Anecdota Oxoniensia CHARITA THE BUDDHA-KARITA OF ASVAGHOSHA

EDITED, FROM THREE MSS.



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PREFACE

The poem called the Buddha-karita is at present known to us only in three MSS., all, I believe, copies from an original, which is inaccessible in Nepal. The curious differences between them would naturally suggest a difference in their archetype; but there appears to be only one extant MS. From this Mr. Hodgson's copy was made, which was originally prepared for Burnouf, and is now in the National Library at Paris; the second copy belongs to the Wright Collection of MSS., now deposited in the University Library at Cambridge; and the third, which is in my own possession, is quite a recent transcript, made two years ago by a native Pandit at Kâthmându at Professor Bendall's request. I explain their differences by supposing that the original is full of marginal and textual corrections which have puzzled the transcribers. We find a curiously parallel case in Dr. Stein's description of the Kashmirian codex archetypus of the Sârada MSS. of the Râga-taramginî. He says,

'Another important fact, brought to light by a careful examination of the archetypus, explains the numerous and often not inconsiderable discrepancies found in the various Sârada MSS, and the Devanâgarî transcripts, which can all be proved to have been copied directly or indirectly from this identical archetype. Throughout the whole text written by Râgânaka Ratnâkantha variae lectiones have been written down by at least three successive hands. In copying from the MS, the scribes have followed indifferently the readings of the text or those of the annotators; hence the marked discrepancies in these later copies.'

Of these three transcripts of the Buddha-karita, only one, that in the National Library at Paris, is a Devanâgarî transcript,—the other two are in the Nepalese character. This explains, I think, the inaccuracies in the Paris MS., for I have generally noticed that transcripts from Nepal in the Devanâgarî were more inaccurate than those in the

Nepalese, from the imperfect acquaintance of the Hindu scribe with

the foreign character.

My edition of the text has been chiefly made from the two MSS. in Cambridge—that in the University Library, which I call C, and my own, which I call D. These two hardly ever differ, and I have only noted their variations; consequently the readings of C must be understood to include those of D, unless a difference is mentioned; but I have also used a careful transcript of the Paris MS. (P), made by Professor Max Müller's Japanese pupils Kasawara and Bunyiu Nanjio. M. Sylvain Lévi, who published a careful edition and translation of the first book in the Fournal Asiatique, but who generously gave up his intention of publishing the Sanskrit text of the rest of the poem as soon as he heard that I had begun printing my edition, kindly lent me his transcript of Books ii-vii, and I have used this to test the transcript of my Japanese friends, but I found that their work could generally be relied upon with perfect confidence. My text has thus been founded on a collation of the three MSS., but I have naturally inclined to follow the two Nepalese transcripts, partly because they were constantly at hand for reference, but still more because they appeared to me free from the additional errors introduced into the text by the P scribe's uncertainty in transcribing the puzzling Nepalese characters.

The Paris MS. was copied for Mr. Hodgson in the year 950 of the Nepalese era, i.e. 1830 A.D.,—the scribe seems to call himself Amritananda¹; the colophon runs, khavanamkamite varshe agrahayanike site 1 yame=mritanando likha (*likhat?),—apparently an unfinished couplet.

My own MS. D has no general colophon nor mention of any date, but ends abruptly with the colophon of the seventeenth sarga. The Wright MS. C has after this colophon two slokas which give, but in different words, the same date and the same scribe's name as the Paris MS.—but I shall return to this point presently.

The Buddha-karita is called in the colophon of each of its seventeen sargas a mahâkâvya, and is ascribed to Asvaghosha. A solitary sloka is quoted in the commentary of Râyamukuta on the Amarakosha i. 1. 1. 2, and also by Uggvaladatta in his commentary on the Unâdi-sûtras i. 156.

¹ I believe that Amritananda only made the original copy (now in Nepal), which he annotated in the margin.

These lines are found in Book viii, sl. 13, 'The city without him has no charms for us, like heaven without the lord of the Maruts when Vritra was slain.'

Several slokas are quoted from Asvaghosha in the Subhashitavali, published by Professor Peterson, but none of them occur in that part of our poem which is preserved.

Asvaghosha's own date is uncertain. Hiouen Thsang, who left India in A.D. 645, in the 'Mémoires sur les contrées occidentales,' Book xii. (vol. ii. p. 214 of Julien's transl.), says, speaking however of a former epoch which he does not definitely fix, 'A cette époque, dans l'orient, on remarquait Ma-ming (Asvaghosha); dans le midi Ti-p'o (Deva); dans l'occident Long-meng (Nâgârdjouna); dans le nord Thong-cheou (Koumâralabdha). On les avait surnommés les quatre soleils qui éclairent le monde.' I-tsing visited India in 673, and he also names Asyaghosha among the ancient teachers, and even places him before Nâgârguna, Âryadeva, &c. He expressly praises him as a poet, and mentions his hymns which were used in the Buddhist ritual, and also his Buddha-karita-kâvya1. Whether he could be the contemporary and spiritual adviser of Kanishka in the first century A.D. is not yet proved. though it appears very probable; but at any rate his Buddha-karita seems to have been translated into Chinese early in the fifth century. This must imply that it enjoyed a great reputation among the Buddhists of India, and justifies our fixing the date of its composition at least one or two centuries earlier.

The Buddha-karita was also translated into Tibetan in the seventh or eighth century; the Tibetan translation, like the Chinese, consists of twenty-eight chapters. The Tibetan agrees much more closely than the Chinese with the original; in fact, from its verbal accuracy we can often easily reproduce the Sanskrit words; since certain Sanskrit words are always represented by the same Tibetan equivalents, as for instance the prepositions prefixed to verbal roots². The Chinese version appears to be much more vague and diffuse. This can be explained, I suppose, from the fact that the standard of literary taste differed more widely in India and China than in India and Tibet, as

¹ See M. Fujishama, Journ. Asiat. 1888, p. 425.

² I am indebted to Dr. H. Wenzel for all my information about the Tibetan.

the latter country had not the same fixed national canons of taste and therefore accepted more readily the foreign importation.

The first chapter in the Tibetan corresponds generally with the Chinese, but both omit the first twenty-four slokas of the Sanskrit text, which contain the very rhetorical description of the city of Kapilavastu. From this point up to the end of the thirteenth chapter the Tibetan (and to a less extent the Chinese) agrees fairly with the Sanskrit, and much of the fourteenth is the same in all three, but towards the end of the fourteenth the Sanskrit diverges widely; and Books xv, xvi, and xvii in the Sanskrit have no direct relation to the corresponding books in the Tibetan or the Chinese.

Now here, I think, comes in the importance of the two slokas written in the Cambridge MS. on the last page after the colophon of the seventeenth sarga. Instead of the lame and imperfect attempt at a couplet in the Paris MS., the Cambridge MS. has a revised and completed version, as follows:

युन्यवाणांकयुन्वेषे मार्गे मासेऽसिते स्मेरे । त्रमृतानंदेन लिखितं बुद्धकान्यं सुदुर्जमं ॥१॥ सर्वचान्त्रिष्य नो लब्ध्या चतुःसर्गे च निर्मितं । चतुर्द्शं पंचदशं षोडशं सप्तदशं तथा ॥२॥

'In the year marked by a cipher, the (five) arrows, and a nine, in the month Margasirsha (Nov.-Dec.), in the dark fortnight, and on the day ruled by the seventh astrological house Smara¹, the poem about Buddha, very difficult to obtain, was written by Amritananda. [950=A.D. 1830.] Having searched for them everywhere and not found them, four cantos have been made by me, the fourteenth, fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth.'

Then follow on the last page of the MS. twenty-four anonymous lines of Hindi, which are written partly in the text and partly in the margin round the four sides, in praise of Srî Râgendra-vikrama, his son Srî Surendra-vikrama, and their minister Bhîmasena. We learn from Dr. Wright's 'History of Nepal' (p. 284) that Srî Râgendra-vikrama was made king of Nepal in A.D. 1816, while Bhîmasena, who had received the titles of General and Kâzî, acted as prime minister. This king was

¹ Yama is the deity of the seventh lunar asterism, Bharanî or Smara.

deposed in 1847, and his son Surendra-vikrama, who had been born in 1829, was raised to the throne. One of the Hindi lines curiously confirms this account, as it says of Bhîmasena, 'So hi ganaral-nâmdhârak, buddhisâgar bîr hai.'

But who was Amritânanda? An Amritânanda is mentioned in Râgendralâl Mitra's 'Nepalese Buddhist Literature' as the author of three treatises,—'the Khando*mritalatâ (p. 79), the Kalyânapamkavimsatikâ (p. 99), and the Vîrakusâvadâna (p. 274); the two first are in Sanskrit, the last is in the Newârî language. There is a copy of the second work in the Royal Asiatic Society's Library, with the colophon amritânanda-virakitâ; and the same name occurs as the copyist of another MS., a MS. of the Karunâpundarîka-mahâyânasûtra (amritânandanâlikhat), associated with the date 916 of the Nepalese Samvat, i. e. A.D. 1796. We may therefore assume that his activity as a copyist and author lasted at least from 1796 till 1830. He was probably the father of the old Pandit of the Residency, Gunânanda, whose son Indrânanda holds the office at present. Dr. D. Wright informs me that the family seem to have been the recognised historians of the country, and keepers of the MS. treasures of sundry temples.

Now may we not suppose this Amritananda to have been the author of these four last sargas? In the third line the Cambridge MS. originally had sargatrayam, but katuh-sargam is written over as a correction. conjecture is that the three last sargas, which have nothing corresponding to them in the Tibetan and Chinese versions, are entirely his composition; but that the first portion of the fourteenth, which does agree in part with the Tibetan and Chinese, is taken from some imperfect copy of the original and completed by this modern editor. style of the three last sargas differs in a marked way from that of the thirteen earlier books. It is totally devoid of all attempt at ornament, and it is often grammatically and metrically incorrect. The metre of the fifteenth and sixteenth is mainly the same as that of the fourteenth, the epic sloka, but with many instances of an additional short syllable; that of the seventeenth consists of various forms of the dandaka, as the kusumastavaka with four sets of nine anapæsts, or the mattamåtamgalîlåkara with four sets of nine amphimacers. This last sarga was certainly written in Nepal, as in sloka 28 we read that

Buddha commands Râhula and Gautamî and others to practise the vow of fasting called ahorâtra, the Lakshakaitya ceremony, the rite called Srimgabherî, and that called Vasumdhârikâ,—these four rites are all especially described in Nepalese books mentioned in Râgendralâl Mitra's 'Nepalese Buddhist Literature.' Thus in p. 221, we have the ahorâtravratânusamsâ with a legend to give it honour; in p. 275, in the account of the Vratâvadâna-mâlâ, we have the legend of Suvarnavarna to glorify the rite lakshakaitya-vrata; in p. 229, there is an account of a special treatise called Srimgabherî, which explains the rite as consisting of dedicating one more cowdung, clay, sandstone, or metal model kaitya daily, till the number reaches a hundred thousand,—with the accompaniment of music from a golden horn and other instruments; the same rite without the musical part is called kaitya-samvara. The Vasumdharâ-vrata is similarly described in p. 271, as performed at early dawn on the second day of the moon with tântric ceremonies.

Again, in the twenty-ninth sloka we have the twelve sacred books of the Northern Buddhists, as given in Burnouf's Introduction, the Geya, Gâthâ, Nidâna, Avadâna, Sûtra, Vyâkara (wrongly for Vyakarana), Ityukta, Gâtaka, Vaipulya, Adbhuta¹, Upadesa, and Udânaka. The last sloka is evidently intended to close the poem, and leaves no room for any additional books such as must have followed in the original Sanskrit, as they are found alike in the Chinese and the Tibetan translations. It runs thus,

'The glory of the Avadâna of the birth of the lion of the Sâkyas has thus been described by me, at length and yet very concisely; it must be corrected by Pandits wherever anything is omitted,—my childish speech is not to be laughed at, but to be listened to with pleasure; whatever virtue I may have acquired from describing the king of the Law, the deliverer from mundane existence, who assumes all forms—may it become a store of merit for the production of right activity and inactivity in others, and for the diffusion of delight among the six orders of beings.'

I have examined the MS. of Amritananda's Kalyanapamkavimsatika in the Library of the Royal Asiatic Society: it was translated by Wilson many years ago, and his translation was republished in the second volume

¹ Adbhutadharma in Burnouf.

of his collected Works; but the Sanskrit text has never been printed. Its colophon runs, iti srî-naipâlîyadevatâkalyânapamkavimsatikâmritânandavirakitâ samâptâı It is written in the Sragdharâ metre, and the style, though fairly correct, is not free from errors of grammar; thus in sloka 13 we find abhyagami used as 'he came.' The best stanza in the poem is the twenty-fourth:

ग्रोषात् प्रागत्य योऽसी सहितपरिजनसंद्रहासासिनाद्रिं कित्ता ग्रोषे हदेऽस्मिन् पुरवरमकरोज्ञोकवासाय रम्यं। खस्मीभूताच्जसंस्थं सक्जजिनवरं प्राभजकंजुनाथः कस्याणं वः क्रियात्स क्रिचिद्रि सर्तां तिष्ठतां नौम्यहं तं॥

'May Mañgunâth, who, having come from the Sîrsha mountain with his disciples, divided the mountain with his scymitar bright-flashing like the moon, and in the dried-up lake erected a city, pleasant for the residence of men, and worshipped the best of all Ginas who sits on the self-sustained lotus, be propitious to you wherever you move or stand.—I adore him.'

This is superior to anything in the three last sargas of the Buddha-karita; but the remainder of the poem, as it enumerates the various deities and sacred places of Nepal, generally maintains one flat level of dulness. The two compositions, in point of literary merit, may be fairly ascribed to the same author. Each, for instance, abounds with vara at the end of a word, (often added merely to fill up the metre,) as in puravaram and sakalaginavaram in this stanza; in both we find Maitriya for Maitreya.

If my conjecture as to the recent origin of these concluding books be correct, we can only claim Asvaghosha's authorship for the first thirteen sargas and part of the fourteenth; and to these therefore I would confine my critical remarks. A peculiar interest attaches to them from their importance in establishing Professor Bühler's views as to the successful cultivation, in Northern India, of artificial poetry and rhetoric—kâvya and alamkâra—in the early centuries of our era. Asvaghosha seems to be entitled to the name of the Ennius of the classical age of Sanskrit poetry. His style is often rough and obscure, but it is full of native strength and beauty; his descriptions are not too much laboured, nor are they mere purpurei panni,—they spring directly

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from the narrative, growing from it as natural blossoms, not as external appendages.

In this way I would venture to explain the remarkable parallels to be found between certain episodes of the Buddha-karita and some of the most admired passages in the great works of classical Sanskrit literature. I pass over the description of the glories of the city Kapilavastu at the commencement of the first sarga, (which might easily be illustrated by parallel passages in later poems,) because these verses may be of later date, as they are not found in either the Tibetan or the Chinese translation; but this objection will not apply to the other examples.

Readers of the Raghuvamsa will well remember the description in the seventh book, slokas 5-12, of the ladies of the city crowding to their windows to see prince Aga as he passes by from the svayamvara, where the princess Bhogyâ has chosen him as her husband. There is a striking parallel to this episode in the third book of the Buddhakarita, slokas 13-24, where the young prince makes his first entry into his father's capital,—that expedition, during the course of which he is to make his first acquaintance with old age as the inevitable shadow which dogs the steps of youth. I can hardly doubt that Kâlidâsa's finished picture was suggested by the rough, but vigorous outlines in Asvaghosha; he was the Buddhist Ennius, who gave the first inspiration to the Hindu Virgil. We must not forget here, that in Kâlidâsa the description only belongs to an episode in the main poem,-in the Buddhist author it is a natural incident in one of the most important chapters of the whole work. Kålidåsa merely brings in a few characteristic details, as he is hurrying on to the marriage and the subsequent attack by the disappointed rivals; Asvaghosha dwells in a more leisurely way on the various attitudes and gestures of the women, in order to bring out in bolder relief the central figure of his hero. One verse certainly in Asvaghosha seems to me to have been directly taken and amplified by Kâlidâsa.

Asvaghosha says, iii. 19, 'The lotus faces of the women gleamed while they looked out from the windows, with their ear-rings coming into mutual proximity, as if they were real lotuses fastened upon the houses.' Kâlidâsa develops this crude sketch into a more finished

picture, 'The lattices, whose apertures were crowded with the intensely curious faces of the women, perfumed with wine,—while their bee-like eyes fluttered restlessly,—seemed as though they were adorned with lotuses.'

We can prove that Kâlidâsa was not insensible to Buddhist influences, for in the twelfth book of the Raghuvamsa we have (sloka 21) that remarkable trace of Buddhism, where it is said, in the description of Râma's journey with Sîtâ in the forest, 'He every now and then fell asleep from fatigue on Sîtâ's lap, resting under a tree whose shadow was motionless through his divine power.' This well-known miracle of Buddha's childhood does not occur in Asvaghosha, but it is given in the Lalita-vistara (ch. xi).

Again, in the Râmâyana (Bomb. ed. v. 10. 34-49), there is an account how the monkey Hanumat enters Râvana's palace by night and sees his wives all asleep in the seraglio, and their various attitudes are described, as they lie unconscious of a stranger's presence. There is an exactly parallel description in the fifth book of the Buddha-karita (slokas 48-61), where the prince, on the night of his leaving his home for ever, sees the women of his seraglio suddenly cast by a divine spell into a deep sleep, and he gazes on them as they lie with their limbs and gestures all distorted. Here again in the Hindu poem it is merely a purposeless episode, only introduced for the sake of ornament; in the Buddhist poem it is an essential element of the story,—it is the final impulse which stirs the Bodhisattva to make his escape from the world. the Râmâyana the similarity is more evident, as the description there is only a continued repetition of two stanzas in the Buddha-karita (v. 50), 'Another woman was sleeping, embracing her drum as a lover, with her two arms tender like the shoot of a young lotus, and bearing their bracelets closely linked, blazing with gold; or (v. 55), 'Another damsel lay sound asleep, embracing her big lute as if it were a female friend, and she rolled it about, while its golden strings trembled, with her own face bright with her shaken ear-rings.'

The Râma myth is several times referred to in the Buddha-karita. Thus the charioteer Khandaka, in vi. 36, says to the prince, 'I cannot go to the city with my soul thus burning, leaving thee behind in the forest, as Sumitra left the son of Raghu,'—Sumitra here represents the

Sumantra of our present text of the Râmâyana; so in viii. 8, 'The people of the city shed tears in the road, as when in old days the chariot of the son of Dasaratha came back;' or ix. 9, 'Leaving his chariot, the family priest then went up to the prince with the counsellor, as the saint (Agastya), the son of Urvasî, went with Vâmadeva, wishing to see Râma when he dwelt in the forest;' or ix. 59, 'So Râma, seeing the earth oppressed by the base, came forth from his hermitage and ruled it again.' But these references are vague, and do not necessarily imply the previous existence of our present Râmâyana.

In the thirteenth book we have the description of Buddha's temptation by Mâra and his three daughters; and as Mâra is distinctly identified with Kâma the flower-armed god, we are at once reminded of the similar scene in the Kumâra-sambhava, where Kâma discharges his arrow against Siva. Mâra says to Buddha, xiii. II, 'This arrow is uplifted by me,—it is the very one which was shot against Sûryaka, the enemy of the fish.

'So too, I think, when somewhat probed by this weapon, even the son of Ida, the grandson of the Moon, became mad; and Samtanu also lost his self-control,—how much more then one of feebler powers, now that the age has become degenerate!'

Mâra is described in xiii. 7, 8, in very similar terms to the description of Kâma in the Kumâra-sambhava, 'Then having seized his flower-made bow and his five infatuating arrows, he drew near to the root of the Asvattha tree with his children,—he the great disturber of the minds of living beings. Having fixed his left hand on the end of the barb and playing with the arrow, Mâra thus addressed the calm seer as he sat on his seat, preparing to cross to the further side of the ocean of existence.'

We may surely compare those lines in the Kumâra-sambhava iii. 64, where Kâma is described—

उमासमचं हरवडलच्यः श्रासनच्यां मुक्तराममर्श्॥

'In the presence of Umâ, fixing his aim at Hara, he repeatedly fingered the bow-string.'

When these sensual temptations fail, Mâra tries to frighten Buddha's constancy by an onset of all kinds of monsters and demons,—a scene which is imitated in Arguna's trial in the Kirâtârgunîya.

The Buddha-karita is always called in the colophons of the different sargas a mahâkâvya, and it certainly shows an acquaintance on its author's part with the teachings of the Hindu rhetoric or alamkâra. Of course the common figures upamâ, utprekshâ, and rûpaka occur everywhere; but we find now and then specimens of more elaborate ornament.

Thus in viii. 37, when Buddha's queen Yasodharâ finds that her husband has abandoned her, she bursts out, 'These lines of palaces seem to weep aloud, flinging up their dovecots for arms, with the long unbroken moan of their doves.' We have also curiously long-spun instances of 'allegory' or aprastutaprasamsâ in such slokas as i. 76, 'The thirsty world of living beings will drink the flowing stream of his law, bursting forth with the water of wisdom, enclosed by the banks of strong moral rules, delightfully cool with contemplation, and filled with religious vows as with kakravâka birds;' or xiii. 65, 'The tree of knowledge, whose roots grow deep in firmness and whose fibres are patience,—whose flowers are moral actions and whose branches are memory and thought, and which gives out righteousness as its fruit,—surely, when it is growing, it should not be cut down.'

So we have often rhetorical contrasts well worked out, as in iii. 22:—

'Gazing down upon the prince in the road, the women appeared as if longing to fall to the earth; gazing up to him with upturned faces, the men seemed as if longing to rise to heaven;'

Or viii. 56, 'That body which deserves to sit or lie on the roof of a palace, honoured with costly garments, aloes, and sandalwood,—how will that manly body live in the woods, exposed to the attacks of the cold, the heat, and the rain?'

So viii. 30, in the description of the palace after the prince's flight, 'As the women pressed their breasts with their hands, so too they pressed their hands with their breasts,—dull to all feelings of pity, they made their hands and their bosoms inflict mutual pains on each other.'

We have a very artificial verse, with the figure yathasamkhya in it, in v. 26:—

'The prince, whose form was like the peak of a golden mountain,—

whose eye, voice, and arm resembled a bull, a cloud, and an elephant, —whose countenance and courage were like the moon and a lion:'

गजमेघर्षभवाङ्गनिखनाचः। ग्रिसिंहाननिक्रमः प्रपेदे॥

Or again, v. 42, where he is described, 'Bright like a golden mountain and bewitching the hearts of the noble women, he enraptured their ears, limbs, eyes, and souls by his speech, touch, form, and high qualities:'

श्रवणांगविजोचनाताभावान्। वचनस्पर्भवपुर्गृणैर्जहार्॥

In iii. 51 we have rasântara employed in its technical sense as a counter emotion made use of to cancel one already prevailing, where the king determines to divert his son's melancholy by an expedition outside the palace—

रसानारं स्वादिति मन्यमानः।

in accordance with the definition in the Sâhityadarpana (§ 220)—

रमसवासहषीदेः कोपश्रंशो रसान्तरं।

'By a "diversion of feeling" (rasântara) we mean the banishing of petulance by some violent fear, joy, or the like.'

I have also noticed a curious point of resemblance between Asvaghosha and Kâlidâsa in the occasional references to the festival of Indra's banner, which is, I believe, peculiar to Western India.

Kâlidâsa refers to it in Raghuvamsa iv. 3, 'His subjects with their children rejoiced as they beheld his new rising, with their long rows of uplifted eyes, as at the raising of Indra's banner in the festival for rain.'

So in Asvaghosha i. 63 the seer Asita says that he is come 'with a longing to see the banner of the Sâkya race as if it were Indra's banner being set up;'

And again in viii. 73, 'Having heard of the arrival of Khandaka and Kamthaka, and having learned his son's fixed resolve, the lord of the earth fell struck down by sorrow, like the banner of Indra when the festival is over.'

The style of the poem is peculiar, as there is often a mixture of roughness and rusticity which, unless we can account for it by corruption of the text, does not harmonise with the frequent attempts at ornament and polish. Some of the words used are only known to us from the early lexicons, as the Amarakosa, &c., as e.g. dhishnya, 'a dwelling,' which is a favourite word, and occurs four or five times; krisana, 'gold,' ii. 36; gantrî, 'a cart' (Amarakosa, Hemakandra), ii. 22; Lekharshabha (Amarakosa), 'Indra,' vii. 8. I may also mention samgrâhaka, 'a charioteer,' iii. 27, which occurs in Pâli; rasâ, 'the earth,' v. 5; yâkitaka, 'a loan,' xi. 22, which occurs in Pânini iv. 4, 21, and the Amarakosa; dushkuha, i. 18, 'hard to be roused to wonder,' incredulous,' which occurs in the Divyâvadâna; dharman is used for dharma, 'custom,' in v. 77 and xi. 20.

The Buddha-karita will tell us little new about Buddhism and its history, but it is full of information for those who are interested in the history of Sanskrit literature; and I am sure that other and younger eyes than mine will bring many points of interest to light which I have failed to see, as I was too much engrossed with minute varieties of reading and difficulties of interpretation to have always had leisure or insight for these larger questions. After all, I have been obliged to leave many passages which are obscure from some undetected corruption in the text. The inaccuracy of the Nepalese MSS. must be my plea, as I submit this *editio prima* of the Buddha-karita to the criticism of Sanskrit scholars.

An English translation will shortly appear in a volume of the 'Sacred Books of the East.'

E. B. C.

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