987: "Und weil er schon wusste". The phrase is not reproduced by H. H provides broader context and smooths away some but not all of the syntactic awkwardness of ĀvCū: ito ya sāṃiṇā puvvaṃ vāgariyaṃ aṇāgae Goyamasāmimmi-jahā jo Aṭṭhāpadam [sic] vilaggai ceiyāṇi ya vaṃdai dharaṇigoyaro so teneva bhavaggahaṇeṇa sijjhati, tam ca devā annamannassa kahimti, jahā kira dharanigoyaro Aṭṭhāvayam jo vilaggati so teneva bhavena sijjhai, tato Goyamasāmī cimtai-jaha Atthāvayam vaccejjā, tato sāmī tassa hiyayākūtam jāṇiūna [absolutive as finite verb? see Bollée 2010: 159 n. 594] tāvasā ya sambujjhihinti ti bhagavayā bhanito vacca Goyama Aṭṭhāvayam ceiyam vaṃdeum.

"And at this time the lord had previously predicted in lord Goyama's absence that any mortal who ascends Atthavaya and worships the shrines there attains deliverance in that same existence. And the gods talk about that to one another, namely that it is said (*kira*) that a mortal who climbs Atthavaya attains liberation in that existence. Then lord Goyama thought that he should go to Atthavaya. Then the lord knew his inner disposition and that ascetics would be awakened. The blessed one told him, "Go to Aṭṭhāvaya, Goyama, to worship the shrine."" Cf. Devendra p. 154 l. 14: io ya devāna samlāvo vattai—ajja bhagavayā vāgariyam—jo Atthāvayammi vilaggai ...

- 84 I take bhagavam as the accusative of the vowel stem bhagava; if it is nominative then it refers to Goyama.
- See ĀvNiry v. 307 for Aṭṭhāvaya as one of a group of locations associated with deliverance 85 of Jinas and vv. 433–444 for the Jina Rṣabha gaining liberation there; see also Kalpa Sūtra p. 76 l. 16 and Vimalasūri, *Paumacariya* 5.88. For the name Aṭṭhāvaya (Sanskrit Aṣṭāpada) see section F.
- 86 The shrines on Mount Atthawaya were erected by the emperor Bharata who was accepted as being the son of the Jina Rṣabha by the time of the composition of the ĀvNiry. However, Hīrapraśnottara no. 214 refers to the "middle" of the Śatruñjayamāhātmya for the images being installed ($pratim\bar{a}pratisth\bar{a}$) on the mountain by a pupil of Rṣabha. See Hīrapraśnottara 2.13 for the Vasudevahiṇḍi being the source for the caityas on Aṣṭāpada lasting through the avasarpinī and the last question in the Hīrapraśnottara which relates to the eternity of the temples on Mount Aṣṭāpada compared to those on Śatruñjaya. Hīrapraśnottara 7.5 refers to the vrtti on the Aupapātika Sūtra (Ambaḍa section) glossing ceiāni caityāni by arhatpratimāh. Hīrapraśnottara 38.4 asks: why are the shrines erected by Bharata on Astāpada still standing while those he erected on Śatruñjaya have experienced numerous vicissitudes and restorations? How is there such a difference when they are so near to each other? In answer it states that those on Aṣṭāpada are immune because they are inviolable (nirapāyatvāt) owing to the proximity of the gods. The Vasudevahinḍi states that they will last into the next *utsarpinī*.
- 87 Hīravijayasūri (1526–1595) states that while no explicit statement can be found, the supposition is that only those who are in possession of superhuman power gained through

the lord knew what he was thinking, and that two things had been brought about—the future awakening of ascetics and the establishing of Goyama's confidence; he knew full well that they would all be awakened. The other sought leave from the lord to go to Mount Aṭṭhāvaya. The blessed one replied, "Go to Mount Aṭṭhāvaya and pay homage to the shrines." Then having paid homage in delight and satisfaction to the blessed one he went off.

D6 ĀvCū p. 383 ll. 3-7

tattha ya Aṭṭhāpade jaṇavādaṃ soūna tiṇṇi tāvasā paṃcapaṃcasayaparivārā⁸⁸ patteyaṃ te Aṭṭhāvayaṃ vilaggāmo tti tattha kilassaṃti,⁸⁹ Koḍinno⁹⁰ Dinno Sevālo, jo Koḍinno so cautthaṃ⁹¹ kāūṇa pacchā mūlaṃ kaṃdāṇi⁹² āhāreti sacittāṇi, so paḍhamaṃ mehalaṃ vilaggo, Dinno chaṭṭhaṃ chaṭṭheṇaṃ⁹³ kāūṇaṃ parisaḍitapaṃḍupattāṇi⁹⁴ āhāreti, so bitiyaṃ mehalaṃ vilaggo, Sevālo aṭṭhamaṃ⁹⁵ kāūṇa jo sevālo sayaṃmatellao taṃ āhāreti, so tatiyaṃ mehalam vilaggo, evam te 'vi tāva kilassaṃti.⁹⁶

- 89 H omits tattha kilassamti.
- 90 H: Koṃḍiṇṇo; UttNiry vv. 293 and 296, also Ś: Koḍinna; Śīlāṅka, Cauppannamahāpurisacariya p. 322: Koṇḍiṇṇa.
- The edition has *cauttham* 2. For fasts involving the fourth, sixth and eighth meals, that is $1^{1/2}$, $2^{1/2}$ and $3^{1/2}$ meals see Roth 1983: 168–169.
- 92 H: mūlakamdāņi.
- 93 H: chatthassa 2. See note 91.
- 94 Cf. Aupapātika Sūtra para 74: parisaḍiya-kanda-mūla-taya-patta-puppha-phal'-āhārā.
- 95 H: atthamam atthamena.
- 96 H omits evam te 'vi tāva kilissamti.

austerity and moral restraint can reach the summit of Mount Aṣṭāpada to gain liberation in that lifetime. Accordingly demons, monkeys and the category of flying monk known as cāraṇa must be excluded. See Hīrapraśnottara 3.11: Aṣtāpādagirau svakīya-labdhyā ye jinapratimāṃ vandante tadbhavasiddhigāmina ity akṣarāṇi santi. tathā ca sati ye vidyādharayaminas tathā rākṣasavānaracāraṇabhedabhinnā aneke ye tapasvinas tatra gantuṃ śaktās teṣāṃ sarveṣām api tadbhavavasiddhigāmitvam āpadyate, tataḥ sā kā labdhir yayā tatra gamane Gautamādivat tadbhavasiddhigāmino bhavanti? iti praśno 'trottaram—Aṣṭāpadagirau ye tapaḥsaṃyamotthalabdhyā yātrāṃ kurvanti te tadbhavasiddhigāmina iti saṃbhāvyate vyaktākṣarānulambhāt.

⁸⁸ H: paṃcasayaparivārā; Śīlāṅka, Cauppannamahāpurisayacariyaṃ p. 222: Koṇḍiṇṇasa-gottāṇaṃ tāvasāṇaṃ paṇṇarasa sayāṇi saṃbujjhaṃti. The commentarial tradition on the Uttarādhyayana Sūtra has paṃcapaṃca. See Uttarādhyayana Niryukti v. 296: ikkikkassa ya tesiṃ parivāro paṃca paṃca sayā (see below) with Ś (p. 273) and D p. 154b l. 2: tinni tāvasā paṃcapaṃcasayaparivārā patteyaṃ patteyaṃ te 'Aṭṭhāvayaṃ vilaggāmo' tti tattha kilassamti. For discussion see Appendix 1.

There at Atthavaya were three ascetics, 97 each with five hundred followers⁹⁸ who had heard the rumour about the mountain. They had resolved to scale Atthavaya but became exhausted on it. They were Kodinna, Dinna and Sevāla.⁹⁹ Kodinna performed a fast of one and a half day's duration and then ate roots and tubers with life forms in them. He had reached the first terrace of the mountain. 100 Dinna performed a fast of two and a half days' duration and then ate fallen and sere leaves. 101 He had reached the second terrace. Sevāla performed a fast of three and a half days' duration, then if there was any withered pondweed he ate it. 102 He had reached the third terrace. In this way they were simply exhausted.

D_7 ĀvCū p. 383 ll. 7-11

bhagavam ca Goyamam orālasarīram hutavahataditatadiyatarunaravikiranasarisatevam¹⁰³ ejjamtam pecchamti, te bhanamti—esa kira ettha thullao samano vilaggihiti? jam amhe mahātavassī sukkhā bhukkhā¹⁰⁴ na

For tāvasas as one of five types of samana who should not receive homage see ĀvCū Vol. 2 97 p. 20 ll. 4–5: ime vi paṃca ṇa avaṃdiyavvā samaṇasadde vi sati, jahā ājīvagā tāvasā pārivvāyagā taccamniyā, bodiyā. See also Mahetā 1989: 278-279. For the generic category of tāpasa in the Pali Jātakas, see McGovern 2019: 114-115.

My translation follows H. As it stands the number pamcapamcasaya- in the ĀvCū seems 98 to mean "505", but it may possibly signify "a full 500" with the repetition of pamca being a form of āmredita. Cf. for earlier Prakrit Aśoka Rock Edict 3C: paṃcasu paṃcasu vasesu, "every five years" (Tieken 2023: 63). Elsewhere in the Śvetāmbara āgama, paṃca sayā is a standard round number; see Deleu 1996: 37 l. 4 and Roth 1983: 67. Cf. Anālayo 2016: 27 for Mahāpajāpatī entering the Buddhist saṅgha with 500 nuns. The reference in this context by Mette 1987: 147 to the pañcavarqīya monks converted by the Buddha is a component of an interpretation with Buddhist influence of the ĀvCū narrative. For further discussion see Appendix 1. For parivāra as a type of Jain monastic grouping, see Caillat 1965: 27.

For these names see section G. 99

¹⁰⁰ For $mehal\bar{a}$ as "terrace", see Shah 1955: 116–117; he refers to Bharata who in order to protect the mountain erected eight "steps" in the form of terraces. Cf. Kālidāsa, Kumārasambhava 8.67 where the sense of *mekhalā* seems to be "slope of mountain".

For śūrnaparnāśin as a category of ascetic described in the Mahābhārata, see Hiltebeitel 2016: 37-38. Senapraśna 47.1 for the roots of a tubor (kanda) containing many life forms but not its leaves.

Cf. Aupapātika Sūtra para 74: sevālabhakkhiņo.

Mette 1987: 140 n. 2 identifies this compound as a vedha taken from the description of Mahāvīra at Aupapātika Sūtra para. 16. In fact, it has been adapted: in Leumann's edition p. 31 the reading is huyavaha-niddhūma-jaliya-tadi-tadiya-taruṇa-ravi-kiraṇa-sarisa-

H: sukkā lukkhā; Ś p. 273 and D p. 154b: sukkā bhukkhā; cf. Jñātādharmakathāḥ Sūtra p. 14 104

tarāmo vilaggitum, bhagavam ca Goyame¹⁰⁵ jaṃghācaraṇaladdhīe taṃ-tulūtāpuḍagaṃ¹⁰⁶ pi ṇīsāe uppayati, jāva te paloeṃti, esa āgato tti 2 eso addaṃsaṇaṃ gato tti, tāhe te vimhitā jātā pasaṃsaṃti, acchaṃti ya paloeṃtā jadi otarati tā eyassa vayaṃ sīsā, evaṃ te¹⁰⁷ paḍicchaṃtā acchamti,

They saw the venerable Goyama appoaching, splendid in form, ¹⁰⁸ refulgent as fire, lightning and the rays of the new risen sun. And they said, "Will this stout¹⁰⁹ monk here actually climb the mountain? For we mighty ascetics, dried up and famished, cannot do so." The venerable Goyama flew up by means of the magic power of "flying with the legs", sitting on a slender spider's web¹¹⁰ while they watched in astonishment and

- 105 Nominative singular in -e.
- 106 H: lūtāpuḍagam.
- 107 H: te tinni vi.
- orālasarīraṃ is the equivalent of Sanskrit udāraśarīram; cf. the Mahāvastu verse quoted in n. 104 where the Himavat ascetics are described as udāra (Jones op.cit. "sublime").
- 109 For Goyama's appearance see section H.
- 110 See Wiley 2012: 145 n. 1 for general remarks on *labdhi* and 179 for the attainment of flying with the legs; see *Bhagavatī* 20.9, for the contents of which see Leumann in Bollée 1997: 332–333; also Deleu 1970: 257 for *jangha-cāraṇa-laddhi*. The ĀvCū seems to be amalgamating two kinds of *labdhi*: thigh flying and thread flying. For the Digambara perspective on yogic flying see Cort 2022: 29. Cf. Śīlāṅka's *Cauppannamahāpurisacariya* p. 323 v. 647b: *ravikiraṇakarālambaṇavaseṇa addamsaṇaṃ patto*. The early seventeenth century Sanskrit *mahākāvya*, the *Hīrasaubhāgya* of Devavimala 4.9 has Gautama ascending Aṣṭāpada by clutching the rays of the sun as ropes. *Rṣimaṇḍalavṛtti* quoted by *Hīrasaubhāgya* 4.9 autocomm: *tapaḥkṛśāṅgās tam śailam āroḍhuṃ vayaṃ na kṣamāḥ / caḍhiṣyati kathaṃ prauḍhadeho 'yaṃ gajarājavat // paśyatsu teṣu mārtaṇḍakarān ālambya Gautamaḥ / ga-*

l. 4 (sukkā bhukkhā referring to the queen Dhārinī, with variant sukkhā attested in six manuscripts) and Nirayāvalivāsuvakkhandha 1.7 and 8 for sukka bhukkha (Deleu 1996: 40 and also 42 for the noun bhukkhā, "hunger" recorded in Hemacandra's Deśīnāmamālā). For sukka as equivalent of Sanskrit śuska see Bollée 1994 s.v. The adjective bhukkha, for which there is no obvious Sanskrit equivalent, would appear to have the sense of "famished". Despite being listed as a headword in the Ardhamāgadhī dictionary, it occurs only in conjunction with sukkha, less commonly sukka, rather than as a fully independent adjective which suggests that its function is partly connected with assonance. The occurrence of *lukkha* in some of the sources such as H and also *Nāyā* (p. 72 l. 19: *tavokammenam* sukke lukkhe nimmamse) permits reference to an analogous Buddhist Sanskrit form śuddhalūkha in a verse occuring in the Śarabhanga Jātaka of the Mahāvastu (Marciniak 2019: 463); this describes five hundred root and fruit eating ascetics living on the slopes of Mount Himavat: pañca śatāni Himavantapārśvena mūlaphalāhārā riṣayaḥ vasensuḥ / uṃcchai ratā tāpasā śuddhalūkhā susaṃyatā ugratapā udārā //. Jones 1956: 363 renders the expression by "pure though poor", citing the variant form $l\bar{u}ha$ as meaning "poor" of bodily condition.

said, "He came and then disappeared". They praised him, waiting to see if he descended so that they could become his pupils. In this way they remained waiting.

sāmī vi cetiyāim vamdittā uttarapucchime¹¹¹ disībhāge pudhavisilāpattae¹¹² tuyatto, ¹¹³ asogavarapādavassa ahe tam rayanim vāsāe uvagato ||

The Lord for his part paid homage to the shrines, went to the north-west region and took his rest on a stone slab on the ground, passing the night under a fine asoka tree.

ito ya Sakkassa loyapālo Vesamaņo, so vi Aṭṭhāpadaṃ cetiyavaṃdao eti, so cetiyāṇi vaṃdittā Goyamasāmīm vaṃdati, tāhe so dhammam kaheti, bhagavam anagāraguņe parikahetum pavatto, amtāhārā pamtāhārā¹¹⁴ evam

nabhrn nijalabdhyaivāṣṭāpadordhvaṃ yayau dhruvam // Also Vandāruvṛtti: sūryasyāṃśūn samāśritya tesām utpaśyatām | sa Gaurutmān ivoddīya yayau maṅksu gireh śirah || tathā bhagavam Goyamo janghācāranaladdhīe lūtāpudagammi nissāe uddham uppayai java te palāyanti ity Āvaśyakasāhasryām | Malayagirivṛttāv apy ayam eva pāṭhaḥ |.

H: uttarapuratthime. Although the form uttarapucchima is not cited in Poddar 2009 or Sheth 1963 (also lacking pucchima), it could be the equivalent of Sanskrit uttarapaścima, "north-western", with labialisation a > u in the second component of the compound, and I have so translated it. The connection of this region with the god Vāyu makes this interpretation apposite, given Goyama's superhuman ascent of Atthāvaya. It is however possible that a syllable has dropped out of the ĀvCū form. Cf. Municandrasūri on *Upadeśapada* p. 118: uttarapuricchimāe disāe. Poddar cites uttarapuracchima s.v. as a wrong reading in the Vasudevahindi for uttarapuratthima, "north-eastern", the reading in H p. 106 which may inform Mette 1987: 141 and 2010: 186, "nordöstlicher". Cf. S on Uttarādhyayana Niryukti v. 305 p. 273 l. 13: uttarapuracchime and D p. 154 ll. 3-4: uttarapuratthime. The similarity between the ligatures tth / cch is well known; see Koch 2000: 377 and Roth 1983: 66 (and also p. 155 for paccatthima and puratthima which Pischel derives from purastima).

For the phrase puḍhavisilāvaṭṭae as part of a jāva insertion in Āyāradasāo 5.1, see Schubring 1966: 11. For the phrase pudhavīsilāpattae as a stereotyped expression from Aupapātika Sūtra para 10 found in the Nirayāvaliyāo, see Deleu 1996: 31.

H omits tuyațțo. 113

For anta-panta as a stereotyped phrase see Mette 1974: 74 n. 126. ĀvCū p. 386 l. 5: the exiguous food brings about a feverish illness in Kamdarīya (see section D10c) as with Selaga (annayā tassa Kamdarīyassa antehi (sic) ya pamtehī ya jahā Selagassa jāva dāhavakkantīe $y\bar{a}vi\ viharati) = N\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ p. 350 para. 143 ll. 5–6 (for $j\bar{a}va$ n. 6: pp. 124 and 125, referring to the

vanneti jahā Dasannabhaddakakahāṇage aṇagāravannage,¹¹⁵ Vesamaṇo ciṃteti—esa bhagavaṃ erise sādhuguṇe vanneti, appaṇo ya sā imā sarīra-sukumāratā, erisā devāṇa vi ṇatthi, tattha bhagavaṃ tassa ākūtaṃ ṇāuṃ Poṃḍarīyaṃ ṇāmaṃ ajjhayaṇaṃ pannaveti, jahā [...]

At that time Vesamaṇa, the god Sakka's guardian of the directions, ¹¹⁶ came to Aṭṭhāvaya to pay homage to the shrines. Having paid homage to the shrines, he paid homage to Lord Goyama. Then he spoke about the Jain doctrine, whereupon the venerable one began to describe the qualities of homeless renunciants, depicting how their food is exiguous and base according to the account of homeless renunciants in the story of Dasannabhaddaka. ¹¹⁷ Vesamaṇa thought, "The venerable one here describes the qualities of monks in such terms, but look at how delicate his own body is, of a type that even the gods do not possess!" Then the venerable one, understanding what was preoccupying him, expounded the chapter entitled "Puṃḍarīya". To wit

The Pumdarīka ajjhayaṇa is the nineteenth chapter of the $J\~natadharmakathāh$ $S\=utra$, the sixth $a\.nga$ text of the Ardhamāgadhī $\bar{a}gama$. As the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$'s version of this story is lengthy, I restrict myself to a summary. In appendix 2 I will draw attention to significant aspects of this narrative, and subsequently discuss passages which differ from the canonical version in the $J\~natadharmakathāh$ $S\=utra.$

D10 ĀvCū p. 383 l. 2-p. 389 l. 7

a. After Mahāpauma, the king of Pokkhalāvaī, has renounced, his son Puṃḍarīya succeeds him, taking the lay vows, while his brother Kaṃḍarīya becomes the crown-prince.

story of Selaga at Nāyā 5; Ś p. 274 ll. 31–32: aṃtehi ya paṃtehi ya jāva rogāyaṃke pāubbhūe jāva dāhavakkantīe yāvi viharati).

¹¹⁵ H: tato se bhagavam dhammakahāvasare aṇagāraguṇe parikahei, jahā bhagavaṃto sāhavo aṃtāhārā evamādi. D p. 155b ll. 6–8: tā aṃtāhārā aṃtāhārā iccāiparūvaṇāe visaṃvāiṇaṃ ceṭṭhaṃ imassa sarūrāgiī sūei, taṃ ca tassa ākūyaṃ nāṇeṇa nāūṇa bhayavaṃ 'mā aṇeṇa kusalapariṇāmeṇa esa dullahabohio havau' tti aṇusāsaṇanimittaṃ savvasattahiyarao Puṃḍariyaṃ nāma 'jjhayaṇaṃ parūvei.

¹¹⁶ See section D1.

¹¹⁷ Not referred to by H. See note 197. Mette 1987: 141 refers without explanation to the story of "Dhannabhadda"; however, see Mette 2010: 383.

¹¹⁸ See the Jaina Āgama series edition of Muni Jambūvijaya, p. 348–354. Mette 1987:141 n. 3 and 142 n. 4 and Schubring 1978 provide some textual background. The ĀvCū p. 384 gives the

- b. Kamdarīya asks Pumdarīya for permission to renounce the world and become a monk. He remains silent in the face of his brother's lengthy accounts of the difficulties of the renunciant life. Pumdarīya describes various types of food of unappetising or forbidden nature which, as a mendicant, Kamdarīya will have to accept or reject.
- Despite Pumdarīya pointing out to his brother that he is habituated to c. comfort and should therefore postpone renunciation, Kamdarīya replies that while the Jain ascetic path is difficult for inferior people, it is not so for heroes. Pumdarīya accordingly gives Kamdarīya permission to renounce. On becoming a monk Kamdarīya suffers because of the inadequate diet and becomes ill with a fever. When his monastic companions' wandering takes them to the capital city of Pokkhalāvaī, Pumdarīya cures his brother of his illness through giving him normal food. He expresses his admiration for Kamdarīya as one who has become fulfilled by entering the renunciant path as opposed to enduring the transient vicissitudes of kingship.
- Kamdarīya resumes his ascetic wanderings in shame and arrogance until d. eventually disillusioned with the ascetic life and withdrawing from his fellow monks, Kamdarīya returns to the capital and sits brooding near Pumdarīva's palace.
- Pumdarīya, alerted to Kamdarīya's presence, confirms with his brother e. that his addiction to pleasures has inhibited his renunciant career and that he is not suited to being a monk. He installs Kamdarīya on the throne, takes renunciation himself, assuming his brother's ascetic accoutrements, and enters upon the wandering life.
- f. Kamdarīya, now installed as king in the palace, quickly dies in agony because of a surfeit of food and sexual indulgence, and is reborn in hell.
- The ascetic Pumdarīya is tormented by his obligatory exiguous diet, and g. experiences the same sort of terminal indigestion as his brother. However, he dies in a controlled manner, to be reborn as a god and eventually attain liberation in the continent of Mahāvideha.

Goyama then explains to Vesamana the point of the story he has just told.

title of the chapter as Pomdarīya which might be the equivalent of Sanskrit Paundarīka, "relating to Puṇḍarīka." Throughout the ĀvCū version the name is Puṇḍarīa or Poṇḍarīa. ĀvCū pp. 387-388 l. 1 (translation Mette 2010: 66-67 but not with reference to the story of Goyama). Mette 2010: 186, also 1987: 142 n. 4, adds verses from the commentarial tradition summing up the story.

D11 ĀvCū p. 389 l. 7-10

taṃ mā tumam dubballattaṃ baliyattaṃ vā geṇhehi. jahā so Kaṃḍarīto teṇaṃ dubbaleṇaṃ aṭṭaduhaṭṭavasaṭṭo¹¹⁹ sattamāe uvavanno, Puṃḍario paḍipunnagalakavolo Savvaṭṭhasiddhe uvavanno evaṃ devāṇuppitā balio dubbalo vā akāraṇaṃ, ettha jhāṇaniggaho kātavvo, jhāṇaniggaho paramaṃ pamāṇam. tatha Vesamaṇo aho bhagavatā ākūtaṃ ṇātaṃ ti ettha atīvasaṃvegamāvanno¹²⁰ vaṃdittā paḍigato.

"So do not think in terms of weakness or strength. For just as Kam-darīya who because of his frailty became anguished, in an agony of suffering and wretchedly in thrall to his senses, and was reborn in the seventh hell, so Pumḍarīya, whose neck and cheeks were full, was reborn in the Savvaṭṭhasiddhi heaven. Therefore, beloved of the gods, being either strong or weak is not a cause. It is this respect one should control mental preoccupation; the best standard is control of mental preoccupation. Then Vesamana, knowing that the Lord had understood his inner thoughts, feeling great aversion to worldly things, paid homage and left.

D12 ĀvCū p. 389 ll. 10-11

tattha Vesamaṇassa ego sāmāṇito teṇa taṃ Poṇṇḍarīyajjhayaṇaṃ ogāhitaṃ paṃca satāṇi, saṃmattaṃ ca paḍivanno, keti bhaṇaṃti a—jaṃbhago so. 125

H: aṭṭaduhaṭṭo kālagato ahe sattamāe uvavaṇṇo. The compound aṭṭaduhaṭṭavasaṭṭo is canonical; see Jñātādharmakathāḥ Sūtra 1.8 (Muni Jambūvijaya's edition p. 158 l. 12, with note 11 giving Abhayadevasūri's interpretation; cf. Roth 1983: 93: "gequält, vom Leid bedrängt, und in qualvoller Abhängigkeit."). While it might seem a generalised expression of anguish (cf. Mette 2010: 186: "auf das äußerste gepeinigt"), the assonant repetition of aṭṭa connects in the ĀvCū with the type of psychologically unhealthy preoccupation against which Goyama is counselling Vesamaṇa. It is also possible that aṭṭa might be taken as "emaciated" (see Ghatage 2004 s.v.), which would give further point to the contrast between Kaṇḍarīya and Puṃḍarīya.

¹²⁰ H: āutto samvegam āvanno.

For the Savvatthasiddhi heaven see Kirfel 1967: 294 and 298.

¹²² The tone here may be slightly sarcastic; see Deshpande 2009: 31–33.

¹²³ See section I (i).

¹²⁴ See section I (ii).

¹²⁵ H: tattha Vesamaṇassa ego sāmāṇio devo jaṃbhago, tena taṃ Puṃḍarīyajjhayaṇaṃ uggahiyam paṃcasayāṇi, sammattaṃ ca paḍivanṇṇo.

A sāmānia god was attendant on Vesamana there. 126 He absorbed himself in the story of Pumdarīya five hundred times¹²⁷ and gained correct religious attitude. Some say that he was a jambhaga deity. 128

ĀvCū pp. 389 l. 11-p. 390 l. 1 D13

tāhe bhagavam kallam cetitāni vamdittā paccoruhati, te tāvasā bhanamti—tubbhe amham āyariyā amhe tubbham sīsā, sāmī bhanati—tujjha ya amha tiloyagurū āyariyā, te bhanamti—tubbha vi anno āyariyo? tāhe sāmī bhagavato guṇasaṃthavaṃ kareti, 129 te pavvāvitā, devatāe liṃgāṇi uvaṇītāṇi, tāhe te bhagavayā saddhim vaccamti, bhikkhāvelā ya jātā, bhagavam bhanati—kim āṇijjatu?¹³⁰ te bhanamti—pāyaso, bhagavam ca savvaladdhisampanno padiggaham ghayamadhusamjuttassa bharettā¹³¹ āgato, tāhe bhaṇitā parivādīe ṭhāha, te ṭhitā, bhagavam ca akkhīṇamahāṇasio, te dhātā, tāhe sutthutaram āuttā, tāhe savam āhāreti. 132

- 128 Balbir 1993a: 115 regards the phrase keī bhaṇaṃti as indicative of an alternative version reflecting an oral unfixed background to a story; see section B. According to the Jinacarita of the *Kalpa Sūtra* p. 54 paragraph 89 and p. 57 para 98 the *jaṃbhaya* (Sanskrit *jṛmbhaka*) gods are servants of Vesamana. See also note 329.
- D p. 158 ll. 10-14: tāhe sāmī bhagavao guṇasaṃthavaṇaṃ karei—jahā savvannū savva-129 daṃsī rūvasaṃpayāe aharīkayabhuvano kiṃkarīkayasayalasurāsuro suraviraiyarayaņamaya-siṃhāsaṇovaviṭṭho suravaracalijjamāṇacāmarajuyalo uvaridhariyahavalachattattao rayana-kanaya-kalahoyamayapāyāratiyaparivalaio samano bhayavam Mahāvīro bhavvasattāņam hammam vāgaramto sampayam Campāe viharai so amha gurū imam ca soūņa jāo tāṇa mahaṃto parioso, viyalio kammagaṃthī, pāviyaṃ sammaddaṃsaṇaṃ, jāo caraṇapariṇāmo, gahiyā Goyamasamīve pavvajjā.
- H: kim āṇijjau pāraṇam iti. 130
- H: padiggaham ghatamadhusamjuttassa pāyasassa bharettā. 131
- H: te bhagavatā akkhīṇamāhāṇasieṇa savve uvaṭṭhiyā, pacchā appaṇā jimito, tato te su-132 tthutaram āuttā.

See section D1. 126

The meaning is uncertain and my translation is accordingly provisional. The version of this 127 story given by Municandrasūri in his commentary on Haribhadra's *Upadeśapada* (p. 119 v. 114-115) describes the jambhaga deity studying the Pumdarīya chapter which is "five hundred granthas in length" and so gaining perfect samyaktva (vamdittā bhagavamtam gao tao tattha jambhago devo | ego Vesamanasamo Pumdariyajjhayanam uccariyam || Nāyādhammakahāsūm sittham pamcasayagamdhaparimānam / avadhārei lahei ya suddham sammattam aha eso //). For the expression granthaparimāna as designating the extent of a work see Balbir 2022a: 122 n. 16. The next verse describes how a little less than five hundred years after Mahāvīra's death the god fell from heaven (paṃcasu saesu varisānam aigaesum jināo Vīrāo / kimcūnesu sa jambhagadevo caviūna suralogā //). Mette 1987: 142 and 2010: 187 omits the reference to the god studying the Pumḍarīya story in both her translations no doubt because its linkage to the broader story of the teacher Vaira is not germane to her discussion.

Then the blessed one paid homage to the shrines the next day and descended. The ascetics said, "You are our teacher and we are your pupils." The lord replied, "The guru of the universe is the teacher of you and me". The ascetics said, "Is there anyone other than you who can be our teacher?" Then the lord praised the qualities of the blessed one. They were given renunciant initiation; the deity brought them the necessary monastic accoutrements. Then they moved off with the blessed one. The time for seeking alms food came. The blessed one said, "What should be brought?" They said, "Rice cooked in milk." The blessed one, who was possessed of all the superhuman powers, 136 returned carrying a bowl containing a mixture of ghee and honey. He then said to them, "Stand in a line". They did so and the blessed one produced food which did not diminish. They were fed and as a result they took a turn for the better. Then he himself ate.

D14 ĀvCū p. 390 ll. 1-4

tāhe punar avi paṭṭhito,¹³⁷ tesiṃ ca sevālabhakkhāṇaṃ jemintāṇaṃ ceva nāṇaṃ uppannaṃ, Dinnassa vagge chattādicchattaṃ pecchaṃtāṇaṃ, Koḍinnassa vagge sāmīṃ daṭṭhūṇaṃ uppannaṃ,¹³⁸ Goyamasāmī purato

D provides more detail about the manner in which the ascetics become Jain monks. After Goyama has confirmed the glorious nature of his teacher Mahāvīra currently preaching in his *samavasaraṇa* at Campā, the ascetics in delight have the knot of their karma broken and attain correct view, thus bringing to an end their previous ascetic regime.

¹³⁴ It is not actually specified that this is the *sāmāṇia* deity mentioned at D1 and D11.

¹³⁵ For *pāyasa* as rice cooked in milk and mixed with sugar, the equivalent of Hindi *khīr*, see Prakash 1961: 290 with reference to the *Gṛhya Sūtras*.

For the superhuman powers including the ability to produce inexhaustible food (<code>akkhīnamahāṇasia</code>), see section J. The scenario depicted here by the ĀvCū narrative was at a later period regarded as possibly controversial by some members of the Jain community. So Hīravijayasūri, the de facto leader of the Śvetāmbara renunciant community in north India at the end of the sixteenth century, is recorded in the <code>Hīrapraśnottarāṇi</code> ("Questions to Hīravijayasūri and his Responses") compiled by Kīrtivijayagaṇin as having been asked whether the giving of miraculously generated food (<code>paramānna</code>) to bring the ascetics' fasting to an end (<code>pāraṇā</code>) infringes correct procedure for the receiving of alms by monks. Hiravijaya's response is slightly evasive: a single bowl (<code>patadgraha</code>) served the purpose of all of them and nothing about the food can lead to it being adjudged to have been improperly given (<code>adatta</code>).

¹³⁷ Homits.

¹³⁸ H: tesim ca sevālabhakkhāṇam pamcanha vi sayāṇam Gotamasāmino tam laddhim pāsi-

kaddhemāno¹³⁹ sāmīm payāhinīkareti, te vi kevaliparisam padhāvitā, ¹⁴⁰ Goyamasāmī bhanati—eha sāmīm vamdaha, sāmī bhanati-Goyama, mā kevalī āsāehi.

Then he set out again. For those consuming pondweed knowledge arose as they ate;141 in Dinna's group knowledge arose as they saw the double parasol;¹⁴² and in Kodinna's group it arose as they actually saw the lord. Then lord Goyama, who led them, performed circumambulation of the lord. They for their part headed towards the assembly of the omniscient ones. Lord Goyama said, "Go, pay homage to the lord." The lord said, "Goyama, don't disrespect the omniscient ones." 143

D15 ĀvCū p. 390 ll. 4-7

Govamasāmī āutto micchādukkadam¹⁴⁴ kareti, tato Govamasāmissa sutthutaram addhitī jātā, 145 tāhe sāmī Gotamam bhanati—kim devānam vayanam gejjham āu¹⁴⁶ jiṇāṇam?, Goyamo bhaṇati—jinavarāṇam, to kīsa addhitim karesi, tāhe sāmī cattāri kade pannaveti, tam jahā-sumbakade vidala- camma- kambalakade evam sīsā vi,147 Goyamasāmī ya kamba-

ūṇa kevalanāṇam uppaṇṇaṃ, Diṇṇassa puṇo saparivārassa bhagavato chattāticchattaṃ pāsiūņa kevalanāņam uppaņņa, Kodiņņassa vi sāmim daṭṭhūṇa kevalanāṇam uppaṇṇaṃ. D p. 158b ll. 1-6: tesim ca sevālabhakkagāņam jemamtāņam ceva jāo suhapariņāmo, cimtium ca pavattā,—aho! amha kusalakammodao jam jāo anabbhavutthisariso samatthasuyamahoyahinā anurattagunanihinā siddhipurisatthavāhena Goyamasāminā saddhim samāgamo ... l. 5: evamāisaṃvegabhāvaṇovagayāṇa apuvvakaraṇāikameṇa addhabhutte ceva tesim uppannam kevalanānam.

ĀvCū kaddhemāno; for kaddhai see Karashima 2012: 3. 139

ĀvCū pahāvitā. 140

That is, as they witnessed Goyama's powers. 141

That is, they saw from a distance the double parasol, the royal emblem floating over 142 the head of the Jina as he sat in his samavasarana, before they saw Mahāvīra himself.

¹⁴³ Cf. section D4.

H: bhagavam āuţţo micchāmidukkadam ti karei. 144

For this phrase see also ĀvCū p. 172 l. 6; H: tato bhagavao suṭṭhutaraṃ addhitī. 145

For āu see Bollée 1998: vol. 3 s.v. and also Poddar 2009: 924. 146

H: evam sīsā vi sumbakadasamāņe 4, tumam ca Goyamā mama kambalakadasamāņo, 147 aviya-cirasasiţtho 'si me Goyama. This relates to Sthānānga Sūtra sū. 350 p. 463: cattāri kadā pannattā tam jahā—sumthakade, vidalakade, cammakade, kambalakade; p. 67: Abhayadevasūri: tatra sumthakade tti trņaviśeṣaniṣpannaḥ.

lakadasāmāṇo, 148 kiṃ ca cirasaṃsaṭṭhe 149 si Goyamā jāva avisesamaṇāṇattā bhavissāmo, 150 tāhe sāmī Dumapattayaṃ nāma ajjhayaṇaṃ pannaveti ||

Lord Goyama in contrition recited the formula of repentance. ¹⁵¹Then lord Goyama became all the more insecure. So the lord said to Goyama, "Is the word of the gods to be accepted, or that of the Jinas?" ¹⁵² Goyama said, "That of the excellent Jinas." "Why then are you insecure?" Then the Lord described four mats, namely cord, bamboo, hide, and wool. "Pupils are similar. Lord Goyama is like a wool mat. Moreover, Goyama, you have been long associated with me ... and we will not have any distinction and difference between us." Then the Lord recited the chapter of the *Uttarā-dhyayana Sūtra* called "The Leaf of the Tree". ¹⁵³

E The Main Structural and Thematic Aspects of the Story

Two salient structural features of this story are readily identifiable, albeit they do not necessarily define any overall narrative "meaning".

Firstly, Mahāvīra's repeated admonition to Goyama not to denigrate *kevalins*, or by an alternative interpretation not to count himself among them (D4 and D13), anchors and shapes the story by pointing a contrast both humorous and poignant (resolved in D14) between two groups of recent renunciants who

¹⁴⁸ For sāmāṇa as equivalent of samāna see Sheth 1963 s.v.

Nominative singular in -e. However, this may be a misprint; Mette 1987: 144 n. 6 has *cira-saṃsaṭṭho si. Goyamā* exemplifies prolated final vowel in the vocative.

H: Paṇṇattīālāvagā bhāṇiyavvā jāva avisesamaṇāṇattā aṃte. The required textual insertion signalled by jāva derives from Bhagavatī Sūtra 14.7 ed. Dīparatnasāgara pp. 148–149 (slightly altered): Rāyagihe jāva evam vayāsī parisā padigayā, Goyamādī same bhagavaṃ Mahāvīre bhagavaṃ Goyamaṃ āmaṃtettā evaṃ vayāsī cirasaṃsaṭṭho' si me Goyamā! cirasaṃthuo si me Goyamā! ciraparicio si me Goyamā! cirajusio si me Goyamā! cirāṇuyato si me Goyamā! cirāṇuyattīsi me Goyamā! anaṃtaraṃ devaloe anaṃtaraṃ māṇussae bhave kiṃ paraṃ? maraṇā [Deleu 1970: 209: kiṃ paraṃ maraṇā] kāyassa bhedā io cuttā dovi tullā egaṭṭhā avisesamaṇāṇattā bhavissāmo.

¹⁵¹ For the formula of repentance *micchā mi dukkaḍam* as it occurs in the text of the *paḍikka-maṇa* ritual, see *Āvaśyakasūtra* pp. 337–341 (sū. 15–25) and cf. Williams 1963: 204.

¹⁵² According to Mette 1987: 143 n. 5 Goyama has already received Mahāvīra's assurance that they will both be equal after death, referring to *Uttarādhyayana Niryukti* vv. 303–305. Without discussing textual priority at this stage, I would suggest that here the word of the Jinas could relate to what Mahāvīra is about to tell Goyama.

¹⁵³ See note 1.

achieve omniscience with ease, and the Jina's close disciple who twice experiences anguish at his own inability to do the same.

Secondly, the sāmānika god to be reborn as the teacher Vaira, who is mentioned briefly at the beginning of the story (D1), reappears fleetingly in the middle (D11) to connect with the account of Pumdarīa at D11. The occurrence of the adjective sāmāṇa occurring at the end of the story with reference to Mahāvīra's comparison of Goyama to a wool mat (D14) can be regarded as representing by assonance a link to the narrative's background. A connection across time is thereby made between Goyama, who starts the process of scriptural transmission, and the teacher Vaira, the last of those familiar with the ten (now lost) Pūrva scriptures, after whom the process of decline in scriptural knowledge ensues.

In what follows I will concentrate on a variety of thematic aspects, treated in order of their occurrence in the story, and assess their function within the overall emplotment. I first discuss some possible Śaiva allusions.

F Mount Atthavaya

Since the time of the *Kalpa Sūtra* the Jains have regarded Mount Atthāvaya the Prakrit name being more commonly encountered in its Sanskrit form Aṣṭāpada—as the site of the first Jina Rṣabha's liberation. 154 This tīrtha has been identified by Jain tradition with Kailāsa (Kailash) in the Himalayas, and Jain devotees tend to subscribe to this view today.¹⁵⁵ An explanation of the name Atthāvaya / Astāpada, a designation of the mountain found only in Jain tradition, was not forthcoming until Hemacandra, who describes in his Triṣaṣṭiśalākāpuruṣacarita how Rṣabha's son Bharata when erecting shrines there constructed eight steps or levels (pada), impassable by humans and so serving as a kind of protection from possible depredation; each of these was separated from the others by a distance of one yojana. 156 Jinaprabha-

¹⁵⁴ See note 85.

¹⁵⁵ With regard to Prakrit nomenclature the mountain is called both Kavilāsa and Aṭṭhāvaya at Paumacariya 9.57 and 71. Devavimala, Hīrasaubhāqya 4.9 auto commentary glosses Aştāpada as Kailāsa. See also Luithle-Hardenberg 2012–2013. For Mount Atthāvaya being frequently taken as Mount Kailāsa, see Luithle-Hardenberg 2011: 71. See Senapraśna notes p. 69 (very last question) for the rumour (praghoṣa; cf. Hīrapraśnottara 29.4) that Mount Aṣṭāpada is twelve yojanas from Vinītā, that is Ayodhyā (clearly wishing to associate Rṣabha's "capital" with a conveniently located site nearby). Also Hīrasaubhāgya 13.13 for Aştāpada's proximity to Sāketa (Ayodhyā).

Shah 1987: 20–21 referring to Hemacandra *Triṣaṣṭi* 1 (GOS pp. 358–370).

sūri's (thirteenth-fourteenth c. ce) account of major Jain pilgrimage places, the *Vividhatīrthakalpa*, contains two chapters (eighteen, composed by Dharmaghoṣasūri, and forty-nine) of elaborate descriptions of Aṣṭāpada. ¹⁵⁷ Chapter eighteen does not make any clear explanatory reference to the eight levels of the mountain, although it adduces alternative meanings of *aṣṭāpada* as "gold" and the mythical eightfooted *śarabha* beast. ¹⁵⁸ Chapter forty-nine follows Hemacandra in referring to the mountain's name being derived from Bharata's construction of eight levels. ¹⁵⁹

The understanding of Aṣṭāpada as a mountain with eight levels has continued to define perceptions of the mountain, and such a configuration can be seen reproduced in stylised representations of the $t\bar{t}rtha$ frequently to be found in Jain temples. However, given the relative lateness of this explanation and the fact that no reference is made to it in the ĀvCū, it might be worth considering a different explanation. This relates to the first attested meaning of the word $aṣt\bar{a}pada$ which occurs as early as Pāṇini, namely "gaming board, gambling board". Such a board would have eight times eight squares, with pada corresponding to something like "position". This seems to have represented an early example of a chess board, but also served as a surface on which dice were thrown. He Prakrit form $atth\bar{a}vaya$ can have the sense of the actual game of dice. He

¹⁵⁷ See Chojnacki 1995: 93-112 and Cort 1990: 260-263 and 269-273.

¹⁵⁸ VTK 18.12: Bharatena mohasimham hantum ivāṣṭāpadaḥ kṛtāṣṭapadaḥ / śuśubhe 'ṣṭayojano yo sa jayaty Aṣṭāpadagirīśaḥ //. For the śarabha see Slaje 2019: 772–776.

VTK p. 92 ll. 20–21: joaṇaṃtarāṇi a aṭṭhapayāṇi mehalārūvāṇi māṇusaalaṃghaṇijjāṇi kāriāṇi. ao ceva Aṭṭhāvao tti nāmaṃ pasiddhaṃ. VTK 49 p. 92 29–p. 93 l. 4 gives an abbreviated version of our story.

¹⁶⁰ See for example Hegewald 2012: 64–65 and the Aṣṭāpada temple at Hastināpura.

¹⁶¹ According to Goldman 2007: 289 n. 16 "The term *aṣṭāpada* apparently refers to an eightrowed gaming board. The word is known to Pāṇini as a technical term (6.3.125)".

Thieme 1971: 417: "aṣṭāpada, board of eight [times eight] squares. There is clear evidence that it could serve also [that is as well as for chess] as the board on which the dice were thrown in gambling"; 408 n. 11: "Pali form aṭṭhapada (not aṭṭhā-)". Thieme would seem to regard the primary sense of astāpada as "chess board".

¹⁶³ Ghatage 2004 s.v. aṭṭhāvaya 1. a game of dice played on a board with 8×8 places: Sūya 1.9.17, Samavāyaṃga 72, Nāyā 1.1.85, Rāyapaseṇāijja 806, Dasaveyāliya 3.4, Niśāthabhāṣya 4280. Bollée 2002: 196 quoting Thieme 1971: 421 for aṣṭāpada "as the board on which dice are thrown as well as a game in which dice are thrown and pieces are moved". Hemacandra records the meaning "gambling board" for aṣṭāpada in his Sanskrit dictionary. See Abhidhānacintāmaṇi v. 487a: aṣṭāpadaḥ śāriphalam (comm. phalaṃ phalakam; for phalaka as another word for gambling board, see Thieme 1971: 20–21). However, he does not link the expression with the mountain.

The name Astāpada for a mountain is peculiar to Jainism, and while it is possible that the designation relates to a superficial resemblance to a gaming board, 164 a more specific explanation presents itself. Mahābhārata 1.189.14 describes how Indra, who has been led by a goddess, "sees close at hand a handsome youth seated on a throne in the company of young women playing at dice on the peak of the king of mountains."165 This youth is revealed to be none other than Siva, and the "king of mountains" surely designates Kailasa, throughout Hindu mythology understood to be the home of that particular deity. In the context of the Mahābhārata Śiva's dicing represents his continuing involvement in the cosmic process. 166 For Jainism, however, dicing and gambling were, unsurprisingly, disreputable pursuits and hardly to be associated with any form of religious authority.167 Nonetheless, I would suggest, when Jain litterateurs came to appropriate Kailāsa imaginatively in the early common era, they did not disavow awareness of the mountain's indisputable association with Siva, but instead turned this to their own legendary tradition's advantage by means of a knowingly mocking but also partly conciliatory gesture to the location's connection with the dicing deity. The ĀvCū story's description of the presence on Atthavaya of Vesamana, a close associate of Siva and guardian of the northern region, underlines this. 168 This allusion to "Mount Gaming Board" seems to have been unrecognised at a later period, no doubt understandably since Śiva's association with dicing ceased relatively early to be a significant component of his mythological personality.

Cf. Douglas 2020: 19 for the mountain Bhagirathi III looking like "the fragment of a colossal 164 chessboard, black on white."

¹⁶⁵ The full verse is tāṃ gacchantīm āvagacchat tadānīṃ so 'paśyad ārād taruṇaṃ darśanīyam / siṃhāsanasthaṃ yuvatīsahāyaṃ krīḍantam akṣair girirājamūrdhni. Handelman & Shulman 1997: 75 refers to \bar{A} diparvan 1.189 for Indra seeing a young man who turned out to be Śiva "playing at dice on a Himalayan peak".

See Handelman and Shulman 1997. 166

While the Ardhamāgadhī suttas have little specific to say on the subject of dicing and gambling, the śrāvakācāra literature was quickly to put them at the head of a list of seven vices (vyasana); see Williams 1963: 247–248. For broader prespectives on gambling in ancient India see Szántó 2022: 341-349.

For Vesamaṇa's connection with Siva (Śiva) see Aṃgavijjā ch. 51 for Vesamaṇa paired with 168 Śiva, "an archaic feature" found first in Mahābhāṣya 6.3.26; see Sanderson 2012: 8–10 and Rāyapasenāijja for festivals of Siva and Vesamana (Bollée 2002: 55). Anuyogadvāra Sūtra sū. 21 refers to worship of various gods including Rudda, Siva and Vesamaņa.

G The Three Ascetic Leaders and Their Followers

Obvious references to the deity Siva, whether relating to his name 169 or to some dimension of his mythological persona within Hindu tradition, 170 are rare in early Jain literature. Furthermore, while recent research has emphasised the prominence of Pāsupata Śaivism and its renunciant followers in the religious landscape of north and west India during the early centuries of the first millennium CE, 171 it has proved difficult to identify any clear reaction within Jainism's early textual tradition to the existence of a movement which must have been for several centuries in direct competition with Jain ascetics for access to religious resources and space. 172 In that light I would like to offer some suggestions about the ascetic troops and their leaders described in the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{v}\text{C}\bar{\text{u}}$ narrative.

- 169 A "royal seer" called Siva is the protagonist of a narrative found at Bhagavatī Sūtra 11.9. This describes how Siva, after considering the many modes of asceticism available, resolves to become a disāpokkhiya ascetic, whose regime requires making water libations at the four cardinal directions and thereafter concluding periods of fasting by consuming fruits, root vegetables, flowers, leaves and seeds. By this practice Siva gains the advanced but soteriologically deficient type of knowledge called ohi (Jās ed. p. 522 ll. 11–12: vibbhamge nāmam annāņe samuppanne. For this type of non-knowledge, see Tatia 1951: 71 and 147 and cf. Deleu 1970: 175. Note that the recent Lādnūm edition p. 396 has the reading $n\bar{a}ne$). This leads him to make a flawed judgement about the number of continents and oceans to be found in the world. Eventually realising the inadequacy of his knowledge by comparison with that of the omniscient Mahāvīra, Siva takes initiation as a Jain monk. While this account of the career of the *rājarisi* Siva has been seldom noticed by scholarship, and its interpretation is not straightforward, there is little in the story which might support making a connection with the god Śiva as portrayed in the Sanskrit epic and the early Hindu purāņas.
- The name Īsāṇa, the equivalent of Īśāna which is used of Rudra-Śiva in Vedic, epic and early kāvya texts and was also the name of the pupil of the teacher Kuśika according to Pāśupata Śaiva tradition, occurs in Jain scriptures as the designation of the lord of the northern region and also of a category of gods who dwell in the eponymous heaven. One canonical reference to the god Īsāṇa is at first sight reminiscent of a Śaiva mythological theme, the fire emitting forehead-eye of Śiva. Bhagavatī Sūtra 3.1 (Jās ed vol. 1 p. 136) describes how Īsāṇa totally incinerates the city of Balicaṃcā (Deleu 1970, 97: Camaracancā) with one frowning glance. However, this theme is unparalleled in early Jain textual tradition and does not seem to involve any significant allusion to a Śaiva narrative prototype. Note that in the following section of the Bhagavatī Sūtra the god Sakka is stated to be Īsāṇa's superior.
- 171 See in particular Bakker 2019: 527–539; 553–565, Bisschop 2010, and Davidson 2002: 183–186
- The well-known inscription of Candragupta II at Mathurā points to the presence of Pāśupatas alongside Jains in a major site of north Indian religious interaction. See most recently Bakker 2019;494 and Saxena 2021: 1887–1891. Bhatt 2012 is commendably aware

Three names are assigned by the ĀvCū story to the ascetic leaders encountered by Goyama at Mount Atthavaya: Kodinna, Dinna and Sevala. These individuals are presented in the form of a mini-hierarchy: while all three are vegetarian, Dinna's dietary restraint is more intense than that of Kodinna, while that of the third of these leaders, Sevāla, is still more demanding. Sevāla is obviously named after the foodstuff he is described as exclusively consuming. The plant whose Sanskrit name is śaivala or śaivāla has a variety of botanical identifications but characteristically grows in water and can be rendered as "duckweed". 173 The Mahābhārata and the purānas frequently refer to śaivāla as being a type of food regularly consumed by brahman ascetics, 174 while the typical forest āśrama described in kāvya is frequently portrayed as containing ponds covered in this vegetation. The *Aupapātika Sūtra* identifies a category of non-Jain ascetic which habitually eats sevāla, 176 and a later Jain Sanskrit philosophical text identifies consuming śaivāla along with bulbs, fruits and roots as a characteristic of wrong understanding (*mithvātva*).¹⁷⁷ The nature of the appellation "Sevāla", a comical exemplification of the principle that "you are what you eat", suggests that a degree of satirical intent may also be at work in the names of at least one of the other two ascetic leaders, Kodinna and Dinna.

Mette has argued that the ĀvCū story can be interpreted as an attempt to incorporate an element of Buddhist teaching into Jainism. She regards Goyama's name and the occurrences of the expression bhagavam in connection with him in the story as deliberate allusions to Gautama Buddha. In that light the name Kodinna is, she proposes, to be identified as a direct reminis-

of the relevance of the issue of possible Jain familiarity with early Saiva renunciants, but the evidence he adduces is too ill defined (aspects of the behavioral regime of Pāśupata ascetics are treated as characteristic of defective Jain monks; a correlation between Pāśupatasūtra 1.8 and Anuyogadvāra Sūtra sū. 27 is only approximate), over-interpreted (the *rāyarisi* Siva described by *Bhagavatī Sūtra* 11.9—see note 169 above—is said to be "a Śaiva monk") and chronologically diffuse (e.g. the references made to the ninth century canonical commentator Śīlāṅka) to be fully useful.

See Bakker 2019: 436 note 8. For duckweed, see Hiltebeitel 2016: 41, translating MBh 173

¹⁷⁴ See, e.g., MBh 12.292.18ab: śaivālabhojanaś caiva tathācāmena vartayan; 13.129.52ab: phalamūlāśanam vāyur āpah śaivalabhaksanam; 13.130.11ab: abhaksair vāyubhaksaiś ca śaivālottarabhojanaiḥ; 13.130.41ab: śaivālaṃ śīrṇaparṇaṃ vā tadvrato yo niṣevate.

See, for example, Kālidāsa, Abhijñānaśākuntalam 1.19. 175

¹⁷⁶ See note 102.

See Devasūri, *Pramāṇanayatattvālaṃkara* 7.56, *Śyādvādaratnākara* autocommentary p. 177 106 for kandaphalamūlaśaivālakavalana as a feature of mithyātva. The bhāṣya on Tattvārtha Sūtra 2.13 states that the category of vanaspati begins with śivala. See den Boer 2020: 145 n. 431.

cence of Aññāta-Koṇḍañña (elsewhere in the Pali Canon simply called Koṇḍañña, in the Buddhist Sanskrit tradition Ājñāta-Kauṇḍinya) who according to the Pali *Mahāvagga* was the first individual converted by the Buddha. Rather more vaguely Dinna is adjudged by Mette to represent a common personal name in Buddhist sources.¹⁷⁸ No attempt is made by Mette to locate Sevāla in any Buddhist context.

Undoubtedly there are connections between some stories in the ĀvCū and the major Buddhist repository of narratives in the early centuries of the common era, the Mūlasarvāstivāda Vinaya. However, *bhagavaṃ* is a term of respect employed frequently in early Jain texts of eminent monks in general, and certainly does not have any marked Buddhist resonance. He participial form *dinna* occurs as the second component of personal names in Buddhist texts, but is hardly found at all as an uncompounded appellation. A for Aññāta-Koṇḍiñña / Ājñāta-Kauṇḍinya, he and the four ascetics who were converted by the Buddha do not play a particularly significant role in Buddhist tradition. Overall it is difficult to see how the ĀvCū description of Goyama's encounter with the three ascetics striving in vain to ascend Mount Aṭṭḥāvaya, which fits into a specifically Jain narrative structure, can be understood other than in the most vague terms as presenting a reframing of an event in the Buddha's biography.

An alternative interpretation of Koḍinna, I propose, is that the name is to be understood in conjunction with the name Dinna as a kind of Prakrit wordplay. On the basis of the well-attested phonetic alternations -u-/-o- and -d-/-d-Koḍinna can be taken as the equivalent of Ku-Dinna / Ku-Dinna, with ku- being a prefix with negative or pejorative significance. This is to be situated in sardonic juxtaposition with the name Dinna. Koḍinna with his reprehensible (in Jain terms) diet of roots containing life forms is to be understood as the "bad"

¹⁷⁸ See Mette 2010: 382 with note 299 for the *Mahāvagga* reference. In partial support of Mette there is a very approximate parallel between the ĀvCū story and the *Mahāvagga*'s description of the five erstwhile ascetic companions of the Buddha expressing reservations about his sincerity when they see him approaching in the distance after having left the forest; his altered physical demeanour causes them to realise that he has effected some sort of significant transformation. However, this parallel should not be drawn too far, since in the ĀvCū story Goyama had not previously encountered the ascetics.

¹⁷⁹ See Wu 2017.

¹⁸⁰ For bhagavam in this story see note 33.

¹⁸¹ Malalasekara 1937–1938 gives one Pali example.

¹⁸² For Koṇḍañña see Wynne 2019: 123-125.

¹⁸³ For *ku*- see Burrow 1955: 190. In his twelfth century Sanskrit version of this story Hemacandra, *Trisașți* 6 obscures any possibility of wordplay by turning Dinna into Datta.

or "inferior" Dinna by contrast with Dinna himself, whose dietary regimen of fallen and withered leaves is more rigorous, albeit still flawed. 184

Kodinna of course also represents a Prakrit equivalent of the celebrated brahman *gotra* name Kaundinya. 185 But rather than interpret its occurrence here as simply signalling a generalised brahman background for the first ascetic leader, I would like to extend the significance of the name Kodinna and point to its possible denotation of one specific Kaundinya, thus giving added point to the narrative context of this episode. The Kaundinya in question is to be dated between the fourth to sixth centuries CE and is the author of the *Pañcā*rthabhāsya commentary on the Pāśupatasūtras, the basic text of the early Śaiva Pāśupata movement. 186 As well as elaborating on the Pāśupataśūtra's theological teachings, Kaundinya's commentary develops discussion of a practical regime for renunciant and lay Saiva adherents which assigns a marked importance to non-violence ($ahims\bar{a}$) as a foundational principle and the attendant issue of diet and permitted food substances. 187 The Pāśupatas, by engaging with issues of morality which Jainism regarded from its beginnings as strongly defining its own ideological perspective and identity, must have become major rivals of the Jains by the middle of the first millennium around the time of the ĀvCū's composition or that of the oral version which preceded it (and was presumably nearer to Kaundinya's time).188

Now the commentator Kauṇḍinya prescribes that the Pāśupata ascetic should avoid eating vegetables, sprouting tuberous plants and prepared seeds, 189 while Kodinna is portrayed in the ĀvCū narrative as eating roots and

Dinna's diet of fallen leaves corresponds to at least one dietary regime of the Vedic forest-184 dweller; for ascetics following such a regime who are mentioned in the Rāmāyana, see Brockington 2020: 87. See Aupapātika Sūtra para. 74 p. 69 ed. Leumann for non-Jain ascetics who consume a variety of vegetable and plant substances which have "fallen on the ground" (parisadiya) and are presumably in a state of decay (parisadiya-kanda-mūlataya-patta-puppha-phal'-āhārā).

¹⁸⁵ Alternative Prakrit versions of the name have the nasalised form Komdinna; see note 90. The alternation -od- / -omd- is to be seen in the forms sodīra / somdīra, "bravery"; see Dundas 2022: 89-90.

¹⁸⁶ See Bakker 2019: 602, Bisschop 2010: 486-487, and Davidson 2002: 183-186 for Pāśupata monasticism as response to the *śramana* orders.

See Kafle 2020: 84 for the Pāśupata concept of ahiṃsā.

¹⁸⁸ See section B. The expression kevalijñana, "the knowledge of the omniscient ones", used as a synonym for Pāśupata teaching in several sources, is one that Jains also used of their own doctrine; see Bisschop 2020: 25 for the Pāśupata usage. For kevalijñāna, admittedly less common in Jain usage than kevalajñāna, "omniscience", see for example the inscription in Jain 1978: 186 (Gujarat).

Kaundinya on Pāśupātasūtra 1.9 (p. 18: kandāni yāni gṛhyante kandāś caiva prarohiṇaḥ / 189

tubers containing life forms (sacitta). However, we need not expect an accurate account of Pāśupata practice by a Jain author, for the ĀvCū is not offering an "objective" doxography of the sort which Śvetāmbara intellectuals were to compose several centuries later. Rather there is here, I would suggest, a sly misrepresentation of a rival tradition as a polemical strategy to devalorise the apparent proximity of important Pāśupata teachings to those of Jainism by presenting Kauṇḍinya to a Jain audience as in reality breaching proper dietary behaviour. In fact, the $P\bar{a}$ śupatasūtra allows for meat to be taken by the Pāśupāta ascetic if it has been put in his alms bowl or not specifically prepared for him. Kauṇḍinya in his commentary manipulates this and states that meat-eating is a forbidden activity. This may have suggested to a Jain author that Pāśupata teaching on food consumption was inconsistent and justified a pejorative reimagining of Kauṇḍinya the commentator on the $P\bar{a}$ śupatasūtra as "Ku-Dinna", an inferior version of the teacher Dinna.

It is possible to identify other Jain sources whose mention of $t\bar{a}vasa$ s may signify awareness of Pāśupata renunciants. Unfortunately the ĀvCū narrative itself does not provide a sufficiently detailed description of any of the $t\bar{a}vasa$ groups to enable a confident identification of them as Pāśupata renunciants, 192

būjāni caiva pakvāni sarvāṇy etāni varjayet). Cf. Bronkhorst 2017: 582 for roots and fruits being characteristic of brahmans living in forest āśramas. For worship carried out by the Śaiva forest dweller with bulbs and roots see Śivadharmottara 12. 207: śivāśramavanasthaṃ yaḥ kandamūlādibhir yajet / sa divyān prāpnuyād bhogan īśvarasya pure sthitaḥ // (quoted in Bisschop, Kafle & Lubin 2021: 38).

¹⁹⁰ Hara 2002: 72. Hara does not explain precisely how Kauṇḍinya twists the *Pāśupata Sūtra*'s endorsement of meat-eating so that non-meat-eating becomes the normative Pāśupata stance. *Pāśupata Sūtra* 5.16 māṃsam aduṣyaṃ lavaṇena vā following on from 5.14 bhai-kṣyam and 5.15 pātrāgatam. See also Kauṇḍinya's comment on p. 119: māṃsena vā lavaṇena vā ubhābhyām api sākṣād vā aduṣyam ity arthaḥ.

¹⁹¹ Vimalasūri's *Paumacariya* (late fifth century) refers to a *tāvasa* presence at Vārāṇasī at around the same time as the Pāśupatas were becoming prominent in that city. See Dundas 2022: 59.

¹⁹² For modern representation of the ascetics of Mount Aṭṭhāvaya as stereotypical Hindu yogins (some with long Śaiva-style hair), see the front cover of Jaina Studies: Newsletter of the Centre of Jaina Studies \$0.48, 5, 2010 and the rear cover of Devluk 1995. The list of tāvasas given in Aupapātika Sūtra para. 74 is not preoccupied with clothing or outward appearance (mentioning only vākavāsi, bark-wearing tāvasas) but rather with the locus of activity and the diet followed. Although the Pāśupata Sūtra does not prescribe any clothing for initiates other than loincloth and garland, the Nāṭyaśāstra 2.125–127 differentiates between Tāpasas who should be dressed in tatters, bark, and hide from Pāśupatas for whom many clothes of various colours are required. See Acharya 2013: 103. However, the Nāṭyaśāstra description may not necessarily provide a precise version of the actuality of Pāśupata external garb and instead be offering a prescription for theatrical representation.

and only incidental details encourage such an inference. So the three groups of *tāvasas* are presented as vainly striving to gain *siddhi* in that same existence through ascending the mountain, as described in section D4 (... sa teneva bhavaggahanenam sijjhati). The reasonable assumption might be that since this is a Jain story *siddhi* is to be envisaged in Jain terms as the attainment of final freedom from rebirth. It may be significant, however, that siddhi is viewed in the *Pāśupatasūtras* not as emancipation from birth but as the attainment of superhuman powers, and that in the ĀvCū narrative the motivation behind the desire of the *tāvasa*s and their leaders to follow Goyama is the Jain monk's display of his ability to disappear by flying through the air. 193 Also circumstantial may be the fact that while the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$ narrative does not reveal to whom the shrines on the summit of Mount Atthavaya are dedicated, the mountain has assumed in the Jain imagination from an early period a connection with the Jina Rṣabha, "Bull", who is regarded as having attained deliverance there. As is well known, the god Śiva whose abode was on Mount Kailāsa had long been closely associated with that animal, and Pāśupata ascetics were enjoined by the *Pāśupatasūtra*s to imitate as part of their praxis the behaviour of the bull. 194

H Goyama's Physical Appearance

The ĀvCū recounts how the ascetics on the lower slopes of Aṭṭhāvaya, while acknowledging that Goyama is a *samaṇa*, express incredulity about his intention to ascend the mountain given his physical appearance. They make reference to their own inability to do so despite their status as advanced ascetics. Their judgment is clearly based on the general ideology of ancient Indian asceticism that only an external physique remoulded to the point of emaciation by a near starvation diet can provide the internal locus for the energy required to attain an advanced goal.

¹⁹³ For the Pāśupata view of *siddhi*, see Hara 2002: 35.

This stipulation seems to have been modified by the commentator Kaundinya's time. For the Pāśupata *govrata* or *godharma*, see Acharya 2013, Bakker 2019: 545, Kafle 2020: 81–82, 255–256 and 276 and Selva 2019: 322–325 with literature. The feminine form *aṣṭāpadī*, "eight-footed", can designate a pregnant cow (Monier-Williams 1872 s.v. *aṣṭāpad*; cf. Slaje 2019: 775 n. 89 and p. 247 for the Vedic term meaning a "pregnant cow"), in which case *aṣṭāpada*, the Jain name for Kailāsa (see F), could by extrapolation possibly have the sense of "bull". However, there seems to be no evidence of such a usage. No doubt it is only by chance that the Prakrit name Goyama can be construed as Sanskrit *go-yama*, "bull-restraint", equivalent to the Pāśupata *govrata*.

¹⁹⁵ See D7.

Subsequently the god Vesamana when on the summit of the mountain also expresses reservations about the apparent discrepancy between Goyama's appearance and the monks who consume food of wretched quality described in the story of Dasannabhadda recounted to him by Mahāvīra's disciple. 196 This story, which is only referred to by title at this juncture, occurs in full at a later point in the ĀvCū. 197 It is not an obvious exemplary narrative to invoke when seeking to draw attention to ascetic attainments, since it does not contain any actual description of renunciants, let alone of their austere appearance. 198 Rather, the point of the story is the spectacular lesson given to the wealthy king Dasannabhadda by the god Sakka. The former's regal magnificence (rāi-<code>ddhi</code>) while vast is shown to be insignificant compared to the divine splendour (deviḍḍhi) of Sakka, and yet the Jinas are offered homage by the gods. 199 What may have prompted the mention of this story at this stage of our narrative is the fact that it is linked to $\bar{A}vNiry\ v.\ 845b^{200}$ which provides the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$'s catchword *iddhi*. As well as meaning "splendour" *iddhi* can also signify "supranormal power", effectively the equivalent of labdhi, one type of which Goyama has already employed to ascend Mount Atthavaya and another of which he will later employ to feed the ascetics.201

¹⁹⁶ See Dg.

See ĀvCū pp. 475-484 and cf. Schubring 1918: 45 for the story of Dasannabhadda. This 197 would appear to be the first recorded example of what is not a particularly important exemplary narrative in Jain tradition. In the ĀvCū's version of the story descriptions of the city of Dasannapura and its environs, king Dasannabhadda, his queen and Mahāvīra reproduced much of the wording and phraseology of the heavily compounded vannaya style found in the later quasi-kavva canonical suttas such as the Aupapātika Sūtra which only occurs sporadically in the ĀvCū. Balbir 1993a: 151 refers to the passing mention of Dasaṇṇabhadda at *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra* 18.44 as a king who abandoned the world to follow Mahāvīra and speculates that this may signify the existence of a canonical model for the story. Mention of this example of royal renunciation who is humbled by the god Sakka about the nature of riches but is otherwise not a particularly significant figure in Jain narrative appears to serve here as a prelude to Goyama's lengthy account of another royal renunciant, Pumdarīya. Immediately after its version of the story of Goyama's visit to Aṭṭhāvaya the Cauppannamahāpurisacariya introduces (pp. 328-331) the story of Dasannabhadda.

¹⁹⁸ Descriptions of emaciated Jain ascetics are rare in the Ardhamāgadhī scriptural tradition. However, see the detailed account of the monk Dhaṇṇa in the *Anuttaraupapātika Sūtra* (Barnett 1907: 115–118).

¹⁹⁹ ĀvCū pp. 483 l. 10–484 l. 10. Cf. Mette 2010: 383 who following Balbir describes Daśārṇabhadra as an example of the greater value of the spiritual as opposed to the material honouring of the Jina by the laity.

²⁰⁰ samjoggavippayoge vasanūsavaiddhisakkāre.

²⁰¹ See D13. See Wiley 2012: 151 for labdhi and rddhi.

I turn now to the manner in which the ĀvCū depicts Goyama's physical appearance and the implications of the adjective thullaa which the ascetics use of Goyama when they first see him. The primary canonical representation of Mahāvīra's main disciple portrays him as a strong and vigorous monk. 202 However, the ascetics on the lower reaches of Atthavaya are suspicious of Goyama who is unemaciated by comparison with themselves, and the god Vesamana also concludes that Goyama might not be deemed to conform to the expected appearance of Jain monks of which he has been given narrative example. The ascetics apparently disparage Goyama by describing him as thullaa, and indeed sthūla, the Sanskrit equivalent of thullaa, often occurs in a binary relationship with kṛśa, "thin", 203 which suggest a simple translation of "fat", "corpulent" for the Prakrit adjective. 204 However, if one was attuned to possible humour in this episode, it might be adjudged that just about anybody would likely appear thullaa compared to the ascetics, and a consideration of Śīlāṅka's Cauppannamahāpurisacariya which contains the longest Prakrit version of our narrative subsequent to the ĀvCū has accordingly led me to translate thullaa ambiguously as "stout", which in English usage can mean both "sturdy" and "corpulent".

In Śīlāṅka's version²⁰⁵ the ascetics are depicted as observing Goyama climbing to the second level of the mountain evincing "a bodily complexion like blazing gold and not resembling a mortal person". ²⁰⁶ And when he had reached the third level the ascetics, astonished at the sight of "his extraordinary physical strength" (accabbhuyasarīrasāmattham), reflected: "Surely he is some god in the form of an ascetic, otherwise how could this mountain be ascended by one who has a large body in mortal shape? Even excellent monks who have particular powers gained by intense austerity make the ascent with difficulty". ²⁰⁷ In the Cauppannamahāpurisacariya it is a vijjāhara called Gandhavvaraī and not the god Vesamana who encounters Goyama on the summit of Atthavaya. Seeing

²⁰² See Aupapātika Sūtra para. 62 p. 66.

See e.g. MBh 9.44.83ab: sthulodarāh krśāngāś ca sthulāngāś ca krśodarāh; note also 203 13.95.2cd: parivrajantam sthūlāngam parivrajam śunaḥ sakham.

Cf. Mette 2010: 140: thullao, "feiste". The Prakrit form's Sanskrit equivalent sthūla can 204 encompass meanings such as "large", "thick" and "bulky". See Monier-Williams s.v. and cf.

Cauppannamahāpurisacariya pp. 322 l. 26-327. 205

Cauppannamahāpurisacariya p. 323 l. 7: kaṇayaujjalasarisadehacchavī amāṇusasarisa-206

Cauppannamahāpurisacariya p. 323 ll. 8-10: ņūņam esa jairūvo ko vi divvo, kaham aṇṇahā 207 manussarūvinā pīnatanunā eso samārodhum tīrai, eso khu munivarehim pi tivvatavovajjiyaladdhivisesehim dukkham āruhijjati.

Goyama, "large bodied and powerful", ²⁰⁸ Gandhavvaraī reflected: "This mountain is certainly not accessible to mortals without miraculous power. Miraculous power depends on particularly intense asceticism. Ascetics are characterised by lean bodies. This one does not appear in an appropriate guise²⁰⁹ but is of a firm, glossy, corpulent physical appearance. This mountain here cannot be ascended by a mortal other than ascetics in possession of a miraculous power (atisaa)." ²¹⁰ Later when the ascetics see Goyama descending the mountain, they compare him to a "brave lion with a broad and hard expanse of chest" ²¹¹ and subsequently address him as being "some god of inconceivable power in mortal guise". ²¹²

In these passages the *Cauppannamahāpurisacariya*, rather than portraying Goyama as simply and crudely corpulent, presents him in rather more nuanced fashion as possessing a robust and conspicuous physicality which renders him manifestly different from the half-starved ascetics, his strength being such that he can only be compared to a deity in human form. This perspective can also be found in Municandrasūri's version of this story given in his commentary on Haribhadra's *Upadeśapada* where Goyama on being seen by the ascetics is described as *samuddhurasarīro*. ²¹³ Judging from the standard dictionaries *samuddhura* is not a common adjective in Prakrit or Sanskrit, but the meanings *dṛḍh, majbūt* assigned by the *Pāisaddamahaṇṇavo* would suggest that Municandrasūri understands Goyama to be sturdy in appearance. ²¹⁴

However, the picture of Goyama / Gautama that has become prevalent among Śvetāmbara Jains is of a chubby, jolly monk who is associated with

²⁰⁸ pāṇataṇuvihāyam. Sanskrit vihāyas: Monier-Williams 1872: 953 "vigorous, active, mighty" (sources Vedic).

veṣa may mean "clothing", but the ascetics do not seem to be referring to Goyama's lack of the birch-bark apparel characteristic of brahman forest asceticism. I prefer to take veṣa-dhārin in the sense of "having the outward appearance". cf. below: acintasattī māṇusavesa-dhārī ko vi divvo tumaṇ.

Śīlānika, Cauppannamahāpurisacariya pp. 324 ll. 2–5: na hu eso mahaiharo māṇusāṇa samahigammo aisayaṃ viṇā, aisao ya tivvatavovisesovalambho, tavassino kisaṃgalimgino havanti, eso ya nāṇurūvavesadhārī ghaṇasiṇiddhapīvarataṇucchavī ya lakkhijjai, ṇa ya ettha sāisayatavassiyaṇaṃ vajjiya iha māṇusassa samāroho. The term aisaa (Sanskrit ati-śaya) here appears to be the equivalent of laddhi / labdhi.

²¹¹ Śīlāṅka, Cauppannamahāpurisacariya p. 226 v. 679b: dhīramaiṃdaṃ va visālakaḍhiṇavacchatthalābhoyam.

²¹² Śīlāṅka, Cauppannamahāpurisacariya p. 226 ll. 22–23: acintasattī māṇusavesadhārī ko vi divvo tumam.

²¹³ Municandra on Upadeśapada p. 117b v. 59: diṭṭho ya tehiṃ bhayavaṃ Goyamasāmī samuddhurasarīro / kaha eso iyarūvo girimmi eyammi laggihihī.

²¹⁴ Sheth 1963 s.v. samuddhura: dṛḍh, majbūt. Cf. Monier-Williams s.v. samuddhura: "lifted up, stretched out" (only one attestation).

providing sweet delicacies (an obvious allusion to the feeding of the ascetics) and more general material welfare. John Cort has described how images and paintings depict him as "rather corpulent", with this physical feature and his more general association with worldly wellbeing suggesting that he is a transformation of the Hindu deity Ganeśa whose functions overlap with those of Mahāvīra's chief disciple.²¹⁵ Cort refers to a portion of Johnson's translation of Hemacandra's Sanskrit *Trisastiśalākapurusacarita* which describes Gautama's visit to Mount Astāpada where he is mocked because of "the incongruity of a chubby monk lecturing on fasting".216

Hemacandra seems to have been drawing directly on the ĀvCū narrative, albeit without fully understanding its context, 217 and he clearly envisages Gautama as a corpulent monk. Thus in his version Gautama appears to the ascetics at first sight as "of golden complexion and corpulent build" 218 whereupon they wonder why thin $(kr \le a)$ people such as themselves cannot climb the mountain while one who is *sthūla* (the Sanskrit equivalent of the ĀvCū's *thullaa*) is able to do so.²¹⁹ When in the ĀvCū Goyama concludes the story of Pumdarīa and Kamdarīa by telling Vesamaņa to pay no heed to strength or weakness (section D11), in Hemacandra's version the monk states unambiguously that fatness and thinness are not the standard for ascetics.²²⁰ A provisional con-

See Cort 1995: 88-90. Devluk 1995 contains around one hundred representations of 215 Goyama (images of various sorts, stylised depictions in tantric diagrams and examples from popular art) from the medieval period and after. It is difficult to generalise about the manner in which he is portrayed; while many of the popular representations do convey a sense of a robust and benign humanity, there is little direct sense that he is being consistently represented as corpulent. A canonical formula associating Goyama with receiving an abundance of food can hardly be regarded as defining his appearance. See Antagaḍadasāo. Barnett 1907: 94 describes Queen Siri bestowing on Goyama "abundant food, [drink, sweetmeats, and dainties]". See text edition p. 23 a: viulenam asaṇa 4 paḍivisajjeti. Cf. Nāyā p. 84 l. 3-4: taheva jāva vipulam asaņam 4 uvakkhaḍāveti.

²¹⁶ Cort 1995 with a slight misrepresentation of the narrative scenario. Trişaşţiśalākapurușacarita 10.9.166-261 (translation Johnson 1962). Cf. Wiley 2012: 146.

Hemacandra, Trisastiśalākāpurusacarita 10.9.239 which gives a Sanskrit version of the 217 ĀvCū narrative mentions how "the god, Vaiśramaṇa's attendant deity, accordingly mastered by close attention the Pundarīka chapter enunciated by Gautama" (etadartham Puṇḍarīkādhyayanam Gautamoditam | jagrāhaikasamsthayāpi Śrīdasāmānikah surah; mistranslated by Johnson 1962: 245). This reference is otherwise incomprehensible in the context of Hemacandra's narrative which lacks any account of the deity's rebirth as the teacher Vajrasvāmin and suggests that the ĀvCū narrative was here utilised carelessly.

Trişaşţiśalākāpuruşacarita 10.9.189b: svarnābham pīvarākṛtim. 218

Trișașțiśalākāpurușacarita 10.9.190: te mithah procire śailam vayam etam kṛśā api | na ro-219 dhum īśmahe sthūla āroksyaty esa tat katham.

Trişaşţiśalākāpuruşacarita 10.9.238a: tat pīnatvam kṛśatvam vā na pramāṇam tapasvinām. 220

clusion might be that it was the influential Hemacandra's description in his *Triṣaṣṭiśalākapuruṣacarita* which proved decisive in confirming the image of the *gaṇadhara* as the chubby monk which is recognisable in iconic form to this day.

I Goyama's Explanation of the Story of Pumḍarīa

Goyama's recounting of the story of Pumdarīa and Kamdarīa to Vesamaņa is intended as a specific scripture-derived riposte to the god's scepticism about his physical credentials as a monk. Vesamana has claimed that Goyama evinces sarīrasukumāratā, "refined softness, delicacy of appearance", a term appropriate to those habituated to the easy and undemanding life of a royal court, as was the case with Pumdarīa and Kamdarīa who are both described by the adjective sukumāla.²²¹ Goyama regards the god's dubiety about his attributes as specifically relating to his possible lack of strength or toughness (dubbalattanam) in coping with the ascetic regime. The story of the royal brothers Pumḍarīa and Kamdarīa describes how one of them on becoming a monk experienced physical debility and mental turmoil because of the exiguous diet and lacked the strength to continue on the ascetic path, subsequently becoming addicted to the pleasures of eating and ultimately being reborn in hell, while the other suffered from the same diet but died the controlled death of the true monk and so was reborn in heaven. This canonical story is in part focused upon food and the dangers ensuing from inappropriate consumption of it.²²² Although no specific mention is made of Pumdarīa's physical appearance, Goyama refers to him as "full in the face" (paḍipuṇṇagalakavola) in his gloss on the story to Vesamaṇa, which may be taken as a reference to his own ostensible lack of ascetic gauntness.

However, there is, so Goyama argues by means of the story of Puṃḍarīa, no necessary correlation between physicality and capacity to advance on the path to deliverance. He sums this up with two statements: (i) "being strong or weak is a "non-cause" $(ak\bar{a}rana)$; (ii) "in this respect one must perform suppression of $jh\bar{a}na$ ".

(i) The first of these statements seems straightforward enough, but the expression *akāraṇa* is arguably elliptical in that it is inexplicit about what is

²²¹ ĀvCū p. 384 l. 3. In the ĀvCū story of Dasannabhadda p. 479 l. 10 Dasannabhadda's queen is described as sukumālapāṇipādā. Puṇḍarīka is described as pīnāṅga at Triṣaṣṭiśalākāpuruṣacarita 10.9.237b. Johnson 1962: 245 for Puṇḍarīka as "fat". Cf. Fynes 1998: 272.

²²² See Appendix 3.

not being caused, as can be seen from the fact tht later versions of the story feel the need to rework or expand it. 223 While the term $k\bar{a}rana$ is of course hardly unusual in itself, I would suggest that it can here be located in a more specific context on the basis of a consideration of a portion of the section of the ĀvNiry on scriptural transmission which informs the ĀvCū narrative, thus reminding us of the linkage between the verse and prose commentarial texts.

ĀvNiry v. 737 deploys *kārana* as "introductory" (*dāra*) word to eleven verses which relate to causality (vv. 738–748) (see section C). The standard preliminary analysis (nikkheva) of kārana identifies the internal dimension (bhāva) of the word in terms of the causes of rebirth from a morally negative (apasattha) perspective and of deliverance from a morally positive perspective (pasattha).²²⁴ The relevant verse here is ĀvNiry v. 744:

niyamā maņuyagatīe itthī puriseyaro vva suhaleso / āseviyabahulehim vīsāe annayaraehim //

"(The binding of *tīrthankaranāmagotrakarma* occurs) of necessity in the human state. 225 (It can be effected by) a woman, man or napumsaka with positive $les\bar{a}s^{226}$ through various (components of the list) of the twenty practised in many ways."227

The mention of "twenty" in the second line of ĀvNiry v. 744 is to be understood by reference to ĀvNiry v. 178a-81 which lists the twenty "categories" (thāṇa), that is the modes of practice—devotional, moral, ascetic and contemplative which enable the *jīva*, the soul or life monad, to attain the state of being a

Śīlāṅka, Cauppannamahāpurisacariya p. 324 ll. 6-7 introduces his retelling of the story 223 of Puṃḍarīa thus: "In respect to this (i.e. Goyama's healthy physique) weakness is not a cause of the calm of deliverance nor is strength a non-cause" (na ettha dubbalayā kāraṇaṃ kallānasamtīe, na ya akāranam baliyayā). Municandrasūri (eleventh century) in a version of this story given in his commentary on Haribhadra, Upadeśapada v. 110 expands: baliyattam abaliyattam na kāranam suddhasamanabhāvassa. Mette 2010: 187: renders akāraņa as "bedeutungslos".

See Balbir 2020 for these terms. Cf. ĀvNiry v. 741: hoi pasattham mokkhassa kāraṇaṃ ... 224

For this type of karma, see Wiley 1999. 225

For napuṃsaka as belonging to the third sex, see Zwilling & Sweet 1996 and for the lesā 226 (Sanskrit leśyā), see Wiley 2000.

H on ĀvNir v. 184 takes āseviyabahula as a Prakritic reverse compound: bahulāsevitaiḥ 227 -anekadhāsevitair ity arthah, prākrtaśailyā pūrvāparanipāto 'tantram, vimśatyā anyataraiḥ sthānair badhnātīti gāthārthaḥ.

 $t\bar{t}rtha\dot{n}kara$.²²⁸ These categories are described by the ĀvNiry as being $k\bar{a}rana$. Goyama can accordingly be regarded as telling Vesamana that neither physical strength nor weakness are found in this list of categories and on that authoritative basis corporeal appearance has no bearing on the ability to advance on the spiritual path.²²⁹

(ii) Goyama's advice to Vesamaṇa that there must be control or suppression of $jh\bar{a}na$ ($jh\bar{a}naniggaha$) has been understood by Mette as reflecting Buddhist teaching. In support of this she refers to an interpretation posited by Klaus Bruhn that the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$ narrative parallels the story, found in some Buddhist traditions, of the conversion of the $pa\bar{n}cavarg\bar{v}ya$ monks soon after the Buddha's attainment of enlightenment.²³⁰ Certainly Mette is correct in pointing

After describing (v. 745) how "Goyama and the other disciples listen to the Sāmāyika section to gain knowledge and the understanding of good and bad dispositions" (Goyamamāī sāmāiyam tu kimkāraṇam nisāminti | ṇāṇassa tam tu sumdaramamgulabhāvāṇa uvaladdhī), ĀvNiry then provides (vv. 746–748) a condensed and rather unusual delineation of the Jain soteriological path to deliverance as stemming from the attainments described in v. 745.

hoi pavittinivittī samjamatava pāvakammaaggahaņam

kammavivego ya tahā kāraṇam asarīrayā ceva // 746

"There comes about (thereby) engagement (in moral actions) and cessation (from immoral actions). (This brings about) restraint and austerity (and through these) non-accrual of evil karma; discriminating understanding of karma is brought about and then bodilessness."

 $kammavivego\ asarīrayāya\ asarīrayā\ aṇābāhā[hāe]\ /$

hoaṇabāhanimittam aveyaṇam aṇāulo niruo // 747

"Discriminating understanding of karma is the cause of bodilessness; bodilessness (means) absence of negative influence; non-sensory experience is brought about by absence of negative influence; (through this the $j\bar{\nu}a$) is undisturbed and without physical weakness."

nīruyattāe ayalo ayalattāe ya sāsao hoi /

sāsayabhāvam uvagao avvābāham suham lahai // 748

"Through being without physical weakness (the $j\bar{\nu}a$) is stationary, and through being stationary it is eternal. Having reached eternal existence it obtains untramelled happiness."

Although it was early established in Jainism that liberated souls lack any form of physical embodiment, the term *asarīratā*, "bodilessness", is nonetheless unusual.

230 See Mette 1987: 147 and cf. Mette 2010: 184–188 and 381–382.

²²⁸ ĀvNiry vv. 178a-81 (cf. 451–453 Āryarakṣitavijaya abbreviated; L vv. 271.1–3) give the twenty sthānas, described as kāraṇa:

paḍhamo titthayarattam vīsahi ṭhāṇehi kāsī ya || arihamta siddha pavayaṇa guru thera bahussue tavassīsu | vacchallayā eesiṃ abhikkhanāṇovaoge ya || daṃsaṇa viṇae āvassae ya sīlavvae niraiyāro | khaṇalavo tavacciyāe veyāvacce samāhī ya || appuvvanāṇagahaṇe suyabhattī pavayaṇe pabhāvaṇayā | eehiṃ kāraṇehiṃ titthayarattaṃ lahai jīvo ||

out that the expression *jhānaniggaho* (= Sanskrit *dhyānanigraha*) is not common in the Jain dogmatic tradition, as opposed to *imdivaniggaho*, "restraint of the senses", and that *jhāṇa* (Sanskrit *dhyāna*) has negative psychological connotations in the early tradition. However, it seems unwarranted to seek possible extraneous Buddhist influence here. Rather Goyama's advice to Vesamana can be more immediately interpreted as an allusion to a significant transitional episode in the story with which the god has just been regaled, namely the description of Kamdarīya who, disillusioned with the ascetic life, gives way to melancholy when he revisits the royal capital of his brother Pumdarīya.²³¹ Kamdarīya's betaking himself to a slab of stone under an aśoka tree is described in approximately the same quasi-formulaic terms as Goyama's nocturnal withdrawal on the summit of Mount Atthavaya. However, while Goyama is simply described as sitting on that spot, ²³² Kamdarīya's brooding psychological state is clearly defined: "with mental resolve gone he simply engaged in *jhāṇa* (ohayamaṇa jāva jhiyāti)". 233 This expression finds a parallel in the first chapter of the Jñātādharmakathāḥ Sūtra which describes the melancholy of queen Dhāriṇī owing to the yearning she experiences during pregnancy not being fulfilled.²³⁴ In this light an appropriate interpretation of the purport of the phrases ettha jhāṇaniggaho kātavvo and jhāṇaniggaho paramam pamāṇam is that Goyama is advising against unproductive brooding about the unsatisfactory nature of one's situation; suppression of this negative psychological state is the basis of advancing on the ascetic path to liberation.²³⁵ This of course not only refers to Kamdarīya's inadequacy with regard to the renunciant life as described in Goyama's sermon to Vesamana but can also be taken as an ironic (authorial) comment on one of the main themes of the story under discussion: Goyama's own anxious fretting about his failure to gain omniscience.

See section D9d. 231

See D7. Cauppanna p. 324 l. 1 describes Goyama paying homage to Rṣabha and then "med-232 itating on the blessed one" (bhayavamtam jhāyamāno). Here jhā has the less specialised sense of early Jain psychological teaching.

I do not here interpret jāva as an insertion marker. The phrase ohayamaṇa is most likely 233 an abbreviation of *ohayamanasamkappo*; see note 234. ĀvCū = *Jñātādharmakathāh Sūtra*. The full text is: jeneva asogavaniyā jeneva asogavarapāyave jeneva pudhavisilāpattage teņeva uvāgacchati uvāgacchettā jāva silāpaţţayam ohayamaņa jāva jhiyāti.

Jnātādharmakathāḥ Sūtra p. 24 l. 8: ohayamaṇasaṃkappā jāva jhiyāti. In the third appendix of his edition Muni Jambūvijaya quotes (p. 523) the tīkā on this passage; yāvat karaṇāt karatalapalhatthamunī aṭṭajhāṇovagayā jāva jhiyāi ti ārtadhyānam dhyāyatīti. For aṭṭajhāṇa | ārtadhyāna see Hooper 2020: 551-552.

Cf. Mette 2010: 383-384.

J Goyama's Power of Bestowing Limitless Food

The supranormal power (*laddhi*) called *akkhīṇamāhaṇasiya* through which access to a limitless supply of food (*mahāṇasiya*) was provided,²³⁶ is mentioned for the first time in a canonical source in the *Aupapātika Sūtra*. It is located among a large number of descriptive epithets relating to varieties of magical power possessed by ascetics attendant on Mahāvīra.²³⁷ These powers were included over the following centuries in lists of varying length and patterned groupings,²³⁸ with understanding of the efficacy of the *akkḥīṇamahāṇasiyaladdhi* being clarified by introducing a reference to the bowl of food from which thousands could gain sustenance only becoming empty when the monk who has attained the magic power in question finally takes his turn to eat. The ĀvCū

²³⁶ A derivative from mahāṇasa, "kitchen" (for further on this term see below). Ghatage 2004 quotes Paṇhāvagaraṇāim 6.6: akkhīṇamahānasiehiṃ cāraṇehiṃ (ahiṃsā samaṇuciṇṇā); Şaṭkhaṇḍāgama 4.1.42: ṇamo akkhīṇamahāṇasāṇam; etc.

Aupapātika Sūtra para. 24 ll. 7–8 and 15: eṇaṃ kāleṇaṃ teṇaṃ samayeṇaṃ samaṇassa 237 bhagavao Mahāvīrassa amtevāsī bahave niggamthā bhagavamto ... appegaiyā akkhīnamahānasiyā ... Abhayadevasūri comments thus: mahānasam annapākasthānam tadāśritatvād vānnam api mahānasam ucyate, tataś cākṣīṇaṃ—puruṣaśatasahasrebhyo 'pi dīyamānam svayam abhuktam sat tathāvidhalabdhiviśeṣād atruţitam tac ca tan mahānasam bhiksālabdhabhojanam aksīnamahānasam tad asti tesām te tathā. Cf. Leumann's edition s.v. akkhīna and notes to Aupapātika Sūtra; see Bollée 1997: 331 for a list of superhuman attributes including akkhīṇamahāṇasiya given in the Praśnavyākaraṇāni Sūtra. See also Amaramuni ed. p. 61: "When an ascetic endowed with this power collects alms from a kitchen, the remaining food in that kitchen would not exhaust even if hundreds of thousands of people were fed from it. The food in this kitchen would exhaust only when either the donor himself has eaten or that ascetic has eaten the alms he collected." The akkhīnamahānasiyaladdhi is mentioned at ĀvNiry v. 766 which describes its use by Vairasāmī, the subsequent birth of the god who has heard Goyama preach on the summit of Mount Atthāvaya.

Wiley 2012: 145–146 refers to Hemacandra's *Triṣaṣṭi* version of this story; p. 165: *labdhi* no. 27: "akṣ̄ṇa-mahānasī (Śvetāmbara: *Pravacanasāroddhāra*). With a small amount of food placed in the bowl [of a mendicant] hundreds and thousands of mendicants are satisfied; nevertheless, the bowl remains full. It becomes empty only when consumed by a medicant having this attainment. Hemacandra associates this with the *gaṇadhara* Gautama." pp. 175–176: *labdhi* no. 41 (Digambara: Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama): "akṣṇa-mahānasa. Just one substance from among the assortment of leftover food in the middle of a *thāli* (a plate from which food that is fed to a muni is taken) after the muni has eaten is not diminished, although it was eaten by the entire army of a Cakavartin on this day" (*Trilokaprajñapti*, dated by Wiley to c. 500CE). Vimalasūri, *Paumacariya* 14.81–85 lists monks of advanced attainments such as exuding (*savin*) honey, milk and ghee (see Wiley 2012: 175), but does not include *akkhṇamahāṇasa*. Chapter 8 of the *Paumacariya* gives a list of 54 magic powers gained through austerity by Rāvaṇa and his brothers, but *akkhṇamahāṇasa* is not among them.

is the first text to emphasise Goyama's possession of the <code>akkhnamahanasiyaladdhi</code>, an aspect of his identity which was to prove particularly significant as Jain tantra and attendant modes of esoteric monastic initiation developed in the early centuries of the second millennium <code>CE.239</code> Description of his conspicuous supranormal attainments in the ĀvCū narrative may of course be simply intended to point out an implicit contrast with Mahāvīra's disciple's inadequacy concerning the more serious goal of gaining omniscience, and indeed the feeding of the ascetics might be viewed as no more than a passing episode in the story. Certainly the scenario described in the narrative is hardly conventional in that Jain monks should never seek specific types of food, but this should not be allowed to inhibit appreciation of a striking story of wonderworking. However, I would argue that by reading this episode in conjunction with material from a brahmanical background there can be gained a greater insight into its thematic purpose.

Sections D₇ and 1₃ of the ĀvCū describe how Goyama on first encountering the ascetics of Mount Aṭṭhāvaya confirmed his advanced status to them by manifesting the power of flight through his possession of the <code>jaṅghācaraṇala-</code>

In Śvetāmbara tantra mastering this power was held to be the result of the ritual centring on the *sūrimantra* performed by a monk who had newly attained the rank of *ācārya* and was thus required to recreate himself as a version of Goyama, Mahāvīra's chief disciple and source of the monastic lineage. See Dundas 1998 and Gough 2021: 169–174. Devavimala, *Hīrasaubhāgya* 4.7 autocomm. understands Gautama's status as first of the disciples as deriving either from his possession of *labdhi*s or through having received *dīkṣā* before the others.

Mette 2010 makes no significant comment on this passage. Balbir 1993a does not mention it in her summary of the verses relating to Vairasāmī. The standard procedure for a Jain renunciant who has just received renunciant initiation is to set out to receive food from a lay donor. It would be unwise, however, to regard this formal mode of signalling new status as being formally established during the middle centuries of the first millennium, which is the approximate time when the ĀvCū or its oral precursor was composed.

This issue was addressed in the late sixteenth century <code>H\bar{u}rapraśnottara\bar{u}i (30.20)</code> which records how <code>Hi</code>ravijayasuri was asked by a certain <code>Pandit</code> Velarsiganin how the miraculous food conjured up by Gautama to break the ascetics' fast could be appropriate for monks since it had not actually been given by anybody (<code>tatra</code> labdhiparam\bar{u}nam adattam iti s\bar{u}dh\bar{u}n\bar{u}m katham kalpate). This question seems to imply the understanding that the food has not actually been given by a donor but has been produced by <code>Mahavira</code>'s disciple. <code>Hi</code>ravijayasuri's reply is not immediately to the point: because just a single receptacle (<code>patadgraha</code>) serves the purpose (<code>prapta</code>) of all the ascetics through the power of <code>akṣūnamahānasalabdhi</code>, it must be considered that in this respect nothing which has not been given is understood as involved in this respect (<code>atradattam</code> kim api <code>jūatam</code> nastiti bodhyam iti).

ddhi and thus inspired them to follow him as a teacher. Goyama's deployment of the akkḥāṇamahāṇasiyaladdhi takes place after the ascetics have become Jain monks, with the necessary monastic accoutrements (liṃga) being supplied by a god. They require to be refreshed on ending their long regime of fasting. Asked by Goyama what they wish to eat they request pāyasa, rice boiled in milk, and he duly returns from the alms round with a bowl (paḍiggaha) of food for the group²⁴² which he has acquired from an unspecified source.²⁴³ The bowl contains a mixture of honey and clarified butter, or possibly pāyasa mixed with these two substances,²⁴⁴ which, continually reproduced through Goyama's laddhi, fortifies the entire troop. This nourishment is markedly unsuitable for Jains, with honey and ghee being regularly stigmatised by monastic authorities,²⁴⁵ and in fact this food presented by Goyama to the ascetics is strongly reminiscent of the madhuparka or guest offering of brahmanical ritual, which takes the form of a mixed drink of yoghurt (dadhi), clarified butter (ghee) and honey.²⁴⁶ Vimalasūri's Paumacariya (c. 5th century), the first Jain text to

Hīrapraśnottarāṇi 3.42 posits the general question of whether Gautama went on the food collecting round alone or with a group of monks (Gautamasvāmī gocaryām ekāky eva gatavān atha vā sasaṅghāṭakaḥ). The response is that according to scriptural texts such as the Bhagavatī Sūtra he as a rule (prāyaḥ) went on his own, but discussion of whether this is right or wrong is not appropriate since he belonged to the category of āgamavihārin, that is the six varieties of monks who were in possession of the three types of advanced knowledge or were familiar with fourteen, ten or nine Pūrva scriptures.

According to Cauppannamahāpurisacariya p. 327 l. 1 Goyama asked the new Jain monks what food they wanted when they were in a sannivesa (ekammi sannivese). See Aupapātika Sūtra para. 69 for sannivesa as the last and least impressive of a stereotyped list of centres of habitation. Cf. Mette 1974: 43: "Niederlassung". However, see Hoernle's translation of the Upāsakadasāḥ Sūtra p. 54 for Goyama going to the city (nayara) of Vāṇiyagāma for alms and then to the "suburb" (sannivesa) of Kollāga (Pkt. Kollāya). Cf. Amaramuni, Illustrated Upāsakadashā and Anuttaraupapātikadashā Sūtra pp. 80–81. However, Stein 1948: 13 quotes commentarial explanations which suggest the interpretation of a stopping place for shepherds, cow-herds and traders; see Schubring 1977: 53: "Karawanen-Rastorte". Bollée 2002: 15: "halting place for a procession" is not clarified. It is likely that a sannivesa (Sanskrit saṃniveśa) is a liminal location, an appropriate place for former ascetics leaving the wilderness to reenter the inhabited world.

²⁴⁴ See note 131.

²⁴⁵ See *Senapraśna* 13.19 for two-sensed creatures arising in wine, honey and curd. *Senapraśna* 27.20 (21?; notes p. 26): Vijayasenasūri states that the food conjured by Goyama is not *vaikriya* but is a specific product of the *labdhi*.

²⁴⁶ For honey in the *madhuparka*, see Oberlies 2007: 141–171; p. 145: the *madhuparka* is mixed in a *kaṃsa/kāṃsya* pot (cf. p. 156 n. 106) and p. 153: the use of honey signifies entry into a group.

attempt to rationalise the existence of non-Jain cultural and religious phenomena, identifies a brahman origin for the *tāpasa* ascetics who live in the forest wilderness,²⁴⁷ and Goyama's feeding of the new monks in the wilderness has the look of an induction ceremony framed as a form of guest offering to exbrahmans entering a new community.

A parallel narrative situation in the *Āraṇyakaparvan* of the *Mahābhārata* provides a further degree of focus to the ĀvCū's emplotment. The context is as follows. Yudhisthira and the other Pandava brothers have entered the forest in accordance with the terms of the twelve years period of exile imposed upon them by their Kaurava relatives and rivals. A troop of brahmans has followed them in order to perform various forms of ritual on their behalf and to divert them with storytelling. Although the brahmans, who have been described as "eating what has been begged" (bhikṣābhujaḥ),248 have already assured Yudhisthira that they will obtain their own food, the Pandava leader realises that he himself is obliged to feed them since it will be impossible to get alms in the forest wilderness. However, to his frustration he lacks the necessary provisions with which to prepare a meal for the brahmans.²⁴⁹ So Yudhisthira propitiates Sūrya, the sun-god, who is pleased with him and appears "shining in his own form, like a blazing fire". 250 He then addresses the Pāṇḍava leader: "You shall obtain all that you wish, king. I will give you food for seven and then five years—fruit, tubers, meat, green vegetables which have been prepared in the *mahānasa*. Those four types of food will be inexhaustible (*akṣayyam*) for vou."251

After Sūrya has disappeared, "Yudhiṣṭhira joined Draupadī, the brothers' wife; watched by her he went and prepared that food in the mahānasa. The four types of forest food increased when prepared; that food grew to inexhaustible (aksayyam) proportions and with it he fed the brahmans. When they had eaten he fed his brothers. Then Yudhisthira ate the remains of the food called "leftover" (vighasa). Having fed Yudhisthira, Draupadī ate the remains.

²⁴⁷ Vimalasūri, Paumacariya 4.80-86. Kaundinya makes clear that only brahmans could be initiated as Pāśupata ascetics: see Pāśupatasūtra 1.7-9 with the commentary of Kaundinva.

MBh 3.2.1ab: vanam yiyāsatām viprās tasthur bhikṣābhujo 'gratah. Cf. Bronkhorst 2017: 582 248 on brahman mendicants being unable to feed themselves in the forest.

MBh 3.2.10-11 and 13. 249

MBh 3.4.1ab: dīpyamānaḥ svavapuṣā jvalann iva svavapuṣā. 250

MBh 3.4.2-3d: yat te 'bhilaşitam rājan sarvam etad avāpsyasi | aham annam pradāsyāmi sapta pañca ca te samāh // phalamūlāmisam śākam samskrtam yan mahānase / caturvidham tad annādyam akṣayyam te bhaviṣyati //.

So after obtaining the miraculous food from the sun, Yudhiṣṭhira refulgent as the sun gave the brahmans the desires of their heart." 252

This passage occurs at a transitional moment in the plot of the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ (the entry of the Pāṇḍavas into the forest), but only a few scholars of the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ seem to have considered it as a narrative unit, and not at any great length. Feller has discussed the alimentary issues involved in Yudhiṣṭhira's feeding of the brahmans, which she connects with a later episode in the $\bar{A}ranyakaparvan$ where the Pāṇḍavas are described as taking to hunting and thereafter feeding the brahmans with meat. She points in passing to uncertainty about the $mah\bar{a}nasa$, the "kitchen" where Yudhiṣṭhira produces food, in terms of its provenance, appearance and functioning. Biardeau interprets

Draupadyā saha saṃgamya paśyamāno 'bhyayāt prabhuḥ |
mahānase tadānnaṃ tu sādhayām āsa Pāṇḍavaḥ || 5
saṃskṛtaṃ prasavaṃ yāti vanyam annaṃ caturvidhaṃ |
akṣayyaṃ vardhate cānnaṃ tena bhojayate dvijān || 6
bhuktavatsu ca vipreṣu bhojayitvānujān api |
śeṣaṃ vighasasaṃjñaṃ tu paścād bhunkte Yudhiṣṭhiraḥ |
Yudhiṣṭhiraṃ bhojayitvā śeṣam aśnāti Pārṣatī || 7
evaṃ divākarāt prāpya divākarasamadyutiḥ |
kāmān manobhilaṣitān brāhmaṇebhyo dadau prabhuḥ || 8

The translation is mine, following van Buitenen 1975: 229.

253 Smith's abridged rendering of the Mahābhārata refers to the episode only in passing without translating any of it. See Smith 2009: 164.

See Feller 2016: 61: "the kitchen (mahānasa) is not further described, nor is its mode of 254 functioning clearly explained. It is also not clear whether the kitchen was gifted by Sūrya or whether it was already in the Pāndavas' possession". As for the mahānasa, the nature of which is undescribed in the *Mahābhārata* passage, this is understood by Feller as being "kitchen", the rendering also given by van Buitenen; for Biardeau it designates some sort of cooking pot ("marmite"). The "kitchen" interpretation no doubt reflects the sense of mahānasa in standard Sanskrit and Prakrit.; for the latter see Hāla's Sattasaī (household kitchen) and Nāyā 1.8 (palace). However, such a domestic establishment is not entirely probable in terms of the wilderness situation in which the Pāndavas and the brahmans find themselves. There is of course no reason to assume that in an imaginative text there should be precise conformity to realia, and magic cooking pots and food bowls are a staple of popular lore and legend both in India and throughout the world. See for example Kathāsaritsāgara taraṅga 3 vv. 46-50 (Tawney 1924: 22) for two asuras fighting over shoes which give the power of flight and a receptacle (bhājana) which produces whatever food is thought of. See also Ravishankar 2018: 266 (for a comical allusion to an akṣayapatra in the nineteenth century) and cf. Higham 2018: 106 for an Arthurian example. Some manuscripts of the Mahābhārata include a verse after 3.4.2, possibly intended to clarify the meaning or context of mahānasa, in which Sūrya instructs Yudhiṣṭhira to take a copper pot he has given him which will remain full until Draupadī has eaten (grhīsva piţharam tāmram mayā dattam narādhipa / yāvad vānchati Pāncālī pātrenānena suvrata).

²⁵² MBh 3.4.5-8:

the episode as referring to sacrifice and the consumption of the residue of the offering. She is specifically interested in the cosmic role of Sūrya as it relates to the bhakti shown by Yudhisthira, and says virtually nothing about the food supplied by the god which enables the senior Pāndava to feed the brahmans.²⁵⁵

The ĀvCū account of Goyama magically feeding the ascetics appears to be a reworking or transmuting of thematic material from this *Mahābhārata* episode (there is no need to argue for the Jain text's priority or derivation from some common narrative source).²⁵⁶ In the Mahābhārata the feeding of the brahmans is effected by Sūrya, whose description finds a parallel in that of Goyama appearing "as refulgent as fire, lightning and the rays of the new risen sun" when first seen by the ascetics of Mount Atthavaya.²⁵⁷ The food provided by Sūrya to Yudhisthira is described as *akṣayyam*, "inexhaustible, undiminishing", equivalent to the Prakrit adjective akkhīṇa (Sanskrit akṣīṇa), "unfailing", the first component of akkhīṇamahāṇasia. However, whereas Yudhiṣṭhira is providing alimentary support for brahmans who are about to enter the wilderness, Goyama is producing food as a form of welcome for newly initiated Jain monks (whether or not originally brahmans) who are about to leave it, at least symbolically.

When the brahmans have finished eating, Yudhisthira, followed by the Pāṇḍavas' wife Draupadī, consumes the remains of the food and so becomes an eater of "residue" (vighasa). Later in the same chapter of the Mahābhārata Yudhisthira affirms that one should aways be an eater of leftovers (vighasa) and a consumer of ambrosia (amṛta), the former being the remains of what has been eaten and the latter the remains of the sacrifice. ²⁵⁸ In eating from the

See Āraṇyakaparvan edition part 1 (Sukthankar 1942), p. 17 note 3. It may also be that the Pāṇḍavas and their entourage are being envisaged by the Mahābhārata as a nomadic group redolent of the Vedic period. In Vedic literature, the term mahānasa denotes the 'heavily loaded wagon' in which the nomadic bands transported their cooking equipment and perhaps prepared their food, and it is this perhaps deliberately archaic sense of the term which has to be born in mind in relation to the Pāṇḍavas' food preparation while wandering in the wilderness. See Sadovski 2009: 122-123.

²⁵⁵ See Biardeau 2002: 417-418.

For small scale links between the Mahābhārata and a Jain text, see Dundas 2014 and cf. 256 Dundas 2012: 565-567.

See section D6. 257

MBh 3.2.58 (= Mānavadharmaśāstra 3.285): vighasāśī bhavet tasmān nityaṃ cāmṛtabhojanah / vighasam bhuktaśesam tu yajñaśesam tathāmrtam; Olivelle 2005: 123 translates: "He should become a man who always eats "residue" and who always partakes of "ambrosia". "Residue" is what remains after people have eaten, and "ambrosia" is the leftovers of a sacrifice." The term vighasa can specifically refer to food eaten by ascetics. See Wezler 1978 and for śeṣa in general, see Malamoud 1996: 7-22.

same bowl after the monks have finished their helping of the magically perpetuated food, Goyama is effectively consuming leftovers, but the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{v}\bar{\text{C}}\bar{\text{u}}$ does not reproduce Yudhiṣṭhira's equation of the worldly and the ritual, which would not be meaningful in this Jain context. However, it may be noted that at some later point, perhaps around the beginning of the second millennium, Goyama came to be regarded as being able to effect the magical filling of the almsbowl through having ambrosia in his thumb.

K Some Concluding Remarks

In the introduction to his notes to his edition of chapter ten of the *Uttarā-dhyayana Sūtra* Charpentier refers to a "very long story" by the commentator Devendra about Goyama (Gotama) being instructed by Mahāvīra.²⁶⁰ Charpentier does not give any details of this story—it does not in fact diverge from the main features of the plot of the ĀvCū narrative which has been the subject of this study—but justifies his lack of discussion on the grounds that "this legend entirely lacks any real interest". No doubt the story was dismissed by Charpentier because it was fanciful and did not provide anything corresponding to historical facts which could cast light on early Jain teachings and specifically the contents of *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra* 10.

I am conscious that the late Steven Collins cautioned against the propensity of modern scholarship to read Pali stories as "religious" literature at the expense of their status as "elite Literature that entertains (seriously or lightly) its readers or listeners". We might conclude with Collins that this story has no religious point as such but may have served to expand the Jain narrative archive and hence Jain self-perception. In these terms any attempt to assign a specific meaning to this Jain story, whether historical or religious, might seem somewhat pedestrian. However, in a phrase of Detige's, these are "not

²⁵⁹ See Vinayaprabha (Kharatara Gaccha 14th c. CE), *Gautam Rās* v. 29 (in Vinayasāgar 1987: 129):

khīr khāṇḍ ghṛt āṇi, amiya vūṭhi aṃguṭh ṭhavaī, Goyama ekaṇ pātr, karāvai pāraṇau savaī |

paṃc sayāṃ subh bhāv, ujjal bhariyau khīr misai sācā guru saṃyog, kaval te keval rūp huā ||

A Hindi comic book retelling of Goyama's career ($Div\bar{a}kar$ $Citrakath\bar{a}$ no. 32) identifies this as his defining feature in its title Ampt Purus Gautam ("Gautama the Ambrosia-Man").

²⁶⁰ Uttarādhayana Sūtra, notes, p. 317; Charpentier reproduces the Sanskrit preamble to D's Prakrit narrative.

²⁶¹ Collins 2020: 81-82.

just stories".²⁶² For all the comic and fairy tale-like elements in this story—the great monk Goyama being twice overtaken in the gaining of omniscience by novice renunciants, magical flight and an inexhaustible food bowl—there is also a vein of seriousness running through it. It is undoubtedly *mokṣamārga*-oriented and not "for lay edification", as Jain stories have been frequently described.²⁶³

The bulk of my discussion has largely foregrounded Goyama's interaction with the ascetics he encountered on Mount Aṭṭhāvaya, and this is reflected in the title I have given to this study. On that basis a simple conclusion might be that it is a "conversion story" describing how the exercise of magic power by a Jain monk convinced some non-Jains to abandon their previous mode of life and follow a new source of authority. But whether the acceptance of non-Jain ascetics into the Jain order is the main theme of the story is debatable. The *Cauppannamahāpurisacariya* makes no reference to the ascetics being initiated as Jain monks. Instead it describes how the ascetics through Goyama's power (*tappahāvao*) climbed the mountain, worshipped the image of Ḥṣabha with full devotion and rejoined Mahāvīra's disciple, saying that their effort has borne fruit through seeing him.²⁶⁴

It must also be asked how the meaning of the story might be gauged if it is not detached from its moorings in the nexus of the Āvaśyaka literature as a component of the biography of Vairasāmī: that is as part of the cumulative process by which the Jains built up a picture of their tradition's legendary past whose protagonists were inspiring, intriguing and diverting. 265 And to what extent does the emphasis of the story shift when it is viewed from the perspective of the $Uttar\bar{a}dhyayana\ S\bar{u}tra$ tradition? Here the story of Goyama and the ascetics is about the gaṇadhara's difficulties with attaining omniscience and Mahāvīra's encouragement of him.

More broadly the story might be interpreted as being preoccupied with food and ascetic diet. The story of Goyama and the ascetics demonstrates how Jain monks possess superhuman powers of a sort, in the case of <code>janghācaraṇaladdhi</code>, which causes astonishment in the <code>tāpasas</code> and can also take care of the basic quotidian need of supplying food. The role of wonderworker is here

²⁶² Detige 2020.

²⁶³ Cort 2001 and cf. Detige 2020.

²⁶⁴ Śīlānka, Cauppannamahāpurisacariya p. 326: tao te tāvasagaņā tappahāvao samārūḍhā Aṭṭhāvayagirivaram. vaṃdiūn bhattibharanibbharamāṇasa Usabhasāmim samāgayā ganaharino samīvam. 'saphalo amha esa parissamo jam tumehim samam daṃsaṇam jāyam'.

²⁶⁵ Cauppannamahāpurisacariya has a connection with the Āvaśyaka textual corpus and evinces no interest in the biography of Vairasāmī.

presented as a prominent feature of the Jain monk who stands at the head of the Śvetāmbara teacher lineage and in certain respects may be regarded as epitomising some of the positive and negative features characteristic of the actualities of Jain renunciant life. The historical model of Śvetāmbara renunciants in the first millennium CE being perpetually wandering mendicants is difficult to disprove and no doubt partially true. However, the fact that at the beginning of the second millennium teachers advocating a return to scriptural injunction as the basis for renunciant practice presented themselves as an embattled minority in the face of a majority constituted by sedentary monks permanently based in temples suggests that the latter mode of life had become embedded in the Śvetāmbara community during the previous centuries.

Dharmasāgara writing at the end of the fifteenth century asserted baldly that the practice of monks living in temples arose in the year 882 after Mahāvīra's death, that is in 325 CE. 266 There is no way of corroborating this judgment and relevant textual and epigraphical witnesses are lacking, but there seems little doubt that such a mode of monastic life was prevalent at the time the ĀvCū was composed. In such a context of permanent dwelling a constant provision of food must have been a significant concern, implying some equivalent to the institution of <code>dhruvabhikṣā</code>, "permanent alms food", found in Buddhist texts of roughly the same period. Our story might give a fleeting glimpse of an attempted rationalisation of the existence of monks who were regular recipients of food from the same sources(s) by describing how leading members of the renunciant community could when necessary feed their followers through supra-normal means and so guarantee a permanent source of alimentary support. 268

Appendix 1: The Earliest Metrical Version of the Story: Uttarādhyayana Niryukti vv. 284–306

The earliest prose version of the story of Goyama and the ascetics of Mount Athar Athar

²⁶⁶ Quoted by Premī 1942: 352. Premī refers to Muni Kalyāṇavijaya's view that this practice was in fact universally that diet.

²⁶⁷ Silk 2008: 215-217.

²⁶⁸ The ĀvNiry describes how Vairasāmī was in possession of the akkhīṇamahāṇasiya laddhi which he deployed to feed the lay community.

Uttarādhyayana Niryukti (UttNiry), is undoubtedly also early, 269 albeit it is very condensed. To facilitate some conclusions about the relationship between the two versions, I translate below UttNiry vv. 284-306, following the text of Bollée's edition and enumeration with punctuation removed or amended, while also referring to the Ladnum edition (UttNiryL) and its Hindi rendering. 270 Ś is cited where relevant and I occasionally refer to D.²⁷¹ I then give at the end of this appendix some analytical remarks.

UttNiry v. 283 introduces the Dumapattayam ajjhayanam of the Uttarādhyayana Sūtra.²⁷² The background to Mahāvīra's preaching of this poem is then given.

Magahāpuranayarāo Vīrena visajjaņam tu sīsāṇam / SālaMahāsālāṇam Piṭṭhīcampam ca āgamaṇam // 284

Mahāvīra dispatches his pupils Sāla and Mahāsāla from the city (of Rājagṛha) which is the capital of Magadha,²⁷³ and they come to Piṭṭhīcampa.

²⁶⁹ Dhaky 2004: 116 dates the Uttarādhyayana Niryukti to c. 525 CE. Dhaky's dating (which according to note 14 follows Vijayajinendra's Niryukti-samgrahah) seems to imply that any exegetical texts must be subsequent to the "canonical councils". On the other hand, Ollett 2017: 76 refers to 'leading authorities' for Bhadrabāhu the author of the niryuktis as 1st century CE, with his explanations setting in motion a process of commentary which lasted for several centuries. Ollett's perspective would imply commentary on the earliest āgama texts perhaps in proximity to their formulation. Further uncertainty about dating can be seen from the presence in UttNiry vv. 289 and 293 of two examples of the past tense with the indeclinable suffix $-\bar{\iota}(\gamma)a$ (see notes 288 and 292). According to Esposito 2011: 44–45, the Vasudevahiṇḍī which she dates to c. 400 AD (p. 29) gives the first examples of this form. Cf. Ollett 2018: 149 for the form being taught in the Prākṛtaprakāśa. It is unclear whether the presence of this type of past tense in the UttNiry confirms a latish date for the UttNiry of the sort advocated by Dhaky or a pre-Vasudevahiṇḍī date for the text on the grounds that the two examples therein are the earliest identifiable.

²⁷⁰ ĀvNiryL 's verse enumeration is 277-299 (with Hindi trans pp. 211 ff.). See Mahetā 1989: 96-100 for the overall number of UttNiry verses given as 607 as against Bollée's 557.

²⁷¹ Ś (pp. 270 l. 34–272 l. l.7) truncates discussion of the niryukti verses, omitting any reference to verses 296b-298 while filling out explanation of the others with details deriving from the subsequent Prakrit narrative (p. 272 l. 8-277 l. 10) which replicates that of the ĀvCū. D (pp. 153a–158b) gives the full story of Goyama and the ascetics at the beginning of Uttarādhyayanasūtra chapter ten (Dumapattayaṃ). No reference is made to UttNiry. Cf. Alsdorf 1998: 816: the *nijjutti*s are included in the oldest *tīkā*s such as Śāntisūri's on the Uttarādhyayana but not in the younger ones such as Devendra's on the Uttarādhyayana, which reflects a dwindling of interest in these texts.

²⁷²

Ś: Magahāpuranagaram Rājagrham. 273

```
pavajā Gāgitissa<sup>274</sup> ya nāṇassa ca uppayā u tiṇhaṃ pi |
āgamaṇaṃ Caṃpapuriṃ Vīrassa avaṃdaṇaṃ tesiṃ || 285
```

Gāgili²⁷⁵ renounces and omniscience comes about for the three.²⁷⁶ They reach the city of Campā; they do not pay homage to Mahāvīra.

```
Campāi Puṇṇabhaddaṃmi ceie nāyao pahiakittī |
āmanteum samaṇe kahei bhayavaṃ Mahāvīro || 286
```

In the shrine of Puṇṇabhadda at Campā, the blessed Mahāvīra, the leader, the far-famed one,²⁷⁷ summoned the monks and spoke.

```
aṭṭḥavihakammamahaṇassa tassa pagaīvisuddhalesassa |
Aṭṭḥāvae nagavare nisīhie<sup>278</sup> niṭṭhiaṭṭḥassa || 287
```

'He who has destroyed the eight types of karma,²⁷⁹ whose karmic colouration is naturally pure,²⁸⁰ who attained the goal²⁸¹ in the place of liberation²⁸² which is Atthāvaya,²⁸³ the excellent mountain—

²⁷⁴ UttNiryL: pavvajja Gāgilissa.

²⁷⁵ Bollée 1994 s.v Gāgīli: "usually called Gāgali".

²⁷⁶ UttNiryL's Hindi rendering (p. 212) understands this trio to consist of Gägili and his parents.

²⁷⁷ pahiakittī = Sanskrit prathitakīrtiḥ. Ś p. 271 ll. 1–3: nāyao pahiakittī tti nāyakaḥ sakalajagatsvāmī jñāta eva vā jñātaka udārakṣatriyaḥ, nyāyato vā prathimā-sakalajagatpratyākhyātā kīrtir yasya sa tathā.

²⁷⁸ UttNiryL: *nisīhiā* (presumably an endingless accusative and the object of *vandai* in the next verse). See note 282.

²⁷⁹ This verse links up syntactically with *Usabhassa Bharahapiuno* in v. 288. For *aṭṭhavihaka-mmagaṇṭhi* see *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra* 29.31.

²⁸⁰ *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra* chapter thirty-four gives a full exposition of the *lessā | leśyā* theory in which an earlier version of the teaching is couched in "old" *śloka* verses interspersed with *āryā* verses; see Dundas 2002: 100 and also Roth 1983: 137 n. 88.

²⁸¹ Ś p. 271 ll. 5–7: niṣṭhitārthasya samāptasakalakṛtasya yad vā niṣedhe sakalakarmanirākaranalakṣaṇe bhavā naiṣedhikī muktigatis tayā niṣṭhitārtho yas tasya Rṣabhasya.

²⁸² Ś p. 271 l. 4: nisīhiya tti nisīdhyante nirākriyante asyām karmānīti naiṣedhikī nirvāṇabhūmiḥ.

Bollée 1994 s.v. nisīhi(yā) quotes Leumann 1934 (but this is absent from his bibliography;

"Abkehr" = 2010 LD trans p. 25 n. 4, "withdrawal") and Schubring 1935: para. 136 ("Weggang"). For later Digambara usages of the tem see Settar 1986.

There is a possible deliberate correlation here between the name of the mountain Aṭṭhā-vaya and the eight (*aṭṭha*) types of karma. Cf. ĀvNiry v. 920 for *aṭṭhavihaṃ kammaṃ*.

Usabhassa Bharahapiuno telukkapayāsaniggayajasassa / jo ārodhum vamdai carimasarīro a so sāhū // 288

Rsabha, the father of Bharata, whose renown has shone out over the universe—whoever climbs the mountain and pays homage to him is a monk whose physical body is his final one.²⁸⁴

```
sāhum samvāsei ya asāhum na kira samvasāveī /
aha siddhapavvao so pāse Veaddhasiharassa // 289
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Now that mountain of the liberated which is near Mount Veyaddha can furnish a dwelling for a monk,²⁸⁵ but it can never, it is held,²⁸⁶ furnish a dwelling for one who is not a monk.²⁸⁷

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carimasarīro sāhū āruhai nagavaram na anno tti /
eyam tu udāharaṇam kāsīa<sup>288</sup> tahim jinavarimdo // 290
```

A monk in his last body can ascend²⁸⁹ that excellent mountain, no one else.' Thus the mighty Jina declared to them.²⁹⁰

soūņa tam bhagavao gacchai tahim Goamo pahiakittī / āruhai tam nagavaram padimāo vandai jinānam // 291

²⁸⁴ That is, he will attain liberation at the end of that existence.

Ś p. 271 l. 9: rātrim divam cāvasthāpayati, no 'sādhum samharanādinā 'nītam api ("The 285 mountain can accomodate a monk for a day and a night but not a non-monk, even though he has been brought there through means such as abduction"). The reference to Veyaddha / Vaitādhya (on which see Alsdorf 1974: 77) might suggest abduction by vijjāharas / vidyādharas who are strongly associated with that mountain range, although narrative examples generally involve women. The version of this story found in Śīlāṅka's Cauppannamahāpurisacariya, which does not contain the theme of Vairasāmī's previous birth, has a vijjāhara rather than Vesamaņa listening to Goyama's sermon.

Ś p. 271 l. 9: kila iti parokṣāptavādasūcaka. However, kira could simply be emphatic here. For the literature on *kira* and its meaning see Tieken 2009.

²⁸⁷ The ascetics as non-Jain monks are by definition precluded from dwelling on the moun-

The form $k\bar{a}s\bar{\iota}a$ is an example of the past tense with the indeclinable suffix $-\bar{\iota}(y)a$; cf. 288 note 269. For explanations of this verbal form, see Norman 2001: 224 and Oberlies 1997.

Ś p. 271 l. 12: ārohatīty atra padapracāreņeti gamyate. 289

Ś describes this example given by Mahāvīra as the reason that the gods are familiar with a 290 rumour about the mountain, although this is not mentioned in any verse; this commentary then goes on to refer to portions of vv. 294 and 295.

Having heard that from the blessed one, far-famed 291 Goyama went there. He ascended that excellent mountain and paid homage to the images of the Jina.

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aha āgao sapariso savviḍḍhīe tahiṃ Vesamaṇo |
vandittu ceiyāiṃ aha vandai Goamaṃ bhayavaṃ || 292
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Then Vesamaṇa in all his majesty came there with his retinue; having paid homage to the shrines he then paid homage to the blessed Goyama.

```
aha Puṃḍarīyanāyaṃ kahei tahiṃ Goyamo pahiyakittī | dasamassa ya pāraṇae pavvāvesīya<sup>292</sup> Koḍinnam || 293
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Then far-famed Goyama told the story of Puṇḍarīka there, and he got Kodinna to take renunciation at the end of a fast of ten meals.²⁹³

```
tassa ya Vesamaṇassā parisāe suravaro payaraṇukammo<sup>294</sup> / taṃ Puṇḍarīyanāyam Goyamakahiaṃ nisāmei // 294
```

And an excellent god in the entourage of Vesamaṇa, one whose karma was diminished, heard the story of Puṇḍarīka told by Goyama.

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ghittūṇa Puṇḍarīaṃ Vagguvimāṇao so cuo saṃto |
Tuṃbavaṇe Dhaṇagirissa Ajjasunaṃdāsuo jāo || 295
```

That god having understood the story about Puṃḍarīa fell from the Vaggu heaven 295 to Tuṃbavaṇa and was born as the son 296 of the lady Sunandā, the wife of Dhaṇagiri.

²⁹¹ Compare v. 293. This epithet is also used of Mahāvīra in vv. 286 and 305.

²⁹² Cf. note 269 and Bollée 1994 s.v. For *pavvāvesīya* as the indeclinable past tense of the causative of *pavvayai* = Sanskrit *pravrajati* see Bollée s.v. *pavvåvai*.

²⁹³ A fast of four days duration.

²⁹⁴ UttNiryL: patanukammo (Hindi: alpkarmā Indra) which I follow in the translation. Bollée's reading payar'anukammo is most likely metri causa. However, payara is not listed in his glossary.

²⁹⁵ The ĀvCū describes the god's rebirth in its expansion of ĀvNiry v. 764. See Kirfel 1967: 293 and 305 for the Valgu heaven.

²⁹⁶ That is, the future teacher Vaira.

Dinne Koḍinne ya Sevāle²⁹⁷ ceva hoi taie ya | ikkikkassa ya tesim parivāro panca panca sayā || 296

There were Dinna and Koḍinna, with Sevāla the third. Each one of them had a following of five hundred.²⁹⁸

heṭṭhillāṇa cauttham majjhillāṇam tu hoi chaṭṭhaṃ tu / atthamam uvarillānam ahāro tesimo²⁹⁹ hoi // 297

A fast of four, six and eight meals characterised the eating of those on the lower, middle and higher levels of the mountain. 300

kaṃdāī saccitto³⁰¹ hiṭṭhillāṇaṃ tu hoi āhāro / bīāṇaṃ accitto taiāṇaṃ sukkasevālo³⁰² // 298

The food of those on the lower level was tubers with life forms, of those on the second level (the same) without life forms, and of those on the third level dried *sevāla*.

taṃ pāsiūna iḍḍhiṃ Goyamarisiṇo tao tivaggā³⁰³ vi / aṇagārā pavvaiā aparivārā vigayamohā // 299

Then, having seen the magic power³⁰⁴ of the sage Goyama, the leaders of the three groups took renunciation as homeless monks without any retinues of followers, free from delusion.

egassa khīrabhoyaṇaheū nāṇuppayā muṇeyavvā | egassa parīsādaṃsaṇeṇa egassa[ya] ya jiṇammi³⁰⁵ || 300

²⁹⁷ Of the three ascetic names Bollée 1994 gives only Kodinne with upper case (and in the glossary s.v. he refers to the occurrence of the name Kodinna at Utt Nijj v. 170).

²⁹⁸ UttNiryL Hindi pāmc-pāmc sau parivār. For the difficulties of this expression see below.

²⁹⁹ Read tesim o? Bollée describes -o as an emphatic suffix.

³⁰⁰ For fasts involving the fourth, sixth and eighth meals and their duration see Roth 1983: 168–169. This verse and v. 298 are not commented on by Ś.

³⁰¹ The grammar of *saccitto* and *accitto* in the second line is uncertain: the forms apparently agree with $ah\bar{a}ro$.

³⁰² For sukka used of the ascetics, see note 104.

³⁰³ Ś: trayo vargāḥ yeṣāṃ te.

³⁰⁴ Ś p. 271 l. 14–15: *tām iti pratītām eva bhagavati janghācaraṇarūpalabdhirūpām*; this is inserted after a cursory reference to UttNiry v. 295. See v. 292 for Vesamaṇa's *iḍḍhi*.

³⁰⁵ UttNiryL: egassa ya parisādamsaņeņa egassa ya jiņammi.

Knowledge³⁰⁶ arose for one brought about by milk-food,³⁰⁷ for one from witnessing the assembly of $kevalins^{308}$ and for one from reflecting upon the Jina.

```
kevaliparisam tatto vaccamtā Goyamena bhaṇiā ya | iu eva vandaha jiṇam kayakicca jiṇeṇa so bhaṇio || 301
```

Then as they are going towards the assembly of *kevalins* they were addressed by Goyama, 'Go, pay homage to the Jina'. He was told by the Jina that they had achieved their goal.

```
soūṇa taṃ arahao hiaeṇam Goyamo vi ciṃtei |
nāṇaṃ me na upajjai bhaṇio ya jiṇeṇa sa tāhe || 302
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Having heard that from the *arhat*, Goyama thought in his heart, 'Knowledge does not come about for me.' Then he was addressed by the Jina:

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cirasaṃsaṭṭhaṃ cirapariciaṃ ciram aṇugayaṃ ca me jāṇa / dehassa ya bheyammi ya duṇṇi vi tullā bhavissāmo // 303
```

Understand that you have long been familiar, long known and long associated with me. On the disappearance of your body we two will be equal. 309

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jaha manne eam aṭṭhaṃ amhe jaṇāmu khīṇasaṃsārā /
taha manne eam aṭṭhaṃ vimānavāsī vi jāṇaṃti // 304
```

Just as, in my opinion, we who have got rid of *saṃsāra* know about this goal, so, in my opinion, the gods also know about this goal.'³¹⁰

³⁰⁶ That is, the perfect knowledge which is omniscience.

Ś p. 271 ll. 18–19: *kṣīrānnabhojanam eva viśuddhādhyavasāyaviśeṣotpattinibandhanatayā hetuḥ kāraṇaṃ kṣīrabhojanahetu. Khīra* is a synonym of *pāyasa* (see section D12), but there has been no mention in the UttNiry of this being supplied to the ascetics. The suggestion seems to be that they have reflected upon the miraculous provenance of this food. Ś does not explain the other two causes.

³⁰⁸ See v. 301a.

³⁰⁹ Ś pp. 271–272 devotes as much space to explaining vv. 303–306 as to the preceding verses.

³¹⁰ See Mette 1987: 144 n. 7 for this verse being connected with *Bhagavatī Sūtra* 14.7.

jānagapuccham pucchai arahā kira Goyamam pahiyakittī / kim devāṇaṃ vayaṇaṃ gijjhaṃ āo³¹¹ jiṇavarāṇaṃ // 305

The far-famed arhat asked Goyama, it seems,³¹² who had posed a question to the one who knows, 313 'Is the word of the gods to be accepted or that of the excellent linas?'314

soūna tam bhagavao micchāyārassa so uvatthāi / tannīsāe bhayavam sīsānam dei anusitthim // 306

Having heard the word of the revered one, Goyama was eager to perform pratikramana for his incorrect behaviour.315 The revered one instructed his pupils with reference to him.316

There can be identified elements in the UttNiry version of the narrative which differentiate it from the ĀvCū and suggest an alternative provenance or transmission.317

The abruptness of the overall narrative context in vv. 284 and 285: there (a) is no mention of the members of a royal family.

Ś pp. 271–272: āto tti ārşatvād āho svit. 311

See note 286.

³¹³ UttNiryL: tab kucch jānate huē bhī bhagavān Mahāvīr ne prathitkīrti Gautam se pucchā; Ś p. 271 ll. 32–33: 'jāṇagapucchaṃ' ti jñāyakaprcchayā prcchati, na hi tasya bhagavataḥ samastavijneyavişayavijnānacakşuşah, kva cid avijnānam asti, kintu Gautamam pratibodhayann ittham upālabhate (UttNiry v. 305 is not printed in Ś's mūla). For jāṇaga, see Bollée 2002: 96-97. He notes that Leumann refers to the terms jānaka and prcchaka as being used of Buddhas and the fact that they are not used of Mahāvīra in either Buddhist or Jain literature. Bollée (p. 97 note 676) also refers to his own Studien zum Sūyagaḍa Pt. 1 (Bollée 1997) p. 75 for Sūyagaḍa 1.1.1.18 where the term jāṇayā is taken as referring to Buddhists. However, see ĀvNiry v. 1616, quoted by Balbir 1993b: 74, where jāṇaga means simply "knower".

The word of the gods must relate to the rumour about Mount Atthavaya. Ś p. 272 ll. 3-4: 314 asmadvacanatah [= v. 303] śataśo 'pi śrutān na viniścayam api vihitavān, devavacanāt tu sakrd apy ākarņitāt tatheti pratipādyāstāpadam prati prayāta ity aho te mohavijrmbhitam ity uktam bhavati.

³¹⁵ Ś p. 272 ll. 6–7: śrutvā tad upālambhavaco bhagavataļ ... mithyācārād ... pratikramitum upatişthati udyacchati. tanniśrayeti Gautamaniśrayā anuśiştim śikṣām evad [sic] bhāvārthas tu sampradāyād avaseyah.

UttNiry vv. 307-309 describe how the Jina enunciates the verse about the leaf of the 316

The Uttarādhyayana Cūrņi gives a highly abbreviated condensation of the UttNiry ver-317 sion of the story with the only noteworthy divergence being that the ascetics "end their fast with excellent food" (pāraṇagaṃ paramanneṇaṃ).

- (b) There is no parallel between Sāla, Mahāsāla etc. hurrying to join the *kevalin*s and the converted *tāpasa*s doing the same. The phrase *ma āsāehi kevalī* whose repetition structures the ĀvCū narrative is absent.
- (c) There is no reference to Goyama's failure to gain omniscience when travelling with Sāla, Mahāsāla etc.
- (d) Mahāvīra rather than the gods describes (vv. 287–290a) the qualities of Mount Aṭṭhāvaya, perhaps significant in a narrative which will provide the background to a famous sermon by the Jina.
- (e) The reference to Mount Aṭṭhāvaya's proximity to Mount Veyaḍḍha.
- (f) Goyama ascends Mount Aṭṭhāvaya before any encounter with the ascetics and without any recourse to the magical power of <code>jaṅghācaraṇa</code> (v. 291).
- (g) The three ascetic leaders and their dietary practices are not correlated in the same manner as in the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$.
- (h) There is no reference to Goyama feeding the ascetics through the supranormal power of $akkh\bar{\imath}namah\bar{a}nasiya$.

However, there are also aspects of the UttNiry version which might support the conclusion that it is a condensed and indeed occasionally inconsistent version of the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$ story, either presupposing familiarity with it or some other version lying behind it.

- (a) The reference in v. 295 to Mahāvīra not receiving homage is unexplained by reference to Goyama's rebuke and the Jina's explanation.
- (b) vv. 293 and 296 are not in a fully coherent narrative context with reference to the renunciation of Kodinna.
- (c) Goyama tells the story of Puṃḍarīa to Vesamaṇa without any explanation of its context.
- (d) The abbreviated description of the rebirth of the god in v. 295 makes no direct allusion to the Vairasāmī, only to his parents.³¹⁹
- (e) The phrase paṃcapaṃcasayā: if the repetition of paṃca is a scribal error (dittography) in the ĀvCū (perpetuated in a printed edition based on a single manuscript?), the UttNiry has taken this over, since metre would

The UttNiry version of Goyama's visit to Aṭṭhāvaya with its lack of reference to the <code>akkhīnamahāṇasiya</code> theme can be seen reflected in the <code>Vividhatīrthakalpa</code>. See Jinaprabhasūri, <code>Vividhatīrthakalpa</code> 49 (Chojnacki 1995: 101–102 and Cort 1990: 271–272 with errors) for an abbreviated version of the story: slightly incoherent in terms of the ĀvCū version (and as Chojnacki p. 102 n. 47 points out, slightly different from <code>Triṣaṣṭi</code> 10) and no reference made to the <code>tāpasas</code>' diet or their being magically fed by Goyama. See Vinayaprabha, <code>Gautam Rās v. 25</code> (in Vinayasāgar 1987) for Goyama's pilgrimage to Aṣṭāpada; general reference is made to the ascetics and Goyama's possession of <code>labdhi</code>, but no specific reference is made to <code>akkhīnamahānasiya</code>.

³¹⁹ Ś p. 277 ll. 16–17 states that the story of V is to be ascertained from the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$.

- not have allowed this particular mistake. Ś and Devendra give pamcapamcasayā. The alternative is that in this respect both versions go back to a common original.
- v. 299 refers to Goyama's *iddhi* without explanation; v. 292 has already (f) referred to the god Vesamana's *iddhi* where the term means "splendour" or "majesty".
- The reference to milk-food in v. 300 implies awareness that the ascetics (g) had requested *pāyasa* from Goyama.
- The reference to the word of the gods in v. 305 does not make sense with-(h) out knowledge of the "rumour" about Atthāvaya.

Ernst Leumann was of the opinion that the reference to Vairasāmī's previous existence as the *sāmāṇia* deity who heard Goyama preach and which provides the narrative framework for the ĀvCū narrative was taken into the Āvaśyaka commentarial corpus from the textual tradition which developed around the tenth chapter of the *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra*. According to Leumann, the ĀvNiry is not familiar with the biography of Vairasāmī; however, after UttNiry v. 295 had established a relationship between Goyama and the biography it proved possible to insert it into the Āvaśyaka tradition for completeness.³²⁰ Leumann's judgment must be viewed with respect, not to say admiration, given that at the time of his research he largely had access only to manuscripts. However, as he does not mention the ĀvCū it is not clear if he is referring to the full story found in that text or merely the material relating to Vairasāmī. I would submit that at this juncture there is not enough clearcut evidence to support the priority of either of the early narrative versions or to posit a situation of mutual borrowing.

Appendix 2: Āvaśyaka Niryukti v. 764 as Catchword Verse for the Āvaśyaka Cūrņi Narrative

The conclusion of students of the Jain commentarial tradition has generally been that the generic style of the nijjuttis is invariably telegraphic and occasionally ungrammatical and unsyntactic to the extent that the verses can only be interpreted with the aid of a commentary.³²¹ However, there can undoubtedly be identified verses in the ĀvNiry which form self-contained units of varying length and are intelligible on their own terms without commentarial aid. In the specific context of the above I would refer to the verse cluster ĀvNiry vv. 764-

³²⁰ See Leumann 2010: 77 n. 1.

³²¹ See for example, Leumann 2010: 85.

772 which represents a mini-biography of the teacher Vairasāmī who in his previous existence has been referred to twice in the ĀvCū narrative. ³²² I will proceed by giving text and translation of ĀvNiry vv. 765–772 which describe Vairasāmī's career as remarkable child, great teacher and wonder worker.

Tuṃbavaṇasaṃnivesāo niggayaṃ piusagāsam allīṇaṃ | chammāsiyaṃ chasu jayaṃ māūyasamanniyaṃ vaṃde || 764

I pay homage to the one who was reborn³²³ in a way station³²⁴ in Tumbavana,³²⁵ joined his father when six months old,³²⁶ showed restraint with regard to the six forms of life³²⁷ and was accompanied by his mother.³²⁸

³²² See sections D1 and D12 and also Leumann 2010: 77 n. 1.

Literally "emerged from ..." This is a slightly unusual expression to describe the rebirth process and the expected usage would probably involve *uvavaṇṇo*, "arisen (in the womb of the next mother)". It may reflect the slightly contracted awkwardness of the opening ĀvCū phrase (p. 390 l. 8): ... tao caittāṇaṃ Tuṃba[va]ṇasaṇṇivese Dhanagiri ṇāma gāhāvatī (effectively reproduced by H vol. 3 pp. 109–110: tato caiūṇa Avaṃtījaṇavae Tuṃbavaṇasannivese Dhaṇagirī nāma ibbhaputto), whereby the locative may not refer to the rebirth destination of the future Vairasāmī but the habitation of Dhaṇagiri his father-to-be.

³²⁴ It is unclear what sort of location is meant here by sannivesa. Böhtlingk & Roth 1852–1875 s.v. saṃniveśa renders it as "Niederlassung"; cf. Mette 1974: 43. Hoernle (Upāsakadaśāḥ Sūtra, translation p. 54) takes it in the sense of "suburb" in contrast to nayara, "city". However, Aupapātika Sūtra paragraph 69 gives sannivesa as the last of a stereotyped list of centres of habitation in what is clearly descending order of significance and permanence. Stein 1948: 13 quotes commentarial explanations which suggest that the term designates a stopping place for shepherds, cow-herds and traders; cf. Barnett 1907: 45 n. 1: a traders' or herdsmen's settlement. Cf. also Schubring 1977: 53: "Karawanen-Rastorte"; Bollée 2002: 15: "halting place for a procession" is slightly less convincing. At any rate sannivesa seems here to designate a fairly inconsequential place such as a wayside inn.

For Tumbavaṇa as modern Tumain (eastern Malwa; H adds Āvaṃtījaṇavae, 'in Avantī' i.e. Malwa;), see Bakker 2019: 310 and Flügel 2020: 24. While archaeological evidence suggests that Tumain was an ancient and significant site, Varāhamihira, Brhatsaṃhitā 14.16 does not seem to understand Tumbavana to be a town or city but a region, undoubtedly afforested as its name would suggest. Hemacandra, Sthavirāvalī 12.3b: tatra Tumbavanam iti vidyate sanniveśanam. Fynes 1998: 216 translates Sanskrit sanniveśana as the "district" called Tumbavana.

³²⁶ The Prakrit might be punctuated alternatively as <code>piusagāsa-m-allmam</code>. ĀvCū p. 390 ll. 13—391 l. 4 describes how the newly born Vaira realised that his father had renounced to become a monk. Wishing to emulate him he wailed aloud for six months to his mother's dismay until she handed him over to his father. I take <code>allma</code> in the standard Prakrit sense of "gone" rather than in the Ardhamāgadhī sense of "restrained" discussed by Yagi-Hohara 2018. See Leumann 2010: 77 fn. 1.

See $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$ p. 391 ll. 6–8 for the infant Vaira signalling to his nurses when he wished to urinate and defecate in order to avoid destroying life forms.

³²⁸ I translate māūyasamanniyam in accord with H's gloss mātrā ca samanvitam. ĀvCū p. 393

jo Gujjhaehim bālo nimamtio bhoyanena vāsamte / necchati vinīyavinao tam Vairarisim namamsāmi // 765

I salute that sage Vaira who as a boy was invited to take food by the Guhyaka gods at the end of a downpour of rain and did not accept it because he was of intense discipline.329

Ujjenīe jo Jambhagehi ānakkhiūna thuyamahio / akkhīnamahānasiyam Sīhagiripasamsiyam vamde // 766

ll. 4-5 describes how the young Vaira's mother decided to take renunciation in the wake of both her husband and her son. However, this was not a particularly noteworthy event in Vaira's youthful career as summarised by ĀvNiry compared to his mother's dramatic but futile attempt in front of an adjudicating king to prevent her son following his father into the monk's life by calling out to him three times (ĀvCū p. 392 l. 2–3: evaṃ tiṇṇi vāre vāharito na eti ...). While emendation may be unnecessary, I suggest a possible adjustment of the text to read māūyāsanniyam (or -sanniyam), "addressed by name by his mother", with sanniya as the equivalent of Sanskrit sanjñita. This form sanniya / sanniya is admittedly not found in Sheth 1963, but the citation of samjñita in Böhtlingk & Roth 1852-1875 s.v. samjñita, "genannt, heissend", suggests that such a Prakrit form is feasible. The word samjñita occurs in the Jain Sanskrit text the *Upamitibhavaprapañcakathā* of Siddharsi (pīthabandha v. 266 Motā vol. 1).

ĀvNiry v. 764 occurs as *Viśeṣāvaśyakabhāṣya* v. 2757 where Jinabhadra's reading is mātūya samaṇṇitaṃ. In the Ladnum edition of 2014 the Hindi translation of Sādhvī Muditayaśā interprets mātūya as referring to the mātṛkā, that is to say the Jain ontological triad of arising (*utpāda*), disappearance (*vyaya*) and stability (*dhrauvya*), understanding of which informed the young Vaira's restraint towards the six forms of life.

Cf. Balbir 1993a: 145. ĀvCū p. 392. ll. 7-12 describes how Vaira was with his teacher at Ujjain 329 when there is a downpour of rain. When it was over (tena amtena; H explains vāsamte by varşati sati parjanya iti gamyate, "while it was raining") the Jambhaga ("yawning") gods (see ĀvNiry v. 766) who have come to see Vaira decide to test him. Vaira does not take the alms they offer because this would breach monastic rules and he is accordingly rewarded with magic powers. For nimamtio whose sense is very near "tempted", cf. ĀvNiry v. 768a. For the possibility of a Jambhaga god earlier in the narrative see D12 and note 128. Yawning as a physical action has violent or disruptive implications in Hindu mythology; see Couture 2017: 167-184. AvNiry vv. 765-756 would appear to regard the Gujjhaa (Sanskrit Guhyaka; also called Vināyaka) gods with the Jambhaya gods as interchangeable for the purposes of its biography of Vaira, no doubt because of their shared antinomian and demonic attributes. However, a noteworthy feature of the Guhyaka gods in Hindu ritual is that they should be propitiated with food offerings by kings setting out on military expeditions; see Geslani 2018: 136-145. Such expeditions typically commence at the end of the rainy season (Sanskrit vāsānte). ĀvNiry v. 765 seems to be reversing the Guhyaka gods' role in describing them making a food offering to a Jain monk when the rain has stopped (Prakrit *vāsamte*).

I pay homage to the one who possessed the power of bestowing unfailing food and was commended by Sīhagiri, 330 he who was praised and lauded at Ujjain by the Jambhaga gods after testing him. 331

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jassa aṇunnāe vāyagattaṇe Dasapuraṃmi nayaraṃmi |
devehi kayā mahimā payānusāriṃ namaṃsāmi || 767
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I salute the possessor of the *padānusāri* attainment³³² who was worshipped by the gods when his attainment of the rank of $v\bar{a}caka$ had been approved in the city of Dasapura.³³³

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jo kannāi dhaṇeṇa a nimaṃtio juvvaṇaṃmi gihavaiṇā |
nayaraṃmi Kusumanāme taṃ Vairarisiṃ namaṃsāmi || 768
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I pay homage to that sage Vaira who in his youth was allured in the city of Kusumapura by a householder offering his daughter and wealth.³³⁴

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jeṇuddhariyā vijjā āgāsagamā Mahāparinnāo |
vaṃdāmi Ajjavairaṃ apacchimo jo suaharāṇaṃ || 769
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I pay homage to AjjaVaira who retrieved the spell for flying called $Mah\bar{a}$ -parinn \bar{a} , he who was the last of those familiar with scriptural tradition. ³³⁵

³³⁰ Cf. Balbir 1993a: 145. The first line of this verse recapitulates v. 765a; neither of these verses is identified by catchwords in the ĀvCū. H: āṇakkhiūṇa ti parīkṣya. The form, explained as < ālakṣya by Critical Prakrit Dictionary (citing this verse and Niśūtha Cūrṇi 1.8.19) must then involve l / n alternation. However, Bollée 1994: 139 s.v. āṇakkhei queries a derivation from ālakṣ.

For the superhuman attainment of *akkhīṇamahāṇasiya* see section J. Neither this nor Vaira's teacher Sīhagutta are mentioned by the ĀvCū prior to the section dealing with ĀvNiry v. 767. They are also not referred to by H.

AvCū p. 392 ll. 11–p. 393 l. 1 describes how Vaira by means of the padānusāribuddhilabdhi stabilised the text of the angas and understood everything in the pūrva scriptures. For this superhuman attainment whereby hearing a single word generates knowledge of other words, see Gough 2021: 232 n. 30 and Wiley 2012: 163 and cf. Kapadia 2000: 74.

AvCū p. 394 ll. 11–12 has a catchword for this verse but says nothing of its content. The phrase devehim katā mahimā occurs at ĀvCū p. 396 l. 11 where the context is the story alluded to in ĀvNiry v. 772. Dasapura referred to in the previous verse is in Malwa. Leumann 2010: 76 saw Dasapura as connecting a variety of early Jain figures including Vairasāmī's pupil AjjaRakkhiya. For the rank of vācaka, see Gough 2021: 75.

³³⁴ See ĀvCū pp. 395 l. 1–396 l. 1 preceded by *pratīka*s for ĀvNiry vv. 770 and 771. Kusumapura is an alternative name of Pātaliputra.

³³⁵ According to ĀvCū p. 392 ll. 11–12 the Jaṃbhaya gods gave Vaira a flying spell (ṇabhagāmiṇī

bhanai a āhimdijjā Jambuddīyam imāi vijjāe / gamtum ca mānusanagam vijjāe esa me visao // 770

He said that he would wander over the continent of Jambūdvīpa by means of that spell. Having gone to the mountain beyond the mortal world (he would stand there thinking) 'This is my sphere because of the spell'.336

bhanai a dhāreavvā na hu dāyavvā imā mae vijjā / appaddhiyā maṇuā hohiṃti ao paraṃ anne // 771

He said that he must retain this spell and not transmit it to anyone, for after this time other men will be of scanty power.³³⁷

Māhesarīu sesā Puriam nīā Huāsanagihāo / gayanayalam aivaittā Vairena mahānubhāgena // 772

Vaira of great power brought the remainder of an offering³³⁸ from the shrine of the fire god Agni flying through the sky from Maheśvarī to Purikā.339

The ĀvNiry then addresses the question posed by the ĀvCū concerning the reconfiguration of anuooga.

vijjā) after he rejected their efforts to tempt him with rich food. Mahāparinnā is the name of the lost seventh chapter of the Ācārāṅga Sūtra; see Kapadia 2000: 72. For Vairasāmī as the last to know the ten surviving Pūrva scriptures see Kapadia 2000: 68.

Verse cited by Āv Cū p. 394 l. 14 which gives only the pratīka for this verse. H: 'mānu-336 şanagam mānuşottaraparvatam tişthed iti vākyaśeşaḥ'.

The ĀvCū does not give a pratīka from this verse nor, as with H, any version of its con-337 tent.

³³⁸ H: sesa tti puṣpasamudāyalakṣaṇā.

³³⁹ See ĀvCū pp. 396 ll. 5-397 l. 1 for Vairasāmī using his supernormal power to obtain flowers from the temple of a *vyantara* deity to confound a Buddhist (*taccaniya*) king who had been preventing the Jain community in the city of Puriya from performing worship. For taccanniya / taccaṇṇiya, "Buddhist", add ĀvCū p. 396 ll. 6, 7 and 13 to the references adduced by Bollée 1994: 227 s.v. tac-can[n]i(n) (sic) and 1998 vol. 3 p. 112 s.v. tac-caniya. Āv $C\bar{u}$ seems to identify at p. 96 l. 9 the name of the vyantara deity as Hutāsaṇagiha but at l. 12 refers to Vaira going to Aggihara, "Agni's temple". Cf. H: 'Hutāśanagṛhāt' vyantaradevakulasamanvitodyānāt. H gives the narrative of Vairasāmī's aerial journey in his commentary on v. 771.

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apahutte anuogo cattāri duvāra bhāsaī ego |
puhatāṇuogakaraṇe te attha tao u vucchinnā || 773
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When there is non-separation, a single hermeneutic examination expresses all four doors of access;³⁴⁰ but when one performs a hermeneutic investigation which involves separation, these meanings of the texts are thereby separated out.³⁴¹

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deviṃdavaṃdiehi mahāṇubhāgehi Rakkhiajjehiṃ /
jugam āsajja vibhatto aṇuogo to kao cauhā // 335
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AjjaRakkhia of great power who had received homage from the mighty gods divided hermeneutic investigation into four parts having considered the prevailing temporal situation. 342

In terms of the structure of the ĀvNiry's treatment of delevopment of scriptural hermeneutics within the Jain community, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that vv. 773 and 774 follow on from v. 763³⁴³ and that vv. 764–772, which detail the main events in the teacher Vairasāmī's career, constitute an interruption, albeit coherent in its own term. ĀvNiry vv. 764–772 occur as vv. 2757–2765 in Jinabhadra's *Viśeṣāvaśyakabhāṣya* (beginning of seventh century) and similarly interrupt vv. 2755 and 2766 (= ĀvNiry v. 763 and v. 773–774). ³⁴⁴ As if to confirm this incongruity, the twelfth century commentator Hemacandra Maladhārin does not include vv. 2757–2765 in his recension of the *Viśeṣāvaśyakabhāṣya*. He claims that the "author" (*granthakāra*) of the ĀvNiry, that is to say Bhadrabāhu, impassioned by Vairasāmī's many attainments, had composed a hymn of praise (*stuti*) to him and that the overall purport of its straightforward (*sugama*) verses can be understood from H.³⁴⁵

³⁴⁰ That is, caraṇa, dharma, saṃkhyā and dravya. See section C.

³⁴¹ ĀvCū does not give a *pratīka* from this verse.

AvCū pp. 410 l. 14–411 l. 1 cursorily describes AjjaRakkhia's division of the *anuoga* into four parts as a less demanding aid for intellectually weak pupils. For the decline in scriptural transmission setting in with the passing of Vaira, see Kapadia 2000: 68.

³⁴³ See note 44.

ViĀvBh v. 2756 is a versification of ĀvCū p. 381 ll. 7–11. Alsdorf 1998: 820 claims that the *Viśeṣāvaśyakabhāṣya* as a whole is a mere versification of the prose tradition represented by the *Āvaśyaka Cūrṇi*. This view is rejected by Balbir 1993a: 71. The *Viśeṣāvaśyakabhāṣya* was written between 593 CE and 609 CE; see Mahendra Kumar's intro to Anantavīrya, *Sidhiviniścayaṭīkā* pp. 35–36, quoted by Franco 2018: 128 n. 33 (referring to the dating 609); Malvania (ViĀvBh Pt. 1 intro p. 3) regards 609 as the date of the manuscript's completion.

³⁴⁵ See ViĀvBh v. 2284 (Caturavijaya vol. 5 p. 929): tāṃ cāryavairotpattim ananyasādhā-

Hemacandra Maladhārin no doubt omitted these niryukti verses from his recension on the grounds that they did not conform to the learned and distinctly non-narrative subject matter of the Viśesāvaśyakabhāsya; he would otherwise have had no problem to Bhadrabāhu being the overall author of ĀvNiry. Whatever the reason, his judgement has certainly influenced one recent editorial decision. It has been recognised since the time of the medieval commentators that the ĀvNiry contains different textual layers of diverse authorial provenance and that there have been gradual verse accretions and interpolations, often metrically identifiable, culminating in what can be called a "vulgate" version embedded in H.346 In her recent edition of the ĀvNiry, Samanī Kusumaprajñā is more radical than earlier Indian editors of the text in identifying verses or clusters of verses which are to be regarded as interpolations, and while not omitting them completely she nonetheless relegates them to secondary status.347

The extent to which Kusumaprajñā's version of the ĀvNiry, which is much shorter than the vulgate, corresponds to an original recension must be a matter for future debate; as so often the likelihood of such an "Urfassung" may prove to be a chimera.348 What is significant is that the nine verse unit containing the biography of Vaira is a casualty of Kusumaprajñā's reediting of the ĀvNiry, as can be seen from the new enumeration assigned to what is a subunit of verse: vv. 476¹⁻⁹, with v. 476 being vulgate v. 763 and v. 477 being vulgate v. 773. Kusumaprajñā points to the discursive adjacency of vv. 476 and 477 (her renumbering), and quotes Hemacandra Maladhārin's assessment of the Vaira biography as representing a different genre. Accordingly, her conclusion

ranatadgunarañjitamānaso granthakārah stutidvārenāha "Tumbavana"ityādi etaccaritagāthāś ca sugamāḥ, mūlāvaśyakaṭīkātaś ca sabhāvārthāḥ samavaseyās tāvat ... See also Malvania ed. Pt. 2 p. 533 note 10.

See Balbir 1993a: 45 and 53. 346

See Kusumaprajñā's introduction to ĀvNiryL: 41 for the verses under discussion being 347 added as the 24th of 29 examples of interpolations within the ĀvNiry verses. For Haribhadra's identification of interpolated verses in the AvNiry see Balbir 1993a: 45 n. 39. Some 257 bhāṣya verses from the Viśeṣāvaśyakabhāṣya of Jinabhadra have been inserted into the ĀvNiry as mūlabhāsya. These bhāsya verses, however, have been omitted from Kusumaprajñā's text edition and collected in a separate section; see the introduction to ĀvNiryL vol. 2: 181-188; vol. 1: 37-42.

Kusumaprajñā's edition consists of 1093 verses as opposed to the 1623 verses of the vulgate (see Balbir 1993a: 46 and 75); Āryarakṣitavijaya's edition of the vulgate contains 1625 verses (1099 Malayagiri?). Because the verses identified as interpolations by Kusumaprajñā are assigned superscript enumeration in the new edition, use of a concordance is required to identify verses in the vulgate and other recensions. Unfortunately Kusumaprajñā only provides the necessary concordance for the first 680 verses; see vol. 1: 269-307.

is that the nine verses do not conform to the overall style $(r\bar{u}p)$ of a *niryukti* and thereby a strong case for the Vaira unit being a secondary addition to the $\bar{A}vNiry$ can be made.³⁴⁹

These verses do indeed look like an insertion within the $\bar{\text{AvNiry}}$ from the Višeṣāvašyakabhāṣya on the basis of familiarity with the narrative of the $\bar{\text{AvCu}}$, or, following Alsdorf, are possibly a summary of a lost oral version of the narrative which is given in written form in the $\bar{\text{AvCu}}$. The insertion of this biography by some redactor may have been intended to foreground the pivotal role of Vairasāmī in channelling processes of scriptural transmission and hermeneutics from Mahāvīra's disciple Goyama, which reached a transitional watershed with his pupil AjjaRakkhiya and which had otherwise been referred to by the $\bar{\text{AvNiry}}$ only in abstract terms. For our purposes it presents the likelihood that $\bar{\text{AvNiry}}$ v. 764 which provides the catchword for the $\bar{\text{AvCu}}$ narrative is an interpolation.

Appendix 3: The Āvaśyaka Cūrṇi's Version of the Story of Puṃḍarīa

At first glance it might seem reasonable to conclude that the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{v}\text{C}\bar{\text{u}}$ has incorporated verbatim the canonical story of Puṃḍarīa and his brother Kaṃḍarīa as found in the nineteenth "chapter" (ajjhayaṇa) of the $J\tilde{n}\bar{a}t\bar{a}dharmakathāḥ$ $S\bar{u}tra$. H, who largely follows the text of the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{v}\text{C}\bar{\text{u}}$, is content to abbreviate the story by means of a cursory reference to its setting and two main protagonists; his remark $jah\bar{a}$ $N\bar{a}tesu$ implies that he expects the reader to supply the text of the canonical version. However, the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{v}\text{C}\bar{\text{u}}$ version of the story of Puṃḍarīa (section D9) is in fact not a precise reiteration of the text found in the $J\tilde{n}\bar{a}t\bar{a}dharmakath\bar{a}h$ $S\bar{u}tra$, at least as established by Muni Jambūvijaya in his Jaina $\bar{\text{A}}$ gama Series edition. Leaving aside abbreviations and relatively inconsequential rewordings of stereotyped passages, 351 there are to be iden-

³⁴⁹ See Kusumaprajñā's edition of ĀvNiryL: 113 n. 18. Leumann (1934: 31b; 2010: 85) noted that the *Viśeṣāvaśyakabhāṣya's* language is much more correct and its style more intelligible than that of the old *Nijjuttis* and their *Bhāṣya* insertions.

³⁵⁰ H p. 1107 ll. 2–3: Puṇṇḍarīgiṇī nagarī Puṇṇḍarīo rāyā Kaṇṇḍarīo juvarāyā jahā Nātesu; cf. Mette 1987: 142 n. 4 and also Bruhn, introduction to Cauppannamahāpurisacariya p. 15; see also Balbir 1993a: 145. H only has in common with ĀvCū the introduction and conclusion of the story, the only portions pertinent to its theme absent from the canonical model (Nāvā 19).

³⁵¹ Mette 1987: 141 n. 3 describes the wording of the ĀvCū as being "fast identisch" referring, without giving specific examples, to the abbreviation of the stereotyped passages of the canonical version.

tified three textual deviations in the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$ version which can be understood as bearing upon the various points that Goyama is making in his sermon to Vesamana.

The first insertion occurs near the beginning of the ĀvCū's version, interrupting somewhat clumsily the following lines dealing with the renunciant career of Mahāpauma, the father of Puṃḍarīya and Kaṃḍarīya, and not otherwise making sense in context. The text of the canonical version is as follows: Mahāpaume rāyā ṇiggate, dhammam soccā Puṃḍarīyaṃ rajje ṭhavettā pavvatie, Puṃḍarīe rāyā jāte, Kaṃḍarīe juvarāyā | Mahāpaume aṇagāre coddasa puvvāiṃ ahijjai ("King Mahāpauma went forth; he heard the doctrine, established Puṃḍarīa as his successor and renounced the world. Puṃḍarīa became king and Kaṃḍarīa the crown prince. Mahāpauma as a monk studied the fourteen Pūrva scriptures"). The ĀvCū version is: Mahāpauma se Mahāpaume rāyā Puṃḍarīyaṃ rāyaṃ sā āpucchati, tae ṇam se Puṃdarīe evaṃ jahā Odāyano, ṇavaraṃ coddasa puvvāiṃ ahijjati ("Then king Mahāpauma took his leave of king Puṃḍarīa; then Puṃḍarīa as in the example of Udāyaṇa, in sum sin sum scriptures").

In the foregoing passage $jah\bar{a}$ has a function similar to $j\bar{a}va$, the standard word used in the Ardhamāgadhī sūtras to signal that "ready-made" canonical descriptions are to be inserted in a textual gap. The story of Udāyaṇa in its canonical form at $Bhagavat\bar{\iota}$ $S\bar{u}tra$ 13.6 commences with the renunciation of the aforementioned king who resolves to give his kingdom to his nephew rather than his son. The description of Udāyaṇa's entry into the Jain monastic order is not a conventional textual template of renunciation compared to that of, for example, prince Meha, which represents a much more common insertion. Which represents a much more common insertion. Which is in the fact that according to the expansion of the $Bhagavat\bar{\iota}$ $S\bar{u}tra$ narrative found later in the $A\bar{\iota}$ this particular king died from the effects of eating illicit alms, specifically curds, which had been poisoned by his nephew who was unable to abandon his negative feelings towards his uncle.

³⁵² *Nāyā* p. 348 l. 14–16.

³⁵³ ĀvCū p. 384 ll. 5-6.

³⁵⁴ This perhaps is an abbreviation of *yuvarāyā*.

For *ṇavaraṃ* see note 53 (*jaṃ navaraṃ*) and Tieken 1983: 211–212; for earlier discussion see Bollée 1994: 255 s.v. *navaraṃ* and Schubring 1978: 70 s.v. *jaṃ na-varaṃ*. The expression here seems to signal abbreviation.

³⁵⁶ See Nāyā pp. 527-557 for a list of jāva texts.

³⁵⁷ For Meha's renunciation see Gough 2021: 240 n. 20.

³⁵⁸ For the story of Udāyaṇa see ĀvCū vol. 2 pp. 36–37; and also Wu 2017.

The second textual insertion, also not found in the version of the $J\tilde{n}at\bar{a}-dharmakathah\,S\bar{u}tra$, occurs at the beginning of the description of Kaṃḍarīa's renunciation when he mounts a processional chariot to convey him to the ceremony. At this point the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$ inserts the account given at $Bhagavat\bar{\iota}\,S\bar{u}tra\,9.33$ of the renunciation of Jamāli who, according to tradition, was to become the first heretical teacher in Jainism. The description in the $Bhagavat\bar{\iota}\,S\bar{u}tra$ of Jamāli's procession in a richly caparisoned chariot to his place of renunciation is a regularly used template and in these terms there is nothing untoward about its occurrence here in the $\bar{A}vC\bar{u}$. However, as with Udāyaṇa, Jamāli is associated with the consumption of inappropriate food which leads to illness.

These inserted references to two figures of Jain history who met an unhappy end through consumption of inappropriate food suggest a pointed allusion to the conclusion of this narrative in which both protagonists succumb to the ill effects of diet, excessively rich in one case and exiguous and harsh on the other, and seem intended to intensify Goyama's version of the story of Puṃḍarīa. 361 The consumption of food may also be regarded as a significant theme in the $\bar{\text{AvCu}}$ narrative: the ascetics' self mortification, Goyama's apparent (to the ascetics and Vesamaṇa) bulkiness and his feeding of the ascetics through supranormal means.

The third modification of the canonical story by the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{v}$ Cū occurs in the course of Puṃḍarīa's attempt to dissuade his brother from becoming a Jain monk. Here the $\bar{\text{A}}\text{v}$ Cū incorporates almost verbatim a passage from the first chapter of the $J\bar{n}\bar{a}t\bar{a}dharmakath\bar{a}h\,S\bar{u}tra$ in which the parents of prince Meha describe the difficulties of the ascetic life to their son who has resolved to renounce. The passage takes the form of an account couched in similes of the harsh nature of the ascetic practices incumbent on a monk, and a delineation of the types of alms food of exiguous or forbidden nature which a monk

³⁵⁹ Bhagavatī Sūtra 9.33 for Jamāli (Amaramuni vol. 3, text pp. 462–463; trans pp. 464–465), Deleu 1970: 164 and Dundas 2006: 35 and cf. Roth 1983: 133 n. 82. See ĀvCū p, 386 l. 4 for Kamdarīa's renunciation. Note that the ĀvCū version of the story does not describe Pumdarīa handing over his brother to the Jain monks as sīsabhikkha as does Nāyā p. 350 l. 1.

³⁶⁰ See Roth 1983: 133 n. 82, including $N\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ reference.

³⁶¹ See D9e-f. Kamdarīa went to hell because of falling ill due to a surfeit of rich food, whereas Pumdarīa who fell ill in the same way because of the poor quality of food went to heaven.

³⁶² Section D9b; ĀvCū pp. 384 l. 13–386 l. 3 = $N\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ p. 349 ll. 15–16.

³⁶³ ĀvCū p. 385 ll. 2–12 = *Nāyā* pp. 47 l. 11–49 l. 8.

³⁶⁴ ĀvCū p. 385 l. 5-l. 7 = Nāyā p. 47 ll. 17-19: ahī vā egamtadiṭṭhīe khuro iva egamtadhārāe lohamayā va javā cavveyavvā vāluyākavale iva nirassāe gamgā vā mahāṇadī paḍissotam gamaṇatāe mahāsamudde iva bhuyāhiṃ duttare tikkhaṃ kamiyavvaṃ garuyaṃ laṃbeyavaṃ asidhāram vataṃ caritavvaṃ. See Mette 2010: 66.

will have to deal with or reject after renunciation.³⁶⁵ This is followed by a warning to Kamdarīa by Pumdarīa that through being habituated to ease he will not be able to endure the various afflictions and indignities of the renunciant life.366 These insertions are relevant to Goyama's disquisition to Vesamaṇa, with the second intensifying the theme of food with particular reference to what has been described as the diet of the three *tāpasas*.

Some further comment can be made. Firstly, in the Iñātādharmakathāh *Sūtra* version Meha is addressed by his parents with the expression *jāyā*, "Oh son!"367 The same expression is preserved in the ĀvCū version but used by Pumdarīa in addressing his brother.³⁶⁸ This may well be the result of carelessness on the part of the redactor of the ĀvCū rather than punctilousness about maintaining the precise wording of scripture. Some modifications can also be identified in the ĀvCū version. The Jñātādharmakathāḥ Sūtra commences the admonition by Meha's parents with a truncated version of a formula about the truth, supremacy and efficacy of the Jain doctrine which (with the terms involved assigned a different grammatical gender) is found in the Padikkamana section of the ĀvSū.³⁶⁹ The ĀvCū drastically curtails the formula while also signalling that it occurs in the *Padikkamaṇa* section.³⁷⁰ Furthermore the ĀvCū

³⁶⁵ ĀvCū p. 385 ll. 7–10 (separating out the particle i / ti where necessary) jātā! se ahākammie i vā uddesie vā missajāte i vā uddarae [Sthāna, Aup ajjhoyarae] pūtite kīe pāmicce acchejje anisatthe abhihade ti vā thatie i [Aup thaviyae; This and following not in Sthāna; Leumann Aupapātika Sūtra ed. p. 74 fn. 6: these are introduced from Nāyā 1. 144] vā ratitae ti [read ratitae i? Aup raiyae] vā kamtārabhatte i vā dubbhikkhabhatte i vā gilānabhatte i vā vaddaliyābhatte i vā pāhuṇigabhatte ivā [sic] sejjātarapiṃḍe ti vā rāyapiṃḍe ti vā mūlabhoyane ti vā kamdabho [abbreviated] phalabho [abbreviated] bīyabho [abbreviated] hariyabhoyaneti vā [Sthāna padisiddhe] bhottae vā pātae.

ĀvCū p. 385 ll. 10–12 = Nāyā p. 48 ll. 4–7 tumam ca nam jātā! suhasamucite, no ceva nam 366 duhasamucite, nalam sītam nālam unham nālam khuhā nālam pivāsā nālam corā nālam vālā ņālam damsā ālam masagā ņalam vātiyapettiyasembhiyasannivāte vivihe rogātamke uccāvae vā gāmakamtage vā bāvīsam parīsahovasagge udinne samam ahiyāsettae tti.

³⁶⁷ The Prakrit expression is the equivalent of Sanskrit jāta; for the prolated vowel in the vocative see von Hinüber 2001: 229-230. I can find no evidence for this being a form of address used between siblings.

³⁶⁸ See note 366.

³⁶⁹ Nāyā p. 47 ll. 14–16: esa ṇaṃ niggaṃthe pāvayaṇe saccae anuttarae kevaliye paḍipuṇṇe neyāuye samsuddhae sallakattane siddhimagge muttimagge nijjānamagge nivvānamagge vsavvadukkhapahīṇamagge. For the full text see JĀs ed. p. 342 Āvassayasutta 4 (Paḍikkamaṇajjhayaṇam) para 28: iṇam eva niggaṃthaṃ pāvayaṇaṃ saccaṃ anuttaraṃ kevaliyaṃ padipunnam neyawyam samsuddham sallakattanam siddhimaggam muttimaggam nijjāṇamaggaṃ nivvāṇamaggaṃ vitaham avisaṃdhiṃ savvadukkhapahīṇamaggaṃ, etthaṃ thiyā jīvā sijjhamti bujjhamti muccamti parinivvāyamti savvadukkhānam amtam karemti.

ĀvCū p. 385 ll. 4-5: niggamthe pāvayane sacce anuttare kevalie evam jahā Padikkamane jāva savvadukkhāņam amtam karenti.

inserts between the account of the difficulty of ascetic life and the delineation of the varieties of alms food an injunction that ascetic monks should avoid the eighteen forms of evil (here abbreviated to the first, taking life, and last, the thorn of false belief). 371

Acknowledgments

The sudden passing of Paul Dundas earlier this year, on 5 April 2023, at the age of 70, came as a great shock. When I embarked on my first teaching position, at the University of Edinburgh in 2005, Paul quickly became my mentor and friend. The five years we ran the Sanskrit department together at Buccleuch Place have been formative to me in many respects and will always stay with me. The publication of his final paper is my small tribute to one of the most learned and generous people I have known.

Shortly after he died, his partner, Rowan Flett, gave me a hard disk with the files from his computer, among which I found the article now published here. Paul had been working on it until the end of his life and intended it for publication, even if posthumously. I knew about its existence because he had mentioned it in our communications every now and then. In a message dated 15 July 2020 he wrote the following, after I had expressed my interest in publishing it in the *Indo-Iranian Journal*: "The Āvaśyaka Cūrṇi paper has been with me for a while now. I'm having difficulty deciding how to structure a final version, since the stuff about tāpasas is an episode in a broader narrative which requires a bit of explication. I may have to go with a slimline article, in which case when it's done I'll send it to you for comment. If it's good enough for IIJ, that would be great." Instead, the article kept on growing over the years, and the version presented here is certainly not the "slimline article" he must have had in mind when he wrote these words. There can be no doubt though that, in his modest words, "it's good enough for IIJ".

A few words are in place about the editing I have done. I have made no changes to the body of the text—which was complete—except for correcting obvious typos and making other minor adaptations. The notes on the other hand (371 in total!) required more work, as Paul had not been able to finish writing them all out, although most of them were complete. I have silently corrected and smoothened them where needed, but not introduced anything new

³⁷¹ no ya khalu kappati ... samanānam niggamthānam pānātivāe vā jāva vā micchādamsanasalle. For the eighteen evils, see Bhagavatī Sūtra 1.9 and cf. Deleu 1970: 84.

that was not there in the first place, so that the article does represent the last stage of Paul's writing. The bibliography only existed in a rudimentary state, including abbreviated notes which gave me clues to identifying the sources referred to. Being able to access the files from his computer has been a great help in tracking down the references. I have done so to the best of my ability, but I am very much aware that I may occasionally have erred or missed something. Any faults that remain are mine and mine alone, and I take full responsibility for this publication. I would like to thank Peter Flügel for checking the final version of the edited draft, and Rowan Flett for sharing Paul's files with me.

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