11 (Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta 1
The 1st Discourse on the Conditions (for Non-decline) | A 7.21 (A:Be 7.23) = D 16,1.6/2:79
Be: Paṭhama Sattaka Sutta The 1st Sevens Sutta
or Satta Vajji Aparahāniyā Dhammā The 7 Conditions for Non-decline of the sangha
Theme: The 7 conditions for the spiritual growth of the monastic renunciant community
Translated & annotated by Piya Tan ©2010, 2019

1 Sutta summary and significance

1.1 SUMMARY

The (Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta 1 (A 7.21) is a short teaching on the 7 conditions for non-decline of the sangha, that is, for the spiritual growth of a monastic renunciant community. The Buddha teaches this specifically to the monastic sangha for its benefit.

Like this Sutta (A 7.21), the Sāran,dada Sutta (A 7.19), too, contains the 7 conditions of non-decline, but which are taught to the Vajjis (Skt vrjj), and applied by them for national security and social growth. While the former teaches progress of renunciants, the latter is about social progress.

1.2 SIGNIFICANCE

1.2.1 The teachings of the (Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta 1 (A 7.21) is reprise at the start of the Mahā-parinibbāna Sutta (D 16). Although the Buddha could have well given the same teaching again as part of his final instructions (D 16), it is more likely that the monks of the 1st council put together this set of teachings since they highlight sangha solidarity, which is vital for the perpetuation of the Buddha Dharma after the Buddha has passed away.

1.2.2 The (Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta 1 is the 2nd of the 7 suttas preserved in the Aṅguttara Nikāya which are included as part of the Buddha’s final teachings preserved in the Mahā-parinibbāna Sutta (D 16) [1.2.1]. All these suttas centre on the same theme of the 7 conditions for non-decline, except for the last which is on the 6 conditions of conciliation.

2 Welfare of the nation

2.1 Ajāta,sattu

After prince Ajāta,sattu (Skt ajāta,śatru) had murdered his own father, king Bimbisāra, king Pasenadi (Skt Prasenajit) of Kosala and the Vajjis banded together against him. Ajātasattu first battled his own uncle Pasenadi and won, but later lost in another battle and was taken as prisoner by Pasenadi who, however, freed him and gave him his daughter Vajirā (Skt Vajrā) in marriage. As dowry, she received a village in Kāsī that had been the pretext for the war.

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1 A 7.19/4:16 f (SD 55.10a).
2 D 16,1.6/2:76 f (SD 9).
3 Traditionally said to be held at the Satta,pañja cave, outside Rāja,gaha 3 months after the Buddha’s passing: see Cv 11.1.7-1.11 (V 2:286-289).
4 For these 7 suttas, see SD 55.10a (4.3.2); also SD 55.15 (1.3.2.2).

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During the Buddha’s last year, Vassakāra (Skt varṣakāra) warned him of Ajātasattu’s plans to attack the Vajjīs. The Buddha then expounds “the 7 conditions for non-decline” (satta aparihāniya, dhamma) on a secular as well as religious level.

2.2 Conditions of non-decline of the Vajjīs

2.2.1 A nation’s welfare

These conditions of non-decline of the Vajjīs (vajjī aparihāniyā dhammā, D 2:73; A 4:15) keep the Vajjīs prosperous and progressive, that is, they are the 7 conditions for a nation’s welfare:5

1. They gather regularly and their meetings are well-attended.
2. They gather in fellowship, adjourn in fellowship, manage Vajji affairs in fellowship.
3. They do not promulgate what has not been promulgated, and do not abolish what has been promulgated, but keep to the Vajjī code.
4. They honour, respect, esteem, revere Vajjī elders and consider it worthwhile to listen to them.
5. They do not forcibly abduct women and maidens of family, compelling them to cohabit with them.
6. They honour, respect, esteem, revere their shrines within the city and those outside, and do not neglect the proper offerings previously given.
7. They duly protect and shelter the arhats [worthy ones] so that those who have not yet come will come, and those who have come will dwell at ease.

At the conclusion of this teaching, Vassakāra remarks:

“Master Gotama, if the Vajjīs were accomplished in even just one of these conditions for non-decline, their growth is to be expected, not their decline, what to say of 7 conditions for non-decline!

Master Gotama, there is no way that the Vajjīs can be overcome by any war of the rajah Ajātasattu Vedehi, putta of Magadha, other than by persuasion, other than by internal discord.6

2.2.2 Conquest of the Vajjīs

In due course, however, when the Buddha is in the Great Wood, he prophesizes how the Licchavi would be conquered by Ajātasattu—as stated in the Kaliṅgara Sutta (S 20.8). In time, partly because of bad friendship with Vassa,kāra, whom they allowed to live amongst them, and partly because of their own neglect of the conditions of non-decline, they became less united, less diligent. It was then that Ajāta,sattu attacked Vajjī country and conquered it.7

5 For a survey of each of these 7 conditions for non-decline (satta aparihāniya dhamma), see SD 55.10a (5).
6 (Underscored words:) aśiṇata upalāpandhā aśiṇata mithu, bheda. Upalāpāna (from vb upalāpeti) (D 2:76,4; A 4,21,1; J 4:469,24’; Miln 1:17,4; Sadd 529,4); Comy explains as “saying, ‘Enough with conflict; let’s have unity here! Then, offering elephants, horses, chariots, silver, gold and so on in the name of goodwill (“ā nāma alām vivādena, idāni samaggā homāti hatthi, asso, ratha, hiranna, suvann’ādīni pesetvā sangaha, karaniṇām. DA 522,4). See CPD: upalāpāna[a/a]; DP sv); Johnston 1931:572-575. Mithu, bheda, lit, “the creation of bilateral dissension” (D 2:76,4; J 4:469,24’; Miln 1:17,4; Sadd 529,4); Johnston 1931:572-575. Similar confusion between mithu (Skt mithu, “falsely, wrongly”) and mitho (Skt mithah, “mutually, reciprocally”) at Sn 825, 882 (mithu aśiṇam-aśiṇam). See OberliesPG 670 (Ann 34a); also DA:A 16 n2.
7 See SD 55.10a (1.2.2).
2.2.3 The future tense as historical present

Notice that although all 7 sentences stating the conditions for non-decline are in the future tense, they have been translated in the historical indicative (that is, the present indicative or simple present) to show that they are, as a rule, always true, and should be practiced even here and now. It expresses the kind of actions we must do, with the sense that when we do A, then B will benefit us. This historical or present usage of the future tense—to highlight the spiritually significant—is common in Pali. 8

3 The 7 conditions for the non-decline of the monastic sangha

3.1 “The monks assemble regularly and the assemblies are well attended” (bhikkhū abhinīharī sanipātā sanipāta,bahulā bhavissantī)

3.1.1 Rules and retreat

3.1.1.1 The Dīgha Commentary on the Mahāparinibbāna Sutta (D 16) tells us that the general import of this 1st condition of non-decline for the sangha is, mutatis mutandis, the same as that of the first condition of non-decline for the Vajjīs. This is explained in the modern commentary given in the translation of the Sārandada Sutta (A 7.19). 9 If you have not read the former, it helps to do so first before reading this section, since they are both closely connected: the former teaching on the welfare of a nation of community, this teaching here is on the progress of the sangha.

3.1.1.2 The most important assembly for the sangha is clearly the fortnightly conclave for the recital of the Pātimokkha for monastics within the same parish (sīmā). The recital of the monastic is the life-line of the true monastic going back to the Buddha’s own time. It is both a reminder of the monastics’ renunciation as well as the immediate tasks as members of the spiritual community. 10

3.1.1.3 Another important monastic practice is the observance of the 3-month rains-retreat (vass’-āvāsa), during which time monastics stay with other monastics within the same monastery or dwelling so that they are able to deepen their fellowship with one another, listen to the teachings, and update themselves on the latest developments in the sangha and the Buddhist community as a whole. 11

3.1.1.4 The rains-retreat is also a period for the lay community to show their generosity and support to the sangha, to observe the 8-precepts, to listen to the Dhamma more regularly, and keep up with developments in the Buddhist community. The laity plays an important role in inviting the sangha to spend the rains-retreat nearby for their benefit.

3.1.2 Routines and diligence

3.1.2.1 Monastic life is, by definition, a life of simplicity and routine, which is a predictability that conduces to personal and communal learning the Dhamma and practising mindfulness for inner calm and clarity. The Commentary speaks of the role of frequent assembly of sangha members at various level.

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8 S Perniola, Pali Grammar, 1997: §274b. For other example, see SD 36.13 (6).
9 A 7.19 (SD 55.10a (1.1)).
10 Comy mentions these only in passing, prob suggesting the changing conditions in the Mahāvihāra tradition when the Comys were compiled or retranslated from the ancient Sinhala texts
11 On the rains-retreat, see SD 38.3 (1.2.1).
Broadly, in a time without the kind of mass media we have today, monastics had to gather together to be informed of, for example, the extent of the monastic boundary (siṁā) or parish, wherein the uposatha (precept day and Pātimokkha-recitation) and other sangha acts are conducted; hence, dictates the presence of the whole twin sanghas of monks or of nuns.

3.1.2.2 The frequent gatherings of monastics also act as a means of “quality control” for the sangha by way of monitoring reports of monastics who have lapsed in their monastic discipline. For example, the assembled sangha may be properly informed of where monks practise medicine, or run errands for the laity; or constantly drop hints for donations; or make a livelihood from the flower offerings; and so on. The sangha will then investigate such aberrations and correct them immediately. (DA 2:524,13-20)

3.1.2.3 When the sangha hears news of monastic misconduct elsewhere, a sangha delegation (of at least 2 experienced monks, usually more) will be sent to those places to correct the situation, such as getting them to observe the uposatha and invitation (pavāraṇa) ceremonies. Senior monks of the noble lineage (ariya,vaṁsa)—ideally arhats—are sent to such places crowded with monks practising wrong livelihood to make them recite the noble lineage, and the Vinaya monks will admonish them. (DA 2:524,-20-27)

3.2 “THE MONKS ASSEMBLE IN FELLOWSHIP, ADJOURN [ARISE] IN FELLOWSHIP, CARRY OUT SANGHA DUTIES IN FELLOWSHIP” (bhikkhū samaggā sappatissanti, samaggā vutṭhahissanti, samaggā saṅgha,karaniyāni karissanti)

3.2.1 Assembling in fellowship

The drum or gong is sounded for a muster which can be occasioned by the giving of an admonition (ovāda) or the making of an ordinance of common consent (katika,vatta), or the need to repair the roof of the Bodhi-tree shelter (bodhi,geha) or the roof of the convocation-hall (uposathāgāra). All the monks assemble at once. They will stop in whatever they are doing—whether it is working on a robe, firing an almsbowl, or some renovation work—and say, “Let me be the first to assemble!” This is called “assembling in fellowship.” (DA 2:524,28-36)

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12 On the determining the siṁā, see V:1:106, 108-111; VA 3:1091-1106.
13 From the various examples in the Vinaya (V:2:41-144) and the ancient silas (eg D 2,62/1:69), SD 8.10, and from the respect given to Jivaka and other physicians, this remark clearly refers to a monk’s practising medicine as a means of livelihood (cf D:R 1:26 n1).
14 Monks (incl nuns) are not allowed to run errands (incl delivering messages), acting as go-betweens, for the laity, such as kings, ministers, kshatriyas, brahmins and young men (eg D 2,45.3 + 53 + 54), SD 8.10
15 See eg D 2,55/1:67 (SD 8.10).
16 The invitation (pavāraṇa) to counsel a monastic’s lapses, highlighting the end of the rains retreat: SD 4.18 (2.1.3). Broadly, this may refer to formally seeking the forgiveness of an elder monk, esp before sitting in conclave for the uposatha Pātimokkha recital [3.1.1.2].
17 The noble lineage (ariya,vaṁsa) is, technically, the transmission of the Buddha’s teaching, ie, the Dharma as text and tradition and the lineage of teachers that form the sangha (cf Gokhale 1994:7).
18 The phrase katika,vatta is post-canonical (J 6:541,4; VA 389,10). The word katikā, meaning “ruling by consensus” is found in the suttas (M 1:171,28) and the Vinaya (V 1:153,6) [3.3.1.4].
3.2.2 Adjourning in fellowship

During the assembly, none of them thinks, “Oh! This is an extraneous matter. Now, this is what we should be deciding on,” and then leave. They consensually consider, deliberate and act together. Only after such matters have been properly closed, do they adjourn together—this is called “adjourning in fellowship.” (DA 2:524,36-525,5)

3.2.3 Carrying out sangha duties in fellowship

Further, when a delegation needs to be sent somewhere to discipline some delinquent monks who are practising medicine, etc [3.1.2.2] or they need to be told to observe the uposatha or invitation (pavā-rama) ceremonies [3.2.1.3], the assembled monks will at once and eagerly volunteer to be that delegation. This is called “carrying out sangha duties in fellowship” (DA 2:525,6-18).

3.2.4 Fellowship

3.2.4.1 Finally, the Commentary defines “fellowship” (samaggā), or technically, “in fellowship.” How do the monastics live in fellowship? When they see a visiting monastic, they do not direct him to some compound (pariveṇa) of the monastery, but attend personally to them. Should the visitor be ill, they look for medicine. If he is badly ill and needs looking after, without directing him elsewhere, they attend to him in their own cells. When it is a fetter (gantha) for a single monk to give such a hospitality [3.7.1], he seeks the assistance of a wise monk to free him from it. In this way, it is said that there is fellowship. (DA 2:525,9-18)

3.2.4.2 When they see that his robe or bowl is worn out, they at once get them repaired, according what is proper by way of alms (bhikkh’ācāra,vatta). Should the visitor need robes because his robes were stolen or lost since a monastery, as a rule, has extra robes donated by the laity (V 3:210-212).

As a rule, monastics do not offer visitors any meals, since they neither cook nor store food. They do not build separate or new lodgings for visitors since this will involve construction and distract them from their personal practice and monastic routine. Moreover, monastics only need to go on almsround, and lodgings are donated or built by the laity.

In short, fellowship in the sangha and Buddhist community centres on hospitality, which will be discussed below [3.7.1].

3.3 “THE MONKS DO NOT PROMULGATE WHAT HAS NOT BEEN PROMULGATED, AND DO NOT ABOLISH WHAT HAS BEEN PROMULGATED” (bhikkhū apaññattaṁ na paññapessanti, paññattaṁ na samucchindissanti, yathā,paññattesu sikkhāpadesu samādāya vattissanti)

3.3.1 Not promulgating the unpromulgated

3.3.1.1 The Dīgha Commentary gives a few cases of “promulgating the unpromulgated” and its contrary, that of “not promulgating the unpromulgated,” from both the Vinaya and the suttas. For the former, it gives the bad examples of Assaji and Punabbasu and their followers [3.3.1.2], and the Vajjī monks of Vesālī [3.3.1.3]. The good examples are those of Yasa Kākaṇḍika,putta [3.3.1.4], Upasena Vaṅganta,putta [3.3.2.1] and Mahā Kassapa [3.3.2.2]. (DA 2:525,19-526,8)

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19 On the difficulties of translating gantha here, see DA:A 23 5.
20 As a rule, a “worn-out” robe is defined as being worn out in at least 5 different places (V 3:242-247).
21 See Wijayaratna (tr Grangier & Collins), Buddhist Monastic Life, 1990: ch 3.
3.3.1.2 ASSAJI AND PUNABBASU AND THEIR FOLLOWERS. The term assaji,punabbasuka refers to a group of excitable and violent monks led by the pair, Assaji and Punabbasu, from the notorious “group of 6” (chab,baggiya), who misbehaved themselves by habitually socializing with the laity, becoming very popular with them, but they were not welcomed by the people of their own area. The Vinaya records how they misconducted themselves, promulgating what had not been promulgated, openly flouting the training rules. Hence, they were called “bad shameless” monks.

Besides committing a very long list of offences with the group of 6, Assaji and Punabbasu were also the occasions for the introduction of numerous Vinaya rules and disciplinary actions. They grew flowers, made wreaths and garlands, and sent them to girls and women of respectable families, and to slave girls, lay down with such women, and disregarded the precepts regarding the eating of food at the wrong time, used perfumes, danced, played music, sang, visited shows, and played numerous kinds of games—violating altogether 18 precepts (VA 3:625).

Hearing of their wrongdoings from a monk sojourning in the area, the Buddha convened the sangha, and sent Sāriputta and Moggallāna, together with a number of other monks to carry out the act of banishment (pabbājaniya,kamma), that is, excommunication, against them. When the sangha arrived in Kīṭā,giri and instructed that the Assaji-Punabbasuka monks should no longer dwell there, the latter abused the monks, accusing them of partiality.

Adamant in their ways, Assaji-Punabbasuka and their followers left Kīṭā,giri, and left the order. When the matter was reported to the Buddha, he had the act of banishment revoked “because it had served no purpose.” Because of the Kīṭā,giri incident, where the Assaji-Punabbasuka monks refused to obey the banishment ruling, the Buddha promulgated Saṅghāṭī,sesa 13 regarding the corrupting of families (V 3:179-184). This is a lesson for us even today not to associate with false monastics who habitually associate with the laity and live worldly lives.

3.3.1.3 THE VAJJĪ MONKS OF VESĀLĪ. A hundred years after the Buddha’s passing away, the Vajjī monks (vajji,puttaka) of Vesālī did not conduct themselves according to the Vinaya. Like Assaji and Punabbasu and his gang, they, too, keep breaking the minor precepts (DA 2:525,22-26).

The Vajjī monks of Vesālī introduced these 10 wrong practices:

1. storing salt in a horn (siṅgi,lona);
2. the two-finger (dv’āngula) rule (eating until the sun’s shadow has passed 2 fingers’ breadth beyond noon);
3. going into another village (gām’antara) after having eaten once;
4. holding the uposatha separately by monks dwelling in the same boundary;
5. approving of an act (anumati) when the assembly is incomplete;
6. following the teacher’s habitual conduct (āciṇṇa);
7. partaking of sour milk (amathita);
8. drinking of new palm wine (jalogi pātuṁ);
9. using sitting-rugs with fringes (adasakam nisīdanam);
10. handling of gold and silver (jāta,rūpa,rajata).

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22 V 2:10-12.
24 Such as the games mentioned amongst the “medium moralities” (majjhima,sīla): see eg Sāmañña,phala S (D 2,49/1:65), SD 8.10.
26 Cv 1.13-17 @ V 2:9-15.
27 See Kīṭā,giri S (M 70), SD 11.1; VA 3:625.

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Of these cases of misconduct, the last is the most controversial.²⁸ [3.3.1.4]

3.3.1.4 Yasa Kākandaka,putta. Yasa, a pupil of Ānanda, lived during the time of the Vajji monks of Vesālī [3.3.1.3]. When he discovered that the Vajji monks had promulgated the 10 points, and that they were publicly asking for money from their lay-followers, he publicly condemned their actions. After obtaining the opinion and consensus of various elders from the sangha in different parts of north India, he then assembled a council led by Sābba,kāmi, the seniormost elder then.

Known as the 2nd Buddhist council, it was a Vinaya recital, and also called the “council of the 700” (satto,sati saṅgīti), since it was attended by 700 monks (V 2:307,35-37). On account of the elder Yasa’s key role in calling the Council, it was also called “the elder Yasa’s council” (yasa-t,therassa saṅgīti).²⁹

3.3.2 Not abolishing the promulgated

3.3.2.1 Upasena Vaṅganta,putta. The case story of Nissaggiya 15 relates that the Buddha decides to go on a 3-month solitary retreat,³⁰ during which time, only the food-bringer may approach him. The monks of Sāvatthī made a consensual pact or mandate (katikā)³¹ that for 3 months anyone who goes to see the Buddha (except for the food-bringer) would commit the offence entailing expiation (pācittiya).

Upasena Vaṅganta,putta and his followers, we are told, unknowingly approach the Buddha in solitary retreat. The Buddha, however, is happy to see him and his company of well-disciplined followers. Upasena informs the Buddha he only ordains those who observe 3 of the ascetic rules: being a forest-dweller (āraṇīnākā), an almsgoer (pindapati)ka and a ragrobe-wearer (paṁsukūlikā).³² The Buddha praises him for this.

When the Buddha asks Upasena whether he knows about the consensus ruling of the Sāvatthī sangha, he replies that he does not, and famously declares:

“Bhante, the Sāvatthī sangha will be known as having made the consensual agreement on their own. We will neither lay down what has not been laid down, nor abolish what has been laid down, We will practise in keeping with the training-rules which have been laid down.”³³

The Buddha praises Upasena and pronounces:

“Upasena, I allow those monks who are forest-dwellers, almsgoers, ragrobe-wearers, to come and see me whenever they wish.”³⁴

²⁸ Cv 11 @ V 2:301-308. See Lamotte, History of Indian Buddhism, 1958b:126-140.
²⁹ DA 3:898,2; MA 4:114,17; AA 2:10,5; VbhA 431,10.
³⁰ Icchā,naṅgala S (S 54.11) tells us that the Buddha, while residing at Icchā,naṅgala forest, decides to go on a 3-month solitary retreat (S 54.11/5:325), SD 44.9. Pārīleyya S (S 22.81) similarly reports the Buddha as spending a 3-month solitary retreat in the Pārīleyya forest, near Kosambi (during the 10th rains), SD 6.1 (2.2). Elsewhere, he is reported to go on a 2-week solitary retreat: V 3:68; S 45.11/5:12, 54.9/320 (SD 62.11).
³¹ Katikā, “consensus, agreement, pact,” as in katikā,saṅthāna, “a standing rule,” which means “adherence, keeping to” (see PED: santitthati 3, “to stick to, to be fixed or settled”; also santhapeti): pañco,vaggīya bhikkhu sakāya katikāya saṅthahantā, “the 5 monks, not keeping to their own pact” (V 1:9,6); sāriputta,moggallāna...tehi katikā katā hoti, “Sāriputta and Moggallāna made a pact between themselves” (V 1:39,1, qu AA 1:157,23 = DhA 1:91,5; See SD 38.4 (5.5.2) n.
³² Traditionally, there are a total of 13 ascetic practices (dhutanga): Bakkula S (M 124) + SD 3.15 (2).
³³ Paññāyissati bhante sāvatthiyam saṅgo sakāya katikāya. Na mayam apaṁṇātaṁ paṁṇāpessāma paṁṇattaṁ vā na samucchindissāma yathā,paṁṇatam sikkhāpadesu samādāya vattissāmāti.
³⁴ Anujānāmi upasena ye te bhikkhu āraṇīnākā pindapati sāvatthiyam sakāya katikāya. Na mayam apaṁṇātaṁ paṁṇāpessāma paṁṇattaṁ vā na samucchindissāma yathā,paṁṇatam sikkhāpadesu samādāya vattissāmāti.
Upon learning of this, the Sāvatthī monks are pleased. The monks discard their sitting-rugs (santhata)\textsuperscript{35} and keep to those ascetic rules. The Buddha, upon his return, noticing the discarded rugs all over the place, introduced a rule regarding the rugs and their usage. (Nis 14 @ V 3:230-232)

The Sāvatthī monks had overzealously introduced a Vinaya ruling when the Buddha himself did not see its necessity. Clearly Upasena and his monks did no wrong meeting the Buddha on solitary retreat since they knew nothing about the Savatthī monks’ ruling. The Buddha accepting the good conduct of Upasena, over-ruled the Sāvatthī monk’s consensual mandate, on the understanding that it is the Vinaya that protects the Dharma. We see here the Buddha as a non-legalistic teacher who places the Dharma above everything else.

3.3.2.2 Mahā Kassapa. One of the Buddha’s passing-away instructions was that he allowed the order to abrogate the “lesser and minor rules” (khuddakānu khuddakāni sikkhāp达nī).\textsuperscript{36} However, when the 1\textsuperscript{st} council headed by Mahā Kassapa assembled, no one—not even Ānanda—knew what the Buddha exactly meant by “lesser and minor rules.”

Hence, the elder Mahā Kassapa pronounced this before the sangha:

“Let the sangha brothers listen to me. There are these training-rules of ours connected with the laity, which even our laity know, thus: ‘Such and such is allowable to you who are recluses and Sakya sons, but such and such is not allowable.’

If we abrogate the lesser and minor rules, there will be those who will say:
‘The recluse Gotama promulgated the training-rule for his disciples lasted only until the smoke of his cremation. As long as their Teacher lived, they trained themselves according to the training-rules. Now that their Teacher has died, they stop doing so.’

If the sangha sees fit, let it neither promulgate what has not been promulgated, nor abrogate what has been promulgated, but conduct itself according to the training-rules as promulgated.”

(DA 2:525,32-536,8)\textsuperscript{39}

On account of Mahā Kassapa’s decision and the sangha consensus, we have the basic Vinaya code handed down intact, since the time of the 1\textsuperscript{st} council. Historically, this makes it the oldest legal code still extant today.

3.4 “The monks honour, respect, esteem, reverence elder monks who are of long standing, long gone forth, who are Sangha fathers and Sangha leaders, and consider it worthwhile to listen to them” (bhikkhū ye te bhikkhū therā rattaññī cira, pabbajitā saṅgha, pitaro saṅgha, pariñāyakā, te sakkarissanti garum karissanti mānessanti pūjessanti, tesañ ca sotabbaṁ maññissanti)

\textsuperscript{35} On santhata, see V:H 2:86 n1.

\textsuperscript{36} D 16.6.3/2:154,16 + SD 9 (12); Cv 11.1.9 @ V 2:287,31

\textsuperscript{37} Sikkhapadāṁ (sg), as a collective n.

\textsuperscript{38} Dāma, kālikāṁ samaṇena gotamena savakanāṁ sikkhāpadāṁ paññataṁ. “Lasted only as long as smoke” (dāma, kālikām) (DA 2:526,1 f; VA 6:1296,24-26): PED sv. Subcomy & DP take this as alluding to the Buddha’s funeral pyre (DAPT 163). Cf Horner who tr this as: “At the time of his cremation a rule of training had been laid down by the recluse Gotama for disciples.” (V:H 5:399,24-26). See DA:A 25 n4.

\textsuperscript{39} Found in Cv 11.1.9 (V 2:288,16-26) and recurs at DA 2:592,28-593,3. However, AA 4:19,3 only mentions Mahā Kassapa without recounting this well-known speech (perhaps for this very reason):
3.4.1 Respecting elders

3.4.1.1 The Dīgha Commentary broadly defines an “elder” (thera), based on word-etymology, as “firm” (thīra). More fully, its definition reads: “Elders are those who have reached a state of firmness [stability], endowed with the qualities that makes on an elder.”40 Now let us examine what is meant by “firmness” (thīra, bhāva) and “the qualities that make an elder” (thera, kāraka guna).

3.4.1.2 Firmness (thīra, bhāva) is explained by the Subcommentary as “having reached the state of irreversible [unfailing] stability in the teaching”41—this is the spiritual sense. One is also firm, psychologically and intellectually, who is emotionally independent and mentally mature, in whom there is a harmonious balance of compassion and wisdom.

This definition may refer to one who has attained arhathood, one fully awakened like the Buddha himself;42 or to one who has at least attained streamwinning, or as aspiring to do. Those who have won the path, especially the arhat and the non-returner, will never fall or fall back (anivattī) from their liberated state. Even when the once-returner or the streamwinner were to unintentionally break a precept, he will effectively remedy such a lapse and grow morally in the path.43

3.4.1.3 “The qualities that make an elder” (thera, kāraka guna) are those related to “firmness” (thīra, bhāva) [3.4.1.2]. The Uruvelā Sutta 2 (A 4.22) lists the following 4 defining qualities of an ideal monastic elder (thera):

1. He is morally virtuous in all practical aspects of the Vinaya.
2. He is deeply learned in the Dharma, remembering it well, having mastered it in theory and practice.
3. He easily attains the 4 dhyanas, living at ease here and now.
4. Having destroyed all the mental influxes, he is an arhat. (A 4.22/2:22 f), SD 94.14

Hence, a monastic elder is a fully awakened noble saint (like the Buddha), who is a good meditator, and a morally virtuous Dharma master who teaches the Dharma for the benefit of others. He is the ideal Dharma teacher, the voice of awakening itself; hence, the Buddha’s voice. Broadly speaking, such an elder may be any of the other 3 kinds of noble saint, that is, a streamwinner, and so on.

3.4.2 Rattaññū cīra, pabbajita saṅgha, pitā saṅgha, parināyaka

3.4.2.1 Besides the well-known term thera, “elder” [3.4.1, esp 3.4.1.2], the Sutta also mentions 4 other terms related to those who are worthy of respect, that is, rattaññū (of long standing), cīra, pabbajita (long gone forth), saṅgha, pitā (sangha father), saṅgha, parināyaka (sangha leader) [§5 (4)]. These 5 terms, beginning with thera, all share the idea of monastic elderliness. Separately, they are listed according to monastic experience and leadership qualities.

40 Thērā’ti thīra, bhāva-p, pattā thera, kārakehi gunehi samannāgatā (DA 2:526,9 f).
41 Thīra, bhāva-p, pattā’ti sāsane thīra, bhāvam anivattī, bhāvam upagatā (DAT 2:163,11 f).
42 Both the Buddha and the arhats have the same awakening. The only difference is that the Buddha arose first. See esp Sambuddha S (S 22.58), SD 49.10.
43 On these 4 noble saints (ariyā), see SD 10.16 (11-14); (Catukka) Saṃaṇa S (A 4.239), SD 49.14.
44 The older texts list these 3 “influxes” (āsava), ie, those of: (1) sensual desire (kām’āsava), (2) existence (bhav’-āsava) and ignorance (avijjāsava). The better-known later list of 4 influxes adds that of “views”: (diṭṭh’āsava) as the 3rd influx. These are also known as the 4 floods (ogha) or yokes (yoga). See D 16,10.4 n (SD 9); SD 30.3 (1.4.2).
Technically, seniority (rattaññū) or monastic sangha age is measured in “rains” (vassa), after the number of rain-retreats properly observed by a monastic—this is a reminder to monastics to diligently observe the rains-retreat, not merely to pilfer its benefits [3.1.1.3]. Special respect is shown especially to monastics who have “long gone forth” (cira, pabbajita), clearly a term applied to the seniormost sangha members, such as the 80 great elders [3.4.2.2 (2)]

The term “sangha father” (saṅgha, pitā) is not an institutional title but an affective one, one suffused with lovingkindness. The Buddha, admonishing monastics to tend to sick colleagues, famously declares:

“Bhikshus, you have no mother, you have no father, who might tend to you. If you, bhikshus, do not tend to one another, then who is there who will tend to you?

Whoever, bhikshus, would tend to me, he would tend to the sick.”

(Mv 8,26,3 @ V 1:302,6-20)

In the same section of the Vinaya, the Buddha exhorts the monks, especially preceptors or teachers and their pupils to treat one another in a compassionate parent-child manner. Indeed, the spirit of renunciation is that of growing out of the biological family and unconditionally embracing sangha members and society as a universal spiritual family. The teaching on rebirth further extends this familial networking into the immemorial past, throughout samsara.

Even a spiritual family should have a head, a parent-figure, a harmonious synthesis of fatherly wisdom and motherly compassion, an animus-anima balance, as it were. Such a quality should characterize both the “sangha father” and the “sangha leader” (saṅgha, parināyaka). This is especially true for the latter since he is the wisest and most capable of the seniormost elders whose counsel is often consulted and valued. [3.4.3]

3.4.2.2 The commentator Dhammapāla speaks of 3 kinds of arhat disciples, that is,

(1) the foremost disciples (agga, sāvaka), namely, Sāriputta and Moggallāna;
(2) the great disciples (mahā, sāvaka), of which there are 80, as listed by Dhammapāla;46 and
(3) the ordinary disciples (pakati, sāvaka), who are the hundreds of thousands arhats.

(1) The story of how the 2 foremost disciples (agga, sāvaka), Sāriputta and Moggallāna, experienced spiritual urgency (saṁvega) and discovered the Buddha Dhamma is related in the Vinaya and the Commentaries. Like the other great disciples, these 2 chief disciples had aspired to their Dharma roles before a Buddha many lives before.47

(2) The term “great elders” (mahā, therā) applies to the 80 arhats listed above. This list of 80 refers to those senior arhats—including the 1st 60 arhats sent out by the Buddha— who not only have special abilities, especially the 6 superknowledges (cha-ī-abhīññā), but they were also capable and diligent in managing the sangha, and adept in teaching the Dhamma—many suttas (and the Commentaries) have recorded their teachings and activities.

45 For suttas on such extended family relationships, see S 15.14-19/2:189 (SD 57.2-7).
46 ThA 3:205,27-206,6 (SD 15.10a (7)); mentioned as a group at Vism 98; DhA 1:14.
48 Mv 1.11 (V 1:20 f). They are the 1st 11 great disciples (incl Yasa’s 54 friends): see SD 15.10a (7). See also The great commission (SD 11.2).
(3) The term “ordinary elders” (pakati, sāvaka) refers to the arhats not listed amongst the 80. Among them are the “group of 30 fortunate youths” (tiṁsa, matta bhadda, vaggiya sahayaka). In this category are all the other arhats not in the list of 80.

The Majjhima Commentary (on the Dīgha, nākha Sutta, M 74) tells us that 1250 full-fledged arhats, all ordained by the Buddha himself (by the ehi-bhikkhu formula) gathered unannounced before him on the full-moon day of the month of Māgha (January-February) for what is known as the 1st Māgha Pūjā.50

A gathering of the same number of monks is also mentioned in the Śāmañña, phala Sutta (D 2). This clearly shows that the event occurred late in the Buddha’s ministry when Ajāta, sattu was king and came himself to visit the Buddha and was taught the Dhamma.51

Often, too, the suttas mention 500 monks following the Buddha on his Dhamma tours. We are not told, however, whether all of them are arhats (which is unlikely), nor what their names are. Such an entourage would probably include many monks who are non-arhats. It is likely, however, that they may include well known elders such as Sāriputta, Moggallāna, Anuruddha, Revata and Ānanda and their disciples—as mentioned in the Mahā Go, sīnga Sutta (M 32).52

3.4.2.3 Throughout the Buddha’s life, there was no sangha hierarchy. The Buddha merely recognizes the special abilities of individual monk disciples (sāvaka bhikkhu), nun disciples (sāvikā bhikkhuni), layman disciples (sāvaka upāsaka) and laywoman disciples (sāvikā upāsikā), calling them “the foremost” (etad agga) in their respective special abilities or fields in their own assembly in the noble sangha.53 Here are some examples:

- Añña Koṇḍañña foremost of monk disciples in seniority rattaññūnaṁ
- Sāriputta foremost of monk disciples with great wisdom mahā, paññānaṁ
- Mahā Moggallāna foremost of monk disciples with psychic powers iddhimantānaṁ
- Mahā Kassapa foremost of monk disciples in ascetic practices dhūtavādānaṁ
- Ānanda foremost of monk disciples with great learning bahu-s, sutānaṁ
- Mahā Pajāpatī Gotami foremost of nun disciples in seniority rattaññūnaṁ
- Khemā foremost of nun disciples with great wisdom mahā, paññānaṁ
- Uppalavaṇṇā foremost of nun disciples with psychic powers iddhimantānaṁ
- Tapassu and Bhallika foremost of layman disciples the first to go for refuge paṭhamaṁ saraṇaṁ gacchantānaṁ
- the houselord Sudatta dāyakānaṁ
- Anātha, piṇḍika foremost of layman disciples among donors dāyakānaṁ
- the houselord Citta dhama, kathikānaṁ
- of Macchika, saṇḍa foremost of layman disciples among Dharma-speakers paṭhamaṁ saraṇaṁ gacchantānaṁ
- Sujātā Senāni’s daughter jhāyinaṁ
- Uttarā Nanda’s mother jhāyinaṁ

49 On the “come, O monk” going-forth (ehi, bhikkhu pabbajjā), see SD 45.16 (1.2).
50 SD 16.1 (6); SD 45.16 (1.4).
51 D 2,8/1:48 (SD 8.10).
52 However, there is no mention of the number of monks present. It should also be noted that the elder Ānanda is only a streamwinner, and not yet an arhat: M 32/1:212-219 (SD 44.12).

http://dharmafarer.org
Nakula,mātā foremost of laywoman disciples who are intimate vissāsikānaṁ

Further, in recognition of the special abilities of a few leading elders, the Buddha gives them sobriquets or nicknames. Sāriputta, for example, is called the “general of the Dharma” (dhamma, senāpati), since he looks after the sangha as the Buddha’s right-hand monk, and Ānanda is the “treasurer of the Dharma” (dhamma, bhandāgārika), on account of his skill and diligence in remembering and passing on the Buddha’s teaching.

3.4.3 Ways of showing respect

3.4.3.0 The Sutta uses 4 verbs regarding our proper attitude to sangha elders, that is: to honour (sakkarissanti), respect (garum karissanti), esteem (mānessanti), and revere (pūjessanti) them. These verbs form a common stock phrase, which, in the 3rd person singular present tense (transitive) is: sakkaroti garu,karoti maneti pūjeti, “he honours, respects, esteems, reveres” (someone or something). This may be read as a string of synonyms (common in the Pali oral tradition). In fact, the meanings of the other 3 verbs are all found in sakkaroti, meaning “to respect, esteem, revere.” It is important to understand such overlappings are common in Pali synonyms. The significance here is to give us the “full flavor” of a Pali text, especially those of the suttas.

Hence, we must, as a rule, see this polysemy, and where we should not impose the technicality or fixedness of word and expressions often found in English and other modern languages. Such Pali words have their own nuances which depend on a teacher’s learning and skill to tease out and explain for a better grasp of the Dharma.

3.4.3.1 Sakkaroti (sat, “good, such” or sāṁ, “complete” + vkr, to do), literally means “to fully treat as such,” that is, to accept others as they are; that is, to see the good in others, or their potential for good—this is essentially the meaning of the verb “to honour” another. Hence, when we honour an elder (thera), we also respect that he is one “of long standing” (rattānũ) and other special qualities.

“Honour” is put first because we can see it as pregnant with all the good senses of the other verbs in the stock passage. Hence, to properly honour another, especially an elder, is to cultivate lovingkindness in our hearts, our speech and our actions, openly or in private, expressed or unexpressed. In other words, this is an expression of joy that we are in the presence or accessibility of one who knows the Dharma and practises it—a living spiritual exemplar.

From sakkaroti, we get the important adverb sakkacca, which basically means “respectfully,” but implies “thoroughly, carefully, duly, zealously.” It often modifies the verb upatṭhahati (upa, “near” + tiṭṭhati, “to stand”), “to attend, look after, serve (with due honour), to nurse (in sickness).” This proper

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54 Tha 1083; ThaA 2:101, 3:95; Ap 2.229/1:31; ApA 236.
56 Sakkarissanti garum karissanti mānessanti pūjessanti, 3 pl fut D 2:74, 75, 77, 3:44, 46; A 2:240, 4:16x2, 19, 20, 21; J 1:341,22. For aor sakkarimśu garum karimśu mānesum pūjesum: V 2:23 na … ; DA 1:164, 256; Pvb 54.
58 As a memory aid or attention register (to hold the audience’s attention should one miss the leading words).
59 In Pali, where words and ideas may have multiple meanings that apply simultaneously: SD 1.1 (4.4.5); SD 10.16 (1.3.1-1.3.2; 2.2); SD 54.3b (2.1.1.4).
60 Skt sakṛtya. Orig a gerund (verbal n) of sakkaroti. The form sakkačca is old and common: V 4:190, 295; D 2:356 f; S 4:314; M 3:24 sakkačca, dōna; S 2:417, 4:392; Tha 1054; Dh 392; J 1:480.
61 V 1:50, 302, 4:326; M 3:25; S 1:167; A 3:94, 5:72; Sn 82 = 481; J 1:67, 262, 4:131, 5:396. See SD 51.12 (1.1.1.3 f).
social decorum entails that we should welcome elders and guests, and treat them with hospitality whenever we meet them, especially in our own dwellings or homes. [3.4.4.1]

3.4.3.2 Garum karoti or garu,karoti (literally, “to make heavy”) means “to take one seriously,” on account of the good that the person is or can be. Garu is both an adjective (heavy) and a noun (heaviness): one who is “respectable” (adj) (garu) (adj) carries that “burden/weight of respect (n)” (garu-ṭ-, -ṭhāniya), and we should show them due respect (gārava or gāravatā).62

Occasionally, we see the word guru used for one who is given such respect, especially as a teacher. This, however, is rare in the suttas and Vinaya, but more common in post-canonical works. “Guru” has today taken a rather dark undertone, implying an amoral, cultish, exploitative Tartuffe.63

On a positive note, when the unconditional mutual acceptance is reciprocal, there is mutual respect. This is the basis for spiritual fellowship. Ideally, this is how we should relate with one another in a family, amongst friends, in a relationship, with friends, with the audience and with those we are communicating. This is clearly possible and natural in spiritual friendship and in a spiritual community, where, as beautifully explained by the 3 arhats, Anuruddha, Nandiya and Kimbila, spending a silent retreat together, as described in the (Anuruddha) Upakkilesa Sutta (M 128).64

Hence, in a true sangha (monastic community), elders “heavy” with the weight of experience and compassion uplift us, inspiring in us love and joy: love from the peaceful parenting presence; joy from the living skills we can learn from them. Despite their age, it is not a burden for us to support them; indeed, because of their age, we should happily support them. They are our living past before us, our roots and growth, those who have significantly shaped us into what we are and can be, so that a wholesomely bright future for the Dhamma and our community is possible.

3.4.3.3 Māneti (causative of vMān, to think)65 means “to make one think (highly) of, to recall someone (with respect), to highly regard.” Its future tense is mānessati (“one will think highly of”). Māneti is also derived from vMān, to honour—this is a synonym of pūjeti, “to revere” [3.4.3.4], which is discussed next. Here, then, we will only discuss māneti in the sense of “to highly regard.”

The elders are highly regarded, and rightly so, for at least 3 good reasons:

1. they have lived more years than most renunciants (pabbajita) in the Dhamma: they are valued for their experience;
2. they have great learning: they are valued for their wisdom;
3. they are arhats or noble saints: they are valued as spiritual exemplars, since they are fully awakened (like the Buddha) or are farther up the noble path.

63 Sadly, guru, on account of its abuse by sectarian and cultish Gurus of our times, has an insidious connotation of one who misuses faith and knowledge to exploit others in profoundly immoral ways, such as the abuse of power, the use and misuse of wealth, and sexual misconduct. On a psychology of the unwholesome aspects of Guru relationship, see The Three Roots, Inc (SD 31.12); on the social effects of Bad friendship: SD 64.17.
64 M 128,11-13/3:156 (SD 5.18).
65 Māneti has an alt root vMĀN, to honour (Dhātp 593): PvA 54 aor; past part māniita.
On account of such remarkable qualities, they serve well as subjects of meditation called the “recollection of the sangha” (saṅghānussati). This is one of the 6 “inspiring meditations,” which are helpful in freeing us when we are stuck in our practice, or to act as a catalyst for good meditation. This is a contemplation on the life and acts of the noble saints of the Buddha. For living teachers and inspiring practitioners yet unawakened who are good exemplars, they, too, serve well as the subject of our cultivation of lovingkindness, for our mutual spiritual benefit, that we will aspire to the path here and now.

3.4.3.4 Pūjетi “one will honour” comes from vāpuj, to revere, worship. The Mañgala Sutta (Khp 5 = Sn 2.4) says that it is a supreme blessing to “honour those worthy of honour” (pūjā ca pūjānīyānam). The Khuddaka,pāṭha Commentary explains “those worthy of honour” as referring to the Buddha, pratyeka-buddhas and the noble disciples (streamwinners, once-returners, non-returners and arhats), on account of their being free from moral faults and full of spiritual virtues.

The phrase “elder monks” (bhikkhu therā) used in the (Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta 1 (§5 (4)), as is well known in the Pali tradition, is simply a synecdoche (a shorthand) for all those “worthy of honour” (pūjānīya), as just stated. In the case of the sangha, this clearly means that monastics should keep to their proper decorum, that is, those with less “rains” (monastic years) should bear them in mind or hold them in our heart.

3.4.4 Focuses of respect

3.4.4.1 The Sutta exhorts monastics not only to show respect to seniority as mentioned, but also to be aware of the special attainments and abilities of the elders (thera). Such a practice gives monastic juniors and neophytes the benefit of the learning, guidance and inspiration in the “respect for the training” (sikkhā, gāravatā). The set of 6 kinds of respect are given in the Aparihāna Sutta 1+2 (A 6.32+33), thus:

1. respect for the Teacher
2. respect for the Dharma
3. respect for the sangha
4. respect for the training
5. respect for heedfulness
6. respect for hospitality

Significantly, the Aparihāna Sutta 1 (A 6.32) calls this sextet “the 6 conditions for non-decline” (apa-rīhṇiya dhamma). They serve well as the focuses of our respect. By “focus” here is meant that we joyfully bear them in mind or hold them in our heart, our speech and our actions. The Aparihāna Sutta 2 (A 6.33) tell us that the faith and moral virtue inspired by such respect form the basis for our attaining streamwinning.

While the sextet of respect in the (Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta 1 (A 7.21) stress on the social dynamics of the sangha members—living a monastic life of fellowship and diligence—the sextet of the 2 Aparihāna Sutta gives a different kind of respect...
hāna Suttas help us focus or direct our respect for spiritual growth. Both the sextets contain the same teaching with their Dharma dynamics differently arranged: one in terms of our practice, the other in terms of our focuses of respect.

3.4.4.2 For the greatest benefits, the 6 conditions of non-decline of the (Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta should be cultivated with the 4 divine abodes (brahma, vihāra), which can here be called the psychological foundations of a good society, that is, to say, lovingkindness, compassion, gladness and equanimity. While the juniors and neophytes (as students and trainees) respect the sangha elders with lovingkindness and gladness—showing respect by way of love and joy—the elders (as exemplars, teachers, counsellors and guides) reciprocate with compassion and equanimity—responding with ruth and peace.74

3.4.5 Elders as transmitters of teaching and tradition

3.4.5.1 The monastic community is an open society whose members often meet one another or have the opportunity to do so. Buddhaghosa, in his Commentary, suggests that monastics should meet their elders at least 2-3 times a day—this can be excessive and distracting when their daily routine includes Dharma-Vinaya studies and meditation.75

However, when we envision a large monastic establishment, it is likely to have morning puja (textual recitation in their main hall), regular classes in the Vinaya and the Dharma, and evening puja. Hence, the monastics do, in fact, congregate 2-3 times daily, besides consulting their elders whenever the necessity arises. Besides such communal practices, diligent individual monastics may also have their own daily solitary practice (paṭisallāna)76 or personal intensive retreats.77

3.4.5.2 Considering the size of a monastery of the Buddha’s time and the after-centuries, it is likely that a few younger monastics, or even a congregation of them, would be encouraged to meet monastery elders regularly for instructions. As a rule, it is the elders who order such meetings. The idea here, then, is that the monastics should not miss (not too often anyway) such important sessions.

Such gatherings are vital occasions when the elders transmit not only textual teachings but also accounts of their spiritual experiences, and other useful information related to the monastic life and the monastery itself (such as its history and traditions). (DA 2:526,25)

3.4.5.3 The duties of a monastic can be said to be basically twofold: the first is to train oneself to be a good renunciant whose goal is attaining the path in this life itself [3.5.2.2]; the second is to preserve the Dhamma-Vinaya fully intact for posterity [3.4.4.4]. In important ways, these two goals are closely interconnected. Only in being a true renunciant will a monastic have a full taste of the Dharma and reach liberation.

The textual tradition is quite easily preserved since it is a material legacy, but more vital is the spiritual lineage which is only “transmitted” by personal transformation, by one’s attaining the path, and not through some institutional certification of “Dharma transmission” or worldly ways of legitimizing “enlight-

73 “Ruth” is an old English word for “compassion”: SD 38.5 (2.3.2.1); SD 48.1 (5.2.1.3).
74 On the 4 divine abodes, see Brahma, vihara, SD 38.5.
75 Buddhaghosa’s advice may reflect the structured and institutionalized nature of the Mahāvihāra in Sri Lanka in his time, when there was less emphasis on meditation and a growing emphasis on textual study.
76 See (Duka) Paṭisallāna S (It 45) + SD 41.4 (1); Viveka,ja S (S 28.1), SD 33.3a.
77 The suttas often record how individual monks approach the Buddha for instructions to go on solitary retreat, on account of which they attain arhathood. See eg (Arahatta) Māluṅkya,putta S (S 35.95), SD 5.9. For a list of such occasions, see SD 51.16 (1.1.4.3).
enment” of later times. There is no basis for such “other”-sanctioned status and hierarchy in the early Buddhist texts. **Awakening** is neither a status nor a statement; it is best described as a state.\(^78\)

### 3.4.5.4 Proper monastic training

According to the Dīgha Commentary, proper monastic training can be summarized as the **10 bases of discourse** (dasa kathā, vatthu), the foundations for Dharma teaching and practice, thus:\(^79\)

1. talk about wanting little, \(app’iccha,kathā\)
2. talk about contentment, \(santuṭṭhi,kathā\)
3. talk about solitude, \(paviveka,kathā\)
4. talk about non-socializing, \(asamisagga,kathā\)
5. talk about arousing effort, \(viriyārambha,kathā\)
6. talk about moral virtue, \(siḷa,kathā\)
7. talk about mental concentration, \(samādhi,kathā\)
8. talk about wisdom, \(paññā,kathā\)
9. talk about freedom, \(vimutti,kathā\)
10. talk about the knowledge and vision of freedom—\(vimutti,ñāṇa,dassana,kathā\)

The importance of this **decade of discourse** in early Buddhist monastic training is attested by the fact that it is found in all the Nikāyas.\(^80\)

### 3.4.5.5 The vital years of monastic training are the minimum 5 years of **tutelage** (nissaya), which is the primary training for the “new monk” (navaka, bhikkhu) to learn the monastic ropes from a teacher. Those who fail to observe these formative years would surely fail to become a true renunciant despite their appearance. For this reason, too, those who renounce in old age are likely to have difficulty living as a renunciant, since it is usually difficult for them to undergo tutelage.\(^81\)

Monasteries (especially forest monasteries) with elder monks experienced in meditation are especially ideal centres for the teaching and transmission of the meditation tradition that goes back to the Buddha himself. All the meditations are mentioned, even explained with some instructions, in the suttas. However, relying on the suttas alone for our meditation training is like learning to drive by reading various driving manuals and the highway code! For efficacious meditation practice, we need to get the foundation instructions from an experienced elder meditator.

For those who feel inclined to be stricter in their practice, they may request the elders to teach them any, some or all of the **13 ascetic practices** (dhutaṅga). [3.6.1]

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\(^78\) On the statement is not the state: SD 10.16 (1.3.2.3); SD 49.5b (4.6.4.2).

\(^79\) This stock passage on 10 “bases of discourse” (kathā, vatthu) are at: Ratha, viṇita S (M 24,2.3), SD 28.3; Mahā Suññata S (M 122,12), SD 11.4; Kosala S 2 (S 10.30,9); Sekha S 3 (A 5.90/3:117); Vatthu Kathā S 1 (A 10.49/5:129); Kathā, vatthu S 1 (A 10.69/5:129), SD 103.5; Kathā, vatthu S 2 (A 10.70/5:130), SD 103.6; U 36,14; V 3:21; Nm 1:20-18, 2:472,28; Miln 344,29.

\(^80\) Interestingly, it is not found only in the Dīgha—which is understandable since this Nikāya is more concerned with highlighting what would attract non-Buddhists rather than listing the actual training: SD 21.3 (2.1).

\(^81\) In our times, we sometimes see aged Buddhist scholars turn to the robes without tutelage, perhaps, with the notion that their academic status is sufficient, or perhaps they merely see this as a retirement plan. Humane reasons notwithstanding, it would be doubly beneficial should they observe proper tutelage even in the sunset years.
3.4.6.1 Finally, a note on showing mutual respect—by way of the lotus palms or aañjali. The “lotus anjali” is now becoming a universal gesture of peace, of greeting and parting. It is a good alternative to the handshake (dexiosis), especially when handshakes are known to spread a number of microbial pathogens, scabies and H1N1 influenza.

The handshake is a common practice going back to ancient Greece (5th century BCE) or even earlier. It is usually connected with the military, where individuals from opposing camps would each offer their weapon-free right hand as a gesture of goodwill or truce. It is possible that the “shake” was to try to dislodge any weapons hidden up the other’s sleeves. The left hand, however, remained free to its own devices.

It is not suggested that the anjali should replace the handshake. Either action as a gesture of greeting and goodwill is acceptable Buddhist practice. In fact, the handshake is acceptable, as a rule, with clean hands. Since either of them is only a bodily gesture, there is still the possibility that the mind may not reflect what the hands offer. Morally, when the negative mind is restrained, the lotus-palms done in unison may be the start of common goodwill. Of course, these gestures work best when attended by a heart of goodwill.

3.4.6.2 To Buddhists, the anjali is a gesture of mutual respect, solicitation or appreciation, used in greeting and parting (between two or more people). It is characterized by putting our palms together in the lotus gesture (añjali, anglicized as “anjali”; or pañjali). The anjali (palms together) is directed towards the respected person or object of veneration with the head bowed slightly or deeply. The palms are raised to at least the heart-level or way up above the crown, depending on the occasion and one’s inclination or devotion. When the anjali is made at the end of a Dharma teaching, a puja or a solemn occasion, it is also accompanied by 3 loud exultations of sadhu (excellent!).

3.4.6.3 The anjali is a spiritual gesture, not a status-related gesture, like bowing before the powerful or royalty. What we are “bowing” to in anjali (whether to an individual, a group or an audience) is both in appreciation of their goodness, and, more importantly, as a mutual reminder that we are all capable of self-effort in reaching the path of awakening in this life itself. Hence, when someone anjalis us, we anjali back both appreciating the person’s goodness and reminding ourselves of directing our lives closer to the path of awakening.

3.4.6.4 The anjali as a gesture of mutual respect is also a reminder for us in the sangha or lay community to appropriately keep social distance from the person we are anjaliing, especially when that person is a renunciant or Dharma teacher. In other words, the anjali also reminds us to cultivate moral virtue by keeping to the precepts. In this sense, the anjali is a spiritual gesture to renounce any unwholesome intentions towards the other party or anyone. Hence, the anjali is a simple yet most meaningful, most beautiful Buddhist social ritual.

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84 V 2:188,27; D 1:118,31, 3:37,13 (≠ V 1:5,23), 163,27; M1:401,17, 2:74,21, 250,16; Sn 325, 566. 573, 1031, p79,2; Tha 460.
85 It should be noted, too, that anjali between married couples, partners and the near and dear is also a gesture of unconditional love and mutual joy. Further on añjali, see SD 15.10a (1.0.1.6).

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3.5 “Monks do not fall under the power of craving, arising in them, that leads to rebirth” (bhikkhū uppannāya taṇhāya ponobhavikāya na vasāṁ gacchissant)

3.5.1 Lust-free life

3.5.1.1 The 5th condition of non-decline is that of not falling under the power of lust (taṇhā). For various reasons (like over-eating, over-sleeping, or keeping bad friends), or for no apparent reason (mainly from the latent tendencies) lust arises in us. However, when we mindfully observe this arisen lust for what it is (a passing thought), it will die away. Our task is not to feed it.

Why should we not fall under the power of lust, or stoke it? Lust is so consuming that it wants all our time and everything else. It is time-consuming (kālika); it distracts us from what really matters in life. Lust is simply being much ado about nothing—literally.

Basically, to feel lustful means to be driven by a sense of lack, especially a lack of a pervasive inner joy; hence, we are dependent on external things. We imagine what we see, smell, taste, touch and feel as things (something permanent and desirable). Hence, we try to collect them, instead of just enjoying the moment. Since we lack a joyful being, we try to compensate it with a sense of having, to desire what we have not. Since this is unwholesome, it is attended by fear; since we cannot enjoy it for long, we cling to it, we desire to control it.

3.5.1.2 We are attracted to things, pleasure and power: we want to collect them. We want to have them. When we think we have it, we fear losing it; we fear to feel what we do not enjoy. Hence, we try to control the situation. We lust for a control situation, where we have only people we love, things we like, fun we can have—whatever feeds our lust. We can never have enough of this since we can never really enjoy them.

Lust spurs us to run after things: lust is the running itself. When we actually grasp the desire object, we cling to it. But then, we soon notice that this is not really what we want; we tire of it. So we run again: we go out on the hunt again, and again. We are so busy running, hunting, catching, that we have no time to enjoy anything. We do not even know how to enjoy pleasure.

We never really enjoy lust because lust deludes us with things (the delusion of permanence) and manyness (dissatisfaction)—in short, with numbers. Numbers, ironically, are numberless! There is no end to numbers. When we search for numbers, we only see them changing ceaselessly. Hence, our search never ends. These endless numbers are called samsara (saiṁsaṇḍa), the running cycle, a hamster running it is wheel.

3.5.1.3 We are reckoned by the numbers that we pursue. Numbers means “manyness” and “measuring.” What are measured are stuck lifeless, mere statistics on the setting-boards and storage systems of collectors and researchers. When we live by numbers, we too become numbers, and are reckoned by others who have their own system of numbering and reckoning; and we are just another statistic in their reckoning. Then, others can caught in these numbers likewise, ad infinitum. This is unsatisfactoriness, suffering (dukkha).

Only when craving stops do we overcome this unsatisfactoriness. We remove craving by understanding how our body (form) and mind (feeling, perception, formations, consciousness) arise and pass away. With this understanding we are liberated, never to be reckoned.87

86 For monastics, this means laughing at the arising or lust (it is incongruous for a monastic to be lustful), and smiling with relief when it passes away. For the laity, keeping the 5 precepts, pleasures may be momentarily enjoyed as long as they do not breach the precepts.

87 On our being defined by the aggregate we identify with, see SD 31.4 (1.2).
3.5.2 Right livelihood

3.5.2.2 The livelihood of the laity is that of exchange and consuming—hence, we have to work for a living, we offer our services or goods for a fee. The right livelihood of monastics, on the other hand, is that of cultivating moral virtue, the mind and wisdom. These 3 trainings are wholesome karma (kusala,-kamma) that benefit the monastic, others, and the world. The laity support the monastics out of wise faith. [3.7.2.1]

To ensure that the laity has wise faith, the Buddha reminds monastics not to fall under the power of lust with regards to their 4 supports (catu paccaya) of robes (cīvara), almsfood (piṇḍapāta), dwelling (sen’āsana) and medicine (bhesajja). Monastic right livelihood entails that we should use each of these 4 supports reflectively—meaning:

We (the monastics) do not own them; they have been given to us by those with faith and goodness. We use them only as needed; we use them with a purpose: to stay healthy and ready to reach the path of awakening. This is the teaching of the Sabb'āsava Sutta (M 2).

3.5.2.3 In a beautiful short discourse, the Santuṭṭhi Sutta(A 4.27)—and its Iti,vuttaka version, the Sulabha Sutta (It 4.2)—the Buddha reminds monastics of the nature of their 4 supports in these words:

- dust-heap rag (paṁsukūla) is but a trifle, easily gotten, blameless of robes (cīvara);
- a morsel of almsfood (piṇḍi-y-ālopa) is but a trifle, easily gotten, blameless of meals (bhojana);
- the foot of a tree (rukkha,mūla) is but a trifle, easily gotten, blameless of lodgings (sen’āsana);
- fermented urine (pūti,mutta) is but a trifle, easily gotten, blameless of medicines (bhesajja).

88 On right livelihood (samma,ājīva), see SD 10.16 (5).
89 This 3 conditions are called the 3 points of purity (ti,koti parisuddhi) regarding our good actions: SD 1.5 (3)
90 Fully, the 4th support is “support for the sick and medical requisites” (gilāna.paccaya,bhesajja.parikkhāra): V 3:99,27; D 3:130,18; S 4:192,22; A 2:65,18*.
91 M 2,13-16 (SD 30.3).
92 “A trifle, easily gotten, blameless” (appañ ca sulabhañ ca tañ ca anavajjam). These are said to be “blameless” partly because they are with owners and freely available.
93 Pūti,mutta, ie, fermented cow’s urine (pūti,mutta,bhesajja) (Mv 1.30 @ V 1:58), prepared by the monks themselves; they are buried in the ground. Comy says that any kind of urine can be used: “for, just as a golden-coloured body is called a foul body, even so fresh urine, too, is called ‘putrid urine’” (AA 3:43,20-23; ItA 2:147,17-19). Dhammapāḷa adds that broken pieces of yellow myrobalan are steeped in the fermented urine (to be used as medicine) (ItA 2:147,19 f). In Ayurveda (traditional Indian medicine), however, gallnuts are used instead. See SD 24.6a (2.3.1.2 (2)).
“When a monk is satisfied with what is trifling and easily gained, this is for him a certain kind [limb]\textsuperscript{94} of recluseship, I say!” (yato kho bhikkhave bhikkhu appena ca tuṭṭho hoti sulabhena ca idam assāham aĩññatararāṁ sāmaññaṁ ti vadāmīti) (A 4.27 = It 4.2).\textsuperscript{95}

In other words, a monastic living in this way is a true renunciant (pabbajita), living as a recluse (samañña). In this way, he falls not under the power of craving, which fuels rebirth.\textsuperscript{96} He easily reaches the path even in this life itself, and in no long time attains awakening, liberated from rebirth and suffering.

3.6 “MONKS LOOK FORWARD TO FOREST-DEWLLINGS” (bhikkhū āraññakesu senāsanu sāpekkhā bhavissanti)

3.6.1 The way out of the crowd

3.6.1.1 By the Buddha’s time, the central Gangetic plane, in which he lived and taught, had reached such a level of development, politically and economically, unsurpassed until recent times. The old republics in the outlying areas were quickly being absorbed into the nascent empires, centred on Magadha, which would later grow to become the largest Indian empire under Asoka (r 274-232 BCE).

An important factor to the rise of Magadha was its discovery, control and use of iron (it was the Iron Age). Iron allowed the kings to have better weapons, chariots, ships and vehicles. This means they had better-equipped armies. The growing political stability and peace encouraged population growth, which provided more soldiers and support for the king’s troops. Peace pervaded the kingdom, and with it, trade and prosperity quickly grew.

The numerous villages evolved into market-towns, and these into cities, crowded and bustling with people, commerce, communication and learning. The central Gangetic plain of north India, the main arena of Indian civilization of its time, was effectively unified or connected enough for easy movements of people and goods in every direction, even overseas. Traders came not only with their goods but also ideas and religions from Persia and the Mediterranean coasts.\textsuperscript{97}

3.6.1.2 The crowded urbanized lifestyle supported the specialization of labour, and there was a common durable currency in the form of punch-marked coins.\textsuperscript{98} This meant that most people could specialize in their occupations (unlike the subsistence economy), which encouraged the exchanges of goods and services. Most of the population thus had surplus wealth and time. Such conditions encouraged learning and exploring beyond the normal social life. With time on their hand, people began to ask all kinds of questions and speculated about society, the world and about themselves.

The milieu is fertile for the rise of great thinkers, teachers—and opportunists and charlatans. It was into this fertile social milieu that the Buddha arose amongst the numerous teachers who had all the explanations for all things, or knew just what to say to hold a crowd to attract believers, harvest wealth and live in holy comfort.

Unlike these teachers, the Buddha, coming from a wealthy family and spurred on by a profound existential crisis, provided a teaching that well resounded with the existential questions and spiritual needs of his times that attracted the greatest minds, and yet gave liberating space for the socially deprived and

\textsuperscript{94} Reading aĩññatararāṁ sāmaññaṁ āṅgangañ’ti (It 103,6).
\textsuperscript{95} A 4.27/2:2 = It 101/4.2/102 f (SD 104.8); cf Vism 2.30/67.
\textsuperscript{96} DA 2:526,30 f; AA 4:19,23 f.
\textsuperscript{97} It was possible, even likely, that in the early centuries, Christian and theistic influences from the West began to merge with Buddhist ideas in India, Persia and Central Asia, leading to the rise of Mahāyāna texts and traditions.

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marginalized. Unlike the emergent gurus and sects that rose, flowered and died with the times, the Buddha’s teachings spread beyond India to become a global faith, even more relevant today and for the future of humans and other beings—he is, after all, the “teacher of humans and devas” (satthā deva, manussānam).⁹⁹

The Buddha’s spiritual community is open to all classes, including unclassed. In simple terms, the Buddha gives the most satisfactory explanation of an unsatisfactory world, and provided the best alternative out of the crowdedness and angst of city and empire. He offers a viable alternative to the crowd, the way out of the world: the path of renunciation and awakening.

### 3.6.2 The 13 ascetic practices

#### 3.6.2.1 The Buddha, in his teachings, opens the middle way avoiding both the extremes of crowdedness and the loneliness of social angst. Those who practise the Buddha’s teaching will, at some crucial point, leave the crowd for the open space of the forest or the inner space of radiant peace. The Buddha himself is known to love the spacious peace and natural beauty of the forests, and wherever he or his teaching goes, there arises an awakening radiance.

The Buddha, in his Dharma tours, outside of the rains retreat, often sojourns in a forest or quiet space outside the villages and cities. This is the space conducive for deep meditation and monastic training. Technically, by “forest” (ārañña) is meant a distance of at least 500 bows’ length from a village.¹⁰⁰ This distance, in ancient times, was where one was out of earshot of a village or inhabited area, far and free from the madding crowd, but near enough for the monastics to reach by foot for almsfood.

3.6.2.2 Dhammapāla explains how a meditator in dwelling outside a village, having attained dhyana (jhāna), emerges, and hears the sounds of women, men, children and so on—he then loses his attainment. However, a forest-dweller living far enough from human habitation, wakes up to the sounds of animals like peacocks, tigers and lions. Hearing this, he is joyful, and continues to be at peace in the forest so that his practice is fruitful. Hence, the Buddha praises a monk who sleeps in the forest more than the monk who sits, having attained dhyana, on the edge of a village.¹⁰¹ (DA 2:527; AA 4:20)

3.6.2.3 As the Buddha and his monastics became better known and the sangha grew, so did their monasteries. Even in the Buddha’s lifetime, such monasteries could house hundreds of monastics. They became villages in their own right. The difference was that the monastic village was governed by Vinaya rules and had a daily routine of work, study, meditation and fellowship. Hence, living the forest life becomes one of the optional 13 ascetic practices.

In time, the Buddha allows, even encourages, monastics to live the forest life (as he and his disciple have done during the 1st period¹⁰²), and to love it, as the (Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta 1 states [§5 (6)]. For those who are inclined to such ascetic practice, they may request the elders to teach them any, some or all of the 13 ascetic practices (terasa dhutaṅga), which are as follows:¹⁰³

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⁹⁹ On the Buddha as satthā deva, manussānam: SD 15.7 (3.7).
¹⁰⁰ DA 2:527.2. The traditional Indian bow was usually about 3 ft long (0.9 m) but might be as long as 5 ft (1.5 m).
¹⁰¹ Iti bhagavā gāṁ’anta, sen’āsane jhānam appetvā nisinna, bhikkhuno araṇāhe niddāyamānaṁ eva pasamsati. (DA 2:527,8-10).
¹⁰² On the 2 periods in the Buddha’s ministry: SD 1.1 (2.2); SD 40a.1 (1.3).
¹⁰³ See Bakkula S (M 124) + SD 3.15 (2). For technical details, see Vism 59-80.

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A 7.21

- wearing only dust-heap robes;
- having only the 3 robes;
- eating only almsfood;
- faring house-to-house for alms;
- taking only one meal in one sitting (a day);
- eating almsfood from the almsbowl;
- refusing further food (not having seconds);
- dwelling in a forest;
- dwelling at the foot of a tree;
- dwelling in the open;
- taking only one meal in one sitting (a day);
- eating almsfood from the almsbowl;
- refusing further food (not having seconds);
- dwelling in a forest;
- dwelling at the foot of a tree;
- dwelling in the open;
- sleeping only in the sitting posture;
- connected with robes;
- connected with almsfood;
- connected with dwelling*
- connected with almsfood
- connected with effort

*Technically, for (8)-(12), only one practice is possible at a time, since practices (8) and (12) are generic in that either of them may overlap with (9), (10) or (11). Such choices depend on one’s practice and inclination. They are meant to enhance one’s spiritual practice and progress.

These ascetic practices are not compulsory for a monastic. He may adopt one or more of these practices, depending on personal inclination and stamina for the sake of a noble ascetic life. In an unawakened renunciant, such practices help overcome defilements. In an arhat, it is a natural lifestyle carried over from his earlier practice.

3.7 “MONKS KEEP UP MINDFULNESS IN THEMSELVES, SO FELLOW BRAHMACHARIS, LOVING VIRTUOUS CONDUCT, WHO HAVE NOT YET COME MAY COME, AND THOSE WHO HAVE COME MAY DWELL AT EASE” (bhikkhū paccattañ ñeva satiṁ upaṭṭhapessanti: kin’ti anāgatā ca pesalā sa,brahma, cārī āgaccheyyuṁ, āgatā ca pesalā sa,brahma. cărī phāsu vihareyyun’ti)

3.7.1 Hospitality

3.7.1.1 We have already noted that hospitality (paṭisanthāra) is the last of the 6 kinds of “respects” (gāravatā) or wholesome attitudes to be cultivated by a monastic, or even a lay Buddhist for the sake of spiritual progress [3.4.4.3]. Good hospitality is also the key element in community fellowship [3.2.4].

Basically, hospitality means keeping our dwelling or home hospitable, and also being hospitable to guests—showing our proper respect to guests. It is an ancient Asian tradition that guests, especially those whom we know and who respect us, are deeply respected, and the house is kept open to them.104

In this connection, the Buddha is recorded as teaching the 2 kinds of hospitality: worldly hospitality (amisa paṭisanthāra) [3.7.1.2] and spiritual hospitality (dhamma,paṭisanthāra).105 [3.7.1.3]

3.7.1.2 The (Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta 1 (A 7.21) tells us that “monks should keep up mindfulness in themselves” so that other monastics would visit, feel welcome and at ease, and would stay on to benefit from the host’s hospitality [§5 (7)]. Hospitality closes the faulty gap (chidda) between the host and the guest, benefit both, the community and others. (DhsA 397,20-22)

There are 2 kinds of faulty gaps that the host should close for his guest, that is, the worldly or material gap and the spiritual gap. The “worldly gap”—what the host has that can be shared or given away,

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104 For details on hospitality, see Love, SD 38.4 (5).
105 A 2.152/1:93,6-9; Vbh 360,13-17; DhA 4:111,13-21. For details, see DA 527,12-528,12 & DhsA 397,20-399,31.
and what the guest needs that is allowable and beneficial. Hence, materially, the host supplies the guest with robes, medicine and other such material needs.

Since monastics have rules against storing up food and perishables, and go for daily almsround, and their long-term dwellings are usually built and donated by the laity, the hosts, as a rule, only provide available robes, medicines and such necessities should the guest need any.

3.7.1.3 The “spiritual gap”—what the host knows of the Dharma-Vinaya and what the guest lacks in such learning and experience—the host will happily teach and share with the guest. This, of course, goes both ways should the guest be more learned; then, he will teach the host what needs to be taught. In this way, they close the spiritual gap between them, keeping both host and guest close to the Buddha-Dhamma.

The Commentaries give us various details about such hospitality amongst the monastics. These are given in abridged paraphrase below [3.7.2].

3.7.2 Hospitable monastics

3.7.2.1 Why do monastics need to keep up mindfulness? The avowed purpose of being a monastic is to live a life of renunciation (nekkhamma), giving up greed, hate and delusion. This is done through the 3 trainings (sikkha-t, taya), those in moral virtue, in mental concentration and insight wisdom. Throughout our life as a monastic we have the moral obligation to be mindful of this training—this underlying attitude is known as right livelihood (samma,ājīva), one of the 8 factors of the noble eightfold path. [3.5.2]

Basically, right livelihood is the abandoning of wrong livelihood, which is resorting to the cloth out of greed, hate and delusion. Such a person is a thief (cora) who exploits the monastic life to gain wealth, power and comfort; to turn the monastic life into a tribal sect centering on a person rather than the teaching; and to reject the teachings and practices of early Buddhism, and promotes one’s own views and lifestyle. This is wrong livelihood and very bad karma.

3.7.2.2 Right livelihood, on a personal level, centres on cultivating oneself as a true individual (sappurisa). To be a true individual, our clear purpose is to diligently strive to reach the path of awakening in this life itself, at least as a streamwinner, if not an arhat. This individuation begins with our being a morally upright renunciant, that is, “one whose moral virtue is well purified” (parisuddhi, sīla), one who embodies these 4 moral virtues, as listed by Buddhaghosa, thus:

(1) moral virtue by way of restraint in keeping with the monastic code;  
(2) moral virtue by way of sense-restraint;  
(3) moral virtue by way of livelihood that is completely pure; and  
(4) moral virtue by way of dependence on support.

(Vism 1.42-161/16-58; Abhs 9.49/204)

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106 As a rule, no storing of food is allowed (V 4:87,1 f: Pāc 38, Bhi Pāc 121); and medicines (bhesajja) can only be stored up to 7 days at most (V 3:251,14-18: Pāc 23, Bhi Pāc 25). However, where there are lay workers living in the monastery, they may maintain a store, which exist, as it were, independently of the monks but they may ask the lay worker to prepare the allowable medicine (such as medicine or drinks) for them. “Medicines” or “extras” (atireka,lābha) basically refers to ghee (sappi), butter (nava, nīta), oil (tela), honey (madhu) and molasses (phāṇīta) (V 1:58,21 f; VA 3:690); but may include milk and other allowable drinks (such as Milo).

107 On wrong livelihood, see SD 10.16 (5.4.1).

108 On these 4 monastic moral virtues, see SD 24.6a (2.3).

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Buddhaghosa’s formulation is based on this definition of moral virtue given in the Sāmañña,phala Sutta (D 2), thus:

Then, after some time, he abandons all his wealth and relatives, shaves off his hair and beard, puts on the saffron robes, and goes forth from the household life into homelessness.

1) When he has thus gone forth, he lives restrained by the rules of the monastic code [Pāṭimokkha], possessed of proper conduct and resort.

2) Having taken up the rules of training, he trains himself in them, seeing danger in the slightest faults.

3) He comes to be accomplished in wholesome bodily and verbal deeds, his livelihood is purified, and he is possessed of moral virtue.

4) He guards the sense-doors, is accomplished in mindfulness and clear comprehension, and is content.109

3.7.2.3 On the community level, right livelihood entails respecting the sangha as a spiritual community dedicated to the Buddha-Dharma. The Commentary to the (Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta 1 (A 7.21) explains this respect for the sangha in terms of hospitality (patisanthārā), that is, “the respect that is hospitality” (patisanthārā garāvatā), the last of the 6 kinds of respect [3.4.4.1].

The Dīgha Commentary begins by explaining that a “brahmacari” or a celibate monastic, should be one “who loves virtuous conduct” (pesalāṭi piya,sīla). Piya,sīla can also mean “one who is habitually pleasant (or loving),” one with joyful faith in the Buddha Dharma. Such a monastic, then, is not only morally virtuous but also friendly—the ideal monastic host. After all, when monastery inmates are immoral and unfriendly, they are unlikely to attract or welcome good monastics as guests.

The good reputation of a monastery filled with virtuous and friendly monastics spreads and attract other good monastics. When they arrive, the hosts go out to welcome them, take their bowls and robes. Then, they prepare seats for the guests, and make them comfortable.

If the guest is a Vinaya-expert, they will invite him to teach the finer points of monastic discipline and sangha affairs. If he is a sutta-expert, the host will benefit from sutta teachings. A guest who is a Pali master may teach the monks to better their Pali and sutta understanding.

3.7.2.4 If the guest is a good meditator110 then, the hosts benefit from meditation training. Following such wholesome learning and training, the monks are better ready and skilled to train themselves to attain arhathood with all the analytic skills (patisambhidā): those of meaning, truth, language and ready wit. These are interesting tools and insights in the nature and function of semantics, epistemology, linguistics and hermeneutics in understanding the suttas. Having understood how such conditions work, we can free ourself from their limits, and look within directly into true reality.111 (DA 2:527,12–52812)

3.7.2.5 The Dhamma,saṅgāṇī Commentary explains respect for the sangha as entailing the 2 kinds of hospitality, namely, worldly hospitality (āmisa patisanthārā) and spiritual hospitality (pirāmisa patisanthārā). In practical terms, these 2 kinds of hospitality are the closing of the 2 “gaps” (chidda), that is,

109 On this section, cf Cha-Jābhijāti S (A 6.57): “While living thus as a renunciant, having abandoned the 5 hindrances, the mental impurities that weaken wisdom, his mind well established in the four focuses of mindfulness, having cultivated the seven awakening-factors according to reality, he is reborn in nirvana...” (A 6.57.7+10/3:386+387), SD 23.10.

110 Comy does not mention Pali experts and meditation masters as guests, which are added on account of their vital importance.

111 On the 4 analytic skills: SD 28.4 (4); SD 41.6 (2.2).
the closing of the “material gap” and the closing of the “spiritual gap,” respectively, that we have spoken about [3.7.1].

“Worldly hospitality,” then, is the host’s diligence and compassion in closing the material gap between him and his guest. This is simply being a good host. Having warmly welcomed the guest, we should help the guest with his luggage (if any), show him the toilet if he needs to freshen up. Then, we seat him in a comfortable place and provide him with water, drinks, or outside of meal-times, we offer some medicinal drinks.

If the guest is not well, suitable medicine or treatment should be given. If he has come to observe the rains-retreat, he should be welcomed and briefed accordingly. Similar hospitality should be shown to those accompanying him, including his licitor\(^{112}\) and helpers. (DhsA -398,11)\(^{113}\)

3.7.2.6 “Spiritual hospitality” (nirāmisa patisanthāra) refers to closing the spiritual gap between the host and the guest. In the evening, or at an appropriate time, the host should approach the guest for teachings in his area of expertise (the Dharma or the Vinaya). For those still under tutelage (nissaya) [3.4.5.5], with the permission of his teacher (if present), he may be given appropriate instructions in the Dharma-Vinaya.\(^{114}\)

Alternatively, the hosts and the guests may gather at an appropriate time for a dialogue or discussion on relevant topics of the Dharma or the Vinaya. Otherwise, they may update one another on developments in the sangha or related to the sangha. Even in our age of digital mass media, such human communication is vital for the wisdom and solidarity of the community.

These are some examples of how to properly respond to the Buddha’s exhortation: “Monks keep up mindfulness in themselves, so fellow brahmacharis who love virtuous conduct who have not yet come may come, and those who have come may dwell at ease.” [§5 (7)]. These are some of the ways for us to practise and perpetuate the 7 conditions for non-decline.

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(Aparihāniya) Dhamma Sutta 1
The 1st Discourse on the Conditions
(for Non-decline)
A 7.21

1 Then, not long after the brahmin Vassakāra, chief minister of Magadha, had left,\(^{115}\) the Blessed One addressed the venerable Ānanda,

“Go now, Ānanda, gather all the monks\(^{116}\) living in the neighbourhood of Rājagaha in the assembly-hall.”

\(^{112}\) A licitor (kappiya; fully kappiya,karaka, one who makes allowable) is a layman attendant to a monk who receives offerings on his behalf to make them allowable (V 1:245,2, 3:221,26-34, 242,11 (Nis 20), 4:90,28 (Pāc 40); def VA 675,1-677,2, PṭmkA 67,20-68,30): D 14,2.14 n, SD 19 (7.3). This is not mentioned in the Comy. See CPD: kappiya-kāraka.

\(^{113}\) For a tr, see DhsA:P 506 f.

\(^{114}\) Not mentioned in the Comy.

\(^{115}\) This refers to the events of (Aparihāniya) Vassa,kāra S (A 7.20), where see §16 (SD 55.10b).

\(^{116}\) It is interesting to note that here only the “monks” are addressed but not the nuns who by this time number considerably: see D 16,3.8 f (SD 9), where all the 4 assemblies are mentioned. Either “monks” here is used inclus-
2 “Very well, bhante,” replied the venerable Ananda. He gathered all the monks living in the vicinity of Rājagaha in the assembly-hall.

Then, he approached the Blessed One, saluted him and stood at one side.

3 Standing at one side, the venerable Ānanda said to the Blessed One:

“The community of bhikkhus, bhante, has been assembled. Let the Blessed One do as he seems fit.”

4 Then, the Blessed One rose from where he was sitting, and went to the assembly-hall. He sat down on the seat prepared for him. Seated, the Blessed One addressed the monks, thus:

“I will expound to you, bhikkhus, the 7 conditions for non-decline (of the sangha).

Listen well! Pay close attention! I will speak.”

“Sadhu, bhante,” replied the monks in assent to the Blessed One.

5 The Blessed One said this:

(1) “Bhikshus, so long, as the monks assemble regularly and the assemblies are well attended, then, surely, bhikshus, only growth is to be expected for the monks, not decline.117

(2) Bhikshus, so long, as the monks assemble in fellowship, adjourn [arise] in fellowship, carry out sangha duties in fellowship, then, surely, bhikshus, only growth is to be expected for the monks, not decline.118

(3) Bhikshus, so long, as the monks do not promulgate what has not been promulgated, and do not abolish what has been promulgated, but observe the prescribed training-rules, then, surely, bhikshus, only growth is to be expected for the monks, not decline.119

(4) Bhikshus, so long, as the monks honour, respect, esteem, revere elder monks who are of long standing, long gone forth, who are sangha fathers and sangha leaders, and consider it worthwhile to listen to them, then, surely, bhikshus, only growth is to be expected for the monks, not decline.120

(5) Bhikshus, so long, as monks do not fall under the power of craving, arising in them, that leads to rebirth, then, surely, bhikshus, only growth is to be expected for the monks, not decline.121

(6) Bhikshus, so long, as monks look forward to forest-dwellings, then, surely, bhikshus, only growth is to be expected for the monks, not decline.122

117 Yāvaṅkīvañ ca bhikkhave bhikkhū abhīnaṁ sannipātā sannipāta, bahulā bhavissantī, vuddhiy-eva bhikkhave bhikkhūnaṁ pāṭikan-khā no pariṇāṁ. [3.1]. On tr this future-tense sentence in the present tense: (2.2.3).

118 Yāvaṅkīvañ ca bhikkhave bhikkhū sammagga sannipatissanti, sammagga vuṭṭhahissanti, sammagga saṅgha, karanīyāni karissanti, vuddhiy-eva bhikkhave bhikkhūnaṁ pāṭikan-khā no pariṇāṁ. [3.2]

119 Yāvaṅkīvañ ca bhikkhave bhikkhū apaññattānaṁ na paññapessanti, paññattānaṁ na samuchchintassanti, yathā, paññattāsa sikkhāpadesu samādāya vattissanti, vuddhiy-eva bhikkhave bhikkhūnaṁ pāṭikan-khā no pariṇāṁ. [3.3]

120 Yāvaṅkīvañ ca bhikkhave bhikkhū ye te bhikkhū therā rattaṅṇānaṁ cira, pabbajitā saṅgha, pitaro saṅgha, pariṇāya-kā, te sakkariissanti garum karissanti mānissanti pūjissanti, tesaṁ ca sotabbaṁ māṇiissanti, vuddhiy-eva bhikkhave bhikkhūnaṁ pāṭikan-khā no pariṇāṁ. [3.4]

121 Yāvaṅkīvañ ca bhikkhave bhikkhū uppannāya tanhāya ponobbhavikāya na vasaṁ gacchissantī, vuddhiy-eva bhikkhave bhikkhūnaṁ pāṭikan-khā no pariṇāṁ. [3.5]

122 Yāvaṅkīvañ ca bhikkhave bhikkhū āraññakesu senāsanesu sāpekkhā bhavissantī, vuddhiy-eva bhikkhave bhikkhūnaṁ pāṭikan-khā no pariṇāṁ. [3.6]
(7) Bhikshus, so long, as monks keep up mindfulness in themselves, so fellow brahmacharis, loving virtuous conduct, who have not yet come may come, and those who have come may dwell at ease, then, surely, bhikshus, only growth is to be expected for the monks, not decline.\textsuperscript{123}

7 Bhikshus, so long, as these 7 conditions for non-decline endure among the monks, and so long as the monks observe and apply these 7 conditions, then, surely, bhikshus, growth, is to be expected for the monks, not decline.

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\textsuperscript{123} Yāvakīvaṇaṁ ca bhikkhave bhikkhū paccattaṇāṁ ēvaṁ satim upaṭṭhappessanti: kin’ti anāgataṁ ca pesalā sa,brahma,-cāri āgaccheyyam, āgataṁ ca pesalā sa,brahma,cāri phāsu vihareeyun’ti vuddhiy-eva bhikkhave bhikkhūnam pāṭi-kaṅkhā no pariṁhāni. [3.7]