Indic-Vernacular Bitexts from Thailand: Bilingual Modes of Philology, Exegetics, Homiletics, and Poetry, 1450–1850

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In the late first and early second millennia, mainland Southeast Asians created sophisticated techniques to accurately and efficiently render Pali into local vernaculars, including Burmese, Khmer, Khün, Lanna, Lao, Lü, Mon, and Siamese. These techniques for vernacular reading, parallel to approaches for reading Latin in medieval Europe and Literary Sinitic in Japan, Korea, and Vietnam, led to the development of bitexts that contained a mix of Pali and vernacular material.

Such bitexts, arranged in both interlinear and interphrasal formats, gradually allowed second-millennium Southeast Asian writers to sprout a vernacular literature from the established branches of Pali genres. Bitexts themselves formed the basis for a new literary style that stemmed from the techniques of vernacular reading, a style that set the standard for belles-lettres until the early twentieth century. The spread of Pali-vernacular bitexts in Southeast Asia allowed for the literary elevation of the vernacular without renouncing the cosmopolitan idiom of Pali.

To support these arguments, this article draws on some of the earliest examples of bitexts in Central Thailand (Siam) and Northern Thailand (Lanna). These include a hitherto undeciphered form of manuscript annotation in seventeenth- to nineteenth-century Siam; two of the oldest palm-leaf documents surviving in any Tai language, from sixteenth-century Lanna; and the oldest known Pali-Siamese literary work, thought to be composed in 1482. These bitexts provide detailed evidence for vernacular reading and the emergence of vernacular literature in mainland Southeast Asian in general and Thailand in particular.

INTRODUCTION

The literary culture of second-millennium mainland Southeast Asia, excepting Vietnam, emerges from the encounter between classical Indic languages and local vernacular languages. The leading Indic language of this period in Southeast Asia is Pali, a Middle Indic language closely related to Sanskrit, though Sanskrit itself maintained a secondary role in the region. The Southeast Asian vernaculars that Pali and Sanskrit intertwine with include the Tibeto-Burman tongue of Burmese; the Austroasiatic languages of Mon and Khmer; and the Southwestern Tai dialects of Siamese (or Central Thai), Lanna (or Northern Thai), Lao, Shan, Tai Khün, and Tai Lü (Dai Lue). At the crux of this meeting between Indic and local vernaculars are Indic-vernacular bitexts.

I define bitexts as texts that are presented bilingually, with portions in one language mixed together with portions in another, typically in an interphrasal or interlinear arrangement. Indic-vernacular bitexts may be structured in various ways, and need not contain equal proportions of Indic and Southeast Asian material. In most cases, the vernacular portions of a

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bitext provide an analytic reading of the Pali or Sanskrit portions, sometimes accompanied by an interpretive or literary commentary. Such bitexts, known by diverse names in local languages, form a significant portion of all extant written material produced between the twelfth and nineteenth centuries in what is now Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, and Thailand. ¹

There have been very few sustained studies of Southeast Asian Indic-vernacular bitexts to date. William Pruitt, building on earlier work by Tin Lwin and John Okell, meticulously demonstrates the extraordinary range of grammatical particles and abbreviation systems employed in a single type of Pali-Burmese bitext.² Assanee Poolrak explores a number of analogous technical particles found in one Pali-Siamese bitext to show how Indic literary modes were adopted in Central Thailand.³ Justin McDaniel, based on his readings of Pali-Lao and Pali-Lanna bitexts, claims that such bilingual compositions follow no strict conventions but rather reflect the idiosyncratic approaches of individual teachers.⁴

By contrast, my research on bitexts in Cambodia, Laos, and Thailand demonstrates not only that strict conventions were followed, but that many of these conventions were shared across mainland Southeast Asia from the eleventh century onward. Bitexts, in my reading, do not reflect what McDaniel sees as idiosyncrasies of particular local or personal approaches to reading Pali. ⁵ Nor are the technical features of Indic-vernacular bitexts, as documented by Pruitt and Assanee, particular to Burmese or Siamese contexts. I argue instead that Indic-vernacular bitexts spread across mainland Southeast Asia in the second millennium for three reasons: 1) they facilitated linguistic exchange not only between Indic and Southeast Asian languages but also among different Southeast Asian vernaculars, 2) they structured the vernacular reading and translation of Pali (and occasionally Sanskrit) texts, and 3) they facilitated the emergence of distinctive styles of bilingual literature that served philological, exegetical, homiletic, and poetic ends. This article unpacks the latter two claims. ⁶

In this essay, I first provide a brief overview of how intellectuals in mainland Southeast Asia created sophisticated techniques to accurately and efficiently render Pali and Sanskrit into local vernaculars. Some of these techniques parallel various approaches for reading

- 1. The most common local names for bitexts include *nissaya* (Burmese), *nam/trā-ai* (Mon), *nisrai/nissăy* (Lanna, Lao, Siamese), *nāmaśăbd/săpº* (Lanna, Lao, Siamese), *cuṇṇiyapad* (Siamese), *plè yak śăbd* (Siamese), and *prè lot prayog* (Khmer). Transliteration of Khmer, Lanna, Lao, and Siamese sources and terms in this essay follows the system outlined in Trent Walker, "Unfolding Buddhism: Communal Scripts, Localized Translations, and the Work of the Dying in Cambodian Chanted Leporellos" (PhD diss., Univ. of California, Berkeley, 2018), xiii–xvii. A number of minor additions to this system are described in the footnotes.
- 2. William Pruitt, Étude linguistique de nissaya birmans (Paris: École française d'Extrême-Orient, 1994); Tin Lwin, "A Study of Pali-Burmese Nissaya with Special Reference to the Mahāparinibbhāna-sutta" (PhD diss., School of Oriental and African Studies, Univ. of London, 1961); John Okell, "Nissaya Burmese," *Lingua* 15 (1965): 186–227.
- Assanee Poolrak, "Năndôpanăndasūtr gām hlvan: Kār vigroḥh* śilpaḥ kār plè lèḥ kalavidhī dān varrnaśilp*" (MA thesis, Chulalongkorn Univ., 2012).
- 4. Justin McDaniel, Gathering Leaves and Lifting Words: Histories of Buddhist Monastic Education in Laos and Thailand (Seattle: Univ. of Washington Press, 2008), 119–60.
- 5. For a detailed critique of McDaniel's arguments in this regard, see Walker, "Unfolding Buddhism," 351-61, 370-73.
- 6. In reference to the first claim regarding linguistic exchange between Pali and Sanskrit in Southeast Asia, see Trent Walker, "Echoes of a Sanskrit Past: Liturgical Curricula and the Pali *Uṇhissavijaya* in Cambodia," in *Katā me rakkhā*, *katā me parittā: Protecting the Protective Texts and Manuscripts*, ed. Claudio Cicuzza, Materials for the Study of the Tripiṭaka, vol. 14 (Bangkok and Lumbini: Lumbini International Research Institute and Fragile Palm Leaves Foundation, 2018), 49–116. With regard to Tai-Khmer linguistic exchange in Southeast Asian Buddhist contexts, see Walker, "Unfolding Buddhism," 403–29.

Latin in medieval Europe and for reading Literary Sinitic in Japan, Korea, and Vietnam. Following the work of John Whitman and Peter Kornicki on East Asia, we might classify Indic-vernacular bitexts in Southeast Asia under the heading of "vernacular reading." However, the techniques developed in Southeast Asia for the production of bitexts differ from their European and East Asia counterparts in that they supported a wide variety of textual genres, including linguistic study, scholastic commentary, public sermons, and versified belles-lettres.

To demonstrate these different techniques of presentation, this article focuses on selected Pali-vernacular texts from Thailand, including Pali-Siamese and Pali-Lanna examples, dating from the fifteenth to the nineteenth century. The examples I selected come from a range of contexts within this period; I chose them for the clarity with which they illustrate philological, exegetical, homiletic, and poetic modes of presentation. To make the broader context for these examples clear, I first address the common features and diffusion history of Indicvernacular bitexts in Sri Lanka and mainland Southeast Asia. Since I deal with these themes elsewhere, the remainder of this section takes the form of a brief summary.

Indic-vernacular bitexts across Sri Lanka and mainland Southeast Asia rely on a common model for their composition. Whether they emerged in Burmese, Khmer, Lanna, Lao, Mon, Siamese, or Sinhalese contexts, bitexts in second-millennium contexts, including fifteenth-to nineteenth-century Siam (Central Thailand) and Lanna (Northern Thailand), are created through three required steps: selection, analysis, and presentation. The first step of selection has two possible options, the second of analysis encompasses five techniques, and the third of presentation has four primary modes, as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1.	The three	main main	steps	of bitext	composition,	along	with	attendant	options,
			1	technique	es, and modes				

1. Selection	Selecting an Indic passage to analyze		
1a. Citation	Citing an existing Indic text		
1b. Invention	Inventing an Indic text		
2. Analysis	Reading and translating the selected passage		
2a. Parsing	Dividing the passage into its component parts		
2b. Amplification	Supplying contracted and implied Indic phrases		
2c. Rearrangement	Changing the word order to vernacular syntax		
2d. Annotation	Marking grammatical features with particles		
2e. Gloss	Providing Indic and/or vernacular definitions		

^{7.} On such practices in medieval Europe, see Mariken Teeuwen and Irene van Renswoude, eds., *The Annotated Book in the Early Middle Ages: Practices of Reading and Writing* (Turnhout: Brepols, 2017) and Alderik H. Blom, *Glossing the Psalms: The Emergence of the Written Vernaculars in Western Europe from the Seventh to the Twelfth Centuries* (Berlin: De Gruyter, 2017).

^{8.} John Whitman, "The Ubiquity of the Gloss," *SCRIPTA* 3 (2011): 95–121; Peter Francis Kornicki, "Reading Sinitic Texts in the Vernaculars," in *Languages, Scripts, and Chinese Texts in East Asia* (Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 2018), 157–86. For a recent reappraisal of the evidence for vernacular reading in Vietnam, see Kosukegawa Teiji and John Whitman, "On the Significance of the Glosses in Vietnamese Classical Chinese Texts," *Journal of Vietnamese Studies* 13.3 (2018): 29–50.

^{9.} See Trent Walker, "Bilingualism," in *The Routledge Handbook of Theravada Buddhism*, ed. Ashley Thompson and Stephen Berkwitz (London: Routledge, forthcoming).

3. Presentation	Tailoring the analysis for a specific purpose
3a. Philological	Selective analysis in an abbreviated style
3b. Exegetical	Scholastic expansion of analysis in prose
3c. Homiletic	Narrative expansion of analysis in prose
3d. Poetic	Aesthetic expansion of analysis in verse

All Indic-vernacular bitexts purport to select (1) an Indic text or texts to analyze passage by passage, whether that text is an existing Pali or Sanskrit treatise (1a) or one invented for the purpose of composing a bitext (1b). Each passage may be quoted in full, in abbreviated form, or not at all. The selected passage is then subjected to an analytical reading and translation (2). The number of specific techniques of analysis used depends on the linguistic and cultural context of the author. In Siamese and Lanna contexts it is not uncommon for all five techniques (2a–2e) to be applied to each passage. ¹⁰ Each analyzed passage may be subsequently presented in various modes (3). The four most common are philological (3a), exegetical (3b), homiletic (3c), and poetic (3d), but variants and combinations of these appear as well. Each mode roughly corresponds with a particular intended audience: a philological presentation favors linguistic training, an exegetical approach is suitable for scholastic readers, a homiletic mode is honed for public preaching, and a poetic treatment may be intended for recitation to court circles or other highly literate audiences.

These primary steps and their attendant options, techniques, and modes may have arisen gradually in the first millennium, though our evidence for this period is thin. There are first-millennium inscriptions that include portions in two languages, namely a classical Indic language (Sanskrit or Pali) and a local tongue (Cham, Khmer, Mon, Pyu). However, in most cases, the classical and vernacular sections diverge in form and content; the Indic portion often praises a deity in elaborate verse, while the vernacular documents what was donated to the deity or religious foundation in prose. ¹¹ Notable exceptions include an interphrasal Sanskrit-Pyu inscription tentatively dated to the sixth century and a number of Sanskrit-Khmer inscriptions, largely from the early second millennium, that include parallel content, if divergent form, in the two languages. ¹²

There are a handful of reliably dated first-millennium Pali-Sinhala bitexts that include the three primary steps. The earliest surviving mainland Southeast Asian example is a Pali-Mon inscription from the late eleventh or early twelfth century. ¹³ Pali-Burmese examples are extant from the late thirteenth century, and several Sanskrit-Burmese bitexts are listed in an inscription from 1442. By the middle of the second millennium, the techniques of Indicvernacular bitexts are witnessed among several Southwestern Tai groups, including those in Siam, Lanna, and Laos. The earliest complete Pali-Siamese bitext is thought to date from 1482 in Ayutthaya. The earliest securely dated Pali-Lanna bitext surviving in manuscript

^{10.} Pali-Sinhala bitexts omit the technique of grammatical annotation (2d), since what Burmese, Mon, Khmer, and various Tai languages express through particles may be signaled morphologically in Sinhala.

^{11.} Similar Sheldon Pollock, *The Language of the Gods in the World of Men: Sanskrit, Culture, and Power in Premodern India* (Berkeley and Los Angeles: Univ. of California Press, 2006), 126–29.

^{12.} Arlo Griffiths, Bob Hudson, Marc Miyake, and Julian Wheatley, "Studies in Pyu Epigraphy, I: State of the Field, Edition and Analysis of the Kan Wet Khaung Mound Inscription, and Inventory of the Corpus," *Bulletin de l'École française d'Extrême-Orient* 103 (2017): 43–205; Chhom Kunthea, "Le rôle du sanskrit dans le développement de la langue khmère: Une étude épigraphique du VIe au XIVe siècle" (PhD thesis, École Pratique des Hautes Études, 2016), 319–40.

^{13.} C. O. Blagden, *Epigraphia Birmanica: Being Lithic and Other Inscriptions of Burma*, vol. 1, pt. 2, ed. Charles Duroiselle (Rangoon: Superintendent, Government Printing and Stationery, Union of Burma, 1960), 93.

form dates from 1552. ¹⁴ A Sanskrit-Lanna example survives from 1578. ¹⁵ The oldest extant Pali-Lao bitexts hail from a similar period. ¹⁶ Pali-Siamese, Pali-Lanna, and Pali-Lao bitexts almost certainly existed prior to the late fifteenth century, though the extreme paucity of manuscripts before that time precludes firm conclusions.

The examples I draw from in this essay comprise several of the oldest representatives in Thailand for the four modes of bitextual presentation. These include 1) two passages from a mid-nineteenth-century philological Pali-Siamese bitext, 2) two exegetical Pali-Lanna bitexts, one from 1585 and another from 1638, 3) two homiletic Pali-Lanna bitexts, one from 1563 and another from 1666, and 4) a poetic Pali-Siamese bitext from 1482. Each example is among the earliest surviving Indic-Tai bitexts of its type. The philological examples include a hitherto undeciphered form of manuscript annotation in seventeenth- to nineteenth-century Siam. The Pali-Lanna exegetical and homiletic examples, never analyzed before, are among the few dozen oldest manuscripts surviving in any Tai language. The poetic example is one of the oldest known literary works in Siamese. Taken as a whole, these examples provide detailed evidence for the emergence of Indic-vernacular bitexts in what is now Thailand.

PHILOLOGICAL BITEXTS: INTERLINEAR PALI-SIAMESE EXAMPLES FROM THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

Most Pali manuscripts from the seventeenth through early twentieth centuries in Siam and Cambodia are inscribed on palm leaves. Once the leaves have been prepared for writing, the scribe carves the letters into each leaf. The leaves are then washed with ink and wiped clean, leaving the ink behind only in the inscribed letters.

Many manuscripts were then proofread by a second reader, most likely a male monastic. He would correct mistakes in the manuscript by writing on it directly with an ink pen, rather than re-inscribing the leaves. The proofreader usually wrote "proofreading complete" ¹⁷ on the cover leaf of each fascicle once his work was finished. Most Pali manuscripts of this period, therefore, were fashioned by two sets of hands, those of the original scribe and those of the proofreader.

A smaller number of manuscripts, however, were the work of three or more sets of hands. The third person to contribute to the manuscript was the annotator. Interlinear annotations in a special script for this purpose, known in Thai as *khaam hvăt* or *tvă kṣien*, appear on certain Pali palm-leaf manuscripts. ¹⁸ These annotations are generally found only on the texts that formed the core of the Siamese monastic curriculum in this period, namely the *Kaccāyanavyākaraṇa*, the *Dhammapadaṭṭhakathā*, the *Maṅgalatthadīpanī*, the *Sāratthasaṅgaha*, the *Samanta-pāsādikā*, the *Visuddhimagga*, and the *Abhidhammatthasaṅgaha*. *Khaam hvăt* annotations

^{14.} Digital Library of Northern Thai Manuscripts (DLNTM) 011903027_00 (http://lannamanuscripts.net/en/manuscripts/3700, accessed November 27, 2019).

^{15.} DLNTM 011318001_01 (http://lannamanuscripts.net/en/manuscripts/4475, accessed November 27, 2019).

^{16.} To my knowledge, the oldest surviving Pali-Lao bitext in manuscript form, a bilingual version of the *Abhidhammatthasaṅgaha*, dates from 948 of the Lesser Era (*cullasakarāja*)cūlasakarāja), equivalent to 1586 or 1587 CE (PLMP [Preservation of Lao Manuscripts Programme] Code: 08040102007_04; http://laomanuscripts.net/en/texts/6166, accessed November 27, 2019).

^{17.} Siamese dān lèv₂; Khmer phdien höy.

^{18.} For more on the paleographic context of *khom hvăt* and *tvă kṣien*, see Kongkaew Veeraprajak, "Ăkṣar khaam khaan daiy," in *Sāy dhār hèn¹ gvām git 2: Sāranibandh* jöt jū kierti dān¹ phū² hñin varuṇyubā snidvanś* ṇa ayudhyā nīön¹ naï varōkās āyu grap 72 μ̄ῖ, ed. Vuḍhijǎy Mūlaśilρ́* (Bangkok: Kaan dun bīö¹ vijākār varuṇyubā snidvanś*, 2544 [2001]), 330–32.*

are most common in late eighteenth- and nineteenth-century manuscripts, but they are known to be found in earlier materials as well. 19

These interlinear annotations are the most abbreviated form of Indic-vernacular bitext in Southeast Asia. The mode of presentation is almost exclusively philological in that the interlinear notes provide a highly abbreviated analysis of the Pali passage at hand without offering further exegetical, narrative, or poetic elaboration. The focus is solely on parsing, amplifying, syntactically rearranging, grammatically annotating, and sometimes glossing a portion of a Pali text.

Here I propose the first explanation of the meaning and function of these distinctive annotations. I cite two examples—one simple, one more complex—from a *Dhammapada-atṭhakathā* manuscript in the Swift Family Collection at the University of California, Berkeley's Bancroft Library. ²⁰ This manuscript was likely fashioned in Siam in the mid-nineteenth century. Its special annotation symbols are shared by many other *Dhammapada-aṭṭhakathā* manuscripts from Cambodia and Siam from the seventeenth century onward.

A diplomatic transcription of the inscribed text, plus the proofreader's corrections in **bold**, of folio da recto, lines 1–3, reads as follows: 21

For a footprint of the Buddhas, once established, is only visible in the place where they walked, not elsewhere. Moreover, only those for whom it was established can see it. Even if, for the sake of making [a footprint]²³ invisible to them, should elephants and other beasts stampede, a great rain pour down, or whirlwinds blow, still no one is able to erase it.

After the scribe inscribed these lines in Pali, the proofreader supplied a missing word (te, "those") and two missing niggahīta (m, on nam and makkhetum), likely on the basis of a reference manuscript. No spaces are added to parse the text; with the exception of string hole breaks, line breaks, and sentence-final danda markers, the whole passage is inscribed in scriptio continua, in contrast to modern Pali editions. The proofreader's duty is to make sure that the inscribed text matches the reference manuscript.

- 19. For an image of an annotated early eighteenth-century manuscript in the National Library of Thailand, see Kongkaew Veeraprajak, *Sāranideś cāk gămbhīr* paï lān samăy ayudhyā* (Bangkok: Kram śilpakar, 2545 [2002]), 47. There are likely examples surviving from the seventeenth century in the National Library of Thailand, though they remain unidentified.
- 20. Call number: ff 4MS PL4251 no. 14. An image of this particular folio is available at http://cdn.calisphere. org/data/13030/fx/hb7f59p4fx/files/hb7f59p4fx-FID435.jpg. The entire manuscript is accessible at http://www.oac.cdlib.org/ark:/13030/hb7f59p4fx/?&brand=oac4 (accessed November 27, 2019).
- 21. The scribe did not include any spaces in this passage. Physical divisions and punctuation are transliterated as follows: / = line break; $\bigcirc = \text{string}$ hole break; | = dan / da | [end of sentence marker]. The proofreader's marks are transliterated as follows: $\langle \langle \rangle \rangle = \text{proofreader's insertion}$ or correction above the line of text; $\downarrow = \text{insertion}$ or correction below the line of text; + = proofreader's insertion marker.
- 22. Cf. the Chaṭṭha-saṅgāyanā CD-ROM (CSCD) edition of the same passage: buddhānañhi padacetiyaṃ adhiṭṭhahitvā akkantaṭṭhāneyeva paññāyati, na aññattha. yesañcatthāya adhiṭṭhitaṃ hoti, teyeva nam passanti. tesaṃ pana adassanakaraṇatthaṃ hatthiādayo vā akkamantu, mahāmegho vā pavassatu, verambhavātā vā paharantu, na taṃ koci makkhetuṃ sakkoti (https://www.tipitaka.org/romn/cscd/s0502a.att2.xml, accessed November 27, 2019).
 - 23. I use square brackets in my translations throughout to indicate words not explicitly specified in the text.

At some point in this manuscript's history, likely shortly after it was inscribed and proofread, a monk preparing for Pali examinations in Siam began to study it. The proofreader's marks are in a thin black ink; the monk who subsequently studied this manuscript left his annotations in a slightly thicker pen. When the annotator arrived at the last of the three sentences in the passage above, he provided a detailed analysis of the sentence in question.

Here is a diplomatic transcription, with the annotator's insertions in **bold**: ²⁴

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tesaṃ «↓ 4 ↑ janānaṃ» panaadassanakaraṇatthaṃ «↓ 3 ↑ b̄jö» «↑ –» hatthī «↑ ®» / ādayo «↓ 1» vāakkamantu «↓ 2 ↑ –» mahāmegho «↑ ®» vāvassatu ○ verambhavātā «↑ ® lamº hva₁ tvan₁» «↑ ®» vāpaharantu «↑ –» na «↓ $» na⟨⟨m⟩⟩ «↓ kī» koci «↓ ka ↑ ®» makkhetu⟨⟨m⟩⟩ «↓ ki ↑ lab» sakkoti «↓ kā » |
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The annotator's interlinear analysis transforms this passage into a philological Pali-Siamese bitext. The cited passage is subject to a vernacular reading and translation, comprising the analytic techniques of parsing, amplification, syntactic rearrangement, grammatical annotation, and gloss. The presentation of the bitext is distinctly philological, with symbolic abbreviation and no exegetical, homiletic, or poetic elaboration.

The first layer of analysis is parsing. Though most of the text remains in *scriptio continua*, the annotator uses two special symbols, an inserted space (–) and a word isolation marker (\$) to mark word and phrase divisions. For instance, he inserts a space between -attham and $hatth\bar{a}dayo$ to separate an adverbial phrase from the grammatical subject and main verb that follow. He also uses an inserted space to divide the final clause 25 from the rest of the sentence. The negation particle na receives a special word isolation marker to separate it from the nam^{26} that follows. This first layer of analysis separates the main parts of the sentence from one another for easier reading and translation.

The second layer is amplification. In this passage, the annotator only amplifies one Pali word, *tesam* ("to them"), by supplying another dative/genitive plural form, *janānam* ("to the people"), with a more specific meaning. *Janānam* is not a gloss of *tesam*, but rather a clarification of what, in the annotator's view, the implied noun behind the pronoun should be.

The third layer is syntactic rearrangement. Here the annotator seeks to reorder the Pali passage so that the word sequence matches how it would be read and translated into Siamese. The annotator records this rearrangement through the use of both ciphers and syllables. In the first phrase of the sentence from *tesaṃ* to *akkamantu*, he uses the numerals 1 through 4 to indicate this order. Thus what the Chaṭṭha-saṅgāyanā CD-ROM (CSCD) reads as *tesaṃ pana adassanakaraṇatthaṃ hatthiādayo vā akkamantu* ("Even if, for the sake of making [a footprint] invisible to them, should elephants and other beasts stampede") becomes *hatthiādayo akkamantu adassanakaraṇatthaṃ tesaṃ* [amplified to *tesaṃ janānaṃ*] ("Should elephants and other beasts stampede for the sake of making [a footprint] invisible to those people"), the annotator having set aside the particles *vā* and *pana* in the process of rearrangement.

In the final clause, the annotator uses the syllables ka, $k\bar{a}$, ki, and $k\bar{\imath}$ instead of ciphers. These four syllables are traditionally used to paginate the verso sides of the first four leaves of the first fascicle of a palm-leaf manuscript in mainland Southeast Asia. Thus ka, $k\bar{a}$, ki, and $k\bar{\imath}$ correspond to 1, 2, 3, 4 or a, b, c, d. The annotator uses these syllables instead of ciphers to avoid confusion with the first part of the sentence. What the CSCD reads as na tam

^{24.} The annotator's marks are transliterated as follows: « » = annotator's insertion; – = annotator's inserted space; \mathbb{B} = special abbreviation for Siamese $\check{a}n\ v\bar{a}_I$, marking the nominative case; \mathbb{S} = annotator's word isolation marker.

^{25.} CSCD: na tam koci makkhetum sakkoti.

^{26.} CSCD: tam.

koci makkhetum sakkoti hence becomes na koci sakkoti makkhetum nam ("no one is able to erase it"). The meaning is the same in Pali, but the new order allows for a literal reading and translation that matches vernacular syntax. In modern Thai, the syntax would be the same (Thai glosses in **bold**): na koci mai₁ mī graï sakkoti sāmārth makkhetum lap nam măn tai₂.²⁷

The fourth layer of analysis is grammatical annotation. In this passage, such annotations are limited to marking the nominative case with a special abbreviation for $\check{a}n$ $v\bar{a}_{1}$, a Siamese technical particle that is used in bitexts to mark the nominative case or grammatical subject of a sentence. ²⁸ The annotator uses this abbreviation to mark the Pali terms *hatthiādayo*, *mahāmegho*, *verambhavātā*, and *koci* as grammatical subjects in this passage. Other annotators may have marked additional grammatical features, such as case, number, tense, or mood with similar technical particles, but presumably the annotator of this passage did not find these necessary for his analysis.

The fifth and final layer of analysis is gloss. In this passage, the annotator just provides vernacular glosses; other annotators provide Pali glosses as well. Our annotator restricts himself to glossing only ambiguous or difficult lexical items. One such word is *-attham*, which he glosses with $b\bar{i}\bar{o}$ ("for the sake of") so as to clarify that *-attham* is not interpreted as "meaning," "benefit," "wealth," etc. The relatively rare words $verambhav\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ and makkhetum are glossed with lam^o hva_1 $tvan_1$ (modern Thai lam $hv\bar{a}$ $tv\bar{a}n_2$, "whirlwind") and lab (modern Thai lap, "to erase"), respectively.

The precision of this highly abbreviated form of interlinear analysis, comprising the techniques of parsing, amplification, syntactic rearrangement, grammatical annotation, and gloss, makes it one of the most sophisticated forms of vernacular grammatical analysis to emerge prior to the development of modern linguistics. The annotator's insertions provide an accurate account of how to read and translate this Pali passage into Siamese.

The process of creating a philologically oriented, interlinearally arranged Indic-vernacular bitext can be even more complex. In folio do verso, line 1 of the same $Dhammapadatthakath\bar{a}$ manuscript, the following Pali stanza appears ($_$ = scribal space):

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ahamnāgovasangāme _ cāpātopatitasaram _ ativākyamtitikkhissa _ dussilohibahujano |^{29}
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The proofreader and the annotator both offer corrections to the inscribed letters. Combined with the annotator's parsing marks, a diplomatic transcription of the stanza, with the proofreader's and annotator's marks for correction and parsing in **bold**, reads as follows: ³⁰

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aham «↑ -» nāgo «↑ -» va «↑ -» saṅgāme _ cāpātopatita «m» saram _ ativākyamtitikkhissa «m» _ dussilo «↑ -» hi «↑ -» ba{{hu}}(hū)jano |
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Revised transcription with proofreading and parsing notes applied:

- 27. Many such Pali-Siamese bitexts traveled to Cambodia in the eighteenth through twentieth centuries. Since Khmer and Thai have a very similar syntactic structure, the rearrangement of this passage works equally well for Khmer: *na koci gmān anak e ṇā sakkoti āc makkhetum lap' naṃ vā pān*. For more on the syntactic parallels between Khmer and Thai, see Franklin E. Huffman, "Thai and Cambodian: A Case of Syntactic Borrowing?," *JAOS* 93.4 (1973): 488–509.
- 28. On the various forms this symbol has taken over the centuries, see Kongkaew Veeraprajak, *Sāranideś cāk gămbhīr paï lān samāy ayudhyā*, 156. I discuss its likely Khmer origins in Walker, "Unfolding Buddhism," 335.
- 29. Cf. Dhammapada 320 in CSCD (https://www.tipitaka.org/romn/cscd/s0502a.att2.xml, accessed November 27, 2019):

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aham nāgova sangāme, cāpato patitam saram;
ativākyam titikkhissam, dussīlo hi bahujjano.
30. {{ }} = proofreader's deletion.
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aham nāgo va saṅgāme cāpātopatitaṃsaraṃ ativākyaṃtitikkhissam dussilo hi bahūjano

I, just like an elephant in battle [would endure] an arrow shot from a bow, shall harsh words endure; immoral indeed [are] most men.

With corrections and parsing complete, the annotator continues with the remaining techniques of analysis, taking a remarkably thorough approach to this stanza. In his annotations above and below the inscribed Pali stanza, he includes no fewer than five Pali amplifications, fourteen numerals for syntactic rearrangement, two different vernacular grammatical particles, and three Pali glosses (see fig. 1).

Diplomatic transcription of inscribed passage and inked annotations (vernacular insertions in **bold**; Pali insertions in *italics*):



Fig. 1. Detail of annotations in a *Dhammapada-aṭṭhakathā* manuscript, folio dō verso, line 1. Phra Dhammapada-aṭṭhakatha kambujjakaksara-nibat (?), phuk 8 [sic, should read: braḥ dhammapadaṭṭhakathā kamvujjaksaranvāt phūk 7], Swift Family Collection of Palm Leaf Manuscripts, ff 4MS PL4251 no. 14, The Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley. Image available from http://cdn.calisphere.org/data/13030/fx/hb7f59p4fx/files/hb7f59p4fx-FID452.jpg (accessed November 27, 2019)

ahaṃ «↓ 11» «↑ –» nāgo «↓ 1» «↑ 2 thito» «↑ –» va «↓ 10» «↑ maḥ yathā» «↑ –» saṅgāme «↓ 3» «↑ 4 titikkhati» _ cāpāto «↑ maḥ dhanuto» «↓ 8» patita«ṃ» «↓ 9» saraṃ «↓ 5» _ ativākyaṃ «↑ maḥ pharussavacanaṃ» «↓ 13» «↓ 6 mahāyodhāpurisena» «↓ 7 khitaṃ» titikkhissa«ṃ» «↑ mè~įö» «↓ 12» «↑ 14 evaṃ» _ dussilo «↑ –» hi «↑ –» ba{{hu}}⟨⟨hū⟩⟩ jano |

The Pali insertions include both amplifications of implied words such as *thito*, *titikkhati*, and *evaṃ*, as well as Pali glosses of ambiguous or rare Pali words, such as *yathā* for *va* (i.e., *iva*) and *dhanuto* for $c\bar{a}p\bar{a}to$ (i.e., $c\bar{a}pato$). The vernacular insertions include the grammatical marker $m\grave{e}\sim\bar{i}\ddot{o}$ (modern Thai $m\grave{e}_2$ $m\bar{i}\ddot{o}_1$), meaning "even though" or "should it be that," to mark the conditional mood, as well as a special Pali-Pali gloss marker $ma\rlap/h$, a short form of $ma\rlap/h$ $v\bar{a}_1$ or $mo\rlap/h_1$. This term, equivalent to $mo\rlap/h$ in Middle Khmer, muh in Old Khmer, and $m\breve{a}k$ $v\bar{a}_1$ in Lanna, roughly means "that is to say" and is used to separate a Pali item to be glossed from its gloss in Pali.

The syntactic reordering in this passage is particularly complex. Without the Pali amplifications and glosses, the order of the vernacular reading is notated as 11, 1, 10, 3, 8, 9, 5, 13, 12. With the added words it becomes 11, 1, 2, 10, 3, 4, 8, 9, 5, 13, 6, 7, 12, 14. When read in the indicated order, the expanded sentence reads as follows:³¹

nāgo *thito* saṅgāme *titikkhati* saraṃ *mahāyodhāpurisena khit[t]aṃ* cāp[a]to **maḥ** *dhanu-to* patitaṃ [i]va **maḥ** *yathā* ahaṃ titikkhissaṃ **mè~įö** ativākyaṃ **maḥ** *pharussavacanaṃ evaṃ*.

^{31.} Word-division spaces added for clarity; [] = my editorial emendations, also for clarity; GLS = Pali-Pali gloss marker; CND = conditional mood marker.

An elephant, *standing* in battle, *endures* arrows *fired by a great warrior* from a bow GLS *from a bow*, shot, just like GLS *just how* CND I would endure harsh words GLS rough speech, in the same way.

The annotations fill in all of the implied Pali words and transform this new, expanded Pali sentence into a readily comprehensible vernacular reading.

These examples, however intricate they may seem, only give a partial glimpse of the philological practices witnessed in manuscript annotations from Siam. Other passages would show a broader range of glosses, including more extensive Pali-vernacular glosses. Some manuscripts would reveal more complete grammatical marking, including technical particles for all eight noun cases as well as markers for at least five different verbal tenses and moods. In short, these interlinear annotations, if written out in full, would provide all of the lexical, grammatical, and syntactic information necessary to read Pali texts in Siamese.

With rare exceptions, such annotations are not written out in full in an interlinear format. They are usually extremely fragmentary since they are written in ink by a student studying the text and usually comment only on particularly difficult words or passages. The phrases left unannotated, it seems, are either already understood by the annotator or pose no special interest. The aim is to produce a bitext that is philologically useful for a careful student of Pali rather than to compose a treatise for public consumption.

There are a few Pali curricular manuscripts in which interlinear annotations are written out in full, providing a complete vernacular reading in Siamese. In these cases, the annotations are typically carved directly into the leaves instead of inked on the surface. Such inscribed interlinear annotations are most commonly found in palm-leaf copies of the *Kaccāyanavyākaraṇa*, the primary treatise used to teach Pali grammar in Siam, Laos, and Cambodia prior to the twentieth century.

EXEGETICAL BITEXTS: INTERPHRASAL PALI-LANNA EXAMPLES FROM THE LATE SIXTEENTH AND EARLY SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES

The philological bitexts examined above are the products of Siamese students sharpening their Pali reading skills. The Pali-Lanna examples I highlight below are concerned more with how to interpret Pali scriptures and commentaries. The primary characteristic of the exegetical mode of presentation is the scholastic expansion of a bitext. Early Lanna authors of such bitexts were deeply steeped in the Pali grammatical and commentarial tradition, and their scholastic expansions read much like the monolingual Pali commentaries they engage, including frequent citation of other treatises, stylized application of rhetorical questions, refutation of incorrect views, and admission of multiple interpretations. Since these exegetical bitexts were not intended to be read aloud in a public setting, their contents are highly abbreviated, and may seem cryptic or even deliberately confounding at first glance. Upon closer examination, however, these bitexts reveal the power of the exegetical mode to carefully unpack multiple layers of meaning within a Pali text.

The two examples I have selected are bitextual expositions of the same passage from the $Abhidhammatthavibh\bar{a}vin\bar{\imath}-t\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}$, a twelfth-century commentary on Anuruddha's Abhidhammatthasangaha, a handbook that elucidates the core concepts of the Pali Abhidhamma. The passage in question comes from the beginning of the $\bar{A}lambanasangaha$ (or $\bar{A}rammanasangaha$ in some Lanna manuscripts) in the third chapter of the text. Like

^{32.} On these two texts and their relationship, see R. P. Wijeratne and Rupert Gethin, trs., Summary of the Topics of Abhidhamma (Abhidhammatthasangaha) by Anuruddha: Exposition of the Topics of Abhidhamma

similar portions in other scholastic treatises, this passage shows how key terms are explained through their supposed etymological connection (*nirukti*) to other words:

Ārammaṇānaṃ sarūpato, vibhāgato, taṃvisayacittato ca saṅgaho **ālambaṇasaṅgaho**. Vaṇṇavikāraṃ āpajjamānaṃ rūpayati hadayaṅgatabhāvaṃ pakāsetīti rūpaṃ, tadeva dubbalapurisena daṇḍādi viya cittacetasikehi ālambīyati, tāni vā āgantvā ettha ramantīti ārammaṇanti **rūpārammaṇaṃ**. 33

The compendium of objects ($\bar{a}rammana$) by means of resemblance, division, and consciousness having those objects as its object is called the "compendium of objects ($\bar{a}lambana$)." "Undergoing change in appearance, it manifests ($r\bar{u}payati$) and makes known the state of having gone to the heart"; hence it is "form ($r\bar{u}pam$)." "That very same form is pulled down on ($\bar{a}lamb\bar{i}yati$) by consciousnesses and mental factors, just as a [walking] stick [is pulled down on] by a feeble man," or, "those [consciousnesses and mental factors] come and rejoice (ramanti) in [form]," hence it is called "object ($\bar{a}rammanam$)."—thus [the first of the six objects] is called "form object ($r\bar{u}p\bar{a}rammanam$)."³⁴

The first manuscript example I discuss in this section includes an exposition of the two Pali sentences above. This manuscript, titled *Nissay*° tīkā abhidhammatthasańgaha,³⁵ dates from 1585 CE (cūḷaśakarāja 947)³⁶ and is now held at Văt Hlai₂ Hin Hlvan (Wat Lai Hin Luang) in Lampang province, Thailand, though it was first inscribed for a certain Văt Bvă Tèm°₅.³⁷

The passage in question appears on folio $chy\bar{o}$ verso, line 3 through folio chyo (i.e., chyau) recto, line 5.38 The following transcription has been modified slightly from a strict diplomatic transcription for clarity. 39 Pali words cited from the $Abhidhammatthavibh\bar{a}vin\bar{\imath}-t\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}$ are kept in roman type; Pali words added by the author of the bitext are in italics; vernacular Lanna portions appear in **bold**. For the translation, technical particles for grammatical annotation are signaled as follows: **NOM** = nominative case particle ($(B/\check{a}n^o v\bar{a}_I)$; **ACC** = accusative case particle ($(y\check{a}n^o)$); **GEN** = genitive case particle ($(h\ddot{e}n^o)^a h\dot{e}n^o)$; **LOC** = locative case particle ((nai/nai)); **PL** = plural number particle; **IND** = indicative mood particle. The exposition begins with a bitextual analysis of the opening sentence:

ārammaṇa | sańgaho anvā ā naṃ | yǎno | sa to ca ḍvayo saro up kḍī | vi | to ca ḍvayo ǎno pèno kḍī ḍvayo tāno kḍī ḍvaaý kvā | ta | to ca ḍvayo citt dǎlo mī dī pěno gị̄ ārammaṇ ǎno nǎno kḍī | ā ho jị̄ |

ārammaṇasa[n]gaho NOM ā...nam ACC sa...to ca whether by resemblance vi...to ca whether by division, alternatively, whether by differentiation ta...to ca whether by

⁽Abhidhammatthavibhāvinī) by Sumangala, Being a Commentary to Anuruddha's Summary of the Topics of Abhidhamma (Oxford: Pali Text Society, 2002).

^{33.} CSCD Abhidhammatthavibhāvinī 3.48 (https://www.tipitaka.org/romn/cscd/abh07t.nrf2.xml, accessed November 27, 2019).

^{34.} For a different interpretation of this passage, see Wijeratne and Gethin, Summary of the Topics, 103.

^{35.} \acute{n} = diacritical \dot{n} in Tham Lanna script.

^{36.} This dating is confirmed by both the $c\bar{u}lasakar\bar{u}ja$ year and the Tai year $(d\bar{u}p^o ro^o)$ in the colophon.

^{37.} DLNTM 030103002_00, first unlabeled folio, image 1 (http://lannamanuscripts.net/en/manuscripts/4418, accessed November 27, 2019). I was unable to ascertain the present-day location and identity of this temple.

^{38.} DLNTM 030103002_00, images 83-84 (http://lannamanuscripts.net/en/manuscripts/4418, accessed November 27, 2019).

^{39.} I have ignored all of the original spacing and punctuation, save for the *dandas*, and have added new spaces and paragraph breaks. Words broken by line and string-hole breaks have been reunited, and corrections indicated by the scribe silently applied.

^{40.} \ddot{e} = diactrical \dot{e} in Tham Lanna script.

consciousnesses PL which have that sphere of existence, i.e., that object ā...ho is named.

The analysis includes minor amplification (adding the conjunction ca) and rearrangement (putting \bar{a} rammaṇasaṅgaho at the beginning in addition to the end). Some Pali phrases are grammatically annotated, and others are glossed, but the translation into Lanna is far from complete. In addition, many of the Pali phrases are highly abbreviated; \bar{a} rammaṇānaṃ becomes \bar{a} naṃ, taṃvisayacittato ca becomes ta to ca, etc. These omissions do not make for an incoherent text, however. The author was probably a monk or former monk, and was writing for readers who had the $Abhidhammatthavibhāvin\bar{i}$ -ṭīkā available to them and already had a good grasp of Pali. He saw no need to translate common Pali words; his readers could grasp their import through a simple grammatical particle alone (e.g., \bar{a} rammaṇasa[\bar{n}]gaho NOM). Likewise, he deemed it unnecessary to write out taṃvisayacittato ca when ta to ca would be enough for his readers to understand what phrase in the source text is being analyzed.

One aspect of the bitext is initially puzzling, however. The dative/genitive plural noun $\bar{a}ramman\bar{a}nam$ (abbreviated $\bar{a}...nam$) is grammatically marked as the object with a technical particle ($y\bar{a}n$) typically reserved for the accusative case (ACC). The author, as if anticipating an inquiry on his interpretation, immediately follows with a series of rhetorical questions and responses:

ārammaṇānaṃ sańgaho ārammaṇasańgaho **măk° kdāṃ chănº nī sânº grō ḍvayº ănº ḍai** jamºā thāmº nī cin⁰ sai kārak 3 ăn⁰ mī tân⁰ vā sarupato mā Í⁴¹

vā yǎn lè gå hị plè hǎn° | dī vā dutiyātappurisasamās dāy° | het°u dai vā chaṭṭhītappurisamās jam°ā khŏ tǎn˙° dōd˙° dǎn˙° nī Í | dèl° vibhattipadhāno tappuriso tappuris mī vibhatti pěn° padhān° Í het°u klāv° dǎn˙° nī lěn˙° dan˙° vibhatti le gåv°ā chaṭṭhitappurisasamās Í | | bǎn atth på pěn° pradhān° kè₁ sǎn˙° nī l´ mën° het°u sańgaho vedanā | kicca dvāra ārammaṇasańgaho kdī gå yaa°m kdāṃ chaṭṭhi chaṭṭhi lân˙° nai dutiyatth |

ārammaṇānaṃ... sa[ṅ]gaho ārammaṇasa[ṅ]gaho "Put this way, by what means is it a compendium?" In response to this question there is the insertion of three factors, beginning with sar[ū]pato.

"What about the marker 'ACC'; translated this way, shouldn't the compound be an accusative tappurisa? Why is it instead a genitive tappurisa?"—so goes the accusation. In truth, $vibhattipadh\bar{a}no\ tappuriso$ a tappurisa has case as its predominant element. According to this reasoning, when the case is examined, it is called a genitive tappurisa compound. Regarding the meaning, however, it is not the predominant element in this sense. For just like those $sa[\dot{n}]gaho$ named " $vedan\bar{a}$ -," "kicca-," and " $dv\bar{a}ra$ -," "42 the $\bar{a}rammanasa[\dot{n}]gaho$ is likewise rendered with a genitive construction, a genitive placed in an accusative meaning.

In this portion of his exposition, the author explains why he chose the particle $y\breve{a}n^o$ (ACC) instead of $h\ddot{e}n^o$ (GEN) to annotate the compound $\bar{a}rammanasangaho$. He makes his case with

^{41.} Í = the Tham Lanna abbreviated form of the sentence final particle $l\dot{e}$. The same abbreviation appears in the particle of completion $\dot{l}v^o = l\dot{e}v^o$.

^{42.} Vedanāsaṅgaho, kiccasaṅgaho, and dvārasaṅgaho are the names of the immediately prior sections of the the Abhidhammatthavibhāvinī-ṭīkā.

reference to a Pali grammatical principle, *vibhattipadhāno tappuriso*, ⁴³ "a dependent determinative compound (Skt. *tatpuruṣa*) has case as its predominant element (Skt. *pradhāna*)," and arguing that in this particular instance, this compound, although containing a genitive relationship within it between *ārammaṇa* and *saṅgaha*, should be understood in an accusative sense (*dutiyatth*).

The author follows this discussion of case with a different sort of exposition:

băn° că prajum au karaṇa dăn° 3 băn sarūpato năn° au ārammaṇa 6 mī tân° vā rūpārammaṇa Í băn° vibhāgato năn° au yăn° cha ārammaṇ pana | vasena Í | băn° tamvisayacittato năn° au sin° jī tan° vā cakkhu Í |

Regarding c[a], it jointly applies to all three factors. Regarding sarūpato, it applies to the six objects, starting with form object. Regarding vibhāgato it applies ACC to the six objects from pana... vasena. Regarding taṃvisayacittato, it applies to the named items beginning with cakkhu.

Here the emphasis is not on providing an abbreviated reading or translation, but rather on explaining how the $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$ relates to the root text of the *Abhidhammatthasangaha*. He links words in the $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$, such as $vibh\bar{a}gato$, with whole passages in the root text, such as that abbreviated by $pana\ vasena\ (CSCD:\ pana\ pas\bar{a}dasukhumar\bar{u}pacittacetasikanibb\bar{a}napaññattivasena)$. This is quite helpful to the reader of the bitext, though likely not to a potential listener.

The bitext then takes up the second sentence from the *Abhidhammatthavibhāvinī* passage cited above, beginning with *vaṇṇavikāraṃ*:

yaṃ dhammajātaṃ ® | ā | naṃ thœṅ° vi raṃ jœṅ° kār prè vaṇṇ | rupaya hada seti gå h̄ṭ sāṃḍèṅ° yǎṅ° ǎn° pěn° ǎn° thœṅ° hvâ cai jœṅ° hvâ cai gâv°ā | | iti het°u | taṃ | rūpaṃ j̄ṭ |

vā | yǎn' dhammajātam ® | rūpayati pakāseti sām attānam | ā | nam thœn' vikāram j́œn' ha | vam j̄in svabhāv ǎn' thön' nai cai | iti | tam rūpam j̄i dvaaý kvā₁

tadeva tam eva $r\bar{u}pam$ $y\check{a}\check{n}^o$ | pi^{44} | hi $\check{a}n^o$ citt lè cetasi $dl\check{a}y^o$ | \bar{a} | ti $bœ\check{n}$ hnaa \check{n}^o au | da ya $\dot{q}ucc$ $\dot{q}\check{a}n^o$ $si\dot{n}$ $m\bar{i}$ tan^o $v\bar{a}$ $j\bar{a}y^o$ mai do | du | na | $\check{a}n$ $ph\bar{u}$ $j\bar{a}y^o$ $\check{a}n^o$ $hr\bar{a}$ $\acute{g}e\dot{n}$ $p\mathring{a}$ $\dot{q}ai_2$ | \bar{a} | ti $h\bar{a}k^o$ $bœ\dot{n}^o$ do $bœ\dot{n}^o$ hnaa \dot{n}^o $kv\bar{a}_1$ iti | tadeva $r\bar{u}pam$ @ | \bar{a} | nam $j\bar{i}$ |

vā | tāni cittāni cetasikāni @ | \bar{a} | ganvā | ramanti **gå srahnuk yinº** $d\bar{i}$ sinº $d\bar{i}$ ettha rūpe **nai** iti | taṃ rūpaṃ | \bar{a} | ṇaṃ $d\bar{i}$ | iti **hetºu** | tadeva rūpaṃ $d\bar{i}$ rūpārammaṇa $d\bar{i}$ |

yaṃ dhammajātaṃ NOM ā...naṃ arriving at vi..raṃ ACC the change of appearance rupaya... hada... seti makes manifest ACC that which affects what arrives at the heart, or, alternatively, [which affects] ACC the heart; iti hence taṃ rūpaṃ is called.

vā yǎn dhammajātam NOM rūpayati pakāseti mani[fests]⁴⁵ attānam ā... nam arriving at vikāram ACC ha... vam which is the condition that arrives inside the heart, iti tam rūpam is called—this is another interpretation.

^{43.} I have not been able to trace a source for this formulation, though a similar phrase, *vibhattippadhānavasena*, appears in Saddhammajotipāla's *Suttaniddesa*. See Aleix Ruiz-Falqués, "A Firefly in the Bamboo Reed: The *Suttaniddesa* of Saddhammajotipāla and the Grammatical Foundations of Theravāda Buddhism in Burma" (PhD diss., Univ. of Cambridge, 2015), 268.

^{44.} *Pi* is presumably a scribal error for *ci[ttacetasikehi]*; *pa* and *ca* are easily confused, particularly when an *i* vowel obscures the top portion of either consonant.

^{45.} The Lanna word $s\bar{a}md\dot{e}\dot{n}^o$ ("manifests") is abbreviated as $s\bar{a}m$ in the bitext.

tadeva taṃ eva rūpaṃ ACC [ci]...hi which consciousness and mental factors PL ā... ti pull down on da... ya just like things such as walking sticks du...na which a feeble man ā... ti IND props himself up on, or, alternatively, pulls down on iti tadeva rūpaṃ NOM ā... nam is called.

vā tāni *cittāni cetasikāni* NOM āganvā... ramanti IND **thoroughly enjoys** ettha *rūpe* LOC iti *taṃ rūpaṃ* ā... ṇaṃ **is called** iti **hence** tadeva *rūpaṃ* NOM rūpārammaṇa **is**.

This passage showcases the five principal analytical techniques, namely parsing (tadeva becomes taṃ eva); amplification (taṃ eva becomes taṃ eva rūpaṃ); rearrangement (tadeva dubbalapurisena daṇḍādi viya cittacetasikehi ālambīyati becomes taṃ eva rūpaṃ cit[tacetasike]hi ā[lambīya]ti da[ṇḍādi vi]ya du[bbalapurisen]a ā[lambīya]ti); grammatical annotation (taṃ eva rūpaṃ is marked with ACC to show its accusative function); and gloss (in this case featuring relatively complete Lanna translations). But of more specific exegetical interest is the author's admission of alternative readings of the passage. The author provides two different analyses of the section from vaṇṇavikāraṃ to rūpaṃ, separated from one another by the Pali conjunction vā. ⁴⁶ This emphasis on offering multiple interpretations is shared by the monolingual Pali scholastic tradition, and links exegetical Indic-vernacular bitexts to this broader heritage.

A different Pali-Lanna bitext, dating to 1638, shows an even wider range of exegetical techniques. Unlike most exegetical bitexts in Lanna, which were frequently recopied such that multiple manuscript witnesses exist, this manuscript appears to be unique. The colophon even suggests that the author and the scribe are one and the same person:

Investigation of the "Compendium of Objects"—the former monk Nandapañño studied ceaselessly and wrote this down while staying in the monastery of Ýā Sâp° near the center of the city of Chiang Saen, in a pæk° yī year, cūļasakarāja 1000 (1638 CE). 47

Unlike the previous example from 1585, which covered the entire *Abhidhammatthavibhāvinī*, Nandapañño's exposition only addresses the $\bar{A}lambanasangaha$ section. His bitext begins with an explication of which phrases in the $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$ correspond to which parts of the root text:

sarūpato **ḍai₂ ḍènº tè₁** ārammasańgahe tāva **bai thœṅº** chabbidhāni bhavanti | vibhāvato **ḍai₂ ḍènº tè₁** tattha rupameva **bai thœṅº** chadhā sańgayhati | taṃvisayacittato **ḍai₂ ḍenº tè₁** tattha cakkhudvārikacittānaṃ **bai thœṅº** sattadhā tattha saṅgaho | | ⁴⁸

"Sarūpato" **covers from** "ārammasańgahe" *tāva* **until** "chabbiddhāni bhavanti." "Vibhāvato" **covers from** "tattha rupameva" **until** "chadhā sańgayhati." "Taṃvisayacittato" **covers from** "tattha cakkhudvārikacittānaṃ" **until** "sattadhā tattha sańgaho."

Nandapañño then begins a long exposition, roughly five hundred words in my English translation, of the phrase *taṃvisayacittato*, only the very beginning of which I will cite here:

tamvisayacid° vā₁ tānivisayo etesam atthīti tamvisayāni | tāni ārammaṇāni ® āram° dăl° phuṅ năn° visayo pen° āram° etesam cittānam hën° ciḍ dăl° phuṅ năn° atthi mī iti heḍ° dǎn° ăn° tāni cittāni ® ciḍ° dǎl° phuṅ năn° tamvisayāni j̄ tamvisayāni |

^{46.} Not to be confused with the Lanna marker of direct speech, $v\bar{a}_I$, which is often spelled $v\bar{a}$ in manuscripts.

^{47.} DLNTM 010720003_01, first unpaginated folio (http://lannamanuscripts.net/en/manuscripts/60, image 1, accessed November 27, 2019): biccaranā ārammaṇasangaha co2 khahnān° nandapañño ḍai2 ryan° lvaḍ raa°m1 khyan° vai2 mœa ýu1 ārām° pā1 sâp° kyan° hvâ vyan jyan sèn° pī pæk° yī culasakrāj° ḍai2 1000 tvâ văn° năn°.

^{48.} DLNTM 010720003_01, folio *ka* recto, lines 1–2. I use the same transcription conventions as in the 1585 example.

taṃvisayāni ® ciḍº dălº ănº mī ārâmm phun nănº pen ārâmm | penº chaṭṭhībahubbihi smād | dvayº bahubbihi smādº dǎnº mvar penº 2 gī taggurn l ataggurn | 49

"taṃvisayaciḍ" is expressed as "tāṇivisayo etesaṃ atthīti taṃvisayāni." tāṇi ārammaṇāni NOM those objects PL visayo as the object etesaṃ cittānaṃ GEN belonging to those consciousnesses PL atthi there is, iti for that reason tāṇi cittāni those consciousnesses PL taṃvisayānī are named "taṃvisayānī."

taṃvisayāni "NOM consciousnesses PL which have those objects as their object" is a genitive bahubbīhi compound. For all bahubbīhi compounds, there are two types, namely tagguṇa and atagguṇa.

Nandapañño's analysis focuses on how to interpret the *bahubbīhi* (Skt. *bahuvrīhi*) compound *taṃvisayāni*. He begins with an analysis of how the different parts of the compound fit together. The portion cited above engages the standard bitextual analytic techniques of parsing, amplification, rearrangement, grammatical marking, and gloss. He then follows this with an extended reflection on what type of *bahubbīhi* compound *taṃvisayāni* is and how it should be construed.

In the long portion that follows, not shown here, he quotes from a variety of Pali grammatical treatises, including the *Saddatthabhedacintā*, ⁵⁰ the *Balāvatāra*, ⁵¹ and the *Saddasāratthajālinī*, ⁵² to first make a case that *taṃvisayāni* can be read as a *tappayoga*, a particular form of *tagguṇa-bahubbīhi* (cf. Skt. *tadguṇa-saṃvijñāna-bahuvrīhi*) compound in which the external referent is understood through its actual application (*payoga*) outside the compound rather than being inherent to the compound. In this case, *cittāni* ("consciousnesses") is the stated external referent for *taṃvisayāni* (here understood as "those having as their object the five sense objects beginning with form"). He cites an earlier passage from the *Abhidhammavibhāvinī* to support this position, namely that consciousness cannot arise in the absence of an object. ⁵³

Nandapañño then makes the case for the opposing claim that *taṃvisayāni* can instead be an *aññapatthaka-tagguṇa-bahubbīhi* if consciousnesses and mental factors are considered a subset of mental objects (*dhammārammaṇa*). In this case, the qualities of the external referent are unstated, being inherent to the compound itself. To make this point, he quotes the *Abhidhammāvatāra* (a fifth-century systemization of the Abhidhamma by Buddhadatta) as stating that there are six kinds of objects, the five sense objects plus mental objects. ⁵⁴ Although his approach may seem caught up in arcane grammatical arguments, Nandapañño makes clear that the phrase-by-phrase analysis of scholastic texts can have significant doctrinal implications. His efforts neatly capture the purpose of the exegetical mode of presentation: to provide skilled readers of Buddhist texts with the tools to unpack difficult passages. He is clearly not providing linguistic tools as aids for those learning Pali, since he quotes

^{49.} DLNTM 010720003_01, folio ka recto, lines 2-4.

^{50.} DLNTM 010720003_01, folio $k\bar{a}$ recto, lines 1–2; cf. *Saddatthabhedacintā* 235–236 (http://gretil.sub.uni-goettingen.de/gretil/2_pali/9_phil/gramm/saddatbu.htm, accessed November 27, 2019).

^{51.} DLNTM 010720003_01, folio *kā* verso, lines 1–2; cf. *Balāvatāra*, p. 81 (http://gretil.sub.uni-goettingen.de/gretil/2_pali/9_phil/gramm/balava_u.htm, accessed November 27, 2019).

^{52.} DLNTM 010720003_01, folio *ka* verso, lines 2–3; cf. the *Samāsakaṇḍa* of the *Payogasiddhipāṭha* (https://www.tipitaka.org/romn/cscd/e0807n.nrf3.xml, accessed November 27, 2019).

^{53.} DLNTM 010720003_01, folio $k\bar{a}$ recto, lines 3–4; cf. $Saddas\bar{a}$ ratthaj \bar{a} lin \bar{i} , verses 411–413. I am indebted to Aleix Ruiz-Falqués for finding this parallel.

^{54.} DLNTM 010720003_01, folio $k\bar{a}$ verso, line 4; cf. $Abhidhamm\bar{a}vat\bar{a}ra$ 292 (https://www.tipitaka.org/romn/cscd/abh06t.nrf6.xml, accessed November 27, 2019).

extensively from Pali sources without translating them. The extensive abbreviation of the root text and the serial delivery of contrasting interpretations make his bitext equally unsuitable for public sermons. Just as in the anonymous 1585 example, Nandapañño's "Investigation" (*biccaraṇā*, cf. Pali *vicāraṇā*) demonstrates how the analytical tools of bitexts may be effectively marshaled for sophisticated exegetical purposes.

HOMILETIC BITEXTS: INTERPHRASAL PALI-LANNA EXAMPLES FROM THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES

Indic-vernacular bitexts may also be presented in a vernacular-focused style with clear, unredacted prose that makes them well suited for preaching to lay audiences. There are a significant number of such homiletic bitexts, including Pali-Lanna examples from sixteenth-and seventeenth-century Lanna. One hallmark of homiletic Indic-vernacular bitexts is their explicit invocation of an audience of listeners. A homiletic bitext rarely uses abbreviation of any kind. Vernacular translations appear in full prose sentences, often accompanied by expansive explanations that make the doctrinal or narrative context easier to understand. In cases where the selected Pali portions are invented rather than cited, the composition may appear to be mostly in the vernacular, with just a few Pali phrases here and there. For bitexts based on citations of extant Indic texts, a homiletic presentation may include all of the source or only short excerpts. No matter the relative proportions of Indic and vernacular phrases, homiletic bitexts are presented in such a way as to be easily read aloud as scripts for public sermons.

In this section I offer two brief examples of such bitextual Pali-Lanna sermons, one of the *Mahosatha-jātaka* and another on the Buddha's epithets from the *Sāratthadīpanī*. The earliest copy of the first example, *Nisrai mahosathapaṇḍit*, dates to 1563 CE and is currently housed at Văt Pān₂ Hluk (Wat Ban Luk), Lampang province. ⁵⁵ It was almost certainly first composed by a monk or ex-monk before that time, perhaps earlier in the sixteenth century, and continued to be copied in later centuries. ⁵⁶ While most of the bitext is a bilingual rendering of the *Mahosatha-jātaka* as told in the *Jātaka-aṭṭhakathā*, the author added two Pali stanzas of his own composition at the beginning. Each of these stanzas is inscribed first in Pali in the proper word order, followed by a parsed, amplified, rearranged, grammatically annotated, and interphrasally glossed version. These verses function as both an opening invocation and as an explanation of the purpose of the bitext.

The first stanza, not cited here, offers praise to the Buddha, the Dharma, and the Sangha. In the second stanza, the author clearly specifies the function of the remainder of the bitext to come:

gambhirapaññassa mahosathassa paññāpakāso atiñātagantho yo tassa attham abhivaṇṇayissaṃ sotunamattham sukhabodhanāya. 57

Belonging to him of deep intelligence, belonging to Mahosatha, the well-known scripture, which makes intelligence manifest, I shall illuminate the meanings of that [scripture] in order to easily make known the meanings to the listeners.

- 55. PNTMP 030607170_00 (http://lannamanuscripts.net/en/manuscripts/5375, accessed January 23, 2019).
- 56. One such later copy is PNTMP 070107121_00, housed at Văt Sūń Men₁ (Wat Sung Men), Phrae province, dating to 1768 CE (http://lannamanuscripts.net/en/manuscripts/1799, accessed January 23, 2019).
 - 57. PNTMP 030607170_00, folio ka verso, lines 2-3. Spaces and verse formatting added for clarity.

In the bitext version that follows, the author makes clear that by "listeners" (sotūnaṃ) he means those engaged in "studying and listening to the Mahosatha-jātaka scripture" (ăn° ryan ăn° băn yăn° kambī mahōsathajātak năn° lè):

yo gantho ăn° vā kambī ăn° dai gị mahōsathajātak atiñātagantho ăn° pen° kambī ăn° prākâţ° ñiṅ° năk kvā₁ jātak dăṅ° hlāy° paññāpakāso pen° dī sāmḍèṅ° hị prākâţ° yǎṅ° prahñā ăn° âṅ° āḍ° chlāḍ° nai pañhāvād ǎn° lök° lèp°₁ sukhumāl° gambhīrapaññassa mahosathassa hèṅ mahosath bōdhisatt tân° mī prahñā ǎn° lök° heḍ° āḍ° rū₂ ḍai yǎṅ° pañhā byākaraṇ ǎn° lök° lèp° kǎṅ°pǎṅ° nǎk° ahaṃ ® gū abhivaṇṇayissaṃ kdāṃ saddatth adhippāyatth hị prākaṭ° phraaṅ° thaa°ṅ ju ǎn° gå cǎk° kè₂ khai tassa atthaṃ yǎ atth hèṅ° kambī mahōsathajātak nǎn atthaṃ sukhabodhanāya böa° hị rū₂ atth hāy°₁ sotūnaṃ kè parisa dǎṅ° hlāy° phuṅ mī prayojan ǎn° ryan ǎn° bǎṅ yǎṅ° kambī mahōsathajātak nǎn° lè || 58

any scripture NOM any scripture, that is, the Mahosatha-jātaka the well-known scripture which is a more greatly known scripture than [the other] jātakas PL which makes intelligence manifest [and] is that which expresses to make manifest ACC the sharp and clever intelligence with regards to riddles that are deep and subtle belonging to him of deep intelligence, belonging to Mahosatha of the bodhisatta Mahosatha, he who possessed deep intelligence since he could know ACC the answers to riddles that were extremely deep, subtle, and secret I NOM I shall illuminate making the meanings of the words and the meanings of the explanations clearly manifest in all respects, shall expound the meanings of that [scripture] ACC the meanings of that Mahosatha-jātaka scripture in order to easily make known the meanings to the listeners to all the assemblies, for all to benefit from studying and listening ACC to the Mahosatha-jātaka scripture.

This passage once again demonstrates the capacity of bitexts to deliver a fluent vernacular text that remains grounded in a parsed, amplified, and rearranged Pali source. Technical particles for grammatical annotation are placed consistently, and the Lanna glosses are complete. The vernacular portion, even if perfectly comprehensible on its own, remains in close proximity to its Pali counterpart, providing a secure basis for its commentarial elaborations. For instance, what in the Pali appears as simply <code>paññāpakāso</code> ("which makes intelligence manifest") is expanded to <code>peno dī sāmḍeno hī prākâṭo yǎno prahñā ǎno âno āno aho chlāḍo nai pañhāvād ǎno löko lèpo sukhumālo ("which expresses to make manifest ACC the sharp and clever intelligence with regards to riddles that are deep and subtle"). This expansion fills out the narrative signification of the passage, for the long <code>jātaka</code> that follows exhibits the Bodhisatta's skill in solving riddles. At the same time, the process of amplification and syntactic rearrangement encourages the Pali text to grow, in this case by inserting words (<code>gantho</code> and <code>aham</code>) that are only implied in the Pali but are necessary for the vernacular gloss.</code>

Moreover, this passage articulates its own method and purpose in impressive detail. In glossing *abhivaṇṇayissaṃ* ("I shall illuminate"), a verb suggesting the composition of a commentary, the author writes *kdāṃ saddatth adhippāyatth hī prākaṭo phraano thaon ju ăno gå căko kè khai* ("making the meanings of the words and the meanings of the explanations clearly manifest in all respects, [I] shall expound"). As the lines that follow state, the aim of such exegesis is to make the meanings of the text easily known to those to the audience of the

^{58.} PNTMP 030607170_00, folio ka verso, line 3 to folio $k\bar{a}$ recto, line 2. My transcription conventions are the same as in the previous two examples.

sermon. The purpose of the analyzed text and extended prose glosses is to bring a vernacular sermon to life with depth and clarity.

The manuscript begins with a citation of two excerpts from the Sāratthadīpanī:

yo so bhagavā samatīsapāramīyo puretvā sabbakilese so bhañjitvā anuttaram sammāsambodhi abhisambuddho devānam atidevo sakkānam atisakko brahmānam atibrahmāno lokānātho bhāgyavantatādihi karaṇīhi bhagavāsi ladhanāmo so bhagavā.

itipi || araham so bhagavā itipi sammasambuddho so bhagavā itipi || vijjācaraṇasappanno so bhagavā itipi suggato bhaga itipi lokavidu so bhagavā itipi || anuttalo so bhagavā itipi || purissadammasārathi so bhagavā itipi satthā devamanussānam so bhagavā itipi buddho so bhagavā iti pi. 62

This is followed by a mostly vernacular section that includes a brief introduction as well as a partial analysis and expanded translation of the Pali citations above. The introduction is one of the earliest examples of a stock formula witnessed in countless homiletic bitexts across Tai and Khmer cultures from the seventeenth century to the present. The formula is simple: begin with the Pali word *sādhavo* ("O good people") and follow it by an expanded vernacular translation that implores the audience to listen and introduces them to the content of the sermon:

sādhavō bǎin° rā sappuriss dla cun ca tǎin° sōtā prāsāḍ° ḍā bǎin° yǎin° rassadhammadesanā buddh gurn bra buddh coz ḍvayz naiy° ḍǎin° ro ca vissajanā || baiz hnāz nī dœaḥ63

 $s\bar{a}dhav\bar{o}$ Listen, O good people PL, IMP focus your aural faculties and listen well ACC to this Dhamma-taste sermon on the buddha-qualities of Lord Buddha in accordance with the interpretations that I will unravel in what follows hence.

- 59. The oldest is a manuscript that supposedly dates to 1620 CE, cataloged under the title *Vammikasutta-vohāra* (SRI 92.178.01H.035-035; http://www.sri.cmu.ac.th/~elanna/Microfilm/index/index2d.html, accessed November 27, 2019), though I have not verified the date and it is not clear whether this manuscript or its microfilm still exists.
 - 60. DLNTM 070710018_00 (http://lannamanuscripts.net/en/manuscripts/5982, accessed April 27, 2020).
- 61. A *ţīkā* or sub-commentary, attributed to the Lankan monk Sāriputta, on Buddhaghosa's commentary to the Pali Vinaya.
- 62. DLNTM 070710018_00, folio a recto, lines 1–4; cf. CSCD Sāratthadīpanī-ṭīkā, Verañjakaṇḍavaṇṇanā (https://www.tipitaka.org/romn/cscd/vin01t1.tik1.xml, accessed November 27, 2019): so bhagavāti yo so samatiṃsa pāramiyo pūretvā sabbakilese bhañjitvā anuttaraṃ sammāsambodhiṃ abhisambuddho devānaṃ atidevo sakkānaṃ atisakko brahmānaṃ atibrahmā lokanātho bhāgyavantatādīhi kāraṇehi bhagavāti laddhanāmo, so bhagavā. . . itipi arahaṃ itipi sammāsambuddho. . .pe. . . itipi bhagavā.
- 63. DLNTM 070710018_00, folio a recto, line 4 to folio a verso, line 1. Transcription conventions are the same as in the previous Pali-Lanna examples, with the following additions: IMP = imperative mood particle; INS = instrumental case particle; GLS = Pali-Pali gloss marker.

Immediately after the introduction, the author returns to the Pali passage cited at the beginning of the bitext. In contrast to previous bitexts discussed so far, this author only quotes a few Pali phrases in his bitextual analysis and expansion of the passage from the *Sāratthadīpanī*:

yo so bhagavā ® bra buddh cŏ₂ tân° ḍai gå dyar yaa°p⁶⁴ ḍai₂ baṃbeṅ° pāramī dhaŕmm dǎl°ā 30 dǎḍ° mī dānapāramī ṕen° glo₂ upekkhā pāramī ṕen° dī su ĺv° ĺ

bra buddh hèn² rŏ mœa yǎn dhåa°ramān° sān bōdh°isâmbān° ḍai² ṕen° devapuḍ gå yin° kvā devapuḍ dǎl°ā mœa ṕen° bray°ā 'īn° gå yin° kvā bray°ā 'īn° mœa ṕen° brahm gå yin° kvā brahm dǎl°ā mœa bai² pvaḍ bhāvanā gå ḍai² trǎḍ° pray°ā sabbañū hrǎk° sie yǎn° kīleḍ dǎn° mvar ĺv° gå ḍai² nāṇapray°ā ǎn° yin° ḍvay°² tân° ḍvay°² ḍī klāv° ḡļv°ā sabbanūtaññān ĺ ṕen° dī bœn° kè lōk°¹ dǎn° 3 ḡļv°ā kāmalōk°¹ rūpalōk°¹ arūpalōk° ḍai² j̄ļv°ā bhagavā ḍvay° ākān° dǎl°ā mī bhāgyavantatā ṕen glo²

so bhagavā ® **bra buddh co**₂ **tân° năn°** arahaṃ iti pi **măv°ā** *evaṃ vuttapakārena* **ḍvay°**₂ **prakān° ḍǎň° klāv° Ív° bāy° hlǎṅ năn° Í** *api ca* **prakān° 1** ® **bra buddh co**₂ **tân° tăḍ° sie yǎň° kileḍ° dǎň° mvar gå ḍai**₂ j̄jv°ā ⁶⁵

yo so bhagavā NOM whichever Lord Buddha IND fulfilled the perfection-dhammas PL, thirty in all, beginning with the perfection of generosity and ending with the perfection of equanimity—

our Lord Buddha, when he was still abiding in the world, building up the accumulations necessary for awakening, and was born a god, he was greater than the gods PL; when he was an Indra, he was greater than the Indras; when he was a Brahmā, he was greater than the Brahmās PL; when he went forth to ordain and cultivate the mind, having awakened to all-knowing intelligence and breaking apart ACC all the defilements, he obtained insight and wisdom on his own and in the right way, that is to say, the insight of omniscience; he is the refuge for the three worlds, namely the world of desire, the world of form, and the world of formlessness; he earned the name "Bhagavā" INS on account of the characteristics PL beginning with bhāgyavantatā—

so bhagavā NOM that Lord Buddha "araham" iti pi GLS evam vuttapakārena, INS on account of the previously uttered characteristics, api ca including one characteristic that NOM Lord Buddha cut off and destroyed ACC all the defilements, thus received the name "Araham."

Even though only a small percentage of the passage remains in Pali in the author's presentation, it still follows the analytic conventions of bitexts. The Pali is amplified in a few places, and the technical particles are used to gloss key grammatical features. Most striking, however, is the way the author transforms the bulk of the long Pali sentence into a complex, multilayered, yet completely fluent vernacular translation. Certain portions are rendered quite literally in Lanna, such as sabbakilese. . . bhañjitvā ("having broken apart all the defilements") being translated as hrāk° sie yǎn° kīleḍ dǎn° mvar ĺv° ("breaking apart ACC all the defilements"). Other Lanna passages expand the narrative scope ("when he went forth to ordain and cultivate the mind") or the doctrinal precision ("he is the refuge for the three worlds, namely the world of desire, the world of form, and the world of formlessness") of the Pali. Like the 1563 example cited above, this Pali-Lanna bitext from 1666 is explicitly

^{64.} I.e., yaa^om_I , the consonants ma and pa being easily confused in Tham Lanna script.

^{65.} DLNTM 070710018_00, folio *a* recto, line 4 to folio *a* verso, line 1.

structured as a sermon that is perfectly comprehensible to a lay audience while still remaining grounded in a particular Pali text.

POETIC BITEXTS: THE MAHĀJĀTI GĀM HLVAN OF 1482

In contrast to the straightforward prose of homiletic bitexts, a relatively small number of Indic-vernacular compositions are crafted with aesthetic principles in mind, with the vernacular portions shaped into elaborate verse. These bitexts, many of which were once recited as chanted sermons in court or other elite circles, repurpose the analytic tools discussed throughout this article for aesthetic ends. These bitexts, in other words, aim to create literature for its own sake, or what we might call belles-lettres.

The oldest and most influential such composition in what is now Thailand was penned in the late fifteenth century. Believed to have been composed in 1482 under the aegis of King Borommatrailokkanat of Ayutthaya (Paramatrailokanāth, r. 1431–1488), the *Mahājāti gām hlvaň* (*Mahachat kham luang*) is the earliest extant Tai-language version of the *Mahāvessantara-jātaka* and one of the earliest known pieces of Siamese literature. Only seven of the original thirteen chapters survive, excerpts from two of which I examine here. Though the text is intended to be recited as a sung or chanted sermon, its style is radically different from the other bitexts discussed in this article in that the vernacular portions are entirely composed in various meters of Siamese poetry. The Siamese portions, while true to the Pali and deeply indebted to the technical achievements of ordinary Pali-Tai bitexts, thus reach a subtle and expressive beauty. The *Mahājāti gām hlvaň* remained a touchstone for Siamese writers long after its composition in the fifteenth century. It was also first in a line of famous "royal compositions" or *gām hlvaň*, all of which are either Pali-Siamese or Sanskrit-Siamese bitexts in a similar literary style.

The literary craft of the *Mahājāti gāṃ hlvan* is visible from its opening lines in the first chapter, *Daśabar* ("Ten Boons"). After a complex invocation in Pali composed expressly for this work, the *Mahājāti gāṃ hlvan* begins with the initial line of Pali prose from the *Vessantara-jātaka-aṭṭhakathā*. In my transliteration, spaces in the printed Thai-script text are shown with underscores:

phussatīvaravaṇṇābheti _ idaṃ _ satthā _ kapilavatthuṃ _ upanissāya nigrodhārāme _ viharanto _ pokkharavassaṃ _ ārabbha _ kathesi _ || 67

"Phussatī, she who possessed the light of an excellent complexion"—this the Teacher, in dependence upon Kapilavatthu, dwelling in Nigrodha Monastery, having taken up [the story] of the lotus shower, spoke.

The author of the bitext then provides a parsed, amplified, syntactically rearranged, grammatically annotated, and glossed Pali-Siamese version:

- 66. The remaining six chapters were reconstituted in the early Rattanakosin period (late eighteenth or early nineteenth century). On the history of the text and why the relatively late surviving manuscripts are thought to be copies of an original 1482 composition, see Niyaḥtā Hlo₁sundar, "Mahājāti gām hlvan: kār śikṣā jön praḥvati," in Rājapandityasthān, Bacanānukram sābd* varrṇagatī daiy samāy ayudhyā mahājāti gām hlvan chpāp rājapandityasthān (Bangkok: Rājapandityasthān, 2549 [2006]), 721–24.
- 67. Transliterated from the Thai-script printed edition of the Royal Institute (Rājapǎṇḍityasthān, Bacanānukram śābd* varrṇagatī daiy samǎy ayudhyā mahājāti gāṃ hlvan chpǎp rājapǎṇḍityasthān [Bangkok: Rājapǎṇḍityasthān, 2549 (2006)], 1). Throughout this section I cite exclusively from this edition rather than from manuscript versions, which I have been unable to access. Besides the treatment of spaces, other features are transcribed diplomatically using the same conventions as the rest of this article. The kārǎnt* diacritic is marked with an asterisk; the baan mǎn symbol with an at sign (@).

- @ _ satthā _ **ăn vā**₁ **braḥ sarrbéjñ* buddh ayū**₁ **klo**₂ _ upanissāya _ **co**₂ **kū dha stéc āśrāy** _ kapilavatthuṃ _ **kè**₁ **bijāy kapilabāśtu*** _ **purī rǎtanabiśāl** _ viharanto _ **dha stéc siṅ sāṃrāñ sāṃriddhi*** _ nigrodhārāme **nai bicitr nigrōdhārām** _ ārabbha _ **braḥ phū**₂ **phcañ peñcakām bisǎy** _ **tǎn**₂ **haṛdǎy stéc chboḥ** _ pokkharavassaṃ _ **anugroḥh* kè**₁ **pōṣkharabarrṣadhārā** _ idaṃ *dhammadesanaṃ* _ **yaṅṅ braḥ dhammadeśanā mādhūr** _ *gāthāsahassapaṭimaṇḍitaṃ* _ **paripūraṇ* þraḥtǎp ni tvay**₂ **gāthā thịṅ sahǎs** _ **ǎkṣar arrth pa e** _ |
- @ _ phussativaravaṇṇābheti \bar{a} dikaṃ _ ḡi phussatīvaravaṇṇābhe pen ādi nī_2 _ kathesi _ braḥ ká jī_2 jāti te hlăn _ kāṃpăn pai păndūr _ catuvidhaparisānaṃ _ ke catūrabidh parrsăṣy dann phaan _ ăn mā raan răp raśadharm dān_1 năn_2 68
- @ _ The Teacher _ NOM The Omniscient One, the Buddha above my head, _ in dependence upon _ my Lord, having gone to rely on _ Kapilavatthu _ ACC the victorious Kapilabastu, _ vast city of jewels, _ dwelling _ he went to live and reside _ in Nigrodha Monastery _ in the exquisite Nigrodha Monastery; _ having taken up [the story of] _ The Lord, he who had vanquished the sphere of the five sensual desires, _ focused his mind directly on _ the lotus shower _ the grace of the waters of the rains of lotuses, _ this sermon on the Teaching _ ACC the sweet preaching of the holy Teaching _ adorned with one thousand verses _ completely ornamented by the verses numbering to one thousand _ of literary meaning, not one more,
- @ _ beginning with "Phussatī, she who possessed the light of an excellent complexion" _ that is to say, beginning with this "Phussatī, she who possessed the light of an excellent complexion." _ spoke _ The Lord IND pointed to a life from the past _ that was concealed, and uttered it _ to the fourfold assemblies _ to the fourfold assembles PL _ those who had come to receive the taste of the Teachings.

As in previous examples, the bitextual analysis rearranges the syntax, adds technical particles to mark grammatical features such as case, number, and mood, and amplifies the Pali. For instance, the word *idaṃ* ("this") in the *aṭṭhakathā* version is supplemented here with *dhammadesanaṃ* ("sermon on the Teaching") and *gāthāsahassapaṭimaṇḍitaṃ* ("adorned with one thousand verses"). These added terms appear in a very similar way at the very end of the *aṭṭhakathā* text⁶⁹ as well as in the *Vessantaradīpanī*, composed by Sirimaṅgala of Chiang Mai in 1517.⁷⁰ Other amplifications, however, including *catuvidhaparisānaṃ* ("to the fourfold assemblies"), have no known source. The author of the bitext is at once engaged with the broader commentarial tradition as well as adding his own interpretations.

The most remarkable aspect of this passage, however, is the poetic style of the glosses in Siamese. All of the glosses are linked together into a rhyme scheme called $r\bar{a}y_1$ $y\bar{a}v$, in which the last syllable of each line rhymes with any syllable of the following line. Lines are defined either by a space or by the presence of an intervening Pali word. Thus the word klo_2 at the end of the first line in the Siamese $r\bar{a}y_1$ $y\bar{a}v$ meter, marked by the intervening Pali word

^{68.} Rājapăndityasthān, *Bacanānukram śābd**, 1. The punctuation in the printed edition, represented here, is confusing in that there is no logical break in the sentence between *ăkṣar arrth pa e* and *phussativaravaṇṇābhetiādikaṃ*; the *daṇḍa*, paragraph break, and *ɓaan măn* should be removed.

^{69.} The Jātaka Together with Its Commentary, ed. V. Fausbøll (London: Kegan Paul Trench Trübner & Co., 1896), vol. 6: 593: imam gāthāsahassapatimaṇḍitaṃ Vessantaradhammadesanaṃ.

^{70.} Yukio Yamanaka, "Die Vessantaradīpanī: Ein Pāli-Kommentar aus Nordthailand" (PhD diss., Univ. of Freiburg, 2009), 82: idan ti imaṃ Mahāvessantaradhammadesanaṃ vakkhati hi: gāthāsahassapatimaṇḍitaṃ Mahāvessantaradhammadesanan ti.

upanissāya, rhymes with co_2 , the first word of the next line. The last word of that line, \bar{a} śr \check{a} y, rhymes with the second word of the next line, $bij\check{a}$ y, and so on. Even in one place where the editors of the Thai printed text have inexplicably placed a paragraph break, namely between \check{a} kṣar arrth pa e and $g\bar{i}$ phussatīvaravăṇṇābhe pen ādi $n\bar{i}_2$, the rhyme pattern continues, with e rhyming with phussatīvaravăṇṇābhe. The Mahājāti gāṃ hlvan provides one the earliest examples of the use of the $r\bar{a}$ y₁ yāv meter in Siamese literature.

Within the constraints imposed by the meter, this passage also manages to add a number of expressive details. Simple words or phrases in Pali receive elaborate vernacular expansions. Satthā ("The Teacher") becomes $\check{a}n\ v\bar{a}_1\ brah\ sarrb\acute{e}j\bar{n}^*\ buddh\ ay\bar{u}_1\ klo_2$ ("NOM The Omniscient One, the Buddha above my head"). $\bar{A}rabbha$ ("having taken up" or "with regards to") becomes $brah\ ph\bar{u}_2\ phca\bar{n}\ pe\bar{n}cak\bar{a}m\ bis\check{a}y\ _t\check{a}n_2\ hard\check{a}y\ st\acute{e}c\ chboh$ ("The Lord, he who vanquished the sphere of the five sensual desires, _ focused his mind directly on"). Kathesi ("spoke") is artfully expanded into $brah\ k\acute{a}\ j\bar{\iota}_2\ j\bar{a}ti\ t\grave{e}\ hl\check{a}n\ _k\bar{a}mp\check{a}n\ p\acute{a}i\ p\check{a}nd\bar{u}r$ ("the Lord IND pointed to a life from the past _ that was concealed, and uttered it"). Each of these expanded glosses links to the next by rhyme and logical structure, forming a seamless paragraph in Siamese:

The Omniscient One, the Buddha above my head, my Lord, having gone to rely on the victorious Kapilabastu, vast city of jewels, went to live and reside in the exquisite Nigrodha Monastery. The Lord, he who had vanquished the sphere of the five sensual desires, focused his mind directly on the grace of the waters of the rains of lotuses, the sweet preaching of the holy Teaching completely ornamented by the verses numbering to one thousand of literary meaning, not one more, that is to say, [the verses] beginning with this [verse]: "Phussatī, she who possessed the light of an excellent complexion." The Lord pointed to a life from the past that was concealed, and uttered it to the fourfold assemblies, those who had come to receive the taste of the Teachings.

The use of the $r\bar{a}y_I y\bar{a}v$ meter confirms that the vernacular elaborations are not simply scholastic in nature, but rather an attempt to compose an aesthetically pleasing new form of bitextual poetry.

The interphrasal treatment continues through the entirety of the bitext; at no stage is the Pali abandoned in favor of a purely vernacular presentation. Other passages from the *Mahājāti gām hlvan*, however, reveal an even bolder sense of poetic experimentation within the bitextual, interphrasal format. In the seventh chapter, *Mahāban* ("The Great Forest"), the author of the bitext experiments with combining Pali and Siamese verse forms. This chapter relates the narrative of the old brahmin Jūjaka as he wanders through the woods in search of Prince Vessantara, son of King Sañjaya of the Sivi kingdom. Early in the chapter, Jūjaka visits the seer Accuta, who welcomes the brahmin with food and drink. Jūjaka thanks him and takes the opportunity to ask where Vessantara resides.⁷¹

In the Pali version, this passage is relatively straightforward, consisting of one brief prose portion and three half-stanzas in verse:

jūjako āha

a Jūjaka said:

paṭiggahītam yam dinnam sabbassa agghiyam katam sañjassa sakam puttam sivīhi vippavāsitam "Received is what's given; the host's task fully done. Sañjaya's own child, exiled by the Sivis—

^{71.} For the full context of the Pali text in English translation, see Margaret Cone and Richard F. Gombrich, *The Perfect Generosity of Prince Vessantara* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1977), 50–51.

tam aham dassanam āgato him I have come to see. yadi jānāsi saṃsa me ti. 72 If you know, tell me."

In the Pali-Siamese bitext of the $Mah\bar{a}j\bar{a}ti$ $g\bar{a}m$ hlvan, this passage in Pali is interwoven with one line of Siamese $r\bar{a}y_1$ $y\bar{a}v$ and three stanzas in the $gl\bar{o}n$ meter:

jūjako āha _ ăn vā $_1$ brāhmaṇavuḍhi* _ khān arrcuťaṛṣī ḡịn taṅṅ nī $_2$

paṭiggahitaṃ yaṃ dinnaṃ	bhonto khā ₂ khaay ₂ tè ₁	<u>r̃șī</u>
	yaṃ dinnaṃ tai tī	klè ₁ klèṅ ₂
sabbassa agghiyam katam	āhār grīöṅ ₁ kin mī	em ōj
	ani bhōjan hvān cèṅ ₂ khā ₂	khaap hvai ₂ hn ī ö hvva
sañjassa sakam puttam	dai ₂ dāv ₂ naŗdōş khā ₂	khặp hnī
	lūk rājasībi klvă	brai ₁ b̄ā ₂
sivīhi vippavāsitam	bal mīöṅ pa tū tī	tāl gyat
	kralyat lăp lī ₂ hnā ₂	ayū ₁ srāṅ ₂ svèṅ puñ
tamaham dassanam āgato	khā ₂ tho ₂ pa ayat thaay ₂	mā thịṅ
	broḥ dăn dịṅ hén khun	khī ₁ klo ₂
yadi jānāsi saṃsa me	dha hén dī ₁ dha sịṅ	săṅvāś
	praḥkāś kè ₁ khā ₂ tho ₂	dān ₁ rā ₂ braḥ öy ⁷³

Jūjaka said _ NOM The aged brahmin _ replied to the seer Accuta thus:

"Received is what's given;	Sir, I am 'neath you,	seer.
	What's given is good;	such care!
the host's task fully done.	There's much to eat, all	tasty,
	such sweet food. Humbly	I give my thanks.
Sañjaya's own child,	The sinless Lord was	chased out;
	the Sivi king's child feared	the folk.
exiled by the Sivis—	Displeased, the people	burned with
	rage and banished him;	he sought the good.
him I have come to see.	I, your servant, have	come here,
	in hopes I might see	the Prince.
If you know, tell me.	If you've seen where he	resides,
	inform your servant,	seer, please do!"

The particular $gl\bar{o}n$ meter in use here has much stricter constraints regarding syllable counts, rhyme, and the placement of tone marks than $r\bar{a}y_I$ $y\bar{a}v$. I have captured only the syllable counts in my English translation of this passage. The Siamese portions respond to and transform the Pali verses into a distinctly Siamese metrical style. Whereas Pali meters are structured on distinctions between light and heavy syllables, Tai verse forms usually depend on syllabic and tonal rhyme. This bitextual passage puts these two metrical systems in explicit contrast.

The Siamese portions are not assimilated into an Indic system. In fact, a few Pali words, marked in italics in my presentation of the passage, are brought into the Siamese meter. In the first line in the Siamese $gl\bar{o}n$, "bhonto $kh\bar{a}_2$ khaay₂ te₁ / \bar{r} ," the author adds the Pali word bhonto, a respectful vocative plural form, meaning "Sir!" in this context. The addition of bhonto serves to emphasize that Jūjaka is addressing Accuta respectfully. The remaining

^{72.} Reformatted slightly from Fausbøll, *Jātaka*, vol. 6, 532–33.

^{73.} Rājapāṇḍityasthān, *Bacanānukram śābd**, 94. The verse formatting here reproduces that of the Thai-script printed text; to keep the text uncluttered, I have not transliterated the spaces in the *glōn* portion.

five syllables in the first line are in Siamese and essentially offer an interpretative gloss of *bhonto*: "I am 'neath you, / seer," or, more simply, "O Seer!" In the next line of the Siamese, "yam dinnam tai tī / klè₁ klèn₂," the author inserts a Pali phrase, yam dinnam, which is repeated from the root verses. The Siamese line does not translate this phrase, however. The reader must understand its meaning in Pali ("that which is given") in order to grasp the import of the whole line ("What's given is good; / such care!"). Though the lines that follow are entirely in Siamese, the author finds novel ways to integrate declined and conjugated Pali words into a local metrical system. This passage marks the earliest recorded instance of such experimentation.

The remainder of the passage exemplifies how the Siamese portions expand in meaning upon the Pali. A simple Pali phrase such as sañjassa sakam puttam / sivīhi vippavāsitam ("Sañjaya's own child [i.e., Prince Vesstantara], / exiled by the Sivis") is expanded through the insertion of the appropriate narrative context: "The sinless Lord was / chased out; / the Sivi king's child feared / the folk. / Displeased, the people burned / with rage / and banished him; he sought / the good." The Siamese poet takes the opportunity here to recount the entire first act of Prince Vessantara: After the people of his father's kingdom of Sivi spurn him for giving away a rain-making elephant, he retreats to the forest to seek the fulfillment of his spiritual path. The Siamese portions rely on the Pali passages for structure, but they enact their own expressive and narrative force in the vernacular. Moreover, the poet's skillful application of various Siamese meters lifts the glosses from a scholastic to an aesthetic function. The Mahājāti gām hlvan is the first in a tradition of poetic gām hlvan bitexts that bring Pali and Sanskrit poetic conventions into conversation with Siamese verse. These celebrated compositions, long prized for their aesthetic power, are emblematic of the impact of Indicvernacular bitexts on local literary production in mainland Southeast Asia.

CONCLUSION

From the fifteenth to the nineteenth century, the analytic techniques and presentation styles of Indic-vernacular bitexts occupied a critical place in the intellectual culture of mainland Southeast Asia, including Siam and Lanna. Authors and poets from what is now modern Central and Northern Thailand used bitexts as tools for learning, teaching, preaching, and writing. In this sense, understanding bitexts and how they work is crucial to appreciating mainland Southeast Asian approaches to language and thought in the early modern period.

This article provides examples from four of the possible modes of presentation that Indicvernacular bitexts take. Some applications of bitextual techniques are philological in that they focus on the close reading and translation of Indic texts. The interlinear Pali-Siamese annotations found in Pali curricular texts, including the nineteenth-century *Dhammapadaṭṭḥakathā* examples, demonstrate the philological mode in the context of monks learning to read and translate Indic texts.

Other applications of the core techniques of citation/invention, parsing, amplification, rearrangement, annotation, and gloss are best understood as exegetical, for they extend the scholastic project of Pali commentaries into a bitextual context. The two contrasting Pali-Lanna interpretations of the *Abhidhammatthavibhāvinī-ṭīkā* unpacked in this article, one from 1585 and the other from 1638, showcase the range and depth of the exegetical mode in crafting efficient hermeneutical guides for skilled readers of Pali treatises.

On the opposite end of the spectrum, bitexts in the homiletic mode of presentation are explicitly composed for the purpose of reading aloud to lay audiences. The two Pali-Lanna examples selected for this article, one of the *Mahosatha-jātaka* from 1563 and another from

1666 that draws on the *Sāratthadīpanī*, demonstrate some possible forms such bitextual sermons may take. As in the case of the 1563 example, they may retain an interphrasal presentation throughout, each Pali phrase followed by its vernacular translation and expansion. Or, as in the 1666 manuscript, long passages may appear only in the vernacular, with Pali phrases inserted sparingly.

In contrast to the prose format of homiletic bitexts, poetic bitexts use vernacular and integrated Indic-vernacular verse forms to create sophisticated compositions for literary effect. The two example passages from the *Mahājāti gāṃ hlvaṅ* of 1482 exemplify the literary possibilities present in the analytical tools of Indic-vernacular bitexts. The *Mahājāti gāṃ hlvaṅ* and other Pali-Siamese and Sanskrit-Siamese texts inspired by it reveal the skill of Siamese authors who harness techniques normally applied to philological, exegetical, or homiletic ends to create new forms of poetry.

Much remains to be done in the study of Indic-vernacular bitexts across mainland Southeast Asia as well as in Sri Lanka. The sheer volume of compositions inscribed in a bitextual format on palm-leaf and folded-paper manuscripts across the region is staggering; very few have been subject to contemporary methods of critical reading, editing, and translation. As these bitexts become more accessible through the digitization of manuscript collections, the place of Indic-vernacular bitexts in the global history of reading and translation will come into sharper focus.