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ORIENTAL SERIES.
SI-YU-KI.

BUDDHIST RECORDS
OF
THE WESTERN WORLD.

TRANSLATED FROM THE CHINESE
OF HIUEN TSIANG (A.D. 629).

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H.R.H. ALBERT EDWARD

PRINCE OF WALES.
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INTRODUCTION.

impelled to leave their home by the same spirit of religious devotion and enthusiasm which actuated those with whom we are better acquainted.

The first Chinese traveller whose name and writings have come down to us is the Śākyaputra Fa-hian. He is the author of the records which follow in the pages of the present Introduction. His work, the Fo-kwō-ki, was first known in Europe through a translation made by M. Abel Rémusat. But Klaproth claimed the discovery of the book itself from the year 1816, and it was he who shaped the rough draft of Rémusat’s translation from chap. xxi. of the work in question to the end. Of this translation nothing need be said in this place; it has been dealt with elsewhere. It will be enough, therefore, to give some few particulars respecting the life and travels of the pilgrim, and for the rest to refer the reader to the translation which follows.

SHIH FA-HIAN.

A.D. 400.

In agreement with early custom, the Chinese mendicant priests who adopted the Buddhist faith changed their names at the time of their leaving their homes (ordination), and assumed the title of Śākyaputras, sons or mendicants of Śākya. So we find amongst the inscriptions at Mathurā the title Śākya Bhikshunyaka or Śākya Bhikshor added to the religious names of the different benefactors there mentioned. The pilgrim Fa-hian, therefore, whose original name was Kung, when he assumed the religious title by which he is known to us, took also the appellation of Shih or the Śākyaputra, the disciple or son of Śākya. He was a native of Wu-Yang, of the district of Ping-Yang, in the province of Shan-si. He left his home and became a Śrāmaṇēra at three years of age. His

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3 Foù koué li, Paris, 1836.
4 Julien's Preface to the Vie de pp. 37, 48; also Professor Dowson, Hiouen Thang, p. ix. n. 2.
5 Arch. Survey of India, vol. iii.

early history is recorded in the work called Ko-sāng-chuen, written during the time of the Liang dynasty, belonging to the Suh family (502–507 A.D.) But so far as we are now concerned, we need only mention that he was moved by a desire to obtain books not known in China, and with that aim set out in company with other priests (some of whom are named in the records) from Chang'an, A.D. 399, and after an absence of fourteen years returned to Nanking, where, in connection with Buddhhabhadra (an Indian Śramaṇa, descended from the family of the founder of the Buddhist religion), he translated various works and composed the history of his travels. He died at the age of eighty-six.

Fa-hian's point of departure was the city of Chang'an in Shen-si; from this place he advanced across the Lung district (or mountains) to the fortified town of Chang-yeh in Kan-suh; here he met with some other priests, and with them proceeded to Tun-hwang, a town situated to the south of the Bulunghir river, lat. 39° 36' N., long. 93° E. Thence with four companions he pushed forward, under the guidance, as it seems, of an official, across the desert of Lop to Shen-shen, the probable site of which is marked in the map accompanying the account of Prejevalsky's journey through the same district; according to this map, it is situated in lat. 38° N., and long. 87° E. It corresponds with the Cherchen of Marco Polo. Fa-hian tells us that Buddhism prevailed in this country, and that there were about 4000 priests. The country itself was rugged and barren. So Marco Polo says, "The whole of this province is sandy, but there are numerous towns and villages." The Venetian traveller makes the distance from the town of Lop five days' journey. Probably Fa-hian did not visit the town of Cherchen, but after a month in the kingdom turned to the north-west, apparently following the course of the Tarim, and after fifteen days arrived in the kingdom of Wu-i or Wu-ki. This kingdom seems

6 Marco Polo, cap. xxxviii.
to correspond to Karshar or Karasharh, near the Lake Tenghiz or Bagarash, and is the same as the 'O-ki-ni of Huen Tsiang. Prejevalsky took three days in travelling from Kara-moto to Korla, a distance of about 42 miles, so that the fifteen days of Fa-hian might well represent in point of time the distance from Lake Lob to Karasharh. Our pilgrims would here strike on the outward route of Huen Tsiang. It was at this spot they fell in with their companions Pao-yun and the rest, whom they had left at Tun-hwang. These had probably travelled to Karasharh by the northern route, as it is called, through Kamil or Kamul to Pidshan and Turfan; for we read that whilst Fa-hian remained at Karasharh, under the protection of an important official, some of the others went back to Kao-chang (Turfan), showing that they had come that way.

From Karasharh Fa-hian and the others, favoured by the liberality of Kung sün (who was in some way connected with the Prince of Ts'in), proceeded south-west to Khotan. The route they took is not well ascertained; but probably they followed the course of the Tarim and of the Khotan rivers. There were no dwellings or people on the road, and the difficulties of the journey and of crossing the rivers "exceeded power of comparison." After a month and five days they reached Khotan. This country has been identified with Li-yul of the Tibetan writers. There is some reason for connecting this "land of Li" with the Lichchavis of Vaisali. It is said by Csoma Korösi "that the Tibetan writers derive their first king (about 250 B.C.) from the Litsabyis or Lichavyis." The chief prince or ruler of the Lichchhavis was called the "great lion" or "the noble lion." This is probably the explanation of Maha-li, used by Spence Hardy as "the name of the king of the Lichawis." Khotan would thus be the land of the

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7 Vol. i. p. 17.  
8 Prejevalsky's Kulja, p. 50.  
9 Rockhill.  
lion-people (Sīṅkas). Whether this be so or not, the polished condition of the people and their religious zeal indicate close connection with India, more probably with Baktria. The name of the great temple, a mile or two to the west of the city, called the Nava-saṅghārāma, or royal “new temple,” is the same as that on the south-west of Balkh, described by Huien Tsiang;13 and the introduction of Vaiśravaṇa as the protector of this convent, and his connection with Khotan, the kings of that country being descended from him,14 indicate a relationship, if not of race, at least of intercourse between the two kingdoms.

After witnessing the car procession of Khotan, Fa-hian and some others (for the pilgrims had now separated for a time), advanced for twenty-five days towards the country of Tseu-ho, which, according to Klaproth, corresponds with the district of Yangi-hissar, from which there is a caravan route due south into the mountain region of the Tsung-ling. It was by this road they pursued their journey for four days to a station named Yu-hwui, or, as it may also be read, Yu-fai; here they kept their religious fast, after which, journeying for twenty-five days, they reached the country of Kie-sha. I cannot understand how either of the last-named places can be identified with Ladakh.15 Yu-hwui is four days south of Tseu-ho;16 and twenty-five days beyond this brings the pilgrims to the country of Kie-sha, in the centre of the Tsung-ling mountains.

Nor can we, on the other hand, identify this kingdom of Kie-sha (the symbols are entirely different from those used by Huien Tsiang, ii. p. 306, for Kashgār) with that of the Kossaioi of Ptolemy, the Khasas of Manu, and the Khaṣâkas of the Vishnu Purāṇa.17 These appear to have been related to the Cushites of Holy Scripture.

13 Vol. i. p. 44.  
15 See Laidlay's note, Fa-hian, p. 26, n. 6, and Wood's Oxus (Yule's introduction), p. x1. n. 2.  
16 So we read in Fa-hian's text.  
INTRODUCTION.

Advancing for a month across the Tsung-ling range towards India, the pilgrims reached the little country of To-li, that is, the valley of Dārail in the Dard country. This valley is on the right or western bank of the Indus, long. 73° 44' E., and is watered by a river Daril. Still advancing south-west for fifteen days, they strike the Indus (or probably the Swât river), crossing which, they enter on the kingdom of Udyâna, where they found Buddhism in a flourishing condition. Concerning this country and its traditions, we have ample records in Huen Tsiang, Book iii. (p. 119). Here then we may leave Fa-hian; his farther travels may be followed by the details given in his own writings, and to these we refer the reader.

SUNG YUN.

A.D. 518.

This pilgrim was a native of Tun-hwang, in what is sometimes called Little Tibet, lat. 39° 30' N., long. 95° E. He seems to have lived in a suburb of the city of Lo-yang (Honan-fu) called Wan-I. He was sent, A.D. 518, by the Empress of the Northern Wei dynasty, in company with Hwei Sâng, a Bhikshu of the Shung-li temple of Lo-yang, to the western countries to seek for books. They brought back altogether one hundred and seventy volumes or sets of the Great Development series. They seem to have taken the southern route from Tun-hwang to Khotan, and thence by the same route as Fa-hian and his companion across the Tsung-ling mountains. The Ye-tha (Ephthalites) were now in possession of the old country of the Yue-chi, and had recently conquered Gandhâra. They are described as having no walled towns, but keeping order by means of a standing army that moved here and there. They used felt (leather) garments, had no written character, nor any knowledge

* Vide infra, p. 134, n. 37.
of the heavenly bodies. On all hands it is plain the Ye-tha were a rude horde of Turks who had followed in the steps of the Hiung-nu; they were, in fact, the Ephthalites or Huns of the Byzantine writers. "In the early part of the sixth century their power extended over Western India, and Cosmas tells us of their king Gollas who domineered there with a thousand elephants and a vast force of horsemen." 19 Sung-yun also names the power of the king whom the Ye-tha had set up over Gandhāra. He was of the Lae-lih dynasty, or a man of Lae-lih, which may perhaps be restored to Lāra. According to Hiuen Tsiang, 20 the northern Lāra people belonged to Valabhi, and the southern Lāras to Mālava. It was one of these Lāra princes the Ye-tha had set over the kingdom of Gandhāra. It may have been with the Gollas of Cosmas that the Chinese pilgrims had their interview. At any rate, he was lording it over the people with seven hundred war-elephants, and was evidently a fierce and oppressive potentate.

The Ye-tha, according to Sung-yun, had conquered or received tribute from more than forty countries in all, from Tieh-lo in the south to Lae-lih in the north, eastward to Khotan, westward to Persia. The symbols Tieh-lo probably represent Tirabhukti, the present Tirhut, the old land of the Vṛjjis. The Vṛjjis themselves were in all probability Skythian invaders, whose power had reached so far as the borders of the Ganges at Patna, but had there been checked by Ajātaśatru. They had afterwards been driven north-east to the mountains bordering on Nēpāl. 21 The Ye-tha also extended their power so far as this, and northward to Lae-lih, i.e., Mālava. As these conquests had been achieved two generations before Sung-yun's time, we may place this invasion of India therefore about A.D. 460.

The notices of the country of Udyāna by Sung-yun

21 V. de St. Martin, Mémoire, p. 368.
vie with those found in Hiuen Tsiang for abundance of detail and legendary interest. It is singular that the supposed scene of the history of Vessantara, "the giving king" of Hiuen Tsiang and the Pi-lo of Sung-yun, should be placed in this remote district. The Vessantara Jātaka (so called) was well known in Ceylon in Fa-hian's time; it forms part of the sculptured scenes at Amaravati and Sānchi; it is still one of the most popular stories amongst the Mongols. How does the site of the history come to be placed in Udyāna? There are some obscure notices connected with the succession of the Maurya or Mōriya sovereigns from the Śākya youths who fled to this district of Udyāna which may throw a little light on this subject. The Buddhists affirm that Aśoka belonged to the same family as Buddha, because he was descended from Chandragupta, who was the child of the queen of one of the sovereigns of Mōriyanagara. This Mōriyanagara was the city founded by the Śākya youths who fled from Kapilavastu; so that whatever old legends were connected with the Śākya family were probably referred to Udyāna by the direct or indirect influence of Aśoka, or by his popularity as a Buddhist sovereign. But, in any case, the history of Udyāna is mixed up with that of the Śākya family, and Buddha himself is made to acknowledge Uttarasēna as one of his own kinsmen. We may suppose then that these tales did actually take their rise from some local or family association connected with Udyāna, and found their way thence into the legends of other countries. Hence while we have in the Southern account mention made of the elephant that could bring rain from heaven, which was the cause of Vessantara's banishment, in the Northern accounts this is, apparently, identified with the peacock (mayūra) that brought water from the rock. But the subject need not be pursued farther in this place; it is sufficient to note the fact that

21 Fa-hian, cap. 38. 22 Inf., vol. i. pp. 131 f. 23 Inf., vol. i. p. 126.
many of the stories found in the Northern legends are somehow or other localised in this pleasant district of Udyāna. Sung-yun, after reaching so far as Peshāwar and Nāgarahāra, returned to China in the year A.D. 521.

HIUEN TSIANG.

A.D. 629.

This illustrious pilgrim was born in the year 603 A.D., at Ch’in Liu, in the province of Ho-nan, close to the provincial city. He was the youngest of four brothers. At an early age he was taken by his second brother, Chang-tsi, to the eastern capital, Lo-yang. His brother was a monk belonging to the Tsing-tu temple, and in this community Hiuen Tsiang was ordained at the age of thirteen years. He then set out from Lo-yang to travel through the provinces in search of the best instructor he could find, and so came at length to Chang’an. It was here, stirred up by the recollection of Fa-hian and Chi-yen, that he resolved to go to the western regions to question the sages on points that troubled his mind. He was now twenty-six years of age. He accordingly set out from Chang’an in company with a priest of Tsing-chau of Kan-suh, and having reached that city, rested there. Thence he proceeded to Lan-chau, the provincial city of Kan-suh. He then advanced with a magistrate’s escort to Liang-chau, a prefecture of Kan-suh, beyond the river. This city was the entrepôt for merchants from Tibet and the countries east of the Tsung-ling mountains; and to these Hiuen Tsiang explained the sacred books and revealed his purpose of going to the kingdom of the Brāhmans to seek for the law. By them

25 That is, became a novice or Śrāmapāra.
he was amply provided with means for his expedition, and, notwithstanding the expostulation of the governor of the city, by the connivance of two priests he was able to proceed westward as far as Kwa-chau, a town about ten miles to the south of the Hu-lu river, which seems to be the same as the Bulunghir.

From this spot, going north in company with a young man who had offered to act as his guide, he crossed the river by night, and after escaping the treachery of his guide, came alone to the first watch-tower. Five of these towers, at intervals of 100 li, stretched towards the country of I-gu (Kamul). We need not recount the way in which the pilgrim prevailed on the keepers of the first and fourth tower to let him proceed; nor is it necessary to recount the fervent prayers to Kwan-yin and his incessant invocation of the name of this divinity. Suffice it to say, he at last reached the confines of I-gu, and there halted. From this place he was summoned by the prince of Kaochang (Turfan), who, after vainly attempting to keep him in his territory, remitted him to 'O-ki-ni, that is, Kamsharh, from which he advanced to Ku-ché. Here the narrative in the pages following carries us on through the territory of Ku-ché to Bālukā, or Bai, in the Aksu district, from whence the pilgrim proceeds in a northerly direction across the Icy Mountains (Muzart) into the well-watered plains bordering on the Tsing Lake (Issyk-kul); he then proceeded along the fertile valley of the Su-yeh river (the Chu or Chui) to the town of Taras, and thence to Nujkend and Tashkand.

It is not necessary to follow the pilgrim’s route farther than this, as the particulars given in the translation following, and the notes thereto, will sufficiently set forth the line of his advance.

Hsiuen Tsiang returned from his Indian travels across the Pāmīr and through Kashgār and the Khotan districts. He had been away from China since A.D. 629; he returned A.D. 645. He brought back with him—
INTRODUCTION.

1. Five hundred grains of relics belonging to the body (flesh) of Tathāgata.
2. A golden statue of Buddha on a transparent pedestal.
3. A statue of Buddha carved out of sandal-wood on a transparent pedestal. This figure is a copy of the statue which Udāyana, king of Kauśāmbī, had made.
4. A similar statue of sandal-wood, copy of the figure made after Buddha descended from the Trayāstrimśas heaven.
5. A silver statue of Buddha on a transparent pedestal.
6. A golden statue of Buddha on a transparent pedestal.
7. A sandal-wood figure of Buddha on a transparent pedestal.
8. One hundred and twenty-four works (śāstras) of the Great Vehicle.
9. Other works, amounting in the whole to 520 fasciculi, carried by twenty-two horses.

There are many interesting particulars given in the "Life of Hiuen Tsiang" by Hwui-lih, which need not be named here, respecting the work of translation and the pilgrim’s death at the age of sixty-five. They will be fully set forth in the translation of that memoir, which it is hoped will follow the present volumes.

We will simply add, that of all the books translated by Hiuen Tsiang, there are still seventy-five included in the collection of the Chinese Tripitaka. The titles of these books may be seen in the catalogue prepared by Mr. Bun-yiu Nanjio, coll. 435, 436.

Buddhist Literature in China.

Although it was known that there were copies of translations of the Buddhist Tripitaka in the great monasteries in China, no complete set of these books had been brought to England until the Japanese Government furnished us with the copy now in the India Office Library in the year
1875. Respecting these books I will extract one passage from the report which was drawn up by direction of the Secretary of State for India:

"The value of the records of the 'Chinese pilgrims' who visited India in the early centuries of our era, and the account of whose travels is contained in this collection, is too well understood to need any remark. I regret that none of the books referred to by M. Stas. Julien, in his introduction to the 'Vie de Hionen Thsang,' and which he thought might be found in Japan, are contained in this collection; but there is still some hope that they may be found in a separate form in some of the remote monasteries of that country, or more probably in China itself." 26

To that opinion I still adhere. I think that if searching inquiry were made at Honan-fu and its neighbourhood, we might learn something of books supposed to be lost. And my opinion is grounded on this circumstance, that efforts which have been made to get copies (in the ordinary way) of books found in the collection of the Tripitaka have failed, and reports furnished that such works are lost. M. Stas. Julien himself tells us that Dr. Morrison, senior, reported that the Si-ju-ki (the work here translated) could not be procured in China. And such is the listlessness of the Chinese literati about Buddhist books, and such the seclusion and isolation of many of the Buddhist establishments in China, that I believe books may still exist, or even original manuscripts, of which we know nothing at present. It would be strange if such were not the case, considering what has taken place in respect of fresh discoveries of fragments or entire copies of MSS. of our own sacred scriptures in remote monasteries of Christendom.

In conclusion, I desire to express the debt I owe, in the execution of this and other works, to the learning and

26 Beal's Catalogue, p. 1.

I should not have attempted to follow in his steps had his own translation of the Si-yu-ki been still procurable. But as it had long been out of print, and the demand for the book continued to be urgent, I have attempted to furnish an independent translation in English of the Chinese pilgrim's travels.

I am very largely indebted to James Burgess, LL.D., for assistance in carrying these volumes through the press. His close acquaintance with Buddhist archaeology and literature will give value to many of the notes which appear on the pages following, and his kind supervision of the text and preparation of the index attached to it demand my thanks and sincere acknowledgments.

I am also under great obligations to Colonel Yule, C.B., and to Dr. R. Rost, for their ever-ready help and advice, especially during my visits to the Library of the India Office.

I have not overlooked the remarks of various writers who have honoured me by noticing my little book (Buddhist Pilgrims), published in 1869. I venture, however, to hope that I have by this time established my claim to be regarded as an independent worker in this field of literature. I have not therefore quoted instances of agreement or disagreement with the writers referred to; in fact, I have purposely avoided doing so, as my object is not to write a chapter of grammar, but to contribute towards the history of a religion; but I have suffered no prejudice to interfere with the honesty of my work.

I shall now proceed to the translation of the travels of Fa-hian and Sung-yun, referring the student to the original edition of my Buddhist Pilgrims for many notes and explanations of the text, which want of space forbids me to reproduce in these volumes.
THE TRAVELS OF FA-HIAN.

BUDDHIST-COUNTRY-RECORDS.

By Fa-hian, the Sākya of the Sung (Dynasty).

[DATE, 400 A.D.]

I. FA-HIAN, when formerly residing at Ch'ang-an, regretted the imperfect condition of the Vinaya pitaka. Whereupon, afterwards, in the second year of Hung-shi, the cyclic year being Chi-hai, he agreed with Hwui-king, Tao-ching, Hwui-ying, Hwui-wu, and others, to go to India for the purpose of seeking the rules and regulations of the Vinaya.

Starting on their way from Ch'ang-an, they crossed the Lung (district) and reached the country of K'ien-kwei; here they rested during the rains. The season of the rains being over, going forward, they came to the country of Niu-t'an; crossing the Yang-lu hills, they reached Chang-yeh, a military station. Chang-yeh at this time was much disturbed, and the roadways were not open. The king of Chang-yeh being anxious, kept them there, himself entertaining them. Thus they met Chi-yen, Hwui-kin, Sang-shau, Pao-yun, Sang-king, and others; pleased that they were like-minded, they kept the rainy

1 The former capital of the province of Shenrsi, now called Si-gan-fu.
2 There is an error here of one year. It should be the cyclical characters Kang taze, i.e., a.d. 400-401 (Ch. Ed.)
3 This is the name of the prince who ruled the country. The capital town is, according to Klaproth, to the north-east of Kin, a hian town close to Lan-chau.
4 This is also the name of a prince, and not of a country. He ruled over a district called Ho-si, "the country to the west of the (Yellow) River" (Tangut).
5 Chang Yeh is still marked on the Chinese maps just within the north-west extremity of the Great Wall.
6 Called Tǔn-nieh, who died a.d. 401 (Ch. Ed.)
season together. The rainy season being over, they again pressed on to reach Tun-hwang. The fortifications here are perhaps 80 li in extent from east to west, and 40 li from north to south. They all stopped here a month and some days, when Fa-hian and others, five men in all, set out first, in the train of an official, and so again parted with Pao-yun and the rest. The prefect of Tun-hwang, called Li-ho, provided them with means to cross the desert (sand-river). In this desert are many evil demons and hot winds; when encountered, then all die without exception. There are no flying birds above, no roaming beasts below, but everywhere gazing as far as the eye can reach in search of the onward route, it would be impossible to know the way but for dead men's decaying bones, which show the direction.

Going on for seventeen days about 1500 li, they reached the country of Shen-shen.

II. This land is rugged and barren. The clothing of the common people is coarse, and like that of the Chinese people; only they differ in respect to the serge and felt. The king of this country honours the law (of Buddha). There are some 4000 priests, all of the Little Vehicle belief (learning). The laity and the Śramaṇas of this country wholly practise the religion of India, only some are refined and some coarse (in their observances). From this proceeding westward, the countries passed through are all alike in this respect, only the people differ in their language (Hu words). The professed disciples of Buddha, however, all use Indian books and the Indian language. Remaining here a month or more, again they went north-west for fifteen days and reached the country of Wu-i (Wu-ki?). The priests of Wu-i also are about 4000 men;

7 A frontier town of considerable military importance, 39° 30' N. lat., 95° E. long. (Prejevalsky's Map). This town was wrested from Tun-nich in the third month of this year by Li Hu, or more properly Li Ko, who ruled as the "illustrious warrior king of the Liang dynasty" (Ch. Ed.).
8 The desert of Lop (Marco Polo).
9 The kingdom of Shen-shen or Leu-lan (conf. Richtofen in Prejevalsky's Kulja, p. 144, and passim).
10 The pilgrims probably followed
all (belong to) the Little Vehicle (school of) learning; their religious rules are very precise (arranged methodically). When Śramaṇas of the Ts’in land arrive here, they are unprepared for the rules of the priests. Fa-hian obtaining the protection of Kung-sün, an official (hing t'ang) of the Fu (family), remained here two months and some days. Then he returned to Pao-yun and the others. In the end, because of the want of courtesy and propriety on the part of the Wu-i people, and because their treatment of their guests was very cool, Chi-yen, Hwui-kiu, and Hwui-wu forthwith went back towards Kao-chang, in order to procure necessaries for the journey. Fa-hian and the others, grateful for the presents they received of Fu Kung-sün, forthwith journeyed to the south-west. On the road there were no dwellings or people. The sufferings of their journey on account of the difficulties of the road and the rivers (water) exceed human power of comparison. They were on the road a month and five days, and then managed to reach Khotan.

III. This country is prosperous and rich (happy); the people are very wealthy, and all without exception honour the law (of Buddha). They use religious music for mutual entertainment. The body of priests number even several myriads, principally belonging to the Great Vehicle. They all have food provided for them (church-food, commons); the people live here and there. Before their house doors they raise little towers, the least about twenty feet high. There are priests’ houses for the entertainment of foreign priests and for providing them with what they need. The ruler of the country lodged Fa-hian and the rest in a saṅghārāma. The name of the saṅghārāma was the course of the river Tarim. (For Wu-ki see infra, p. 17, n. 52.)

11 It would appear from this that Fa-hian had reached Wu-i by the route of Lake Lop and the river Tarim; the others had gone from Tun-hwang by another route.
Gômati. This is a temple of the Great Vehicle with three thousand priests, who assemble to eat at the sound of the ghanṭā. On entering the dining-hall, their carriage is grave and demure, and they take their seats in regular order. All of them keep silence; there is no noise with their eating-bowls; when the attendants (pure men) give more food, they are not allowed to speak to one another, but only to make signs with the hand. Hwui-king, Tao-ching, Hwui-ta set out in advance towards the Kie-sha country, but Fa-hian and the rest, desiring to see the image-procession, remained three months and some days. In this country there are fourteen great saṅghārāmas, not counting the little ones. From the first day of the fourth month they sweep and water the thoroughfares within the city and decorate the streets. Above the city gate they stretch a great awning and use every kind of adornment. This is where the king and the queen and court ladies take their place. The Gômati priests, as they belong to the Great Vehicle, which is principally honoured by the king, first of all take their images in procession. About three or four li from the city they make a four-wheeled image-car about thirty feet high, in appearance like a moving palace, adorned with the seven precious substances. They fix upon it streamers of silk and canopy curtains. The figure is placed in the car with two Boddhisattvas as companions, whilst the Dēvas attend on them; all kinds of polished ornaments made of gold and silver hang suspended in the air. When the image is a hundred paces from the gate, the king takes off his royal cap, and changing his clothes for new ones, proceeds bare-footed, with flowers and incense in his hand, from the city, followed by his attendants. On meeting the image, he bows down his head and worships at its feet, scattering the flowers and burning the incense. On entering the city, the queen and court ladies from above the gate-tower

scatter about all kinds of flowers and throw them down in wild profusion. So splendid are the arrangements for worship.

The cars are all different, and each saṅghārāma has a day for its image-procession. They begin on the first day of the fourth month and go on to the fourteenth day, when the processions end. The processions ended, the king and queen then return to the palace.

Seven or eight li to the west of the city there is a saṅghārāma called the Royal-new-temple. It was eighty years in finishing, and only after three kings (reigns) was it completed. It is perhaps twenty chang in height (290 feet). It is adorned with carving and inlaid work, and covered with gold and silver. Above the roof all kinds of jewels combine to perfect it. Behind the tower there is a hall of Buddha, magnificent and very beautiful. The beams, pillars, doors, and window-frames are all gold-plated. Moreover, there are priests’ apartments, also very splendid, and elegantly adorned beyond power of description. The kings of the six countries east of the Ling give many of their most valuable precious jewels (to this monastery), being seldom used (for personal adornment), [or, they seldom give things of common use].

IV. After the image-procession of the fourth month, Sang-shau, one of the company, set out with a Tartar (Hu) pilgrim towards Ki-pin. Fa-hian and the others pressed on towards the Tseu-ho country. They were twenty-five days on the road, and then they arrived at this kingdom. The king of the country is earnest (in his piety). There are a thousand priests and more, principally belonging to the Great Vehicle. Having stopped here fifteen days, they then went south for four days and entered the Tsung-ling mountains. Arriving at Yu-liwui, they kept their religious rest; the religious rest being over, they

14 Kābul.
15 Probably the Yārkand district. Yārkand river.
journeyed on twenty-five days to the Kie-sha country, where they rejoined Hwui-king and the rest.

V. The king of this country keeps the Pan-che-yue-ssë. The Pan-che-yue-ssë (Pavîchavarshâ, parishad) in Chinese words is "the great five-yearly assembly." At the time of the assembly he asks Śramaṇas from the four quarters, who come together like clouds. Being assembled, he decorates the priests' session place; he suspends silken flags and spreads out canopies; he makes gold and silver lotus flowers; he spreads silk behind the throne, and arranges the paraphernalia of the priests' seats. The king and the ministers offer their religious presents for one, two, or three months, generally during spring-time. The king-made assembly being over, he further exhorts his ministers to arrange their offerings; they then offer for one day, two days, three days, or five days. The offerings being finished, the king, taking from the chief officer of the embassy and from the great ministers of the country the horse he rides, with its saddle and bridle, mounts it, and then (taking) white taffeta, jewels of various kinds, and things required by the Śramaṇas, in union with his ministers he vows to give them all to the priests; having thus given them, they are redeemed at a price from the priests.

The country is hilly and cold; it produces no variety of grain; only wheat will ripen. After the priests have received their yearly dues the mornings become frosty; the king, therefore, every year induces the priests to make the wheat ripen, and after that to receive their yearly portion. There is a stone spitting-vessel in this country belonging to Buddha, of the same colour as his alms-dish. There is also a tooth of Buddha; the people of the country have built a stūpa on account of this tooth. There are a thousand priests and more, all belong-

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17 For some remarks on this country see vol. ii. p. 298, n. 46. As stated on p. xiv., a people called Kossaloï are noticed by Ptolemy. But they seem to be Cushites. Concerning the Kossaloï or Kassai, as a very ancient people, see Mr. T. G. Pinches' remarks, J. R. A. S., N.S., vol. p. 302.
ing to the Little Vehicle. From the mountains eastward the common people wear garments made of coarse stuff, as in the Ts'in country, but with respect to felt and serge they are different. The religious practices of the Śramaṇas are so various and have increased so, that they cannot be recorded. This country is in the middle of the Ts'ung-ling range; from the Ts'ung-ling onwards the plants, trees, and fruits are all different (from those before met with), except the bamboo, the an-shih-lau (pomegranate?), and the sugar-cane.

VI. From this going onwards towards North India, after being a month on the road, we managed to cross Ts'ung-ling. In Ts'ung-ling there is snow both in winter and summer. Moreover there are poison-dragons, who when evil-purposed spit poison, winds, rain, snow, drifting sand, and gravel-stones; not one of ten thousand meeting these calamities, escapes. The people of that land are also called Snowy-mountain men (Tukhāras?). Having crossed (Ts'ung)-ling, we arrive at North India. On entering the borders there is a little country called To-li, where there is again a society of priests all belonging to the Little Vehicle. There was formerly an Arhat in this country who by magic power took up to the Tuśita heaven a skilful carver of wood to observe the length and breadth (size), the colour and look, of Maitrīya Dōdhīsattva, that returning below he might carve wood and make his image (that is, carve a wooden image of him). First and last he made three ascents for observation, and at last finished the figure. Its length is 80 feet, and its upturned foot 8 feet; on fast-days it ever shines brightly. The kings of the countries round vie with each other in their religious offerings to it. Now, as of yore, it is in this country.

VII. Keeping along (Ts'ung)-ling, they journeyed south-west for fifteen days. The road was difficult and broken,

18 Called the valley of Ta-li-lo by Hinen Tsang, infra, p. 134, n. 57. 19 For an account of this image see infra, p. 134.
with steep crags and precipices in the way. The mountain-side is simply a stone wall standing up 10,000 feet. Looking down, the sight is confused, and on going forward there is no sure foothold. Below is a river called Sin-t'u-ho. In old days men bored through the rocks to make a way, and spread out side-ladders, of which there are seven hundred (steps?) in all to pass. Having passed the ladders, we proceed by a hanging rope-bridge and cross the river. The two sides of the river are something less than 80 paces apart, as recorded by the Kiun-yi; but neither Chang-kin nor Kan-ying of the Han arrived here. The body of priests asked Fa-hian whether it was known when the eastward passage of the religion of Buddha began. Hian replied, "When I asked the men of that land, they all said there was an old tradition that from the time of setting up the image of Maitreya Boddhisattva, and afterwards, there were Sramaṇas from India who dispatched the dharma-vinaya beyond this river." The setting up of the image took place rather more than three hundred years after the Nirvāṇa of Buddha, in the time of Ping-wang of the Chau family. According to this, we may say that the extension of the great doctrine began from this image. If, then, Maitreya Mahāsattva be not the successor of Śākya, who is there could cause the three gems to spread everywhere, and frontier men to understand the law? As we certainly know that the origin of the opening of the mysterious revolution is not man's work, so the dream of Ming Ti was from this also.

VIII. Crossing the river we come to the country of Wu-chang. The country of Wu-chang commences North India. The language of Mid-India is used by all. Mid-India is what they call the middle country. The dress of the people, their food and drink, are also the same as in the middle country. The religion of Buddha is very flourishing. The places where the priests stop and lodge

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20 A topographical description of the empire.  
21 770 A.D.  
22 Udyāna.
they call *saṅghārāmas*. In all there are five hundred *saṅghārāmas*; they belong to the Little Vehicle without exception. If a strange Bhikshu arrives here, they give him full entertainment for three days; the three days being over, then they bid him seek for himself a place to rest permanently.

Tradition says: When Buddha came to North India, he then visited this country. Buddha left here as a bequest the impression of his foot. The footprint is sometimes long and sometimes short, according to the thoughtfulness of a man's heart: it is still so, even now. Moreover, the drying-robe-stone in connection with the place where he converted the wicked dragon still remains. The stone is a *chang* and four-tenths high, and more than two *chang* across. It is smooth on one side. Three of the pilgrims, Hwui-king, Tao-ching, and Hwui-ta, went on ahead towards Buddha's shadow and Nagarabha. Fa-hian and the rest stopped in this country during the rains; when over, they went down south to the country of Su-ho-to.²³

IX. In this country also the law of Buddha flourishes. This is the place where, in old days, Śakra, ruler of Devas, made apparitionally the hawk and dove, in order to try Boddhisattva, who cut off his flesh to ransom the dove. Buddha, when he perfected wisdom, going about with his disciples, spoke thus: "This is the place where, in a former birth, I cut my flesh to ransom the dove." From this the people of the country getting to know the fact, built a *stūpa* on the spot, and adorned it with gold and silver.

X. From this, descending eastward, journeying for five days, we arrive at the country of Gandhāra (Kien-to-wei). This is the place which Dharmavardhana, the son of Aśoka, governed. Buddha also in this country, when he was a Boddhisattva, gave his eyes in charity for the sake of a man. On this spot also they have raised a great *stūpa*, adorned with silver and gold. The people of this country mostly study the Little Vehicle.

XI. From this going east seven days, there is a country

²³ Svāt.
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called Chu-ch'a-shi-lo. Chu-ch'a-shi-lo in Chinese words is "cut-off head." Buddha, when he was a Bôdhisattva, gave his head in charity to a man in this place, and hence comes the name. Again going eastwards for two days, we come to the place where he gave his body to feed the starving tiger. On these two spots again are built great stûpas, both adorned with every kind of precious jewel. The kings, ministers, and people of the neighbouring countries vie with one another in their offerings, scattering flowers and lighting lamps without intermission. These and the two stûpas before named the men of that district call "the four great stûpas."

XII. From the country of Gandhâra going south for four days, we come to the country of Fo-lu-sha. Buddha in former days, whilst travelling with his disciples here and there, coming to this country, addressed Ánanda thus: "After my death (parinírveda), a king of the country called Ki-ni-kia (Kanika or Kanishka) will raise on this spot a stûpa." After Kanishka's birth, he was going round on a tour of observation. At this time Śakra, king of Dêvas, wishing to open out his purpose of mind, took the form of a little shepherd-boy building by the roadside a tower. The king asked and said, "What are you doing?"Replying, he said, "Making a Buddha-tower." The king said, "Very good." On this the king built over the little boy's tower another tower, in height 40 chang and more, adorned with all precious substances. Of all stûpas and temples seen by the travellers, none can compare with this for beauty of form and strength. Tradition says this is the highest of the towers in Jambudvîpa. When the king had completed his tower, the little tower forthwith came out from the side on the south of the great tower more than three feet high.

The alms-bowl of Buddha is still in this country. Formerly a king of the Yue-chi, swelling with his army, came

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24 Takshasilâ, vid. infra, p. 138.
25 Purushapura (Peshâwar).
26 This is a forced translation. I think the symbol ta should be placed before Yue-chi; it would thus refer to the Great Yue-chi.
to attack this country, wishing to carry off Buddha's alms-bowl. Having subdued the country, the king of the Yue-chi, deeply reverencing the law of Buddha, wished to take the bowl and go; therefore he began his religious offerings. The offerings made to the three precious ones being finished, he then caparisoned a great elephant and placed the bowl on it. The elephant then fell to the ground and was unable to advance. Then he made a four-wheeled carriage on which the dish was placed; eight elephants were yoked to draw it, but were again unable to advance. The king then knew that the time of his bowl-relationship was not come. So filled with shame and regrets, he built on this place a stūpa and also a saṅghārāma; moreover, he left a guard to keep up every kind of religious offering.

There are perhaps 700 priests. At the approach of noon the priests bring out the alms-bowl, and with the Upāsakas make all kinds of offerings to it; they then eat their mid-day meal. At even, when they burn incense, they again do so. It is capable of holding two pecks and more. It is of mixed colour, but yet chiefly black. The four divisions are quite clear, each of them being about two-tenths thick. It is glistening and bright. Poor people with few flowers cast into it, fill it; but some very rich people, wishful with many flowers to make their offerings, though they present a hundred thousand myriad of pecks, yet in the end fail to fill it. Pao-yun and Sang-king only made their offerings to the alms-dish of Buddha and then went back. Hwui-king, Hwui-ta, and Tao-ching had previously gone on to the Nagararahára country to offer their common worship to the Buddha-shadow, his tooth and skull-bone. Hwui-king fell sick, and Tao-ching remained to look after him. Hwui-ta alone went back to Fo-lu-sha, where he met with the others, and then Hwui-ta, Pao-yun, and Sang-king returned together to the Ts'in land. Hwui-ying, dwelling in the temple of Buddha's alms-bowl, died there.
From this Fa-hian went on alone to the place of Buddha’s skull-bone.

XIII. Going west 16 yojanas, (Fa-hian) reached the country of Na-kie (Nagarahâra). On the borders, in the city of Hi-lo, is the vihâra of the skull-bone of Buddha; it is gilded throughout and adorned with the seven precious substances.

The king of the country profoundly reverences the skull-bone. Fearing lest some one should steal it, he appoints eight men of the first families of the country, each man having a seal to seal (the door) for its safe keeping. In the morning, the eight men having come, each one inspects his seal, and then they open the door. The door being opened, using scented water, they wash their hands and bring out the skull-bone of Buddha. They place it outside the vihâra on a high throne; taking a circular stand of the seven precious substances, the stand is placed below (it), and a glass bell as a cover over it. All these are adorned with pearls and gems. The bone is of a yellowish-white colour, four inches across and raised in the middle. Each day after its exit men of the vihâra at once mount a high tower, beat a large drum, blow the conch, and sound the cymbal. Hearing these, the king goes to the vihâra to offer flowers and incense. The offerings finished, each one in order puts it on his head (worships it) and departs. Entering by the east door and leaving by the west, the king every morning thus offers and worships, after which he attends to state affairs. Householders and elder-men also first offer worship and then attend to family affairs. Every day thus begins, without neglect from idleness. The offerings being all done, they take back the skull-bone. In the vihâra there is a final-emancipation tower (a tower shaped like a dagaba) which opens and shuts, made of the seven precious substances, more than five feet high, to receive it.

Before the gate of the vihâra every morning regularly,
there are sellers of flowers and incense; all who wish to make offerings may buy of every sort. The kings of the countries round also regularly send deputies to make offerings. The site of the vihāra is forty paces square. Though heaven should quake and the earth open, this spot would not move.

Going from this one yojana north, we come to the capital of Nagarahāra. This is the place where Bōdhisattva, in one of his births, gave money in exchange for five flowers to offer to Dipankara Buddha. In the city there is, moreover, a Buddha-tooth tower, to which religious offerings are made in the same way as to the skull-bone.

North-east of the city one yojana we come to the opening of a valley in which is Buddha’s religious staff, where they have built a vihāra for making offerings to it. The staff is made of ox-head sandal-wood; its length is a chang and six or seven tenths; it is enclosed in a wooden sheath, from which a hundred or a thousand men could not move it. Entering the valley and going west four days, there is the vihāra of Buddha’s saṅghāti, to which they make religious offerings. When there is a drought in that country, the magistrates and people of the country, coming together, bring out the robe for worship and offerings, then Heaven gives abundant rain. Half a yojana to the south of the city of Nagarahāra there is a cavern (stone dwelling); it is on the south-west side of a high mountain. Buddha left his shadow here. At a distance of ten paces or so we see it, like the true form of Buddha, of a gold colour, with the marks and signs perfectly clear and shining. On going nearer to it or farther off, it becomes less and less like the reality. The kings of the bordering countries have sent able artists to copy the likeness, but they have not been able (to do so). Moreover, those people have a tradition according to which the

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28 These flowers are generally represented as growing on one stalk (Tree and Serpent Worship, pl. I.).
thousand Buddhas will here leave their shadows. About five hundred paces to the west of the shadow, when Buddha was alone, he cut his hair and pared his nails. Then Buddha himself with his disciples together built a tower about seven or eight chang high, as a model for all towers of the future. It still exists. Beside it is a temple; in the temple are 700 priests or so. In this district there are as many as a thousand towers in honour of Arhats and Pratyêka Buddhas.

XIV. After remaining here during two months of winter, Fa-hian and two companions went south across the Little Snowy Mountains. The Snowy Mountains, both in summer and winter, are covered (heaped) with snow. On the north side of the mountains, in the shade, excessive cold came on suddenly, and all the men were struck mute with dread; Hwui-king alone was unable to proceed onwards. The white froth came from his mouth as he addressed Fa-hian and said, "I too have no power of life left; but whilst there is opportunity, do you press on, lest you all perish." Thus he died. Fa-hian, caressing him, exclaimed in piteous voice, "Our purpose was not to produce fortune!" Submitting, he again exerted himself, and pressing forward, they so crossed the range; on the south side they reached the Lo-i country. In this vicinity there are 3000 priests, belonging both to the Great and Little Vehicle. Here they kept the rainy season. The season past, descending south and journeying for ten days, they reached the Po-na country, where there are also some 3000 priests or more, all belonging to the Little Vehicle. From this journeying eastward for three days, they again crossed the Sin-tu river. Both sides of it are now level.

XV. The other side of the river there is a country named Pi-t'u. The law of Buddha is very flourishing; they belong both to the Great and Little Vehicle. When they

Or, to be a fortunate one.  
20 Rohi, i.e., Afghanistan.  
21 Bannu.  
22 Bhijq.
saw pilgrims from China arrive, they were much affected and spoke thus, "How is it that men from the frontiers are able to know the religion of family-renunciation and come from far to seek the law of Buddha?" They liberally provided necessary entertainment according to the rules of religion.

XVI. Going south-east from this somewhat less than 8o yājanas, we passed very many temples one after another, with some myriad of priests in them. Having passed these places, we arrived at a certain country. This country is called Mo-tu-lo. Once more we followed the Pu-na river. On the sides of the river, both right and left, are twenty sanghārāmas, with perhaps 3000 priests. The law of Buddha is progressing and flourishing. Beyond the deserts are the countries of Western India. The kings of these countries are all firm believers in the law of Buddha. They remove their caps of state when they make offerings to the priests. The members of the royal household and the chief ministers personally direct the food-giving; when the distribution of food is over, they spread a carpet on the ground opposite the chief seat (the president’s seat) and sit down before it. They dare not sit on couches in the presence of the priests. The rules relating to the almsgiving of kings have been handed down from the time of Buddha till now. Southward from this is the so-called middle-country (Mādhyadeśa). The climate of this country is warm and equable, without frost or snow. The people are very well off, without poll-tax or official restrictions. Only those who till the royal lands return a portion of profit of the land. If they desire to go, they go; if they like to stop, they stop. The kings govern without corporal punishment; criminals are fined, according to circumstances, lightly or heavily. Even in cases of repeated rebellion they only cut off the right hand. The king’s personal attendants, who guard him on the right and left, have fixed salaries. Through—

30 Mathurā. 34 Jamnā or Yamunā river.
out the country the people kill no living thing nor drink wine, nor do they eat garlic or onions, with the excep-
tion of Chandâlas only. The Chandâlas are named "evil men" and dwell apart from others; if they enter a town
or market, they sound a piece of wood in order to sepa-
rate themselves; then men, knowing who they are, avoid
coming in contact with them. In this country they do
not keep swine nor fowls, and do not deal in cattle; they
have no shambles or wine-shops in their market-places.
In selling they use cowrie shells. The Chandâlas only
hunt and sell flesh. Down from the time of Buddha's
Nirvâna, the kings of these countries, the chief men and
householders, have raised vihâras for the priests, and
provided for their support by bestowing on them fields,
houses, and gardens, with men and oxen. Engraved title-
deeds were prepared and handed down from one reign to
another; no one has ventured to withdraw them, so that
till now there has been no interruption. All the resident
priests having chambers (in these vihâras) have their
beds, mats, food, drink, and clothes provided without
stint; in all places this is the case. The priests ever
engage themselves in doing meritorious works for the
purpose of religious advancement (karma—building up
their religious character), or in reciting the scriptures, or
in meditation. When a strange priest arrives, the senior
priests go out to meet him, carrying for him his clothes
and alms-bowl. They offer him water for washing his
feet and oil for rubbing them; they provide untimely
(vikâla) food. Having rested awhile, they again ask him
as to his seniority in the priesthood, and according to this
they give him a chamber and sleeping materials, arrang-
ing everything according to the dharma. In places where
priests reside they make towers in honour of Sâriputra,
of Mudgalaputra, of Ananda, also in honour of the Abhi-
dharma, Vinaya, and Sûtra. During a month after the
season of rest the most pious families urge a collection for
an offering to the priests; they prepare an untimely meal
for them, and the priests in a great assembly preach the law. The preaching over, they offer to Śāriputra's tower all kinds of scents and flowers; through the night they burn lamps provided by different persons. Śāriputra originally was a Brāhmaṇ; on a certain occasion he went to Buddha and requested ordination. The great Mudgala and the great Kāśyapa did likewise. The Bhikshunīs principally honour the tower of Ānanda, because it was Ānanda who requested the lord of the world to let women take orders; Śrāmaṇerās mostly offer to Raḥula; the masters of the Abhidharma offer to the Abhidharma; the masters of the Vinaya offer to the Vinaya. Every year there is one offering, each according to his own day. Men attached to the Mahāyāna offer to Prajñā-pāramitā, Mañjuśrī, and Avalokiteśvara. When the priests have received their yearly dues, then the chief men and householders and Brāhmaṇs bring every kind of robe and other things needed by the priests to offer them; the priests also make offerings one to another. Down from the time of Buddha's death the rules of conduct for the holy priesthood have been (thus) handed down without interruption.

After crossing the Indus, the distance to the Southern Sea of South India is from four to five myriads of li; the land is level throughout, without great mountains or valleys, but still there are rivers.

XVII. South-east from this, after going 18 yojanas, there is a country called Saṃkāśya. This is the place where Buddha descended after going up to the Trayastriṃśas heaven to preach the law during three months for his mother's benefit. When Buddha went up to the Trayastriṃśas heaven by the exercise of his miraculous power (spiritual power of miracle), he contrived that his disciples should not know (of his proceeding). Seven days before the completion (of the three months) he broke the spell, so that Aniruddha, using his divine sight, beheld the Lord of the world afar, and forthwith addressed the venerable (Ārya) Mahāmudgalaputra, “You can go and salute the
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Lord of the world." Mudgalyāyana accordingly went, and bowing down, worshipped the foot and exchanged friendly greetings. The friendly meeting over, Buddha said to Mudgalyāyana, "After seven days are over I shall descend to Jambudvīpa." Mudgalyāyana then returned. On this the great kings of the eight kingdoms, the ministers and people, not having seen Buddha for a long time, were all desirous to meet him. They assembled like clouds in this country to meet the Lord of the world. At this time Utpalā Bhikshuni thought thus with herself: "To-day the kings of the countries and the ministers and people are going to worship and meet Buddha. I am but a woman; how can I get to see him first?" Buddha forthwith by his miraculous power made her, by transformation, into a holy Chakravartti king, and as such she was the very first to worship him. Buddha being now about to come down from the Trayāstrimśas heaven, there appeared a threefold precious ladder. The middle ladder was made of the seven precious substances, standing above which Buddha began to descend. Then the king of the Brahmā heavens (Brahmakāyikas) caused a silver ladder to appear, on which he took his place on Buddha's right hand, holding a white chauri. Then Śakra, king of Dēvas, caused a bright golden ladder to appear, on which he took his place on the left, holding in his hand a precious parasol. Innumerable Dēvas were in attendance whilst Buddha descended. After he had come down, the three ladders disappeared in the earth, except seven steps, which remained visible. In after times Aśoka, wishing to discover the utmost depths to which these ladders went, employed men to dig down and examine into it. They went on digging till they came to the yellow spring (the earth's foundation), but yet had not come to the bottom. The king, deriving from this an increase of faith and reverence, forthwith built over the ladders a vihāra, and facing the middle flight he placed a standing figure (of Buddha) sixteen feet high. Behind the vihāra he erected a stone pillar
thirty cubits high, and on the top placed the figure of a lion. Within the pillar on the four sides are figures of Buddha; both within and without it is shining and bright as glass. It happened once that some heretical doctors had a contention with the Śramaṇas respecting this as a place of residence. Then the argument of the Śramaṇas failing, they all agreed to the following compact: “If this place properly belongs to the Śramaṇas, then there will be some supernatural proof given of it.” Immediately on this the lion on the top of the pillar uttered a loud roar. Witnessing this testimony, the unbelievers, abashed, withdrew from the dispute and submitted.

The body of Buddha, in consequence of his having partaken of divine food during three months, emitted a divine fragrance, unlike that of men. Immediately after his descent he bathed himself. Men of after ages erected in this place a bath-house, which yet remains. There is also a tower erected on the spot where the Bhikṣuṇi Utpalā was the first to adore Buddha. There is also a tower on the spot where Buddha when in the world cut his hair and his nails, and also on the following spots, viz., where the three former Buddhas, as well as Śākyamuni Buddha, sat down, and also where they walked for exercise, and also where there are certain marks and impressions of the different Buddhas. These towers still remain. There is also one erected where Brahmā, Śakra, and the Devas attended Buddha when he came down from heaven. There are perhaps a thousand male and female disciples who have their meals in common. They belong promiscuously to the systems of the Great and Little Vehicle, and dwell together. A white-eared dragon is the patron of this body of priests. He causes fertilising and seasonable showers of rain to fall within their country, and preserves it from plagues and calamities, and so causes the priesthood to dwell in security. The priests, in gratitude for these favours, have erected a dragon-chapel, and within it placed a resting-place (seat) for his accommodation.
Moreover, they make special contributions, in the shape of religious offerings, to provide the dragon with food. The body of priests every day select from their midst three men to go and take their meal in this chapel. At the end of each season of rain, the dragon suddenly assumes the form of a little serpent, both of whose ears are edged with white. The body of priests, recognising him, place in the midst of his lair a copper vessel full of cream; and then, from the highest to the lowest, they walk past him in procession as if to pay him greeting all round. He then suddenly disappears. He makes his appearance once every year. This country is very productive: the people are very prosperous, and exceedingly rich beyond comparison. Men of all countries coming here are well taken care of and obtain what they require. Fifty yōjanas to the north of this temple there is a temple called "Fire Limit," which is the name of an evil spirit. Buddha himself converted this evil spirit, whereupon men in after ages raised a vihāra on the spot. At the time of the dedication of the vihāra an Arhat spilt some of the sacred water, poured on his hands, and let it fall on the earth, and the place where it fell is still visible; though they have often swept the place to remove the mark, yet it still remains and cannot be destroyed. There is, besides, in this place a tower of Buddha which a benevolent spirit ever keeps clean and waters, and which (was built) without a human architect. There was once an heretical king who said, "Since you can do this, I will bring a great army and quarter it here, which shall accumulate much filth and refuse. Will you be able to clear all this away, I wonder?" The spirit immediately caused a great tempest to rise and blow over the place, as a proof that he could do it. In this district there are a hundred small towers; a man might pass the day in trying to count them without succeeding. If any one is very anxious to discover the right number, then he places a man by the side of each tower and afterwards numbers the men;
but, even in this case, it can never be known how many or how few men will be required. There is also a saṅghārāma here containing about 600 or 700 priests. In this is a place where a Pratyēka Buddha ate (the fruit); the spot of ground where he died is just in size like a chariot-wheel; all the ground around it is covered with grass, but this spot produces none. The ground also where he dried his clothes is bare of vegetation; the traces of the impress of the clothes remain to this day.

XVIII. Fa-Hian resided in the dragon vihāra during the summer rest. After this was over, going south-east seven yōjanas, he arrived at the city of Ki-jou-i (Kanauj). This city borders on the Ganges. There are two saṅghārāmas here, both belonging to the system of the Little Vehicle. Going from the city six or seven li in a westerly direction, on the north bank of the river Ganges, is the place where Buddha preached for the good of his disciples. Tradition says that he preached on impermanency and sorrow, and also on the body being like a bubble and foam. On this spot they have raised a tower, which still remains. Crossing the Ganges and going south three yōjanas, we arrive at a forest called A-lo. Here also Buddha preached the law. They have raised towers on this spot, and also where he sat down and walked for exercise.

XIX. Going south-east from this place ten yōjanas, we arrive at the great country of Sha-chi. Leaving the southern gate of the capital city, on the east side of the road is a place where Buddha once dwelt. Whilst here he bit (a piece from) the willow stick and fixed it in the earth; immediately it grew up seven feet high, neither more or less. The unbelievers and Brāhmaṇs, filled with jealousy, cut it down and scattered the leaves far and wide, but yet it always sprung up again in the same place as before. Here also they raised towers on places where the four Buddhas walked for exercise and sat down. The ruins still exist.

35 Probably the text is corrupt. euphemism for "died." It may be There is a common phrase, "to so in the present instance. drink the draught of sweet dew."
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XX. Going eight yojanas southwards from this place, we arrive at the country of Kiu-sa-lo (Kôsala) and its chief town She-wei (Sravasti). There are very few inhabitants in this city, altogether perhaps about 200 families. This is the city which King Prasênajit governed. Towers have been built in after times on the site of the ruined vihāra of Mahâprajâpati, also on the foundations (of the house) of the lord Sudatta, also on the spot where the Angulimâlya was burnt, who was converted and entered nirvâna; all these towers are erected in the city. The unbelieving Brâhmans, from jealousy, desired to destroy these various buildings, but on attempting to do so, the heavens thundered and the lightnings flashed, so that they were unable to carry out their design. Leaving the city by the south gate and proceeding 1200 paces on the road, on the west side of it is the place where the lord Sudatta built a vihāra. This chapel opens towards the east. The principal door is flanked by two side chambers, in front of which stand two stone pillars; on the top of the left-hand one is the figure of a wheel, and on the right-hand one the image of an ox. The clear water of the tanks, the luxuriant groves, and numberless flowers of variegated hues combine to produce the picture of what is called a Jêtavana vihāra. When Buddha ascended into the Trayastrimshas heavens to preach for the sake of his mother, after ninety days' absence, King Prasênajit desiring to see him again, carved out of the sandal-wood called Gôśirshachandana (ox-head) an image of the Buddha and placed it on Buddha's throne. When Buddha returned and entered the vihāra, the image, immediately quitting its place, went forward to meet him. On this Buddha addressed these words to it: "Return, I pray you, to your seat. After my Nirvâna you will be the model from which my followers (four schools or classes) shall carve their images." On this the figure returned to its seat. This image, as it was the very first made of all the figures of Buddha, is the one which all subsequent ages have fol-
lowed as a model. Buddha then removed and dwelt in a small vihāra on the south side of the greater one, in a place quite separated from that occupied by the image, and about twenty paces from it. The Jētavana vihāra originally had seven stages. The monarchs of the surrounding countries and the people vied with each other in presenting religious offerings at this spot. They decked the place with flags and silken canopies; they offered flowers and burnt incense, whilst the lamps shone continually from evening till daylight with unfading splendour. A rat taking in his mouth the wick of a lamp caused it to set fire to one of the hanging canopies, and this resulted in a general conflagration and the entire destruction of the seven storeys of the vihāra. The kings and people of the surrounding countries were deeply grieved, thinking that the sandalwood figure had also been consumed. Four or five days afterwards, on opening the door of the eastern little chapel, they were surprised to behold the original figure there. The people were filled with joy, and they agreed to rebuild the chapel. Having completed two stages, they removed the image from its new situation back to where it was before. When Fa-Hian and To-Ching arrived at this chapel of the Jētavana, they reflected that this was the spot in which the Lord of men had passed twenty-five years of his life; they themselves, at the risk of their lives, were now dwelling amongst foreigners; of those who had with like purpose travelled through a succession of countries with them, some had returned home, some were dead; and now, gazing on the place where Buddha once dwelt but was no longer to be seen, their hearts were affected with very lively regret. Whereupon the priests belonging to that community came forward and addressed (Fa)-Hian and To-(Ching) thus: "From what country have you come?" To which they replied, "We come from the land of Han." Then those priests, in astonishment, exclaimed, "Wonderful! to think that men from the frontiers of the earth should come so far as this from a desire to
search for the law;" and then talking between themselves they said, "Our various superiors and brethren, who have succeeded one another in this place from the earliest time till now, have none of them seen men of Han come so far as this before."

Four li to the north-west of the vihāra is a copse called "Recovered-sight." Originally there were 500 blind men dwelling on this spot beside the chapel. On one occasion Buddha declared the law on their account; after listening to his sermon they immediately recovered their sight. The blind men, overcome with joy, drove their staves into the earth and fell down on their faces in adoration. The staves forthwith took root and grew up to be great trees. The people, from a feeling of reverence, did not presume to cut them down, and so they grew and formed a grove, to which this name of "Recovered-sight" was given. The priests of the chapel of the Jētavana resort in great numbers to this shady copse to meditate after their mid-day meal. Six or seven li to the north-east of the Jētavana vihāra is the site of the chapel which Mother Viśākhā built, and invited Buddha and the priests to occupy. The ruins are still there. The great garden enclosure of the Jētavana vihāra has two gates, one opening towards the east, the other towards the north. This garden is the plot of ground which the noble Sudatta bought after covering it with gold coins. The chapel is in the middle of it; it was here Buddha resided for a very long time, and expounded the law for the salvation of men. Towers have been erected on the various spots where he walked for exercise or sat down. These towers have all distinctive names given them, as, for example, the place where Buddha was accused of murdering (the harlot) Sundari. Leaving the Jētavana

28 Restored by Stan. Julien to Āptanētravana (tome ii. p. 308), and by Cunningham to Āptakshivana (Arch. Surr., vol. i. p. 344, n.) Cf. vol. ii. p. 12.

27 This chapel of Mother Viśākhā is placed by Cunningham south-east from the Jētavana (Arch. Surr., vol. i. p. 345, n.) The text may be wrong.

26 See vol. ii. p. 7.
by the eastern gate, and going north seventy paces, on the west side of the road is the place where Buddha formerly held a discussion with the followers of the ninety-six heretical schools. The king of the country, the chief ministers, the landowners and people, all came in great numbers to hear him. At this time a woman who was an unbeliever, called Chiṁchimanā, being filled with jealousy, gathered up her clothes in a heap round her person so as to appear with child, and then accused Buddha in a meeting of priests of unrighteous conduct. On this Śakra, the king of Dēvas, taking the appearance of a white mouse, came and gnawed through her sash; on this the whole fell down, and then the earth opened and she herself went down alive into hell. Here also is the place where Dēvadatta, having poisoned his nails for the purpose of destroying Buddha, went down alive into hell. Men in after times noted these various places for recognition. Where the discussion took place they raised a chapel more than six chang (70 feet) high, with a sitting figure of Buddha in it. To the east of the road is a temple (Dēvālaya) belonging to the heretics, which is named "Shadow-covered." It is opposite the vihāra erected on the place of the discussion, and of the same height. It has received the name of "Shadow-covered" because when the sun is in the west, the shadow of the vihāra of the Lord of the World covers the temple of the heretics; but when the sun is in the east, the shadow of the latter is bent to the north, and does not overshadow the chapel of Buddha. The heretics constantly appointed persons to take care of their temple, to sweep and water it, to burn incense and light lamps for religious worship; towards the approach of morning their lamps disappeared, and were discovered in the middle of the Buddhist chapel. On this the Brāhmaṇs, being angry, said, "These Śramaṇas take our lamps for their own religious worship;" whereupon the Brāhmaṇs set a night-watch, and then they saw their own gods take the lamps and move round Buddha's

\[\text{Vol. ii. p. 9, n. 23.}\]

\[\text{Vol. ii. p. 10.}\]
chapel three times, after which they offered the lamps and suddenly disappeared. On this the Brāhmans, recognising the greatness of Buddha’s spiritual power, forsook their families and became his disciples. Tradition says that about the time when these things happened there were ninety saṅghārāmas surrounding the Jētavana chapel, all of which, with one exception, were occupied by priests. In this country of Mid-India there are ninety-six heretical sects, all of whom allow the reality of worldly phenomena. Each sect has its disciples, who beg their food, but do not carry alms-dishes. They also piously build hospices by the side of solitary roads for the shelter of travellers, where they may rest, sleep, eat and drink, and are supplied with all necessaries. The followers of Buddha, also, as they pass to and fro, are entertained by them, only different arrangements are made for their convenience. Dēvadatta also has a body of disciples still existing; they pay religious reverence to the three past Buddhas, but not to Śākyamuni Buddha.41

Four li to the south-east of Śrāvastī is the place where the Lord of men stood by the side of the road when King Virūḍhaka 42 (Liu-lī) wished to destroy the country of the Śākya family; on this spot there is a tower built. Fifty li to the west of the city we arrive at a town called To-wai; 43 this was the birthplace of Kāśyapa Buddha. Towers are erected on the spot where he had an interview with his father and also where he entered Nirvāṇa. A great tower has also been erected over the relics of the entire body of Kāśyapa Tathāgata.

XXI. Leaving the city of Śrāvastī, and going twelve yojanas to the south-east, we arrived at a town called Nāpi-ka. This is the birthplace of Krakuchchhanda 44 Buddha. There are towers erected on the spots where the interview between the father and son took place, and also where he entered Nirvāṇa.

41 This is an important notice, as it indicates the character of Devadatta’s position with reference to Buddha. 42 See vol. ii. p. 11. 43 Tadwa, see vol. ii. p. 13. 44 See vol. ii. p. 18.
entered Nirvāṇa. Going north from this place less than one yojana, we arrive at a town where Kanakamuni Buddha was born; there are towers also erected here over similar places as the last.

XXII. Going eastward from this less than a yojana, we arrive at the city of Kapilavastu. In this city there is neither king nor people; it is like a great desert. There is simply a congregation of priests and about ten families of lay people. On the site of the ruined palace of Suddhodana there is a picture of the prince's mother, whilst the prince, riding on a white elephant, is entering the womb. Towers have been erected on the following spots: where the royal prince left the city by the eastern gate; where he saw the sick man; and where he caused his chariot to turn and take him back to his palace. There are also towers erected on the following spots: at the place where Asita observed the marks of the royal prince; where Ānanda and the others struck the elephant, drew it out of the way, and hurled it; where the arrow, going south-east 30 li, entered the earth, from which bubbled up a fountain of water, which in after generations was used as a well for travellers to drink at; also on the spot where Buddha, after arriving at supreme wisdom, met his father; where the 500 Śākyas, having embraced the faith, paid reverence to Upāli; at the place where the earth shook six times; at the place where Buddha expounded the law on behalf of all the Devas, whilst the four heavenly kings guarded the four gates of the hall, so that his father could not enter: at the place where Mahāprajāpati presented Buddha with a saṅghātī whilst he was sitting under a Nyāgrādhā tree with his face to the east, which tree still exists; at the place where Virūdhaka-rāja killed the offspring of the Śākyas who had previously entered on the path Srōtāpanna. All these towers are still in existence. A few li to the north-

east of the city is the royal field where the prince, sitting
underneath a tree, watched a ploughing-match. Fifty li
to the east of the city is the royal garden called Lumbi
i; it was here the queen entered the bath to wash
herself, and, having come out on the northern side, ad-
vanced twenty paces, and then holding a branch of the
tree in her hand, as she looked to the east, brought forth
the prince. When born he walked seven steps; two
dragon-kings washed the prince's body,—the place where
this occurred was afterwards converted into a well, and
here, as likewise at the pool, the water of which came down
from above for washing (the child), the priests draw their
drinking water. All the Buddhas have four places uni-
versally determined for them:—(1.) The place for arriving at
supreme wisdom; (2.) The place for turning the wheel of
the law; (3.) The place for expounding the true principles
of the law and refuting the heretics; (4.) The place for
descending to earth after going into the Trayasrimās
heaven to explain the law to their mothers. Other places
are chosen according to existing circumstances. The
country of Kapilavastu is now a great desert; you seldom
meet any people on the roads for fear of the white elephants
and the lions. It is impossible to travel negligently.
Going east five yojanas from the place where Buddha was
born, there is a country called Lan-mo (Rāmagrāma).48

XXIII. The king of this country obtained one share of
the relics of Buddha's body. On his return home he built
a tower, which is the same as the tower of Rāmagrāma.
By the side of it is a tank in which lives a dragon, who
constantly guards and protects the tower and worships
there morning and night. When King Ašoka was living
he wished to destroy the eight towers and to build eighty-
four thousand others. Having destroyed seven, he next
proceeded to treat this one in the same way.49 The dragon
therefore assumed a body and conducted the king within

p. 89, n. 1.
2298; also infra, vol. ii. p. 27.
his abode, and having shown him all the vessels and appliances he used in his religious services, he addressed the king and said: "If you can worship better than this, then you may destroy the tower. Let me take you out; I will have no quarrel with you." King Aśoka, knowing that these vessels were of no human workmanship, immediately returned to his home. This place having become desert, there was no one either to water it or sweep, but ever and anon a herd of elephants carrying water in their trunks piously watered the ground, and also brought all sorts of flowers and perfumes to pay religious worship at the tower. Some pilgrims from different countries used to come here to worship at the tower. On one occasion some of these met the elephants, and being much frightened, concealed themselves amongst the trees. Seeing the elephants perform their service according to the law, they were greatly affected. They grieved to think that there was no temple here or priests to perform religious service, so that the very elephants had to water and sweep. On this they gave up the great precepts and took upon them the duties of Śrāmaṇeras. They began to pluck up the brushwood and level the ground, and arrange the place so that it became neat and clean. They urged the king of the country to help make residences for the priests. Moreover, they built a temple in which priests still reside. These things occurred recently, since which there has been a regular succession (of priests), only the superior of the temple has always been a Śrāmaṇera.³⁰ Three yôjanas east of this place is the spot where the royal prince dismissed his charioteer Chandaka and the royal horse, previous to their return. Here also is erected a tower.

XXIV. Going eastward from this place four yôjanas, we arrive at the Ashes-tower.³¹ Here also is a saṅghārāma. Again going twelve yôjanas eastward, we arrive at the town of Kuśinagara. To the north of this town, where the Lord

of the World, lying by the side of the Hiraṇyavatī river, with his head to the north and a sal tree on either side of him, entered Nīrāvana; also in the place where Subhadra was converted, the very last of all his disciples; also where for seven days they paid reverence to the Lord of the World lying in his golden coffin; also where Vajrapāṇi threw down his golden mace, and where the eight kings divided the relics; in each of the above places towers have been raised and sānghārāmas built, which still exist. In this city also there are but few inhabitants; such families as there are, are connected with the resident congregation of priests. Going south-east twelve yōjanas from this place, we arrive at the spot where the Lichehāvis, desiring to follow Buddha to the scene of his Nīrāvana, were forbidden to do so. On account of their affection for Buddha they were unwilling to go back, on which Buddha caused to appear between them and him a great and deeply-scarped river, which they could not cross. He then left with them his alms-bowl as a memorial, and exhorted them to return to their houses. On this they went back and erected a stone pillar, on which this account is engraved.

XXV. From this going five yōjanas eastward, we arrive at the country of Vaiśālī. To the north of the city of Vaiśālī there is the vihāra of the great forest, which has a two-storied tower. This chapel was once occupied by Buddha. Here also is the tower which was built over half the body of Ānanda. Within this city dwelt the lady Āmrapāli, (who

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32 Cf. Fo-sho., p. 290.
33 Or does this refer to the Mallas throwing down their maces (hammers)?
34 Laidlay has by mistake translated the French S.W. instead of S.E. But the French editors have also mistranslated the distance, which is twelve yōjanas, and not twenty. We have thus nineteen yōjanas between Kuśinagara (Kasia) and Vaiśālī (Besarh), which is as nearly correct as possible.
35 Vaiśālī, a very famous city in the Buddhist records. Cunningham identifies it with the present Besarh, twenty miles north of Haji-pūr.
36 This chapel was situated in the neighbourhood of the present village of Bakhra, about two miles N.N.W. of Besarh. It is alluded to in the Singhalese records as the Mahā-vano Vihāra. From Burnouf we find it was built by the side of a tank known as the Markṣahraṇa, or Monkey tank (Intro. Buddh. Ind., p. 74), (Man. Bhd., p. 356).
built) a tower for Buddha; the ruins still exist. Three li to the south of the city, on the west side of the road, is the garden which the lady Âmrapâli gave to Buddha as a resting-place. When Buddha was about to enter Nirvâna, accompanied by his disciples, he left Vaisâli by the western gate, and turning his body to the right, he beheld the city and thus addressed his followers: "In this place I have performed the last religious act of my earthly career." Men afterwards raised a tower on this spot. Three li to the north-west of the city is a tower called "the tower of the deposited bows and clubs." The origin of this name was as follows: — On one of the upper streams of the Ganges there was a certain country ruled by a king. One of his concubines gave birth to an unformed fetus, whereupon the queen being jealous, said, "Your conception is one of bad omen." So they closed it up in a box of wood and cast it into the Ganges. Lower down the stream there was another king, who, taking a tour of observation, caught sight of the wooden box floating on the stream. On bringing it to shore and opening it, he found inside a thousand children very fair, well formed, and most unique. The king hereupon took them and brought them up. When they grew up they turned out to be very brave and warlike, and were victorious over all whom they went to attack. In process of time they marched against the kingdom of the monarch, their father, at which he was filled with consternation. On this his concubine asked the king why he was so terrified; to whom he replied, "The king of that country has a thousand sons, brave and warlike beyond compare, and they are coming to attack my country; this is why I am alarmed." To this the concubine replied, "Fear not! but erect on the east of the city a high tower, and when the rebels come, place me on it; I will restrain them." The king did so, and when the invaders arrived, the concubine addressed them

58 Cf. Fo-sho, v. 1930 and n. 3.
59 For another account of this fable, cf. vol. ii. p. 71.
from the tower, saying, "You are my children. Then why are you rebellious?" They replied, "Who are you that say you are our mother?" The concubine replied, "If ye will not believe me, all of you look up and open your mouths." On this the concubine, with both her hands, pressed her breasts, and from each breast proceeded five hundred jets of milk, which fell into the mouths of her thousand sons. On this the rebels, perceiving that she was indeed their mother, immediately laid down their bows and clubs. The two royal fathers, by a consideration of these circumstances, were able to arrive at the condition of Pratyêka Buddhhas, and the tower erected in their honour remains to this day. In after times, when the Lord of the World arrived at supreme reason, he addressed his disciples in these words, "This is the place where I formerly laid aside my bow and my club." Men in after times, coming to know this, founded a tower in this place, and hence the name. The thousand children are in truth the thousand Buddhas of this Bhadra-kalpa. Buddha, when standing beside this tower, addressed Ánanda thus, "After three months I must enter Nirvāna," on which occasion Mûra-rāja so fascinated the mind of Ánanda that he did not request Buddha to remain in the world. Going east from this point three or four li there is a tower. One hundred years after the Nirvāna of Buddha there were at Vaisālî certain Bhikshus who broke the rules of the Vinaya in ten particulars, saying that Buddha had said it was so, at which time the Arhats and the orthodox Bhikshus, making an assembly of 700 ecclesiastics, compared and collated the Vinaya Pitaka afresh. Afterwards men erected a tower on this spot, which still exists.

XXVI. Going four yojanas east, we arrive at the confluence of the five rivers. When Ánanda was going from the country of Magadha towards Vaisālî, desiring to enter Nir-

60 For an account of this council see Abstract of Four Lectures, Lect. ii.

There is an expression fan fu after the words "orthodox Bhikshus" (rule-holding Bhikshus), which may either be enolitic, or mean "a mixed multitude."
vāna, the Dévas acquainted King Ajātašatru of it. The king immediately set out after him at the head of his troops, and arrived at the banks of the river. The Lichchhavis of Vaisālī, hearing that Ānanda was coming, likewise set out to meet him and arrived at the side of the river. Ānanda then reflected that if he were to advance, King Ajātašatru would be much grieved, and if he should go back, then the Lichchhavis would be indignant. Being perplexed, he forthwith entered the Samādhi called the “brilliance of flame,” consuming his body, and entered Nirvāṇa in the midst of the river. His body was divided into two parts; one part was found on either side of the river; so the two kings, taking the relics of half his body, returned and erected towers over them.61

XXVII. Crossing the river, and going south one yājana, we arrive at Magadha and the town of Pātaliputra (Palin-fu). This is the town in which King Aśoka reigned. In the city is the royal palace, the different parts of which he commissioned the genii (demons) to construct by piling up the stones. The walls, doorways, and the sculptured designs are no human work. The ruins still exist. The younger brother of King Aśoka having arrived at the dignity of an Arhat, was in the habit of residing in the hill Grīḍhrakūṭa, finding his chief delight in silent contemplation. The king respectfully requested him to come to his house to receive his religious offerings. His brother, pleased with his tranquillity in the mountain, declined the invitation. The king then addressed his brother, saying, “If you will only accept my invitation, I will make for you a hill within the city.” Then the king, providing all sorts of meat and drink, invited the genii, and addressed them thus, “I beg you to accept my invitation for to-morrow; but as there are no seats, I must request you each to bring his own.” On the morrow the great genii came, each one bringing with him a great stone, four

or five paces square. After the feast (the session), he deputed the genii to pile up (their seats) and make a great stone mountain; and at the base of the mountain with five great square stones to make a rock chamber, in length about 35 feet and in breadth 22 feet and in height 11 feet or so.

In this city (i.e., of Pāṭaliputra or Patna) once lived a certain Brāhmaṇ called Rādha-Svāmi (?) (Lo-tai-sz-pi-mī), of large mind and extensive knowledge, and attached to the Great Vehicle. There was nothing with which he was unacquainted, and he lived apart occupied in silent meditation. The king of the country honoured and respected him as his religious superior. If he went to salute him, he did not dare to sit down in his presence. If the king, from a feeling of esteem, took him by the hand, the Brāhmaṇ thoroughy washed himself. For something like fifty years the whole country looked up to this man and placed its confidence on him alone. He mightly extended the influence of the law of Buddha, so that the heretics were unable to obtain any advantage at all over the priesthood.

By the side of the tower of King Aśoka is built a saṅghārāma belonging to the Great Vehicle, very imposing and elegant. There is also a temple belonging to the Little Vehicle. Together they contain about 600 or 700 priests; their behaviour is decorous and orderly. Here one may see eminent priests from every quarter of the world; Śramaṇas and scholars who seek for instruction all flock to this temple. The Brāhmaṇ teacher is called Mañjuśrī. The great Śramaṇas of the country, and all the Bhikshus attached to the Great Vehicle, esteem and reverence him; moreover he resides in this saṅghārāma. Of all the kingdoms of Mid-India, the towns of this country are especially large. The people are rich and prosperous; they practise virtue and justice. Every year on the eighth day of the second month there is a procession of images. On this occasion they construct a four-wheeled car, and erect upon it a tower of five stages, composed of bamboos lashed together, the whole being supported by a
centre-post resembling a large spear with three points, in height twenty-two feet and more. So it looks like a pagoda. They then cover it over with fine white linen, which they afterwards paint with gaudy colours. Having made figures of the dévas, and decorated them with gold, silver, and glass, they place them under canopies of embroidered silk. Then at the four corners (of the car) they construct niches (shrines), in which they place figures of Buddha in a sitting posture, with a Bódhisattva standing in attendance. There are perhaps twenty cars thus prepared and differently decorated. During the day of the procession both priests and laymen assemble in great numbers. There are games and music, whilst they offer flowers and incense. The Brahmâchâris come forth to offer their invitations. The Buddhas, then, one after the other, enter the city. After coming into the town again they halt. Then all night long they burn lamps, indulge in games and music, and make religious offerings. Such is the custom of all those who assemble on this occasion from the different countries round about. The nobles and householders of this country have founded hospitals within the city, to which the poor of all countries, the destitute, cripples, and the diseased, may repair. They receive every kind of requisite help gratuitously. Physicians inspect their diseases, and according to their cases order them food and drink, medicine or decoctions, everything in fact that may contribute to their ease. When cured they depart at their convenience. King Aśoka having destroyed seven (of the original) pagodas, constructed 84,000 others. The very first which he built is the great tower which stands about three li to the south of this city. In front of this pagoda is an impression of Buddha's foot, (over which) they have raised a chapel, the gate of which faces the north. To the south of the tower is a stone pillar, about a chang and a half in girth (18 feet), and three chang or so in height (35 feet). On the surface of this pillar is an inscription to the following effect: "King Aśoka
presented the whole of Jambudvipa to the priests of the four quarters, and redeemed it again with money, and this he did three times." Three or four hundred paces to the north of the pagoda is the spot where Asoka was born (or resided). On this spot he raised the city of Ni-li, and in the midst of it erected a stone pillar, also about 35 feet in height, on the top of which he placed the figure of a lion, and also engraved an historical record on the pillar giving an account of the successive events connected with Ni-li, with the corresponding year, day, and month.

XXVIII. From this city proceeding in a south-easterly direction nine yojanas, we arrive at a small solitary stone hill, on the top of which is a stone cell. The stone cell faces the south. On one occasion, when Buddha was sitting in this cell, Sakra Deva, taking the divine musician Panchashikha, caused him to sound a strain in the place where Buddha was. Then Sakra Deva proposed forty-two questions to Buddha, drawing some traces upon a stone with his finger. The remains of the structure and tracings yet exist. There is a saṅghārāma built here. Going south-west from this one yojana, we arrive at the village of Na-1a. This was the place of Sāriputra's birth. Sāriputra returned here to enter Nirvāṇa. A tower therefore was erected here, which is still in existence. Going west from this one yojana, we arrive at the new Rāja-grīha. This was the town which King Ajātaśatru built. There are two saṅghārāmas in it. Leaving this town by the west gate and proceeding 300 paces, (we arrive at) the tower which King Ajātaśatru raised over the share of Buddha's relics which he obtained. Its height is very imposing. Leaving the south side of the city and proceeding southwards four li, we enter a valley

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63 The Indra-śila-grīha of Huen Tsang, see vol. ii. p. 180.
64 For an account of this event, see Manual of Buddhism, pp. 289, 290; also Childers' Paññ Dīt., sub voc. Paññānakīho.
situated between five hills. These hills encircle it completely like the walls of a town. This is the site of the old town of King Bimbisāra. From east to west it is about five or six li, from north to south seven or eight li. Here Śāriputra and Mūḍgalyāyana first met Aśvajit. Here also the Nirgrantha made a pit with fire in it, and poisoned the food which he invited Buddha to eat. Here also is the spot where King Ajātaśatru, intoxicating a black elephant, desired to destroy Buddha. To the north-east of the city, in a crooked defile, (the physician) Jivaka erected a vihāra in the garden of Ambapāli, and invited Buddha and his 1250 disciples to receive her religious offerings. The ruins still exist. Within the city all is desolate and without inhabitants.

XXIX. Entering the valley and striking the mountains towards the south-east, ascending 15 li we arrive at the hill called Gṛydhra kūta. Three li from the top is a stone cavern facing the south. Buddha used in this place to sit in meditation. Thirty paces to the north-west is another stone cell in which Ānanda practised meditation. The Déva Mára Piśuna, having assumed the form of a vulture, took his place before the cavern and terrified Ānanda. Buddha by his spiritual power pierced the rock, and with his outstretched hand patted Ānanda's shoulder. On this his fear was allayed. The traces of the bird and of the hand-hole are still quite plain; on this account the hill is called "The Hill of the Vulture Cave." In front of the cave is the place where the four Buddhas sat down. Each of the Arhats likewise has a cave where he sat in meditation. Altogether there are several hundreds of these. Here also, when Buddha was walking to and fro from east to west in front of his cell, Dévodatta, from between the northern eminences of the

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66 For this incident see vol. ii. p. 178.
67 For this incident see Fo shôo., pp. 246-247.
68 See vol. ii. p. 152.
69 For these places see vol. ii. p. 153 ff.
70 Hiuen Tsang says "his head," vol. ii. p. 154.
two li is the spot where Buddha, seated on a stone under a great tree, and looking towards the east, ate the rice and milk. The tree and the stone still remain. The stone is about six feet square and two in height. In Mid-India the heat and cold are so equalised that trees will live for thousands of years, and even so many as ten thousand. Going north-east from this half a yojana, we arrive at a stone cell, into which Bôdhisattva entering, sat down with his legs crossed, and as he faced the west he reflected with himself, “If I am to arrive at the condition of perfect wisdom, let there be some spiritual manifestation.” Immediately on the stone wall there appeared the shadow of Buddha, in length somewhat about three feet. This shadow is still distinctly visible. Then the heavens and the earth were shaken, and all the devas in space cried out and said, “This is not the place appointed for the Buddhas (past or those to come) to arrive at perfect wisdom; at a distance less than half a yojana south-west from this, beneath the Pei-to tree, is the spot where all the Buddhas (past or yet to come) should arrive at that condition.” The devas having thus spoken, immediately went before him, singing and leading the way with a view to induce him to follow. Then Bôdhisattva, rising up, followed them. When distant thirty paces from the tree, a deva gave him some grass of good omen.\footnote{Kuśa grass.} Bôdhisattva having accepted it, advanced fifteen paces. Then 500 blue birds\footnote{For this and other incidents, see vol. ii. p. 124. Consult also the notes in Fah-hian (Beal’s Bud. Pîly., p. 123).} came flying towards him, and having encircled Bôdhisattva three times, departed. Bôdhisattva, then going forward, arrived under the Pei-to tree, and spreading out the grass of good omen, sat down with his face towards the east. Then it was that Mâra-râja dispatched three pleasure-girls from the northern quarter to come and tempt him, whilst Mâra himself coming from the south, assailed him likewise. Then Bôdhisattva letting the toe of his foot down to the earth, the whole army of Mâra was scat-
tered, and the three women were changed into hags. On the place above mentioned, where he inflicted on himself mortification for six years, and on each spot subsequently mentioned, men in after times raised towers and placed figures (of Buddha), which still remain. Buddha having arrived at supreme wisdom, for seven days sat contemplating the tree, experiencing the joys of emancipation. On this spot they have raised a tower, as well as on the following, viz., where he walked for seven days under the Pei-to tree, from east to west; where all the devas, having caused the appearance of a hall composed of the seven precious substances, for seven days paid religious worship to Buddha; where the blind dragon Muchilinda for seven days encircled Buddha in token of respect; also where Buddha, seated on a square stone beneath a Nyagrodha tree, and with his face to the east, received the respectful salutation of Brahmā; also where the four heavenly kings respectfully offered him his alms-bowl; also where the 500 merchants presented him with parched corn and honey; also where he converted the Kāśyapas, elder and younger brothers, and their thousand disciples. In the place where Buddha arrived at perfect reason there are three saṅghārāmas, in all of which priests are located. The dependants of the congregation of priests supply them with all necessaries, so that there is no lack of anything. They scrupulously observe the rules of the Vinaya with respect to decorum, which relate to sitting down, rising up, or entering the assembly; and the rules which the holy congregation observed during Buddha's lifetime are still observed by these priests. The sites of the four great pagodas have always been associated together from the time of the Nirvāṇa. The four great pagodas are those erected on the place where he was born, where he obtained emancipation, where he began to preach, and where he entered Nirvāṇa.

XXXII. Formerly, when King Asoka was a lad, playing

That is, in a previous birth.
on the road, he met Śākya Buddha going begging. The little boy, rejoiced at the chance, gave him a handful of earth as an offering. Buddha received it, and on his return sprinkled it on the ground where he took his exercise. In return for this act of charity the lad became an iron-wheel king and ruled over Jambudvīpa. On assuming the iron-wheel he was on a certain occasion going through Jambudvīpa on a tour of inspection, at which time he saw one of the places of torment for the punishment of wicked men situated between the two iron-circle mountains. He immediately asked his attendant ministers, "What is this place?" To this they replied and said, "This is the place where Yāma-rāja, the infernal king, inflicts punishment on wicked men for their crimes." The king then began to reflect and said, "If the demon king, in the exercise of his function, requires to have a place of punishment for wicked men, why should not I, who rule men (on earth), have a place of punishment likewise for the guilty?" On this he asked his ministers, "Who is there that I can appoint to make for me a hell, and to exercise authority therein for the punishment of wicked men?" In reply they said, "None but a very wicked man can fulfil such an office." The king forthwith dispatched his ministers in every direction to seek for such a man. In the course of their search they saw, by the side of a running stream, a lusty great fellow of a black colour, with red hair and light eyes; with the talons of his feet he caught the fish, and when he whistled to the birds and beasts, they came to him; and as they approached he mercilessly shot them through, so that none escaped. Having caught this man, he was brought before the king. The king then gave him these secret orders, "You must enclose a square space with high walls, and with this enclosure plant every kind of flower and fruit (tree), and make beautiful alcoves, and arrange everything with such taste as to make people anxious to look within.

80 For this incident see vol. ii. p. 85.
Make a wide gate to it, and then when any one enters, seize him at once and subject him to every kind of torture. Let no one (who has once entered) ever go out again. And I strictly enjoin you, that if I even should enter, that you torture me also and spare not. Now, then, I appoint you lord of this place of torment!” It happened that a certain Bhikshu, as he was going his rounds begging for food, entered the gate. The infernal keeper seeing him, made preparations to put him to torture. The Bhikshu, being much frightened, supplicably begged a moment’s respite. “Permit me, at least, to partake of my mid-day meal,” he said. It so happened that just then another man entered the place, on which the keeper directly seized him, and, putting him in a stone mortar, began to pound his body to atoms till a red froth formed. The Bhikshu having witnessed this spectacle, began to reflect on the impermanency, the sorrow, the vanity of bodily existence, that it is like a bubble and froth of the sea, and so he arrived at the condition of an Arhat. This having transpired, the infernal keeper laid hold of him and thrust him into a caldron of boiling water. The heart of the Bhikshu and his countenance were full of joy. The fire was extinguished and the water became cold, whilst in the middle of it there sprang up a lotus, on the top of which the Bhikshu took his seat. The keeper forthwith proceeded to the king and said, “A wonderful miracle has occurred in the place of torture; would that your majesty would come and see it.” The king said, “I dare not come, in consideration of my former agreement with you.” The keeper replied, “This matter is one of great moment: it is only right you should come; let us consider your former agreement changed.” The king then directly followed him and entered the prison; on which the Bhikshu, for his sake, delivered a religious discourse, so that the king believed and was converted. Then he ordered the place of torture to be destroyed, and repented of all the evil he had formerly committed. From the
time of his conversion he exceedingly honoured the three precious ones (i.e., Buddha, Dharma, Saṅgha), and went continually to the spot underneath the Pei-to tree for the purpose of repentance, self-examination, and fasting. In consequence of this, the queen on one occasion asked, "Where does the king go so constantly?" The ministers replied, "He continually resides under the Pei-to tree." The queen hereupon, awaiting an opportunity when the king was not there, sent men to cut the tree down. The king repairing as usual to the spot, and seeing what had happened, was so overpowered with grief that he fell down senseless on the ground. The ministers, bathing his face with water, after a long time restored him to consciousness. Then the king piled up the earth on the four sides of the stump of the tree, and commanded the roots to be moistened with a hundred pitchers of milk. Then prostrating himself at full length on the ground, he made the following vow, "If the tree does not revive I will never rise up again." No sooner had he done this than the tree began to force up small branches from the root, and so it continued to grow until it arrived at its present height, which is somewhat less than 120 feet.

XXXIII. From this place going south three li, we arrive at a mountain called the Cock's-foot. The great Kāśyapa is at present within this mountain.\(^{81}\) He divided the mountain at its base, so as to open a passage (for himself). This entrance is now closed up (impassable). At a considerable distance from this spot there is a side chasm; it is in this the entire body of Kāśyapa is now preserved. Outside this chasm is the place where Kāśyapa, when alive, washed his hands. The people of that region who are afflicted with headaches use the earth brought from the place as an ointment, and this immediately cures them. As soon as the sun begins to decline\(^{82}\) the Arhats come and take

\(^{81}\) For an account of this mountain see vol. ii. p. 144.

\(^{82}\) Or, it may be translated, "Therefore, since then, there have been Arhats," &c.; but this is not so agreeable with the context as the translation I have given.
their abode in this hill. Buddhist pilgrims of that and other countries come year by year to pay religious worship to Kâśyapa; if any should happen to be distressed with doubts, directly the sun goes down the Arhats arrive and begin to discourse with (the pilgrims) and explain their doubts and difficulties; and, having done so, forthwith they disappear. The thickets about this hill are dense and tangled. There are, moreover, many lions, tigers, and wolves prowling about, so that it is not possible to travel without great care.

XXXIV. Fa-Hian returning towards Pâtaliputra, kept along the course of the Ganges, and after going ten yôjanas in a westerly direction, arrived at a vihâra called "Desert" (Kwang-ye), in which Buddha resided. Priests still dwell in it. Still keeping along the course of the Ganges and going west twelve yôjanas, we arrive at the country of Kâsî and the city of Bânâras. About ten li or so to the north-east of this city is the chapel of the deer park of the Râshis. This garden was once occupied by a Pratyêka Buddha. There are always wild deer repose in it for shelter. When the Lord of the World was about to arrive at supreme wisdom, all the dêvas in space began to chant a hymn and say, "The son of Suddhôdana-râja, who has left his home to acquire supreme wisdom, after seven days will arrive at the condition of Buddha." The Pratyêka Buddha hearing this, immediately entered Nirvâna. Therefore the name of this place is the deer park of the Râshi. The world-honoured Buddha having arrived at complete knowledge, men in after ages erected a vihâra on this spot. Buddha being desirous to convert Ájñâtå Kaunûdînya and his companions, known as the five men, they communed one with another and said, "This Śramaṇa Gautama having for six years practised mortifications, reducing himself to the daily use of but one grain of hemp and one of rice, and in spite of this having failed to obtain supreme wisdom, how much less shall he now obtain that condition by entering into men's society and removing the checks he placed
uppon his words and thoughts and actions! To-day when
he comes here, let us carefully avoid all conversation with
him." On Buddha's arrival the five men rose and saluted
him, and here they have erected a tower; also on the fol-
lowing spots, viz., on a site sixty paces to the north of the
former place, where Buddha, seated with his face to the
east, began to turn the wheel of the law (to preach) for
the purpose of converting Kauḍûnîya and his companions
\(\text{known as}\) "the five men;" also on a spot twenty paces
to the north of this, where Buddha delivered his predic-
tion concerning Maitrêya; also on a spot fifty paces to
the south of this, where the dragon Ėlāpatra asked Buddha
at what time he should be delivered from his dragon-form;
in all these places towers have been erected which still exist.
In the midst (\textit{of the park}) there are two saṅghārāmas which
still have priests dwelling in them. Proceeding north-
west thirteen \(yōjana\)s from the park of the deer, there is
a country called Kauśâmbî. There is a vihāra there called
Ghôshira-vana (\textit{the garden of Ghôshira}), in which Buddha
formerly dwelt; it is now in ruins. There are congrega-
tions here, principally belonging to the system known as
the Little Vehicle. Eight \(yōjana\)s east of this place is a
place where Buddha once took up his residence and con-
verted an evil demon. They have also erected towers on
various spots where he sat or walked for exercise when
he was resident in this neighbourhood. There are saṅ-
ghārāmas still existing here, and perhaps a hundred
priests.

XXXV. Going \(200\) \(yōjana\)s south from this, there is a
country called Ta-Thsîn (Dakshîna). Here is a saṅghā-
râma of the former Buddha Kâśyapa.\(^{83}\) It is constructed out
of a great mountain of rock, hallowed to the proper shape.

\(^{83}\) This convent is described by
Hien Tsiang in Book x. It was
probably dedicated to Pârvati (the
Po-lo-yu of Fa-hian, which he trans-
lates "pigeon"—\(pārāvata\)) or Chan-
dâ, and is situated in the Chanda
district of the Dekhan. The King
Sadvaha, a friend of Nâgârjuna, was
probably the same as the Sindhuka
of the \(Vayu-Pûrâna\). He is called
Shi-in-teh-kia by I-tsîng.
This building has altogether five stages. The lowest is made with elephant figures, and has five hundred stone cells in it. The second is made with lion shapes, and has four hundred chambers. The third is made with horse shapes, and has three hundred chambers. The fourth is made with ox shapes, and has two hundred chambers. The fifth is made with dove shapes, and has one hundred chambers in it. At the very top of all is a spring of water, which, flowing in a stream before the rooms, encircles each tier, and so, running in a circuitous course, at last arrives at the very lowest stage of all, where, flowing past the chambers, it finally issues through the door. Throughout the consecutive tiers, in various parts of the building, windows have been pierced through the solid rock for the admission of light, so that every chamber is quite illuminated and there is no darkness. At the four corners of this edifice they have hewn out the rock into steps, as means for ascending. Men of the present time, being small of stature, ascend the ladder and thus reach the top in the usual way; but men of old reached it with one foot. The reason why they name this building Po-lo-yu is from an Indian word signifying "pigeon." There are always Arhats abiding here. This land is barren and without inhabitants. At a considerable distance from the hill there are villages, but all of them are inhabited by heretics. They know nothing of the law of Buddha, or Śramaṇas, or Brāhmaṇas, or of any of the different schools of learning. The men of that country continually see persons come flying to the temple. On a certain occasion there were some Buddhist pilgrims from different countries who came here to pay religious worship. Then the men of the villages above alluded to asked them, saying, "Why do you not fly? All the religious persons hereabouts that we see (are able to) fly." These men then answered by way of excuse, "Because our wings are not yet perfectly formed." The country of Ta-Thsin (Dekhan) is precipitous and the roads

84 Referring perhaps to the one-footed men of Ktesias. It may possibly be, "at one bound."
dangerous. Those who wish to go there, even if they know the place, ought to give a present to the king of the country, either money or goods. The king then deputes certain men to accompany them as guides, and so they pass the travellers from one place to another, each party pointing out their own roads and intricate bypaths. Fa-Hian finding himself in the end unable to proceed to that country, reports in the above passages merely what he has heard.

XXXVI. From Bānāras going eastward we arrive at the town of Pāṭaliputra again. The purpose of Fa-Hian was to seek for copies of the Vinaya Pitaka; but throughout the whole of Northern India the various masters trusted to tradition only for their knowledge of the precepts, and had no originals to copy from. Wherefore Fa-Hian had come even so far as Mid-India. But here in the saṅghārāma of the Great Vehicle he obtained one collection of the precepts, viz., the collection used by the Mahāsaṅghika assembly. This was that used by the first great assembly of priests during Buddha's lifetime. It is reported that this was the one used in the Jētavana vihāra. Except that the eighteen sects have each their own private rules of conduct, they are agreed in essentials. In some minor details they differ, as well as in a more or less exact attention to matters of practice. But the collection (of this sect) is regarded as the most correct and complete. Moreover, he obtained one copy of precepts from dictation, comprising about 7000 gāthās. This version was that used by the assembly belonging to the school of the Sarvāstivādas; the same, in fact, as is generally used in China. The masters of this school also hand down the precepts by word of mouth, and do not commit them to writing. Moreover, in this assembly he obtained a copy of the Samyuktābhidharma-hṛdaya Śāstra, including altogether about 6000 gāthās. Moreover, he obtained a copy of the Nirvāṇa Śāstra, consisting altogether of 2500 verses.

85 Vide I-ťsing, Nan-hai, § 25.
Moreover, he obtained in one volume the *Vāipulya-para-nirvāṇa Sūtra*, containing about 5000 verses. Moreover, he procured a copy of the *Abhidharma* according to the school of the Mahāsaṅghikas. On this account Fa-Hian abode in this place for the space of three years engaged in learning to read the Śaṅskṛt books, and to converse in that language, and in copying the precepts. When To- ching arrived in Mid-India and saw the customary behaviour of the Śramaṇas, and the strict decorum observed by the assembly of priests, and their religious deportment, even to the smallest matters, then, sorrowfully reflecting on the meagre character of the precepts known to the different assemblies of priests in the border-land of China, he bound himself by a vow and said, "From the present time for ever till I obtain the condition of Buddha, may I never again be born in a frontier country." And in accordance with this expression of his wish, he took up his permanent abode in this place, and did not return. And so Fa-Hian, desiring, according to his original purpose, to spread the knowledge of the precepts throughout the land of Han (China), returned alone.

XXXVII. Following down the river Ganges in an easterly direction for eighteen yōjanas, we come to the great kingdom of Chen-po (Champā) on its southern shore. In the place where Buddha once dwelt, and where he moved to and fro for exercise, also where the four previous Buddhas sat down, in all these places towers have been erected, and there are still resident priests. From this continuing to go eastward nearly fifty yōjanas, we arrive at the kingdom of Tāmralipti. This is at the sea-mouth. There are twenty-four saṅghārāmas in this country; all of them have resident priests, and the law of Buddha is generally respected. Fa-Hian remained here for two years, writing out copies of the sacred books (*sūtras*) and drawing image-pictures. He then shipped himself on board a great merchant vessel. Putting to sea, they pro-
ceeded in a south-westerly direction, catching the first fair wind of the winter season. They sailed for fourteen days and nights, and arrived at the country of the lions (Simhala, Ceylon). Men of that country (Tāmralipty) say that the distance between the two is about 700 yōjanas. This kingdom (of lions) is situated on a great island. From east to west it is fifty yōjanas, and from north to south thirty yōjanas. On every side of it are small islands, perhaps amounting to a hundred in number. They are distant from one another ten or twenty li and as much as 200 li. All of them depend on the great island. Most of them produce precious stones and pearls. The māni-gem is also found in one district, embracing a surface perhaps of ten li. The king sends a guard to protect the place. If any gems are found, the king claims three out of every ten.

XXXVIII. This kingdom had originally no inhabitants, but only demons and dragons dwelt in it. Merchants of different countries (however) came here to trade. At the time of traffic, the demons did not appear in person, but only exposed their valuable commodities with the value affixed. Then the merchantmen, according to the prices marked, purchased the goods and took them away. But in consequence of these visits (coming, going, and stopping), men of other countries, hearing of the delightful character of the place, flocked there in great numbers, and so a great kingdom was formed. This country enjoys an agreeable climate, without any differences in winter or summer. The plants and trees are always verdant. The fields are sown just according to men's inclination; there are no fixed seasons. Buddha came to this country from a desire to convert a malevolent dragon. By his spiritual power he planted one foot to the north of the royal city, and one on the top of a mountain, the distance between the two being fifteen yōjanas. Over the foot-impression (on the hill) to the north of the royal city, is erected a great tower, in height 470 feet. It is adorned with gold and silver, and perfected
with every precious substance. By the side of this tower, moreover, is erected a saṅghārāma, which is called Abhāyagiri, containing 5000 priests. They have also built here a hall of Buddha, which is covered with gold and silver engraved work, conjoined with all precious substances. In the midst of this hall is a jasper figure (of Buddha), in height about 22 feet. The entire body glitters and sparkles with the seven precious substances, whilst the various characteristic marks are so gloriously portrayed that no words can describe the effect. In the right hand it holds a pearl of inestimable value. Fa-Hian had now been absent many years from the land of Han; the manners and customs of the people with whom he had intercourse were entirely strange to him. The towns, people, mountains, valleys, and plants and trees which met his eyes, were unlike those of old times. Moreover, his fellow-travellers were now separated from him—some had remained behind, and some were dead. To consider the shadow (of the past) was all that was left him; and so his heart was continually saddened. All at once, as he was standing by the side of this jasper figure, he beheld a merchant present to it as a religious offering a white taffeta fan of Chinese manufacture. Unwittingly (Fa-Hian) gave way to his sorrowful feelings, and the tears flowing down filled his eyes. A former king of this country sent an embassy to Mid-India to procure a slip of the Pei-to tree. This they planted by the side of the Hall of Buddha. When it was about 220 feet high, the tree began to lean towards the south-east. The king, fearing it would fall, placed eight or nine surrounding props to support the tree. Just in the place where the tree was thus supported it put forth a branch which pierced through the props, and, descending to the earth, took root. This branch is about twenty inches round. The props, although pierced through the centre, still surround (the tree), which stands now without their support, yet men have not removed them.

Under the tree is erected a chapel, in the middle of which
is a figure (of Buddha) in a sitting posture. Both the clergy and laity pay reverence to this figure with little intermission. Within the capital, moreover, is erected the chapel of the tooth of Buddha, in the construction of which all the seven precious substances have been employed. The king purifies himself according to the strictest Brāhmanical rules, whilst those men within the city who reverence (this relic) from a principle of belief also compose their passions according to strict rule. This kingdom, from the time it has been so governed, has suffered neither from famine, calamity, nor revolution. The treasury of this congregation of priests contains numerous gems and a māni-jewel of inestimable value. Their king once entered the treasury, and, going round it for the purpose of inspection, he saw there this māni-gem. On beholding it, a covetous feeling sprung up in his heart, and he desired to take it away with him. For three days this thought afflicted him, but then he came to his right mind. He directly repaired to the assembly of the priests, and bowing down his head, he repented of his former wicked purpose, and addressing them, said, "Would that you would make a rule from this time forth and for ever, on no account to allow a king to enter your treasury, and no Bhikshu except he is of forty years' seniority—after that time he may be permitted to enter." There are many noblemen and rich householders within the city. The houses of the Sa-poh (Sabean) merchants are very beautifully adorned. The streets and passages are smooth and level. At the head of the four principal streets there are preaching halls. On the 8th, 14th, and 15th day of the month they prepare a lofty throne within each of these buildings, and the religious members of the community of the four classes all congregate to hear the preaching of the law. The men of this country say that there are in the country altogether fifty or sixty thousand priests, all of whom live in community (have their food [commons] provided). Besides these, the king supplies five or six
thousand persons within the city with food in common (or, with common food (commons)). These persons, when they require, take their alms-bowls and go (to the appointed place), and, according to the measure of the bowls, fill them and return. They always bring out the tooth of Buddha in the middle of the third month. Ten days beforehand, the king magnificently caparisons a great elephant, and commissions a man of eloquence and ability to clothe himself in royal apparel, and, riding on the elephant, to sound a drum and proclaim as follows:—

"Bódhisattva during three Asaṅkhyeya kalpas underwent every kind of austerity; he spared himself no personal sufferings; he left his country, wife, and child; moreover, he tore out his eyes to bestow them on another, he mangled his flesh to deliver a dove (from the hawk), he sacrificed his head in alms, he gave his body to a famishing tiger, he grudged not his marrow or brain. Thus he endured every sort of agony for the sake of all flesh. Moreover, when he became perfect Buddha, he lived in the world forty-nine years preaching the law and teaching and converting men. He gave rest to the wretched, he saved the lost. Having passed through countless births, he then entered Nirvāṇa. Since that event is 1497 years. The eyes of the world were then put out, and all flesh deeply grieved. After ten days the tooth of (this same) Buddha will be brought forth and taken to the Abhayagiri vihāra. Let all ecclesiastical and lay persons within the kingdom, who wish to lay up a store of merit, prepare and smooth the roads, adorn the streets and highways; let them scatter every kind of flower, and offer incense in religious reverence to the relic." This proclamation being finished, the king next causes to be placed on both sides of the procession-road representations of the five hundred bodily forms which Bódhisattva assumed during his successive births. For instance, his birth as Sudāna;87 his appearance

87 The Sudāna Jātaka, the same and the Sāma Jātaka are among the as the Vesuvarə Jātaka; both this Sānechi sculptures.
as Sâma; his birth as the king of the elephants, and as an antelope. These figures are all beautifully painted in divers colours, and have a very life-like appearance. At length the tooth of Buddha is brought forth and conducted along the principal road. As they proceed on the way, religious offerings are made to it. When they arrive at the Abhaya vihâra they place it in the Hall of Buddha, where the clergy and laity all assemble in vast crowds and burn incense, and light lamps, and perform every kind of religious ceremony, both night and day, without ceasing. After ninety complete days they again return it to the vihâra within the city. This chapel is thrown open on fast days for the purpose of religious worship, as the law (of Buddha) directs. Forty li to the east of the Abhaya vihâra is a mountain, on which is built a chapel called Po-ti (Bâdhâ); there are about 2000 priests in it. Amongst them is a very distinguished Shaman called Ta-mo-kiu-ti (Dharmakôti or Dharmagupta). The people of this country greatly respect and reverence him. He resides in a cell, where he has lived for about forty years. By the constant practice of benevolence he has been able to tame the serpents and mice, so that they stop together in one cell, and do not hurt one another.

XXXIX. Seven li to the south of the capital is a chapel called Mahâvihâra, in which there are 3000 priests. Amongst them was a very eminent Śramaṇa, whose life was so pure that the men of the country generally gave him credit for being an Arhat. At the time of his approaching death, the king, having come to inspect and inquire, according to the custom of the law, assembled the priests and asked the Bhikshu, "Hast thou attained reason?" On which he made reply in truth, "I am an Arhat." After his death, the king immediately examined the sacred books, with a view to perform the funeral obsequies according to the rules for such as are Arhats. Accordingly, about four or five li to the east of the vihâra they raised a very great pyre of wood, about 34 feet square
and of the same height. Near the top they placed tiers of sandal-wood, aloe, and all kinds of scented wood. On the four sides they constructed steps. Then, taking some clean and very white camlet cloth, they bound it around and above the pyre. They then constructed above a funeral carriage, like the hearse used in this country, except that there are no dragon-ear handles (cf. ting urh). Then, at the time of the cremation (dāva), the king, accompanied by the four classes of the people, assembled in great numbers, came to the spot provided with flowers and incense for religious offerings, and followed the hearse till it arrived at the place of the funeral ceremony. The king, then, in his own person, offered religious worship with flowers and incense. This being over, the hearse was placed on the pyre, and oil of cinnamon poured over it in all directions. Then they set light to the whole. At the time of kindling the fire, the whole assembly occupied their minds with solemn thoughts. Then removing their upper garments, and taking their wing-like fans, which they use as sun-shades, and approaching as near as possible to the pyre, they flung them into the midst of the fire in order to assist the cremation. When all was over, they diligently searched for the bones and collected them together, in order to raise a tower over them. Fa-Hian did not arrive in time to see this celebrated person alive, but only to witness his funeral obsequies. At this time, the king, being an earnest believer in the law of Buddha, desired to build a new vihāra for this congregation of priests. First of all he provided for them a great feast, after which he selected a pair of strong working oxen and ornamented their horns with gold, silver, and precious things. Then providing himself with a beautiful gilded plough, the king himself ploughed round the four sides of the allotted space; after which, ceding all personal right over the land, houses, or people within the area thus enclosed, he presented (the whole to the

88 A king, or 15\(\frac{1}{2}\) acres.
priests). Then he caused to be engraved on a metal plate (the following inscription) :- "From this time and for all generations hereafter, let this property be handed down from one (body of priests) to the other, and let no one dare to alienate it, or change (the character of) the grant." When Fa-Hian was residing in this country, he heard a religious brother from India, seated on a high throne, reciting a sacred book and saying, "The Pâtra (alms-bowl) of Buddha originally was preserved in Vaiśāli, but now it is in the borders of Gandhâra. After an uncertain period of years [Fa-Hian, at the time of the recital, heard the exact number of years, but he has now forgotten it], it will go on to the country of the western Yu-chi. After another period it will go to the country of Khotan. After a similar period it will be transported to Kouché. In about the same period it will come back to the land of Han; after the same period it will return to the land of lions (Sinhalâ, Ceylon); after the same period it will return to Mid-India; after which it will be taken up into the Tushta heaven. Then Maitrêya Bôdhisattva will exclaim with a sigh, 'The alms-dish of Śâkyamuni Buddha has come.' Then all the Dêvas will pay religious worship to it with flowers and incense for seven days. After this it will return to Jambudvîpa, and a sea-drâgon, taking it, will carry it within his palace, awaiting till Maitrêya is about to arrive at complete wisdom, at which time the bowl, again dividing itself into four as it was at first, will re-ascend the Pin-na mountain. After Maitrêya has arrived at supreme wisdom, the four heavenly Kings will once more come and respectfully salute him as Buddha, after the same manner as they have done to the former Buddhas. The thousand Buddhas of this Bhadra-kalpa will all of them use this same alms-dish; when the bowl has disappeared, then the law of Buddha will gradually perish; after which the years of man's life will begin to contract until it be no more than five years in duration.

89 In some places this is written An-na, as though for (Sum)ana.
At the time of its being ten years in length, rice and butter will disappear from the world, and men will become extremely wicked. The sticks they grasp will then transform themselves into knives and clubs, with which they will attack one another, and wound and kill each other. In the midst of this, men who have acquired religious merit will escape and seek refuge in the mountains; and when the wicked have finished the work of mutual destruction, they will come from their hiding-places, and will converse together and say, 'Men of old lived to a very advanced age, but now, because wicked men have indulged without restraint in every transgression of the law, our years have dwindled down to their present short span, even to the space of ten years. Now, therefore, let us practise every kind of good deed, encouraging within ourselves a kind and loving spirit; let us enter on a course of virtue and righteousness.' Thus, as each one practises faith and justice, their years will begin to increase in double ratio till they reach 80,000 years of life. At the time when Maitréya is born, when he first begins to declare his doctrine (turn the wheel of the law); his earliest converts will be the followers of the bequeathed law of Sākya Buddha, those who have forsaken their families, those who have sought refuge in the three sacred names, those who have kept the five great commandments, and attended to their religious duties in making continued offerings to the three precious objects of worship. His second and third body of converts shall be those who, by their previous conduct, have put themselves in a condition for salvation." Fa-Hian, on hearing this discourse, wished to copy it down, on which the man said, "This has no Scripture-original; I only repeat by word of mouth (what I have learned)."

XL. Fa-Hian resided in this country for two years. Continuing his search, he obtained a copy of the Vinaya Pitaka according to the school of the Mahāśāsakas. He also obtained a copy of the Great Āgama (Dirghāgama), and of the Miscellaneous Āgama (Samyuktāgama), and also a collec-
tion of the Miscellaneous Pitaka (Sannipata). All these were hitherto unknown in the land of Han. Having obtained these works in the original language (Fan), he forthwith shipped himself on board a great merchant vessel, which carried about two hundred men. Astern of the great ship was a smaller one, in case the larger vessel should be injured or wrecked. Having got a fair wind, they sailed eastward for two days, when suddenly a tempest (typhoon) arose, and the ship sprung a leak. The merchants then desired to haul up the smaller vessel, but the crew of that ship, fearing that a crowd of men would rush into her and sink her, cut the towing cable and she fell off. The merchantmen were greatly terrified, expecting their death momentarily. Then dreading lest the leak should gain upon them, they forthwith took their heavy goods and merchandise and cast them overboard. Fa-Hian also flung overboard his water-pitcher (kundika) and his washing-basin, and also other portions of his property. He was only afraid lest the merchants should fling into the sea his sacred books and images. And so with earnestness of heart he invoked Avalokitesvara, and paid reverence to the Buddhist saints (the priesthood) of the land of Han, speaking thus: "I indeed have wandered far and wide in search of the law. Oh, bring me back again, by your spiritual power, to reach some resting-place." And so the hurricane blew on for thirteen days and nights; they then arrived at the shore of a small island, and on the tide going out they found the place of the leak. Having forthwith stopped it up, they again put to sea on their onward voyage. In this ocean there are many pirates, who, coming on you suddenly, destroy everything. The sea itself is boundless in extent; it is impossible to know east or west except by observing the sun, moon, or stars, and so progress. If it is dark, rainy weather, the only plan is to steer by the wind without guide. During the darkness of night we only see the great waves beating one against the other and shining like fire, whilst shoals of
sea-monsters of every description (*surround the ship*). The merchants, perplexed, knew not towards what land they were steering. The sea was bottomless and no soundings could be found, so that there was no chance of anchoring. At length, the weather clearing up, they got their right bearings, and once more shaped a correct course and proceeded onwards; but if (*during the bad weather*) they had happened to have struck on a hidden rock, there could have been no escape. Thus they voyaged for ninety days and more, when they arrived at a country called Ye-po-ti (Java, or, perhaps, Sumatra). In this country heretics and Brāhmaṇs flourish, but the law of Buddha is not much known. Stopping here the best portion of five months, Fa-Hian again embarked on board another merchant vessel, having also a crew of two hundred men or so. They took with them fifty days' provisions, and set sail on the 16th day of the fourth month. Fa-Hian kept his "rest" on board this ship. They shaped a course north-east for Kwang-chow. After a month and some days, when sounding the middle watch of the night, a black squall suddenly came on, accompanied with pelting rain. The merchantmen and passengers were all terrified. Fa-Hian at this time also, with great earnestness of mind, again entreated Avalokiteśvara and all the priesthood of China to exert their divine power in their favour, and protect them till daylight.90 When the day broke, all the Brāhmaṇs, consulting together, said, "It is because we have got this Śramaṇa on board we have no luck, and have incurred this great mischief. Come, let us land this Bhikshu on any island we meet, and let us not all perish for the sake of one man." The religious patron (*Dānapati*) of Fa-Hian then said, "If you land this Bhikshu, you shall also land me with him; and if not, you had better kill me: for if you put this Śramaṇa on shore, then, when I arrive in China, I will go straight to the king and report you; and the king of that country

90 Cf. ἡδοτο ημερα γενέσαι, Acts xxiii. 29.
is a firm believer in the law of Buddha, and greatly honours the Bhikshus and priests.” The merchantmen on this hesitated, and (in the end) did not dare to land him. The weather continuing very dark, the pilot’s observations were perversely wrong. Nearly seventy days had now elapsed. The rice for food and the water for congee were nearly all done. They had to use salt water for cooking, whilst they gave out to every man about two pints of fresh water. And now, when this was just exhausted, the merchants held a conversation and said, “The proper time for the voyage to Kwang-Chow is about fifty days, but now we have exceeded that time these many days—shall we be perverse?” On this they put the ship on a north-west course to look for land. After twelve days’ continuous sailing, they arrived at the southern coast of Lau-Shan which borders on the prefecture of Chang-Kwang. They then obtained good fresh water and vegetables; and so, after passing through so many dangers and difficulties and such a succession of anxious days, (the pilgrim) suddenly arrived at this shore. On seeing the Li-ho vegetable (a sort of reed), he was confident that this was indeed the land of Han. But not seeing any men or traces of life, they knew not what place it was. Some said they had not yet arrived at Kwang-chow, others maintained they had passed it. In their uncertainty, therefore, they put off in a little boat, and entered a creek to look for some one to ask where they were. Meeting with two hunters, they got them to go back with them, making Fa-Hian interpret their words and question them. Fa-Hian having first tried to inspire them with confidence, then leisurely asked them, “What men are you?” They replied, “We are disciples of Buddha.” Then he asked, “What do you look for in these mountains here?” They prevaricated, and said, “To-morrow is the 15th day of the seventh month, and we were anxious to catch some-

81 That is, he was perverse in following his wrong observations, or calculations.
thing to sacrifice to Buddha." Again he asked, "What country is this?" They replied, "This is Tsing-Chow, on the borders of the prefecture of Chang-Kwang, dependent on the house of Liu." Having heard this, the merchants were very glad, and immediately begging that their goods might be landed, they deputed men to go with them to Chang-Kwang. The prefect, Li-I, who was a faithful follower of the law of Buddha, hearing that there was a Śramaṇa arrived with sacred books and images in a ship from beyond the seas, immediately proceeded to the shore with his followers to escort the books and sacred figures to the seat of his government. After this the merchants returned towards Yang-Chow. Meanwhile Liu arriving at Tsing-Chow, Fa-Hian for the whole winter and summer. The summer period of rest being over, Fa-Hian, removed from the society of his fellow-priests for so long, was anxious to get back to Chang'an. But as his plans were important, he directed his course first towards the southern capital. Having met the priests, he exhibited the sacred books he had brought back.

Fa-Hian, leaving Chang'an, was six years in arriving at Mid-India. He resided there during six years, and was three years more before he arrived at Tsing-Chow. He had successively passed through nearly thirty different countries. In all the countries of India, after passing the sandy desert, the dignified carriage of the priesthood and the surprising influence of religion cannot be adequately described. But because our learned doctors had not heard of these things, he was induced, regardless of personal risk, to cross the seas, and to encounter every kind of danger in returning home. Having been preserved by divine power (by the three honourable ones), and brought through all dangers safely, he was further induced to commit to writing these records of his travels, desiring that honourable readers might be informed of them as well as himself.

92 Fa for chi (?).
THE MISSION
OF
SUNG-YUN¹ AND HWEI SÄNG
TO OBTAIN
BUDDHIST BOOKS IN THE WEST.² (518 A.D.)

[Translated from the 5th Section of the History of the Temples of Lo-Yang (Honan Fu).]

In the suburb Wen-I, to the north-east of the city of Lo-Yang, was the dwelling of Sung-Yun of Tun-hwang,³ who, in company with the Bhikshu Hwei Säng, was sent on an embassy to the western countries by the Empress Dowager (Tai-Hau) of the Great Wei dynasty⁴ to obtain Buddhist books. This occurred in the eleventh month of the first year of the period Shên kwei (517–518 A.D.) They procured altogether 170 volumes, all standard works, belonging to the Great Vehicle.

First of all, having repaired to the capital, they proceeded in a westerly direction forty days, and arrived at the Chih-Ling (Barren Ridge), which is the western frontier of the country. On this ridge is the fortified outpost of the Wei territory. The Chih-Ling produces no trees or shrubs, and hence its name (Barren). Here is the common resort (cave) of the rat-bird. These two animals being of different species (chung), but the same genus (lui), live and breed together. The bird is the male, the rat the

¹ Called by Rémuat Sung-Yun tse (Fa-hian, cap. viii, n. 1); but the word "tse" is no component part of the name. The passage in the original is this: "In the Wan-I suburb (li) is the house (tse) of Sun Yun of Tun-hwang."
² Western countries (si yu).
³ Tun-hwang, situated on a branch of the Bulunghir river, vide ante, p. xxiv. n.
⁴ At the fall of the Tsin dynasty (420 A.D.), the northern provinces of China became the possession of a powerful Tartar tribe known as the Wei. A native dynasty (the South-
female. From their cohabiting in this manner, the name rat-bird cave is derived.

Ascending the Chih-Ling and proceeding westward twenty-three days, having crossed the Drifting Sands, they arrived at the country of the Tuh-kiueh-hun. Along the road the cold was very severe, whilst the high winds, and the driving snow, and the pelting sand and gravel were so bad, that it was impossible to raise one's eyes without getting them filled. The chief city of the Tuh-kiueh-hun and the neighbourhood is agreeably warm. The written character of this country is nearly the same as that of the Wei. The customs and regulations observed by these people are mostly barbarous in character (after the rules of the outside barbarians or foreigners). From this country going west 3500 li, we arrive at the city of Shen-Shen. This city, from the time it set up a king, was seized by the Tuh-kiueh-hun, and at present there resides in it a military officer (the second general) for subjugating (pacifying) the west. The entire cantonment amounts to 3000 men, who are employed in withstandng the western Hu.

From Shen-Shen going west 1640 li, we arrive at the city of Tso-moh. In this town there are, perhaps, a hundred families resident. The country is not visited with rain, but they irrigate their crops from the streams of water. They know not the use of oxen or ploughs in their husbandry.

In the town is a representation of Buddha with a Bodhisattva, but certainly not in face like a Tartar. On questioning an old man about it, he said, “This was done by Lu-Kwong, who subdued the Tartars.” From


Shen-shen or Leu-lan (Beal’s Bud. Pilgr., p. 4, n.), probably the Charchan of Marco Polo; Mayers (Manual, 536) places it near Pidjan; but for remarks on its situation vide Yule’s Marco Polo, vol. i. p. 179, n. 1; vol. ii. p. 475; vide also Prejevalsky’s Kulja, Remarks by Baron Richtopfen, p. 144, &c.

P’u lo [bulak].

Probably the Ni-mo of Huen Tsang.
this city going westward 1275 li, we arrive at the city of Moh. The flowers and fruits here are just like those of Lo-Yang, but the native buildings and the foreign officials are different in appearance.

From the city Moh going west 22 li, we arrive at the city of Han-Mo. Fifteen li to the south of this city is a large temple, with about 300 priests in it. These priests possess a golden full-length figure of Buddha, in height a chang and $\frac{1}{6}$ths (about 18 feet). Its appearance is very imposing, and all the characteristic marks of the body are bright and distinct. Its face was placed repeatedly looking eastward; but the figure, not approving of that, turned about and looked to the west. The old men have the following tradition respecting this figure:—They say that originally it came from the south, transporting itself through the air. The king of Khotan himself seeing it, paid it worship, and attempted to convey it to his city, but in the middle of the route, when they halted at night the figure suddenly disappeared. On dispatching men to look after it, they found it had returned to its old place. Immediately, therefore, (the king) raised a tower, and appointed 400 attendants to sweep and water (the tower). If any of these servitors receive a hurt of any kind, they place some gold leaf on this figure according to the injured part, and so are directly cured. Men in after ages built towers around this image of 18 feet, and the other image-towers, all of which are ornamented with many thousand flags and streamers of variegated silk. There are perhaps as many as 10,000 of these, and more than half of them belonging to the Wei country. Over the flags are inscriptions in the square character, recording the several dates when they were presented; the greater number are of the nineteenth year of T'ai Ho, the second year of King

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9 This is probably the Pi-mo of Huen Tsiang (Pein, iii. 243), the Pein of Marco Polo. The figure described in the text is also alluded to by Huen Tsiang, and is identified with the sandal-wood image of Udyāna, king of Kausâmbi.

10 That is, were presented by sovereigns of the Wei dynasty, or during their reign.
TRAVELS OF SUNG-YUN.

Ming, and the second year of Yen Chang. There was only one flag with the name of the reigning monarch on it, and this was a flag of the period Yaou Tsin (A.D. 406).

From the town of Han-Mo going west 878 li, we arrive at the country of Khotan. The king of this country wears a golden cap on his head, in shape like the comb of a cock; the appendages of the head-dress hang down behind him two feet, and they are made of taffeta (kūn), about five inches wide. On state occasions, for the purpose of imposing effect, there is music performed, consisting of drums, horns, and golden cymbals. The king is also attended by one chief Bowman, two spearmen, five halberdiers, and, on his right and left, swordsmen, not exceeding a hundred men. The poorer sort of women here wear trousers, and ride on horseback just as well as their husbands. They burn their dead, and, collecting the ashes, erect towers (faau t’u) over them. In token of mourning they cut their hair and disfigure their faces, as though with grief. Their hair is cut to a length of four inches, and kept so all round. When the king dies, they do not burn his body, but enclose it in a coffin and carry it far off and bury it in the desert. They found a temple to his memory, and, at proper times, pay religious service to his manes.

The king of Khotan was no believer in the law of Buddha. A certain foreign merchantman on a time brought a Bhikshu called Pi-lu-shan (Vairôchana) to this neighbourhood, and located him under a plum-tree to the south of this city. On this an informer approached the king and said, "A strange Śramaṇa has come (to your majesty’s dominions) without permission, and is now

11 The period T’ai-Ho began 477 A.D. and ended 500 A.D., so that there could be no nineteenth year of this period; either the text is faulty or it may possibly refer to the nineteenth year of the reign of Hiao Wén Ti, which would be 490 A.D. The other dates named correspond to 502 A.D. and 514 A.D.

12 One hundred and sixty-five years after the establishment of the kingdom of Li-yul (Khotan), the King Vijayasambhava, son of Yeula, ascended the throne, and in the fifth year of his reign the dharma was first introduced into Li-yul (Rockhill).
residing to the south of the city under the plum-tree." The king, hearing this, was angry, and forthwith went to see Vairôchana. The Bhikshu then addressed the king as follows: "Ju-lai (Tathâgata) has commissioned me to come here to request your majesty to build for him a perfectly finished pagoda (lit. a pagoda with a surmounting spire or dish), and thus secure to yourself perpetual felicity." The king said, "Let me see Buddha, and then I will obey him." Vairôchana then sounded a gong; on which Buddha commissioned Râhula to assume his appearance, and manifest himself in his true likeness in the air. The king prostrated himself on the ground in adoration, and at once made arrangements for founding a temple and vihâra under the tree. Then he caused to be carved a figure of Râhula; and, lest suddenly it should perish, the king afterwards constructed a chapel for its special preservation. At present it is carefully protected by a sort of shade (jar) that covers it; but, notwithstanding this, the shadow of the figure constantly removes itself outside the building, so that those who behold it cannot help paying it religious service (by circumambulating it). In this place (or chapel) are the shoes of a Pratyêka Buddha, which have up to the present time resisted decay. They are made neither of leather or silk,—in fact, it is impossible to determine what the material is. The extreme limits of the kingdom of Khotan reach about 3000 li or so from east to west.

In the second year of Shan Kwai (519 A.D.) and the 7th month, 29th day, we entered the kingdom of Chî-kû-po (Chakuka—Yerkiang). The people of that country are mountain-dwellers. The five kinds of cereals grow in abundance. In eating these, they make them into cakes. They do not permit the slaughter of animals, and such of them as eat flesh only use that which dies of itself. The customs and spoken language are like those of the people of

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13 The expression in the original implies the use of some magical influence to constrain Buddha to send Râhula.
Khotan, but the written character in use is that of the Brahmins. The limits of this country can be traversed in about five days.

During the first decade of the 8th month we entered the limits of the country of Han-Pan-to (Kabhanda), and going west six days, we ascended the Tsung-ling mountains; advancing yet three days to the west, we arrived at the city of Kineh-Yu; and after three days more, to the Puh-ho-i mountains. This spot is extremely cold. The snow accumulates both by winter and summer. In the midst of the mountain is a lake in which dwells a mischievous dragon. Formerly there was a merchant who halted at night by the side of the lake. The dragon just then happened to be very cross, and forthwith pronounced a spell and killed the merchant. The king of Pan-to, hearing of it, gave up the succession to his son, and went to the kingdom of U-chang to acquire knowledge of the spells used by the Brahmins. After four years, having procured these secrets, he came back to his throne, and, ensonced by the lake, he enchanted the dragon, and, lo! the dragon was changed into a man, who, deeply sensible of his wickedness, approached the king. The king immediately banished him from the Tsung-ling mountains more than 1000 li from the lake. The king of the present time is of the thirteenth generation (from these events). From this spot westward the road is one continuous ascent of the most precipitous character; for a thousand li there are overhanging crags, 10,000 fathoms high, towering up to the very heavens. Compared with this road, the ruggedness of the great pass known as the Mang-men is as nothing, and the eminences of the celebrated Hian mountains (in Honan) are like level country. After entering the Tsung-ling mountains, step by step, we crept upwards for four days,

14 Kabhanda is identified by Yule with Sarikkul and Tash Kurghan. Vide infra, vol. ii. p. 293, n. 49.
15 Or, Kong-yu.
16 This phrase Puh-ho-i may also be translated the "Untrustworthy Mountains."
17 That is, Kavandha or, Kabhanda or, Sarikkul.
18 Udyana in Northern India.
and then reached the highest part of the range. From this point as a centre, looking downwards, it seems just as though one was poised in mid-air. The kingdom of Han-pan-to stretches as far as the crest of these mountains. Men say that this is the middle point of heaven and earth. The people of this region use the water of the rivers for irrigating their lands; and when they were told that in the middle country (China) the fields were watered by the rain, they laughed and said, "How could heaven provide enough for all?" To the eastward of the capital of this country there is a rapid river (or a river, Mang-tsin) flowing to the northeast towards Sha-leh (Kashgär). The high lands of the Tsung-ling mountains do not produce trees or shrubs. At this time, viz., the 8th month, the air is icy cold, and the north wind carries along with it the drifting snow for a thousand li. At last, in the middle decade of the 9th month, we entered the kingdom of Poh-ho (Bolor?). The mountains here are as lofty and the gorges deep as ever. The king of the country has built a town, where he resides, for the sake of being in the mountains. The people of the country dress handsomely, only they use some leathern garments. The land is extremely cold—so much so, that the people occupy the caves of the mountains as dwelling-places, and the driving wind and snow often compel both men and beasts to herd together. To the south of this country are the great Snowy Mountains, which, in the morning and evening vapours, rise up like gem-spires.

In the first decade of the 10th month we arrived at the country of the Ye-tha (Ephthalites). The lands of this country are abundantly watered by the mountain streams, which fertilise them, and flow in front of all the dwellings. They have no walled towns, but they keep order by means

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39 To the west of the Tsung-ling mountains all the rivers flow to the westward, and enter the sea (Ch. Ed.)
30 That is, perhaps, the Karh-Sou of Klaproth, which flows into the Tiz-ah, an affluent of the Yerkiang river; or it may be the Si-to river, on which Yarkand stands, and which empties itself into Lake Lob, in the Sandy Desert.
31 Sha-leh, perhaps for Su-leh, i.e., Kashgär.
of a standing army that constantly moves here and there. These people also use felt garments. The course of the rivers is marked by the verdant shrubs. In the summer the people seek the cool of the mountains; in the winter they disperse themselves through the villages. They have no written character. Their rules of politeness are very defective. They have no knowledge at all of the movements of the heavenly bodies; and, in measuring the year, they have no intercalary month, or any long and short months; but they merely divide the year into twelve parts, and that is all. They receive tribute from all surrounding nations: on the south as far as tieh-lo; 22 on the north, the entire country of lae-1eh; 23 eastward to Khotan, and west to Persia—more than forty countries in all. When they come to the court with their presents for the king, there is spread out a large carpet about forty paces square, which they surround with a sort of rug hung up as a screen. The king puts on his robes of state and takes his seat upon a gilt couch, which is supported by four golden phoenix birds. When the ambassadors of the Great Wei dynasty were presented, (the king), after repeated prostrations, received their letters of instruction. On entering the assembly, one man announces your name and title; then each stranger advances and retires. After the several announcements are over, they break up the assembly. This is the only rule they have; there are no instruments of music visible at all. The royal ladies of the ye-tha 24 country also wear state robes, which trail on the ground three feet and more; they have special train-bearers for carrying these lengthy robes. They also wear on their heads a horn, in length eight feet 25 and more, three feet of its length being red

22 This may possibly be Tira-bhuuki, the present Tirhut. But see ante, p. xvi.
23 The La-la or Lāra people occupied Mālava or Valabhi; vide infra, vol. ii. p. 266, n. 71. See also note at the end of this Introduction.
24 The Ye-tha were probably the White Huns, or Ephthalites.
25 I see no other way of translating this passage, although it seems puzzling to know how these royal ladies could carry such an ornament as this upon their heads.
coral. This they ornamented with all sorts of gay colours, and such is their head-dress. When the royal ladies go abroad, then they are carried; when at home, then they seat themselves on a gilded couch, which is made (from the ivory of?) a six-tusked white elephant, with four lions (for supporters). Except in this particular, the wives of the great ministers are like the royal ladies; they in like manner cover their heads, using horns, from which hang down veils all round, like precious canopies. Both the rich and poor have their distinctive modes of dress. These people are of all the four tribes of barbarians the most powerful. The majority of them do not believe in Buddha. Most of them worship false gods. They kill living creatures and eat their flesh. They use the seven precious substances, which all the neighbouring countries bring as tribute, and gems in great abundance. It is reckoned that the distance of the country of the Yetha from our capital is upwards of 20,000 li.

On the first decade of the 11th month we entered the confines of the country of Po-sse (Persia). This territory (ground) is very contracted. Seven days farther on we come to a people who dwell in the mountains and are exceedingly impoverished. Their manners are rough and ill-favoured. On seeing their king, they pay him no honour; and when the king goes out or comes in, his attendants are few. This country has a river which formerly was very shallow; but afterwards, the mountains having subsided, the course of the stream was altered and two lakes were formed. A mischievous dragon took up his residence here and caused many calamities. In the summer he rejoiced to dry up the rain, and in the winter

36 Literally the passage is, "They make the seat from a six-tusked white elephant and four lions."

37 The name of Persia or Eastern Persia extended at this time even to the base of the Tsung-ling mountains (vide Elphinstone's India). The Parthians assumed the Persian name and affected Persian manners, "διακόλουθοι καὶ διαμεμερημένα γὰρ Περσικαὶ ἐνιαίωσες, ἐμοὶ δοκεῖ Ἡρωδείαν ἐπιτίθεσθαι, Ἡρωδαὶ δὲ ἐσύν προσφανείαν," says the Emperor Julian (Or. de Constantin., gest. ii. p. 63; Rawlinson's Herod, i. 534, n.)
to pile up the snow. Travellers by his influence are subjected to all sorts of inconveniences. The snow is so brilliant that it dazzles the sight; men have to cover their eyes, or they would be blinded by it; but if they pay some religious service to the dragon, they find less difficulty afterwards.

In the middle decade of the 11th month we entered the country of Shie-Mi (Śâmbî ?). This country is just beyond the Tsung-ling mountains. The aspect of the land is still rugged; the people are very poor; the rugged narrow road is dangerous—a traveller and his horse can hardly pass along it one at a time. From the country of Po-lu-lai (Bolor) to the country of U-chang (Udyâna) they use iron chains for bridges. These are suspended in the air for the purpose of crossing (over the mountain chasms). On looking downwards no bottom can be perceived; there is nothing on the side to grasp at in case of a slip, but in a moment the body is hurled down 10,000 fathoms. On this account travellers will not cross over in case of high winds.

On the first decade of the 12th month we entered the U-chang country (Udyâna). On the north this country borders on the Tsung-ling mountains; on the south it joins India. The climate is agreeably warm. The territory contains several thousand li.28 The people and productions are very abundant. The fertility of the soil is equal to that of the plateau of Lin-tsze29 in China and the climate more equable. This is the place where Pe-lo30 (Vessantara) gave his child as alms, and where Bôdhisattva gave his body (to the tigress). Though these old stories relate to things so distant, yet they are preserved among the local legends (?). The king of the country religiously observes a vegetable diet; on the great fast-days31 he pays adoration to Buddha, both morning and evening, with sound of drum, conch, vîna (a sort of lute), flute, and

28 There is no word for li in the text.
29 In Shan-tung.
30 Pe-lo, the first and last syllable in Vessantara.
31 Vide Jul. ii. 6, n.
all kinds of wind instruments. After mid-day he devotes himself to the affairs of government. Supposing a man has committed murder, they do not suffer him to be killed; they only banish him to the desert mountains, affording him just food enough to keep him alive (lit. a bit and a sup). In investigating doubtful cases, they rely on the pure or foul effect of drastic medicines; then, after examination, the punishment is adjusted according to the circumstances. At the proper time they let the streams overflow the land, by which the soil is rendered loamy and fertile. All provisions necessary for man are very abundant, cereals of every kind (lit. of a hundred sorts) flourish, and the different fruits (lit. the five fruits) ripen in great numbers. In the evening the sound of the (convent) bells may be heard on every side, filling the air (world); the earth is covered with flowers of different hues, which succeed each other winter and summer, and are gathered by clergy and laity alike as offerings for Buddha.

The king of the country seeing Sung-Yun (inquired respecting him, and) on their saying that the ambassadors of the Great Wei (dynasty) had come, he courteously received their letters of introduction. On understanding that the Empress Dowager was devotedly attached to the law of Buddha, he immediately turned his face to the east, and, with closed hands and meditative heart, bowed his head; then, sending for a man who could interpret the Wei language, he questioned Sung Yun and said, "Are my honourable visitors men from the region of sun-rising?" Sung-Yun answered and said, "Our country is bounded on the east by the great sea; from this the sun rises according to the divine will (the command of Tathagata)." The king again asked, "Does that country produce holy men?" Sung-Yun then proceeded to enlarge upon the virtues of Confucius, of the Chow and Laou

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32 This passage is translated by (R.) thus: "When any matter is involved in doubt, they appeal to drugs, and decide upon the evidence of these" (Fah-hian, c. viii. n. 1).
TRAVELS OF SUNG-YUN.

(Tseu), of the Chwang (period), and then of the silver walls and golden palaces of Fairy Land (P'eng lai Shan), and then of the spirits, genii, and sages who dwell there; he further dilated on the divination of Kwan-lo, the medicinal art of Hwa-to, and the magical power of Tso-ts'ze; descending on these various subjects, and properly distinguishing their several properties, he finished his address. Then the king said, "If these things are really as your worship says, then truly yours is the land of Buddha, and I ought to pray at the end of my life that I may be born in that country."

After this, Sung-Yun with Hwei Sâng left the city for the purpose of inspecting the traces which exist of the teaching (or religion) of Tathâgata. To the east of the river is the place where Buddha dried his clothes. When first Tathâgata came to the country of U-chang, he went to convert a dragon-king. He, being angry with Buddha, raised a violent storm with rain. The sanghâti of Buddha was soaked through and through with the wet. After the rain was over, Buddha stopped on a rock, and, with his face to the east, sat down whilst he dried his robe (kashâya). Although many years have elapsed since then, the traces of the stripes of the garment are as visible as if newly done, and not merely the seams and bare outline, but one can see the marks of the very tissue itself, so that in looking at it, it appears as if the garment had not been removed, and, if one were asked to do it, as if the traces might be lifted up (as the garment itself). There are memorial towers erected on the spot where Buddha sat, and also where he dried his robe. To the west of the river is a tank occupied by a nâga-râja. By the side of the tank is a temple served by fifty priests and more. The Nâga-râja ever and anon assumes supernatural appearances. The king of the country propitiates

33 One of the three isles of the genii, believed to be in the Eastern Sea opposite the coast of China.  
34 For these names see Reader's Manual, s. v. v.
him with gold and jewels, and other precious offerings, which he casts into the middle of the tank; such of these as find their way out through a back exit, the priests are permitted to retain. Because the dragon thus provides for the necessary expenses of this temple (clothes and food), therefore men call it the Nāga-rāja Temple.

Eighty li to the north of the royal city there is the trace of the shoe of Buddha on a rock. They have raised a tower to cover it. The place where the print of the shoe is left on the rock is as if the foot had trodden on soft mud. Its length is undetermined, as at one time it is long, and at another time short. They have now founded a temple on the spot, capable of accommodating seventy priests and more. Twenty paces to the south of the tower is a spring of water issuing from a rock. Buddha once purifying (his mouth), planted a piece of his chewing-stick in the ground; it immediately took root, and is at present a great tree, which the Tartars call Po-1u. To the north of the city is the To-lo temple, in which there are very numerous appliances for the worship of Buddha. The pagoda is high and large. The priests' chambers are ranged in order round the temple (or tower). There are sixty full-length golden figures (herein). The king, whenever he convenes (or convening yearly) a great assembly, collects the priests in this temple. On these occasions the Śramanas within the country flock together in great crowds (like clouds). Sung-Yun and Hwei Sāng, remarking the strict rules and eminent piety (extreme austerities) of those Bhikshus, and from a sense that the example of these priests singularly conduced to increase (their own) religious feelings, remitted two servants for the use of the convent to present the offerings and to water and sweep. From the royal city going south-east over a mountainous district eight days' journey, we come to the place where Tathāgata, practising austerities, gave up his body to feed

35 Dantakāśṭa. 36 The Plu tree—Salvadora Persica. 37 Tāra (?).
a starving tiger. It is a high mountain, with scarped precipices and towering peaks that pierce the clouds. The fortunate tree and the Ling-chi grow here, whilst the groves and fountains (or the forest rivulets), the docile stags, and the variegated hues of the flowers, all delight the eye. Sung-Yun and Hwei Sâng devoted a portion of their travelling funds to erect a pagoda on the crest of the hill, and they inscribed on a stone, in the square character, an account of the great merits of the Wei dynasty. This mountain possesses a temple called "Collected Bones," with 300 priests and more. One hundred and odd li to the south of the royal city is the place where Buddha (Julai), formerly residing in the Mo-hiu country, peeled off his skin for the purpose of writing upon it, and extracted (broke off) a bone of his body for the purpose of writing with it. Aśoka-râja raised a pagoda on this spot for the purpose of enclosing these sacred relics. It is about ten chang high (120 feet). On the spot where he broke off his bone, the marrow ran out and covered the surface of a rock, which yet retains the colour of it, and is unctuous as though it had only recently been done.

To the south-west of the royal city 500 li is the Shen-shi hill (or the hill of (the Prince) Sudâna). The sweet waters and delicious fruits (of this place) are spoken of in the sacred books. The mountain dells are agreeably warm; the trees and shrubs retain a perpetual verdure. At the time when the pilgrims arrived (ta'i tsuh), the gentle breeze which fanned the air, the songs of the birds, the trees in their spring-tide beauty, the butterflies that fluttered over the numerous flowers, all this caused Sung-Yun, as he gazed on this lovely scenery in a distant

38 Remusat translates it the tree kalpa doru.
39 Remusat gives "collected gold."
40 The text is corrupt. I have substituted chu for dao. Mo-hiu is the Margus; the country would therefore be Margiana. But probably it refers to the Oxus country.
41 Shen-shi, "illustrious resolution;" evidently a mistake for shen-shi, "illustrious charity" (Sudâna).
42 That is, in the Jâtaka book, where the history of Vessantara is recorded.
INTRODUCTION.

land, to revert to home thoughts; and so melancholy were his reflections, that he brought on a severe attack of illness; after a month, however, he obtained some charms of the Brâhmans, which gave him ease.

To the south-east of the crest of the hill Shen-shi is a rock-cave of the prince, with two chambers to it. Ten paces in front of this cave is a great square stone on which it is said the prince was accustomed to sit; above this Asoka raised a memorial tower.

One li to the south of the tower is the place of the Paññasâlâ (leafy hut) of the prince. One li north-east of the tower, fifty paces down the mountain, is the place where the son and daughter of the prince persisted in going round a tree, and would not depart (with the Brâhmañ). On this the Brâhmañ beat them with rods till the blood flowed down and moistened the earth. This tree still exists, and the ground, stained with blood, now produces a sweet fountain of water. Three li to the west of the cave is the place where the heavenly king Sakra, assuming the appearance of a lion sitting coiled up in the road, intercepted Man-kēa. On the stone are yet traces of his hair and claws: the spot also where Ajitakaṭa (O-chou-to-kiu) and his disciples nourished the father and mother (i.e. the prince and princess). All these have memorial towers. In this mountain formerly were the beds of 500

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43 That is, of the Prince Sudatta or the Bountiful Prince. The whole of the history alluded to in the text may be found in Spence Hardy’s Manual of Buddhism under the Wessantara Játaka, p. 116. The account states that Wessantara (the prince alluded to in the text, called “the Bountiful”, because of his extreme charity) gave to the king of Kâliṅga a white elephant that had the power to compel rain to fall. On this the subjects of the prince’s father (who was called Sanna) forced him to banish the prince, with his wife (Madri-dēwi) and his two children, to the rock Wankagiri, where the events alluded to in the text occurred. See Tree and Serpent Worship, pl. ixv. fig. 1.

44 This may possibly allude to Madri-dēwi; the symbol kēa denotes “a lady.” We read that Sakra caused some wild beasts to appear to keep Madri-dēwi from coming back. See Spence Hardy, loc. cit.; and also the lions in the Sânci sculpture, Tree and Serpent Worship, pl. xxxii. fig. 2.

45 Called Achchhuta in the Singhalese accounts. He was an ascetic who resided in the neighbourhood of the hill.
Arhats, ranged north and south in a double row; their seats also were placed opposite one to another. There is now a great temple here with about 200 priests. To the north of the fountain which supplied the prince with water is a temple. A herd of wild asses frequent this spot for grazing. No one drives them here, but they resort here of their own accord. Daily at early morn they arrive; they take their food, at noon, and so they protect the temple. These are spirits who protect the tower (protecting-tower-spirits), commissioned for this purpose by the Rishi Uh-po. In this temple there formerly dwelt a Shami (Śrāmaṇāra), who, being constantly occupied in sifting ashes (belonging to the convent), fell into a state of spiritual ecstasy (Sunnāḍhī). The Karmadāna of the convent had his funeral obsequies performed, and drew him about, without his perceiving it, whilst his skin hung on his shrunked bones. The Rishi Uh-po continued to take the office of the Śrāmaṇāra in the sifting of the ashes. On this the king of the country founded a chapel to the Rishi, and placed in it a figure of him as he appeared, and ornamented it with much gold leaf.

Close to the peak of this hill is a temple of Po-keen, built by the Yakshas. There are about eighty priests in it. They say that the Arhats and Yakshas continually come to offer religious services, to water and sweep the temple, and to gather wood for it. Ordinary priests are not allowed to occupy this temple. The Shaman To-Ying, of the Great Wei dynasty, came to this temple to pay religious worship; but having done so, he departed, without daring to take up his quarters there. During the middle decade of the 4th month of the first year of Ching-Kwong (520 A.D.), we entered the kingdom of Gaudhāra. This country closely resembles the territory of U-chang. It was formerly called the country of Ye-po-lo. This is the country which

46 The symbol for "Uh" is doubtful.
47 The steward.
48 Referring, in all probability, to the dragon Apalāla, whose fountain to the N.E. of Mungali (the capital of U-chang) gave rise to the river Subhavastu or Swěti, that flows through this territory.
the Ye-thas destroyed, and afterwards set up Lae-lih to be king over the country; since which events two generations have passed. The disposition of this king (or dynasty) was cruel and vindictive, and he practised the most barbarous atrocities. He did not believe the law of Buddha, but loved to worship demons. The people of the country belonged entirely to the Brāhmaṇ caste; they had a great respect for the law of Buddha, and loved to read the sacred books, when suddenly this king came into power, who was strongly opposed to anything of the sort. Entirely self-reliant on his own strength, he had entered on a war with the country of Ki-pin (Cophene), disputing the boundaries of their kingdom, and his troops had been already engaged in it for three years.

The king has 700 war-elephants, each of which carries ten men armed with sword and spear, while the elephants are armed with swords attached to their trunks, with which to fight when at close quarters. The king continually abode with his troops on the frontier, and never returned to his kingdom, in consequence of which the old men had to labour and the common people were oppressed. Sung-Yun repaired to the royal camp to deliver his credentials. The king was very rough with him, and failed to salute him. He sat still whilst receiving the letters. Sung-Yun perceived that these remote barbarians were unfit for exercising public duties, and that their arrogancy refused to be checked. The king now sent for interpreters, and addressed Sung-Yun as follows: “Has your worship not suffered much inconvenience in traversing all these countries and encountering so many dangers

49 Alluding perhaps to the conquest of Kitolo, at the beginning of the fifth century. The king conquered Gandhāra, and made Peshwâwar his capital.
50 Or, set up a Lāra dynasty, but the whole of the context is obscure.
51 Then in the possession of the Great Yuchi, whose capital was Kābul.
52 This king was probably the one called Onowei, who reigned under the title “So-Lin-teu-pum-teu fa Khan,” or, “the prince who seizes and holds firmly.” We are told that he refused homage to the Wei Tartars, alluding probably to the circumstance recorded in this account of Sung-Yun (C.)
on the road?" Sung-Yun replied, "We have been sent by our royal mistress to search for works of the great translation through distant regions. It is true the difficulties of the road are great, yet we cannot (dare not) say we are fatigued; but your majesty and your forces (three armies), as you sojourn here on the frontier of your kingdom, enduring all the changes of heat and cold, are not you also nearly worn out?" The king, replying, said, "It is impossible to submit to such a little country as this, and I am sorry that you should ask such a question." Sung-Yun, on first speaking with the king, (thought), "This barbarian is unable to discharge with courtesy his official duties; he sits still whilst receiving diplomatic papers;" and now being about to reply to him again, he determined to reprove him as a fellow-man (or having the feelings of a man); and so he said, "Mountains are high and low—rivers are great and small—amongst men also there are distinctions, some being noble and others ignoble. The sovereign of the Ye-tha, and also of U-chang, when they received our credentials, did so respectfully; but your majesty alone has paid us no respect." The king, replying, said, "When I see the king of the Wei, then I will pay my respects; but to receive and read his letters whilst seated, what fault can be found with this? When men receive a letter from father or mother, they don't rise from their seats to read it. The Great Wei sovereign is to me (for the nonce) both father and mother, and so, without being unreasonable, I will read the letters you bring me still sitting down." Sung-Yun then took his departure without any official salutation. He took up his quarters in a temple, in which his entertainment was very poor. At this time the country of Po-tai 53 sent two young lions to the king of Gandhāra as a present. Sung-Yun had an opportunity

53 Perhaps the same as the Fa-ti (Betik) of Huien Tsang, 400 li to the west of Bokhara (Jou, tome iii, p. 282). But the character of the text is so unfinished, that Po-tai may stand for Badakshān.
of seeing them; he noticed their fiery temper and courageous mien. The pictures of these animals common in China are not at all good resemblances of them.

After this, going west five days, they arrived at the place where Tathāgata made an offering of his head for the sake of a man, where there is both a tower and temple, with about twenty priests. Going west three days, we arrive at the great river Sin-tu. On the west bank of this river is the place where Tathāgata took the form of (or became) a great fish called Ma-kie (Makara), and came out of the river, and for twelve years supported the people with his flesh. On this spot is raised a memorial tower. On the rock are still to be seen the traces of the scales of the fish.

Again going west thirteen days' journey, we arrived at the city of Fo-sha-fu. The river valley (in which this city is built) is a rich loamy soil. The city walls have gate-defences. The houses are thick, and there are very many groves (around the city), whilst fountains of water enrich the soil; and as for the rest, there are costly jewels and gems in abundance. The customs of the people are honest and virtuous. Within this city there is an heretical temple of ancient date called "Sang-teh" (Sânti?). All religious persons frequent it and highly venerate it. To the north of the city one li is the temple of the White Elephant Palace. Within the temple all is devoted to the service of Buddha. There are here stone images highly adorned and very beautiful, very many in number, and covered with gold sufficient to dazzle the eyes. Before the temple and belonging to it is a tree called the White Elephant Tree, from which, in fact, this temple took its origin and name.

54 The Varușa (Po-lou-sha) of Hiuen Tsiang.
55 In this passage I take the word fan (all) to be a misprint for Fan (Brāhma), in which case the expression Wei fan would mean "heretical Brahmanas." If this be not the correct translation of the passage, then it may perhaps be rendered thus: "Within and without this city there are very many old temples, which are named 'Sang-teh' (sāṇḍī, union or assembly?)."
56 This is probably the Plimśara stūpa of Hiuen Tsiang (Jul. tome ii. p. 54).
Its leaves and flowers are like those of the Chinese date-tree, and its fruit begins to ripen in the winter quarter. The tradition common amongst the old people is this: "That when this tree is destroyed, then the old law of Buddha will also perish." Within the temple is a picture of the prince and his wife, and the figure of the Brahman begging the boy and the girl. The Tartars, seeing this picture, could not refrain from tears.

Again going west one day's journey, we arrive at the place where Tathâgata plucked out his eyes to give in charity. Here also is a tower and a temple. On a stone of the temple is the impress of the foot of Kâsyapa Buddha. Again going west one day, we crossed a deep river more than 300 paces broad. Sixty li south-west of this we arrive at the capital of the country of Gandhâra. Seven li to the south-east of this city there is a Tsioh-li Feou-thou (a pagoda with a surmounting pole). [The record of Tao-Yung says, "Four li to the east of the city."] Investigating the origin of this tower, we find that when Tathâgata was in the world he was passing once through this country with his disciples on his mission of instruction; on which occasion, when delivering a discourse on the east side of the city, he said, "Three hundred years after my Nirvâna, there will be a king of this country called Ka-ni-si-ka (Kanishka). On this spot he will raise a pagoda (Feou-thou). Accordingly, 300 years after that event, there was a king of this country so called. On one occasion, when going out to the east of the city, he saw four children engaged in making a Buddhist tower out of cows' dung. They had raised it about three feet high, when suddenly they disappeared (or, it fell). [The record states, "One of the children, raising himself in the air and turning towards the king, repeated a verse (gâthâ).] The king, surprised at this miraculous event,

57 That is, of the Bountiful Prince (Wessantara) referred to before.
58 The Indus.
59 That is, Peshâwar.
60 Tsioh-li means "a sparrow," but it is phonetic for jôla, a surmounting spear or trident.
immediately erected a tower for the purpose of enclosing (the small pagoda), but gradually the small tower grew higher and higher, and at last went outside and removed itself 400 feet off, and there stationed itself. Then the king proceeded to widen the foundation of the great tower 300 paces and more.\[The record of Tao-Yung says 390 paces.\] To crown all, he placed a roof-pole upright and even. \[The record of Tao-Yung says it was 35 feet high.\] Throughout the building he used carved wood; he constructed stairs to lead to the top. The roof consisted of every kind of wood. Altogether there were thirteen storeys; above which there was an iron pillar, three feet high, with thirteen gilded circlets. Altogether the height from the ground was 700 feet. \[Tao-Yung says the iron pillar was $88\frac{3}{10}$ feet (high), with fifteen encircling discs, and $63\frac{2}{10}$ changs from the ground (743 feet).\] This meritorious work being finished, the dung pagoda, as at first, remained three paces south of the great tower. The Brāhmans, not believing that it was really made of dung, dug a hole in it to see. Although years have elapsed since these events, this tower has not corrupted; and although they have tried to fill up the hole with scented earth, they have not been able to do so. It is now enclosed with a protecting canopy. The Tsioh-li pagoda, since its erection, has been three times destroyed by lightning, but the kings of the country have each time restored it. The old men say, “When this pagoda is finally destroyed by lightning, then the law of Buddha also will perish.”

The record of Tao-Yung says, “When the king had finished all the work except getting the iron pillar up to the top, he found that he could not raise this heavy weight. He proceeded, therefore, to erect at the four corners a lofty stage; he expended in the work large trea-
sures, and then he with his queen and princes ascending on to it, burnt incense and scattered flowers, with all their hearts and power of soul; then, with one turn of the windlass, they raised the weight, and so succeeded in elevating it to its place. The Tartars say, therefore, that the four heavenly kings lent their aid in this work, and that, if they had not done so, no human strength would have been of any avail. Within the pagoda there is contained every sort of Buddhist utensil; here are gold and jewelled (vessels) of a thousand forms and vast variety, to name which even would be no easy task. At sunrise the gilded discs of the vane are lit up with dazzling glory, whilst the gentle breeze of morning causes the precious bells (that are suspended from the roof) to tinkle with a pleasing sound. Of all the pagodas of the western world, this one is by far the first (in size and importance). At the first completion of this tower they used true pearls in making the network covering over the top; but after some years, the king, reflecting on the enormous value of this ornamental work, thought thus with himself: “After my decease (funeral) I fear some invader may carry it off”—or “supposing the pagoda should fall, there will be no one with means sufficient to re-build it;” on which he removed the pearl work and placed it in a copper vase, which he removed to the north-west of the pagoda 100 paces, and buried it in the earth. Above the spot he planted a tree, which is called Po-tai (Bodhi), the branches of which, spreading out on each side, with their thick foliage, completely shade the spot from the sun. Underneath the tree on each side there are sitting figures (of Buddha) of the same height, viz., a chang and a half (17 feet). There are always four dragons in attendance to protect these jewels; if a man (only in his heart) covets them, calamities immediately befall him. There is also a stone tablet erected on the spot, and engraved on it are these words of direction: “Hereafter, if this tower is destroyed, after long search, the virtuous man may find

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here pearls (of value sufficient) to help him restore it."

Fifty paces to the south of the Tsioh-li pagoda there is a stone tower, in shape perfectly round, and two chang high (27 feet). There are many spiritual indications (shown by it); so that men, by touching it, can find out if they are lucky or unlucky. If they are lucky, then by touching it the golden bells will tinkle; but if unlucky, then, though a man should violently push the tower, no sound would be given out. Hwei Sāṅg, having travelled from his country, and fearing that he might not have a fortunate return, paid worship to this sacred tower, and sought a sign from it. On this, he did but touch it with his finger, and immediately the bells rang out. Obtaining this omen, he comforted his heart. And the result proved the truth of the augury. When Hwei Sāṅg first went up to the capital, the Empress had conferred upon him a thousand streamers of a hundred feet in length and of the five colours, and five hundred variegated silk (mats?) of scented grass. The princes, dukes, and nobility had given him two thousand flags. Hwei Sāṅg, in his journey from Khotan to Gandhāra,—wherever there was a disposition to Buddhism,—had freely distributed these in charity; so that when he arrived here, he had only left one flag of 100 feet in length, given him by the Empress. This he decided to offer as a present to the tower of Śivika-rāja, whilst Sung-Yun gave two servants to the Tsioh-li pagoda in perpetuity, to sweep it and water it. Hwei Sāṅg, out of the little travelling funds he had left, employed a skilful artist to depict on copper the Tsioh-li pagoda and also the four principal pagodas of Śākyamuni.

After this, going north-west seven days' journey, they crossed a great river (Indus), and arrived at the place where Tathāgata, when he was Śivika-rāja, delivered the

63 Or, he consoled himself by the thought that after his undertaking he would have a safe return.

64 Vide Jul., tome ii. p. 137 (infra, p. 125, n. 20), and Abstract of Four Lectures, p. 31.
dove; here there is a temple and a tower also. There was formerly here a large storehouse of Śivika-rāja, which was burnt down. The grain which was in it was parched with the heat, and is still to be found in the neighbourhood (of the ruins). If a man take but a single grain of this, he never suffers from fever; the people of the country also take it to prevent the power of the sun hurting them.

[The records of Tao-Yung say, “At Na-ka-lo-ho there is a skull-bone of Buddha, four inches round, of a yellowish-white colour, hollow underneath, (sufficient) to receive a man’s finger, shining, and in appearance like a wasp-nest.]}

We then visited the Ki-ka-lam temple. This contains the robe (kashāya) of Buddha in thirteen pieces. In measurement this garment is as long as it is broad (or, when measured, it is sometimes long and sometimes broad). Here also is the staff of Buddha, in length a chang and seven-tenths (about 18 feet), in a wooden case, which is covered with gold leaf. The weight of this staff is very uncertain; sometimes it is so heavy that a hundred men cannot raise it, and at other times it is so light that one man can lift it. In the city of Na-kie (Nagarāhāra) is a tooth of Buddha and also some of his hair, both of which are contained in precious caskets; morning and evening religious offerings are made to them.

We next arrive at the cave of Gopāla, where is the shadow of Buddha. Entering the mountain cavern fifteen feet, and looking for a long time (or, at a long distance) at the western side of it opposite the door, then at length the figure, with its characteristic marks, appears; on going nearer to look at it, it gradually grows fainter.

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65 Or, to enable them to bear the power of the sun.
66 Nagarāhāra.
67 The Khakkharām Temple, or the Temple of the Religious Staff (vide Fa-hsia, cap. xiii.)
68 The text is here, as in various other parts, corrupt. I have substituted go for lo in Gopāla; and kuh for luh, i.e., “cave” for ‘deer.”
69 The text has sa (four) for si (west).
and then disappears. On touching the place where it was with the hand, there is nothing but the bare wall. Gradually retreating, the figure begins to come in view again, and foremost is conspicuous that peculiar mark between the eyebrows 70 (ūrṇa), which is so rare among men. Before the cave is a square stone, on which is a trace of Buddha's foot.

One hundred paces south-west of the cave is the place where Buddha washed his robe. One li to the north of the cave is the stone cell of Mūdgalyāyana; to the north of which is a mountain, at the foot of which the great Buddha with his own hand made a pagoda ten chang high (115 feet). They say that when this tower sinks down and enters the earth, then the law of Buddha will perish. There are, moreover, seven towers here, to the south of which is a stone with an inscription on it; they say Buddha himself wrote it. The foreign letters are distinctly legible even to the present time.

Hwei Sāng abode in the country of U-chang two years. The customs of the western foreigners (Tartars) are, to a great extent, similar (with ours); the minor differences we cannot fully detail. When it came to the second month of the second year of Ching-ūn (521 A.D.) he began to return.

The foregoing account is principally drawn from the private records of Tao-Yung and Sung-Yun. The details given by Hwei Sāng were never wholly recorded.

70 I think this is the meaning of mark, face-distinguishing, so rare the passage, "We begin to see the among men."

Nore, p. xci.—With reference to Lāla or Lāra, it seems from Cunningham's remark (Arch. Survey, vol. ii. p. 31) that this term is equivalent to "lord." The Lāras, according to Hiuen Tsang, dwelt in Mālava and Valabhi. It was from this region that the ancestors of Vijaya came (Ind. Antiq.), vol. xiii. p. 35, n. 25; see also Journ. of Polij. Text Soc., 1883, p. 59). It is worth consideration whether these Lāras or Lords were akin to the Vṛjjas of Valsall, who were also "lords" (Gothic, Frujaus) (?), and whether they were not both Northern invaders allied to the Yue-chi. The fable of the daughter of the king of Vanga cohabiting with a wild lion (Dīpavamsa, chap. ix.) may simply mean that one of these Northerners (who were called Līna) carried off a native girl and cohabited with her. From this union sprang the thirty-two brothers, of whom the eldest were Vijaya and Sumeta (vide Dīpavamsa, loc. cit.)
Buddhist Records of the Western World.

Ta-T'ang-Si-Yu-Ki.

Records of the Western World 1 compiled during the Great T'ang 2 dynasty (A.D. 618-907); translated by Imperial command by Hsiien Tsiang, 3 a Doctor of the three Pithakas, and edited by Pien Ki, a Shaman of the Ta-tsung-chi Temple.

PREFACE. 4

When of yore the precious hair-circle 5 shed forth its flood of light, the sweet dew was poured upon the great thousand (worlds), 6 the golden mirror 7 displayed its brightness, and a fragrant wind was spread over the earth; then it was known that he had appeared in the three worlds 8

1 The "Western World." This expression denotes generally the countries west of China. Mr. Mayers, in his note on Chang K'ien (Reader's Manual, No. 18); confines the meaning to Turkistân.
2 That is, during the reign of T'ai Tsung (Chêng Kwan) of the Great T'ang dynasty, A.D. 646.
3 Hsiien Tsiang: in spelling Chinese names, the method of Dr. Wells Williams in his Tonic Dictionary has been generally followed. See note 10.
4 This preface was written by Chang Yueh, who flourished as minister of state under T'ang Huan Tsung (A.D. 713-756). He is called Tchang-chhau by Stan. Julien. It is written in the usual ornate style of such compositions. I have mostly followed Julien's rendering and refer the reader to his explanatory notes for fuller information.
5 This phrase designates one of the thirty-two marks (viz. the ōm) which characterise a great man, and which were recognised on the Buddha. See Burnouf, Lotos de la Bonne Loi, pp. 30, 543, 553, and 616; Introd. Buddh. (2d ed.), p. 308; Foucaux, Lalita Vistara, p. 286; Beal, Fo-sho-hiâng-tam-kâmg, I, I. 83, 84, 114, &c.; Hodgson, Essays (Serampore edit.), p. 129, or (Lond. 1874) pt. i. p. 90; Hardy, Manual of Buddhism (2d ed.), p. 150, &c.
6 Julien explains this as "the great chiliocosm," and refers to Remusat, Melang. Post., p. 94.
7 The moon.
8 Buddha had appeared in the world of desires (कामदेहातु), the
who is rightly named the lord of the earth. His brightness, indeed, dwells in the four limits (of the universe), but his sublime model was fixed in the middle of the world. Whereupon, as the sun of wisdom declined, the shadow of his doctrine spread to the East, the grand rules of the emperor diffused themselves afar, and his imposing laws reached to the extremities of the West.

There was in the temple of “great benevolence” a doctor of the three Pitakas called Hiuen Tsiang. His common name was Chin-shi. His ancestors came from Ing-chuen; the emperor Hien held the sceptre; reigning at Hwa-chau, he opened the source. The great Shun entertained the messengers as he laid on Li-shan the foundation of his renown. The three venerable ones distinguished themselves during the years of K't. The six extraordinary (events) shone during the Han period. In penning odes there was one who equalled the clear moon; in wandering by the way there was one who resembled the brilliant stars—(his illustrious ancestors) like fishes in the lake, or as birds assembled before the wind, by their choice services in the world served to produce as their result an illustrious descendant.

The master of the law under these fortunate influences came into the world. In him were joined sweetness and virtue. These roots, combined and deeply planted, produced their fruits rapidly. The source of his wisdom (reason) was deep, and wonderfully it increased. At his opening life he was rosy as the evening vapours and

world of forms (Rāpaññātu), the world without forms (Arūpaññātu).
—Julien. But here it simply means “in the world.”

9 The emperor Tai-tuang of the T'ang dynasty (a.d. 627-649).
10 I adopt this mode of spelling for reasons stated in the introduction. He is generally known from Julien's French version as “Hiouen Thasang,” Mr. Mayers (Reader's Manual, p. 200) calls him Huan Chwan; Mr. Wylie, Yuén-Chwâng; and the name is also represented by Hhüen-Chwâng.
11 Yu-chu, in the province of Honan.—Jul.
12 That is, Hwang Ti (B.C. 2697), otherwise called Hien-yuen-shi.
13 Hwa-chau was an island of the kingdom of Hwa-siu, where Fo-hi fixed his court.—Jul.
14 For Shun and Li-shan consult Mayers under Shun (op. cit. No. 617).
15 I.e., under the reign of the Chau, whose family name was K’t.—Jul.
(round) as the rising moon. As a boy (collecting-sand age) he was sweet as the odour of cinnamon or the vanilla tree. When he grew up he thoroughly mastered the Fan and Su; 16 the nine borders 17 were filled with (bore) his renown, the five prefectures (or palaces) together resounded his praise.

At early dawn he studied the true and the false, and through the night shone forth his goodness; the mirror of his wisdom, fixed on the true receptacle, remained stationary. He considered the limits of life, and was permanently at rest (in the persuasion that) the vermilion ribbon and the violet silken tassels are the pleasing bonds that keep one attached to the world; but the precious car and the red pillow, these are the means of crossing the ford and escaping the world. Wherefore he put away from him the pleasures of sense, and spoke of finding refuge in some hermit retreat. His noble brother Chang-tsi was a master of the law, a pillar and support of the school of Buddha. He was as a dragon or an elephant (or a dragon-elephant) in his own generation, and, as a falcon or a crane, he mounted above those to come. In the court and the wilderness was his fame exalted; within and without was his renown spread. Being deeply affectionate, they loved one another, and so fulfilled the harmony of mutual relationship (parentage). The master of the law was diligent in his labour as a student; he lost not a moment of time, and by his studies he rendered his teachers illustrious, and was an ornament to his place of study. His virtuous qualities were rightly balanced, and he caused the perfume of his fame to extend through the home of his adoption. Whip raised, he travelled on his own way; he mastered the nine divisions of the books, and swallowed (the lake) Mong; 18 he worked his paddles across the dark ford; he gave his attention to

16 That is, the books of the legendary period of Chinese history, from 2852 B.C. to 2697 B.C.
17 Or the nine islands (Khiuk-kao-tan-tin), concerning which there is a passage in the Shi King.—Jul. p. lii.
18 To swallow the lake Mong is a metaphorical way of saying he had acquired a vast erudition.—Jul.
(looked down upon) the four Védas, whilst finding Lu small.  

From this time he travelled forth and frequented places of discussion, and so passed many years, his merit completed, even as his ability was perfected. Reaching back to the beginning, when the sun and moon first lit up with their brightness the spiritually (created) world, or, as Tseu-yun, with his kerchief suspended at his girdle, startled into life (developed) his spiritual powers, so in his case the golden writing gradually unfolded itself. He waited for the autumn car, yet hastened as the clouds; he moved the handle of jade for a moment, and the mist-crowds were dispersed as the heaped-up waves. As the occasion required, he could use the force of the flying discus or understand the delicate sounds of the lute used in worship.

With all the fame of these acquirements, he yet embanked in the boat of humility and departed alone. In the land of Hwan-yuen he first broke down the boasting of the iron-clad stomach; in the village of Ping-lo in a moment he exhibited the wonder of the floating wood. Men near and afar beheld him with admiration as they said one to another, "Long ago we heard of the eight dragons of the family of Sun, but now we see the double wonder (ke) of the gate of Chin. Wonderful are the men of Ju and Ing." This is true indeed! The master

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19 To find "Lu small" is an allusion to a passage in Mencius: "Confucius mounted on the mountain of the East, and found that the king of Lu (i.e., his own country) was small." (Jul.) The meaning of the expression in the text seems to be that Huien Tsang found his own studies contracted and small, so he bent down his head to examine the Védas.

20 The fly-flap of the orator has a jade handle.

21 So I have ventured to translate the word pari, although in the addenda at the end of Book I the word is considered corrupt.

22 This probably refers to some minor encounter or discussion which Huien Tsang had in his own country. The expression "iron-clad stomach" refers to the story told of one he met with in his travels in India who wore an iron corset lest his learning should burst open his body.—Si-yu-ki, book x. fol. 9.

23 I cannot but think this refers to the ability of Huien Tsang in hitting on the solution of a difficult question, as the blind torture with difficulty finds the hole in a floating piece of wood.

24 The rivers Ju and Ing are in the province of Honan. The saying in the text is quoted from a letter addressed
of the law, from his early days till he grew up, pondered in heart the mysterious principles (of religion). His fame spread wide among eminent men.

At this time the schools were mutually contentious; they hastened to grasp the end without regarding the beginning; they seized the flower and rejected the reality; so there followed the contradictory teaching of the North and South, and the confused sounds of "Yes" and "No," perpetual words! On this he was afflicted at heart, and fearing lest he should be unable to find out completely the errors of translations, he purposed to examine thoroughly the literature of the perfume elephant, and to copy throughout the list of the dragon palace.

With a virtue of unequalled character, and at a time favourable in its indications, he took his staff, dusted his clothes, and set off for distant regions. On this he left behind him the dark waters of the Pa river; he bent his gaze forwards; he then advanced right on to the T'sungling mountains. In following the courses of rivers and crossing the plains he encountered constant dangers. Compared with him Po-wang went but a little way, and the journey of Fa-hien was short indeed. In all the districts through which he journeyed he learnt thoroughly the dialects; he investigated throughout the deep secrets (of religion) and penetrated to the very source of the stream. Thus he was able to correct the books and trans-

by Siun-yu to the emperor during the eastern Han dynasty.—Jul.

25 If we may venture to give a meaning to this expression, the "perfume elephant" (Gandhabhata), which so frequently occurs in Buddhist books, it may refer to the solitary elephant (bull elephant) when in rut. A perfume then flows from his ears. The word is also applied to an elephant of the very best class.

26 The books carried (as the fable says) to the palace of the Nāgas to be kept in safety.

27 It rises in the Lan-thien district of the department of Si-‘gan-fu in the province of Shen-si.—Jul.

28 The celebrated general Chang K'ien, who lived in the second century B.C., was the first Chinese who penetrated to the extreme regions of the west. "In B.C. 122 he was sent to negotiate treaties with the kingdom of Si-yu, the present Turkestan" (Mayers). He was ennobled as the Marquis Po-Wang. Beal, Travels of Pa-khian, &c., pp. xvii, xviii; Pau-thier, Jour. Asiat., ser. iii. 1859, p. 260; Julien, Jour. Asiat., ser. iv. tom. x. (1847), or Ind. Ant., vol. ix. pp. 14, 15.

29 The well-known Chinese Buddhist traveller, a.D. 399-414.
cend (the writers of) India. The texts being transcribed on palm leaves, he then returned to China.

The Emperor T'ai Tsung, surnamed Wen-wang-ti, who held the golden wheel and was seated royally on the throne, waited with impatience for that eminent man. He summoned him therefore to the green enclosure, and, impressed by his past acquirements, he knelt before him in the yellow palace. With his hand he wrote proclamations full of affectionate sentiments; the officers of the interior attended him constantly; condescending to exhibit his illustrious thoughts, he wrote a preface to the sacred doctrine of the Tripitaka, consisting of 780 words. The present emperor (Kao Tsung) had composed in the spring pavilion a sacred record consisting of 579 words, in which he sounded to the bottom the stream of deep mystery and expressed himself in lofty utterances. But now, if he (Hiuen Tsiang) had not displayed his wisdom in the wood of the cock, nor scattered his brightness on the peak of the vulture, how could he (the emperor) have been able to abase his sacred composition in the praise of the ornament of his time?

In virtue of a royal mandate, he (Hiuen Tsiang) translated 657 works from the original Sanskrit (Fan). Having thoroughly examined the different manners of distant countries, the diverse customs of separate people, the various products of the soil and the class divisions of the people, the regions where the royal calendar is received and where the sounds of moral instruction have come, he has composed in twelve books the Ta-t'ang-si-yu-ki. Herein he has collected and written down the most secret principles of the religion of Buddha, couched in language plain and precise. It may be said, indeed, of him, that his works perish not.

30 The green enclosure surrounding the imperial seat or throne.
31 The Kukkuṭa vaṅghārāma near Pāṭna.
32 The Vulture Peak (Grūḍhrakūṭa parvata), near Rājagrīha.
33 The royal calendar is the work distributed annually throughout the empire, containing all information as to the seasons, &c.—Jul.
BOOK I.

GIVING AN ACCOUNT OF THIRTY-FOUR COUNTRIES.

(1) O-hi-ni; (2) K'iu-chi; (3) Poh-luh-kia; (4) Nu-chih-kien; (5) Che-shi; (6) Fei-han; (7) Su-tu-li-sea-na; (8) Sa-mo-kien; (9) Mi-mo-kia; (10) K'ie-po-ta-na; (11) K'iu-hsiu-wang-ni-kia; (12) Tu-mi; (13) Ho-han; (14) Pu-ho; (15) Fa-ri; (16) Ho-li-siu-mi-kia; (17) Ki-shiwang-na; (18) Chi-i-no-h-yen-na; (19) Hu-ho-lo-no; (20) Su-man; (21) Kiu-ho-yen-na; (22) Hu-sha; (23) Kho-to-lo; (24) Kiu-mi-to; (25) Po-kia-lang; (26) Hsi-su-min-kian; (27) Ho-lin; (28) Po-ho; (29) Jui-mo-to; (30) Hu-shih-kien; (31) Tu-la-kien; (32) Kie-chi; (33) Fan-yen-na; (34) Kia-pi-shi.

INTRODUCTION. 1

If we examine in succession the rules of the emperors, 2 or look into the records of the monarchs, 3 when P'au I 4 began to adjust matters 5 and Hien-yuen 6 began to let

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1 The beginning of this Book consists of an introduction, written by Chang Yech, the author of the preface.—Jul.
2 That is, of the “three sovereigns” called (by some) Fuh-hi, Shên-nung, and Hwang-ti; others substitute Chuh Yung for Hwang-ti. —Mayers, op. cit., p. 367 n.
3 That is, the five kings (T'ie) who followed Hwang-ti. The records of these kings and monarchs are, of course, mostly apocryphal.
4 P'au I is the same as Fuh-hi or Tai Hao; the name is interpreted as “the slaughterer of beasts.”—Mayers.
5 To “adjust matters,” so it seems the expression chuuk chen must be interpreted. The symbol chen occupies the place of the East in Wan's arrangement of the Tri-grams, and symbolises “movement.” It is also used for “wood,” because, as some say, “the East symbolises spring, when the growth of vegetation begins.” Others say that the symbol “wood” as the analogue of chen is a misprint for yi, signifying increase (vid. Legge, Yt King, p. 245). But in any case, in the text the idea is of “movement towards order.” Fuh-hi, like his sister Nu-kwa, is said to have reigned “under wood.”
6 Hien Yuen is the same as Hwang-ti; it is the name of the hill near which the emperor dwelt.
fall his robes, we see how they administered the affairs, and first divided the limits of the empire.

When T'ang(-ti) Yao received the call of heaven (to rule), his glory reached to the four quarters; when Yu(-ti) Shun had received his map of the earth, his virtue flowed throughout the nine provinces. From that time there have come down clear records, annals of events; though distant, we may hear the previous doings (of eminent men), or gather their words from the records of their disciples. How much rather when we live under a renowned government, and depend on those without partial aims. Now then our great T'ang emperor (or dynasty), conformed in the highest degree to the heavenly pattern, now holds the reins of government, and unites in one the six parts of the world, and is gloriously established. Like a fourth august monarch, he illustriously administers the empire. His mysterious controlling power flows afar; his auspicious influence (fama or instruction) widely extends; like the heaven and the earth, he covers and sustains (his subjects), or like the resounding wind or the fertilising rain. The eastern barbarians bring him tribute; the western frontiers are brought to submission. He has secured and hands down the succession, appeasing tumult, restoring order. He certainly surpasses the previous kings; he

7 Hwang-ti, among other things, "regulated costume." It is probably to this the text refers.
8 Hwang-ti "mapped out his empire in provinces, and divided the land into regular portions."—Mayers.
9 The great emperor Yao, with his successor Shun, stand at the dawn of Chinese history. His date is 2356 n.c. He was called the Marquis or Lord (hun) of T'ang, because he moved from the principality of Tao to the region of T'ang.
10 That is, Shun, of the family of Yeou-yu: he succeeded Yao, by whom he was adopted after he had disinherited his son Ta: Chu, n.c. 2258. He is said to have received the "map of the earth," an expression derived from "the map of the empire into provinces," by Hwang-ti.
11 I have so translated this passage, although Julien takes the opposite sense. I suppose kung to mean "clear" or "plain."
12 "Without partial aims," rendered by Julien "qui pratique le non-agir." The expression con-veys generally means "absence of self" or "selfish aims."
13 Julien renders this "gouverner à l'inact du cie", which no doubt is the meaning of the text.
14 Are enrolled as tribute-bearers.
15 Referring to the troubles of the last years of the Sui dynasty, which was followed by the T'ang.—Jul.
embraces in himself the virtues of former generations. Using the same currency\(^\text{16}\) (or literature), all acknowledge his supreme rule. If his sacred merit be not recorded in history, then it is vain to exalt the great (or his greatness); if it be not to illumine the world, why then shine so brilliantly his mighty deeds?\(^\text{17}\)

Hiuen Tsiang, wherever he bent his steps, has described the character of each country. Although he has not examined the country or distinguished the customs (in every case), he has shown himself trustworthy.\(^\text{18}\) With respect to the emperor who transcends the five and surpasses the three, we read how all creatures enjoy his benefits, and all who can declare it utter his praises. From the royal city throughout the (five) Indies, men who inhabit the savage wilds, those whose customs are diverse from ours, through the most remote lands, all have received the royal calendar, all have accepted the imperial instructions; alike they praise his warlike merit and sing of his exalted virtues and his true grace of utterance. This is the first thing to be declared. In searching through previous annals no such thing has been seen or heard of. In all the records of biography no such an account has been found. It was necessary first to declare the benefits arising from the imperial rule; now we proceed to narrate facts, which have been gathered either by report or sight, as follows:

This Sahalôka\(^\text{19}\) (Soh-ho) world is the three-thousand-

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\(^{16}\) The symbol was probably refers to the literature used alike by all the subjects of the Great T'ang. It can hardly mean that they all spoke the same language.

\(^{17}\) This at least appears to be the meaning of the passage. Julien translates as follows: "Si les effets merveilleux de cette administration sublime n'etaient point consignés dans l'histoire, comment pourrait-on célébrer dignement les grandes vues (de l'empereur)? Si on ne les publiait par avec éclat, comment pour-rait-on mettre en lumière un règne aussi florissant?"

\(^{18}\) I do not like this translation; I should prefer to suppose Chang Yueh's meaning to be that Hiuen Tsiang wherever he went exalted the name of China (Fung t'u; Fung being the name of Fuh-hi), and that he left this impression respecting the emperor who transcends the five and excels the three, &c.

\(^{19}\) The Soh-ho (or So-ho) world is thus defined by Jin-Ch'au (Fü-küi-lî-hê-t'ê, part i. fol. 2): "The region
great-thousand system of worlds (chiliocosm), over which one Buddha exercises spiritual authority (converts and controls). In the middle of the great chiliocosm, illuminated by one sun and moon, are the four continents, in which all the Buddhas, lords of the world, appear by apparitional birth, and here also die, for the purpose of guiding holy men and worldly men.

The mountain called Sumêru stands up in the midst of the great sea firmly fixed on a circle of gold, around which mountain the sun and moon revolve; this mountain is perfected by (composed of) four precious substances, and is the abode of the Dêvas. Around this are seven mountain-ranges and seven seas; between each range a flowing sea of the eight peculiar qualities. Outside the seven

(e'au) over which Buddha reigns is called Soh-ho-shê-kiai; the old Sêtras change it into Sha-po, i.e., sarva. It is called in the Sêtras the patient land; it is surrounded by an iron wall, within which are a thousand myriad worlds (four empires). It seems from this that (in later times at least) the Soh-ho world is the same as the "great chiliocosm of worlds." The subject of the expansion of the Buddhist universe from one world (four empires) to an infinite number of worlds is fully treated by Jinch'au in the work above named and in the first part of my Catena of Buddhist Scriptures. There is an expression, "tolerant like the earth," in the Dhammapada, vii. 95; from this idea of "patience" attributed to the earth was probably first derived the idea of the "patient people or beings," inhabiting the earth; and hence the lord of the world is called Sahîmpati, referred first to Mahabrahma, afterwards to Buddha. Childers says (Páli Dict. sub voc.): "I have never met with Sahaloka or Sahalokadhâtu in Pâli." Dr. Eitel in his Handbook translates a passage quoted as if the Saha world were the capital of the great chiliocosm (sub voc. Saha). I should take the passage to mean that the Saha world is the collection of all the worlds of the great chiliocosm.

The four continents or empires are the four divisions or quarters of the world. — Catena of Buddhist Scriptures, p. 35.

Lords of the world, or honourable of the age, a title corresponding to lôkanâtha, or (in Pâli) lôkânâtha, "protector or saviour of the world." — Childers, sub voc.

I cannot think Julien is right in translating this passage by "y répandent l'influence de leurs vertus." The expression "fa-in-sâng" must refer to the apparitional mode of birth known as anusupapadaka; and the body assumed by the Buddhas when thus born is called Nirmâna-kâya.

The abode of the Dêvas, or rather, "where the Dêvas wander to and fro and live." The idea of Sumêru corresponds with Olympus. On the top of each is placed the "abodes of the gods." In the case of Sumêru, there are thirty-three gods or palaces. Buddhist books frequently explain this number thirty-three as referring to the year, the four seasons or quarters, and the twenty-eight days of the month.

For the eight distinctive qualities, see Catena, p. 379.
golden mountain-ranges is the salt sea. There are four lands (countries or islands, *dvîpas*) in the salt sea, which are inhabited. On the east, (Pûrva)vidēha; on the south, Jambudvîpa; on the west, Gòdhanya; on the north, Kurudvîpa.

A golden-wheel monarch rules righteously the four; a silver-wheel monarch rules the three (excepting Kuru); a copper-wheel monarch rules over two (excepting Kuru and Gòdhanya); and an iron-wheel monarch rules over Jambudvîpa only. When first a wheel-king is established in power a great wheel-gem appears floating in space, and coming towards him; its character—whether gold, silver, copper, or iron—determines the king’s destiny and his name.

In the middle of Jambudvîpa there is a lake called Anavatapta, to the south of the Fragrant Mountains and to the north of the great Snowy Mountains; it is 800 li and more in circuit; its sides are composed of gold, silver, lapis-lazuli, and crystal; golden sands lie at the bottom, and its waters are clear as a mirror. The great earth Bûdhisattva, by the power of his vow, transforms himself into a Nâga-râja and dwells therein; from his dwelling the cool waters proceed forth and enrich Jambudvîpa (Shen-pu-chau).

From the eastern side of the lake, through the mouth of a silver ox, flows the Ganges (King-kia) river; encircling the lake once, it enters the south-eastern sea.

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25 A *wheel-king* is a king who holds the wheel or discus of authority or power—Chakravartti Râja.
26 That is, as the text says, whether he is to rule over four, three, two, or one of the divisions of the earth.
27 His name (i.e., gold-wheel-king, silver-wheel-king, &c.) is derived from this first sign or miraculous event.
28 Defined in a note as “without the annoyance of heat,” i.e., cool; *an+avatapta.* As. Res., vol. vi, p. 488.
29 I have translated *tai-tî-p‘u-sa* as “the great earth Bûdhisattva,” although Julien renders it “the Bûdhisattva of the great universe,” because there is such a Bûdhisattva, viz., Kshitigarbha, who was invoked by Buddha at the time of his temptation by Mâra; and because I do not think that *tai tî* can be rendered *universe.* The reference appears to be to one Nâga, viz., Anavatapta Nâgaraja.
30 In the Chinese Jambudvîpa is represented by three symbols, Shen-pu-chau; the last symbol means an “isle” or “islet,” and therefore the compound is equivalent to Jambudvîpa.
31 The *King-kia* or Ganges river was anciently written *Hang-ho* or
From the south of the lake, through a golden elephant’s mouth, proceeds the Sindhu (Sin-to) 32 river; encircling the lake once, it flows into the south-western sea.

From the western side of the lake, from the mouth of a horse of lapis-lazuli, proceeds the river Vakshu (Po-tsu), 33 and encircling the lake once, it falls into the north-western sea. From the north side of the lake, through the mouth of a crystal lion, proceeds the river Sītā (Si-to), 34 and encircling the lake once, it falls into the north-eastern sea.

River Hang. It was also written Hang-kia (Ch. Ed.)

32 Sin-to, the Sindhu or Indus; formerly written Sin-t'au (Ch. Ed.)
33 The Vakshu (Po-tsu, formerly written Pok-ch'a) is the Oxus or Amu-Daria (Idrisi calls it the Wakshah-ab), which flows from the Sarik-kul lake in the Pamir plateau, lat. 37° 27’ N., long. 73° 40’ E., at an elevation of about 13,950 feet. It is supplied by the melting snows of the mountains, which rise some 3500 feet higher along its southern shores. It is well called, therefore, “the cool lake” (Anavatapta). The Oxus issues from the western end of the lake, and after “a course of upwards of a thousand miles, in a direction generally north-west, it falls into the southern end of the lake Aral” (Wood). This lake Lieut. Wood intended to call Lake Victoria. Its name, Sarik-kul,—“the yellow valley”—is not recognised by later travellers, some of whom call it Kul-i-Pamir-kulān, “the lake of the Great Pamir,”


34 The Sītā (Si-to, formerly written Si-t’o) is probably the Yarkand river (the Zarafshan). This river rises (according to Prejevalsky) in the Karakorum mountains, at an elevation of 18,850 feet (lat. 35°30’ N. long. 77°45’ E.). It takes a north and then a westerly course, and passing to the eastward of Lake Sarik-kul, bends to the north and finally to the east. It unites with the Kashgar and Khotan rivers, and they conjointly form the Tarim, which flows on to Lake Lob, and is there lost. The Sītā is sometimes referred to the Jaxartes or the Sarik-kul river (Jour. Roy. Asi. Soc., N.S., vol. vi. p. 120). In this case it is identified with the Silis of the ancients (Ukert, Geographie der Griechen und Romen, vol. iii. 2, p. 238). It is probably the Side named by Ktesias,—“stagnum in Indis in quo nihil innatet, omnia mergentur” (Pliny, H. N., lib. xxi. 2, 18). This agrees with the Chinese account that the Yellow River flows from the “weak water” (Joshuati), which is a river “fabled to issue from the foot of the Kwên-lun mountain.” “It owes its name to the peculiar nature of the water, which is incapable of supporting even the weight of a feather” (Mayers, sub voc.) This last remark agrees curiously with the comment on Játaka xxi., referred to by Minayef in his Pāli Grammar (p. ix. Guyard’s translation), which derives the name of Śidā from sad + ava, adding that “the water is so subtle that the feather of a peacock cannot be supported by it, but is swallowed up” (Pāli, siditi, from root sad, “to sink?”). A river Silas is mentioned in the Mahābhārata (vi. 6, sl. 219), north of Mēru. Megasthenes mentions both a fountain and river Silas which had the same peculiarity.
They also say that the streams of this river Sitā, entering the earth, flow out beneath the Tsīh rock mountain, and give rise to the river of the middle country (China).

At the time when there is no paramount wheel-monarch, then the land of Jambudvīpa has four rulers.

On the south “the lord of elephants;” the land here is warm and humid, suitable for elephants.

On the west “the lord of treasures;” the land borders on the sea, and abounds in gems.

On the north “the lord of horses;” the country is cold and hard, suitable for horses.

On the east “the lord of men;” the climate is soft and


25 The Tsīh rock, or the mountain of "piled up stones" (tsīh-shīh-shan). This mountain is placed in my native map close to the "blue sea," in the "blue sea" district (the region of Koko-nor). It may probably correspond with the Khadatu-bulak (rock fountain) or the Tsaghan Ashibantu (white rock) in Prejevalsky’s map. Both of these are spurs of the Altyn-Tagh range of mountains. Dr. Eitel, in his Handbook (sub voc. Sitā), says that “the eastern outflour of the Anavatapta lake... losses itself in the earth, but reappears again on the Āsmakūṭā mountains, as the source of the river Hoangho.” Here, I assume, the Āsmakūṭā mountains correspond with the Tsīh-shīh-shan of the text.

The “River of China” is the Yellow River. Concerning its source consult Baron Richthofen’s remarks on Prejevalsky’s Lōb Nor (p. 137, seq.) The old Chinese opinion was that the source of the river was from the Milky Way—Tsīn-ho) Mayers, p. 311). It was found afterwards that the source was in the Sing-suh-hai, i.e., the “starry sea,” which is marked on the Chinese map, and is probably the same as the Oring-nor.

27 This clause might also be rendered “when there is no wheel-king allotted to rule over Jambudvīpa, then the earth is divided between four lords.”

28 Gajapati, a name given to kings; also the name of an old king of the south of Jambudvīpa (Monier Williams, Sansk. Dict. sub voc.) Abu Zaid al Hassan says this was the title given by the Chinese to the “king of the Indies” (Renaudot, Moham. Trav. (Eng. edit., 1733), p. 53.

29 Chhatrapati or Chattrapa, “lord of the umbrella,” a title of an ancient king in Jambudvīpa (hence Strätrap). Julien, p. lxxv. n.; Monier Williams, sub voc.

30 Āśvapati (Jal.) I have translated king by “hard.” Julien has omitted it.

31 Narapati, one of the four mythical kings of Jambudvīpa (Mon. Williams, sub voc.) It was assumed
agreeable (exhilarating), and therefore there are many men.

In the country of "the lord of elephants" the people are quick and enthusiastic, and entirely given to learning. They cultivate especially magical arts. They wear a robe thrown across them, with their right shoulder bare; their hair is done up in a ball on the top, and left undressed on the four sides. Their various tribes occupy different towns; their houses are built stage over stage.

In the country of "the lord of treasures" the people have no politeness or justice. They accumulate wealth. Their dress is short, with a left skirt. They cut their hair and cultivate their moustache. They dwell in walled towns and are eager in profiting by trade.

The people of the country of "the lord of horses" are naturally (t'ien tzu') wild and fierce. They are cruel in disposition; they slaughter (animals) and live under large felt tents; they divide like birds (going here and there) attending their flocks.

The land of "the lord of men" is distinguished for the wisdom and virtue and justice of the people. They wear a head-covering and a girdle; the end of their dress

the dynasty ruling at Vijayanagara by in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The Arab travellers of the ninth century say the Chinese gave this title to the emperor of China, and also to "the king of Greece" (Renaudot, u. z., p. 53). Compare the Homeric epithet, Ἄρεως. ἐξορυκτ. 42 I have taken the "therefore" to be part of this sentence, not of the next.

43 This seems to me to be the meaning—"they wear a cross-scarf." Julien translates, they wear a bonnet, "posè en travers."

44 This passage seems to mean that their clothes, which are cut short, overlap to the left—literally, "short, fashion, left, overlapping" (jia, the place where garments overlap.—Medhurst, Ch. Dict., sub voc.)

45 So I take it. The expression shā lāh means "to slaughter." I do not understand Julien's "et tuent leurs semblables." There is a passage, however, quoted by Dr. Bretschneider (Notices of the Medieval Geography, &c., of Western Asia, p. 114), from Rubruquis, which alludes to a custom among the Tibetans corresponding to that in Julien's translation—"post hos sunt Tebet, homines solentes comedere parentes suos defunctus." But, which is not the case in the text, the barbarians are made to slay their kin in order to eat them. Conf. Renaud, Relat., tom. i. p. 52; Renaudot, Moham. Truv. (Eng. ed., 1733), pp. 33, 46, and Remarks, p. 53; Rennie, Peking, vol. ii. p. 244; Yule's Marco Polo, vol. i. pp. 292, 302.
(girdle) hangs to the right. They have carriages and robes according to rank;\(^48\) they cling to the soil and hardly ever change their abode; they are very earnest in work, and divided into classes.

With respect to the people belonging to these three rulers, the eastern region is considered the best; the doors of their dwellings open towards the east, and when the sun rises in the morning they turn towards it and salute it. In this country the south side is considered the most honourable. Such are the leading characteristics in respect of manners and customs relating to these regions.

But with regard to the rules of politeness observed between the prince and his subjects, between superiors and inferiors, and with respect to laws and literature, the land of "the lord of men" is greatly in advance. The country of "the lord of elephants" is distinguished for rules which relate to purifying the heart and release from the ties of life and death; this is its leading excellency. With these things the sacred books and the royal decrees are occupied. Hearing the reports of the native races and diligently searching out things old and new, and examining those things which came before his eyes and ears, it is thus he (i.e., Hiuen Tsiang) obtained information.

Now Buddha having been born in the western region and his religion having spread eastwards, the sounds of the words translated have been often mistaken, the phrases of the different regions have been misunderstood on account of the wrong sounds, and thus the sense has been lost. The words being wrong, the idea has been perverted. Therefore, as it is said, "it is indispensable to have the right names, in order that there be no mistakes."

Now, men differ according to the firmness or weakness of their nature, and so the words and the sounds (of their languages) are unlike. This may be the result either of

\(^48\) Literally, carriages and robes possess) carriages and robes, and have order or rank. It might also, schools." without violence, be translated "(they
climate or usage. The produce of the soil differs in the same way, according to the mountains and valleys. With respect to the difference in manners and customs, and also as to the character of the people in the country of "the lord of men," the annals sufficiently explain this. In the country of "the lord of horses" and of "the lord of treasures" the (local) records and the proclamations explain the customs faithfully, so that a brief account can be given of them.

In the country of "the lord of elephants" the previous history of the people is little known. The country is said to be in general wet and warm, and it is also said that the people are virtuous and benevolent. With respect to the history of the country, so far as it has been preserved, we cannot cite it in detail; whether it be that the roads are difficult of access, or on account of the revolutions which have occurred, such is the case. In this way we see at least that the people only await instruction to be brought to submission, and when they have received benefit they will enjoy the blessing of civilization (pay homage). How difficult to recount the list of those who, coming from far, after encountering the greatest perils (difficulties), knock at the gem-gate 47 with the choice tribute of their country and pay their reverence to the emperor Wherefore, after he (Hien Tsiang) had travelled afar in search of the law, in his moments of leisure he has preserved these records of the character of the lands (visited). After leaving the black ridge, the manners of the people are savage (barbarous). Although the barbarous tribes are intermixed one with the other, yet the different races are distinguishable, and their territories have well-defined boundaries. Generally speaking, as the land suits, 48 they build walled towns and devote themselves to agriculture and raising cattle. They

47 The gem-gate, I should think, is the Yuh-mun, the western frontier rally speaking they are sedentary of the empire, not the gate of the emperor's palace.
naturally hoard wealth and hold virtue and justice in light esteem. They have no marriage decorum, and no distinction of high or low. The women say, "I consent to use you as a husband and live in submission, (and that is all)." When dead, they burn the body, and there is no determined period for mourning. They scar their faces and cut their ears. They crop their hair and tear their clothes. They slay their herds and offer them in sacrifice to the manes of the dead. When rejoicing, they wear white garments; when in mourning, they clothe themselves in black. Thus we have described briefly points of agreement in the manners and customs of these people. The differences of administration depend on the different countries. With respect to the customs of India, they are contained in the following records.

Leaving the old country of Kau-chang, from this neighbourhood there begins what is called the 'O-ki-ni country.

'O-ki-ni.

(Anciently called Wu-ki.)

The kingdom of 'O-ki-ni (Agni or Agni) is about 500 li from east to west, and about 400 li from north to south.

40 This sentence appears to allude to the custom of polyandry, or rather to the custom of the province of Kamul (Yule's Marco Polo, bk. i. ch. xii. vol. i. pp. 212, 214). It amounts to this: the woman says, "I consent whilst using you as a husband to submit," or "I consent to use you as a husband whilst dwelling under the roof." Julien translates it: "Ce sont les paroles des femmes qu'on suit; les hommes sont placés au-dessus d'elles."

50 They do all this when bereaved, that is, of their relatives, and when they mourn.

51 Leaving the ancient land of Kau-chang, i.e., the land which had long been occupied by the Uigurs or Turks. The route of Hsien Tsaiang up to this point is detailed in his life. Leaving Liang-chau (a prefecture in Kansuh), he proceeded to Kwa-chau; he then crossed the Hulu river (Bulunghir) and advanced northward and westward through the desert. Having passed Hami and Pidshan, keeping westward, he comes to Turfan, the capital of the Uigur country. He then advances to 'O-ki-ni.

24 'O-ki-ni. This may otherwise be written Wu-ki. Julien writes Yen-ki. The symbol $w$ is said sometimes to have the sound $y$. This country corresponds to Karshar, or Kara-shahr, near the lake Tenghiz (Bagarash).
The chief town of the realm is in circuit 6 or 7 li. On all
sides it is girt with hills. The roads are precipitous and
easy of defence. Numerous streams unite, and are led in
channels to irrigate the fields. The soil is suitable for
red millet, winter wheat, scented dates, grapes, pears, and
plums, and other fruits. The air is soft and agreeable;
the manners of the people are sincere and upright. The
written character is, with few differences, like that of India.
The clothing (of the people) is of cotton or wool. They go
with shorn locks and without head-dress. In commerce
they use gold coins, silver coins, and little copper coins.
The king is a native of the country; he is brave, but little
attentive to (military) plans, yet he loves to speak of his
own conquests. This country has no annals. The laws are
not settled. There are some ten or more Sūnghārdāmas with
two thousand priests or so, belonging to the Little Vehicle,
of the school of the Sarvāstivādās (Shwo-yih-tsai-yu-po).
The doctrine of the Sūtras and the requirements of the
Vinaya are in agreement with those of India, and the books
from which they study are the same. The professors of re-
ligion read their books and observe the rules and regulations
with purity and strictness. They only eat the three pure ali-
ments, and observe the method known as the "gradual" one.54

Going south-west from this country 200 li or so, sur-
mounting a small mountain range and crossing two large
rivers, passing westwards through a level valley some 700
li or so, we come to the country of K'iu-chi 55 [anciently
written Kuei-tzŭ].

53 Tai yin, to carry off or lead here and there. The text means they lead
the water in channels from reservoirs.
54 The transition doctrine between
the Little and Great Vehicle.
55 The route here described to
Kuche would agree tolerably well
with that laid down on Prejevalsky's
map, viz., 200 li south-west to Koria,
passing two rivers (for the Bulgaktai-
gol and the Kaidu-gol, after uniting,
appear to bifurcate before reaching
Karashahr), crossing a spur of the
Kurugh-tagh range, and then keep-
ing westward for about 150 miles
across a level valley-plain to Kuchā. See Bretschneider, Not. Med.
Géogr., p. 149. I may observe that the
pronunciation of k'iu in K'iu-chi is
determined in a note, as equal to
k(u) and (w)uh, that is kuh.
Kingdom of K'iu-chi (Kuchê).

The country of K'iu-chi is from east to west some thousand li or so; from north to south about 600 li. The capital of the realm is from 17 to 18 li in circuit. The soil is suitable for rice and corn, also (a kind of rice called) keng-t'ao; it produces grapes, pomegranates, and numerous species of plums, pears, peaches, and almonds, also grow here. The ground is rich in minerals—gold, copper, iron, and lead, and tin. The air is soft, and the manners of the people honest. The style of writing (literature) is Indian, with some differences. They excel other countries in their skill in playing on the lute and pipe. They clothe themselves with ornamental garments of silk and embroidery. They cut their hair and wear a flowing covering (over their heads). In commerce they use gold, silver, and copper coins. The king is of the K'iu-chi race; his wisdom being small, he is ruled by a powerful minister. The children born of common parents have their heads flattened by the pressure of a wooden board.

There are about one hundred convents (saúghárámas) in this country, with five thousand and more disciples. These belong to the Little Vehicle of the school of the Sarvástivādus (Shwo-yih-tsai-yu-po). Their doctrine (teaching of Sutras) and their rules of discipline (principles of the Vinaya) are like those of India, and those who read them use the same (originals). They especially hold to the

56 A rice which is not glutinous (Jul.), i.e., common rice.
57 The grape in Chinese is pu-ta'ou; this is one of the products which the earth is said to have produced naturally, and on which men (all flesh) fed for a period; those who took little retaining their whiteness of colour, those who ate greedily turning dark-coloured. (See in the Chung-hu-mo-ho-ti-king, k. i: fol. 3). The similarity between this word pu-ta'ou and the Greek βόρσερ has been pointed out by Mr. Kingsmill.
58 The mistake in the text of ming for yuen is pointed out by M. Julien.
59 The symbol ho sometimes means "embroidered work done by puncturing leather"—Medhurst. This seems more applicable to the passage than the other meaning of felt or coarse-wool.
60 This is a well-known custom among some tribes of North American Indians.
customs of the "gradual doctrine," and partake only of the three pure kinds of food. They live purely, and provoke others (by their conduct) to a religious life.

To the north of a city on the eastern borders of the country, in front of a Dèva temple, there is a great dragon-lake. The dragons, changing their form, couple with mares. The offspring is a wild species of horse (dragon-horse), difficult to tame and of a fierce nature. The breed of these dragon-horses became docile. This country consequently became famous for its many excellent horses. Former records (of this country) say: "In late times there was a king called 'Gold Flower,' who exhibited rare intelligence in the doctrines (of religion). He was able to yoke the dragons to his chariot. When the king wished to disappear, he touched the ears of the dragons with his whip, and forthwith he became invisible."

From very early time till now there have been no wells in the town, so that the inhabitants have been accustomed to get water from the dragon lake. On these occasions the dragons, changing themselves into the likeness of men, had intercourse with the women. Their children, when born, were powerful and courageous, and swift of foot as the horse. Thus gradually corrupting themselves, the men all became of the dragon breed, and relying on their strength, they became rebellious and disobedient to the royal authority. Then the king, forming an alliance with the Tuh-kiueh (Turks), massacred the men of the city; young and old, all were

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61 The word for "excellent" in the original is shen. There is a good deal said about these horses (called shen) in the account of the early intercourse of China with Turkestan (circ. 105 B.C.) See a paper by Mr. Kingsmill in the J. R. A. S., N.S., vol. xiv. p. 99 n. Compare Marco Polo, bk. i. cap. 2, "excellent horses known as Turquans." &c.; also Yule's note 2, and what is said about the white mares.—Yule's Marco Polo, vol. i. chap. 61, pp. 45, 46, 291.

62 The Tuh-kiueh, or Turks, are the same as the Hsiing-nu or Karanirs, who drove the Yueh-chi or Yueh-ti (Viddhals) from the neighbourhood of the Chinese frontier (J. R. A. S. loc. cit. p. 77); they are to be distinguished from the Tokhari, who overran the Greco-Baktrian kingdom and were driven thence by the Viddhals, who had fled before the Hsiing-nu, and attacked the Tokhari from the west (p. 81). See note 121 infra.
destroyed, so that there was no remnant left; the city is now a waste and uninhabited.

About 40 li to the north of this desert city there are two convents close together on the slope of a mountain, but separated by a stream of water, both named Chau-hu-li, being situated east and west of one another, and accordingly so called. (Here there is) a statue of Buddha, richly adorned and carved with skill surpassing that of men. The occupants of the convents are pure and truthful, and diligent in the discharge of their duties. In (the hall of) the eastern convent, called the Buddha pavilion, there is a jade stone, with a surface of about two feet in width, and of a yellowish white colour; in shape it is like a sea-shell; on its surface is a foot trace of Buddha, 1 foot 8 inches long, and eight inches or so in breadth; at the expiration of every fast-day it emits a bright and sparkling light.

Outside the western gate of the chief city, on the right and left side of the road, there are (two) erect figures of Buddha, about 90 feet high. In the space in front of these statues there is a place erected for the quinquennial assembly. Every year at the autumnal equinox, during ten several days, the priests assemble from all the country in this place. The king and all his people, from the highest to the lowest, on this occasion abstain from public business, and observe a religious fast; they listen to the

63 So I think the passage must be translated. It is not the mountain that is divided by a stream, but the convents which stand on the slope of the mountain. The mountain, therefore, would slope to the north or south, and the convents stand east and west of one another, with a stream between them.

64 That is, called the Eastern "Chau-hu-li" and the Western "Chau-hu-li." The expression chau-hu-li, although perfectly intelligible, is difficult to translate. The symbol li probably means a "pair" or "couple;" chau-hu means "supported, or dependent on, the brightness of the sun." The title, therefore, would be "bright-supported pair," referring, of course, to their receiving the eastern and western light of the sun respectively.

65 I do not think there are two images; the text says, "the image of Buddha exquisitely adorned," &c.

66 Called Pāñchavarsha or Pāñchavarshika, and instituted by Aśoka.—Jul. See note 178 inf.
sacred teachings of the law, and pass the days without weariness.

In all the convents there are highly adorned images of Buddha, decorated with precious substances and covered with silken stuffs. These they carry (on stated occasions) in idol-cars, which they call the "procession of images." On these occasions the people flock by thousands to the place of assembly.

On the fifteenth and last day of the month the king of the country and his ministers always consult together respecting affairs of state, and after taking counsel of the chief priests, they publish their decrees.

To the north-west of the meeting-place we cross a river and arrive at a convent called 'O-she-li-ni.\(^{67}\) The hall of this temple is open and spacious. The image of Buddha is beautifully carved. The disciples (religious) are grave and decorous and very diligent in their duties; rude and rough (men)\(^{68}\) come here together; the aged priests are learned and of great talent, and so from distant spots the most eminent men who desire to acquire just principles come here and fix their abode. The king and his ministers and the great men of the realm offer to these priests the four sorts of provision; and their celebrity spreads farther and farther.

The old records say: "A former\(^{69}\) king of this country worshipped the 'three precious' ones.\(^{70}\) Wishing to pay homage to the sacred relics of the outer world, he intrusted the affairs of the empire to his younger brother on the mother's side. The younger brother having received such orders, mutilated himself in order to prevent any evil risings\(^{71}\) (of passion). He enclosed the mutilated

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\(^{67}\) 'O-she-li-ni, according to the Ch. text, means "extraordinary" or "unique;" it may possibly be intended for Asokharana.

\(^{68}\) So it seems to mean, fei tse pung shi, "criminals and rude (men) come together here."

\(^{69}\) I translate the symbol *sien* by "former" or "previous;" not by "first" or "the first." It appears to refer to a past king, indefinite as to time.

\(^{70}\) Buddha, the law, the community.

\(^{71}\) Or, "evil suspicions."
parts in a golden casket, and laid it before the king. 'What is this?' inquired the king. In reply he said, 'On the day of your majesty's return home, I pray you open it and see.' The king gave it to the manager of his affairs, who intrusted the casket to a portion of the king's bodyguard to keep. And now, in the end, there were certain mischief-making people who said, 'The king's deputy, in his absence, has been debauching himself in the inner rooms of the women.' The king hearing this, was very angry, and would have subjected his brother to cruel punishment. The brother said, 'I dare not flee from punishment, but I pray you open the golden casket.' The king accordingly opened it, and saw that it contained a mutilated member. Seeing it, he said, 'What strange thing is this, and what does it signify?' Replying, the brother said, 'Formerly, when the king proposed to go abroad, he ordered me to undertake the affairs of the government. Fearing the slanderous reports that might arise, I mutilated myself. You now have the proof of my foresight. Let the king look benignantly on me.' The king was filled with the deepest reverence and strangely moved with affection; in consequence, he permitted him free ingress and egress throughout his palace.  

"After this it happened that the younger brother, going abroad, met by the way a herdsman who was arranging to geld five hundred oxen. On seeing this, he gave himself to reflection, and taking himself as an example of what they were to suffer, he was moved with increased compassion, (and said), 'Are not my present sufferings the consequence of my conduct in some former condition of life?' He forthwith desired with money and precious jewels to redeem this herd of oxen. In consequence of this act of love, he recovered by degrees from mutilation, and on this account he ceased to enter the apartments of the women. The king, filled with wonder, asked him the

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72 Inner palace, palace of the women, "the harem."
73 My present mutilated form.
reason of this, and having heard the matter from beginning to end, looked on him as a 'prodigy' (khi-teh), and from this circumstance the convent took its name, which he built to honour the conduct of his brother and perpetuate his name."

After quitting this country and going about 600 li to the west, traversing a small sandy desert, we come to the country of Poh-luh-kia.

**Poh-luh-kia [Bālukā or Aksū].**

*(Formerly called Che-meh or Khi-meh.)*

The kingdom of Poh-luh-kia is about 600 li from east to west, and 300 li or so from north to south. The chief town is 5 or 6 li in circuit. With regard to the soil, climate, character of the people, the customs, and literature (laws of composition), these are the same as in the country of K'iu-chi. The language (spoken language) differs however a little. It produces a fine sort of cotton and hair-cloth, which are highly valued by neighbouring (frontier) countries.

There are some ten saūgdrāmas here; the number of priests (priests and followers) is about one thousand. These follow the teaching of the "Little Vehicle," and belong to the school of the Sarvāstivādas (Shwo-yih-tsai-yu-po).*75*

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*74* Khi-meh doubtless represents the Kou-mé of Julien (see the *Mémoire Analytique* by V. St. Martin, *Mem. s. l. Contr. Occid.*, tom. ii. p. 265); it was formerly the eastern portion of the kingdom of Aksu. The name Poh-lu-kia or Bālukā is said to be derived from a Turkish tribe which "in the fourth century of our era occupied the north-western parts of Kansu."—*Ibid.* p. 266. The modern town of Aksu is 56 geog. miles E. from Usb-turfan, in lat. 41° 12' N., long. 79° 30' E. Aksu is 156 Eng. miles in a direct line W.S.W. from Kuchā, which is in lat. 41° 38' N., long. 83° 25' E. on Col. Walker's map.*75* The school of the Sarvāstivādas; one of the early schools of Buddhism, belonging to the Little Vehicle, *i.e.*, the Hinayāna, or the imperfect mode of conveyance. This early form of Buddhism, according to Chinese accounts, contemplated only the deliverance of a portion of the world, viz., the Saṅgha or society; the Mahāyāna or complete (great) mode of conveyance, on the other hand, taught a universal deliverance. The Sarvāstivādas believed in "the existence of things," opposed to idealism. Burnouf, *Intro* *d.* (2d edit.), p. 397; Vassilief, *Boudhik*, pp. 57, 78, 113, 243, 245.
Going 300 li or so to the north-west of this country, crossing a stony desert, we come to Ling-shan (ice-mountain). This is, in fact, the northern plateau of the T’sung-ling range, and from this point the waters mostly have an eastern flow. Both hills and valleys are filled with snowpiles, and it freezes both in spring and summer; if it should thaw for a time, the ice soon forms again. The roads are steep and dangerous, the cold wind is extremely biting, and frequently fierce dragons impede and molest travellers with their inflictions. Those who travel this road should not wear red garments nor carry loud-sounding calabashes. The least forgetfulness of these precautions entails certain misfortune. A violent wind suddenly rises with storms of flying sand and gravel; those who encounter them, sinking through exhaustion, are almost sure to die.

Going 400 li or so, we come to the great Tsing lake.

76 Ling-shan, called by the Mongols “Musur-aola,” with the same meaning. — V. de St. Martin, p. 266.

77 I translate it thus, because it agrees with Hwui-lin’s account in the Life of Hiuen Tsang, although it may also be rendered “this is (or, these mountains are) to the north of the T’sung-ling. The waters of the plateau,” &c. The T’sung-ling mountains are referred to in the Twelfth Book; they are called T’sung, either because the land produces a great quantity of onions (t’ung), or because of the blue (green) colour of the mountain sides. On the south they join the great Snowy Mountains; on the north they reach to the “hot-sea,” i.e., the Tsing lake, of which he next speaks. So that the Icy Mountains form the northern plateau of the range. The rivers which feed the Tarim do, in fact, take their rise here. Conf. Jour. R. Geog. Soc., vol. xl. p. 344; Wood’s Orms, p. xl.

78 The inflictions or calamities alluded to are the sand and gravel storms, referred to below.

79 Or, it may be “ought not to carry calabashes nor shout loudly.” Perhaps the reason why calabashes are forbidden is that the water freezing in them might cause them to burst with a loud sound, which would cause the “snow piles” to fall. Why “red garments” should be interdicted is not so plain, unless dragons are enraged by that colour.

80 The Tsing (limpid) lake is the same as Issyk-kul, or Temurto. It is 5200 feet above the sea-level. It is called Jo-hai, “the hot sea,” not because its waters are warm, but because when viewed from the Ice Mountain, it appears hot by comparison (note in the Life of Hiuen Tsang). The direction is not given here; but from Aksu to Issyk-kul is about 110 English miles to the north-east. Conf. Bretschneider, Med. Geog., note 57, p. 37; Jour. R. Geog. Soc., vol. xxxix. pp. 318 ff., vol. xl. pp. 250, 344, 375-399, 449-
This lake is about 1000 li in circuit, extended from east to west, and narrow from north to south. On all sides it is enclosed by mountains, and various streams empty themselves into it and are lost. The colour of the water is a bluish-black, its taste is bitter and salt. The waves of this lake roll along tumultuously as they expend themselves (on the shores). Dragons and fishes inhabit it together. At certain (portentous) occasions scaly monsters rise to the surface, on which travellers passing by put up their prayers for good fortune. Although the water animals are numerous, no one dares (or ventures) to catch them by fishing.

Going 500 li or so to the north-west of the Tsing lake, we arrive at the town of the Su-yeh river. This town is about 6 or 7 li in circuit; here the merchants from surrounding countries congregate and dwell.

The soil is favourable for red millet and for grapes; the woods are not thick, the climate is windy and cold; the people wear garments of twilled wool.

Passing on from Su-yeh westward, there are a great number of deserted towns; in each there is a chieftain (or over each there is established a chief); these are not dependent on one another, but all are in submission to the Tuh-kiueh.

From the town of the Su-yeh river as far as the Kishwang-na country the land is called Su-li, and the people are called by the same name. The literature (written characters) and the spoken language are likewise so called. The primary characters are few; in the begin-

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81 That is, the town of Su-yeh, situated on the river Chu or Chui. Hwui-lih also calls it the town of Su-yeh (k. ii. fol. 4 a). The same symbol (yeh) is used both in the Si-yu-ki, and the Life of Hsuen Tsiang. The site of this town is not now known (vid. V. de St. Martin, ut sup., p. 271). It may be the present Constantinovski, or perhaps Badasan, the capital of the Kara-khitai, on the river Chu. Conf. Bretschneider, Med. Geog., note 37, p. 36; Chin. Med. Trav., p. 50, 114; Trans. Russ. Geog. Soc., 1871, vol. ii. p. 365.

82 Several tens.

83 Kasanna (Jul.) It is the modern Kesh, in lat. 39° 4' N., long. 66° 50' E. In Eitel's Handbook (sub Kachan'a) it is said to be the region near Kernina. See note 116 infra.
ning they were thirty\textsuperscript{84} or so in number; the words are composed by the combination of these; these combinations have produced a large and varied vocabulary.\textsuperscript{85} They have some literature,\textsuperscript{86} which the common sort read together; their mode of writing is handed down from one master to another without interruption, and is thus preserved. Their inner clothing is made of a fine hair-cloth (linen); their outer garments are of skin, their lower garments of linen, short and tight.\textsuperscript{87} They adjust their hair so as to leave the top of the head exposed (\textit{that is}, they shave the top of their heads). Sometimes they shave their hair completely. They wear a silken band round their foreheads. They are tall of stature, but their wills are weak and pusillanimous. They are as a rule crafty and deceitful in their conduct and extremely covetous. Both parent and child plan how to get wealth; and the more they get the more they esteem each other; but the well-to-do and the poor are not distinguished; even when immensely rich, they feed and clothe themselves meanly. The strong bodied cultivate the land; the rest (\textit{hā`f}) engage in money-getting (\textit{business}).

Going west from the town Su-yeh 400 li or so, we come to the "Thousand springs."\textsuperscript{88} This territory is about 200 li square. On the south are the Snowy Mountains, on the other sides (\textit{three boundaries}) is level tableland. The soil is well watered; the trees afford a grateful shade, and the flowers in the spring months are varied and like

\textsuperscript{84} So my copy has it: Julien translates it \textit{thirty-two}.

\textsuperscript{85} Literally, "the flowing forth from these has gradually become large and varied."

\textsuperscript{86} "Some historical records" (\textit{Shu-ki}); or, it may be, "they have books and records."

\textsuperscript{87} This difficult passage seems to mean that they use linen as an article of clothing; that their upper garments (jackets or jerkins) are of leather; their breeches are of linen, made short and tight.

\textsuperscript{88} That is, Myn-bulak (Bingheul), a country with innumerable lakes —Eitel. Myn-bulak lies to the north of the road from Aulıe-ata to Tersa; the high mountains to which it clings are the Urtak-taū. "The Kirghizes, even now, consider Myn-bulak to be the best place for summer encampment between the Chu and the Syr-Daria." "Here there is good pasturage, with a dense and succulent herbage, and there are numerous clear springs." — Severtsof,

tapestry. There are a thousand springs of water and lakes here, and hence the name. The Khan of the Tuh-kiueh comes to this place every \(\text{(year)}\) to avoid the heat. There are a thousand deer here, many of which are ornamented with bells and rings;\textsuperscript{90} they are tame and not afraid of the people, nor do they run away. The Khan is very fond of them, and has forbidden them to be killed on pain of death without remission; hence they are preserved and live out their days.

Going from the Thousand springs westward \(140\) or \(150\) li, we come to the town of Ta-lo-sae (Taras).\textsuperscript{90} This town is \(8\) or \(9\) li in circuit; merchants from all parts assemble and live here with the natives (Tartars). The products and the climate are about the same as Su-yeh.

Going \(10\) li or so to the south, there is a little deserted town. It had once about \(300\) houses, occupied by people of China. Some time ago the inhabitants were violently carried off by the Tuh-kiueh, but afterwards assembling a number of their countrymen, they occupied this place in common.\textsuperscript{91} Their clothes being worn out, they adopted the Turkish mode of dress, but they have preserved their own native language and customs.

\textsuperscript{90} Probably the "rings" (lacean) refer to neck-collars.

\textsuperscript{91} The little deserted town alluded to in the text is named elsewhere (St. Martin, \textit{Mémoires sur l'Arménie}, tom. ii. p. 118). We gather from Huen Tsiang that the inhabitants were originally captives, carried off from China by the Turks, who assembled and formed a community in this place.
Going 200 li or so south-west from this, we come to the town called Peh-shewui ("White Water"). This town is 6 or 7 li in circuit. The products of the earth and the climate are very superior to those of Ta-lo-sse.

Going 200 li or so to the south-west, we arrive at the town of Kong-yu, which is about 5 or 6 li in circuit. The plain on which it stands is well watered and fertile, and the verdure of the trees grateful and pleasing. From this going south 40 or 50 li, we come to the country of Nu-chih-kien.

**NU-CHIH-KIEN [NUJKEND].**

The country of Nu-chih-kien is about 1000 li in circuit; the land is fertile, the harvests are abundant, the plants and trees are rich in vegetation, the flowers and

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92 The town called "White Water" is the Isfijab of Persian writers according to V. de St. Martin, p. 274.
93 The bearing south-west in this and the preceding case from Turkistân (if, with Julien, we identified that town with Taras) would take us over the Jaxartes and away from Tashkand (Che-shi). In the tabular statement given by St. Martin (p. 274) the bearings and distances are as follows:—From Ta-lo-sse to Peh-shewui, 200 li to the south; Peh-shewui to Kong-yu, 200 li southerly; Kong-yu to Nu-chih-kien, 50 li south; Nu-chih-kien to Che-shi, 200 li west. But the bearing from Taras to the "White Water" (Peh-shewui) is south-west, and from the "White Water" to Kong-yu is again south-west. We have then a short distance of 50 li to the south to Nu-chih-kien, after which there are 200 li west to Tashkand. Working back from Tashkand, which appears to be a certain point according to the distances and bearings given, we reach to about the River Talas, far to the eastward of Turkistân. If Aulié-ata on the Talas (lat. 43° 55' N., long. 71° 24' E., and 110 geog. miles from the river Chu) be his Ta-lo-sse, then his route would lie across the head waters of the Karagati—a feeder of the Chu, and of the Jar-su—an affluent of the Talas, where we should place the Thousand Springs. But Myn-bulak is to the west of the Talas on the way to Tersa (35 miles west of Aulié-ata), which may be Ta-lo-sse. From Tersa, on a river of the same name which flows between Myn-bulak and the Urtak-taü hills, his route must have been to the south-west, either by Chemkent to Tashkand—the same route as was afterwards followed by Chenghiz Khán; or he must have gone over the Aksai hills, on the road to Namangan, into the valley of the Chatkal or Upper Chirchik, and so south-west and then west to Tashkand. Myn-bulak, however, is north-east of Tersa, not east. See Severtsod's account of the country from Lake Issyk-kul to Tashkand in *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.*, vol. xl. pp. 353–358, 363–379, &c., also p. 410. The site of Kong-yu has not been ascertained.
fruit plentiful and agreeable in character. This country is famous for its grapes. There are some hundred towns which are governed by their own separate rulers. They are independent in all their movements. But though they are so distinctly divided one from the other, they are all called by the general name of Nu-chih-kien.

Going hence about 200 li west, we come to the country of Che-shi (stony country).

**CHE-SHI [Châj].**

The country of Che-shi⁵⁵ is 1000 or so li in circuit. On the west it borders on the river Yeh.⁵⁶ It is contracted towards the east and west, and extended towards the north and south. The products and climate are like those of Nu-chih-kien.

There are some ten towns in the country, each governed by its own chief; as there is no common sovereign over them, they are all under the yoke of the Tuh-kiueh. From this in a south-easterly direction some 1000 li or so, there is a country called Fei-han.

**FEI-HAN [FERGHANAH].⁶⁷**

This kingdom is about 4000 li in circuit. It is enclosed by mountains on every side. The soil is rich and fertile,
it produces many harvests, and abundance of flowers and fruits. It is favourable for breeding sheep and horses. The climate is windy and cold. The character of the people is one of firmness and courage. Their language differs from that of the neighbouring countries. Their form is rather poor and mean. For ten years or so the country has had no supreme ruler. The strongest rule by force, and are independent one of another. They divide their separate possessions according to the run of the valleys and mountain barriers. Going from this country westward for 1000 li or so, we come to the kingdom of Su-tu-li-sse-na.

**SU-TU-LI-SSE-NA [SUTRISHNA].**

The country of Su-tu-li-sse-na is some 1400 or 1500 li in circuit. On the east it borders on the Yeh river (Jaxartes). This river has its source in the northern plateau of the Tsung-ling range, and flows to the northwest; sometimes it rolls its muddy waters along in quiet, at other times with turbulence. The products and eus-

98 Hiuen Tsang did not go to Ferghânah. The symbol used is chi, not king. This will explain why the writer of the Life of Hiuen Tsang (Hwu-lih) omits all mention of Ferghânâ, and takes the pilgrim west from Tâshkand to Su-tu-li-sse-na, 1000 li. So that in the text we are to reckon 1000 li (200 miles approximately) not from Khokand, but from Tâshkand. It must be remembered that the kingdom or country of Su-tu-li-sse-na is spoken of, not a town.

99 Sutrishna (Satrughna), also called Ustrush, Ustrusha, Setrushta, and Isterushan) or Ustrusha is a country "well known to Arabian geographers, situated between Ferghânâ and Samarkand."—V. St. Martin, p. 278. It is described in the text as bordering on the Jaxartes on the east; we may suppose, therefore, that this river was its eastern boundary. It is said to be 1500 li in circuit; we may place the western boundary, therefore, some 500 li to the west of Khojend. This limit would meet the requirements of the text, where the country is described as reaching 1000 li west from Tâshkand. Of course west means to the west of south-west. The town of Sutrishna is now represented by Ura-Tape, Uratippa or Ura-timû, which is some 40 miles south-west from Khojend and 100 miles south-south-west from Tâshkand (lat. 39°57 N., long. 69°57 E). The Syr-daria, Shân or Jaxartes, however, is to the north of Uratimû. Ouseley, Orient. Geog., p. 261; Ariana Antiq., p. 162; Edrisi (Joubert's transl.), tom. ii., pp. 203, 206; Baber's Memoirs, pp. xii, 9.
toms of the people are like those of Che-shi. Since it has had a king, it has been under the rule of the Turks.

North-west 109 from this we enter on a great sandy desert, where there is neither water nor grass. The road is lost in the waste, which appears boundless, and only by looking in the direction of some great mountain, and following the guidance of the bones which lie scattered about, can we know the way in which we ought to go.

SÄ-MO-KIEN (SAMARKAND).

The country of Sä-mo-kien 101 is about 1600 or 1700 li in circuit. From east to west it is extended, from north to south it is contracted. The capital of the country is 20 li or so in circuit. It is completely enclosed by rugged land and very populous. The precious merchandise of many foreign countries is stored up here. The soil is rich and productive, and yields abundant harvests. The forest trees afford a thick vegetation, and flowers and fruits are plentiful. The Shen horses are bred here. The inhabitants are skilful in the arts and trades beyond those of other countries. The climate is agreeable and temperate. The people are brave and energetic. This country is in the middle of the Hu people (or this is the middle

109 Here again there is no intimation that Huien Tsiang traversed this desert. It is merely stated that there is such a desert on the north-west of the kingdom of Sutrishpa. It is the desert of Kizil-kum. There is no occasion, therefore, to change the direction given in the text. (See Julien's note in loco). Conf. Jour. R. Geog. Soc., vol. xxxviii. pp. 435, 438, 445.

of the Hu). They are copied by all surrounding people in point of politeness and propriety. The king is full of courage, and the neighbouring countries obey his commands. The soldiers and the horses (cavalry) are strong and numerous, and principally men of Chih-kia. These men of Chih-kia are naturally brave and fierce, and meet death as a refuge (escape or salvation). When they attack, no enemy can stand before them. From this going south-east, there is a country called Mi-mo-ho.

**MI-MO-HO [MAGHIÁN].**

The country Mi-mo-ho is about 400 or 500 li in circuit. It lies in the midst of a valley. From east to west it is narrow, and broad from north to south. It is like Sa-mo-kien in point of the customs of the people and products. From this going north, we arrive at the country K'ie-po-ta-na.

**K'IE-PO-TA-NA [KEBÜD].**

The country of K'ie-po-ta-na is about 1400 or 1500 li in circuit. It is broad from east to west, and narrow.
from north to south. It is like Sa-mo-kien in point of customs and products. Going about 300 li to the west (of Samarkand), we arrive at K’iu-h-shwang-ni-kia.

K’iu-h-shwang-ni-kia [Kashania].

The kingdom of K’iu-h-shwang-ni-kia is 1400 or 1500 li in circuit; narrow from east to west, broad from north to south. It resembles Sa-mo-kien in point of customs and products. Going 200 li or so west from this country, we arrive at the Ho-han country.

Ho-han [Kuan].

This country is about 1000 li in circuit; in point of customs and products it resembles Sa-mo-kien. Going west from here, we come, after 400 li or so, to the country of Pu-ho.

Pu-ho [Bokhara].

The Pu-ho country is 1600 or 1700 li in circuit; it is broad from east to west, and narrow from north to south. In point of climate and products it is like Sa-mo-kien. Going west from this 400 li or so, we come to the country Fa-ti.

108 In Chinese "What country?" Kashania, described as a beautiful and important town of Sogdih, half way between Samarkand and Bokhara. This exactly suits the text, which places it 300 li (60 miles) west of Samarkand. — Istakhr., Mordtmann’s Troad., p. 131; Edrisi, tom. ii. pp. 199, 201; Ouseley, Orient. Geog., p. 258; Abulfeda, Chor. et Mavur. Desc., p. 48.

109 Eastern repose. — Ch. Ed.

110 Pu-ho is probably Bokhara; the distance of course is too great, unless we consider the reference to be to the limits of the country. The symbols used by Hwui-lih are the same as in the Si-yu-ki; Julian has misled V. St. Martin by writing "Pou-kho." — Conf. Jour. R. Geog. Soc., vol. xxxvii. p. 432; Baber’s Mem., p. 38; Moorcroft and Trebeck’s Travels; Wolff’s Mission; &c.

111 Western repose country. — Ch. Ed.

112 In Chinese "What country?" Kashania, described as a beautiful and important town of Sogdih, half way between Samarkand and Bokhara. This exactly suits the text, which places it 300 li (60 miles) west of Samarkand. — Istakhr., Mordtmann’s Troad., p. 131; Edrisi, tom. ii. pp. 199, 201; Ouseley, Orient. Geog., p. 258; Abulfeda, Chor. et Mavur. Desc., p. 48.
FA-TI [BETIK].

This country is 400 li or so in circuit. In point of customs and produce it resembles Sa-mo-kien. From this going south-west 500 li or so, we come to the country Ho-li-sih-mi-kia.

HO-LI-SIH-MI-KIA [KHWArazilm].

This country lies parallel with the banks of the river Po-tsu (Oxus). From east to west it is 20 or 30 li, from north to south 500 li or so. In point of customs and produce it resembles the country of Fa-ti; the language, however, is a little different.

From the country of Sa-mo-kien going south-west 300 li or so, we come to Ki-shwang-na.

Fa-ti is no doubt Bétik. The distance from Pu-ho in the text differs from that given by Hwul-lih; the latter gives 100 li, which is doubtless correct. The whole distance from Samarkand west to the Oxus would thus be 1000 li, which corresponds to 200 miles, the actual measurement. The importance of Bétik is derived from its being the most usual place of passage over the river by those going from Bokhara to Khorasan.

Ho-li-sih-mi-ka corresponds with Khwarazilm. It is the Khorasmia of Strabo, lib. xi. c. 8 (p. 513); Pliny, vi. 16. Pharasmanes, king of the Khorasmi, came to Alexander with 1500 horsemen and said that his kingdom was “next to the nation of the Kolkhi and the Amazon women.”—Arrian, Anab., lib. iv. 15; conf. Herodotus, lib. iii. 93, 117; Ptolemy, Geog., lib. vi. c. 12, 4; Q. Curt., vii. 4, viii. r; Dionys. Per., 746; Steph. Byz. sub voc.; Baber, Mem., p. xxxi. The bearing south-west in the text is west in Hwul-lih. The distance 500 li is the same in both. M. Viv. de St. Martin suggests north-west as the bearing, and adds that Hwul-lih makes the distance 100 li (Mémoire, p. 283, n. 1). This is a mistake. For notices respecting the power of the Khwarazilm empire and the proceedings of Chinghiz Khan in destroying it;—vid. R. K. Douglas, Life of Jenghis Khan, pp. xv. seq. It is true that Huien Taishang says that Khwarazilm runs parallel to both banks of the Oxus. But as Hwul-lih says it is bounded on the east by the Oxus, I think the symbol liang (two) is a mistake for ri (west), in which case the text would make the country parallel to the west bank of the Oxus.

The pilgrim now takes us back to the country of Samarkand; he reckons 300 li in a south-west direction to Kesh. The reckoning, I think, is from Kashania, where we left him; this was probably the western limit of the kingdom of Samarkand. Kesh or Shahr-sabs (39° 2' N., 66° 53' E.) lies due south-west from this point about 70 miles. Baber’s Memoirs, pp. 36 and 54; Jour. R. Geog. Soc., vol. x1 p. 400; D’Herbelot, Bib. Or., p. 238; and see note 83 supra.

Country of historians.—Ch. Ed.
KI-SHWANG-NA [KESH].

This kingdom is about 1400 or 1500 li in circuit; in customs and produce it resembles the kingdom of SAMO-KIEN.

From this place going south-west 200 li or so, we enter the mountains; the mountain road is steep and precipitous, and the passage along the defiles dangerous and difficult. There are no people or villages, and little water or vegetation. Going along the mountains 300 li or so south-east, we enter the Iron Gates. The pass so called is bordered on the right and left by mountains. These mountains are of prodigious height. The road is narrow, which adds to the difficulty and danger. On both sides there is a rocky wall of an iron colour. Here there are set up double wooden doors, strengthened with iron and furnished with many bells hung up. Because of the protection afforded to the pass by these doors, when closed, the name of iron gates is given.

Passing through the Iron Gates we arrive at the country.

118 Hwui-lih also gives Ki-shwang-na as the name of this country (conf. V. St. Martin, Mémoire, p. 283, n. 3).

119 The iron gates, Kohlugh or Kalugah (Mong. "a barrier"), a mountain pass about 90 miles south-south-east from Samarkand, 50 miles south-south-east from Kesh, and 8 miles west of Derbent, in lat. 38° 11' N., long. 66° 54' E.

The distance and bearing from Kesh given in the text is south-west 200 li + south-east 300 li, which would give about the right distance in a straight line. These Iron Gates are marked on the Chinese maps; they are called tieh men to, i.e., the iron-gate-island (or eminence) from which the Mul-ho (Amu) flows. There has been some confusion between this place and the iron gates at Derbend on the Caspian, called by the Turks Destré Käpi; compare Yule's Marco Polo (book i. cap. iv.), vol. i. pp. 52 and notes, pp. 55-58; and vol. ii. pp. 494, 495, 537; M. V. de St. Martin (Mémoire, p. 284) says that the pilgrim "indicates the beginning of the mountains at 200 li to the south-east of Ki-shwang-na, and the defile properly so called at 300 li farther on, in the same direction." But this is not so; the first bearing is south-west, then through the mountains in a south-east direction. For a notice of the Irongate pass, in connection with Chenghiz Khán, see Douglas, u. a., p. 66. Conf. Baber's Mem., pp. xxxvi. 132; Gauli, Hist. de Genghiscon, p. 257; P. de la Croix, Hist. de Timuride, tom. i. pp. 33, 62, &c.; Edrisi, tom. i. p. 484; Wood's Oxus, Yule's int., p. lxi.; Markham's Chu. vijo, p. 122; Bretschneider, Chine Med. Trav., p. 41 and n.; Med. Gey., p. 61.
of the Tu-ho-lo.\textsuperscript{120} This country, from north to south, is about 1000 li or so in extent, from east to west 3000 li or so. On the east it is bounded by the T'sung-ling mountains, on the west it touches on Po-li-ssee (Persia), on the south are the great Snowy Mountains, on the north the Iron Gates.\textsuperscript{121} The great river Oxus flows through the midst of this country in a westerly direction. For many centuries past the royal race has been extinct. The several chieftains have by force contended for their possessions, and each held their own independently, only relying upon the natural divisions of the country. Thus they have constituted twenty-seven states,\textsuperscript{122} divided by natural boundaries, yet as a whole dependent on the Tu-

\textsuperscript{120} Formerly written by mistake To-te-lo.

\textsuperscript{121} The country here described as Tu-ho-lo is the Tukhara of Sanskrit, and the Tokhristan of the Arabian geographers. It corresponds with the Ta-hia of Sze-ma-t'sien. Ta-hia is generally identified with Baktria, but the limits of Baktria are not defined, except that it is separated from Sogdiana by the Oxus. No doubt this land of Tukhara was that inhabited by the Tokhari, who were neighbours to the Dahae, both of them mountain tribes (see the question discussed \textit{Jour. R. As. Soc.}, N.S., vol. vi. pp. 95, 96). Mr. Kingsmill has given the substance of Sze-ma-t'sien's account of Ta-hia and the surrounding tribes (\textit{Jour. R. As. Soc.}, N.S., vol. xiv. pp. 77 ff). It is to be observed, however, that Huien Ts'ang, when speaking of the Turks, \textit{i.e.}, the Yüeh-chi and Ye-thu, who had overrun this part of Central Asia, uses different symbols from those employed here. In the first case the people are called Tukh-kiu-chi; in this case the country is called Tu-ho-lo. The land of the Tokhari (Tokhristan) need not be connected with the people called Tukh-kiu-chi—the Hsiung-nu or Kar-niru—although it was afterwards overrun by them. See n. 62 supra.


\textsuperscript{122} So also the Greeks when they took possession of Baktria divided it into satrapies, two of which, Aspasia and Turiva, the Parthians wrested from Eukratides.—Strabo, lib. xi. c. 11, 2 (p. 517). The numerous coins belonging to the Greek period in Baktria probably relate to these satrapies, and not to an undivided Baktrian kingdom. See \textit{Ariana Antiqua}, p. 160.
kiueh tribes (Turks). The climate of this country is warm and damp, and consequently epidemics prevail.

At the end of winter and the beginning of spring rain falls without intermission; therefore from the south of this country, and to the north of Lamghān (Lān-po), diseases from moisture (moist-heat) are common. Hence the priests retire to their rest (rain-rest) on the sixteenth day of the twelfth month, and give up their retirement on the fifteenth day of the third month. This is in consequence of the quantity of rain, and they arrange their instructions accordingly. With regard to the character of the people, it is mean and cowardly; their appearance is low and rustic. Their knowledge of good faith and rectitude extends so far as relates to their dealings one with another. Their language differs somewhat from that of other countries. The number of radical letters in their language is twenty-five; by combining these they express all objects (things) around them. Their writing is across the page, and they read from left to right. Their literary records have increased gradually, and exceed those of the people of Su-li. Most of the people use fine cotton for their dress; some use wool. In commercial transactions they use gold and silver alike. The coins are different in pattern from those of other countries.

Following the course of the Oxus as it flows down from the north, there is the country of Ta-mi.

**TA-MI [TERMED].**

This country is 600 li or so from east to west, and 400 li or so from north to south. The capital of the country

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123 So Sze-ma-t'sien describes the people of Ta-hia: "There was no supreme ruler; each city and town elected its own chief. Its soldiers were weak and cowards in battle, fit only for traders." (Kingsmill, loc. cit.)

124 Termed or Termiz, on the north bank of the Ann-daria. Conf. Ba-

is about 20 li in circuit, extended from east to west, and narrow from north to south. There are about ten saṅghārāmas with about one thousand monks. The stūpas and the images of the honoured Buddha are noted for various spiritual manifestations. Going east we arrive at Ch’i-ngoḥ-yen-na. 105

CH’I-NGOH-YEN-NA [CHAGHĀNIĀN]. 126

This country extends about 400 li from east to west, and about 500 li from north to south. The capital is about 10 li in circuit. There are some five saṅghārāmas, which contain a few monks. Going east we reach Hwūḥ-lo-mo.

Hwūḥ-lo-mo 127 [GARMA].

This country is some 100 li in extent from east to west,

128 Before entering on this excursion, it will be better to explain Huien Tsang’s actual route. From a comparison of the text with the narrative of Hwui-lih, it will be seen that, after leaving the Iron gates, and entering Tulhāra, he proceeded across the Oxus to the country called Hwo. This almost certainly is represented by Kunduz, on the eastern bank of the Surkh-āb. Here he met with the eldest son of the Khān of the Turks. This prince had married the sister of the king of Kao-chang, from whom Huien Tsang had letters of recommendation. After some delay the pilgrim proceeded, in company with some priests from Bakhī, to that city (Po-ho). Here he remained examining the sacred relics of his religion for some days. From this he departs southwards along the Bakhī river to Dara-gaz, and there entering the mountains, he proceeds still southwards to Bāmiyān. So that of all the countries named between the Oxus and the Hindu Kush, Huien Tsang only himself visited Hwo (Kunduz), Po-ho (Balkh), Kie-chi (Gaz), and Fan-yen-na (Bāmiyān). This is gathered not only from the records found in Hwui-lih, but also from the use of the symbol king. The excursion begins from Termed, at which point he probably crossed the Oxus, and proceeds, as the text says, along the northern flow of the river.

130 Chaghāniān, or Saghāniān, probably corresponds with Hisār, on the Karateghin (or northern) branch of the Oxus, as the text says; the town is in lat. 38° 29' N., long. 69° 17' E. It included the valley of the Surkhan and Upper Kafirnahan. Jour. R. Ass. Soc., N.S., vol. vi. p. 96; Baber’s Mem., p. xxxv.; Ouseley, Or. Geog., p. 277; Edrisi, tom. i. p. 480; Wood’s Oxus., Yule’s Int., p. Ixii; Ocean Highways, 1876, p. 328.

131 From the eastern direction given we should expect the river to bend eastwards; we find it does so. There can be little question, therefore, that Colonel Yule is right in restoring Hwūḥ-lo-mo to Garma, the capital of Karateghin district, on the Surkh-āb or Vakhsh. Jour. R. Ass. Soc., N.S., vol. vi. p. 96; Jour. R. Geog. Soc., vol. xii. pp. 338 ff.; Wood’s Oxus, p. lxx.; V. de St. Martin conjecturally identified it with Shadumān Hisār.
and 300 li from north to south. The capital is about 10 li in circuit. The king is a Turk of the Hi-su tribe. There are two convents and about one hundred monks. Going east 128 we arrive at the Su-man country.

**SU-MAN [SUMÂN AND KULĀB].**

This country extends 400 li or so from east to west, and 100 li from north to south. The capital of the country is 16 or 17 li in circuit; its king is a Hi-su Turk. There are two convents and a few monks. On the south-west this country borders on the Oxus, and extends to the Kio-ho-yen-na country.

**KIO-HO-YEN-NA [KUBĀDIĀN].**

From east to west it is 200 li or so in extent; from north to south 300 li or so. The capital is 10 li or so in circuit. There are three convents and about one hundred monks. Still eastward is the country of Hu-sha.

**HU-SHA 129 [WAKHSH].**

This country is about 300 li from east to west, and 500 li or so from north to south. The capital is 16 or 17 li in circuit. Going eastwards we arrive at Kho-to-lo.

**KHO-TO-LO 130 [KHOTL].**

This kingdom is 1000 li or so from east to west, and extending to Kubâdián (Kio-ho-yen-na), which lies between the Kafrnanan and Wageeh rivers,—the town of Kubâdián being in lat. 37° 21' N., long. 68° 9' E., 57 miles N.N.E. of Khulm. *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.,* vol. xlii. pp 456, 509 n.

128 This expression "going east" need not imply that the country indicated lies to the eastward of the last named, but that it is eastward of the line of advance, which would in this case be the northern branch of the Oxus. Hence this country of Sumân, which has been identified with the Shumân of the Arab geographers (Edrisi, tom. ii. p. 203; Abulfeda, *Chor. et Mavur*, p. 38; Ouseley, *Or. Geog.*, p. 277), is said to have the Oxus on the south-west,


130 Kho-to-lo is represented by Khotl or Khotlân, the Kuti of
the same from north to south. The capital is 20 li or so in circuit. On the east it borders on the Tsung-ling mountains, and extends to the country of Kiu-mi-to.

KIU-MI-TO [KUMIDHA, 131 OR DARWAZ AND ROSHĀN].

This country extends 2000 li from east to west, and about 200 li from north to south. It is in the midst of the great Tsung-ling mountains. The capital of the country is about 20 li in circuit. On the south-west it borders on the river Oxus; 132 on the south it touches the country of Shi-ki-ni. 133

Passing the Oxus on the south, 134 we come to the kingdom of Ta-mo-sih-teh-ti, 135 the kingdom of Po-to-

Édrisi, and is described in the text as stretching eastward to the Tsung-ling mountains (Famir), and bordered on the south by the valley of the Kōmādai, or plain of Kurkantūbā and lower valley of the Vakhsh. It would thus correspond with the country to the north-east of Kulāb. Conf. Deguignes, H. des Huna, tom. v. p. 28; Bretschneider, Med. Geog., p. 170 n.; Ouseley, Oriental Geog., pp. 230, 276.


134 That is, to the south of the Amu or Panja. The pilgrim having described the districts first in a northerly direction, then east of the main stream, now leaving the valley of the Shīgnān, which runs along the northern side of the Panja, he recounts the names of districts to the south of that river.

135 Ta-mo-sih-teh-ti was restored doubtfully to Tanamsthi by Julien. It is the Termistat of the Arab geographers, one stage from the famous stone bridge on the Wakhsh-āb or Sūrk-āb, and one of the chief towns of Khutl.—Jour. R. Geog. Soc., vol. xiii. p. 508 n. See also Wood's Oxus, pp. lxxi, 260;
ch'ang-na, 186 the kingdom of In-po-kin, 187 the kingdom of Kiu-lang-na, 188 the kingdom of Hi-mo-to-lo, 139 the kingdom of Po-li-ho, 140 the kingdom of Khi-li-seh-mo, 141 the kingdom of Ho-lo-hu, 142 the kingdom of O-li-ni, 143 the kingdom of Mung-kin. 144

Going from the kingdom of Hwo (Kunduz) south-east,


Julien has made a mistake (Mém. t. ii. p. 201) in giving the width of the valley at 400 or 500 li; it should be 4 or 5 li, according to the India Office Library copy. It would thus be a valley some 300 miles long, and about a mile wide. On Captain Trotter's map the long valley of Wakhān extends through more than two degrees of longitude, viz., from 72° to 74° 30' E. long.; but following the winding of the river it might probably approach the length assigned by Hüen Ts'iang. See also Yule, u. a. pp. 111-113.


136 In-po-kin, probably Yamgān, the old name of the valley of the Kokchā, from Jerm upwards.—Yule.

137 Kiu-lang-na represents Kurān, a name applied to the upper part of the Kokchā valley, about Lajward (Wood). Celebrated for mines of lapis-lazuli.—See Yule, u. a.

138 Hi-mo-to-lo. This certainly would correspond with Himataia, the Chinese explanation being "under the Snowy Mountains" (kuma + tala).—Julien, Mém., tom. i. p. 178. Colonel Yule has identified it with Darām, or, as it is otherwise given, Darah-i-aim. (See his remarks, Jour. R. As. Soc., N.S., vol. vi. p. 108; Wood's Oxus, p. lxxvii.

140 Po-li-ho must be in the neighbourhood of the Varsakh river, a tributary of the Kokchā. Wood, in his map, has a district called Farokhar or Farkhar, which may represent Po-li-ho or Parika.

141 Khi-li-seh-mo is no doubt Khrishma or Kishm, north of Farkhar, and thirty-two miles east of Tālikān. Yule's Marco Polo, vol. i. p. 163.

142 Ho-lo-hu represents Rāgh, an important sīf in the north of Badakshān between the Kokchā and the Oxus (Yule).

143 O-li-ni. This, as Colonel Yule says, "is assuredly a district on both sides of the Oxus," of which the chief place formerly bore the name of Ahreng; the Hazrat Imām of Wood's map, 26 miles north of Kunduz. Yule, u. a. p. 106; P. de la Croix, H. de Tauriac, t. i. pp. 172, 175; Institutes of Timur, p. 95.

144 Mung-kin. Julien has by mistake given the circuit of this district as 4000 li (Mém., tom. ii. p. 194), instead of 400 li. This has been observed by Colonel Yule (p. 105, u. a.) It probably is represented by the district from Tālikān and Khanābād, and the valley of the Ferkhan, in the east of Kunduz or Kataghan. This Tālikān is the Thālikān of the Arab geographers. Marco Polo visited it. Ouseley, Orient. Geog., pp. 223, 224, 230, 231; Baber's Mem., pp. 38, 130; Yule's Marco Polo, vol. i. p. 166. Conf. Burns, Trav. in Bokhara, vol. iii., p. 8; Wood's Oxus, pp. lxxxi, 156; Bretschneider, Med. Geog., p. 195. There is a district called Munjān, in the south of Badakshān, between the sources of the Kokchā and Gogardasht.
we come to the kingdom of Chen-seh-to,\textsuperscript{145} the kingdom of 'An-ta-la-po \textsuperscript{146} (Andarâb), remarks concerning which may be found in the return records.

Going south-west from the country of Hwo, we arrive at the kingdom of Fo-kia-lang (Baghlân).

**FO-KIA-LANG [BAGHLÂN].**

This country\textsuperscript{147} is 50 li or so from east to west, and 200 li or so from north to south; the capital is about 10 li in circuit. Going south, we come to the country of Hi-lu-sih-min-kien (Rûi-samangân).

**HI-LU-SIH-MIN-KIEN [RÛI-SAMANGÂN].\textsuperscript{148}**

This country is about 1000 li in circuit, the capital about 14 or 15 li. On the north-west it borders on the kingdom of Ho-lin (Khulm).

**HO-LIN [KULM].**

This country is 800 li or so in circuit, the capital is 5 or 6 li in circumference; there are about ten convents and 500 monks. Going west, we come to the country of Po-ho (Balkh).

**PO-HO [BALKH].**

This country is about 800 li from east to west, and 400 li from north to south; on the north it borders on the Oxus. The capital is about 20 li in circuit. It is

\textsuperscript{145} Chen-seh-to, for Kwo-seh-to, i.e., Khusta or Khost, located by Yule between Talikân and Indarâb. A district now known as Khost is in Afghanistan, south of the Kuram valley. *Jour. R. Geog. Soc.*, vol. xxxii. p. 311.

\textsuperscript{146} An-ta-la-po, i.e., Andarâb or Indarâb. Lat. 35° 40' N.; long. 69° 27' E.


called generally the little Rājagrīha. This city, though well (strongly) fortified, is thinly populated. The products of the soil are extremely varied, and the flowers, both on the land and water, would be difficult to enumerate. There are about 1000 convents and 3000 monks, who all study the religious teaching of the Little Vehicle.

Outside the city, towards the south-west, there is a convent called Navasaṅghārāma, which was built by a former king of this country. The Masters (of Buddhism), who dwell to the north of the great Snowy Mountains, and are authors of Śāstras, occupy this convent only, and continue their estimable labours in it. There is a figure of Buddha here, which is lustrous with (reflects the glory of) noted gems, and the hall in which it stands is also adorned with precious substances of rare value. This is the reason why it has often been robbed by chieftains of neighbouring countries, covetous of gain.

This convent also contains (possesses) a statue of Pi-

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149 So I think it ought to be translated. It is called the "Little Rājagrīha" in consequence of the numerous Buddhist sites in its neighbourhood, lying in that respect with the Magadha capital. This is plainly intimated in the Life of Huen Tsiang (Julien's trans., p. 64), where the Khàn says that "it is called the Little Rājagrīha: its sacred relics are exceedingly numerous;" the latter being the explanation of the former. On Balkh, see Burnes, Travels (1st ed.), vol. i. pp. 237-240; Ferrier, Caravan Journ., pp. 206, 207; B. de Meynard, Les Prairies d'Or, t. iv. p. 48; Dict. Géog.-Hist. de Perse, p. 571; Jour. R. Geog. Soc., vol. xiii. p. 510; De Herbelot, Bibl. Orient., p. 167; Hyde, Hist. Rel. vet. Pers., p. 494; Yule's Marco Polo, vol. i. p. 128; Catay, p. 179; Bretschneider, Mod. Geog., p. 196; Chin Med. Trac., pp. 47, 117.

150 Julien gives south-east by mistake.

151 This passage seems to require the use of a past tense, "this convent formerly (su) had;" and so Julien renders it. But it appears to me improbable, if the statue of Vaiśravana was in existence when the foray was made, "in recent times," that it should have been lost or destroyed so soon afterwards. Moreover, the symbol su has sometimes the sense of "a present condition" (as, for example, in the Chung Yung, xiv. 1. 2). Considering the sentence which follows, where the interior of the Saṅghārāma is spoken of, I should prefer to think that su is a mistake for ts'ien; they both have the meaning of "before" or "formerly," but ts'ien also has the sense of "in front of." In this case the passage would run: "In front of the Saṅghārāma there is a figure of Vaiśravana Dēva." This Dēva was the protector of the convent, not so much that he was Kubera, the god of wealth, as that he was the guardian of the north.
sha-men (Vaiśravaṇa) Dēva, by whose spiritual influence, in unexpected ways, there is protection afforded to the precincts of the convent. Lately the son of the Khān Yeh-hu (or She-hu), belonging to the Turks, becoming rebellious, Yeh-hu Khān broke up his camping ground, and marched at the head of his horde to make a foray against this convent, desiring to obtain the jewels and precious things with which it was enriched. Having encamped his army in the open ground, not far from the convent, in the night he had a dream. He saw Vaiśravaṇa Dēva, who addressed him thus: "What power do you possess that you dare (to intend) to overthrow this convent?" and then hurling his lance, he transfixed him with it. The Khān, affrighted, awoke, and his heart penetrated with sorrow, he told his dream to his followers, and then, to atone somewhat for his fault, he hastened to the convent to ask permission to confess his crime to the priests; but before he received an answer he died.

Within the convent, in the southern hall of Buddha, there is the washing-basin which Buddha used. It contains about a peck, and is of various colours, which dazzle the eyes. It is difficult to name the gold and stone of which it is made. Again, there is a tooth of Buddha about an inch long, and about eight or nine tenths of an inch in breadth. Its colour is yellowish white; it is pure and shining. Again, there is the sweeping brush of Buddha, made of the

This was perhaps the most northern Buddhist establishment in existence; at any rate, it was built for the convenience of northern priests.

This sentence may otherwise be rendered: "Lately the son of the Turk Yeh-hu-khān, whose name was Sse-yeh-hu-khān, breaking up his camping ground," &c. Yeh-hu is the Khān that Huien Tsang met on the rich hunting grounds of the Ch'u-river (Vie de Huien Thsang, p. 55). If the name of his son was Sse-yeh-hu, then doubtless it is he who proposed to sack the Saṅghārāma. But if see has the sense of "rebelling," then it would be Yeh-hu-khān himself who is referred to. I am inclined to think it must have been the son, whose name was Sse; but the repetition of the name Yeh-hu-khān is perplexing. The symbols po-lo correspond with the Turkish work bulak, camping ground or cantonment.

Teou, a dry measure of ten pints.

This may mean—the golden-like stone of which it is made has a difficult name, or the metal (gold) and stone are difficult to name.
plant "Ka-she" (hāsē). It is about two feet long and about seven inches round. Its handle is ornamented with various gems. These three relics are presented with offerings on each of the six fast-days by the assembly of lay and cleric believers. Those who have the greatest faith in worship see the objects emitting a radiance of glory.

To the north of the convent is a stūpa, in height about 200 feet, which is covered with a plaster hard as the diamond, and ornamented with a variety of precious substances. It encloses a sacred relic (she-li), and at times this also reflects a divine splendour.

To the south-west of the convent there is a Vihāra. Many years have elapsed since its foundation was laid. It is the resort (of people) from distant quarters. There are also a large number of men of conspicuous talent. As it would be difficult for the several possessors of the four different degrees (fruits) of holiness to explain accurately their condition of saintship, therefore the Arhats (Lo-han), when about to die, exhibit their spiritual capabilities (miraculous powers), and those who witness such an exhibition found stūpas in honour of the deceased saints. These are closely crowded together here, to the number of several hundreds. Besides these there are some thousand others, who, although they had reached the fruit of holiness (i.e., Arhatship), yet having exhibited no spiritual changes at the end of life, have no memorial erected to them.

At present the number of priests is about 100; so irregular are they morning and night in their duties, that it is hard to tell saints from sinners.¹⁵⁶

To the north-west of the capital about 50 li or so we arrive at the town of Ti-wei; 40 li to the north of this

¹⁵³ It may be "hard as the diamond," or "shining like the diamond."

¹⁵⁶ There is evidently a false reading here. I think the character 夕, which, in connection with the following character, 坐, means "remiss and idle," is for 坐, which would qualify 坐 in the sense of "absence of idleness." The passage would then read: "Morning and night there is an absence of idleness, but it is difficult to conjecture who are saints and who not."
town is the town of Po-li. In each of these towns there is a stūpa about three chang (30 feet) in height. In old days, when Buddha first attained enlightenment after advancing to the tree of knowledge,¹⁵⁷ he went to the garden of deer;¹⁵⁸ at this time two householders¹⁶⁹ meeting him, and beholding the brilliant appearance of his person, offered him from their store of provisions for their journey some cakes and honey. The lord of the world, for their sakes, preached concerning the happiness of men and Dēvas, and delivered to them, his very first disciples,¹⁶⁰ the five rules of moral conduct and the ten good qualities (sken, virtuous rules).¹⁶¹ When they had heard the sermon, they humbly asked for some object to worship (offer gifts). On this Tathāgata delivered to them some of his hair and nail-cutting. Taking these, the merchants were about to return to their own country,¹⁶² when they asked of Buddha the right way of venerating these relics. Tathāgata forthwith spreading out his Saṅghātī on the ground as a square napkin, next laid down his Uttarāsvaṅga and then his Saṅkākṣhikā; again over these he placed as a cover his begging-pot, on which he erected his mendicant's staff.¹⁶³ Thus he placed them in order, making thereby

¹⁵⁷ This passage might perhaps also be rendered "after gazing with delight on the Bōdhi tree." The symbol tsmi has such a meaning, and it would be in strict agreement with the legend.
¹⁵⁸ That is, the garden at Banāras.
¹⁵⁹ Two merchant-lords (chang-ché).
¹⁶⁰ "The very first to hear the five," &c.
¹⁶¹ That is, the five Sīlās and the ten Sīlās. See Childers, Pali Dict., sub sīlā. The story of the two merchants alluded to in the text is one well known in the Buddhist legend. It will be found in Spence Hardy's Manual of Buddhism (3d ed.) pp. 186, 187, and note; also in the Fo-sho-king-ts'un-king, p. 167; Bigandet, Legend of Gaudama, vol. i. p. 108; Besl, Rom. Legend, p. 236. The incident is also found amongst the Amarāvati sculptures (Tree and Serp. Worship, pl. lviii. fig. 1, middle disc).
¹⁶² Their own country was Suvarṇabhūmi or Burma.
¹⁶³ This translation differs from that of M. Julien. I take the construction thus: tā ng kia ch‘i, "taking his saṅghātī;" fang thee po, "as a square napkin" (i.e., folding it into this shape); kia, "he placed it underneath." The rest of the sentence, then, will follow as I have translated it. The monument erected as a shrine for the relics given on this occasion is said to be the far-famed Shwè-dagun at Rangoon.—Az. Researches, vol. xvi., quoted by Spence Hardy, M. B., p. 187 n.
(the figure of) a stūpa. The two men taking the order, each went to his own town, and then, according to the model which the holy one had prescribed, they prepared to build a monument, and thus was the very first Stūpa of the Buddhist religion erected.

Some 70 li to the west of this town is a Stūpa about two chang (20 feet) in height. This was erected in the time of Kāśyapa Buddha. Leaving the capital and going south-west, entering the declivities of the Snowy Mountains, there is the country of Jui-mo-to [Jumadh?].

Jui-mo-to [Jumadh?].

This country is 50 or 60 li from east to west, and 100 li or so from north to south. The capital is about 10 li in circuit. Towards the south-west is the country of Hu-shi-kien (Jûzgân).

Hu-shi-kien [Jûzgâna].

This country is about 500 li from east to west, and about 1000 li from north to south. The capital is 20 li in circuit. It has many mountains and river-courses. It produces excellent (shen) horses. To the north-west is Ta-la-kien.

Ta-la-kien [Tâlikân].

This country is 500 li or so from east to west, and 50 or 60 li from north to south. The capital is 10 li about in circuit. On the west it touches the boundaries of Persia. Going 100 li or so south from the kingdom of Po-ho (Balkh), we arrive at Kie-chi.

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164 A position near Sir-i-pul seems indicated.—Yule, u. a., p. 101.
165 On the borders of Khorasân, in the valley of the Murghâb.—Ouseley, Orient. Geog., pp. 175, 220; Edrisi, tom. i. pp. 468, 478; Jour. A., ser. vi., tom. xiii., pp. 175-179. There is a Tâlikân also in Badakshân. See n. 145 ante.
166 Here the true itinerary is resumed. Huen Tsiang now leaves Balkh, and travels south about twenty miles to Gaz or Darah-Gaz. "This valley will be found in Macartney's map to Elphinstone, in the map to Ferrier's Travels, &c., about one march south of Balkh, about half-way between that town and
Kie-chi [Gachi or Gaz].

This country from east to west is 500 li or so, from west to south 300 li. The capital is 4 or 5 li in circuit. The soil is stony, the country a succession of hills. There are but few flowers or fruits, but plenty of beans and corn. The climate is wintry; the manner of the people hard and forbidding. There are some ten convents or so, and about 200 priests. They all belong to the school of the Sarvāstivādas, which is a branch of the Little Vehicle.

On the south-east we enter the great Snowy Mountains. These mountains are high and the valleys deep; the precipices and hollows (crevasses) are very dangerous. The wind and snow keep on without intermission; the ice remains through the full summer; the snow-drifts fall into the valleys and block the roads. The mountain spirits and demons (demon sprites) send, in their rage, all sorts of calamities; robbers crossing the path of travellers kill them. Going with difficulty 600 li or so, we leave the country of Tuhkàra, and arrive at the kingdom of Fanyen-na (Bâmiyân).

Fanyen-na [Bâmiyân].

This kingdom is about 2000 li from east to west, and 300 li from north to south. It is situated in the midst

Dehas. Ibn Haukal also states that the hill-country south of Balkh is called Ghaz (Ouseley, Or. Geog., pp. 243, 244, 270). Darah-Gaz is mentioned in Timur's Institutes (p. 59), and it was the scene of a rout of Humayûn's little army by the Uzbeks in 1549.—Erskine's Baber and Humayun, vol. ii, pp. 373, 376; Yule, Jour. R. As. Soc., N.S., vol. vi, p. 102; Jour. As. Soc. Bengal, vol. xxii, p. 164.

My text gives 200 as the number of the priests; but the error is in the printing: it ought to be 300.

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of the Snowy Mountains. The people inhabit towns either in the mountains or the valleys, according to circumstances. The capital leans on a steep hill, bordering on a valley 6 or 7 li in length. On the north it is backed by high precipices. It (the country) produces spring-wheat and few flowers or fruits. It is suitable for cattle, and affords pasture for many sheep and horses. The climate is wintry, and the manners of the people hard and uncultivated. The clothes are chiefly made of skin and wool, which are the most suitable for the country. The literature, customary rules, and money used in commerce are the same as those of the Tukhâra country. Their language is a little different, but in point of personal appearance they closely resemble each other. These people are remarkable, among all their neighbours, for a love of religion (a heart of pure faith); from the highest form of worship to the three jewels, down to the worship of the hundred (i.e., different) spirits, there is not the least absence (decrease) of earnestness and the utmost devotion of heart. The merchants, in arranging their prices as they come and go, fall in with the signs afforded by the spirits. If good, they act accordingly; if evil, they seek to propitiate the powers. There are ten convents and about 1000 priests. They belong to the Little Vehicle, and the school of the Lôkôttaravâdins (Shwo-ch’uhsi-pu).

To the north-east of the royal city there is a mountain, on the declivity of which is placed a stone figure of Buddha,
erect, in height 140 or 150 feet. Its golden hues sparkle on every side, and its precious ornaments dazzle the eyes by their brightness.

To the east of this spot there is a convent, which was built by a former king of the country. To the east of the convent there is a standing figure of Sākya Buddha, made of metallic stone (teou-shih), in height 100 feet. It has been cast in different parts and joined together, and thus placed in a completed form as it stands.

To the east of the city 12 or 13 li there is a convent, in which there is a figure of Buddha lying in a sleeping position, as when he attained Nirvāṇa. The figure is in length about 1000 feet or so. The king of this (country),

175 These rock-hewn figures of Buddha in Bāmiyān have been objects of curiosity down to the present day. They were seen during the campaign in Afghanistan in 1843, and doubtless remain to the present day. The most recent notice of them is in General Kaye's paper. Proc. R. Geog. Soc., vol. i. (1879), pp. 248, 249. He says: "On the opposite side of the valley from the great (standing) image, about a mile to the west, a stony gully leads into the hills. A short way up this there is a nearly insulated rock, on the flat summit of which there is in relief a recumbent figure, bearing a rude resemblance to a huge lizard," which figure the people now call Azhdahā, or the dragon slain by a Muhammadan pīr (see also 9, p. 338). Hyde, quoting Masāfīl Māmālik and the Farhang-i-Jahangīrī of Ibn Fakred-dīn Angju, says the two larger statues are 50 cubits high, one called Surkh-but (red image) and the other Khink-but (grey image), and at some distance is a smaller one "in formae vetulae," called Nīrūn. The Ahs-i-Akbarī says the larger of the two is 50 ells (cubits?) and the lesser 50 in height; Burnes's estimate is 120 and 70 feet. Wilford gives a tolerably minute account of Bāmiyān and these figures.


177 This teou-shih is described by Medhurst (sub voc.) as "a kind of stone resembling metal. The Chinese call it the finest kind of native copper. It is found in the Pos-e country (Persia) and resembles gold. On the application of fire it assumes a red colour, and does not turn black. When mercury falls to the ground this substance will attract it." But from the statement that each part of this figure was cast separately, it is plain that it was made of metal, probably brass or bronze. Julius translates it by laiton, brass.
every time he assembles the great congregation of the Wu-che (Moksha), having sacrificed all his possessions, from his wife and children down to his country's treasures, gives in addition his own body; then his ministers and the lower order of officers prevail on the priests to barter back these possessions; and in these matters most of their time is taken up.

To the south-west of the convent of the sleeping figure (of Buddha), going 200 li or so, passing the great Snowy Mountains on the east, there is a little watercourse (or valley), which is moist with (the overflowings of) standing springs, bright as mirrors; the herbage here is green and bright. There is a saṅghārāma here with a tooth of Buddha, also the tooth of a Pratyeka Buddha, who lived at the beginning of the Kalpa, which is in length about five inches, and in breadth somewhat less than four inches. Again, there is the tooth of a golden-wheel king, in length three inches, and in surface (breadth) two inches. There is also the iron begging-dish of Śānakavāsa, a great Arhat, which is capable of holding eight or nine shing (pints). These three sacred objects, be-

am told by a friend who visited the caves there and measured the figures, were 60 yards in length. The figures of Buddha entering Nivāra in the Sinhalese temples are often very large. One in Cave xxvi, at Ajanṭā is fully 23 feet in length. See Ferguson and Burgess, Cave Temples, p. 344; and note 175 supra. The text of Hieen Tsang is probably corrupt in this passage.

178 The Moksha Mahāparishād; a meeting, as it seems, held every five years for the benefit of the priests (Buddhist community). On these occasions there were recitations of the law, and offerings were made to the priesthood. These assemblies were generally made on some favourite mountain. It was also called Paśchavarskikā parishad. See Abstract of Four Lectures, p. 170; and note 66 supra.

179 In such matters as these there is most concern shown.

180 Tsuny, a light green.

181 A Pratyeka Buddha is one who has attained enlightenment, that is, become a Buddha, but for himself alone.

182 That is, a monarch of the four delpas or suvarṇa-chakravartin.

183 Śānakavāsa, or Śānavásika, according to some Northern accounts, was the fourth patriarch or president of the Buddhist community (Fo-sho-hing-tsun-king, xiv.) Other authorities speak of him as the third patriarch. See Eitel, Handbook, sub voc.; Réiman, Met. Asiae, tom. i. p. 118; Neumann, Zeitschr. f. d. Kunde d. Merv., vol. iii. p. 124; Edkins, Chin. Buddhism, pp. 66-69; Lassen, Ind. Alterthums. (2d edit.), vol. ii. p. 1231. He lived 100 years after Buddha.
queathed by the holy personages referred to, are all contained in a yellow-golden sealed case. Again, there is here the Saṅghāṭī robe, in nine pieces\textsuperscript{184} of Saṅkakavāsa; the colour is a deep red (rose-red); it is made of the bark (peel) of the She-no-kia plant.\textsuperscript{185} Saṅkakavāsa was the disciple of Ananda.\textsuperscript{186} In a former existence he had given the priests garments made of the Saṅka plant (fibre), on the conclusion of the rainy season.\textsuperscript{187} By the force of this meritorious action during 500 successive births he wore only this (kind of) garment, and at his last birth he was born with it. As his body increased so his robe grew larger, until the time when he was converted by Ananda and left his home (i.e., became an ascetic). Then his robe changed into a religious garment;\textsuperscript{188} and when he was fully ordained it again changed into a Saṅghāṭī, composed of nine pieces. When he was about to arrive at Nirvāṇa he entered into the condition of Samādhi, bordering on complete extinction, and by the force of his vow in attaining wisdom (he arrived at the knowledge)\textsuperscript{189} that this kāshāya garment would last till the bequeathed law (testament) of Śākya (was established), and after the destruction of this law then his garment also would perish. At the present time it is a little fading, for faith also is small at this time!

Going eastward from this, we enter the defiles of the Snowy Mountains, cross over the black ridge (Sīh Kōh), and arrive at the country of Kia-pi-shi.

\textsuperscript{184} I.e., composed of nine parts sewn together.

\textsuperscript{185} The Saṅka plant, a kind of hemp called the Bengal hemp.

\textsuperscript{186} The ordinary succession of the patriarchs is, after Buddha, (1) Kāśyapa, (2) Ananda, (3) Madhyāntika, (4) Saṅkakavāsa. The last named is sometimes identified with Yaśa, the son of Kana, who was one of the chief leaders in the second council 100 years after Buddha. He may be the same as Sonaka in the Southern records, who died, according to Rhys Davids (\textit{Numismata Orientalia}, pp. 46, 47), in A.D. 124; conf. Bühler, \textit{Ind. Ant.}, vol. vii. p. 150.

\textsuperscript{187} "At the conclusion of the retirement during the rainy season." It was customary for the priests to retire into a fixed residence during the three months of the rainy season. When the retirement broke up (khai nyan ku jih) robes and other presents were given to the priests.

\textsuperscript{188} I.e., a vestment worn by the religious.

\textsuperscript{189} Or "he secured the privilege, by the earnestness of his vow, that his robe," &c.
KIA-PI-SHI [KAPIŠA].

This country 190 is 4000 li or so in circuit. On the north it abuts on the Snowy Mountains, and on three sides it borders on the “black ridge” (the Hindu Kush). The capital of the country is 10 li or so in circuit. It produces cereals of all sorts, and many kinds of fruit-trees. The shen horses are bred here, and there is also the scent (scented root) called Yu-kin.191 Here also are found objects of merchandise from all parts. The climate is cold and windy. The people are cruel and fierce; their language is coarse and rude; their marriage rites a mere intermingling of the sexes. Their literature is like that of the Tukhāra country, but the customs, common language, and rules of behaviour are somewhat different. For clothing they use hair garments (wool); their garments are trimmed with fur. In commerce they use gold and silver coins, and also little copper coins, which in appearance and stamp 192 differ from those of other countries. The king is a Kshattriya by caste. He is of a shrewd

190 Kapiša is the Karpī (or Kārpa) of Ptolemy (Geog., lib. vi. c. 18, 4), and the Capissa of Pliny (H. N., lib. vi. c. 25, 25), the capital of a district called Capissene. It is perhaps also the Caphusa of Solinus (Polych., c. 54). See Lassen’s discussion, Ind. Alterth., vol. iii. pp. 135, 591, 879–889. Ptolemy placed it 155 miles N. 15° E. from Kāłōpī or Kabul, the Kāpūl or Kāvul of the Bundahis; but this distance is far too great. Julien supposes the district to have occupied the Panjshir and Tagād valleys in the north border of Kohistán, and that the capital may have been either in the valley of the Nijradi or of the Tagād. Conf. Baber’s Mem., pp. 144 f.; Masson, Narrative of Jour., vol. iii. p. 168; Wilson, Arianu Ant., p. 117; Pāṇini has Kāpīśa (iv. 2, 99).

191 Curcuma (Jal.) The Curcuma belongs to the natural order of Zingiberales; the different species are stemless plants with tuberous roots. The scented species referred to in the text is probably the Curcuma zedoaria, or broad-leaved turmeric. The tubers are aromatic, and when ground the powder is used not only as a stimulating condiment in curry powders, &c., but as a perfume. In Sanskrit it is called haridrā, with forty-six synonyms.

192 The original, kwe kiw mu yam, has, I suspect, the meaning of “stamp and inscription;” literally it would mean the pattern or fashion (mu yam) of the compass and square (kwe kiw), or the circular and square part are different, &c. But the expression may also simply mean, “the size and form.” It possibly refers to the copper coins of Kanishka or Kanērki.
character (nature), and being brave and determined, he has brought into subjection the neighbouring countries, some ten of which he rules. He cherishes his people with affection, and reverences much the three precious objects of worship. Every year he makes a silver figure of Buddha eighteen feet high, and at the same time he convokes an assembly called the Moksha Mahaparishad when he gives alms to the poor and wretched, and relieves the bereaved (widows and bereaved).

There are about 100 convents in this country and some 6000 priests. They mostly study the rules of the Great Vehicle. The stupas and sañghārāmas are of an imposing height, and are built on high level spots, from which they may be seen on every side, shining in their grandeur (purity). There are some ten temples of the Devas, and 1000 or so of heretics (different ways of religion); there are naked ascetics, and others who cover themselves with ashes, and some who make chaplets of bones, which they wear as crowns on their heads.

To the east of the capital 3 or 4 li, at the foot of a

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103 This passage may also be rendered: “He is distinguished for wisdom and tact; he is by nature brave and determined,” &c. Hwul-lih uses the expression ming liok, instead of chi liok; evidently alluding to his tact or shrewdness, by which he had brought the neighbouring countries into his power.

104 “The hundred families.”

105 The expression sui certainly means “a year” or “yearly;” but it may also have the sense of “periodically.” This would suit the context perhaps better, as the “great assemblies” were usually convoked “every five years.”

106 It seems that the passage requires some such rendering as this. The symbol ch'hang indicates “a high level spot, from which there is a good prospect.” (Medhurst). Mr. Simpson’s account of the stūpas in the Jellalâbâd valley would favour this translation (Buddhist Architecture, a paper read by W. Simpson before the Royal Institute of British Architects, 12th January 1880).

We may gather from the connection of stūpa and sañghārāma in the text, that Huien Tsang alludes to the stūpa with its sañghāra.

107 The three sects here enumerated are known as (1) the Nirgranthas or Digambara Jainas; (2) Pâṣupatas; and (3) Kapâladhâriñas.

108 There is some difficulty in fixing the name and site of the capital of Kapisa. General Cunningham identifies it with Opiân (Anc. Geog. of India, p. 19). His opinion is based on a statement I have not been able to verify, viz., that on leaving Bāmiyân, Huien Tsang travelled 600 li in an easterly direction over “snowy mountains and black hills” to the capital of Kia-pi-shi. I can find no distance given either in the Si-yu-lî or by Hwul-lih. From Bāmiyân south-
mountain in the north, is a great saṅghārāma with 300 or so priests in it. These belong to the Little Vehicle and adopt its teaching. 199

According to tradition, Kanishka Rāja of Gandhāra 200 in old days having subdued all the neighbouring provinces and brought into obedience people of distant countries, he governed by his army a wide territory, even to the east of the T'sung-ling mountains. Then the east to the "humid valley" is 200 li. After this the account simply says: "Going in an easterly direction, &c., we come to Kia-pi-shi." Nor can I find any corroboration of the statement that "on leaving the capital of Kapises, Huien Tsang was accompanied by the king as far as the town of Kiu-la-sa-pang, a distance of one yōjana to the northeast" (op. cit., p. 20). Hwui-lih indeed states (i. 266) that the king of Kapisa accompanied the pilgrim 6 li from the frontiers of his kingdom; but that gives us no clue to the name or site of the capital. V. St. Martin makes Opian the capital of Fo-li-shi-sa-t'ang-na (Mien, tom. ii. p. 190). Huien Tsang does not give the name of the chief city, but he places it 600 li to the west of Lan-po (Laanghān), which again is 100 li to the north-west of Na-ki-lo-bo (Nagarahāra). Supposing the site of Nagarahāra to be at the point of junction of the Kābul river with the Surkhar or Surkh-rud, we should have to place the capital of Kapisa on the declivity of the Hindu Kush, not far from the little town of Ghorband, or perhaps near Kushān, 10 miles west of Opian.

199 I find in Julien's translation that this saṅghārāma was called Jin-kia-lan (the humane saṅghārāma, or, of "the man"). It is wanting in my text. India Office, No. 1503.

200 Kanishka-rāja, of Gandhāra. He is often called in Chinese Buddhist books "the Chandan Kanika" (see Fo-sho-hing-t'san-king, pages xxviii., xxix.). This may simply mean Kanishka of Gandhāra, the use of Chandana for gandha being common. The mountains of Gandhāra are often explained as the "perfume mountains," as though from gandha. But in an old Buddhist map in my possession the Gandhāra mountains are called the earth-holding (ti chi), as though gan were from an old root, γαν or γαν, and ḍṛā, to hold. Kanishka was king of the Yueh-chi, and the rise of his dynasty is placed by Chinese authors in the first century B.C. On his coins he is styled in the corrupt Greek legends Karpoks Karpox, and in the Baktian-Pali legends and Manikyāla inscription he is called Kanishka the Kushāna, or "of the Gushana family," connecting him with the tribe called by the Chinese Kwei-shwang. Korano and Kushāna are only different forms of the same word. Prinsep, Essays, vol. i. pp. 145 f.; Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. ii. pp. 806 f.; J. As. S. Ben., vol. xxxii. pp. 144 f.; Arch. Surv. W. Ind. Rep., vol. ii. p. 50; Num. Chron., N.S., vol. xiv. pp. 161 f. The date of Kanishka is yet undetermined. According to Lassen (Ind. Alt., vol. ii. [2d ed.] pp. 766, 768), he lived between A.D. 10 and A.D. 40. The Northern Buddhists place him (as we shall see farther on) 400 years after the Nirvāṇa. But as Huien Tsang places Asāoka only 100 years after Buddha, the error appears to be in the date of the Nirvāṇa; and thus Kanishka was really about 300 years after Asāoka. Recent writers argue that Kanishka lived in the latter part of the first century, and
tribes who occupy the territory to the west of the river, fearing the power of his arms, sent hostages to him. Kanishka-rāja having received the hostages treated them with singular attention, and ordered for them separate establishments for the cold and hot weather; during the cold they resided in India and its different parts, in the summer they came back to Kapiṣa, in the autumn and spring they remained in the kingdom of Gandhāra; and so he founded saṅghāramas for the hostages according to the three seasons. This convent (of which we are now speaking) is the one they occupied during the summer, and it was built for that purpose.

that the Śaka era (A.D. 78) originated with his reign. See Bühler, Ind. Ant., vol. vi, pp. 149 ff.; vol. vii, pp. 141 ff.; Oldenberg, ib., vol. x, pp. 213 ff.; Ferguson, Jour. R. As. Soc., N.S., vol. xii, pp. 261 ff.; Max Müller, India, p. 293. R. Davids has come to the conclusion that the Nīrāgā is within a few years of 412 B.C. (Namismata Oriental, part vi, p. 56). If this could be established, it would accord pretty well with the Northern legend referred to, and the date of Kanishka’s power might have been, as Lassen supposes, between 10 A.D. and 40 A.D.

303 The district to the west of the river, i.e., the Yellow River, were the people of the Tangut empire. (For an explanation of the word Tangut, and other particulars, see Yule, Marco Polo, vol. i, p. 209; Bretschneider, Med. Geog., p. 123). In my copy there is no mention made of “dependent princes” (Julien loc.); the expression is “fan sei,” which I take to be equivalent to “the associated tribes.” The word fan is used for the Tibetans. This would explain Yule’s remark (op. cit., p. 209) that “the word Tanggod (Tangut) is properly a Mongol plural designating certain tribes of Tibetan blood.”

304 In Hwui-lih’s account (Vie de Hionen Thang, p. 72), we are told there was only one hostage, and he was a son of the Emperor of China. There is a curious story found among the sermons of Aśvaghōṣa—who was contemporary with Kanishka—of a son of the Emperor of China coming to India to seek a cure for his blindness. He dwelt in a monastery in which there was a great preacher. On a certain occasion he preached so eloquently that the entire congregation was moved to tears. Some of these tears were applied to the eyes of the blind prince, and he recovered (Sermon 54). There was plainly an intercourse kept up between China, or the eastern frontiers of China, and North India from an early period.

305 The name of this convent is given by Hwui-lih (K. ii, fol. 10 a) as Sha-lo-ki, which is restored by Julien (t. ii, p. 503) doubtfully to Sharaka. Dr. Eitel (Handbook sub voc.) has followed him in this restoration. It seems to be referred to by I-Tsin in his account of the travels of Hwui-lun (Jour. R. As. Soc., N.S., vol. xiii, p. 570). I am of opinion that Sha-lo-ki ought to be restored to Serika, and that it was so called because it was built for the Chinese hostages or hostage. This name for China (Serika) indeed is not known in Chinese literature; but it is plain that this establish-
Hence the pictures of these hostages on the walls; their features, and clothing, and ornaments are like the people of Eastern Hia (China). Afterwards, when they were permitted to return to their own country, they were remembered in their old abode, and notwithstanding the intervening mountains and rivers, they were without cessation reverenced with offerings, so that down to the present time the congregation of priests on each rainy season (frequent this spot); and on the breaking up of the fast they convene an assembly and pray for the happiness of the hostages,—a pious custom still existing.

To the south of the eastern door of the hall of Buddha

ment was not only very rich, but also provided with celebrated mural paintings. I have already called attention (Abstract, &c., p. 136 n.), to the way in which artists from Baktoria were employed to paint the Buddhist vihāras at an early date, but more particularly, as it would seem, during the time of Kanishka; for Asvaghōsha, who relates the story referred to, was a follower of Kanishka. Nothing would be more natural than that an artist or artists from Baktoria should speak of this vihāra as the Serika vihāra; the common term for China being Σηρική (Ptol., vi. 16, 1, 3, 4, 6, &c.; Pliny, H. N., lib. vi. c. 20, 5). This conjecture is confirmed by the translation of the term Sha-lo-kia given by Huien Tsang. It is not given indeed in my copy, but in the original used by M. Julien the convent is called "the Saṅghārāma of men" (jin-kia-lan). This is restored by Julien doubtfully to Narasāṅghārāma (p. 42). But this (nara) is an epithet of the king of China, according to Arabian travellers (vid. supra, p. 14, n. 41). It seems, therefore, probable that this Saṅghārāma was originally called after the king's son by the Baktrian term, Serika.

204 The Eastern Hia people, i.e., the Chinese, in distinction from the Western Hia, i.e., the Tanguts. Bretschneider, Notes, Med. Geop., &c., p. 35, n. 81.

205 So I understand the passage. It is not that the hostages remembered their old abode, but that the memory of the hostages remained with the priests of the Sha-lo-kia convent. Hence, after the summer rest was over, the priests used to hold a special assembly in order to invoke a blessing on their memory. M. Julien has translated it so in the Life of Hsien Tsang, p. 72, but in this passage he has inverted the sense.

206 The rainy season (varṣha), as is well known, was observed by the Buddhists as a period of retreat, not in the sense of fasting, or, as it has been translated, Lent, but for the purpose of shelter, and also, as stated in the Vinaya, to avoid trampling down the young herbage. After the three months' rest, of which there were two kinds,—viz., either the first three months, i.e., beginning at the appointed time, and continuing for three consecutive months, or else the second three months, that is, when through inability to begin at the appointed time the retreat was entered on a month later, and therefore lasted a month later,—the retreat was broken up, and presents, &c., were made to the congregation.
belonging to this sanghārāma there is a figure of the Great Spirit King; beneath his right foot they have hollowed the earth for concealing treasures therein. This is the treasury place of the hostages, therefore we find this inscription, “When the sanghārāma decays let men take (of the treasure) and repair it.” Not long ago there was a petty (frontier) king of a covetous mind and of a wicked and cruel disposition; hearing of the quantity of jewels and precious substances concealed in this convent, he drove away the priests and began digging for them. The King of the Spirits had on his head the figure of a parrot, which now began to flap its wings and to utter screams. The earth shook and quaked, the king and his army were thrown down prostrate on the ground; after a while, arising from the earth, he confessed his fault and returned.

Above a mountain pass to the north of this convent there are several stone chambers; it was in these the hostages practised religious meditation. In these recesses many and various gems (precious things) are concealed: on the side there is an inscription that the Yakshas (Yo-cha) guard and defend the places (precincts). If any one wishes to enter and rob the treasures, the Yakshas by spiritual

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207 This great spirit-rāja is the same as Vaiśravana, “the celebrated” (περικλαυτος). He is called Mahákāla, “the great black one,” in Japan he is still called Dai Gakî, “the great black,” and is generally figured as an old man of dwarfish size, with a sack on his back. I have often myself examined the figure on the hearths of the kitchens at Hakodate. He is in one sense the same as Kuvêra. For further remarks on this point see Academy, July 3, 1880; Indian Antiquary, vol. ix. p. 203.

208 The convent was three or four li to the east of the capital, and at the foot of a northern mountain, which mountain formed one side of a pass. In General Cunningham’s map referred to, there is such a northerm mountain detached from the Paghman range, and a pass between it and the main line of hills. Just beyond this pass we find Chârîkar, close to Opîân. If we may rely on these coincidences, the capital of Kapiša would be to the west of this pass about a mille, whilst Chârîkar would derive its name from the Sha-lo-kia monastery. The text, it must be noticed, does not require the mountain pass to be distinct from the northern mountain, at the base of which the convent was built, but it means that the chambers were excavated on the northern scarp of the pass. The context, moreover, requires this. For some interesting notices respecting the Buddhist caves of Afghanistan, see Jour. Roy. As. Soc., N.S., vol. xiv. pp. 319 ff.
transformation appear in different forms, sometimes as lions, sometimes as snakes, and as savage beasts and poisonous reptiles; under various appearances they exhibit their rage. So no one dares to attempt to take the treasures.

At 2 or 3 li to the west of the stone chambers, above a great mountain pass, there is a figure of Kwan-tsz'-tsai Bödhisattva; those who with sincere faith desire (vow or pray) to see him, to them the Bödhisattva appears coming forth from the image, his body of marvellous beauty, and he gives rest and reassurance to the travellers.

Thirty li or so to the south-east of the capital we arrive at the convent of Râhula (Ho-lo-hu-lo); by its side is a stûpa about 100 feet in height. On sacred days (fast days) this building reflects a brilliant light. Above the cupola, from between the interstices of the stone, there exudes a black scented oil, whilst in the quiet night may be heard the sounds of music. According to tradition, this stûpa was formerly built by Râhula, a great minister of this country. Having completed this work of merit (religious work), he saw in a night-dream a man who said to him, "This stûpa you have built has no sacred relic (she-li) in it as yet; to-morrow, when they come to offer, you must make your request to the king" (for the offering brought).

Very The meaning is, above a high mountain-side, i.e., as it seems, above a high peak, which would form the beginning of the pass on the western side.


Above "the covering shaped liked a pâtra," i.e., the cupola or dome.
On the morrow, entering the royal court, he pressed his claim (or he advanced and requested), and said: "Your unworthy subject ventures to make a request." The king replied: "And what does my lord require?" Answering, he said, "That your majesty would be pleased to favour me by conferring on me the first offering made this day." The king replied: "I consent."

Râhula on this went forth and stood at the palace gate. Looking at all who came towards the spot, suddenly he beheld a man holding in his hand a relic casket (pitcher). The great minister said, "What is your will? what have you to offer?" He replied, "Some relics of Buddha." The minister answered, "I will protect them for you. I will first go and tell the king." Râhula, fearing lest the king on account of the great value of the relics should repel him of his former promise, went quickly to the saṅghârâma and mounted the stūpa; by the power of his great faith, the stone cupola opened itself, and then he placed the relics therein. This being done, he was quickly coming out when he caught the hem of his garment in the stone. The king sent to pursue him, but by the time the messengers arrived at the stûpa, the stones had closed over him; and this is the reason why a black oily substance exudes from the crevices of the building.

To the south of the city 40 li or so, we come to the town of Si-pi-to-fa-la-sse (Śvētāvāras). In the case

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212 So it appears to me the passage should be translated, "the first offering." Julien renders it as if there were only a single offering.

213 That is, he caught his garment in the stone of the inner portion of the stûpa before he could escape to the exterior. The relic casket, as is well known, is placed in a chamber in the upper-middle part of the cupola or dome.

214 This bearing is given in my text; it seems to be wanting in Julien's.

215 Julien restores this name to Sphiltavara doubtfully. V. de St. Martin (Mémoire. &c., p. 300) suggests Śvētāvāras. As this seems to be more in agreement with the Japanese equivalents in my text, I have adopted it. The situation or name of this city is unknown. General Cunningham suggests Saptavarsha or Sattavasa, and connects with this name, "the Thagatush of the inscriptions of Darius, who are the Sattagudai of Herodotus" (Anc. Geog., p. 26). If we suppose the Chuhel Dukhtari peak to be the same as the mountain called O-lu-no
of earthquakes, and even when the tops of the mountains fall, there is no commotion around this city.

Thirty li or so to the south of the town of Si-po-to-fa-lasse we come to a mountain called 'O-lu-no (Aruṇa). The crags and precipices of this mountain are of a vast height, its caverns and valleys are dark and deep. Each year the peak increases in height several hundred feet, until it approaches the height of Mount Tsu-na-hi-lo (Sunagir) in the kingdom of Tsu-ku-cha (Tsaukūṭa); then when it thus faces it, suddenly it falls down again. I have heard this story in neighbouring countries. When first the heavenly spirit Suna came from far to this mountain desiring to rest, the spirit of the mountain, affrighted, shook the surrounding valleys. The heavenly spirit said, "Because you have no wish to entertain me, therefore this tumult and confusion; if you had but entertained me for a little while, I should have conferred on you great riches and treasure; but now I go to Tsu-ku-cha to the mountain Tsu-na-hi-lo, and I will visit it every year. On these occasions, when the king and his ministers offer me their tribute, then you shall stand face to face with me." Therefore Mount 'O-lu-no having increased to the height (aforesaid), suddenly falls down again at the top.

About 200 li to the north-west of the royal city we come to a great snowy mountain, on the summit of which

(about to be noticed), then measuring north about six miles, we should come to Beg-rām; from this, eight miles north—according to our text—would take us up the Panjshir river, and not to the capital. There is no bearing given in the French translation, and it is possible that the symbol for south in our text has been interpolated. From Hiuen-Tsang's remark "that the city of Svētāvāras could not be destroyed," we may perhaps identify it with the Tetragonis of Pliny, *Hist. Nat.*, lib. vi. c. 25.

216 'O-lu-no may be restored to Aruṇa, "the red." The symbol no, however, is especially referred to in a note as being equal in sound to n(ωω) + (k)ə, i.e., no.

217 The symbols Tsu-na-hi-lo would give Sunahir. The Japanese phonetic equivalent for hi is given as ki or gi, which (if correct) gives us Sunagir. Julien suggests Kshusahila.

218 The kingdom of Tsaukūṭa appears, from the return journey, to be the same as Sewistin. The high mountain of Sukatu may perhaps represent the Tsu-na-hi-lo of the text. Lassen, *Ind. Ant.*, vol. iii. p. 884.
is a lake. Here whoever asks for rain or prays for fine weather, according to his request so he receives.

Tradition says in old time there was an Arhat (Lo-han) belonging to Gandhára (Kien-t'ø-lo) who constantly received the religious offerings of the N̄āga king of this lake. On the arrival of the time for the mid-day meal, by his spiritual power he rose with the mat on which he sat into the air, and went (to the place where the N̄āga dwelt). His attendant, a Śrāmaṇera (novice), secretly catching hold of the under part of the mat, when the time came for the Arhat to go, was transported in a moment with him (to the palace of the N̄āga). On arriving at the palace, the N̄āga saw the Śrāmaṇera. The N̄āga-r̄aja asking them to partake of his hospitality, he provided the Arhat with “immortal food,” but gave to the Śrāmaṇera food used by men. The Arhat having finished his meal, began then to preach for the good of the N̄āga, whilst he desired the Śrāmaṇera, as was his custom, to wash out his alms-bowl. Now the bowl happened to have in it some fragments of (the heavenly) food. Startled at the fragrance of this food,²¹⁹ forthwith there arose in him an evil determination (vow). Irritated with his master, and hating the N̄āga, he uttered the prayer (vow) that the force of all his religious merit might now be brought into operation with a view to deprive the N̄āga of life, and, “May I,” he said, “myself become a N̄āga-king.”

No sooner had the Śrāmaṇera made this vow than the N̄āga perceived his head to be in pain.

The Arhat having finished his preaching concerning the duty of repentance, the N̄āga-r̄aja confessed his sins, condemning himself. But the Śrāmaṇera still cherishing hatred in his heart, confessed not. And now having returned to the saṅghär̄ama, in very truth the prayer he had put up in consequence of the power of his religious merit was accomplished, and that very night he died and

²¹⁹ That is, startled to find from different from that which he had re- the fragrance that this food was ceived.
became a Nāga-rāja. Then filled with rage, he entered the lake and killed the other Nāga king, and took possession of his palace; moreover, he attached to himself the whole fraternity of his class (i.e., all the Nāgas) to enable him to carry out his original purpose. Then fiercely raising the winds and tempests, he rooted up the trees and aimed at the destruction of the convent.

At this time Kanishka-rāja, surprised at the ravages, inquired of the Arhat as to the cause, on which he told the whole circumstance. The king therefore, for the sake of the Nāga, founded a saṅghārāma at the foot of the Snowy Mountains, and raised a stūpa about 100 feet in height. The Nāga, cherishing his former hatred, raised the wind and rain. The king persevering in his purpose of charity, the Nāga redoubled his fury (angry poison), and became exceedingly fierce. Six times he destroyed the saṅghārāma and the stūpa, and on the seventh occasion Kanishka, confused by his failure, determined to fill the Nāga's lake and overthrow his palace. He came therefore with his soldiers to the foot of the Snowy Mountains.

Then the Nāga-rāja, being terrified and shaken with apprehension, changed himself into an aged Brāhmaṇ, and bowing down before the king's elephant, he remonstrated with the king, and said, "Mahārāja, because of your accumulated merit in former births, you have now been born a king of men, and you have no wish which is not gratified. Why then to-day are you seeking a quarrel with a Nāga? Nāgas are only brutish creatures. Nevertheless amongst lower creatures the Nāga possesses great power, which cannot be resisted. He rides on the clouds, drives the winds, passes through space, and glides over the waters; no human power can conquer him. Why then is the king's heart so angry? You have now raised the army..."

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220 That is (as it seems), for the sake of the Nāga who was dead.
221 Among the lower creatures belonging to an evil class; referring to the evil ways or modes of birth (jūti). The three evil ways are birth as a beast, as a prāta, or a demon.
222 Or, "it is no human power which restrains him."
of your country to fight with a single dragon; if you conquer, your renown will not spread very far; but if you are conquered, then you will suffer the humiliation of defeat. Let me advise the king to withdraw his troops."

The king Kanishka hesitating to comply, the dragon returned to his lake. His voice, like the thunderclap, shook the earth, and the fierce winds tore up the trees, whilst stones and sand pelted down like rain; the sombre clouds obscured the air, so that the army and the horses were filled with terror. The king then paid his adoration to the Three Precious ones, and sought their help, saying, "My abounding merit during former births has brought about my state as king of men. By my power I have restrained the strong and conquered the world (Jambudvīpa). But now (as it appears), by the onslaught of a dragon-beast overcome, this, verily, is proof of my poor merit! Let the full power of all my merit now appear!"

Then from both his shoulders there arose a great flame and smoke. The dragon fled, the winds hushed, the mists were melted, and the clouds were scattered. Then the king commanded each man of his army to take a stone and thus to fill up the dragon lake.

Again the dragon king changed himself into a Brāhmaṇa, and asked the king once more, "I am the Nāga king of yonder lake. Affrighted by your power, I tender my submission. Would that the king in pity might forgive my former faults! The king indeed loves to defend and cherish all animated beings, why then alone against me is he incensed? If the king kill me, then we both shall fall into an 'evil way' — the king, for killing; I, for cherishing an angry mind.

223 Or, "an acknowledged - afar renown;" or it may be, as in Julien's translation, "the renown of one who conquers the distant;" this, however, appears strained.
224 A great smoke - brightness. The flames on the shoulders are observable on some of the Kanerki coins. We may compare with these flames the two ravens that sit on the shoulders of Osiris, and also "the echo of heathen thought" which makes the dove sit on Christ's shoulder at his baptism (Grinn's Teutonic Mythology, by Stallybrass, vol. i. p. 143).
will be plainly manifested when the good and evil are brought to light."

The king then agreed with the Nāga that if hereafter he should again be rebellious there should be no forgiveness. The Nāga said, "Because of my evil deeds I have received a dragon form. The nature of Nāgas is fierce and wicked, so that they are unable to control themselves; if by chance an angry heart rises in me, it will be from forgetfulness of our present compact. The king may now build the saṅghārāma once more; I will not venture to destroy it again. Each day let the king send a man to observe the mountain top; if it is black with clouds, then let him sound the ghantā (drum or cymbal) loudly; when I hear the sound of it, my evil purpose will subside."

Forthwith the king renewed his work in raising the saṅghārāma and stūpa. People look out for the clouds and mists on the mountain top down to the present day. Tradition says that in this stūpa there is a considerable quantity (a pint, or shing) of relics\textsuperscript{225} of Tathāgata, consisting of his bones and flesh, and that wonderful miracles are wrought thereby, which it would be difficult to name separately. At one time, from within the stūpa there arose suddenly a smoke, which was quickly followed by a fierce flame of fire. On this occasion the people said the stūpa was consumed. They gazed for a long time till the fire was expended and the smoke disappeared, when they beheld a Shrīra like a white pearl gem,\textsuperscript{226} which moved with a circular motion round the surmounting pole of the stūpa; it then separated itself and ascended up on high to the region of the clouds, and after scintillating there awhile, again descended with a circular motion.\textsuperscript{227}

\textsuperscript{225} The words rendered "relics," &c., are in the original "bone and flesh sarīras," that is, "bone and flesh remains," or body-relics.
\textsuperscript{226} The symbol for "gem" is of uncertain meaning. There is a precious gem from the Lu country called yu-fan. It is the latter of these two words that occurs in the text, connected with chu, a pearl. I have therefore translated chu-fan by pearl-gem.
\textsuperscript{227} This account probably refers to some electrical phenomenon. The surmounting pole of the stūpa was provided with metal rings or discs,
To the north-west of the capital there is a large river on the southern bank of which, in a convent of an old king, there is a milk-tooth of Śākya Bōdhisattva; it is about an inch in length.

To the south-east of this convent there is another, which is also called the convent of the old king; in this is a piece of the skull-bone of Tathāgata; the surface of it is about an inch in breadth, its colour a yellowish white; the little hair orifices are plainly seen. There is, moreover, a hair-top of Tathāgata of a dark auburn colour; the hair turns to the right; drawing it out, it is about a foot long; when folded up it is only about half an inch. These three objects are reverenced with offerings by the king and the great ministers on each of the six fast (holy) days.

To the south-west of the convent of the skull-bone is the convent of the wife of the old king, in which there is a gilded stūpa (copper gilt), about 100 feet in height. Tradition says in this stūpa is about a pint of the relics of Buddha. On the fifteenth day of each month, in the evening, it reflects a circular halo of glory which lights up the dew-dish. Thus it shines till the morning, when it gradually disappears and enters the stūpa.

To the south-west of the town is Mount Pi-lo-sa-lo (Pilusāra); the mountain spirit takes the form of an elephant, hence the name. In old days, when Tathāgata was alive, the spirit, called Pilusāra (siang-kien, i.e., elephant-fixed), asked the Lord of the World and 1200 Arihats (to partake of his hospitality). On the mountain crag is a great solid rock; here it was Tathāgata received the offerings of the spirit. Afterwards Ašōka-rāja erected

and was capped generally with a metal "pitcher" (so called). This would naturally act as a lightning conductor.

This great river may be the affluent of the Kābul river flowing through the Ghőrbānd valley. It flows about east and west after leaving the valley; the southern bank, therefore, would be that nearest the site of the capital.

That is, a hair from the top-knot hair.

I.e., the circular dish at the top of the surmounting pole.

Elephant-firm.
on this same rock a stūpa about 100 feet in height. It is now called the stūpa of the Elephant-strength (Pilusāra). They say that in this also is about a pint measure of the relics of Tathāgata.

To the north of the Pilusāra Stūpa is a mountain cavern, below which is a Nāga fountain. It was here that Tathāgata, having received from the spirit some food (rice) with the Arhats, cleansed his mouth and rubbed his teeth with a piece of willow branch. This he planted in the ground, and it forthwith took root, and is now a bushy grove. Afterwards men built here a saṅghārama, and called it the convent of the Pi-to-kia (the willow twig).

Going eastward from this 600 li or so, across a continuation of mountains and valleys, the peaks being of a stupendous height, and skirting the "black ridge," we enter North India, and crossing the frontier, come to the country of Lan-po (Lamghân).

The wood commonly used in India is that of the Khadira tree, the Acacia Catechu. After being used as a tooth-cleaner it is generally split in two, and one part used to scrape the tongue. Hence probably the name Pi-to-kia given in the text, which seems to be a form of the Sanskrit vīḍāla, leafless; or, as Julien suggests, of Vaitrāka, a reed, a twig.

That is, the Siāh Koh, or the range which separates Lamghân from the upper valley of the Kāo and that of the Picha.
BOOK II.

Relates to Three Countries, viz., (1) Lan-po, (2) Na-kie-lo-ho and (3) Kien-lo-lo.

1. Names of India.

On examination, we find that the names of India (T'ien-chu) are various and perplexing as to their authority. It was anciently called Shin-tu, also Hien-tau; but now, according to the right pronunciation, it is called In-tu. The people of In-tu call their country by different names according to their district. Each country has diverse customs. Aiming at a general name which is the best sounding, we will call the country In-tu.\(^1\) In Chinese this name signifies the Moon. The moon has many names, of which this is one. For as it is said that all living things ceaselessly revolve in the wheel (of transmigration) through the long night of ignorance, without a guiding star, their case is like (the world), the sun gone down; as then the torch affords its connecting light, though there be the shining of the stars, how different from the bright (cool) moon; just so the bright connected light of holy men and sages, guiding the world as the shining of the moon, have made this country eminent, and so it is called In-tu.

The families of India are divided into castes, the Brâhmanis particularly (are noted) on account of their purity and nobility. Tradition has so hallowed the name of this tribe that there is no question as to difference of place, but the people generally speak of India as the country of the Brâhmanis (Po-lo-men).

\(^1\) See Jour. Asiat., sér. iv. tom. x. p. 91.
2. Extent of India, Climate, &c.

The countries embraced under this term of India are generally spoken of as the five Indies. In circuit this country is about 90,000 li; on three sides it is bordered by the great sea; on the north it is backed by the Snowy Mountains. The north part is broad, the southern part is narrow. Its shape is like the half-moon. The entire land is divided into seventy countries or so. The seasons are particularly hot; the land is well watered and humid. The north is a continuation of mountains and hills, the ground being dry and salt. On the east there are valleys and plains, which being well watered and cultivated, are fruitful and productive. The southern district is wooded and herbaceous; the western parts are stony and barren. Such is the general account of this country.


To give a brief account of matters. In point of measurements, there is first of all the yojana (yu-shen-na); this from the time of the holy kings of old has been regarded as a day's march for an army. The old accounts say it is equal to 40 li; according to the common reckoning in India it is 30 li, but in the sacred books (of Buddha) the yojana is only 16 li.

In the subdivision of distances, a yojana is equal to eight krosas (keu-lu-shē); a krosa is the distance that the lowing of a cow can be heard; a krosa is divided into 500 bows (dhanus); a bow is divided into four cubits (hastas); a cubit is divided into 24 fingers (āngulis); a finger is divided into seven barleycorns (yavas); and so on to a louse (yūka), a nit (likshā), a dust grain, a cow's hair, a sheep's hair, a hare's down, copper-water, and so on for seven divisions.

2 Has many fountains.
3 An enumeration corresponding to that in the text will be found in the Lalita Vistara (Foucaux, p. 142) and in the Romantic Legend of Bodhi (p. 87). The expression copper-water may refer to the size of the small hole made in the tāmrt or copper cup for the admission of water.
till we come to a small grain of dust; this is divided sevenfold till we come to an ex cessively small grain of dust (anu); this cannot be divided further without arriving at nothingness, and so it is called the infinitely small (paramānu).

4. Astronomy, the Calendar, &c.

Although the revolution of the Yin and Yang principles and the successive mansions of the sun and moon be called by names different from ours, yet the seasons are the same; the names of the months are derived from the position (of the moon in respect) of the asterisms.

The shortest portion of time is called a t'sa-na (kshaṇa); 120 kshaṇas make a ta-t'sa-na (takshaṇa); 60 of these make a la-fo (lava); 30 of these make a mau-hu-li-to (muhūrtā); five of these make "a period of time" (kāla); six of these make a day and night (ahorātra), but commonly the day and night are divided into eight kālās.

The period from the new moon till full moon is called the white division (Śukla-paksha) of the month; the period from the full moon till the disappearance (of the light) is called the dark portion (Kṛṣṇa-paksha). The dark portion comprises fourteen or fifteen days, because the month is sometimes long and sometimes short. The preceding dark portion and the following light portion together form a month; six months form a "march" (hing, s. ayaṇa). The sun when it moves within (the equator) is said to be on its northward march; when it moves without (the equator) it is on its southern march. These two periods form a year (vatsara).

The year, again, is divided into six seasons. From the 16th day of the 1st month till the 15th day of the 3d month is the season of gradual heat; from the 16th day of

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4 Three in the day, three in the night.—Ch. Ed.
5 Four for the day and four for the night; each of these kalās is again divided into four parts or periods (she).—Ch. Ed.
6 Uttarāyana.
7 Dukhīṇāyana.
the 3d month till the 15th day of the 5th month is called the season of full heat; from the 16th day of the 5th month till the 15th day of the 7th month is called the rainy season; from the 16th day of the 7th month till the 15th day of the 9th month is called the season of growth (vegetation); from the 16th day of the 9th month to the 15th day of the 11th month is called the season of gradual cold; from the 16th day of the 11th month to the 15th day of the 1st month is called the season of great (full) cold.\textsuperscript{8}

According to the holy doctrine of Tathâgata, the year is divided into three seasons. From the 16th day of the 1st month till the 15th day of the 5th month is called the hot season; from the 16th day of the 5th month till the 15th day of the 9th month is called the wet season; from the 16th day of the 9th month to the 15th day of the 1st month is called the cold season. Again, there are four seasons, called spring, summer, autumn, winter. The three spring months are called Chi-ta-lo (Chaitra) month, Fei-she-kie (Vaisâka) month, She-se-ch'a (Jyêshṭha); these correspond with the time from the 16th day of the 1st month to the 15th of the 4th month. The three summer months are called 'An-sha-ch'a (Āshādha) month, Chi-lo-fa-na (Śrâvana) month, Po-ta-lo-pa-to (Bhâdrapada) month; these correspond to the time between the 16th day of the 4th month to the 15th day of the 7th month. The three autumn months are called, 'An-shi-fo-ku\textsuperscript{9}-che (Āśvayuja) month, Kia-li-ta-ka (Kârttika) month, Wi\textsuperscript{10} kia-chi-lo (Mārgaśîrsha) month; these correspond to the time between the 16th day of the 7th month to the 15th day of the 10th month. The three months of winter are called P'o-sha (Pushya) month, Ma-ku (Mâgha) month, and P'o-li-ku-na (Phâlguna) month; these cor-

\textsuperscript{8} These six seasons (ritavas) are respectively (1) Vasanta, including the months of Chaitra and Vaisâka; (2) Grâshna—Jyêshṭha and Āshādha; (3) Varshas—Śrâvana and Bhâdrapada; (4) Saradâ—Āvina and Kârttika; (5) Hemanta—Mârgaśîrsha and Pushya; and (6) S'is'ira—Mâgha and Phâlguna. In the south they are reckoned as beginning a month later.

\textsuperscript{9} The symbol ku is for yu.—Julien in loc.

\textsuperscript{10} The symbol wi is for ma.—Jul.
respond with the time between the 16th day of the 10th month to the 15th day of the 1st month in China. In old times in India the priestly fraternity, relying on the holy teaching of Buddha, had a double resting-time (during the rains), viz., either the former three months or the latter three months; these periods were either from the 16th day of the 5th month to the 15th day of the 8th month, or from the 16th day of the 6th month to the 15th day of the 9th month.

Translators of the Sutras (jing) and the Vinaya (liu) belonging to former generations employed the terms Tsohia and Tso-la-hia to signify the rest during the rainy season; but this was because the ignorant (common) people of the frontier countries did not understand the right sounds of the language of the middle country (India), or that they translated before they comprehended the local phrases: this was the cause of error. And for the same reason occur the mistakes about the time of Tathagata's conception, birth, departure from his home, enlightenment, and Nirvana, which we shall notice in the subsequent records.

5. Towns and Buildings.

The towns and villages have inner gates; the walls are wide and high; the streets and lanes are tortuous, and the roads winding. The thoroughfares are dirty and

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11 I have preferred not to alter the text, and so translate the passage literally. The "double period" of rest during the rainy season was an early ordinance, found in the Vinaya. It was so arranged that those who were prevented from arriving at the appointed time might begin their "rest" a month later. If, however, we suppose the symbol liang to be a mistake for yu, then the passage will run thus: "The priestly fraternity retired into fixed dwellings during the rainy season." See Burnouf, Introd., p. 254.

12 I cannot but think that hia and la in these phrases are intended to be phonetic equivalents for Varsha, and that the author is pointing out the error of those who adopted such inadequate sounds. M. Julien's explanation, however, may be the correct one (vid. Julien in loc., n. 1).

13 Such is the meaning generally assigned to the symbols lei yen. I do not understand the translation given by Julien; the texts perhaps are different.
the stalls arranged on both sides of the road with appropriate signs. Butchers, fishers, dancers, executioners, and scavengers, and so on, have their abodes without the city. In coming and going these persons are bound to keep on the left side of the road till they arrive at their homes. Their houses are surrounded by low walls, and form the suburbs. The earth being soft and muddy, the walls of the towns are mostly built of brick or tiles. The towers on the walls are constructed of wood or bamboo; the houses have balconies and belvederes, which are made of wood, with a coating of lime or mortar, and covered with tiles. The different buildings have the same form as those in China: rushes, or dry branches, or tiles, or boards are used for covering them. The walls are covered with lime and mud, mixed with cow's dung for purity. At different seasons they scatter flowers about. Such are some of their different customs.

The saṅghārāmas are constructed with extraordinary skill. A three-storied tower\(^\text{14}\) is erected at each of the four angles. The beams and the projecting heads are carved with great skill in different shapes. The doors, windows, and the low walls are painted profusely; the monks' cells are ornamental on the inside and plain on the outside.\(^\text{15}\) In the very middle\(^\text{16}\) of the building is the hall, high and wide. There are various storeyed chambers and turrets of different height and shape, without any fixed rule. The doors open towards the east; the royal throne also faces the east.

\(^{14}\) The phrase chung koh means "a storeyed room or pavilion;" so at least I understand it. M. Julien translates as though it meant a double-storeyed room, or a pavilion with two storeys. The passage literally translated is: "Angle towers rise on the four sides; there are (or they are) storeyed buildings of three stages."

\(^{15}\) I take li shu to mean "the monks" or "the religious," the dark-clad.

\(^{16}\) The phrase agan shih may mean "the sleeping apartments," as Julien translates; but I hesitate to give it this meaning, because the monks slept in their cells, and not in a dormitory. The hall I take to be the hall for religious worship. The account here given corresponds very closely with the description of the
6. Seats, Clothing, &c.

When they sit or rest they all use mats; the royal family and the great personages and assistant officers use mats variously ornamented, but in size they are the same. The throne of the reigning sovereign is large and high, and much adorned with precious gems: it is called the Lion-throne (simhasana). It is covered with extremely fine drapery; the footstool is adorned with gems. The nobility use beautifully painted and enriched seats, according to their taste.

7. Dress, Habits, &c.

Their clothing is not cut or fashioned; they mostly affect fresh-white garments; they esteem little those of mixed colour or ornamented. The men wind their garments round their middle, then gather them under the armpits, and let them fall down across the body, hanging to the right. The robes of the women fall down to the ground; they completely cover their shoulders. They wear a little knot of hair on their crowns, and let the rest of their hair fall loose. Some of the men cut off their moustaches, and have other odd customs. On their heads the people wear caps (crowns), with flower-wreaths and jewelled necklets. Their garments are made of Kian-she-ye (kaušēya) and of cotton. Kian-she-ye is the product of the wild silkworm. They have garments also of Ts'o-mo (kshauma), which is a sort of hemp; garments also made of Kien-po-lo (kambala) which is woven from fine goat-hair; garments also made from Ho-la-li (karāla). This stuff is made from the fine hair of a wild animal: it is seldom this can be woven, and therefore the stuff is very valuable, and it is regarded as fine clothing.

In North India, where the air is cold, they wear short

Vihāras in Nepāl at the present day. nishadyl (Pāli, niṣīdānaśa) or mats used by Buddhists. 17 The expression here used may mean “matted beds” or “seats.” 18 The Japanese equivalents are It is commonly used to denote the Ka-ru-tei.
and close-fitting garments, like the Hu people. The dress and ornaments worn by non-believers are varied and mixed. Some wear peacocks' feathers; some wear as ornaments necklaces made of skull bones (the Kapāla-dhārinas); some have no clothing, but go naked (Nir-granthas); some wear leaf or bark garments; some pull out their hair and cut off their moustaches; others have bushy whiskers and their hair braided on the top of their heads. The costume is not uniform, and the colour, whether red or white, not constant.

The Shamans (Śrāmanas) have only three kinds of robes, viz., the Sang-kio-ki, the Ni-fo-si-na. The cut of the three robes is not the same, but depends on the school. Some have wide or narrow borders, others have small or large flaps. The Sang-kio-ki covers the left shoulder and conceals the two armpits. It is worn open on the left and closed on the right. It is cut longer than the waist. The Ni-fo-se-na has neither girdle nor tassels. When putting it on, it is plaited in folds and worn round the loins with a cord fastening. The schools differ as to the colour of this garment; both yellow and red are used.

The Kshattriyas and the Brāhmans are cleanly and wholesome in their dress, and they live in a homely and frugal way. The king of the country and the great ministers wear garments and ornaments different in their character. They use flowers for decorating their hair, with gem-decked caps; they ornament themselves with bracelets and necklaces.

There are rich merchants who deal exclusively in gold trinkets, and so on. They mostly go bare-footed; few wear sandals. They stain their teeth red or black; they bind up their hair and pierce their ears; they ornament their noses, and have large eyes. Such is their appearance.

19 There are only two names given in the text. The first, viz., the Sang-kio-chi—Saṅghaṭī is omitted. The other two are the Saṅkukukhikā and the Nirādana.

20 It may also mean that the great merchants use only bracelets.

21 This may also mean "they have handsome noses."
8. Cleanliness, Ablutions, &c.

They are very particular in their personal cleanliness, and allow no remissness in this particular. All wash themselves before eating; they never use that which has been left over (from a former meal); they do not pass the dishes. Wooden and stone vessels, when used, must be destroyed; vessels of gold, silver, copper, or iron after each meal must be rubbed and polished. After eating they cleanse their teeth with a willow stick, and wash their hands and mouth.

Until these ablutions are finished they do not touch one another. Every time they perform the functions of nature they wash their bodies and use perfumes of sandal-wood or turmeric.

When the king washes* they strike the drums and sing hymns to the sound of musical instruments. Before offering their religious services and petitions, they wash and bathe themselves.


The letters of their alphabet were arranged by Brahmádēva, and their forms have been handed down from the first till now. They are forty-seven in number, and are combined so as to form words according to the object, and according to circumstances (of time or place): there are other forms (inflexions) used. This alphabet has spread in different directions and formed diverse branches, according to circumstances; therefore there have been slight modifications in the sounds of the words (spoken language); but in its great features there has been no change. Middle India preserves the original character of the language in its integrity. Here the pronunciation is soft and agreeable, and like the language of the Dévas. The pronunciation of the words is clear and pure, and fit as a

* Julien translates "when the king is going out;" but in my copy it is as in the text.
model for all men. The people of the frontiers have contracted several erroneous modes of pronunciation; for according to the licentious habits of the people, so also will be the corrupt nature of their language.

With respect to the records of events, each province has its own official for preserving them in writing. The record of these events in their full character is called 

\( \text{Ni-lo-pi-ch'a} \) (Nilapiṭa, blue deposit). In these records are mentioned good and evil events, with calamities and fortunate occurrences.

To educate and encourage the young, they are first taught (led) to study the book of twelve chapters (Siddhayastu).\(^{23}\)

After arriving at the age of seven years and upwards, the young are instructed in the five \textit{Vidyās}, Šāstras of great importance.\(^{24}\) The first is called the elucidation of sounds (Śabdavidyā). This treatise explains and illustrates the agreement (concordance) of words, and it provides an index for derivatives.

The second \textit{vidyā} is called \textit{Kiou-ming} (Śilpasthāna-vidyā); it treats of the arts, mechanics, explains the principles of the \textit{Yin} and \textit{Yang} and the calendar.

The third is called the medicinal treatise (Chikitsavidyā); it embraces formulæ for protection, secret charms (the use of) medicinal stones, acupuncture, and mugwort.

The fourth \textit{vidyā} is called the \textit{Hetravidyā} (science of causes); its name is derived from the character of the work, which relates to the determination of the true and false, and reduces to their last terms the definition of right and wrong.

The fifth \textit{vidyā} is called the science of “the interior”

\( ^{23} \text{This work in twelve chapters is that called } \text{Siddhayastu}(\text{Sik-ti-chang}) \) in the \textit{Fan-i-ming-i-tai} (book xiv. 17 a). It is called \textit{Sik-ti-lo-su-to} by \textit{1-tsing} (\textit{Nan hao}, iv. 8 a) by mistake for \textit{Sik-ti-po-su-to}, i.e., \textit{Siddhayastu}. For some remarks on this subject see Max Müller’s letter to the \textit{Academy}, Sept. 25, 1880; also \textit{Indian Antiq.}, vol. ix, p. 507.

\( ^{24} \text{Or, it may be translated “the great } \text{Śāstra}, \text{or } \text{Śāstras } \text{of the five } \text{Vidyās,” in Chinese, } \text{Ming. See below, Book iii. note 102.} \)
(Adhyātmavidyā); it relates to the five vehicles, their causes and consequences, and the subtle influences of these.

The Brāhmaṇs study the four Veda Śastras. The first is called Shau (longevity); it relates to the preservation of life and the regulation of the natural condition. The second is called Sse (sacrifice); it relates to the (rules of) sacrifice and prayer. The third is called Ping (peace or regulation); it relates to decorum, casting of lots, military affairs, and army regulations. The fourth is called Shu (secret mysteries); it relates to various branches of science, incantations, medicine.

The teachers (of these works) must themselves have closely studied the deep and secret principles they contain, and penetrated to their remotest meaning. They then explain their general sense, and guide their pupils in understanding the words which are difficult. They urge them on and skilfully conduct them. They add lustre to their poor knowledge, and stimulate the desponding. If they find that their pupils are satisfied with their acquirements, and so wish to escape to attend to their worldly duties, then they use means to keep them in their power. When they have finished their education, and have attained thirty years of age, then their character is formed and their knowledge ripe. When they have secured an occupation they first of all thank their master for his attention. There are some, deeply versed in antiquity, who devote themselves to elegant studies, and live apart from the world, and retain the simplicity of their character. These rise above mundane presents, and are as insensible to renown as to the contempt of the world. Their name having spread afar, the rulers appreciate them highly, but

25 The five Vehicles, i.e., the five degrees of religious advance among the Buddhists: (1) The vehicle of Buddha, (2) of the Bödhisattvas, (3) of the Pratyêka Buddha, (4) of the ordained disciple, (5) of the lay disciple.

26 The four Védas, in the order they are here spoken of, are the Āyur Védā, the Yojur Védā, the Śāma Védā, the Atharva Védā.
are unable to draw them to the court. The chief of the country honours them on account of their (mental) gifts, and the people exalt their fame and render them universal homage. This is the reason of their devoting themselves to their studies with ardour and resolution, without any sense of fatigue. They search for wisdom, relying on their own resources. Although they are possessed of large wealth, yet they will wander here and there to seek their subsistence. There are others who, whilst attaching value to letters, will yet without shame consume their fortunes in wandering about for pleasure, neglecting their duties. They squander their substance in costly food and clothing. Having no virtuous principle, and no desire to study, they are brought to disgrace, and their infamy is widely circulated.

So, according to the class they belong to, all gain knowledge of the doctrine of Tathāgata; but, as the time is distant since the holy one lived, his doctrine is presented in a changed form, and so it is understood, rightly or not, according to the intelligence of those who inquire into it.


The different schools are constantly at variance, and their contending utterances rise like the angry waves of the sea. The different sects have their separate masters, and in various directions aim at one end.

There are Eighteen schools, each claiming pre-eminence. The partisans of the Great and Little Vehicle are content to dwell apart. There are some who give themselves up to quiet contemplation, and devote themselves, whether walking or standing still or sitting down, to the acquirement of wisdom and insight; others, on the contrary, differ from these in raising noisy contentions about their faith. According to their fraternity, they are governed by distinctive rules and regulations, which we need not name.

The Vinaya (liu), discourses (lun), sūtras (k'ing), are equally Buddhist books. He who can entirely explain one class of these books is exempted from the control of
the karmadīna. If he can explain two classes, he receives in addition the equipments of an upper seat (room); he who can explain three classes has allotted to him different servants to attend to and obey him; he who can explain four classes has "pure men" (upāsakas) allotted to him as attendants; he who can explain five classes of books is then allowed an elephant carriage; he who can explain six classes of books is allowed a surrounding escort. When a man's renown has reached to a high distinction, then at different times he convokes an assembly for discussion. He judges of the superior or inferior talent of those who take part in it; he distinguishes their good or bad points; he praises the clever and reproves the faulty; if one of the assembly distinguishes himself by refined language, subtle investigation, deep penetration, and severe logic, then he is mounted on an elephant covered with precious ornaments, and conducted by a numerous suite to the gates of the convent.

If, on the contrary, one of the members breaks down in his argument, or uses poor and inelegant phrases, or if he violates a rule in logic and adapts his words accordingly, they proceed to disfigure his face with red and white, and cover his body with dirt and dust, and then carry him off to some deserted spot or leave him in a ditch. Thus they distinguish between the meritorious and the worthless, between the wise and the foolish.

The pursuit of pleasure belongs to a worldly life, to follow knowledge to a religious life; to return to a worldly life from one of religion is considered blameworthy. If one breaks the rules of discipline, the transgressor is publicly reproved: for a slight fault a reprimand is given or a temporary banishment (enforced silence); for a grave fault expulsion is enforced. Those who are thus expelled for life go out to seek some dwelling-place, or, finding no place of refuge, wander about the roads; sometimes they go back to their old occupation (resume lay life).

With respect to the division of families, there are four classifications. The first is called the Brâhmaṇ (Po-lo-men), men of pure conduct. They guard themselves in religion, live purely, and observe the most correct principles. The second is called Kshattriya (T"sa-ti-li), the royal caste. For ages they have been the governing class: they apply themselves to virtue (humanity) and kindness. The third is called Vaiśyas (fei-shē-li), the merchant class: they engage in commercial exchange, and they follow profit at home and abroad. The fourth is called Śûdra (Shu-t'ō-lo), the agricultural class: they labour in ploughing and tillage. In these four classes purity or impurity of caste assigns to every one his place. When they marry they rise or fall in position according to their new relationship. They do not allow promiscuous marriages between relations. A woman once married can never take another husband. Besides these there are other classes of many kinds that intermarry according to their several callings. It would be difficult to speak of these in detail.

12. Royal Family, Troops, Weapons.

The succession of kings is confined to the Kshattriya (T"sa-li) caste, who by usurpation and bloodshed have from time to time raised themselves to power. Although a distinct caste, they are regarded as honourable (or lords).

The chief soldiers of the country are selected from the bravest of the people, and as the sons follow the profession of their fathers, they soon acquire a knowledge of the art of war. These dwell in garrison around the palace (during peace), but when on an expedition they march in front as an advanced guard. There are four divisions of the army, viz.—(1) the infantry, (2) the cavalry, (3) the chariots, (4) the elephants.²⁷ The elephants are covered with strong armour, and their tusks are provided with

²⁷ I.e., the pattokāya, aśvakāya, rathakāya, and kastiḍāya divisions.
sharp spurs. A leader in a car gives the command, whilst two attendants on the right and left drive his chariot, which is drawn by four horses abreast. The general of the soldiers remains in his chariot; he is surrounded by a file of guards, who keep close to his chariot wheels.

The cavalry spread themselves in front to resist an attack, and in case of defeat they carry orders hither and thither. The infantry by their quick movements contribute to the defence. These men are chosen for their courage and strength. They carry a long spear and a great shield; sometimes they hold a sword or sabre, and advance to the front with impetuosity. All their weapons of war are sharp and pointed. Some of them are these—spears, shields, bows, arrows, swords, sabres, battle-axes, lances, halberds, long javelins, and various kinds of slings.28 All these they have used for ages.

13. Manners, Administration of Law, Ordeals.

With respect to the ordinary people, although they are naturally light-minded, yet they are upright and honourable. In money matters they are without craft, and in administering justice they are considerate. They dread the retribution of another state of existence, and make light of the things of the present world. They are not deceitful or treacherous in their conduct, and are faithful to their oaths and promises. In their rules of government there is remarkable rectitude, whilst in their behaviour there is much gentleness and sweetness. With respect to criminals or rebels, these are few in number, and only occasionally troublesome. When the laws are broken or the power of the ruler violated, then the matter is clearly sifted and the offenders imprisoned. There is no infliction of corporal punishment; they are simply left to live or die, and are not counted among men. When the rules of propriety or

28 Compare the weapons in the hands of soldiers represented in the Buddhist Rock-Temples of Ajanta, &c., pp. 11, 20, 51, 67, 68, 72, 73. Ajanta frescoes.—Burgess, Notes on &c.
justice are violated, or when a man fails in fidelity or filial piety, then they cut his nose or his ears off, or his hands and feet, or expel him from the country or drive him out into the desert wilds. For other faults, except these, a small payment of money will redeem the punishment. In the investigation of criminal cases there is no use of rod or staff to obtain proofs (of guilt). In questioning an accused person, if he replies with frankness the punishment is proportioned accordingly; but if the accused obstinately denies his fault, or in despite of it attempts to excuse himself, then in searching out the truth to the bottom, when it is necessary to pass sentence, there are four kinds of ordeal used—(1) by water, (2) by force, (3) by weighing, (4) by poison.

When the ordeal is by water, then the accused is placed in a sack connected with a stone vessel and thrown into deep water. They then judge of his innocence (truth) or guilt in this way—if the man sinks and the stone floats he is guilty; but if the man floats and the stone sinks then he is pronounced innocent.

Secondly, by fire. They heat a plate of iron and make the accused sit on it, and again place his feet on it, and apply it to the palms of his hands; moreover, he is made to pass his tongue over it; if no scars result, he is innocent; if there are scars, his guilt is proved. In case of weak and timid persons who cannot endure such ordeal, they take a flower-bud and cast it towards the fire; if it opens, he is innocent; if the flower is burnt, he is guilty.

Ordeal by weight is this: A man and a stone are placed in a balance evenly, then they judge according to lightness or weight. If the accused is innocent, then the man weighs down the stone, which rises in the balance; if he is guilty, the man rises and the stone falls.

Ordeal by poison is this: They take a ram and make an incision in its right thigh, then mixing all sorts of poison with a portion of the food of the accused man, they place it in the incision made in the thigh (of the ani-
mol); if the man is guilty, then the poison takes effect and the creature dies; if he is innocent, then the poison has no effect, and he survives.

By these four methods of trial the way of crime is stopped.

14. Forms of Politeness.

There are nine methods of showing outward respect—(1) by selecting words of a soothing character in making requests; (2) by bowing the head to show respect; (3) by raising the hands and bowing; (4) by joining the hands and bowing low; (5) by bending the knee; (6) by a prostration; (7) by a prostration on hands and knees; (8) by touching the ground with the five circles; (9) by stretching the five parts of the body on the ground.

Of these nine methods the most respectful is to make one prostration on the ground and then to kneel and laud the virtues of the one addressed. When at a distance it is usual to bow low; when near, then it is customary to kiss the feet and rub the ankles (of the person addressed).

Whenever orders are received at the hands of a superior, the person lifts the skirts of his robes and makes a prostration. The superior or honourable person who is thus reverenced must speak gently (to the inferior), either touching his head or patting his back, and addressing him with good words of direction or advice to show his affection.

When a Śramaṇa, or one who has entered on the religious life, has been thus respectfully addressed, he simply replies by expressing a good wish (cow).

Not only do they prostrate themselves to show reverence, but they also turn round towards the thing revered in many ways, sometimes with one turn, sometimes with three: if from some long-cherished feeling there is a call for marked reverence, then according to the desire of the person.

39 To kneel on all-fours.—Wells Williams.
30 की अंग, to bow to the ground.—W. W.
15. Medicines, Funeral Customs, &c.

Every one who falls sick fasts for seven days. During this interval many recover, but if the sickness lasts they take medicine. The character of these medicines is different, and their names also. The doctors differ in their modes of examination and treatment.

When a person dies, those who attend the funeral raise lamentable cries and weep together. They rend their garments and loosen their hair; they strike their heads and beat their breasts. There are no regulations as to dress for mourning, nor any fixed time for observing it.

There are three methods of paying the last tribute to the dead: (1) by cremation—wood being made into a pyre, the body is burnt; (2) by water—the body is thrown into deep flowing water and abandoned; (3) by desertion—the body is cast into some forest-wild, to be devoured by beasts.

When the king dies, his successor is first appointed, that he may preside at the funeral rites and fix the different points of precedence. Whilst living they give (their rulers) titles according to their character (virtue); when dead there are no posthumous titles.

In a house where there has been a death there is no eating allowed; but after the funeral they resume their usual (habits). There are no anniversaries (of the death) observed. Those who have attended a death they consider unclean; they all bathe outside the town and then enter their houses.

The old and infirm who come near to death, and those entangled in a severe sickness, who fear to linger to the end of their days, and through disgust wish to escape the troubles of life, or those who desire release from the trifling affairs of the world and its concerns (the concerns of life), these, after receiving a farewell meal at the hands of their relatives or friends, they place, amid the sounds of music, on a boat which they propel into the midst of
the Ganges, where such persons drown themselves. They think thus to secure a birth among the Dévas. Rarely one of these may be seen not yet dead on the borders (of the river).

The priests are not allowed to lament or cry for the dead; when a father or mother of a priest dies they recite their prayers, recounting (pledging) their obligations to them; reflecting on the past, they carefully attend to them now dead. They expect by this to increase the mysterious character of their religious merit.

16. Civil Administration, Revenues, &c.

As the administration of the government is founded on benign principles, the executive is simple. The families are not entered on registers, and the people are not subject to forced labour (conscription). The private demesnes of the crown are divided into four principal parts; the first is for carrying out the affairs of state and providing sacrificial offerings; the second is for providing subsidies for the ministers and chief officers of state; the third is for rewarding men of distinguished ability; and the fourth is for charity to religious bodies, whereby the field of merit is cultivated (planted). In this way the taxes on the people are light, and the personal service required of them is moderate. Each one keeps his own worldly goods in peace, and all till the ground for their subsistence. These who cultivate the royal estates pay a sixth part of the produce as tribute. The merchants who engage in commerce come and go in carrying out their transactions. The river-passages and the road-barriers are open on payment of a small toll. When the public works require it, labour is exacted but paid for. The payment is in strict proportion to the work done.

The military guard the frontiers, or go out to punish the refractory. They also mount guard at night round the palace. The soldiers are levied according to the requirements of the service; they are promised certain payments
and are publicly enrolled. The governors, ministers, magistrates, and officials have each a portion of land consigned to them for their personal support.

17. **Plants and Trees, Agriculture, Food, Drink, Cookery.**

The climate and the quality of the soil being different according to situation, the produce of the land is various in its character. The flowers and plants, the fruits and trees are of different kinds, and have distinct names. There is, for instance, the Amala fruit (*Ngân-mo-lo*), the Åmla fruit (*Ngân-mi-lo*), the Madhuka fruit (*Mo-tu-kia*), the Bhadra fruit (*po-ta-lo*), the Kapittha fruit (*kie-pi-ta*), the Amalâ fruit (*'O-mo-lo*), the Tinduka fruit (*Chin-tu-kia*), the Udumbara fruit (*Wu-tan-po-lo*), the Môcha fruit (*Mau-che*), the Nârikêla fruit (*Na-li-ki-lo*), the Panasa fruit (*Panna-so*). It would be difficult to enumerate all the kinds of fruit; we have briefly named those most esteemed by the people. As for the date (*Tsau*), the chestnut (*Li̕h*), the loquat (*P‘ī*), and the persimmon (*Thī*), they are not known. The pear (*Li*), the wild plum (*Nai*), the peach (*T‘au*), the apricot (*Hang or Mui*), the grape (*Po-tau*), &c., these all have been brought from the country of Kaśmîr, and are found growing on every side. Pomegranates and sweet oranges are grown everywhere.

In cultivating the land, those whose duty it is sow and reap, plough and harrow (*weed*), and plant according to the season; and after their labour they rest awhile. Among the products of the ground, rice and corn are most plentiful. With respect to edible herbs and plants, we may name ginger and mustard, melons and pumpkins, the *Hewn-to* (*Kandum*) plant, and others. Onions and garlic are little grown; and few persons eat them; if any one uses them for food, they are expelled beyond the walls of the town. The most usual food is milk, butter, cream, soft sugar, sugar-candy, the oil of the mustard-seed, and all sorts of cakes made of corn are used as food. Fish,
mutton, gazelle, and deer they eat generally fresh, sometimes salted; they are forbidden to eat the flesh of the ox, the ass, the elephant, the horse, the pig, the dog, the fox, the wolf, the lion, the monkey, and all the hairy kind. Those who eat them are despised and scorned, and are universally reprobaded; they live outside the walls, and are seldom seen among men.

With respect to the different kinds of wine and liquors, there are various sorts. The juice of the grape and sugarcane, these are used by the Kshatriyas as drink; the Vaisyas use strong fermented drinks;\(^1\) the Sramaṇas and Brāhmaṇas drink a sort of syrup made from the grape or sugarcane, but not of the nature of fermented wine.\(^2\)

The mixed classes and base-born differ in no way (as to food or drink) from the rest, except in respect of the vessels they use, which are very different both as to value and material. There is no lack of suitable things for household use. Although they have saucepans and stewpans, yet they do not know the steamer used for cooking rice. They have many vessels made of dried clay; they seldom use red copper vessels; they eat from one vessel, mixing all sorts of condiments together, which they take up with their fingers. They have no spoons or cups, and in short no sort of chopstick. When sick, however, they use copper drinking cups.


Gold and silver, teou-shih (native copper), white jade, fire pearls,\(^3\) are the natural products of the country; there are besides these abundance of rare gems and various kinds of precious stones of different names, which are collected from the islands of the sea. These they exchange for other goods; and in fact they always barter in their com-

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\(^1\) *Shun lo*, high-flavoured spirits.
\(^2\) Called, therefore, "not-wine-" as it probably is, the substance body," *i.e.*, non-alcoholic.
\(^3\) If *fo* is a mistake for *kiang*, would be "amber."
mercial transactions, for they have no gold or silver coins, pearl shells, or little pearls.  

The boundaries of India and the neighbouring countries are herein fully described; the differences of climate and soil are briefly alluded to. Details referring to these points are grouped together, and are stated succinctly; and in referring to the different countries, the various customs and modes of administration are fully detailed.

Lan-po [Lamghân].

The kingdom of Lan-po is about 1000 li in circuit, and on the north is backed by the Snowy Mountains; on three sides it is surrounded by the Black-ridge Mountains. The capital of the country is about 10 li in circuit. As for some centuries the royal family has been extinct, the chiefs have disputed for power among themselves, without the acknowledged superiority of any one in particular. Lately it has become tributary to Kapiša. The country is adapted for the production of rice, and there are many forests of sugar-cane. The trees, though they produce many fruits, yet few are ripened. The climate is backward; the hoar-frosts are plenty, but not much snow. In common there is abundance and contentment. The men (people) are given to music. Naturally they are untrustworthy and thievish; their disposition is exacting one over the other, and they never give another the preference over themselves. In respect of stature they are little, but they are active and impetuous. Their garments are made of white linen for the most part, and what they

34 This translation differs from Julian's. The text is probably corrupt.

35 Lan-po corresponds with the present Lamghân, a small country lying along the northern bank of the Kabul river, bounded on the west and east by the Alingar and Kunar rivers.—Cunningham. The Sanskrit name of the district is Lamjaka, and the Lampâkas are said to be also called Murandas (Mohâbâh, vii. 4847; Reinaud, Mém. a l'Inde, p. 355; and Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. ii. p. 877, vol. iii. p. 136 f.). Ptolemy (lib. vii. c. i. 42) places a tribe called Λαμπάκας, Λαμπάρας, or Λαμπάγας in this district. The modern name is vulgarly pronounced Laghmân. See Baber's Memoirs, pp. 133, 136, 140 ff.; Cunningham, Anc. Geog. Ind., P. 43.
wear is well appointed. There are about ten saṅghā-
rāmas, with few followers (priests). The greater portion
study the Great Vehicle. There are several scores of dif-
ferent Dēva temples. There are few heretics. Going south-
east from this country 100 li or so, we cross a great
mountain (ridge), pass a wide river, and so come to Na-
kie-lo-ho [the frontiers of North India].

NA-KIE-LO-HO [NAGARAHĀRA].

The country of Nagarahāra (Na-kie-lo-ho) is about
600 li from east to west, and 250 or 260 li from north to
south. It is surrounded on four sides by overhanging
precipices and natural barriers. The capital is 20 li or
so in circuit.36 It has no chief ruler; the commandant
and his subordinates come from Kapiśa. The country
is rich in cereals, and produces a great quantity of
flowers and fruits. The climate is moist and warm.
Their manners are simple and honest, their disposition
ardent and courageous. They think lightly of wealth and
love learning. They cultivate the religion of Buddha,
and few believe in other doctrines. The saṅghārāmas are
many, but yet the priests are few; the stūpas are deso-
late and ruined. There are five Dēva temples, with about
one hundred worshippers.37

36 The situation of the town of
Nagarahāra (the old capital of the
Jalālabīd district) has been satisfac-
torily determined by Mr. W. Simp-
son (J. R. A. S., N.S., vol. xiii. p. 181). He places the site of the town in the
angle formed by the junction of the
Surkhār and Kābul rivers, on their
right banks. Both the direction
and the distance from Lamghan
(about twenty miles south-east)
would place us on this spot. The
mountains crossed by the pilgrim
were the Śāh Kōh, and the river
would be probably the Kābul river
at Darunta. The Sanskrit name—
Nagarahāra—occurs in an inscription
which was discovered by Major
Kittoe in the ruined mound of Gho-

srāvā in the district of Bihār (J. A. S.
B., vol. xvii. pt. i. pp. 492, 494, 495 f.)
The district corresponds with the
Nāgara Δωσυντάλος of Ptolemy (lib.
vi. c. 1, 43). It is called the city of
Dipaṅkara by Hwui-lih (Jul.
Vie, p. 78), just as he calls Hidha
the city of “the skull-bone” (l. c.)
Conf. Lassen, l. a., vol. iii. p. 137.
37 Worshippers or “men of diffe-
rent religious faith.” The usual
term for “non-believer” in Chinese
is wai-teu, an “outside-religion
man.” This term corresponds with
the Pāli bāhūra, used in the same
way. The Buddhists are now spoken
of by the Muhammadans as Kaffir
log, “infidel people” (Simpson, u. a.,
p. 186.
Three li to the east of the city there is a stūpa in height about 300 feet, which was built by Aṣokā Rāja. It is wonderfully constructed of stone beautifully adorned and carved. Sākya, when a Boddhisattwa, here met Dīpaṅkara Buddha (Jen-tung-fo), and spreading out his deerskin doublet, and unbinding his hair and covering with it the muddy road, received a predictive assurance. Though the passed kalpa brought the overthrow of the world, the trace of this event was not destroyed; on religious (fast) days the sky rains down all sorts of flowers, which excite a religious frame of mind in the people, who also offer up religious offerings.

To the west of this place is a Kia-lan (sanghārāma) with a few priests. To the south is a small stūpa: this was the place where, in old time, Boddhisattva covered the mud (with his hair). Aṣokā-rāja built (this stūpa) away from the road.

Within the city is the ruined foundation of a great stūpa. Tradition says that it once contained a tooth of Buddha, and that it was high and of great magnificence. Now it has no tooth, but only the ancient foundations remain.

By its side is a stūpa 30 feet or so in height; the old stories of the place know nothing of the origin of this fabric; they say only that it fell from heaven and placed itself here. Being no work of man’s art, it is clearly a spiritual prodigy.

The Chinese expression seems to refer to the successive layers of checkered stones peculiar to these topes. See W. Simpson’s and also Mr. Swinnerton’s account.—Ind. Antiq., vol. viii. pp. 198 & 227 f.

The incident referred to in the text, viz., the interview between Dīpaṅkara Buddha and the Boddhisattva Sumedha, is a popular one in Buddhist sculpture and mythology. There is a representation of it among fragments in the Lahor Museum; another representation is among the sculptures of the Kathari caves (Archæol. Surv. W. Ind, Rep., vol. iv. p. 66). The legend I translated from the Chinese (J. R. A. Soc., N.S., vol. vi. pp. 377 ff.). Fa-hien also refers to it (Buddhist Pilgrims, p. 431). See also some remarks on this legend, Ind. Antiq., vol. xi. p. 146; and conf. Rhys David’s Buddh. Birth-Stories, pp. 3 f.

This is a difficult passage, and is probably corrupt. The phrase "ti ui-pi," towards the end, may mean "in an out-of-the-way place." The reference is to the spot where predictive assurance was given to Sumedha that he should become a Buddha.
To the south-west of the city about 10 li is a stūpa. Here Tathāgata, when living in the world, alighted, having left Mid-India and passed through the air for the sake of converting men. The people, moved by reverence, erected this building. Not far to the east is a stūpa; it was here Boddhisattva met Dipankara Buddha and bought the flowers.\(^1\)

About 20 li to the south-west of the city we come to a small stone ridge, where there is a saṅghārāma with a high hall and a storied tower made of piled-up stone. It is now silent and deserted, with no priests. In the middle is a stūpa 200 feet or so in height, built by Asoka-ñāja.

To the south-west of this saṅghārāma a deep torrent rushes from a high point of the hill and scatters its waters in leaping cascades. The mountain sides are like walls; on the eastern side of one is a great cavern, deep and profound, the abode of the Nāga Gāpāla. The gate (or entrance) leading to it is narrow; the cavern is dark; the precipitous rock causes the water to find its way in various rivulets into this cavern. In old days there was a shadow of Buddha to be seen here, bright as the true form, with all its characteristic marks.\(^2\) In later days men have not seen it so much. What does appear is only a feeble likeness. But whoever prays with fervent faith, he is mysteriously endowed, and he sees it clearly before him, though not for long.

In old times, when Tathāgata was in the world, this dragon was a shepherd who provided the king with milk and cream. Having on one occasion failed to do so, and having received a reprimand, he proceeded in an angry temper to the stūpa of “the predictive assurance,” and

\(^1\) He bought the flowers of a girl, who consented to sell them only on condition that she should ever hereafter be born as his wife. See the account in the “Legend of Dipankara Buddha” (*J. R. A. S.*, N.S., vol. vi. pp. 377 ff.) The incident of the flowers remaining over the head as a “baldachin,” is represented in the Labor sculpture referred to above, note 39. See Ferguson, *Tree and Serp. Worship*, pl. I.

\(^2\) See note 5 p. 1, and p. 145, note 76.
there made an offering of flowers, with the prayer that he might become a destructive dragon for the purpose of
afflicting the country and destroying the king. Then
ascending the rocky side of the hill, he threw himself
down and was killed. Forthwith he became a great
dragon and occupied this cavern, and then he purposed
to go forth and accomplish his original wicked purpose.
When this intention had risen within him, Tathāgata, hav-
ing examined what was his object, was moved with pity
for the country and the people about to be destroyed by
the dragon. By his spiritual power he came from Mid-
India to where the dragon was. The dragon seeing Ta-
thāgata, his murderous purpose was stayed, and he ac-
cepted the precept against killing, and vowed to defend
the true law; he requested Tathāgata to occupy this
cavern evermore, that his holy disciples might ever re-
ceive his (the dragon's) religious offerings.43

Tathāgata replied, "When I am about to die; I will
leave you my shadow, and I will send five Arhats to
receive from you continual offerings. When the true
law is destroyed,44 this service of yours shall still go
on; if an evil heart rises in you, you must look at my
shadow, and because of its power of love and virtue your
evil purpose will be stopped. The Buddhas who will
appear throughout this Bhadra-kalpa45 will all, from a
motive of pity, intrust to you their shadows as a be-
quest." Outside the gate of the Cavern of the Shadow
there are two square stones; on one is the impression
of the foot of Tathāgata, with a wheel-circle (lun-siang)
beautifully clear, which shines with a brilliant light from
time to time.

On either side of the Cavern of the Shadow there are

43 This is evidently the meaning of the passage: the request was, not that the dragon might dwell in the
cavern, but that Tathāgata would live there with his disciples. Fabian refers to this cave.
44 The "true law" was to last 500 years; the "law of images" 1000 years.
45 This period is that in which we now are, during which 1000 Budd-
dhas are to appear.
several stone chambers; in these the holy disciples of Tathāgata reposed in meditation.

At the north-west corner of the cave of the shadow is a stūpa where Buddha walked up and down. Beside this is a stūpa which contains some of the hair and the nail-parings of Tathāgata.

Not far from this is a stūpa where Tathāgata, making manifest the secret principles of his true doctrine, declared the Skandha-dhātu-āyatanas (Yun-kía̍-king). 46

At the west of the Cave of the Shadow is a vast rock, on which Tathāgata in old time spread out his kashāya 47 robe after washing it; the marks of the tissue still exist.

To the south-east of the city 30 li or so is the town of Hi-lo (Hiddā); 48 it is about 4 or 5 li in circuit; it is high in situation and strong by natural declivities. It has flowers and woods, and lakes whose waters are bright as a mirror. The people of this city are simple, honest, and upright. There is here a two-storied tower; the beams are painted and the columns coloured red.

46 The symbol "chu" (āyatana) in this passage must be connected with the previous "yun kía̍." The yun kía̍ chu are the eighteen dhātus, for which see Childers’ Pǐli Dict. (sub voc.). Vide also the Śurisājana Sūtra (Catena of Buddhist Scrip., p. 297 n. 2). There is no word in my text for king, given by Julien.

47 Kashāya refers to the colour of the Buddhist upper robe, which was of brick-red or yellow colour (ka-shāya).

48 The city of Hi-lo or Hiddā (concerning which restoration, see V. de St. Martin’s Mémo., u. z., p. 304), about six miles south-east of Nagarahāra, is described by Fa-hian (cap. xiii.) The Vihāra of the skull-bone is there said to be placed within a square enclosure, and it is added, "though the heavens should quake and the earth open, this place would remain unmoved." Compare with this the remark of Hiuen Tsang respecting Śvētavāras (sup. p. 61) and its name of Terpāywa. It is curious, too, that this place (the neighbourhood of Hiddā) is called Bègrām, and so also is Svētavāras (i.e., Kar-sana or Tetrāgōnēs). Both Bègrām and Nagarha appear to mean "the city." This town or Nagarahāra may be the Nyssa or Nysa of Arrian (lib. v. cap. l) and Curtius (lib. viii. cap. x. 7), in which case there would be no need to derive Dionysopolis—the Nagar of Ptolemy—from Ud-yānapura, although, as General Cunningham remarks (Anc. Geog. of Ind., p. 46), the name Ajōna, given to Nagarahāra (according to Mason) might well be corrupted from Ujājāna or Udyāna. Compare with the text the account found in Hwu-lih (Vie, p. 76). Conf. Nouv. Jour. Asiatique, tom. vii. pp. 338 f.; Mason, Var. Jour., vol. iii. pp. 254 ff.; Wilson, Anna Ant., pp. 43, 105 f.
In the second storey is a little stūpa, made of the seven precious substances; it contains the skull-bone of Tathāgata; it is 1 foot 2 inches round; the hair orifices are distinct; its colour is a whitish-yellow. It is enclosed in a precious receptacle, which is placed in the middle of the stūpa. Those who wish to make lucky or unlucky presages (marks) make a paste of scented earth, and impress it on the skull-bone; then, according to their merit, is the impression made.

Again there is another little stūpa, made of the seven precious substances, which encloses the skull-bone of Tathāgata. Its shape is like a lotus leaf; its colour is the same as that of the other, and it is also contained in a precious casket, sealed up and fastened.

Again, there is another little stūpa, made of the seven precious substances, in which is deposited the eyeball of Tathāgata, large as an Āmra fruit and bright and clear throughout; this also is deposited in a precious casket sealed up and fastened. The Saṅghāṭi robe of Tathāgata, which is made of fine cotton stuff of a yellow-red colour, is also enclosed in a precious box. Since many months and years have passed, it is a little damaged. The staff of Tathāgata, of which the rings are white iron (tiṇ) and the stick of sandalwood, is contained in a precious case (a case made of a precious substance). Lately, a king, hearing of these various articles that they formerly belonged to Tathāgata as his own private property, took them away by force to his own country and placed them in his palace. After a short time, going to look at them, they were gone;

40 The ko hua is the water-lily, but it is also a general name for mallows (Medhurst, s. v.) This bone is that of the usnhaha or top of the skull.

41 Such seems to be the meaning. Julien has taken it as though kia-sha referred to another garment, but it seems merely to denote the robe called Saṅghāṭi.

42 The religious staff, khakkharam or hikkala, was so called from the noise it made when shaken. Conf. hikk, Ch. sek; Sek cheung, an abbot's crozier or staff (Wells Williams). It is described in the Sha-men-yih-yung (fol. 14 a). See p. 47, ante.

43 Scarcely had an hour elapsed.
and after further inquiries he found they had returned to their original place. These five sacred objects (relics) often work miracles.

The king of Kapiśa has commanded five pure-conduct men (Brāhmaṇaś) to offer continually scents and flowers to these objects. These pure persons, observing the crowds who came to worship incessantly, wishing to devote themselves to quiet meditation, have established a scale of fixed charges, with a view to secure order, by means of that wealth which is so much esteemed by men. Their plan, in brief, is this:—All who wish to see the skull-bone of Tathāgata have to pay one gold piece; those who wish to take an impression pay five pieces. The other objects in their several order, have a fixed price; and yet, though the charges are heavy, the worshippers are numerous.

To the north-west of the double-storied pavilion is a stāpa, not very high or large, but yet one which possesses many spiritual (miraculous) qualities. If men only touch it with a finger, it shakes and trembles to the foundation, and the bells and the jingles moving together give out a pleasant sound.

Going south-east from this, crossing mountains and valleys for 500 li or so, we arrive at the kingdom of Kien-t'o-lo (Gandhāra).

**Kien-t'o-lo—Gandhāra.**

The kingdom of Gandhāra is about 1000 li from east to west, and about 800 li from north to south. On the east it borders on the river Sin (Sindh). The capital of the country is called Po-lu-sha-pu-lo; it is about 40 li

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23 The phrase teze chu, which is of frequent occurrence in Buddhist composition, seems to mean "moreover" or "besides this."

24 The country of Gandhāra is that of the lower Kābul valley, lying along the Kābul river between the VOL. I. Khoaspes (Kunar) and the Indua. It is the country of the Gandares of Ptolemy (Geog., lib. vi. c. 1, 7). The capital was Purushapura now Peshāwar. The Gandari are mentioned by Hekataios (Fr. 178, 179) and Herodotos (lib. iii. c. 91, lib. vii. c. G
in circuit. The royal family is extinct, and the kingdom is governed by deputies from Kāpiśa. The towns and villages are deserted, and there are but few inhabitants. At one corner of the royal residence there are about 1000 families. The country is rich in cereals, and produces a variety of flowers and fruits; it abounds also in sugar-cane, from the juice of which they prepare "the solid sugar." The climate is warm and moist, and in general without ice or snow. The disposition of the people is timid and soft; they love literature; most of them belong to heretical schools; a few believe in the true law. From old time till now this border-land of India has produced many authors of śāstras; for example, Nārāyanādēva, Asaṅga Bōdhisattva, Vasubandhu Bōdhisattva, Dharmatrāta, Manōrīhta, Pārśva the noble, and so on. There are about 1000 saṅghārāmas, which are deserted and in ruins. They are filled with wild shrubs, and solitary to the last degree. The stūpas are mostly decayed. The heretical temples, to the number of about 100, are occupied pell-mell by heretics.

Inside the royal city, towards the north-east, is an old foundation (or a ruinous foundation). Formerly this was the precious tower of the pātra of Buddha. After the Nirvāṇa of Buddha, his pātra coming to this country, was


55 The Kung shing is the fortified or walled portion of the town, in which the royal palace stood.

56 There is a symbol puh before this name, which, as Julien has remarked, is inserted by mistake. The Chinese equivalents for the names of these writers are as follows: Na-lo-yen-tin (Nārāyanadēva), Wu-ch'o-p' u-sa (Asaṅga Bōdhisattva), Shi-shin-p'u-sa (Vasubandhu Bōdhisattva), Fa-kiu (Dharmatrāta), Ju-i (Manōrīhta), Hie-tsun (Arya Pārśvika). All these, the text says, were born in Gāndhāra.

57 M. Julien has pointed out the error in the text and supplied this meaning.

50 Julien has north-west.
worshipped during many centuries. In traversing different countries it has come now to Persia.  

Outside the city, about 8 or 9 li to the south-east, there is a pipala tree about 100 feet or so in height. Its branches are thick and the shade beneath sombre and deep. The four past Buddhas have sat beneath this tree, and at the present time there are four sitting figures of the Buddhas to be seen here. During the Bhadrakalpa, the 996 other Buddhas will all sit here. Secret spiritual influences guard the precincts of the tree and exert a protecting virtue in its continuance. Sâkya Tathâgata sat beneath this tree with his face to the south and addressed Ânanda thus:—"Four hundred years after my departure from the world, there will be a king who shall rule it called Kanishka (Kia-mi-se-kia); not far to the south of this spot he will raise a stûpa which will contain many various relics of my bones and flesh."

To the south of the Pippala tree is a stûpa built by King Kanishka; this king ascended the throne four hundred years after the Nirvâna, and governed the whole of Jambudvîpa. He had no faith either in wrong or right (crime or religious merit), and he lightly esteemed the law of Buddha. One day when traversing a swampy grove (bushy swamp) he saw a white hare, which he followed as far as this spot, when suddenly it disappeared. He then saw a young shepherd-boy, who was building in the wood hard by a little stûpa about three feet high. The king said, "What are you doing?" The shepherd-boy answered and said, "Formerly Sâkya Buddha, by his divine wisdom, delivered this prophecy: 'There shall be a king in this victorious (superior) land who shall erect a stûpa, which shall contain a great portion of my bodily relics.' The sacred merits of the great king (Kanishka)  

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See ante, p. 56, note 200, and inf. p. 151, note 97.
in former births (stūh), with his increasing fame, have made the present occasion a proper one for the fulfilment of the old prophecy relating to the divine merit and the religious superiority of the person concerned. And now I am engaged for the purpose of directing you to these former predictions." Or, having said these words he disappeared.

The king hearing this explanation, was overjoyed. Flattering himself that he was referred to in the prophecy of the great saint, he believed with all his heart and paid reverence to the law of Buddha. Surrounding the site of the little stūpa he built a stone stūpa, wishing to surpass it in height, to prove the power of his religious merit. But in proportion as his stūpa increased the other always exceeded it by three feet, and so he went on till his reached 400 feet, and the circumference of the base was a half. The storeys having reached to five, each 150 feet in height, then he succeeded in covering the other. The king, overjoyed, raised on the top of this stūpa twenty-five circles of gilded copper on a staff, and he placed in the middle of the stūpa a peck of the Sarīras of Tathāgata, and offered to them religious offerings. Scarcely had he finished his work when he saw the little stūpa take its place at the south-east of the great foundation, and project from its side about half-way up.

Or, to arouse you to a sense of your destiny (your previous forecast).

Julien translates this differently —"he saw the little stūpa raise itself by the side of the other and exceed it by one-half." The passage is undoubtedly a difficult one, and rendered more so by a faulty text. To understand it, we must observe that the building was a tower of five storeys, each 150 feet in height. The small stūpa or tower was enclosed in the middle of the lower basement. Suddenly, when the large tower was finished, the smaller one changed its position, and came to the south-east angle of the great foundation—i.e., of the lowest division or storey—and pierced through the wall of the larger building about half way up. Kanishka, ill at ease in the presence of this portent, ordered the greater building to be destroyed down to the second stage. On this being done the little tower again went back to the middle of the space enclosed by the basement of the larger one, and there overtopped it as before. So I understand the passage; and if this be so, the only alteration required in the text is in the last clause, where instead of sū, "little," I would substitute ta, "great," "it came out of, i.e., towered above, the great stūpa."
at this, and ordered the stūpa to be destroyed. When they had got down to the bottom of the second storey, through which the other projected, immediately that one removed to its former place, and once more it surpassed in height the other. The king retiring said, "It is easy to commit errors in human affairs, but when there is divine influence at work it is difficult to counteract it. When a matter is directed by spiritual power, what can human resentment effect?" Having confessed his fault, therefore, he retired.

These two stūpas are still visible. In aggravated sickness, if a cure is sought, people burn incense and offer flowers, and with a sincere faith pay their devotions. In many cases a remedy is found.

On the southern side of the steps, on the eastern face of the great stūpa, there are engraved (or carved) two stūpas, one three feet high, the other five feet. They are the same shape and proportion as the great stūpa. Again, there are two full-sized figures of Buddha, one four feet, the other six feet in height. They resemble him as he sat cross-legged beneath the Bōdhi tree. When the full rays of the sun shine on them they appear of a brilliant gold colour, and as the light decreases the hues of the stone seem to assume a reddish-blue colour. The old people say, "Several centuries ago, in a fissure of the stone foundation, there were some gold-coloured ants, the greatest about the size of the finger, the longest about a barleycorn in size. Those of the same species consorted together; by gnawing the stone steps they have left lines and marks as if engraved on the surface, and by the gold sand which they left (as deposits) they have caused the figures of Buddha to assume their present appearance."

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63 Or, human affairs are changeable and deceptive.
64 The sense of ying in this passage is doubtful; it may mean "complicated," or "threatening (sickness)," or it may refer to complaints peculiar to children.
65 The expression lo ćho would seem to mean that the stūpas were engraved, not built. The particular named as to steps leading up to the stūpa is significant, as illustrating the architectural appearance and character of these buildings.
On the southern side of the stone steps of the great stūpa there is a painted figure of Buddha about sixteen feet high. From the middle upward there are two bodies, below the middle, only one. The old tradition says: In the beginning, there was a poor man who hired himself out to get a living; having obtained a gold coin, he vowed to make a figure of Buddha. Coming to the stūpa, he spoke to a painter and said, "I wish now to get a figure of Tathāgata painted, with its beautiful points of excellence; but I only have one gold coin; this is little enough to repay an artist. I am sorry to be so hampered by poverty in carrying out my cherished aim."

Then the painter, observing his simple truth, said nothing about the price, but promised to set to work to furnish the picture.

Again there was a man, similarly circumstanced, with one gold coin, who also sought to have a picture of Buddha painted. The painter having received thus a gold piece from each, procured some excellent colours (blue and vermilion) and painted a picture. Then both men came the same day to pay reverence to the picture they had had done, and the artist pointed each to the same figure, telling them, "This is the figure of Buddha which you ordered to be done." The two men looking at one another in perplexity, the mind of the artist understanding their doubts, said, "What are you thinking about so long? If you are thinking about the money, I have not defrauded you of any part. To show that it is so there must be some spiritual indication on the part of the picture."

66 This is the literal translation; it may mean "on the southern side of the steps," as though there were steps only on the eastern side of the stūpa; or it may, by license, mean "on the steps of the stūpa, its southern face," as though the steps referred to were on the southern face. But the literal translation is preferable, in which case we may assume that a flight of steps on the eastern side led up to the platform on which the tower (stūpa) was built, and that the figures referred to were engraved between the pilasters of the terrace on the north and south sides of the steps.

67 Or, "a beautifully-marked figure of Tathāgata." The marks (siang or lakshana) of Buddha are well known.——See Burmese, Lotus, p. 616, and ante, p. 1, note 5.
Scarcely had he finished when the picture, by some spiritual power, divided itself (*from the middle upwards*), and both parts emitted a glory alike. The two men with joy believed and exulted.

To the south-west of the great *stūpa* 100 paces or so, there is a figure of Buddha in white stone about eighteen feet high. It is a standing figure, and looks to the north. It has many spiritual powers, and diffuses a brilliant light. Sometimes there are people who see the image come out of an evening and go round the great *stūpa*. Lately a band of robbers wished to go in and steal. The image immediately came forth and went before the robbers. Affrighted, they ran away; the image then returned to its own place, and remained fixed as before. The robbers, affected by what they had seen, began a new life, and went about through towns and villages telling what had happened.

To the left and right of the great *stūpa* are a hundred little *stūpas* standing closely together, executed with consummate art. Exquisite perfumes and different musical sounds at times are perceived, the work of Rishis, saints, and eminent sages; these also at times are seen walking round the *stūpas*.

According to the prediction of Tathāgata, after this *stūpa* has been seven times burnt down and seven times rebuilt, then the religion of Buddha will disappear. The record of old worthies says this building has already been destroyed and restored three times. When (*I*) first arrived in this country it had just been destroyed by a fire calamity. Steps are being taken for its restoration, but they are not yet complete.

To the west of the great *stūpa* there is an old *saṅghārāma* which was built by King Kauishka. Its double towers, connected terraces, storeyed piles, and deep chambers

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68 That is, circumambulate it, or perform the *pradakshina*.
69 The expression means, as M. Julien explains, arranged in order like the scales of a fish, that is, with regularity.
bear testimony to the eminence of the great priests who have here formed their illustrious religious characters (gained distinction). Although now somewhat decayed, it yet gives evidence of its wonderful construction. The priests living in it are few; they study the Little Vehicle. From the time it was built many authors of Śāstras have lived herein and gained the supreme fruit (of Arhatship). Their pure fame is wide-spread, and their exemplary religious character still survives.

In the third tower (double-storeyed tower) is the chamber of the honourable Pārśvika (Pi-lo-shi-po), but it has long been in ruins; but they have placed here a commemorative tablet to him. He was at first a master of the Brāhmaṇs (or a Brāhmaṇ doctor), but when eighty years of age he left his home and assumed the soiled robes (of a Buddhist disciple). The boys of the town ridiculed him, saying, "Foolish old man! you have no wisdom, surely! Don’t you know that they who become disciples of Buddha have two tasks to perform, viz., to give themselves to meditation and to recite the Scriptures? And now you are old and infirm, what progress can you make as a disciple? Doubtless you know how to eat (and that is all)!" Then Pārśvika, hearing such railing speeches, gave up the world and made this vow, "Until I thoroughly penetrate the wisdom of the three Piṭakas and get rid of the evil desire of the three worlds, till I obtain the six miraculous powers and reach the eight deliverances (vimokshas), I will not lie down to rest (my side shall not touch the sleeping mat)."

From that day forth the day was not enough for him to walk in meditation or to sit upright in deep thought. In the daytime he studied incessantly the doctrine of the

70 *Lit., in the pure streams of the high calling (traces).
71 Withdrawn from “time and men.” It may be, withdrew for a time from men.
72 Whilst I do not understand, &c.
73 The six miraculous or spiritual powers are the abhijñās, so called; for which see Eitel’s *Handbook*, s. v., or Childers, *Pali Dict.*, s. v. abhijñā. Five are enumerated in the *Lotus*, cap. v. see pp. 291, 345, 372, 379, 820; *Introd.* p. 263. For the vimokshas see *Lotus*, pp. 347, 824; Childers, *Pali Dict.*, s. v. vimokho. See note 88, p 149, *inf.*
sublime principles (of Buddhism), and at night he sat silently meditating in unbroken thought. After three years he obtained insight into the three pītakas, and shook off all worldly desires,²⁴ and obtained the threefold knowledge.²⁵ Then people called him the honourable Pārśvika²⁶ and paid him reverence.

To the east of Pārśvika's chamber is an old building in which Vasubandhu²⁷ Bōdhisattra prepared the 'O-pi-ta-mo-ko-we-lun (Abhidharmakōśha Šāstra);²⁸ men, out of respect to him, have placed here a commemorative tablet to this effect.

To the south of Vasubandhu's house, about fifty paces or so, is a second storied-pavilion in which Manorhita,²⁹ a master of Šāstras, composed the Viśālā Viśāstra. This learned doctor flourished in the midst of the thousand

²⁴ Desire of the three worlds.
²⁵ The trīdyāda, the threefold knowledge, viz., of the impermanence of all things (anātya), of sorrow (dukkha), and of unreality (anātmā).
²⁶ Pārśvika, Chin. Hie-ts'ün, so named from pārśva (Chin. kie), "the side," from his vow, here related, not to lie on his side. He is reckoned the ninth or tenth Buddhist patriarch (according as Vasumitra, the seventh, is excluded or not); Edkins, Chin. Buddh., p. 74; Lassen, I. A., vol. ii. p. 1202; Vassiliev, pp. 48, 75 f. 203 f. 211; Ind. Ant., vol. iv. p. 141.
²⁷ Vasubandhu (Fo-sin-fan-tho) translated Thien-sin and Shi-sin, according to northern accounts, the twenty-first patriarch of the Buddhist church, and younger brother of Asaṅga. But this succession of patriarchs is more than doubtful, for Buddha-dharma, who is represented as the twenty-eighth patriarch, arrived in China A.D. 520; but according to Max Müller, Vasubandhu flourished in India in the second half of the sixth century (India, p. 306). If this date can be established, many of the statements of dates found in the Chinese Bud-
²⁸ This is a work frequently named in these records. It was written by Vasubandhu to refute the errors of the Vaibhāshikas, and was translated into Chinese by Paramārtha, a.d. 557–589. For an account of its origin see the Life of Buddha by Wong Pūh, § 105, in J. R. A. S., vol. xx. p. 211; Edkins, Ch. Buddh., p. 120; Vassiliev, pp. 77 f. 108, 130, 220.
²⁹ Manorhita, otherwise written Manorata, Manorhata, or Manoratha (Jul., Vie, p. 405), also Manura. This is explained by the Chinese Ju-i, an expression used for the Kāla-vrīkṣa or "wishing tree," denoting power to produce whatever was wished; literally, "conformable (hita) to thought (mana, mind)." He is probably the same as Manirata (Vassiliev, Bouddhisme, p. 219). He is reckoned the twenty-second patriarch.—Lassen, I. A., vol. ii. p. 1206; Edkins, Ch. Buddh., pp. 82–84; M. Müller, India, pp. 289, 302; and note 77 ante.
years after the Nirvāṇa of Buddha. In his youth he was devoted to study and had distinguished talent. His fame was wide spread with the religious, and laymen sought to do him hearty reverence. At that time Vikramādiṭṭya, king of the country of Śrāvasti, was of wide renown. He ordered his ministers to distribute daily throughout India five lakhs of gold coin; he largely (everywhere) supplied the wants of the poor, the orphan, and the bereaved. His treasurer, fearing that the resources of the kingdom would be exhausted, represented the case to the king, and said, “Mahārāja! your fame has reached to the very lowest of your subjects, and extends to the brute creation. You bid me add (to your expenditure) five lakhs of gold to succour the poor throughout the world. Your treasury will thus be emptied, and then fresh imposts will have to be laid (on

80 This expression, “in the midst of, or during, the thousand years,” has a particular reference to the period of 1000 years which succeeded the period of 500 years after Buddha’s death. The 500 years is called the period of the “true law,” the 1000 years “the period of images,” i.e., image-worship; after that came the period of “no law.” The phrase “during the 1000 years,” therefore, in these records, means that the person referred to lived during the middle portion of the second period, that is, about a thousand years after Buddha. There is a useful note in Wong Pūḥ’s life of Buddha (§ 204, J. R. A. S., vol. xx. p. 215) relating to this point, from which it appears that the accepted date of the Nirvāṇa in China at this time was 850 B.C. The period of 1000 years, therefore, would extend from 350 B.C. to 650 A.D. Wong Pūḥ uses the expression ke-šī “the latter age,” for “the thousand years.” Manōrhita is placed under Vikramādiṭṭya Harsha of Ujjain, and therefore lived about the middle of the 6th century A.D., according to M. Müllер, India, p. 290.

81 This is supposed to be the same as Vikramādiṭṭya or Harsha of Ujjayinī, according to Dr. J. Ferguson and Prof. M. Müllert, the founder of the usual Śaṅvat era, 56 B.C. The Chinese equivalent for his name is ēkṣoṣ jīk, or “leaping above the sun,” or “the upspringing light,” “the dawn.” As to the mode in which this era of Vikramādiṭṭya might have been contrived, see Ferguson (J. R. A. S., N. S., vol. xii. p. 273). The starting-point from which these writers suppose it came into use is 544 A.D. The expression Vikramādiṭṭya of Śrāvasti, is the same as Vikramādiṭṭya of Ayōdhya (Oudh), where we are told (Vassilieff, p. 219) he held his court. The town of Śrāvasti was in ruins even in Fa-hian’s time (cap. xx.)

82 “Throughout all the Indies.” This passage may also be translated thus: “An envoy (śī shan) coming to India, he daily,” &c. Julien refers it to one of his own envoys, but in any case the passage is obscure. Judging from the context, I think the meaning is, “he ordered his minister, in the next sentence called “his treasurer,” to give throughout India on one day five lakhs for the poor.”
the land cultivators), until the resources of the land be also exhausted; then the voice of complaint will be heard and hostility be provoked. Your majesty, indeed, will get credit for charity, but your minister will lose the respect of all." The king answered, "But of my own surplus I (wish to) relieve the poor. I would on no account, for my own advantage, thoughtlessly burthen (grind down) the country." Accordingly he added five lakhs for the good of the poor. Some time after this the king was engaged chasing a boar. Having lost the track, he gave a man a lakh for putting him on the scent again. Now Manôrhita, the doctor of Śastra, once engaged a man to shave his head, and gave him offhand a lakh of gold for so doing. This munificent act was recorded in the annals by the chief historian. The king reading of it, was filled with shame, and his proud heart continually fretted about it, and so he desired to bring some fault against Manôrhita and punish him. So he summoned an assembly of different religious persons whose talents were most noted, to the number of one hundred, and issued the following decree: "I wish to put a check to the various opinions (wanderings) and to settle the true limits (of inquiry); the opinions of different religious sects are so various that the mind knows not what to believe. Exert your utmost ability, therefore, to-day in following out my directions." On meeting for discussion he made a second decree: "The doctors of law belonging to the heretics are distinguished as referring to Manôrhita himself, who, although a writer of Śastras, was also a prince (vid. Eitel, a. v.) I.e., that Manôrhita should have equalled him in munificence, and that he should be held up as an example. "Whose virtuous deeds (good qualities) were high and profound." I find nothing about Brâhmaṇas in the text. Or it may be, "the unbelievers and the doctors of śastras are both eminent," &c.
for their ability. The Shamans and the followers of the law (of Buddha) ought to look well to the principles of their sect; if they prevail, then they will bring reverence to the law of Buddha; but if they fail, then they shall be exterminated.” On this, Manôrhitâ questioned the heretics and silenced ninety-nine of them. And now a man was placed (sat on the mat to dispute with him) of no ability whatever, and for the sake of a trifling discussion (Manôrhitâ) proposed the subject of fire and smoke. On this the king and the heretics cried out, saying, “Manôrhitâ, the doctor of Śåstras, has lost the sense of right connection (mistaken the order or sense of the phrase); he should have named smoke first and fire afterwards: this order of things is constant.” Manôrhitâ wishing to explain the difficulty, was not allowed a hearing; on which, ashamed to see himself thus treated by the people, he bit out his tongue and wrote a warning to his disciple Vasubandhu, saying, “In the multitude of partisans there is no justice; among persons deceived there is no discernment.” Having written this, he died.

A little afterwards Vikramâditya-râja lost his kingdom and was succeeded by a monarch who widely patronised those distinguished for literary merit. Vasubandhu, wishing to wash out the former disgrace, came to the king and said, “Mahârâja, by your sacred qualities you rule the empire and govern with wisdom. My old master, Manôrhitâ, was deeply versed in the mysterious doctrine. The former king, from an old resentment, deprived him of his high renown. I now wish to avenge the injury done to my master.” The king, knowing that Manôrhitâ was a man of superior intelligence, approved of the noble project of Vasubandhu; he summoned the heretics who had discussed with Manôrhitâ. Vasubandhu having exhibited

88 It ought probably to be rendered thus: “If they prevail, then I will reverence the law of Buddha; if they are defeated, I will utterly exterminate the priests.”
89 Made to retire.
90 Or, who looked at him with a dispirited (downtcast) air.
91 This would appear to be Śilâditya of Ujjain, spoked of by Hiuen Tsiang (Book xi.) as having lived about sixty years before his own time.
afresh the former conclusions of his master, the heretics were abashed and retired.

To the north-east of the saṅghārāma of Kanishka-rāja about 50 li, we cross a great river and arrive at the town of Pushkalāvatī (Po-shi-kie-lo-fa-ti). It is about 14 or 15 li in circuit; the population is large; the inner gates are connected by a hollow (tunnel?). Outside the western gate is a Deva temple. The image of the god is imposing and works constant miracles.

To the east of the city is a stūpa built by Asoka-rāja. This is the place where the four former Buddhas delivered the law (preached). Among former saints and sages many have come (descended spiritually) from Mid-India to this place to instruct all creatures (things). For example, Vasumitra, doctor of Sāstras, who composed the Chung-sse-fen-o-pi-ta-mo (Abhidharmaprabhakarāṇa-pāda) Sāstra in this place.

To the north of the town 4 or 5 li is an old saṅghārāma, of which the halls are deserted and cold. There are very few priests in it, and all of them follow the teaching of

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92 Or Pushkaravati, the old capital of Gandhāra, said to have been founded by Pushkara or Pushkala, the son of Bharata and nephew of Rāma (Wilson, Vishnu-pur., vol. iii. p. 319). The district is called Paukkalitā and Paukkalaitī by Arrian (Anab., lib. iv. c. 22, s. 9; Ind., c. 4, s. 11), and the capital Paukkalaitī or Paukkala (Ind., c. 1, s. 8), while Strabo calls the city Paukkalitē (lib. xv. c. 21 s. 27). Pliny has Peucolais (lib. vi. c. 21, s. 62) and the people Peucolates (c. 23, s. 78). Dionysius Perigetis has Paukkalāc (v. 1143), and the author of the Periplux Mar. Äryth. (s. 47) and Ptolemy Peukolais (lib. vii. c. 1, s. 44; v. I. Æsdras). Alexander the Great besieged and took it from Astes (Hasti) and appointed Sangeus (Saṅjaya) as his successor. It was probably at Hashtagamara, 18 miles north of Peshawar, on the Swat (Suastus), near its junction with the Kābul (Kophen or Kophes), the great river which the traveller here crossed. See Baber’s Mem., pp. 136, 141, 251; Cunningham, Anc. Geoz., pp. 49 f.; St. Martin, Géog. de l’Inde, p. 37; Bunbury, Hist. Anc. Geoz., vol. i. p. 498; Wilson, Ariana Ant., pp. 185 f.; Ind. Ant., vol. v. pp. 85 f., 330; Lassen, J. A., vol. i. p. 501, vol. iii. p. 139; Reinard, Mem. s. l’Inde, p. 65.

93 The phrase leu yen means the inner gates of a town or village (Medhurst, s. r. Yen), and tung lin means “deeply connected,” or “are deep and connected.” Julien translates it, “the houses rise in thick lines.” The readings must be different.

94 Vasumitra, in Chinese Shi Yu, friend of the world.—Ch. Ed. He was one of the chief of the 500 great Arhats who formed the council convened by Kanishka. Vassilief, pp. 49 f., 58 f., 78, 107, 113, 222 f.; Edkins, Ch. Buddh., pp. 72 f., 283; Burnouf, Int., pp. 399, 505 f.
the Little Vehicle. Dharmatrāta, master of Śāstras, here composed the Ts' a-o-pi-ta-ma-lun (Samyuktābhidharma Śāstra).  

By the side of the saṅghārāma is a stūpa several hundred feet high, which was built by Asoka-rāja. It is made of carved wood and veined stone, the work of various artists. Śākya Buddha, in old time when king of this country, prepared himself as a Boddhisattva (for becoming a Buddha). He gave up all he had at the request of those who asked, and spared not to sacrifice his own body as a bequeathed gift (a testamentary gift). Having been born in this country a thousand times as king, he gave during each of those thousands births in this excellent country, his eyes as an offering.

Going not far east from this, there are two stone stūpas, each about 100 feet in height. The right-hand one was built by Brahmā Dēva, that on the left by Śakra (king of Dēvas). They were both adorned with jewels and gems. After Buddha's death these jewels changed themselves into ordinary stones. Although the buildings are in a ruinous condition, still they are of a considerable height and grandeur.

Going north-west about 50 li from these stūpas, there is another stūpa. Here Śākya Tathāgata converted the Mother of the demons and caused her to refrain from

35 According to the Ch'uk-yau king (Udānavarya), Dharmatrāta was uncle of Vasumitra. (See Beal, Texts from the Buddhist Canon (Dharmapada), p. 8; Rockhill's Udānavarya, p. xi.) There was another Dharmatrāta, according to Tārānātha (Rockhill, p. xi.), who was one of the leaders of the Vaibhāshika school, and also another Vasumitra, who commented on the Abhidharma Kāśa written by Vasubandhu, who lived probably in the fifth century A.D. But as the Chinese versions of the Dharmapada were made before Vasubandhu's time, and the second Vasumitra lived after Vasubandhu, for he commented on his work, it is highly probable that the Dharmatrāta alluded to in the text was the compiler of the Northern versions of the "Verses of the Law" (Dharmapada) known both in China and Tibet. Dharmatrāta, according to a note in the text, was erroneously called Dharmatara.

36 The mother of the demons was, according to I-ting (K. i. §9), called Hariti (Ko-li-ti), and was venerated by the Buddhists. "She had made a vow in a former birth to devour the children of Rājagriha, and was accordingly born as a Yaksha, and became the mother of 500 children.
hurting men. It is for this reason the common folk of this country offer sacrifices to obtain children from her.

Going north 50 li or so from this, there is another stūpa. It was here Sāmaka Boddhisattva (Shang-mu-kia), walking piously, nourished as a boy his blind father and mother. One day when gathering fruits for them, he encountered the king as he was hunting, who wounded him by mistake with a poisoned arrow. By means of the spiritual power of his great faith he was restored to health through some medicaments which Indra (Tien-ti), moved by his holy conduct, applied to the wound.

To the south-east of this place about 200 li, we arrive at the town Po-lu-sha. On the north of this town is

To nourish these she each day took a child (boy or girl) of Rāja-grīha. People having told Buddha of it, he hid one of the Yaksha's children called "the loved one." The mother, having searched everywhere, at last found it by Buddha's side. On this the Lord addressed her as follows: "Do you so tenderly love your child? but you possess 500 such. How much more would persons with only one or two love theirs?" On this she was converted and became a Upāsiṣā, or lay disciple. She then inquired how she was to feed her 500 children. On this Buddha said, "The Bhikshus who live in their monasteries shall every day offer you food out of their portion for nourishment." Therefore in the convents of the western world, either within the porch of the gates or by the side of the kitchen, they paint on the wall a figure of the mother holding a child, and below sometimes five, sometimes three others in the foreground. Every day they place before this image a dish of food for her portion of nourishment. She is the most powerful among the followers (retinæ) of the four heavenly kings (Deva-rājas). The sick and those without children offer her food to obtain their wishes. In China she is called Kwei-tzu-mu.—Julien, Mémoires, tom. i. p. 120 n. My translation of I-tsing, however, differs from Julien's. The Chalu-kyas and other royal families of the Dekhan claim to be descendants of Hāriti (Hāritiputra). The above account from I-tsing relates to the figure of Hāriti in the Varāha temple at Tāmralipi. Possibly this temple may have been a Chālukya foundation, for the Varāha (boar) was one of their principal insignia.

97 This refers to Sāma, the son of Dukhula, in the Śaṅkatakā. He is called in Fa-hian Shen (for Shen-ma), and this equivalent is also given in the text. See Trans. Int. Cong. Orient. (1874), p. 135. The Jātaka is represented among the Sāñchi sculptures (Tree and Serp. Worship, pl. xxxvi, fig. 1). For an account of it see Spence Hardy's Eastern Monachism, p. 275; cair. Man. Budh., p. 460. The story is also a Brahmanical one, occurring in the Rāmāyaṇa.—Ind. Ant., vol. i. pp. 37-39.

98 That is, south-east from the stūpa of Sāmaka Boddhisattva. I have not repeated the name of the place in this and other passages.

99 Following the route described in the text, we are taken first 4 or 5 li to the north of Pushkalāvati, next a little way to the east, then 50
a stūpa; here it was Sudāna the prince, having given in charity to some Brāhmaṇas the great elephant of his father the king, was blamed and banished. In leaving his friends, having gone out of the gate of the wall, it was here he paid adieu. Beside this is a saṅghārāma with about fifty priests or so, who all study the Little Vehicle. Formerly Īśvara, master of śāstras, in this place composed the O-pi-la-mo-ming-ching-lun.

Outside the eastern gate of the town of Po-lu-sha is a saṅghārāma with about fifty priests, who all study the Great Vehicle. Here is a stūpa built by Asoka-rāja. In old times Sudāna the prince, having been banished from his home, dwelt in Mount Dantalōka. Here a Brahman begged his son and daughter, and he sold them to him.

To the north-east of Po-lu-sha city about 20 li or so we come to Mount Dantalōka. Above a ridge of that mountain is a stūpa built by Asoka-rāja; it was here the prince li to the north-west, then 50 li to the north. It is from this point we are to reckon 200 li to the south-west to Po-lu-sha. M. V. de St. Martin (Mémoire, p. 309) substitutes 250 li for 200, and he then reckons from Pushkalavati. General Cunningham falls into the same mistake (Anc. Geog., p. 52), and identifies Po-lu-sha with Palodheri, or the village of Pali, situated on a āberi or mound of ruins (op. cit., p. 52). This would agree with Huen Tslang's distance and bearing, that is, from the stūpa of Sāmaka, which was some 90 to 100 li to the north-north-east of Pushkalavati.

100 That is, Visvāntara, Visvāntara, or Vēssantara, the prince. His history is a popular one among Buddhists. See Spence Hardy's Man. of Buddh. p. 118; Fergusson, Tree and Serp. Worship, pl. xxxii.; Beal's Fuh-hian, p. 104 n. 2; Burnouf, Lotus, p. 411; conf. Kathāsārīt, 113, 9; Aiitār. Brāhma, vii. 27, 34. The particulars given in the text and in Fa-hian led to the identification of pl. xxxii. in Tree and Serp. Worship with this history. The same jātaka is also found amongst the Amaravati sculptures, op. cit., pl. lxxv. fig. 1. With respect to the name Sudāna, the Chinese explanation (good teeth) is erroneous, as M. Julien has pointed out (p. 122 n.). Sudāna is the name of a Pratyekabuddha mentioned in the Trikāndaśīka, i. 1, 13.

101 So I translate the passage. M. Julien understands the number fifty to refer to the saṅghārāma. But it would be an unusual circumstance to find fifty or more convents near one spot, nor does the text necessarily require it.

102 Restored doubtfully by Julien to Abhidharmopradīśa-vadhanā Śāstra. It was perhaps the Saṅguktasubhidharmārāja Śāstra, which Īśvara is said to have translated in 426 A.D. Īśvara's name is given in Chinese as Teu-teu, "master," "lord," "self-existent."

103 Ten-ta-lo-kia, which might also be restored to Dandarika. The Japanese equivalent given in the text for lo is ra. General Cunningham identifies this mountain with the Montes Doadali of Justin (op. cit., p. 52.)
Sudāna dwelt in solitude. By the side of this place, and close by, is a stūpa. It was here the prince gave his son and daughter to the Brahmaṇ, who, on his part, beat them till the blood flowed out on the ground. At the present time the shrubs and trees are all of a deep red colour. Between the crags (of the mountain) there is a stone chamber, where the prince and his wife dwelt and practised meditation. In the midst of the valley the trees droop down their branches like curtains. Here it was the prince in old time wandered forth and rested.

By the side of this wood, and not far from it, is a rocky cell in which an old Rishi dwelt.

Going north-west from the stone cell about 100 li or so, we cross a small hill and come to a large mountain. To the south of the mountain is a svāghārūma, with a few priests as occupants, who study the Great Vehicle. By the side of it is a stūpa built by Aśoka-rāja. This is the place which in old time was occupied by Ekaśringa Rishi.104 This Rishi being deceived by a pleasure-woman, lost his spiritual faculties. The woman, mounting his shoulders, returned to the city.

To the north-east of the city of Po-Łu-sha 50 li or so, we come to a high mountain, on which is a figure of the wife of Iśvara Dēva carved out of green (bluish) stone. This is Bhīmā Dēvi.105 All the people of the better class, and the lower orders too, declare that this figure was self-wrought. It has the reputation of working numerous miracles, and therefore is venerated (worshipped) by all, so that from every part of India men come to pay their vows and seek prosperity thereby. Both poor and rich assemble here from every part, near and distant. Those who wish to see the form of the divine spirit, being filled

104 This story of Ekaśringa seems to be connected with the episode of Śṛṅga in the Rāmdāyana. It is constantly referred to in Buddhist books. See Eitel's Handbook, p. v.; Catena of Buddh. Scrip., p. 260; Romantic
105 Bhīmā is a form of Durgā, probably = Si-wang-mu of the Chinese.
with faith and free from doubt, after fasting seven days are privileged to behold it, and obtain for the most part their prayers. Below the mountain is the temple of Mahēśvara Dēva; the heretics who cover themselves with ashes come here to offer sacrifice.

Going south-east from the temple of Bhumā 150 li, we come to U-to-kia-han-ch'ā. This town is about 20 li in circuit; on the south it borders on the river Sindh (Sīn-to). The inhabitants are rich and prosperous. Here is amassed a supply of valuable merchandise, and mixed goods from all quarters.

To the north-west of U-to-kia-han-c'ha 20 li or so we come to the town of P'o-lo-tu-lo. This is the place where the Rishi Pāṇini, who composed the Ch'ing-ming-lun was born.

Referring to the most ancient times, letters were very numerous; but when, in the process of ages, the world was destroyed and remained as a void, the Dēvas of long life descended spiritually to guide the people. Such was the origin of the ancient letters and composition.

106 The same thing is said about Kwan-yin (Avalokitēśvara). For some account of the worship of Durgā or Pārvati, and of Kwan-yin or Avalokitēśvara, as mountain deities, see J. R. A. S., N.S., vol. xvi. p. 333.
107 That is, the Pāsūpata. Compare what Huen Tszang says in reference to Kwan-yin or Avalokitēśvara, viz., when he reveals himself on Mount Potaraka, he sometimes takes the form of Śāvara and sometimes that of a Pāsūpata (book x. fol. 30). See also p. 60, n. 210 ante.
108 Restored by Julian to Udaykhāndā; identified by V. St. Martin with Ohind. Its south side rests on the Indus. The distance is 150 li from the temple of Bhumā. If we actually project 150 li (30 miles) north-west from Ohind, it would bring us near Jamālgarhī. About 50 li or 8 miles E.S.E. from it is Takht-i-Bhai, standing on an isolated hill 650 feet above the plain. The vast quantities of ruins found in this place indicate that it was once a centre of religious worship. Is this the site of Po-lu-shā? Kapurāgarhī is 20 miles north-west from Ohind, and Takht-i-Bhai 13 miles E.N.E. from Kapurāgarhī. See p. 135.

59 The symbol p'o is for 50 (Jul.)

The town is Sālātūra, the birthplace of Pāṇini, who is known by the name of Sālatūriya (Pāṇini, iv. 3, 94). Cunningham identifies it with the village of Lahor, which he says is four miles north-west of Ohind.—Geog., p. 57. Conf. Weber, Hist. Sansk. Lit., p. 218, n.

116 The Vāgākramaṇam.

111 Or, the Dēvas who possessed long life.

112 I understand the symbol ku in this passage to mean “old” or “ancient.”
From this time and after it the source (of language) spread and passed its (former) bounds. Brahmā Dēva and Śakra (Dvendra) established rules (forms or examples) according to the requirements. Rishis belonging to different schools each drew up forms of letters. Men in their successive generations put into use what had been delivered to them; but nevertheless students without ability (religious ability) were unable to make use (of these characters). And now men's lives were reduced to the length of a hundred years, when the Rishi Panini was born; he was from his birth extensively informed about things (men and things). The times being dull and careless, he wished to reform the vague and false rules (of writing and speaking)—to fix the rules and correct improprieties. As he wandered about asking for right ways, he encountered Isvara Dēva, and recounted to him the plan of his undertaking. Isvara Dēva said, "Wonderful! I will assist you in this." The Rishi, having received instruction, retired. He then laboured incessantly and put forth all his power of mind. He collected a multitude of words, and made a book on letters which contained a thousand slokas; each sloka was of thirty-two syllables. It contained everything known from the first till then, without exception, respecting letters and words. He then closed it and sent it to the king (supreme ruler), who exceedingly prized it, and issued an edict that throughout the kingdom it should be used and taught to others; and he added that whoever should learn it from beginning to end should receive as his reward a thousand pieces of gold. And so from that time masters have received it and handed it down in its completeness for the good of the world. Hence the Brāhmans of this town are well grounded in their literary work, and are of high renown for their talents, well informed as to things (men and things), and of a vigorous understanding (memory).

In the town of So-lo-tu-lo is a stūpa. This is the

118 Or, asking for wisdom or knowledge.
spot where an Arhat converted a disciple of Pāṇini. Tathāgata had left the world some five hundred years, when there was a great Arhat who came to the country of Kaśmir, and went about converting men. Coming to this place, he saw a Brahmachārin occupied in chastising a boy whom he was instructing in letters. Then the Arhat spake to the Brāhmaṇ thus: "Why do you cause pain to this child?" The Brāhmaṇ replied, "I am teaching him the Shrīṅ-ṃing (Śabdavidyā), but he makes no proper progress." The Arhat smiled significantly,114 on which the Brāhmaṇ said, "Shamans are of a pitiful and loving disposition, and well disposed to men and creatures generally; why did you smile, honoured sir? Pray let me know!"

The Arhat replied, "Light words are not becoming,115 and I fear to cause in you incredulous thoughts and unbelief. No doubt you have heard of the Rishi Pāṇini, who compiled the Śabdavidyā Šāstra, which he has left for the instruction of the world." The Brāhmaṇ replied, "The children of this town, who are his disciples, revere his eminent qualities, and a statue erected to his memory still exists." The Arhat continued: "This little boy whom you are instructing was that very (Pāṇiṇi) Rishi. As he devoted his vigorous mind to investigate worldly literature, he only produced heretical treatises without any power of true reason in them. His spirit and his wisdom were dispersed, and he has run through the cycles of continued birth from then till now. Thanks to some remnant of true virtue, he has been now born as your attached child; but the literature of the world and these treatises on letters are only cause of use-

114 The symbol yum, according to Medhurst, means "to put forth vital energy;" ∴ ne, therefore, I take to denote "significance" or "meaning." The smile of Buddha or an Arhat was supposed to indicate prophetic insight or vision. The same meaning is attached to "a smile" in many of our own medieval legends (vid. Romantic History of Buddha, p. 12 n.) Julien's "at derida," hardly meets the idea of the original.

115 "Light words," in the sense of trifling or unmeaning words, or words spoken lightly.
less efforts to him, and are as nothing compared to the holy teaching of Tathāgata, which, by its mysterious influences, procures both happiness and wisdom. On the shores of the southern sea there was an old decayed tree, in the hollows of which five hundred bats had taken up their abodes. Once some merchants took their seats beneath this tree, and as a cold wind was blowing, these men, cold and hungry, gathered together a heap of fuel and lit a fire at the tree-foot. The flames catching hold of the tree, by degrees it was burnt down. At this time amongst the merchant troop there was one who, after the turn of the night, began to recite a portion of the Abhidharma Piṭaka. The bats, notwithstanding the flames, because of the beauty of the sound of the law patiently endured the pain, and did not come forth. After this they died, and, according to their works, they all received birth as men. They became ascetics, practised wisdom, and by the power of the sounds of the law they had heard they grew in wisdom and became Arhats as the result of merit acquired in the world. Lately the king, Kanishka, with the honourable Pārśvika, summoning a council of five hundred saints and sages in the country of Kaśmīr, they drew up the Viśākhā Śāstra. These were the five hundred bats who formerly dwelt in that decayed tree. I myself, though of poor ability, am one of the number. It is thus men differ in their superior or inferior abilities. Some rise, others live in obscurity. But now, O virtuous one! permit your pupil (attached child) to leave his home. Becoming a disciple of Buddha, the merits we secure are not to be told."

The Arhat having spoken thus, proved his spiritual capabilities by instantly disappearing. The Brāhmaṇ was deeply affected by what he saw, and moved to believe. He noised abroad through the town and neighbourhood what had happened, and permitted the child to become a disciple of Buddha and acquire wisdom. Moreover, he
himself changed his belief, and mightily reverenced the three precious ones. The people of the village, following his example, became disciples, and till now they have remained earnest in their profession.

From U-to-kia-han-ch'a, going north, we pass over some mountains, cross a river, and travelling 600 li or so we arrive at the kingdom of U-chang-na (Udyâna).
BOOK III.


I. U-chang-na (Udyâna).

The country of U-chang-na¹ is about 5000 li in circuit; the mountains and valleys are continuously connected, and the valleys and marshes alternate with a succession of high plateaux. Though various kinds of grain are sown, yet the crops are not rich. The grape is abundant, the

¹ Udyâna (Prâkrit, Ujâna), the U-chang of Fa-hian (cap. viii.), is so called because of its garden-like appearance. "Udyâna lay to the north of Peshâvar on the Swât river, but from the extent assigned to it by Hiuen Tsang the name probably covered the whole hill-region south of the Hindu Kush and the Dard country from Chitrál to the Indus."—Yule, Marco Polo, vol. i. p. 173; compare also Cunningham’s remarks, Geog. Anc. Ind., p. 81; Lassen, I. A., vol. i. p. 595, vol. iii. p. 138; and Bactrian Coins, (Eng. trans.) p. 96. It is described by Sung-yun as bordering on the Tsung-ling mountains to the north, and on India to the south. This writer gives a glowing description of the fertility and beauty of the valley and its neighbourhood (Beal’s Buddhist Pilgrims, p. 189). It was a flourishing centre of Buddhist worship. Fa-hian (cap. viii.) says “the law of Buddha is universally honored.” He tells us, moreover, that there were five hundred sanghâråmas in the country, all belonging to the Little Vehicle; but in Hiuen Tsang’s time all the convents were desolate and ruined. We may therefore fix the persecution of Mahirakula (or Mihirakula), who was a contemporary of Balkâditya, between the time of Fa-hian and Hiuen Tsang (A.D. 400 and 630 A.D.). Balkâditya and Mahirakula, indeed, are placed "several centuries before the time of Hiuen Tsang" (infra); but we can scarcely suppose that Fa-hian would have described the country as he does if the persecution had happened before his time. The common statement is that Simha was the last patriarch of the North, and that he was killed by Mahirakula (see Wong Pu, § 179, in J. R. As. Soc., vol. xx, p. 204). He is generally stated to be the 23d patriarch, and Bodhidharma, who was the 28th, certainly lived in A.D. 520, when he arrived in
sugar-cane scarce. The earth produces gold and iron, and is favourable to the cultivation of the scented (shrub) called Yo-kin (turmeric). The forests are thick and shady, the fruits and flowers abundant. The cold and heat are agreeably tempered, the wind and rain come in their season. The people are soft and effeminate, and in disposition are somewhat sly and crafty. They love learning yet have no application. They practise the art of using charms (religious sentences as charms). Their clothing is white cotton, and they wear little else. Their language, though different in some points, yet greatly resembles that of India. Their written characters and their rules of etiquette are also of a mixed character as before. They greatly reverence the law of Buddha and are believers in the Great Vehicle.

On both sides of the river Su-po-fa-su-tu, there are some 1400 old saṅghārāmas. They are now generally waste and desolate; formerly there were some 18,000 priests in them, but gradually they have become less, till now there are very few. They study the Great Vehicle; they practise the duty of quiet meditation, and have pleasure in reciting texts relating to this subject, but have no great understanding as to them. The (priests who) practise the rules of morality lead a pure life and purposely prohibit

China from South India. If we allow an interval of 100 years between the 23rd patriarch (Sūnha) and the 28th (Bodhidharma), we should thus have the date of Mahirakula cir. 420 A.D., that is, just after Fa-hian’s time. But in this case Vasubandhu, who was the 20th patriarch, must have flourished in the fourth century and not in the sixth, as Max Müller proposes (India, p. 290); ante, p. 105, n. 77. Mahirakula is, however, placed by Cunningham in A.D. 164–179, and Arya Sūnha’s death is usually placed in the middle of the third century A.D. Remusat, Md. Asiat., tome i. p. 124.

2 The employment of magical sentences is with them an art and a study, or a work of art. This country of Udyāna was the birthplace of Padma Sambhava, a great master of enchantments. Yule, Marco Polo, vol. i. p. 173.

2 Fa-hian says that in his days the people of this country were all followers of the Little Vehicle. Probably the re-introduction of Buddhist doctrine after the persecution had been effected by teachers of the Mahāyāna school.

4 That is, the Subhavastu, the Swat river of the present day. It is named by Arrian the Σωστος, and he says that it flows into the Καφρα at Peukalaitis. See note 24 infra.
the use of charms. The schools of the Vinaya traditionally known amongst them are the Sarvástivādins, the Dharmaguptas, the Mahiśāsakas, the Kāśyapīyas, and the Mahāsaṅghikas: these five.

There are about ten temples of Devas, and a mixed number of unbelievers who dwell in them. There are four or five strong towns. The kings mostly reign at Mungali (Mung-kie-li) as their capital. This town is about 16 or 17 li in circuit and thickly populated. Four or five li to the east of Mungali is a great stūpa, where very many spiritual portents are seen. This is the spot where Buddha, when he lived in old time, was the Rishi who practised patience (Kśānti-rishi), and for the sake of Kali-rāja endured the dismemberment of his body.

To the north-east of the town of Mungali about 250 or 260 li, we enter a great mountain and arrive at the foun-

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5 This translation differs from Julien’s, but I understand Huien Tsiang to be alluding to the Hinayānists. “Those who follow the rules” (viz., of the Vinaya).

6 The rules of the Vinaya are handed down and followed; they have (or, there are) five schools.

The purport of the text is apparently to show that there was a traditional knowledge of the old teaching to which Fa-hian refers. The new school, given to magic, had been introduced after the persecution; the old teaching was opposed to this, and the followers of that teaching resisted its use.


8 These five schools belong to the Little Vehicle—(1) The Dharmagupta (Fa-nih-pu), (2) Mahiśāsaka (Fa-ti-pu), (3) Kāśyapīya (Yin-kwong-pu), (4) Sarvāstivāda (Shwo-yih-tsaï-yeon-pu), (5) Mahāsaṅghika (Ta-chong-pu).

9 Mungali or Maṅgala, probably the Mangora of Wilford’s surveyor, Mogal Beg, and the Maṅglavor of General Court’s map (Cunningham, Anc. Geog. of India, p. 82). According to V. de St. Martin (Mém., p. 314), it should be Mangalavīr (Maṅgala-pura). It was on the left bank of the Swat river. See J. A. S. Ben., vol. viii. pp. 311 f.; Lassen, I. A., vol. i. p. 138.

10 I.e., as a Bōdisattva. The history of the Bōdisattva when he was born at Kśānti-rishi is frequently met with in Chinese Buddhist books. The account will be found in Wong Pūh, § 76 (J. R. A. S., vol. xx. p. 165). The name Kie-li (Kali) is interpreted in the original by “fight-querrel.” The lacuna which occurs in the text was probably the history of this Jinn-josien (Kśānti-rishi), who suffered his hands to be cut off by Kali-rāja, and not only was not angry, but promised the king that he should be born as Kondinya and become one of his (Buddha’s) first disciples (Burnouf, Intro., p. 198).

11 “Enter a great mountain,” i.e., a mountainous range. There is no mention made of “traversing a valley,” as in Julien.
tain of the Nāga Apalâla; this is the source of the river Su-po-fa-su-tu. This river flows to the south-west. Both in summer and spring it freezes, and from morning till night snow-drifts are flying in clouds, the fine reflected colours of which are seen on every side.

This Nāga, in the time of Kāśyapa Buddha, was born as a man and was called King-ki (Gaṅgi). He was able, by the subtle influences of the charms he used, to restrain and withstand the power of the wicked dragons, so that they could not (afflict the country) with violent storms of rain. Thanks to him, the people were thus able to gather in an abundance of grain. Each family then agreed to offer him, in token of their gratitude, a peck of grain as a yearly tribute. After a lapse of some years there were some who omitted to bring their offerings, on which Gaṅgi in wrath prayed that he might become a poisonous dragon and afflict them with storms of rain and wind to the destruction of their crops. At the end of his life he became the dragon of this country; the flowings of the fountain emitted a white stream which destroyed all the products of the earth.

At this time, Śākya Tathāgata, of his great pity guiding the world, was moved with compassion for the people of this country, who were so singularly afflicted with this calamity. Descending therefore spiritually, he came to this place, desiring to convert the violent dragon. Taking the mace of the Vajrapāṇi spirit, he beat against the mountain side. The dragon king, terrified, came forth and paid him reverence. Hearing the preaching of the law by Buddha, his heart became pure and his faith was awakened. Tathāgata forthwith for-

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12 It may also be translated, "it branches off and flows to the south-west." The river is the Subhavastu. See below, note 24, p. 126.

13 The expression kiśing shin, to descend spiritually, is of frequent occurrence in Chinese Buddhist books; it corresponds to the Sanskrit avatāra or avatārin, to make an appearance.

4 This may be otherwise translated, "he who holds the diamond spirit club, knocking," &c. The reference is to the thunderbolt of Indra. See Eitel's Handbook, s. voc. Vajrapāṇi.
bad him to injure the crops of the husbandmen. Whereupon the dragon said, "All my sustenance comes from the fields of men; but now, grateful for the sacred instructions I have received, I fear it will be difficult to support myself in this way; yet pray let me have one gathering in every twelve years." Tathâgata compassionately permitted this. Therefore every twelfth year there is a calamity from the overflowing of the White River.

To the south-west of the fountain of the dragon Apalâla ('O-po-lo-lo), about 30 li on the north side of the river, there is a foot trace of Buddha on a great rock. According to the religious merit of persons, this impression appears long or short. This is the trace left by Buddha after having subdued the dragon. Afterwards men built up a stone residence (over the impression). Men come here from a distance to offer incense and flowers.

Following the stream downwards 30 li or so, we come to the stone where Tathâgata washed his robe. The tissues of the kâshâya stuff are yet visible as if engraved on the rock.

To the south of the town of Mungali 400 li or so we come to Mount Hila (Hi-lo). The water flowing through the valley here turns to the west, and then flowing again eastward remounts (towards its source). Various fruits and flowers skirt the banks of the stream and face the sides of the mountains. There are high crags and deep caverns, and placid streams winding through the valleys: sometimes are heard the sounds of people's voices, sometimes the reverberation of musical notes. There are, moreover, square stones here like long narrow bedsteads, perfected as if by the hand of men; they stretch in continuous lines from the mountain side down the valley. It was here Tathâgata dwelling in old days,

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The expression t'ah yuen may refer to the soft cushion of a bed, or it may have a technical meaning. Has the story arisen from the use of prostrata for "bed" and "stone" alike?
by listening to half a Gāthā of the law was content to kill himself.¹⁶

Going south about 200 li from the town of Mungali, by the side of a great mountain, we come to the Mahāvana¹⁷ saṅghārāma. It was here Tathāgata in old days practised the life of a Bōdhisattva under the name of Sarvadatta-rāja.¹⁸ Fleeing from his enemy, he resigned his country and arrived secretly in this place. Meeting with a poor Brāhmaṇ who asked alms from him, and having nothing to give in consequence of his losing his country, he ordered him to bind him as a prisoner and take him to the king, his enemy, in order that he might receive a reward, which would be in the place of charity to him.

Going north-west from the Mahāvana saṅghārāma down the mountain 30 or 40 li, we arrive at the Mo-su saṅghārāma.¹⁹ Here there is a stāpa about 100 feet or so in height.

By the side of it is a great square stone on which is the impress of Buddha’s foot. This is the spot where Buddha in old time planted his foot, (which) scattered a kōṭi of rays of light which lit up the Mahāvana saṅghārāma, and then for the sake of Dēvas and men he recited the history of his former births (Jātakas). Underneath this stāpa (or at the foot of it) is a stone of a yellow-white colour, which is always damp with an unctuous (fatty) moisture; this is where Buddha, when he was in old time practising the life of a Bōdhisattva, having heard the words of the true law, breaking a bone of his own body, wrote (with the marrow) the substance of a book containing the words he had heard.

¹⁶ A gāthā is a verse of thirty-two syllables.—Ch. Ed. This story of Bōdhisattva sacrificing his life for the sake of a half-gāthā will be found in the Mahāparinirvāṇa Sūtra of the Northern School, K. xiv. fol. 11. I have translated it in Trübner’s Record. See also Int. Antiq., vol. iv. p. 90; Upham, Doctrines and Lit-

¹⁷ In Chinese Ta-lin, “great forest.”—Ch. Ed.

¹⁸ The Chinese equivalents are Sa-po-ta-ta, which are explained by, tsi-shi, “he who gives all.”

¹⁹ For Mo-su-lo, Masūra.—Julien. Mo-su is explained in text to mean “jentils” (masura).
Going west 60 or 70 li from the Mo-su saṅghārāma is a stūpa which was built by Aśoka-rāja. It was here Tathāgata in old time, practising the life of a Dōdhisattva, was called Śivika (or Sibika) Rāja.20 Seeking the fruit of Buddhahood, he cut his body to pieces in this place to redeem a dove from the power of a hawk.

Going north-west from the place where he redeemed the dove, 200 li or so, we enter the valley of Shan-ni-lo-shi, where is the convent of Sa-pao-sha-ti.21 Here is a stūpa in height 80 feet or so. In old time, when Buddha was Lord Śakra, famine and disease were prevalent everywhere in this country. Medicine was of no use, and the roads were filled with dead. Lord Śakra was moved with pity and meditated how he might rescue and save the people. Then changing his form, he appeared as a great serpent, and extended his dead body all along the void of the great valley, and called from the void to those on every side (to look). Those who heard were filled with joy, and running together hastened to the spot, and the more they cut the body of the serpent the more they revived, and were delivered both from famine and disease.

By the side of this stūpa and not far off is the great stūpa of Sūma. Here in old time when Tathāgata was Lord Śakra, filled with concern for the world, afflicted

20 For the Śiva Jātaka see my Abstract of Four Lectures, pp. 33 seq. This story is a favourite one, and forms an episode in the Mahābhārata, iii. 13275-13300; the same story of the hawk and pigeon is told of Uṣṇara in iii. 10560-10596. See also Tree and Serpent Worship, pl. ix. and lxxxiii. fig. 1, pp. 194, 225. The figures of the dove and hawk, which are sometimes seen in other Buddhist sculptures, e.g., Cunningham, Bhāratī Stūpa, pl. xiv. 7, probably allude to this jātaka. Conf. Jour. Ceylon Br. R. As. Soc., vol. ii. (1853), pp. 5, 6; S. Hardy's Eastern Monachism, pp. 277-279; Burgess, Notes on Ajanta Rock Temples, p. 76.

21 The valley of Shan-ni-lo-shi may be restored to Sanirāja, "the giving king." There is a note in the original which explains Shi-pikia (Śivika) by the word "to give;" but Śivika is generally interpreted in Chinese Buddhist books by "silver-white," alluding perhaps to the "birch tree," with its silver-white bark, which is one of the meanings of śeri. The explanation "to give" ought to be referred to saṃ, in the compound Sanirāja. The name of the convent, Sa-pao-sha-ti, is explained in the text by she-yo—serpent medicine, and is restored by Julien to Sarpāushadi.
with every kind of disease and pestilence, with his perfect knowledge of the case, he changed himself into the serpent Sūma; 22 none of those who tasted his flesh failed to recover from their disease.

To the north of the valley Shan-ni-lo-shi, by the side of a steep rock, is a stūpa. Of those who, being sick, have come there to seek (restoration), most have recovered.

In old time Tathāgata was the king of peacocks; 23 on one occasion he came to this place with his followers. Being afflicted with tormenting thirst, they sought for water on every side without success. The king of the peacocks with his beak struck the rock, and forthwith there flowed out an abundant stream which now forms a lake. Those who are afflicted on tasting or washing in the water are healed. On the rock are still seen the traces of the peacock’s feet.

To the south-west of the town of Mungalī 60 or 70 li there is a great river, 24 on the east of which is a stūpa 60 feet or so in height; it was built by Shang-kiun (Uttarasēna). Formerly when Tathāgata was about to die, he addressed the great congregation and said: “After my Nirvāṇa, Uttarasēna-rajā, of the country Udyāna (U-chang-na), will obtain a share of the relics of my body. When the kings were about to divide the relics equally, Uttarasēna-rajā arrived after (the others); coming from a frontier country, he was treated with little regard by the others. 25 At this time the Devās published afresh the

22 The serpent Sūma (Su-mo-shē), translated by Julien, “serpent of water;” but I take Sūma to be a proper name. The serpent Sūma is probably another form of the Ahi, or cloud-snake of the Veda (compare Tele, Outlines of the History of Anc. Nations, p. 174). The Devā of Adam’s Peak, who has so much to do with the serpents converted by Buddha, is called Sumana.

23 Mayūra-rajā.

24 The Subhavastu or Suvarstu (Rig-Visa, viii. 19, 37; Mahādhār, vi. 333), the Σαβατις of Arrian (Ind., iv. 11), the Σοβετις of Ptolemy (lib. vii. c. 1, 42), and the modern Swāt river, at the source of which the dragon Apalā lived. Conf. Fah-hian, ch. viii.; Vie de Hiouen Thang, p. 86; Reinaud, Mém. sur l’Inde, p. 277; Saint-Martin, Géographie du Veda, p. 44; Mém. Archéologique de la Carte, etc., pp. 63, 64; Burnouf, Introd., p. 336, n. 2; Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. ii. (2d ed.), p. 140; J. A. S. Beng., vol. ix. p. 480; Wilson, Ariana Ant., pp. 183, 190, 194, and ante, notes 4 and 12, pp. 120, 122.

25 This may be also construed, “he was treated lightly on account of his rustie (frontier) appearance.”
words of Tathāgata as he was about to die. Then obtaining a portion of relics, the king came back to his country, and, to show his great respect, erected this stūpa. By the side of it, on the bank of the great river, there is a large rock shaped like an elephant. Formerly Uttarasēna-rāja brought back to his own land the relics of Buddha on a great white elephant. Arrived at this spot, the elephant suddenly fell down and died, and was changed immediately into stone. By the side of this the stūpa is built.

Going west of the town of Mungali 50 li or so, and crossing the great river, we come to a stūpa called Lu-hi-ta-kia (Rōhitaka); it is about 50 feet high, and was built by Asōka-rāja. In former days, when Tathāgata was practising the life of a Bōdhisattva, he was the king of a great country, and was called Ts'z'-li (power of love). In this place he pierced his body, and with his blood fed the five Yakshas.

To the north-east of the town of Mungali 30 li or so is the Ho-pu-to-shi stūpa, about 40 feet in height. In former days Tathāgata here expounded the law for the sake of men and Dēvas, to instruct (enlighten) and guide them. After Tathāgata had gone, from the earth suddenly arose (this stūpa); the people highly reverenced it, and offered flowers and incense without end.

To the west of the stone stūpa, after crossing the great river and going 30 or 40 li, we arrive at Vihāra, in which is a figure of Avalokiteśvara Bōdhisattva. Its spiritual

26 Ts'z'-li, restored by Julien to Maitribala; for this Jātaka see R. Mitra's Nepalese Buddhist Literature, p. 50.
27 Ho-pu-to is for adhbhuta, miraculous or unique (Ch. k'i-te). Julien suggests Adbhutāśma, the name of this stūpa of miraculous stone (k'i-te-shi), but it may be simply “a miraculous stone stūpa.” The expression “stone stūpa” is a common one, and indeed occurs in the following section.
28 Avalokiteśvara, in Chinese the phonetic symbols are ‘O-fo-lu-che-to-i-shi-ja-lo. There is a note in the text explaining the meaning of this name to be “the looking (kuan) or beholding god” (Jīwara, Ch. ts'ai-tai, “self-existent”). The note adds that the old forms of translation, viz., Kwong-shai-yin, “luminous voice,” Kwan-shai-yin, “beholding or regarding voice,” Kwan-shai-ts'ai-tai, “beholding the world god,” are all erroneous. But there is good reason for believing that the form Kwan-shai-yin, “be-
influences exhibit themselves in a mysterious way, and its miraculous powers (evidences) are manifested in an illustrious manner. The votaries of the law come together from every side, and offer it continual sacrifices (presents).

Going north-west 140 or 150 li from the statue of Kwantse'-tsai Bôdhisattva, we come to the mountain of Lan-polu. The crest of this mountain has a dragon lake about 30 li or so in circuit. The clear waves roll in their majesty, the water pure as a bright mirror. In old days Pi-lu-tse-kia (Virûdhaka-râja) having led his army to attack the Sâkyas, four of the tribe resisted the advance. These were driven away by their clansmen, and each fled in a different direction. One of the Sâkyas, having left the capital of the country, and being worn out by travel, sat down to rest in the middle of the road.

There appeared now a wild goose, who, in his flight (progress), alighted before him; and because of his docile ways, he at last mounted on his back. The goose then flying away, took him to the side of this lake. By this mode of conveyance the Sâkya fugitive visited different kingdoms in various directions. Once having mistaken his way, he went to sleep by the side of the lake under holding or attending to the voice of men," arose from a confusion of the "looking-down god" with a quality attributed to a similar deity of "hearing prayers" (Al Makah). (See J. R. As. S., N.S., vol. xv. p. 333 l.) It is singular, if the expression Kaua-yia is erroneous, that Huien Tsang, or rather Hwui-lih, uses it so constantly in his biography (see Vie, pp. 88, 141, 146, 163, 172, and in the context); ante, p. 60, n. 210.

29 For an account of this incident see below, Book vi. There is a corresponding account in the Mahâjâmanas, p. 55. "While Buddha yet lived, driven by the misfortunes produced by the war of Prince Vidudhabho, certain members of the Sâkya line retreating to Himavanta discovered a delightful and beautiful location, well watered and situated in the midst of a forest of lofty bamboo and other trees, &c." The account then goes on to speak of the penta (mâyura), and from that to trace the origin of the Môriyan dynasty, to which Chandragupta belonged. The tale of the peacock bringing water from the rock, the serpent to which the dying people were to look, and the Môriyan line of kings, might perhaps justify some reference to the name of the people inhabiting this district, viz., the Yûñafais, Yûnaf being the Oriental form of the name of Joseph (V. de St. Martin, Mém. p. 313, n. 3). Conf. Max Müller, Hist. Anc. Sans. Lit., p. 285; Fo-an-hsia-kyang-tsan-king, p. 336. The account of the Nâga maiden and the exiled wanderer (holy youth) which follows is also suggestive.
the shadow of a tree. At this time a young Nāga maiden was walking beside the lake, and suddenly espied the Śākya youth. Fearing that she might not be able otherwise to accomplish her wish, she transformed herself into a human shape and began to caress him. The youth, because of this, awoke affrighted from his sleep, and addressing her said, “I am but a poor wanderer worn out with fatigue; why then do you show me such tenderness?” In the course of matters the youth, becoming deeply moved, prayed her to consent to his wishes. She said, “My father and mother require to be asked and obeyed in this matter. You have favoured me with your affection, but they have not yet consented.” The Śākya youth replied, “The mountains and valleys (surround us) with their mysterious shades; where then is your home?” She said, “I am a Nāga maiden belonging to this pool. I have heard with awe of your holy tribe having suffered such things, and of your being driven away from home to wander here and there in consequence. I have fortunately been able, as I wandered, to administer somewhat to your comfort, and you have desired me to yield to your wishes in other respects, but I have received no commands to that effect from my parents. Unhappily, too, this Nāga body is the curse following my evil deeds.”

The Śākya youth answered, “One word uttered from the ground of the heart and agreed to (by us both) and this matter is ended.” She said, “I respectfully obey your

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20 That is, to approach near and inquire or look upon him (tang). The word rendered “caress” in this passage means to smooth, or pat the head.

21 This passage may be rendered literally thus: “How much rather, alas! since on account of accumulated misery I have received this Nāga (serpent) body.” The expression tsih ko, “misery accumulated from evil deeds,” corresponds with the phrase tsih fuh, “much happiness derived from good works.”

(See Wells Williams, Tonic Dict., sub tāk, to gather or hoard up.) There is a passage following the above omitted in the text: “A man and beast are different in their ways (of birth); such a union has not been heard of.”

22 This may otherwise be translated: “One word permitted by you, my cherished desire is then accomplished.” I take suh sin to be equal to suh yuen, a cherished desire; but the expression may also refer to the power of accumulated merit to effect
orders; let that follow whatever it be." Then the Sākya youth said, "By the power of my accumulated merit let this Nāga woman be turned into human shape." The woman was immediately so converted. On seeing herself thus restored to human shape she was overjoyed, and gratefully addressed the Sākya youth thus: "By my evil deeds (through the accumulation of evil deeds), I have been compelled to migrate through evil forms of birth, till now happily, by the power of your religious merit, the body which I have possessed through many kalpas has been changed in a moment. My gratitude is boundless, nor could it be expressed if I wore my body to dust (with frequent prostrations). Let me but acquaint my father and mother; I will then follow you and obey you in all things." 34

The Nāga maiden then returning to the lake addressed her father and mother, saying, "Just now, as I was wandering abroad, I lighted upon a Sākya youth, who by the power of his religious merit succeeded in changing me into human form. Having formed an affection for me, he desires to marry me. I lay before you the matter in its truth."

The Nāga-rāja was rejoiced to see his daughter restored to human form, and from a true affection to the holy tribe he gave consent to his daughter's request. Then proceeding from the lake, he expressed his deep gratitude to the Sākya youth, and said, "You have not despised creatures of other kinds, and have condescended to those beneath you. I pray you come to my abode, and there receive my humble services." 35

an object, the sācchā kiriyā (satyakrityā) of the Southern School of Buddhism. See Childers, Pāli Dict., sub voc.; also Abstract of Four Lectures, p. 40.

32 Julien translates this passage: "I am prepared to follow you." The meaning may also be, "only let that follow which you desire;" or, "only let that be accomplished which is the consequence of the past," i.e., your past deeds.

34 The literal translation of this passage is: "Desiring to make returns for this goodness, grinding my body to dust, I should not yet thank you enough. My heart desires to follow you in your travels; one thing restrains me, the propriety of things; let me," &c. Instead of "obey you," the word ā may refer to ceremonial or marriage rites.

35 Literally, "sweepings and bathings."
The Śākya youth having accepted the Nāga-rāja's invitation, went forthwith to his abode. On this all the family of the Nāga received the youth with extreme reverence, and desired to delight his mind by an excess of feasting and pleasure; but the youth, seeing the dragon forms of his entertainers, was filled with affright and disgust, and he desired to go. The Nāga-rāja detaining him said, "Of your kindness depart not. Occupy a neighbouring abode; I will manage to make you master of this land and to obtain a lasting fame. All the people shall be your servants, and your dynasty shall endure for successive ages."

The Śākya youth expressed his gratitude, and said, "I can hardly expect your words to be fulfilled." Then the Nāga-rāja took a precious sword and placed it in a casket covered with white camlet, very fine and beautiful, and then he said to the Śākya youth, "Now of your kindness go to the king and offer him this white camlet as a tribute. The king will be sure to accept it as the offering of a remote (distant) person; then, as he takes it, draw forth the sword and kill him. Thus you will seize his kingdom. Is it not excellent?"

The Śākya youth receiving the Nāga's directions, went forthwith to make his offering to the king of U-chang-na (Udyāna). When the king was about to take the piece of white camlet, then the youth took hold of his sleeve, and pierced him with the sword. The attendant ministers and the guards raised a great outcry and ran about in confusion. The Śākya youth, waving the sword, cried out, "This sword that I hold was given me by a holy Nāga wherewith to punish the contumelious and subdue the arrogant." Being affrighted at the divine warrior, they submitted, and gave him the kingdom. On this he corrected abuses and established order; he advanced the good and relieved the unfortunate; and then with a great cortége he advanced towards the Nāga palace to acquaint him with the completion of his undertaking;
and then taking his wife he went back to the capital. Now the former demerits of the Nāga girl were not yet effaced, and their consequences still remained. Every time he went to rest by her side, from her head came forth the ninefold crest of the Nāga. The Śākya prince, filled with affright and disgust, hitting on no other plan, waited till she slept, and then cut off (the dragon's crest) with his sword. The Nāga girl, alarmed, awoke and said, "This will bring no good hereafter to your posterity; it will not be ineffectual in slightly afflicting me during my life, and your children and grandchildren will all suffer from pains in the head." And so the royal line of this country are ever afflicted with this malady, and although they are not all so continually, yet every succession brings a worse affliction. After the death of the Śākya youth his son succeeded under the name of Uttarāsēna (U-ta-lo-si-na).

Just after Uttarāsēna had come to power his mother lost her sight. Tathāgata, when he was going back from the subjugation of the Nāga Apalāla, descended from space and alighted in this palace. Uttarāsēna was out hunting, and Tathāgata preached a short sermon to his mother. Having heard the sermon from the mouth of the holy one, she forthwith recovered her sight. Tathāgata then asked her, "Where is your son? he is of my family." She said, "He went out hunting for a while this morning, but he will soon be back." When Tathāgata with his attendants were bent on going, the king's mother said, "Of my great fortune I have borne a child belonging to the holy family; and Tathāgata of his great compassion has again come down to visit my house as connected with him. My son will soon return; oh, pray remain for a short time!" The Lord of the World said, "This son of yours belongs to my family; he need only hear the truth to believe it and understand it. If he were not my relative I would remain to instruct his heart, but now I go. On his return, tell him that Tathāgata has gone from this to Kuśinagara (Keu-shi), where between the Sāla trees he is about to
die, and let your son come for a share of the relics to honour them."

Then Tathâgata with all his attendants took flight through the air and went. Afterwards Uttarasêna-râja, whilst engaged in the chase, saw, a long way off, his palace lighted up as if with a fire. Being in doubt about it, he quitted the chase and returned. On seeing his mother with her sight restored he was transported with joy, and addressed her, saying, "What fortunate circumstance has occurred to you during my short absence that you should have got your sight again as of old time?" The mother said, "After you had gone out Tathâgata came here, and after hearing him preach I recovered my sight. Buddha has gone from here to Kuśinagara; he is going to die between the Sâla trees. He commands you to go quickly to the spot to get some of his relics."

The king having heard these words, uttered cries of lamentation, and fell prostrate on the ground motionless. Coming to himself, he collected his cortége and went to the twin-trees, where Buddha had already died. Then the kings of the other countries treated him scornfully, and were unwilling to give him a share of the much-prized relics they were taking to their own countries. On this a great assembly of Dèvas acquainted them with Buddha's wishes, on which the kings divided the relics equally, beginning with him.

Going north-west from the town of Mung-kia-li, crossing a mountain and passing through a valley, we reascend the Sin-tu river. The roads are craggy and steep; the mountains and the valleys are dark and gloomy. Sometimes we have to cross by ropes, sometimes by iron chains stretched (across the gorges). There are foot-bridges (or covered ways) suspended in the air, and flying bridges across the chasms, with wooden steps let into the ground for climbing the steep embankments. Going thus 1000 li or

36 That is, we strike on the Indus river, and ascend it against its course.
so we reach the river valley of Ta-li-lo, where stood once the capital of U-chang-na. This country produces much gold and scented turmeric. By the side of a great saŋghā-
rāma in this valley of Ta-li-lo is a figure of Maitrēya, Bōdhisattva, carved out of wood. It is golden coloured, and very dazzling in appearance, and possesses a secret spiritual power (of miracle). It is about 100 feet high, and is the work of the Arhat Madhyāntika. This saint by his spiritual power caused a sculptor to ascend into the Tushita (Tu-si-to) heaven, that he might see for himself the marks and signs (on the person of Maitrēya); this he did three times, till his task was finished. From the time of the execution of this image the streams of the law (religious teaching) began to flow eastward.

Going east from this, after climbing precipices and crossing valleys, we go up the course of the Sin-tu river; and then, by the help of flying bridges and footways made

37 Ta-li-lo, or Dārīl or Dārail, a valley on the right or western bank of the Indus (long. 73° 44' E.), watered by a river Dāril, containing half-a-dozen towns, and occupied by Dārdus or Dards, from whom it received its name (Cunningham, Anc. Geog. of India, p. 82). It is perhaps the same as the To-li of Pa-hian. Conf. Cunningham in J. A. S. Ben., vol. xvii. pt. ii. p. 19; and Ladak, pp. 2, 46 f. Julien has Tallia.

38 Maitrēya is the “Buddha to come.” He is supposed now to be dwelling as a Bōdhisattva in the fourth Dēvālāka heaven called Tushita (Hardy, Man. Budh., p. 25; Burnouf, Intro., pp. 56, 606). This heaven is the place of desire for Buddhists like Hiuen Tsiang, who constantly prayed on his deathbed for the happiness of being born there. The short Chinese inscription lately found at Buddha Gayā is occupied chiefly with aspirations after this heaven (J. R. A. S., N.S., vol. viii. pp. 552 f.; Ind. Ant., vol. x. p. 103). It is a belief opposed to the “paradise of the west” (Su-khāraṭ), which probably is of foreign origin.

39 Madhyāntika, according to the Northern School of Buddhism, was a disciple of Ananda (Fo-ako-king-teen-king, xi.), converted shortly before the death of the latter. In Tibetan he is called Ni-mahi-yung. See Asiat. Res., vol. xx. p. 92. By some he is reckoned as one of the first five patriarchs, and placed between Ananda and Sānāvāsa, but others do not reckon him among them. At Banāras the people were annoyed at the number of Bhikshus, and Madhyāntika, taking ten thousand of them, flew through the air to Mount Uśīra, in Kaśmir, which he converted to Buddhism. See Vassilief, pp. 35, 39, 45, 225; Köppen, vol. i. pp. 145, 189 f. The Mahāvīraṇavīraṇavīraṇavīraṇa (p. 71) speaks of a Mahīha who, after the third Buddhist synod, was sent to Kaśmir and the Himavanta country to spread the Buddhist faith. (See also Oldenberg, Dipavaṃsa, viii. 10.) Pa-hian (chap. vii.) says this image was carved about 300 years after the Nirvāṇa.
of wood across the chasms and precipices, after going 500 li or so, we arrive at the country of Po-lu-lo (Bolor).

**Po-lu-lo (Bolor.)**

The country of Po-lu-lo is about 4000 li in circuit; it stands in the midst of the great Snowy Mountains. It is long from east to west, and narrow from north to south. It produces wheat and pulse, gold and silver. Thanks to the quantity of gold, the country is rich in supplies. The climate is continually cold. The people are rough and rude in character; there is little humanity or justice with them; and as for politeness, such a thing has not been heard of. They are coarse and despicable in appearance, and wear clothes made of wool. Their letters are nearly like those of India, their language somewhat different. There are about a hundred saṅghārāmas in the country, with something like a thousand priests, who show no great zeal for learning, and are careless in their moral conduct. Leaving this country and returning to U-to-kia-han-cha (Udakhânda),

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40 According to Cunningham, Bolor is the modern Balti, Baltistân, or Little Tibet (Anc. Geog. of India, p. 84). Marco Polo also mentions a country called Bolor, but he places it E.N.E. from the Pamir plateau (Yule's Marco Polo, vol. i. p. 157). Bolor may have included both Balti and the mountains adjoining the southern margin of Pamir. Indeed the Chinese included Chitrâl to the northern boundary of Swât under this term (Yule). Sung Yun refers to this country (Buddhist Pilgrims, p. 187). For other references see Yule (op. cit., p. 188). Although Hwui-lih says nothing about this visit to Bolor, yet the use of the symbol "řing" shows that Hien Tsiang personally visited the country. Marco Polo says of the people, "they are indeed an evil race." He also calls them "savage idolaters" (op. cit., chap. xxxii.) Ptolemy (Geog., lib. vi. c. 13, 3) places the Bôrâ at the foot of the Imaus mountains, in Little Tibet or Baltistân. This district was noted for its gold in very early times (conf. Herodoto, lib. iii. cc. 102, 105; Strabo, lib. ii. c. 1, 9; lib. xv. c. 1, 37; Arian, Anab. Alex., lib. v. c. 4; Indika, c. 5; and Ind. Ant., vol. iv. pp. 225 ff.

41 There seems little doubt that this should be identified with Ohind or Wahand on the right bank of the Indus, about 16 miles above Atak Albrâni calls it Wayhand, the capital of Kandahâr (Gandhâra), V. St. Martin, Mem., u. s., p. 310; Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. ii. p. 474 n.; Reinaud, Fragm. Arab. et Perz., p. 114; Mem. sur l'Inde, pp. 196, 276; Court, J. A. S. Ben., vol. v. p. 395; Cunningham, ib., vol. xvii. p. 130, and Anc. Geog., pp. 55 f.; Benfey, Ind. Cnecn, p. 115; Elliot, Hist. Ind., vol. i. pp. 48, 63, 445; vol. ii. pp. 28, 33, 150, 426, 438 f.; and ante, p. 114, n. 108.
we cross at the south the river Sin-tu. The river is about 3 or 4 li in width, and flows south-west. Its waters are pure and clear as a mirror as they roll along with impetuous flow. Poisonous Nāgas and hurtful beasts occupy the caverns and clefts along its sides. If a man tries to cross the river carrying with him valuable goods or gems or rare kinds of flowers or fruits, or especially relics of Buddha, the boat is frequently engulfed by the waves. After crossing the river we arrive at the kingdom of Ta-ch’a-shi-lo (Takshaśilā).

**TA-CH’A-SHI-LO (TAKSHAŚILA).**

The kingdom of Ta-ch’a-shi-lo is about 2000 li in circuit, and the capital is about 10 li in circuit. The royal family being extinct, the nobles contend for power by force. Formerly this country was in subjection to Kapiśa, but latterly it has become tributary to Kia-shi-

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42 So we find on his return journey Hsün Tsiang lost his books and flowers, and was nearly drowned in crossing the river about this spot (see Hwui-lih, K. v.; *Vie*, p. 263).

43 On the return journey, Hsün Tsiang makes the distance from Takshaśilā to the Indus three days’ journey N.W. (Hwui-lih, *Vie*, p. 263). Fa-hien makes it seven days’ journey from Gandhāra (cap. xl); Sung-yun also places it three days to the east of the Indus (Beal’s *Bud. Pilgrims*, p. 200). General Cunningham places the site of the city near Shah-dheri, one mile to the north-east of Kāla-ka-sarai, where he found the ruins of a fortified city, and was able to trace the remains of no less than fifty-five stūpas—of which two were as large as the great Mānikiyāla tope—twenty-eight monasteries, and nine temples (*Anc. Geog. of India*, p. 105). The classical writers notice the size and wealth of the city of Tāvāla (Arrian, *Anab. Alex.*, lib. v. c. 8; Strabo, *Geog.*, lib. xv. c. 1. 17, and 28; Pliny, *Hist. Nat.*, lib. vi. c. 17, 62, and c. 23; Ptolemy, *Geog.*, lib. vii. 1, 45; Dions. Perig., 1141). Apollonius and Damis are said also to have visited Taxila about A.D. 45. Philostrotatus describes the carvings and pictures of a temple near the town, representing scenes from the conflict of Porus with Alexander (cap. 20, p. 71, ed. Olearii, 1709). For further remarks on the ruins and antiquities see Cunningham, op. cit., pp. 104 f. M. V. de St. Martin, relying on the measurements given by Pliny derived from the records of Alexander’s expedition, places Taxila at Hassān-Abdal, eight miles north-west of Shah-dheri (vid. *Mém.*, p. 319); conf. Wilson, *Ariana Ant.*, p. 195; *J. R. A. S.*, vol. v. p. 118; Burnouf, *Introduct.* pp. 322 f., 332, 361; *Lotus*, pp. 689 f.; Bumbury, *Hist. Anc. Geog.*, vol. i. pp. 443, 499. It is frequently mentioned in Sanskrit literature, e.g., *Mahābh.*, l. 682, 334; *Rāmdgāna*, iv. 53, dl. 23; *Byth. Saṃh.*, x. 8, and xiv. 26; *Pāñjini*, iv. 2, 82 and 3, 93.
mi-lo (Kaśmīr). The land is renowned for its fertility, and produces rich harvests. It is very full of streams and fountains. Flowers and fruits are abundant. The climate is agreeably temperate. The people are lively and courageous, and they honour the three gems. Although there are many saṅghārāmas, they have become ruinous and deserted, and there are very few priests; those that there are study the Great Vehicle.

North-west of the capital about 70 li is the tank of the Nāga-rāja Ėlāpata (I-lo-po-to-lo); it is about 100 paces round, the waters are pure and sweet; lotus flowers of various colours, which reflect different tints in their common beauty (garnish the surface); this Nāga was a Bhikshu who anciently, in the time of Kāśyapa Buddha, destroyed an Ėlāpata tree. Hence, at the present time, when the people of that country ask for rain or fine weather, they must go with the Shamans to the side of the tank, and then cracking their fingers (or, in a moment), after praying for the desired object, they obtain it.

Going 30 li or so to the south-east of the Nāga tank, we enter a gorge between two mountains, where there is a stūpa built by Asōka-rāja. It is about 100 feet in height. This is where Śākya Tathāgata delivered a prediction, that when Maitrēya, Lord of the World, appeared hereafter, there should also appear of themselves four great gem treasures, and that in this excellent land there should be one. According to tradition, we find that whenever there is an earthquake, and the mountains on every side are shaken, all round this sacred spot (treasure) to the distance of 100 paces there is perfect stillness. If men are

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44 The story of the Nāga-rāja Ėlāpata is a favourite one in Chinese Buddhist books. See Romantic Hist. of Buddha, p. 276 ff. (Stūpa of Bharhat, p. 27). Cunningham identifies the tank of Ėlāpata with the fountain of Hasan Abdal called Bābā-Wali. In the legend referred to above we are told that the Nāga stretched his body from Takshaśilā to Banāras (compare the sculpture). In this case we should be led to Hasan Abdal as the site of Takshaśilā. This Nāga is mentioned in Brahmanical literature also as the son of Kāśyapa and Kadrā. Ma-hābhārata, i. 1551; Harivamsa, 228, 12821; Viṣṇu-purāṇa (Hall's ed.), vol. ii. pp. 74, 285, 287, and vol. v. p. 251.
so foolish as to attempt to dig into the place (or ground surrounding it), the earth shakes again, and the men are thrown down headlong.

By the side of the stūpa is a saṅghārāma in ruins, and which has been for a long time deserted and without priests.

To the north of the city 12 or 13 li is a stūpa built by Aśoka-rāja. On feast-days (religious commemoration days) it glows with light, and divine flowers fall around it, and heavenly music is heard. According to tradition, we find in later times there was a woman whose body was grievously afflicted with leprosy. Coming to the stūpa secretly, she offered worship in excess and confessed her faults. Then seeing that the vestibule (the open court in front of the stūpa) was full of dung and dirt, she removed it, and set to work to sweep and water it and to scatter flowers and perfumes; and having gathered some blue lotus flowers, she covered the ground with them. On this her evil leprosy left her, and her form became lovely, and her beauty doubled, whilst from her person there came the famed scent of the blue lotus, and this also is the reason of the fragrance of this excellent place. This is the spot where Tathāgata formerly dwelt when he was practising the discipline of a Bōdhisattva; he was then the king of a great country and was called Chen-talo-po-la-po (Chandraprabha); he cut off his head, earnestly seeking the acquisition of Bōdhi: and this he did during a thousand successive births, (for the same object and in the same place).45

By the side of the stūpa of the “sacrificed head” is a saṅghārāma, of which the surrounding courts are deserted and overgrown; there are (nevertheless) a few priests. It

45 This legend was the origin of the name Taksha-śāṁa, “the severed head,” given to the place, as noticed by Fa-hian and Sung-yun. The legend will be found in Rājendralāl Mitra’s Nepalese Buddhist Literature, pp. 310, viii. “The man” for whose sake he gave his head, as stated by Sung-yun (Buddhist Pilgrims, p. 200) and by Fa-hian (cap. xi.) was the wicked Brāhmaṇa Rudrāksha.
was here in old days the master of śāstras Kumāralabdha, belonging to the school of Sūtras (Sautrāntikas), composed several treatises.

Outside the city to the south-east, on the shady side of a mountain, there is a stūpa, in height 100 feet or so; this is the place where they put out the eyes of Ku-lang-na (for Ku-na-lang-na, Kunāla), who had been unjustly accused by his step-mother; it was built by Aśoka-rāja.

When the blind pray to it (or before it) with fervent faith, many of them recover their sight. This prince (Kunāla) was the son of the rightful queen. His person was graceful and his disposition loving and humane. When the queen-royal was dead, her successor (the step-queen) was dissolute and unprincipled. Following her wild and foolish preference, she made proposals to the prince; he, when she solicited him, reproached her with tears, and departed, refusing to be guilty of such a crime. The step-mother, seeing that he rejected her, was filled with wrath and hatred; waiting for an interval when she was with the king, she addressed him thus: "To whom should your majesty intrust the government of Ta-ch’a-shi-lo but to your own son? The prince is renowned for his humanity and obedience; because of his attachment to the good his fame is in every mouth." The king listening to her seducing words, agreed willingly with the vile plot, and forthwith gave orders to his eldest son in these

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46 In Chinese Tong-shan, youth-receiving; the phonetic symbols are Kn-mo-lo-lo to.

47 The Sautrāntika school of Buddhism was, according to Vassiliev (Buddhismus, p. 233), founded by Dharmottara or Uttaradharma; it was one of the two principal branches of the Hinayāna, or Little Vehicle, of Buddhism; the other branch being the Vaibhāshika school. On their tenets see Colebrooke, Misc. Essays, vol. i. pp. 391 f.; Köppen, Die Religion, d. Buddha, vol. i. pp. 151 f.; Burnouf, Introd., pp. 109, 397 f.; Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. ii. p. 460; Vassiliev, pp. 34, 38, 48, 63 f., 114 f., 268, 273-286, 321.

48 That is, on the northern side.

49 Or, a south mountain; but probably nun is redundant.

50 The text requires some such expression as "winningly" or "when on easy terms with the king" she addressed him thus.

51 The text implies that he was gratified to accede to the terms of this plot of the adulteress, or this adulterous (kica) plot.
words: "I have received my royal inheritance in succession, and I desire to hand it down to those who follow me; my only fear is lest I should lose aught of it and so dishonour my ancestors. I now confide to you the government of Ta-ch’a-shi-lo. The affairs of a country are of serious importance; the feelings of men are contradictory; undertake nothing rashly, so as to endanger your authority; verify the orders sent you; my seal is the impression of my teeth; here in my mouth is my seal. There can be no mistake."

On this the prince, receiving his orders, went to establish order. And so months passed on, yet the step-mother’s hatred did but increase. Accordingly she wrote a dispatch and sealed it with red wax, and then, waiting till the king was asleep, she stamped it secretly with his tooth impression, and sent it off by a messenger with all dispatch as a letter of accusation. His ministers having read the letter, were confused, and looked at one another with dismay.

The prince then asked them what moved them so. They said, "The Mahârâja has sent a dispatch accusing the prince, and ordering both his eyes to be put out, and that he be taken with his wife to the mountains and there left to die. Although this order has come, we dare not obey it; but we will ask afresh for directions, and keep you bound till the reply comes."

The prince said, "My father, if he has ordered my death, must be obeyed; and the seal of his teeth is a sure sign of the truth of the order. There can be no error." Then he ordered a Chañdâla to pluck out his eyes; and

52 About fifty years after Alexander’s campaign the people of Takshaśilā rebelled against Bindusāra, king of Magadha, who sent his eldest son, Susima, to besiege the place. On his failure the siege was intrusted to Áśoka, his younger son, to whom the people at once submitted. Here Áśoka dwelt as viceroy of the Panjâb during his father’s lifetime, and here on the occasion of another revolt he placed his son Kunâla, the hero of the legend in the text. Conf. Burnouf, Intro., pp. 165, 357, 360; J. A. S. B., vol. vi. p. 714.
53 Having perused the letter on their knees.
54 To the mountain valleys.
55 Awaiting the sentence or punishment.
having thus lost his sight, he wandered forth to beg for his daily support. As he travelled on far away, he came to his father's capital town. His wife said to him, "There is the royal city." "Alas!" he said, "what pain I endure from hunger and cold. I was a prince; I am a beggar. Oh, that I could make myself known and get redress for the false charge formerly brought against me!" On this he contrived to enter the king's inner bureau, and in the after part of the night he began to weep, and with a plaintive voice, accompanied with the sound of a lute, he sang a mournful song.

The king, who was in an upper chamber, hearing these wonderful strains full of sadness and suffering, was surprised, and inquired. "From the notes of the lute and the sound of the voice I take this to be my son; but why has he come here?"

He immediately said to his court attendant, "Who is that singing so?"

Forthwith he brought the blind man into his presence and placed him before the king. The king, seeing the prince, overwhelmed with grief, exclaimed, "Who has thus injured you? Who has caused this misery, that my beloved son should be deprived of sight? Not one of all his people can he see. Alas! what an end to come to! O heavens! O heavens! what a misfortune is this!"

The prince, yielding to his tears, thanked (his father) and replied, "In truth," for want of filial piety have I thus been

36 Kunālā's wife was called Chin-kin-man, pure-gold-garland (Kān-chanamālā). The stepmother's name was Tishyarakshita, and his mother's Padnavati (Lien-hwa). His name is also spelt Kunālā.

37 This may be otherwise rendered: "Would that I could obtain a hearing, so as to vindicate myself completely from the former accusation." Julien translates it: "I will expose anew my past faults."

38 A visit.

39 A high tower or pavilion.

40 Or it may simply mean, "how was this brought about?"

41 Julien translates it, "how virtue has degenerated." The symbol tih, however, need not be rendered "virtue;" it refers to the reversal of fortune or condition.

42 The sense of the passage seems to require the force of ch ng to be, "Do you not know?" or "You are aware that my punishment is due to a charge of filial disobedience."
punished by Heaven. In such a year and such a month and sucl. a day suddenly there came a loving order (or an order from my mother). Having no means of excusing myself, I dared not shrink from the punishment." The king's heart, knowing that the second wife had committed this crime, without any further inquiry caused her to be put to death. 63

At this time in the saṅghārāma of the Bódhi tree 64 there was a great Arhat called Ghōsha (Kiu-sha). He had the fourfold power of "explanation without any difficulties." 65 He was completely versed in the Trividāyás. 66 The king taking to him his blind son, told him all the matter, and prayed that he would of his mercy restore him to sight. Then that Arhat, having received the king's request, forthwith addressed to the people this order: "To-morrow I desire to declare the mysterious principle (of the law); let each person come here with a vessel in his hands to hear the law and receive in it his tears." Accordingly, they came together from every side (far and near), both men and women, in crowds. At this time the Arhat preached on the twelve Nīdānas, 67 and there was not one of those who heard the sermon but was moved to tears. The tears were collected in the vessels, and then, when his sermon was finished, he collected all these tears in one golden vessel, and then, with a strong affirmation, he said, "What I have said is gathered from the most mysterious of Buddha's doctrines; if this is not true, if there be error in what I have said, then let things remain as they are; but if it is otherwise, I desire that this blind

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63 This story is also given by Burnouf, Introd., pp. 362 f.
64 The saṅghārāma of the Bódhi tree was the convent built on the site of the Buddha Gaya temple.
65 For this fourfold power of unimpeded explanation consult Childers' Pali Dict. s.v. patissambhid, also Eitel, Handbook s.v. pratisambhid. Julien has an instructive note on this point. Conf. Burnouf, Lotus, p. 839.
66 For the trividāyás consult Eitel, sub voc.; Burnouf, Lotus, p. 372; Julien, Mém. s. l. Cont. Occid., tome i. p. 160; and ante, p. 105, n. 75.
man may recover his sight after washing his eyes with these tears." 68

After finishing this speech he washed his eyes with the water, and lo! his sight was restored.

The king then accused the ministers (who had executed the order) and their associates. Some he degraded, others he banished, others he removed, others he put to death. The common people (who had participated in the crime) he banished to the north-east side of the Snowy Mountains, to the middle of the sandy desert.

Going south-east from this kingdom, and crossing the mountains and valleys about 700 li, we come to the kingdom of Sāng-ho-pu-lo (Simhapura).

Sāng-ho-pu-lo [Simhapura].

The kingdom of Sāng-ho-pu-lo 69 is about 3500 or 3600 li in circuit. On the west it borders on the river Sin-tu. The capital is about 14 or 15 li in circuit; it borders on the mountains. The crags and precipices which surround it cause it to be naturally strong. The ground is not highly cultivated, but the produce is abundant. The climate is cold, the people are fierce and value highly the quality of courage; moreover, they are much given to deceit. The country has no king or rulers, but is in dependence on Kaśmir. Not far to the south of the capital is a stūpa built by Asoka-rāja. The decorations

68 There is a similar story told by Aśvaghōsa; the Ghōsha of the text, however, must not be confused with him.

69 The distance from Takshaśilā to Simhapura being 700 li, or about 140 miles, we should expect to find it near Taki or Narasinha (Cunningham, Anc. Geog., map vi.). But the capital is described as being surrounded by mountain crags, which will not apply to the plain country of Taki. For the same reason the town of Sangohi, which M. V. de St. Martin refers to, cannot be the place in question. General Cunningham identifies it with Khethā or Ketaksh, the holy tanks of which are still visited by crowds of pilgrims from all parts of India (Anc. Geog., p. 124). If this be so, the distance may probably include the double journey. The expression used by Hwui-lih (kun) seems to imply this. According to the subsequent account, Himen Ts'ang went to Simhapura as an excursion, and returned to Takshaśilā. He probably went with Jain pilgrims who were visiting this tīrtha, or holy place.
are much injured: spiritual wonders are continually connected with it. By its side is a saṅghārāma, which is deserted and without priests.

To the south-east of the city 40 or 50 li is a stone stūpa which was built by Aśoka-rāja; it is 200 feet or so in height. There are ten tanks, which are secretly connected together, and on the right and left (of the walks joining them) are covered stones (balustrades) in different shapes and of strange character. The water of the tanks is clear, and the ripples are sometimes noisy and tumultuous. Dragons and various fishes live in the clefts and caverns bordering on the tanks or hide themselves in the waters. Lotus flowers of the four colours cover the surface of the limpid water. A hundred kind of fruits surround them, and glisten with different shades. The trees are reflected deep down in the water, and altogether it is a lovely spot for wandering forth.

By the side there is a saṅghārāma, which for a long time has been without priests. By the side of the stūpa, and not far off, is the spot where the original teacher of the white-robed heretics arrived at the knowledge of the principles he sought, and first preached the law. There is an inscription placed there to that effect. By the side of this spot is a temple of the Dēvas. The persons who frequent it subject themselves to austerities; day and night they use constant diligence without relaxation. The laws of their founder are mostly filched

70 The text has dragon-fishes, or dragons (serpents) and fishes, the tribes of the water.
71 Or dispport themselves in the stream.
72 This refers to the Śvētāmbaras, a sect of the Jainas; Colebrooke (Essays, vol. i. p. 381) says that "this is a less strict order, and of more modern date and inferior note compared with the Digambharas" (noticed below, note 74). The Jainas were very influential about the time of Pulikōl (Ind. Antiq., vol. ii. p. 194); Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. iv. pp. 97 f., 756 f. Whether the Jaina preceded or succeeded the Buddhists, it is curious to have this testimony of Huien Tsang that their original teacher arrived at enlightenment and first preached the law in this place, viz., Siṃhapura, and that there was an inscription placed here to that effect. Conf. Ind. Ant., vol. ii. pp. 14 f., 134 f., 193 f., 258 f.
from the principles of the books of Buddha. These men are of different classes, and select their rules and frame their precepts accordingly. The great ones are called Bhikshus; the younger are called Śrāmaṇeras. In their ceremonies and modes of life they greatly resemble the priests (of Buddha), only they have a little twist of hair on their heads, and they go naked. Moreover, what clothes they chance to wear are white. Such are the slight differences which distinguish them from others. The figure of their sacred master they stealthily class with that of Tathāgata; it differs only in point of clothing; the points of beauty are absolutely the same.

From this place going back to the northern frontiers of Ta-ch'a-shi-lo, crossing the Sin-tu river and going south-east 200 li or so, we pass the great stone gates where formerly Mahāsattva, as a prince, sacrificed his body to feed these statues, see Fergusson and Burgess, Cave Temples, pp. 485-500 and pl. xcv.; Burgess, Arch. Sur. West. India Reports, vol. v. pp. 43-50, 51, 58. From this interesting allusion to the Jainas it is evident that Huien Tsang regarded them as dishonest separatists from Buddhism. The “points of beauty” referred to in the text are the thirty-two superior signs (śīla), and the eighty inferior (kosa) for which see references in note 5, p. 1, ante.

It may be either that Huien Tsang went back to Ohind, and so crossed and recrossed the Indus, or that he calls the Suhān (Sūbhôma, Śvarô) river by this name. The distance from Hasan Abdal to Mānkîyāla (the body-offering spot) is just 40 miles (200 li), according to Cunningham’s map (No. vi, Anc. Geog. of India).

The incident of feeding the tigress is narrated in Hardy’s Manual of Buddhism, pp. 93, 94; but there it is said that the Boddhisattva was a Brähman; here he is called a prince. The rock or gate where he practised asceticism was called Munda or Eraka (op. cit. ibid).
a hungry Wu-t’u (ōtu, a cat). To the south of this place 40 or 50 paces there is a stone stūpa. This is the place where Mahāsattva, pitying the dying condition of the beast, after arriving at the spot, pierced his body with a bamboo splinter, so as to nourish the beast with his blood. On this the animal, taking the blood, revived. On this account all the earth and the plants at this place are dyed with a blood colour, and when men dig the earth they find things like prickly spikes. Without asking whether we believe the tale or not, it is a piteous one.

To the north of the body-sacrifice place there is a stone stūpa about 200 feet high, which was built by King Asoka. It is adorned with sculptures and tastefully constructed (built). From time to time spiritual indications are apparent. There are a hundred or so small stūpas, provided with stone niches for movable images (or stone movable niches) around this distinguished spot. Whatever sick there are who can circumambulate it are mostly restored to health.

To the east of the stūpa there is a saṅghārāma, with about 100 priests given to the study of the Great Vehicle.

Going east from this 50 li or so, we come to an isolated mountain, where there is a saṅghārāma with about 200 priests in it. They all study the Great Vehicle,

79 The compound Wu-t’u, which is translated by Julien “a tiger” without explanation, is probably the Sanskrit ētu, a cat.
80 “Pitying the exhausted condition of the hungry beast.” The original implies that the beast had no strength and was dying from hunger. There is no reference to the tiger-cubs, nor is the number seven mentioned either here or by Fa-hsien. For a full account of the legend and the ruins about Manikyāla, see Cunningham, op. cit., p. 153 ff., and conf. Ind. Ant., vol. xi, pp. 347 ff., &c.
81 This stūpa has been identified by General Cunningham with that marked No. 5 on his plan of Manikyāla (Arch. Survey, vol. ii, pl. lxi, p. 153). The clay is even now of a red colour.
82 “It is resplendent with divine brightness or glory.”
83 Julien translates it “this funereal monument,” but the symbol yung means “lustrous,” referring, no doubt, to the glory which surrounded the stūpa.
Fruits and flowers abound here, with fountains and tanks clear as a mirror. By the side of this convent is a stūpa about 300 feet in height. Here Tathāgata dwelt in old time, and restrained a wicked Yaksha from eating flesh.

Going from this kingdom about 500 li or so along the mountains in a south-easterly direction, we come to the country of Wu-la-shi (Uraśa).

**WU-LA-SHI [URAŚA].**

The kingdom of Wu-la-shi (Uraśa) is about 2000 li in circuit; the mountains and valleys form a continuous chain. The fields fit for cultivation are contracted as to space. The capital is 7 or 8 li in circuit; there is no king, but the country is dependent on Kaśmir. The soil is fit for sowing and reaping, but there are few flowers or fruits. The air is soft and agreeable; there is very little ice or snow. The people have no refinement; the men are hard and rough in their disposition, and are much given to deceit. They do not believe in the religion of Buddha.

To the south-west of the capital 4 or 5 li is a stūpa about 200 feet or so in height, which was built by Aśoka-rāja. By its side is a saṅghārāma, in which there are but a few disciples, who study the Great Vehicle.

Going south-east from this, crossing over mountains and treading along precipices, passing over chain bridges, after 1000 li or so, we come to the country of Kiś-shim-i-lo (Kaśmir).

84 Uraśa appears as the name of a city in the Mahābhārata under the form Uraga (ii. 1027; and Rāmāya. vi. 59), probably by a slip (see Lassen, I. A., vol. ii. p. 155, n. 1); in the Rādhārāṣṭraśāstra (v. 216) it is Uraśa, the capital of Uraśa—mentioned in Pāṇini (iv. 1, 154 and 178, and Uraśa in iv. 2, 82, and iv. 3, 93). Ptolemy (lib. vii. c. 1, 45) calls the country 'Arca or Α说实, and its towns 'Icháwore or Taḵla (v. I. Taḵla), placing it between the upper waters of the Bidaspe and Indus, that is, in the Hazāra country. Conf. Cunningham, Asia. Geog. Ind., p. 103; J. A. S. Beng., vol. xvii. pt. ii. pp. 21, 283; Lassen, I. A., vol. ii. p. 175.

85 Julien has "Little Vehicle."

86 Formerly written Kl-pin by mistake.—Ch. Ed.
Kia-shi-mi-lo [Kāśmīr].

The kingdom of Kāśmīr is about 7000 li in circuit, and on all sides it is enclosed by mountains. These mountains are very high. Although the mountains have passes through them, these are narrow and contracted. The neighbouring states that have attacked it have never succeeded in subduing it. The capital of the country on the west side is bordered by a great river. It (the capital) is from north to south 12 or 13 li, and from east to west 4 or 5 li. The soil is fit for producing cereals, and abounds with fruits and flowers. Here also are dragon-horses and the fragrant turmeric, the fo-chū, and medicinal plants.

The climate is cold and stern. There is much snow but little wind. The people wear leather doublets and clothes of white linen. They are light and frivolous, and of a weak, puḥilanimous disposition. As the country is protected by a dragon, it has always assumed superiority among neighbouring people. The people are handsome in appearance, but they are given to cunning. They love learning and are well instructed. There are both heretics and believers among them. There are about 100 saṅghārāmas and 5000 priests. There are four stūpas built by Aśoka-rāja. Each of these has about

87 Kāśmīr in early times appears to have been a kingdom of considerable extent. The old name is said to have been Kāśyapapura, which has been connected with the Kāśyapa of Hekataios (Preg. 179, and Steph. Byzant.), πόλις Γεωργίας Σκυθῶν ἀκτῆς, said to have been in or near Paktiš and called Kāśyapa by Herodotos (lib. iii. c. 102, lib. iv. c. 44), from which Skyalax started on his voyage down the Indus. Ptolomy has Kāśyapula and its capital Kāśyapa (lib. vii. c. 1, 42, 47, 49; lib. viii. c. 26, 7), possibly for Kāśyapa. The name Kāśmīr is the one used in the Mahābhārata, Pāṇini, &c. The character ascribed to the people by the Chinese pilgrim, is quite in accord with that given to them by modern travelers (see Vigne, Travels in Kashmir, vol. ii. p. 142 f.) For further information see Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. i. pp. 50-53; and conf. Wilson, Ariana Ant., pp. 136 f.; Asiatic Res., vol. xv. p. 117; Köppen, Die Relig. d. Buddh., vol. ii. pp. 12 f. 78; Remusat, Nouv. Mél. Asiat., tome i. p. 179; Vassiliev, p. 40; J. A. S. Ben., vol. vii. p. 105, vol. xxv. pp. 91-123; Yule's Marco Polo, vol. i. pp. 177 f.; Cunningham, Anc. Gwog. Ind., pp. 90 ff; Troyer's Rājatarāṅga, tome ii. pp. 293 ff.; Humboldt's Cent. Asie, vol. i. p. 92. The "great river" is the Vitastā.

88 Lentillies de verre.—Jul.
a pint measure of relics of Tathâgata. The history of the country says: This country was once a dragon lake. In old times the Lord Buddha was returning to the middle kingdom (India) after subduing a wicked spirit in U-chang-na (Udyâna), and when in mid-air, just over this country, he addressed Ânanda thus: "After my Nirvâna, the Arhat Madhyântika will found a kingdom in this land, civilise (pacify) the people, and by his own effort spread abroad the law of Buddha."

In the fiftieth year after the Nirvâna, the disciple of Ânanda, Madhyântika (Mo-t’ien-ti-kia) the Arhat—having obtained the six spiritual faculties and been gifted with the eight Vimûkshas—heard of the prediction of Buddha. His heart was overjoyed, and he repaired to this country. He was sitting tranquilly in a wood on the top of a high mountain crag, and exhibited great spiritual changes. The dragon beholding it was filled with a deep faith, and requested to know what he desired. The Arhat said, "I request you to give me a spot in the middle of the lake just big enough for my knees." 91

On this the dragon withdrew the water so far, and gave him the spot. Then by his spiritual power the Arhat increased the size of his body, whilst the dragon king kept back the waters with all his might. So the lake became dry, and the waters exhausted. On this the Nâga, taking his flight, asked for a place. 92

The Arhat (then said), "To the north-west of this is a pool about 100 li in circuit; in this little lake you and your posterity may continue to dwell." The Nâga said, "The lake and the land being mutually transferred, let me then be allowed to make my religious offerings to you." Madhyântika said, "Not long hence I shall enter on the Nirvâna without remnants (anupadhiśêsha); although I should wish to allow your request, how can I do it?"

98 Shañabhâjâ. See ante, note 73.
99 viz., to sit.
100 This is an abrupt combination;
91 See references in note 73, p. 104.
92 It means asked for a place "to live in."
The Nâga then pressed his request in this way: "May 500 Arhats then ever receive my offerings till the end of the law? After which (I ask to be allowed) to return to this country to dwell (in it) as a lake." Madhyântika granted his request.

Then the Arhat, having obtained this land by the exercise of his great spiritual power, founded 500 saṅghārāmas. He then set himself to procure by purchase from surrounding countries a number of poor people who might act as servitors to the priests. Madhyântika having died, these poor people constituted themselves rulers over the neighbouring countries. The people of surrounding countries despising these low-born men, would not associate with them, and called them Kritiyas (Ki-li-to). The fountains now have begun to bubble up (in token of the end of the law having come).

In the hundredth year after the Nirvâna of Tathâgata, Aśoka, king of Magadha, extended his power over the world, and was honoured even by the most distant people. He deeply reverenced the three gems, and had a loving regard for all living things. At this time there were 500 Arhats and 500 schismatical priests, whom the king honoured and patronised without any difference. Among the latter was a priest called Mahâdêva, a man of deep learning and rare ability; in his retirement he sought a true renown; far thinking, he wrote treatises the principles of which were opposed to the holy doctrine. All who heard of him resorted to his company and adopted his views. Aśoka-râja, not knowing either holy or common

33 I.e., till religion be done with.
34 In Chinese Mai-te, "bought people" (Sana krita). In the Vîśkram Pûrâṇa it is said that "unregenerate tribes, barbarians and other Sûdras, will rule over the banks of the Indus and the regions of the Dârâvâka, of the Chandrabhâgâ and of Kâshmirâ" (Wilson, in Hall's ed., vol. iv. p. 223), and the Bhâgavata has a similar statement, calling the "unregenerate" "other outcasts not enlightened by the Védas" (ib. p. 224). See p. 156, n. 119 infra.
35 Sîr-sîr, the four varna or castes, or the four classes of living beings, according to the Chinese, produced (1) from eggs, (2) embryos (animals and men), (3) moisture, and (4) by transformation.
men, and because he was naturally given to patronise those who were seditious, was induced to call together an assembly of priests to the banks of the Ganges, intending to drown them all.

At this time the Arhats having seen the dangers threatening their lives, by the exercise of their spiritual power flew away through the air and came to this country and concealed themselves among the mountains and valleys. Asoka-rāja having heard of it, repented, and confessing his fault, begged them to return to their own country; but the Arhats refused to do so with determination. Then Asoka-rāja, for the sake of the Arhats, built 500 saṅghārāmas, and gave this country as a gift to the priesthood.

In the four-hundredth year after the Nirvāṇa of Tathāgata, Kanishka, king of Gandhāra, having succeeded to the kingdom, his kingly renown reached far, and he brought the most remote within his jurisdiction. During his intervals of duty he frequently consulted the sacred books of Buddha; daily he invited a priest to enter his palace and preach the law, but he found the different views of the schools so contradictory that he was filled with doubt, and he had no way to get rid of his uncertainty. At this time the honoured Pārśva said, “Since Tathāgata left the world many years and months have elapsed. The different schools hold to the treatises of their several masters. Each keeps to his own views, and so the whole body is torn by divisions.”

The king having heard this, was deeply affected and gave way to sad regrets. After awhile he spoke to Pārśva and said, “Though of no account personally, yet, thanks to the remnant of merit which has followed me through successive births since the time of the Holy One till now,

96 I.e., the difference between them.
97 That is, 300 years after Asoka (B.C. 255–224), or about A.D. 75. Huien Tsang places Asoka only 100 years after Buddha while in Asoka’s own inscriptions the Teacher is placed 221 years before the first of Asoka’s reign. The Avadana Sataka supports this, placing the king two hundred years after Buddha. Confr. Ind. Ant., vol. vi. pp. 149 f.; Burnouf, Introd., p. 335; Max Müller’s India, &c., p. 306.
I have come to my present state. I will dare to forget my own low degree, and hand down in succession the teaching of the law unimpaired. I will therefore arrange the teaching of the three pitakas of Buddha according to the various schools." The honourable Pārśva replied, "The previous merit of the great king has resulted in his present distinguished position. That he may continue to love the law of Buddha is what I desire above all things.

The king then summoned from far and near a holy assembly (issued an edict to assemble the holy teachers).

On this they came together from the four quarters, and, like stars, they hurried together for myriads of li, men the most distinguished for talents and for holiness of life. Being thus assembled, for seven days offerings of the four necessary things were made, after which, as the king desired that there should be an arrangement of the law, and as he feared the clamour of such a mixed assembly (would prevent consultation), he said, with affection for the priests, "Let those who have obtained the holy fruit (as Arhats) remain, but those who are still bound by worldly influences let them go!" Yet the multitude was too great. He then published another order: "Let those who have arrived at the condition of 'freedom from study' remain, and those who are still in a condition of learners go." Still there were a great multitude who remained. On this the king issued another edict: "Those who are in possession of the three enlightenments and have the six spiritual faculties may remain; the others can go."

88 Literally, "the great king in previous conditions (vah) having planted a good root—or, the root of virtue—has in consequence attained much happiness or merit."

89 The world-influences or bonds refer to the klémas. The five klémas are (1) desire, (2) hate, (3) ignorance, (4) vanity, (5) heresy. See Burnouf, Lotus, pp. 443 f. Or the reference may be to the five six nāramesa, for which see Childers, Pali Dict. sub voc.

200 In a note on this passage Julien explains that the first class, Wu-hio, designates the Arhats; the second, Hio-jin, those studying to become Sramanas.

101 For the trividya and the shadabhiṣijjas see ante, n. 73 and 75, pp. 104, 105, and note 66, p. 142.

102 There is a phrase here used, te' chu, of frequent occurrence in Buddhist books. It means, "with these exceptions," — his exceptis.
yet there was a great multitude who remained. Then he published another edict: "Let those who are acquainted with the three Pitakas and the five vidyäs remain; as to others, let them go." Thus there remained 499 men. Then the king desired to go to his own country,104 as he suffered from the heat and moisture of this country. He also wished to go to the stone grot105 at Râjagriha, where Kâsyapa had held his religious assembly (convocation). The honourable Pârśva and others then counselled him, saying, "We cannot go there, because there are many heretical teachers there, and different sástras being brought under consideration, there will be clamour and vain discussion. Without having right leisure for consideration, what benefit will there be in making (fresh) treatises?106 The mind of the assembly is well affected towards this country; the land is guarded on every side by mountains, the Yakshas defend its frontiers, the soil is rich and productive, and it is well provided with food. Here both saints and sages assemble and abide; here the spiritual Rishis wander and rest."

The assembly having deliberated, they came to this resolution: "We are willing to fall in with the wishes of the king." On this, with the Arhats, he went from the spot where they had deliberated to another, and there founded a monastery, where they might hold an assembly (for the purpose of arranging) the Scriptures and composing the Vîbhâshâ Sâstra.107

103 The five vidyäs (Wu-ming) are (1) Sabdavidyâ, the treatise on grammar; (2) Adhyyâtmavidyâ, the treatise on inner principles or esoteric doctrines; (3) Chikitsåavidyâ, the treatise on medicine, magic formulas, and occult science (Eitel); (4) Hétavaridya, the treatise on causes; (5) Sûlapasûthåavidyâ, the treatise on the sciences, astronomy, meteorology, and mechanical arts. See ante, p. 78, note 24.
104 So I translate it. Literally it would be "the king had a desire for his own country;" i.e., for the highlands of Gaudhâra.
105 The phrase may mean a stone, i.e., structural, house; or a stone chamber—a cave. It is generally supposed to have been a cave—the Saptaparna cave.
106 Or, what use in holding discussions?
107 This passage, which is unusually confused, may be translated also thus: "On this he went with the Arhats from that place, and came (to a place where) he founded
At this time the venerable Vasumitra (Shi-Yu) was putting on his robes outside the door (about to enter) when the Arhats addressed him and said, "The bonds of sin (the kliśas) not loosed, then all discussion is contradictory and useless. You had better go, and not dwell here."

On this Vasumitra answered, "The wise without doubt regard the law in the place of Buddha, appointed for the conversion of the world, and therefore you reasonably desire to compile true (orthodox) sāstras. As for myself, though not quick, yet in my poor way I have investigated the meaning of words. I have also studied with earnestness the obscure literature of the three pitakas and the recondite meaning of the five vidyās; and I have succeeded in penetrating their teaching, dull as I am."

The Arhats answered, "It is impossible; but if it is as you say, you can stand by a little and presently get the condition of 'past learning.' Then you can enter the assembly; at present your presence is not possible."

Vasumitra answered, "I care for the condition of 'past learning' as little as for a drop of spittle; my mind seeks only the fruit of Buddha. I do not run after little quests [little sideways]. I will throw this ball up into the air, and before it comes to earth I shall have got the holy condition [fruit] of 'past learning.'"

Then all the Arhats roundly scolded him, saying, "Intolerably arrogant" is your right title. The fruit of 'past learning' is the condition praised by all the Buddhas. You are bound to acquire this condition and scatter the doubts of the assembly."

a monastery and collected the three Pitakas. Being about to compose the Pi-p'o-cha-lun (Vibhādhā Śāstra), then," &c.

108 That is, taking the place of, or standing in the stead of, Buddha.

109 The assembly or convocation desires, &c. Or it may be translated thus: "Having collected the general, or right sense, you are now about to compose an orthodox treatise" (i.e., the Vibhādhā Śāstra).

This at least seems to be the sense of the passage, but the force of the phrase ch'hin ia is doubtful.

111 That is, I seek only the condition of a Buddha.
Then Vasumitra cast the ball into the air; it was arrested by the Dévas, who, before it fell, asked him this question: "In consequence of obtaining the fruit of Buddha, you shall succeed Maitréya in his place (in the Tushita heaven); the three worlds shall honour you, and the four kinds of creatures (all flesh) shall look up to you with awe. Why then do you seek this little fruit?"

Then the Arhats, having witnessed all this, confessed their fault, and with reverence asked him to become their president. All difficulties that occurred in their discussion were referred to him for settlement. These five hundred sages and saints first composed in ten myriads of verses the Upadéśa Sástra to explain the Sátra Piṭaka. Next they made in ten myriads of verses the Vinaya Vibháṣá Sástra to explain the Vinaya Piṭaka; and afterwards they made in ten myriad of verses the Abhidharma Vibháṣá Sástra to explain the Abhidharma Piṭaka. Altogether they composed thirty myriad of verses in six hundred and sixty myriad of words, which thoroughly explained the three Piṭakas. There was no work of antiquity to be compared with (placed above) their productions; from the deepest to the smallest question, they examined all, explaining all minute expressions, so that their work has become universally known and is the resource of all students who have followed them.

112 This definition of the Upadéśa (U-po-ti-sho) Sástra, viz., a treatise to explain the Sátra Piṭaka (Su-ta-la-t'yang), confirms the explanation generally given of the whole class of works so named. Burnouf (Introductory Notices, p. 58) regards the term as equivalent to "instruction" or "explanation of esoteric doctrine." In Népál the word is applied to the Tantra portion of the Buddhist writings. It is also used as an equivalent for Abhidharma. The Upadéśa class of books is the twelfth in the duodecimal division of the Northern School (Eitel, Handbook, s. voc.)

113 'O-pi-ta-mo-pi-po-sha-lun. This work is generally called the Abhidharma-mahávibháṣá Sástra. It was translated into Chinese by Hiuen Tsiang. It is said to be a commentary on Kátyáyanaputra's Jhánapravatá Sástra, belonging to the Sarvástiváda class of books. It is in forty-three chapters (vargas), and consists of 438,449 Chinese characters. See Bunyiu Nanjio's Catalogue, No. 1263.

114 Thousand ancient; but is tien an error?

115 Literally, "branches and leaves were investigated; shallow and deep places fathomed."
Kanishka-rája forthwith ordered these discourses to be engraved on sheets of red copper. He enclosed them in a stone receptacle, and having sealed this, he raised over it a sthápa with the Scriptures in the middle. He commanded the Yakshas to defend the approaches to the kingdom, so as not to permit the other sects to get these sástras and take them away, with the view that those dwelling in the country might enjoy the fruit of this labour.

Having finished this pious labour, he returned with his army to his own capital.

Having left this country by the western gate, he turned towards the east and fell on his knees, and again bestowed all this kingdom on the priesthood.

After Kanishka's death the Krittya race again assumed the government, banished the priests, and overthrew religion.

The king of Himatala, of the country of To-hu-lo (Tukhára), was by descent of the Sákya race. In the six-hundredth year after the Nirvána of Buddha, he succeeded to the territory of his ancestor, and his heart was

116 The Yakshas are supernatural beings employed to guard treasure or keep the way to a treasure. Sometimes they are regarded as malevolent beings, but not so necessarily. See General Cunningham, Sthápa of Bharhut, p. 20 ff. They are represented in this work as keeping the four gates of the sthápa.

117 "With a view that they who wished to study them should in the country (chung) receive instruction." I cannot follow M. Julién's translation. He seems to regard the sthápa as a mahábádha or convent in which instruction was given; and he makes Kanishka give himself to study.

118 That is, to the capital of Gandhára.

119 "The law of Buddha." The Kritiyás or Krityas are defined to be "demons who dig out corpses," or explained as "séfts" (persons bought, kritá). They are said to be either Yakshakrityas or Manushrakrityas, the former being shaped like Yakshas, the latter like human beings. The Manushrakrityas were those domestic slaves whom Madhyánikta introduced into Kásmír (Eitél, Handbook, sub voc.). See also Cunningham, Aue. Geog. of Ind., p. 93; and ante, note 94, p. 150.

120 Himatala, defined in the text as Sue-chan-hia, "under the snowy mountains" (see ante, p. 42, n. 139).

121 He was descended from one of the Sákya youths who were driven from their country for resisting the invasion of Víruḍhaka, the account of which will be found in the sixth book. Hiuen Tsiang's date places him about 280 A.D. (note 97, ante).
deeply imbued with affection for the law of Buddha. Hearing that the Kritiyas had overthrown the law of Buddha, he assembled in his land the most warlike (courageous) of his knights, to the number of three thousand, and under the pretence of being merchants laden with many articles of merchandise and with valuable goods, but having secretly concealed on their persons warlike instruments, they entered on this kingdom, and the king of the country received them as his guests with special honour. He then selected five hundred of these, men of great courage and address, and armed them with swords and provided them with choice merchandise to offer to the king.

Then the king of Himatala, flinging off his cap, proceeded towards the throne; the king of the Kritiyas, terrified, was at a loss what to do. Having cut off the king’s head, (the king of Himatala) said to the officers standing below, "I am the king of Himatala, belonging to Tukhāra. I was grieved because this low-caste ruler practised such outrages; therefore I have to-day punished his crimes; but as for the people, there is no fault to be found with them." Having banished the ministers in charge of the government to other states and pacified this country, he commanded the priests to return, and built a saṅghārāma, and there settled them as in old time. Then he left the kingdom by the western gate (pass), and when outside he bowed down with his face to the east, and gave in charity to the priesthood (the kingdom).

As for the Kritiyas, as they had more than once been put down by the priests and their religion overthrown, in lapse of time their enmity had increased so that they hated the law of Buddha. After some years

123 "He planted his heart in the law of Buddha, and the streams of his affection flowed into the sea of the law."
124 That is, the king of Himatala.
125 If the symbol in the text is intended for ch’hang, it should be translated "flinging away his robe," that is, the robe (or web of rich cloth) that concealed the sword. If it be maou, then it would be "flinging away his cap."
they came again into power. This is the reason why at the present time this kingdom is not much given to the faith and the temples of the heretics are their sole thought.

About 10 li to the south-east of the new city and to the north of the old city, and on the south of a great mountain, is a saṅghārāma with about 300 priests in it. In the stūpa (attached to the convent) is a tooth of Buddha in length about an inch and a half, of a yellowish-white colour; on religious days it emits a bright light. In old days the Kritiya race having destroyed the law of Buddha, the priests being dispersed, each one selected his own place of abode. On this occasion one Śramaṇa, wandering throughout the Indies to visit and worship the relics of Buddha (traces of the Holy One) and to exhibit his sincere faith, after a while came to hear that his native country was pacified and settled. Forthwith he set out on his return, and on his way he met with a herd of elephants rushing athwart his path through the jungle and raising a trumpeting tumult. The Śramaṇa having seen them, climbed up a tree to get out of their way; then the herd of elephants rushed down to drink at a pool and to cleanse themselves with the water; then surrounding the tree, they tore its roots, and by force dragged it to the ground. Having got the Śramaṇa, they put him on the back of one, and hurried off to the middle of a great forest, where was a sick elephant wounded (scollen with a sore), and lying on the ground.

123 General Cunningham says Abu Rihān calls the capital Adishi-tan, which is the Sanskrit Adishthāna or "chief town;" and that is the present city of Srinagar, which was built by Rāja Pravarasēna about the beginning of the sixth century, and was therefore a comparatively new place at the time of Hiuen Tsiang's visit. The "old capital" was about two miles to the south-east of Takht-i-Sulimān, and is now called Pāndrēthān, a Kaśmiri corruption of Purānadhishthāna, or "the old chief city."—Ane. Geog. Ind., p. 93. Conf. Troyer's Rājatarānyī, tome i. p. 104, t. iii. pp. 336-357; Asiat. Rex., vol. xv. p. 19; Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. ii. p. 912. The mountain is Hariparvata or Horpavat, now Takht-i-Sulimān.

128 Not to drink, but to draw in the water and use it for cooling themselves.
at rest. Taking the hand of the priest, it directed it to the place of the hurt, where a rotten (broken) piece of bamboo had penetrated. The Śramaṇa thereupon drew out the splinter and applied some medicinal herbs, and tore up his garment to bind the foot with it. Another elephant taking a gold casket, brought it to the sick elephant, who having received it gave it forthwith to the Śramaṇa. The Śramaṇa opening it, found in the inside Buddha's tooth. Then all the elephants surrounding him, he knew not how to get away. On the morrow, being a fast-day, each elephant brought him some fruit for his mid-day meal. Having finished eating, they carried the priest out of the forest a long way (some hundred li), and then they set him down, and, after salutation paid, they each retired.

The Śramaṇa coming to the western borders of the country, crossed a rapid river; whilst so doing the boat was nearly overwhelmed, when the men, consulting together, said, “The calamity that threatens the boat is owing to the Śramaṇa; he must be carrying some relics of Buddha, and the dragons have coveted them.”

The master of the ship having examined (his goods), found the tooth of Buddha. Then the Śramaṇa, raising up the relic, bowed his head, and called to the Nāgas and said, “I now intrust this to your care; not long hence I will come again and take it.” Then declining to cross the river, he returned to the bank and departed. Turning to the river he sighed and said, “Not knowing how to restrain these Nāga creatures has been the cause of my calamity.” Then going back to India, he studied the rules of restraining dragons, and after three years he returned towards his native country, and having come to the river-side he built and appointed there an altar. Then the Nāgas brought the casket of Buddha's tooth and gave it to the Śramaṇa; the Śramaṇa took it and brought it to this saṅghārāma and henceforth worshipped it.

127 That is, he did not land on the other side, but went back in the boat.
Fourteen or fifteen li to the south of the saṅghārāma is a little saṅghārāma in which is a standing figure of Avalokiteśvara Bōdhisattva. If any one vows to fast till he dies unless he beholds this Bōdhisattva, immediately from the image it comes forth glorious in appearance.

South-east of the little saṅghārāma about 30 li or so, we come to a great mountain, where there is an old (ruined) saṅghārāma, of which the shape is imposing and the masonry strong. But now it is in ruins; there is only left one angle where there is a small double tower. There are thirty priests or so, who study the Great Vehicle. This is where of old Saṅghabhadra, a writer of śāstras, composed the Shu̍n-ching-li-lun ¹²³ (Nyāyānusāra Śāstra); on the left and the right of the saṅghārāma are stūpas where are enshrined the relics (śarīras) of great Arhats. The wild beasts and mountain apes gather flowers to offer as religious oblations. Throughout the year they continue these offerings without interruption, as if it were a traditional service. Many miraculous circumstances occur in this mountain. Sometimes a stone barrier is split across; sometimes on the mountain-top there remain the traces of a horse; but all things of this sort are only mistaken traces of the Arhats and Śrāmanerās, who in troops frequent this spot, and with their fingers trace these figures, as if riding on horses or going to and fro (on foot), and this has led to the difficulty in explaining these marks.¹²⁹

Ten li to the east of the saṅghārāma of Buddha’s tooth, between the crags of a mountain to the north,¹³⁰ is a small

¹²³ The śāstra composed by Seng-kia-p'o-lo (Saṅghabhadra), was called in the first instance Kiu-shc-polu, or “the śāstra which destroys the kāsha like hail” (karakā). This title was employed to denote the power of the treatise to overturn the Abhi-dharma-kāsha Śāstra composed by Vasubandhu. The title was afterwards changed by Vasubandhu himself to Nyāyānusāra Śāstra (Shu̍n-ching-li-lun). See Book iv. infra.
¹²⁹ That is, it seems, a range of mountains called the Northern Range.
saṅghārāma. In old days the great master of śāstras called So-kin-ta-lo (Skandhila) composed here the treatise called Chung-se-făn-pi-p'ó-sha.\footnote{131}

In the little convent is a stūpa of stone about 50 feet high, where are preserved the barītras of the bequeathed body of an Arhat.

In former times there was an Arhat whose bodily size was very great, and he eat and drank as an elephant. People said in raillery, "He knows well enough how to eat like a glutton, but what does he know of truth or error?" The Arhat, when about to pass to Nirvāṇa, addressing the people round him, said, "Not long hence I shall reach a condition of anāpadhisēna (without a remnant).\footnote{132} I wish to explain how I have attained to the excellent law."\footnote{133} The people hearing him again laughed together in ridicule. They all came together in an assembly to see him put to shame.\footnote{134} Then the Arhat spoke thus to the people: "I will tell you how, for your advantage, my previous conditions of life and the causes thereof. In my former birth I received, because of my desert, the body of an elephant, and I dwelt in Eastern India, in the stable of a king. At this time this country possessed a Shaman who went forth to wander through India in search of the holy doctrine of Buddha, the various sūtras and śāstras. Then the king gave me to the Shaman. I arrived in this country carrying on my back the books of Buddha. Not long after this I died suddenly. The merit I had obtained by carrying these sacred books eventuated in my being born as a man, and then again I died as a mortal.\footnote{135} But,


\footnote{132} Wu-ju-ni-pan, that is, a condition of freedom from the skandhas. Childers (Pāli Dict., p. 526). It means perfect or complete Nirvāṇa. See below, note 135.

\footnote{133} I wish to relate the steps (groundwork) by which this body (i.e., I myself) arrived at this excellent condition, or law.

\footnote{134} Julien regards this phrase (teh shih) as equivalent to "success or non-success." It seems, however, more agreeable to the context to translate it as here—to see him "get lost," i.e., disgraced.

\footnote{135} I died "with remains;" that is, I died, but was destined to be re-
thanks to the merit I possessed, I soon (was born in the same condition, and) assumed the coloured clothes of a hermit. I diligently set after the means of putting off (the shackles of existence), and gave myself no repose. Thus I obtained the six supernatural powers and cut off my connection with the three worlds. However, when I eat I have preserved my old habits, but every day I moderate my appetite, and only take one-third of what my body requires as nourishment.” Although he thus spoke, men were still incredulous. Forthwith he ascended into the air and entered on the Samâdhi called the brilliancy of flame. From his body proceeded smoke and fire, and thus he entered Nirvâna; his remains (bones) fell to the earth, and they raised a stûpa over them.

Going north-west 200 li or so of the royal city, we come to the saṅghârâma called “Mai-lin.” It was here the master of śastras called Pûrṇa composed a commentary on the Vîbhâsha Śāstra.

To the west of the city 140 or 150 li there is a great river, on the borders of which, to the north, resting on the southern slope of a mountain, is a saṅghârâma belonging to the Mahâsaṅghika (Ta-chong-pu) school, with about 100 priests. It was here in old time that Fo-tî-la (Bôdhâhila), a master of śastras, composed the treatise Tsîh-chin-lun.

From this going south-west, and crossing some mountains and traversing many precipices, going 700 li or so, we come to the country Pun-nu-tso (Punach).

Born, not having got rid of the śāndhas, or “conditions of individual existence.” In Note 132 above, we find just the opposite phrase, “Wou yu,” i.e., “without remains.” Julien has omitted this passage.

This kind of miracle is frequently named in Buddhist books. See Fo-sho-kiong-ten-kiong, v. 1353 ff.

I adopt mai-lin from Julien. In my text the symbol appears to be sheng, but there may be a misprint.

Julien doubtfully restores mai-lin to Vikritavana.

In Chinese, Yuen-mun.

I have adopted this restoration from Julien. The Chinese symbols might also be restored to Buddhatar.

The Tsîh-chin-lun is restored by Julien doubtfully to Tattva-saṅgheya Śāstra. This treatise belonged to the Mahâsaṅghika collection.
Pun-nu-tso [Punach].

This kingdom is about 2000 li in circuit, with many mountains and river-courses, so that the arable land is very contracted. The seed is sown, however, at regular intervals, and there are a quantity of flowers and fruits. There are many sugar-canes, but no grapes. Amalas, Udumbaras, Môchas, &c., flourish, and are grown in large quantities like woods; they are prized on account of their taste. The climate is warm and damp. The people are brave. They wear ordinarily cotton clothing. The disposition of the people is true and upright; they are Buddhists. There are five saṅghārāmas, mostly deserted. There is no independent ruler, the country being tributary to Kāśmir. To the north of the chief town is a saṅghārāma with a few priests. Here there is a stūpa which is celebrated for its miracles.

Going south-east from this 400 li or so, we come to the kingdom of Ho-lo-she-pu-lo (Rālapuri).

Ho-lo-she-pu-lo [Rālapuri].

This kingdom is about 4000 li in circuit; the capital town is about 10 li round. It is naturally very strong, with many mountains, hills, and river-courses, which cause the arable land to be contracted. The produce therefore is small. The climate and the fruits of the soil are like those of Pun-nu-tso. The people are quick and hasty; the country has no independent ruler, but is subject to Kāśmir. There are ten saṅghārāmas, with a very small number of priests. There is one temple of Dēvas, with an enormous number of unbelievers.

141 Punacha, or Punach, is described by Cunningham (Anc. Geog., 128) as a small state, called Punata by the Kāśmiris, bounded on the west by the Jhelam, on the north by the Pir Pańchál range, and on the east and south-east by the small state of Rājauri.

142 An-mo-lo is Myrobalan emblòca, and Men-che, the plantain.

143 They have faith in the three gêma.

144 Identified by Cunningham with the petty chiefship of Rājauri or Rālapuri, south of Kāśmir, and south-east of Punach (op. cit., p. 129).
From the country of Lau-po till this, the men are of a coarse appearance, their disposition fierce and passionate, their language vulgar and uncultivated, with scarce any manners or refinement. They do not properly belong to India, but are frontier people, with barbarous habits.

Going south-east from this, descending the mountains and crossing a river, after 700 li we come to the kingdom of Tsih-kia (Takka).

END OF BOOK III.
BOOK IV.

Relates to fifteen countries, viz., (1) Tseh-kia; (2) Chi-na-po-ti; (3) Che-lan-t'o-lo; (4) K'iu-lu-lo; (5) She-to-t'u-lo; (6) Po-li-ye-to-lo; (7) Mo-t'u-lo; (8) Sa-t'a-ni-shi-sa-lo; (9) Su-lo-kin-na; (10) Mo-ti-pu-lo; (11) Po-lo-ki-mo-pu-lo; (12) Kiu-pi-shwong-na; (13) O-hi-chi-ta-lo; (14) Pi-lo-shan-na; (15) Kie-pi-ta.

I. KINGDOM OF TSEH-KIA (TAKKA).

This kingdom is about 10,000 li in circuit. On the east it borders on the river Pi-po-che (Vipāśa); on the west it borders on the Sin-tu river. The capital of the country is about 20 li in circuit. The soil is suitable for rice and produces much late-sown corn. It also produces gold,

1 Takkadēsa, the country of the Bāhikas, is named in the Rāja-taraṇīya (v. 150), and said to be a part of the kingdom of Gurjjarā, which Rāja Alakāna was obligeed to cede to Kāsmīr between the years 883 a.d. and 901 a.d. (Cunningham, Geog., 149). The Takkas were a powerful tribe living near the Chenāb, and were at one time the undisputed lords of the Panjāb. The kingdom of Tāh-kia is probably, therefore, that of the Takkas. Asiat. Res., vol. xv. pp. 103 f.; Lassen, I. a., vol. i. p. 973. Julien restores it to Tchēkā. It seems that Hiuen Tsang kept to the south-west from Rājapuri, and crossed the Chenāb after two days' march near the small town of Jammu or Jambu (perhaps the Jayapura of Hwui-lih), and then pressed on the next day to the town of Sākala, where he arrived the day after. The distance would thus be about 700 li, or 140 miles (Cunningham's Anc. Geog., map vi., compared with Elphinston's map (India); on this last map the trade route is so marked). In the translation of Hwui-lih, M. Julien has made the distance from Rājapuri to Tchēkā to be 200 li (p. 96); it should be 700 li, as in the original. He has also translated how jīh by to-morrow (lendemain), instead of the day after the morrow.

2 The Vipāśa or Vipāt, the Biyas river, the most eastern of the five rivers of the Panjāb, the Hyphasis ("Țpasa") of Arrian (Anab., lib. vi. c. 8, Ind., cc. 2, 3, 4; Diodorus, lib. xvii. c. 93). Pliny (lib. vii. c. 17, 21) and Curtius (lib. ix. c. 1) call it Hypasis, and Ptolemy (lib. vii. c. i. 26, 27) has Būsās, while Strabo has "Țpaux. It rises in the Himālaya, and, after a course of about 220 miles, joins the Satlaj south-east of Ampītsār.
silver, the stone called teou, copper and iron. The climate is very warm, and the land is subject to hurricanes. The people are quick and violent, their language coarse and uncultivated. For clothing they wear a very shining white fabric which they call kiau-che-ye (Kauśīya, silk), and also morning-red cloth (chau hia), and other kinds. Few of them believe in Buddha; many sacrifice to the heavenly spirits (Dīvas and spirits). There are about ten saṅghārāmas and some hundreds of temples. There were formerly in this country many houses of charity (goodness or happiness—Paṇyasālās) for keeping the poor and the unfortunate. They provided for them medicine and food, clothing and necessaries; so that travellers were never badly off.

To the south-west of the capital about 14 or 15 li we come to the old town of Šākala (She-kie-lo). Although

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1 The teou-shih, of which such frequent mention is made by Huien Tsang, is said to be a compound of equal parts of copper and calamine (silicate of zinc). See Julien in loc., n. 2. Medhurst (Dict. s. v.) calls it “native copper.”

2 The chau-hia robe. This may mean either court-red or morning-red; it may refer to its colour, but more probably to its lightness. We should have expected a phonetic combination in this name, as in the preceding, viz., Kaushīya, but chau-hia has no phonetic value, although it might be compared with the Sanskrit sūkhāma.

3 Šākala. Pānini (IV. 2. 75) has Šākala, the Śāyāla of Arrian (Anab. Alex. lib. v. c. 22), and probably the same place as Ptolemy (lib. vii. c. 1. 46) designates by Śāyāla y kal Eθθθvμia. Šākala occurs in the Mahābhārata (i. 1196, viii. 2033) as the capital of the Madras. Burnouf, Intro., pp. 559 f.; Ind. Ant., vol. i. pp. 22 f.; Wilson, Ariana Ant., pp. 196 f.; As. Res., vol. xv. pp. 107 f.; J. A. S. Beng., vol. vi. pp. 57 f.; Lassen, Zeitach. f. d. K. d. Mory., vol. i. p. 353, vol. iii. pp. 154 f., 212; Ind. Alt., vol. i. p. 301. Šākala has been identified by General Cunningham with Sānglawāla-Tiba, to the west of the Rāvī (Anc. Geog. of India, p. 180). The capital of the country is not named by Huien Tsang. It appears from Hwui-lih that the pilgrim went straight to Šākala, and did not visit the capital. He places it 14 or 15 li to the north-east of Šākala. Although the route taken is differently described in “the Life” and in the Si-yu-ki, yet in the main it is sufficiently clear. After leaving Rājapurī the pilgrim travels south-west for two days, and, crossing the Che-nāb, he lodged for one night in a temple belonging to the heretics just outside Jayapura. The second day after leaving this town (direction not given) he arrived at Šākala. Proceeding a little way to the eastward of a town called Narasamiha (the situation of which is not given, but was probably a short distance east of Šākala), he was robbed by brigands and lodged in a neighbouring village; starting from which on the next day, he passed the frontiers of the kingdom of Takka, and reached a large town with many thousand
its walls are thrown down, the foundations are still firm and strong. It is about 20 li in circuit. In the midst of it they have built a little town of about 6 or 7 li in circuit; the inhabitants are prosperous and rich. This was the old capital of the country. Some centuries ago there was a king called Mo-hi-lo-kiu-lo (Mahirakula), who established his authority in this town and ruled over India. He was of quick talent, and naturally brave. He subdued all the neighbouring provinces without exception. In his intervals of leisure he desired to examine the law of Buddha, and he commanded that one among the priests of superior talent should wait on him. Now it happened that none of the priests dared to attend to his command. Those who had few desires and were content, did not care about distinction; those of superior learning and high renown despised the royal bounty (glitter). At this time there was an old servant in the king's household who had long worn the religious garments. He was of distinguished ability and able to enter on discussion, and was very eloquent. The priests put him forward in answer to the royal appeal. The king said, "I have a respect for the law of Buddha, and I inhabitions. This was probably Labor, the old Lohawar (the Ravil was evidently the boundary de facto of Takka). He remained here one month, and then proceeding eastward, he arrived at the capital of a country Chinapati, 500 li from Sakala. This was probably the large old town of Patti, 10 miles to the west of the Biyas river. About 10 miles south-west of this (the Si-yuki has 500 li by mistake for 50) was a monastery; this would place us at the point of the confluence of the Biyas and Satlaj rivers. The question to be settled is whether at this point there is a mountain or a hill round which for a distance of 20 li monasteries and stupas could be grouped. General Cunningham speaks of this neighbourhood as constituting the sandy bed of the Biyas river (op. cit., p. 201). But, at any rate, such a situation agrees with the next measurement of 140 or 150 li to Jalandhar. We should thus have a total of 660 li (132 miles) eastward from Sakala to Jalandhara, which is as nearly as possible correct as projected on General Cunningham's map (op. cit. No. vi.)

6 For Mahirakula, see ante, Book iii. n. 1. The interpretation of the name is given by the Chinese editor as Tu-tso, i.e., "great tribe or family;" but makira or makiya signifies "the sun;" it should therefore be "the family of the sun."

7 The kingdoms of the neighbouring districts all submitted to him.

8 Or "eminent virtue;" but tik (virtue) refers to general gifts or endowments,
invited from far any renowned priest (to come and instruct me), and now the congregation have put forward this servant to discuss with me. I always thought that amongst the priests there were men of illustrious ability; after what has happened to-day what further respect can I have for the priesthood?" He then issued an edict to destroy all the priests through the five Indies, to overthrow the law of Buddha, and leave nothing remaining.

Báláditya rāja, king of Magadha, profoundly honoured the law of Buddha and tenderly nourished his people. When he heard of the cruel persecution and atrocities of Mahirakula (Ta-tso), he strictly guarded the frontiers of his kingdom and refused to pay tribute. Then Mahirakula raised an army to punish his rebellion. Báláditya rāja, knowing his renown, said to his ministers, "I hear that these thieves are coming, and I cannot fight with them (their troops); by the permission of my ministers I will conceal my poor person among the bushes of the morass."

Having said this, he departed from his palace and wandered through the mountains and deserts. Being very much beloved in his kingdom, his followers amounted to

9 Báláditya, explained by yeou jih, i.e., the young sun or the rising sun. Julien translates it too literally, "le soleil des enfants." Julien has observed and corrected the mistake in the note, where the symbol is seen for yeou. With respect to the date of Báláditya, who was contemporary with Mahirakula who put Simha, the twenty-third Buddhist patriarch, to death, we are told that he was a grandson of Buddhagupta (Hwui-lih, p. 150, Julien's trans.), and according to General Cunningham (Archaeolo. Survey, vol. ix, p. 21) Buddhagupta was reigning approximately A.D. 349, and his silver coins extend his reign to A.D. 368. His son was Tathāgatagupta, and his successor was Báláditya. Allowing fifty years for these reigns, we arrive at 430 A.D. for the end, probably, of Báláditya's reign. This, of course, depends on the initial date of the Gupta period; if it is placed, as Dr. Oldenberg (Ind. Antiq., vol. x, p. 321) suggests, A.D. 319, then the reign of Buddhagupta will have to be brought down 125 years later, and he would be reigning 493 A.D.; in this case Báláditya would be on the throne too late for the date of Simha, who was certainly many years before Buddhism (the twenty-eighth patriarch), who reached China A.D. 520. The earlier date harmonises with the Chinese records, which state that a life of Vasubandhu, the twenty-first patriarch, was written by Ku-mārajīva A.D. 409, and also that a history of the patriarchs down to Simha, whom we place hypothetically about 420 A.D., was translated in China A.D. 472; both these statements are possible if the date proposed be given to Báláditya.
many myriads, who fled with him and hid themselves in the islands\textsuperscript{10} of the sea.

Mahirakula-rāja, committing the army to his younger brother, himself embarked on the sea to go attack Bālāditya. The king guarding the narrow passes, whilst the light cavalry were out to provoke the enemy to fight, sounded the golden drum, and his soldiers suddenly rose on every side and took Mahirakula alive as captive, and brought him into the presence (of Bālāditya).

The king Mahirakula being overcome with shame at his defeat, covered his face with his robe. Bālāditya sitting on his throne with his ministers round him, ordered one of them to tell the king to uncover himself as he wished to speak with him.

Mahirakula answered, “The subject and the master have changed places; that enemies should look on one another is useless; and what advantage is there in seeing my face during conversation?”

Having given the order three times with no success, the king then ordered his crimes to be published, and said, “The field of religious merit connected with the three precious objects of reverence is a public\textsuperscript{11} blessing; but this you have overturned and destroyed like a wild beast. Your religious merit is over, and unprotected by fortune you are my prisoner. Your crimes admit of no extenuation and you must die.”

At this time the mother of Bālāditya was of wide celebrity on account of her vigorous intellect and her skill in casting horoscopes. Hearing that they were going to kill Mahirakula, she addressed Bālāditya-rāja and said, “I have understood that Mahirakula is of remarkable beauty and vast wisdom. I should like to see him once.”

Bālāditya-rāja (Yeou-jih) ordered them to bring in Mahirakula to the presence of his mother in her palace. Then she said, “Alas! Mahirakula, be not ashamed! Worldly

\textsuperscript{10} It may be translated, “an island of the sea.”
\textsuperscript{11} Belonging to the world or creatures born in the world.
things are impermanent; success and discomfiture follow one another according to circumstances. I regard myself as your mother and you as my son; remove the covering from your face and speak to me."

Mahirakula said, "A little while ago I was prince of a victorious country, now I am a prisoner condemned to death. I have lost my kingly estate and I am unable to offer my religious services; 12 I am ashamed in the presence of my ancestors and of my people. In very truth I am ashamed before all, whether before heaven or earth. I find no deliverance. 13 Therefore I hide my face with my mantle." The mother of the king said, "Prosperity or the opposite depends on the occasion; gain and loss come in turn. If you give way to events (things), you are lost; but if you rise above circumstances, though you fall, you may rise again. Believe me, the result of deeds depends on the occasion. Lift the covering from your face and speak with me. I may perhaps save your life."

Mahirakula, thanking her, said, "I have inherited a kingdom without having the necessary talent for government, and so I have abused the royal power in inflicting punishment; for this reason I have lost my kingdom. But though I am in chains, yet I desire life if only for a day. Let me then thank you with uncovered face for your offer of safety." Whereupon he removed his mantle and showed his face. The king's mother said, "My son is well-favoured; 14 he will die after his years are accomplished." Then she said to Bāladitya, "In agreement with former regulations, it is right to forgive crime and to love to give life. Although Mahirakula has long accumulated sinful actions, yet his remnant of merit is not altogether exhausted. If you kill this man, for twelve

12 The ancestral sacrifices.
13 Perhaps a better translation would be: "In truth I am ashamed; whether I cast my eyes downward or upward, in heaven or earth I am unable to find deliverance."
14 This is an obscure sentence; Julien translates it "have a care for yourself; you must accomplish the term of your life."
years you will see him with his pale face before you. I gather from his air that he will be the king of a small country; let him rule over some small kingdom in the north."

Then Bālāditya-rāja, obeying his dear mother’s command, had pity on the prince bereft of his kingdom; gave him in marriage to a young maiden and treated him with extreme courtesy. Then he assembled the troops he had left and added a guard to escort him from the island.

Mahirakula-rāja’s brother having gone back, established himself in the kingdom. Mahirakula having lost his royal estate, concealed himself in the isles and deserts; and going northwards to Kaśmir, he sought there an asylum. The king of Kaśmir received him with honour, and moved with pity for his loss, gave him a small territory and a town to govern. After some years he stirred up the people of the town to rebellion, and killed the king of Kaśmir and placed himself on the throne. Profiting by this victory and the renown it got him, he went to the west, plotting against the kingdom of Gandhāra. He set some soldiers in ambush and took and killed the king. He exterminated the royal family and the chief minister, overthrew the stūpas, destroyed the saṅghārāmas, altogether one thousand six hundred foundations. Besides those whom his soldiers had killed there were nine hundred thousand whom he was about to destroy without leaving one. At this time all the ministers addressed him and said, “Great king! your prowess has gained a great victory, and our soldiers are no longer engaged in conflict. Now that you have punished the chief, why would you charge the poor people with fault? Let us, insignificant as we are, die in their stead.”

The king said, “You believe in the law of Buddha and greatly reverence the mysterious law of merit. Your aim is to arrive at the condition of Buddha, and then you will declare fully, under the form of Jātakas, my evil

\[\text{That is to say, when they had arrived at the condition of omniscience they would in future ages declare how Mahirakula was suffering}\]
deeds, for the good of future generations. Now go back to your estates, and say no more on the subject."

Then he slew three ten myriads of people of the first rank by the side of the Sin-tu river; the same number of the middle rank he drowned in the river, and the same number of the third rank he divided among his soldiers (as slaves). Then he took the wealth of the country he had destroyed, assembled his troops, and returned. But before the year was out he died. At the time of his death there was thunder and hail and a thick darkness; the earth shook and a mighty tempest raged. Then the holy saints said in pity, "For having killed countless victims and overthrown the law of Buddha, he has now fallen into the lowest hell, where he shall pass endless ages of revolution."

In the old town of Śâkala (She-ki-lo) is a saṅghārāma with about 100 priests, who study the Little Vehicle. In old days Vasubandhu (Shi-t'sin) Bodhisattva composed in this place the treatise called Shing-i-tai (Paramārthasatya Śāstra).

By the side of the convent is a stūpa about 200 feet high; on this spot the four former Buddhas preached the law, and here again are the traces of their walking to and fro (king-hing).

To the north-west of the saṅghārāma 5 or 6 li is a stūpa about 200 feet high built by Asoka-raja. Here also the four past Buddhas preached.

About 10 li to the north-east of the new capital we come to a stūpa of stone about 200 feet in height, built by Asoka. This is where Tathāgata, when he was going under some form of birth or other, in consequence of his evil deeds. This was one of the methods of Buddha's teaching.

The expression ten lo means "to wither away like a falling leaf."

The lowest hell is the Wu-kantii-yuh, the hell without interval (avichi), i.e., without interval of rest, a place of incessant torment. It is the lowest of the places of torment. See Catena of Buddhist Scriptures, p. 59.

This may also mean that his torments even then, i.e., after this punishment, would not be finished. The Buddhist idea of the suffering in Avichi was not connected with its eternal duration. See Eitel, Handbook, sub voc.
northward on his work of conversion, stopped in the middle of the road. In the records of India (In-tu-ki) it is said, "In this stūpa are many relics; on holidays they emit a bright light."

From this going east 500 li or so, we come to China-po-ti (Chinapati) country.

**CHI-NA-PO-TI (CHINAPATI).**

This country is about 2000 li in circuit. The capital is about 14 or 15 li round. It produces abundant harvests; the fruit trees are thinly scattered. The people are contented and peaceful; the resources of the country are abundant. The climate is hot and humid; the people are timid and listless. They are given to promiscuous study, and there are amongst them believers and the contrary. There are ten saṅghārāmas and eight Dāva temples.

Formerly, when Kanishka-rāja was on the throne, his fame spread throughout the neighbouring countries, and his military power was recognised by all. The tributary princes to the west of the (Yellow) River, in recognition of his authority, sent hostages to him. Kanishka-rāja having received the hostages, he treated them with marked attention. During the three seasons of the year

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19 That is, from Śākala; not from the large city (Lahor) on the frontiers of Takka, as V. de St. Martin states (Mémoire, p. 330).

20 The country of Chinapati appears to have stretched from the Rāvi to the Satlaj. General Cunningham places the capital at Chint or Chinigari, 11 miles north of Amsīsar (Arch. Survey, vol. xiv. p. 54). This situation does not agree with the subsequent bearings and distances. It is, for example, some 60 miles (300 li) north-west from Sultānpur (Tāmasavāna) instead of 10 miles (50 li): moreover, Jalañdhara bears south-east from Chint instead of north-east, and the distance is nearly 70 miles instead of 28 or 30. The situation of the large and very old town called Patti or Pati, 10 miles to the west of the Biyas river and 27 to the north-east of Kasūr, appears to suit the measurements and bearings as nearly as possible (Anc. Geog. Ind., p. 200). It is unfortunate, however, that the distances in General Cunningham’s maps in the Anc. Geog. of Ind., and the volume of the Arch. Survey do not agree.

21 Literally, sowing and reaping are rich and productive.

22 I translate it thus after Julien, as there is some obscurity in the text. It might, perhaps, be rendered “the united tribes of the Fan people.” The Fan were Tibetans or associated tribes.
he appointed them separate establishments, and afforded them special guards of troops.23 This country was the residence of the hostages during the winter. This is the reason why it is called Chinapati,24 after the name of the residence of the hostages.

There existed neither pear nor peach in this kingdom and throughout the Indies until the hostages planted them, and therefore the peach is called Chínání, and the pear is called Chínarájaputra.25 For this reason the men of this country have a profound respect for the Eastern land. Moreover (when they saw me) they pointed with their fingers, and said one to another, "This man is a native of the country of our former ruler.26

To the south-east of the capital 500 li or so, we come to the convent called Ta-mo-su-fa-na (dark forest, i.e., Tāmasavana). There are about 300 priests in it, who study the doctrine of the Sarvāstivāda school. They (the congregation) have a dignified address, and are of conspicuous virtue and pure life. They are deeply versed in the teaching of the Little Vehicle. The 1000 Buddhas of the Bhadrakalpa will explain, in this country, to the assembly of the Dèvas the principles of the excellent law.

Three hundred years after the Nirvāṇa of Buddha the

23 Literally, "four soldiers stood on guard," i.e., they had four soldiers outside their quarters to protect them.
24 Rendered in a note "Tangfung, i.e., "lord of China;" this seems to show that Páti is the right restoration of po-tí (compare Cunningham, Arch. Surv. of India, vol. xiv. p. 54). The fact of the name China being given to this country on account of the hostages confirms the restoration of Charaka to Serika, ante, Book i. p. 57, n. 203.
25 Cunningham remarks that there can be no doubt of the introduction of the China peach, as in the northwest of India it is still known by that name (op. cit., p. 54).
26 That is, of Kanishka and his associates. They belonged to the Gushán tribe of the Yüé-chí, who came originally from the borders of China. See ante, p. 56, n. 200.
27 In the life of Huien Tsang by Hwui-lih, the distance given from the capital of Chinapati to the convent of "the dark forest" is 50 li (Book ii. p. 102, Julien's translation). This is probably the correct distance: the 500 li in the text is an error of the copyist. The convent is fixed by General Cunningham at Sultankpur or Dalla Sultankpur. It is one of the largest towns in the Jàlàndhara Doab (op. cit., p. 55).
master of śāstras called Kātyāyana composed here the Fa-chi-lun (Abhidharmajñāna-prasthāna Śāstra). In the convent of the dark forest there is a stūpa about 200 feet high, which was erected by Aśoka-rāja. By its side are traces of the four past Buddhas, where they sat and walked. There is a succession of little stūpas and large stone houses facing one another, of an uncertain number; here, from the beginning of the kalpa till now, saints who have obtained the fruit (of Arhats) have reached Nirvāṇa. To cite all would be difficult. Their teeth and bones still remain. The convents gird the mountain for about 20 li in circuit, and the stūpas containing relics of Buddha are hundreds and thousands in number; they are crowded together, so that one overshadows the other.

Going north-east from this country, 140 or 150 li, we come to the country of Che-lan-ta-lo (Jālandhara).

CHE-LAN-T'O-LO (JĀLANḌHARA).

This kingdom is about 1000 li from east to west, and about 800 li from north to south. The capital is 12 or 13 li in circuit. The land is favourable for the cultiva-

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28 This work was translated into Chinese by Sañghadēva and another in A.D. 383. Another translation was made by Hiuen Tsiang A.D. 657. If the usual date of Buddha's Nirvāṇa be adopted (viz., 400 years before Kanishka), Kātyāyana would have flourished in the first century or about 20 B.C. See Weber, Sansk. Liter., p. 222. His work was the foundation of the Abhidharmamahāvibhāśa Śāstra, composed during the council under Kanishka. (See Bunyin Nancio, Catalogue of Buddhist Tripit., No. 1263).

29 There is probably a false reading in the text, either (1) Shan, a mountain, is a mistake for saṅg, which would give us saṅg-kia-lan, “saṅghārāma,” instead of kia-lan, or else (2) shan is for yan, a very common misprint. In the first case the translation would then be “the teeth and bones still exist around the saṅghārāma;” or, if the second reading be adopted, the rendering would be “the teeth and bones still exist all round, from (you) the kia-lan, for a circuit of 20 li,” &c. Perhaps the first correction is preferable. I am satisfied the reading, as it is, is corrupt.

30 Jālandhara, a well-known place in the Panjāb (lat. 31° 19' N., long. 75° 28' E.) We may therefore safely reckon from it in testing Hiuen Tsiang's figures. From Sultānpur to Jālandhara is as nearly as possible 50 miles north-east. Hiuen Tsiang gives 150 or 140 li in the same direction. Assuming the capital of Chinapati to be 50 li north-west of Sultānpur, that distance and bearing would place us on the right bank of the Biyās river, near the old town of Patti.
tion of cereals, and it produces much rice. The forests are thick and umbrageous, fruits and flowers abundant. The climate is warm and moist, the people brave and impetuous, but their appearance is common and rustic. The houses are rich and well supplied. There are fifty convents, or so; about 2000 priests. They have students both of the Great and Little Vehicle. There are three temples of Dēvas and about 500 heretics, who all belong to the Pāśupatas (cinder-sprinkled).

A former king of this land showed great partiality for the heretics, but afterwards, having met with an Arhat and heard the law, he believed and understood it. Therefore the king of Mid-India, out of regard for his sincere faith, appointed him sole inspector of the affairs of religion (the three gems) throughout the five Indies. Making light of party distinctions (this or that), with no preference or dislike, he examined into the conduct of the priests, and probed their behaviour with wonderful sagacity. The virtuous and the well-reported of, he reverenced and openly rewarded; the disorderly he punished. Wherever there were traces of the holy one (or, ones), he built either stāpas or saṅghārāmas, and there was no place within the limits of India he did not visit and inspect.

Going north-east from this, skirting along some high mountain passes and traversing some deep valleys, follow-

Reckoning back to Śākala, the distance (Cunningham's Anc. Geog. Ind., map vi.) is just 100 miles north of west. Hiuen Tsang gives 500 li west. From this it seems that the computation of five li to the mile is, in this part of India at least, a safe one. For a full account of Jālandhara and its importance, see Cunningham (op. cit., pp. 137 ff.) It is sometimes stated that the council under Kanishka was held in the Jālandhara convent, that is, the Tāmasavāna Saṅghārāma (V. de St. Martin, Mémoire, p. 333 n.). The fact that Kātyāyana lived and wrote in this establish-

ment, and that the great work of the council was to write a commentary on his kāstra, would so far be in accord with the statement. Hiuen Tsang in his return journey was accompanied to Jālandhara by Udita, the king of North India, who made this his capital (Vie, p. 260). Shortly after this a Shaman, Yuan-chiu, from China stopped here four years, studying Sanskrit with the Mung king, perhaps the same Udita (J. R. A. S., N.S., vol. xiii. p. 563). The way through Kapiša was shortly after this time (664 a.d.) occupied by the Arabs (op. cit., p. 564).
ing a dangerous road, and crossing many ravines, going 700 li or so, we come to the country of K'iui-lu-to (Kulūta).

**K'iui-lu-to (Kulūta).**

This country is about 3000 li in circuit, and surrounded on every side by mountains. The chief town is about 14 or 15 li round. The land is rich and fertile, and the crops are duly sown and gathered. Flowers and fruits are abundant, and the plants and trees afford a rich vegetation. Being contiguous to the Snowy Mountains, there are found here many medicinal (roots) of much value. Gold, silver, and copper are found here—fire-drops (crystal) and native copper (teou). The climate is unusually cold, and hail or snow continually falls. The people are coarse and common in appearance, and are much afflicted with goitre and tumours. Their nature is hard and fierce; they greatly regard justice and bravery. There are about twenty saṅghārāmas, and 1000 priests or so. They mostly study the Great Vehicle; a few practise (the rules of) other schools (nikāyas). There are fifteen Dēva temples: different sects occupy them without distinction.

Along the precipitous sides of the mountains and hollowed into the rocks are stone chambers which face one another. Here the Arihats dwell or the Rishis stop.

In the middle of the country is a stūpa built by Asoka-rāja. Of old the Tathāgata came to this country with his followers to preach the law and to save men. This stūpa is a memorial of the traces of his presence.

Going north from this, along a road thick with dangers and precipices, about 1800 or 1900 li, along mountains and valleys, we come to the country of Lo-u-lo (Lahul).

North of this 2000 li or so, travelling by a road dan-
gerous and precipitous, where icy winds and flying snow (assault the traveller), we come to the country of Mo-lo-so (called also San-po-ho).33

Leaving the country of K’iu-lu-to and going south 700 li or so, passing a great mountain and crossing a wide river, we come to the country of She-to-t’u-lo (Satadru).

**She-to-t’u-lo (Satadru).**

This country34 is about 2000 li from east to west, and borders on a great river. The capital is 17 or 18 li in circuit. Cereals grow in abundance, and there is very much fruit. There is an abundance of gold and silver found here, and precious stones. For clothing the people wear a very bright silk stuff; their garments are elegant and rich. The climate is warm and moist. The manners of the people are soft and agreeable; the men are docile and virtuous. The high and low take their proper place. They all sincerely believe in the law of Buddha and show it great respect. Within and without the royal city there are ten saṅghārāmas, but the halls are now deserted and cold, and there are but few priests. To the south-east of the city 3 or 4 li is a stūpa about 200 feet high, which was built by Aśoka-rāja. Beside it are the traces where the four past Buddhas sat or walked.

Going again from this south-west about 800 li, we come to the kingdom of Po-li-ye-to-lo (Pāryātra).

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33 This country is also called San-po-ho (Sampaha?). — Ch. Ed. The suggestion of General Cunningham that Mo-lo-so should be read Marpo (Mo-lo-po, St. Martin, Mém., p. 331) is quite admissible. Mo-lo is equal to mar, and the symbol so is often mistaken for po. The province of Ladāk is called Mar-po, or the “red district,” from the colour of the soil. The distance given by Hsuen Tsang viz. 4600 li from Jālandhara, is no doubt much in excess of the straight route to Ladāk, but as he went no further than Kulūta himself, the other distances, viz., 1900 + 2000 li, must have been gathered from hearsay. Doubtless the route would be intricate and winding.

34 Satadru — also spelt Sutudri, Satudri, and Sitadrus, “flowing in a hundred branches”—the name of the Satlaj (Gerard’s Koonooyur, p. 28). It is the Hesidrus (or Hesudrus?) of Pliny (H. N., lib. vi. c. 17, 21) and the Ζαυαδήρος or Ζαυαδώρος of Ptolemy (lib. vii. c. 1. 27, 42). See Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. i. p. 57. It also appears to have been the name of a kingdom of which Sarhind was probably the chief town, referred to in the text.
PO-LI-YE-TO-LO (PÁRYĀTRA).

This country is about 3000 li in circuit, and the capital about 14 or 15 li. Grain is abundant and late wheat. There is a strange kind of rice grown here, which ripens after sixty days. There are many oxen and sheep, few flowers and fruits. The climate is warm and fiery, the manners of the people are resolute and fierce. They do not esteem learning, and are given to honour the heretics. The king is of the Vaiśya caste; he is of a brave and impetuous nature, and very warlike.

There are eight saṅghārāmas, mostly ruined, with a very few priests, who study the Little Vehicle. There are ten Dēva temples with about 1000 followers of different sects.

Going east from this 500 li or so, we come to the country of Mo-t'u-lo (Mathurā).

MO-T'U-LO (MATHURĀ).

The kingdom of Mo-t'u-lo is about 5000 li in circuit. The capital is 20 li round. The soil is rich and fertile, and fit for producing grain (sowing and reaping). They give principal care to the cultivation of 'An-mo-lo (trees),

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35 Páryātra is said in the next section to be 500 li (100 miles) west of Mathurā or Muttra. This would favour the restoration of the Chinese Po-li-ye-to-lo to Virāta or Bairāt. The distance and bearing from Sarhind, however, given in the text, do not agree with this. Bairāt is some 220 miles south of Sarhind.

36 Julien states (p. 205, n. 3) that this is a species of "dry rice" or "mountain rice," called Techen-k'ing-tao, which, according to a Chinese account, ripens in this period of time.

37 The people of Virāta were always famous for their valour; hence Mānu directs that the van of an army should be composed of men of Matsya or Virāta (amongst others). Cunningham, Anc. Geog. Ind., p. 341.

38 Mathurā, on the Yamunā, in the ancient Sūrāsenaka district, lat. 27° 28′ N., long. 77° 41′ E. For a description of the Buddhist remains discovered in the neighbourhood of this city, see Cunningham, Archæol. Surv. of India, vol. i. pp. 231 ff., and vol. iii. p. 13 ff.; Growse's Mathurā (2d ed.), pp. 95–116; Ind. Ant., vol. vi. pp. 216 f. It is the Mēthōpa of Arrēian (Ind., c. 8) and Pliny (H. N., lib. vi. c. 19, s. 22), and the Mēthōpa ḫw βθβωρ of Ptolemy (lib. vii. c. 4, 49). Conf. Lassen, I. A., vol. i. p. 158; Brth. Samh., iv. 26, xvi. 17; Pāṇini, iv. 2, 82; Burnouf, Intr., pp. 130, 336.
which grow in clusters like forests. These trees, though called by one name, are of two kinds; the small species, the fruit of which, when young, is green, and becomes yellow as it ripens; and the great species, the fruit of which is green throughout its growth.

This country produces a fine species of cotton fabric and also yellow gold. The climate is warm to a degree. The manners of the people are soft and complacent. They like to prepare secret stores of religious merit. They esteem virtue and honour learning.

There are about twenty saṅghārāmas with 2000 priests or so. They study equally the Great and the Little Vehicles. There are five Dēva temples, in which sectaries of all kinds live.

There are three stūpas built by Āsoka-rāja. There are very many traces of the four past Buddhas here. There are also stūpas to commemorate the remains of the holy followers of Sākya Tathāgata, to wit, of Śāriputra (She-li-tsen), of Mūdgalaputra (Mo-te-kia-lo-tseu), of Pāñnamaitra-yaṇiputra (Pu-la-na-meĩ-ta-li-yen-ni-to-ta-lo), of Upāli (Yeu-po-li), of Ānanda (O-nan-to), of Rāhula (Lo-hu-lo), of Mañjuśri (Man-chū-sse-li), and stūpas of other Bōdhisattvas. Every year during the three months in which long fasts are observed, and during the six fast-days of each month, the priests resort to these various stūpas and pay mutual compliments; they make their religious offerings, and bring many rare and precious objects for presents. According to their school they visit the sacred object (figure) of their veneration. Those who study the Abhidharma honour Śāriputra; those who practise meditation honour Mūdgalaputra; those who recite the sūtras honour Pāñnamai-

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39 I have translated the phrase ka-chin, “in clusters;” literally it would be “family clusters.” The Amala or Amalaka is a kind of Myrobalan, Emblica officinalis, Gaertn (Petersb. Dict.) or Phyllanthus emblica (Wilson).
40 Bequeathed traces;” not necessarily foot-marks, but any mark or trace.
41 The 1st, 5th, and 9th month—Julien.
trāvaniputra; those who study the Vinaya reverence Upāli. All the Bhikshunīs honour Ānanda, the Śrāmaneras honour Rāhula; those who study the Great Vehicle reverence the Boddhisattvas. On these days they honour the stūpas with offerings. They spread out (display) their jewelled banners; the rich (precious) coverings (parasols) are crowded together as network; the smoke of incense rises in clouds; and flowers are scattered in every direction like rain; the sun and the moon are concealed as by the clouds which hang over the moist valleys. The king of the country and the great ministers apply themselves to these religious duties with zeal.

To the east of the city about 5 or 6 li we come to a mountain saṅghārāma. The hill-sides are pierced (widened) to make cells (for the priests). We enter it.

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44 These not yet fully ordained; or, literally, those who have not yet taken on them all the rules, i.e., of the Prajñābhikshu. The Śrāmaneras, or young disciples (novices), are referred to; they are called anupasampanna, not fully ordained. See Childers’ Pali Dict. sub voc.
45 Literally, “prepare good (fruit) by their zeal (careful attention).”
46 This passage is obscure and unsatisfactory. In the first place, the bearing from the city must be wrong, as the river Jamā washes the eastern side of the city for its whole length. If west is substituted for east, we are told by General Cunningham (Arch. Survey of India, vol. iii. p. 28) that the Chaubāra mounds, about one mile and a half from the town in that direction, have no hollows such as Huien Tsang describes. If north be substituted for east, the Katrā mound is not a mile from the town. But in the second place, the Chinese text is obscure. I do not think we can translate yih shan kia lan—literally “one-mountain saṅghārāma”—by “a saṅghārāma situated on a mountain.” There is the same phrase used in connection with the Tāmasavāna convent (supra, p. 174). I have supposed that shan in that passage is a misprint. General Cunningham remarks (Arch. Survey, vol. xiv. p. 56), that Huien Tsang compares this monastery to a mountain: if this were so, the text would be intelligible; but I can find no such statement. If the text is not corrupt, the most satisfactory explanation I can offer is that the mounds which seem to abound in the neighbourhood of Mathurā (and also the high mound at Sultānpur) had been used by the early Buddhist priests as “mountain-convents,” that is, the mounds had been excavated, as the sides of mountains were, for dwelling-places. It is possible, also, to make yi shan a proper name for Ekaparvata; the passage would then read “5 or 6 li to the east of the city is the Ekaparvata monastery.”
47 The word used in the text (yin) favours another rendering, viz., “the valley being the gates.”
through a valley, as by gates. This was constructed by the honourable Upagupta. There is in it a stūpa containing the nail-parings of the Tathāgata.

To the north of the sanghārāma, in a cavern (or between two high banks), is a stone house about 20 feet high and 30 feet wide. It is filled with small wooden tokens (slips) four inches long. Here the honourable Upagupta preached; when he converted a man and wife, so that they both arrived at (confronted) the fruit of Arhatship, he placed one slip (in this house). He made no record of those who attained this condition if they belonged to different families or separate castes (tribes).

Twenty-four or five li to the south-east of the stone house there is a great dry marsh, by the side of which is a stūpa. In old days the Tathāgata walked to and fro in this place. At this time a monkey holding (a pot of) honey offered it to Buddha. Buddha hereupon ordered him to mingle it with water, and to distribute it everywhere among the great assembly. The monkey, filled

48 Upagupta (Yu-po-khu-to, in Chinese Kin-hu, and in Japanese Uvakikta), a Sūdra by birth, entered on a monastic life when seventeen years old, became an Arhat three years later, and conquered Māra in a personal contest. He laboured in Mathurā as the fourth patriarch. (Eitel, Handbook: s. voc.) The personal contest alluded to is related fully as an āvadāna by Āśvaghoṣa in his sermons. Māra found Upagupta lost in meditation, and placed a wreath of flowers on his head. On returning to consciousness, and finding himself thus crowned, he entered again into samādhi, to see who had done the deed. Finding it was Māra, he caused a dead body to fasten itself round Māra’s neck. No power in heaven or earth could disentangle it. Finally Māra returned to Upagupta, confessed his fault, and prayed him to free him from the corpse. Upagupta consented on condition that he (Māra) would exhibit himself under the form of Buddha "with all his marks." Māra does so, and Upagupta, overpowered by the magnificence of the (supposed) Buddha, falls down before him in worship. The tableau then closes amid a terrific storm. Upagupta is spoken of as "a Buddha without marks" (Ākṣajavāka Buddhahā).—Burnout, Intro., p. 336, n. 4. See also Fo-sho-hi-ku-tsang k'u, p. xii. He is not known to the Southern school of Buddhism. He is made a contemporary of Āśoka by the Northern school, and placed one hundred years after the Nirvāṇa. Conf. Edkins, Chin. Buddhism, pp. 67-70; Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. ii, p. 1201.

49 Literally, “four-inch wooden tokens fill up its interior." But according to another account (Wong pūh, § 177), the tokens or rods were used at the cremation of Upagupta.

50 Mr. Growse would identify this spot with Dambam mound near Sarai Jamālpur, "at some distance to the south-east of the katra, the tradi-
with joy, fell into a deep hole and was killed. By the power of his religious merit he obtained birth as a man.

To the north of the lake not very far, in the midst of a great wood, are the traces of the four former Buddhas walking to and fro. By the side are stūpas erected to commemorate the spots where Śāriputra, Mudgalaputra, and others, to the number of 1250 great Arhats, practised samādhi and left traces thereof. The Tathāgata, when in the world, often traversed this country preaching the law. On the places where he stopped there are monuments (trees or posts) with titles on them.

Going north-east 500 li or so, we come to the country of Sa-t’a-ni-shi-fa-lo (Sthānēśvara).

**SA-T’A-NI-SHI-FA-LO (STHĀNĒŚVARA).**

This kingdom is about 7000 li in circuit, the capital 20 li or so. The soil is rich and productive, and abounds with grain (cereals). The climate is genial, though hot. The manners of the people are cold and insincere. The families are rich and given to excessive luxury. They are much addicted to the use of magical arts, and greatly honour those of distinguished ability in other ways. Most of the people follow after worldly gain; a few give themselves to agricultural pursuits. There is a large accumulation here of rare and valuable merchandise from every quarter. There are three saṅghārāmas in this country, with about 700 priests. They all study (practise or use)

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21 The pilgrim probably left Mathurā and travelled back by his former route till he came to Hánsi, where he struck off in a north-west direction for about 100 miles to Thānēśvar or Sthānēśvara. This is one of the oldest and most celebrated places in India, on account of its connection with the Pandus. See Cunningham, *Anc. Geogr. of India*, p. 331; Lassen, *Ind. Alt.*, vol. i., p. 153, n.; Hall, *Vāsurānās*, p. 51.
the Little Vehicle. There are some hundred Déva temples, and sectaries of various kinds in great number.

On every side of the capital within a precinct of 200 li in circuit is an area called by the men of this place “the land of religious merit.” 32 This is what tradition states about it:—In old time there were two kings 58 of the five Indies, between whom the government was divided. They attacked one another’s frontiers, and never ceased fighting. At length the two kings came to the agreement that they should select on each side a certain number of soldiers to decide the question by combat, and so give the people rest. But the multitude rejected this plan, and would have none of it. Then the king (of this country) reflected that the people are difficult to please (to deal with). A miraculous power (a spirit) may perhaps move them (to action); some project (out-of-the-way plan) may perhaps settle (establish) them in some right course of action.

At this time there was a Brāhman of great wisdom and high talent. To him the king sent secretly a present of some rolls of silk, and requested him to retire within his after-hall (private apartment) and there compose a religious book which he might conceal in a mountain cavern. After some time, 54 when the trees had grown over (the mouth of the cavern), the king summoned his ministers before him as he sat on his royal throne, and said: “Ashamed of my little virtue in the high estate I occupy, the ruler of heaven 55 (or, of Dévas) has been pleased to reveal to me in a dream, and to confer upon me a divine book which is now concealed in such-and-such a mountain fastness and in such-and-such a rocky corner.”

32 This is also called the Dharma-kshêtra, or the “holy land”; and Kuru-kshêtra, from the number of holy places connected with the Kauravas and Pandavas, and with other heroes of antiquity. For some remarks on the probable extent of this district, see Anc. Geog. of India, p. 333; Arch. Surv. of India, vol. ii. pp. 212 ff., and vol. xiv. p. 100; Thom-
son, Bhagavad Gîtā, c. i. n. 2; Lassen, Ind. Alt., vol. i. p. 153.
33 That is, the king of the Kuru and of the Pândus. The struggle between these two families forms the subject of the great Sanskrit epic, the Mahâbhârata.
54 Some years and months after,
55 This is the general title given to Śakra or Indra, Sakradévânтра.
On this an edict was issued to search for this book, and it was found underneath the mountain bushes. The high ministers addressed their congratulations (to the king) and the people were overjoyed. The king then gave an account of the discovery to those far and near, and caused all to understand the matter; and this is the upshot of his message: "To birth and death there is no limit—no end to the revolutions of life. There is no rescue from the spiritual abyss (in which we are immersed). But now by a rare plan I am able to deliver men from this suffering. Around this royal city, for the space of 200 li in circuit, was the land of 'religious merit' for men, apportioned by the kings of old. Years having rolled away in great numbers, the traces have been forgotten or destroyed. Men not regarding spiritual indications (religion) have been immersed in the sea of sorrow without power of escape. What then is to be said? Let it be known (from the divine revelation given) that all those of you who shall attack the enemy's troops and die in battle, that they shall be born again as men; if they kill many, that, free from guilt, they shall receive heavenly joys. Those obedient grandchildren and pious children who assist (attend) their aged parents in walking about this land shall reap happiness (merit) without bounds. With little work, a great reward. Who would lose such an opportunity, (since,) when once dead, our bodies fall into the dark intricacies of the three evil ways? Therefore let every man stir himself to the utmost to prepare good works."

On this the men hastened to the conflict, and regarded death as deliverance. The king accordingly issued an

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56. This differs from Julien's version; the literal translation is: "many slain, guiltless, they shall receive the happiness of heaven as their reward (merit)." It seems to imply that if they shall be killed after slaying many of the enemy, they shall be born in heaven.

57. Or, "their relations and the aged." It is an obscure passage, but the allusion is probably to those who attend to the wounded or the bereaved.

58. There may be a reference to mourning for distant relatives, implying that this also shall be rewarded.

59. I.e., of hell, of famished demons, and of brutes.

60. The phrase ju kcei, "as re-
edict and summoned his braves. The two countries engaged in conflict, and the dead bodies were heaped together as sticks, and from that time till now the plains are everywhere covered with their bones. As this relates to a very remote period of time, the bones are very large ones. The constant tradition of the country, therefore, has called this "the field of religious merit" (or "happiness").

To the north-west of the city 4 or 5 li is a stūpa about 300 feet high, which was built by Asoka-rāja. The bricks are all of a yellowish red colour, very bright and shining, within is a peck measure of the relics of Buddha. From the stūpa is frequently emitted a brilliant light, and many spiritual prodigies exhibit themselves.

Going south of the city about 100 li, we come to a convent called Ku-hwān-ch’a (Gōkanṭha?). There are here a succession of towers with overlapping storeys with intervals between them for walking (pacing). The priests are virtuous and well-mannered, possessed of quiet dignity.

Going from this north-east 400 li or so, we come to the country of Su-lo-kin-na (Srughna).

**Su-lo-kin-na (Srughna).**

This country is about 6000 li in circuit. On the eastern side it borders on the Ganges river, on the north turned." has a meaning equal to our word "salvation" or "saved." The sentence appears to be interpolated.

There is a Vedic legend about Indra, who slew ninety times nine Vṛttras near this spot. The site of Asthipur, or "bone-town," is still pointed out in the plain to the west of the city.—Cunningham, Geog., p. 336; Arch. Surv., vol. ii. p. 219.

This may also be restored to Gōvinda.

Lin mànäg = connected ridgepoles (?).

Hiuen Tsiang reckons his distance from the capital as usual. The distance indicated from Sthānāsvara in a north-east direction would take us to Kālsi, in the Jaunsār district, on the east of Sirmur. Cunningham places Srughna at Sugh, a place about fifty miles north-east from the Gōkaṇṭha monastery. Hwui-lih makes the direction east instead of north-east. Srughna, north of Hāstinapura, is mentioned by Paññi (i. 3, 25; ii. 1, 14 schol.; iv. 3, 25, 86), and by Varāha Miḥira, Brdh. Saṁhit, xvi. 21). Conf. Hall’s Vāsaradattā, int. p. 51. It
it is backed by great mountains. The river Yamunā (Chen-mu-na) flows through its frontiers. The capital is about 20 li in circuit, and is bounded on the east by the river Yamunā. It is deserted, although its foundations are still very strong. As to produce of soil and character of climate, this country resembles the kingdom of Sa-t'ai-ni-shi-fa-lo (Sthānēśvara). The disposition of the people is sincere and truthful. They honour and have faith in heretical teaching, and they greatly esteem the pursuit of learning, but principally religious wisdom (or, the wisdom that brings happiness).

There are five saṅghārāmas with about 1000 priests; the greater number study the Little Vehicle; a few exercise themselves in other (exceptional) schools. They deliberate and discuss in appropriate language (choice words), and their clear discourses embody profound truth. Men of different regions of eminent skill discuss with them to satisfy their doubts. There are a hundred Dēva temples with very many sectaries (unbelievers).

To the south-west of the capital and west of the river Yamunā is a saṅghārama, outside the eastern gate of which is a stāpa built by Aśoka-rāja. The Tathāgata, when in the world in former days, preached the law in this place to convert men. By its side is another stāpa in which there are relics of the Tathāgata's hair and nails. Surrounding this on the right and left are stāpas enclosing the hair and nail relics of Sāriputra and of Mu-te-kia-lo (Maudgalyāyana) and other Arhats, several tens in number.

After Tathāgata had entered Nīrāṇa this country was the seat of heretical teaching. The faithful were per-
verted to false doctrine, and forsook the orthodox views. Now there are five saṅghārāmas in places where masters of treatises from different countries, holding controversies with the heretics and Brāhmaṇs, prevailed; they were erected on this account.

On the east of the Yamunā, going about 800 li, we come to the Ganges river. The source of the river (or the river at its source) is 3 or 4 li wide; flowing south-east, it enters the sea, where it is 10 li and more in width. The water of the river is blue, like the ocean, and its waves are wide-rolling as the sea. The scaly monsters, though many, do no harm to men. The taste of the water is sweet and pleasant, and sands of extreme fineness border its course. In the common history of the country this river is called Fo-shwui, the river of religious merit, which can wash away countless sins. Those who are weary of life, if they end their days in it, are borne to heaven and receive happiness. If a man dies and his bones are cast into the river, he cannot fall into an evil way; whilst he is carried by its waters and forgotten by men, his soul is preserved in safety on the other side (in the other world).

At a certain time there was a Boddhisattva of the island of Simhala (Chi-sse-tseu—Ceylon) called Dēva, who profoundly understood the relationship of truth and the nature of all composite things (fā). Moved with pity at

65 That is, Buddhist doctors or learned writers (writers of śāstras).
66 In Hwui-λή the text seems to require the route to be to the source of the Ganges. The distance of 800 li would favour this reading; but it is hard to understand how a river can be three or four li (three-quarters of a mile) wide at its source. See the accounts of Gaṅgalvārā, Gaṅgautri, or Gaṅgōtṛi, by Rennell, &c.
67 Hence the comparison so frequently met with in Buddhist books, "as numerous as the sands of the Ganges."
68 The Mahābhadrā.
69 Heaped-up sin, or although heaped up: I do not think Julien’s "quoiqu’on soit chargé de crimes" meets the sense of the original.
70 Or, all true relationship; the symbol siang corresponds with lak纱na; it might be translated, therefore, "all the marks of truth."
71 The symbol fā corresponds with dhārma, which has a wide meaning, as in the well-known text, ye dharmāḥ hītu-prabhava, &c.
the ignorance of men, he came to this country to guide and
direct the people in the right way. At this time the men
and women were all assembled with the young and old to-
gether on the banks of the river, whose waves rolled along
with impetuosity. Then Dēva Bōdhisattva composing his
supernatural appearance 72 bent his head and dispersed it
(the rays of his glory?) again 73—his appearance different
from that of other men. There was an unbeliever who said,
“What does my son in altering thus his appearance?” 74

Dēva Bōdhisattva answered: “My father, mother, and
relations dwell in the island of Ceylon. I fear lest they
may be suffering from hunger and thirst; I desire to
appease them from this distant spot.”

The heretic said: “You deceive yourself, my son; 75
have you no reflection to see how foolish such a thing is?
Your country is far off, and separated by mountains and
rivers of wide extent from this. To draw up this water
and scatter it in order to quench the thirst of those far
off, is like going backwards to seek a thing before you; it
is a way never heard of before.” Then Dēva Bōdhisattva
said: “If those who are kept for their sins in the dark
regions of evil can reap the benefit of the water, why
should it not reach those who are merely separated by
mountains and rivers?”

Then the heretics, in presence of the difficulty, confessed
themselves wrong, and, giving up their unbelief, received
the true law. Changing their evil ways, they reformed
themselves, and vowed to become his disciples. 76

72 His agreeable splendour, dipping up and drawing in.
73 This passage is obscure. Julian’s translation is as follows: “Dēva
Bōdhisattva softened the brightness of his figure and wished to draw
some water; but the moment he bent his head at that point the
water receded in streams (en jaillissait).” It may be so; or it may
refer to his miraculous appearance, drawing in and dispersing again the
brightness of his figure. The subsequent part of the narrative, however,
seems to denote that he “drew in” some water, and then scattered or
dispersed it.
74 Literally, “My son! why this
difficult, or wonderful (occurrence)?”
75 Or, “you deceive yourself, sir!”
76 The history of Dēva Bōdhisattva is somewhat confusing. We
know this much of him, that he was
a disciple of Nāgarjuna, and his suc-
After crossing the river and going along the eastern side of it, we come to the country of Ma-ti-pu-lo (Matipura).

MA-TI-PU-LO (MATIPURA).

This country is about 6000 li in circuit; the capital is about 20 li. The soil is favourable for the growth of cereals, and there are many flowers and kinds of fruit. The climate is soft and mild. The people are sincere and truthful. They very much reverence learning, and are deeply versed in the use of charms and magic. The followers of truth and error are equally divided. The king belongs to the caste of the Śūdras (Shu-t'o-lo). He is not a believer in the law of Buddha, but reverences and worships the spirits of heaven. There are about twenty saṅghārāmas, with 800 priests. They mostly study the Little Vehicle and belong to the school of Sarvāstivādas (Shwo-i-tsie-yau). There are some fifty Déva temples, in which men of different persuasions dwell promiscuously.

Four or five li to the south of the capital we come to a little saṅghārāma having about fifty priests in it. In old time the master of sāstras called Kiu-na-po-

cessor as fourteenth (or according to others, fifteenth) patriarch. He is called Kanadēva, because, according to Vassilieff (p. 219), he gave one of his eyes (kōna, “one-eyed”) to Mahāśēvara, but more probably because he bored out (kōna, “perforated”) the eye of Mahāśēvara. For this story see Wong Pūh, § 188 (J. R. A. S. Soc., vol. xx. p. 207), where the Chinese s'a-ho answers to kōna. See Edkins, Chin. Buddh., pp. 77-79; Lassen, J. A., vol. ii, p. 1204. He is also called Āryadēva. According to others he is the same as Chandrakrīttī (J. A. S. Ben., vol. vii. p. 144), but this cannot be the Chandrakrīttī who followed the teaching of Buddhāpālita (Vassilieff, p. 267), for Buddhāpālita composed commentaries on the works of Āryadēva (ibid.). It seems probable from the statement in the text that Déva was a native of Ceylon. B. Nanjio says not (Catalogue, col. 370); but if not he evidently dwelt there. He was the author of numerous works, for a list of which see B. Nanjio (loc. cit.) He probably flourished towards the middle or end of the first century A.D.

77 Matipura has been identified with Madāvar or Mundore, a large town in Western Rohilkand, near Bijnour (V. de St. Martin, Mémoire, p. 344; Cunningham, Anc. Geog. of India, p. 349). The people of this town were perhaps the Mathai of Megasthenes (Arrian, Indica, c. 4; Ind. Ant., vol. v. p. 332).

78 That is, the Buddhists and Brāhmaṇas, or other sectaries.
la-po (Guṇaprabha), composed in this convent the treatise called Pin-chin, and some hundred others. When young, this master of śāstras distinguished himself for his eminent talent, and when he grew up he stood alone in point of learning. He was well versed in knowledge of men (or things), was of sound understanding, full of learning, and widely celebrated. Originally he was brought up in the study of the Great Vehicle, but before he had penetrated its deep principles he had occasion to study the Viṃhāśā Śāstra, on which he withdrew from his former work and attached himself to the Little Vehicle. He composed several tens of treatises to overthrow the Great Vehicle, and thus became a zealous partisan of the Little Vehicle school. Moreover, he composed several tens of secular books opposing and criticising the writings of former renowned teachers. He widely studied the sacred books of Buddha, but yet, though he studied deeply for a long time, there were yet some ten difficulties which he could not overcome in this school.

At this time there was an Arhat called Dāvasena, who went once and again to the Tushita (Tu-shī-to) heaven. Guṇaprabha begged him to obtain for him an interview with Maitreyā in order to settle his doubts.

79 In Chinese, Tīh kwong, "the brightness of virtue, or good qualities."
80 Restored doubtfully by Julien to Tattra-vibhanga Śāstra (p. 220 n. 2), and by Eitel to Tattra-satya Śāstra (Handbook, sub voc. Guṇaprabha).
81 This expression, to-wan, may mean "celebrated," or it may refer to Guṇaprabha when a young disciple. It is a phrase applied to Ananda before he arrived at enlightenment (see Caṇeva of Buddhist Scrip., p. 289 and n. 2). It is also generally applied to Vaiśravana, as an explanation of his name "the celebrated" (compare ṛṇakṣātra); and it is very probable that the story found in Buddhist books of Vaiśravana's conversion and his consent to protect the Śrāvakas is simply the result of these names being derived from the same root, śru. The Chinese to-wan, when referred to a young disciple, is equal to the Sanskrit śikha, a learner (see Burnouf, Lotus, p. 295).
82 Ti-po-si-na, in Chinese Tiēkwan, army of the gods.
Dēvasēna, by his miraculous power, transported him to the heavenly palace. Having seen Maitrēya (Tse-shi) Guṇaprabha bowed low to him, but paid him no worship. On this Dēvasēna said, “Maitrēya Bōdhisattva holds the next place in becoming a Buddha, why are you so self-conceited as not to pay him supreme reverence? If you wish to receive benefit (building up, edification) from him, why do you not fall down?”

Guṇaprabha replied: “Reverend sir! this advice is honest, and intended to lead me to right amendment; but I am an ordained Bhikshu, and have left the world as a disciple, whereas this Maitrēya Bōdhisattva is enjoying heavenly beatitude, and is no associate for one who has become an ascetic. I was about to offer him worship, but I feared it would not be right.”

Bōdhisattva (Maitrēya) perceived that pride of self (āt-mamada) was bound up in his heart, so that he was not a vessel for instruction; and though he went and returned three times, he got no solution of his doubts. At length he begged Dēvasēna to take him again, and that he was ready to worship. But Dēvasēna, repelled by his pride of self, refused to answer him.

Guṇaprabha, not attaining his wish, was filled with hatred and resentment. He went forthwith into the desert apart, and practised the samādhi called fa-tung (opening intelligence); but because he had not put away the pride of self, he could obtain no fruit.

To the north of the saṅghārāma of Guṇaprabha about three or four li is a great convent with some 200 disciples in it, who study the Little Vehicle. This is where Saṅgha-bhadra (Chung-hin), master of śāstras, died. He was a native of Kasмир, and was possessed of great ability and vast penetration. As a young man he was singularly accomplished, and had mastered throughout the Viśhāshā Śāstra (Pi-po-sha-lun) of the Sarvāstivāda school.

At this time Vasubandhu Bōdhisattva was living. He was seeking to explain that which it is beyond the power
of words to convey by the mysterious method (way) of profound meditation. With a view to overthrow the propositions of the masters of the Vibhāšika school, he composed the Abhidharma-kōsha Šāstra. The form of his composition is clear and elegant, and his arguments are very subtle and lofty.

Saṅghabhadra having read this work, took his resolution accordingly. He devoted himself during twelve years to the most profound researches, and composed the Kin-she-pao-lun (Kōshakaraka Šāstra) in 25,000 ślokas, containing altogether 800,000 words. We may say that it is a work of the deepest research and most subtle principles. Addressing his disciples, he said, "Whilst I retire from sight, do you, distinguished disciples, take this my orthodox treatise and go attack Vasubandhu; break down his sharp-pointed arguments, and permit not this old man alone to assume the leading name."

Thereupon three or four of the most distinguished of his disciples took the treatise he had composed, and went in search of Vasubandhu. At this time he was in the country of Chēka, in the town of Šākala, his fame being spread far and wide. And now Saṅghabhadra was coming there; Vasubandhu having heard it, forthwith ordered (his disciples) to prepare for removal (dress for travel). His disciples having (cherishing) some doubts, the most eminent of them began to remonstrate with him, and said, "The high qualities of our great master transcend those of former men of note, and at the present day your wisdom is far spread and acknowledged by all. Why, then, on hearing the name of Saṅghabhadra are you so fearful?

63 Yā-sin, i.e., samādhi or dhyāna.
65 It will be seen that this translation differs from Julien's, but I think it is in agreement with the text and context.

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66 Saṅghabhadra could not have been the teacher of Vasubandhu, as Professor Max Müller thinks (India, pp. 303 f., 309, 312). He is probably the same as Saṅghadēsa, named by Vassilief (Bouddhisme, p. 206).
67 For Chēka, see above, Book iv. p. 165 ante.
and timid? We, your disciples, are indeed humbled thereat."

Vasubandhu answered, "I am going away not because I fear to meet this man (doctor), but because in this country there is no one of penetration enough to recognise the inferiority of Saṅghabhadra. He would only vilify me as if my old age were a fault. There would be no holding him to the śāstra, or in one word I could overthrow his vagaries. Let us draw him to Mid-India, and there, in the presence of the eminent and wise, let us examine into the matter, and determine what is true and what is false, and who should be pronounced the victor or the loser." Forthwith he ordered his disciples to pack up their books, and to remove far away.

The master of śāstras, Saṅghabhadra, the day after arriving at this convent, suddenly felt his powers of body (hi, vital spirits) fail him. On this he wrote a letter, and excused himself to Vasubandhu thus: "The Tathāgata having died, the different schools of his followers adopted and arranged their distinctive teaching; and each had its own disciples without hindrance. They favoured those of their own way of thinking; they rejected (persecuted) others. I, who possess but a weak understanding, unhappily inherited this custom from my predecessors, and coming to read your treatise called the Abhidharma-kōśa, written to overthrow the great principles of the masters of the Viññāna school, abruptly, without measuring my strength, after many years' study have produced this śāstra to uphold the teaching of the orthodox school. My wisdom indeed is little, my intentions great. My end is now approaching. If the Boddhisattva (Vasubandhu), in spreading abroad his subtle maxims and disseminating his profound reasonings, will vouchsafe not to overthrow my production, but will let it remain whole and entire for posterity, then I shall not regret my death."

88 It will be seen again that this translation differs materially from that of M. Julien.
Then, selecting from his followers one distinguished for his talents in speaking, he addressed him as follows: "I, who am but a scholar of poor ability, have aspired to surpass one of high natural talent. Wherefore, after my approaching death, do you take this letter which I have written, and my treatise also, and make my excuses to that Bōdhisattva, and assure him of my repentance."

After uttering these words he suddenly stopped, when one said, "He is dead!"

The disciple, taking the letter, went to the place where Vasubandhu was, and having come, he spoke thus: "My master, Saṅghabhadra, has died; and his last words are contained in this letter, in which he blames himself for his faults, and in excusing himself to you asks you not to destroy his good name so that it dare not face the world."

Vasubandhu Bōdhisattva, reading the letter and looking through the book, was for a time lost in thought. Then at length he addressed the disciple and said: "Saṅghabhadra, the writer of śāstras, was a clever and ingenious scholar (inferior scholar). His reasoning powers (li), indeed, were not deep (enough), but his diction is somewhat (to the point). If I had any desire to overthrow Saṅghabhadra's śāstra, I could do so as easily as I place my finger in my hand. As to his dying request made to me, I greatly respect the expression of the difficulty he acknowledges. But besides that, there is great reason why I should observe his last wish, for indeed this śāstra may illustrate the doctrines of my school, and accordingly I will only change its name and call it Shun-ching-li-lun (Nyāyānusāra Śāstra)."

The disciple remonstrating said, "Before Saṅghabhadra's death the great master (Vasubandhu) had removed far away; but now he has obtained the śāstra, he proposes

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59 Or it may be complimentary, his phraseology or composition is exceptionally elegant.

60 In full—'O-pi-ta-mo-shun-chan. It was translated into Chinese by Huen Tsiang himself. See Bunyiu Nanjio's Catalogue, No. 1265; Beal's Tripitaka, p. 80.
to change the title; how shall we (the disciples of Saṅghabhadra) be able to suffer such an affront?"

Vasubandhu Bōdhisattva, wishing to remove all doubts, said in reply by verse: "Though the lion-king retires afar off before the pig, nevertheless the wise will know which of the two is best in strength." 91

Saṅghabhadra having died, they burnt his body and collected his bones, and in a stūpa attached to the saṅghārāma, 200 paces or so to the north-west, in a wood of Āmra 92 (An-mo-lo) trees, they are yet visible.

Beside the Āmra wood is a stūpa in which are relics of the bequeathed body of the master of sāstras Vimalamitra (Pi-mo-lo-mi-to-lo). 93 This master of sāstras was a man of Kāśmir. He became a disciple and attached himself to the Sarvāstivāda school. He had read a multitude of sūtras and investigated various sāstras; he travelled through the five Indies and made himself acquainted with the mysterious literature of the three Piṭakas. Having established a name and accomplished his work, being about to retire to his own country, on his way he passed near the stūpa of Saṅghabhadra, the master of sāstras. Putting his hand (on it), 94 he sighed and said, "This master was truly distinguished, his views pure and eminent. After having spread abroad the great principles (of his faith), he purposed to overthrow those of other schools and lay firmly the fabric of his own. Why then should his fame not be eternal? I, Vimalamitra, foolish as I am, have received at various times the knowledge of the deep principles of his departed wisdom; his distinguished qualities have been cherished through successive generations. Vasubandhu, though dead, yet lives in the tradition of the school. That which I know so perfectly (ought to be preserved). I will write, then, such sāstras as will cause the learned men of Jamū udvipa to

91 From the Jātaka of the lion and the pig who rolled himself in filth. Fausboll, Ten Jātakas, p. 65.
92 In Chinese, Wou hau yau, "spotless friend."
93 Mango trees—Mangiferia indica.
94 "On his heart."—Julien.
forget the name of the Great Vehicle and destroy the fame of Vasubandhu. This will be an immortal work, and will be the accomplishment of my long-meditated design."

Having finished these words, his mind became confused and wild; his boastful tongue heavily protruded, whilst the hot blood flowed forth. Knowing that his end was approaching, he wrote the following letter to signify his repentance:—"The doctrines of the Great Vehicle in the law of Buddha contain the final principles. Its renown may fade, but its depth of reason is inscrutable. I foolishly dared to attack its distinguished teachers. The reward of my works is plain to all. It is for this I die. Let me address men of wisdom, who may learn from my example to guard well their thoughts, and not give way to the encouragement of doubts." Then the great earth shook again as he gave up life. In the place where he died the earth opened, and there was produced a great ditch. His disciples burnt his body, collected his bones, and raised over them (a stūpa)."

At this time there was an Arhat who, having witnessed his death, sighed and exclaimed, "What unhappiness! what suffering! To-day this master of śāstras yielding to his feelings and maintaining his own views, abusing the Great Vehicle, has fallen into the deepest hell (Avīchī)!"

On the north-west frontier of this country, on the eastern shore of the river Ganges, is the town of Moyu-lo; it is about 20 li in circuit. The inhabitants are very numerous. The pure streams of the river flow round it on every side; it produces native copper (teou shih), pure crystal, and precious vases. Not far from the town,

[26] The text has "five tongues;" possibly the symbol su, five, is for su, loquacious or bragging.
[27] This may also be rendered, "the masters who teach the doctrines of the Great Vehicle declare the final (highest) principles of the law of Buddha."
[28] There is no word for stūpa in the original.
[29] That is Mayāpura, or Haridwāra. It is now on the western bank of the Ganges. Julien makes it Mayura.
and standing by the Ganges river, is a great Déva temple, where very many miracles of divers sorts are wrought. In the midst of it is a tank, of which the borders are made of stone joined skilfully together. Through it the Ganges river is led by an artificial canal. The men of the five Indies call it “the gate of the Gaṅgā river.” 99 This is where religious merit is found and sin effaced. There are always hundreds and thousands of people gathered together here from distant quarters to bathe and wash in its waters. Benevolent kings have founded here “a house of merit” (Punyāśālā). This foundation is endowed with funds for providing choice food and medicines to bestow in charity on widows and bereaved persons, on orphans and the destitute.

Going north from this 300 li or so, we come to P’o-lo-hih-mo-pu-lo country (Brahmapura).

P’o-lo-hih-mo-pu-lo (Brahmapura).

This kingdom 100 is about 4000 li in circuit, and surrounded on all sides by mountains. The chief town is about 20 li round. It is thickly populated, and the householders are rich. The soil is rich and fertile; the lands are sown and reaped in their seasons. The country produces teou-shih (native copper) and rock crystal. The climate is rather cold; the people are hardy and uncultivated. Few of the people attend to literature—most of them are engaged in commerce.

The disposition of the men is of a savage kind. There are heretics mixed with believers in Buddha. There are five saṅghārāmas, which contain a few priests. There are ten Déva temples, in which persons of different opinions dwell together.

This country is bounded on the north by the great

99 Gaṅgādārā. The canal still exists; the present name, Hari-
dārā, means the gate of Hari or Vishnu; this is a comparatively modern name (Cunningham, p. 353).
100 Cunningham identifies Brahmapura with British Garhwal and Kumān (Anc. Geog. of India, p. 356).
Snowy Mountains, in the midst of which is the country called Su-fa-la-na-kiu-ta-lo (Suvarṇagōtra). 101 From this country comes a superior sort of gold, and hence the name. It is extended from east to west, and contracted from north to south. It is the same as the country of the "eastern women." 102 For ages a woman has been the ruler, and so it is called the kingdom of the women. The husband of the reigning woman is called king, but he knows nothing about the affairs of the state. The men manage the wars and sow the land, and that is all. The land produces winter wheat and much cattle, sheep, and horses. The climate is extremely cold (icy). The people are hasty and impetuous.

On the eastern side this country is bordered by the Fan kingdom (Tibet), on the west by San-po-ho (Sampaha or Malasa (?)), on the north by Khotan.

Going south-east from Ma-ti-pu-lo 400 li or so, we come to the country of Kiu-pi-shwong-na.

**KIU-PI-SHWONG-NA (GŌVišANA).**

This kingdom 103 is about 2000 li in circuit, and the capital about 14 or 15 li. It is naturally strong, being fenced in with crags and precipices. The population is numerous. We find on every side flowers, and groves, and lakes (ponds) succeeding each other in regular order. The climate and the products resemble those of Mo-ti-pu-lo. The manners of the people are pure and honest. They

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101 In Chinese Kiu-shi, "golden people." Below it is said that San-po-ho was limited on the west by Su-fa-la-na-kiu-to-lo (Suvarṇagōtra, called also the kingdom of women), which itself touched on the east the country of Tu-tan (Tibet), and on the north the kingdom of Yu-tien (Khotan). Suvarṇagōtra is here placed on the frontier of Brahmapura.

102 There is a country of the "western women" named by Huen Tsang in Book xi. See also Yule's *Marco Polo*, vol. ii. p. 397.

103 Julien restores this to Gōvišana. Cunningham is satisfied that the old fort near the village of Ujain represents the ancient city of Gōvišana. This village is just one mile to the east of Kāśipur. Hwu-lih does not mention this country, but reckons 400 li from Matipura to Ahikahetra in a south-easterly direction. This distance and bearing are nearly correct.
are diligent in study and given to good works. There are many believers in false doctrine, who seek present happiness only. There are two saṅghārāmas and about 100 priests, who mostly study the Little Vehicle. There are thirty Dēva temples with different sectaries, who congregate together without distinction.

Beside the chief town is an old saṅghārāma in which is a stūpa built by King Aśoka. It is about 200 feet high; here Buddha, when living, preached for a month on the most essential points of religion. By the side is a place where there are traces of the four past Buddhas, who sat and walked here. At the side of this place are two small stūpas containing the hair and nail-parings of Tathāgata. They are about 10 feet high.

Going from this south-east about 400 li, we come to the country of 'O-hi-chi-ta-lo (Ahikshētra).

'O-hi-chi-ta-lo (Ahikshētra).

This country\(^1\) is about 3000 li in circuit, and the capital about 17 or 18 li. It is naturally strong, being flanked by mountain crags. It produces wheat, and there are many woods and fountains. The climate is soft and agreeable, and the people sincere and truthful. They love religion, and apply themselves to learning. They are clever and well informed. There are about ten saṅghārāmas, and some 1000 priests who study the Little Vehicle of the Ching-liang school.\(^2\)

There are some nine Dēva temples with 300 sectaries. They sacrifice to Īśvara, and belong to the company of "ashes-sprinklers" (Pāṣupatās).

Outside the chief town is a Nāga tank, by the side of which is a stūpa built by Aśoka-rāja. It was here the

\(^1\) Ahikshētra, Ahikshatra, or Ahichchhatra, a place named in the Mahābhārata, i. 5515, 6348; Hari-ramā, 1114; Pāṇini, iii. 1, 7. It was the capital of North Pāṇčhāla or Kohikha. J. Lassen, ed. Alt., vol. i. p. 747; Wilson's Vīsh.-pur. (Hall's ed.), vol. ii. p. 161.

\(^2\) In the text wang is a mistake for ching, but the school is properly the Saṅmatiya school.
Tathāgata, when in the world, preached the law for the sake of a Nāga-rāja for seven days. By the side of it are four little stūpas; here are traces where, in days gone by, the four past Buddhas sat and walked.

From this going south 260 or 270 li, and crossing the Ganges river, proceeding then in a south-west direction, we come to Pi-lo-shan-na (Virasana) country.

**PI-LO-SHAN-NA (VIRASANA?)**

This country is about 2000 li in circuit. The capital town about 10 li. The climate and produce are the same as those of Ahikshētra. The habits of the people are violent and headstrong. They are given to study and the arts. They are chiefly heretics (attached in faith to heresy); there are a few who believe in the law of Buddha. There are two saṅghārāmas with about 300 priests, who attach themselves to the study of the Great Vehicle. There are five Dēva temples occupied by sectaries of different persuasions.

In the middle of the chief city is an old saṅghārāma, within which is a stūpa, which, although in ruins, is still rather more than 100 feet high. It was built by Aśoka-rāja. Tathāgata, when in the world in old days, preached here for seven days on the Wen-kiai-chu-king (Skandha-dhātu-upasthāna Sūtra?). By the side of it are the

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106 The old story connected with this place was that Rāja Adi was found by Drōga sleeping under the guardianship of a serpent, hence the name Ahi-chhatra (serpent canopy). This story was probably appropriated by the Buddhists. For a full account of this place and its present condition, see Cunningham, Archæol. Survey of India, vol. i. p. 259 ff.

107 Restored (doubtfully) by Julien to Virasana. General Cunningham identifies it (conjecturally) with a great mound of ruins called Atrañi-khēra, four miles to the south of Karsāna. Huen Tsang probably crossed the Ganges near Sahāwar, a few miles from Soron: this appears to answer to the distance of 200 or 270 li—about 50 miles. General Cunningham says 23 to 25 miles, but on his Map x the distance is 50 miles.

108 Julien (p. 236, n. 1) renders this literally “one who dwells in the world called Wen-kiai;” but wen-kiai represents skandha-dhātu, and chu is the Chinese symbol for upasthāna.
traces where the four former Buddhas sat and walked in exercise.

Going hence south-east 200 li or so, we come to the country of Kie-pi-tha (Kapitha).

**KIE-PI-THA (KAPITHA).**

This country is about 2000 li in circuit, and the capital 20 li or so. The climate and produce resemble those of Pi-lo-shan-na. The manners of the people are soft and agreeable. The men are much given to learning. There are four saṅghārāmas with about 1000 priests, who study the Ching-liang (Sāmittiya) school of the Little Vehicle. There are ten Dēva temples, where sectaries of all persuasions dwell. They all honour and sacrifice to Mahēśvara (Ta-ťsen-tšai-tien).

To the east of the city 20 li or so is a great saṅghārāma of beautiful construction, throughout which the artist has exhibited his greatest skill. The sacred image of the holy form (of Buddha) is most wonderfully magnificent. There are about 100 priests here, who study the doctrines of the Sāmittiya (Ching-liang) school. Several myriads of "pure men" (religious laymen) live by the side of this convent.

Within the great enclosure of the saṅghārāma there are three precious ladders, which are arranged side by side from north to south, with their faces for descent to the east. This is where Tathāgata came down on his return from the Trayāstrimśas heaven. In old days Tathāgata, going up from the "wood of the conqueror" (Shing-lin, Jētavanā), Varāha Mihira was probably educated at Kapitha.

Written formerly Sāng-kia-she Saṅkśāya.

This corresponds with the present Saṅkśā, the site of which was discovered by General Cunningham in 1842. It is just 40 miles (200 li) south-east of Atrārīṭi. The name of Kapitha has entirely disappeared, although there is a trace of it in a story referred to in *Arch. Surv. of India*, vol. i. p. 271, n. Dr. Kern thinks that the astronomer Varāha Mihira was probably educated at Kapitha.

I translate "serve" by "sacrifice," because of the curious analogy with words of the same meaning used in this sense in other languages (compare the Greek ποιεύομαι; Lat. suēro; Sansk. kṛṣṇa, ṣacere; Sansk. kṛṣṇa, &c.). It may mean simply "to worship" or "serve."

This story of Buddha's descent from heaven is a popular one among
ascended to the heavenly mansions, and dwelt in the Saddharma Hall, preaching the law for the sake of his mother. Three months having elapsed, being desirous to descend to earth, Śakra, king of the Dēvas, exercising his spiritual power, erected these precious ladders. The middle one was of yellow gold, the left-hand one of pure crystal, the right-hand one of white silver.

Tathāgata rising from the Saddharma hall, accompanied by a multitude of Dēvas, descended by the middle ladder. Māha-Brahmā-rāja (Fan), holding a white chāmara, came down by the white ladder on the right, whilst Śakra (Shi), king of Dēvas (Dēvēndra), holding a precious canopy (parasol), descended by the crystal ladder on the left. Meanwhile the company of Dēvas in the air scattered flowers and chanted their praises in his honour. Some centuries ago the ladders still existed in their original position, but now they have sunk into the earth and have disappeared. The neighbouring princes, grieved at not having seen them, built up of bricks and chased stones ornamented with jewels, on the ancient foundations (three ladders) resembling the old ones. They are about 70 feet high. Above them they have built a vihāra in which is a stone image of Buddha, and on either side of this is a ladder with the figures of Brahmā and Śakra, just as they appeared when first rising to accompany Buddha in his descent.

On the outside of the vihāra, but close by its side, there is a stone column about 70 feet high which was erected by Asōka-rāja (Wu-yen). It is of a purple colour, and shining as if with moisture. The substance is hard and finely grained. Above it is a lion sitting on his haunches, and

Burnouf, Introd. p. 541, and Lotus, pp. 219, 249, 279.

That is, the preaching hall used by Śakra and the gods of the "thirty-three heaven" for religious purposes.

Te’un ku, "sitting in a squatting position." This expression is
facing the ladder. There are carved figures inlaid, of wonderful execution, on the four sides of the pillar and around it. As men are good or bad these figures appear on the pillar (or disappear).

Beside the precious ladder (temple), and not far from it, is a stūpa where there are traces left of the four past Buddhas, who sat and walked here.

By the side of it is another stūpa. This is where Tathāgata, when in the world, bathed himself. By the side of this is a vihāra on the spot where Tathāgata entered Samādhi. By the side of the vihāra there is a long foundation wall 50 paces in length and 7 feet high; this is the place where Tathāgata took exercise. On the spots where his feet trod are figures of the lotus flower. On the right and left of the wall are (two) little stūpas, erected by Śakra and Brahmapā-rajā.

In front of the stūpas of Śakra and Brahmapā is the place where Utpalavarna (Lin-hwa-sih) the Bhikshuni, wishing to be the first to see Buddha, was changed into a Chakravartin-rajā when Tathāgata was returning from the palace of Īśvara Dēva to Jambudvīpa. At this time Subhūti (Su-pu-ti), quietly seated in his stone cell, thought thus with himself: “Now Buddha is returning down to dwell with men—angels lead and attend him. And now why should I go to the place? Have I not heard him declare that all existing things are void of reality? Since this is the nature of all things, I have already seen with rendered by Julien “lying down” (couchant), but it appears to mean “sitting on his heels or haunches;” but in either case the position of the animal would differ from that of the standing elephant discovered by General Cunningham at Sankisa (Arch. Survey, vol. i. p. 278).

113 Teau loe, vid. Med. sub loc.
110 There was a similar stone path at Nalanda with lotus flowers carved on it. (See I-tsing and Jour. R. As. Soc., N.S., vol. xiii. p. 571).

117 The restoration to Utpalavarna is confirmed by Fa-hian’s account (c. xvii.) Julien had first Pūndarika-varna, which he afterwards altered to Padmavati.

118 Subhūti is the representative of the later idealism of the Buddhist creed. He is the mouthpiece for arguments put forth in the Prājñā Pāramitā works (the Vajracchedikā), to show that all things are unreal, the body of the law (dharma-kālya) being the only reality.
my eyes of wisdom the spiritual (fā) body of Buddha." 19

At this time Utpalavarnā Bhikshuni, being anxious to be the first to see Buddha, was changed into a Chakravartin monarch, with the seven gems 209 (rūṭāṇā) accompanying her, and with the four kinds of troops to escort and defend her. Coming to the place where the lord of the world was, she reassumed her form as a Bhikshuni, on which Tathāgata addressed her and said: "You are not the first to see me! Subhûti (Chen-hien), comprehending the emptiness of all things, he has beheld my spiritual body (dharma-kāya)." 211

Within the precinct of the sacred traces miracles are constantly exhibited.

To the south-east of the great stūpa is a Nāga tank. He defends the sacred traces with care, and being thus spiritually protected, one cannot regard them lightly. Years may effect their destruction, but no human power can do so. Going north-west from this less that 200 li, we come to the kingdom of Kie-po-kio-she (Kanyā-kubja).

19 This differs somewhat from Julien’s version. He gives "je me suis attaché à la nature de toutes les lois;" but it appears to me that the construction is chu-fā-sīng-shí, "the nature of things (fā—dharma) being thus (shí), therefore I have already seen," &c.

209 For the Seven Precious Things belonging to a wheel king, see Sénart, La Légende du Buddha, c. I.

211 For an account of the three bodies of all the Buddhas, see J. R. As. S., N.S., vol. xiii. p. 555.
BOOK V.

Contains the following countries:— (1) Kie-jo-kio-she-kwō; (2) 'O-yu-t'ō; (3) 'O-ye-mu-k'ie; (4) Po-lo-ye-kia; (5) Kiao-shang-mi; (6) Pi-su-kia.

KIE-JO-KIO-SHE-KWŌ (KANYĀKUBJA).

This kingdom is about 4000 li in circuit; the capital, on the west, borders on the river Ganges. It is about 20 li in length and 4 or 5 li in breadth. The city has a dry ditch round it, with strong and lofty towers facing one another. The flowers and woods, the lakes and ponds, bright and pure and shining like mirrors, are seen on every side. Valuable merchandise is collected here in great quantities. The people are well off and contented, the houses are rich and well found. Flowers and fruits abound in every place, and the land is sown and reaped in due seasons. The climate is agreeable and soft, the manners

1 The capital, Kanyākubja (Kie-jo-kio-she-kwō), now called Kanauj. The distance from Kapitha or Samkisa is given by Huien Tsang as somewhat less than 200 li, and the bearing north-west. There is a mistake here, as the bearing is south-east, and the distance somewhat less than 300 li. Kanauj was for many hundred years the Hindu capital of Northern India, but the existing remains are few and unimportant. Kanauj is mentioned by Ptolemy (lib. vii. c. 2, 22), who calls it Karōya. The modern town occupies only the north end of the site of the old city, including the whole of what is now called the Kilah or citadel (Cunningham, Anc. Geog. of Ind., p. 380). This is probably the part alluded to by Huien Tsang in the context. It is triangular in shape, and each side is covered by a ditch or a dry nala, as stated in the text. Fa-hian places Kanauj 7 yojanas south-east of Samkisa.

2 That is, borders or lies near the western bank of the Ganges. Julien translates it, “is near the Ganges.”

3 The reference seems to be to the inner or fortified portion (citadel) of the capital city. Julien translates as if it referred to all the cities. The symbol haung means “a dry ditch.”

4 Or the ponds only.
of the people honest and sincere. They are noble and gracious in appearance. For clothing they use ornamented and bright-shining (fabrics). They apply themselves much to learning, and in their travels are very much given to discussion (on religious subjects). (The fame of) their pure language is far spread. The believers in Buddha and the heretics are about equal in number. There are some hundred saṅghārāmas with 10,000 priests. They study both the Great and Little Vehicle. There are 200 Dēva temples with several thousand followers.

The old capital of Kanyākubja, where men lived for a long time, was called Kusumapura. The king’s name was Brahmadatta. His religious merit and wisdom in former births entailed on him the inheritance of a literary and military character that caused his name to be widely revered and feared. The whole of Jambudvīpa resounded with his fame, and the neighbouring provinces were filled with the knowledge of it. He had 1000 sons famed for wisdom and courage, and 100 daughters of singular grace and beauty.

At this time there was a Rishi living on the border of the Ganges river, who, having entered a condition of ecstasy, by his spiritual power passed several myriad of years in this condition, until his form became like a decayed tree. Now it happened that some wandering birds having assembled in a flock near this spot, one of them let drop on the shoulder (of the Rishi) a Nyagrōḍha (Ni-ku-liu) fruit, which grew up, and through summer and winter afforded him a welcome protection and shade. After a succession of years he awoke from his ecstasy. He arose and desired to get rid of the tree, but feared to injure the nests of the birds in it. The men of the time,

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5 This passage, which is confused, seems to refer to their going about here and there to discuss questions relating to religion. The purity of their discourses, i.e., the clearness of their arguments, is wide-spread or renowned.
6 Keu-su-mo-pu-lo, in Chinese Hwa-kung, flower palace.
7 In Chinese Fan-sheu, “Brahma-given.”
extolling his virtue, called him "The great-tree (Mahâvîrksa) Rishi." The Rishi gazing once on the river-bank as he wandered forth to behold the woods and trees, saw the daughters of the king following one another and gambolling together. Then the love of the world (the world of desire—Kâmadhātu), which holds and pollutes the mind, was engendered in him. Immediately he went to Kusumapura for the purpose of paying his salutations to the king and asking (for his daughter).

The king, hearing of the arrival of the Rishi, went himself to meet and salute him, and thus addressed him graciously: "Great Rishi! you were reposing in peace—what has disturbed you?" The Rishi answered, "After having reposed in the forest many years, on awaking from my trance, in walking to and fro I saw the king's daughters; a polluted and lustful heart was produced in me, and now I have come from far to request (one of your daughters in marriage).

The king hearing this, and seeing no way to escape, said to the Rishi, "Go back to your place and rest, and let me beg you to await the happy period." The Rishi, hearing the mandate, returned to the forest. The king then asked his daughters in succession, but none of them consented to be given in marriage.

The king, fearing the power of the Rishi, was much grieved and afflicted thereat. And now the youngest daughter of the king, watching an opportunity when the king was at liberty, with an engaging manner said, "The king, my father, has his thousand sons, and on every side his dependents are reverently obedient. Why, then, are you sad as if you were afraid of something?"

The king replied, "The great-tree-Rishi has been pleased to look down on you to seek a marriage with one of you.

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* Or it may be rendered, "What outward matter has been able to excite for a while the composed passions of the great Rishi?" It does not seem probable that the king was acquainted with the Rishi's intention; he could not, therefore, use the words as if ex postulating with him.

* His ten thousand kingdoms.

* That is, on the daughters generally.
and you have all turned away and not consented to comply with his request. Now this Rishi possesses great power, and is able to bring either calamities or good fortune. If he is thwarted he will be exceedingly angry, and in his displeasure destroy my kingdom, and put an end to our religious worship, and bring disgrace on me and my ancestors. As I consider this unhappiness indeed I have much anxiety."

The girl-daughter replied, "Dismiss your heavy grief; ours is the fault. Let me, I pray, in my poor person promote the prosperity of the country."

The king, hearing her words, was overjoyed, and ordered his chariot to accompany her with gifts to her marriage. Having arrived at the hermitage of the Rishi, he offered his respectful greetings and said, "Great Rishi! since you condescended to fix your mind on external things and to regard the world with complacency, I venture to offer you my young daughter to cherish and provide for you (water and sweep)." The Rishi, looking at her, was displeased, and said to the king, "You despise my old age, surely, in offering me this ungainly thing."

The king said, "I asked all my daughters in succession, but they were unwilling to comply with your request: this little one alone offered to serve you."

The Rishi was extremely angry, and uttered this curse (evil charm), saying, "Let the ninety-nine girls (who refused me) this moment become hump-backed; being thus deformed, they will find no one to marry them in all the world." The king, having sent a messenger in haste, found that already they had become deformed. From this time the town had this other name of the Kuih-niu-shing (Kanyâkubja), i.e., "city of the humped-backed women."\(^{11}\)

The reigning king is of the Vaiśya\(^{12}\) caste. His name

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\(^{11}\) The Purāṇas refer this story to the curse of the sage Vaya on the hundred daughters of Kuśandibha.

\(^{12}\) Vaiśya is here, perhaps, the name of a Rājput clan (Bais or Vaisa), not the mercantile class or
is Harshavardhana (Ho-li-sha-fa-t'an-na). A commission of officers hold the land. During two generations there have been three kings, (The king's) father was called Po-lo-kie-lo-fa-t'an-na (Prabhâkaravardhana); his elder brother's name was Râjyavardhana (Ho-lo-she-fa-t'an-na).

Râjyavardhana came to the throne as the elder brother, and ruled with virtue. At this time the king of Karñasuvarna (Kie-lo-na-su-fa-la-na), a kingdom of Eastern India—whose name was Saângka (She-shang-kia), frequently addressed his ministers in these words: “If a frontier country has a virtuous ruler, this is the unhappiness of the (mother) kingdom.” On this they asked the king to a conference and murdered him.

The people having lost their ruler, the country became desolate. Then the great minister Po-ni (Bhaṇḍi), whose caste among the Hindus (Cunningham, op. cit., p. 377). Baiswāra, the country of the Bais Rajputs, extends from the neighbourhood of Lakhna to Khara-Mânikpur, and thus comprises nearly the whole of Southern Oudh (ib.)


In Chinese, Tso kwong, to cause brightness. The symbol po is omitted in the text.

In Chinese, Wang tsang, kingly increase.


In Chinese, Yueh, the moon. This was Saângka Narândragupta, king of Gauda or Bengal.

Julien restores Po-ni to Bândi. In Chinese it is equal to Pin-liu, “distinguished.” Bâna, the well-known author of the Harsha-charita, informs us that his name was Bhaṇḍin. He is referred to in the preface to Boyd’s Nâgânanda. I-tseng relates that Silâdiyâ kept all the best writers, especially poets, at his court, and that he (the king) used to join in the literary recitals; among the rest that he would assume the part of Jimitâvâhana Bodhisattva, and transform himself into a Nâga amid the sound of song and instrumental music. Nan hae, § 32, k. iv. p. 6. Now Jimitâvâhana (Shen yüan, “cloud chariot”) is the hero of the Nâgânanda. The king Sri Harshadéva, therefore, who is mentioned.
power and reputation were high and of much weight, addressing the assembled ministers, said, "The destiny of the nation is to be fixed to-day. The old king's son is dead: the brother of the prince, however, is humane and affectionate, and his disposition, heaven-conferrèd, is dutiful and obedient. Because he is strongly attached to his family, the people will trust in him. I propose that he assume the royal authority; let each one give his opinion on this matter, whatever he thinks." They were all agreed on this point, and acknowledged his conspicuous qualities.

On this the chief ministers and the magistrates all exhorted him to take authority, saying, "Let the royal prince attend! The accumulated merit and the conspicuous virtue of the former king were so illustrious as to cause his kingdom to be most happily governed. When he was followed by Rājyāvardhana we thought he would end his years (as king); but owing to the fault of his ministers, he was led to subject his person to the hand of his enemy, and the kingdom has suffered a great affliction; but it is the fault of your ministers. The opinion of the people, as shown in their songs, proves their real submission to your eminent qualities. Reign, then, with glory over the land; conquer the enemies of your family; wash out the insult laid on your kingdom and the deeds of your illustrious father. Great will your merit be in such a case. We pray you reject not our prayer."

The prince replied, "The government of a country is a responsible office and ever attended with difficulties. The duties of a prince require previous consideration. As for myself, I am indeed of small eminence; but as my father

as the author both of the Ratnāvatī and the Nāgānanda, is Śilāditya of Kanauj; and I-tsing has left us the notice that this king himself took the part of the hero during the performance of the Nāgānanda. The real author, however, Professor Cowell thinks, was Dāvaka, one of the poets residing at the court of Śrī Harsha, whilst Bāna composed the Ratnāvatī. The Jātakamālā was also the work of the poets of Śrī Harsha's court. Abstract, &c., p. 197.
and brother are no more, to reject the heritage of the crown, that can bring no benefit to the people. I must attend to the opinion of the world and forget my own insufficiency. Now, therefore, on the banks of the Ganges there is a statue of Avalôkîtesvara Bôdhisattva which has evidenced many spiritual wonders. I will go to it and ask advice (request a response)." Fortwith, coming to the spot where the figure of the Bôdhisattva was, he remained before it fasting and praying. The Bôdhisattva recognising his sincere intention (heart), appeared in a bodily form and inquired, "What do you seek that you are so earnest in your supplications?" The prince answered, "I have suffered under a load of affliction. My dear father, indeed, is dead, who was full of kindness; and my brother, humane and gentle as he was, has been odiously murdered. In the presence of these calamities I humble myself as one of little virtue; nevertheless, the people would exalt me to the royal dignity, to fill the high place of my illustrious father. Yet I am, indeed, but ignorant and foolish. In my trouble I ask the holy direction (of the Bôdhisattva)."

The Bôdhisattva replied, "In your former existence you lived in this forest as a hermit (a forest mendicant),\(^\text{19}\) and by your earnest diligence and unremitting attention you inherited a power of religious merit which resulted in your birth as a king's son. The king of the country, Karna-suvarna, has overturned the law of Buddha. Now when you succeed to the royal estate, you should in the same proportion exercise towards it the utmost love and pity.\(^\text{20}\) If you give your mind to compassionate the condition of the distressed and to cherish them, then before long you shall rule over the Five Indies. If you would establish your authority, attend to my instruction, and by my

\(^{19}\) "A forest mendicant" is the translation of Aranya Bhikshu (lau-yo-pi-te'u). It would appear from the text that the place where this statue of Avalôkîtesvara stood was a wild or desert spot near the Ganges.

\(^{20}\) So I understand the passage as relating to a corresponding favour to the law of Buddha, in return for the persecution of Sa-s'angka.
secret power you shall receive additional enlightenment, so that not one of your neighbours shall be able to triumph over you. Ascend not the lion-throne, and call not yourself Mahârâja.”

Having received these instructions, he departed and assumed the royal office. He called himself the King’s Son (Kumâra); his title was Silâditya. And now he commanded his ministers, saying, “The enemies of my brother are unpunished as yet, the neighbouring countries not brought to submission; while this is so my right hand shall never lift food to my mouth. Therefore do you, people and officers, unite with one heart and put out your strength.” Accordingly they assembled all the soldiers of the kingdom, summoned the masters of arms (champions, or, teachers of the art of fighting). They had a body of 5000 elephants, a body of 2000 cavalry, and 50,000 foot-soldiers. He went from east to west subduing all who were not obedient; the elephants were not unharnessed nor the soldiers unbelted (unhelmed). After six years he had subdued the Five Indies. Having thus enlarged his territory, he increased his forces; he had 60,000 war elephants and 100,000 cavalry. After thirty years his arms reposed, and he governed everywhere in peace. He then

21 This appears to be the advice or direction given oracularly (see Jour. R. As. Soc., N.S., vol. xv. p. 334)—

fi shing sse tsen che tao
fi ching ta wang che ho.

The promise is, that if this advice is followed, then, “by my mysterious energy (or, in the darkness), shall be added the benefit (happiness) of light, so that in the neighbouring kingdoms there shall be no one strong enough to resist (your arms).” Silâditya did, in fact, conquer the whole of North India, and was only checked in the south by Pulikâsa (the Pula-
ksha of Hiuen Tsiang, book xi. insyra), whose title appears to have been Paramâsva, given him on account of his victory over Silâditya. (See Cunningham, Arch. Surv., vol. i. p. 281; Ind. Ant., vol. vii. pp. 164, 219, &c.) I may here perhaps observe that 1-tsing, the Chinese pilgrim, notices his own visit to a great lord of Eastern India called Jih-yush-kun, i.e., Chandrâditya râja-
bhriyâtya (Ecam); this is probably the Chandrâditya, elder brother of Vik-
râmaditya, the grandson of Pulakâsa Vallabha, the conqueror of Sri Har-
practised to the utmost the rules of temperance, and sought to plant the tree of religious merit to such an extent that he forgot to sleep or to eat. He forbade the slaughter of any living thing or flesh as food throughout the Five Indies on pain of death without pardon. He built on the banks of the river Ganges several thousand stūpas, each about 100 feet high; in all the highways of the towns and villages throughout India he erected hospices, provided with food and drink, and stationed there physicians, with medicines for travellers and poor persons round about, to be given without any stint. On all spots where there were holy traces (of Buddha) he raised sanghārāmas.

Once in five years he held the great assembly called Moksha. He emptied his treasuries to give all away in charity, only reserving the soldiers' arms, which were unfit to give as alms. Every year he assembled the Śramaṇas from all countries, and on the third and seventh days he bestowed on them in charity the four kinds of alms (viz., food, drink, medicine, clothing). He decorated the throne of the law (the pulpit) and extensively ornamented (arranged) the oratories. He ordered the priests to carry on discussions, and himself judged of their several arguments, whether they were weak or powerful. He rewarded the good and punished the wicked, degraded the evil and promoted the men of talent. If any one (of the priests) walked according to the moral precepts, and was distinguished in addition for purity in religion (reason), he himself conducted such an one to "the lion-throne" and received from him the precepts of the law. If any one, though distinguished for purity of life, had no distinction

22 Temperate restrictions; but héen is difficult in this sense.
23 Punyasālas—Tszing-leu, pure lodging houses, or choultries.
24 There is an error in the text, as pointed out by Julien, n. 2. The text may mean he placed in these buildings "doctor's medicines," or "physicians and medicines."
25 The expression in the text is Tan-še, which, as Julien has observed, is a hybrid term for giving away in dana, or charity.
26 The expression may refer to mats or seats for discussion or for religious services.
for learning, he was reverenced, but not highly honoured. If any one disregarded the rules of morality and was notorious for his disregard of propriety, him he banished from the country, and would neither see him nor listen to him. If any of the neighbouring princes or their chief ministers lived religiously, with earnest purpose, and aspired to a virtuous character without regarding labour, he led him by the hand to occupy the same seat with himself, and called him "illustrious friend;" but he disdained to look upon those of a different character. If it was necessary to transact state business, he employed couriers who continually went and returned. If there was any irregularity in the manners of the people of the cities, he went amongst them. Wherever he moved he dwelt in a ready-made building during his sojourn. During the excessive rains of the three months of the rainy season he would not travel thus. Constantly in his travelling-palace he would provide choice meats for men of all sorts of religion. The Buddhist priests would be perhaps a thousand; the Brāhmans, five hundred. He divided each day into three portions. During the first he occupied himself on matters of government; during the second he practised himself in religious devotion (merit) without interruption, so that the day was not sufficiently long. When I first received the invitation of Kumāra-rāja, I said I would go from Magadha to Kāmarūpa. At this time Śilāditya-rāja was visiting different parts of his empire, and found himself at Kie-mi-ou-ki-lo, when he gave the following

27 A hut or dwelling run up for the purpose. It seems to refer to a temporary rest-house, made probably of some light material. From the next sentence it seems that he carried about with him the materials for constructing such an abode.

28 It will be seen from this that Śilāditya, although leaning to Buddhism, was a patron of other religious sects.

29 This refers to the pilgrim himself. The Kumāra-rāja who invited him was the king of Kāmarūpa, the western portion of Asam (see Book x.) Śilāditya was also called Kumāra. The invitation referred to will be found in the last section of the 4th book of the Life of Huen Tsang.

29 Here mi is an error for chu. The restoration will be Kañjughira or Kañjughara, a small kingdom on the banks of the Ganges, about 92 miles from Champā. (Vide V. de St. Martin, Mémoire, p. 387.)
order to Kumāra-rāja: "I desire you to come at once to
the assembly with the strange Śramaṇa you are enter-
taining at the Nālanda convent." On this, coming with Ku-
māra-rāja, we attended the assembly. The king, Śilāditya,
after the fatigue of the journey was over, said, "From
what country do you come, and what do you seek in your
travels?"

He said in reply, "I come from the great Tang country,
and I ask permission to seek for the law (religious books)
of Buddha."

The king said, "Whereabouts is the great Tang country?
by what road do you travel? and is it far from this, or
near?"

In reply he said, "My country lies to the north-east
from this several myriads of li; it is the kingdom which
in India is called Mahāchina."

The king answered, "I have heard that the country
of Mahāchina has a king called Ts’ìn,\[21\] the son of heaven,
when young distinguished for his spiritual abilities, when
old then (called) ‘divine warrior.’\[32\] The empire in
former generations was in disorder and confusion, every-
where divided and in disunion; soldiers were in conflict,
and all the people were afflicted with calamity. Then
the king of Ts’ìn, son of heaven, who had conceived from
the first vast purposes, brought into exercise all his
pity and love; he brought about a right understanding,
apacified and settled all within the seas. His laws
and instruction spread on every side. People from other

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\[21\] The context and Hiuen Tsiang’s
reply indicate the reference to the
first emperor (Hwang-ti) She, or Urk
she, of the Ts’in dynasty (221 B.C.).
It was he who broke up the feudal
dependencies of China and centralised
the government. He built the
great wall to keep out invaders,
settled the country, and established
the dynasty of the Ts’in. For his
conduct in destroying the books, see
Mayer’s Manual, § 368. The refer-
ence (farther on) to the songs sung
in honour of this king illustrates the
character of Śilāditya, who was
himself a poet.

\[32\] The first Japanese emperor was
called Zin mu, divine warrior; the
allusion in the text may be to the
Ts’in emperor being the first to style
himself Hwang ti; or it may be
simply that he was like a god in the
art of war.
countries brought under his influence declared themselves ready to submit to his rule. The multitude whom he nourished generously sang in their songs of the prowess of the king of Ts’in. I have learned long since his praises sung thus in verse. Are the records (laudatory hymns) of his great (complete) qualities well founded? Is this the king of the great Tang, of which you speak?"

Replying, he said, "China is the country of our former kings, but the 'great Tang' is the country of our present ruler. Our king in former times, before he became hereditary heir to the throne (before the empire was established), was called the sovereign of Ts’in, but now he is called the 'king of heaven' (emperor). At the end of the former dynasty the people had no ruler, civil war raged on every hand and caused confusion, the people were destroyed, when the king of Ts’in, by his supernatural gifts, exercised his love and compassion on every hand; by his power the wicked were destroyed on every side, the eight regions found rest, and the ten thousand kingdoms brought tribute. He cherished creatures of every kind, submitted with respect to the three precious ones. He lightened the burdens of the people and mitigated punishment, so that the country abounded in resources and the people enjoyed complete rest. It would be difficult to recount all the great changes he accomplished."

Śilāditya-rāja replied, "Very excellent indeed! the people are happy in the hands of such a holy king."

Śilāditya-rāja being about to return to the city of Kanyākubja, convoked a religious assembly. Followed by several hundreds of thousand people, he took his place on the southern bank of the river Ganges, whilst Kumāra-rāja,

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32 This can hardly refer to the Sui dynasty, which preceded the "great Tang," as Julien says (p. 256 n.), but to the troubles which prevailed at the end of the Chow dynasty, which preceded the Ts’in.
33 That is, the eight regions of the empire, or of the world.
34 It is widely believed in China that the first Buddhist missionaries arrived there in the reign of the Ts’in emperor. For the story of their imprisonment and deliverance see Abstract of Four Lectures, p. 3.
attended by several tens of thousands, took his place on
the northern bank, and thus, divided by the stream of the
river, they advanced on land and water. The two kings led
the way with their gorgeous staff of soldiers (of the four
kinds); some also were in boats; some were on elephants,
sounding drums and blowing horns, playing on flutes and
harps. After ninety days they arrived at the city of
Kanyâkubja, (and rested) on the western shore of the
Ganges river, in the middle of a flowery copse.

Then the kings of the twenty countries who had received
instruction from Šilâditya-râja assembled with the Šramaṇas
and Brâhmaṇs, the most distinguished of their country,
with magistrates and soldiers. The king in advance had
constructed on the west side of the river a great saṅghârâma,
and on the east of this a precious tower about
100 feet in height; in the middle he had placed a golden
statue of Buddha, of the same height as the king himself.
On the south of the tower he placed a precious altar, in
the place for washing the image of Buddha. From this
north-east 14 or 15 li he erected another rest-house. It
was now the second month of spring-time; from the first
day of the month he had presented exquisite food to the
Šramaṇas and Brâhmaṇs till the 21st day; all along,
from the temporary palace to the saṅghârâma, there
were highly decorated pavilions, and places where musi-
cians were stationed, who raised the sounds of their various
instruments. The king, on leaving the resting-hall (palace
of travel), made them bring forth on a gorgeously capari-
soned great elephant; a golden statue of Buddha about
three feet high, and raised aloft. On the left went the king,
Šilâditya, dressed as Śakra, holding a precious canopy,
whilst Kumâra-râja, dressed as Brahmâ-râja, holding a
white châmara, went on the right. Each of them had as
an escort 500 war-elephants clad in armour; in front and
behind the statue of Buddha went 100 great elephants,

36 The palace of travel, erected during a travelling excursion.
carrying musicians, who sounded their drums and raised
their music. The king, Śilāditya, as he went, scattered
on every side pearls and various precious substances, with
gold and silver flowers, in honour of the three precious
objects of worship. Having first washed the image in
scented water at the altar, the king then himself bore it
on his shoulder to the western tower, where he offered
to it tens, hundreds, and thousands of silken garments,
decorated with precious gems. At this time there were
but about twenty Śramaṇaṇas following in the procession,
the kings of the various countries forming the escort.
After the feast they assembled the different men of
learning, who discussed in elegant language on the most
abstruse subjects. At evening-tide the king retired in
state to his palace of travel.

Thus every day he carried the golden statue as before,
till at length on the day of separation a great fire suddenly
broke out in the tower, and the pavilion over the gate
of the saṅghārāma was also in flames. Then the king
exclaimed, "I have exhausted the wealth of my country
in charity, and following the example of former kings, I
have built this saṅghārāma, and I have aimed to dis-
tinguish myself by superior deeds, but my poor attempts
(seeble qualities) have found no return! In the presence of
such calamities as these, what need I of further life?"

Then with incense-burning he prayed, and with this vow
(oath), "Thanks to my previous merit, I have come to reign
over all India; let the force of my religious conduct
destroy this fire; or if not, let me die!" Then he rushed
headlong towards the threshold of the gate, when suddenly,
as if by a single blow, the fire was extinguished and the
smoke disappeared.

The kings beholding the strange event, were filled with
redoubled reverence; but he (the king), with unaltered
face and unchanged accents, addressed the princes thus:
"The fire has consumed this crowning work of my religious
life. What think you of it?"
The princes, prostrate at his feet, with tears, replied, "The work which marked the crowning act of your perfected merit, and which we hoped would be handed down to future ages, has in a moment (a dawn) been reduced to ashes. How can we bear to think of it? But how much more when the heretics are rejoicing thereat, and interchanging their congratulations!"

The king answered, "By this, at least, we see the truth of what Buddha said; the heretics and others insist on the permanency of things, but our great teacher's doctrine is that all things are impermanent. As for me, my work of charity was finished, according to my purpose; and this destructive calamity (change) does but strengthen my knowledge of the truth of Tathāgata's doctrine. This is a great happiness (good fortune), and not a subject for lamentation."

On this, in company with the kings, he went to the east, and mounted the great stūpa. Having reached the top, he looked around on the scene, and then descending the steps, suddenly a heretic (or, a strange man), knife in hand, rushed on the king. The king, startled at the sudden attack, stepped back a few steps up the stairs, and then bending himself down he seized the man, in order to deliver him to the magistrates. The officers were so bewildered with fright that they did not know how to move for the purpose of assisting him.

The kings all demanded that the culprit should be instantly killed, but Śīlāditya-rāja, without the least show of fear and with unchanged countenance, commanded them not to kill him; and then he himself questioned him thus:

"What harm have I done you, that you have attempted such a deed?"

The culprit replied, "Great king! your virtues shine without partiality; both at home and abroad they bring

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27 The heretics hold the view of endurance (dhyāna, the opposite of anitya).
happiness. As for me, I am foolish and besotted, unequal to any great undertaking; led astray by a single word of the heretics, and flattered by their importunity, I have turned as a traitor against the king.”

The king then asked, “And why have the heretics conceived this evil purpose?”

He answered and said, “Great king! you have assembled the people of different countries, and exhausted your treasury in offerings to the Śramaṇas, and cast a metal image of Buddha; but the heretics who have come from a distance have scarcely been spoken to. Their minds, therefore, have been affected with resentment, and they procured me, wretched man that I am! to undertake this unlucky deed.”

The king then straitly questioned the heretics and their followers. There were 500 Brāhmaṇs, all of singular talent, summoned before the king. Jealous of the Śramaṇs, whom the king had reverenced and exceedingly honoured, they had caused the precious tower to catch fire by means of burning arrows, and they hoped that in escaping from the fire the crowd would disperse in confusion, and at such a moment they purposed to assassinate the king. Having been foiled in this, they had bribed this man to lay wait for the king in a narrow passage and kill him.

Then the ministers and the kings demanded the extermination of the heretics. The king punished the chief of them and pardoned the rest. He banished the 500 Brāhmaṇs to the frontiers of India, and then returned to his capital.

To the north-west of the capital there is a stūpa built by Aśoka-raja. In this place Tathāgata, when in the world, preached the most excellent doctrines for seven days. By the side of this stūpa are traces where the four past Buddhas sat and walked for exercise. There is, moreover, a little stūpa containing the relics of Buddha’s hair and nails; and also a preaching-place stūpa.

33 That is, erected in a place where Buddha had preached.
On the south and by the side of the Ganges are three saṅghārāmas, enclosed within the same walls, but with different gates. They have highly ornamented statues of Buddha. The priests are devout and reverential; they have in their service several thousands of “pure men.” 39 In a precious casket in the vihāra is a tooth of Buddha about one and a half inches in length, very bright, and of different colours at morning and night. People assemble from far and near; the leading men with the multitude join in one body in worship. Every day hundreds and thousands come together. The guardians of the relic, on account of the uproar and confusion occasioned by the multitude of people, placed on the exhibition a heavy tax, and proclaimed far and wide that those wishing to see the tooth of Buddha must pay one great gold piece. Nevertheless, the followers who come to worship are very numerous, and gladly pay the tax of a gold piece. On every holiday they bring it (the relic) out and place it on a high throne, whilst hundreds and thousands of men burn incense and scatter flowers; and although the flowers are heaped up, the tooth-casket is not overwhelmed.

In front of the saṅghārāma, on the right and left hand, there are two vihāras, each about 100 feet high, the foundation of stone and the walls of brick. In the middle are statues of Buddha highly decorated with jewels, one made of gold and silver, the other of native copper. Before each vihāra is a little saṅghārāma.

Not far to the south-east of the saṅghārāma is a great vihāra, of which the foundations are stone and the building of brick, about 200 feet high. There is a standing figure of Buddha in it about 30 feet high. It is of native copper (bronze?) and decorated with costly gems. On the four surrounding walls of the vihāra are sculptured pic-

39 Julien translates this by “Brāhmaṇa;” but the expression “pure men” is a common one for lay bhikṣus or Upāsakas.
tures. The various incidents in the life of Tathâgata, when he was practising the discipline of a Bôdhisattva are here fully portrayed (engraved).

Not far to the south of the stone vihâra is a temple of the Sun-dëva. Not far to the south of this is a temple of Mahêśvara. The two temples are built of a blue stone of great lustre, and are ornamented with various elegant sculptures. In length and breadth they correspond with the vihâra of Buddha. Each of these foundations has 1000 attendants to sweep and water it; the sound of drums and of songs accompanied by music, ceases not day nor night.

To the south-east of the great city 6 or 7 li, on the south side of the Ganges, is a stôpa about 200 feet in height, built by Asôka-râja. When in the world, Tathâgata in this place preached for six months on the impermanency of the body (anâtma), on sorrow (dukha), on unreality (anîtya), and impurity. 49

On one side of this is the place where the four past Buddhas sat and walked for exercise. Moreover, there is a little stôpa of the hair and nails of Tathâgata. If a sick person with sincere faith walks round this edifice, he obtains immediate recovery and increase of religious merit.

To the south-east of the capital, going about 100 li, we come to the town of Na-po-ti-po-ku-lo (Navadêvakula). 41 It is situated on the eastern bank of the Ganges, and is about 20 li in circuit. There are here flowery

49 These were the subjects on which he preached— anâtma, anîtya, dukha, ainuddha. For some remarks on the last of these, see Spence Hardy, East. Monach., p. 247; and Childers, Pâli Dict., sub Asubho. Julien’s translation, “sur le vide (l’innéilité) de ses macérations,” is outside the mark. Fa-hian alludes to this sermon, cap. xviii. (see Beal’s edition, p. 71, n. 1).

41 For some remarks on this place see V. St. Martin, Memoire, p. 350; Cunningham, Anc. Geog. of India, p. 382; Arch. Survey of India, vol. i. p. 294; and compare Fa-hian, loc. cit., n. 2.
groves, and pure lakes which reflect the shadows of the trees.

To the north-west of this town, on the eastern bank of the Ganges river, is a Déva temple, the towers and storeyed turrets of which are remarkable for their skilfully carved work. To the east of the city 5 li are three saṅghārāmas with the same wall but different gates, with about 500 priests, who study the Little Vehicle according to the school of the Sarvāstivādins.

Two hundred paces in front of the saṅghārāma is a stūpa built by Asoka-rāja. Although the foundations are sunk in the ground, it is yet some 100 feet in height. It was here Tathāgata in old days preached the law for seven days. In this monument is a relic (śarira) which ever emits a brilliant light. Beside it is a place where there are traces of the four former Buddhas, who sat and walked here.

To the north of the saṅghārāma 3 or 4 li, and bordering on the Ganges river, is a stūpa about 200 feet high, built by Asoka-rāja. Here Buddha preached for seven days. At this time there were some 500 demons who came to the place where Buddha was to hear the law; understanding its character, they gave up their demon form and were born in heaven. By the side of the preaching-stūpa is a place where there are traces of the four Buddhas who sat and walked there. By the side of this again is a stūpa containing the hair and nails of Tathāgata.

From this going south-east 600 li or so, crossing the Ganges and going south, we come to the country of 'O-yu-t'o (Ayōdhya).

'O-yu-t'o (Ayōdhya).

This kingdom is 5000 li in circuit, and the capital about

42 This expression, "born in heaven," is one frequently met with in Buddhist books. In the old Chinese inscription found at Buddha Gayā, the pilgrim Chi-i vowed to exhort 30,000 men to prepare themselves in their conduct for a birth in heaven. J. R. As. S., N.S., vol. xiii. p. 553. And in the Dhammapada it is constantly mentioned. 43 The distance from Kanauj or from Navadēvakula to Ayōdhya, on
20 li. It abounds in cereals, and produces a large quantity of flowers and fruits. The climate is temperate and agreeable, the manners of the people virtuous and amiable; they love the duties of religion (merit), and diligently devote themselves to learning. There are about 100 saṅghārāmas in the country and 3000 priests, who study both the books of the Great and the Little Vehicle. There are ten Dēva temples; heretics of different schools are found in them, but few in number.

In the capital is an old saṅghārāma; it was in this place that Vasubandhu 44 Bōdhisattva, during a sojourn of several decades of years, composed various sāstras both of the Great and Little Vehicle. By the side of it are some ruined foundation walls; this was the hall in which Vasubandhu Bōdhisattva explained the principles of religion and preached for the benefit of kings of different countries, eminent men of the world, Śramaṇas and Brāhmans.

To the north of the city 40 li, by the side of the river Ganges, is a large saṅghārāma in which is a stūpa about 200 feet high, which was built by Aśoka-rāja. It was here that Tathāgata explained the excellent principles of the law for the benefit of a congregation of Dēvas during a period of three months.

By the side is a stūpa to commemorate the place where are traces of the four past Buddhas, who sat and walked here.

To the west of the saṅghārāma 4 or 5 li is a stūpa containing relics of Tathāgata’s hair and nails. To the north of this stūpa are the ruins of a saṅghārāma; it was

the Ghāghra river is about 130 miles east - south - east. But there are various difficulties in the identification of O-yu-to with Ayōdhya. Even if the Ghāghra be the Ganges of Huien Tsang, it is difficult to understand why he should cross this river and go south. On the other hand, if we suppose the pilgrim to follow the course of the Ganges for 600 li and then cross it, we should place him not far from Allahābād, which is impossible. General Cunningham suggests an alteration of the distance to 60 li, and identifies O-yu-to with an old town called Kākupur, twenty miles north - west from Kanhpur (Cawnpore) (Anc. Geog., p. 385).

44 Vasubandhu laboured and taught in Ayōdhya (Vassilief, Boudhisme, p. 220. Eitel, Handbook, sub voc.)
here that Śrīlābha 45 (Shi-li-lo-to), a master of śāstras belonging to the Saunrāntika school, composed the Viśhāshā Śāstra of that school.

To the south-west of the city 5 or 6 li, in an extensive grove of Āmra trees, is an old saṅghārāma; this is where Asaṅga 46 Bōdhisattva pursued his studies and directed the men of the age. 47 Asaṅga Bōdhisattva went up by night to the palace of Maitrēya Bōdhisattva, and there received 48 the Yōgāchārya Śāstra, 49 the Mahāyāna Śāstra-laukikāratīkā, 50 the Madyānta Viśhānga Śāstra, 51 &c., and afterwards declared these to the great congregation, in their deep principles.

North-west of the Āmra grove about a hundred paces is a stūpa containing relics of the hair and nails of Tathāgata. By its side are some old foundation walls. This is where Vasubandhu Bōdhisattva descended from the Tushita heaven and beheld Asaṅga Bōdhisattva. Asaṅga Bōdhisattva was a man of Gandhāra. 52 He was born in the middle of the thousand years following the departure of Buddha from the world; and possessed of deep spiritual insight, he soon acquired a knowledge of the doctrine (of Buddha). He became a professed disciple, and attached himself to the school of the Mahīśāsakas, but afterwards altered his views and embraced the teaching of the Great Vehicle. His brother, Vasubandhu Bōdhisattva, belonged to the school of the Sarvāstivādins, and had inherited a

45 In Chinese shing-shou, victory-received.
46 Asaṅga Bōdhisattva was elder brother of Vasubandhu. His name is rendered into Chinese by Wu-cho, without attachment.
47 I have adopted this translation from Julien; it is not, however, entirely satisfactory; ts'ing-yik certainly means "to ask for more," and in this sense it might refer to pursuit of study; but I think it means he requested more information or more light, and it seems from the sentence following that this was the case, for he ascended into heaven and received certain books from Maitrēya.
48 Not, as Julien translates, "explained to the great assembly," but received certain books from Maitrēya, and afterwards explained them to the great congregation (saṅgha) in the Āmra grove.
49 Yu-hia-see-ti-lun.
50 Ch'ung-yen - ta - shing - hing-lun.
51 Ch'ung-pin-fen-pi-lun.
52 According to the Life of Vasubandhu, translated by Chin-ti, he was born in Purushapura, in North India.
wide fame, with a strong intelligence and penetrating wisdom and remarkable acumen. The disciple of Asaṅga was Buddhāsimha, a man whose secret conduct was unfathomable, of high talent and wide renown.

These two or three worthies had often talked together in this way: “We all are engaged in framing our conduct so as to enjoy the presence of Maitreya after death. Whoever of us first dies and obtains the condition (of being so born in the heaven of Maitreya), let him come and communicate it to us, that we may know his arrival there.”

After this Buddhāsimha was the first to die. After three years, during which there was no message from him, Vasubandhu Bōdhisattva also died. Then six months having elapsed, and there being no message either from him, all the unbelievers began to mock and ridicule, as if Vasubandhu and Buddhāsimha had fallen into an evil way of birth, and so there was no spiritual manifestation.

After this, Asaṅga Bōdhisattva, during the first division of a certain night, was explaining to his disciples the law of entailing (or conferring on others) the power of samādhi, when suddenly the flame of the lamp was eclipsed, and there was a great light in space; then a Rishi-dēva, traversing through the sky, came down, and forthwith ascending the stairs of the hall, saluted Asaṅga. Asaṅga, addressing him, said, “What has been the delay in your coming? What is your present name?” In reply he said, “At the time of my death I went to the Tushita heaven, to the inner assembly (i.e., the immediate presence) of Maitreya, and was there born in a lotus flower.” On the flower presently opening, Maitreya, in laudatory terms, a lotus flower gave rise to the name of “the lotus school,” applied to the Tsing-t’u, or “pure land” section of Buddhists. But it is a belief not confined to any one school. The medieval legend of the flower which opens in Paradise on the death of a pure child is a touching survival of the same thought.
addressed me, saying, 'Welcome! thou vastly learned one! welcome! thou vastly learned one!' I then paid him my respects by moving round his person, and then directly came here to communicate my mode of life.' Asaṅga said, "And where is Buddhāsimha?" He answered, "As I was going round Maitreya I saw Buddhāsimha among the outside crowd, immersed in pleasure and merriment. He exchanged no look with me; how then can you expect him to come to you to communicate his condition?" Asaṅga answered, "That is settled; but with respect to Maitreya, what is his appearance and what the law he declares?" He said, "No words can describe the marks and signs (the personal beauty) of Maitreya. With respect to the excellent law which he declares, the principles of it are not different from those (of our belief). The exquisite voice of the Bōdhisattva is soft and pure and refined; those who hear it can never tire; those who listen are never satiated."n

To the north-west of the ruins of the preaching-hall of Asaṅga about 40 li, we come to an old saṅghārāma, bordering the Ganges on the north. In it is a stūpa of brick, about 100 feet high; this is the place where Vasubandhu first conceived a desire to cultivate the teaching of the Great Vehicle. He had come to this place from North India. At this time Asaṅga Bōdhisattva commanded his followers to go forward to meet him. Having come to the place, they met and had an interview. The disciple of Asaṅga was reposing outside the open window (of Vasubandhu), when in the after part of the night he began to recite the Daśabhūmi Sūtra. Vasubandhu having heard it, understood the meaning, and was deeply

55 Of course the idea is that time in the Tushita heaven is not measured as on earth. It took six months for this flower to open.
56 This singular account of the heaven of Maitreya explains the fervent longing of Huen Tsang on his dying bed to participate in the happiness of those born there (see Vie, p. 345).
57 Vasubandhu had been brought up in the Little Vehicle school. For the account of his conversion to the principles of the Great Vehicle see Wong Puh, § 185, J. R. As. S., vol. xx p. 206.
grieved that this profound and excellent doctrine had not come to his ears in time past, and he laid the blame on his tongue as the origin of his sin of calumniating (the Great Vehicle), "and so," said he, "I will cut it out." Seizing a knife, he was about to do so, when he saw Asāṅga standing before him, who said, "Indeed the doctrine of the Great Vehicle is very profound; it is praised by all the Buddhas, exalted by all the saints. I would teach it to you, but you yourself now understand it; but now, at the very time of understanding it, what good, in the presence of this holy teaching of the Buddhas, to cut out your tongue? Do it not, but (rather) repent; and as in old time you abused the Great Vehicle with your tongue, now with the same member extol it. Change your life and renew yourself; this is the only good thing to do. There can be no benefit from closing your mouth and ceasing to speak." Having said this he disappeared.

Vasubandhu, in obedience to his words, gave up his purpose of cutting out his tongue. On the morrow morning he went to Asāṅga and accepted the teaching of the Great Vehicle. On this he gave himself up earnestly to think on the subject, and wrote a hundred and more śāstras in agreement with the Great Vehicle, which are spread everywhere, and are in great renown.

From this going east 300 li or so on the north of the Ganges, we arrive at ‘O-ye-mo-khi (Hayamukha).

'O-YE-MU-KHI [HAYAMUKHA]

This kingdom is 2400 or 2500 li in circuit, and the chief town, which borders on the Ganges, is about 20 li round. Its products and climate are the same as those of Ayōdhyā. The people are of a simple and honest disposition. They diligently apply themselves to learning and cultivate

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58 This country has not been satisfactorily identified. Cunningham places the capital at Daurdīa Khera, about 104 miles north-west of Allahabad.
RELIGION. There are five saṅghārāmas, with about a thousand priests. They belong to the Sammatiya school of the Little Vehicle. There are ten Dēva temples, occupied by sectaries of various kinds.

Not far to the south-east of the city, close to the shore of the Ganges, is a stūpa built by Asoka-rāja, 200 feet high. Here Buddha in old time repeated the law for three months. Beside it are traces where the four past Buddhas walked and sat.

There is also another stone stūpa, containing relics of Buddha's hair and nails.

By the side of this stūpa is a saṅghārāma with about 200 disciples in it. There is here a richly adorned statue of Buddha, as grave and dignified as if really alive. The towers and balconies are wonderfully carved and constructed, and rise up imposingly (or, in great numbers) above the building. In old days Buddhadāsa (Fo-to-to-so), a master of śāstras, composed in this place the Mahāvibhāṣa Śāstra of the school of the Sarvāstivādins.

Going south-east 700 li, passing to the south of the Ganges, we come to the kingdom of Po-lo-ye-kia (Prayāga).

PO-LO-YE-KIA (PRAYĀGA).

This country is about 5000 li in circuit, and the capital, which lies between two branches of the river, is about 20 li round. The grain products are very abundant, and fruit-trees grow in great luxuriance. The climate is warm and agreeable; the people are gentle and compliant in their disposition. They love learning, and are very much given to heresy.

There are two saṅghārāmas with a few followers, who belong to the Little Vehicle.

There are several Dēva temples; the number of heretics is very great.

Julien has pointed out that the symbol po is for sa. The Chinese rendering is "servant of Buddha." The modern Prayāga or Allahabad, at the junction of the Ganges and Jumna rivers.
To the south-west of the capital, in a Champaka (Chen- po-kia) grove, is a stūpa which was built by Asoka-rāja; although the foundations have sunk down, yet the walls are more than 100 feet high. Here it was in old days Tathāgata discomfited the heretics. By the side of it is a stūpa containing hair and nail relics, and also a place where (the past Buddha?) sat and walked.

By the side of this last stūpa is an old saṅghārāma; this is the place where Dēva Bōdhisattva composed the śāstra called Kwaṅg-pih (Śata śāstra vaipulyam), refuted the principles of the Little Vehicle and silenced the heretics. At first Dēva came from South India to this saṅghārāma. There was then in the town a Brāhman of high controversial renown and great dialectic skill. Following to its origin the meaning of names, and relying on the different applications of the same word, he was in the habit of questioning his adversary and silencing him. Knowing the subtle skill of Dēva, he desired to overthrow him and refute him in the use of words. He therefore said:

"Pray, what is your name?" Dēva said, "They call me Dēva." The heretic rejoined, "Who is Dēva?" He answered, "I am." The heretic said, "And 'I', what is that?" Dēva answered, "A dog." The heretic said, "And who is a dog?" Dēva said, "You." The heretic answered, "And 'you', what is that?" Dēva said, "Dēva." The heretic said, "And who is Dēva?" He said, "I." The heretic said, "And who is 'I'?" Dēva said, "A dog." Again he asked, "And who is a dog?" Dēva said, "You." The heretic said, "And who is 'you'?" Dēva answered, "Dēva." And so they went on till the heretic understood; from that time he greatly reverenced the brilliant reputation of Dēva.

In the city there is a Dēva temple beautifully ornamented and celebrated for its numerous miracles. According to their records, this place is a noted one (brāhmane śāstra) for all living things to acquire religious merit.
If in this temple a man gives a single farthing, his merit is greater than if he gave a 1000 gold pieces elsewhere. Again, if in this temple a person is able to content life so as to put an end to himself, then he is born to eternal happiness in heaven.

Before the hall of the temple there is a great tree with spreading boughs and branches, and casting a deep shadow. There was a body-eating demon here, who, depending on this custom (viz., of committing suicide), made his abode here; accordingly on the left and right one sees heaps of bones. Hence, when a person comes to this temple, there is everything to persuade him to despise his life and give it up: he is encouraged thereto both by the promptings of the heretics and also by the seductions of the (evil) spirit. From very early days till now this false custom has been practised.

Lately there was a Brāhmaṇ whose family name was Tseu (putra); he was a man of deep penetration and great learning, of lucid wit and high talent. This man coming to the temple, called to all the people and said, "Sirs, ye are of crooked ways and perverse mind, difficult to lead and persuade." Then he engaged in their sacrifices with them, with a view afterwards to convert them. Then he mounted the tree, and looking down on his friends he said, "I am going to die. Formerly I said that their doctrine was false and wicked; now I say it is good and true. The heavenly Rishis, with their music in the air, call me. From this fortunate spot will I cast down my poor body." He was about to cast himself down when his friends, having failed by their expostulations to deter him, spread out their garments underneath the place where he was on the tree, and so when he fell he was preserved. When he recovered he said, "I thought I saw in the air the Dēvas calling me to come, but now by the

61 This tree is the well-known of worship at Allahābād (Cunningham, Akṣhaya Ṭaṭa, or "undecaying ban- yan tree," which is still an object
stratagem of this hateful (heretical) spirit (viz., of the tree),
I have failed to obtain the heavenly joys."

To the east of the capital, between the two confluents
of the river, for the space of 10 li or so, the ground is
pleasant and upland. The whole is covered with a fine
sand. From old time till now, the kings and noble fami-
lies, whenever they had occasion to distribute their gifts
in charity, ever came to this place, and here gave away
their goods; hence it is called the great charity enclosure.
At the present time Śilāditya-rāja, after the example of
his ancestors, distributes here in one day the accumulated
wealth of five years. Having collected in this space of
the charity enclosure immense piles of wealth and jewels,
on the first day he adorns in a very sumptuous way a
statue of Buddha, and then offers to it the most costly
jewels. Afterwards he offers his charity to the residen-
tiary priests; afterwards to the priests (from a distance)
who are present; afterwards to the men of distinguished
talent; afterwards to the heretics who live in the place,
following the ways of the world; and lastly, to the widows
and bereaved, orphans and desolate, poor and mendi-
cants.

Thus, according to this order, having exhausted his
treasuries and given food in charity, he next gives away
his head diadem and his jewelled necklaces. From the
first to the last he shows no regret, and when he has
finished he cries with joy, "Well done! now all that I
have has entered into incorruptible and imperishable
treasuries."

After this the rulers of the different countries offer their
jewels and robes to the king, so that his treasury is re-
pleni shed.

To the east of the enclosure of charity, at the confluence
of the two rivers, every day there are many hundreds or
men who bathe themselves and die. The people of this
country consider that whoever wishes to be born in heaven
ought to fast to a grain of rice, and then drown himself in the waters. By bathing in this water (they say) all the pollution of sin is washed away and destroyed; therefore from various quarters and distant regions people come here together and rest. During seven days they abstain from food, and afterwards end their lives. And even the monkeys and mountain stags assemble here in the neighbourhood of the river, and some of them bathe and depart, others fast and die.

On one occasion when Śilādatya-rāja distributed the alms in charity, there was a monkey who lived apart by the river-side under a tree. He also abstained from food in private, and after some days he died on that account from want.

The heretics who practise asceticism have raised a high column in the middle of the river; when the sun is about to go down they immediately climb up the pillar; then clinging on to the pillar with one hand and one foot, they wonderfully hold themselves out with one foot and one arm; and so they keep themselves stretched out in the air with their eyes fixed on the sun, and their heads turning with it to the right as it sets. When the evening has darkened, then they come down. There are many dozens of ascetics who practise this rite. They hope by these means to escape from birth and death, and many continue to practise this ordeal through several decades of years.

Going from this country south-west, we enter into a great forest infested with savage beasts and wild elephants, which congregate in numbers and molest travellers, so that unless in large numbers it is difficult (dangerous) to pass this way.

Going 500 or so, we come to the country Kiu-shang-mi (Kausâmbî).

62 The distance is properly 50 li, as stated by Hwui-lih. The capital, however, is 150 li from Prayâga.
KAUSĀMBĪ.

Kiau-shang-mi [Kausāmbī].

This country is about 6000 li in circuit, and the capital about 30 li. The land is famous for its productiveness; the increase is very wonderful. Rice and sugar-canes are plentiful. The climate is very hot, the manners of the people hard and rough. They cultivate learning and are very earnest in their religious life and in virtue. There are ten saṅghārāmas, which are in ruins and deserted; the priests are about 300; they study the Little Vehicle. There are fifty Déva temples, and the number of heretics is enormous.

In the city, within an old palace, there is a large vihāra about 60 feet high; in it is a figure of Buddha carved out of sandal-wood, above which is a stone canopy. It is the work of the king U-to-yen-na (Udāyana). By its spiritual qualities (or, between its spiritual marks) it produces a divine light, which from time to time shines forth. The princes of various countries have used their power to carry off this statue, but although many men have tried, not all the number could move it. They therefore worship copies of it, and they pretend that the likeness is a true one, and this is the original of all such figures.

When Tathāgata first arrived at complete enlightenment, he ascended up to heaven to preach the law for the benefit of his mother, and for three months remained absent. This king (i.e., Udāyana), thinking of him with affection, desired to have an image of his person; therefore he asked Mudgalyāyanaputra, by his spiritual power, to transport an artist to the heavenly mansions to observe the excellent marks of Buddha's body, and carve a sandal-wood

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63 This has been identified with Kausāmbi-nagar, an old village on the Jumna, about thirty miles from Allahābād (Cunningham). Kausāmbi is mentioned in the Rāmāyana. It is the scene of the drama of Ratnacart, composed by Bāna in the court of Sri-Harsha or Śilāditya.

64 A copy of this sandal-wood figure was brought from a temple near Pekin, and is referred to in Beal's Buddhist Pilgrims, p. lxxv. A facsimile of it is stamped on the cover of that work. The story of Udāyana, king of Kausāmbi, is referred to by Kalidāsa in the Māyavatī.
When Tathāgata returned from the heavenly palace, the carved figure of sandal-wood rose and saluted the Lord of the World. The Lord then graciously addressed it and said, “The work expected from you is to toil in the conversion of heretics, and to lead in the way of religion future ages.”

About 100 paces to the east of the vihāra are the signs of the walking and sitting of the four former Buddhas. By the side of this, and not far off, is a well used by Tathāgata, and a bathing-house. The well still has water in it, but the house has long been destroyed.

Within the city, at the south-east angle of it, is an old habitation, the ruins of which only exist. This is the house of Ghōshira (Kun-shi-lo) the nobleman. In the middle is a vihāra of Buddha, and a stūpa containing hair and nail relics. There are also ruins of Tathāgata’s bathing-house.

Not far to the south-east of the city is an old saṅghārāma. This was formerly the place where Gōshira the nobleman had a garden. In it is a stūpa built by Asoka-rāja, about 200 feet high; here Tathāgata for several years preached the law. By the side of this stūpa are traces of the four past Buddhas where they sat down and walked. Here again is a stūpa containing hair and nail relics of Tathāgata.

To the south-east of the saṅghārāma, on the top of a double-storeyed tower, is an old brick chamber where Vasubandhu Bōdhisattva dwelt. In this chamber he composed the Vidyāmātrasiddhi Śāstra (Wei-chi-lun), intended to refute the principles of the Little Vehicle and confound the heretics.

To the east of the saṅghārāma, and in the middle of an Āmra grove, is an old foundation wall; this was the place

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65 “To teach and convert with diligence the unbelieving, to open the way for guiding future generations, this is your work.” I take the symbol to refer to unbelievers; Julien makes it an interrogative (γε).

66 Aṣvaghōsha alludes to the conversion of Ghōshira, Fo-sho-hing-tsan-king, v. 1710. See also Fa-hien, c. XXXIV.
where Asaṅga Bodhisattva composed the śāstra called *Hin-yang-shing-kiau*.

To the south-west of the city 8 or 9 li is a stone dwelling of a venomous Nāga. Having subdued this dragon, Tathāgata left here his shadow; but though this is a tradition of the place, there is no vestige of the shadow visible.

By the side of it is a stūpa built by Aśoka-rāja, about 200 feet high. Near this are marks where Tathāgata walked to and fro, and also a hair and nail stūpa. The disciples who are afflicted with disease, by praying here mostly are cured.

The law of Śākyya becoming extinct, this will be the very last country in which it will survive; therefore from the highest to the lowest all who enter the borders of this country are deeply affected, even to tears, ere they return.

To the north-east of the Nāga dwelling is a great forest, after going about 700 li through which, we cross the Ganges, and going northward we arrive at the town of Kia-shi-po-lo (Kaśapura). This town is about 10 li in circuit; the inhabitants are rich and well-to-do (happy).

By the side of the city is an old saṅghadrāma, of which the foundation walls alone exist. This was where Dharma-pāla Boddhisattva refuted the arguments of the heretics. A former king of this country, being partial to the teaching of heresy, wished to overthrow the law of Buddha, whilst he showed the greatest respect to the unbelievers. One day he summoned from among the heretics a master of śāstras, extremely learned and of superior talents, who clearly understood the abstruse doctrines (of religion). He had composed a work of heresy in a thousand ślokas, consisting of thirty-two thousand words. In this work he contradicted and slandered the law of Buddha, and represented his own school as orthodox. Whereupon (the king)
convoked the body of the (Buddhist) priests, and ordered them to discuss the question under dispute, adding that if the heretics were victorious he would destroy the law of Buddha, but that if the priests did not suffer defeat he would cut out his tongue as proof of the acknowledgment of his fault. At this time the company of the priests being afraid they would be defeated, assembled for consultation, and said, “The sun of wisdom having set, the bridge of the law is about to fall. The king is partial to the heretics; how can we hope to prevail against them? Things have arrived at a difficult point; is there any expedient to be found in the circumstances, as a way of escape?” The assembly remained silent, and no one stood up to suggest any plan.

Dharmapāla Bōdhisattva, although young in years, had acquired a wide renown for penetration and wisdom, and the reputation of his noble character was far spread. He was now in the assembly, and standing up, with encouraging words addressed them thus: “Ignorant though I am, yet I request permission to say a few words. Verily I am ready to answer immediately to the king’s summons. If by my lofty argument (discourse) I obtain the victory, this will prove spiritual protection; but if I fail in the subtle part of the argument, this will be attributable to my youth. In either case there will be an escape, so that the law and the priesthood will suffer no loss.” They said, “We agree to your proposition,” and they voted that he should respond to the king’s summons. Fortwith he ascended the pulpit.

Then the heretical teacher began to lay down his cautious principles, and to maintain or oppose the sense of the words and arguments used. At last, having fully

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69 This refers to the dream of king Ajītaśatrū, for which see Wong Puk, § 178. This section of Wong Puk shows that the great Kāśyapa is supposed by Buddhists still to be within the Cock’s-Foot Mountain awaiting the coming of Maitréya.

70 It would seem from the context that it was the heretical teacher who asked the king to call the assembly, and that if he was defeated he said he would cut out his own tongue.
explained his own position, he waited for the opposite side to speak.

Dharmapāla Bōdhisattva, accepting his words, said with a smile, "I am conqueror! I will show how he uses false arguments in advocating his heretical doctrines, how his sentences are confused in urging his false teaching."

The opponent, with some emotion, said, "Sir, be not high-minded! If you can expose my words you will be the conqueror, but first take my text fairly and explain its meaning." Then Dharmapāla, with modulated voice, followed the principles of his text (thesis), the words and the argument, without a mistake or change of expression.

When the heretic had heard the whole, he was ready to cut out his tongue; but Dharmapāla said, "It is not by cutting out your tongue you show repentance. Change your principles—that is repentance!" Immediately he explained the law for his sake; his heart believed it and his mind embraced the truth. The king gave up his heresy and profoundly respected the law of Buddha (the orthodox law).

By the side of this place is a stūpa built by Aśoka-rāja; the walls are broken down, but it is yet 200 feet or so in height. Here Buddha in old days declared the law for six months; by the side of it are traces where he walked. There is also a hair and nail stūpa.

Going north from this 170 or 180 li, we come to the kingdom of Pi-so-kia (Viśākhā).

Pi-so-kia (Viśākhā).

This kingdom 71 is about 4000 li in circuit, and the capital about 16 li round. The country produces abundance of cereals, and is rich in flowers and fruits. The climate is soft and agreeable. The people are pure and honest. They are very diligent in study, and seek to gain merit (by doing good) without relaxation. There are 20 saṅghārāmas and about 3000 priests, who study the Little Vehicle according

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71 This country is supposed by the Chinese to be the same as Sā-kēta, the Sa-chi of Fa-hien, which is Cunningham to be the same as Ayōdhyā or Oude.
to the Sammatiya school. There are about fifty Dēva
temples and very many heretics.

To the south of the city, on the left of the road, is a
large saṅghārāma; this is where the Arhat Dēvaśarma
wrote the Shih-shin-lun (Vijñānakāya Sāstra), in which he
defends the position that there is no “I” as an indi-
vidual. The Arhat Gōpa (Kiu-po) composed also in this
place the Shing-kiau-iu-shih-lun, in which he defends the
position that there is an “I” as an individual. These
doctrines excited much controversial discussion. Again,
in this place Dharmapāla Bōdhisattva during seven days
defeated a hundred doctors belonging to the Little Vehicle.

By the side of the saṅghārāma is a stūpa about 200
feet high, which was built by Aśoka-rāja. Here Tathā-
gata in old days preached during six years, and occupied
himself whilst so doing in guiding and converting men.
By the side of this stūpa is a wonderful tree which is 6 or
7 feet high. Through many years it has remained just the
same, without increase or decrease. Formerly when Ta-
thāgata had cleansed his teeth, he threw away in this
place the small piece of twig he had used. It took root,
and produced the exuberant foliage which remains to
the present time. The heretics and Brāhmans have fre-
cently come together and cut it down, but it grows again
as before.

Not far from this spot are traces where the four past
Buddhas sat and walked. There is also a nail and hair
stūpa. Sacred buildings here follow one another in suc-
cession; the woods, and lakes reflecting their shadows, are
seen everywhere.

Going from this north-east 500 li or so, we come to the
kingdom of Shi-sah-lo-fu-sih-tai (Śrāvastī).

END OF BOOK V.

72 For many arguments on this
question of “no personal self,” see
the Life of Buddha (Buddhācharita)
by Aśvaghōsha, passim; also Wong
Fūk, § 190.

73 This tree is also noticed by Fa-
hian in his account of Sa-chi, and it
is this which has led General Cun-
ningham to identify Viśākhā with
Sāketa or Ayōdhyā.
ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS.

VOL. I.

Note 1.—There is an important work called the Shih-kuia-fang-chi, or "An Account of Buddhist Regions," written by Tao-Sün, who lived A.D. 595-667, in which the three routes from China to India are named (part i. fol. 10 b.) The first is to the south-west of Lake Lop to Tibet and Nêpâl; the second or middle route is from Shen-shen or Leu-lian or Na-lo-po (Tao-Sün speaks of these as one place) to Khotan and so on; the third route is the outward one followed by Huien Tsiang. Tao-Sün, in speaking of the Po-lo-mo-lo Mountain (vide infra, vol. ii. p. 214), renders it "the black bee Mountain." Perhaps the Temple of Boram Deo, "in a secluded valley at the foot of the Mekhala Hills, near Kamarda," is connected with the worship of Durgâ under this name (Cunningham, Arch. Sarp., vol. xvii. p. iv.)

Page xxxiv.—The custom of putting a sacred object on the head in token of reverence, is still observed in the Greek Church; conf. the Liturgy of St. Chrysostom (Neale’s Greek Liturgy, p. 127) where the sacred vessel is carried on the head of the deacon.

Page xxxv.—The idea of a square vihâra being indestructible would confirm the opinion given (p. 62, vol. i. n. 215) that Sveta-vâras is the Tetragonia of Pliny; the treasure city of Rameses is also described as "solid upon the earth, like the four pillars of the firmament" (Funeral Tent of an Egyptian Queen, p. 18).

VOL. I.
ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS.

Page xl.—The "yellow spring" may be compared with the Pāli odakantiko.

Page xli.—The "marks and impressions" are probably the wheel marks, &c., on the bottom of a Buddha's foot; cf. p. 204 infru.

Page xlii. line 9.—The phrase shang-tso refers to the chief of the Sthaviras or priests.

Page xliii.—The symbol ku which I here (last line) translate by "ruins," is so used throughout Fa-hian; Huien Tsang uses the full phrase ku ke; cf. K. H. fol. 12, of the Si-yu-ki, also infru, p. 92.

Page li.—The charioteer called Chhandaka is elsewhere called Kaṭṭaka (Chung-hu-mo-ho-ti-king, passim).

Page lii. line 10.—I have taken the phrase "peh tung hia" (north, east, below) to be an error for tung peh king (going north-east).

Page lixiv. line 10.—The Lōkāntarika hells are described as being outside the iron girdle that surrounds a Sakwala.

Page lixix.—With the "one-footed men," compare the Sansc. ēkacharunās.

Page lxxxii. line 18.—The phrase for "rested" is not to be confined to the "summer rest" of the Buddhists; it frequently means "remained at rest," or "in quiet;" cf. "the daily use of the Shamans," p. 15.

Page 25, n. 79.—Red garments are the badge of those condemned to death: vide the Nāgayānanda, Boyd's translation, p. 62, 63, 67.

Page 105, n. 77.—Vasubandhu is sometimes called the twentieth patriarch, cf. p. 120, n. 2.

Page 176, n. 30.—The expression, the "Mung" king, is frequently used by I-tsing. Perhaps he is the same as the Bald-rāj, or the Great King or Lord Paramount of the Muslims (vide Thomas, The Indian Balkhā, p. 11).
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