do it"; the sense of "being disturbed in mind" does not occur, though it may, perhaps, fairly be gathered from the last of those given by Lane. I should be inclined to render man yuhda qalbuhu, \$o-" He whose heart is guided to quietness and rest of soul is not disturbed in his doings, but acts without fear or trouble of spirit."
v. 56. Among the Arabs, when two parties of men met, if they meant peace, they turned towards each other the iron feet (xijdj, plural of auji) of their spears: if they meant war, they turned towards each other the pointa.
v. 67. The "cistern", hawd, is a man's home and family.
v. 60. This verse, the commentary tells us, was quoted by 'Othman son of ${ }^{\prime}$ Affin, the third Khalifeh.
v. 62. This accords with the proverb-innama-l-mar'u bi"a\&gharcyhi-" A man is accounted of according to his two smallest things"-his heart and his tongue.
v. 60-62 seem consecutive in sense, and probably belong to the same poem; but it is very difficult to see how they cohere with the rest of this. $v .68$, on the other hand, seems separate not only from the rest of the poem, but also from the three verses that precede it; grammar would require that the verb at the end of it should be marfí; not mejuam-yahlumu, not yahlum: but to read it so would disturb the rhyme, and be a fault of the kind called iqua. The commentary says that the mim of yahlum is originally mauquf (quiescent in a pause), and is read with kesr, because that is the appropriate vowel for making a quiescent letter moveable; but this reason is very lame. On the whole, it seems certain that v. 63 does not properly belong to the piece, and it is probable that vv. 60-62 are also intrusions. No other poem of those by Zuheyr that remain has the same metre and rhyme as his Mo'allaqah, and it is most likely that fragments of other poems, now lost, in this measure and rhyme that have survived have been included in it, because there was no other piece into which they could be put. The rest of the maxims forming the conclusion of the poem can be understood as arising, some more, some less closely, out of its subject; but the different order in which they occur in different recensions, and the fact that some recensions omit some of them which others supply, make it doubtful whether even they all properly belong to the Mo'allaqah.

## Stray Arians in Tibet.-By. R. B. SHaw, Political Agont.

## (With one plate.)

The line which divides the Musalmàn from the Buddhist populations of Asia, where it crosses the valley of the Upper Indus, passes through the villages of a small tribe which is worthy of some attention. It is Arian in blood though surrounded on all sides but one by Turanians of the Tibetan branch. The people of this tribe are proved by their language and their customs, which are supported by their traditions of former migrations, to
belong to the Dard* race, although they themselves are not aware of the kinship. They are known simply as Bròk-pa (or highlanders). While isolated among strangers they have preserved themselves with a caste-like feeling from amalgamating with them, and seem to have only recently and very superficially accepted the religious beliefs of their neighbours. The greater part of the tribe is thus nominally Buddhist, while two or three of their north-westernmost villages bordering on Baltistan have become Musalmàn.

This tribe presents therefore, to the student of early institutions, the interesting sight of a people of pure Arian race, isolated in the semibarbarous stage, and who enjoy the rare distinction of being practically unaffected by the action of any of the great philosophising or methodising religions; although in some of their customs they have not altogether escaped being influenced by contact with neighbours of another race.

I paid a visit to the Dah-Hanu district (the home of these so-called Buddhist Dàrds) on my way down to India from Ladak (Western Tibet) last winter (1876). In a wild gorge through which the narrow Indus rushes, and where the grand masses of granite seemingly piled in confusion on both banks scarce leave room for the passage of the river and conceal the higher mountains behind them, my first camp was pitched. Close by, the Hanu Ravine, which in its upper part expands into a wide inhabited valley, escapes through a rocky chasm into the Indus. Here, on a little triangular plain a few yards in extent between the cliffs and the river, the only flat spot around, the people of Hanu were waiting to receive me. The sun was setting ; the gorge was already in deep shade; a line of women in dark attire was drawn up along the side of the pathway, each holding in her hand a sancer full of burning juniper-wood from which columns of smoke ascended in the still air, uniting overhead in a kind of canopy and giving out a pungent incense-like odour. A wild music of drums and screaming pipes was playing. As I approached, the women bent down and placed on the ground at their feet the smoking bowls which screened them as in a clond, while they greeted me in the peculiar manner of their tribe by waving the two hands rapidly in front of their faces with fingers closed as if holding something.

My attention was chiefly attracted by some witch-like old hags of the number, with faces begrimed by juniper smoke, whose sharp haggard features and deep sunk eyes were in marked contrast with the flat Tibetan countenances to which one is accustomed in Ladak. These were unmis-

[^0]takeably of a different race. They wore long straight woollen smocks, square flat caps poised on their heads with one of the corners projecting over the forehead, the hair done up into numberless slender plaits hanging loose and straight, and sheep skins suspended like cloaks over the shoulders, the only part of their dress resembling that of Tibetan women, excepting the mocassin-like boots. The men were clothed just like Tibetans* with oaps, like black nosebags, falling over one ear.

These people were inhabitants of the Hanu side-valley, whose villages lie some distance up it, but who had come down to the gorge of the main river (Indus) to receive me. They have lost their own tribal dialect and speak Tibetan; but otherwise in dress and customs they resemble the rest of their people.

My next day's march led through similar scenery, the path now rising up the side of the cliff supported on frail-looking scaffoldings of tree-trunks resting on projecting rocks or on wooden trestles, now plunging precipitously down to the river-side where a stone could be thrown to strike the opposite cliff across the Indus. We saw a village or two on the other side at the mouths of lateral valleys, inhabited not by Bròkpàs but by Musalmàn Tibetans from beyond the mountain-range on the west. At length we came to a succession of isolated villages on our own (north-east) side of the river, mostly placed on high alluvial plateaux near the mouths of side ravines (whence they obtain their water for irrigation), and divided by vertical cliffs into terraces rising in successive steps. Here the warmth in summer is great, the rays of the sun being thrown off from the granite sides of the confined valley, so that where water is available the vegetation is luxuriant. Vines trail from the overhanging cliffs and from the splendid walnut trees, and two crops ripen each year on the same ground during the summer season, nothing being grown in winter. The apricots, mulberries, and apples of the district are celebrated. Between the villages there is nothing but the most arid wastes of granite without a green thing to cheer the eye. In this part the villages that occur in the other side of the river are inhabited by Bròkpàs as well as those on this.

Dàh is the principal village in this part. Situated on a long sloping alluvial terrace about a hundred yards wide and at the highest part perhaps a couple of hundred feet above the river, it is separated from a still higher terrace by a wall of cliff which culminates in a point immediately above the village. On this point a cairn surmounted by thin staves with fluttering rags attached, marks the supposed abode of a local demon or deity. The howling waste behind, invisible from the village on account of its higher level, but rising into still higher mountain masses which tower above, affords a fitting scene for all the supernatural doings of the

[^1]mountain spirits. The scenery which inspires awe in a passing traveller, has made its mark on the minds of the inhabitants. These lofty solitudes are, from their earliest years, connected with ideas of dread, which shape themselves into myths. The priest affirms that sometimes in the early dawn while performing the annual worship, he perceives a white indistinct shape hovering over the cairn; and this, he says, is the goddess of the spot revealing herself to her worshipper. The people believe that this demon keeps a special watch over all their actions, and in a country where frequent accidents by flood or fell are almost inevitable, and where a false step or a falling rock may cause death at any time, they put down such disasters to the vengeance of the goddess for the neglect of some of their peculiar customs which they have persuaded themselves are religious duties.

Foremost among their tenets is the abhorrence of the cow. This is an essentially Dàrd peculiarity, though not universal among them. Unlike Hindus they consider that animal's touch contamination, and though they are obliged to use bullocks in ploughing, they scarcely handle them at all. Calves they seem to hold aloof from still more. They use a forked stick to put them to, or remove them from, the mother. They will not drink cow's milk (or touch any of its products in any form) ; and it is only recently that they have overcome their repugnance to using shoes made of the skin of the animal they so contemn. When asked whether their abstaining from drinking the milk and eating the flesh of cows is due to reverence such as that of the Hindus, they say that their feeling is quite the reverse. The cow is looked upon as bad not good, and if one of them drank its milk, they would not admit him into their houses.

Again in reply to a question, they ascribed this custom to the will of their goddess. They found by experience that she would not allow them to drink the milk of cows with impunity. The son of a certain head-man of the village of Ganok, a Musalmàn Bròkpà, had broken through the prohibition after living some years among the Baltis. After a time the goddess caused him to go mad and to throw himself into the river where he was drowned.

Thus although the Bròkpàs of Dàh-Hanu are nominally Buddhists, yet their real worship is that of local spirits or demons like the Lhò-mo (goddess) of Dah.*

[^2]Her name is Shiring-mo.* A certain family in the village supplies the hereditary officiating priest. This person has to purify himself for the annual ceremony by washings and fastings for the space of seven days, during which he sits apart, not even members of his own family being allowed to approach him, although they are compelled during the same period to abstain from onions, salt, chang (a sort of beer), and other unholy food. At the end of this period he goes up alone on to the rocky point before mentioned above the village, and after worshipping in the name of the community the deity who dwells there in a small cairn, $\dagger$ he renews the branches of the "shukpa" (Juniperus excelsa) $\ddagger$ which were placed there the previous year, the old branches being carefully stowed away under a rock and covered up with stones.

It is said that this deity or spirit accompanied the ancestor of the priestly family from the original home of the Bròkpàs in Gilgit. Formerly the priest used to be occasionally possessed by the demon and in this state to dance a devil-dance, giving forth inspired oracles at the same time, but these manifestations have ceased for the last twelve or fifteen years. The worship is now simply one of propitiation inspired by fear, the demon seeming to be regarded as an impersonation of the forces of nature adverse to man in this wild mountainous country. Sacrifices of goats (not sheep) are occasionally offered at all seasons below the rock, by the priest only, on behalf of pious donors. They talk of the existence of the demon as a misfortune attaching to their tribe, and do not regard her with any loyalty as a protecting or tutelary deity. In each house the fireplace consists of three upright stones of which the one at the back of the hearth is the largest, 18 inches or 2 feet in height. On this stone they place an offering for the Lhdmo from every dish cooked there, before they eat of it. They also place there the first-fruits of the harvest. Such is their household worship.

Besides this spirit-worship, which is their tribal religion, they have a superficial coating of Buddhism. They say that three or four cycles, that is

[^3]forty or fifty years ago, after a war between Shigar and Ladàk, when their country was occupied by the Ladàk army, the Làmas converted them. The head Lama at the monastery of Skirbuchan, further up the river, told me, however, that it was only some twelve or fifteen years ago that the Bròkpds were converted by Lamas from his monastery who went on begging tours amongst them. But this may have been a mere revival. At any rate, there is a remarkable absence in the Dahh-Hanu country, of those Buddhist monuments (long stone dikes covered with inscriptions, and tall structures surmounted by obelisks and containing relics, called respectively Mané and Chorten) which form such a conspicuous feature along the roads and in the villages of Tibet. I saw one or two small chortens, evidently newly erected, and in two villages amall gompàs or hermit-cells (the larger monasteries of Tibet have the same name) inhabited each by a single Lama, one of whom was a Tibetan and the other, whom they brought forward rather as a curiosity, a real Bròkpà Làma, the only one in existence. These gompàs also were quite new.

The Bròkpàs burn their dead like the Laddkis; that is to say in little brick furnaces on the hill-sides. The upper part of the furnace is a short upright oylinder into which the body is crammed in a squatting posture with the head tied well down between the knees, while a fire is lighted in the square base of the furnace. This method is probably adopted as saving fuel in a country where it is so scarce, and where it would be difficult to get logs sufficient for the ordinary mode of Hindu cremation where the body is extended at full length on an open pyre. The corpse is carried to the burning on a kind of sedan-chair raised by poles on men's shoulders. It is placed in the squatting posture in which it is to be burnt, but covered up with flowing coloured sheets so that it might almost be taken for a veiled woman being carried on a journey. Often in Ladàk a broadbrimmed Lama's hat is placed on its head to secure a blessing for the soul of the defunct.

Mr. Drew, who has given a most interesting short account of these Bròkpas in his "Jummoo and Kashmir," is, I think, mistaken in supposing that they have no caste, as the other Dàrds have. I have heard of at least three caste-like divisions, which we may call those of priests, cultivators, and artisans. The priestly families (called Lhàbdak, Tib.) form the highest division in each village. Although men of the next caste are allowed to come into their houses, yet it is only on condition of washing their hands and faces before doing so, especially if they have recently been among the Gentiles (Tibetans, \&c.), a precaution that does not seem to be considered necessary on other occasions by the Bròkpàs, who are a very dirty people. This next caste which forms the bulk of the people is called Rüshen. The younger branches of the priestly families become Ruishens, since there can only be one priest or Lhabdak in each village.

Besides these there is a lower caste consisting, in the village of Dàh, of only five families. They were originally blacksmiths, it is said, but no longer carry on the ancestral calling. They are called Ruzmet (Tib.) or Gàrgyut.* Their women are not allowed to approach the cookinghearths of the higher caste, nor are the Rüzmet men, excepting after a purification similar to that of the Ruishen on going into the houses of the priests. The higher castes will not eat what is cooked by them.

Reversing the custom of the Hindus in the matter of marriage, the lower caste may take wives from the higher, but not vice-versd (except in the case of the priests who, I gather, can marry Rüshen women). Probably as a consequence of this, a married daughter is never allowed to reenter the house of her parents and may not touch anything belonging to them. After three generations of marriages with the higher caste, the progeny are admitted into it. While at Dàh, I was questioning a party of Bròkpâs, and one of them, an old man who, though sitting rather apart, had been very forward in answering my questions, became silent and hung down his head when I began inquiries into the caste-system. It appeared that he was a Rüzmet or low-caste-man. But presently he brightened up and said : "True, I am now a Rüzmet, but in three generations I can become Riishen." This thought seemed to console the old man, much to the amusement of the others.

Polyandry is the rule in Dàh-Hanu. As the Bròkpàs do not intermarry with the neighbouring Tibetans, it would seem that the question of its possible cause or effect in a disproportion of the sexes could be well studied in this confined area. I had not leisure or opportunity to obtain exact statistics, but if there were any notable excess of either sex in such small communities, where there is no monasticism to speak of, it could hardly escape notice by the more intelligent among them. I repeatedly put the question: "Why do several brothers take only one wife between them ?" The answer given me was: "Because the land is not sufficient to provide food for the families of the several brothers, if they each took a wife." Again I asked : "If an equal number of boys and girls are born in your village, as you say ; and each family of two or three (or more) brothers takes only one girl to wife between them, where are the other girls? Do they

[^4]marry into the villages of the neighbouring Tibetans?" They answer, No. "Are there many unmarried women in your villages?" They reply that, on the contrary, they often find it difficult to procure wives. It would seem therefore that there must either be a great defect in the number of births of females, or an equal excess in their deaths while young. I could not hear of female infanticide and do not believe that it is practised, as, if it were, it must be known to the Kashmir officials.

It is not only in marriage that they keep themselves apart from their neighbours. They will not eat with the Tibetan Buddhists or Musalmans or other outsiders, nor will they allow these to come near their cooking places. The caste prejudice seems to originate on the side of the Bròkpa, for their neighbours often eat in their houses, only separate dishes are given them which are afterwards parified with burning juniper. No Bròkpà will eat in the house or from the dishes of a Tibetan; nor will he eat fish or birds or (of course) cow's flesh. Formerly, if they had been among the Tibetans, they would purify themselves with the smoke of the "shukpa" before entering their own houses again.

The tribe is subdivided into several groups of villages. 1st. Those in the Hanu side valley (whose inhabitants have exchanged their own language for Tibetan, being situated on the main road between Skardo and Ladak.) 2nd. The Dàh group, consisting of Baldès, Phindur, Byéma, Sani, Dundir, and Dàh villages. 3rd. The Garkhon group, consisting of Garkhon, Dàrchik (large village on west of Indus), Sanàcha (ditto), Urdàs, Gragra (up side-stream on east), and Watsara. These are all the Buddhist villages. The people of each group consider themselves to be one community. The Dah people reckon from seven ancestors who first colonised their villages and of whom they give the names : viz., Laliusho (from whom the Lhábdaks or priests spring) ; Zoné, Dàkré, Gochaghé (these three are the ancestors of the Rüshen caste) ; Dïsé, Gabüré, and Tukshüré (these are the fathers of the Rüzmet caste). The land of Dàh is still divided according to these families, though some of it has changed hands. In this fact we may perhaps see a trace of the early Arian joint family holding, passing into the stage of individual proprietorship. Each man knows his own ancestry (real or imaginary), and each field is known as belonging to the patrimony of one of the seven fathers of the tribe, though it may now be in the hands of a descendant of one of the others. The remaining groups of villages have similar traditions. The Dàh people say that their ancestors, when they first came, lived by hunting, not by agriculture. One of their mighty hunters dropped his bow (called in their language Dàh) on the hill-side. It became a water channel which fertilized the fields of what afterwards became a village. One of their Chiefs found certain seeds growing wild which he sowed near the water-course. These seeds proved to be those of wheat
and barley. Thus the village was founded. The story of the bow is probably originated either by the curved course of the water-channel which comes out of a side valley and bends round the hill side to reach the village; or else by a mere superficial resemblance of sound between the name Dàh (of which the origin had become forgotten) and the name for a bow.

Several of the villages possess a communal dwelling in which every inhabitant of the village has a place. That of Dàh is very curious. It covers a considerable space in the angle between the Indus and a side-stream, protected on two sides by the precipitous declivities of the high alluvial plateau on which it stands and on the third by a wall. It was thus fortified against the raids of the neighbouring Baltis. The interior consists of an intricate maze of passages, some open and some covered in, which may be considered either as the lanes of a tightly packed village, or rather as the passages of a vast single storied house which forms the common dwelling of the whole community, each household having its separate apartment or den. Here the people always live during winter, for warmth or for company. They all, however, have other houses for summer, out in the fields. I could not discover that there was any difference in tenure between the lands adjoining the common dwelling and the outlying fields. The village of Dàrchik likewise is cut off from the lower course of the valley by a vertical cliff, the escarpment of the plateau on which it stands. There are only two ways of approach. One high up and away from the river, is guarded by a fortified communal dwelling. .The other, near the river, consists of a rugged narrow staircase constructed in the face of the cliff and closed by a gateway at the top. Such precautions were necessary in former days when the men of Baltistán made raids on their neighbours, especially on such as were not Musalmàns, and penetrated even to Ladàk. Now all is peace under the common rule of our Feudatory, the Maharajá of Kashmír.

So much for the (so-called) Buddhist Bròkpàs. But the villages of the same tribe which lie exposed to Musalmàn influences down the Indus on the two roads leading north-west and south-west respectively, have all been converted to Islam. Of the settlements on the former road, that down the Indus, and in side-valleys near it, the village of Ganok is entirely inhabited by Musalmàn Bròkpàs, while those of Dangel, Marul, Chùlichan, and Singkarmòn, are inhabited partly by Musalmàn (Shí'ah) Bròkpàs, and partly by Baltis (Tibetan Musalmàns) of the same sect. Below this the population is entirely Balti. On the other road, that across a low Pass south-westward to Kargil, the villages of Tsirmo and Làlung are also inhabited partly by Musalmàn Bròkpàs and partly by Musalmàn Tibetans from the adjoining district of Purik. These Musalmàn Bròkpàs on both roads speak the Dàh dialect, and dress like the Dàh people, and keep apart from the Tibetan Musalmàns both in matter of marriage and in eating.

But they have no caste inequalities amongst them like their non-Musalmàn kinsmen, and generally they do not objeot to drinking milk, though at Tsirmo, there seems to be a relic of the Bròkpà prejudice against the cow in the fact that their women do not touch that animal.

A short account of the language of these Upper Indus Dàrds (or DàhHanu Bròkpàs, as they are usually called), including both the Buddhist and the Musalmàn sections, is given hereafter.

It is a question how these Arian Dàrds (for Arians and Dàrds they undoubtedly are) reached their present abode. Both above and below them in the valley of the Upper Indus and to the east of them in the parallel valley of the Shayok, the inhabitants are all of Tibetan race. Dàrdistàn proper, or the country of the Dàrds* (the ancient Bolor), is situated far away on the lower course of the Upper Indus, and along that river no vestige of their passage exists and no connecting link with their former home. $\dagger$ But from the country of the Dàrds the Indus makes a wide bend westwards and southwards, and from the concavity of this bend we find a line of Dàrd communities ranning south at first and then trending off to the east until it almost abuts against the settlements of the Dàh-Hanu Bròkpàs on the Upper Indus. These Dàrds are Musalmàns, as are also the main body of the Dàrd race in their own home. The Buddhist Bròkpàs of Dáh-Hanu acknowledge no kinship with these people, although they say that their ancestors also came from Gilid (Gilgit) and Brushdl, that is, from Dàrdistàn proper. There is, however, an unmistakable mutual affinity of language and customs. Mr. Drew, $\ddagger$ in explanation of the difference of religion, very justly supposes the Dah-Hanu Bròkpds to " belong to an earlier immigration......separated from the main mass of their tribe brethren at a time before the Dàrds were converted to Muhammedanism." § The Dàh-Hanu people, having Buddhists on one side of them, would the more easily receive an outward varnish of that faith, while the later Dàrd settlements to the west of them, surrounded by, and intermingled with, Musalmàns, would

[^5]accept Islam, even if they did not bring it with them from their home. A non-descript paganism (which was probably the religion of the early Dàrds) does not easily resist the encroachments of one of the great dogmatic religions when thrown into unprotected contact with it.

Did the Dàh-Hanu Bròkpàs come by the same route as their later brethren, or did they come, as some of them say, up the valleys of the Indus and Shayok? In the latter case, it would be very strange if a migration of Dàrds, with the whole upper course of the Indus before them, should have stopped and located themselves precisely at that point on its course where a subsequent migration of their kindred, starting from the same point but coming by a different route (latterly at right angles to theirs), happens, some centuries after, to have struck the Indus. It seems more probable that the line of the later migration marks that of the earlier one; and that the ancestors of Dah-Hanu people took the route viâ Astor, Déosaï, the Drds river, and Kargil, (a route facilitated by the nature of the country in that direction). Crossing by a low Pass into the Indus Valley, they were there arrested by the more difficult mountains on the east of that river. They probably found this district uninhabited; for though the valley of the Indus, both below and above was, and is, occupied by Tibetan States (Baltistàn or Little Tibet, and Ladàk); yet so difficult is the gorge of the Upper Indus in this intermediate portion, that all traffic from Skardo (Baltistàn) directed towards Ladàk, is diverted round by the parallel Shayok Valley, only crossing back into that of the Indus by the Hanu Pass, beyond Dàh.

Both the Dàh-Hanu people and the Dàrd communities (above mentioned) settled on or about the Dràs river, are called by their Tibetan neighbours Bròk-pà (often pronounced $D \delta k$-pà with a disregard to the spelling peculiar to Tibetans and Englishmen). Bròk means a " mountain pasture" or "alp". The reference may be to the pastures to which they in summer take their sheep (as do also their Tibetan neighbours however) or to the fact of their having settled on grounds which were formerly pastures. But the term Bròk-pà, or Highlander, seems more likely to have been applied (as Mr. Drew suggests) to a tribe seen to arrive across the high mountains and descending into the Indus Valley, than to a people coming up that valley from its lower portion, and who have not, since their arrival, taken to a life in the high mountains in any greater degree than their neighbours.

A few words of notice are required for the Drds Dards of the later immigration just mentioned. Their connection with their parent stock is very close, and betokens a comparatively recent separation. They say that their ancestors came from Darè ; and their settlements extend far up the course of the streams leading down from the uninhabitable plateau of Déosaï, which alone separates them from Dàrdistàn proper.

The furthest settlements of these people at the embouchure of the Dris river into the Indus, approach very closely to, without mixing with, those of their unrecognised kinsmen of the Dàh-Hanu Division. I have collected a few of their grammatical rules and have made a very short comparative table of some of the most ordinary words in the two dialects, by which it will be seen that they are really only different forms of the same mode of speech. These later Dards, as far as Dràs, are intermingled with Musalmàn Tibetans or Baltis. At Dràs the former are Sunnís in religion while the latter are Shl'ahs, but lower down near the Indus both are Shi'ahs. The Dàrds of the Dras district keep themselves quite separate, both as regards marriage and eating, from the Baltis with whom they are intermingled in the same villages, and show also some slight traces of that abhorrence of the cow which is so marked among the Dah-Hanu people, and which is also prevalent in greater or less intensity among many of the other Dards in their own home. To carry the linguistic inquiry a little further back, a comparison with Dr. Leitner's account of the Astori form of the Dàrd language will show that the speech of the Dràs Bròkpàs is almost identical with that of the people of Astor or Hazora who are one of the chief branches of the Dard race in Dàrdistàn, only divided by the river Indus from Gilgit. We have therefore a continuous chain of communities leading from Dàrdistàn proper to the settlements on the Upper Indus at Dah-Hanu. The small gap that does exist in point of language and dress between these latter and the most advanced (geographically) of their brethren, would seem to indicate a lapse of time occurring between two successive migrations. The foremost may be in all probability considered the carlier, and in either case they profess the religion of their environment.

Thus we have here the furthest extension in this particular direction, of an Indo-Arian migration, a kind of side-eddy from the great stream. As when one of our Indian rivers is filled by the melting snows, if a sudden increase of the flood comes down, one may see the waters, dammed up as it were by the too slowly moving masses in front, trickle off to one side in the endeavour to find a speedier exit. But soon, the temporary increase abating or the circumstances of the ground proving unfavourable, this side channel ceases to flow onward and stagnates to a pool, leaving the traces of its abortive course as far back as the point of divergence. So it would seem that long after the successive floods of Indo-Arians had poured over the long water-parting of the Hindu-Kush, the latest or the most easterly wave (the Dàrd one) expanding in its turn after a vast lapse of time, but finding the southward way blocked in front of it by the earlier comers, sent off side-currents to the south-eastward. These were but puny streams, wanting moreover sufficient vis à tergo to carry them onwards when they found themselves amid a foreign element and progressing towards a higher
and more barren country, instead of reaching the fertile plains to which a southerly course had formerly led their brethren, the Hindus. Here therefore they remained, wedged in among alien populations, but connected with their starting point by the living trail of their passage.

Note.-With reference to the question whether any and what degree of connection exists between the Dàrds and the Ghalchahs of the Upper Oxus (see my paper on the latter in the Asiatic Society Bengal, Journal 1876), -it is curious to see that Mr. Drew from native (Dàrd) information classifies one of the Ghalchah tribes, the Wàkhi (called by him Wakhik or Gòijàl) amongst the Dàrds. See Drew's Jummoo and Kashmir, p. 457. The termination $k$ of the word Wakhik is probably a mere Dàrdu affix, (cf. dostek, grestok for dost, grest).

Dr. Leitner also (Dardistán, Vol. I, Part II, p. 24) says that Gòjàl is the name given by the Chilasis to the people between Hunza and Pamer on the Yarkand road. Now these people are the Sariqoli Ghalchahs. He adds "there are also Gojàls under a Rájá of Gojàl on the Badakhshán road." These can be no other than the Wakhí Ghalchahs, called by Mr. Drew also Gòijàl, and the idea suggests itself that perhaps Gojăl may be the Dardu form of the name Ghalcha given to the same tribes by their Turki neighbours. It is formed by a mere inversion of the position of the latter two consonants, viz., $l$, and $j$ or ch: غلجّه for Nucklow for Lucknow). At any rate we see that there is an affinity asserted by the Dàrds between themselves and the Ghalchahs, those neighbours who seem to be, one the most primitive race of the Indian family and the other the most primitive of the Iranians. This assertion of affinity is, to some extent borne out by a comparison of the dialects (see Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, for 1876, Paper on the Ghalchah languages).

Some Grammatical forms of the Dàrd dialects spoken by the Bròk-pàs of (i) Dàh-Hanu and of (ii) Dràs.

Sounds.
There is no broad $a$, like aw in pawn, as in some neighbouring dialects and languages.

The accented $\grave{a}$ to be pronounced as in father ; unaccented $a$ as in ordinary, oriental.

The accented é as cy in they, but more staccato. Unaccented e when final is neutral in sound as in the English word the when rapidly pronounced before a consonant; this sound approaches that of unaccented a. When not final, it is pronounced as in then or yes.

Besides the long and short $\dot{\partial}, 0$ and $\grave{u}, u$, there is a double-dotted $\ddot{\partial}$, pronounced as in German schön, and a double-dotted $\ddot{u}$ as in German mühe or French tu.

With regard to the consonants ; the $d h$ represents the English soft th of the, this, \&c., and not the Hindi aspirated $d^{\prime} h$ (which will be represented with an apostrophe, as $d^{\prime} h, t^{\prime} h$ ). Similarly $g h$ is $\dot{\varepsilon}$ (ghain) and not the aspirated Hindi consonant.

Teh is the compound used by Mr. Drew, in a short list of Dah-Hanu words given in his "Jummoo and Kashmir," to represent a ch pronounced with the tongue curled back to the roof of the mouth. It stands, as he remarks, to the English ch in the same relation that the Hindi palatal $t$ does to the dental $t$, [or that the Wakhi sch does to the English sh (see my paper on the Ghalchah Languages in the Journal Asiatic Society of Bengal, for 1876) ; or that $\dot{r}$ (see below) does to $r$ ].

The $\tilde{n}$ (with a mark over it) is the French nasal $n$ which is felt rather as affecting the previous vowel than as a distinct sound. When followed by a vowel however, it acquires something of the sound of $n g$ in the word yowng, but never to the extent of allowing any distinct $g$ to be heard as in English younger, hunger. Thus moñ "I" is pronounced exactly like the French mon "my." Again hàñs "I am" and byuñs "I go" would be spelt in French hanse, biounsse. But hàña (where $\tilde{n}$ is followed by a vowel) is sounded (as regards the medial consonant) somewhat like the English word hanger (not as in anger).

The $\dot{r}$ (with a dot over it) represents the palatal $r$ of Hindi, pronounced with the tongue turned back. It approaches the sound of a $d$.

The $r$ (with a dot under it) represents a sound intermediate between an $r$ and a French $j$ or the $z$ in "azure;" that is, the $r$ is not clearly trilled but slurred over; while the tongue is almost in the position for an $r$ a stream of air is passed, without vibration of the tip, between it and the palate. Thus in the word potro "grandson", the sound is intermediate between potro and potjo (as in English we may sometimes hear people pronounce the word " trill" almost like " chill").

The $z$ (with a dot underneath) represents the French $j$ or the $z$ in azure. It approaches the last letter in sound.

The $y$ is only used as a consonant, as in English " yes," "sawyer", \&c., (not as in " by," or " every").

## I. Dàk-Hanu Dialect. <br> The Subbiantive.

| Singular. | Plural. |
| :---: | :---: |
| N. ễ .................... $\frac{1}{}$ ewe | ếra ....................... ewes |
| éiz-sa (before Trans. | ễa-sa (before Trans. |
| verbs not in Past | Verbs \&c.) |
| Tense) |  |
| G. êia................... of a ewe | éran ...................... of ewes |
| D. éiara .............. to a ewe | eían-da .................... to ewes |
| Acc. ét-za .............. a ewe | ếan-za ................... ewes |
| Abl. étizano ........... from a ewe | ézan-zano ................ from ewes |
| eia-süma........... with a ewe | éżn-süma ................. with ewes |
| Instr. étzya ........... by a ewe | ézan-ya .................. by ewes |
| N. a................... a she goat | oyo .................... she goats |
| à-sa (before Trans. | oyo-sa (before Trans. |
| Verbs not in Past | Verbs \&c.) |
| Tense) |  |
| G. oya or des........... of a she goat | oyon ................ of she goats |
| D. à-ra................. to a she goat | oyon-da .............. to she goats |
| Acc. à-za............. a she goat $^{\text {a }}$ | oyon-za .............. she goats |
| Abl. àzano $^{\text {........... fromashegoat }}$ | oyon-zano ........... from she goats |
| Instr. à-yé ............ by a she goat | oyo-yé................. by she goats |
| N. $g \delta t$................. a house | gobti....................... houses |
| $g \delta t-8 a$ (before Trans. | goticsa (before Trans. |
| Verbs not in Past | Verbs \&c.) |
| T.) |  |
| G. gotas ............... of a house | gotin .................... of houses |
| D. gótàra.............. to a house | gotin-da ................. to houses |
| Acc. gotì̀-dze ......... a house | gotin-dze .............. houses |
| Abl. gôtà-yono........ from a house | gotin-dono ............. from hous |
| gôtas-silma ...... with a house |  |
| Instr. gbt-ya........... by a house | gotin-ya................. by houses |

And so with $g \hat{0}$ " a cow," Gen. gôs, and the other cases $g \delta$; gôló "a bull," Gen. goblos, other cases goblo; biiu "a boy," Gen. biüs, other cases biiu. But Genitive of tchigà "a woman" is tchügoya while the Dat. is tchugéra, the Acc. tchigà-zé, the Ab. tchügé-yono and the Instr. tchigà-ya. The post-position süma " with", governs the Genitive.

The Plural is irregular though generally ending with a vowel for the nominative and by the same vowel followed by $n$ (and by the appropriate post-positions, if any) for the oblique cases.

Thus the plural of biü "a boy" is bé in the nom. and bén in the oblique cases; $g \delta t$ "a house", in the plural is goti and gotin; "cattle" (plural) is gölé and gölen; " women" is tshügoyu, obl. tshügoyun. Boda "fathers", obl. bodan; apshi "horses", obl. apshan.

Adjectives do not seem to change for the gender.
Pronouns.
Singular.
Plural.
1st Person.
$\left.\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { N. monin } \\ \text { (with intrans. verbs) } \\ \text { or } \\ \text { ma-sa }\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{l}\text { (with transitive verbs } \\ \text { in the Present and } \\ \text { Future) }\end{array}\right\} \mathbf{I}$
G. $m i$ or $m i i i$
my
D. wnà-ra to me $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Acc. moñ-ze (with Present } \\ \text { and Future Tenses) }\end{array}\right\}$ me Abl mon-yono or mon-doa from mo Instr. mi-ya (with Past) by me
$\left.\left.\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{cc}b a ̀ ~ o r ~ b e n g ~ . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ~ \\ \text { bà-sa } \\ \text { or } \\ \text { beng-sa } a\end{array}\right.\right\} \begin{array}{l}\text { with transitive } \\ \text { verbs in the Pre- } \\ \text { sent and Future } \\ \text { Tenses }\end{array}\right\}$ we
assï ............................ our
assü-ra ......................... to us
assï-za ......................... us
assï-yono or assü-deo ...... from us $b a ̀-y a$ or beng-ya ............ by us 2nd Person.

| N. tis (with intransitive V.) |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| ti-ea ortu-sa (with transitive \} thou. | tsi-sa or tsü-sa (wi |
| Verbs in Present and Fut.) | trans. V. in Pres. |
| G. tiü ...................... they | Fut. |
| D. tied-ra ..........,........ to thee | tsi .......................... your |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Acc. tw-ze (with Present } \\ \text { and Future Tenses) }\end{array}\right\}$ thee | tsï-ra. $\qquad$ to you <br> tsï-ze $\qquad$ you |
| Abl. tiu-yono ............. from thee |  |
| Instr. ti-ya (with Past) by thee | tsiu-yono |

3rd Person.

| $\begin{gathered} \text { N. so (fem. sa) or } p^{\prime} h o \\ \left.\begin{array}{l} \text { (with intre. V.) } \\ s o-s a \text { (with trans. V.) } \\ \text { Pres. and Fut. } \end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{c}  \\ \text { he (here or } \end{array} \text { there } \end{gathered}$ | $\left.\begin{array}{c} \text { té or } p \text { 'hé (with intr. } \\ \text { V.) } \\ t e ́-s a \text { (with tr. V.) } \end{array}\right\}$ | they (here or there). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G. tes or p'hos of him (do.) | ten or $p$ 'héün | of them |
| D. té-ra to him | ten-da or p'héün-da | to them |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Acc. té-za (with Pres. } \\ \text { Tenses) }\end{array}\right\}$ him | tén-za or p'héïn-za | them |
| Abl. té-yono from him | tén- or p'hérin-yono | from them |
| $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { Instr. so-ya (with Past } \\ \text { Tense of Trans. V.) }\end{array}\right\}$ by him | té- or p'hé-ya | by them |

THE VERB.
The Intransitive Verb " to go".
Byàsti $=$ (in order) to 'go.
Byà-su = about to go.
Byuñto $=$ in going, or, whilst going.
Gyéto $=$ gone or having gone. Bo - go (Imperative).
Indicative Mood.
Present Future Tense.
Singular.

1. moñ or $m i\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { byuñs...I go (masc.) } \\ o r \text { will go } \\ \text { binis... I go (fem.) }\end{array}\right.$
bà byenis we go or will go
2. tii $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { bywña } \\ \text { binia }\end{array}\right.$ $\qquad$ thou goest do. (fem.)
3. \{so byàlla $\qquad$ he goes she goes
tsi byeni $\qquad$
té bydn ............ they go, \&c. Aorist.
4. moñ byü ............... I go
5. tü̈ byuñ thou goest he goes
ba byiñ we go
tsi byeni..................... ye go
té byoni
they go

Past Tense.

1. $\operatorname{mon}\left\{\begin{array}{l}g b s, . . . \text { I went (m.) } \\ g y \text { 亿̂s... ditto (fem.) }\end{array}\right.$ bà gyéüñs ..................... we went
2. tii $\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\text { go } & \text {.. } & \text { thou wentest (m.) } \\ \text { gyeiua } & \text { ditto (fem.) }\end{array}\right.$
3. $\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\text { so go ...... } & \text { he went } \\ \text { sa gyani } & . . & \text { she went }\end{array}\right.$
ye went
tsi gyé or gyéuizi $\qquad$
té gyéani or gyéïn ...... they went

Perfect Tense.

1. mi gyéüs (? gyé-hüs) I have (or had) gone
2. tü gyé-àstu
3. $s 0$ gyé-d̀stu
$\qquad$ thou hast gone he has gone té gyé-àstin ......... ye have gone bà gyéüñs (? gyé-hüũs) we have gone tsé gyé-àstin
$\qquad$ they havegone Future Tense.
moñ byllko...... I will go (the other persons of this tense are the same).
[^6]Thi Defective auxiliary " to be".
Present.

## Past.

1. moñ or mi hdñs
.I am
2. $t \ddot{u}$ or $t i$ hàña. thou art
3. so háã .he is
4. bà or beng hànis .we are
5. tsi hàni .......................ye are
6. té hàmi they are

The transitive Verb has some peculiarities about its subjects.
In the first place, all Tenses except the Past take the second nominative form of Pronouns, mà-sa, ti-sa, \&c., and they add the particle sa to substantives in the nominative. Secondly, the Past Tense puts the subject in the Instrumentative case, and the object in the nominative, the verbal inflection agreeing with the latter (not in gender, however, but in person), so as almost to assume a Passive form. But as there is a separate Passive, this Tense may be most nearly compared with the Hindustani Transitive Past c. g., ws-ne ek aurat màri (Hind.) "he struck a woman"; where the verb is in the feminine to agree with the object "woman". So in the Bròkpà dialect: Täshis-ya moñ kutudhös "Tashi struck me", lit. "by Tashi I was struck", where "kutudhös" is the Past verb-form agreeing with the 1st person singular. The 1st persons singular and plural (when occurring as objects of the action) have each a particular form of the verb assigned to them, while the remaining persons have a common form.

With this explanation we will proceed to the

## CONJUGATION OF A TRANSITIVE VERB.

Kutisti $=$ (in order) to strike, (on account of) striking.
Kuti-su = about to strike.
Kutyuñto $=$ in striking, or whilst striking.
Kutedho = having struck.

## Imperative.

Kuti = strike.
INDICATIVE MOOD.
Presemt Future Thesse

Singular.

1. mà-sa $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { kutywifs I strike (masc.) } \\ \text { or will strike } \\ \text { kutinis ditto (fem.) }\end{array}\right.$
2. tü-sa $\left\{\begin{array}{l}k u t y w \tilde{n} a \text { thou strikest } \\ \begin{array}{c}\text { (m.) \&c. } \\ k u t i n i a ~ d i t t o ~(f .) ~\end{array}\end{array}\right.$
3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}80-s a \text { kutyàlla he strikes \&c. } \\ \text { sà-sa kutini she strikes \&c. }\end{array}\right.$

Plural.
bà-sa kutyenis ..........We strike, \&c. tsï-sa kutyeni ...........ye strike, \&c.
té-sa kutyàn .........they strike,\&c.

AOBIst.

1. mà-sa knttyü .........I strike
2. tü-sa kutyuñ
.........thou strikest
3. so-sa kutyuñ $\qquad$ .he strikes té-sa kwtyeni $\qquad$ .we strike bà-sa kutyüñ $\qquad$
tsi-sa kutyeni $\qquad$ ye strike Past Tense.
Instr.
Object.
Verb.
English.


## Prefrect Thiser.

Singular.
Plural.

1. mà-sa kutyius ...I have (or had) struck
2. tü-sa kuté-àstu thou hast struck
3. so-sa kuté-àstu...he has struck
bà-sa Rutyüñs $\qquad$ .we have struck tsi-sa kuté-àstin ...je have struck té-sa kuté-àstin ...they have struck

Future Tense.

1. mà-sa kutiko......I will strike (the other persons do not vary from this). Future Preterit Tense.
2. má-sa kuti-su hüs... I was about | bà-sa kuti-su hüñs... we were about to strike
3. tï-sa kuti-su hüa ... thou \&c. tsi-sa Kuti-su hüi ... ye \&c.
4. so-sa leuti-su hüa ... he \&c. |té-sa kuti-su hün ... they \&c.

Conditionas Mood.

1. mà-sa Kcutetto if I strike (the other persons and tenses do not vary from this form).

Passiver.

1. mi kutellas... I am or have been |beng kutollañs ...... we are or have struck
2. tui kutella ... thou \&c.
3. so kutella ... he \&c.

| een struck c. |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |

When there is a Dative case with a Transitive Past tense, the verb may agree with it in person as it would with the direct object :
E. g. Tiu-ya tiü apsh màra dötös = thou gavest thy horse to me.

Where the verb agrees with the person of the person in the Dative. In short when there is both a direct object and a dative, one of which is the lst person (Singular or Plaral), the verb agrees with that person by preference, as
E. g. So-ya moñ gobà-ra dötös = He gave me to the head-man. and so-ya mà-ra apsh ek dötös $=\mathrm{He}$ gave a horse to me.
Where the 1st person (whether direct object as in the first example, or dative as in the second) governs the verb.

But mi-ya miü apsh tisà-ra det = I gave my horse to thee.

## Brokpa Version of the 1gt Story in Forbes' Presian Grammar. Aflatwn-ra ek müsh-ya shunàt: Tï kishti-à-rü hatuk sar batö, <br> Plato-to a man-by it-wae-asked: thou ship-to many years satest, tsò-a-riz na-zito yé zit ? <br> nee-to (wonderfal) what was seen $P$

Aflatun-ya razit: tèे-a harang mi-ya nà-zito zit
Plato by it-was-said: of the sea this me-by wonderful was seen moñ tràlobo pà-'r nüpàdös.

I safely side-to arrived.
Analysis: Of the verbs, shunat is the Past Tense Transitive answering to the typical kutet, with its subject müsh-ya in the Instrumentative case. Batö is 2nd Person Sing. of the Past tense of an Intransitive verb, thus answering to the form go of the specimen verb given above. Kishti-d-rü is dative, from kishti-c̀ obl. crude form of kishti (a foreign word). Tsòa is oblique of $t_{80}$ (the Tibetan word for "lake"). Nà-zito (lit. "not seen") is negative of Past Participle of following verb (to see); sit is Past tense transitive agreeing with its object yé "what" (i. e., not taking the termination in-ös or eñs appropriated to the 1st persons sing. and plural) ; the instrumentative case of the agent, tiu-ya, is understood. Razit is the same form as shunàt, and so is zit which follows. Nüpàdös seems at first sight abnormal, for "to arrive" is an intransitive verb, and yet it has taken the form peculiar to the Past of transitive verbs. But in reality it is quite normal : only the Bròkpa verb means "to cause to arrive" ( $\boldsymbol{P}$. rasànîdan). E. g. mi-ya dàk nüpàt "I delivered the post" (lit. 'by me the post was caused to arrive'). Thus moñ. nepàdös of the text, is literally : "I ...... was caused to arrive" or, as we should say: "I arrived." The full form would be: Kishti-ya moñ malàdös (lit. by the ship I was caused to arrive) "the ship caused me to arrive."

But although this Past tense of Transitive Verbs so much resembles a Passive in construction, yet there is as much distinction kept up in the
mind of the speaker between it and the real Passive, as there is for instance in Hindustani between us-ne aurat màri, and aurat màri gaí. The sense is active though the form is passive. In the one case the agent is known and generally mentioned in the Instrumentative case; in the other the agent is not known or mentioned.

Díh-Hanu Love Song.
Mi milshui Skishur qaniya kàskyé skyet-tò I young-man (pro. name mountain below if-I-look of place)
Bòs payul zi-chuñ; toto huñskyé skyet-tò
Father's home see makes; and above if-I-look Numès payill zi-chuñ. Zü-lo Qodà nasîb tüni té. (name of woman) home see-makes. Pray God fate joined make. in genitive
" If I look below, from the Skishur mountain,
" My father's home is seen (makes itself seen) ;
And if I look above,
"Nümé's home is seen. Grant, 0 God, that
our destinies may be united!"
Analysis : Skyet-tò is the Conditional, answering to kutet-tò. Payül would seem to be compounded of the Tibetan word yül " village" and a prefix pa. Zi-chuñ is composed of the verb "to see", plus the 3 rd pers. sing. of the aorist of the verb " to do", answering to the typical form kutyuñ. $Z u$-lö is the Bròkpà form of the common Tibetan salutation $j u$ or ju-lé, which is like the Hind. jî. Qodà (Khudà) and nasìb are words borrowed from their Musalmàn neighbours, apparently in the absence of any words of the same meaning in their own dialect. Té is the $\mathrm{Im}_{\text {r }}$ perative.

## II. Dràs Dialect. <br> The Substantive. <br> Plural.

Singular.




| àze à̈e-sa | \}......................she-goats |
| :---: | :---: |
| à̇o... | ................of she-goats |
| वั̇o-re | ...........to, or at she-goats |
| àio.. | ....................she-goats |
| àวo-zo | .........from she-goats |
| dïo-séi | là ............with she-goats |
| à̈o-za | ...by she goats | Past Tense)

N. goे!
gòr-sa (before Tr. V . not in Past Tense)
G. gòr-o
.............of a house
D. \& Loc. gòr-re ...to, or at a house (sometimes-ra)
Acc. gòr or gòr-re a house
Abl. gòr-zo.........from a house (in some-no)
Instr. gòr-i .........by a house (before Trans.
Verbs in Past Tense)

Adjectives do not seem to change for Gender.
Pronouns.

| N. moñ.....................I moñ-sa (before Tr. V., not Past T.) | bé ......................we <br> bé-sa (before Tr. V., not Past T.) |
| :---: | :---: |
| G. mioñ ................ of me, my | a880 .................of us, ov |
| \& Loc. $\}$ moñ-re .........to, or at me | asso-re ..............to, or at us |
| Acc. moñ ..................me | as80...................us |
| Abl. moñ-z0..............from me | a880-30 .............from |
| Instr. $m i$ (before Tr. by me Vbe in Past Tense) | asso-za ..............by us |

N. tiu
$\left.\begin{array}{l}t \hat{u} \\ t \hat{u}-s a \text { (before Tr. } \\ \text { V. not in Past } \\ \text { Tense) }\end{array}\right\}$ thou
G. to (or túiñ ?)..........of thee, thy
D. tì-re ...................to thee

Acc. tu
Abl. tú-zo
túiñ-séi nala .......with thee
Instr. tó. $\qquad$ .thee

Instr. to....................by thee


## Pronouns Substantival and Adjectival.

Singular.
N. nui or do or anv or
ain (fem. ni or $\alpha$ or ani)
núsa or anv-sa (f.ni-sa or ani-sa (beforeTr.
V. not in Past T.)
G. niso or niséi, or of this ani-so, ani-sei
D. nisé-re ...............to this

Acc. nisé-or diñ .........this
Abl nisé-zo................from this
Instr. nisi $\qquad$

Plural.

nino or anino $\qquad$ of these nino-re or anino-ré ...to these nino or anino............these
nino-zo or anino-zo ...from these
nino-z $a$ or anino-za ...by these

When these pronouns are prefixed to substantives, their case-affixes are detached from them and placed after the substantives only, in the form peculiar to the latter; e. g., ani mazàr-tang-o, not ani-so mazàr-tang-o.
N. rò (ré fem)

G. sò or aso (f. réso)... of that also asé-séi
D. $\boldsymbol{z e}$-ré or asé-ré $\qquad$ .to that
(f. résé-ré)

Acc. sè or asé or do...that (f. résé)

Abl. sé-zo or ase-zo...from that (f. rese-zo)

Instr. sési or àsi $\qquad$ .by that (f. rési)

```
ré or pero (f. ra)
re-sa (f. ra-sa) be- )
    lore Tr. V. not {
reno or peràno ......of those
        (f. rano)
    reno-re or peràno-re to those
        (f. rano-re)
reno or peràno ......those
    (f. rano)
reno-zo or peràno-zo...from those
        (f. rano-zo)
    reno-z}a\mathrm{ or perano-...by those
    za(f. rano-za)
```

Relative Pronoun.
N. ké or kési (?)
G. késo
D. Késé-re

Acc. késé (?)
Abl. Késé-zo (?)
Instr. Ké-si
who
of whom
to whom
whom
from whom by whom

Personal Adjectival Pronouns.
miàno
tàno
resano or tomo
assano
tsano
renano or tomo
my own they own his own our own your own their own

The Relative Pronoun is used like the Hindustani jo, jis-ka, \&c., followed by a corresponding demonstrative pronoun later in the sentence: a pronoun do seems to be specially employed for this, like $s 0$ in Hindustani, but the other demonstrative pronouns are also used.

> The Verb " to be."
> Present and Future.
M.
S. 1. moñ hànos or hañe
2. tu hàno or haoñ
3. ro hàno or haoñ

Pl. 1. bé hànis or hàñs
2. tso hànet or hañt
3. ré hàñ
S. 1. moñ àsilos
2. tu àsilo
3. ro àsito

P1. 1. bé àsilis
2. tso àsilet
3. ré àsile
S. 1. moñ àsilòzto
2. tu asiloto
3. ro asilto

P1. 1. be asilezto
2. tso asiletto
3. re asilto
F.
moñ hànis
tu hàni ré hàni bé haiñs tsa haiñt ra hanié
Past (Imperfect).
moñ àsilyis
tu àsilie
ré àsilio
bé d̀silyis
tsa àsiliet
ra dsilie
Conditional.
Past.
moñ asilazto if I were
tu asilato if thou wert ré asilto if he, she were
bé asilaseto if we were
tsa asilateto
rà asilato
if ye were
if they were

I am or shall be thou art \&c. he, she is \&c.
we are \&c. ye are \&c. they are \&c.

I was (lit. I was being)
thou wast
he, she was
we were
ye were
they were

The Irbegular Verb " to become."
Present.
Infinitive and Supine : bono " to become," or, "in order to become." Imperative, $b 6$ " become."

Masc.
S. 1. moñ bòmos
2. tu bé
3. ro beno

Pl. 1. bé bonas
2. tso bat
3. ré bena
S. 1. moñ bom
2. tubesh
3. ro bei

Pl. 1. be bon
2. t8o bat
3. ré ben
S. 1. moñ bom-alos*
2. tu biàlo (?)
3. ro biàlo (?)

Pl. 1. bé bòn-alés
2. tso bialet (?)
8. rebeñ-ale
S. 1. moñ bilos*
2. tu bilo
3. ro bilo or bil

Pl. 1. bé biles
2. tso bilet
3. ré bilen
S. 1. moñ bilalos
2. ta bilàlo
3. ro bilàlo

Pl. 1. bé bilales
2. tsa bilàlet
3. ré bilàle

Fem.
moñ bomïs I am becoming
$t u b e$
ré bene
bé bonas
tsa bat
ra bena (?)

Present Future.

| moñ bom | I become or shall become |
| :--- | :--- |
| tu besh | thou becomest \&c. |
| ré bei | he, she becomes \&c. |
| bé bon | we become \&c. |
| tsa bate | ye become \&c. |
| ra beni | they become \&c. |

Imperfect.
moñ bom-alis I was becoming
tu biàle (?) thou wast becoming
re biàlie (?) he, she was becoming
be bon-alyis we were becoming
tsa biàliet (?) ye were becoming
ra ben-alie they were becoming
Perfect.
moñ bilies I have become, i. e., I am
tubiliesh
rébili
bé bilies
tsa bilieti
ra bilyon thou hast become, i. e., thou art
he, she has become, i. e., is we have become, i. e., are ye have become, i. e., are they have become, i. e., are

Pluperfect.
moñ bilalyis I had become
tub bilàlie
ré bildlie
bé bilàlies
tsa bilàliet
ra bilàlio
thou art becoming
he, she is becoming
we are becoming ye are becoming they are becoming they become \&c.
thou hadst become
he, she had become
we had become ye had become they bad become

## Conditional.

Present.
8. 1. moñ bilozto
2. tu biloto
3. ro bilto

Pl. 1. bé bilezto
2. tso biletto
3. ré bilto
moñ bilàzto if I become
tu bilàto if thou becomest
ré bilto if he, she become
bé bilàseto if we become
tsà bilateto if ye become
rà bilàto if they become

The Intransitive Verb " to go."
Infinitive and Supine: bozóno " to go" and "in order to go." Imperative : bo or bozée " go."
Verbal Adjectives: boẓensto " going", boz̨eta " having gone."
Present.

Masc.
S. 1. moñ bòzumus
2. tubòzaoñ
3. ro bòzon or bòzéuñ

Pl. 1. bé bòzunnàs or bònàs
2. tso bòààt
3. ré bòzena

Fem.
moñ bozumis
re bozani
tsà božàt ye are going ra bozéin they are going

I am going thou art going he, she is going
we are going
ye are going
they are going

Imperfect.
S. 1. moñ bòzum-alòs"
2. tu bòzalo
3. ro bòzalo

P1. 1. bé bònalès
2. tso bdzalet
3. ré bòzenalé.
moñ bòzum-alis
tu bòzalé
re bòzalié
bé bònalits
tsà bòzaliet
ra bòzenalié
Present Future.
S. 1. moñ bòzum
2. tù bòzé
3. ro bòzęei ré bdzzï̆

Pl. 1. bé bozzon (or bon ?)
2. tso bdząàt tsà bozaàté
3. ré bòzen
ra bozeni
I was going thou wast going he, she was going we were going ye were going they were going

I go or shall go


Future.
S. 1. moñ bdzum bil ... ... ... ... I shall go \&o.
2. tu bòzé bil ... ... ... ... thou wilt go
3. ro bdzzéi ... ... ... ... ... he will go

Pl. 1. bé bozzon bil ... ... ... ... we shall go
2. tso bozààt bil ... ... ... ... ye will go
3. ré bòzén bil ... ... ... ... they will go

Compound Future.
S. 1. moñ bòno hañs ... ... ... ... I am to go
2. tu bòno haon ... ... ... ... thou art to go
3. ro bòno haoñ ... ... ... ... he is to go

Pl 1. bé bòno hànis ... ... ... ... we are to go
2. tso bòno hànet ... ... ... ... ye are to go
8. ré bòno hañ ... ... ... ... they are to go

Past.
S. 1. moñ gde"
2. tugà*
moñ gyés
3. ro gàu*

Pl. 1. bé gyès
2. tso gyet
8. ré gyé
tu gyé
ré gyéë
be gyêés
tsà gyèti
ra gyéé
I went they went
Perfect and Pluperfect.
moñ gàlis $\quad$ I have or had gone
tu gàlé thou hast or hadst gone ré gàlié he, she has or had gone bé gàlyis we have or had gone tsà gàliet ye have or had gone ra gàlie they have or had gone
Conditional.
Present Future.
S. 1. moñ bozeto
... ... ... ... if I go
2. tu bozeto ... ... ... ... if thou goest
3. ro bozeito ... ... ... ... if he goes

Pl. 1. bé bozunto ... ... ... ... if we go
2. tso bozàtto ... ... ... ... if ye go
3. ré bozeñto ... ... ... ... if they go

Preterit.
S. 1. moñ gàldsto moñ gàlàzto
2. tu gàlòto
8. ro gielto
tu gàlàto
ré gielto
if I had gone
if thou hadst gone if he had gone

| P1. 1. | bé gàlexto | bé galàseto | if we had gone |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. | tso gàletto | tsà galàteto | if ye had gone |
| 3. ré gielto | rà galàto | if they had gone |  |
|  | Masc. | Fem. | English. |
| P1. 1. | bé gàlezto | bé galàseto | if we had gone |
| 2. too gàletto | tsà galàteto | if ye had gone |  |
| 3. ré gietto | tà galato | if they had gone |  |

Probably all these tenses (Imperfect or Past, Perfect, and Pluperfect) are compounded of some auxiliary verb-tense running as follows (there is actually such a verb meaning " I came, \&c.") :

to which are prefixed the various verbal stems or complete verb tenses, person for person. In many cases the combination has subsequently suffered from elision.
E. g., bil-àloss, \&ce., would be an uncorrupted example. The stem and the auxiliary tense are both perfect, and the former does not vary with the persons.

In gàlos, gàlo, \&c., the verb root (probably ga) has suffered its vowel to coalesce with the initial vowel of the auxiliary.

In bozum-alòs, boz-alo, \&c., the auxiliary has destroyed the final syllables of the verb tense, excepting in the 1st pers. Sing. and the 3rd pers. Plural.

In àsilòs, bilố, \&cc., the initial vowel of the auxiliary has itself suffered alteration from the pressure of the verb-root before it.

In the root as (of dsilos "I was"), and the root bi or be (of bilos? bialos, "I have become"), we have perhaps representatives of the universal Arian roots, bhu and as for the idea of "being" or " existence."

In some verbs the terminations are $\partial s,-\partial,-\partial$.
If again we subdivide the auxiliary tense alòs, \&c., into its root al and its terminations -òs, $-0,-0$, ès, -et, and $-e$, it would appear that it was by the addition of these latter to the Present Future Tense, that the Present Tense was formed :
E. g. Pr. Fut. Tense. Termn. Present Tense. Pr. Fat. Tense. Termn. Present Tense.

| òs ... bòzumus. | bòzon ........... ${ }^{\text {ès }}$...... bòzonàs. |
| :---: | :---: |
| bozé.................. o ... boz̧ao (ñ). | bòzà̀t ........... et ...... bòzà̀t. |
| bozéi .............. o ... bozéu (ñ). | bòzen ............ É ...... bòzena. |

Transitive Verbs are conjugated like intransitive ones. But they show traces of the quasi-Passive formation with the subject in the Instrumentative Case, such as we find in the Past Tenses in Hindustani and in
the Dàrd dialect of Dàh-Hanu (see above). As in the latter, the subject takes a special form in the Past tenses, the singular taking an affix or termination, generally $-i$, and the Plural - $z a$ (cf. Dàh-Hanu -ya); but unlike in that dialect the verb agrees with its proper subject (in the Instrumentative case) and not with its object. In the other Tenses the subject takes the affix $-8 a$ as in the Dah-Hanu dialect. This in both dialects is now a simple variety of the nominative.

These facts I think corroborate the hypothesis that the Dàh-Hanu people formed an earlier migration than the Dràs Dàrds. For they retain most fully the quasi-Passive formation of the Past of Transitive Verbs, which we find again in the Indian dialects (from which they had less opportunity of borrowing than the Dràs people had). It was therefore perhaps an early Dàrd formation of which all but slight traces have been lost by the later Dàrds.

The Transitive Verb " to strike."
Infinitive and Supine $=k u t i n o$ " to strike" and "in order to strike." =kutiokuni " in striking."
Imperative : kuté "strike."
Verbal Adjectives: kutiensto " striking," kutéta and kutetato "having struck."


Pl. 1. bé-sa kwtiòno hànis
2. tso-sa kutiòno hànet
3. ré-sa kutiòno hàn
S. 1. moñ-sa kutemàlòs
2. tu-sa kutàlo (kutàlòr)
3. ro-sa kutélo

Pl. 1. bé-sa kutonàlés
2. tso-sa kutiàlet
3. ré-sa kutenalé
bé-sa kutiono haiñs
tsà-sa kutiòno haiñt
re-sa kutiòno hànié
we are to strike ye are to strike they are to strike

Imperfect.
moñ-sa kutemàlıs
tu-sa kutàlé
ré-sa kutélié
bésa kutonàlyis
tsa-sa kutiàliet
rà-sa kutenalié

## Past.

S. 1. mi kutàs (in some verbs -òs)
2. tò kutà ( -0 )
3. se-si kutàu( -0 )

Pl. 1. asso-za kuties
2. tso-za kutiét
3. reno-za kutié
mi kuties
to kuté
re-si kutî
as80-za kutiéës
tsa-za kutièti
rano-za kutieë they struck

I was striking thou wast striking he, she was striking we were striking ye were striking they were striking

I struck
thou struckest he, she struck we struck ye struck

Perfect and Pluperfect.
S. 1. mi kutàlòs
mi kutàlis
tò Krutàli
re-si kutàli
asso-za kutiàlyis (?) we have or had struck tso-za kutiàliet (?) ye have or had struck rano-za kutiàli they have or had struck

Conditional.

Present.
S. 1. moñ-8a cuteto if I strike
2. tu-sa kuteto if thou strikest
8. ro-sa kutéito if he strike

Pl. 1. bé-sa kutunto if we strike
2. tso-sa kutiàtto if ye strike
3. re-sa kwteñto if they strike

Past.
\(\left.\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{c}moñ-sa kutàlòzto if I have or had <br>

struck\end{array}\right.\right\}\)| tu-sa kutàlòto | if thou hast or <br> hadst struck |
| :--- | :--- |
| ro-sa kutilto | if he has or had <br> struck |
| bé-sa kutàlezto | if we have or had <br> struck |
| t80-sa kutàletto | if ye have or had <br> struck |
| ré-sa kutilto | if they have or had <br> struck |

## TRANSLATION OF STORIES FROM FORBES' PERSIAN GRAMMAR.

$\begin{array}{ccccc}\text { 1." Ek-i } & \text { kózàlo } & \text { Afratun-re: } & \text { "La } & \text { bariri } \\ \text { one (Instr.) } & \text { nawi-za ( P ra) } \\ \text { had-asked } & \text { Plato (Loc.) } & \text { many } & \text { years } & \text { ship in (Loc.) }\end{array}$
bètalo ; tò sara-za (? ra) laò safar t'hà. Tò sara (thou) hast-sat thou (Instr.) sea in (Loc.) much voyage madest. Thou (Ins.) sea -za (? ra) 'ajàib zok pàshà?" Afratun-i ràjàu: "moñ salàmat-gi in (Loc.) wonders what sawest? Plato (Instr.) said: I in-safety
sara-zo kàtòs chupe-re, àiñ mi pàshàs 'ajàib. sea from came-out shore to this I (Instr.) saw wonderful.
2. Ek paqîrek gàu grestok-o dàrr-ré di zek mangàu a beggar went farmer's door to (?) something demanded

Ara-no jawàb kàti: Gờr-ré chéi nüsh. Paqîr-i Inside from answer came-out (f.): House (Loc.) woman is not. Beggar (Instr.) ràjàu: mi tiki tòrik mangàlòs mi chéi né mangàs, said: I (Instr.) bread piece had-demanded I (Instr.) (the) woman not demanded, moñ-re . à jawàb làdòs.† me to this (f.) answer arrived.
4. Ek hakîm dezgào bòzalo màzàr-tang-ra; tòmo pàsho muka-re a doctor daily used-to-go grave-yard-to his own shawl face to
paliéta bọzalo. Zàko-z̧a koẓié: Ani-séi zok sabab hàni? having-wrapped used-to-go. People (Instr.) asked: this of what reason is (f.)?
Hakîm-i ràjàu: Ani màzàr-tang-o mùo-re moñ sharmanda Doctor (Instr.) said: This (f.) grave-yard (Gen.) dead (Loc.) I ashamed hànòs: mioñ ràbàti keta mùé. am: my medicine having-eaten (they) died.
8. Ek manuzo-re bwàro krum làdo. Ek dòstek (mubàrak) bubàrek
a man to big work (office) arrived. A friend congratulation
t'hiòno àlo. Sé-si kòzà̀u: Tu koi bilo, ki àlo? So dòst in-order-to-make came. That (one) asked: Thou who art, why camest? His friend

[^7]sharmands bilo, ràjàu: Tu-sa moñ sưận thé nūsh dà. ashamed has-become, said: Thou (2nd nom.) me recognition makest is not $P$

Moñ to purono dòst bilòs, moñ to mutro ròno ìlos; moñ parudòs I thy old friend am I thy presence to weep came; I heard tu shèiloñ thé.
thou blind makeat (becomest).

## COMPARATIVE TABLE OF A FEW ORDINARY WORDS IN THE DRAS DIALECTS OF DAH-HANU AND OF DRAS.

N. B. Kashmiri words added for comparison are marked K. and Gaddi (Hindi) G. H. Resemblances to ordinary Hindi are not noted.

| English. | Dàh-Hanv. | Dràs. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| man | müsh | manuzo |
| father | bo | badbo |
| mother | גi | dze (cf. Gaddi Hindi ${ }_{j}{ }^{\text {i }}$ i) |
| son | biū | push |
| daughter | molér | dîh |
| girl |  | molaï |
| child | sinà | balé |
| elder brother | bàyo | kàko |
| younger brother | r7a | zà |
| wife or woman | tchiga | chêi |
| grandson | potro | potro |
| heart | hö | hio |
| stomach | krütpa (Tib.) | dér |
| head | shish | shîsh |
| eye | atchi | àché (K. ach) |
| ear | kàni | kon |
| nose | nutò | noto |
| tooth | dàni | doni |
| beard | rmaghra | dài |
| breast | krö | kroö |
| waist | doko | - dakhri |
| hand | hàt'h | hàt |
| foot | küti | pé |
| lower leg | kankan | kiñ (pl. kiñyi) |
| knee | kuto | kuto |
| thigh | patali | patàld |
| H |  |  |

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[No. 1,

| English. | Dàk-Hanv. | Dràs. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bone | àti | àti |
| hair | zàkur | zadku |
| mouth | uxi | adzi (K. As) |
| lip | öti | etto $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { arino = upper } \\ \text { karino = lower }\end{array}\right.$ |
| tongue | gip | zip |
| chin | ... | mulsuti or chamukhi |
| finger | güli | añguyé |
| name | nùn | nom |
| grass | ghàs | kash |
| road | pùn | pon |
| apricot | zü | zuqu |
| leaf | pani | paté |
| birch (tree) | .füsh (züsh) | zozi |
| wheat | güm | gùm |
| barley | ghono | yo |
| field |  | trèsh |
| cultivator | ......... | grestok ; ${ }^{\text {* }}$ grest ( gròst Kashmir) |
| flower | pusho | pushi |
| cow | gô | gào |
| crow | qù | korkus |
| horse | àpsh | àshp |
| dog | shüà | shuñ (Kashm. hiun) |
| cat | bülù | pushu |
| ram | churdi | kara |
| ewe | èi | esh |
| he-goat | mingyar | mugir |
| she-goat | a | ài |
| bull | gôlo | dòno |
| calf | bitok | batsar (watsir, K.) |
| lamb | run | urun (urnu, G. H.) |
| kid | chal | chàl (chélu, G. H.) |
| cattle | gölé | dòni (dand, G. H.) |
| male | p'hòg (Tib.) | bîro |
| female | mòg (Tib.) | soñti |
| milk | düt | dud |
| cream | üspris | shamal |
| wool | pash | pash |
| bear | ... | ish |
| frog | chüstràk | manok |

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| English. | Dă_-Hanv. | Dràs. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sun | süri | sur |
| star | turi | tàré |
| earth (ground) | pa | sum |
| moon | gyün | yùn (zìn K.) |
| mountain | rüng | qaniya |
| pasture (alp) | nirda | shiai |
| rock | churr | chir |
| ravine | bdirr | shung |
| river | $\sin$ | sin |
| water-course, canal | gyàp | yap |
| rain | charchü | mèg |
| smow | àru | hin (K. shin), dq\% (rain or snow) |
| avalanche | ... | hinal |
| ice | gañs (Tib.) | sòr |
| water | üa | wêi |
| jear | sar | barir |
| month | muñs | moñs (maxs K.) |
| day | dis | chag |
| spring (season) | bazun | bàzòno |
| summer | ulo | uwalo |
| autumn | shard | shàré |
| winter | yano | yòno |
| to-day | ash | ash |
| yesterday | ran |  |
| to-morrow | rutti |  |
| the day before yesterday | dodg-dis | - |
| night | rat | ràti |
| work | krüm | krum |
| bread | manili | tiki |
| village | bön |  |
| house | gòt | gàr |
| the town of Dras | Hembabs (lib.) | Hunmas |
| door | dàr | darr |
| bow | shà | dàhnu |
| arrow | qùn | qòn (K. Kdan) |
| iron | chingar | chimir |
| smell | ghun | gon |
| big | bono | bwàro |
| little | so | chuno (chun Tib.) |

Ringlish.
old
new
wet
dry
black
white
red
I
we
thou
ye
this (masc.)
this (fem.)
these ( m. )
that (m.)
that (f.)
those (m.)
those (f.)
who (relve.)
who?
what?
beyond
this side of towards there yonder with
thus
first (adv.)
there
there is
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { much } \\ \text { or } \\ \text { many }\end{array}\right\}_{f .}^{m .}$
very
I do
I did

| Dăk-Hanu. | Dràs. |
| :---: | :---: |
| ......... | puròno* |
| nō | nào |
| haridho | azo |
| shuko | shuko |
| kyono | kino |
| sno | Sho |
| lodo | làlo |
| moñ ( lenc $_{\text {miü }}$ ) | moñ ( Gen. mioñ, K. miòn) |
| bà or beng (obl. assü) | be (obl. asso, K. as) |
| tü | tu |
| tsi (obl-tsü) | tso (K. tse) |
| so (obl. té) (K. 80) | nu (obl. nisé) |
| sa | ni |
| te (obl. ten) | ni (obl. nino) |
| p'ho | ro (obl. sé) |
| pha | ré (obl. résé) |
| p'hé (obl. p'héün) | ré or però (obl. reno) |
| ......... | rà (obl. rano) |
| ......... | kési |
| ko | kói |
| y' | zok |
| beski | pàri |
| àzü | wàri |
| suri, lokhshyé | wari |
| pàri | pera |
| süma or tsi-süma | séi-nàlà |
| hang |  |
| yàr | meza |
| potsi |  |
| la, (pl. làn) or bet |  |
| ......... | lào |
| ......... | lai |
| ..... | là |
| chü or tü | t'hiòno (to do) |
| tet | t'has |

- Prononnced also prono and pran; as in Pran-Drds, a village near Dràs, called by Englishmen Pdndrds, and sometimes wrongly derived from Payin "low." The name given by Moorcroft for the Drds lucerne grass, vis. prangos, is perhaps merely pranlaish "old grass," i. e. "hay;" as lucerne forms the winter fodder of the cattle in the state of hay.

English.
strike
died
broke
hear
write
drink
eat
sleep (imp.)
sleep (subs.)
lick
weave
cultivate, plough
give
see
look
towards
downwards
upwards
lost
come (imp.)
came
rise
dig
I speak
one
two
three
four
five
$\operatorname{six}$
seven
eight
nine

## ten

eleven
twelve
thirteen
fourteen

Dàk-Hanv.
kuté
mū
pitit
qun-té (imp.)
zbri-té (imp.)
pi (imp.)
sò
nish
li
bo (imp.)
bahé (imp.)
dé
조
skyé
lokh-skyé
kà-skyé) $k 0=$ down. Astori)
huñ-skyé (hùnn $=$ above. Astori)
nut
yé
ùlla
öté
akū
razuñs
ek
dü
trà
chorr
puñsh
shà
sàt
art
nü
dàsh
kudish
budish
tröbish
chudish

Dràs.
kut仑 (Inf. kutiòno and diòno)
muñ (Inf. miriòno)
potau
paruzòno (Inf.)
likiòno (Inf.)
piòno (Inf.)
ké (imp.) (K. khe.)
sò, (Inf. sòno)
nîsh
widno (Inf.)
bàhn thiòno (Inf.)
dé (Inf. diòno)
pàshé
trakié

| English. | Dàh-Hanu. | Dràs. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| fifteen | pàndish | pazileñ |
| sisteeen | shöbish | shoñi (sho'i) |
| seventeen | satuñsh | satài |
| eighteen | artuñsh | artài |
| nineteen | künjà (? for ek-ünbizà 20-1 | kuni (? for ek-un-bi) (20-1)* |
| twenty | bizà | bi |
| twenty-one | biza-ek | bî-ek |
| thirty | bizé-dàsh ( $20+10$ ) | tri |
| forty | du-buzu ( $2 \times 20$ ) | dü-bio ( $2 \times 20$ ) |
| fifty | $\begin{aligned} & \text { du-buzu-dadsh }(2 \times 20 \\ & +10) \end{aligned}$ | dübio ga dài ( $2 \times 20+10$ ) |
| sisty | tra-buzu ( $3 \times 20$ ) | tre-bio ( $3 \times 20$ ) |
| seventy | tra-buzu-dàsh | tré-bio ga dài |
| eighty | chàr-buzu | chàr-bio |
| ninety | chàr-buzu-dàsh | chàr-bio ga dài |
| hundred | sho | shàl |

## On Representations of Foreigners in the Ajantá Frescoes.-By Rájendralála Mitra, LL. D., C.I.E. (With 4 plates.)

The Ajanta Pass first came to the notice of Europeans during the great battle of Asáyi, which broke down the Marhaţtá power ; but the caves near it were not visited by any Englishman until several years afterwards. According to Mr. Burgess, some officers of the Madras army were the first to visit them in 1819, and Col. Morgan of the Madras army wrote a short notice of them, which appeared in Mr. Erskine's ' Remains of the Buddhists in India.' Then followed Lieut. J. E. Alexander in 1824, and his account was published by the Royal Asiatic Society in 1829. $\dagger$ Dr. Bird visited the place by order of Sir John Malcolm in 1828, at the same time when Capt. Grisley and Lieut. Ralp were at the place. The account of the former appeared in his "Researches into the Cave Temples of Western India," a meagre and faulty account, utterly untrustworthy for all historical purposes. The description of the latter appeared in this Journal. $\ddagger$ It is graphic and en-
*These seem to retain a trace ( $k$ for $e k$ ) of the deducted unit itself, which Sanskrit had lost (cf. unavinsati), but of which Pali seems to show the original presence, (ekinnavisati).
$\dagger$ Transactions Rl. As. Soc., I, p. 657.
$\ddagger$ Ante V .


[^0]:    - Although Dr. Leitner (in his Dardistan) states that the name Dard was not claimed by any of the race that he met, yet I have heard the Dres people of that tribe apply it to their parent stock in Astor under the form Darde. They are also known to their Kashmiri neighbours by the name of Dard, and Dardu.

[^1]:    - Women are everywhere the most conservative of national customs.

[^2]:    - In this, however, they are not singular; for the Tibetans of Ladak also have a reverence for similar spirits of purely local influence called Lha (cf. Lhd-sa "the city of gods"), a reverence which seems to be neither founded on the Buddhist dogmas, nor much countenanced by the more respectable members of the Lamaite hierarchy. An annual incarnation of one of these demons (a female) takes place at Bhe, a village of Ladak, in the month of August; but though Lamas are so plentiful in the country, it is to one of the lay members of a certain family that the honour of giving a temporary body to the deity belongs, while Lamas are rarely to be seen in the crowds that witness

[^3]:    the performance and consult the oracle. Perhaps this may be the remains of a form of local spirit worship which may have preceded Buddhism in these countries. I have already treated this subject elsewhere.

    - The affix $m 0$ is the Tibetan feminine affix, as $b o$ is the masculine.
    + The Sidh-pòsh Kdfirs (probably Dàrds) have also a custom of "going once a year to the top of a moantain as a religious exercise and putting a stone on a cairn" (Leitner's Dàrdistàn, Vol. I, Part 3, p. 42).
    $\ddagger$ This is also a Tibetan custom with this difference, that each Tibetan householder has a similar sacred bundle of shukpa branches and horns of animals on the flat roof of his own house. But these customs are mere survivals (superstitions) among the Tibetans, while they form the religion of the Brokpds.

[^4]:    - These castes seem roughly to answer to three oyt of the four castes prevalent among the main body of the Dards: viz., 1st, Shin; 2nd, Yashkun (these two castes trade, cultivate land, or keep sheep) ; 3rd, Kramin (? derived from Krum $=$ work) (are weavers, corpenters, blacksmiths, artisans in fact) ; 4th, Dom (are musicians and do low drudgery ; this caste seems absent from the Dàh-Hanu division of Dárds). [See Leitner's Dardistán, Vol. I, Part 3, p. 48, 2nd note, and Drew's Jummoo and Kashmir, p. 426.]

[^5]:    - See Mr. Drew's excellent Race Map in his "Jummoo and Kashmir." To illustrate the preeent paper the whole of the lightly shaded region to the south, west and north of Gilgit up to the Murtagh mountains, should be painted of the same colour as Gilgit, for it is all the home of the Dàrds, though Mr. Drew's plan only permitted him to colour what lies within the Maharaja of Kashmir's territories.
    + The isolated settlements of Dards in certain villages of Baltistan, are apparently of more recent origin and moreover do not bridge the chasm.
    $\ddagger$ Drew's "Jummoo and Kashmir", p. 430.
    § If we are to believe the TArikh-i-Rashîdi, this had not taken place at the time of its author, Mirsé Haidar's invasion of Dardistán, in the first half of the 16th century ; and, according to Mr. Drew, "Jummoo and Kashmir", page 429, does not seem to have been very completely effected so lately as 30 years ago.

[^6]:    - See Past Tense of Auxiliary Verb "to be".

[^7]:    - The numbers are those of the stories in the order given in Forbes' Persian Grammar.
    $\dagger$ Here the verb seems to be governed by the person of the Locative or Dative as in other cases it is by that of the Instrumentative. Normally one would think this
    

