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Internal Relationships and Dating of the Tocharian B Monastic Accounts in the Berlin Collection*

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Introduction

There are at least 7600 numbers of manuscripts with Tocharian text, ¹ of which less than 800 are secular documents.² In spite of two documents written in Tocharian A (found in Shorchuk) which seemingly concern some internal affairs of a monastery, all the Tocharian secular documents are written in the B language (i.e. Kuchean) and found in the area between today's Kucha and Maralbashi. Because the European expeditions paid much attention to the Buddhist sites in this region, most of the documents are monastic accounts. The *Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin* now holds the largest collection of them, which comprises mainly the discoveries in the Kizil caves. Since Kuchean documents are mostly written in a less formal ductus, and since their contents concern people's daily life – a subject which seems far removed and obscure in the eyes of modern scholars – they have not yet received the attention that they deserve. Even though a small part of them have been published, these are not yet well understood. However, Tocharian materials are important for recovering the history of

^{*} This article is written on the basis of the oral report of the same title given in the irregular lecture series Collegium Turfanicum No. 36 (July 2, 2008, BBAW, Berlin). We would like to express our most sincere gratitude toward the study group of the Turfanforschung and Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin - Preussischer Kulturbesitz Orientabteilung for their hospitality and interest in our work. Especially many heartfelt thanks are due to Prof. Desmond Durkin-Meisterenst and our supervisor Prof. Georges-Jean Pinault for their support and for improving our English.

¹ Cf. Malzahn (2007: 79).

² The definition of 'document' here basically follows that in Old Uighur studies (see for example *SUK* 2: viii-xv; Moriyasu 2004a: 7 n. 33; Moriyasu 2008: 127-130).

the Silk Road. Thus the aim of this article is to announce the joint authors' project, a study of the Tocharian secular documents kept in Berlin and to present some of our initial discoveries.

As it will be demonstrated in the first half of this article, many features reflect strong connections among certain Berlin documents. In fact, around 80% of the Berlin documents belong to the same monastic community (samgha) living in the Kizil grottoes. For convenience, here we call this majority as the 'main group'. Just as the monastic accounts found at Duldur-akhur, this group provides detailed data about a sampha. Only some series found in Dunhuang and Turfan can be compared to these two assemblages.³ In the second part, we try to date the main group. It has been assumed that the Kuchean secular documents written on paper reflect the final stage of the Tocharian languages. A representative work is written by Dr. Schmidt (2001), who suggests that they must be dated between the 10th-11th centuries, in the period of the Uighur Kingdom.⁴ But in our view, no matter when the Tocharian languages ceased to be in use - this is another issue in the Tocharian studies - it would be better to place most paper documents between the late 7th century and the early 9th century. While this statement is rather safe for those kept in Paris, more arguments need to be established in order to draw the same conclusion for the ones kept in Berlin. Thus we will demonstrate several pieces of evidence, especially the local currency, the dating of the king Ksemārcune mentioned in the main group, as well as a few adminstrative

³ The concept of assemblage is borrowed from archaeology: it means a group of different artifacts found in association with one another. In other words, a document assemblage in this article is assumed to be excavated from the very same locus, possibly belonging to the same social group in the past.

⁴ Precisely speaking, the kingdom of the West Uighurs (*westuigurisches Königreich*), ca. the second half of the 9th century to the 13th century CE (cf. Moriyasu 1991: 3; Moriyasu 2004c: xvi).

⁵ Some arguments are presented in Ching *forthcoming* and Ching and Ogihara *forthcoming*. More discussions are given in Ching (2010).

terms and customs borrowed from Chinese (including kapci 'finger-measure').

I. Internal relationships

In 1948, Krause gave a general description of the 'original texts not translated from the Sanscrit' in the Kuchean manuscripts kept in Berlin. He divided them into three categories: (1) 'A fairly large number of monastery-accounts.' (2) A business letter found together with the monastery-accounts. (3) 'The middle part of a love-poem.' Then in Sieg's monumental article (1950), the accounts⁶ were sorted into two types, of which the second is characterized by the occurrences of a strange word *kapci*. Sieg and Siegling's posthumous work, *TochSprR(B)*II, provided the transliteration of a certain number of Kuchean economic texts kept in Berlin (Nr. 433-494), of one Kuchean letter kept in London (Nr. 495) and of the love poem (Nr. 496). However, the grouping of these scholars becomes very problematic when the unpublished

⁶ Sieg (1950: 208) states that these materials were evidently written with brushes instead of reed pens. However, Prof. Moriyasu Takao, with whom we consulted the problem, considers that the usage of reed or wooden pens is still possible for some fragments among them. Since there are ambiguous cases, we would prefer not to dwell on this issue for the moment.

⁷ Krause notes that illiterate persons signed the documents with 'the measure of their thumbs'. This expression (see also Sieg 1950: 216-217 'Daumenmaβ') was unfortunately misunderstood as 拇印 ('thumbprint') and 'fingerprint' by Inokuchi (1961) and Adams (1999), respectively. See n. 86.

⁸ Following Sieg's observations, the texts Nr. 433-489 are classified in *TochSprR(B)*II into four groups:

¹⁾ Nr. 433-458: an ordinary type of monastic accounts.

²⁾ Nr. 459-473: another ordinary type characterized by kapci.

³⁾ Nr. 474-483: a mixed type between 1) and 2).

⁴⁾ Nr. 484-489: another kind of accounting reports (*Rechenschaftsberichte anderer Art*). This classification was slightly modified by Inokuchi (1961).

pieces (especially THT2679-2950)⁹ are taken into account. Our new scheme will be introduced in the following section; this will also revise the classification of the published documents (see Table 1).

A. Material features

The first step to trace back the internal connections among the Berlin documents is to look at the provenance. However, the information presently available is not precise enough to allow us to do this. Generally these materials are found in the Kizil grottoes, ¹⁰ but only a few pieces are characterised with specific findspots such as *obere Berghöhle*. ¹¹ All the wooden pieces are also temporarily excluded, because there is no evidence for any possible connection to the paper ones. For the rest of the documents, only the running numbers after the letters MQ (*Ming-öi Qizil*) exist. But these running numbers in the most cases merely show the order of putting the pieces into packages, taking them out and conserving them, thus they are far from sufficient to indicate the exact finding spot(s). The documents THT2679 to 2950 even lack running numbers.

Therefore the physical features have to be observed. Firstly, several pieces can be easily sorted out by their different appearances as regards paper texture, paper condition, ductus and other features. 12 They are in contrast with the remaining ones with similar paper and in similar state of preservation. These latter similar pieces

⁹ In the numbers THT2679-2950, THT2805 and 2806 are religious texts, and 2808 a writing exercise. THT2807 is a religious text written on the verso of a fragment of the Chinese *Mahāparinirvāṇasūtra* (cf. T. 374, p. 439a19-26; T. 375, p. 680c11-19).

¹⁰ Cf. Sieg 1950: 208.

¹¹ Namely the assemblage of Nr. 459, 461, 462, 469, 471 (= THT459, 461, 462, 469, 471) with the mark "MQ 5 *obere Berghöhle*". The small fragments under the number of THT2847 without the mark of findspot should belong to it as well.

¹² The documents with unusual features include a small set consisting of THT2692 and 2852, two paper *laissez-passer* (THT1555 and 1586), a fragment THT2701 and several other ones. They are treated in Ching 2010.

consist of the overwhelming part of the *main group*. But some pieces with a different appearance should nevertheless also belong to this group. For instance, Nr. 463 (= THT463), a more greyish and dirty piece with a different ductus, undoubtedly belongs to the *main group* because of the characteristic signatures of the two active clerks, *Yotkolau*¹³ and *Swāmi Aśari* (see *infra*). The lost letter Nr. 492 (= THT492) possibly belongs to the same group, too, because the addressee *Āryawarme* (Skt. *Ārya-varman-*)¹⁴ is also the name of an active clerk appeared in that assemblage. Though no photograph of Nr. 492 survives, it was once reported that the ink had faded notably. Thus it is legitimate to guess at the quite distinct appearance that it will have had from other published pieces. Nevertheless, these atypical fragments would require much more space than can reasonably be allotted to them in an introductory article of this kind.

Shape

Generally speaking, the accounts in the *main group* were written on one side only (except for a specific sign on the verso, see p. 95). Paper edges are significantly damaged, so that no intact piece of paper is preserved except for the long specimen Nr. 433 (= THT433) that Sieg (1950) presented. Accordingly, it is nearly impossible to order them by their contents, since the notation of years and months, if it was ever written in one of the corners, has been lost for most leaves. Fortunately, the damage is informative in itself. In fact, since many documents resemble each other in shape, they must have been kept in stacks when they were found by the excavators. In order to restore the stacking

¹³ In Berlin documents *Yotkolau* was usually written as *Yotkolo* with a monophthongization of the last syllable.

¹⁴ In this article, all the proper names, titles and/or positions attested in Kuchean sources are always given as such. The corresponding forms in other languages shall not be directly used but noted in parentheses.

¹⁵ TochSprR(B) II: 305-306.

sequence, the features of the fragments must be recorded as meticulously as possible. 16

Texture, color and stains

On the basis of our research, it is safe to say that the paper color of the overwhelming majority of the *main group* is highly homogenous.¹⁷ However, as to the paper thickness, cloudiness and pulp ingredients, we can only say that the *main group* appears much the same according to human vision, since these fragments are conserved between sheets of glass and certain published pieces are even glued on backing paper. The significant physical homogeneity implies that these accounts may have been written over a rather limited period, instead of being accumulated by several generations.

The pattern of stains and moldy patches on the pieces of paper is very helpful for verifying the sequence. These kinds of dirt are generally due to the moldiness of the paste (used for glueing the paper at junctures), the effects of water, and a sort of water-soluble purple dyestuff of uncertain origin. Since the outer edges of the paper are more likely to break off during the excavation and later processes, the subtle traces of stains and mold give us more reliable information about the actual sequence the fragments were in when they were found by the Germans. The result of this cross-check

¹⁶ To start with, several sub-groups were established by sorting and arranging them roughly according to their contours by using Adobe Photoshop. The result of this preliminary sequencing is served as the operational basis for later analysis. But numerous fragments remain hardly classifiable, mainly due to their tiny size or their severe mutilation.

¹⁷ Judging from the TITUS images, the paper color seems highly variable. But actually it mostly falls into the range of 10YR7/3 'very pale brown' to slightly darker 10YR6/3 'pale brown' according to the Munsell Soil Color Charts (Year 2000 Washable Edition). The color 10YR7/3 corresponds to 'chamois α' as termed by French scholars. On the Munsell color system, see the evaluation of it in Drège (1987-1988).

¹⁸ If Le Coq's description is reliable, this kind of violet-red dye may result from the excrement of cave-nesting pigeons which used to feed on certain fruit rich in natural pigment (Le Coq 1985[1928]: 143).

is quite intriguing. Not only can the preliminary sequencing be confirmed to a large degree, but also can certain operational subgroups be then integrated into some longer series. ¹⁹ These traces even help greatly to regulate the sequencing when the shape of two or three leaves just look indistinguishable. Hence we know that the bulk of the *main group* was originally kept or deposited in a very few piles before the discovery.

Figure 1: Some diagnostic stains (shadowed area) on the fragments

THT2689 THT2691 THT2694 THT2682 THT2680

Wire lines (French vergeure, Chinese 簾紋, Japanese 漉き縞)

Drawing on the results of Pan Jixing's research, the interval of wire lines is an important parameter to judge if the paper was made in Northwestern China (a geographical area lacking bamboo) or imported from a more temperate region. In local products of Xinjiang around the 7th-9th centuries, whenever wire lines are observable, these should be of an interval approximately between 5 to 7 lines/cm, significantly looser than the contemporary products in the east, of which the inteval is between 9 to

¹⁹ The piling direction presented in **Plate I-III** is so arranged for easy looking. It is possible that it was effectively in reverse, but right now this is uncertain. However, if the monks had put the older accounts on the top of piles, then THT2683 (i.e. the bottom illustrated in **Plate I**) can be seen as the top of that pile.

15 lines/cm.²⁰ The paper of the *main group* is characterized by the interval of 5 to 5.5 lines/cm – whenever the measurement are not impeded by the backing paper – with the wire lines often a little curved. We may say that the paper of the *main group* is very probably a local product, principally rough but of stable quality.

B. Content

The content also indicates a high correlation inside the *main group*. As a result, these accounts can be classified according to the contents as follows:

- Type 1. Cereal consumption and donation/giving
 - 1-a. Internal: Daily consumption inside the *samgha* and the relevant donation/giving.
 - 1-b. External: Daily consumption for the "outsiders".
 - 1-c. Combination of internal and external expenses.
- Type 2. Oil and ghee consumption (and donation/giving)
- Type 3. Management affairs

An essential fact must be emphasized before presenting each type: this typology is highly correlative to the typology based on the fragment outlines. The shape of the Type 1-c document (only THT2705) is symmetrical.²¹ As to those more fragmentary

²⁰ The statement drawn here is a largely simplified one extracted from the work of Pan (1979: 63, 185, 188-189).

²¹ It is interesting that the outlines of several fragments of Type 1 are either symmetric (i.e. Nr. 440 and probably THT2704) or approximately corresponding with each other with a mirror image symmetry according to the horizontal axis (e.g. Nr. 446 and 447, Nr. 443 and 444, see the TITUS images). Another part of the axial symmetric fragments is in Type 3 (e.g. Nr. 464-466 = THT 464-466). It implies that some Type 1 and Type 3 documents were folded upside down when they were found, thus not all of the monastic accounts were piled as illustrated in Plate I-III.

pieces nearly intractable for shape sequencing, there is a specific set characterized by medium size and highly degenerated paper belonging to Type 3.

Type 1. Cereal consumption and donation/giving

Here a fragment of Type 1-b, is transliterated as follows:²²

Nr. 434 (= THT434)

- /// s. w(āk)[t](e) /// 1
- /// $[p] \cdot {}^{1}r \cdot {}^{2}$ śśiyempa śka śem, vaksai śawā 3 /// 2 pas.
- 3 /// amokces, viksye piś sankam — ///
- pañcwarike cittarakșite lyāka sankastere [ā]ryawarme śa[r]sa ||| 4
- 5 suk meñantse ne kapyāres, klese masa tarya tom, wākte wi tom,
- 6 amokces, yiksye piś sankam ----
- pañcwarike cittarakşite lyāka 👯 saṅ<u>ka</u>stere āryawarme śarsa
- 8 ok meñantse ne kapyāres, klese tau piś sankam wākte tau ke - ///
- 9 śantalyai klaina tenkeś, pas, maiytare amokces, yiksye piś sankam
- pañcwarike cittarakşite lyāka 🗱 saṅkastere āryawarme śarsa 10

²² Regarding the conventions developed in the edition of Chinese documents, some additional indicators are embedded in our transliteration, such as marks for final strokes (-----), for juncture lines in the paper (_____) and for texts crossed out by the scribes (ABCD). The distances between phrases and words are adjusted as well. Except for these additional marks, the transliteration conventions used here basically follow *TochSprR(B)*: ///

damaged document edge.

^[] partly damaged akşara(s).

seriously damaged aksara(s) of which the passage is restored.

an indeterminable aksara.

indeterminable part of an aksara.

In addition, personal signatures are represented by the images extracted from photographs.

| 11 | ñu meñantse ne kapyāre <u>s</u> , klese wi tau <u>m</u> , wākte tau wi ṣa(ṅ) <u>ka</u> ṃ amokc[e]s |
|-------|--|
| 12 | [y]ikşye tau |
| 13 | [pa]ñcwarike cittarakṣite lyāka 📫 saṅ <u>ka</u> stere āryawarme (śarsa)/// |
| | (SIGNATURE ON VERSO) |
| 1 | /// To (someone): [wākte] /// |
| 2 | /// 🎆 arrived here with He/They ate yaksai: /// |
| | back(?) |
| 3 | /// To the artisans: yikşye, 5 pints. ———————————————————————————————————— |
| 4 | Cittarakşite the Pañcwarike has seen. Āryawarme the Saṅkästere has |
| | recognized. /// |
| 5 | On the seventh day of the month. To the $kapy\bar{a}res$, $klese$ is gone: three pecks. |
| | wākte, two pecks. |
| 6 | To the artisans: <i>yikṣye</i> , 5 pints. |
| 7 | Cittarakşite the Pañcwarike has seen. Āryawarme the Saṅkästere has |
| | recognized. |
| 8 | On the eighth day of the month. To the kapyāres: klese, (one) peck, five pints |
| | wākte, (one) pecks /// |
| 9 | The shepherd women went to <i>Tenke</i> . To the artisans: yikşye, 5 pints. |
| 10 | Cittarakşite the Pañcwarike has seen. Āryawarme the Saṅkästere has |
| | recognized. |
| 11-12 | On the ninth day of the month. To the kapyāres: klese, two pecks; wākte, (one) |
| | peck, two pints. To the artisans: yikşye, (one) peck. |
| 13 | Cittarakşite the Pañcwarike has seen. Āryawarme the Sankästere (has |
| | recognized.) |

Notes on the transliteration: [line 2] 1. [p] or [s] 2. [n] or [n] 3. Perhaps sawa[te] (med.-pass. pret. 3sg. of su-'eat') or sawa[re] (med.-pass. pret. 3pl. of su-'eat').

Note on the translation: [line 9] *Tenke* may be an ethnic or a tribal name, which may be compared with a non-Chinese habitant whose surname was written as \mathfrak{P} dèng in Cp.32b, cf. Trombert 2000. However Adams (2009: 6) thinks that it means ' \pm (sheep) fold, (lambing) pen'.

As shown above, the consumption was registered by the day. Generally after every four to five days, a clerical authentication was introduced:

PañcwarikeA lyāka[SIGNUM]SaṅkästereB śarsa[SIGNUM]A the Pañcwarike has seen.B the Saṅkästere has recognized.

²³ For example, in a Turfan Chinese account dated before 640 CE (高昌某寺月用麥·栗・錢・酒帳, cf. Chen 1997: 355-360), where the 'Owner/Chief-of-the-monastery', simultaneously a high-level monk (上座寺主 shàngzuò sìzhǔ), checked the text and left the notation 'recognized' (知 zhī, cf. ibid: 64-65). It is interesting that a Pañcwarike called Dharmasene (Skt. Dharma-sena-) signed with 見 jiàn 'sight, see' in the upper fragment of THT2690. Another Pañcwarike called Indrarakṣite (Skt. Indra-rakṣita-) signed with ṣotri (lit. 'signature, mark', THT2679.9) and even simply şo (THT2680.6).

intensive control is rarely found elsewhere. However, it is difficult to judge whether this procedure was followed for 'each single delivery' as Krause (1948: 49) had claimed. The frequent appearance of the position *Pañcwarike* is noteworthy. Ching supposes it to be the equivalent of an unknown Sanskrit form *pañca-vārika-, which could either mean the monk 'charged-with-five-matters', or alternatively, five monks to be nominated for the same position. As thus far known to us, the word *Pañcwarike* is only attested in the Kizil documents, thus we cannot deny the possibility that it was a local invention.

Cereal consumption was generally divided into two categories – one for the provision of the *samgha* and the other for the food given to lay people, mostly lay workers and servants. But in Nr. 433 (Type 1-a), donation or food giving was also recorded with the consumption.²⁶ The lay consumers including

²⁴ For example, in the account mentioned in n. 23, the supervising clerks checked the accounts once a month. And so did the clerks of another Gaochang monastery for their account published in TCW 3: 225-234 (高昌乙酉丙戌歳某寺條列月用斛斗帳歷). The severity of control revealed in the main group can be compared with a series of pre-Tang monastery accounts (高昌僧眾糧食帳) published in TCW 3: 356-360, and a Tang one (唐于闐神山某 寺支用歷) found in Khotan (i.e. Or. 8211/969-72, cf. Chavannes 1913: 205-216; Ikeda 1996; Chen 1997: 489-499).

²⁵ On the element -vārika-, cf. Schopen 1990 and Silk 2008: 101-125. The etymology proposed by Sieg (1950: 212) which was adopted by Pinault (1994: 97) for pañcwarike as Skt. pañca-vaţika- 'contrôleur des cinq sortes de figuiers' should be overriden.

²⁶ We see at least a donor *Taiṣṣi* (Nr. 433.14), which was previously read *naiṣṣi* due to the fact that the difference between the *n* and *t* in the varieties of informal *brāhmī* script are usually indistinguishable. *Taiṣṣi* can be understood as 大師 dàshī 'master' or 大使 dàshī 'great commissioner'. See the recent comments on Khot. *thaiṣṣī* by Yoshida (2006: 23, 43 n.33; 2007: 467-469; 2008: 114-115). Given that the verbs kāl- 'lead, bring' and kālp- 'get, obtain' are normally used for denoting tenants' payment and harvest conveyance in Kuchean documents (cf. THT476, 477 belonging to the *main group*), we intend to see the "giving" in these accounts as donation.

kapyāres, ²⁷ artisans (*amoktse**), ²⁸ weavers (*wawāntsa*, colloquial form of *wapāntsa*) ²⁹ and possibly shepherds (see *infra*).

The food registered in this type, *klese*, *yikṣye*, *wākte*, is not in the form of grain, but some kinds of cereal products. *yikṣye* was used to make meals such as *kanti* and *oṅkorño*. Except for the latter one which is known to be the equivalent of Skt. *madhupāyasa*-,³⁰ the significations of the other names remain obscure. Regarding the diversity of cereal products reflected in the Chinese *Vinaya* texts and the documents unearthed in Turfan and Kucha, certain previous explanations of them as bread or flour³¹ are questionable.

Type 2. Oil and ghee consumption (and donation/giving)

Among the pile presented in Plate II, the fragment THT 2843 is taken as an example:

THT2843

²⁷ It is not easy to translate the word kapyāre (Buddhist Skt. kalpikāra(ka)-, Pāli kappiyakāraka-) properly into a Western language. The approximate counterpart in classical Chinese translations is 淨人 jìngrén. Gernet did not use a consistent translation for it, but referred to it in various ways such as 'homme pur', 'serviteur', 'esclave' and 'domestique' (cf. Gernet 1956: 66, 123). Schopen (1994: 172), for very good reasons, hesitated to make a choice between servants, forced laborers, bondmen and slaves for the related terms in Indian and Tibetan texts. Here we do not provide a translation for the kapyāre people, because it is more cautious not to predict prematurely their real status in Kuchean societies.

²⁸ Following the convention of Adams (1999), if a Kuchean word is yet unattested by the form of nominative singular, but only by the form(s) of other case(s), the probable nominative singular form is reconstructed and given with a following asterisk.

²⁹ Cf. Peyrot (2008: 88) on the development of intervocalic p > w.

³⁰ Cf. Pinault (1989: 198).

³¹ Cf. TEB(II): 178, 227; Adams 1999: 139, 495.

```
4
      /// (s\bar{a})\dot{n}(k)i(\underline{\acute{s}}) şaly[w]e masa şank kewye — ///
                                      saṅ<u>ka</u>stere āryawire śar[s]a [ 🍑
             /// l(y)āka 🛫 🤊
5
6
                             /// - ///
1
                                       /// ... ///
2
                                    /// for the lamp in (the place of) warwantsa ..., ///
     ///[cow's]. — On the fourth day, the oil/ghee to the samgha: (one) pint,
3
      cow's. ——///
4
      /// the oil/ghee [to the samgha] was spent: (one) pint, cow's. _____ ///
     /// (the Pañcwarike) has seen. Aryawire the Sankästere has recognized. [ 35]
5
6
```

Note on the translation: [line 2] *warwantsa* seems to be a kind of occupation or identity, formed with the suffix *-ntsa* (cf. n. 43). But presently we are not sure whether it comes from the verb *wārp-* 'partake' (subjunctive stem *wārpā-*) or *wārp-* 'surround' (subjunctive stem unattested).

THT2721

```
1
                           /// ...
                                    ///
2
              /// (one) spoonful.
                                             ///
3
             /// [oil/ghee] ... : a half pint. ///
      ///
                   Āryawarme [the Sankästere] has recognized. ///
4
5
      /// (On ... day?), cow's ghee: a half pint.
                                                              ///
6
      /// For the lamp(s) in the place of sampha(?), (the oil) of mlyokotau (seeds): ///
```

Notes on the transcription: [line 5] 1. kawye: scribe's error for kewye. 2. şan: scribe's error or a short form of şank. In fact, lines 5 and 6 are obviously in a different hand. [line 6] 1. The hapax sankastāmne may be the locative singular form of sankastām* < Buddhist Skt. *samghasthāna, which means probably a samgha's dwelling place. 2. mlyakat[au](ş)ş(e): sic! For mlyokot[au](ş)ş(e).

Only one fragment mentioning this kind of consumption was published in *TochSprR(B)* II (i.e. Nr. 451 (= THT451)).³² The Type 2 accounts reveal various usages of the oily substances, mainly for lighting and cooking. It is interesting that there are numerous entries about the consumption of *kewye şalywe*, literally 'bovine *şalywe*' (here translated as 'cow's *şalywe*'), while we hardly see any attestation for dairy products specified by 'cow' in Xinjiang and Dunhuang Chinese documents. The product *kewye şalywe* must be ghee or something like it in a liquid state applicable to measurement with spoons, just as the measurement of a kind of vegetable oil (*mlyokotauşşe şalywe*). Since the documents of this type are more seriously damaged than those of Type 1, we are not sure how the monks classified the expenditure of oil and ghee, neither do we see much evidence of donation or giving in their daily

³² But whether it belongs to the *main group* is uncertain. The paper looks quite different. The fiber is apparently shorter. This may explain why this piece looks whiter from a distance. The paper of it resembles that of Nr. 452 (= THT452), a document about wool.

accounts.³³ But as reflected in THT2843, the internal and the external expenses are combined together. The same fragment seems to also combine the records of ghee and that of *mlyokotau* oil, as well as the usages for cooking and lighting – if the readers accept that the *warwantsa** people would not deserve cow's ghee for their lamp oil. The combination of all the involved outgoings may due to the minor quantity of *şalywe* compared with the staple foods.³⁴

Let us return now to the aspect of monastic organization. Two Sankästeres are commonly seen in both Type 1 and 2, Ślacandre and Āryawarme (Skt. Śīla-candraand $\bar{A}rya$ -varman-). A handover from Ślacandre to $\bar{A}rya$ warme is seen in Nr. 433 (Type 1-a), while another handover in the reverse direction can be seen in the unpublished THT2705 (Type 1-c). So we cannot exclude the possibility that even the high position of Sankästere may have alternated among the elders. Therefore, although Sankästere is literally equivalent to Skt. samgha-sthavira-, we avoid translating this position in the main group straightforwardly as 'the senior-most monk in the monastery'. 35 The rate of alternation of the *Pañcwarike* seems to be more frequent. According to texts of Nr. 433 and the unpublished manuscripts THT2689 (Type 2), the tenure varied from one or two days (Sarwañatewe, Nr. 433.13), two or three days (Prajñākaracamndre, Nr. 433.19), four days (Āryatewe, Nr. 433.23-30) to five days (Kşemarakşite, THT2689.9). More than that, the names and the signatures of the Pañcwarike appearing on the Type 1 accounts and those on the Type 2 accounts during the tenure of the same Sankästere do not overlap, so there seems to be at least two Pañcwarikes at the same time in this samgha. Thus we can suggest that with respect

³³ The Kuchean verb *ai*- 'give' is perceptible in THT2715, 2719 and 2839, but they are severely broken. Interestingly, according to THT2693 (type 2 or 3, **Plate 1**), the monastery bought the *mlyokotau* oil needed for one year (at least 6.1 pecks) and it seems that the monastery acquired some *mlyokotau* oil by processing or bartering *mlyokotau* seed.

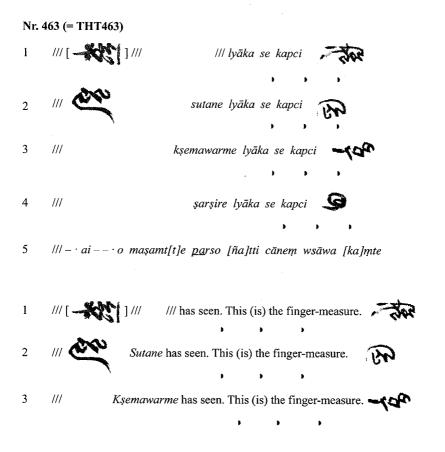
³⁴ On the measure units attested in the main group, see Appendix I.

³⁵ Translation cited from Silk 2008: 144, which is well granted by Vinaya texts.

to the two basic types of consumption, namely of cereal and of oil/ghee, not only the relevant documents but also the personal controls were distinctly separated at the level of the *Pañcwarike*.

Type 3. Management affairs

Here we provide the transliteration of a few pieces which well reveal the pattern of authentication. The piece where the transposition of Chin. 税糧 *shùiliáng* is attested is also presented (cf. pp. 106-107).



4 /// Sarsire has seen. This (is) the finger-measure.



/// ... we have done. I gave an announcement-letter(?) (and) coins: hundred. 5

Note on the transliteration: [line 5] [ka]mte can also be read as [ka]mn(t)e.

Note on the translation: [line 5] Given the shift of accent on parso 'letter', pärso-ñatti must be a compound. We think that the second element ñatti (a hapax) is a Prākrit form of Skt. jñapti, cf. Pāli ñatti 'declaration, announcement'.

THT2773 + 2920 + 2927

[BLANK: 1 LINE]

Note on the translation: [line 1] waltsauc[c]ai (a hapax) must be the oblique form of *waltsauc(c)a, a position or an occupation derived from walts- 'grind, crush'. Cf. TEB(I): 189 (§323). The broken word $k \cdot [r]c[c] \cdot ///$ in the next specimen stands seemingly for another position or occupation. [line 3] yarkne (a hapax) may relate to the root * $y\ddot{a}rk$ -, cf. Toch. B yarke 'honor'.

THT2791 + 2928

THT2748 + 2787 + 2817 + 2923

///

4

Sucāne has seen. This (is) the finger-measure ///

- 1 [illegible]
- 2 /// ... outlay of miscellaneous barley.
- 3 /// in ... (day) of the ... month, *Puttatāse* (Skt. *Buddha-dāsa-*) ... barley in/to the city/town ///
- 4 /// ... the Yotkolo has seen.



... ///

5 /// Putteyāne the Yirpṣuki's (finger-measure) ///

Note on the transliteration: Line 1 may be reconstructed as: $(\dot{s}ar)[s](a)$ (Yirps)[uk](i) (P)[u]-|||

Note on the translation: [line 2] Actually it means 'miscellaneous expense of barley'.

THT2749 + 2818

- 1 /// (t)t · wyai kṣuttar, yap,
- 2 ||| [k]ne ñu śāmnasa śwaiylyānk ya $\underline{p}_{\lceil \gamma \rceil} \cdot e \cdot e$ |||
- 3 $/// [ok]o t_u[n]e\underline{k}$, $man\underline{t}$, $yirpse[m] \cdot ///$
- 1 /// ... outlay of miscellaneous barley.
- 2 /// in (... day?), in (the amount for) nine persons, the barley for the tax of shùiliáng... ///
- 3 /// [fresh grains] ... Therein we have checked ... ///

This kind of documents involves the business of milling, seed preparing for sowing, the storing of grains by the gross, animal husbandry, records about money and other affairs. Although they are usually quite fragmentary, a specific set of titles is often

detectable. Two among them – Swāmi Aśari and Yotkolau – must refer to certain important members of the clergy. The former seems to be the ultimate controller of the external management, because this position occurs with the supervisory formula '(he) has recognized', while the position Yotkolau is combined with the formula '(he) has seen' whenever the passages of the authentication are perceptible. These two clerks generally left their signatures on the left side of the piece of paper. On the right side, another person identified as Yirpṣuki* (m.) authenticated himself by a kapci. In several cases, a female person identified as Yirmakka* (f.) also made a kapci together with the Yirpṣuki*.

The word *Swāmi* in the expression *Swāmi Aśari* very probably came from Skt. *svāmin*- 'owner', and *aśari* is the Kuchean form of Skt. *ācārya*- 'master' (through a Prākrit intermediary). It is not easy to determine whether this expression is a real compound or only a juxtaposition of an occupation and a honorary title. However, with regard to the rule of accents in Kuchean, it seems preferable to separate these two words. Its function may have been similar to that of Skt. *Vīhāra-svāmin*-'Owner-of-the-Monastery'. On the other hand, the position *Yotkolau* is derived from the causative stem meaning 'command, order' of the verb *wātk*- as indicated by Pinault, who has recently identified this title as the Kuchean correspondence of Pāli *ārāmika-pesaka-*. 37

The terms Yirpşuki* and Yirmakka* are thus far attested particularly in the main group. They no doubt derived respectively from the Kuchean verb yärp'oversee, observe, take care of' and the noun yarm* 'measure' by adding the suffixes

³⁶ Cf. Schopen 1996 and Silk 2008: 130, 135, 142 n.24. There is no space here to discuss the ownership of the monasteries in Xinjiang in the 6th-9th centuries, but at least one thing is clear: in the Turfan area, the position 寺主 sìzhǔ 'Owner/Chief-of-the-Monastery' was frequently occupied by monks both before and during Tang rule, as witnessed by many documents published in *TCW*.

³⁷ Pinault 2008: 383-384.

-uki and -(k)ka respectively.³⁸ So they mean approximately 'overseer, observer' and '(female) mesurement-checker'. It is noteworthy that the names of some lay servants or agents is very possibly of Iranian or even Sogdian origin. The name of the only person identified as a Yirpşuki*, Putteyāne (pwtty'n), has already been recognized by Schmidt as being Sogdian (cf. Weber 1975: 97). In addition, Ching detects a woman Putteśira* (gen. Putteśiratse, cf. Sogd. šyr 'good, well'), who was also a Yirmakka*, ³⁹ a man Puttemāñce (cf. Sogd. m'n 'heart' and the productive suffix -č in the same language) and a woman Uśiya* (gen. Uśiyatse, perhaps from Sogd. wšy' 'rememberance'). ⁴⁰

Male and female herdsmen are found in these documents. The personal occupation which was previously read *śattalyai in a Type 3 fragment (= Nr. 472, THT472, the larger fragment) is better read as śantalyai (cf. nom./obl. sg. śaiyye 'goat/ sheep'; nom./obl. pl. śānta). The modification has been carried out in our reading of Nr. 434. A related title or occupation (śa)ntalyācai (obl. sg.) preceding a woman called Nantiña* is seen in THT2694.4. This fragment is very interesting

³⁸ On the suffix -uki, cf. TEB(I): 189(§324) and Schaefer 1997.

³⁹ The women designated as Yirmakka include Kimña (lit. 'women of Kim', Nr. 460 = THT460, Nr. 466 = THT466), Wilāsiñi (Nr. 460), Lariška (lit. 'little lovely', Nr. 465 = THT465), Putteśira (THT2900 and probably THT2821). The possible etymology of Kim as 金 jīn and the interesting signature of a Pañcwarike Dharmarakṣite with 金 in Nr. 440 (= THT440) have been noted by Krause (1953: 14). The signature with 金 is further seen in THT2698.

⁴⁰ For Sogd. wšy', cf. Gershevitch 1954: 14(§102), 139(§948). A more comprehensive evaluation of the traces of the Sogdians in Kuchean documents is provided in Ching 2010.

⁴¹ The suggestion to revise the reading *sattalyai to śantalyai as an occupation was made by Ching in a written report (2008.05.13) to Pinault with other reading notions for preparing the reading class of SI B Toch./9 and 13. In Adams' newly issued article (2009), he suggests to the modification to śanta° as well. However, he tries to prove it by interpreting its meaning as 'breeding animal'.

⁴² The correct form should be *(śa)ntālyacai, cf. TEB(I): 151(§233). The genitive plural form śantālyat[c]as occurs in Nr. 475.3, previously read as śattāly[a]t[y]as. We think that it is an erroneous or hasty spelling of *śantālyacamts, which is a colloquial genitive plural form of śantālyaca*.

because there are two broken passages juxtaposed with the woman $Nantiña^*$: in line 2, a broken word $k \cdot wyomntsai$ before a woman called $Sumapriśka^*$; and in THT2694.8, a broken word $[k]e \cdot [o]$ – before a man called $Sumaiyśe^*$. They no doubt referred to the same title kewyomntsai (obl. sg.), approximately 'cattle-keeper'.

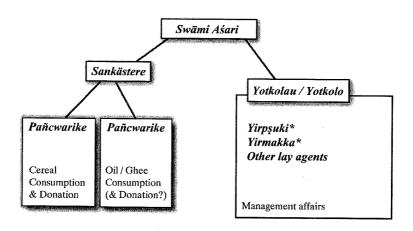
C. Personal signatures

Most of the signatures found in the *main group* are monograms of *akṣaras*. But some clerks also chose to sign simply by an *akṣara* in their names (e.g. *Āryawire* in THT2843, who always signed with an ā lying on its side). The signatures well reveal the associations inside the *main group*. Above all, a peculiar sign nearly always appears on the verso, covering the two jointed leaves around the middle of the juncture lines. It was mentioned by Sieg (1950: 208) as 'some Chinese characters' when he described the longest account Nr. 433. But actually it is the signature of the *Swāmi Aśari* who undersigned many Type 3 fragments on the recto. We can still read the right part of it as *rkṣte* (Skt. °*rakṣita*-). The left part is perhaps *jva*- (for Skt. *jīva*-), so his name may be *Jīvarakṣite*. Although we must not draw too hasty conclusions about his status in the monastery, he apparently played a leading role in order to control the accounting. ⁴⁴ The *Yotkolau* in the *main group* seems to refer to a single person as well, whose sign can be analyzed as a *satva*- lying on its side and a surrounding line. Accordingly, we would like to propose a framework of monastic institution as far as it is visible in the accounts as the following figure:

^{43 *}kewyomntsa may be solved as a combination of ke_u 'cow' with the subjunctive stem yonmof the verb $y\ddot{a}m$ - 'obtain; reach' and -ntsa, a suffix denoting a career or an occupation. That is, $kewyomntsa^* < ke_u + *yonmntsa < ke_u + yonm- + -ntsa$. On the suffix -ntsa, see Schmidt (2001b: 20) and Pinault (2008: 618).

⁴⁴ For instance, in a monastic account (Or. 8211/969-72, cf. n. 24) dated around 720 CE found in Mazar-tagh, it is the Dean (上座 shàngzuò) as the top of the Tang system of 三綱 sāngāng 'the three supervisory members' who signed on the paper juncture. On the sāngāng system, the brief explanations by Gernet (1956: 7 n. 3) and Ikeda (1996) can be referred to.

Figure 2: The monastic institution perceived in the main group



A Sankästere supervised more than one Pañcwarike in order to separately look after the daily expense and donation/giving of cereal and oil. For the bulk business, the Yotkolau supervised the work of lay agents or servants, among whom were responsible male(s) and females called Yirpsuki* and Yirmakka*. The Yotkolau responded directly to his chief, the Swāmi Ašari, who was very probably the final processing clerk of all the accounts in the main group. Presently it is difficult to decide which of the positions Sankästere and Swāmi Ašari had the higher status in a samgha. But it seems more reasonable that the Sankästere, as a religious figure, would be the most reverend one, whereas the Swāmi Ašari was the most active clerk in the economic domain, therefore being the most powerful person in this sense.

II. Dating

Since the building of the Kizil grottoes stopped significantly earlier than that of the

other Xinjiang grottoes located in the east, 45 one may assume that the monks living there would have been forced to leave after the Tang conquest of Kucha (648 CE), because the district is far away from the center of the Kucha, and the Kuchean aristocracy might have been no longer strong enough to support those monks economically. Nevertheless, given the economic activities such as seed preparing, animal husbandry and even farming rental (pautke) seen in the main group, the Kizil grottoes very probably owned herds and estates. In this case, even if the power of Kuchean royalty became weak, the local sampha would have survived for some years after 648 CE.

Several inscriptions left by Chinese soldiers from the second half of the 8th century up to the 9th century imply that a significant amount of these caves have been abandoned in that period for military reasons. ⁴⁶ Furthermore, it is notable that the Old Uighur texts discovered there are extremely scarce. ⁴⁷ Thus, we doubt if the documents of the *main group* would be written as late as the Uighur period. Unfortunately, the highly cursive scripts found in the *main group* do not permit us to precisely date these materials with a paleographical anlysis. So we choose other features to develop of our arguments.

A. Material features

As demonstrated above, the paper used in this assemblage is rough but of rather stable quality. If one compares it with the paper used for Old Uighur documents, the latter will seem often larger and thicker. The width (or the height for the upright writing

⁴⁵ On the review of the dating theories of the Kizil caves, see Zhao (2006).

⁴⁶ Cf. Huang 1958: 36-38, Chao 2006[1993] and Xinjiang Kuche Institute of Grottoes 2000.

⁴⁷ There are sporadic Old Uighur inscriptions found in the Kizil grottoes (including MIK III 420 [perhaps graffito], cf. Maue 1996: XVI, 202. See also Xinjiang Kuche Institute of Grottoes 2000). By the way, the 'Old Uighur texts' excavated at Duldur-akhur indicated by Pelliot must be Sogdian ones, which include at least Pelliot Chinois D.A. 77 and 220, cf. Trombert 2000 and La Vaissière 2005: 127 n. 29.

direction of Chinese) in particular is an important variable: the height of ordinary Chinese paper corresponds more or less with the length of one Chinese foot, but the value of this slowly increased from the 4th century to the 12th century.⁴⁸ The width of the paper preserved in Nr. 433 (27.5~28.0cm) corresponds well to the usual height of the Tang documents discovered in Xinjiang.

B. Contents

We have already described how the accounts in the *main group* are characterized by the Chinese recording customs, such as the signatures on the juncture lines and the horizontal lines as marks of the end of items. Considering the wooden accounts conserved in Saint Petersburg and a few others on display in the Kucha Institute of grottoes in Xinjiang, the traditional line-end mark in Kuchean accounting is a curl like ∂ , in order to avoid confusing the punctuation ' \bullet ' and the figure '1' which look very similar in informal $br\bar{a}hm\bar{\iota}$ writing. In the *main group*, a few clerks even signed with Chinese characters (cf. notes 23 and 39). Meanwhile, it is interesting that indicators of the West Uighur Kingdom period seem to be lacking. There is no addition in Old Uighur, nor can we find any proper name or title that clearly reflects the Uighur period. ⁴⁹ This *argumentum ex silentio* is more considerable when we know that there are several Tocharian B *Vinaya* texts found in the Turfan region with sporadic Old

⁴⁸ Cf. Pan 1979: 64, 80-81, 173-174; especially pp. 175, 182-183.

⁴⁹ There is, indeed, a combined title *Mpek Ccor* (from *bäg* and *čor* in Old Turkish, rendered in Medieval Chinese as 匐 fú and 啜 chuỏ, cf. Geng 2005: 13-14) attested in unpublished Cp.5, Cp.35 and Cp.38 as indicated by Pinault (2009: 237-238). But these two titles were already widely used in the period of Göktürk Empire. Another title *yapko** found in SI B Toch./13 is ancient and continuously used (Turk. *yabyu*, Bac. ιαβγο, Chin. 翕侯, 葉護, etc. See Pinault 1998 and Sims-Williams 2002). Thus they are not good chronological indicators to date the Tocharian materials.

Uighur notes, sometimes in $br\bar{a}hm\bar{\imath}$ and sometimes in the Sogdian/Uighur script.⁵⁰ In fact, we can even exclude the possibility that the *main group* would have presented a samgha in the Uighur period in a more isolated environment. Here we will only mention the most decisive points.

Units of value and currency

The money used in the main group is cāne (from Chin. 錢 qián 'coins'). ⁵¹ As Moriyasu and many other scholars have indicated, the units of value and the currency in the West Uighur Kingdom was principally cotton bolts (quanpu, from Chin. 官布 guānbù; or böz), before later shifting to silver ingots. ⁵² This fact also distinguishes the main group from certain Kuchean wooden documents, such as the two MQ tablets published in Sieg 1950 (= THT490, 491), which called the money k_u śāne, literally 'Kuchean coins'. Recently Ogihara suggested that it was derived from the combination of * k_u śi 'Qiuci (i.e. Ancient Kucha)' and cāne. ⁵³ If so, the creation of k_u śāne implies the pre-existence of the notion of cāne and even the concurrence of two currencies in some unknown period. Considering the diversity of the imported and

⁵⁰ These Old Uighur glosses in published Tocharian Buddhist texts have been studied by Dr. Maue recently. According to his table (Maue 2009: 3), none of the published Tocharian manuscripts with Old Uighur annotations was found in the region of Kucha. They were found exclusively in the eastern zone between Shorchuk and Turfan.

⁵¹ Nr. 463.5, THT2730.2 and possibly THT2731.1.

⁵² Moriyasu (2004a and 2004b) has discussed in detail the use of copper coins as currency in the period of the Uighur Kingdom. According to him (esp. 2004a), although copper coins are very rarely attested in Uighur civil documents, certain other sources imply their usage as a local currency on a small scale, to complement the more expensive cotton and/or silver. But the importance of copper coins reflected by the Kuchean secular documents is obviously far greater.

⁵³ The element *k_uśi is recovered from the Toch. B adjective k_uśiññe 'belonging to Kucha' (Adams 1999: 186) with the productive adjective suffix -ññe. In addition to the introduction about Kuchean money in Wang (2004), a more extensive discussion of k_uśāne against the historical and numismatic background is given in Ching and Ogihara forthcoming.

the locally manufactured copper coins of Chinese styles found in Kucha,⁵⁴ how can we know which currency is being referred to in the *main group*?

In our view, a crucial hint lies in the fact that in the Kuchean documents written on Chinese paper, money was always simply called $c\bar{a}ne$, 55 but $k_u s\bar{a}ne$ appears thus far uniquely on wooden ones. 66 It has been proven that Toch. B $k_u s\bar{a}ne$ corresponds to Toch. A $k s\bar{a}\bar{n}$. 7 In exactly the same passage in the Tocharian A *Maitreyasamiti-Nāṭaka* noted by Moriyasu, Ogihara finds $k s\bar{a}\bar{n}$ corresponding to Old Uighur $baq\bar{i}r$, which has been demonstrated by Moriyasu to be mostly 'copper coin' in Old Uighur documents. 8 But as yet we do not know of any attestations of $k_u s\bar{a}ne$ or $c\bar{a}ne$ in the Kuchean Buddhist literature, except for a broken word $k_u s(a)nema\bar{n}e$ meaning approximately 'treasury' in the Kuchean $Pr\bar{a}timoksas\bar{u}tra$. 7 Though it is too early to interpret the historical meaning of the usage of $k s\bar{a}\bar{n}$ in the Tocharian A literature and thus to draw conclusions about the area of its circulation, Xuanzang's report about the multiple currencies as 'gold coins, silver coins and small copper

⁵⁴ Cf. Thierry 2000; Wang 2004: 24-29, 39-41.

⁵⁵ There are, of course, several wooden pieces attesting the word *cāne*. But most are perforated small tags (so to speak 'étiquette' in Pinault 2007), and this way of labeling may have still been in common use even after the Tang conquest of Kucha (648 CE).

⁵⁷ Cf. Ji et al. 1998: 48 n. 10.

⁵⁸ Cf. Moriyasu 2004a: 19-23.

⁵⁹ In a passage of the Pārājika-dharma 2. However the Kuchean content there differed from the Chinese and the Sanskrit versions, so there is no correspondence for this word in the other languages. See Ogihara 2009: 182-184.

coins' in pre-Tang Ancient Kucha and Ancient Karashahr is still an important issue. 60 For the moment, the lack of evidence for the Sasanian silver *drahm* in Kuchean documents is noteworthy. 61 To the east, the *drahm* circulated widely in Turfan since the second half of the 6th century. 62 Thus it is legitimate to ask if the Kucheans possibly called *drahm* by the Chin. *qián*, just as the people living in Gaochang (today's Turfan) did in the late 6th century. In such a complicated and inconclusive historical condition, how can the exact designation of *cāne* in the *main group* be established?

The essential point is that there is no trace of differing coins in Kuchean paper documents thus far available to us. This situation is different from that reflected in the Chinese manuscripts of the 7th century discovered in Turfan, where notably the concurrence of Tang coins side by side with the Sasanian *drahms* endured for more than half a century. In that transitional period (ca. 640~710 CE), ⁶³ they were usually distinguished as 銅錢 tóngqián 'copper coins' and 銀錢 yínqián 'silver coins'. It makes one think that the lack of distinction for cāne in the main group and other paper documents in the Pelliot collection should mean that there was no necessity for further definition. Thus, we think that cāne mentioned in these documents are Tang coins, and we will indicate below some traces which reflect the actuality and effectiveness of

⁶⁰ Cf. Xiyuji: 54-55, 48.

⁶¹ But Huang Wenbi did find a Sasanian drahm in the renowned complex of Buddhist sites called Subashi (cf. Huang 1958: 28, 110), in contrast to Thierry's statement '... on doit, à cet égard, mettre en parallèle l'absence de découverte de monnaies d'argent à Kucha et l'absence de mention de monnaies d'argent dans les documents koutchéens' (Thierry 2000: 129). Besides, in a medical or magical text (W-11a6) there is a possible Kuchean equivalent of drahm: /// tanāñā ywā[r]c trau śakkār trākām pissau trākām '/// grains a half trau, sugar a trākām, pissau ('?') a trākām' (cf. Adams 1999: 313). But it seems that trākām, even if it corresponds to drahm, is used as an unit of weight in the text.

⁶² On the circulation of *drahms* in the Gaochang kingdom (the beginning of the 6th c. ~ 640 CE) and the Xizhou Prefecture (640 ~ ca. 790 CE), namely today's Turfan region, there are several important treatises such as Lu 1992 and Skaff 1998.

⁶³ See Lu 1992: 261.

Tang control, so that there is no better identification for *cāne* in these documents.

The king

It was Winter who first identified the name of king Kemārcune (Skt. Kṣemārjuna) in a MQ fragment (Nr. 486 = THT486), now classified as belonging to the main group. Referring to Lévi's early notion (1933: 23) that there was a king called Kşemārcune (his second regnal year a tiger one) in a St. Petersburg document and Lüders' remark that the element arjuna is perceptible in some Agnean royal members' names, he thought Kemārcune in the Kizil accounts is an Agnean king. 64 Lévi's notion about the Russian collection was then verified by Pinault's publication (1998), where the king is found in the correlated documents SI B Toch./9 and 13. A king with a very similar name Kse[m]ār[i]une in an inscription in Subashi (G-Su34) in the region of Kucha was also published by Pinault, which says that the sixth year of his rule was a horse one. As Peyrot has indicated, the king appearing in SI B Toch./9 and 13 seems to be the same as the king in G-Su34 by the agreement of the year cycle, and he is very possibly the king Kemārcune in Nr. 486.65 Thus Winter's view to identify this king as an Agnean one is quite questionable. What we would like to add to this is that, when we looked through the main group, only the records of one single king have been left to us, i.e. the king Kşemārcune. We found a better preserved date in THT2691 and several damaged ones:66

⁶⁴ Winter (1955: 223) states: 'In any case, the question remains also how these texts came to Ming-öy Qïzïl. One assumption would be that just the documents were transferred, another, that one would have to think of a monastery transplanted to the West'. For his references, see Lüders 1940[1930]: 618-622.

⁶⁵ See Peyrot 2008: 196. For the transliteration of G-Su34, see Pinault 1987: 151-152.

⁶⁶ Other more damaged passages can be found in THT2824.1, 2700 (the upper fragment).5, 2832.1, 2878.1 and 2887.1.

THT2691.1 /// wi kṣuntsa $k(s)e[m]\tilde{a}[r](cu)ne$ lānti mewyai pikule /// 'in the second regnal year of the king [Kṣemārcune], a year of the tiger ///'

This evidence indicates three points. Firstly, the variant *Kemārcune* attested in Nr. 486 is very probably due to careless writing by the scribe. Secondly, the majority of the *main group* must have been written around a tiger year. Thirdly, the king attested in the *main group*, in G-Su 34 and in SI B Toch./9 and 13 is in all probability the same person. As Lévi had indicated in 1933, the element *arjuna* is in the authors' opinion not necessarily an indicator of the Agnean regime. It is also attested in a story about a Kuchean King 阿主兒 Āzhǔér, effectively a variation of the legend of the 'Golden Flower King' depicted in *Xiyuji*.⁶⁷ In addition, the authors discovered a king called *Kṣemārjune** (gen. *Kṣemārjuni*) on the wooden tablet TS43, which is found in Kizil.⁶⁸

Considering the St. Petersburg documents SI B Toch./9 and 13 where *Kṣemārcune* is found, Pinault assumed that they are to be placed in the second half of the 7th century by intuitively putting them after the kings *Swarṇābūṣpe* and *Swarnatepe**. But Schmidt proposed to place them in the 10th-11th centuries, though his argument is in our eyes unconvincing.⁶⁹ Some loanwords from Chinese can be used to solve the dating of this king, because they reflect the traces of the Tang rule.

⁶⁷ Lévi 1933: 22-24, cf. Xiyuji: 57-58.

⁶⁸ See Ching and Ogihara forthcoming. As Lüders (1940[1930]: 615-618) and Moriyasu (2004d) have discussed, there should be plural Kuchean kings called by the same name 'Golden Flower' (Chin. 金花 jīnhuā, Skt. Suvarna-puspa-, Toch. B Swarnābūspe, rendered in Chin. 蘇伐勃駛 sūfábóshǐ). Therefore, Kṣemārjune may be another traditional name for the kings of Kucha. In this case, the king attested on the wooden tablet TS43 may be an earlier namesake.

⁶⁹ See Pinault 1998: 3 and Schmidt 2001a: 160-161 respectively. Pinault's reading of the king *Yśuhkwā* is beyond doubt after a close looking of relevant originals by ourselves. Thus, Schmidt's intention of relating *Hwahkwā with the Old Uighur rulers (qayan) is not plausible.

Some adminstrative terms borrowed from Chinese

First see the phrases in the St. Petersburg documents where *Kşemārcune* is found:

(1) śkańce śak, śwerne ypay moko raktakullentse ccākkare yauyekşintse⁷⁰ pakana aiyye alam pkuweş, śaiyye wasa şeme (SI B Toch./9.9-10)

'On the fourteenth (day) of the tenth (month), for the sake of *yauyekşi**, *Ccākkare* gave an ovine, one-year-old, ⁷¹ male *śaiyye* (i.e. sheep/goat) to the provincial leading official *Raktakulle* (Skt. *Rakta-kula-*): one. ⁷²

Ching supposes that the previously unsolved word yauyekşi was transposed from Chin. 游奕使 yóuyìshǐ (EMC juw-jiajk-ṣi'/ṣi', LMC jiw-jiajk-ṣrˇ), the designation of a Tang military official charged with patrolling the vast area near fortifications. Relevant titles are well attested in certain Chinese documents found in Kucha and Khotan. 74

⁷⁰ Pinault's previous reading is *nauyiksentse*. It was then revised after the consultation of the original by the authors together with Pinault in April 2009.

⁷¹ The interpretation given here basically agrees with Schmidt's opinion to see the adjective *pku* as an indicator of animal age (Schmidt 1999[2002]: 10-11), instead of 'combing' as Pinault (1998) had suggested. However, the etymology of *pku* still waits to be pursued.

⁷² On the official Ypoy-moko, see the discussion in Ching and Ogihara forthcoming.

⁷³ At first glance the Kuchean spelling $\langle vau \rangle$ in $br\bar{a}hm\bar{\iota}$ may seem troublesome when compared to EMC juw or LMC jiw. But it should be noted that, in the Kuchean writing custom, the vocalic notion $\langle a \rangle$ adopted in the scripts does not represent a phonetic [a], but very probably a more closed vowel, which is indicated as $/\Lambda$ / by Pinault (2008:415).

⁷⁴ In Pelliot Chinois D.A. 57 (遊弈官 yóuyìguān 'the yóuyì officer'), cf. Trombert 2000: 73; in Дх. 18917 (遊弈副使 yóuyìfūshǐ 'the vice-yóuyìshī'), cf. Zhang and Rong 2002 and Kumamoto 2007.

(2) sankatāse kwañye śinkrontse aşicce alam wästa pkuweṣ śaiyye plyenksa wi cakaṃnma piś tom yaptsa. (SI B Toch./9.3-4)

'Sankatāse sold to Śinkro of kwām* a caprine, male, two-year-old śaiyye for two piculs and five pecks of barley.'

The word kwañye above was read as 'kwañpe' in Pinault 1998, but here we alter it on the basis of our reading of both the photograph and the original, in addition to another unmistakable attestation of the same word in SI P/117.8. It was effectively derived from a word kwāṃ* by the productive adjective suffix -(i)ye. The word kwāṃ* may be rendered from either 關 guān 'pass, barrier' (EMC kwain/kwɛːn, LMC kwaːn) or preferably 館 guǎn 'post station, state-run hostel' (EMC kwanh, LMC kuan') in medieval Chinese documents. The word kwāṃ* is further perceptible in the Cp. series, where a location Olākwāṃ* repeatedly occurs. It is suggested by Ching to be a combination of Turk. ulay 'post horse' and Chin. 館 guǎn, perhaps the local name of

⁷⁵ The reduction of $\langle \bar{a} \rangle$ to $\langle a \rangle$ in the stem noun alludes to the accent on the second syllable. This adjective *kwañye* would be counted as three syllables like **kwañiye*, cf. Toch.B *ñäkc(i)ye* $\langle \tilde{n}\acute{a}kte + -(i)ye$.

⁷⁶ The choice of 館 guǎn instead of 關 guān as the etymon is also based on the fact that 關 guān is not attested in the Chinese manuscripts found in Kucha. It is noteworthy that officially speaking, the institution 關 guān (the top class of military passes in the Tang) is not given to Kucha. According to TLD, there are only 26 guāns in the whole Empire. The sole one located in today's Xinjiang is the famous 鐵門關 tiĕménguān 'the Iron-gate Pass' in Agni.

a post station near today's Duldur-akhur.⁷⁷ Accordingly the passage in SI P/117.8 cai kwañye puwarne śāmna 'the men (to be dispatched) to the fires of kwāṃ*' followed by a name list is very possibly related to the Chinese expressions 烽館之人 fēngguǎn zhī rén 'the men of the beacon-posts' or even 烽子 fēngzǐ (lit. 'the beacon man') in the manuscript Otani 8071 found in Kucha.

Another passage written during the ruling of *Yśuhkwā* is also worthwhile:

 $tep_k kw\bar{a}mntse\ pelykim\ wästa\ pkuwe\underline{s}_k\ al\bar{a}_u\ plyen(k)u(wa)\ ///\ (SI\ B\ Toch./11.5)$ '(There arrives) tep_k . For the sake of $kw\bar{a}m^*$, I sold a two-year-old male sheep ///'.

Here the genitive of $kw\bar{a}m^*$ is attested as $kw\bar{a}mntse$. The authors suggest that tep stands for either Chin. 牒 $di\acute{e}$ (EMC dep, LMC thiap), a certain kind of Tang official document, or 帖 $ti\check{e}$ (EMC thep, LMC thiap), a simplified form of 牒 $di\acute{e}$ and less formal in use. Hence, dating these documents in St. Petersburg collection to the period of Tang rule seems unavoidable.

Within the *main group*, there is also a clear indicator of the Tang period. The obscure word śwaiylyāṅk in THT2749 + 2818.2 cited above (see Type 3) is identified by Ching as 税糧 shuìliáng 'tax (paid in) cereal' (EMC cwiajʰ-liaŋ,

⁷⁷ On the usage of *ulay* in Tang documents found in Central Asia, cf. Arakawa 1994a and 1994b. The attested forms include locative *Olākwamne* (Cp.37+36.19!,21-22!,31,69, exclamation mark meaning damaged word) and a derived adjective *Olākwamṣe* (Cp.24.5,7). Toch. B *Olākwam* does not seem to be a native word. On the basis of the form and the context where it occurs, the first element *olā(k) could be related to *ulay*. In fact, a horse (cf. Cp.37+36.21-22) and some coins (cf. Cp.24.5-6) were given by local people to the men in that place.

⁷⁸ On the function of *tiĕ* and *dié*, cf. Arakawa 1997, Akagi 2008 and Arakawa 2009. Toch. B tep also occurs in Nr. 495a4-b1 (=.IOL Toch 258): [ñ]i [c](ā)ne mā ai[t] (ot) K[u]tsauś tep yamaskemar 'If you do not [give me the coins], (then) I will make a tep to K[u]tsau*.' This sentence leads us to suppose that tep should be an administrative term.

LMC syaj`-liaŋ).⁷⁹ It is noteworthy that while the terms such as 税錢 shuìqián 'tax (paid in) coins', 税草 shuìcǎo 'tax (paid in) straw/grass' and 税柴 shuìchái 'tax (paid in) firewood' are easy to find in Chinese texts, thus far shuìliáng occurs only in a few Tang documents found in Kucha, Maralbashi and Khotan.⁸⁰ It would be highly questionable whether these Tang administrative terms could have survived for another one or two centuries in the local languages after the final fall of the "Four Garrisons" (ca. the 790s).⁸¹ Therefore the main group, like other Kuchean paper documents in the French and the Russian collections, must have been written in the Tang period.

Now it should be safe to say that the word *cāne* occurring in these paper documents refers to 'Tang coin'. Since the standard status of this currency in Turfan is by no means earlier than the very late 7th century, and its circulation in ancient Xinjiang was significantly affected by the disruption of local manufacture and the interruption of supplies due to the wars between the Tang, the Turks and the Tibetans in the late 8th century, 82 the *main group* should better be dated to the 8th century.

⁷⁹ This word is also attested in Cp.8 and Cp.28, written as śwelyānk, which Pinault (1994: 101) firstly took to be 'gage?' in French without providing an etymology. It was Ogihara who first pointed out the possible Chinese origin of this word, but Pinault's subsequent elaboration (2008: 367-368) by assuming a hybrid of 糧 liáng and Toch. B śu- 'eat' is not so ideal. Thus we slightly modify the translation of Cp.8a14: skacce meñamem rāp tänktsi kapyāres śeśusa śwelyānk āyusa ysāre laiś: cakanma 49 'From the 6th (month) until (the day of) Rāp, the wheat eaten by kapyāres (and) given to/as śwelyānk has been spent: 49 piculs.'

⁸⁰ Namely, (1) TTD 3, Add. No. 18 [Contract of Bai Xiangyili in Kucha for lease of vineyard. Tang, year uncertain (ca. 8th c.)] found in Toquz-saraï; (2) the Hoernle document H.4 (= Or. 6408(G.1)) said to have been bought in Kucha but seemingly with some unclear Khotanese words on it; and (3) a document newly found in Khotan published in Wen 2008: 70. In fact, 稅糧 shuiliáng was a common administrative term from the Song to the Qing dynasties, but śwaiylyāṅk/śwelyāṅk is by no means equivalent to this late term: because after the 8th century, the initial of Chin. shuì became ş- (LMC Ṣyaj`), so the transposition by ś- rather than by ṣ- in Kuchean would be unexpected.

⁸¹ On the fall of the Chinese garison in Kucha, see Zhang and Rong 1997: 348-349.

⁸² Cf. Lu 1992; Thierry 1997, 2000; Rhodes 1997; Wang 2004; Moriyasu 2004a, 2004b.

C. Personal authentication

While the features of *kapci* are common in the *main group* (belonging to Type 3), we never see the features of '*tamya*' (Old Uighur 'seal') in these materials. ⁸³ According to Yamada's research and the following developments of it, the features of '*tamya*', so to speak, the procedure of stamping personal seals, are often seen in the Old Uighur documents written in the earlier period of the West Uighur kingdom. ⁸⁴ However, as far as we know, no document dated to the period of the West Uighur kingdom ever shows any trace of the *kapci* features. Since both procedures are of juridical importance, we must consider the implication of this distinction.

It is Konow who firstly connected the word *kapci* and the three strokes following it to the Chinese custom 畫指 *huàzhǐ* when he published the Tumshugese

⁸³ Two identical seals stamped on the Kuchean paper documents of the Russian Collection (SI Toch./9, 11, 12, 13, SI P/117 and the unpublished SI Toch./10) are very possibly counterfeit, because the stamping manner is contradictory both to the Medieval Chinese patterns and the Old Uighur ones. Namely, it does not observe any of the following principles governing its position: (1) On the place of paper juncture. (2) Over the writing of the main text, generally in the center and/or in the corners. (3) Following the words 'to stamp, to certificate' or other relevant expressions. In fact, in these documents there is no phrase which reveals the intention of or the demand for getting authentication. It is also strange why the two seals could have been pressed with ink of identical hue and oily texture on these documents written at different times (i.e. the 1st and the 2nd year of Ksemārcune, the 14th year of Yśuhkwā and the 21th year of Yāśe), whereas no common person or organization can be established for them. In other words, the texts do not suggest any need for the seals. Hence, Ching thinks that the seals were added to the blanks by someone unable to read Kuchean, undoubtedly at a time when all the documents had been written and then assembled together. So the stamping is not a crucial feature for dating the texts and the kings. We must indicate that no other Kuchean document has such a seal.

⁸⁴ Cf. Yamada 1964 = *SUK* 1, IX; Yamada 1978 = *SUK* 1, XIV; Moriyasu 1994; Moriyasu 2004a: 7-8. Readers should not confuse this scholarly terminology with the stamping of official seals on the Old Uighur documents. On the latter category, see the analysis by Matsui (1998).

documents.⁸⁵ Noting that Tumsh. *kapci* does not phonologically well match *huàzhǐ* (EMC ywəijk/ywɛ:jk-ci), he suggested other etymons including 押指 yāzhǐ, 甲指 jiǎzhǐ and 合指 hézhǐ to solve the medial -p- in kapci.⁸⁶ His observation was then adopted by Ikeda.⁸⁷ On the other hand, based on Sieg's notion (1950) about kapci, Emmerick indicated Tumsh. kapci as a direct borrowing from Tocharian B.⁸⁸

The practice of drawing finger joints was introduced into Turfan around the beginning of the 7th century. After Ching's preliminary research, its importance in Dunahung as a legal procedure started to decrease in the early 9th century. In the mean time, variation of the drawing and the relevant textual formula became noticeable. Thus it is legitimate to date the Kuchean documents with the drawing practice, including the *main group*, to the period before the early 9th century. ⁸⁹ In this case, the etymons given by Konow become highly questionable, since they are hitherto unfound in Xinjiang and Dunhuang materials of the period when the drawing of finger joints was still prevalent there, namely before the early 9th century. ⁹⁰ Thus the authors think that *kapci* is still a loanword of *huàzhi*, although its precise

⁸⁵ Cf. Konow 1935: 774; Konow 1947: 181. See the recent discussions of the Tumshuqese documents by Rong 1992, Maue 2004 and Rong 2009.

⁸⁶ In order to illustrate the evolution of *huàzhi* more clearly, its literal translation 'drawing the finger, finger-drawing' is retained in the present article. Niida (1939) has translated it as 'finger-seal', as adopted by Kumamoto since 1987. But 'finger-seal' is very misleading for some Western readers, so that even though Adams (1999:140) already absorbed Kumamoto's remarks, he still mistranslated *kapci* as 'thumbprint'. Therefore, Toch. B *kapci* is translated here as 'finger-measure' by applying the usage of Takeuchi (1990, 1994).

⁸⁷ Cf. Ikeda 1992: 691.

⁸⁸ Cf. Emmerick 1989: 228-229.

⁸⁹ Cf. Appendix II.

⁹⁰ Among the nearly five hundred Chinese contracts discovered in Central Asia, only a very curious specimen 押指節為憑 yā zhǐjie wéi píng 'to seal the knuckles as certification' is found in a late Dunhuang model document (= TTD 3, No. 489). It is dated to the 10th century, without a precise date or any trace of finger drawing.

borrowing process waits to be pursued.91

III. Concluding remarks

Interestingly, our observations agree well with the ¹⁴C-dating results presented by Tamai (2005). A sample, THT483, here classified as belonging to the *main group* has been dated by that method to the 8th-9th centuries, significantly earlier than Tamai's own proposition (*i.e.* Period III-1, ca. 900-1000 CE) and Schmidt's view (10th-11th c. CE). Due to space limitations, the elaboration of historical and religious issues will be postponed to further articles.

⁹¹ Tamai (2004: 98) has discussed briefly the etymology of *kapci*. However, the authors suppose that *huàzhĭ* may have first resulted in Toch. B **kwakci* then perhaps **kakci*. Later it may have become *kapci* due to the dissimilation of the two *k*. Nevertheless, both the clusters -*kc*- and -*pc*- are scarce in Tocharian B. And even if *kw* > *k* happened in its colloquial laguage, it is not a phenomenon easy to explain. A thorough phonological survey is necessary to justify this idea.

Table 1: Reclassification of the published documents from THT433 to 489

| The main group | |
|--|---|
| Type 1 | |
| Type 1-a | 433 ☆ , 441 ☆ , 458 |
| Type 1-b | 434 🖈 , 435 (lost), 437, 440, 442, 443, 444, 445, |
| | 446, 447, 448, 453?, 454 🛣 , 455, 475 |
| Type 1-a or 1-b (indeterminable) | 436 (☆?), 438 (☆?), 450, 456, 457, 472 (the |
| | smaller fragment), 478B |
| Type 2 | 451? (see n. 32) |
| Type 3 | 449 🐧 , 460, 463 (🐧 ?), 464, 465, 466, 467, |
| | 468, 472 (the larger fragment), 473 (the right |
| | fragment), 474, 476, 477 (☆?), 478A �, 480, |
| | 481 💢 , 482, 483, 484, 487, 488, 489 (😂?) |
| Type indeterminable | 473 (the left fragment), 478, 478C, 479, 486 |
| Another group of documents (see n. 11) | 459, 460, 462, 469, 471 |
| Documents with atypical features | 439, 452? (see n. 32), 470, 485 |

(See the photographs on the website of TITUS for the distinction of plural fragments under a single inventory number.)

☆ Swāmi Aśari's sign is perceptible on the verso, in the area of paper juncture.

♦ Swāmi Aśari's sign is perceptible on the recto.

Appendix I

Measures attested in the main group

The measures \$\sin^k^*\$, \$tau^*\$, \$c\overline{a}k^*\$ in Tocharian B have been shown to be borrowed from Chin. \$sh\overline{e}ng\$, \$do\vec{u}\$ and \$sh\overline{e}.^{92}\$ In the \$main group\$, a measure unit \$kal\overline{a}se\$ is newly found in the Type 2 documents. Ogihara suggests that it is borrowed from Indic languages (cf. Skt. \$kal\overline{a}c\overline{i}-/kal\overline{a}cika- 'spoon')\$, where Tocharian B used \$-\delta-\$ for the medial \$-c\$- of the Sanskrit form. \$^{93}\$ Here a few examples are provided:

```
THT2714A.5 /// (san)ai kalāś nune sanai kalāś —

'/// [one] spoonful. On the ninth day, one spoonful. — '

THT2688.9 /// (i)kam [o]kne wi kalāśśim [i]kam (ñ)u(ne) ///

'/// On the twenty-eighth day, two spoonfuls. On the twenty-ninth day, /// '

THT2723.4 /// (ka)[lā](ś)[ś]im śak ñune tarya kalāśim ///

'/// [spoonfuls]. On the nineteenth day, three spoonfuls. /// '

THT2869.2 /// (sā)[n]kiś şalywe śwāra kalāś(ś)im ///

'/// to the samgha, the oil/ghee: four spoonfuls. /// '
```

It is remarkable that so far the numerals preceding this unit range only from one to four. Furthermore, the expressions $yw\bar{a}rtsa\ sank$ 'half a sank*' (THT2721.3,5) or just $yw\bar{a}rtsa$ 'a half' (THT451.2 = Nr. 451.2)⁹⁴ are founded. This phenomenon suggests

⁹² Sims-Williams and Hamilton 1990: 32.

⁹³ e.g. Toch. B aśari < Skt. ācārya- (cf. Khot. āśāria) and Toch. B apiś < Skt. avīci-. These words are however possibly loanwords via Prākrit.

⁹⁴ Adams' translation (1999: 646) 'a half sank of oil' for sank ywārtsa (THT451.2 = Nr. 451.2) is to be rejected. Regarding the two examples in THT2721 which expresses 'half a sank' by ywārtsa sank, the passage sank ywārtsa here must mean 'one sank* and a half'. Another passage in THT2839.6 ///[trai]y [sa]nkam y(w)ārts(a) 'three sank* and a half' also confirms our view.

that the quantification next to four $kal\bar{a}\acute{s}es$ would be a half of a $s\acute{a}nk^*$. Thus $kal\bar{a}\acute{s}e$, when used as the unit, is very probably equal to Chin. $rac{c}{c}ge$, namely the one-tenth of Toch. B $s\acute{a}nk^*$. If this suggestion is correct, the measuring system reflected in the $main\ group$ will be:

$$1 c\bar{a}k^* = 10 tau^*$$
 石 shi '(Chinese) picul'
 $1 tau^* = 10 sank^*$ 斗 $d\delta u$ '(Chinese) peck'
 $1 sank^* = 10 kal\bar{a}se$ 升 $sh\bar{e}ng$ '(Chinese) pint'
 $1 kal\bar{a}se$ 合 $g\check{e}$ '(Chinese) gill'

But there is another possible solution: one $kal\tilde{a}se$ is perhaps equal to one-fifth $sank^*$, so that five $kal\tilde{a}se$ will become one $sank^{*}.^{95}$ Therefore, to see the unit of $kal\tilde{a}se$ as one-tenth $sank^*$ is just a provisional suggestion. The declension of $kal\tilde{a}se$ should belong to the class V.2 in TEB:

| | sg. | pl. |
|------|--------|--------------------|
| nom. | kalāśe | kalāśi |
| obl. | kalāś | kalāśiṃ / kalāśśiṃ |

As for the syntax for the quantification with measure units, the quantity noted at the end of an account item is in the oblique, not in the nominative as scholars used to think. In fact, previous scholars seldom paid attention to the syntax of account entries in Tocharian B. The only related discussion known to us is in TEB(I): 82 (§74.3), but it is extremely brief and ambiguous. However, we find some attestations

⁹⁵ This alternative solution is suggested by Prof. Yoshida Yutaka. We express our gratitude for his remark.

⁹⁶ The authors found the nominative cases in the unpublished St. Petersburg documents SI B Toch./10 and SI P/136b. See more discussion in Ching 2010.

which give the measures tau^* (f.) (cf. Cp.8.9,10) and $kal\bar{a}\dot{s}e$ (f.) with Toch. B sanai, the feminine oblique of the numeral se 'one'. ⁹⁷ In those expense items where the intransitive verb i- 'go' or $l\bar{a}$ -n-t- 'go out' is explicitly written, the amount following the verb should be in the oblique as well. For example:

THT2724.4 /// (ska)[s]n[e] sankiś, salywe masa sanai ///

'/// [on the sixteenth day], for the samgha, the oil/ghee was spent (lit. 'went'): one /// '

The syntax of this broken phrase can be compared with the following sentence in Nr. 434.5 (= THT434.5) *klese masa: tarya tom. 'klese* was spent: three pecks.' Here the foodstuff is the subject of the sentence, but the quantity is expressed in the oblique. ⁹⁸ Therefore, one of the functions of the oblique case in Tocharian B is to quantify uncountable stuffs such as oil and cereal.

⁹⁷ Among numerals in Tocharian B, only se has the oblique form different from the nominative.

⁹⁸ Although Thomas once correctly indicated şaṅkām as oblique plural (cf. TEB(I): 131 (§184.2) and (II): 248), he did not give any further indications for tom and cakanma (plural of tau* and cāk*). His view is then rejected by Adams (1999: 646), where he regards ṣaṅkām < *ṣaṅkāñ as nominative plural.

Appendix II

On the practice of huazhi in Ancient East Turkestan

Introduction of huazhi into Central Asia

Already attested in a contract of 507 CE found in Northern China (= TTD 3, App. No. 11), huàzhǐ no doubt spread to the Tarim Basin in the beginning of the 7th century regarding to two noticeable phenomena. Firstly, the concluding formulae in Turfan contracts transformed around the 640s. According to the more than thirty contracts dated to the 6th century, the typical formula was 各自署名為信 gèzì shùming wéi xìn 'Each (party) signs his name as the token of his sincerity', followed by the list of persons with their signatures. Around the year of the Tang conquest of Gaochang kingdom (640 CE), the notion of huàzhǐ became to be contained in ending formulae. The earliest datable occurrence of this wording is found in a local contract dated 641 CE. ⁹⁹ Between 640 and 660, the formulae 畫指為信 huàzhǐ wéi xìn, lit. 'to draw the finger as the token of his sincerity', and 獲指為信 huòzhǐ wéi xìn, lit. 'to catch the finger as the token of his sincerity', gradually became prevalent in local documents. ¹⁰⁰

But before writing down the word in the formulae, Gaochang people had started to draw their fingers on paper. Early evidence of drawing can be traced back at least to a contract written in 632 (ex. 1). At this initial stage, they were not used to do drawing and thus an annotation is combined within. Other documents dated

⁹⁹ Cf. TTD 3, No.134. The last contract bearing the traditional Gaochang formula gèzì shùming wéi xìn is probably TTD 3, No.150 (661 or 655 CE) among the present findings. The evolution of formulae since the early 7th century is quite obvious in the documents published in TCW. Since the initial remarks of Wu (1995), a recent detailed statistic (Yang and Li 2004) has been done.

¹⁰⁰ It is remarkable that by the first half of the 7th century, the alternative 獲指 huòzhǐ occurs as frequently as huàzhǐ in Turfan documents. Since huà and huò had the same sound in EMC, they may be only different ways to write the same diction. huàzhǐ seems to prevail over huòzhǐ in the Turfan manuscripts in the 8th century.

before 660 also show how they treated it with caution. Fingers were marked carefully, sometimes a long explanation was provided (ex. 2), and in certain cases finger lengths were also drawn (ex. 3, 4). Usually the personal names, signatures or other words are deliberately inserted between the strokes.

'|knuckles | as |proof.'

ex. 2 TTD 3, No. 18 (640-649 CE)¹⁰²

'Each (party) signs his name as the token of his sincerity.

Since the son
$$\overline{A}\overline{f}eng$$
 is unable to write, (he draws) ' (his) knuckles as proof.

Since the brother *Huānbó*'s wife is unable to write, (she draws her) knuckles as proof.

¹⁰¹ Similar drawing is attested in *TTD* 3, No.14 (638 CE). However, for the examples ex. 2, 3, 4, Wu suggested an earlier date because of the rather complicated drawings. He indicated that simpler drawing (see *infra*) are already used in some local contracts dating to the 640s (e.g. *TTD* 3, No. 20 (649 CE), 136 (642 CE) and 137 (643 CE)). Therefore, Wu (1995: 241-243) thought the complicated drawings such as ex. 2, 3, 4 must be contemporary with or earlier than ex. 1.

¹⁰² 息 $x\bar{i}$ 'son, descendant' may be also understood as an alternative of 媳 xi 'daughter-in-law'. 103 Similar drawings are seen in TTD 3, No.16E (ca. 638 CE)

ex. 4 TTD 3, No.12 (? CE)¹⁰⁴ (時)見 吳 海兒不 解書 至(節為明證)

[Witness]: Wú Hǎiér, unable to write, (his) [knuckles] (as proof).

ex. 5 TTD 3, No. 66 (648 CE)105

負錢人 桓德|琮 | 琮 | 'Huán Décóng, the debtor. [SIGNUM]'

The normal way of drawing

Since the mid 7th century, the drawing manner found in Turfan documents became simpler: People simply leaving three strokes or even simply three dots on the papers. These marks are either close to or just above the notations of personal names:

ex. 1 TTD 3, No. 69 (661 CE)

舉練人 龍 惠 奴 'Lóng Huìnú, the debtor of silk bolts.'

(宋人男 隆緒 'Lóngxù, son (of the debtor), the guarantor.'

| | |

ex. 2 TTD 3, No. 157 (663 CE)

田主 趙阿歡仁 | | 'Zhào Āhuānrén, the landowner.'

舍佃人 張海隆 | | 'Zhāng Hǎilóng, the tenant.'

¹⁰⁴至 zhì stands for 指 zhǐ 'finger'.

¹⁰⁵ Similar specimens are seen in TTD 3, No.138 (648 CE) and perhaps No. 199 (655 CE).

This simplification – or rather normalization in the authors' view – reflects Turfan people's familiarity with the procedure in their daily life. In the local contracts of this period, various formulae developed. For example:

畫/獲指為記 huà/huòzhǐ weí jì 'to draw/catch the fingers as a record.' 畫/獲指為驗 huà/huòzhǐ weí yàn 'to draw/catch the fingers as verification.'

Moreover, from the mid 8th century on, an alternative type of formulae without wording huà/huòzhǐ became popular, though generally the strokes are still drawn on paper. This later type can be represented by the following example in a contract of 757 CE: 恐人無信,故立此契為(記)kŏng rén wúxìn, gù lì cǐqì wéi (jì) 'Worrying about the honesty of other parties, (we) make this contract as (a record)'. ¹⁰⁶ Around the same time, noting personal ages near the strokes became normal. A concluding formula of this type together with the indication of personal age in the closing name list is also seen in a Tang document found at Duldur-akhur (Otani 1507 = TTD 3, No. 244).

In the non-Chinese materials found in East Turkestan other than the Old Uighur ones, finger drawing sometimes occurs at the end of documents. In Tumshuqese ones, it was to draw three lines between the *akṣara*s noting a person's age after his name – or more probably, the three strokes were filled by the notation of age. ¹⁰⁷ In Khotanese ones, the native word *hagauṣṭa* 'finger' was used to designate the

¹⁰⁶ Cf. TTD sup. IIIT25. This is perhaps a simplification of the longer version occurring in the 8th century such as 恐人無信,故立私契,兩共平章,畫指為記 kōng rén wúxìn, gù lì sīqì, liǎnggòng píngzhāng, huǎzhǐ wéi jì 'Worrying about the honesty of other parties, (we) make (this) private contract. Agreeing the text with each other, (we) draw the fingers as a record.' This longer type can be seen in a contract in 733 in Turfan (TTD 3, No. 32) and several contracts in the 780s in Khotan (TTD 3, No. 247, 248, 249).

¹⁰⁷ Cf. Text I, II, III, IV in Konow 1935 (= TS25 + 28, 29, 24, 31 in DTA, respectively.)

procedure.¹⁰⁸ Besides a few Chinese-Khotanese bilingual documents where the strokes were made on the side of Chinese text,¹⁰⁹ there are diverse methods for drawing fingers. The strokes were usually inset within the word *hagausta* and some words preceding it (ex. 1). But sometimes they are drawn alongside (ex. 2). In a few cases, an additional '||' is marked as well, perhaps noting the joints between the palm and the fingers (ex. 3).¹¹⁰

Tumshuqese

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ex. TS25 (= Konow 1935, Text I)

kapci Dzātsyā sā | lyi | 63 | 'kapci of Dzātsi, aged (lit. 'of year') 63.'
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Khotanese

ex. 1 Or. 6393/2 = (KT 5, p. 2; SD II, pl. XXV)

bye birgamdarajä surgām | darma | puñä ham | guşţi

'Witness: Surgām from Birgamdara. Darmapuña's finger.'

¹⁰⁸ Cf. Kumamoto 1984, 1987.

¹⁰⁹ Namely, the bilingual contract Дх. 18926 + 18928 (781 CE) published in Kumamoto 2001, 2007.

IIO A list of the Khotanese documents bearing the strokes of *huàzhi* has been provided by Kumamoto (1984: 14-15 n. 11; 1987: 153). The drawings similar to ex. 3 can be further seen in Or. 6395/1 (*KT* 5, pp. 3-4; *SD* II, pl. XXVII) and Or. 6396/1 (*KT* 5, p. 4). In some cases, drawings of different types are simultaneously adopted in the same document. For instance, the types presented by ex.1 and ex. 2 are attested together in Or. 6397/2 (= Hoernle 4. *KT* 5, p. 6; *SD* II, pl. XXVIII) and perhaps so are in Hoernle 9 (= Or. 6401/1.2 in Skjærvø 2002) according to Bailey's reading in *KT* 2, p. 67. In Or. 6395/1, there are nine specimens resembling ex. 3 and three resembling ex. 1. However, regarding the photographs published in *Saka Documents*, Bailey's recording of the strokes is sometimes dubious – in a few cases he recovered even up to five strokes for a drawing similar to ex. 1. These problematic cases include M.T. i.17 (= IOL Khot 44/5. *KT* 5, p. 207; *SD* III, pl. LXII), M.T. a.i.0041 (= IOL Khot 46/2. *KT* 5, p. 386; *SD* III, pl. LVII) and Hoernle 7 (= Or. 6397/1 in Skjærvø 2002; *KT* 2, p. 66; *SD* II, pl. XXVIII), in addition to Or. 6400/1.4 (*KT* 5, p. 9) where Bailey's reading has been revised by Skjærvø (2002).

The Kuchean method thus seems to be simpler than the Khotanese and the Tumshuqese ones. Among Kuchean documents, always only three strokes were added near the word *kapci*, sometimes following by personal signs or monograms. We never find any strokes deliberately placed between *akṣara*s (except for one case), neither do we see any indication of personal age. This phenomenon at least implies that in these documents, Kuchean people were well accustomed to drawing their fingers, so that there was no need to combine it with further details in the way that their Turfan neighbors in the early 7th century had done when they encountered the custom.

Decline of huazhi

As a result of the fall of the Tang in the 'Western regions' (ca. the 790s), discoveries of later Chinese secular documents in East Turkestan are less numerous. So we need to look at Dunhuang to trace the subsequent history of *huàzhi*. It seems that its decline in Dunhuang began in the early 9th century. Though an adequate treatment of this topic

¹¹¹ In a Turfan contract dated to 741 (= *TTD* 3, No. 33), a Sogdian person's signs was also put on after the three strokes. And in the Duldur-akhur contract Otani 1507 mentioned above, a seemingly monogram is put near the three strokes.

¹¹² Namely the unpublished fragment THT2701. Two of three strokes drawn on line 6 were inserted in the text. The other one, due to the lacking of space, was drawn below the line. The transliteration is as follows: /// yolontim|ntse kapci |

would require much more space than can reasonably be allotted to it here, some basic tendencies are worthy of note. Briefly speaking, in the first quarter of the 9th century, there are two major types of final formulae – with or without the wording of *huàzhǐ* – just like the situation in the 8th century Turfan. For the former type, the notion *huàzhǐ* 'to draw the finger' evolved into 書指 *shūzhǐ* 'to write the finger', 書紙 *shūzhǐ* 'to write on paper', or even 畫紙 *huàzhǐ* 'to draw on paper'. The last two notions 'to write on paper' and 'to draw on paper' are especially ambiguous, because from the 9th century on, people in Dunhuang started to use simple signs to present themselves (e.g. cross, star, etc., called by Niida (1939) as '(simplified) seal-marks').

畫指
$$hu\grave{a}zh\check{i}$$
 'to draw the finger' \rightarrow 書指 $sh\bar{u}zh\check{i}$ 'to write the finger' (\downarrow ?)

(畫紙 huàzhǐ 'to draw on paper') 113 (→?) 書紙 shūzhǐ 'to write on paper'

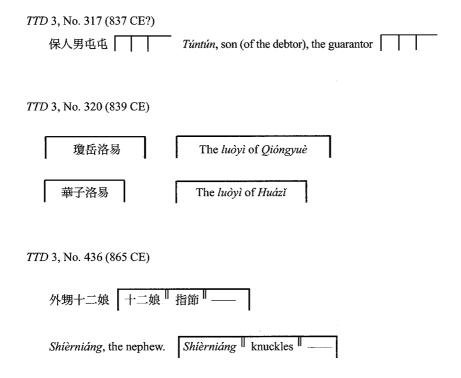
It is also in the 9th century that personal seals started to come into use. Thus in some documents we see instead 荅印為記 dā(?)yìn wéi jì 'to stamp with a seal as his record' (TTD 3, No. 325), 114 各各以將項印押暑 (for 署) 為記 gègè yǐ jiāng xiàngyìn yāshǔ wéi jì 'Everybody stamps with (his) neck(lace?)-seal or leaves a sign as a record'(TTD 3, No. 434, ca. 840 CE), etc. Since the simple signs later became more common, a new type of formulae represented by 押字為定 yāzì weidìng 'to make a

¹¹³ There is only one attestation of 畫紙 *huàzhī* (i.e. P. 2502V°, cf. *DSJ* 2: 81), but in *TTD* 3 (= No. 314, approximately dated to 834 CE) it is read as 書紙 *shūzhī* 'to write on paper'. The character shown in the photographs of *TTD* and *DSJ* seems ambiguous.

¹¹⁴ The character 荅 was read as 答 dá 'reply' in DSJ 2: 133, while the initial reading 荅 in TTD 3 was subsequently taken as a variant of 花 huā 'flower, design' in the errata of TTD (supplement vol.). But another contract (TTD 3, No. 261, 851 CE) is clearly written with 答 項印為驗 dá xiàng yìn wéi yàn 'to dá the neck (lace?)-seal as verification'. So 荅/答 in these examples are no doubt referring to a verb. Thus we retain the original explanation of No. 261 in TTD 3 and consider them as the simplified forms of 搭 dā, 'put, put on; hit'.

sign as the token of decision' 115 arose in the second half of the 10th century and turned popular.

As for the drawing evidence, we still find three simple strokes in several documents dated to the 830s. But their closing formulae are 書指為記 shūzhǐ wéi jì¹¹¹6 'to write fingers as a record' and 書指為憑 shūzhǐ wéi píng¹¹¹7 'to write fingers as certification'. It is also from this decade on that the drawing became more complicate and stranger. The diversity shown in contracts is presented below:



¹¹⁵ Here the 'sign' refers to effectively a signature or Niida's "seal-mark" (cf. Niida 1939: 79-80, 87).

¹¹⁶ i.e. TTD 3, No. 312 (834 CE?), 313 (834 CE?), 316 (835 CE?), 321 (839 CE?).

¹¹⁷ i.e. TTD 3, No. 379 (837 CE?).

TTD 3, No. 287 (the late 9th c.?)

地主叔陰國政 指節年 七十六

Yīn Guózhèng, uncle of the landowner. knuckles, aged 76

TTD 3, No. 273 (936 CE)

出賣舍主楊忽律哺 | 左頭 | 指

Yáng Hūlùbǔ, owner of the house for sale. | left | thumb

出賣舍主母阿張 | 右 | 中指

Āzhāng, mother of the house-owner. | right | middle finger

TTD 3, No. 481 (944 CE)

口居人安員進 年十五 口手 中指節

Ān Yuánjìn, the (co-?)habitant. aged 15 ... hand knuckles of the middle finger.

The contract No. 320 (= P. 3730) is especially noteworthy. Without notion of $hu\dot{a}zh\check{t}$ or $sh\bar{u}zh\check{t}$ in its main text, the drawing much resembles certain types of Tibetan

variations.¹¹⁸ In fact, the strange word 洛易 *luòyì* in No. 320 is rendered from Tib. *lag-yig*. Though this example may be exceptional, it still reveals the lack of regular drawing way in the mid 9th century.¹¹⁹

We are still looking for late evidence of finger drawing in East Turkestan. The Khotanese and the Turnshuqese documents mentioned above are generally dated around the 8th century. However, in a Khotanese document P. 2786 (ca. 965-966 CE), some Khotanese envoys subject to a Dunhuang ruler's orders submitted to him a written statement and put their *hagauṣṭa* on it, saying that they are departing from Dunhuang on their own responsibility despite his advice to stay until the road became safe. In this case, we are not sure whether finger drawing was still common in Khotan, or whether the envoys were expected to conform to the rules of Dunhuang in order to make an official deal.

According to Niida (1939), there are sporadic records about *huàzhĭ* in China in the Song and Yuan dynasties. So we can suppose that the custom was, though largely outstripped by the simplified seal-marks and other procedures in later times,

¹¹⁸ Cf. the illustration of 'Type 3 *sug-yig-tshad*' and 'Type 4 *lag-yig-tshad*' in Takeuchi 1994: 116-117. In fact, the specimens of No. 320 look very like Takeuchi's Type 4.

¹¹⁹ Niida's studies (1937, 1939, 1960) on the typology of finger drawing are very impressive, especially on the parallels in Tangut (Xixia), Japanese, Korean and Vietnamese traditions. But his strategy to determine which finger and which hand should be used for a typical huàzhǐ by concentrating on the transitional and late specimens, in addition to his aim to recover 'the primary form of huàzhǐ (畫指本來の形式, Niida 1960: 672)', seems to be not so decisive. He apparently ignored the prevalence of the three simple strokes and preferred to perceive this 'dot-type' as merely a simplified variant come from the 'finger-shape type' (1939: 131). However, we think that the simpler manner should be the common one in the prosperous Tang period.

¹²⁰ On the Tumshuqese documents, see n. 85. A more precise dating of the Khotanese documents mentioned above cannot be given presently, due to the continuous controversy about the chronology of Khotanese kings (cf. Kumamoto 2007: 152, Yoshida 2007: 467 n.15; Kumamoto 2009; Skjærvø 2009: 126-127; Zhang and Rong 2009).

¹²¹ The ruler is called 令公 *Linggōng*, probably 曹元忠 *Cao Yuanzhong*. Cf. Kumamoto 1984: 1-4; 1985: 132; 1987: 151.

still used in some circumstances in China. However, given the obvious simplicity of the *kapci* features in the Kuchean documents, and regarding to their similarity with the ones prevailing in Turfan and Dunhuang from the late 7th century up to the early 9th century, the drawings found in the *main group* must be regarded as a Tang phenomenon.

Abbreviations

Cp. Pelliot Koutchéen D.A. M.(507) series found at Duldur-akhur, cf. Pinault 2007: 189.

DSJ 敦煌社會經濟文獻真蹟釋録 Dunhuang shehui jingji wenxian zhenji shilu (5 vols.), edited by 唐耕耦 TANG Gengou and 陸宏基 LU Hongji, Beijing: Shumu wenxian chubanshe, 1986-1990.

DTA Digitales Turfan-Archiv. Depositum der Berlin-Brandenburgischen Akademie der Wissenschaften in der Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin Preussischer Kulturbesitz Orientabteilung. See http://www.bbaw.de/forschung/turfanforschung/dta/index.html.

EMC Early Middle Chinese, cf. Pulleyblank 1991.

IDP International Dunhuang Project. See http://idp.bl.uk.

KT Khotanese Texts = Bailey 1963 and 1969.

LMC Late Middle Chinese, cf. Pulleyblank 1991.

Nr. Manuscript numbers used by *TochSprR(B)*II,

SD Saka Documents = Bailey 1960-1967.

SIAL 『内陸アジア言語の研究』[Studies on the Inner Asian Languages].

TCW 吐魯番出土文書 Tulufan chutu wenshu (10 vols.), edited by 國家文物局 Guojia Wenwuju et al. Beijing: Wenwu chubanshe, 1981-1991.

TEB(I) Tocharisches Elementarbuch, Band I = Krause & Thomas 1960.

TEB(II) Tocharisches Elementarbuch, Band II = Thomas 1964.

THT Catalogue numbers of the Tocharische Handschriften aus den Turfanfunden, cf. TITUS.

TITUS Thesaurus Indogermanischer Text- und Sprachmaterialien, Tocharian Manuscripts from the Berlin Turfan Collection, digitized images and texts.

See http://titus.fkidg1.uni-frankfurt.de/texte/tocharic/tht.htm.

TLD 唐六典 Tang Liudian, compiled by 李林甫 Li Linfu et al. in 722-739 CE, commented by 陳仲夫 CHEN Zhongfu. Beijing: Zhonghua, 1992.

TochSprR(B)II Sieg, Emil and Wilhelm Siegling, Tocharische Sprachreste. Sprache B, Heft 2. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 1953.

TTD Tun-huang and Turfan Documents Concerning Social and Economical History, (4 vols. + supplement). Tokyo: Toyo Bunko, 1980-2001.

Xiyuji 大唐西域記 Da Tang Xiyuji, written by 玄奘 Xuanzang, commented by 季羨林 Jı Xianlin et al. Beijing: Zhonghua, 2000.

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