Studies in Dhāraṇī Literature I: Revisiting the Meaning of the Term *Dhāranī*

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Abstract The Mahāyāna Buddhist term $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ has been understood to be problematic since the mid-nineteenth century, when it was often translated as "magical phrase" or "magical formula" and was considered to be emblematic of tantric Buddhism. The situation improved in contributions by Bernhard, Lamotte and Braarvig, and the latter two suggested the translation be "memory," but this remained difficult in many environments. This paper argues that $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ is a function term denoting "codes/coding," so that the category $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ is polysemic and context-sensitive. After reviewing Western scholarship, the article discusses $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ semantic values and issues of synonymy, the early applications of mantras, the sonic/graphic background of coding in India extended into Buddhist applications, and the soteriological ideology of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ s along with some of its many varieties.

Keywords *Dhāraṇī* · Mantra · Mahāyāna · Tantric Buddhism · Coding

Abbreviations

- T *Taishō Shinshū Daizōkyō*. Takakusu Junjirō and Watanabe Kaikyoku, (Eds.), 1924–35. Tokyo: Daizōkyōkai.
- To sDe-dge canon numbers from Ui, Hakuju, et al. (Eds.) 1934. *A Complete Catalogue of the Tibetan Buddhist Canons (BKaḥ-ḥgyur and Bstan-hgyur)*. Sendai: Tôhoku Imperial University.

The Mahāyāna Buddhist term *dhāraṇī* has been understood to be problematic since the mid-nineteenth century, when it was often translated as something like "magical phrase" or "magical formula" and was considered to be

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emblematic of tantric Buddhism. Even then, there was uneasiness voiced at such a specific definition and esoteric assignment, neither of which accorded well with the values associated with *dhāraṇīs* and their position in Mahāyānist literature, which consistently represents advanced bodhisattvas as having obtained *dhāraṇī* (*dhāraṇīpratilabdha*) or entering through the method of *dhāraṇīs* (*dhāraṇīmukhapraveśa*). Most particularly, the relationship of a soteriology of *dhāraṇī* to the practice of the recitation of mantras and the memorization of texts was not well mapped out. The situation improved with later scholarship—particularly notable in contributions by Bernhard, Lamotte and Braarvig—but the question of the semantic fields, origin, use and eventual disposition of *dhāraṇīs* continue to be difficult, partially because so many of the basic texts no longer exist in any Indic language.

In distinction to the position of previous scholarship, this paper will argue that $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$ is a function term denoting "coding." Consequently, the category $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$ is polysemic and context-sensitive, capable of being applied within all the various activities so often included within the method of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$: memory, recitation, protective mantras, inspiration, summary texts, and extended Mahāyānist works. This article will first summarize the received understanding of the discipline and its problems, then examine the semantics fields of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$ as well as its various categories and significations. In the following discussion, I must beg the reader's indulgence in some measure. The complexity of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$ s in Mahāyānist circles requires that many of the questions of pragmatics associated with $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$ s—especially their social, ritual and literary values—will have to be deferred to another time. Here, I wish to limit myself to a reflection on the most important doctrinal and theoretical models associated with $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$ s.

A Short Stroll down Memory Lane: Dhāraṇī in Western Scholarship

A summary of the Western notice of *dhāraṇīs* would seem in order, given that some scholars' findings will be contested or refined in this study. Now it is curious that, for a variety of historical factors, the category of *dhāraṇīs* were to come rather late to the notice of Western scholars, even if the Buddhist use of "incantations" was cited early, as by John of Plano Carpini (1245–47). He was one of the early Franciscans on missions from either European kings or from the Pope himself, but a later missionary, William of Rubruck in 1254, noted that the Uighurs chanted what was apparently a Buddhist phrase; this he transcribed as "*Om man baccam*," and scholars have generally identified this as a form of the well-know om Mani Padme Hūm.² William noted that Mongols have copied the Uighur script and that "They make great use of

² Dawson (1955, p. 139). It is possible that an earlier notice was made by Simon of Saint-Quentin, but I do not have access to Vincent of Beauvais' *Speculum Historicale*, which includes the only surviving fragments from the Latin text of Simon's *Historia Tartarorum*; see Guzman (1971, 1974) on this material.



¹ Dawson (1955, p. 12). The observations attributed to Marco Polo appear less cogent than those written by Plano decades before; Komroff (1930, pp. 63, 141, 190).

paper and characters for their sorcery, consequently their temples are full of short sentences hanging up," which is one characteristic use of *dhāraṇīs*, but this is also done with other prayers as well. Be that as it may, by the time the Jesuit missionary Ippolito Desideri completed his *Relazione de 'viaggi all'Indie e al Thibet*, as some manuscripts are entitled, the meaning of OM MAŅI PADME HŪM had already become a topic of discussion and Desideri corrects some of the gross misunderstandings about this polysemic phrase. A

However, it was not until the British became interested in Nepal that the surviving remnants of Sanskritic Buddhist practice became investigated in any detail, and with it the categories of Sanskrit literature. Even then, the early imperial agents, such as Colonel William Kirkpatrick or Francis Buchanan Hamilton, perhaps unsurprisingly, did not mention dhāranīs specifically in their cursory discussions of religious practice.⁵ It remained for one of the most remarkable men in the nineteenth century to be the first to describe them— Brian Houghton Hodgson. Hodgson relates that he was involved with a Bajrāchārya, evidently one Amrtānanda, who in their discussions through 1826-28 provided him with extensive information about Buddhist literature of Amrtānanda's circle. In 1828, Hodgson published his initial findings, and assiduously began to collect manuscripts in Sanskrit and other Indic languages, often at great personal expense; his collection formed the basis for much of nineteenth century Buddhist studies. About *dhāranīs* in particular, Hodgson had a few scattered remarks. In his "Notices of the Languages, Literature, and Religion of Nepál and Tibet," he lists some important dhāraṇīs, and then provides a short definition: "Dháranís, though, derived from the Upadesa, are exoteric. They are short significant forms of prayer, similar to the Panchánga of the Brahmans. Whoever constantly repeats or wears [made up in little lockets] a dharīni (sic), possessed a charmed life."8 The Upadesa he references is an application of the old Buddhist literary category to esoteric literature, and he had already identified them as equivalent to tantra, except that the dhāranīs were not of restricted circulation.

The same year, he published his "Sketch of Buddhism, derived from the Bauddha Scriptures of Nepál," in which he reproduces a lengthy list of titles of Buddhist literature and includes Amṛtānanda's answer to twenty questions about Buddhist literature and practice. Question XIII asks the good Bajrāchārya about sacred writings, and Amṛtānanda responds that the Nepalese have



³ Dawson (1955, p. 140); compare Komroff, ed. Travels of Marco Polo, p. 174.

⁴ De Filippi (1937, pp. 294–296); see Jong (1974, p. 66). A useful biography of Desideri is Bargiacchi 2008.

⁵ Kirkpatrick (1811) passim; Hamilton (1819, pp. 34-36).

⁶ See Waterhouse (2004, pp. 41–43): Amṛtānanda was responsible for copying the ancient *Bud-dhacarita* ms., resulting in its partial destruction, and for filling in chapters to the text; see Johnston (1936, pp. x–xii).

⁷ See, for example, Burnouf (1844, ii–v, 1–15, 574–588); Jong (1974, p. 72), gives little credit to Hodgson, except as a source of manuscripts; that was certainly not Burnouf's testimony.

⁸ Reprinted in Hodgson (1874, p. 18, n.†).

⁹ Hodgson (1874, p. 15).

nine *Puránas*, called "the nine *Dharmas*."... Besides these Puránas, we received *Tantras* and *Dháranís* from Sákya Sinha. ... The Dháranís were extracted from the Tantras, and are similar in nature to the Guhya, or mysterious rites, of the Siva-Márgís. A Dháraní is never less than eight slokas or more than 500; in the beginning and middle of which are written the "Víja Mantra," and at the end, the "Phúl Stotra," or the Máhátmya, *i.e.*, what desire may be accomplished or what business achieved by the perusal of that Dháraní; such, for example, as obtaining children—advantage over an enemy—rain—or merely the approbation of Buddha. There are probably a thousand Dháranís. ¹⁰

In the answer to his Question XX to Amṛtānanda, Hodgson reproduces what seems actually to be his own assessment as to the real purpose of the Tantras and *dhāraṇīs*, "The Tantras and Dháranís, which ought to be read for their own salvation, they [Nepalese Buddhamārgis] read only for the increase of their stipend and from a greedy desire of money."

Burnouf worked assiduously with the manuscripts Hodgson had sent to Paris and was disturbed about the position of *dhāraṇīs* in Buddhist literature; he voiced his understanding in a manner that well sums up the problem as it still comes down to us:

I have said above that one encounters in the Tantras, the Mantras and Dhāraṇīs, or magical formulas, which constitute in the eyes of the devotees the most important parts of these books. I have not been able to discover the difference that distinguishes a Mantra from a Dhāraṇī, unless it is only that the Mantra always has appeared to me to be shorter than the Dhāraṇī, which is often quite developed.¹²

Unlike Hodgson, however, Burnouf also recognized that *dhāraṇīs* are encountered more widely than simply in the tantric corpus.

Already in comparing the simple Sūtras to the more developed Sūtras, I have said that the latter have submitted to the influence of ideas familiar to the Tantras, at least in that they have included Dhāraṇīs, or magical formulas, done to ensure the incalculable advantages to those who read the books wherein the Dhāraṇīs are found. This alliance of the Dhāraṇīs with the Mahāyāna Sūtras merits to be remarked further with more of a discussion. In the first place, Dhāraṇīs did not exist for the primitive Sūtras, where I have only recognized a single trace. That unique trace is to be found, as I have said above, in the legend of Śārdūkakarṇa, where Śākyamuni reveals to Ānanda the Mantra of six letters... In the second

¹² Burnouf (1844, p. 540), "J'ai dit plus haut qu'on rencontrait dans les Tantras des Mantras et Dhâraṇîs ou formules magiques, lesquelles constituent aux yeux de dévots une des parties les plus importantes de ces livres. Je n'ai pu découvrir la différence qui distingue un Mantra d'une Dhâraṇî, si ce n'est que le Mantra m'a toujours paru être plus court que la Dhâraṇî, laquelle est quelquefois très-développée.



¹⁰ Ibid., p. 49.

¹¹ Ibid., p. 52.

place, the presence of Dhāraṇīs in the Mahāyāna sūtras is able to be explained in two ways: Either the Dhāraṇīs are contemporaneous to the redaction of the text, or they have been introduced after they were completed. It is difficult to decide between these two hypotheses... I prefer nonetheless the former solution to the second, and I think that the Dhāranīs have not been added after the completion of the texts in which they occur.¹³

Thus, Burnouf wrestled with the same questions that others have often considered: the position of *dhāraṇīs* respective to the corpus of sūtras and tantras, but unlike Hodgson, and many since, he realized that such phrases—however they were understood and employed—belonged as much to Mahāyāna literature as to anything else. Shortly thereafter (1860), the German translation to Wassiljew's survey of Buddhism was published, and he also acknowledged that the *dhāraṇīs* were widely distributed in the sūtras, but that they foreshadowed the development of the tantras, which came after the earliest of *dhāranīs*. ¹⁴

Waddell, in an important article that moved the discussion beyond the evidence provided by previous authors, insisted on a model of a superstitious populace needing protective spells. His paper provided a working definition,

The "Dhāraṇī" I would define as a "Buddhist spell of stereotyped formulas, an exoteric device of animistic origin, adapted by the Buddhists for the purpose primarily of protecting (parittā) superstitious humanity against specific fears and dangers in the external world by the outward means to which it had long accustomed". It is the Buddhist analogue of the Mantra or secret sacrificial spell of Brahmanism, from which parent-religion it was directly derived eclectically, along with most of the other elements of Buddhism; and 'Mantra' is still occasionally used to designate the sets of cabalistic words within the larger Dhāraṇī. 15

Suffice it to say that when Winternitz revised his *History of Indian Literature* for the English language publication in Calcutta in 1927, he summed up the understanding of his day.



¹³ Burnouf (1844, pp. 541–542): Déjà en comparant les Sūtras simples au Sūtras développés, j'ai dit que ces derniers avaient subi l'influence des idées familières aux Tantras, du moins en ce qu'ils ont admis des Dhâranîs ou formules magiques, faites pour assurer des avantages incalculables à ceux qui lisent les livres où on les trouve. Cette alliance des Dhâranîs avec les Sūtras Mahâyânas mérite d'être remarquée sous plus d'un rapport. En premier lieu elle n'existe pas pour les Sūtras primatifs, où je n'en ai reconnu qu'une seule trace. Cette trace unique se trouve, ainsi que je l'ai dit plus haut, dans la légende de Çârdūla karna, où Çâkyamuni révèle à Ânanda le Mantra de six letteres...En second lieu, la présence de Dhâranîs dans les Mahâyâna sûtras peut s'expliquer de deux manières: ou bien les Dhâranîs y sont comtemporaines de la rédaction du texte, ou bien elle ont été introduites après coup. Il et bien difficile de décider entre ces deux hypothéses... Je préfère cependant la première solution à las second, et je pense que les Dhâranîs n'ont pas été ajoutées après coup dans les livres où elles ont pris place.

¹⁴ Wasslijew (1860, pp. 193–197).

¹⁵ Waddell (1912, p. 156).

The Dhāraṇīs or "Protective Spells" constitute a large and important part of Mahāyānist literature. The need for incantations, benedictions and magic spells, which was supplied in the very earliest times by the Vedic mantras, especially those of the Atharvaveda, played far too great a part in the mind of the Indian people, for Buddhism to have been able to dispense with them. We have already seen how the Buddhists of Ceylon used some of their most beautiful Suttas as Parittās or Pirits. In a similar manner the Mahāyāna Buddhists in India also transformed some of the Sūtras themselves into magic formulas. In addition to these, there were also endless invocations to the divine beings of the Buddhist and Hindu origin, so numerous in the Mahāyāna and—last, but not least the mysterious words and syllables already so popular in the sacrificial mysticism of the Yajur veda. The protective and salutary magical power of a Dhāranī is primarily due to its containing some piece of wisdom in nuce, and not to any occult mystical significance of the words and syllables, though it is true that the Dhāranīs do also include "magic words" (mantrapadāni) of this kind. 16

Winternitz was aware, in fact, of the complicated relationship between larger texts and *dhāraṇīs*, the former often containing the latter, but continued to try to demonstrate that the *dhāraṇīs* were primarily magical spells, albeit sometimes with kernels of wisdom literature found therein. For Winternitz, though, the magical spells of the *dhāraṇīs* led easily into the literature of the Mantrayāna, and he was adamant that there was not a "rigid boundry-line between the Mahāyāna and the Mantrayāna-Vajrayāna."¹⁷

Winternitz was not alone in emphasizing the Mahāyānist associations of the *dhāraṇīs*. In 1931, Arthur Waley went even further by protesting the automatic association of what he called Dhāraṇī-Buddhism with the esoteric Buddhism known in East Asia.

Just as European writers have tended to connect the practice of Dhyāna solely with the establishment of a separate Dhyāna sect, so they have also tended to connect the use of *dhāraṇī* (magic word-formulae) only with the esoteric doctrines of the Vairocana sect, which did not become established in China until so late a date as the eighth century. In fact, however, scriptures centering round the use of spells figure very largely in the lists of works translated in Chinese even as early as the second century A.D. ¹⁸

Like many writers before, Waley also connected *dhāraṇīs* with the appropriation of "pagan folk-lore" and missionary activity, as well as their meditative value as objects of contemplation.

Whether these writers acknowledge a necessary association with tantrism—and most do not—they emphasize the specific purposes, benefits, and incomprehensible nature of the "magical formulae," as they were so often called. The

¹⁸ Waley (1931, p. xiii).



¹⁶ Winternitz (1927, vol. 2, pp. 380–381).

¹⁷ Ibid., p. 389.

first major work to call into question the magical formula designation was that of Bernhard, based on work with manuscripts from Gilgit and Central Asia. Bernhard located a specific formula involving certain clearly non-Indoeuropean words: ine | $m\bar{i}$ ne | dapphe | dadapphe |. 19 He was able to show that variations on this formula had a long history in Sarvāstivāda, Vaibhāsika, Mūlasarvāstivāda, and Mahāyāna literature, including representative texts from the Abhidharma, Sūtra and the Vinaya, as well as commentaries on various works. Bernhard argued that the formula was derived from a Dravidian summary of the Four Noble Truths and reintegrated into Sanskritic ritual, whether part of a vidyā (spell), a mantra, or included in a dhāranī. Thus, while these related strings of phrases may render a Dravidian summary of the four truths, in different contexts they have been granted various genre designations, seemingly based on the community background of the classifier. And while Bernhard suggests that other dhāraṇīs may have been contracted forms (Stützen) of doctrinal phrases, he is not optimistic about extending this analysis to all the various mantras, vidyās and so forth that are encountered in Buddhist literature.²⁰

While acknowledging the efforts of previous scholars, Étienne Lamotte sought to break from the necessary association of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ with mantras in the first and fourth volume of his magnum opus, Le $Trait\acute{e}$ de la grand Vertu de Sagesse. Because $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ is a term often invoked in the $Praj\bar{n}\bar{a}p\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ literature, Lamotte sought to discover the source of its terminology by building on the Dazhi dulun (大智度論) discussion apocryphally attributed to Nāgārjuna, but probably by either Kumārajīva or one of his immediate predecessors. In this commentary, the commentator is asked what is this $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ associated with the perfection of insight? The answer is that $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ means either to support $(dh\bar{a}ran\bar{a})$ or to restrain $(vidh\bar{a}ran\bar{a})$, the former in the case of wholesome qualities leading to awakening and the latter in the unwholesome qualities. Later, in one of his lengthy notes for which he is justly famous, Lamotte puts forward his own position.

The *Treatise* returns here to the [topic of] Dhāraṇī already studied above (in vol. 1). It is not a mantra, a magical formula, properly speaking, as it is generally translated; it is in the first place the memorization of the teachings of *all* the Buddhas. That is moreover how the Tibetans and the Chinese have understood the term; the former render it with *gzung* from the root 'dzin-pa "to lay hold of, to sieze"; the latter have transcribed it by the characters *tuóluóní* 陀羅尼 or *tuóliánní* 陀憐尼 or translated it by zŏngchí 總持 "entirely retain."²²

²² Lamotte (1944–80, vol. 4, p. 1854): Le *Traité* revient ici sur la Dhāraṇī déjà étudiée plus haut. Elle n'est pas à properment parler un *mantra*, une formule magique, comme on traduit généralement; elle est au premier chef la mémorisation de enseignements de *tous* les Buddha. C'est bien ainsi que les Tibétains et les Chinois ont compris le terme: les premiers la rendent par *gzun* de la raciene *hdzin pa* «to lay hold of, to seize»; les seconds la transcrivent par les charactères *t'o-lo-ni* 陀耀尼 our *t'o-lien-ni* 陀憐尼 ou la traduisent par *tsong-tch'e* 總持 «totalement retenir».



¹⁹ Bernhard (1967, p. 149).

²⁰ Ibid., p. 165.

²¹ Dazhi dulun T.1509.25.95c3–96a1; Lamotte (1944–80, vol. 1, p.317).

Lamotte goes on to describe the differences between the $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ and another term with which it is often placed in compound, concentration ($sam\bar{a}dhi$). In doing so, he adopts the $Mah\bar{a}y\bar{a}nas\bar{\iota}tr\bar{a}lamk\bar{a}ra$'s tripartite division between weak, middling, and great dhāranī, and, at the end of this theoretical architecture, admits that $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ included mantra. However, Lamotte also argued that accomplished bodhisattvas were not supposed to use mantras, according to statements in the $Praj\bar{\imath}ap\bar{a}ramit\bar{a}$ scriptures. This use, he attributes to the apotropaic value of the Mahāyāna scriptures, but he believes this application of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\imath}$ but a secondary formulation and that the primary significance of the term is in the memorization of the scriptures.

In distinction to the Sūtras of the Tripitaka, which originally only had pedagogical value, the Mahāyānasūtras do not retain exclusively the teachings of the Buddhas, but also contain innumerable magical virtues, which assure their adherents immediate spiritual and material advantages. These are, properly speaking, the 'protections' ($paritr\bar{a}$), the 'safeguards' ($rak s\bar{a}$), the $Dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$. With an entirely natural extension of the meaning, the word $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$, initially conceived as the memorization of the teachings of the Buddhas by the bodhisattvas, here designates the sacred texts where they are consigned and which, in consideration of their marvelous effects, become an object of cultus ($p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$).²⁴

Lamotte's point seems clear. His understanding of the category <code>dhāraṇī</code> was that it began as the capacity of bodhisattvas to memorize the sūtras of the Buddhas, which had magical qualities of practical benefits for those following them. They became the object of cultic practice only when the material benefits overcame the spiritual realities. In his estimation, the intrusion of the 'little tradition' employing mantras as vehicles for popular devotionalism violated the spirit of the monastic prohibition against addiction to rites and practices (<code>śīlavrataparāmarśa</code>).

A somewhat similar approach has been taken by Jens Braarvig, whose article on *dhāraṇī* has been quite influential. Braarvig indicates that there were devotional trends along with the intellectual in the communities, but in the instance of *dhāraṇī* the primary description is concerned with the memorization of syllables. After reviewing some of the discussions found in sūtras, Braarvig sums up the problem with Lamotte's position.²⁵

²⁵ Braarvig (1985, p. 19).



²³ Lamotte (1944–80, vol. 4, p. 1862).

²⁴ Ibid., p. 1863: A la différence des Sūtra du Tripitaka qui n'ont originellement qu'une valeur didactique, les Mahāyānasūtra ne renferment pas seulement les enseignements des Buddha, mais détiennent encore d'innombrable vertus magiques qui assurent à leurs adhérants des avantages spirituels et matériels immédiats. Ce sont à proprement parler des «Protections» (paritrā), des «Sauvegardes» (rakṣā), des Dhāraṇī. Par un glissement de sens tout naturel, le mot dhāraṇī, conçu initialement comme la mémorisation des enseignements des Buddha par les Bodhisattva, désigne ici les textes sacrés où ils sont consignés et qui, eu égard à leurs effets merveilleux, deviennent un objet de culte (pūjā).

All this should point to the translation [of *dhāraṇī* as] "memory." But, as is well known, Mahāyāna literature contains volume after volume of seemingly meaningless strings of syllables, associated with *dhāraṇī*, to be recited for magical purposes. This has led buddhologists more often than not to translate *dhāraṇī* as "magical formula" or the like. This, though, does not fit well with the obvious connotation of memory.

Braarvig reviews some of these "seemingly meaningless strings of syllables," and determines that the syllables must have been considered doctrinal summaries, which provided for bodhisattvas a variety of mnemonic devices to be employed for the purposes of memorization and eloquence (pratibhāna). As Lamotte had done before, Braarvig cites a well-know four-fold stratification of dhāraṇī in the Bodhisattvabhūmi to validate this range of signification, a stratification that will be reconsidered below. Braarvig then argues that the dhāraṇī studied by Bernhard was a summary of the doctrine in a Dravidian language, and proposed that the systematic summary of doctrine we find in every tradition was represented in the Mahāyāna by the term dhāraṇī. He follows Lamotte in pointing out that the Chinese translation indicates a "summary" and "a support," so putting these together would seem a simple process. He does admit, however, that not everything employed as a dhāraṇī can sustain this meaning, and invokes the tried-and-true model of religious degradation to explain the intrusion of mantras into rhetoric and inspiration.²⁶

Most Buddhist mantras, however, especially in later times, were hardly employed as summaries of doctrine, but, rather, as aids to concentration and as magical means for protection, as, e.g., in the third and fourth $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ of the $Bodhisattvabh\bar{u}mi$, whose words have no meaning. But $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ is also in the period in question closely connected with concentration, samādhi, as is also smrti, remembrance, recollection, and $dhy\bar{a}na$, meditation. $Dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ and samādhi naturally belong together; to retain something in memory, concentration is needed, and remembrance may produce concentration. $Pratibh\bar{a}na$ [eloquence] also is associated with samādhi.

In the end, Braarvig assesses that $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{t}$ primarily denotes memory, or those mnemonics associated with memory, and is properly paired with eloquence ($pratibh\bar{a}na$). The problem of mantras is not entirely solved by him, however, and he returns to it in the conclusion.²⁷

It seems, then, that the frequently-encountered *dhāraṇī-pratilabdha* should not, at least in the early Mahāyāna context, be translated as "having attained the magical formulas" or the like. It is also improbable that the bodhisattva at an advanced stage should obtain a set of meaningless syllables, when his attainments usually count qualities and powers. It yet remains a fact that the word *dhāraṇī* often appears in titles of texts containing such formulas, closely associated with them. The



²⁶ Ibid., p. 22.

²⁷ Ibid., p. 24.

connotation of memory, keeping in mind, was probably often forgotten in later phases of Buddhism.

In this explanation, Braarvig also follows Lamotte in determining that the application of *dhāraṇīs* as something very close to magical formulae was a violation of the spirit of Mahāyānist doctrine, for which the *dhāraṇīs* were formulated. With various modifications and perhaps some reticence, Braarvig's position has been accepted by most writers following him, so much so that Braarvig recently claimed that he had "demonstrated that its primary meaning in Mahāyāna sūtra is 'memory' or 'retention'," but again was at a loss to explain its other applications. Yet even while they have argued with Braarvig, and extended the range of the discussion into later literature and even tantra in Tibet, both Gyatso and Pagel have struggled against the definition of *dhāraṇī* as illustrative of memory, and Gyatso's study in particular formulates a model of "iconic/indexical reminding" that is quite interesting and perceptive.²⁹

Some Antics Over Semantics

The valuable work done by so many scholars in Buddhist studies on this difficult problem has reflected on many of the most important definitions and citations in Buddhist literature. Nonetheless, I believe that the understanding of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ in these representations is somewhat skewed in several important ways. First there is in recent writing especially an excessive emphasis on specifically the intellective/mnemonic functions, despite the range of variation in the evidence presented. Even in the case of those, like Braarvig, who have considered evidence beyond intellective functions, it has curiously not afforded a moment to reassess the fundamental model that has been proposed. Second, this process has been effected with little consideration to the question of semantics, and, particularly, synonymy and polysemy, even though much excellent work has been done on these issues outside of the understanding of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$. Third, most of the previous perspectives speak of mantras in the context of Buddhist ritual or practice as somehow a later or degenerate usage, and do not consider contravening evidence.

Starting with our first objection, it appears that several previous scholars assess that *dhāraṇīs* began as an advanced intellectual exercise or wisdom statements, only to be either enclosed by spells (Winternitz), embedded in mnemonic aides (Lamotte) or represented as summaries of specific topics (Braarvig). While the term *dhāraṇī* is certainly used in all these applications, none of these positions individually or collectively can adequately explain *dhāraṇīs*' use in apotropaic, soteriological and devotional environments—as they acknowledge—yet these proved to be not only among their earliest but

²⁹ Gyatso, "Letter Magic: A Peircean Perspective on the Semiotics of Rdo Grub-chen's Dhāraṇī Memory," in Gyatso, ed., (1992, pp. 173–213), and Pagel (2007 a; b, pp. 22–24n25, 59–60n50, 83–89, 112–116).



²⁸ Braarvig and Pagel (2006, p. 24).

also their most important applications, and the apologia that these uses are later is in fact not substantiated.

In reality, we seldom see dhāranīs that are actually effective mnemonic devices or that summarize abstract principles, in distinction to the hundreds employed in non-intellective purposes, including many of the earliest. The Dravidian summary of the four truths identified by Bernhard is a case in point: it is not a dhāranī until it is incomprehensible to readers of the Sanskrit text. Something of the same point has been made over and over again in the *Mahāprabhāvadhāranī-sūtra, which includes the presentation of 18 incomprehensible forms of the four truths said to come from languages in other continents, and Bhavya's seventh century discussion has Mahāyānists challenged that their phrases contain words in barbarian languages.³⁰ The only early dhāranī known to me that is close to a summary is the Sanmukhadhāraṇī, which has a commentary attributed to Vasubandhu. In the prose ritual portion before the mantradhāranī, the text outlines a series of aspirations the good Mahāyānist is to voice, which include many attributes of the Buddhist path. When we get to the mantradhāranī, however, it is in accord with others of its nature: OM KSAME KSAME KSĀNATE KSĀNATE DAME DAME DĀNATE DĀNATE etc., which cannot be construed as a logical mnemonic.31

Moreover, the early <code>dhāranī</code> system did not include the phrase that was perhaps the most widely spread Indian Buddhist mnemonic phrase and summary of the doctrine of dependent origination, one that has been carved into statuary and even taken as a substitute for the relics of the Buddha himself. Sometimes called the <code>ye dharmā</code> formula in modern secondary literature, it was better known in medieval India as the <code>pratītyasamutpāda-hrdaya</code> or <code>-gāthā</code>, the aphorism of dependent origination: "All those elements that arise from a cause, including the cause of them, the Tathāgata has explained, as well as their cessation—thus has spoken the Great Ascetic." So far as I have been able to determine, it was not employed as a <code>dhāranī</code> until very late in its use; when medieval texts frame it as a mantra, they attach an om on the front and a <code>svāhā</code> at the end, in classic mantra style, for these syllables are markers of such performative, ritual speech acts.

Sometimes of the Buddha himself.

**Tathāgata has explained, as well as their cessation—thus has spoken the Great Ascetic." The second has a spoken the Great Ascetic. The second has a spoken the great

In reality, many of the instances cited to date refer to items that the *dhāraṇīs* are said to produce, but which could not have been the result of memorization, mnemonic techniques, or any other such items. How is it, for example, that *dhāraṇī* results in the realization of the entire Buddhist canon? While there are monks who, doubtless, have effected such feats of memory, it



 $^{^{30}}$ *Mahāprabhāvadhāraṇī-sūtra T. 1341.21.764c15–766c17. On Bhavya, see Kapstein (2001, p. 240).

³¹ Şanmukhadhāraṇī To. 526, fol. 54a7-b1; T. 1360.21.878a18-22. A later, more extensive outline of the path is the *Nirvikalpapraveśadhāraṇ*ī, Matsuda ed.

³² For the history of this formula, see Boucher (1991); it is not clear that the phrase was actually termed a *gāthā* as opposed to a *hṛdaya*; it is known in this latter capacity in To. 521, and referred to as such in *Pratītyasamutpādahṛdaya-vidhi-dhāraṇ*ī, To. 519–20, followed by commentarial literature, *Pratītyasamutpādahṛdaya-kalpa*, To. 3138, fol. 318a1; more recently Sander (2002).

³³ Pratītyasamutpādahṛdaya-vidhi-dhāraṇī, To. 519, fol. 40a2.

is doubtful that the actual *dhāraṇīs* in question were meant for them, since the *dhāraṇīs* invariably praise their easy quality, that the goal may be accomplished without the extensive work involved. In this regard, when one of the earliest *dhāraṇī* scriptures, the *Anantamukhanirhāra-dhāraṇī*, describes the purpose of its recitation, it is to recollect the Dharma without forgetting; this is done by reciting the lengthy *mantradhāraṇī* that yields nonconceptual recollection of the Buddha. In this regard, I believe the inherent intellectual interest scholars have had in Buddhist doctrine has misled them into reading their own focus into that of *dhāraṇīs* originators, and it is germane to note that Braarvig's 1985 discussion of *dhāraṇī* begins with observations on the intellectual milieu of Mahāyāna Buddhism.

This brings us to the second area that might be considered, that of the semantic value of glosses in the sūtras. These have often been treated as if such glosses indicated actual identity, which would be synonymy. However, there is every reason to believe that the glosses of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ provided in the sūtras merely indicate an overlap in function or denotative value. Let us consider a list from the $Aj\bar{a}ta\acute{a}trukaukrtyavinodan\bar{a}$ that has recently perplexed Braarvig and Pagels.

What is *dhāraṇī*? *Dhāraṇī* is infallible recollection, unwavering comprehension, lucid intelligence, realized discriminative understanding, knowledge how to explain the path by pointing to the thusness in all factors of existence, safeguarding the fruit after one has attained it, knowledge how to enter into flawless conduct, knowledge of the different appellations of all factors of existence.³⁶

In normative Indian writing, these would all be understood as something like approximate equivalents, sometimes identified as such under the designation paryāya. In Yogācāra writing, the term and the circumstances of equivalence received some attention. Sthiramati's explanation of paryāya, for example, indicates that there may be multiple designations for a specific reference, "equivalent' means the elucidation of a single referent with multiple terms" (paryāyo nāmaikasyārthsya bhinnaśabdaih pratyāyanam). In normal Sanskrit grammatical terms, this means that there is for one object (abhidheya) several denotations (abhidhāna). Now this is very close to the usage found in the Mahābhāsya when Patañjali discusses topics like "Jit is only to be

³⁷ *Madhyāntavibhāgatīkā* p. 38.26.



³⁴ Anantamukhanirhāra-dhāranī, T. 1011.19.680b20–c2; for a translation from the later, more developed Tibetan of this section, see Inagaki (1999, pp. 50–70).

³⁵ Braarvig (1985, p. 17), "Mahāyāna Buddhism seems to have arisen in a milieu quite sophisticated intellectually"; similarly Braarvig (1997, p. 33), "Thus Bhavya tried to defend a part of the Mahāyāna texts which was only reluctantly accepted by the intellectual elite of his time, as is also the case today: Buddhism has been appreciated as a great intellectual tradition, but it has been difficult for many people to reconcile the belief in the efficacy of mantras and magical rituals with its great intellectual achievements." The supposition appears to be that intellectual elites had a value system different from that of the ordinary Buddhist, but this remains to be demonstrated for India and elsewhere outside of post-Enlightenment Europe.

³⁶ Braarvig and Pagel (2006, p. 25), translation theirs.

employed to generate apprehension of equivalent expression" (tato vaktavyam paryāyavacanasyaiva grahaṇam bhavati), indicating a continuity of hermeneutical technique from his time to Sthiramati's. Requivalence is furthermore the topic of much of the explanatory (nirvacana, Buddhists would say nirukti) literature from the time of Yāska forward, as Kahrs has argued. However, in Buddhist usage most instances of "equivalents" or other explanatory glosses are actually overlapping in extension or intension and context-sensitive rather than precisely synonymous in the sense that we would understand. An example from the Yogācārabhūmi is instructive.

Again, the equivalents for 'seed' are element, lineage, nature, cause, wholeness, diffusion, substratum, appropriation, suffering, the basis for imputations of wholeness, the basis for egotism and these kinds of terms.

bījaparyāyḥ punar dhātur gotraṃ prakṛtir hetuḥ satkāyaḥ prapañca ālaya upādānaṃ duḥkhaṃ satkāyadṛṣṭyadhiṣṭhānam asmimānādhiṣṭhānaṃ cety evambhāgīyāḥ paryāyā veditavyāḥ ||40

One need not have an excellent education in Buddhist doctrine to surmise that none of these can be precise or even fair equivalents in the manner that we employ such terms. Here seed $(b\bar{\imath}ja)$ is explained as 'lineage' (gotra) but also identified with various forms of incorrect view and suffering, the consequence of ignorance and grasping. If we were unreflectively to equate all of these, based on the explicit statement that they are all $pary\bar{a}ya$, then we would be making the same rudimentary logical errors committed by those equating all the elements found in other ostensible lines of argument (all men are mortal; Socrates is mortal; therefore Socrates is all men). This cannot be the method to solve the problem of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\imath}s$, and the current impasse is indicative of such errors in the imputation of synonymy without considering intension and extension.

The study of synonymy has gained much ground in semantic theory over the last sixty years, yet there remains some disagreement as to the best manner in which synonymy can be ascertained. Carnap famously argued for intensional isomorphism, to which Quine responded with his formulation of cognitive syonymy, while Mates despaired of offering an adequate definition. By general agreement, however, tests of synonymity have been accepted, and that is stated by Mates, "Two expressions are synonymous in a language L if and only if they may be interchanged in each sentence in L without altering the truth value of that sentence." Others, like Malmkjær, have formulated the test in a manner of truth and falseness, "Two predicates



³⁸ Mahābhāṣya on I.1.68 (vol. 1, p. 177). On the question of the hermeneutics of meaning, see Khars 1998, 13–54.

³⁹ Kahrs (1998, pp. 152–168); Kahrs statement, p. 153, that "definitions of synonymy are hard to come by in works on theoretical linguistics and philosophy of language" is inexplicable.

⁴⁰ Yogācārabhūmi, Bhattacharya ed. pp. 26.18-19.

⁴¹ Carnap (1956, pp. 56-59); van Orman Quine (1961, pp. 20-46); Mates (1952, pp. 118-119).

⁴² Mates (1952, p. 119).

are said to be synonymous when it is logically impossible for a simple sentence, Rx, to be true while a simple sentence containing a predicate synonymous with R is false."

For our purposes, it can be said that none of the predicates offered to date for dhāranīs can satisfy these requirements, for we can easily find valid sentences that are true for dhāranīs in at least some Mahāyāna scriptures but would be false if we replaced that term with memory or discrimination or summary or magical phrase or any of the other specific terms suggested within the literature. Overwhelmingly, the contextual associations of mnemonic terms like *smrti* or *dhārana* are quite distinct from those of *dhāranī*. Thorough discussions of memory, per se, are generally found in the Abhidharma, with the Abhidharmasamuccaya's definition being a standard reference: "What is recollection? It is the non-distraction of the mind towards an object that was recollected; it has the activity of non-inattention (smṛtiḥ katamā | saṃsmṛte vastuni cetasah asampramoso 'viksepakarmikā'). 44 However, such definitions extend from *smrti's* place on the Buddhist path. As Cox has observed towards the Abhidharma contexts, "The mature description of the function of mindfulness in recollection cannot be understood except as an outcome of continual molding and adaptation of the primary sense of mindfulness as attentiveness operative in praxis.",45

Mahāyānist use generally follows in kind. *Smṛti*—in short hand for either *smṛtyupasthāna* (bases of recollection: *kāya*, *citta*, *vedanā*, *dharma*), for *smṛtyindriya* (faculty of memory), or for *samyaksmṛti* (correct recollection, number seven in the eight-fold path)—is frequently found in a copulative (*dvandva*) compound of "memory, intelligence, understanding..." (*smṛtimatigati*...sometimes with retention *dhṛti* following). ⁴⁶ In these environments, one may lose memory/mindfulness (*muṣitasmṛti*), and this is sometimes listed as a defect of a disciple. ⁴⁷ The primary exception to the meditative application is with the compound *jātismaraṇa*, recollection of previous lives, which in many texts is said to be a benefit from the recitation of *dhāraṇīs* or through other rituals rather than being either synonymous with the meaning of *dhāraṇī* or a specifically intellectual event. ⁴⁸

⁴⁸ Schopen (1983, pp. 125–127), and note that the benefit is otherwise often obtained through ritual means. Gyatso (1992, p. 203, n. 31), identifies *Abhisamayālamkāra* sources emphasizing this relationship of *dhāranīs* to the recollection of previous acts, but this is done through letters, which will be discussed below.



⁴³ Malmkjær (1995, p. 393).

⁴⁴ Abhidharmasamuccaya, p. 6; Abhidharmasamuccayabhāṣya p. 5; for a thorough discussion of memory in early Indian Buddhism, see the contributions of Jaini, Cox and Griffiths in Gyatso, ed. 1992.

⁴⁵ Cox (1992, p. 88).

⁴⁶ Some of the many examples: Samādhirāja XI.49 (Vaidya pp. 73–74), p. 79 prose, XXXI.25 (p. 193), XXXVII.48 (p. 270); Astasāhasrikā pp. 120, 183; Saddharmapundarīka XIV.34 (Kern & Nanjio p. 308), XVI.23 (p. 334); Ratnaketuparivarta p. 173.

⁴⁷ E.g., Astasāhasrikā p. 93.

In Buddhist usage, then, *smṛti* and other terms for memory generally have specific, meditative applications, as members of the noble path or as a practice associated with *śamatha*. This is quite different from the semantic fields of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$, which may have ritual and teaching applications outside of those found with respect to *smṛti* and its cognates. When $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ as a category is associated with meditative practice, it is often paired with $sam\bar{a}dhi$, as has been repeatedly noticed $(sam\bar{a}dhidh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}mukha)$. The etymology of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ is certainly from \sqrt{dhr} , which is employed with the verb $dh\bar{a}rayati$, to memorize, but the same root yields (among other terms) dharma, which is another term like $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ that is bewilderingly polysemic, as all students of Buddhism must learn to their grief. Non-Buddhist authorities considering the cognate word $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{a}$, employed in the Yogic tradition, have wrestled with its polysemic associations as well, and I have not seen any provide a simple gloss of normative memory, although the $M\bar{a}rkandeya-pur\bar{a}na$ has identified smṛti as a gloss for its mindfulness functions as one of many equivalents.

While both Lamotte and Braarvig have pointed to the Chinese translation of dhāraṇī as zŏngchí (總持), they have not reported that smṛti and other memory/mindfulness terms are almost invariably translated by nìan (念), a term sometimes employed for vitarka (conceptualization) as well. In the case of zŏngchí 總持, the better interpretation is "generally hold/support" rather than "summarize" as suggested by Braarvig, and we do not normatively see standard words for summarize (like liiè 略) or essentials (yào 要) employed in the translation of dhāraṇī. Likewise, in Tibetan dhāraṇī and smṛti are well differentiated, gzung(s) for the former and dranpa for the latter. If these terms were as close as they have been represented, then we would expect greater convergence of translation terminology at least some of the time.

This is not to say that the terms are utterly unrelated, and Braarvig has in some measure based his interpretation on the scripture most cited when $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ is identified with smrti, the Aksayamatinirdesa. Beyond the data that he has collected, we find in Mahāyāna scriptures the intermittent association of the two. The $Sam\bar{a}dhir\bar{a}ja$, for example, pairs the two as qualities for the learned,

He has extensive knowledge, and is sharp, with unlimited eloquence and pure sight.

⁵⁰ Braarvig's article was in great part stimulated by his excellent work on the scripture; Braarvig (1985, pp. 17–18), referencing *Akṣayamatinirdeśa*, Braarvig ed., vol. 1, p.148, vol. 2, p. 556. Sthiramati, in his *Sūtrālaṃkāravṛttibhāṣya*, tsi, fol. 128a2, identifies this as an important source for understanding *dhāraṇīs*; for other śāstric references to this text, see *Akṣayamatinirdeśa*, Braarvig ed., vol. 2, pp. lii–lvii.



⁴⁹ As Vyāsa glosses *Yogasūtra* III.1 as the binding of the mind, by its mere activity to the external object or in the various places: deśeşu bāhye vā viṣaye cittasya vṛttimātreṇa bandha iti dhāraṇā, while Vācaspatimiśra modifies the gloss with bandhaḥ sambandhaḥ | emphasizing relationship or connection over the binding of the mind: *Pātañjalayogadarśanam* p. 277; *Mārkaṇdeya-purāṇa* 36.35–61, 37.17–28, provides multiple meanings for *dhāraṇā* and is far too complex to discuss here, but the polysemy of *dhāraṇā* is detailed.

That scholar will always have the power of memory and of *dhāraṇī*.

Jñānu vipulu tasya bhoti tīkṣṇaṃ tatha pratibhānam ananta cakṣu śud-dhaṃ | bhaviṣyati sada tasya paṇḍitasya smṛtibalam eva ca dhāraṇībalam ca || 18.6

The *Vimalakīrti* lists them in a lengthy compound indicative of the depth of the bodhisattva's understanding,

The depth of all the oceans, \bar{A} nanda, indeed might be measured, but certainly the depth of the bodhisattvas' insight, knowledge, recollection, $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$, and eloquence is not able to be measured.

śakyo hy ānanda sarvasāgarāṇāṃ gādhaḥ pramātum \mid na tv eva śakyo bodhisatvānāṃ prajñājñānasmṛtidhāraṇīpratibhānasya gādhaḥ pramātum \mid ⁵¹

But I would also argue that such specific lists call for us to differentiate between memory and $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$, since they are treated as members of a common set rather than as synonyms. In these and other instances, terms identified in relationship would best not be conflated with each other.

Before we attempt a solution to the problem, we might acknowledge that the ingredient most refractory to *dhāraṇī* definition has been the employment of *dhāraṇīs* as mantras. The difficulty in some measure arose because many scholars have taken a position that mantras or other spells are inherently degenerate whereas Mahāyāna is exalted—as in the statements by Lamotte and others above—so the two were understood to be incompatible. In this model, *dhāraṇīs* began as mnemonic aids, only to degenerate into mantra elements when the original purpose had been forgotten or set aside for unnamed reasons, and that is how Braarvig originally framed his discussion. So overall, the position that mantras are incompatible with Mahāyāna represents a revival of the well-worn Enlightenment criticism of religion, where the original simple message is lost because of an illiterate or nefarious priesthood turning salvation into spells, either for the purposes of securing patronage from superstitious clients or to deceive credulous believers.

However, the employment of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{i}s$ as mantras cannot be so easily reduced to a collapse of authentic or original meaning, and in actuality the use of mantras is found throughout much of the canon and in post-canonical literature from a very early period, excepting most canonical Pali materials for a variety of reasons. The development of real spell traditions in the early Buddhist nikāyas is in part an extension of the well authenticated use of short texts as liturgical invocations of protection $(rak s\bar{a})$, as Skilling has shown. However, mantras also evince the intrusion, not simply of local devotional cults, but of autochthonous systems of protection and spirit manipulation for various goals. This is visible in perhaps the earliest of the Buddhist use of

⁵² Skilling (1992; 1994, pp. 625–738; 1977, pp. 63–88).



⁵¹ Vimalakīrtinirdeśa p. 103.

mantras already noticed by Burnouf, found in the Mātaṅgī-sūtra (now the beginning of the Śārdūlakarnāvadāna) where the Buddha gives Ānanda a "Sambuddha-mantra" to counteract the love-spell of a local witch (vidyādharī).⁵³ Another early Buddhist acknowledgement of magical systems speak of the power of the local spirits, and Lenz is editing a Gandharī Avadāna collection that includes a short story of a fight between tribal magic (śabarīmāyā) and high magic (indramāyā), one of many instances in which Buddhists recognized magical systems. 54 Moreover, the recently discovered Bajaur manuscript collection (1st–2nd century ce) includes a spell (vidyā) for the propitiation of a snake king named Manaspia (nagaraya-manaspia vija), and Strauch has shown its continuity with other protective texts in the canon. 55 As Cohen and others have observed, the association of Buddhism with vaksa and nāga sites was not incidental, but it was part of a locally defined Buddhist praxis, allowed monks to place themselves in the local order, and the development of mantras within the early communities was of a similar value.56

The different Vinayas preserved in Chinese are arguably our best gauge on the support of and questions about mantras within the early traditions, and the many and often curious instances of monks and nuns employing mantras are indicative of the pervasion of mantra-related practices in several of the early schools. The Vinaya authorities concerned with decorum were clearly faced with a bewildering spectrum of spells, all of which were popular with various monks and nuns newly converted to the dispensation. Some of the Vinaya decisions had to do with the use of spells to commit crimes or infractions in a peculiar manner. So, many of the Vinayas report, the question about killing through magically emanating an animal or raising from the dead a Vetāla spirit—is it still an fault of defeat (yes)?⁵⁷ If two monks turn themselves into

⁵⁷ Sarvāstivāda-vinaya T. 1435.23.8c15, killing with vetālas is still killing. Mahāsāmghika-vinaya, T.1425.22.256a18-21: vetāla-mantra means that if a monk wishes to kill someone and performs the vetāla-mantra, when he has the attitude to harm then he commits a transgression of the vinaya; if he causes the generation of fear in the person, it is a thālaccaya; if he succeeds in killing him, it is a pārājika, called *vetālamantramarana. Similarly, Mūlasarvāstivādavinaya-vibhaṅga To. 3, vol. ca, fols. 142b3-143b5; T. 1442.23.662a10-b5. Mahīšāsaka-vinaya, T.1421.22.8c24-27: if a monk summons an evil colored specter and uses it to scare someone to death, then it is a fault of defeat (pārājika). Mahīšāsaka-vinaya T.1421.22.190a10-12: there was a bhikṣuṇā who practiced the path of magic (蠱道, cf. Anshigao's trans. of Mātaṅgī-sūtra, T.551.14.89516 etc.) and wanted to kill a person, generating a serious fault (thūlaccaya: sthūlātyāya). She performed a mantra [vidhi] and to raise a dead person, wanting him to kill beings. Sarvāstivāda-vinaya T.1435.23.381b3-5: if a monk transforms his body into that of an animal by means of mantras, and then takes a human life, he is defeated if he intends to have done so.



⁵³ Śārdūlakarṇāvadāna p. 5.

⁵⁴ Lenz (2008) Dr. Lenz informed me at that time that this material will be published shortly.

⁵⁵ Strauch (2008, pp. 40–47).

⁵⁶ Cohen (1998, pp. 399–400).

animals, and have sex, or create magical animals for sexual purposes, is it still a fault of defeat (yes)?⁵⁸ If one causes delusion in another or is oneself deluded by means of mantras or medicine, and then has sex or kills someone, it is still defeat if the monk or nun had been aware of the circumstances.⁵⁹

Many of the questions have to do with forbidding monks and nuns from making a living by employing spells for the laity, or teaching them to the laity; these are usually condemned as wrong livelihood or incorrect speech. The exception to this is the employment of spells to protect from snakebite or wasps or other poisonous creatures, or from fire or flood, or to heal dental or stomach illnesses and so on. For example, in the *Dharmaguptaka-vinaya* we find the following account to do not be a stomach illnesses and so on.

The lord was staying in Jetavana in Śrāvastī. Then the group of six bhikṣuṇīs studied mantras to earn a living. The mantras were saṃdhimantras, kṣatriyamantras, vetālamantras, knowing the signs of death or the texts (क्ले) on transforming wild animals, and prognostication by bird calls from flocks. All the bhikṣuṇīs heard of this, and among them was one with few needs and satisfied (alpecchatāsaṃtuṣṭi), practiced in the ascetic practices (dhūtaguṇa), who enjoyed studying the Vinaya, and knew modesty and decorum. She scolded the six bhikṣuṇīs, "What do you say about your actions, that you have studied these mantras, up to and including prognostication by bird calls?" She spoke to all the monks, who informed the Buddha.

The Lord for this reason called together the bhikṣu samgha, and scolded the six bhikṣunīs saying, "These are that which you should not do—this is

⁶¹ *Dharmaguptaka-vinaya*, T. 1428.22.774c21-775a14 (almost exactly the same at 1428.22.754a17-b10, under *pāyantika* #117 and restated 745b11 in *pāyantika* #118). Confer *Dharmaguptaka-vinaya* T. 1428.22.960c11-15: Then the six bhikṣus recited *tīrthika* mantras employed in amulets concerned with good and bad fortune and placed in homes, *saṃdhimantras*, and *kṣatriya* mantras, and *śabara mantras, and mantras for comprehending the birth, death and fortune of men, mantras for turning back any sounds. The monks told the Buddha and he replied "It is not allowed." They taught the mantras. Buddha said, "It is not allowed." They used them to obtain livelihood. The Buddha said, "It is not allowed." Similar correct livelihood questions *Dharmaguptaka-vinaya* T. 1428.22.963b10-28, *Mahāsāmghika-vinaya* T. 1425.22.287a20-22, 531a3-b4.



⁵⁸ Sarvāstivāda-vinayamātṛkā, T. 1441.23.611b19-22: Upāli asks the Buddha about transforming oneself by drugs or by mantras into a male or female and then having sex with animals, and the Buddha indicates it is still a pārājika offense. Sarvāstivāda-vinaya T.1435.23.379a6-12: if a monk or two monks say mantras and create animal forms and have sex with them, then—assuming they intended to do so—they are defeated. Sarvāstivāda-vinayamātṛkā T. 1441.23.569c2-11, 611b26-27: having sex with animals of various genders that are created by mantras or drugs is still a pārājika if intended.

⁵⁹ Mūlasarvāstivādavinaya-vibhaṅga To. 3, vol. ca, fols. 35a6-b5; T. 1442.23.631a25-27.

⁶⁰ Mahīšāsaka-vinaya, T.1421.22.174a29-b2: monks wanted to practice various forms of prognostication; the Buddha did not allow it. Mahīšāsaka-vinaya, T.1421.22.174b2-4: monks wanted to learn mantras that confuse people; the Buddha did not allow it.

not proper deportment, not the śramanadharma, not brahmacaryā, not following that which is to be done. They are not to be accomplished! What do you say, bhiksunīs, that you studied these techniques, on up to prognostication by bird calls?" Through many innumerable means he scolded them and then said to all the bhiksus, "The nuns' many serious transgressions (āpatti) against the Vinava are in the first place defiled, so that they themselves have to come together to reaffirm the bhikṣuṇīvinaya and the ten systems of concord⁶² so that the Saddharma may endure for a long time. Now anyone who wishes to preach the Vinaya, should speak in this way, 'If one is a bhiksunī, then studying laukikasamdhimantras for the purpose of livelihood commits a pāyantika.' Here, bhiksunī is defined as above and samdhimantras is defined as above. This [hypothetical] bhiksunī practicing the samdhimantras on up to prognostication by bird calls, you will teach as a pāyantika if she understands what they are doing; if she does not understand, then it is a duskrta. This is also a duskrta for bhiksus, śiksamānās, śramaneras and śramanerikās, and thus these are all faults. That which is not a fault (anāpatti) is if one studies such mantras for the [treatment] of disease of the stomach, or to cure indigestion, or lack of digestion. If one studies books or recitation, if one studies worldly śāstras, all for the purpose of defeating the *tīrthikas*, or if one studies mantras against poisoning for one's own protection and not for the purpose of livelihood, then there is no fault.

爾時婆伽婆。 在舍衛國祇樹給孤獨園。 時六群比丘尼。 學習呪術以自活命。 呪術者。 或支節呪剎利呪。 或起尸鬼呪。 或學知死相知轉禽獸論。 卜知眾鳥音聲。 諸比丘尼聞。 中有少欲知足行頭陀樂學戒知惭愧者。 嫌責六群比丘尼言。 汝等云何。 乃學習如是諸呪術。 乃至知眾鳥音聲。 即白諸比丘。 諸比丘往白世尊。 世尊以此因緣集比丘僧。 呵責六群比丘尼言。 汝所為非。 非威儀非沙門法非淨行非隨順行。 所不應為。 云何比丘尼。 學如是諸技術。 乃至知眾鳥音聲。 以無數方便可責已告諸比丘。此比丘尼多種有漏處最初犯戒。 自今已去與比丘尼結技,集十句義乃至正法久住。 欲說戒者當如是說。 若比丘尼。 學世俗諸技術乃至知眾鳥音聲。 說而了了者波逸提。 不了了突吉羅。 比丘尼義如上。 技術者如上說。 彼比丘尼。 致治清炎, 不了了突吉羅。 比丘尼之突吉羅。 式叉摩那沙彌沙彌尼突吉羅。是謂為犯。 不犯者。 若學呪腹中虫病。 若治宿食不消。若學書學誦。 若學世論。 為伏外道故。 若學呪毒。 為自護不以為活命無犯。

Here, the exact nature of *saṃdhimantras* or *kṣatriya-mantras* is obscure, but possibly these had to do with forming alliances or contracts (*saṃdhi*) and engaging in belligerence, since they refer to worldly purposes. Similar in tension is the case of monks who were employing spells for soteriological purposes in the *Mahīśāsaka-vinaya*.

 $^{^{\}rm 62}$ $\it Dharmaguptaka\textsc{-vinaya}$, T.1428.22.570c3-7 lists the ten systems of concord.



When all the monks recited spells, they didn't eat salt and didn't sleep in a bed, but called out "Namo bhagavan!" Then they had some doubts, "Are we taking an incorrect heterodox view, accepting something outside the teacher's Dharma?" Therefore they went to ask the Buddha, who replied, "[When performing] the Dharma of mantras, do not follow its point of view [but keep a Buddhist perspective instead]." 63

有諸比丘誦呪時 。 不噉鹽不眠床上 。 稱言南無婆伽婆 。 生疑我將無隨 異見受餘師法耶 。 以是白佛 。 佛言 。 神呪法爾 。 但莫隨其見 。

These monks stand in contrast to the frequent instances in the Vinayas where the purposes of the mantras are focused on tangible benefits, whether these are within the intent of the normative Buddhist tradition or not. The mantra elements in the Vinayas may be relatively late in some Vinayas, for they are generally found in the later $p\bar{a}yantika$ rules or in appendices to the Vinayas. However, their presence in most of the received Vinayas indicates that mantra recitation was a factor in the praxis of some monks within most of the early schools.

In view of the scattered presence of mantras at many levels of Buddhist documents, attempts like Lamotte's to dissociate either Mahāyāna ritual or dhāranīs from mantras are not on solid ground. 64 His position has in fact led him into error, for he maintains that the Astasāhasrikā says a bodhisattva should not use mantras; the actual text, though, says that a non-regressing avinivartanīya-bodhisattva should not, under any circumstances, employ mantras, drugs or spells that subjugate and control women (sa yānīmāni strīṇām vaśīkaraṇāni mantrajāpyausadhividyābhaisajyādīni tāni sarvāni sarveņa sarvam na prayojayati). 65 Immediately thereafter, however, the Astasāhasrikā affirms that the avinirvartanīya-bodhisattva is skilled in mantras and spells (mantresu kovidāh vidyāsu kovidāh), which are but two items in a long list of skills to be cultivated. 66 Conversely, we see that mantras on their own or in conjunction with dhāranīs are found or referenced throughout the Mahāyānist scriptures and related texts, right from their earliest period, and Harrison has called attention to spells contained in the *Druma-kinnara-rāja-pariprcchā*. ⁶⁷ In this process, mantras seemed to have become associated with dhāranīs first as an important subset and then through synecdoche each came to stand for each other in

⁶⁷ *Druma-kinnara-rāja-paripṛcchā-sūtra*, pp. 295, 299; cf. **Mahāyānāvatāra-śāstra*, T.1634.32. 46b2-3.



⁶³ Mahīšāsaka-vinaya, T.1421.22.174c2-5; we note that the Chinese seems to indicate a Prakritic oblique case rather than the Sanskrit dative *bhagavate*. A somewhat related story about the six *bhikṣunīs* is found in *Dharmaguptaka-vinaya*, T. 1428.22.743b23-c29, where they are only allowed to recite "Namo Buddhāya" instead of evil mantras.

⁶⁴ Lamotte (1944–80, vol. 4, p.1862); he also misunderstands the potential Vinaya problems by maintaining that the use of mantras violates the prohibition against attachment to ceremonies (*śīlavrataparāmarśa*), but the actual Vinaya problems, as are illustrated above, have much more to do with right livelihood (*samyag-ājīva*).

⁶⁵ Astasāhasrikā, p. 166.

⁶⁶ Astasāhasrikā, p. 167.

many environments. We occasionally see that a *mantradhāraṇī* was an appositional compound indicating a *dhāraṇī* that was a *mantra* (*mantra eva dhāraṇī*), demonstrating the grammatical understanding of identity of reference (*samānādhikaraṇa*). This is most tellingly seen in various texts when the term "mantra words" (*mantrapadāni*) is used interchangeably with "*dhāraṇī* words" (*dhāraṇīpadāni*), and such interchangeability is a hallmark of semantic identity, as we have seen.⁶⁸

In short, the proposal that the true meanings of dhāranī initially constituted mnemonic or summation functions that were lost or degraded remains problematic. It does not take into account the reality that dhāranī scriptures with similar dhāranī parameters, ideas, functions and proposals as identified by Lamotte and Braarvig continue to be composed by Mahāyānists even during the systematic employment of mantras as dhāranīs and still after the advent of tantric Buddhism. The functions of dhāranīs cited in early Mahāvāna Sūtras are found through the lengthy works of the fourth and sixth centuries-like the *Daśacakraksitigarbha-sūtra (T.410-11), the *Mahādharmadīpadhāraṇī-sūtra (T.134) and the *Mahāprabhāvadhāraṇīsūtra (T. 1341)—through the seventh century Anantamukhapariśodhananirdeśaparivarta (T. 310(2) and To. 46) and on into the eighth century, with the Dhāranī Scripture for Protecting the Head of State (守護國界主陀羅尼經 T. 997). The continuity between these works and the earlier Mahāyānist dhāranī scriptures is remarkable, and suggests a very stable institutional structure, one that would strongly militate against the institutional amnesia that would entail forgetting that dhāranīs originally meant memory.

The Parameters of the Problem and a Potential Proposal: Coding as the Meaning of $Dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$

If we sum up the parameters required to satisfy the primary functional and ideological requirements of the class of items included in the category <code>dhāraṇī</code>, we find that they are minimally five, although others may be parsed out. <code>Dhāraṇīs</code> must be capable of being understood as vehicles (means and end) for the storage of previously experienced information, in a manner that could be interpreted as memory, whether this refers to memory of experiences in this life, in previous lives, or the "recollection" of items that had never in fact been memorized, such as mindfulness of the canon. <code>Dhāraṇīs</code> must be capable of functioning as the vehicle for the sonic power of mantras, whether these are for worldly purposes, as in the case of protection or other goals, or for

⁶⁸ This use is seen in *Bodhisattvabhūmi* p. 273.11 and 274.3; *Saddharmapuṇḍarīka* pp. 396.3, 397.2-3, 397.6, 397.9, 398.3, 399.7, 399.7, 399.9, 400.1, 401.1, 402.5, 477.1, 477.4; see also *Ratnaketuparivarta* pp. 114–117, 130–1, 135, 145, 148, 168 (*dhāraṇīmudrāpada* may be replaced with *hṛdayamudrāpada*); *Karuṇāpuṇḍarīka* vol. 2, pp. 39.1-3, 43.11, 46.16 and see the *Sarvajñatākāra-dhāraṇī* in appendix to volume two, where an alternative version of chapter two is presented. These applications appear to contradict Braarvig (1985, pp. 19–20) and Skilling (1992, p. 150, n. 3). Mantrapada is otherwise discussed Pagel (2007b, pp. 57–61).



soteriological purposes. ⁶⁹ *Dhāraṇīs* must be capable of storing and communicating scriptures, whether individual texts, or sections of the canon, or the entire canon itself, and whether this storage is understood as ontological compression or encryption or some other method. *Dhāraṇīs* must be able to speak to the deep structure of reality, so that they are events that have strong ontological claims, so much so that the universe is capable of being seen as a string of *dhāraṇīs*. These also have a soteriological component in the gnose-ology of absolute reality. Finally, *dhāraṇīs* must be ritually efficacious, for they play an important role in the rituals associated with the teaching of the Mahāyāna, the offerings to the Buddha, and other normative ritual enterprises of many Mahāyānist gatherings. This means that any value for *dhāraṇī* must be polysemic, for all of these functions must fall into the class of conditions exercised by *dhāraṇīs*, which can in turn have not a single purpose, but must be capable of exercising its functions in an environment-sensitive manner.

I believe that the best equivalent for the term dhāranī is the English language pair "code/coding," indicating both encryption signs and the system of coding/ decoding such information. Terminology associated with coding is typically polysemic, and is applied in multiple fields: information studies, genetics, mathematics, linguistics, etc. Semiotics has, in particular, investigated both simple and complex processes of coding. Eco argued that a code includes four items: a set of signals, a set of source parameters to be coded, a set of behavioral responses and a "rule [that] establishes that a given array of syntactic signals refers back to a given state" so that a source of information may communicate to a destination in a systematic manner. ⁷⁰ Eco discusses the relative primitive situation (his system-code) wherein a water level may set off one of four signals that communicate water levels and guide either the holding or the release of water at a watergate. In this model, Eco envisions a one-to-one signal to response code, so that one state of the water elicits a single response for the watergate. Even in such a simple situation, there a number of connotations for every denotation, and such codes convey several levels of cultural content in the processes: drought, flood, pragmatic responses, engineering sophistication, official support of the populace, and so on.⁷¹ He indicates that codes' open system of signification entails an "infinite semantic recursivity," meaning that each layer of signification can itself implicate further levels of meaning, so that even simple codes imply complex series of branching connotative structures.⁷²

Genetic systems represent some of the more complex coding functions available in nature, for the genetic code found in the DNA in the 46 chromosomes of the human body contain approximately three million nucleotide base pairs, each being a combination of the deoxyribose sugar, a phosphate

⁷² Eco (1976, pp. 121–125; 1984 pp. 185–188);



⁶⁹ Ratnaketuparivarta, p. 139: mahābalavegavatī sarvaśatrunivāraņī bateyan dhāranī sarvabhayavyādhiduḥsvapnadurnimittamokṣaṇī yāvad anāvaraṇajñānamahāpuṇyajñāna-samuccayānuttarajñānaniṣyandeyam dhāraṇī bhāṣitā Ⅱ

⁷⁰ Eco (1976, p. 37); compare Eco (1984, pp. 164–188).

⁷¹ Eco (1976, pp. 48–150).

group and one of four nucleobases (adenine, thymine, guanine and cytosine).⁷³ There are actually two code systems engaged by the double-helix molecule of DNA: DNA replication (creating exact replicas of itself) in mitosis and DNA translation involved in protein manufacture. In the former process, the double helix's weak hydrogen bond that holds each of the nucleotide base pairs together is split by the action of the enzyme helicase, and each of the resulting strands is replicated through complex processes, made more difficult because each strand is the mirror image of the other in inverse form (anti-parallel). Once the DNA has been replicated, cell mitosis may happen. In the case of DNA translation, the overwhelming majority of the nucleotides, about 98.5% in fact, are curiously non-coding sections of DNA, meaning that they do not engage in protein manufacture, although they are suspected of determining other functions. In the case of coding sections, the DNA is temporarily divided by a RNA polymerase, which spins off a messenger copy of the DNA, but in RNA form (single-stranded, with ribose instead of deoxyribose and uracil replacing thymine); this messenger-RNA transfers the 64, three-nucleotide codons that carry the genetic code to a complex enzyme called a ribosome, which employs other forms of RNA to create a peptide protein chain from 20 amino acids, as indicated by the genetic code. Thus, the genetic code is infinitely more complex (even in this grossly oversimplified retelling by a Buddhologist) than the kinds of codes in Eco's watergate model. Genetic codes are, moreover, natural adaptive responses to the need for complex information transfer outside of human language. In the genetic instance, the code is not just in the elements, but even more present in their arrangement, similar to the basis for the codes in cybernetic machinelanguage, composed of 0/1 alternatives in a bewildering array.

How does this satisfy the problem of dhāranīs? If dhāranīs were understood by Buddhists as the *process* of coding as well as the codes themselves, then dhāranīs would be expected to be context and function sensitive. They would be expected to compress information, expand information, be overcoded or undercoded, be supplanted or corrupted (as DNA can be corrupted). Most important for our purposes, the term coding is applicable to all the parameters listed above. Memories are encoded and decoded in the act of recall.⁷⁴ Mnemonics involve codes to stimulate memory functions, and connectionist models of memory emphasize the relationship of primitive memory nodes in association with other nodes to establish memory networks, a model similar to dhāranī functions, as we will see. Moreover, codes can represent larger files by decompression or translation, as in the case of our few genetic codes informing great varieties of polypeptides or as in the compression and decompression programs that take vast quantities of information, code it as a zip-file in a manner incomprehensible to anyone but a machine, and decompress it to render it readable for ordinary mortals.



⁷³ Garrett and Grisham (2007, pp. 88–1018), is a standard introduction to this material. Eco (1984, pp. 182–183) discusses some of this material as it pertains to protein synthesis.

⁷⁴ Melton and Martin (1972) explores this theme in detail.

In reality, dhāranīs as codes/coding can carry (\sqrt{dhr}) all of these signs (nimitta, cihna) and more, and in some manner the rhetoric of 'infinite possibilities' associated with both semiotics and genetics is replicated at the level of Buddhist *dhāranī* statements.⁷⁵ More importantly, the background culture of India has provided Buddhists a ready series of assumptions that different incomprehensible phonemes must be codes, so that the religious texts are set up with the horizon of expectations that sounds, letters, syllables and other sonic or graphic systems may be interpreted according to Mahāyānist principles. *Dhāranīs* were emblematic of Mahāyānist systems specifically because they were thick in an anthropological sense—they operated simultaneously on several cognitive and affective levels. Such presumptions allowed Indian Buddhists the assurance that complex documents can be encoded into and decoded from linguistic nodes that somehow contain the full ontology of the texts in forms that may be easily manipulated but are not logically expressive of their texts. In this model, dhāranīs are not the simple utilitarian skills of intellectuals in need of a system of textual mnemonics. Instead, dhāranīs are the presumed containers of complex—potentially infinite—meaning systems, both logical and supra-logical. They may be decoded by meditative realization of the extraordinary meaning encrypted into these non-linear forms.

Dhāranīs as the Sonic/Graphic Coding of Buddhist Sounds

It would appear that the source of *dhāraṇīs* peculiar doctrinal formulation was an amalgam of Vedic sonic theology, grammatical encoding strategies and Buddhist metaphysics coming together in the new environment of writing. The Vedic component stems from clear statements that the syllable om is the essence of all the Vedas, being the reverberation (*praṇava*) from which the scriptures arise. As the *Jaiminīya-upaṇṣad-brāhmaṇa* describes it, Prajāpati pressed speech, and eventually secured the three-fold knowledge of the Vedas.

He pressed the threefold knowledge. Of it being pressed the sap streamed forth. That became these sacred utterances: $bh\bar{u}s$, bhuvas, svar. He pressed these sacred utterances. Of them being pressed, the sap streamed forth. That became that syllable, om. ⁷⁶

Because om is the juice (*rasa*) of the Vedas, these scriptures also flow forth through it as well. As the *Chāndogya-upaniṣad* I.1.9 affirms, "The threefold knowledge operates by means of it [om]." Here, the encoding metaphor evokes the squeezing of juice from the soma plant during the Vedic sacrifices;

⁷⁶ Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa 1.23.2-7; Oertel p. 101, translation Oertel's. This discussion of the importance of OM was inspired by Padoux (1990, pp. 14–22).



⁷⁵ *Sāgaranāgarājaparipṛcchā* fol. 139b6-7: chos kyi brda'i rjes su 'jug pa'i yi ge gang yin pa de dag thams cad mi zad pa'i za ma tog gi gzungs kyi rjes su 'jug pa'i tshul gyis byang chub sem dpas yi ge de dang de rnams kyi tshul gyi dgongs pa rab tu shes te |

the Vedas are squeezed into the omjuice, so that by means of the omjuice, the Vedas operate, much as by means of the soma juice the *śrauta* sacrifice is successful. Consequently, om is the three fold knowledge itself, possesses a thousand syllables (*sahasrākṣaraṃ*) and flows out in all the worlds (*sarvān imān lokān abhivikṣarati*).⁷⁷

The Vedic system, though, makes (for Buddhists) untenable ontological claims about the relationship between the syllable om and the specific texts of the Vedas, for the former was an actual and irreducible essence of the latter. although we will see that Buddhists surreptitiously appropriate some values of this system as well. Of equal importance are the theories of representation implicit in the encoding systems of the early grammarians, who were concerned with the unfolding of understanding through the grammatical employment of meta-linguistic syllables (pratyāhāra). 78 As is well known, the grammarians had developed specific coded expressions that might indicated either sounds—as the Śiva-sūtras do—or grammatical operations, and sometimes both, as in the definition of a word (suptinantam padam) where the supendings represent all nouns and the *tin*-endings all verbs. ⁷⁹ The relationship may therefore be a one-to-one, one-to-many, or either, depending on context. There may be hierarchies of reference, as in the case of lakāra, which may mean simply the letter la or the ten verbal tenses and moods encoded with the letter la, such as lrn, lot, and so on. Such coded syllables appeared nonsensical, with peculiar sounds—knu, nit, haś, etc. —none of which referenced items in the world but instead constituted technical vocabulary to explain Sanskrit grammar. The challenge for grammarians was to justify their necessity, since Sanskrit at one time was a natural language, and critics protested that the Vedas are learned from the teacher and natural expressions from the world. Patañjali famously acknowledged this in his Mahābhāsya, but he pointed out that one benefit to learning grammar is economy of effort, "since Brāhmans must surely understand words and without grammar there is no other easy means by which word forms may be known."80 The potential for error is infinite, whereas the number of rules necessary for correct speech is finite.⁸¹ Grammatical study thus yields understanding out of proportion to its investment, so that each coded grammatical term refers to an extensive array of applications.

It would be perspicacious at this juncture to observe that in Indology there is a predisposition to arrest investigation of a topic if any early Brāhmaṇical component is located in the analysis of later religious systems. This is usually

⁸¹ Mahābhāṣya pp. 5-6, 8-9, 10, etc., mostly in the context of the protection of dharma from incorrect usages.



⁷⁷ Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa I.19.10, I.10.1.

⁷⁸ Akṣayamatinirdeśa Braarvig vol. 2, p. 32, acknowledges this relationship, which is not specifically mnemonic, but representative of efficiency in encryption.

 $^{^{79}}$ A useful introduction to the $\acute{S}iva$ - $s\bar{u}tras$ is Faddegon 1929; Cardona 1976, 1997 and 1999 are thorough and indispensable.

⁸⁰ Mahābhāṣya 1.20-21: laghvartham cādyeyam vyākaranam | brāhmanenāvaśyam śabdā jñeyā iti | na cāntarena vyākaranam laghunopāyena śabdāḥ śakyā jñātum |.

done with the unspoken affirmation that grounding a facet of the later development in a Brāhmaṇical source is sufficient to explain all attributes, based on an artificially reified representation. In this instance, it should be clear that one cannot derive *dhāraṇīs* from the Vedic and grammarians' systems alone, for all we would be left with are the relationships of om to the Vedas and the grammatical sūtras to language, not to mention that both the sacrificial and educative functions associated with these systems were almost exclusively in the hands of one group, the Brāhmaṇs. *Dhāraṇīs* represent Buddhist innovation by associating several factors—some appropriated from other sources, some original—in a new institutional setting that formed a new sociology of knowledge represented by the Mahāyānist Dharmabhāṇakas, who will be explored in another paper.

Now an adequate description of the development of dhāranīs would require more than an article (or even one book), so I can but point to some of the more salient attributes. In this, I will argue that "dhāraṇī" is most often employed in Buddhist texts as an essentialist category, indicating that complex elements or information may be encoded, encrypted or compressed into dhāranīs and subsequently decoded, decrypted or decompressed from them. Some of this use stems from the exaltation of the syllabary/alphabet as the basis for all the scriptures (understanding that in various ways) and sometimes reflects the encounter of Buddhists with non-Sanskritic language domains. Dhāraṇīs do take a page from the Vedic paradigm, but these elements are highly modified in light of Mahāyānist doctrines and atomized in the manner of the Abhidharma analysis of elements, so that they become emblematic of Buddhist metaphysical values with Brāhmanical overtones rather than the reverse. In this process, dhāranīs were employed for a spectrum of purposes, but dhāraṇī texts broadly reflect elements from either the intellectual or the propitiatory (or devotional) streams of Mahayanist life, and often combine the two.

As found in Mahāyānist texts, the classic definition of *dhāraṇī* per se is that it is a syllable/letter or word that represents the potential for unlimited, inexhaustible meaning in a concentrated form. The well-known statement in the *Pañcaviṃśatī Prajñāpāramitā* represents one standard articulation of this definition.

The *dhāraṇī*-entrances are constituted by the similarity of the method of syllables, the entrance into syllables, and the ingress by means of syllables. Which are these three? The syllable *A* is an entrance, because all dharmas are unarisen (*anutpannatva*) from the beginning [the author goes through all the syllables of the *a-ra-pa-ca-na* syllabary, attributing a quality to each syllable]. The is no employment of syllables beyond this. Why? Since there is no designation for anyone by which they would be indicated, expressed, taught, defined or seen. Thus indeed, Subhūti, all dharmas are to be understood as just like space.

This, Subhūti, is the ingress through [the entrance of] the *dhāraṇī*, the ingress through teaching the syllables *A* and so forth. Whatever, Subhūti,



bodhisattva mahāsattva will know the approach by skill in the syllables *A* and so forth, he will not be impeded with respect to any sound. Instead, he will contemplate all of them through the reality of sameness and will consequently attain skill in the knowledge of sounds (*rutajñānak-auśalya*). And, whatever bodhisattva mahāsattva will hear this syllable seal of A, etc., and, having heard it, will subsequently grasp it, bear it in mind, recite it and teach it to others, he accordingly delights them with his disposition and may expect twenty benefits. ⁸²

yaduta dhāraṇīmukhāni | yadutākṣaranayasamatākṣaramukham akṣara-praveśaḥ | katamo 'kṣaranayasamatā akṣaramukham akṣarapraveśaḥ | akāro mukhaḥ sarvadharmāṇām ādyanutpannatvāt |... nāsti ata uttari akṣaravyavahāraḥ | tat kasya hetoḥ | tathā hi na kasyacin nāmāsti yena saṃvyavahriyeta yena vābhilapyeta yena nirdiśyeta yena lakṣyeta yena paśyet | tad yathāpi nāma subhūte ākāśam evam eva sarvadharmā anugantavyāḥ | ayaṃ subhūte dhāraṇī[mukha]praveśo 'kārādyakṣaranir-deśapraveśaḥ | yaḥ kaścit subhūte bodhisattvo mahāsattvaḥ idam akārādyakṣarakauśalyapraveśaṃ jñāsyati na sa kvacit rute pratihanyate | sarvaṃ taṃ dharmatayā samādhayiṣyati rutajñānakauśalyañ ca pratilapsyate | yo hi kaścit subhūte bodhisattvo mahāsattva imām akārādyakṣaramudrāṃ śroṣyati śrutvā codgrahīṣyati dhārayiṣyati vācayiṣyati pareṣāṃ deśayiṣyati ramayati tathā santatyā tasya viṃśatir anuśamsāh pratikāmkṣitavyāh |

A similar emphasis on skill in syllables/letters, sounds or words as the *dhāraṇī* entrance is repeated in other Mahāyānist scriptures—the *Pitaputrasamāgama*, the *Dhāraṇīśvararāja*, the *Ratnacūḍaparivarta*, to mention a few—and should be considered the most fundamental form of the *dhāraṇī* question. ⁸³ If we follow our text here on the nature of *dhāraṇīs*, it is clear that here the forty-two syllables/letters of the Gāndhārī *a-ra-pa-ca-na* syllabary constitute the *dhāraṇī* entrance.

This Gāndhārī syllabary has been interpreted by Brough as if it were a mnemonic code to reveal some specific text or organization of terms, but the lack of uniformity in the lists of terms associated with these syllables belies this argument, and the lists available to date—such as those in the *Prajñāpāramitā* literature, in the *Gaṇḍavyūha*, and in the old *Lalitavistara*—do

⁸³ Pitaputrasamāgama T.310(16)373c-374a, To. 60, fol. 51b4-52b2; Dhāranīśvararāja (Mahākāruna-sūtra) T. 398.441c24-442a24 (see Akṣayamatinirdeśa Braarvig, vol. 2, p. xxvi for this scripture; see also Pagel 2007a); for the Ratnacūḍaparivarta section on dhāranī, see Akṣayamatinirdeśa Braarvig, vol. 2, pp. xcii–xciii; Bhadrakalpika To. 94, fol. 11a2-b7 (see Skilling 1996, although the folia he identifies do not match my edition). Pagel's systematic survey of related systems (2007b, pp. 18–61) demonstrates their importance.



⁸² This is from the recast *Pañcaviṃśatī Prajňāpāramitā*, Dutt pp. 212.8-10, 213.7-15; slightly corrected and interpreted with To. 3970 vol. ga, fols. 235a3-4, 236a2-5. The same passage in the unrecast *Pañcaviṃśatī* is found in the early Chinese translations: the incomplete translation by Dharmarakṣa, T. 222.8.195c18; and complete translations by Mokṣala T. 221.8.26b17; by Kumārajīva T. 223.8.256a6; and by Xuanzang T. 220.7.81c8. On the relationship between these recensions, see Lethcoe (1976) and Kimura, ed., *Pañcaviṃśati*, vol. 2–3, pp. 188–201.

not agree in their explanations of the syllables.⁸⁴ Other *dhāraṇī* syllable systems, such as the eight syllables specified in the *Anantamukhanirhāra-dhāraṇī* (*pa-la-ba-ja-ka-dha-śa-kṣa*), one of the earliest, are also attached to adventitious meanings without an integrated system, and the meanings appear to have changed with time. None of the lists of equivalents for these two syllable systems represent a standard grouping of either dharmas or general properties (*svasāmānyalakṣaṇa*), let alone other Buddhist factors in the path or models of truth.⁸⁵ Later, the sixth century **Mahādharmadīpadhāraṇī-sūtra* will provide three syllables, *a-ka-na* (阿迦那), with multiple interpretations as well.⁸⁶

Again, we see that explanations to date excessively intellectualize what appears to be a more fundamental and somewhat haphazard process in the aggregation of factors compounded into the category dhāranī. As the Lalitavistara, the Gandavyūha, and the Gandhāra carvings published by Salomon affirm, the a-ra-pa-ca-na was considered a beginning place for students to learn; in such carvings, the bodhisattva is shown with other students learning their a-ra-pa-ca-na. 87 In our highly literate societies, we appear to have lost the sense of wonder at the power of encoding sounds into syllables, so that once the letters have been learned—the door to the entire Buddhist canon is unlocked. Yet in societies in which literacy is decidedly a minority behavior (~10–12% literacy in the 1881 Indian census) the capacity to understand letters and attach them to sounds is a miraculous event, so that it becomes an "entrance" (mukha) yielding the potential for all learning, eventually leading to omniscience.⁸⁸ Thus one of the reasons for the consistent relationship of dhāraṇīs with memory and inspiration is that the capacity to understand the break-down of words into sounds, and to read from their alphabetic representations, facilitates the learning and teaching processes immeasurably, as anyone who has tried to memorize a recited list knows.

Moreover, memory is itself a process of encryption and for many learners relies on physical representations to "see" the sounds of the text and associated forms. Thus, the difficulty with the analyses to date—letters as mnemonic devices yielding specific content as the product of letters as heads of words—is that it assigns supreme importance to the words said to be

⁸⁸ Plowden (1883, pp. 229–230).



⁸⁴ Pañcavimśatī, Dutt pp. 212–213; Gandavyūha, Suzuki and Idzumi, ed., pp. 448–450; Brough (1977 pp. 86–94). Brough's statement that "in the Hua-yen (Avatamsaka) versions, as the Sanskrit text of the Gandavyūha shows, there is no attempt to illustrate the head-syllable in the esoteric explanation" (p. 86) is beside the point, for the lack of an universal practice simply validates a skepticism toward the idea of their use as a mnemonic device in the manner described.

⁸⁵ On this point see Inagaki (1987, p. 60); for the later list and explanation, Inagaki (1987, pp. 199–201, 217–225; 1999, pp. 113–115, 131–139). Pagel (2007b, p. 19) recognizes the problem but understands the solution differently.

⁸⁶ *Mahādharmadīpadhāraṇī-sūtra, T. 1340.21.695a-c10, 698b3, 717c3-718b15, 729b22-730a27, 734c23-735b22, 738a29-c13. We may suspect that this begins with the listing of *a-ka* as the two syllables of the *dhāraṇīmukha* in 666c10. The letters *a-ka-na* are also found in a mantra in the *Karunāpundarīka-sūtra*, Yamada, vol. 2, p. 44.4 and see p. 44n8.

⁸⁷ Salomon (1990, 1993).

evoked from the letters, the "unarisen" (anutpannatva) for A, etc., as we saw in the $Pa\bar{n}cavim\dot{s}at\bar{\imath}$ above. In distinction, I believe that the real message of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\imath}s$ is precisely the reverse: the syllables and their graphic signs are the essential elements. This is why the values assigned to the letters can be changed as needed, because the important elements have been retained. The process is similar to pedagogical procedures elsewhere, for when school children learn in English that "a is for apple" the purpose is not to learn 'apple' but to associate 'a' with one of its potential applications; any other word beginning with 'a' will do as well, just so long as the head letter is conserved. Consequently, it is the sonic and graphic encodings of the alphabet that are the vital content to $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\imath}$ theory, not the adventitious meanings attached to specific letters, for these provide but a framework of associations to demonstrate the potential forms of signification that may be decoded from the sounds or letters and to allow easy memorization of the syllables and their order. ⁸⁹

Eventually $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\imath}$ will be virtually identified with memory in a few scriptures, like the Aksayamatinirdesa, but this is a consequence of the supposition that letters or sounds are thick with meaning, whether understood, potential or transworldly. As the problem is laid out in the * $\bar{A}ryadesan\bar{a}vi-khy\bar{a}pana-s\bar{a}stra$ attributed to Asanga,

Now the $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$ entrance is said to be every bodhisattva's infinite $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$ entrance. It is extensively explained as in the sutras. If one wishes to summarize the characteristics of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$, it is accomplishment of the penetration of syllables (*aksaraprativedha) with reference to the body of words, sentences and sounds ($n\bar{a}mapadavyan\bar{j}anak\bar{a}ya$) according to his intellectual supremacy ($matyaiśv\bar{a}rya$). He obtains the powers of recollection and $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$ in accordance with the category under discussion. With this power of recollection, within a single letter he can illuminate, distinguish, and fully reveal every kind of object, whether indicative of defilement or purity ($sankleśavyavad\bar{a}n\bar{a}rtha$). Therefore it is termed $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{n}$ entrance.

陀羅尼門者 。 謂諸菩薩無量陀羅尼門 。 廣說如經 。 若欲略說陀羅尼相者。 謂諸菩薩成就字類通達於名句文身如意自在。 得如是種類念持之力 。 由念力故隨一字中而能顯示 。 分別開演一切種染淨之義 。 是故說名陀羅尼門。

Memory is an essential part of the $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ encoding process, but it is only one facet. Similarly, the emphasis on specific syllables and their letter signs allows the reader to stop in a place in the text, facilitating certain kinds of inspiration ($pratibh\bar{a}na$), so that $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ is closely tied with reflection on the text as well.



⁸⁹ See McCleland (2000) on 'connectionist' models of memory. Pagel (2007b, p. 24) is not convincing as an interpretation of meaning changes.

^{90 *}Āryadeśanāvikhyāpana-śāstra T. 1602.31.492c4-8.

Dhāranīs as the Coding of the Buddhist Values

In the development of dhāranī elements, three distinctly Buddhist doctrinal systems come into play. First is the ubiquitous Buddhist metaphysical predisposition to atomize and proliferate phenomena, most concretely in the instance of dharmas—our dhāranī cognates—in the Abhidharma system. In the case of dhāranīs, that means that the elements of the syllabary may be replaced easily by other syllables, by sounds, by words, by strings of syllables, or by entire texts, for encryption may be infinite. Such an interpenetration is possible, because of the Mahāvānist emphasis on interdependence, a doctrine common to all its schools. This means that every element of reality is interdependent with all other elements of reality, and each is dependent on the other in some measure. Second, the content of this interdependence is expressed as the dharmas leading to awakening, in their formal organization in the Buddhist texts. Finally, this freedom is found in the relationship of scripture to reality, for Mahāyānists maintain that reality itself is encoded with truth and therefore can be the source of scripture. Dhāranīs operated as the essential intermediary coded nodes processing information between dharmas, sounds, Buddhist elements and Buddhist scriptures.

Buddhist literature closely supports the model that the *dhāraṇīs* constitute a specific moment in the teaching of the metaphysical interpenetration of all elements, for encoded in each *dhāraṇī* are other elements of reality and their relationship is interdependent. The Vedic system contributed the affirmation that such encoding would necessarily be sonic in nature and could have both transcendental and temporal benefits. *Dhāraṇīs* atomize this idea by affirming that one letter is in all letters and all letters are in one letter, as some Mahāyānist literature declares. Whereas the Vedic system relentlessly emphasizes om at the head of all the mantras, and the grammarians were necessarily tied to their specific grammatical terminology, the Buddhists might freely juggle any number of elements. The *Śatasāhasrikā*, for example, discusses the *dhāraṇī* method of all the letters (*sarvākṣra-dhāraṇīmukha),

Again, you should study well that all the languages enter into a single syllable, or two syllables... up to incalculable syllables as dominion of implication (* $\bar{a}k\bar{s}epai\acute{s}v\bar{a}rya$). Again, you should study well that in one syllable there is subsumed every syllable and in every syllable there is one syllable. This is the dominion of implication. ⁹²

又應善學一切語言。皆入一字。或入二字。。。至無數引發自在。又應善學於一字中攝一切字。一切字中攝於一字。引發自在。

The idea is that no syllable exists in its own being, but all syllables implicate each other and, in turn, all languages. The bodhisattva is specifically to train in

⁹² Śatasāhasrikā-Prajñāpāramitā, T. 220.6.969b19-25,



⁹¹ E.g., *Pañcaviṃśatī-Prajñāpāramitā* T. 220.7.378b12-22, 727c20-728a1, T.221.8.128b20-27.

the practice of perceiving one syllable in all the syllables and vice versa, as the $Pa\tilde{n}cavim\hat{s}at\bar{\iota}$ enjoins,

You should understand, Subhūti, that the bodhisattva mahāsattva is skilled in contemplating forty-two syllables in one syllable and is skilled in contemplating one syllable in forty-two syllables. Having cultivated the skillfulness in the consummation of syllables, he becomes one skilled in the consummation of syllables.⁹³

sa khalu punaḥ subhūte bodhisattvo mahāsattvo dvācatvāriṃśadakṣarāṇy ekasminn akṣare kuśalo bhāvayati | ekākṣaraṃ dvācatvāriṃśadakṣareṣu kuśalo bhāvayati | akṣarābhinirhārakauśalaṃ bhāvayitvākṣarābhinirhārakuśalo bhavati |

The doctrinal structure thereby affirms the mutual interpenetration of syllables, and this is the *dhāraṇīmukha* of those elements.

 $Dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ doctrines also built on the widely held Mahāyānist claim that to hear even one verse or one syllable of a scripture is to obtain the benefits of the scripture, although we find seeds of this in the earlier canon. He has regard, the grammarians contributed the expectation that any and every apparently nonsense syllable could be an encoded key to an extraordinary wealth of speech acts, whether those protecting monks from venomous snakes or those assisting the generation of highest awakening. Moreover, like grammar, the $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}s$ were said to yield great benefit for less effort than if one were to memorize either the Buddhist scriptures as a whole or attempt to assuage one-by-one the infinite number of errors possible in the world. In both the grammatical and the Buddhist application, the emphasis was on the ease of the method $(lagh\bar{\iota}p\bar{a}ya)$.

All such functions are basic or essential to the process of learning, so that the learning of the canon inheres in the letters of the *dhāraṇīs*, both in an intellectual and in a metaphysical sense. Consequently, in many applications (not just those emphasizing letters), *dhāraṇī* is extended to indicate the "fundamentals," "essentials," or "basics" of the Buddhist program, whether memorization, lists of doctrines or ritual programs. These are encoded in specific sonic forms, so that skill in all the sounds (*sarvarutakauśalya*) is emblematic of the basic system of *dhāraṇīs*. Once reflection on the sounds of the *dhāraṇī* has been mastered, the unlimited expanse of the Buddha's teaching may be accomplished, and so *dhāraṇīs* are often said to lead to a series of soteriological events because they encompass all the Buddhadharmas. After providing the *mantradhāraṇī* entrance of omniscience towards all forms, the *Karuṇāpuṇḍarīka-sūtra* lists the succeeding stages of the bodhisattva's career,

⁹⁴ Vajracchedikā-Prajñāpāramitā, Conze § 32a; Samghāṭadharmaparyāya <94>; Saddharmapu-ndarīka pp. 224.8, 225.4-10;



⁹³ Pañcaviṃśati, Kimura ed., vols. 6–8, p. 68.

O son of good family, the bodhisattva mahāsattva who cultivates this ingress into the $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ entrance of omniscience towards all forms obtains 8,400,000 $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ entrances, 72,000 $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ entrances and 60,000 samādhi entrances. The bodhisattva mahāsattva who has obtained this $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ attains great loving kindness and great compassion. For the attainment of just that concentration, the bodhisattva mahāsattva awakens to the 37 branches of awakening and attains omniscient gnosis. 95

imam kulaputra sarvajñatākāradhāraṇīmukhapraveśam bodhisattvo mahāsattvo bhāvayamānaś caturaśītidhāraṇīmukhaśatasahasrāṇi pratilabhate, dvāsaptatiś ca dhāraṇīmukhasahasrāṇi pratilabhate, ṣaṣṭiṃ ca samādhimukhasahasrāṇi pratilabhate | imāṃ ca dhāraṇīm pratilabdho bodhisattvo mahāsattvo mahāmaitrīṃ pratilabhate mahākaruṇāṃ pratilabhate | kevalam asya samādheḥ pratilābhāya bodhisattvo mahāsattvaḥ saptatriṃśadbodhipakṣān dharmān avabudhyate sarvajñajñānaṃ ca pratilabhate |

The encoded content of the *dhāraṇīs*, irrespective of their appearance as syllables, is the buddhadharmas leading to awakening and ultimately the scriptures themselves. At this point, the *Karuṇāpuṇḍarīka* even makes the extraordinary claim that all the buddhadharmas are the very "own being" of its *dhāraṇī*, and that Buddhas obtain awakening based on their understanding of these letters.

In it [the *sarvajñatākāradhāraṇī*] is encapsulated all the buddhadharmas. The Lord Buddhas, having awakened to this *dhāraṇī* in its *svabhāva*, teach all beings the Dharma but do not pass into nirvāṇa too quickly.

iha ca sakalabuddhadharmāṇāṃ parigrahaḥ | imāṃ ca dhāraṇīṃ svabhāvena buddhvā buddhā bhagavantaḥ sattvānāṃ dharmaṃ deśayanti na cātikṣipram parinirvāyanti |

Accordingly, the factors of awakening lead to the entire potential canon of the Buddha's word, since the buddhadharmas operate as nodes of realization that ultimately yield the entire expression of the Buddha's word. The *Mahādharmadīpadhāraṇīsūtra explains that the fundamental soteriological process produces the literary events as the accomplishment of the dhār-aṇīmukha by invoking ecological images through punning on the cognate word earth (dharaṇī), which acts as the support (saṃdhāra) or container (bhājana) for beings.

Thus this great earth establishes and generates every kind of gem and is just able to act as their container. Again, it is able to generate every kind of medicinal herb, plants and trees, groves of trees, flowers and fruit, and can support them all. Again it generates every hill and great mountain, all lakes and rivers as far as the great ocean, and can support them all.

⁹⁵ Karuṇāpuṇḍarīka vol. 2, pp. 27.16-28.5; Karuṇāpuṇḍarīka vol. 2, p. 30.9 declares that all the bodhisattvapiṭaka is taught in this dhāraṇī: atra sākalyena bodhisattvapiṭakam upadiṣṭam.



Again, it is able to have the four kinds of birth (viviparous, oviparous, etc.), biped and quadruped creatures, humans, deer, birds and wild beasts; it supports and is the container for all of these. This $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ is like that, all you Mānavas. And as for the term "entrance" (mukha), it is exactly the Tathāgata. This entrance into the Tathāgata's treasure generates all the inconceivable treasure of the gem of the Dharma. Thus, O Mānava, this $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$, the entrance into the True Dharma, generates all the sūtras, all statements ($v\bar{a}kya$), all distinctions of meaning, all the perfections, and thus it is termed an entrance. O Mānava, again, this $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ is entirely able to support every kind of teaching, that is the reason it is call earth ($dharan\bar{\iota}$).

如此大地建立出生一切眾寶即能任持。 又能出生一切藥草卉木樹林花果種類。 悉皆任持。 又出一切小山大山諸池河水乃至大海悉能任持。 又亦能有四生之類二足四足人鹿鳥獸亦皆任持。此陀羅尼亦復如是。 諸摩那婆。 所言門者。 即是如來。 如來藏門出生一切諸法寶藏不可思議。如是摩那婆。 此陀羅尼妙法門中出生一切諸修多羅。 一切章句。 一切分別義。 一切諸波羅蜜。 故名為門。 摩那婆。 又陀羅尼者。 悉能任持一切法故。 亦名為地。

Since all the teachings extend from the penetration into the syllable *A*—the encrypted source for all syllables—all the teachings (the 37 branches of awakening, the 12 members of dependant origination, etc.) are conversely found therein, and the penetration into *dhāraṇī* means the penetration into sound and vocal ability as well. ⁹⁷ The **Mahādharmadīpadhāraṇīsūtra* later likens this to the action of the great Nāgarāja Anavatapta:

All the means of verbal action and the sonic forms of language—though such techniques as the arrangement of letters, exalted, extensive or summary expressions, etc. —each of these arises from within the texts of the treasury of letters (*mātṛkakośa), which are at the head [of the letters' arrangement]. It is this *mātṛkakośa that is aggregated. All Mānavas! For example, the Nāgarāja Anavatapta, in the instant of the snap of your fingers, is able to generate a cloud entirely covering 7000 yojanas, one that sends down rain everywhere in Jambudvīpa. And the lake wherein the Nāgarāja resides (Anavatapta by Kailāśa), sends out the four kinds of streams into the four directions entering the four oceans. 98

諸是口業方便語言音聲。 及以文字麁妙寬略說等。 一切皆從摩得勒伽藏字本中生。 字本為首。 即是摩得勒伽藏之所攝也。 諸摩那婆。 譬如阿那婆達多龍王能於一彈指間興雲普覆七千由旬降微細雨遍閻浮提。 又如彼龍所住大池出四種河。 周流四方。 入於四海。



⁹⁶ *Mahādharmadīpadhāraṇīsūtra, T. 1340.21.662a21-b2; Ratnaketuparivarta, p. 173.7, also employs dharaṇi (earth) in its discussion.

⁹⁷ Among the many sources affirming this, the *Mahāyānāvatāra attributed to *Dṛḍhamati, T. 1634.32.39a26-27.

^{98 *}Mahādharmadīpadhāraņīsūtra, T.1340.21.663b14-20.

The $S\bar{a}garan\bar{a}gar\bar{a}japariprcch\bar{a}$ reinforces this with the idea that knowledge of the $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ produces realization of all the etymologies (nirukti) of all the syllables.

O Nāgarāja, this entrance into the sign of the syllables means that when a bodhisattva has obtained the $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ in the Inexhaustible $Dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ Container, he will conceptualize the intention of the etymologies of all syllables.

lku'i bdag po 'di ni yi ge'i brda la 'jug pa zhes bya ba mi zad pa'i za ma tog gi gzungs la byang chub sems dpas gzungs thob nas yi ge thams cad kyi nges pa'i tshig gi dgongs pa rtog par 'gyur ba'o |

Likewise, because the syllables enter into a text and the text into the syllables, any text may be so invoked as representing all of the canon, and be considered a *dhāraṇī* as a result. We see the extension of this idea to early texts, such as everyone's favorite hagiography of the Buddha, the *Lalitavistara*, which proclaims itself to be the "*dhāraṇī* treasury, as it is the encryption of all lore" (*dhāraṇīnidhānaṃ sarvaśrutādhāraṇatayā*). Likewise, the *Aṣṭādaśasāhasrikāprajñāpāramitā* claims it has the same ability,

Moreover, Ānanda, this deep *Perfection of Insight* is the ingress to all the syllables. Consequently, this deep *Perfection of Insight* is the entrance into all $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}s$, the $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ entrance in which a bodhisattva mahāsattva is to train. Bearing in mind this $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}s$, the bodhisattvas mahāsattvas come face-to-face with the excellent knowledge of all forms of eloquence. ¹⁰⁰

iyam punar ānanda gambhīrā prajñāpāramitā sarvākṣarāṇām praveśaḥ | iyam ānanda gambhīrā prajñāpāramitā sarvadhāraṇīnām mukham yatra dhāraṇīmukhe bodhisattvena mahāsattvena śikṣitavyam | imān dhāraṇīn dhārayatām bodhisattvānām mahāsattvānām sarvapratibhānapratisamvida āmukhībhayanti |

Over time, several Mahāyāna scriptures will make this claim, that they represent the *dhāraṇī* entrance into the scriptures, that encoded in each of them are all the other scriptures. In part they were motivated by the attractiveness of such an ideology: instead of the study of the syllables opening the door (*dhāraṇīmukha*) to the mastery of the scriptures, the mastery of the encrypted messages within the syllables of the specific scripture becomes the mystical vehicle for the mastery of the scriptures as a whole. This allowed the proponents of a scripture to claim that the study of their scripture or system yielded the knowledge of the canon. Certainly, this was taken to an eventual extreme, and the *Sarvavaidalyasaṃgraha* had to protest that "claiming to enter the word of the Tathāgata through the designation of a single letter is rejection of

¹⁰⁰ Asṭādaśasāhasrikāprajñāpāramitā, p. 84.



⁹⁹ Lalitavistara, p. 317.8

the Dharma'' (yi ge'i ming gis de bzhin gshegs pa'i bka' la 'jug go zhes zer na chos spong ba yin no). 101 Yet this is exactly what the $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ system did, by featuring the letter A as the alpha and omega of the Buddhist canon, so that all the Buddha's word was encrypted in A. 102

Finally, the easy movement from dharmas to Dharma, from all sounds to all texts is facilitated by the Mahāyānist assumption that the scriptures are encoded in reality itself. The *Sāgaranāgarājapariprcchā* insists that every word and every letter is the word of the Buddha, because each of them communicates the Buddhist values associated with the nature of reality and therefore they all represent the *Inexhaustible Container Dhāraṇī* (*akṣayakaraṇḍaka-dhāraṇī); it even goes on to claim that all dharmas have the qualities of the Buddhist teaching, including their character as dhāraṇīs. 103

Because all dharmas are space, the similarity of all dharmas to space is demonstrated. Because all dharmas are accomplished by effort, the freedom of all dharmas is demonstrated. Because all dharmas are not to be appropriated, the masterless character (*asvāmikatā) of all dharmas is demonstrated. Because all dharmas are recollection, the unforgettableness of all dharmas is demonstrated. Because all dharmas are dhāraṇīs, the inexhaustibility of all dharmas is demonstrated.

chos thams cad nam mkha' yin pas na chos thams cad kyi nam mkha' lta bu nyid ston to | chos tams cad nan gyis byas bas na chos thams cad kyi sgrol ba nyid tu ston to | chos thams cad blang du med bas na chos thams cad kyi bdag po med pa nyid ston to | chos thams cad dran pa nyin pas na chos thams cad kyi brjed ba med pa ston to | chos thams cad gzungs yin pa na chos thams cad kyi mi zad pa nyid ston to |

In an even more extreme statement, the *Tathāgatotpattisambhava* articulates the image of a sūtra text on which all elements of reality are recorded, and then the text hidden in a particle of dust, to be found later by a person with penetrating insight; the sūtra indicates that this is the nature of the Buddha's wisdom, that it penetrates all elements of reality.¹⁰⁴



¹⁰¹ Sarvavaidalyasaṃgraha-nāma-mahāyāna-sūtra To. 227, fol. 186b4-5; T. 274.9.378b1 interprets the statement as referring to a single verse rather than a single letter.

¹⁰² Once Braarvig moves away from his emphasis on memory, he recognizes this fundamental function of *dhāranī*; see *Akṣyamatinirdeśa* Braarvig, vol. 2, pp. xci–xcii.

¹⁰³ Sāgaranāgarājapariprcchā To. 153, fol. 136b4-137b7; To 598.15.137b18-c17. The quotation is from To. 153, fol. 140a6-b1. As Pagel (2007b, pp. 32–33) shows, the Tibetan text provides a series of letters with corresponding meanings, but Dharmarakṣa's translation (T.598.15.137c10-13) does not reflect this, and the textual distance between the Tibetan and the Chinese is perplexing. This section occurs immediately after an affirmation that *no* word or letter is the word of the Buddha, a relatively standard Mahāyānist method of scriputural argumentation. On the via-negativa expression of relationship of words and *dhāranīs*, see; *Devarājapravara-prajāāpāramitā T.231.8.719a15-29.

¹⁰⁴ Gómez (1995) translates two versions of the text.

In sum, the movement from interpenetration of all elements to all elements coding the Buddhist teachings is an easy reformulation for the Mahāyāna scriptures. Moreover, it is a necessary formulation for them to make, since the Abhidharma tradition had already established that all compounded dharmas are impermanent, all defiled dharmas are suffering, all dharmas are non-self and only nirvāṇa is peace—the well-known Sarvāstivāda statement. The Mahāyānist challenge was to demonstrate that the Mahāyānist ontology was encoded into reality in the same way, that there was a direct line from reality to the scriptures, and the formulation of the *dhāraṇīs* as the coding system facilitated this conjunction of elements.

From Tangible Benefits to Ultimate Liberation—Dhāraṇīs as Soteriological Forces

While the coding of the canon in a few phrases might have seemed like a stroke of contemplative genius, it simultaneously resulted in a doctrinal crisis, because it was not clear how extending these *dhāraṇīs* beyond the pedagogical or apotropaic purposes to implicate the soteriological process was precisely to be carried out. That is, if the *dhāraṇīs*' distinctive characteristic was the encryption of the Buddha's word, then they might be understood to produce the realization of the path through the internalization of the Buddha's gnosis, as we have seen. This leap of logic, while so smoothly made, had extraordinary consequences for the Mahāyānists, who seem to have only partially addressed these concerns in a rigorous manner, and generally long after they were fait accompli. Ultimately, it was justified through appeals to questions of karma and path gnoseology, based on other well-established principles.

The precedent for remarkable results from the recitation of a few phrases came in the form of the narrative of Cūḍāpanthaka, one of the Arhats of the early tradition who began as such a dunce that he could not remember a single verse taught to him by the Buddha. Instead, in the *Divyāvadāna* version, he was asked simply to memorize two phrases, even though these proved difficult to recollect, "I remove dust, I remove defilement" (*rajo harāmi malaṃ harāmi*). But one night, towards dawn, he suddenly wondered, "Did the Lord mean for internal dust or external dust?" Then, suddenly, three verses occurred to him which he had not learned before (*aśrutapūrvās tisro gāthāāmukhīpravṛttājātāḥ*). These in turn led to his attainment of Arhatship and subsequent comprehension of the entire Buddhadharma, so much so that he became the instructor of 12,000 nuns, who were recognized as mistresses of the Tripiṭaka. At the conclusion of the narrative, Cūḍāpanthaka became recognized by the Buddha as the best of those skilled in the evolution of mind (*cetovivartakuśala*). 106

¹⁰⁶ I connect this word with the vivartakalpa, evolving period of the universe, rather than with "turning back," another meaning for vivarta.



¹⁰⁵ Divyāvadāna, Vaidya pp. 430–434; this story is widespread in the canon; for further references, see Davidson (2002, p. 360n13).

To circumvent questions on how the village idiot recited a few words to become an exalted Arhat, the earlier tradition employed two structures to bracket the Cūḍāpanthaka phenomenon. First, the narrative has him ask questions about the meaning of the phrase he is to recite before he achieves awakening, so that in most versions of the Cūḍāpanthaka hagiography, he passes from recitation to analysis to insight and then final realization, allowing for his reflective functions to precipitate Arhatship. Second, the episode concludes with several stories of past lives to justify the extraordinary karmic circumstances that would lead to such an understanding. Thus, both the karmic and gnoseological areas required attention for the unaware recitation of poorly understood phrases to conclude in awakening.

In distinction, the Mahāyānist dhāranī ideology was constructed around a representation that scriptural or doctrinal essence had become encoded into a concentrated form, which allowed for the remarkable transformation required by the benefits accorded the dhāranīs. Because dhāranīs are consistently represented as conferring mastery of the scriptures, they are inherently powerful, and have many natural consequences, extending from their encoding the power of the scriptures, many of which had already been understood to protect monks from danger through their recitation. ¹⁰⁷ An even earlier analog is found in the Chāndogya mythology—the gods clothed themselves in the Vedic scriptures to escape death, but to no avail; om being the juice of the Vedas and immortal, the gods entered the immortal syllable and gained immortality. 108 Similarly, the Buddhist dhāranīs are endowed with the power of the scriptures—occasionally conceived of as dhāranī juice—and as a concentrated form of Mahāyānist scripture the dhāranīs were said to be able to eliminate even sin accumulated by one who has committed the five heinous crimes of immediate karmic retribution (ānantaryakarma). 109

Skilling has pointed to what he calls the "escape clause," that some Mahāyānist scriptures allowed that the protection afforded by mantras or dhāraṇīs does not apply to events precipitated by karmic retribution, but this position was not universally accepted and overwhelmingly dhāraṇīs declare their ability to circumvent the worst of offenses. 110 Even in the case of some inherited karma, the Ratnaketuparivarta claims that its dhāraṇī can effect sexual transformation for those burdened with the female state. 111 Consequently, when Bhavya discusses the escape clause, he simply indicates the exclusion of those with physical or mental handicaps that would keep them from the monastic enclave in the first place: born blind, one-eyed, lame, and so on. In distinction, he points to those with egregious sin who achieved



¹⁰⁷ Explored in detail in Skilling (1992).

¹⁰⁸ Chāndogya-upaniṣad 1.4.3-5; similarly Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa pp. 96–97, 180.

¹⁰⁹ *Dhāranī-rasa* is mentioned in the *Suvarnprabhāsa* p. 115.7. For the alleviation of the five heinous sins, see *Karunāpundarīka*, vol. 2, pp. 29, 39; *Ratnaketuparivarta* pp. 38, 127, 151.

¹¹⁰ Skilling (1992); the *Agrapradīpadhāraņī* is especially adamant about the escape clause; To. 528, fols. 69b2, 70b3, 71a2, etc.

¹¹¹ Ratnaketuparivarta pp. 37–38, 42–44, 48.

Arhatship—Angulimāla, Ajātaśatru, etc. —and indicates that the skillful means of the Mahāyāna is as able to destroy the roots of retribution that would normally accrue. 112

Because karmic doctrines play such a central role in normative Mahāyānist soteriology, eventually the apotropaic functions precipitated the allowance of the soteriological use of *dhāraṇīs*. In this regard, I believe the logic was simple: if mantras and apotropaic scriptural elements can guard against the consequences of previous karma, then the soteriological application of such elements may occur when they are turned to attack the cause of karma—the *kleśas* or other defilements. Here we may infer that the soteriological function of *dhāraṇī* works to assist awakening by assaulting the root of the karmic problem, the three poisons that constitute the ultimate causes rendering the individual susceptible to snakes, illness, outcaste spells and the rest in the first place. The *dhāraṇīs* clearly serve simultaneously to promote the roots of goodness (*kuśalamūla*), which are the reverse of the defilements and, in some measure, their antidotes. Thus, the *dhāraṇī* system of protection from karmic consequences appears to have evolved into protection from karmic causes, which means that they were predisposing the reciter to liberation.

The movement from karmic consequence to causes further entailed the second issue: gnoseology. In normative Buddhist soteriology, the *kleśas* were the targets of the analytical functions of *prajñā*, which worked in association with the trainings in virtue and meditation to eventually eliminate the seeds for all further *kleśas*. While the recitation of *dhāraṇīs* could easily be integrated into the *śamatha* meditative systems through their employment in recollecting the Buddha or Dharma—as we see in the *Anantamukha-nirhāradhāraṇī* discussions—it was less clear how *dhāraṇīs* might work with the other training, that in insight. This conflict in values was eventually resolved by appeal to Mahāyānist metaphysics, and this appeal was especially well articulated in the *Bodhisattvabhūmi*, which describes an advanced bodhisattva meditating on mantras in a section widely recognized for its importance, but perhaps not as well interpreted.

He is supremely mindful of those *mantra* phrases spoken by the Tathāgata, to whit: *IȚI MIȚI KIŢI BHIKṢĀMTI PADĀNI SVĀHĀ*. He considers, ponders and investigates the reference value of the mantra phrases, and becomes correctly accomplished by practicing the purport of the mantra phrases relying on himself and not listening to another.

Accordingly, he concludes, "There is no denotative value determinate in these mantra phrases, for they are referentially indeterminate (*nirartha*)! Thus, their semantic force is exactly their referential indeterminacy! Beyond that, there is no other semantic value to be discovered." And by

¹¹³ *Karunāpundarīka*, vol. 2, p. 40.18: sarvajñānākāradhāranīmukhapraveśah karmapakṣakṣayāya samvartate kuśalābhivṛddhaye, and p. 41: sarvakarmāvaranāni kṣayam gamiṣyati; *Suvarnaprabhāsa* p. 107; *Ratnaketuparivarta*, pp. 63, 136, 139, 151–156; *Anantamukhanirhāradhāranī*, Inagaki (1987, p. 231): de yi las kyi sgrib pa myur du 'byang and Inagaki (1999, p. 146).



¹¹² *Tarkajvālā*, pp. 185b2–186b4.

this referential indeterminacy the significance of these mantra phrases becomes well penetrated.

The bodhisattva, having correctly penetrated the reference value of these mantra phrases, by following that semantic value he correctly penetrates the non-referential value of all dharmas as well, by himself and without relying on another. Moreover, the following significance is penetrated: the denotative force of inherent being (svabhāvārtha) of all dharmas is not determinate through all expressions (sarvābhilāpaiḥ), and that is exactly the inexpressibility of their inherent being (nirabhilāpya-svabhāvatā)—that is the semantic force of their inherent being. Thus, having correctly penetrated the semantic force of the inherent being of all dharmas, he does not search for some other reference, as from the penetration of that sublime significance, he attains joy and ecstasy. Consequently, the bodhisattva's supreme forbearance is expressed by the bodhisattva who, having obtained the dhāranī phrases, intones them. 114

yānīmāni tathāgatabhāṣitāni bodhisattvakṣāntilābhāya mantrapadāni tadyathā iti miti kiti bhiksānti padāni svāhā | ity etesām mantrapadānām artham cintayati tulayaty upaparīksate | sa tesām mantrapadānām evam samyakpratipanna evam artham svayam evāśrutvā kutaścit pratividhyati | tad yathā nāsty esām mantrapadānām kācid arthaparinispattih nirarthā evaite | ayam eva caiṣām artho yaduta nirarthatā | tasmāc ca param punar aparam artham na samanvesate | iyatā tena tesām mantrapadānām arthah supratividdho bhavati | sa tesām mantrapadānām artham samyak pratividhya tenaivārthānusārena sarvadharmānām atyartham samyak pratividhyati svayam evāśrutvā parataḥ | evañ ca punar artham pratividhyati | sarvābhilāpaih sarvadharmānām svabhāvārthāparinispattih | yā punar esām nirabhilāpyasvabhāvatā ayam evaisām svabhāvārthah | sa evam sarvadharmāṇām svabhāvārtham samyakpratividhya tasmāt param artham na samanveşate | udārañ ca tasyārthasya prativedhāt prītiprāmodyam pratilabhate | tena bodhisattvena pratilabdhā tāni dhāranīpadāny adhisthāya bodhisattvaksāntir vaktavyā |

This section has been somewhat misinterpreted, with the bodhisattva's realization of referential indeterminacy (*nirartha*) taken as indicating that mantras are without meaning. Certainly, the term *artha* is one of those polysemic words, which may indicate meaning, sense, reference, goal, purpose and so forth. However, here the value of *nirartha* is understood by the commentator as indicating the connection of the act of reference and the object of reference (*abhidheyābhidhānasambandha); thus the description *nirartha* indicates that absolute understanding is non-referential, since mantras do not have

Bodhisattvabhūmi, Woghihara 273.9-274.4; To. 4037, fol. 144a6-b7; T. 1579.30.543a5-22;
 T. 1581.30.934a15-28; T. 1582.30.996c8-17; Bodhisattvabhūmivyākhyā To. 4047, fol. 237a.



denotative force. The *Bodhisattvabhūmi*'s use of *artha* here is strongly in alignment with the position of the relationship of word and object found discussed extensively in the most neglected of works attributed to Asaṅga, the * \bar{A} ryadeśanāvikhyāpana-śāstra, and is carried on by others extending the Yogācāra theories of language, which were grounded in the Vaibhāṣika Abhidharma but went beyond it. When we look at the sūtra correlates, moreover, we see that the idea is to not grasp onto an objective reference, and the Aṣṭasāhasrikā is even more definitive about the soteriological force of spells,

Now here, O Kauśika, the bodhisattva mahāsattva who trains in the spell $(vidy\bar{a})$ awakens to highest complete awakening and obtains omniscience. And therefore he, having awakened to highest complete awakening will look out onto the minds of beings. How so? Here, O Kauśika, there is nothing whatsoever present for a bodhisattva mahāsattva training in a spell, so that there would be not anything obtained, or cognized, or brought into presence. Therefore, O Kauśika, we call this omniscience. 117

atra hi kauśika vidyāyām śikṣamāṇo bodhisattvo mahāsattvo 'nuttarām samyaksambodhim abhisambhotsyate sarvajñajñānam ca pratilapsyate | tena so 'nuttarām samyaksambodhim abhisambudhya sarvasattvānām cittāni vyavalokayiṣyati | tat kasya hetoḥ? atra hi kauśika vidyāyām śikṣamāṇasya bodhisattvasya mahāsattvasya na tat kimcid asti, yan na prāptam vā na jñātam vā na sākṣātkṛtam vā syāt | tasmāt sarvajñajñānam ity ucyate |

Precisely the same point is made *in extensio* in the *Anantamukhanirhāradhāraṇī*, one of the earliest of our *dhāraṇī* scriptures, first reportedly translated by Zhiqian 223–253 CE (T. 1011). Following the declaration of the longest of the *dhāraṇīs* in the scripture—one that exhibits many of the characteristics found in the *Bodhisattvabhūmi* example above—the scripture maintains that a bodhisattva holding onto that *dhāraṇī* will therefore not grasp after any of a lengthy series of objects, beginning with all the compounded and uncompounded dharmas (*saṃskṛtāsaṃskṛtadharma*) and concluding with elements of virtue. The Mahāyānist emphasis on non-referentiality

¹¹⁹ Inagaki (1987, pp. 153–154; 1999, pp. 69–70).



 $^{^{115}}$ Bodhisattvabhūmivyākhyā To. 4047, fol. 237a2: don yong su grub pa'i ci yang med de zhes bya ba ni brjod bya dang brjod byed kyi 'brel bas yang dag par bsdus pa'o \mid

¹¹⁶ *Āryadeśanāvikhyāpana-śāstra T. 1602.31.502b29-c2 articulates five meanings for 'artha' (see also 557c19-29) and 535c17-536a24 presents the Yogācāra understanding of nāma-pada-vyañjana-kāya, which we have seen employed in describing dhāraṇīs above. For a reasonable discussion of some of these issues through the later representative Paramārtha, Paul 1979, who compares his position to the well-known essay "On Sense and Reference" in Frege 1966, pp. 56–78.

¹¹⁷ Aṣṭasāhasrikā Vaidya 28.2-6; a much more extensive discussion of syllable and meaning with much the same import is given in the *Bodhisattvapiṭaka* To. 56, vol. ga, fols. 170b7-172a2. See also the *Kuśalamūlasamparigraha* materials translated Pagel (2007b, pp. 62–65).

¹¹⁸ This attribution is accepted in Nattier (2008, p. 122).

eventually precipitated a counter-position, and the curmudgeonly *Sarvavaidalyasaṃgraha* reproaches those who claim that having no reference is sufficient for awakening. ¹²⁰ In discussing the *Bodhisattvabhūmi*'s *dhāraṇī* doctrines, then, we may keep in mind that the text is simply articulating many of the values already found in Mahāyānist sūtras of the day, especially the close relationship depicted between the attainment of *dhāraṇī* through contemplating mantras and the attainment of patience towards the unarisen nature of all dharmas. ¹²¹

Thus, what is arguably the central Mahāyānist theoretical problematik grasping after essences within objects/referents in the world—came with the corollary problem of its antidote, since antidotes are necessary for the proper pursuit of meditation. The prior inclusion of inexplicable syllables in mantras within earlier Buddhist traditions was eventually extended to the soteriology of the bodhisattva path, since the contemplation of these syllables entailed the dissociation from assuming the essential nature of objects of cognition, for we do not generally find mantradhāranī attributed own being (svabhāva) outside of encoding all the elements conducive to awakening. 122 Mahāyānists therefore readily found in mantradhāranīs the lack of reference that fit easily into their philosophical and doctrinal architecture, irrespective of whether the doctrine was the interdependence of all elements of reality (sūnyavāda) or the absence of a real external world (vijñānavāda). Consequently, we see a universal acceptance of dhāranīs in Mahāyānist circles, for the non-referential coded syllables could be overcoded with the appropriate system without protest (as we saw in the Vinaya discussion above), even though later intellectuals like Bhavya and Dharmakīrti would develop justifications for the soteriological value of mantras and *dhāranīs* in their own ways. 123

Eventually the discussion turns to the problem of the path—if spells are particularly efficient means, then the path may be shortened—but this is denied by certain Mahayanist commentators like Jñānagarbha in his commentary on the *Anantamukhanirhāra-dhāraṇī*; Jñānagarbha says that the path still takes at least three incalculable aeons, in the manner of good Mahayanist doctrine. Even then, we have some indications that the soteriological benefit of the *dhāraṇī* entrance was expected to be accomplished in seven years. This figure is provided in a few scriptures both as a desirable goal and, in the *Buddhākṣepana-sūtra*, as a measure of failure for ten bodhisattvas

¹²⁵ Karunāpundarīka vol. 2, p. 9.6-7: saptānām varsānām atyayena imām sarvajňatākāradhāranīmukhapraveśadhāranīm pratilabhate bodhisattva mahāsattvah |. Similarly Suvārnaprabhāsa, p. 118.1.



¹²⁰ Sarvavaidalyasamgraha To.227, fol. 183a7.

¹²¹ *Karuṇāpuṇḍarīka*, vol. 2, p. 26.13-14: samādhidhāraṇīkṣāntipratilabdha; *Ratnaketuparivarta* pp. 136, 163.

¹²² Karunāpundarīka, vol. 2, p. 28, already discussed above.

¹²³ Braarvig (1997), Kapstein (2001 pp. 233–255), Eltschinger (2001, 2008).

¹²⁴ Inagaki (1987, p. 94) discusses this point.

who attempted success in the $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ entrance, failed to accomplish it, and gave up the Buddhist path. It hat narrative, the heretofore promising bodhisattvas became discouraged, gave up their monastic robes, returned home, became hangers-on in the court of Ajātaśatru and complained about the Buddhist dharma. Their mythic lack of success—reflecting no doubt a real problem for some Buddhist meditators—was explained as a consequence of decisions they had made many lives before, and eventually all was put aright.

So Many Dhāraṇī Functions, So Little Time

Over time, a number of factors contributed to the proliferation of dhāraṇī entrances—the tension between syllables/letters/words and meaning, the multiple fields of significance to the category (sounds, memory, summation, decryption, to name a few)—so that there can be little wonder that Buddhist classifications of dhāraṇīs contained multiple facets in classic statements of polysemy and thick description. We have seen at the beginning of this essay that the several functions of dhāraṇīs in the Ajātaśatrukaukṛtyavinodanā indicated that the monothetic definition of dhāraṇī as memory was problematic, since many of the elements attributed there could not be adequately described as exclusively recollective or mnemonic. Consequently, the test of "code/coding" will be whether that terminology can account for the range of functions found in Buddhist literature.

As with the *Ajātaśatrukaukṛtyavinodanā*, *many* Mahāyāna sūtras detail varieties of *dhāraṇī* by dividing *dhāraṇīs* into discrete categories. The *Samādhirājasūtra* defines four kinds of *dhāraṇī*: the four knowledges with respect to the infinite linguistic expressions of all compounded elements, of all sounds, of defilements and the qualities of purification. For its part, the *Saddharmapuṇḍarīka* identifies three obscure *dhāraṇīs* attained by preachers (Dharmabhāṇakas)—that which revolves (or imparts) the *dhāraṇī*, that which imparts ten trillion (*dhāraṇīs*), and that which imparts skill in all sounds (*sarvarutakauśalya*). The *Anantamukhanirhāradhāraṇī* describes four *dhāraṇī* entrances: the accomplishment of the infinite entrances (*anantamukhanirhāradhāraṇīmukhapraveśa), skill in the faculties of beings (*sattvendriyakauśalya-), uncompounded skill in karma and fruition (*karmavipākāsaṃskṛta-kauśalya-),

¹²⁸ Saddharmapuṇḍarīka p. 475.7-9: dhāraṇyāvartīdhāraṇī, koṭiśatasahasrāvartī dhāraṇī, and sarvarutakauśalyāvatī dhāraṇī, Dharmarakṣa's translation (T. 263.9.133a.20-21) is little help; Kumārajīva translates the curious —āvartī literally as 旋, meaning to turn (T. 262.9.61b7-8), as do the Tibetan translators, using 'khyil ba (To. 113, fol. 176b3-4).



 $^{^{126}\} Buddh\bar{a}k$ sepana-sūtra To. 276 fol. a
2-4; T. 811.17.770b21-c2; T. 831.17.876a15-21.

¹²⁷ Samādhirājasūtra, Vaidya 148.11-15. Narendrayaśas elaborates by detailing three more groups of four—the four dharmadhāraṇīs, the four lakṣaṇadhāraṇīs, and the four dhāraṇīmukhas, making sixteen dhāraṇīs total; T. 639.15.580c23-581a17; this strategy is not followed by the Tibetan in To. 127, fol. 82b3-7. For a discussion of the four recensions of the Samādhirāja, see Skilton 1999; for other Samādhirāja materials, Skilton (2002), Gómez and Silk (1989, pp. 1–88).

and the expression of the deep Dharma (*gambhīradharmavacana-). Other scriptures multiply dhāraṇīs by enumerating multiple members of the same or similar category, as in the cases of the Daśabhūmika or the Dhāraṇīśvararāja, with respectively ten and eight forms. This trajectory was to attain its high point with the more than a hundred dhāraṇīs (hyperbolically identified as the 100,000 immeasurable dhāraṇīmukhas) named in the Avataṃsaka-sūtra translations of the fifth-eighth centuries.

Yogācāra and Vijñānavāda authors appear particularly predisposed to discuss dhāranīs. The Mahāyānasūtrālamkāra, for example, mentions dhāranīs that result from action in a previous life (pūrvakarmavipākena), from learning in this life (*drstadharmabāhuśrutvena*), and with the support of contemplation (samādhisamniśrayena); the latter is superior to the other two and again broken down into three forms (weak, middling and strong), depending on which stage of the bodhisattva path it is found. 132 The *Bodhisattvabhūmi*, leading up to the section just translated, famously defines dhāranīs as relating to Dharma (*dharma*-), to semantic value (*artha*-), to mantra phrases (*mantra*-), and to the attainment of the bodhisattva's supreme forbearance (bodhisattvaksāntilābhāva dhāranī). 133 The first is the exact understanding of words, phrases and letters in texts by having listened to them just once and without recitation practice; the second is the comprehension of their significance in the mind without having to remind oneself of their content; the third is the intoning of mantra phrases to obtain unfailing successes in the curing of beings' diseases and the fourth is the attainment of forbearance described above. The commentary to the Sanmukha-dhāranī attributed to Vasubandhu specifies six functions or goals (artha) of dhāranīs: the completion of insight, the purity of the power of compassion, purification of one's own stream of being, comprehension of impediments caused by others, summation of the factors of awakening, and the reality and correct knowledge which are these factors' fruit (shes rab yongs su rdzogs pa dang | snying rje'i stobs rnam par dag pa dang | rang gi rgyud rnam par dag pa dang | gzhan gyis bsgrubs pa'i gegs



¹²⁹ These approximate Sanskrit renderings are based on the Tibetan, edited in Inagaki (1987, p. 135): sgo mi zad pas sgrub pa'i gzungs kyi sgor 'jug pa dang | sems can rnams kyi dbang bo la mkhas pa'i gzungs kyi sgor 'jug pa dang | las dang rnam par smin pa la mkhas pa 'dus ma byas kyi gzungs kyi sgor 'jug pa dang | chos zab mo la bzod pa'i gsungs kyi sgor 'jug pa. The various Chinese translations disagree in both meaning and order on some of these, and their disagreement is related to the problem of the philological history of the text. Even then, most agree with most factors in the Tibetan: T.1011.19.680b28-c1; T.1012.19.682c17-19; T.1013.19.685c6-9; T.1014.19.688c8-12; T.1015.19.692c5-8; T.1016.19.695c5-7; T.1017.19.699a17-20; T. 1018.19.703a18-21; T.1009.19.676b9-12.

¹³⁰ Daśabhūmika p. 162.16–163.3; Daśabhūmikavyākhyāna To. 3993, fol. 243a4-b7, T. 1522.26.192b4-23; Dhāranīśvararāja T. 397(2).13.22c8-24c4, T. 398.13.441a3-12, To. 147 (designated the *Tathāgatamahākaruṇānirdeśa*), fols. 218b–230a. This material is discussed by Pagel 2007a.

¹³¹ Buddhāvataṃsaka T. 278.9.702c-703b; T. 279.10.348c-349b; further expanded T. 293.10.701c-702c.

¹³² Mahāyānasūtrālamkāra XVIII.71-73.

¹³³ Bodhisattvabhūmi Woghihara 272–274.

yongs su shes pa dang | byang chub kyi tshogs kun du sdud pa dang de'i 'bras bu yang dag pa'i ye shes dang de bzhin nyid do |). 134

The various types and categories of *dhāraṇī* developed in greater or lesser measure because the variety of discussions expressed under the rubric of *dhāraṇī* was so diverse. Even then, they do tend to express certain areas of emphasis, as I have argued above with five areas that must be covered: memory/mindfulness, mantras, canonical encryption, signa of ultimate reality, and ritual. Reviewing the *dhāraṇī* texts, it appears to me that these necessities are worked out through specific attributes. For example, in several of the texts designated as *dhāraṇīs*, the mindfullness/summation of the Dharma is seen in an emphasis on the affirmation of basic Buddhist doctrines—the four noble truths, the thirty-seven limbs of awakening, and so forth—to a degree unusual in other genres of Mahāyānist texts. The lengthy *Mahāprabhāvadhāraṇīsūtra is perhaps the most elaborate example of that trend, and while it covers very many topics in its 20 fascicles, it consistently returns to the topic of the four truths, sometimes encoded in languages supposedly spoken by the denizens of other realms.

The mantric aspect is frequently associated with the emphasis on the relationship between *dhāraṇīs* and concentration, so that the compound "*dhāraṇī* and concentration entrances" (*dhāraṇisamādhimukha*) is a standard accomplishment of advanced bodhisattvas, as has been noticed many times before. Moreover, when *dhāraṇīs* occur in one or another of the great soteriological scriptures or other texts—like the *Daśabhūmika* or the *Samādhirāja*—they often foreground the question of the special knowledges (*dharma-, artha-, nirukti-*, and *pratibhāna-pratisaṃvid*), all of which are related to skills necessary to the ritualized act of preaching. Additionally, when *dhāraṇīs* are given in other Mahāyānist texts, then the mantras often highlight their employment in propitiatory purposes, to invoke a Buddha, a bodhisattva or goddess for various purposes. This appears to be an extension of the practice and images invoked during the "recollection of the Buddha" (*buddhānusmrti*) and often serves an apotropaic or soteriological function,

¹³⁷ Daśabhūmika, p. 156.2; Ratnaketuparivarta, Kurumiya p. 32.11; Samādhirāja, pp. 113.23, 120.31, 218.14; Suvarṇaprabhāsa, p. 30.5; for attainment of patience associated with dhāraṇī, Rāstrapālapariprcchā, p. 11.3–17.



¹³⁴ Sanmukhadhāranīvyākhyāna To. 2694, fol. 1b2-3, T. 1361.21.878b6-8. Immediately following the Vyākhāna, T. 1361 includes a useful subcommentary attributed to Zhiwei (智威), entitled 六門 陀羅尼經論廣釋, which was written in 653, shortly after Xuanzang translated the Sanmukhadhāranī in 645, so there can be some confidence that the text reflects received understanding; the section on the six goals is T.1361.21.879a14-b24.

¹³⁵ E.g., Karuṇāpunḍarīka, vol. 2, pp. 21–25, each of the dhāraṇīs is said to generate the condition of faith in various fundamental Buddhist conceptual lists; such lists are reviewed in *Mahādharmadīpadhāraṇī-sūtra, T. 1340.21.666a29, 678a7-680b2; the dhāraṇī section to the Akṣayamati comes immediately after the discussion of the thirty-seven limbs of awakening; Akṣayamatinirdeśa Braarvig, vol. 2, pp. 510–557. Puṣpakūṭa-dhāraṇī To. 516, fol. 33a7.

¹³⁶ *Mahāprabhāvadhāraṇīsūtra T. 1341.21.764c-767c, 775b-c, 777c, and these are sometimes said to represent the speech of other realms or other species, like yakṣas; the Karuṇāpuṇḍarīka vol. 2, p. 39.1 (and see Yamada's discussion in the appendix to vol. 2) indicates that its dhāraṇī employs words of Dravidian origin, drāmiḍamantrapada.

although other goals are also enumerated: the facilitation of learning, the pacification of disease, the elimination of malicious spirits, the cultivation of merit, to name but a few.¹³⁸

If my argument is correct, all of these functions can be understood as codes/encoding/decoding, and I believe that they can. All the items on the list represent elements that may be brought under the rubric of coding: memory/mindfulness, the attributes of reality, summations of complex issues, inspiration, hermeneutics, syllabic representations of the canon, letters, signs, understanding, analysis and so forth. All of these (and more) can be handled by the ideology of a system that transforms information—whether by compression, encryption, decompression, translation, replication, manipulation or other information system manipulation known to coding—so that mantras, phrases, syllables, graphic representations, non-verbal signs, and other signa of awakening can carry the Buddhist message. These can all be dhāranīs.

Conclusion: A Dhāraṇī for all Seasons

The shear volume and proliferation of dhāraṇī scriptures and dhāraṇī-related rites ensure that any single statement concerning the nature of dhāraṇīs requires qualification almost before it is written, and that eventually the statement will be contradicted in some measure in some scripture, for Mahāyānist sūtras sometimes contradict each other and, occasionally, themselves. Nonetheless, dhāraṇīs are revealed in Mahāyānist sūtras as the coded systems of the Buddhas' speech, for the protection of beings, for the liberation of bodhisattvas, for the eloquence of the preachers, for the intuitive realization of the scriptures, for the mnemonics of the four truths, and for a hundred other purposes. Consequently, we may recognize the following meanings of dhāraṇī, even while admitting that other fields of signification may be uncovered:

Dhāraṇīs are syllables/letters that are codings of specific elements of Buddhist doctrine as examples of their range of potential applications in order to demonstrate the syllables/letters' efficient utility in learning and internalization of material.

Dhāraṇīs are syllables/letters that are codings of all other syllables, designations, statements and forms of language by both implication and mutual interpenetration.

Dhāraṇīs are syllables/letters that are codings of Buddhist scriptures, stimulating realization or recollection of their meanings. Their special connection is with eloquence and inspiration for the preachers of the Mahāyāna, the Dharmabhāṇakas.

¹³⁸ The *buddhānusmṛti* theme is expressly associated with the *dhāranī* in the *Buddhākṣepanasūtra*, To. 276, fol. 48a5; T. 811.17.772a18-21, T. 831.17.877b22-27; the thirty-two *mahāpuruṣalakṣanas* are reviewed in detail in **Mahādharmadīpadhāranī-sūtra* T. 1340.21.671b29-677b15.



Dhāraṇīs are formalized, ritualized syllables (mantras) that are codings of specific powers for the purposes of protection from dangers, illnesses, and terrifying experiences in the world.

Dhāraṇīs are mantras as codings for the destruction of the consequences of karma, up to and including the five heinous crimes of parricide, etc.

Dhāraṇīs are mantras as codings for the destruction of the psychologically unwholesome states: desire, anger and ignorance and for the augmentation of the their antitheses, the three roots of wholesomeness.

Dhāraṇīs are mantras as codings for the essential elements of the Buddhist path, especially the four Noble Truths and the 37 Branches of Awakening. All the *dhāraṇīs* reflective of the Buddhist path are codings especially connected to the entrance of contemplation (*samādhimukha*) and the power of mindfulness (*smrtibala*).

Dhāraṇīs are mantras as codings for the entire Buddhist path, acting as a easy, skillful means for the attainment of liberation, because they do not reference dharmas in the world but are non-referential in nature. Their particular connection is to the attainment of the special patience towards the unarisen nature of dharmas.

Dhāraṇīs are phrases/statements/texts that operate in the same manner as dhāraṇīs as syllables/letters or as mantras, from coding elements of doctrine to the entire canon to acting as a vehicle for final liberation. This function yields dhāraṇīs as a genre, which often includes prayers, aspirations, ritual programs and concluding summaries of benefits. It is indicative, though, that texts in the genre can have their mantradhāraṇīs abstracted elsewhere with no sense that there is a loss of the meaning, just what we might expect for coded information.

Essential to the model is a curious essenceless essentialism: *dhāraṇīs*, being non-referential and without essence contain the essential code of the Mahāyānist teachings and scriptures. The decompression of that code, its systematic decryption, is the new problematik, one to be solved through the recitation of the *dhāraṇīs* in appropriate venues, combined with rituals, meditation and the bodhisattva's aspiration. The expectation became that all apparently nonsense syllables were part of the Buddha's encryption process that assigned meaning without reference, so that the doctrinal systems of non-referential gnosis (*anālambanajñāna*) could attach infinite value to sonic and graphic signs that could continue to be reinterpreted at will. In this light, the rhetorical position of modern semiotics about the infinitely recursive connotation and denotation of signs in fact appears to have found harmonic resonance in this theoretical aspect of Buddhist soteriology.



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