Material Evidence for Ritual Chant in Early Modern Siam: Leporello Manuscripts as Affordances for Deathbed Rites

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Abstract: This article examines material evidence for deathbed chanting in nineteenth-century Siam (today's central and southern Thailand), focusing on folded-paper leporello manuscripts used for group chanting by monks on behalf of the terminally ill. As physical objects, these Khom-script leporellos convey much more than the Pali texts they transmit. Their paratextual dimensions, including colophons, ritual sequences, and chanting instructions, confirm that the specific material format and arrangement of leporellos made them a crucial piece of ritual technology in the deathbed context. Taking their materiality seriously reveals that such manuscripts are more than just records or manuals; they are affordances that made certain end-of-life rituals possible in early modern Siam. Drawing on examples from Thai, American, and European collections, this essay demonstrates how abundant paratexts unite the material and ritual dimensions of these manuscripts.

Keywords: Thailand, Buddhism, ritual, materiality, chanting, Pali, paratexts

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cross the Buddhist world, many rituals rely on robust textual Adocumentation. Complex rites for inaugurating sacred images, memorialising the dead, or confirming initiation into a meditation lineage are often guided by textual manuals that explain exactly what actions each participant should perform, in what sequence, and with what techniques. This is particularly true for traditions that favour more intensive engagement with explicitly ritualised procedures, including in esoteric contexts in East Asia, Mongolia, and Tibet; Tantric Buddhism features some of the most voluminous and meticulously detailed ritual texts ever created. Even for the Theravada tradition in Sri Lanka and Southeast Asia, where written ritual manuals have been far less researched, manuscript archives are replete with vernacular-language texts that describe exactly how to perform funerals, initiations, consecrations, and other ceremonies. 1 For other Theravada rituals, however, including rites for the terminally ill, few manuals appear in manuscript sources. How might we study these rituals and trace how they have developed over time?

For contemporary Theravāda studies, steeped in anthropological expertise, the obvious response is to conduct ethnographic fieldwork. The deep well of knowledge generated through such research continues to shape the field today; we are fortunate that many Buddhist rituals across Sri Lanka and Southeast Asia have been documented and reflected upon by several generations of local and international scholars. Ceremonies of giving, construction, consecration, ordination, initiation, mourning, and transferring merit to the deceased have been described in considerable detail, especially from the 1960s to the present. However, anthropological methods can only go so far in offering insights for time periods prior to when the fieldwork was performed. Peering further back into the past, beyond the horizon of direct observation and communal memory, may be impossible in the absence of written records.

This article considers a family of rites that have been rarely documented in ethnographic work on Theravāda societies, namely

¹ For examples of such manuals, see Davis, *Deathpower*, 53–76; Bernon, *Le manuel*, 417–614; Swearer, *Becoming the Buddha*, 77–172.

deathbed chanting performed by monks for the sake of the gravely ill. Unlike funeral chanting, which is typically public and easily accessible to both ordinary laypeople as well as visiting ethnographers, recitation of Buddhist texts for the sick is often a more private affair, taking place within the enclosed sphere of a family home and a close-knit circle of kin. What are the key stages and structures of such rites, and how do they relate to the better-known realm of mortuary ceremonies? Though research on twentieth and twenty-first-century Theravāda Buddhist deathbed rites in Sri Lanka and Southeast Asia has begun to emerge,² there is still little to match the historical depth achieved by recent studies on end-of-life rituals in East Asia and the Himalayas.³ The paucity of ritual manuals for deathbed practices in a Theravāda context makes pre-1900 rites especially challenging to study.

Manuscripts used in deathbed ceremonies provide important clues. The body of evidence I consider in this essay sits at the intersection of ritual and materiality: accordion-folded paper manuscripts (also known as leporellos) from nineteenth-century Siam (specifically in what is now central and southern Thailand) that record Pali-language chants for end-of-life rites. These manuscripts are largely written in Khom script, a variant of Khmer script used in Thailand for religious writings, with brief passages in Thai script.⁴ As physical objects, these leporellos convey much more than the

² Langer, *Buddhist Rituals of Death and Rebirth*, 10–16; Stonington, 'Facing Death'; *idem*, *The Spirit Ambulance*. A brief example from 1884, discussing recitation of the phrase *braḥ araham* by the dying and their relatives, appears in Bradley, 'Siamese Customs for the Dying and Dead', 247–48. For a study of traditional and modern manuals for deathbed practices in the Cambodian context, see Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 228–46.

³ The most in-depth study of premodern rites is Stone, *Right Thoughts at the Last Moment*. Other works of note include Birnbaum, 'The Deathbed Image'; Blum, 'Never Die Alone'; Desjarlais, *Subject to Death*; Shinohara, 'The Moment of Death'; Stone, 'The Secret Art of Dying'.

⁴ On these scripts, see Peera, *Ayutthaya Literature*, 79–82; Kongkaew, 'Ăkṣar khạm khạn daiy'; Igunma, 'Aksoon Khoom'; Antelme, 'Inventaire provisoire'.

Pali texts they transmit. Their paratextual dimensions,⁵ including colophons, textual sequences, and chanting instructions, confirm that the specific material format and arrangement of leporello manuscripts made them a crucial piece of ritual technology in the deathbed context.⁶ The material dimensions of leporellos support the ritual logic and embodied performance of end-of-life chanting. In other words, these manuscripts are more than just records or manuals; they are affordances that made certain end-of-life rituals possible in early modern Siam.

From the standpoint of Theravada ritual history, understanding leporellos as material affordances for end-of-life rites has several implications. One, the scribes and sponsors who created these manuscripts made them specifically as material supports for chanting rituals and were aware that the objects they created would be circulated between different users and monasteries. Two, deathbed practices in nineteenth-century Siam were structured to flow seamlessly from chanting for the dying to chanting for the dead, a sequence reflected in the physical layout of the manuscripts themselves. Three, the ritual logic of such practices in early modern Siam depended on the performative possibilities of a large-format, paratext-enriched leporello, which guided the complex, highly musical orchestration of these rites by multiple monks. In what follows, I draw on examples of nineteenth-century Siamese leporellos from Thai, American, and European collections that reveal how abundant paratexts unite the material and ritual dimensions of these manuscripts.

⁵ For the use of paratexts in a Theravāda context, I am inspired by Ciotti and Lin, eds., *Tracing Manuscripts*; Peera, *Ayutthaya Literature*, 22–27; and Silpsupa, *Relationship between Anisong Manuscripts and Rituals*, 30–36. See also Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 48–99.

⁶ For the term 'ritual technology', I am indebted to Davis, 'Weaving Life out of Death', 76. On the idea of manuscripts as 'tools', I have benefited from Silpsupa, *Relationship between Anisong Manuscripts and Rituals*, 7.

Siamese Chanted Leporellos: For the Dying and the Dead

Thai Buddhist temples play host to a stunning array of ritual practices, many of which involve various forms of chant. Living memory, audio recordings, and anthropological records allow us to see some of the ways such rituals have transformed over the past hundred years or so. But what about earlier centuries? What material evidence remains for the ritual recitation of Buddhist texts from the late Ayutthaya (1351-1767), Thonburi (1767-1782), and early Rattanakosin (1782-present) periods? Royal chronicles and law codes, as well as reports by foreign missionaries, confirm that Pali- and Thai-language chants, including their most musically expressive formulations, were an essential part of Buddhist rites during these eras.⁷ Yet such sources rarely provide details regarding what texts were chanted, in what sequence they were recited, the instructions given to the performers, and the musical structures of the chants themselves. To uncover these and other specifics regarding Buddhist recitation practices in end-of-life rites, we need to turn to one side of the material record: manuscripts specifically crafted as supports for chanting.

There are two primary forms of premodern Buddhist manuscripts in Thailand, namely folding leporello books made of bark-pulp paper, known as *samut khay*₁ (*samut khoi*) or *samut daiy* (*samut thai*) in Thai, and palm-leaf manuscripts, known as *gămbhīr* pai lān* (*khamphi bai lan*).⁸ The latter are best suited for individual study, or for use by a single monastic when reciting sermons or memorising liturgical texts. The former were most often used for recording literature, medicine, astrology, legal tracts, historical records, or even bureaucratic

⁷ See, for example, Damrong, *Tāṃnān braḥ parit*; Dhanit, *Tāṃnān deśan* mahājāti*; Jory, *Thailand's Theory of Monarchy*, 35–40; Prapod, *Mahādibbamanta*, 379–87.

⁸ Transliteration in this article follows the EFEO-based system outlined in Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', xiii–xvii; see also Antelme, 'Inventaire provisoire'. Phonetic transcription of selected modern Thai terms (in parentheses) follows the Royal Thai General System of Transcription. On the material dimensions of these two formats, see Peera, *Ayutthaya Literature*, 75–77.



Cover of EFEO PALI 39, 51 x 16 x 6.5 cm (Photo by the author)

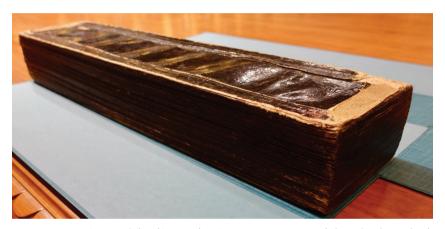


FIG. 2 NYPL Spencer Thai (Siamese) MS 22, 67 x 14 x 12 cm (Photo by the author)

information.9 From the eighteenth century onward, however, special large-format leporellos, longer and thicker than their counterparts, were widely used as guides and memory aids for recitation rituals involving multiple monks or laypeople. Their exceptionally large size—generally measuring around 12 to 16 cm wide by as many as 55 to 70 cm long, and up to 12 cm thick—makes it possible for up to four performers to gather around a single leporello in chanting rituals (Figures 1–2).

Hundreds of such manuscripts are found in national and uni-

On samut khayı for recording literature, see Peera, Ayutthaya Literature, 85-135. For astrology and other genres, see Ginsburg, Thai Art and Culture and Pattaratorn, ed., Divination au royaume de Siam.

versity library collections in Thailand, Denmark, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and the United States.¹⁰ In America, for instance, most university libraries and major museums that collect Asian art have at least one such manuscript in their holdings; some, including Harvard University, the University of Pennsylvania, and the New York Public Library, have one or two dozen each. The largest known collections include the British Library (over thirty examples) and National Library of Thailand (at least forty-six catalogued examples).¹¹ Hundreds more leporellos of this type are presumably still in private collections or in uncatalogued monastic libraries throughout Thailand's central and southern provinces. Although these numbers are low compared to the hundreds of thousands of palm-leaf manuscripts that survive in Thailand, they are ample enough to underscore the importance of chanted leporellos on bark-pulp paper during their period of peak production from the mid-eighteenth to early twentieth centuries.

Most of the examples in foreign collections feature painted illuminations (Figure 3). The visual beauty of these objects raised their value on the art market throughout the twentieth century, and both private and institutional collectors outside of Thailand have been purchasing them for decades, swelling the ranks of such leporellos in Asian, American, and European museums and libraries. Most of the surviving nineteenth- and early twentieth-century examples feature several Pali texts along with one long vernacular text, specifically a Siamese verse version of the popular Māleyyatthera narrative, *Braḥ mālāy klạn svat* (*Phra malai klon suat* [The Story of the Monk Māleyya in Chanted Verse]). ¹² For these reason, many such large-format

¹⁰ Ginsburg, *Thai Art and Culture*; McDaniel, 'Illuminating Archives'; *idem*, 'The Chester Beatty Collection'; Kerekes and McDaniel, 'Siamese Manuscript Collections in the United States'; Priyawat, 'Three Phra Malai Manuscripts'; Puńtīön and Þraḥsiddhi*, *Samut khay*₁; Skilling and Santi, 'Manuscripts in Central Thailand'.

¹¹ I am grateful to Peera Panarut for sharing his unpublished catalogue of these materials with me (Peera, 'Saruρ́ hnǎn sṣ̄a khīen braḥ mālǎy klạn svat').

¹² For a discussion and analysis of this text, see Brereton, Thai Tellings of



FIG. 3 British Library Or 13703, cover and first two spreads (Photo by the author).

leporellos are automatically catalogued as *Braḥ mālăy* manuscripts or as manuscripts for funerary chanting, even if they might not contain *Braḥ mālăy klạn svat* itself.¹³ Manuscripts that do contain the *Braḥ mālăy* narrative typically include painted illuminations of key episodes in the story, along with other scenes. Eighteenth-century examples, on the other hand, tend to feature a long Pali text known as *Mahābuddhaguṇā* [The Great Virtues of the Buddha].¹⁴ Since both *Braḥ mālăy* and *Mahābuddhaguṇā* leporellos are prominent in Thai and international collections of Southeast Asian manuscripts, they remain objects of continuing curiosity and the subject of a wealth of recent publications by scholars in Thailand, Japan, Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States.¹⁵

Rather than study those better-known kinds of chanted man-

Phra Malai, 93–148. For editions of the text itself, see Bhāsakar, Braḥ dharrm cét gămbhīr* yai; Kram śilpākar, Samut mālāy lèḥ supin klan svat; Takrāk Byāgśrī, Braḥ mālāy chpāp văt tạn khnāk. A different Thai version is translated in Brereton, Thai Tellings of Phra Malai, 187–234. The Pali version is edited in Collins and Denis, 'Braḥ Māleyyadevattheravatthu' and translated in Collins, 'The Story of the Elder Māleyyadeva'.

¹³ Some cataloguers are more careful; Peera's catalogue ('Sarup' hnăn sṭa khien braḥ mālăy klạn svat') is helpfully restricted only to those manuscripts that contain the *Braḥ mālāy klạn svat* text.

¹⁴ Since *Mahābuddhaguṇā* has not been prominent in Thai liturgical practices for almost two hundred years, it is difficult to conclude whether *Mahābuddhaguṇā* is more closely linked to funerals or to other kinds of end-of-life practices, such as extending life, healing illness, adverting mortal dangers, or guiding the minds of those on their deathbed to focus on recollecting the qualities (*guṇa*) of the Buddha. For an edition of this text, often considered as consisting of two sections (*Mahābuddhaguṇā* and *Mahābuddhaguṇavaṇṇanā* [Commentary on the Great Virtues of the Buddha]), see Tanabe and Shimizu, *Ayutayā-ki kōki sakusei watto fuakurabū jiin*, 65–92.

¹⁵ Appleton et al., *Illuminating the Life of the Buddha*; Brereton, 'Phra Malai Texts', Ginsburg, 'A Monk Travels to Heaven and Hell'; Igunma, 'A Monk's Journeys to Heaven and Hell'; *idem*, 'The Mystery of the "Naughty Monks"; Unebe, 'Textual Contents of Pāli Samut Khois'.

uscripts, in this article I focus on a smaller group of large-format Siamese leporellos from the nineteenth century that include neither *Braḥ mālāy klạn svat* nor *Mahābuddhaguṇā*. These manuscripts feature a different group of Pali-language chanting texts that are associated with rites for the sick and the dying as opposed to the funerary function of texts such as *Braḥ mālāy klạn svat*. By bringing to light a lesser-known corpus of leporellos that are explicitly for chanting to the sick rather than the dead, I aim to enrich our understanding of the Siamese manuscript tradition and its relevance for constructing a ritual history of Theravāda Buddhism.

The Creation and Circulation of End-of-Life Leporellos

Siamese chanted leporellos include a range of paratextual clues that point to how and why these manuscripts were produced and shared among the lay and monastic community. These include formal colophons as well as less formal notes for readers, each of which may serve to elucidate issues of creation and circulation. In this section, I highlight several colophons and other notes that clarify why and how these leporellos were made and shared. With regards to their creation, colophons added by scribes and donors often specify the different roles involved in manuscript production and the motivations of each individual.¹⁶ For instance, a Thai-script colophon at the end of a mid-nineteenth-century manuscript held at the Penn Museum (Penn Museum 83-23-1) emphasises the donors, their intention in sponsoring a leporello 'for chanting to the sick', and their commonly held aspiration to meet Maitreya Buddha in the future. 17 The professional scribe, by contrast, does not name himself and petitions only for 'a share of the benefits':

¹⁶ Peera, 'The Structure, Functions, and Tradition of Siamese Royal Scribal Colophons'; Grabowsky, 'The Grammar and Function of Colophons', 244–54.

¹⁷ On this aspiration in other colophons, see Grabowsky, 'The Grammar and Functions of Colophons', 237–38; Ooi, 'Aspiring to Be a Buddha', 116; Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 591–92.

'We, Mr. Căn and Mrs. Bīer, along with our children Ms. Caï and Mr. Khīev, all four of us, had the faith to forsake our wealth to sponsor this Brah mālăy book, which includes the Svat cèn [Selections for Chanting, a set of excerpts from the three divisions of the Tipiṭaka], Brah unhisavijāy (Unhissavijaya [Victory of the Cranial Protuberance]), and Brah bojjhang* (the three Bojjhanga-suttas [Discourses on the Factors of Awakening]) for chanting to the sick, along with the Brah paramătthadharrm [Abbreviated Abhidhamma-piţaka], to be established in the [Buddha's] dispensation. In whatever life we should be born in, may we all never encounter poverty and hardship. May the four of us-wife and children included-be born together as parents and children, respectively, in every life until we reach arhatship. Moreover, may all four of us meet Lord Maitreya when he descends to awaken in the future.' The monk's assistant Mr. Mvan also busied himself to see this sponsorship through—may he achieve all of his aspirations. As for me, the scribe, who assisted in the writing as an adornment to [their] faith, may I receive a share of the benefits accrued to them.18

The main colophon in this manuscript clarifies the names of the sponsors, the textual content of the leporello, and the donor's motivations, along with the motivations of the scribe and others who assisted in its production. As is typical for such colophons, no specific

¹⁸ Penn Museum 83-23-1, page B50: khā² braḥ co² tā căn phū phva² yāy bier phū mīe nān cai'y lè nāy khīev phū lūk dăn sī¹ gån nī² mī sădā sīe saḥlaḥ drăp aak srān hnăn² sīḍ _ braḥ mālaiy lem nī² mī dăn svat cèn² lè / braḥ unhiṣavijaiy lè braḥ bōjang* sāṃrăp svat khai lè braḥ paramăthadhărrm vai² nai braḥ sāṣanā nī² _ thā² khā² braḥ co² caḥ kæt mā nai jāti tai & gvām yāk gvām khen cai'y cån ayā¹ tai² mī / kè¹ khā² braḥ co² cân duk & jāti _ kh"a hai² khā² braḥ co² mè lūk dăn² sī¹ nī² köt pen mè lūk kān duk jāti kvā¹ ca tai² sāṃrec kè braḥ a "araḥhātr döt _ hniṇ¹ lo¹ kh"a hai² khā² braḥ co² dăn sī¹ / tai² bhåb braḥ met-trai co² mīö năn² ca lån mā trăṣ nai anāgat pæạn² hnā² döt _ dăn |kha²| nāy mvan phū pen vaiyāvaḥ-cakar năn² tai² jvay tön hön hai² sāṃrec nai kāl sān mālaiy nī² _ ká hai² sāṃrec / gvām prāthanā duk sin¹ duk praḥkār dăn |kha²| phū khīer nī² ká jvay² khīen bhöm töm chlæm sădā ká kh"a răp dān svan ānisån hèn¹ dār tvay² döt

person with an illness is named, but they are presumably one of the named sponsors or a close relative. A second, much shorter colophon in the same manuscript adds the following information, this time in Khom script: 'I copied [these texts] to be chanted [for those with] high fevers'. ¹⁹ Again, while the colophon does not reveal who is sick, it makes clear that the manuscript was created for the sake for supporting a chanting ritual for someone who is seriously ill.

Other colophons provide additional context for how and why such manuscripts were produced. This is the case for EFEO PALI 39, a leporello from 1815 held at the Bibliothèque EFEO Paris - Maison de l'Asie. The extensive Khom-script colophon again emphasises the donor: Princess Sumālī (*Braḥ aṅg* co, hñin sumālī*, b. 1790), the twenty-seventh child of King Rāma I (r. 1782–1809). The princess, who died in 1815 or shortly thereafter, was likely very sick at the time the leporello was commissioned. Indeed, her illness would have been the principal reason for sponsoring the manuscript for monks to use when chanting to her. The colophon also details the texts involved, the purpose for reciting them, and the donor's relatively lofty aspiration to memorise the Tipiṭaka in future lives prior to reaching buddhahood, a common vow among elite Buddhists during this period:²⁰

This book of the Dharma was sponsored by Princess Sumā[lī] out of her faith and devotion, containing the *Braḥ vinăy* [Abbreviated Vinaya-piṭaka], the *Braḥ sūtr* [Abbreviated Suttanta-piṭaka], and the *Braḥ abhidhamm* [Abbreviated Abhidhamma-piṭaka], to be established in the dispensation of the Buddha for the use of monks to chant for the [re-]enactment of recitals (*saṅgāyanā*) [of the Tipiṭaka], as well to chant for the extension of the lifespan of all living beings who are virtuous. As a result of her intention to cultivate merit, may she uphold the Tipiṭaka in every life—may this be a condition for the attainment of the garland [that is] the omniscience of a buddha in

¹⁹ Penn Museum 83-23-1, page B49: $kh\bar{a}_2$ bra cau_2 $kh\bar{i}en$ vai_2 $s\bar{a}mr\check{a}p^e$ svat khai $n\check{a}k^e$ $l\grave{e}$

²⁰ Skilling, 'King, Sangha and Brahmans', 188–92; Ooi, 'Aspiring to Be a Buddha'; Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 592–96.

the future. May she be born in time for the dispensation of Śrī Ārya Maitreya, the Lord who will awaken in times to come. May she attain her aspiration. May she, the sponsor, increase her lifespan, her complexion, health, and strength. As for this book of the Dharma, I, Mr. Deś, was bestowed the opportunity to inscribe it as a royal gift. In year 2357 of the Buddha's dispensation, year of the dog, sixth of the decade, in the winter season, the eleventh waning day of the second lunar month, a Friday (i.e. January 6, 1815 CE), it was entirely complete as the cause for an appropriate reward.²¹ Please don't criticise [me, as I copied it] in accordance with the [old] manuscript.²²

²¹ My gratitude to Peera Panarut for pointing out the likely meaning of this unusual phrase (modern Thai: pén mūl pāṃhnéc tām sam gvar [pen mun bamnet tam som khuan]). The term pāṃhnéc ('reward', 'bonus', derived from Khmer pāṃnāc') appears in several eighteenth-century inscriptions in this same sense of a payment from the royal family in recompense to someone carrying out pious works on their behalf. See, for instance, the mother-of-pearl door inscription of Văt Paramabuddhārām (Wat Borommaphuttharam) in Ayutthaya, dated to 1751: gā₁ līen₂ mi tai₂ git kho₂ nai braḥ rājadān tvay₂ _ git tè₁ pāṃhnec praḥtū hnin₁ pen nœn trā _ 30 _ jān₁ ('the cost of feeding [the workers twice-daily meals] was not factored into the royal donation; considering only the rewards [bestowed on the workers], the money amounted to thirty chang per door'; Santi and Nawarat, Pravătišāstr* ayudhayā cāk cāriķ, 560).

²² EFEO PALI 39, pages 126–27: braḥ dhamm saḥmud nī₂ _ braḥ co₂ lūk dhêạ ảng braḥ co₂ sumā _ kop⁰ pai tvay⁰₂ braḥ rājjasăddā : / ussāha dhrån sān⁰₂ _ braḥ vinay brah sūt braḥ abhidham⁰ hvai _ nai braḥ buddhasāssahnā _ sāṃrăp⁰ braḥ bhikkhusån⁰gh / ca ḍai₂ svat kadāṃ saṃghāyanāy⁰ _ lè caḥ ḍai₂ svat cāṃröñ āyu sătv dăn⁰ hlāy phū₂ pen⁰ sādhujån⁰ tvay⁰₂ ḍej : / braḥ rājakusallacettanā khon braḥ ång káa caḥ dhrån _ braḥ traiy piṭaṃkk duk jāt⁰ _ khåa cån pen⁰ paccay hai₂ sāṃrecc kè₁ / sroy sărrbejj _ braḥ bodhiñāṇ nai anāgåttakāl _ kh″a hai₂ dān⁰ sāssahnā ång _ : / braḥ si āriy met⁰-traiy co₂ ăn⁰ caḥ mā trăt _ nai bhabbaḥ pöạn₂ nā kh″a hai₂ sāṃrecc gvām prāthanā năn⁰ döt⁰ kh‴a hai₂ / khā₂ phū sān₁₂ cản⁰ cāṃröñ _ āyuḥ vaṇṇo sukhaṃ balaṃ _ braḥ dhamm saḥmut nī lem⁰₁ nī₂ khā₂ braḥ co nāy⁰ des : / ḍaiy₂ răp⁰ braḥ rājjadān⁰ cāṃlon⁰ lèv⁰ pen kāṃnåt⁰ _ braḥ buddh sākkaḥrāj lvan ḍai₂ _ 2357 / braḥ vassā _ paccun pī c‴a chasåk⁰ heman-

The scribe names himself and records a precise date for the manuscript's creation but does not publicly ask for a share of the merit, instead suggesting that his act was done out of duty or devotion to the princess, trusting he will receive his just rewards. As in many colophons of this type, the scribe asks for any errors to be attributed to the reference manuscript.²³ Scribes worked from existing manuscripts when creating new ones, adding only a few original passages such as colophons or shorter notes to future users of the leporello. Both the Penn Museum and EFEO manuscripts imply that the donors hired the scribes to produce these leporellos when they or a loved one had fallen sick, and that the object was to be used in a chanting ceremony for the patient. The creation of the manuscript and its subsequent use were acts intended to generate merit for the donor and, to a lesser extent, the professional scribe and any assistants involved.²⁴ The care taken in the colophons, as well as with other aspects of manuscript production, reflects the elite economies of merit in which they were produced as well as the relatively high cost of producing leporellos of this type, including the frequent application of gold leaf and copious amounts of finely applied pigments.²⁵

In addition to these formal colophons, Siamese chanted leporellos also contain a variety of short notes addressed to their users. These

taraḍū ḍöạn yī $_1$ _ rèm $^\circ$ sip $^\circ$ pet gā m_1 văn $^\circ$ suk pen $^\circ$ vāraḥ kāṃnaṃt lèv $^\circ$ 2 sāṃ / recc paripūrn pen $^\circ$ mūl pāṃnet $^\circ$ _ tām $^\circ$ såm gvan braḥ yā ḍaiy $_2$ tī tīen lėy $^\circ$ tām $^\circ$ jaḥpāp $^\circ$

²³ Silpsupa, *Relationship between Anisong Manuscripts and Rituals*, 164–65; Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 87–92.

Other leporellos, however, seem to have been created by a monastic scribe, whose professional status is uncertain. See, for example, Or 13703, folio 40v, which contains the following Khom-script colophon: 'This book was sponsored by Mr. Răk to be established in the dispensation. Braḥ Mahā Mīön was the artist and scribe. If there are any mistakes, please correct them accordingly' (hnăn² sĩa dān² guṇ răk srān² vai² nai braḥ sāsan²ā _ braḥ mahā möạn phū raccanā tèm²² khīen thā² phit² phīen jvay² som²² plèn²).

²⁵ On the scribal economy in nineteenth-century Siam, see Peera, *Ayutthaya Literature*, 247–49.

more informal notes may be written in Khom script or ordinary Thai script. The users they address are typically monks rather than laypeople. Some notes include exhortations reminding users to take care of the manuscript. These reveal that the scribes were keenly aware that they had fashioned objects fit for circulation. Once the ceremony on behalf of the original benefactors was complete, the scribes' creations would not necessarily remain at the monastery to which they were initially donated. Valuable and highly portable commodities, manuscripts of this type were frequently borrowed for ceremonies at different temples and private homes. Most chanted leporellos bear marks from repeated ritual use: wax droppings, incense burn scars, and corrections in pencil and ink from different generations of performers. Or 14526 from the British Library provides an example of a short note in Thai script that confirms that scribes knew their manuscripts would be borrowed and circulated:

Should any of you respected ones take this manuscript away, please take good care of it; don't let a flaming torch fall on it.²⁷

Here the scribe is especially concerned about fire damage, likely from the candles and lanterns required for reading at night. The scribe also recognises that his creation will eventually circulate among different users and perhaps even different monasteries over the course of its life.

As objects that were created, used, and circulated with specific aims in mind, Siamese leporellos for chanting to the dying represent a distinct form of material technology. Unlike most other manuscript formats in Southeast Asia, they can be easily read by multiple chanters at once. Despite the ravages of mould, humidity, and hungry critters, the sturdy construction of these manuscripts meant that they were durable enough to be borrowed from monastery to monastery,

²⁶ For parallels in the Cambodian context, see Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 70, 83–87.

²⁷ Or 14526, folio 1r: dā dān phū taiy o pai lèv cản raḥmặt haiy tī yā hai tai bai tảk saiy

generation after generation, without undergoing significant damage. Their ample dimensions, line spacing, and margins also allow plenty of space for paratextual additions, including colophons, annotations, and instructions regarding when and how to chant specific texts. Before examining these other paratexts, we must first attend to the texts themselves. What chanting texts did these leporellos transmit, and what is significant about the sequences in which they appear?

Chanted Texts in Siamese Leporellos: Themes and Sequences

In contrast to most palm-leaf manuscripts, Siamese leporellos typically contain more than one text. The order in which texts are presented tends to follow conventions connected to chanted performance. Thus, chanted leporellos for end-of-life rites do not merely contain groups of related texts; they present ordered sequences for ritual recitation. While the same exact sequence of these texts is not always followed in ritual practice, a dominant or ideal order nonetheless exists and is reflected in the manuscript tradition.²⁸

The texts included in leporellos for end-of-life ceremonies are all in Pali except for *Braḥ mālāy klạn svat*. The Pali chants contain a mix of material drawn from the Pali canon along with Pali texts composed locally in Southeast Asia. Nineteenth-century leporellos designed for post-mortem rites always include *Braḥ mālāy klạn svat*. In these manuscripts for chanting at funerals and other memorials for the deceased, *Braḥ mālāy klạn svat* is generally preceded by several short prose excerpts from the Pali Tipiṭaka known in Thai as *Svat cèn*,²⁹

²⁸ For contemporary Theravāda approaches to text selection and sequencing, see Langer, 'Chanting as "Bricolage Technique".

²⁹ Skilling, 'Chanting and Inscribing'; Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 116–17. The excerpts include the opening narrative of the *Suttavibhanga* section of the Vinaya-piṭaka that precedes discussion of the first *pārājika* rule; the initial parts of the *Brahmajāla-sutta*, the first discourse of the Dīgha-nikāya and thus the opening of the Suttanta-piṭaka; and excerpts of the *mātikā* that precede each of the seven books of the Abhidhamma-piṭaka. These portions are selected not

Abhidhammamātikā [Matrices of the Abhidhamma, i.e. Abbrieviated Abhidhamma-piṭaka],³⁰ and *Sahassanaya* [One Thousand Methods].³¹ This order is relatively fixed in the manuscript tradition,³² and conforms to twentieth-century books and contemporary performance practices as well.³³

A different constellation of texts appears in nineteenth-century leporellos crafted as tools for deathbed rituals. These Pali chants fall into four categories, which I have designated as Groups A, B, C, and D. Group A refers to canonical Pali excerpts from the Tipiṭaka—Svat cèn, Abhidhammamātikā, and Sahassanaya—as found in funerary manuscripts but with the absence of Braḥ mālāy klạn svat. Group B is a set of canonical suttas, namely the three [Satta]bojjhanga suttas, 34 the Girimānanda-sutta [Discourse to Girimānanda],35 and the Isigi-

for their specific doctrinal content but rather for their ability to ritually stand in for the whole Tipiṭaka by virtue of being the first passages of each of the three main divisions of the canon. In addition, the *mātikā* ('list' or 'matrix') of the Abhidhamma have a special ritual function in Siamese, Lao, and Cambodian funerals in conjunction with esoteric ideas concerning the regeneration of the body (Davis, *Deathpower*, 147–48).

³⁰ Same as the last section of *Svat cèn*; occasionally other Abhidhamma abridgements are used here, as in Or 15245.

³¹ Unebe, 'Textual Contents of Pāli Samut Khois', 438–40; Tanabe and Shimizu, *Ayutayā-ki kōki sakusei watto fuakurabū jiin*, 106–08; Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 948–57.

³² For details on various exceptions, see Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 175–78.

³³ Poramin, *Mālāy śrāddhā*, 79–85.

³⁴ Also known as the *Paṭhamagilāna-sutta* (Saṃyutta-nikāya 46.14), *Dutiyagilāna-sutta* (46.15), and *Tatiyagilāna-sutta* (46.16), respectively. Parallels for some of these exist in Chinese and Tibetan as well. For a translation and analysis of how one text from this trio might be used in contemporary Buddhist contexts for healing the sick, see Anālayo, *Mindfully Facing Disease and Death*, 43–50.

³⁵ For a translation and analysis of this text (Anguttara-nikāya 10.60) as a healing practice, see Anālayo, *Mindfully Facing Disease and Death*, 99–109. The *Girimānanda-sutta* is the most widespread and most important Pali text for

li-sutta [Discourse at Isigili]. The first four are all linked to healing the sick in that they narrate how the monks Kassapa, Cunda, Moggallāna, and Girimānanda overcome grave illness by listening to Buddhist teachings and undertaking contemplative practices.³⁶ Group C is a set of non-canonical Pali texts for blessing and protection, known under the general heading of Mahādibbamanta ('Great Divine Mantra').³⁷ These almost always appear in a fixed sequence in the leporellos, namely Unhissavijaya, Mahāsānti [Great Pacification], Cullajayamangala [Lesser Victory Blessing], Mahājaya [Great Victory], Dibbamanta [Divine Mantra], Mahāmangalacakkavāla [Great Sphere of Blessings], and Mahāsāvam [Great Libation]. The final set, Group D, is referred to variously as Svat kāmlăń devatā or Svat stoh grobh* ('Chanting [according to] the power of [planetary] deities' or 'Chanting to remove planetary obstacles'). It consists of a fixed list of nine Pali protective chants (paritta), mostly canonical, that are used to ward off the ill effects caused by nine heavenly bodies (nabagrohh*, from Sanskrit navagraha).38 Each of the nine texts is usually listed not by a title but by a mnemonic prompt consisting of

reciting to the sick in Cambodia, and leporello examples are abundant for both the canonical version and various vernacular translations (Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 113, 135, 148, 342–46, 362–63, 461, 902–03, 1006–17, 1262–63, 1452). Bilingual Pali-Thai sermon versions were popular in Siam as far back as the late Ayutthaya period; for a published example, see Dhaímasabhā, *Girimānandasūtr sāṃnvan ko¹ pōrāṇ*.

The fifth, the *Isigili-sutta* (Majjhima-nikāya 116), is not thematically linked to recovery from illness. But its inclusion is not necessarily a surprise; it typically paired with the *Girimānanda-sutta* in manuscript collections of chanted texts across the region (Walker, 'Echoes of a Sanskrit Past', 61, 66, 72). All five texts comprise the *Dutiyabhāṇavāra* of the *Catubhāṇavāra*, a classical selection of protective texts that have long been used in Pali Buddhist contexts, both in Sri Lanka and Southeast Asia.

³⁷ Damrong, *Mahādibamant**; Prapod, 'Mahādibbamanta'; Walker, 'Echoes of a Sanskrit Past', 93–102.

³⁸ For more on the planetary deities and their role in Thai astrology, see Cook, 'Astrology in Thailand', 140–54.

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the first (and sometimes the last) words of each chant, along with the number of times to recite each chant.³⁹

۵	0.16000 6.20 6.20 1: 1			
7	Or 16009, f. 38v-f. 39r lists these texts as follows:			
	1 [the Sun]	uddhetayañcakkhumā	6 сар∘	
	2 [the Moon]	yandunimittaṃavamaṅgalaṃ	15 сар∘	
	3 [Mercury]	yassānubhāvato	8 сар∘	
	4 [Venus]	sabbāsīsisajjādīnaṃ	17 сар∘	108
	7 [Saturn]	yatoṃ	10 сар∘	
	5 [Mars]	purentambo	19 сар∘	$117d\bar{\imath}$
	8 [Rāhu]	kinnusantaramāno	12 сар∘	
	6 [Jupiter]	yassānusarane	21 сар∘	
	9 [Ketu]	appasannehinā	сар∘ 9	

The ordinal numbers on the left refer to one of the nine planetary deities connected with a particular paritta text. The cardinal numbers on the right refer to the number of recitations (cap) to be completed for each text according to the 'power' (kāmlăn) or 'day' (văn) of the deity in question. The titles of the paritta are given in a mnemonic pratīka format, with uddhetayañcakkhumā referring to the Mora-paritta [Peacock Protection], yandunimittamavamangalam referring to the Pubbañha-sutta [Morning Discourse], yassānubhāvato referring to the Karaṇīya-metta-paritta [Goodwill Protection (Beginning with) 'What Should Be Done'], sabbāsīsisajjādīnam referring to the Khandha-paritta [Protection on the Aggregates], yatom referring to the Angulimāla-paritta [Angulimāla Protection], purentambo referring to the Vattaka-paritta [Quail Protection], kinnusantaramāno referring to the Canda-/Suriya-paritta [Sun/Moon Protection], yassānusarane referring to the Dhajagga-paritta [Protection on the Standard's Tip], and appasannehinā referring to the Āṭānāṭiya-paritta [Āṭānāṭiya Protection]. A well-trained monk, prompted with just uddhetayañcakkhumā (udetayañ cakkhumā), could easily recite the rest of the Mora-paritta from memory. He would simply need to keep track of how many times to recite the full text, in this case six. Hence it is not surprising that these chants—which range from one to five pages each, if written out in full—are referenced only in abbreviated form. The stray '108' on the right reflects the total number of recitations for the first eight deities; the '117' reflects the total when the ninth is included. These texts are all canonical paritta texts coupled with their standard non-canonical introductory verses (though in the case of the Pubbañha-sutta, the introductory verses

This fourfold analysis into Groups A–D reveals much about how texts for recitation to the dying were selected in nineteenth-century Siam. First, it should be noted that these chants are largely well-known texts that appear abundantly in palm-leaf manuscripts. With the exception of the *Mahādibbamanta* collection (Group C), the texts selected were part of an existing curriculum for chants for regular recitation (*bhāṇavāra*), expected to be memorised by all monks in early modern Siam. In other words, deathbed rituals did not necessarily involve rare or unusual texts. Group C does contain relatively more rare texts that fell out of favour in Siam by the end of the nineteenth century. During the late Ayutthaya and early Rattanakosin periods, however, the *Mahādibbamanta* collection represented some of the most prestigious chants for magical protection in Siam, even if not all monks were expected to memorise them.⁴⁰

The fixed order of the chants, both within each group and in the overall sequence of the four groups, points to a common understanding of deathbed rituals in the period. These leporellos did not simply collect chants at the whims of individual scribes; they are precise scripts for ritual performance that follow a logical order. Groups B, C, and D represent successive stages of chanting for someone who is very ill. Group B, consisting of canonical accounts of recovery from illness, are the first line of defence, as it were. Group C, comprised of Pali texts of Southeast Asian origin that invoke Brahmanical deities, texts, and powers, offers a different approach to seeking long life and protection in times of crisis. Group D is tied to Brahmanical astrological ideas, widely held in contemporary Thailand just as in premodern Siam, about averting disasters due to planetary influences, and possibly represents an option of last resort. Finally, Group Atypically placed first in the manuscripts according to scribal convention—contains various excerpts from the Tipițaka to be chanted only after the patient's death. In a deathbed chanting manuscript from Harvard Art Museums, the scribe notes that Sahassanaya, part of the

are far longer than the short canonical portion at the end). For more examples of abbreviated titles of this type, see Walker, 'Echoes of a Sanskrit Past', 59–66.

⁴⁰ Prapod, 'Māhadibbamanta', 386–89; Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 304–09.

funerary sequence, should only be recited after the person has died.⁴¹

The textual sequences in the manuscripts draw a clear line between texts for the sick and those for the dead. Among those for the sick, however, it is less clear which texts are for healing and which are for guiding the terminally ill to a more fortunate rebirth. How have the curative and palliative aspects of chanted become so intertwined? One reason is that many families might be reluctant to sponsor a ceremony for a dying relative if there was no hope they might get well. Manuscript colophons explicitly state that these leporellos are for chanting to the sick. Their creation as objects, and the ritual performances they make possible, offer hope in the face of disease. But given that postmortem chants were always included in the same manuscript, scribes, sponsors, and performers must have realised that chanting for curative purposes cannot always be successful. Life is fragile. The medical fortunes of the ill could shift dramatically in a matter of hours, especially in nineteenth-century Siam, and monks needed to be prepared for a variety of outcomes. The carefully devised sequences presented in the leporellos allow performers to enact seamless transitions between chanting for healing, for accompanying the dying, and for memorialising the dead.

Chanting Instructions and Musical Notation

The thematic and sequential dimensions of Siamese leporellos for deathbed chanting are reinforced by several paratextual additions that clarify exactly when and how to recite particular Pali texts. In this section, I consider short scribal notes that inform users—archetypically a group of four monks gathered around a single manuscript—about the precise sequence of the chants and the proper times to rest. I then turn to the unique system of cantillation marks in these manuscripts, a method of musical notation that remind users exactly how to recite the ornate melodies required by particular texts. These paratexts are essential to the chanted leporello as a piece

⁴¹ HAM 1984.442, page 37A.

of ritual technology by coordinating the efforts of the monks tasked with performing a series of long, melodic chants.

The simplest kinds of notes to the user are those that orient monks to where they are in the manuscript. For instance, Or 14838 includes a short note, 'This is the verso side, O respected ones!'42 Suppose one is just beginning a ritual performance: since the outer covers are typically decorated identically rather than being labeled 'recto' or 'verso', it is easy to get confused about which side should be opened first. If one opens the manuscript and sees this note, one is immediately reminded to flip the leporello over to find the actual beginning on the recto side. These instructions may also clarify the sequence of texts involved, such as this note that concludes the verso side of Or 14115: 'Here ends the *Braḥ sūtr* [Abbreviated Suttanta-piṭaka]. The *Paramatth** [Abbreviated Abhidhamma-piṭaka] is on the recto side. You are invited to flip back to that side'.⁴³ These instructions help chanters find the next appropriate chant, even when that text appears on the opposite side of the manuscript.

Closely related are instructions that inform performers what texts to chant next. These typically appear at the end of a text before the next one appears. For example, in Or 16009, between *Mahāsāvaṃ* and *Svat kāṃlāṅ devatā*, the following note appears: 'Here ends the *Braḥ catuved* [The Four Vedas, another name for *Mahāsāvaṃ*]. Continue with the recitation of the [chants for planetary] deities [according to their] powers'. Near the beginning of the same manuscript, between the final *Abbreviated Abhidhamma-piṭaka* portion of *Svat cèṅ* and the three *Bojjhaṅga* suttas, the scribe instructs: 'Here ends the *Braḥ paramatth**. Having performed the *Braḥ abhidhamm* [portion of *Svat cèṅ*], then present the performance of the *Braḥ bojjhaṅg**. Other manuscripts contain more poetically phrased

⁴² Or 14838, folio 25r: nī hnā 2 plāy º ṇa dān 2 º dǎn º hlāy º ey º

⁴³ Or 14115, folio 49r: c'apº bra sūtr || bra p''araḥmatth ay''ū gānº t'anº nim'anº blik klăp pai.

⁴⁴ Or 16009, folio 38v: cåpº braḥ catuvety. ca tănº kāmlănº devatā t"a pai

⁴⁵ Or 16009, folio 6v: capº bra paramatth tè₁ do nī₂ lèvº₂. sāṃtèn bra abhidhamm lèvº₂ lāmḍāp nănº₂ ca dèn bra sāmḍèn brah bojjhanga tạº paiyº

instructions. Or 13703, for instance, contains this Khom-script note between the Abbreviated Vinaya-piṭaka and Abbreviated Suttanta-pițaka portions of Svat cèn:

Here ends the Brah vinay [section of Svat cèn], O respected ones! Flip and open [the leporello] to find the Brah sūtr [section of Svat cèn quickly; don't tarry too long!

c'apº bra vinay tè, do nī lè dānº eyº blik pök pheyº hā bra sūt renº rīpº rūt yā ra₁ răn

This passage is divided into three-syllable phrases that lend it rhythmic and euphonic qualities. In addition, some of these phrases are linked by rhymes, such as ey^{ϱ} and $phey^{\varrho}$ as well as $s\bar{u}t$ and $r\bar{u}t$. These poetic devices soften the stern command to quickly proceed to the next chant in the sequence.

Other leporellos for deathbed chanting provide specific guidelines on what texts to recite for the sick and when. For instance, following the Girimānanda-sutta in Or 15246, the scribe added the following note in Khom script: 'Chant [these texts] for the extension of the [invalid's] lifespan, starting from the [three] Sattabojjhang [suttas]'.46 Or 15207 contains a similar instruction in Thai script: 'For those who have a high fever and who are elderly, chant the three Bojjhang [suttas]'.47 Additional instructions often appear in the context of Svat kāmlăn devatā (Group D). In Or 13703, the scribe introduces Svat kāmlăn devatā with the following note: 'If chanting for release from malevolent planetary deities, then read on. Chant according to the power of the deities'.48 At the chant's conclusion, the scribe adds: 'Here ends the chanting for the release of malevolent planetary deities, for propitiating the deities that reign over a person's lifespan

 $^{^{46}~}$ Or 15246, folio 19
r: hai sūt cāṃröñ āyū döt hai $_2$ sūt sattabhūjang pen tan $_2$

⁴⁷ Or 15207, folio 88r: svan pen khai₂ ņăk g"an phū ñaï kè haiy svaș sām buj"an

⁴⁸ Or 13703, folio 40v: thā2 ca svat stoh groh devatā ka1 tū au thöt2 / svăt tām2 kāmlă'nº devatā

and cause harm'.⁴⁹ A much more detailed guide appears in Or 15245 as part of a long Thai-script colophon that describes why the ritual should be performed, what texts to chant, what order to chant them in, and how many times each one should be recited.⁵⁰ Such extensive explanations are relatively rare in Siamese chanted leporellos; we can assume that most users had memorised the key texts already and were comfortable reciting them by heart. Ritual instructions remind monks how to chant the right texts at the right time.

Other instructions found in Siamese chanted leporellos focus not

⁴⁹ Or 13703, folio 41r: svat stoḥ groḥ cāṃrºöñ devatā sveyº āyu hai dos _ caɪpº doɪ ni lè.

⁵⁰ Or 15245, folio 22v: This book belongs to Braḥ Ācāry* Tī, its sponsor. May it be a condition for Nibbāna. If you are going to release malevolent planetary deities, whether for a sick person or for a healthy person without pain, chant Pali protective texts (manta) every day in accordance with the power of the deities who are looking after our bodies, such that the deities cannot find any fault with this person. Chant from ye santā until the short version of yānī..., and then begin to recite according to the deities as follows. Chant uśde six times [the Sun] and yăndun fifteen times [the Moon]. Deity 3 [Mercury]: Yătsānusaḥ... ne eight times. Deity 4 [Venus]: Săbāsī seventeen times. Deity 7 [Saturn]: Yaḥtōhăm ten times. Deity 5 [Mars]: Purentām bō nineteen times. Deity 8 [Rāhu]: yătsānubāvaḥtō twelve times. Deity 6 [Jupiter]: ăppasĕnne twenty-one times. Deity [9 Rāhu]: săkkătvā nine times, then recite kinnusăntaḥraḥmānō vaḥrāhulūraniyăn... suriyănti, then chant karanī... itipiso... săbaḥro... bōjăngo... maḥhākā... siriditi... nākkagātaḥyāk... hiri-ō... Complete. Original text: hnān sīa $lem_1 n\bar{\imath}_2$ khạn braḥ ācāry* tī ph $\bar{\imath}_2$ srā $\dot{\imath}_2$ vai $_2$ ni nibbānapācayotu / d $\bar{\imath}_1$ caḥ stoḥ groḥ gan pén $_$ gai $_1$ ay \bar{u}_1 ká t $\bar{\iota}$ mi cep o ká t $\bar{\iota}$ d \bar{a}_1 m $\bar{\iota}$ groḥ ay \bar{u}_1 $_$ lèv $_2$ svac man du văn tām kāṃlăn devaḥtā răkṣā tvă ro tvă dān₁ hā dōṣ kaḥ gan phū₂ năn mi tai² ley _ tăn² yesantā can yānī nay² _ lèvº căp o devaḥtā ta pai thœt / svaj uśde _ săbāsī _ 17 _ han _ | _ braḥ 7 _ yaḥtōhăm _ 10 _ han _ | braḥ 5 _ purentāṃbo 19 han _ | _ braḥ 8 _ yătsānubāvaḥtō _ 12 _ han _ | _ braḥ 6 _ ăppasenne _ 21 _ | _ braḥ săkkătvā _ 9 _ han _ lèv₂ vā₁ kinnusăntaḥraḥmānō _ vaḥrāhulūraniyăṅ _ | la | _ suriyănti lèv2 svac karaḥnī _ | itipisō _ | _ săbaḥrō _ | _ bōjāṅgō _ | _

on when to chant but when to stop. These scribal notes invite monks to pause their chanting and take a rest, either for tea or to return to their monastery. In their simplest form, such instructions invite monks to rest their voices before continuing with the next text in the sequence. For example, Penn Museum 83-23-1 takes a contrasting approach to that of Or 13703. Instead of requesting monks to move swiftly between the Abbreviated Vinaya-piṭaka and Abbreviated Suttanta-piṭaka portions of Svat cèn, Penn Museum 83-23-1 invites them to take a break at this juncture: 'Here ends the Brah vinay. The four venerable masters are invited to pause here'. 51 Other leporellos, such as EFEO PALI 39, specify that the chanters should stop and have tea, presumably to recuperate and soothe their throats: 'Please, most venerable masters, drink tea and [other] beverages; take a break' (Figure 4).⁵² Similar notes appear in Or 15207 between a sequence of chants for the sick. One note simply reads, 'Pause here, drink hot tea, and rest until well. Then begin the next chant'; another adds the scribe's aspirations as well: 'Here ends the second chant. Pause here to drink hot water, rest, and wait for a while. May I receive a share of the merits. May I be born in time for Śrī Ārya[-Maitreya] in the future'.53 Other leporellos combine instructions regarding tea breaks with instructions for the monks to return to their home temple. In Or 14838, at the conclusion of *Svat cèn*, the scribe added the following note: 'The *Braḥ* abhidhamm is complete in seven books. The venerable monks are invited to return to the temple'.54 Later on, at the conclusion of Brah mālāy klan svat (this being a manuscript that includes funerary texts),

Penn Museum 83-23-1, spread A04: capº braḥ vinay tè₁ dau $n\bar{\imath}_2$. 0. $n\bar{\imath}_1$ bra $ph\bar{\imath}_2$ penº cau² dănº sī braḥ ang / yut konº₁

⁵² EFEO PALI 39, page 125: nīmånº co braḥ guṇ chănº nāṃ jā pānº sāṃrānº dötº

 $^{^{53}}$ Or 15207, folio 89r: yūt_ |_ jăn nāṃ rạn_ ||_ bạn caiy haiy sắpāy_ || % || 0 || khịn påṣ 2_ ||; Or 15207, folio 90r: c"ap 2 påk lèvº_ || yūt chăn nāṃ rạn bạn caiy khạy pai khạyy mā_ || khā || kh"ạ svan pūn tvay² dœt kha hai² darrṇ braḥ ṣvi ārīyaḥ co cả mā gān han năn² döṭ_ || %

 $^{^{54}\,}$ Or 14838, folio 4r: cap' bra abhidhamm dănº cetº gāṃbhī nimant lvan bī pai vătº



FIG. 4 EFEO PALI 39, detail of page 125, end of the *Isigili-sutta* (Photo by the author)

the scribe composed a longer note in Khom script:

Thus ends [Braḥ] mālăy, just so. Please, O monks, have some tea. After drinking, return to the temple. Don't indulge in song; karma will bite.

c'ap mālai tè do nī nim'anº hlvan² bī chănº nāṃ jā chănº lèvº² pai vătº vā yā lenº lāṃ kāṃ c'a dănº⁵⁵

As in the case of Or 13703 above, this instruction is composed in a mix of polite and stern language, softened through the use of

⁵⁵ Or 14838, folio 45r.



FIG. 5 WCT 004, image 047, Wat Chantharawat, Phetchaburi province, passage of *Girimānanda-sutta* showing cantillation marks (image courtesy of Fragile Palm Leaves Foundation–Henry Ginsburg Project)

rhyme and other poetic devices.⁵⁶ Didactic notes to the chanting monks—some in plain language, some more flowery—serve a related set of aims: to orient users to the leporello, to guide them to chant in the proper sequence, to chant specific texts for the sick and the dying, and to inform them when they should rest, have tea, or return to the monastery. Such paratexts are crucial affordances that make the ritual performance of end-of-life rites possible. By making the leporellos easy to use, the scribes created objects that allowed groups of monks to focus on the key task of chanting to the dying and dead.

In addition to notes and instructions, scribes also added another kind of paratext: cantillation marks that indicate the rhythmic, melodic, and vocalic qualities of each chant (Figures 3 and 5). In many Siamese leporellos crafted for deathbed rites, the Pali chants

Though formatted as prose in the manuscript, here I have presented it as an (imperfect) stanza of verse in the $k\bar{a}by^*y\bar{a}n\bar{\iota}$ 11 meter.

in Groups A and B, along with some in Group C, are adorned with a distinct set of marks that are only found in nineteenth-century Siam. Indeed, this is one of the only forms of musical notation used prior to the twentieth century in Thailand and its neighbours.⁵⁷ A related form of notation appears in some manuscripts of a bilingual Pali-Siamese chanted version of the Vessantara-jātaka known as the Mahājāti gām hlvan (Mahachat kham luang [Royal Version of the Mahāvessantara-jātaka]).58 The complex symbols found in these Mahājāti gām hlvan manuscripts have been brilliantly deciphered and converted into Western notation by Decha Srikongmuang.⁵⁹ While I have been unable to match the notation system in the chanted leporellos for the dying to any present-day or historical audio recordings in Thailand, the logic of the system is still fundamentally the same as that deciphered by Decha. These marks, usually made in red ink to contrast with the black ink used for the Pali text, speak volumes about how the leporellos were used in ritual performance.

Given Decha's findings for the *Mahājāti gāṃ blvai* notation, these marks must have served as a kind of memory aid for reciting long, complex, and exceptionally ornate melodies. In this sense, the system found in end-of-life leporellos parallels similar systems found in Buddhist chanting manuscripts in Central and East Asia, including Japan. ⁶⁰ The marks indicate when the melody should rise or fall in pitch, what syllables should be emphasized or attenuated, what rhythm should be followed, and what vocal ornamentations should be applied. In other words, they make a direct link between the materiality of the manuscript and the musical expression of ritual performance.

A detailed study of these marks remains to be undertaken. How-

⁵⁷ The written form of the marks themselves is of considerable interest; Fredrik Almstedt has provided an inventory of these marks in a handful of manuscripts and linked the shape of several of them to Siamese astrological numerals; see Almstedt, 'On the Origin of the Thai Tone Markers', 48–67.

⁵⁸ Peera, Ayutthaya Literature, 185–89.

⁵⁹ Decha, Kār śikṣā kār svat mahājāti.

⁶⁰ Mross, Memory, Music, Manuscripts, 130–48.

ever, my preliminary conclusions about this notation system point to its crucial role: cantillation marks allowed leporellos to facilitate a consistent, widely shared, and highly sophisticated form of musical performance in nineteenth-century Siam. One, in contrast to the Mahājāti gām hlvan marks, the Pali notation system makes strict divisions between short and long syllables, thus conforming to longstanding performance practices for Pali recitation. Two, only a small number of marks are restricted according to tone rules, suggesting that the Thai lexical tones applied to Pali-language chanting were less important in nineteenth-century chanting than they are today. Three, the marks are remarkably consistent across the manuscripts, but with certain variation in both graphic form and the realisation of small details in the chants, suggesting that an agreed-upon system was in place. Four, when variations appear, they never violate the basic principle of keeping marks for short and long syllables separate. In other words, the scribes themselves were aware of the rules behind the notation system; it was not applied from a place of ignorance or as an aesthetic affectation. Finally, ink and pencil corrections to the notations are common in manuscripts, again suggesting that the marks were in vigorous use during the nineteenth century and could be proofread or corrected as needed by knowledgeable performers.

The cantillation marks were thus an essential ingredient in what made leporellos such a valuable aid for end-of-life chanting ceremonies in early modern Siam. Since the monks involved would have memorised the texts already, the manuscript served as a shared set of prompts or cue cards to keep performers on track. A chanted leporello is like a written score to an accomplished musician who knows her piece well; she has rehearsed the words and melodies many times, but may still glance at the notes from time to time for confidence and clarity. Since four monks are typically chanting at once from a single manuscript, the leporello, with its large, clear script and red cantillation marks reminding the chanters of what they already know, ensures that a group's performance is as tightly coordinated as possible. In sum, the chanting instructions and melodic markings are crucial dimensions of what made large-format leporellos so appealing as pieces of ritual technology in nineteenth century Siam. While today these objects are more often appreciated for their aesthetic beauty than their

functional value, the practical dimensions of such manuscripts as affordances for ritual performance should not be overlooked.

Conclusions

The three kinds of paratextual materials explored in this article—colophons, textual sequences, and chanting instructions—demonstrate how large-format leporellos functioned as material affordances for end-of-life ceremonies. As the scribes and sponsors who created these objects make clear in their colophons, chanted leporellos were valuable objects for the monks who used them as supports for ritual performance. Their elegance, portability, and relative durability made them favoured by elite donors as well as by the monks who circulated them within and beyond a given temple for use in deathbed rites at private homes. The Pali texts these manuscripts transmit are carefully ordered and laid out on the pages of leporellos, allowing chanters to select which sequence of texts would be most appropriate to the situation at hand. Crucially, the presence of both deathbed and postmortem sequences within the same physical manuscript makes it possible for monks to seamlessly transition between chants for curative, palliative, and funerary purposes. The generous margins of large-format leporellos allowed for other kinds of paratexts, including instructions on when and how to chant, that were essential to the way these manuscripts functioned as ritual tools. In making use of these guides, a group of monks could be reminded how to orient themselves to the manuscript, how to properly recite texts in sequence for certain rites, and how to vocally produce complex melodies in unison.

In closing, I would like to draw attention to a fourth kind of paratext that this essay did not address, namely painted depictions of end-of-life rituals. As mentioned previously, painted illuminations are surely the best-known aspect of Siamese leporellos. Among those manuscripts used for end-of-life chanting, such paintings often appear on side panels that flank certain pages, with the written text confined to the middle panel (Figures 3, 4, and 6). Generally, no more than five or ten percent of the pages in a given leporello are illustrated in this way; most pages contain written text alone

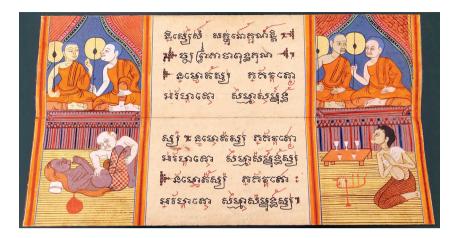


FIG. 6 Or 13703, British Library, folio 28r, text showing beginning of *Unhissavijaya* (photo by the author)

(Figure 5). In manuscripts created for funerary chanting, the most common illuminations are *jātaka* narratives, episodes from the life of the Buddha, the *Braḥ mālăy* story, scenes of flowers and nature, and deities in postures of worship.⁶¹ A few manuscripts for deathbed rites present scenes from other Buddhist texts as well, including the *Uṇhissavjiaya* from Group C.⁶² Other paintings in these manuscripts include portrayals of various Buddhist practices and rituals, including melodic chanting for funerals and wakes.⁶³ Some leporellos contain depictions of these very manuscripts being used as supports for rituals.⁶⁴ A number of other leporellos include illuminations of monks meditating on decaying corpses (*asubhakammaṭṭḥāna*) and

⁶¹ Abundant examples appear in Appleton et al., *Illuminating the Life of the Buddha*, 10–97; Ginsburg, *Thai Art and Culture*, 54–111; Puñtīön and Áraḥsiddhi*, *Samut khay*_I, 116–259.

Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 185–88.

⁶³ On the controversies over depictions of funeral chanting in such leporellos, see Brereton, 'Phra Malai Texts' and Igunma, 'The Mystery of the "Naughty Monks".

⁶⁴ Walker, 'Unfolding Buddhism', 191–202.

conducting funerary rites, including the ritual retrieval of a shroud (paṃsukūla).⁶⁵ These scenes, as M. L. Pattaratorn Chirapravati argues, are directly tied to how rites for the dead were conducted in nineteenth-century Siam.

What about rites for the sick and dying? What does their depiction in leporellos tell us about the relationship between materiality and ritual? One page from Or 13703 is particularly instructive in this regard (Figure 6). The central panel provides the end of a minor Pali chant called Brah gāthā buddhagun [Verses on the Virtues of the Buddha] and the beginning of *Unhissavijaya*. Both texts are connected to deathbed rites, with Unhissavijaya focused on the prolongation of life for those at the end of their natural lifespan. 66 On the left and right panels, a total of four monks sit on a raised platform in the upper register, holding special fans (tālapătr) used in Siamese chanting rituals. On the lower register, three laypeople sit on the floor with candles and other offerings. In the left panel, a layman, his head and torso wrapped in an orange cloth, is reclining and visibly ill. The invalid's palms are joined together as he listens to the monks' chanting while another man massages his stomach and legs. In short, the manuscript is depicting the very ritual in which it was meant to be used. Brah Mahā Mīön, the scribe and painter who produced Or 13703, had clearly mastered the art of linking text and image. Moreover, by painstakingly creating miniature versions of these ceremonies on the page, he and other artisans cemented the central role of the leporello in the deathbed rituals it affords.

The manuscript's depiction of care and chant at death's door, as facilitated by the technology of the leporello, connects early modern Siam to the wider world of Buddhist rituals for accompanying the dying. Robert Desjarlais, quoting Emmanuel Levinas, notes that 'one of the ethical obligations of human beings is to not "leave the other alone in the face of death". 67 Among the Hyolmo, Desjarlais

⁶⁵ Igunma, 'Meditations on the Foul'; Pattaratorn, 'Corpses and Cloth'.

⁶⁶ Kourilsky, 'The Uṇhissa-vijaya-sutta'; Walker, 'Echoes of a Sanskrit Past', 106–21.

⁶⁷ Desjarlais, Subject to Death, 55.

argues, dying is mediated by an ethic of 'tender accompaniment'.68 Anne Hansen shows how attending to the dying was essential to early twentieth-century Cambodian Buddhist efforts to 'create and unify a web of reciprocal care'.69 Jacqueline Stone demonstrates the central role of the deathbed attendant (zenchishiki 善知識 or kalyāṇamitra) in Japanese Buddhist rituals for the end of life.70 Mark Blum shows how Hōnen's teachings advocated for treating dying as an 'intersubjective experience' during the Kamakura period.71 Contemporary Buddhist guides for caring for the dying, including those in Southeast Asia and the United States, likewise emphasise the role of caretakers and friends in guiding those on their deathbed.72 In Buddhist societies, dying is ideally a social process, marked by the ethical imperative to accompany those at the end of their lives. The large-format chanted leporello was a key element in fulfilling these obligations in nineteenth-century Thailand.

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⁶⁸ Ibid., 57.

⁶⁹ Hansen, 'Buddhist Communities of Belonging', 71.

⁷⁰ Stone, Right Thoughts at the Last Moment, 266–310.

⁷¹ Blum, 'Never Die Alone'.

⁷² Anālayo, *Mindfully Facing Disease and Death*, 151–58; Aulino, *Rituals of Care*, 53–62; Goldring, 'Actualizing Understanding'; Supapon, 'Death Without Pure Land?'; Ellison and Weingast, *Awake at the Bedside*; Phaisan, 'The Seven Factors of a Peaceful Death', 136–39.

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