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MORE ABOUT THE STORY OF CINGGIS-QAN AND THE PEACE-LOVING RHINOCEROS

I. de Rachewiltz

In recent years two important new contributions to the history and lore of the *chüeh-tuan*² have appeared in Japan and the United States respectively. They are Etani Toshiyuki's article "Gen-shi no 'kaku tan' setsuwa to sono haikei'b (On the *Chüeh-tuan* Legend of *Yüan-shih* and Its Historical Background) published in 1965, and Chun-chiang Yen's article "The *Chüeh-tuan* as Word, Art Motif and Legend" published in 1969,²

Etani's work is a very careful survey of the major Chinese sources on the famous episode concerning Cinggis-qan, Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'aic and the chüeh-tuan. His conclusion is that Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai, who was both a political adviser of Cinggis-qan and a Buddhist believer, invented the whole story of the encounter with the chüeh-tuan for the following reasons: 1) to prevent the Mongol conqueror from becoming further involved, politically and militarily, in western and southern Asia, at a time when the situation in the eastern regions, i.e. in China, was becoming increasingly difficult for the Mongols; 2) to persuade Cinggis-qan to stop the wanton destruction of human lives that his army had been carrying out in the course of the Western Campaign.³

For his part, Yen treats the whole episode as legendary; however, in his interesting paper he traces the literary antecedents of the *chüehtuan* and shows how the *chüeh-tuan* "as art motif and legend reflects aspects of totemism, divine power, literary imagery, and the use of narrative". Furthermore, through careful and painstaking linguistic analysis, Yen convincingly demonstrates that the *chüeh-tuan* does not represent a mythical "unicorn", as most Chinese scholars would have it, but a rhinoceros. He reconstructs the word *chüeh-tuan* as *kark tuân, which corresponds to Greek kartázōnos or *kargázōnos, Persian kargadān, Arabic karkadann or karkaddan, all going back to Sanskrit khadga-dhenu-, and all meaning "rhinoceros".

With regard to Etani's contribution, it should be mentioned that other scholars before him, even though ignorant of Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai's

¹ In Bukkyō daigaku kenkyū kiyō, ac 48 (Sept. 1965), pp. 47-62. Hereafter: Etani.

² In Journal of the American Oriental Society, 89 (1969), pp. 578-99. Hereafter: Yen.

³ Etani, pp. 56-9; cf. Yen, p. 579 for his summary of Etani's work. Besides the Chinese sources, Etani quotes also one Mongolian source, viz. Sayangsecen's Erdeni-yin tobci. See below, n. 48.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 578.

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Buddhist faith, had already suggested that the story of the chüeh-tuan was devised by him for the express purpose of sparing human lives.⁵ The identification of the *chüeh-tuan* with a rhinoceros had also been proposed many years ago (by Laufer), but on different grounds as we shall presently see. Nevertheless, Etani's and Yen's investigations have refined considerably our understanding of the entire chueh-tuan problem. Recently, Herbert Franke has discussed the story in the context of portents and mirabilia associated with the rise of the Yüan dynasty. It still remains to determine, by reviewing the contemporary sources and other relevant material, what could be the truth behind the "legendary" account of the encounter with the chüeh-tuan. It may also be interesting to find out how the story of Cinggis-gan and the chüehtuan is reported in some of the later Mongol sources. This is what I propose to do in the following pages. To some extent, I shall have to tread on ground already covered by previous investigators, including myself, but this is inevitable.7

In the Chinese literary tradition the chüeh-tuan is a legendary animal closely related to the ch'i-lind or unicorn. It is, in fact, with the latter that we find it associated in Ssu-ma Hsiang-ju's (d.118/117 B.C.) "Shang-lin fu"e 8 According to Chang If (3rd cent. A.D.), the chüeh-tuan has the body of an ox (the ch'i-lin has that of a deer). and a single horn that can be used for making bows. Kuo P'ug (276-324), on the other hand, states that it resembles a swine, with a horn on its nose suitable for making bows, adding further that Li Lingh (d.74 B.C.) once sent ten such bows as a present to Su Wui (140-60 B.C.). According to the Hou-Han-shu, among the animals found in the country of the Hsien-pi there were "chüeh-tuan oxen" whose horns were used for making bows, which were then popularly known as "chüeh-tuan bows". k 10 That the chüeh-tuan resembles a swine, with a horn which is good for making bows, is also stated by Hsii Shen!

5 See, e.g., L. Wieger, Textes historiques (2nd ed.; Hien-hien, 1922-3), II, p. 1652: "Sa (i.e. Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai's-I.R.) farce de la Licorne, que le superstitieux Gengis-khan goba fort heureusement, sauva probablement la vie à des millions d'hommes."

H. Franke, From Tribal Chieftain to Universal Emperor and God: The

Legitimation of the Yuan Dynasty (München, 1978), pp. 40-2. In my paper "Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai (1189-1243): Buddhist Idealist and Confucian Statesman," in A. F. Wright and D. Twitchett ed., Confucian Personalities (Stanford, 1962), pp. 194-5, I briefly summarized the results of my earlier investigation on the chüeh-tuan episode, without however discussing the relevant sources in relation to each other.

Shih-chi (Takigawa Kametarō ed., Shiki kaichū kōshō; af Tokyo, 1956-60) c.117, p. 36. For a translation of the relevant passage, see Yen, p. 579. Cf. Y. Hervouet, Un poète de cour sous les Han: Ssu-ma Siang-jou (Paris.

1964), pp. 324-6.

Shih-chi, loc. cit.; Han-shu (Wu-chou t'ung-wen chüag ed.; Shanghai, 1903)

c. 57A, 18a.

Hou-Han-shu chi-chieh by Wang Hsien-ch'ienah (Ch'ang-sha, 1915) c.90. 5b. Cf. Yen, p. 580.

(2nd cent. A.D.).11 Finally, we learn from the Sung-shu that the chüeh-tuan can travel eighteen thousand li a day, that it is polyglot, and that it appears in conjunction with a virtuous ruler.12

From the above references to the use of the horn of the chüeh-tuan in the manufacture of bows, it is clear that we are dealing here with a real animal, which Berthold Laufer had no hesitation in identifying with the one-horned rhinoceros of India (Rhinoceros unicornis). According to this scholar, the term tuan, m or chileh-tuan, is a counterpart of the word "monoceros" 13 On the other hand, the resemblance to the swine points also to the wild pig and Burton Watson renders chüeh-tuan in fact as "boar" in his translation of the "Shang-lin fu".14

As a symbol, the chüeh-tuan, no doubt because of its resemblance to the benevolent unicorn, acquired over the centuries similar characteristics of goodness and wisdom and, like the unicorn, came to be regarded, at least from the fifth century onwards, as an auspicious creature. 15

Returning now to the famous apparition in Cinggis-qan's lifetime, we read in Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai's biography in the Yüan-shih the following account: "In [the year] chia-shen (1224), when the Emperor (i.e. Cinggis-qan), having reached Eastern India, was encamped at the Iron Gate Pass, a one-horned animal with a body like a deer's, but with a horse's tail and green in colour, addressed the imperial bodyguard in human speech saying, 'Your master should return home as soon as possible!' The Emperor questioned Ch'u-ts'ai about it. He replied, 'This is an auspicious animal called chieh-tuan. It is capable of speaking all the world's languages, it loves life and abhors bloodshed. This is a happy omen sent down by Heaven to warn Your Majesty. You are Heaven's eldest son, and all the men under Heaven are your children. Pray accept the will of Heaven and preserve the people's lives.' That very same day the Emperor withdrew the army."16 Brief references to this event are found in other sections of the Yuanshih: in one of them the compilers added the comment: "the significance (of the apparition) was that Heaven warned him (i.e. Cinggis-qan) to stop the carnage".17

11 Shuo-wen chieh-tzu ku-lin by Ting Fu-paoai (I-hsüeh shu-chü;ai Shanghai, 1928), ts'e 20, 1890b. Cf. Yen, loc. cit.

12 Sung-shu (Po-na ed.) ak c.29, 47a. Cf. Yen, p. 586. Regarding its linguistic skill, the text says "it knows the speech of the barbarians of the four regions", i.e. all foreign languages.

13 B. Laufer, Chinese Clay Figures: Part I. Prolegomena on the History of

Defensive Armor (Chicago, 1914), p. 95.

14 B. Watson, Early Chinese Literature (New York and London, 1962), p. 277. Cf. also his Records of the Grand Historian of China (New York and London, 1961), II, p. 312.

15 See the discussion in Yen, p. 584ff—also for the other connotations of the chüeh-tuan in art and poetry.

Yüan-shih (Po-na ed.) al c. 146. 2a-b. Cf. Etani, p. 49; Yen, pp. 590-1.

17 Yüan-shih c. 50. 2a, See also ibid., c.1. 22a. Cf. Yen, p. 590.

As both Etani and Yen have correctly pointed out, Sung Liena (1310-1381) and his colleagues in compiling the above account followed Sung Tzu-chen's (1186/7-1266/7) version of the episode as narrated in the latter's memorial inscription for Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai. This runs as follows: "When the Emperor was encamped at the Iron Gate Pass in Eastern India, his body-guard saw an animal with a deer's body, a horse's tail, green, and with a single horn. Being capable of human speech, it said 'Your master should return home as soon as possible!' The Emperor, amazed, questioned His Excellency (i.e. Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai), who replied, 'This animal is called chüeh-tuan. It [can] travel eighteen thousand li a day and it knows all the foreign languages. It is a symbol of abhorrence to bloodshed that Heaven Above has sent to warn Your Majesty. Pray accept the will of Heaven and spare the people's lives in these few fremaining] countries, thus giving full effect to Your Majesty's infinite blessings.' That very same day the Emperor issued the order for the army to withdraw."18

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No date is given for this event in the inscription; however, as it follows the mention of a comet seen in the west in the fifth month of the year jen-wu (11 June-10 July 1222), one would assume that it occurred after June-July 1222. Both Ch'u-ts'ai's biography and the Annals of T'ai-tsu record it s.a. chia-shen/1224.19 Although the Yüanshih, following a general error in chronology, places the events of 1219-1223 one year too late,²⁰ Cinggis-qan had actually crossed the Iron Gate (present Buzgala Pass, 55 miles south of Shahr-i-sabr, formerly Kesh, in Uzbekistan)21 already in autumn 1222 on his return journey to Mongolia. Thus the date we can infer from Sung Tzu-chen's version (and about which more later) would not disagree with what we know of Cinggis' movements at the time.

No reference to this extraordinary encounter is found in Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai's works, or in the Hsi-yu chi,o the Sheng-wu ch'in-cheng lup and the Secret History of the Mongols. It is, however, reported by other authors of the Mongol period whose accounts are not mentioned

18 Sung Tzu-chen, "Chung-shu-ling Yeh-lü Kung shen-tao-pei", am Kuo-ch'ao wen-lei (Ssu-pu ts'ung-k'anan ed.) c. 57. 11b-12a. Cf. N. Ts. Munkuey, Kitaiskii istocnik o pervykh mongol'skikh khanakh, Nadgrobnaya nadpis' na mogile Elyui Cu-tsaya (Moscow, 1965), p. 71; Etani, p. 53; Yen, pp. 589-90.

Yüan-shih c.1. 22a,

On this problem, see Wang Kuo-wei, Yeh-lü Wen-cheng kung nien-p'u, ao (Hai-ning Wang hsien-sheng i-shu ed., ap ts'e 32), yü-chi, aq 5b.

There is a vast literature on this famous pass, called in Chinese Tieh-men kuan ("Iron Gate Pass") and in Persian Darí-i ähan or Dar-i ähanin, See especially, E. Bretschneider, Mediaeval Researches from Eastern Asiatic Sources (London, 1888; new ed. 1937; rep. 1967), I, pp. 82-4, n. 211; W. Barthold, Turkestan down to the Mongol Invasion (4th ed.; London, 1977). p. 73 et passim; M.Th. Houtsma a.o. ed., The Encyclopaedia of Islam (Leyden & London, 1913), I, pp. 919-20; idem. New Edition (Leiden-London, 1960-), II, pp. 115-16; Yen, pp. 589-90, n. 86 (also for further references).

by Yen. Most of them are quoted in Etani's article. The first in chronological order is probably Chou Mi'sq (1232-1299) story in the Kueihsin tsa-chih.22 Ît is entitled "Hsi-cheng i-wen" or "Strange Reports on the Western Campaign" and it is ascribed to Ch'en Kang-chung, i.e. Ch'en Fu⁵ (1240-1303).²³ His account is essentially the same as that of Sung's inscription; Ch'en only adds that the creature was "several tens of change high, with a horn similar to the rhinoceros" and "a wonder like spirits and ghosts".

Another account of the same story, by far the most interesting, is that by Yeh-lü Liu-ch'i,u a grandson of Ch'u-ts'ai and a contemporary of Chou Mi and Ch'en Fu.24 Two lines from one of his poems, together with his own commentary, are quoted by Sheng Ju-tzuv (fl. second half of the 13th cent.) in his Shu-chai lao-hsüeh ts'ung-t'an.25 They run as follows: "The chüeh-tuan, symbolizing good fortune, caused the imperial camp to move. / In the Western Regions, subdued and punished, peace was restored". Liu-ch'i's commentary says: "The chiieh-tuan travels eighteen thousand li a day and it is capable of speaking and understanding all foreign languages. Formerly, our August Emperor Sheng-tsu (i.e. Cinggis-qan) took the field to punish the Western Regions. In the summer of the year hsin-ssu (1221), when he was encamped at the Iron Gate Pass, my late grandfather, the Chief of the Secretariat, presented the following memorial to him: 'On the evening of the twentieth day of the fifth month (11 July 1221), your personal attendants while climbing a mountain saw a strange animal which had two eyes like torches, a scaly five-coloured body, a single horn on top of its head, and was empowered with speech. This is the chüeh-tuan. We should prepare an offering and sacrifice to it in the place where it appeared.' According to what they say, [] [=? the chueh-tuan] is auspicious. This is a spiritual being sent down by Heaven as a good omen."26

In his nien-p'u of Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai, Wang Kuo-wei (1877-1927)

22 Kuei-hsin tsa-chih (Chin-tai pi-shu ed., ar 14th Ser.), hsü-chias A, 38b-39a.

On Ch'en Fu see Yüan-shih c.190. 9a-10b. As the story does not appear anywhere in his literary works, it is possible that he personally communicated it to Chou Mi.

24 Liu-ch'i is the hao of one of Ch'u-ts'ai's many grandsons from his son Chu (1221-1285), whose ming is not known and whose literary works, the Liu-ch'i shih-chi, at unfortunately are lost. However, from indirect evidence I think that he should be identified either with Yeh-lü Hsi-iau or with Yeh-lü Hsi-t'u, av Brief references to Liu-ch'i are found in the Shu-chai laohsueh ts'ung-t'an (see below, n. 25), A. 1a, 2b. See also the Yuan-shih chi-shih (see below, n. 26), pp. 43-4.

Shu-chai lao-hsueh ts'ung-t'an (Chih-pu-tsu-chai ts'ung-shu, az 23rd Ser.), A. 1a-b. The passage in question is found on pp. 1a-b. Sheng Ju-tzu, h.Shuchai,ba was a native of Yang-chou and former official in the Sung administration. On him and his work see the Ssu-k'u ch'uan-shu ts'ung-mu t'i-yaobb (Commercial Press ed., 1934), pp. 2558-9. See Etani, p. 54.

Cf. also Ch'en Yen, Yüan-shih chi-shihbe (Kuo-hsüeh chi-pen ts'ung-shu ed.bd), p. 44.

quoted the above story in support of the statement in the Yüan-shih to the effect that Cinggis pitched camp at the Iron Gate in the summer of 1221. He concludes: "Thus, the apparition of the chüeh-tuan occurred in the fifth month of the year hsin-ssu, just at the time when T'ai-tsu was about to march southwards and two years before he [actually] withdrew his army. Sung Chou-ch'enw (i.e. Sung Tzu-chen) erroneously combined [these two events, i.e. the apparition of the chüeh-tuan and the withdrawal of the armyl; therefore, later people (i.e. authors) suspected [this story] to be spurious. This is because they did not examine Liu-ch'i's account."27

Now we know from the Persian sources that Cinggis crossed the Amu-Darva on his way to Balkh in the spring of 1221 and that he did not cross it again until autumn 1222, when he finally returned to Samarqand.²⁸ Although the location of the imperial encampment in the summer of 1221 is not positively known, it was beyond doubt south of the Amu. Liu-ch'i, therefore, appears to be incorrect with regard to the date. His error is the same as that made by Yeh-lii Ch'u-ts'ai's son Chux in the note to the preface of his "Nine Elegies to Celebrate the Victory" ("K'ai-ko yüeh-tz'u chiu shou"), where we read: "Formerly, our August Emperor T'ai-tsu took the field to punish the Western Regions. In the summer of the year hsin-ssu, when he was encamped at the Iron Gate Pass, etc., etc."29 Although the event to which Chu refers is Kou Meng-yü'sz mission to Cinggis-qan, which did actually take place in 1221, the location is incorrect.³⁰ This is due, I believe, to the general error in chronology for the years 1219-1223 that I mentioned earlier. Cinggis-qan's stay at the Iron Gate Pass to which our Chinese sources refer was in 1220. We know that Cinggis spent the summer of this year in the neighbourhood of Nasaf (modern Karshi), that is, in the proximity of the Iron Gate, before advancing on Tirmidh (modern Termez) in the autumn. 31 He did not cross the Iron Gate again until the autumn of 1222.

To complete our survey of Yüan sources relating to the chüeh-tuan episode we should briefly mention the account in Su T'ien-chieh's (1294-1352) Yüan-ch'ao ming-ch'en shih-lüehaa, 32 which is quoted

Wang Kuo-wei, op. cit., 4b.

Shuang-ch'i tsui-yin chibe (Liao-hai ts'ung-shu ed., bf 6th Ser.) c.2. 1a.

31 See Barthold, op. cit., p. 427.

directly from Sung Tzu-chen's inscription, and T'ao Tsung-i's (?1320-?1401)ab version of the story in his Cho-keng lu.33 The latter is based chiefly on the account related in the Kuei-hsin tsa-chih, with the difference that the Cho-keng lu has "Western India" instead of "Eastern India" and that it contains additional literary embellishments. T'ao's account has been translated and discussed by Yen.34 The later Chinese compilations on the history of the Mongol dynasty quote the story of the chüeh-tuan either from the inscription or from Yeh-lii Ch'u-ts'ai's biography with little or no variation.

Of the Western scholars, Abel-Rémusat translated the account of the chüeh-tuan in the Yüan-shih lei-pien biography of Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai (based on the Yüan-shih), without commenting on it.35 Bretschneider merely reports the incident, extracting it from the Annals of Tai-tsu in the Yüan-shih, and translates chüeh-tuan as "upright horn".36 Wieger calls the chüeh-tuan "Règle Cornue" and makes the incident -to which he refers as Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai's "farce de la Licorne"occur in the year 1222, at the time of Cinggis-qan's attempt to reach Tibet.37 Wieger's idea of placing this event on the Himalayas was probably influenced by D'Ohsson, who mentions it in connection with the conqueror's plan of returning to Mongolia via India and Tibet.38 In order to reconcile the date 1222 with the location given in the Chinese sources, Wieger states that the "Portes de Fer" mentioned in these sources are not those of Kesh, but probably those near Leh. I do not know of any mountain pass by the same name in this region, and presume that Wieger means the Karakoram Pass. In any case his suggestion is unfounded, since Cinggis' troops never went as far as Kashmir and Ladakh. From the Persian historians we learn in fact that Cinggis gave up his plan of returning home through India while he was still on the Indus at the beginning of 1222. The reasons were, according to Rasid al-Din, the difficulty of crossing rugged

Nan-ts'un Cho-keng lu (Ssu-pu ts'ung-k'an ed.) bj c.5. 1a-b. See Etani, p. 53. Yen, p. 590, As Yen points out, the unusual attributes conferred by T'ao on the chüeh-tuan, i.e. the animal represented as the spirit of the Pleiades and its coming with a book to symbolize the wisdom of the ruler with whom its appearance is associated, are traditional literary characteristics of the lin genus. They are interesting insofar as they show the development of the chüeh-tuan legend in the later Yuan period. Cf. Franke, From Tribal Chieftain to Universal Emperor, p. 41.

35 J.-P. Abel-Rémusat, "Yeliu-thsou-thsai, Ministre tartare", in Nouveaux mélanges asiatiques (Paris, 1829), II, pp. 67-8. See Shao Yuan-p'ing, Yuanshih lei-pienbk (Sao-yeh-shan-fang ed., bf 1795) c.11. 1b-2a.

36 Mediaeval Researches from East Asiatic Sources, I, p. 83, and 289, n. 696; in n. 1090 on p. 274 of vol. II he refers to it as a "legend".

Textes historiques, II, pp. 1652-1653.

See Barthold, op. cit., pp. 438-55; I. de Rachewiltz, "The Hsi-yu lu by Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai", Monumenta Serica, XXI (1962), pp. 67-8, n. 159; p. 69,

In the Yüan-shih c. 1, 20b, the Sung embassy of Kou Meng-yu and the Chin embassy of Wu-ku-sun Chung-tuanbs are mentioned under the fourth month in summer of the year hsin-ssu (24 April-22 May 1221), when Cinggis "had set up camp at the Iron Gate Pass". The place where Cinggis received these embassies was, in all likelihood, in the area of Talgan, i.e. modern Ounduz in NE Afghanistan. See Berthold, op. cit., p. 444; Iwamura Shinobubi in Tōyōshi-kenkyū, XV (1956), pp. 26-42. On Kou's mission, see also T'u Chi's remarks in Meng-wu-erh shih-chibi (1934 ed.; rep. Taipei, 1962) c.3. 22b.

³² Yuan ed. of 1335 (ph. rep. Shanghai, 1962), c.5. 2b. The report of the

C. D'Ohsson, Histoire des Mongols, depuis Tchinguiz-Khan jusqu'à Tamerlan (La Haye et Amsterdam, 1834-5; rep. Tientsin, 1930), I, p. 318, n. 1.

chüeh-tuan apparition in the Fo-tsu li-tai t'ung-ts'ai (Taishō shinshū daizōkyö, v.49, no. 2036) c. 22, 729a, derives from the Yüan-ch'ao mingch'en shih-lüeh quotation of the account in Sung Tzu-chen's inscription.

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mountains and dense forests, the bad climate and drinking water, and the reports that the Tanguts had revolted.39 According to Jūziāni. whose account has particular relevance for us, Cinggis-qan was taking the omens, in the Mongolian traditional way, by examining the shoulder-blades of sheep in his encampment at Gibari (or Giri, near Peshawar?), when he received the news of the Tanguts' rebellion. This and the contrary advice of the soothsavers dissuaded him from proceeding further into India.40

Krause and Haenisch, in their respective translations of the passage relating to the chueh-tuan in the Annals of T'ai-tsu in the Yuan-shih. have both rendered chüeh-tuan as "Einhorn" without commenting on the story.41

What the truth is behind the story of the chüeh-tuan is difficult to say. The Ch'ing scholar Ch'eng T'ung-wenac (a chin-shih of 1799) rejected it as spurious, claiming that it was fabricated, presumably by Sung Tzu-chen, in order to add glory to Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai. 42 Although Ch'eng's arguments in support of his statement are all debatable, the story of the chüeh-tuan may of course be entirely devoid of truth. Most other scholars, as we have seen, either reject it or do not comment upon it. For my part, I am inclined to believe that a real incident occurred which gave origin to it and which was later distorted and magnified. It is, indeed, not only possible, but likely, that some Mongol soldiers saw a rhinoceros. This explanation was suggested long ago by Hung Chünad (1840-1893),43 but it seems to have escaped the notice of both Chinese and Western historians.

Such a sighting may well have taken place during the Mongol raid into the Punjab in the winter of 1221-1222. Although on its way to extinction, the one-horned rhinoceros of India was still to be found in the Punjab and Sind in the fourteenth century, and in the region of Peshawar as late as the fifteenth century.44 The report of such a

39 O. I. Smirnova (tr.), Rašid-ad-Din. Shornik letopisei, I.2 (Moscow, 1952), p. 225. Cf. J. A. Boyle (tr.), 'Ata-Malik Juvaini. The History of the World-Conqueror (Manchester, 1958), pp. 137-8 and n. 16.

40 H. G. Raverty (tr.), Tabakāt-i-Nāsirī (London, 1881; rep. New Delhi, 1970), pp. 1043-7, 1081. Cf. Barthold, op. cit., p. 453.

41 See F. E. A. Krause, Cingis Han. Die Geschichte seines Lebens nach den chinesischen Reichsannalen (Heidelberg, 1922), p. 39; E. Haenisch, "Die letzten Feldzüge Cinggis Han's und sein Tod nach der ostasiatischen Überlieferung", Asia Major, IX (1933), p. 531.

42 See his colophon to the Hsi-yu chi in Wang Kuo-wei, Ch'ang-ch'un chen-jen Hsi-yu chi chubm (Hai-ning Wang hsien-sheng i-shu ed., ts'e 39), fu-lu,bn

8b-9a.

43 Yüan-shih i-wen cheng-pubo (Kuo-hsüeh chi-pen ts'ung-shu ed.) c. 22A,

See H. Yule, Cathay and the Way Thither (London, 1913-16; rep. Taipei, 1972), III, p. 42; E. Balfour, The Cyclopaedia of India and of Eastern and Southern Asia (London, 1885), III, p. 406. Our major authority for the existence of the rhinoceros in NW India in the fourteenth century is Ibn Battūta (1304-1368/9 or 1377), who saw one on the east bank of the Indus in 1333. See C. Defreméry et B. R. Sanguinetti (ed. and tr.), Voyages d' Ibn Batoutah (Paris, 1853-58), III, pp. 100-1.

sighting could have easily been distorted and exaggerated by the witnesses themselves, to whom the animal was quite unfamiliar. If so, Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai's subsequent interpretation of the incident, as related by his grandson Liu-ch'i, is perfectly plausible, even if the location and date in the latter's account are not to be relied upon. We must not forget that one of Ch'u-ts'ai's main functions at court at the time was that of soothsayer, as evident from his biographies and from his own writings.45 He no doubt belonged to the category of non-shamanic soothsayers called in Mongolian tölgecin or "diviners", which included specialists in divinatory arts from different countries. Ch'u-ts'ai, of course, practised divination using Chinese traditional methods.46 His interpretation of the incident would have naturally been influenced by his literary background, and his identification of the animal seen by the Mongol soldiers with the chüch-tuan, rather than with the ch'i-lin unicorn, finds its logical explanation in the fact that the former is endowed by tradition with the ability to cover large distances. Since at the time Cinggis-qan was considering the invasion of new countries and further bloodshed, the "message" of the chüeh-tuan-like the ch'i-lin a symbol of universal love—could only be one of non-violence and restraint. It is very doubtful that Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai's advice alone would have been sufficient to deter Cinggis-qan and make him alter his military plans, but together with other factors it would have certainly played its part. As mentioned earlier, Juzjani specifically mentions as one of the reasons for his withdrawal from India the contrary advice of the soothsayers, whereas Rašid al-Din speaks of bad climate and drinking water, physical obstacles and certain political considerations.

Now, Sung Tzu-chen's account of the incident is no doubt intended to enhance the role and prestige of Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai and to credit him, indirectly, with the withdrawal of the Mongol army and the sparing of countless human lives. However, the circumstantial evidence that I have presented and discussed indicates that it cannot be dismissed purely on this ground. And if, as I think, the strange creature sighted by the Mongol kesigten (the Imperial Guard) somewhere near the Indus in 1221-1222 was a Rhinoceros unicornis, how very appropriate -even if unwittingly so-was Ch'u-ts'ai's designation of chueh-tuan, a term that only recently, thanks to Chun-chiang Yen, has been definitively recognized as being the Chinese transcription of the ancient Indian name of the rhinoceros.

45 See Sung Tzu-chen, op. cit., 11a-b; Munkuev, op. cit., pp. 70-1; Chan-jan chü-shih wen-chi (Ssu-pu ts'ung-k'an ed.) bp c.8. 15b4. Cf. also ibid. c.4. 10b3 and c. 10. 3b3. On Ch'u-ts'ai's activity as a bicēci (scribe-secretary), see de Rachewiltz, "Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai", pp. 195-8.

46 On the tölgecin see P. D. Buell, Some Aspects of the Origin and Development of the Religious Institutions of the Early Yuan Period (M.A. Thesis, University of Washington, 1968), p. 6ff. Ch'u-ts'ai's "methods" were astrology, the I-ching and Tai-i systems of divination, and "esoteric mathematics" (nei-suan).bq

This survey would be incomplete without some references to the Mongolian versions of our story. To review and discuss all the variants of the *chiieh-tuan* episode in Mongol literature from the 17th century onward—there are unfortunately no earlier references—would take us too far. Therefore, I shall limit myself to two major Mongolian historical works, one of the seventeenth and the other of the eighteenth century, which I think deserve attention.

In his article Etani has already quoted⁴⁷ from the first of these, namely the celebrated chronicle Erdeni-vin tobči (full title: Qad-un ündüsud erdeni-yin tobci or Precious Historical Summary of the Origins of Khans) by the Ordos prince Sayang-secen (1604-?) completed in 1662. In this work the episode of the encounter with the chüeh-tuan is related as follows: "Thereupon, when he (=Cinggisqan), following the same course, rode against India, on crossing the mountain defile called the Candanarang ("Brilliant Peak") Pass, he came upon a wild animal, called the seru ("rhinoceros"), which had a single horn on top of its head. It made obeisance, bending its knees three times before the Lord. While everyone marvelled at it, the Lord spoke thus and said, 'That vaira-seat of India is said to be the country where the sublime Buddhas and Bodhisattvas, and the powerful Holy Rulers of the past were born. Now, why does this speechless animal make obeisance thus, like a man? If we go there (i.e. to India), we will perhaps be punished [by Heaven]? Could Heaven Above, my father, have warned me?' He wheeled round and returned home."48

Sayang-secen's ultimate source was almost certainly a Chinese work, but I do not know which one. The story, transposed into a Mongolian Buddhist milieu (via Tibetan?) has been embellished and in the course of transmission has acquired a thoroughly Buddhist flavour. In the Erdeni-yin tobci the event is placed s.a. 1206, an error due, I think, to a miscalculation of a duodenary cycle.⁴⁹

In a later version of the story found in the Altan tobci (Golden Historical Summary) of Mergen-gegen of the Urat, who flourished in the middle of the eighteenth century, 50 the chüeh-tuan episode is related as follows: "In the Year of the Blue Ape (1224), when Cinggisquan set out to conquer the Tangyud nation, Qasar set out [with him]

leading the army as general. Upon reaching the Iron Gate, while they were halting [there], the soldiers discussed among themselves the fact that one night [some of them] had seen a creature with a body like that of a deer, a horse's tail, and green in colour, which, speaking in Mongolian had said, 'Qayan, go back quickly!' On that occasion, the chief secretary Aluun-Cusai (=Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai) memorialized [the Throne as follows:] 'This supernatural animal can speak in human tongue. It is called kiyuu-tuvan (=chüeh-tuan). It is Heaven that has spoken through it. If the Qayan, complying with the intention of Heaven, withdraws the army, it will be real wisdom.' Qasar said, 'If you, secretary Cusai, find it difficult to proceed, [then] you withdraw your own person (i.e. you yourself turn back)! Why do you interfere in (lit. ruin) important government affairs making up lies and dissuading the Qayan? I am over sixty years old, and have been to various countries, but I have never seen it or heard of it. Whence came the so-called kiyuu-tuvan that day and became the messenger of Heaven? [Do you think that] Qasar will also be deceived by this fabrication of yours?' So he greatly railed [at him]. [However,] as Cinggis had long since recognized the wisdom of Aluun-Cusai, he regarded Qasar's behaviour as improper and, after reprimanding him, withdrew the great army."51

Although both Sayang-secen's and Mergen-gegen's versions are of no use to us in interpreting the original account of the encounter with the *chüeh-tuan*, they are excellent examples of Mongol historiography and of the way the native chronicler adapts the raw material of history to his own purposes. Mergen-gegen's immediate source was the account on the *chüeh-tuan* in the Yüan-shih. 52 However, his Altan tobci being essentially a historico-genealogical work on Qasar and his descendants, the story of the *chüeh-tuan*, duly modified, has become but

⁴⁷ Etani, pp. 54-5. Unfortunately, his transcription of the Mongol text is defective.

⁴⁸ For the Mongol text and a discussion of its reading see Appendix I.

⁴⁹ I.e., the event has been registered under the Year of the Tiger 1206 instead of the Year of the Tiger 1218. The same chronological error involving a full twelve-year cycle is found in the Secret History of the Mongols §§ 199 (1205 for 1217), 237 (1206 for 1218) and 239 (1207 for 1218/19). See I de Rachewiltz in Papers on Far Eastern History, 21 (March 1980), p. 36, n. 199; P. Pelliot, Notes critiques d'histoire kalmouke. Texte (Paris, 1960), p. 60, n. 58.

⁵⁰ On Mergen-gegen (fl. 1748-1765) and his work see W. Heissig, Die Familien- und Kirchengeschichtsschreibung der Mongolen, I: 16-18. Jahrhundert (Wiesbaden, 1959), pp. 171-91; P. B. Baldanžapov, Altan Tobci. Mongol'skaya letopis' XVIII v. (Ulan-Ude, 1970), pp. 7-106.

⁵¹ Köke becin jildür Cinggis-qan Tangyud ulus-i dayılar-a mordaqui-dur Qasar cerig terigülen jangjun bolju mordayad. Temür-qayalyan-dur kürcü sayun atala. cerig-un arad nige sonin amitan-i üjebei kemen kelelcekü anu. bey-e anu buyu adali morin segültei noyoyan önggetei mongyol kelen-iyer ügülejü qayan qurdun buca kememüi keleldübei, tere caytur Cinggis-qayan dayaysan bicig-ün erkem tüsimel Aluun-Cusai ayiladqar-un, ene yayiqamsiytu görögesün kümün-ü kelen-iyer ügülejü cidamui, egünü ner-e kiyuu-tuvan, eguni tngri jaruju kelegsen anu bolai. qayan tngri-yin sedkillüge neyilegülejü cerig bucabasu secen qambai (=qanbai). Qasar ügülerün Cusai ci bicig-ün tüsimel yabudal-i berkesiyebesü cinu öber-ün bey-e bucabasu bolumui j-a. qudal üge-i güicigejü qayan-u sedkil-i kötelgejü yeke törö-yin kereg-i süidkekü cinu yayun. bi edüi jira yarun nasun [71] kürcü yajar yajar yabula ese üjigdegsen ese sonosuydaysan kiyuu-tuvan kemegci ene edür qamiy-a-aca tngri-yin elci bolun irebei, cinu ene qayurmay-dur Qasar basa qayurtaju bolqu buyu-uu, kemen yekede cokibai. Cinggis kedüinece Aluun-Cusai-i mergen kemen oyisiyaysan tula Qasar-i öber jin (read jim-e) jili ügei üjejü Qasar-i dongyodyad yeke cerig bucabai. See "The Mongol chronicle Altan Tobci", in Raghu Vira (ed.), Indo-Asian Studies, Part I (New Delhi, 1963), pp. 70-1. Cf. Baldanžapov, op. cit., pp. 335-6: 37v3-38r2 (text); p. 152 (translation).

⁵² See Heissig, op. cit., p. 179.

an anecdote characterizing the personality of Cinggis' famous brother. In conclusion, I think we can safely assume that the historical encounter with the chüch-tuan/rhinoceros-if, as it is likely, such an encounter did take place-was regarded by those immediately affected by it (Cinggis-qan, Yeh-lü Ch'u-ts'ai) merely as a "sign" or augury concerning an important matter at hand, i.e. Cinggis' army movements in 1221-1222. For the Chinese literati and historians of the Mongol period, the whole episode became an example of the civilizing influence of the sinified adviser of Cinggis-qan, and of the triumph of benevolence and wisdom over military thinking-hence an excellent illustration of the Confucian ideal in practice. At the same time it provided also, but to a lesser extent, the literary imagery traditionally associated with the coming of a sagacious ruler in a period of turmoil. In the later Mongolian chronicles, the story has acquired a Buddhist gnomic tinge totally absent in the original, or, as in Mergen-gegen's version, it is used largely as a background for the fictional characterization of popular heroes. Nevertheless, one dominant element in the various versions is the wisdom of Cinggis-qan as exemplified by his compliance with Heaven's command. This would explain, in my view, why a story like this, in which Cinggis is shown as actually arresting his progress and withdrawing from India, is quoted in works that strive to justify, on pseudo-historical and ideological grounds, the claim of Cinggis and his descendants to universal rule. In other words, the better judgement displayed by Cinggis on that occasion, far from prejudicing his right, is a further indication that he had the prudence and wisdom one would expect in a man who was destined to become the world leader.53

APPENDIX I

Tendece mön tere yabudal-iyer-iyen Enedkeg-tür morilar-un Cidγarang-un (read Candanarang-un) dabaγ-a kemekü kötel-i daban odtala: [37r] nigen oroi-dur-iyan γαγca eber-tei: seru neretü görögesün güyüjü iregseger: ejen-ü emüne γurban-ta ebüdüg-iyen bokircu mörgön abai: tegün-i qotalaγar γαγiqaldun büküi-e: ejen eyin jarliγ bolurun: tere Enedkeg-ün vcir(-tu) saγurin kemekü: erten-ü degedü burqan bodisung-nar erketen boγdas qad-un törögsen oron gele: edüge ene kelen aman ügei görögesün ber: eyin kümün metü mörgökü anu yaγun: kerbe kürbesü genüger bolqu yaγan bolumu: degere tengri ecige minu idqaγsan bolbau kemeged egegerejü qarin urbaju baγubai:: See E. Haenisch, Eine Urga-Handschrift des mongolischen Geschichtswerk von Secen Sagang (alias Sanang Secen), (Berlin, 1955), p. 36: 36v29-37r10. Cf. I. J. Schmidt, Geschichte der Ost-Mongolen und ihres Fürstenhauses verfasst von Ssanang Ssetsen Chungtaidschi der Ordus (St. Petersburg, 1829), p. 88, 1.15-p. 90, 1.3 (text), pp. 89-91 (translation); J. R. Krueger (tr.), Sagang Sechen. History of the Eastern Mongols to 1662 (Erdeni-yin Tobci), The Mongolia Society Occa-

53 Franke, op. cit., p. 42, writes: "One point concerning the unicorn story deserves attention: All sources agree that the unicorn somehow stopped Chinggis Khan's advance into India, which is in contradiction with the idea that Chinggis Khan was destined to rule over the whole world. This is surprising because... also Buddhist ideology provided Chinggis Khan and his descendants with a legitimation to rule the universe."

sional Papers 2, (1967), p. 61; by the same author, Poetical Passages in the Erdeni-yin Tobci ('s-Gravenhage, 1961), p. 78. My translation diverges on several points from that of Krueger. I have amended the "Cidyarang-un dabay-a" of the text (36v30) to "Candanarang-un dabaya", which I have rendered as "Brilliant Peak Pass". This requires an explanation. Schmidt's text (p. 88, 1.16) has Cadanaring, which is also the reading of the Ch'ien-lung printed edition and the Peking Palace MS edited by Haenisch, See E. Haenisch, Der Kienlung-Druck des mongolischen Geschichtswerkes Erdeni yin Tobci von Sagang Secen (Wiesbaden, 1959), ch. 3, 33a5; Qad-un ündüsün-ü erdeni-yin tobciya, "Eine Pekinger Palasthandschrift" (Wiesbaden, 1966), ch. 3, 35v2. According to Schmidt, op. cit., p. 386, n. 48, Cadanaring "ist vermuthlich eine Corruption oder fehlerhafte Schreibung des Sanskritnamens Tschandanâdri 'Gebirge der Sandelbäume', womit das Malaja-Gebirge im Westen Hindustan's verstanden wird". While the reading Cidgarang of the Urga MS is also found in two of the three Ordos MSS of the Erdeni-yin tobci formerly in the possession of the Rev. A. Mostaert (see Erdeniyin Tobci, Mongolian Chronicle by Sayang Secen, Scripta Mongolica II, Cambridge, Mass., 1956, v. III, p. 83 [41a] 1.6, and v. IV, p. 96 1.4), the reading Cadanaring is supported by other Mongolian chronicles where the same story is found, in usually shorter and modified versions, such as the Sira tuyuji, the Altan kürdün mingyan gegesütü bicig of Guosi Dharma (1739), and the Bolor erike of Rasipungsuy (1774/5). The MSS of the Sira tuyuji give Cadanaring erike of Rasipungsuγ (17/4/5). The MSS of the Stra luγuμ give Cadanaring (not "Cadaγrik" as in N. P. Shastina, Shara tudži. Mongol'skaya letopis' XVII veka, Moscow-Leningrad, 1957, p. 129), Cadangrig and Cadqarig. See ibid., p. 24, 1.8. The Altan kürdün has Cinda-naring. See W. Heissig ed., Altan kürdun mingγan gegesütü bicig. Eine mongolische Chronik von Siregetü guosi Dharma (1739) (Kopenhagen, 1958), ch. 2, 5v5. The Bolor erike gives Tzidangnaring. See Bolor erike. Mongolian Chronicle by Rasipungsuγ, Scripta Mongolica III. (Cambridge, Mass., 1959), v. I, p. 167 [66a], 1.5 and v. IV, p. 116 [112], 1.4. Now, the reading in MS Ordos A of the Erdeni-yin tobci is Cindanaring (see Scripta Mongolica III v II p. 94 [47h] 1.4) and in the "Oaracin" naring (see Scripta Mongolica II, v. II, p. 94 [47b], 1.4) and in the "Qaracin" text of the same work it is Citanaring (or Cidanaring). See Fujioka Katsuji, "Karachin" hon Mökogenryübr (Tokyo, 1940), ch. 2, p. 28. The reading Citanaring is also attested in the Meng-ku yüan-liu, where we read "the ridge of the Ch'i-t'a-na-ling defile". See Sheng Tseng-chih and Chang Erh-t'ien, Meng-ku yüan-liu chien-chengbs (1934 ed.) c.3, 23b; cf. E. Haenisch, Monggo Han Sai Da Sekiyen, die Mandschu-fassung von Secen Sagang's mongolisches Geschichte (Leipzig, 1933), p. 45: citanaring. The readings in the three MSS of the Erdeniyin tobci in the State Library of Ulan-Bator given by C. Nasunbaljur (Ts. Nasanbaljir), Sagang secen. Erdeni-yin tobci (Ulan-Bator, 1958), p. 112, n. 27, nasandanin', Sagang setem. Enternym to the Cadaγaring?) and Cadararring (or Cadaγaring?), Cadananring (or Cadaγaring?) and Cadararring (or Cadaγarang?). I think that Cadananring and Cadananrang are actually to be read Cadanaring and Cadanarang. All these texts reflect an alternative control of the cadararring and Cadanarang. nance Ci[n]danaring—Ca[n]danaring. Although cindan—candan are well attested Mongolian forms of Sanskrit candana "sandalwood"—see P. Aalto, "Notes on the Altan Gerel", Studia Orientalia (Helsinki) XIV, 6 (1950), p. 17—I do not think that Schmidt is correct in suggesting that this name is a corruption of Candanādri. In the first place, the form Candanādri does not seem to be attested as such. The correct designation of the Malaya (Western Ghäts) is Candanagiri. See M. Monier-Williams, A Sanskrit-English Dictionary (New ed., Oxford, 1899; rep. 1960), p. 386b, This leads me to suspect that Candanadri-grammatically a perfectly correct name (candana + adri "mountain")—was made up by Schmidt himself. Secondly, even if this were another name for the Malaya (which I do not exclude), the identification with the mountain of the story is untenable on purely geographical grounds, the Western Ghāts being too far to the south. However, canda(n) occurs in Mongolian also as a transcription of candra "brilliant, shining". See, e.g., Raghu Vira, Mongol-Sanskrit Dictionary with a Sanskrit-Mongol Index (New Delhi, 1958), p. 110. Now we have in Sanskrit the term candrāgra "brilliant peak(ed)" (Monier-Williams, op. cit., p. 387c) which is, of course, an excellent definition of a mountain. I am of the opinion that Cidqarang

(Cidyarang) is a scribal error for Ca[n]danarang. This could have easily happened, since -qa- (-\gammaa-) and -ana- are indistinguishable in Mongolian script when the diacritic points are omitted. Candanarang may be regarded as a Mongolized form of Candragra, and "Candanarang-un dabaγ-a" may then be rendered as "Pass of the Brilliant Peak". I doubt whether such a peak can be identified with any existing mountain; it was probably a name chosen by the pious author of the Mongolian version of the story who no doubt wished to find a fitting epithet for the place of the mystical encounter. His choice of a Sanskrit term was prompted by his knowledge that the encounter took place in India. My interpretation is to some extent supported by the Hor chos byun, a work that draws heavily on Sayang-secen's chronicle and which, in its account of the tobci, the event is placed s.a. 1206. See G. Huth, Geschichte des Buddhismus in der Mongolei, Zweiter Teil (Strassburg, 1896), pp. 25-6. Saγang-secen calls the animal seru, incorrectly read 'Ssaru' (=saru) by Schmidt, op. cit., p. 89, and Fujioka, loc. cit. Seru, and not sery (=serü) as in F. D. Lessing (ed.), Mongolian-English Dictionary (Berkeley and Los Angeles, 1960), p. 691b, is a loanword from Tibetan (bse-ru). Its original meaning is "rhinoceros", but later it came to designate a species of deer or antelope. For a rather detailed discussion of bse-ru > seru, see Lanfer, op, cit., pp. 120-4.

a.角端 6.惠谷俊之:元史の角端. 説話とその背景 、那律楚村 心麒麟 ·上林赋 b·张娟 g郭璞 ·李陵 ·蘇武 /角端牛 /角端弓 · 許慎 m端 n.宋濂 a西遊記 p.聖武親 征録 《周密》西征異聞、陳剛中 陳宇 t. 艾 u. 那律柳溪 以藏如梓 w宋周臣 × 鑄 × 凱歌樂詞九首 2. 苟夢玉 aa. 蘇天爵: 元朝名臣事略 ab. 陶宗儀 av. 程同文 au. 洪鈞 ae. 佛教大學研究紀要 4 瀧川龜 太郎:史記會註考證 写漢書

(五洲同文局本) 如王先謙:後 漢書集解 的丁福保:說文解字話林 0)醫學書高 at.宋書(百衲本) at.元史 (百衲本) 研 宋子貞: 中書令耶律公 神道碑 如國朝文類(四部叢刊本) m.王國維·耶律文正公年譜 q.海 寧王静安先生遗書《餘郎《癸 辛雜識 (津速秋書本) 如續集 ot柳溪詩集 an 希逸 av 希圖 az 庶齋老學叢談 (如不足齋叢書本) 四.底齋 的四庫全書總目提要 加元詩紀事 四國學基本叢書

如雙溪醉隱集 以遼海叢書 分島古孫中端 的岩村思的屠寄: 炭兀兒史記 外南村輟耕錄(四 部業刊本) 此即遠平:元史類編 以掃葉山房本 bm.王國維:長春真 人西遊記注 加附銀 加元史遺文 證補 水湛然居士集(四部業刊本) 为易经,太乙數,內算以藤岡勝二: 喀喇沁本蒙古源流 5.沈鲁植, 张爾田:紫古源流菱證

AUSTRINA

ESSAYS IN COMMEMORATION OF THE 25th ANNIVERSARY OF THE FOUNDING OF THE ORIENTAL SOCIETY OF AUSTRALIA

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