# The Hasshū-Kōyō by the Scholar-Monk Gyōen (1240-1321) Part One: Preface and Kusha Tradition

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## **EDITOR'S NOTE:**

We are pleased to be able to begin the publication of Leo Pruden's translation of one of the most important historical studies of Japanese Buddhism. In this volume of Pacific World (1991) appears the first two sections of the work, the author's Preface and Chapter One: The Kusha Tradition. It is our intent to publish the entirety of the translation in following volumes.

#### TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE:

This work was not initially undertaken as a full translation of the *Hasshū-kōyō*; rather, I first translated the section on the *Ritsu* Tradition for the benefit of my students at Brown University, and later for the use of my students at the College of Oriental Studies (Los Angeles). I later translated the section on the *Kusha* Tradition for courses that I taught at the Nyingma Institute (Berkeley). It was only later, when I began to teach a course in the History of Japanese Buddhism (at the College of Oriental Studies) that I then completed the translation of the whole of this work.

The Hasshū-kōyō (八宗綱要 The Essentials of the Eight Traditions) was composed in 1268 (Bun'ei 5) by the scholar-monk Gyōnen (凝然 1240-1321), one of the most eminent scholars of his time.

The first mention of this work is in volume two of the book catalogue, the Shōshū shōsho roku.

The text of the *Hasshū-kōyō* was (first?) printed in 1827 (Bunsei 10) and in 1886 (Meiji 19).

A variant title of this same work is the Hasshū-kōyō-shō (八宗柯要抄 An Essay on the

Essentials of the Eight Traditions). A printed edition of this work, with this title, appeared in 1653 (Shōō 2), in 1862 (Bunkyū 2), and in 1885 (Meiji 18). [This is also the title of an undated MSS preserved in the Library of Ryūkoku University, Kyoto.]

Although written in the second half of the 13th century, this work appeared to have but few pre-Meiji (=pre-1868) commentaries composed on it.

The first commentaries to the  $Hassh\bar{u}-k\bar{\delta}y\bar{\delta}$  which have been preserved are:

- 1. The *Hasshū-kōyō*, also called the *Kōtei* (校訂) *Hasshū-kōyō*, in two volumes, was composed by the monk Enkai (円解1767-1840). This work was published in 1827 (Bunsei 10).
- 2. Enkai also wrote a one volume *Hasshū-kōyō ryakuroku* (略録) the undated MSS of which is preserved in the Library of Ōtani University, Kyoto.
- 3. The Hasshū-kōyō monki (聞記), in two volumes, was composed by the scholar monk Gijō (義議 1796-1858). This was published in 1840 (Tempō 11), and a copy of this work is preserved in the Library of Ōtani University.
- 4. Gijo also published the *Hasshū-kōyō* kōgi (講記), at an unknown date, in three volumes. This work is also preserved in the Library of Ōtani University.

The Meiji period (1868-1912) saw the publication of almost two dozen editions and commentaries of the *Hasshū-kōyō*.

- 5. The Hasshū-kōyōkōge (講解) was composed by Fukuda Gidō (福田義導). This work was published in 1878 (Meiji 11.11.12) in some six kan, in two volumes.
- 6. The Hasshū-kōyō-(shō) Keimō-roku (啓蒙録) was composed by Kusunoki Senryū (楠潛龍) [and was compiled by Atsumi Kei'en (渥美契縁]. This five volume work was published in 1878 (Meiji 11) by the Department of Education (Kyō-iku-bu) of the Higashi Honganji, Kyoto. Printed by the Kōbundō of Kyoto, this work was reprinted in 1880 (Meiji 13) and in 1896 (Meiji 29).
- 7. The Hasshū-kōyō kōjutsu (講述 var. Hasshū-kōyō kōshō 考証) was composed by Shimmyō'in Mongō (1771-1831) and was edited by Fujii Genjū. This work was (first?) published in 1881 (Meiji 14.5) in two volumes by the Department of Buddhist Studies (Kyōgaku-bu) of the Kōshōji-ha branch of the Jōdo Shin-shū denomination. [The MSS of this work is preserved in the Library of the Ryūkoku University.]
- 8. The Hasshū-kōyō kahon (科本) was compiled by Sakai Saishō (酒井最正) and was published in two volumes in 1882 (Meiji 15).
- 9. The Hyōchū Hasshū-kōyō was compiled by Kuroda Shindō and was published in 1885 (Meiji 18). This work was reprinted three years later, in two volumes.
- 10. A two volume *Hasshū-kōyō-shō* (抄) var. *Kōtei Hasshū-kōyō*) of unknown authorship was published in 1886 (Meiji 19) in two volumes.
- 11. This period also saw the appearance of a Hasshū-kōyō monki (国記), in three volumes. A MSS dated 1886 is preserved in the Library of Ōtani University.
- 12. A Hasshū-kōyō-shō chōki ( **聴**記), in three volumes and dated 1886, is also preserved in the Library of Ōtani University.
- 13. The Kandō (冠導) Hasshū-kōyō-shō was composed by Senabe Edō (瀬辺恵灯) and

- Sugihara Shundō (杉原春洞). In one volume, and still occasionally available in present-day Japan, this work was published in 1887 (Meiji 20.10.5) by the Shishōdō, Kyoto. This work was reprinted in 1888, in two volumes.
- 14. The *Hasshū-kōyō kōgi* was written by YanagizawaGeizon(柳沢迎存) in two volumes, and was printed in 1888.
- 15. The Keimō (啓蒙) Hasshū-kōyō, with commentary by Zuishin'in Kyokuga (=Sayeki Kyokuga) and Machimoto Donkū, was published in two volumes by the Butsugaku-shōin, Kyoto, in 1888 (Meiji 21.12.27). This work was reprinted in 1890.
- 16. The Hasshū-kōyō shiki tsuketari bunka(私記附分科) was composed in four volumes (the bunka in a separate volume) by Gonsaku Gijō (義城, the Srāmana Gijō, 1848-1921), and was published in 1889 (Meiji 22).
- 17. The *Hasshū-kōyō*, in one volume, was written by Horie Keiryō (堀江慶了) and was published in 1889.
- 18. The Hyōka-bōchū (原科铸註) Hasshū-kōyō in two volumes, was written by Machimoto Donkū (see above no. 15) and was published in 1890 (Meiji 23).
- 19. The *Hasshū-kōyō-ki* (記) was published in two volumes by Mineya Ryōjun (蜂屋 良潤) in 1890. The MSS (?) of this work is preserved in the Library of Ōtani University.
- 20. The Hasshū-kōyō kōjutsu (講述), in three volumes, was composed by Yoshitani Kakujū (古谷覚寿) and was published in 1894 (Meiji 27).
- 21. The Hasshū-kōyō kōgi (講義), in one volume, was composed by the well-known scholar Oda Tokunō (織田得龍, 1860-1911), and was published in 1901 (Meiji 34) in the series Bukkyō-tsūzoku-kōgi (Popular Lectures on Buddhism). This work was reprinted in 1919 (Taishō 8).

22. The Hasshū-kōyōkōgi (講義), by Sakaino Kōyō was published in one volume in 1909 (Meiji 42) by the Tōyō University Press (Tōyō Daigaku Shuppan-bu), Tokyo. This work was reprinted in 1924 (Taishō 13).

The Taisho period (1912-1926) saw some five editions and commentaries on the work,

- 23. The Hasshū-kōyō kōgi (講義) was published in one volume in the series Bukkyō-kōgi-roku (A Record of Lectures on Buddhism) in 1913 (Taishō 2), published by the Bukkyō-gakkai.
- 24. The *Hasshū-kōyō kōgi* (講義), in one volume, was written by Wada Ryūzō (和田龍) and published in 1916 (Taishō 5).
- 25. The *Hasshū-kōyō mondai kōjutsu* (同 題講述), by Hino Anjū (日野安住) was published in 1917.
- 26. The Hasshū-kōyō-kōgi was written by Fujii Ryūshin and published in the series Buttentsūzoku-kōgi (Popular Lectures on Buddhist Texts) in 1924 (Taishō 13).
- 27. The Hasshū-kōyō kōwa (講話) was written by Sakaino Kōyō (see above no. 22) and was published in 1924 (Taishō 13) by the Hinoe-uma (Heigo?) Shuppan-sha, Tokyo.

The modern period, that is, the Shōwa period (1926 to 1988) has seen a comparatively small number of new editions and commentaries on the *Hasshū-kōyō*. During the Shōwa period, however the Bukkyō-gakkai's edition and commentary (below no. 29) has been reprinted a number of times and has become the most popular edition of the work.

28. The Hasshū-kōyō, a Japanese translation or rendering (wa-yaku, or kaki-kudashi) of this work was published in volume ten of the Shōwa-shinsan Kokuyaku Daizōkyō: Shūten-bu (=the section on sectarian works).

- 29. The Hasshū-kōyō kōgi (講義), edited by the Bukkyō-gakkai of the Higashi Honganji, was first published by the Hōzōkan, Kyoto, in one volume, in 1927 (Shōwa 2). To date this work has seen some six editions (6th edition, 1974: Shōwa 49.5.1). The commentary to this work is the work of seven different scholars: Inaba Enjō (Preface and Sanron), Naiki Ryūshū (Kusha, Jōjitsu, and Ritsu), Kojima Eken (Hossō), Honda Shūme (Tendai), Hanayama Daian (Kegon), Kumabe Jimyō (Shingon), and Furuzawa Bunryū (Zen and Jōdo). This edition of and commentary on the Hasshū-kōyō is by far the most popular of all of the commentaries on this work.
- 30. The Hasshū-kōyō kaisetsu (解説) was composed by Kashiwara Yūgi (柏原祐義), in one volume, and was published in 1927 (Shōwa 2) by the Hōzōkan, Kyoto.

The University libraries of Japan preserve for us a number of unpublished, undated, and uncirculated MSS commentaries on the Hasshū-kōyō.

- 31. The Hasshū-kōyōkōroku (講録), in one volume, is preserved in the Library of Ryūkoku University.
- 32. The Hasshū-kōyō fuketsu (神民), in three volumes, is also preserved in a MSS edition at Ryūkoku University.
- 33. The Hasshū-kōyō Bemmō-shō (便蒙抄), in five volumes, is preserved in a MSS at Ryūkoku University.
- 34. The Hasshū-kōyōkōroku (講錄), originally in two volumes (the first volume is now lost) by one Hifumi Jin'en (一二三尽演), is preserved in a MSS at Ryūkoku University.
- 35. The Hasshū-kōyō shōchū-suyō (掌中 枢要) is preserved in a MSS at Ryūkoku University.

- 36. The *Hasshū-kōan* (講案), in one volume, by Aima Kanryō (相馬観樂), is preserved in the Library of Ōtani University.
- 37. The Hasshū-kōyō kikigaki (聞書), in two volumes, is preserved in the Library of Kyoto University.

38. The Hyōchū (標註) Hasshū-kōyō, in one volume, is preserved in the Library of Risshō University, Tokyo.

## The Hasshū-kōyō

## **PREFACE**

Question: How many teachings are there within Buddhism?

Answer: There are in all a countless number of teachings within the Teaching of the Bhagavat; but there are some eighty-four thousand major teachings, (and this number) embraces all of the dharmas preached by the World Honored One during his one lifetime of some fifty-odd years of preaching, and excludes none.

Question: Why is this necessarily the number of teachings?

Answer: It is because he desired to put down all of the eighty-four thousand various afflictions of all creatures that the teachings are also necessarily eighty-four thousand in number.

Question: Do these teachings pertain only to the Mahayana, or are they also held in common by the Hinayana?

Answer: Both the Mahayana and the Hinayāna posit some eighty-four thousand teachings.

As the Abhidharmakośa says, "The dharmaskandha preached by the Muni are eighty-thousand in number...

In addition to this, many of the various Hinayāna scriptures say that there are eighty-four thousand dharmas, so this is also a position held by the Hinayāna.

In the case of the Mahayana teachings, this principle is often spoken of, and the textual sources for it are quite numerous and we need not mention them here.

Thus both the Mahayana and the Hinayana establish that there are some eighty-four thousand (teachings).

Question: How are these teachings classified?

Answer: Even though the teachings are numerous, they do not exceed Two Piţakas and Three Piţakas, which totally and completely embrace all of the various teachings. The Five Piţakas, the Ten Piţakas, and the Twelve-fold Division of the Teachings are also not separate from the Three Piţakas.

Question: What are the Two Piţakas?

Answer: First is the Piţaka of the Śrāvakas, and this is the Hinayāna. Second is the Piţaka of the Bodhisattvas, and this is the Mahayana. This is the significance of the statement that both the Mahayana and the Hinayāna each establish that there are some eighty-four thousand (teachings). The teaching of these Two Piţakas comes from out of the Daichido-ron (Mahā-prajfiā-pāramitā Upadeśa) and from out of the Shōgon-ron (Sūtra-ālarikāra). Many masters quote this teaching from these works in their judgement of what is Mahayana and what is Hinayāna.

Question: What then are the Three Pitakas?

Answer: First there is the Sutra Piţaka (sotaran-zō), which in the Old School of Translators was termed Shūtara; translated (into Sino-Japanese) this is termed kai-kyō, which in the Old School was simply termed kyō. Second there is the Vinaya Piţaka (binaya-zō), which in the Old School was termed Bi-ni; translated this is termed Jō-buku, which in the Old School was termed Ritsu. Third there is the Abhidharma Piţaka (abidatsuma-zō), which in the Old School was termed Abidon; translated this is termed tai-hō, which in the Old School was termed Mubi-hō. This refers to the commentarial literature.

These then are called the Three Piţakas. They express, in this order, the Learnings of the Precepts, of Meditation, and of Wisdom. The Three Piţakas are the teachings as they are expressed; the Three Learnings are the principles which are expressed. These then embrace all of the teachings of the Dharma, with nothing being omitted.

Question: What does it mean to speak of 'being embraced'?

Answer: During the lifetime of the Tathagata, He would give out the Dharma in accord with the capacity (of His listeners). If a person had the capacity, He would then give him the Dharma, and in this way the Dharma was preached in an unsystematic manner, in many different places. However the scope of the teachings preached (by the Buddha) did not exceed that of the Three Pitakas.

When these Scriptures were compiled, all of the various saints gathered them together and formed the Three Pitakas from them. When they had all been compiled (into these Three Pitakas), they were then disseminated to the world.

Question: Do both the Mahayana and the Hinayāna have Three Piţakas?

Answer: They do. The Shōgon-ron explains this in great detail. Thus with respect to the Two Pitakas of the Śrāvakas and of the Bodhisattvas, each one has Three Pitakas, and these are the Sutras, the Vinayas, and the Abhidharma.

Question: What are the circumstances of the transmission — from ancient times up to the present — of the writings that embody these teachings?

Answer: When the Tathāgata was in the world, He did not employ written records. Accordingly as they heard the teachings, persons cultivated their practice, and they would thus attain the benefit which is Enlightenment. After the Extinction of the Tathāgata, there then came to be the first written records; these came to be disseminated and in this way the eyes of many sentient beings came to be opened. Based on this then, Kāśyapa, and others, compiled the Three Piţakas of the Hīnayāna in the Pippala Cave; Ajita, and others, compiled the teachings of the Mahayana on Mount Cakravala.

Thereupon Mahākāšyapa grasped the Holy Law and continued its profound teachings. The Venerable Ānanda upheld the Dharma and so benefitting many beings. Madhyāntika and Śāṇāvasa each held high the banner (literally: the net) of these teachings. In a singular manner Upagupta manifested a glorious name.

In this way then, for a period of one hundred years after the Extinction of the Tathāgata, the Dharma was transmitted, as one would pour water from out of one vessel to another, with nothing being lost. These five masters of the Dharma were in this manner meritorious in their transmitting, and in their upholding, of the Dharma.

After some one hundred years, many saints also appeared, and each in his turn transmitted the Sacred Canon, each taking (and passing on) the Great Dharma. Nevertheless with the disappearance of these various saints, there came to be some extinction of the Dharma, and of its significance.

In this way then Ananda entered into Samādhi, and Sāṇāvasa was unable to understand this. Sāṇāvasa entered into Extinction, and with him many scriptures also disappeared. Even though this was the case, what remained was still

quite a lot, and the remaining teachings were truly many.

The true Dharma lasted for one thousand years. Eventually the Period of the End of the Dharma arrived, and during this period the Dharma was grasped, and upheld, and was spread to very many different places, to all of the lands in India, and even unto Japan; all of the other countries are too numerous to be mentioned. Each propagated the Sacred Scriptures, and caused the affairs of Buddhism to flourish.

Let us now narrate the circumstances of the diffusion of the Dharma in the Three Countries of India, China, and Japan.

It is the tradition that in a period some four hundred years after the Extinction of the Tathāgata, the Hinayāna flourished greatly, and that different opinions flourished in competition one with another. The Mahayana declined into extinction and was preserved within the Palace of the Nāgas.

During this period then — for one hundred years — a single pure vessel transmitted its contents to another; but after one hundred-odd years, variant opinions came to contend with one another. At this time Mahādeva willfully spew forth his deluded words on the five points, and Vatsiputra also had not yet cast away his strong attachment to a substantial self.

The Sammitiyas and the Sautrāntikas clamorously contended over major principles, and the Avaraśailas and the Uttaraśailas gave rise to differing views, and fought like wild animals. Finally, during this four hundred year period, some twenty groups came to compete with one another within India, and eventually some five hundred groups were locked in mutual combat.

In a period five hundred years (after the Extinction of the Buddha) the non-Buddhists flour-ished; the Hinayāna came to be somewhat obscured, and even more so the Mahayana.

At this time the Śāstra Master Aśvaghosa first began to propagate the Mahayana in the period approaching some six hundred years (after the death

of the Buddha). His Awakening of Faith in the Mahayana, and other works, were composed at this time. The non-Buddhists with their false views, folded in their tongues and were all defeated, and the differing sects of the Hinayāna all shut their mouths and were put down. The profound Mahayana teachings once again flourished in Jambudvipa, and the capacities and the responses of all beings were now directed to the correct path.

Next there was the Bodhisattva Nāgārjuna, who, in a period six hundred years (after the death of the Buddha) and at the beginning of some seven hundred years (after His death), succeeding upon Aśvaghosa, walked alone in India. There were no non-Buddhists who were not crushed in defeat, and the whole of the Buddha-dharma came to be transmitted and upheld. He carried within his breast the whole of the three editions of the Avatamsaka. The streams of his writings, four-fold in their eloquence, marvelously controlled rivers and bays. He widely composed commentarial works, and he was even a deeper blue than indigo (=he surpassed his teacher, Aśvaghosa). Deeply he fathomed the Buddha-dharma, and he was colder than (=ibid.).

Both of these two Sastra masters were bodhisattvas of high (spiritual) rank. Asvaghoşa was, in the past, the Buddha Great Light, and now he manifested his traces in the Eighth Bhūmi. Nāgārjuna was, in the past, the Buddha Marvellous Cloud Marks, and now he abided, in his rank, in the First Bhūmi, that of Joy (Skt: pramudita-bhūmi).

Both of them were originally Buddhas, and both of them manifested their traces for us. In their knowledge and in their eloquence they surpassed ordinary men, which was as it should be. Thereupon when the converting conditions of the manifestations of these Great Sages was completed, they ceased their converting work and so returned to their origins.

But the Karmic conditions of sentient beings also arose in confusion, and their wrong views became even deeper. Because of this then, in the period some nine hundred years (after the death of the Buddha), the Bodhisattva Asanga arose in the world, benefitting living creatures.

At night he would ascend to Tusita Heaven, and there he personally received instruction from the Compassionate Lord, Maitreva. In the daytime he would descend to Jambudvipa, to there widely teach sentient beings. However, the clinging of sentient beings was deep, and they would not follow after his teachings. He thereupon requested Lord Maitreya to Himself descend (to Jambudvipa) and to preach the Dharma. The Lord Maitreya acceded to his request and came down to the Lecture Hall at Ayodhya, in Central India, and there He spoke the Five Major Sastras, as for example, the Yuga-ron in some one hundred folio volumes. He profoundly discussed the deep principles of the eighty thousand teachings. Of all the Buddha's lifetime teachings, there are none that he did not judge (in this work), so this work is termed 'the Commentary that broadly explains all of the Sutras' (kōshaku-shūkyō-ron).

At this time the false views of all beings were all put down; they all together proceeded on the correct path, and their progress and their attainment were marvellous and magnificent. After Lord Maitreya ascended to Heaven, Asanga continued his teaching in Jambudvipa.

It was during this period that Vasubandhu taught. Originally he propagated the Hinayāna, and he composed some five hundred commentarial works on it. Later he studied the Mahayana and again he composed some five hundred commentarial works (on the Mahayana). For this reason everyone called him 'the Śāstra Master of One Thousand Works' (sembu ronjū).

In addition, it was at this time too that Harivarman composed the *Jöjitsu-ron*, and Samghabhadra composed the *Junshöri-ron*.

In a period some one thousand years after the Extinction of the Tathagata, the major tenets of the Mahayana had not yet been divided into differing opinions. After some one thousand and one hundred years (after the death of the Buddha) the Mahayana first began to generate differing opin-

ions. At this period one thousand and one hundred years (after the death of the Buddha), Dharmapāla and Bhavaviveka debated Emptiness and Existence with reference to the Dependent Level of Truth.

Some one thousand and two hundred years (after the death of the Buddha) Silabhadra and Jfiānaprabha discussed external characteristics and internal nature in sharp debate. These masters in debate were like diamonds against diamonds, like boulders against boulders.

All of the various other śāstra masters, such as Nāgabodhi, Nilanetra, Rāhula, Dighāga, Bandhuśri, Citrabhana, Jfiānacandra, et al., were, all of them, bodhisattvas 'Four Supports of Living Beings,' the refuge of all creatures. From ancient days to the present they prominently appeared, and like orchids and chrysanthemums they competed with one another for excellence.

All of the various Traditions (within Buddhism) would take them to be their patriarchal masters and teachers, and all beings would depend upon them to be their leaders. In this way then various commentarial masters appeared and succeeded one another from ancient days down to the present, illuminating all of India, and saving all beings. Such are the circumstances of the propagation of the Buddha-dharma in India.

In the case of China, in the period towards the end of one thousand years (after the death of the Buddha), Kāsyapa-matānga first came to China.

Chu Fa-lan came next, and first disseminated the Three Precious Ones, and he gradually propagated the Five Vehicles.

From this time onward, during the various dynasties of the Han, Wei, Chin, (Liu)-Sung, Ch'i, Liang, Ch'en, Sui, T'ang and Sung, many Tripitaka masters each transmitted Buddhism, and each one propagated the Sacred Dharma.

In the case of translating the scriptures of the Three Piţakas, some monks came to China from the West, whereas others went from China to the West, and came back to China. The Three Piţakas of both the Mahayana and the Hinayāna were all translated

and disseminated, and both the Revealed and the Secret Teachings were widely spread about.

In this way Kumārajīva and Hsuan-tsang exhausted the most excellent scriptural translations, and their efforts ultimately called forth the heavenly praise of the Deva Veda.

Buddhabhadra and Dharmakṣema are praised for the beauty of their translations, and they too attained the divine protection of the Nāgas.

There were other eminent monks who revered the Buddha-dharma: the moon of the Golden Mountain (=Chi-tsang) and of pure reflection (=Hui-yuan) was clearly reflected in the waters of the Eight Negations which Reveal the Truth: the flowers of the Southern Peaks (=Huissu) and of Mt. T'ien-t'ai (=Chih-i) were ever fresh in the garden of the Three Insights in the One Mind: the breezes from the Tz'u-en ssu Monastery (=K'uei-chi) and from out of the Province of Tzu (=Hui-chao) were cool among the branches of the Three Herbs and the Two Trees; the jade of the Musk Elephant (=Fa-tsang) and of Lake Anavatapta (=Ch'eng-kuan) was bright and clear in the pavilion of the Ten Profundities and the Six Marks.

In addition to these, the two masters P'u-kuang and Fa-pao most clearly plummeted the profundities of the Abhidharma; the two scholarmonks, Fa-li and Tao-hsüan, brightly polished up the Precepts and the Vinaya; how much more too was the monk Hui-ying alone resplendent with respect to the major principles of the Jöjitsuron, and the monks I-hsing and Hui-kyo were, both of them illustrious with respect to the Secret Teachings of the Mantrayana.

Other than these, all of the various masters are too numerous to mention; they all propagated the Great Path, and each one of them penetrated the Teachings of the Buddha. They were lofty and eminent in their awe-inspiring qualities, and they frequently called forth heavenly gifts; their marvellous understanding was broad and vast, and

often they perceived the Buddha within their own minds. Such eminent monks, from ancient days up to the present, have been very many, and very great! How can words do justice to them! Such have been the circumstances of the dissemination of the Buddha-dharma in China.

In the case of Japan, in the eleventh month of the sixth year of the reign of the thirtieth Japanese sovereign, the Emperor Kimmei, which year corresponded to the eighth year of Ta-t'ung of the Liang Dynasty (=AD 545), a kinoto-ushi year, the King of Paekche, Song-myong wang, presented (to the Japanese Court) one gold and bronze mixed alloy image of the Buddha Śākyamuni, along with its pennants and banners, and some volumes of the Buddhist Canon. The Emperor was overjoyed with this, and seeing them, he worshiped them.

Although at that time the Ministers and subjects did not revere these objects, a temple was constructed for them, and the Buddhist scriptures were placed therein. From this time onward, the Three Precious Ones gradually came to flourish and to be established.

On the first day of the first month, in the first year of the reign of the thirty-first Japanese sovereign, the Emperor Bidatsu, (=AD 572), a mizunoetatsu year, Prince Shōtoku was born in the Province of Yamato. He further propagated the Buddhadharma, filling the Empire in many places with saṅghāramas (=large monasteries), and the persons he saved were countless.

The rebellious minister Moriya was stricken by the bows and arrows of samādhi and prajfiā, and the two monks from Koguryo gained fame for their propagation of the Buddha-dharma.

In his putting down of false views, in his building up of the Three Precious Ones, in his salvation of living beings, and in his carrying out of the affairs of the Buddha-dharma, wherein could he (=Prince Shōtoku) be surpassed in the countless goings and comings from ancient days to the present? For this (flourishing of the Buddha-

dharma) was all exclusively due to the power of the skillful means of this Prince of the Inner Palace (=Prince Shōtoku).

From this time onward, eminent monks appeared in great numbers and broadly propagated the Buddha-dharma; These monks were none other than the traces of the Great Sage (=Śākyamuni) who came down in order to widely disseminate the Three Precious Ones.

Hye-kuan  $s\bar{o}j\bar{o}$  transmitted the profound principles of the Sanron; Gembő  $s\bar{o}j\bar{o}$  propagated the Hosső Mahayana; the Perfect Tradition of the Kegon was introduced by the Vinaya Master Taohsílan; and both the Precepts and the Vinayas, and the Tendai, were propagated by the Upadhyāya Chien-chen (Ganjin  $waj\bar{o}$ ).

It was Dengyō-daishi (=Saichō) who again caused the Tendai to flourish, and Kōbō-daishi (=Kūkai) established, with great success, the Mantrayāna.

The Kusha-ron and the Jōjitsu-ron have both had their transmission.

Some of these great masters have come to Japan from T'ang Dynasty China, whereas others have gone to China, and have come back (to Japan with their teachings).

There were many other masters who disseminated the Buddha-dharma and they all studied these above teachings, from beginning to end. Some would drink from the jade-like streams (of the Gyokusenji Monastery; =the Tendai), some would transmit the light of the sun of Wisdom (=the Enichi-dojo of Kichijo [Chi-tsang]; =the Sanron), some would receive the full moon from out of Lake Anavatapta (=the Kegon), and some became disciples of the jade flowers (=the Gyokkakyū Translation Bureau; =the Hossō); some walked beneath the chaste pines of Mt. Nan-shan (=the Ritsu Tradition), and some sported in the Miraculous Fungi Garden of West Lake (=the masters In-tan [Yün-k'an] and Ganjō [Yuan-chao]; =the Ritsu Tradition); in some cases, the Green Dragon (=Shingon) deeply plummeted the depths of the

seas, and the Great Clouds (=Kusha) covered all four sides of the globe.

Both the Mahayana and the Hinayāna, the traditions of internal nature (=Sanron) and of external characteristics (=Hossō), the teachings of both Teachings and of Meditational Insight, and the two teachings of the Revealed Teachings and the Secret Teachings, had each of them, those who propagated them and who are, in all, too numerous to mention.

All of the seven major monasteries were, shoulder to shoulder, looked up to and esteemed, and both the Southern Capital (=Nara) and the Northern Capital (=Kyoto) competed in the excellence of their academic studies. These masters were all of them the followers and disciples of Nāga- and Elephant-(like saints), and all were the great teachers of both gods and men. All rural districts too, accordingly, saw the dissemination of the Buddhadharma, and from ancient times up to the present there has been no interruption of this.

Even though in this, the period of Mappō (=the Period of the End of the Dharma), the taste of the Buddha-dharma has become weak, the ocean-like teachings are still as deep as ever. Even though a person would want to snare its depths, he would not be able to do so. Great it is, for one cannot grasp it nor adequately speak of it. These are the circumstances of the dissemination of the Buddha-dharma in Japan.

Question: We now know in general terms the circumstances of the dissemination of the Buddha-dharma into these Three Countries. Now, however, how many types of the Buddha-dharma in all have been transmitted into Japan? Please explain this again!

Answer: In Japan, from ancient times, there has only been some Eight Traditions which have been pursued, and up to the present day this has not changed. In this interval however there have been some other Traditions. Nevertheless there has been, by common consent, only these Eight Tradi-

tions which have, from ancient times up to the present, been studied.

Question: What are these Eight Traditions?

Answer: The Eight Traditions are: 1, the Kusha-shū, 2, the Jōjitsu-shū, 3, the Ritsu-shū, 4, the Hossō-shū, 5, the Sanron-shū, 6, the Tendai-shū, 7, the Kegon-shū, and 8, the Shingon-shū.

Question: Of these Eight Traditions, how many are Hinayana, and how many are Mahayana?

Answer: The three Traditions of the Kusha, the Jōjitsu, and the Ritsu, are all Hinayāna. The five Traditions of the Hossō, the Sanron, the Tendai, the Kegon, and the Shingon are all Mahayana.

Question: Could we hear of the principles and the teachings of these Eight Traditions?

Answer: The principles of these various Traditions are deep and profound, and are difficult to understand. I have not yet fully tasted of even one of these Traditions, so how much less for some eight Traditions! For this reason then I shall present only an itemized list of their doctrines, and in this way I shall roughly present but one of their teachings.

## CHAPTER ONE: KUSHA TRADITION

 Question: Why is this tradition termed the Kusha Tradition?

Answer: The word 'Kusha' (Skt: Kośa) is the name of the principle Commentary of this tradition (i.e., the Abhidharmakośa-bhāṣyam).

To speak in greater detail, the full name of this Commentary is 'Abidatsuma-kusha-ron' (=the Abhidharmakośa śāstra). The word -ron is a Chinese word, and the other six syllables are Sanskrit. Abhi- signifies 'facing'; -dharma- signifies 'item, thing'; and -kośa signifies 'sheath, enclosure' so this work may be called 'the Commentary that embraces all things relevant to the dharmas'; that is, 'undefiled wisdom', and it is that which this

Commentary approaches. There are two meanings to the word 'facing': first, facing or going towards Nirvana; and second, facing the Four Noble Truths in meditation. There are two meanings to the word 'dharma': first, the dharma of Absolute Truth, or Nirvana; second, the external characteristics of the dharmas, which permeate all of the Four Noble Truths. That is, undefiled wisdom is turned towards Nirvana, and meditates on the Four Noble Truths. There are two meanings to 'enclosure': first, 'embracing'; and second, support. 'Embracing' means that this Commentary embraces all of the absolutely true words from out of the Hotchiron (=Jfiānaprasthāna), et al., and so for this reason this work is called a Kosa. The phrase 'the Kosa of Abhidharma' is a Tatpurusa compound (in Sanskrit grammar). With respect to the meaning of Kośa as support, this Commentary was written based upon the Hotchi-ron, et al., and so it is called a Kośa.

This work completely adopts the name of Abhidharma from this more basic work (i.e., the Iftānaprasthāna), and since the Kośa is an enclosure of all things concerning the dharmas, it is called an enclosure (kośa) of all things concerning (abhi-) the dharma (=the Abhidharma-kośa). This is a Karmadhāraya compound.

This then is the significance of the full title of this Commentary. Now since this Abhidharmakośa is what is revered in this Tradition, this Tradition is termed the Abhidharmakośa Tradition (Japanese: Kusha-shū).

Question: This work was written by whom, after how many years had elapsed after the Parinirvăna of the Tathāgata?

Answer: This work was composed by the Bodhisattva Vasubandhu, in a period some 900 years after the Parinirvāṇa of the Tathāgata.

Of the twenty different Buddhist groups in existence at that time, Vasubandhu belonged to the Sarvāstivādins. Originally this group had come out of the Vaibhāṣikas, and in their influence they embraced all other teachings.

The Mahā-vibhāṣā is based on the Jñānaprasthāna, and the six 'Pāda Śāstras.'

Some four hundred years after the Parinirvāṇa of the Tathāgata, there was a king of the land of Gandhara, by the name of Kanishka, who revered, and deeply believed in the Buddhist scriptures. One day he invited some monks to come into his palace, there to receive his offerings. The king took this opportunity to inquire concerning the Way. The monks differed in their teachings one from the other, and the king thought that this was very strange. He addressed the Elder Parśva saying, "The Teachings of the Buddha were identical in their origins, and there was then no difference in its principles. How can there then be such differences in what these elders say?"

The Elder answered him, saying, "All of these teachings are correct, for if one but cultivate (any one of them), he shall attain to the fruits (of the religious life). The Buddha in fact gave a prophesy, saying (that His Teachings) would come to resemble a golden staff, broken into many pieces!"

When the king heard these words, he again asked, "Which is the best of all of these various philosophical positions?, for I wish to cultivate it. Oh Venerable One, please tell me what it is!" The Elder answered him, saying, "Of all of these various groups, there is none that surpasses the School of Existence (=the Sarvāstivādins). If Your Majesty wishes to cultivate a practice, you would do well to revere this one." Thereupon the king was overjoyed, and he commanded that the Tripiţaka teachings of this one sect be brought together.

Eminent and venerable monks assembled together from the four directions, like the clouds. Ordinary persons and saints were exceedingly many, but because of their numbers, there was much confusion and disorder. Finally the king removed the ordinary monks, and only the saintly monks were allowed to remain. The number of these saintly monks was also very great, and so the king removed those that were saiksas (=learners), and only those who were asaiksas (=those with

nothing more to learn, arhats) were allowed to remain. The number of asaikşas was still large, and they could not assemble together. So from among the asaikşas, he chose those who had attained the Six Supernormal Powers in their samādhis, who had perfected the Four Eloquences in their Knowledge, who had learned the Tripiţaka, and who were proficient in the Five Vidyās — such were permitted to assemble together.

Now of those saintly worthies allowed to remain, they were in number some 499 persons. Eventually however the Elder Vasumitra was chosen too, and the number was then an even five hundred persons. The Elder Vasumitra was chosen to be the presiding elder.

Thereupon the five hundred saints first collected together some 100,000 *ślokas*, which served as a commentary on the *Sūtra Piţaka*. Next they composed some 100,000 *ślokas* which served as their commentary on the *Vinaya Piţaka*. And lastly they composed some 100,000 *ślokas* which served as their commentary on the *Abhidharma Piţaka*: this is the *Mahā-Vibhāṣā*.

After these five hundred arhats had finished this compilation, they had (these *ślokas*) engraved on stones, and set up the resolution that (these teachings) were to be allowed only within this land (=Gandhara), and were not to be allowed to foreign lands. Indeed Yakşas were commanded to guard the city gates, so that persons could not leave at will.

Now the Venerable Elder, Vasubandhu, had initially studied the Sarvāstivādin doctrines, and later he had studied the doctrines of the Sautrāntikas, and he realized that these latter teachings corresponded to the Truth; thus with respect to the doctrines of the Sarvāstivādin School, he embraced thoughts of 'taking and rejecting', and he desired to determine which was right and which was wrong (in its teachings). He thereupon hid his (real) name, and again went (to Gandhara), where he now spent some four years. He frequently proclaimed that (the Sarvāstivādins) were his own school, and he would vigorously crush all other groups.

The Elder Skandila was once defeated (by Vasubandhu) in debate and was unable to respond (to his assertions). Thereupon Skandila entered into samādhi, and so came to know that this person was Vasubandhu. Skandila then privately told Vasubandhu, "Among the followers of the Sarvāstivādin teachings, there are some persons who have not yet been liberated from desires; if they come to know of your defeating (their philosophical positions), they will surely kill you. You must quickly return home to your native land!"

When Vasubandhu reached his native land he began to lecture on the Mahā-Vibhāsā. After a day's lecture he would then compose one śloka which would embrace within this one sloke all of the teaching that he had lectured on during that one day. He had these ślokas engraved on leaves of copper, and in this manner he wrote down all of the ślokas. In this way then there gradually came to be some 600 slokas which embraced all of the teachings of the Mahā-Vibhāsā, perfectly and completely. These slokas he attached to a musk elephant (Skt: Gandha-hastin), and beating a drum, Vasubandhu announced, "If there is anyone who is able to refute (these propositions), I shall gladly confess my faults." But there was no one who could refute the propositions contained in the ślokas.

Thereupon Vasubandhu sent someone with these ślokas to go to the land of Gandhara. Then the king of that land, and the assembled clergy, saw these ślokas and they all rejoiced, saying that Vasubandhu was promulgating the teachings of their own school (i.e., that of the Sarvästivädins). Only Skandila knew that this was false, and saying so, he alarmed many persons.

Vasubandhu was eventually requested by the king to compose a commentary (on these slokas), and the sastra master Vasubandhu acceded to the king's request, and for him he commented on the original text (=the slokas), and this commentary was some 8,000 slokas in length. Later, when he saw this Commentary (=the Abhidharmakosabhāṣyam), he in fact knew that the words of the Arhat Skandila (were correct).

At this time a disciple of the Elder Skandila, the Sastra Master Sanghabhadra, composed a treatise which refuted the Abhidharmakosa. This treatise was entitled the Kusha Baku-ron (A Treatise, Hailstones on the Kosa). He showed this work to Vasubandhu, and when Vasubandhu saw it, he praised it, and changed its name to the Jun-shöriron (Skt: Nyāya-anusāra, 'In Accord with the Truth'). This Śāstra Master Sanghabhadra also composed the Kenshū-ron (Skt: Abhidharma-samaya-pradipika), which forms some forty fascicles in its Chinese translation. Translated into Chinese, the Nyāya-anusāra forms some eighty fascicles. Thus do we know that the Abhidharma-kosa comes originally from the Mahā-Vibhāṣā.

3. Question: When this Commentary arose and flourished was indeed in a period some nine hundred years (after the Parinirvāṇa of the Tathāgata). But when was this Commentary transmitted to China?

Answer: There have been two occasions when this Commentary was translated into Chinese. The first occasion was during the Ch'en Dynasty, when it was translated by the Tripiţaka Master Paramārtha, forming some twenty Chinese fascicles. Paramārtha thereupon wrote his own commentary on the text, in fifty fascicles. At present this work has been lost, and has not been transmitted to us.

Later, in the T'ang Dynasty, the Tripitaka Master Hsuan-tsang translated this Commentary into Chinese, making some thirty fascicles; this was done during the Yung-hui period (AD 650-655) and the work was carried out in the Tz'u-en ssu monastery. This then is the present text of the work.

Now since this Commentary (=the Abhi-dharmakośa) and its commentary (=the Bhāṣyam) were composed by the Śāstra Master Vasubandhu, the Bodhisattva Vasubandhu is regarded as the First Patriarchal Master (of this Tradition). The Tripiṭaka Master of Universal Learning (=Hsuantsang) marvelously translated this work during the Great T'ang Dynasty, and the Dharma Masters P'u-

kuang and Fa-pao wrote commentaries on the Kośa, and indeed many other masters have all studied this work.

This work has been transmitted to Japan, and it is studied in all of the monasteries, in an unbroken succession down to the present time.

4. Question: Does this Tradition only teach the doctrines of the Sarvästivädins, or does it also include the teachings of other schools?

Answer: This Commentary primarily teaches the doctrines of the Sarvastivadins. Thus the doctrines established in this text are based on those of the Sarvāstivādins, and it was on the basis of these that this work was composed. However, on occasion, the teachings of the Sautrantikas are approved of; thus it says in the work, "The doctrines of the Gandharans are proven (to be correct): I have relied on them in commenting on the Abhidharma." But it also says, "The doctrines of the Sautrantikas are not in opposition to the Truth." Vasubandhu picks and chooses from among these two Schools, and it appears that the author has both a revealed and a secret aspect (i.e., Vasubandhu publicly approves of the Sarvastivadins and rejects the positions of the Sautrantikas but he secretly approves of the Sautrantikas and rejects certain positions of the Sarvastivadins). But the principles behind these references may be known on the basis of the work itself.

5. Question: What are the principle tenets of this Commentary?

Answer: Since this Commentary narrates the doctrines of the Sarvästivädins, it does teach that all of the dharmas have real existence, and this then is regarded as its main tenet. Speaking in greater detail however, we cannot say that its teachings are not those of the Sauträntikas.

With reference to the revealed intention of this work, then we must say that it is solely Sarvästivādin; that is, it teaches that all the dharmas really exist in all the three periods of time (=past, present, and future), and that the natures of these dharmas is eternally existent. All such teachings are the doctrines taught in the School of the Sarvāstivādins.

There are a variety of different opinions with respect to the teaching of the real existence of the dharmas in the three time periods. There are some four opinions.

The first is that of the Venerable Dharmatrāta who holds that (the dharmas) differ with respect to their natures (bhava), and thus differ in the three time periods.

The second is the opinion of the Venerable Ghoşaka who maintains that the dharmas differ with respect to their external characteristics (laksana), and thus differ in the three time periods.

The third is the Venerable Vasumitra who holds that the dharmas differ with respect to their condition (avasthā), and thus differ in the three time periods.

The fourth is the Venerable Buddhadeva who holds that the dharmas differ with respect to their mutual relationship, and thus differ in the three time periods.

Now the Sastra Master Vasubandhu judges all of these four opinions, and he holds that the opinion of the Venerable Vasumitra is the best. However the Sautrantikas hold that the dharmas of the past and of the future have no real structure, and that only the dharmas of the present are real.

The Abhidharmakośa is an Abhidharmic work, so it is in the Abhidharma Piţaka.

6. Question: In sum, how many principles does this Commentary elucidate?

Answer: In all there are some nine chapters in the thirty fascicles that make up this Commentary. These nine chapters are: first, the Chapter on the Dhātus; second, the Chapter on the Indriyas; third, the Chapter on the Physical World; fourth, the Chapter on Karma; fifth, the Chapter on the Defilements; sixth, the Chapter on the Stages of Holiness; seventh, the Chapter on Knowledge; eighth, the Chapter on the Absorptions; and ninth, the Chapter on the Refutation of the Ātman.

A short stanza says, "Kai ni, Gon go, Seken go; Go roku, Zui san, Genjō shi; Chi ni, Jō ni, Haga ichi; se myo Kusha sanjikkan ("Dhātu two, Indriya five, World five; Karma six, Defilements three, Saints four; Knowledge two, Absorptions two, Refuting the Ātman one: this is termed the thirty fascicles of the Kusha-ron").

The Ninth Chapter, Refutation of the Atman, does not have any separate *ślokas*, but rather assembles a number of Gathas from out of the Sutras.

Of these nine Chapters, the first two elucidate, in general, defiled and undefiled dharmas; the last six Chapters specifically elucidate the defiled dharmas. The last three Chapters specifically elucidate the undefiled dharmas.

In the elucidation of the defiled dharmas, the Third Chapter, "On the Physical World," elucidates resultant states, the Fourth Chapter, "On Karma," elucidates its causes, and the Chapter on the Defilements elucidates conditions.

In the elucidation of undefiled dharmas, the Sixth Chapter, "On the Saints," elucidates the resultant states, the Seventh Chapter, "On Knowledge," elucidates their causes, and the Eighth Chapter, "On the Absorptions," elucidates their conditions.

The Ninth Chapter, "The Refutation of the Atman," elucidates the principles of Non-ego.

This then is the classification of the principles elucidated from the beginning to the end of the nine Chapters and thirty fascicles, of this literary corpus.

7. Question: How many different ways does this Tradition embrace all of the dharmas?

Answer: Some seventh-five (types of) dharmas embrace all of the dharmas.

The seventy-five dharmas are:

First, the dharma of physical matter (rūpa dharma), which contains some eleven things: five indriyas, five viṣayas, and avijfiapti-rūpa.

Second, the mind dharma (citta dharma), which has only one item, namely the mind which is the six types of consciousness, but which make up in their totality only one (dharma).

Third, the dharma of mental states (caitasika dharma), which contains some forty-six dharmas, which are divided into six classes: the mahābhūmika dharmas are ten; the kuśala mahābhūmika dharmas are ten; the kleśa mahābhūmika dharmas are six; the akuśala mahābhūmika dharmas are two; the parittakleśabhūmika dharmas are ten; the aniyata dharmas are eight; and altogether these make up some forty-six dharmas. These are called the six-fold division of the dharmas of mental states.

The ten mahābhūmika dharmas are as given in a śloka from the Abhidharmakośa, "Sensation, perception, volition, contact, desire, intellect, memory and attention, determination, samādhi — these permeate all mental states."

The ten kuśala mahābhūmika dharmas are, as given in that same śloka, "Faith, earnestness, freedom from dullness, indifference, modesty, shame, the two roots (of good: freedom from covetousness and freedom from hatred), non-violence, and diligence permeate only good mental states."

The six kleśa mahābhūmika dharmas are, as given in a śloka, "Ignorance, carelessness, indolence, absence of faith, languor and eccentricity—these are always, and solely defiled."

The two akuśala mahābhūmika dharmas are, as given in a śloka, "These only permeate bad minds, that is, immodesty and shamelessness."

The ten parittakleśabhūmika dharmas are, as given in a śloka, "Anger, hypocrisy, miserliness, jealousy, affliction, violence, enmity, guile, trickery, arrogance — such are termed the parittakleśabhūmika dharmas."

The eight aniyata dharmas are, as given in a brief śloka, "Reflection, investigation, and repentance, torpor, attachment, anger and conceit, doubt ...."

Fourth are the citta viprayukta samskāra dharmas, which are fourteen in number. A śloka from the Kośa says, "The citta viprayukta samskaras are: attainment, non-attainment, class-generality, unconsciousness, the two absorptions (absorption of unconsciousness, and the absorption of extinction), life force, the characteristics (of origination, continuance, decay, and impermanence), word, etc. (=sentence, letter)."

Fifth are the three asamskṛta dharmas. (1) extinction through cogitation, (2) extinction without cogitation, and (3) space.

These then are what are called the seventy-five dharmas. Among these seventy-five dharmas, the first seventy-two are all conditioned dharmas, and the last three are unconditioned. All of the dharmas are included within these two (=conditioned and unconditioned dharmas). Within the conditioned dharmas, there are dharmas which are defiled, and there are those which are undefiled. Unconditioned dharmas are undefiled. Thus does this Tradition posit some seventy-five dharmas, and so includes all dharmas, with none being omitted.

8. Question: In what way are the causes and the resultant states of the Three Vehicles (=Śrāvakas, Pratyekabuddhas, and Bodhisattvas) posited within this Tradition?

Answer: Within the Three Vehicles, the Śrāvaka traverses a minimum of three lifetimes and a maximum of some sixty Kalpas in his cultivation of his practice and his attainment of the result (which is the state of Śrāvakahood). There are some seven stages to his expedient means, and there are four grades to his resultant state (=srotaāpanna, sakṛdāgāmin, anāgāmya, and arhat).

The pratyekabuddha traverses a minimum of four lifetimes and a maximum of one hundred Kalpas in his cultivation of the causes and the attainment of his resultant state. He accumulates causal cultivations and straightaway ascends to the state of aśaikṣa (=arhat): there is not for him many

grades, but only one approach and only one resultant state.

The bodhisattva traverses some three asarh-kheyya kalpas and cultivates all of the Pāramitās. For one hundred kalpas he plants the roots of actions which will result in the major and minor marks of full Buddhahood. In his last body he will sit on the Vajra Throne, and cutting off all of the bonds, he will attain to Buddhahood. When the conditions whereby he converts others is finally exhausted, he will enter into Nirvana-without-residue.

The śrāvaka meditates on the Four Noble Truths, the pratyekabuddha meditates on the Twelve Links of Dependent Origination, and the Bodhisattva cultivates the Six Pāramitās.

9. Question: How many types of Emptiness (=Sūnyata) does this Tradition elucidate?

Answer: This Tradition only elucidates the Emptiness of Living Beings, and it does not discuss the Emptiness of the Dharmas.

'Emptiness of Living Beings' means that it cuts off attachment to self: within the five skandhas there is no personality or self. There are only the five skandhas which join together and which thus are provisionally called 'person.' There is no real person in them. If one meditates on things in this way, he will then be awakened to the truths of the emptiness of self.

However, this Tradition does teach that the nature of the various dharmas really exist in the three time periods, and so because of this fact the other Traditions (within Buddhism) have called this Kusha-shū the Tradition that teaches 'the emptiness of atman and the existence of dharmas.'