# Ariate ariety is Benpere, Countra ASIATIC RESEARCHES; 

OR,

TRANSACTIONS

OF THE
SOCIETY INSTITUTED IN BENGAL,

For inquiring into the
History and Antiquities;
THE
ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE,


VOLUME THE TENTH.

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## CONTENTS.

1. Remarks on the State of Agriculture in the District of Dinajpur. By W. Carey ..... 1
II. An Essay on the Sacred Isles in the West, with other Essays connected with that Work. By Capt. F. Wil- ford ..... 27
III. On the Languages and Literature of the Indo-Chinese Nations. By J. Leyden, M. D. ..... 158
IV. An Account of Trigonometrical Operations in crossing the ${ }^{-}$ Peninsula of India, and connecting Fort St. George with Mangalore. By Capt. William Lambton. Communicated by the Hon. William Petrir, Eeq. Governor of Fort St. George ..... 290
V. An Account of the Male Plant, which furnishes the Medi- cine generally called Columbo, or Columba Root. By Doctor Andrew Berzy, Member of the Medical Board of Fort St. George ..... 385
VI. On Sanscrit and Pracrit Poetry, By Henry Thomas Colbbrooxb, Esq. ..... 389
VII. Remarks upon the Authorities of Mosuhnan Law. By J. H. Harington, Eeq. ..... 475
VIII. An Account of Astronomical Observations taken at the Honourable Company's Observatory, near Fort St. Crorge, in the East Indies, in the years 1806 and 180\%. To which are added some Remarks on the Declination of certain Stars and of the Sun, when near the Zenith of that place. By, Capt. John Warren, of H. M. 33d Regiment of Foot ..... 513
1X. Translations of two Letters of Nadir Shab, with In- troductory Observations in a Letter to the President. By Brigadier-General John Malcolm ..... 526

I TAKE this opportunity to correct two passages in former Essays; one in the IVth Vol. of the Asiatic Researches, p. 382 : and the second in the first part of my Essay on the Sacred Isles in the West, p. 30q.

In the fatter, I said that the famous PriA'N-Púní went no further than Er-Catif and Batherein, in his way to Egyipt. But I was mistaketi; fot he eveh attempted to go up the Tigris, and went evén as far as Moc'ttt.

In the former, 1 asserted that by the Surya-much'hinganga, $\mathrm{PR}^{\prime} \mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$ pUrí meant the Volga: but I was equally mistaken; for, from his narrative; te certaiitly understood the Shdt-al-strat, or the united stream of the Tygrts and Euphrates.
 swer my inquiries: hence the information which be communicated, was vague and desultory, I did not adpert then to what Mr. Duincait has said on the subject in the Vth Vol. of the Asiatic Researches:

Brnares, Feb. 20th, 1808.

F. WILFORD.

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## TRANSACTIONS

## OF THE

## ASIATIC SOCIETY.

## I.

Remarks on the State of Agriculture, in the District of Dina'jpuk.

> by w. Ciney.

THE soil of the district of Dinajpur is considerably diversified. In the southern part the ground rises in gentle acclivities, which run from north to south, and are divided from each other by vallies runuing between them; the whole resembling large waves, or rather the appearance of the sea when there is a great swell. The width of each valley is two or three miles, and that of the elevations about the same. Each valley is watered with one or two little streams, as the Tanguam, the Purnabhava, and several others, which empty themselves either into the Mahánanda or the Ganges. These small rivers swell in the rainy season to large lakes, fifty or sixty miles in length, and two or three in breadth, overflowing all the low lands, which are dry in the cold seaB
son. These vallies, at the distance of fifty miles from the Ganges, are scarcely higher than the surface of its waters; when therefore that river is swollen by the periodical rains, the waters of the vallies are not only prevented from running off, but are so much increased as to be navigable for vessels of very considerable burden.

The soil of the elevated portions of land is in general a stiff clay, in some places black, and somewhat porous, in others white and tenacious. The soil of some of the vallies resembles that of the elevated parts, and that of others is rich and loamy, with ubstratu m , at a greater or lesser depth, of the same kind of clay which forms the higher grounds. These low lands are for the most part covered with long grass of different sorts, and afford pasture to a great number of buffaloes and to large herds of other cattle.

The northerru parts of the district are more level than the southern ones, have a loamy soil, and are well cultivated. Some tracts of clay land are, however, to be found, and it is probable that clay is the substratum of the whole.

The higher lands in the southern parts of the district are principally inhabited by Musulmans, and the vallies by Hindus. The mode of cultivation and the productions of the elevated parts, differ widely from those of the vallies, so that those who have been accustomed to one of these sorts of land only, can seldom manage the other to advantage.

On the higher clay lands very little besides rice is produced, and, except in very small spots which
are well manured, only one crop in a year. The loamy vallies which do not lie so low as to endanger the inundating of the crop, produce, not only rice, but also a good crop of mustard, or pulse in the cold season. The land which produces two crops in a year is called Palli, and is usually let at a rupee and half per Bighá. That which produces only one crop is called Khár, and is usually let at twelve annas per Bighá.

The people of the district of Dinajpur are, in general, extremely poor, and their farming utensils are: therefore proportionably simple and wretched. A plough drawn by two bullocks, serves to prepare the soil. The plough is composed of four pieces; viz. the Langal or body of the plough, which is a piece of wood forming two sides of an obtuse-angled triangle; the other side being wanting, with a hole near the obtuse angle to admit a staff of wood or bamboo about six feet long, called the Is'. This staff may be called the beam of the plough, and is the part to which the bullocks are yoked, going between them and resting on the yoke by which they are coupled. The ploughshare (Phal) is a flat plate of iron, nearly of a lozenge slape, which is fastened to the under part of the Lángal, to prevent its being worn by the soil. The handle is a piece of wood, or bamboo, about two feet'long, fastened to the upper extremity of the Langal, and furnished, at a small distance from its upper end, with a pin about six inches long, called the Mut, to assist the hand in guiding the plough.
i
The oxen draw double, or side by side, being coupled together with the Juál, or yoke, which passes over the necks of both of them at once. The lower edge, which lies on the neeks of the cattle,
is straight. The upper edge has two elevations, one over the neck of each ox, but is cut down at the middle and at each end, so as to remain about two inches deep. Four bamboo pins are passed through the yoke, one at each end, and two in the middle, which, descending oin each side the animal's neck, are connected by a cord under its throat. The beam of the plough rests on the middle of the yoke, and is fastened to it by a cord.

Only one person attends a plough, holding the handle in one hand, and occasionally pulling the tails of the oxen with the other, to guide them, or striking them with a stick to quicken their pace. A pair of oxen may be purchased for six or eight rupees, a plough for five annas, and a yoke for four. An instrument called Mai is drawn over the field after it has been sufficiently ploughed. This may be called the harrow of the Hindus. It is made of bamboo, in the form of a ladder, and is four or five feet in length. A cord, fastened to the centre of this rude iustrument, is connected with the centre of the yoke, and the driver stands on the harrow, assisting its operation by his weight, and guiding the cattle with his hands. Land pulverized and laid smooth with the Maï retains it moisture, and is fit to réceive seed in dry weather, several days longer than it would be if this was neglected. The Hindus call the operation, when performed for that purpose, Rasbándhan, or the confining of the moisture.

In dry seasons it is often necessary to water the fields. For this purpose an instrument called a Jánt is used. The Jant is a trough of light wood, from twelve to sixteen feet long, somewhat curved to admit a greater depth in the middle, the bottom is five or six
inches wide, the height of the sides in the middle part is six or eight inches, gradually decreasing towards the ends, one of which is excavated to a point, to prevent the water from running back and being lost. When this instrument is used, it is slung to three bamboos placed erect and crossing each other in the centre; a long and heavy bamboo, loaded at the further end with a large ball of earth, is then faftened to the end which is to be plunged into the water, and thrown over the three erect bamboos, resting on the top of them. A person standing on a stage, even with, or somewhat below the surface of the water of a pond, river, \&o. then plunges the end of the Jánt into the water, with his foot, by which means it is filled. The weight at the end of the long bamboo assists him in raising it out of the water, and throwing its contents into a small reservoir, or pit, from which it is conveyed into the fields. by channels cut for that purpose. Two feet, or two and a half, is the height to which water can be thrown to effect by this machine; when the height is greater, two, three, or more Jánts are used, and in that case the water is thrown into small rescrvoirs or pits, at a proper height above each other, and sufficiently deep to admit the next Jant to be plunged deep enough to fill it. Water is by this means sometimes conveyed to the distance of a mile or more on every side of a large tank or reservoir of water.* I have seen fifty or sixty Jánts at one time, in a large receptacle of

[^0]B 9
water' called Mahípál-dighí, about six coss from Dinájpur.

To remove earth from one place to ànother, a yoke of bamboo is furnished with two appendages, called Bhárua, somewhat resembling a coarse sieve, the outside composed of split bamboos wattled or twisted over each other, and the middle part of twine, woven somewhat like the bottom of a sieve. These vessels are about a foot and a half in diameter; when loaded with earth, or any other substance, they are carried with the yoke. The yoke lies across one shoulder, one weight hanging before and the other behind, and is occasionally shifted from one shoulder to the other.

- The Kodáli, or digging-hoe is, in this district, set much more towards the earth than in the southern parts of Bengal, forming an angle of about six degrees with the handle, whereas about Calcutta the angle is not more than thirty degrees. This instrument is used to dig the earth, or to grub up roots, and destroy the coarse grass, when land is to be first broken up. The Kodáli is a very useful instrument, answering the purpose of both spade and hoe.

The last instrument of husbandry which I shall mention is the Kastya or Indian sickle. The blade is curved, and edge-toothed like a sickle, but it is much smaller and more rude than the European one. The tength of the blade is about eight or ten inches, and its greatest width one and a half. It is fixed in a rude handle; and is used to cut corn, grass, or even brushwood upon occasion, being to the Hindu 2 very useful instrument, although a European la-:
bourer would scarcely pick one of them np if he saw it lie in the road.

Rice is the staple production of the district. Four kinds (including several varieties) are principally cultivated; viz. the Bhadui, so called from its ripening in the month Bhadar, the Hemat. so denominated from its ripening in the cold season, the Buna, and Bohara.

The first of these is chiefly, though not exclusively, cultivated on the lower, and loamy lands; on these soils it is constantly sown by broad cast, in March, April or May, and the quantity sown depends upon the quantity of rain which falls in those months. The season of cultivation is sometimes extended inear a month longer than it would otherwise be, by transplanting the rice, while young, into the fields, or the more elevated lands. When it is sown early on the higher lands, a second crop is sometimes produced upon the same spot; but, that which is sown late in the season, ripening proportionably late, so much interferes with the planting of the Hemat rice, that the latter crop is often scarcely worth the gathering.

This rice, when sown on the lower and loamy soils, requires weeding. A large quantity of weeds, particularly panicum ciliare, often springs up among it: these weeds, if not extirpated, infallibly ruin the crop. It is also necessary to open the soil, after a heavy shower, by drawing a large drag over it; but no other attention is requisite, till the harvest, when it is cut and housed in the usual way.

The Hemat rice is usually cultivated on the higher and strong lands, a stiff soil being better calculated to B4
retain the water after the end of the periodical rains. This rice is usually sown at the end of May, or the beginning of June, in small beds, as thick as it can possibly grow. The plants come up in three or four days after the seed is sown, till which time the ground is kept barely moist: after the plants appear it should be kept quite moist, but not flooded. As soon as the rains commence and the earth is well watered, this rice is planted out in beds, (or compartments) each of which is surrounded with a balk, or border, about ten inches high, and a foot wide, to prevent the water from running off.

When a field is first formed, these mounds or bor-, ders are thrown up with the Kodali. The earth is then repeatedly ploughed, till it is completely mixed with the water, and reduced to a soft mud. Five, six, and sometimes eight ploughings are necessary, to destroy the weeds and completely dissolve tlie clods, after which it is smoothed by drawing the Mai over it, till the surface is so level that the water stands at an equal height in every part. When the field is thus prepared, the young plants are transplanted from the seed-bed by the hand; eight or tein of them being usually planted in one hole. These holes, which are about nine inches asunder, are made by forcing the hand with the young plant into the mud; the plants are left there in an erect position, after which the admission of water settles the roots. When the whole spot is planted, water is admitted from a neighbouring compartment, or from a ditch, a trench or some other reservoir, and if porssible constantly kept at the height of at least three (or four) inches. If there be too much water in the field, it is allowed to run off, by cutting a passage for it through the border, and when a sufficient quantity
is run off, the rest is retained, by shutting the passage with a clod of soft earth. This crop requires no weeding, or at most but a very trifling one, the water being sufficient to destroy the noxious weeds. If the season be very dry, the field must ise supplied with water from some neighbouring pond or reservoir, as the only means of preserving the crop: attention to this is peculiarly necessary while the plants are young, for if the earth be permitted to grow hard, the plants seldom thrive afterwards; when they have acquired a size sufficient to overshatow the ground, the moisture is retained for a tong time, and the crop suffers less, but water is absolutely necessary to the perfection of a crop of rice. In November this crop begins to ripen, and the harvest is usually finished by the end of December. As there is little fear of rain at this season, the crop is housed and stacked, without any loss or difficulty.

- The Buna rice is usually sown in April or May, in low, lands, where a flood of several feet deep may be expected; if the floods come suddenly while the plants are young, the water rises above them and the crop is lost; but if the plants are strong and the water increases gradually, the rice will grow as fast as the water rises. - This crop will answer tolerably well, if the water be four, six, or even eight feet in depth, the stalks sometimes acquiring the length of ten or even fifteen feet; but as they are weak and lie in an oblicue position, they do not easily rise above eight feet of water. This crop ripens in November. The upper part of the plants on one man's land being drawn by a gentle stream, or by some other cause, often fall on his neighbour's field and occasion quarrels at the time of reaping.

The Bohara rice is sown in October or November like the Hemat, and about January planted at the bottoms of tanks, or pits, or on very low ground where it can be supplied with water. It is treated in every respect like the Hemat, and ripens in April or May. This is an excellent sort of rice, but the quantity cultivated is necessarily small.

The next article of cultivation is indigo, a plant for which many parts of this districtare improper, as it will not grow on the white clay lands called Balka, is sparingly produced on the black or red clays, and as most of the soft and loamy parts lie so low as to be subject to sudden inundations, which infallibly destroy the crop.

The proper season for sowing indigo is in April and May. Some have sown it at the end of September or the beginning of October, and others in any month from October to March. That sown in September, or October, or even in November, will frequently produce a crop, if the land be not low and damp. It is better to sow on low damp soils, in December, January and February, when the season will soon become warm enough to obviate the danger arising from the soil. Some have sown a winter crop with this indigo, which as it affords the young plants a shelter in the cold season, may be esteemed a good method. Mustard, ripening very early, is the most improper for this purpose, because it leaves the indigo exposed at the very season in which it requires shelter. The young plants, at this season of the year, are often greatly injured by the treading of cattle; and the crop is seldom so good as that which is sown in the proper season. If the season be favourable, and the whole crop be sown in March;

April or May, (for which repeated rain is absolutely necessary,) and be weeded before the periodical rains set in, an abundant crop may be expected. Indigo sown in June seldom repays the labour of the husbandman, the rains, then setting in, usually injure the plant while young, or produce weeds in such abundance, that it is choked by them, and generally perishes.

The present method of cultivating indigo is subject to many inconveniences, and therefore liable to many objections; but as the whole business is conducted by giving advances of money to the Ryots, previously to their sowing the seed, and by receiving the produce at a certain number of bundles of a given measure for a rupee, and as many of them scarcely ever intend to fulfil their engagements, the application of a remedy would be difficult, especially as the devising of it must depend upon experiments, to the naking of which the poverty and prejudices of the cultivators would prove an almost invincible obstacle.

Corchorus olitorius, Corchorras capselaris, and Crotalaria juncea are sown in April, May, or June. The Bibres of these plants are much ased for cordage, and for making sackcloth, and are very valuable for these purposes. The Eschynomene cannabina, is sometimes, though but seldom, sown in this district, but is more abundantly cultivated in the soathern parts of Bengal. The fibre of this plant is less valuable than that of the Corchoris. 'There are two varieties of the Crotalaria juncea; one, sown at this season, often grows ten or twelve feet high ; the other variety is sown in October, and rises to the height of four or five feet.

After the earth is properly ploughed, cleansed, and pulverized, the seeds of these plants are sown very thickly. The natives say that they should be sown so close together that a serpent cannot creep between them. This prevents the plants from throwing out blanches, which would be highly injurious to the fibre.

As the growth of these plants is exremely rapid, the crops suffer but little from weeds; if the weeds however should he numerous, they must be extirpated by the hand.

When the Sana* has done flowering, and the seed vessels have nearly attained their full size, sometime before the seeds ripen, it is cut down, and tied in small bundles, each containing ten or a dozen plants. The bundles are then set upright in water (about a foot or a foot and a half of the lower part of the stalk being immersed) and continue in that situation one day; by this means the upper, and comparatively tender, part of the stalk is somewhat dried. This occasions a greater similarity in the quality of the fibre taken from different parts of the same plant.

After the Sana has thus stood erect for one day, it is steeped in a pond, or some other receptacle of water, to promote the separation of the fibre from the stalk. This prucess is as follows : a number of the small bundles abovementioned are laid one upon another, so as to form a heap five or six feet wide, on each side of which three or four stakes are previously set, to prevent its falling down. A quantity of cow-dung is then spread over the heap, about two
or three inches in thickness; upon this a layer of straw of about a foot and a half, and over the whole a quantity of earth sufficient to sink the heap till the upper part is five or six inches below the surface of the water. In two days and a half, or three days at farthest, the putrid fermentation is carried to a sufficient extent.

The Sana is then taken out, and the fibre stripped from the stalk in the following manner. A man standing up to his knees in the water, takes a few of the stalks, and, having broken them about a foot from the lower end, holds them with the large ends from him, and strikes them on the surface of the water, till the broken pieces are separated and fall off. Then turning them; he takes hold of the fibres which are freed from the broken pieces, and beats the small ends, in the same manner, on the water, till the fibre is entirely separated from the stalks; a few strokes are sufficient, and by a few more it is cleansed from any mucus, or fragments of stalks which may adhere to it. It is then dried and packed up for the market.

The chief thing to be attended to in this process, is the proper regulation of the putrid fermentation; if this be not carried to a sufficient extent, the fibre will not separate, and if carried too far, the quality is injured. The most experienced natives account two days and a half a proper medium. The fermentation is doubtless quickened or retarded by the state of the weather, but the difference occasioned thereby is so small, that the Bengal farmers entirely disregard it.

The Crotalaria, cultivated in the neighbourood of

Caleatta, and probably that cultivated in all the southern parts of Bengal, is accounted much inferior to that cultivated in the northern parts of the country. The natives attribute this to the difference of soil. This may have some effect, but it is probable that the variety cultivated in the south, is inferior to that cultivated in the north; as, even there, the large variety is preferred to the smaller one.

Phaseolus Mungo is usually sown in small fields about the begiming of June, and generally produces a good crop; it will thrive only on high and good land. Phaseolus radiatus is sown in July and August, on land where another crop has failed, and, not unfrequently, on old sward, or on land which could not be regularly cultivated. The seed is scattered over the land, often without any ploughing at all, and at most the plough is only drawn over the surface so as to make a few slight scratches. This crop ripens in October. It is obvious that much produce is not to be expected from such a mode of culture. The crops are indeed light, but are often sufficient to pay the rent of the land. A more rational method of cultivation would doubtless be far more productive.

The low and loamy soils, after having produced a crop of early rice, are usually sown with the seeds of some other plant, in October or November. The mode of culture for all the cold season crops is nearly alike. The natives seldom begin to sow till about the full moon in October, supposing that the soil possesses a pernicious quality, which burns up the young plants, till the cold season is well set in. In n deed, before that time, the quantity of moisture in the soil is too great, and the heat of the season un-
friendly to these productions; so that though the plants will come up, they are yellow and sickly, and either soon perish, or continue small, stunted, and unproductive.

Mustard seed is sown in great quantities at this season. Three kinds are usually cultivated; viz. Surshapa," vulg. Sursha, Raya, $\dagger$ and Sheta Sursha. $\ddagger$ The first is the most esteemed, though the other two kinds are as productive, and perhaps more so. The Sinapis dichotoma rises about two or three feet in height, flowers in the latter end of November, or the beginning of December, and is usually ripe in January. S. ramosa grows sometimes five or six feet high. It flowers in the end of December, or in January, and ripens in February. S. glauca grows two or three feet high, and ripens in February. This kind, having a strong and disagreeable smell, is less valued than the other sorts. When the crops of mustard are ripe, the plants are carefully pulled up by the hand, and carried to a place in the field, smoothed and prepared for the purpose, where it is soon after thrashed and winnowed.

Flax,§ though abundantly cultivated in the central parts of Bengal, for its use in making oil, is but little cultivated in this district. The natives know nothing of the use of its fibre to make thread. The oil-men usually mix the linseed with a quantity of mustard seed, to promote the expression of the oil. This so injures its quality, that Indian linseed oil is unfit for painting, or the other useful purposes to which it is applied in Europe.

[^1]Many parts of this district are very pmper for thecultivation of wheat and barley, notwithstanding which, very little of either is sown. The kind of wheat found in these parts is barl, the flour produced therefrom is of a very dark colour, and consequently finds no market among Europeans. The native merchants on this account make no advances for it, and this want of a market is the reason alleged why it is not cultivated to a greater extent. For the purpose of making a srial I sowed Patna whear, on a large quantity of land, in the year 1798; the lour produced from which was of a very good quality.

Several kinds of pulse are sown at the commencement of the cold season, the principal of which are Kesari,* Mashuri, $\dagger$ and Bùt. $\ddagger$ The seeds of the first of these kinds are sometimes scattered among the stubble of the Buna rice, and produce a good crop without further trouble, but the most usual way is to sow it on land previously well ploughed and cleansed, in the same manner as for the other cold season crops.

Tobacco is cultivated to a considerable extent on low and loamy land. The seeds are sown on a small plat or seed bed, soon after the conclusion of the rairs, where they are shaded, and watered, if necessary, till they are large enough to be transplanted into the field. The land for tobacen must be well ploughed, and manured, after which the young plants are transplanted in rows, much in the manner that cabbages are planted in England, and at the same distance. The young plants require continual attention, the ground between them must be

[^2]repeatedly loosened, and the earth drawn to the roots, till they have acquired a sufficient growth : they are then cut and dried for use.

The egg plant,* and several species of capsicum, are planted at the same time, and in exactly the same manner, as tobacco. The fruit of the egg plant is much used all over India, as an árticle of food, as is the capsicum to give a pungent taste to several Indian dishes. I have not observed that these plants are planted in this district at any time except the commencement of the cold season, and there is reason to suppose that they would not succeed if they were; though in the southern parts of Bengal, they prosper very well when planted at the commencement of the rainy season. Several other plants are cultivated as articles of food, some to a greater and others to a less extent. The cucurbitaceous plants are often sown in the fields, and the advantage of cultivating them is considerable. The sorts-most cultivated are cucumbers of two sorts, the ane sown in April and yielding fruit through the rainy season, and the other sown from November to February, and yielding fruit till the rainy season sets in. Karaila, $\dagger$ Terbúz, $\ddagger$ Dádh Kushi,\# Jhinga, ${ }^{\text {§ }}$ Tarö, $\mathbb{1}$ K Kankrol,** Ladit $\dagger$ Kaddá $\ddagger \ddagger$ and the Konhra, or Pumpkin. $\$$ The three last of these are suffered to run over the houses, and sometimes on a bamboo stage, and produce fruit sufficient for the expenditure of the cultivator, besides furnishing a large quantity for the markets.

[^3]| t | Momordica carantia. |
| :--- | :--- |
| H | Trichosanthes anguina. |
| I | Cucumais acutangulus. |
| it | Cucurbita lagenaria |
| $\$ 5$ | Cucurbita pepo. |

The sweet potatoe* is planted at different seasons in different parts of Bengal, but in this district it is planted at the beginning of October. The ground is previously ploughed to as great a depth as possible and then cuttings, taken from a spall spot reserved for that purpose, are planted; these cuttings soon take root, and afterwards require no further care, till the roots are fit to be taken up, which begins to be the case at the end of December, and continues till May, during which time the produce is dug up and carried to market as it suits the convenience of the cultivator. Another variety, of a white colour, which has very little sweetness, and a small species of yam, $\dagger$ the root of which is about the size of a goose's egg, are cultivated in the more northern parts of the district. The cuttings of the plants, of the convolvulus', and the small soots of the yam, are planted in April or May, and the produce brought to market in October or November.

Three varieties of the Arum esculentum, (Cach's of the Hindus, ) are usually planted in March or April. The cultivation of these roots, occupies a considerable portion of the soit, and the produce is as important as potatoes to the people of England. The offsets from the root are planted in rows, about a foot and a half or twe feet asunder, and as the plant increases in size, are earthed up as potatoes are in Europe. The periodical rains being ended, the leaves die away; after which, from November to March, the roots are taken up, and carried to market, as suits the convenience of the cultivator. These roots abound with a farinaceous substance, or rather with

[^4]a viscotis, starchy substance, and are esteemed very nutritive. The Mán Cachra, ${ }^{*}$ and the $\mathrm{Ol}, \dagger$ are cuiltivated in small spots. The root of the first of these is often two or three feet long, and nine inches or a foot in diameter. It is necessary to lay this root to dry for two months or more, otherwise it is too acrid to be eaten; after this it is very wholesome, though not very palatable. As all the sorts of Cachu will keep for almost any length of time, it might be worth attention as an article of provision for sea voyages.

In shady situations, where the soil is rich and loamy, ginger and turmeric flourish. The offeets are planted at the same time with, and the whole culture is exactly the same as that observed for the arum. The leaves die off, like those of arum, sobn after the rains, and the roots are fit to be taken up in January. The turmeric is very deficient in colour, and the ginger less pungent, if taken up too soon. The farmers therefore let it remain in the ground till the leaves are entirely dried up. Ginger is usually sold green, aud only a small proportion dried for foreign market or home consumption. After the roots of the turmeric have been well cleansed and picked, they are boiled over a fire made with the decayed leaves of the plant, (the natives supposing such a fire to have a peculiar kind of virtue,) after which they are well dried in the sun, and reduced to powder by the Pedal, or by the wooden mortar and pestle. In this state they are usually carried to market. The roots are sold likewise before they are pulverized.

- A. Campanulatum.

C 9

On moderately high spots, where the soil is good, the sugar-cane is planted in February and March. The spot designed for sugar-canes is usually surrounded with a ditch, the earth dug from which is heaped up round the field, in the manner of a wall, and serves to defend it from cattle. After the spot has been well ploughed, or dug up with the Kodáli, cuttings of ripe canes, consisting of about three joints, are planted somewhat slanting, in rows, about two feet, or at most three feet distance, and about a foot asunder in the rows. The fields must be often watered and cleansed from weeds. When the canes are about four feet high, they are tied in bunches, about three or four stalks forming a bunch: this permits the air to circulate among them, and facilitates their ripening. The canes, when ripe, are cut, and either carried to the mill or to the market.

The cultivation of the plantain is a profitable branch of husbandry, requiring but little labour, and making a certain return. Spots near to the habitation are chosen for this purpose, to guard against the depredations of thieves. The young plants or suckers are taken from old plantations, and planted at about six or eight feet distance each way. They may be planted at any time of the year, but May or October is usually chosen. The root is all cut off previously to planting, except a small part with a few fibres. The ground is ploughed, either before or after planting, as it suits the convenience of the farmer; and a crop of some other plant is advantageously cultivated on it, the first year. In the second year. the trees produce fruit, and continue to do so for some years; each clump will produce about two bunches in a year, It is necessary to plant a new field at the end of three or four years; because, when
the clumps become large, the fruit is small, and the buaches contain a smaller number of fruit.

The Cytisus Cajan is frequently sowed round fields of sugar-canes, egg-plant, and other things : this, while it makes a slight and well looking fence, is also a source of profit to the cultivator.

At present the poverty, prejudices, and indolence of the natives strongly operate against improvements in agriculture. Could an adequate remedy be found for these evils, many other things might be cultivated with great advantage. Hemp would flourish in many spots; cotton, scarcely cultivated at all' in the district, might be cultivated to a large extent; if proper methods were taken to introduce the best kinds, the culture of wheat and barley might occupy many thousands of Bighás, which now lie in an uncultivated state.* The culture of some species of Hibiscus $\dagger$ would be profitable, and furnish one of the most durable fibres for cordage, and, perhaps for coarse cloths.

The cultivation of timber has hitherto, I believe, been wholly neglected : several sorts might be planted all over this district, and indeed all over Bengah, and would soon furnish a very large share of the timber used in the country. The Sist, $\ddagger$ the Andaman red-wood, \| the Jaca-tree,§ the Teak, 1 the Mahoga-

[^5]C 3
ny,* the Sattin-wood, $\ddagger$, the Chaknasi, $\ddagger$ : the Tuna, and the Sirishar§ should be principally chosen. The planting of these trees single, at the distance of a firilang from each other, would, do mo injory to the crops of conis, hout wondd, by cooling the atmosphere, rather be advantageous. : In many places, spots now unpraductive, : would be improved by clumps or small plantations of timber, under which ginger andiand tarmeric might be cultivated to gteat advantage.

In some situations Sás, प Pitsál,** Jaralit $\dagger$ t and some other sorts of less note would prosper: :

Indeed the improvements that might be made in this country by the planting of timber, can scarcely bqeabculatede: Tead, 䢂 that noost weefill word, fo at present: brought from the Bamman dominiens; though it would grow in any part of Bengats: and perhaps 'in any part' of Findostan. It appears, from the annald of the National Museum of Natural Histery; that the French naturalists have begun to turn theis attention to the culture of this valuable tree, as am object:of national utility. This will be found impracticable in Framee, but may perbaps be attempted somewhere else. To England; the firat commercial country in the world, its importamce muse be obvious, and the further encouragement $\|$ 湖 of the cilture of it in this. country,' viil eventually furnish a supply of excellent timber for ship building and various other

[^6]important purpeses, and dbviate all apprehemsions of the faiburd of the market where it is purchased, or of the destruction of the forests which have hitherto supplied it.

Most of the Palms; though 'usciess as timber, desefive thei:attention of the agoreulturist. The Sago tree would grow in atl the :high parts, and thei Date-tree, it platited close, would greatly improve mamy spots mow wholly unprothuctive. The jurice of this.treesis hantrufactured into stigar, in some parts of, Bengal," And is highty vahaible for that atrid "othere. purposes. It is common to let a tree of this kind fort. two annas a year. Two hundred of these trees nightube plahsoul on migigha, whieh latd, for a rupee eanth a!half; this monifd be productive of a large inh obmay afton the, first eight or ten yeans $!$ :
-riFen attemptrs have yet been made toi improve or-i charda The Mango, and other fruit trees, are often: plailted so close as to choke each other; and but little) regard'sis:paid by the planter to' the 'quality of the frtiturisoartety:mby attempt has been made to naturalize foreigns. fruitis; even the Orange tree is almost a stranger to several parts of Bengal, though soppe labe experimidnts prowe that it might be introduradd drithitsuoceses. $\because$ The laudable attompts shade by iseverali, Eurioperits exdepted, the innproving of fmits, by giafting, : ori by raising imptoved varieties fiom seith , has scanceliyt been attempted: ". In short;' the fruits. of Hindordan are not far removed from a etate of IIdfura.

[^7]The remedy for these evils is obvious to every one, and the application of it would fully reward any person who would engage heartily in it.

In this district several obstacles to agriculture present themselves to the farmer. Large numbers of wild buffaloes and hogs infest the fields, and make it necessary for the farmer to watch his crop, from the time it appears above ground, till the harvest is gathered in : as.this watching is impructicable beyond a certain extent, is attended with much danger, and often ineffectual, the cultivation carried on by an individual must be proportionably limited.

The inundations which are occasioned by the sudden overflowing of the rivers, frequently destroy the: crop through a large extent of country, or so much injure it, that by this alone, the laborious husbandman is often so.xeduced in his, circumstances; as to be inable, or so discouraged as to be afraid, to carry on the cultivation of the soil with any degree of spirit. The beasts might be destroyed, on .their ravages pre-: vented, in various ways; but it is difficult to provide sufficiently againt the effects of inundations.

Perhaps the encouragement of cold season crops would be the best remedy for both: for the long grass being destroyed by the cultivation of the low lands, the wild animats would find no shelter, and indeed no sustenance;' when' the crop was off, which might occasion them to desert the country, and the cold season crop, though often less valuable than a crop of rice, might prove a remuneration for the labours of the cultivator, and by some improvements might be brought to such a state as to become a source of considerable profit.




Though these remarks relate chiefly to the district of Dinajpur, yet it is obvious that many of them will equally apply to the other parts of Bengal.

The improvement of live stock, and introduction of dairies, the fencing and manuring of land, the introduction of wheel carriages, and a number of improvements of a similar kind, have not been hinted at, because the present state of society seems to render them to a great degree impracticable... Yet the rapid progress of agricultural improvements in England encourages the hope, that a gradual improvement may also be effected in Hindostan.

## REFERENCES TO,THE FTGURESS. 'plate $\mathbf{i}^{\prime}$.

## Fig. 1.-The Plough.

a. The Langala, or body of the plough.
b. The Is', or beam.
c. The Phala, or share.
d. The share, fixed on the plough.
c. The fiardle.
$f$. The Moot or peg, to assiet in holding the plough.
Fig. 2.-The Jooal, Beng, or Yoke. - (Sans. Yuga.)
a. The under edge, which rests on the neck of the bulloek.
b. b. The elevations on the upper part.
c. c. c. c. The pins, by which it is fastened to the. neck of the ox.'
Fig. S.-The Maïror Karrow., (Sans. Lostbhedhana.) Fig. 4.-The Jänt, stunq for raising mater.
d. The Pornte
b. The end, excavated to a point.
c. c.c. The bamboo to which it is slung.
d. The batriboo, loaded at one end,' to assist in raising the end $b$ out of the water.
e. A man working it.
$f$. The reservoir, or channel, into which the water
 Fig. 5.-The Bharuá.
a. Bank, or yoke,
b. b. The Shikya, or string by which the weight is suspended.
c. c. The receptacles, in which the earthnrer other substance is carried.

Figl 7: 二Tike K

## II.

An Essay an the Sacred Islessin the West, with other Essays consuected mith that Work.

BY CAPTALN E: WILFORD.

## E8sAT V.

Origin ard Declize of the Christian Religion in India.
I. IT appears, that long before Christ, a renovation of the uaniverse was expected all over the world, with a Saviour, a King of Peace and Justice. This expectation is frequently mentioned in the Purán'as: the Earth is offen complaining that she is ready to sink back into Pätdla under, the, accumulated load of the iniquitiea of mankind: the Gods also complain of the oppression of the Giants. Visunu comforts the Earth, his consort, and the Gods, assuring them that a Saviour would come, to redress their grievances: and put an end to the tyranay of the Daityas, or D.cmans. That, for this parpose, he would be incarnated in the bouse of a shepherd, and brought up araong shephends. The follopwers of Bupd'tia unanimowsly declewe, that his incaspation in the wamb of m vingin, was foretold . several thousand yeass, though some say ons theusand only, befpre it came to pass.*
A. short time befone the birth of Cumisar not. enaty the Jowse hut the Romand; an the wuthority of the

* Sée also As. Rées: vor. vi. p. 207.

Sibylline books, and the decision of the sacred college of the Etrurian augurs, were all of opinion, that this momentous event was at hand. This was equally the case in the east, and a miraculous star directed the holy men, who were living in anxious expectation, where to find this heavenly child. At that time the Emperor of India, uneasy at these prophecies, which, he conceived, portended his ruin and the loss of his empire, sent emissaries to inquire whether such a child was really born, in order to destroy him: and this happened exactly the 3101st year of the Cali-yuga, which was the first year of the Christian Era. This traditionary account is known all over India; and is equally current among the learned and the ignorant. But the Hindus fancy, that these old prophecies were fulfilled in the person of Crishina. What induced the Brammens to adopt this idea; is not so obvious. It is possible, however, that they saw plainly, that if they admitted these prophecies to have been fulfilled about the time of Chist, some material alteration must, of course, have taken place in their religion. The Magi of scripture, who came from the east, where equally expecting this renovation; and the star served only to guide their steps. This expectation, of a renovation of the world, prewailed also among the Gothic tribes in the north : but after waiting patiently for some time, certain enterprising men set themselves up, for the promised Mand, or new Adam; and were acknowledged as such. According to their traditionary accounts, they were nettled, and puzzled with some strange reports from the east, about the appearance of some $\boldsymbol{\text { Lsir, }}$ Asa, Gods, or god-like men; and Gylfi is supposed to have been sent to inquire into the truth of these reports. His embassy is the ground work of the Edda, which concludes with these remarkable words. "The new

Asice then took to themselves the names of the ancient ones : and gave themselves to be the real Asa, or Gods." Odin was one of them, and alvancing towards the north, Gylfe sarrendered his kingdom to him. In consequence of these notions of a change in this sublunary world, a new system of religion in Britain, was set up in opposition to the old one, according to the ingenious Mr. Cleland: and this, he thinks, must have happened some time B. C. but, I think it happened later; for Hengist and Horsa were in the tenth degree of lineal descent from this new OdIn; who, of course, was contemporary with Trenmor, who was deified by Fin-Gal his great grandson, who appointed him an Elysium, from which the sons of the feeble were excluded, and priests also, I believe. That Fingal and his followers held in contempt the old religion, is obvious from the ancient Galic Pooms. Probably the defeat of the druids in Anglesea, for so we may call it in spite of their spells, and holy texts churned from their sacred Vedas, accelerated their ruin, and that of their religion : this, with some obscure prophecies, foretelling that a total change in civil and religious matters, was going to take place, induced many clever and enterprising persons to avail themselves of all these circumstances; and to give out, either, that they were this expected divine being, or to deify their own ancestors. Fingal succeeded most completely: for, till very lately, many of the Irish, among the poorer class, believed, that the souls of the departed went into the Elysium of Trenmor and Mac Cowal, according to the industrious inquirer J. Good, who lived above 200 years ago: and, if the Christian religion had not prevailed soon.after, Trenmor would have been considered, in time, as the supreme being. In the same manner, the

Emperor Augustus was of course consecrated a. God, after his death; and, both before and after, temples were erected in his honour, and sacrifices offered to him. The courtiers of Antony, acting upon the same principles, declared, that he was Osiris redivious, born again, and that Cleopatra wàs Isis. Virgil adds, that the renovation of the world, so long foretold, was going to take place, and begin with the golden age as usual: then the Argonauts, in due time, with the Argo, would reappear : and that there would be another Typhis, a Trojan war, again, in which Achilles would signalize himself.

The Hindu traditions, concerning this wonderful child, are collected in a treatise called the Vicramacharitra, or history of Vicrama'ditya. This I have not been able to procure, though many learned Pandits have repeated to me, by heart, whole pages from them. Yet I was unwilling to make use of these traditions, till I found them in the large extracts made by the ingenious and indefatigable Major C. Maceenzie of the Madras establishment, and by him communicated to the Asiatick Society. .

When I mentioned the Sibylline verses, I by no means intended the spurious ones, which are deservedly rejected by the learned: but the genuine ones, such as they existed in the time of Vireil; whose testimony is unquestionable, and incontrovertible. Whether these prophecies were really written by inspired women, is not now the question: they were certainly current all over the west, and this is enough for my purpose. There were several of them, and the most ancient were from the east. There was a Persian, a Chaldean, an Egyptian, and alse, according to Puiusinias and Elianja Iudaia, or Jewish Sibyl from

Palestime. Such women probably never existed: luat the prophetical yerse that were attributed to them, were extraoted from the aacred records of their reepective countries. The fourth eclogue of Virgil is entirely on the subject of this long expected renoration of the world.

The last great. age, foretold by bacred rhymen;
In the original it is, foretold by the Сumgan Sibyi.

Renews its finished course ; Saturnian times Holl round again, and mighty years, begun
From their first orth, in radiant cireles run.
The base degenerate ixnn offispripg, (or the Cati-guga) ends; A golden progeny (of the Crita, or golden age) from heaven descends: 0 chaste Lucina, speed the mother's pains:
And baste the glorious birth; thy own Apollo reigns !
The lovely boy, with his auspicieus face!
The sea shell lead the life of gods, and be
By gods and heroes seen, and gods and heroes see.
Another Typhis shall nẹw seas explore,
Another Argo land the chiefs upon the lberian shore:
Another HeLbe other wars create,
And grat Achishiss urge the Trojam fate.
O of celestial seed.! O foster son of Jove!
See, labouring nature calls thee to sustain
The nodding frame of heaven, and earth, and main :
See to their base restored, earth, seas and air.
These are the very words of Vishno to the Earth, when complaining to him and begging for redress.

It is obvious, that Virgil considered the momentous events of the Trojan war, the expedition of Jason in the Argo, and the rape of Helen or Lacshmi, as the necessary concomitants of a renovation of the world. The Cali-yuga, according to Vireil, ended a little before Christ, of whom he had no
knowledge: and according to Hesiod, and theJainas in India, the Cali-yuga began about 1000 years B. C. and lasted, of course, the same number of years, which were natural ones in the west, but are considered as divine years in India,

About 60 years before the birth of Christ, the capital of the Roman Empire was alarmed by prodigies, and also by ancient prophecies, announcing, that an emanation of the deity was to be born about that time, and that a renovation of the world was to take place. In the year of Rome 690 and 63 B. C. the Senate, having been convened on the ninth day before the calends of October, or the 23d of September, in order to prepare against imminent dangers threatening the Empire, the whole city was alarmed by new causes of anxiety. P. Nieid. Figulus, the intimate friend of Cicero, who was thene consul, having heard C. Octavius apologising to the Senate for his coming so late, on account of his wife having been just brought to bed, exclaimed, you have then begot a lord and master unto us. This Figulus was in such estimation at Rome, that he was reckoned among the most learned men : and such was his superior knowledge of the mathematics, and other sciences grounded upon them, that he was believed to deal in the accult sciences. That exclamation of his threw so much more terror into the minds of the Conscript Fathers, as for a few months before, it.was constantly reported, that nature was bringing forth a king unto the world, and it was said, that the same was asserted in the Sibylline verses. Besides, oracles to that purport were constantly brought in from the möst distant parts of the world. On this account, and more particularly on account of a prodigy that had just happened at Rome, the Senate terrified, issued a
decres, that no father, during the course of that year; should presume to lift up from the ground, or bring upantwoborn male child, However, those among: the Coniscript Fathers, : whose wives were with child, had the! decrée suppressed: and these prophecies and: prodigies were afterwards applied to Augustus, who was froun during the consulate of M. Tullius CIcero ${ }^{*} ;$ sixty-three years before Christ; but fiftysix according to several writers in the east, such as: the author' of the Lebtarikh and others. Hence it is;, that Nicoms de Contr, who was in Bengal, and other parts of India in the fifteenth century, insists that Vichiami'dityai was the same with Auoustus, and that his period was. reckoned. from the birth of that Emperor, fifty-six years B. C.

In, the year llgiB. C. in the time of Martus, such direful puodigies 'appeared, that the sacred college of Heteumian on being consulted, declared that the eighth revolution of the world was at an end: and that anothery cither for the better, or the worse, was. going to take placeit: and Juvenax, who lived it the finst century, decläres that he lived in this ninth revolutions, - which was! then going on $\ddagger$ : for the Etrusecarns reckonbed twelve of these revolutions; Each of one thousand years, according to some: but according to others, these twelve revolutions constie tuted what they called the great year:

It miay be asked; what prophecies are to be found in'the:Purtn'as! concerning: this Saviour and avenger ; E-observed :before; that the Hindus would have it,

[^8]D
that these prophecies were fulfiled long before, in the person of Calshna. In this, they were wiser than the Jewo, who, by insisting that the Messian is not yet come, have plunged themselves into inextricable elifficulties, and have been forced, at last, to give up any further inquiry into the time of his appearance. In this manner, many of the Samaritans, in order to elude the prophecies concerning Chisist, insist that they were fulfilled in the person of Joshua, whose naine is the same with Jesus, and Who, according to the Hebrew text, was contemporary with Chrshna ; and they have also a book of the wars of Joshua with Scaubec*, which may be called their Maha'-bha'rat.

When I said, that the Hindus conceived, that the prophecies concerning a Saviour of the world, were fultilled in the person of Crishna, I do by no means wish to convey an idea, that he was Christ, from whom he is as distinct a character, and person, as Joshua; and whose name, with the general outline of his history, existed long before Christ. "Yet the prolix accounts of his life," to use the words of Sir W. Jones, "are filled with narratives of a most extraordinary kind, and most strangely variegated. This incarnate deity of Sanscrit romance, was notonly cradled, but educated among shepherds; a tyrant at the time of his birth, ordered all the maleinfants to be slain. He performed amazing, but ridiculous miracles, and saved multitudes, partly by his miraculous powers, and partly by his arms: and raised the dead, by descending for that parpose into the infernal regions. He was the meekest and best tempered of beings, washed the feet of the Brahmens,

[^9]and preached, indeed sublimely, but always in their favour. He was pure and chaste in reality, but exhibited every appearance of libertinism; lastly, he was befievolent and tender, and yet fomented and conducted 'a terrible war." The Yadus, his own tribe, and nation, were doomed to destruction for their sins, like'the descendants of Yahuda or Yuda, which is the true prouunciation of Juda. They allfell, in geo neral, by mutual wounds, a few excepted, who lead : through Jambu-dwipa a miserable and wretched life. There are some to be found in Gurjarat': but they are represented to me as poor and wretched. "Thismotley story must induce an opinion, * that the spu + : rious gospels, which abounded in the first ages of christianity, had been brought to India, and the: wildest parts of them ingrafted upon the old fable of Cbishna." Several learned missionaries are also of that opinion, though they carry the comparison too far. The real name of Crishna was Caneya, and. he was sur-named Crishina, or the black, on account of his complexion.

TMe Hindus, having once fixed the accomplishmeht of these prophecies to a period greatly anterior to the Christian Era, every thing in their books was either framed, or ne w modelled accordingly : and particularly in the Purúnas, every one of which is greatly posterior to our era : though many legends, and the mäterials in general, certainly existed before, in some other shape. Yet, as inconsistency and contradiction are the concomitants of falshood and deceit, it may be supposed, that some circumstances and particulars, tending to remove the veil they have attempted to throw over these events, may have

[^10]D 9
escaped thom.: This is, very probable; but as; I. never had the most distant idea of ever investigatingthis subject; till, very lately, I may probably have. overloblsed many passages of this, nature; and I. recollect now only two material ones, which I mentioneds bafoxe. These prophecies, in the $P_{1}$ urtin'as, cencersing, thais, Sakiour, declare, that he was to appear in thit luttor, end of, the third, and in the begin-: nimglof the fourth age: which can, by no meanss, be, resthciled to the Christian Era, according to their mode of reckfaing. The two passages, alluded to; areito be foumd in the Padma and Gan'es'a-purámas. In thee firsts: Bnef, an antediluvian, and in the, fifth. generation from the creation, is introduced requestings the God of Godsj or Vishny, to allow him to. die by his hand, that: he might go into his paradise, in. the White. Island. Vishnu told him, it was as favor, noti easily; ohtaiped; that he would, howevers, ghant his requesty ; but, says Vishnv, you gannot: cmme inta my paradise now; but you must wait, till I become incarnate in the shape of a boar, in order. to make the world undergo a total renovation, to esfablish and secure it up,on a most firm and permanetif footing: and you must, wait a whole, $Y$ ugga, till. this, takes : place, and then you will accompany me
 consists of 434,000 diviae, or more probably 4,320 . natural years.* These, reckoned from the fifth antez dhuvian generation, will fall in, very nearly, with. the beginning of the Ghristian Era, according to the; Septuagint, and Josephus's, computation. As to the,

[^11]number of years, thiey ate written $5 ; 000$ 是 sound numbers in thie Gan'es'a-purtría: and, as these 5,000 years are not said to be divine ones, we have a right to suppose, that they were meant ofiginally for matanal years. Ganes's'a, who is identifed with Vishive, and has also an inferior paradtise in thre White Fsland, and another in the Eurine or Icshe Sea, thus says to a King of Casi or Benares, an antediluvian, and who, like Bali, wished much to be admitted into his celysium: "you cannot now enter my parailise on the IV hite Island ; you must wait 5,000 years," whet, it seems, it was to be opened. "But the meenn time, you may reside in my other paradise fin the Euxime Sea.". In the same manner Achiciles, with Castor and Pollyx, and I believe Capmus, PìLeve, \&c. after residing a long tirne in the White Island in the Ieshu Sea, were inltimately translatted into the the original $W$ :kite Island in the White Set.

The White Island in the Euxine or Feshiu Seia, has much affinity with the Limbus Patrum; ör paradise of departed ancestors, who waited there for the coming of Christ, who was to open the ceesestial, and real paradise, for their reception.

Divines in India declare, that the surest proof of the divine mission of an Avatara is his coming feefing foretold: that prophecies concerning a Saviotar are often repeated in them, some very plain, and others rather obscure : that they are, in short, ofe of the fundamental supports of their religion and creed. That Crishna is considered as the first, ha dignity athd principal incarnation; and that the otheis are greatly inferior to this, and merely introduced to bring on the grand system of regeneration. In his time, the divine oracles were committed to writing, with a
more complete and perfect system of moral duties, and religious worship: and a race of Brahmens more pure, more enlightened, was introduced into Indig. Crishna is the last Avatára, or manifestation of the deity, but one; which, according to their sacred books and ours, will appear a little before the general dissolution of the world.

Bat let us return to the manifestation of Vishnu in the shape of a Boar, mentioned in the former passage. This manifestation is acknowledged to be that of the white Boar: for according to the Tapic'hand'a, a section of the Scanda-purán'a, the Calpa of the Boar consists of four inferior ones, denominated from four manifestations of the great Boar.. The first subordinate Calpa is that of the Curma-Varáha, or Tortoise-boar, this is the Curma-Avatara: the second was that of Adi-Vara'ha, called Adi-nálha also, particularly by the Jainas: this is the Varaha Avatara: the third is, that of Varaha, with the title of Crishna: and the fourth, and present Calpa, is that of the $W$ hite Boar, and which is very little noticed in the Puran'as. In the Prabhása-c'hand'a, a section of the Scand'a-purán'a also, these four Calpas have different names; and to them three more are added, making in all seven Calpas: and we are now in the seventh. These are the Calpas of Vishnu, under the seven different denominations of S'ríya-vratta, Viamana contemporary with Bali, Vajra'nga, Camalárpabhu (Camulus Deus), Swaharta, Purushottama, and the seventh, Daitya-Sudana. In the fourth Calpa of Camala-prabhu, 'and which is called also the Calpa of Vara'ha,', says the author, was born Icshwa'cu the son of Noa, in the Treta' or second age: and the four last Calpas answer to the four Calpas of the Boar, the last of which is that
of Daitya-Sudana, thus called from Vishnu completely overthrowing the empire of the Daityas or Demons. These four Calpas are obviously to be reckoned from the flood. The Calpa of Purushottama, answers to that of Crishina; whose birth was followed by a general massacre of all the male children, through the whole country, by Cansa, in order to destroy him. But let us returu to this wonderful child, who was to manifest himself to the world, when 3100 years of the Cali-yuga were elapsed, that is to say in the 3101, answering to the first year of the Christian Era, according to the Cumáricáchand'a, and the Vicrama-charitra. According to the same respectable authority, the purpose of his mission, was to remove from the world wretchedness and misery: and his name was to be 'Saca, or the mighty and glorious King.
'Sa'liva'hana was the son of a Tacshaca, or carpenter; and was born, and brought up in the house of a potmaker. God is called Deva-Tasuty, or God the artist or creator, in Sanscrit; and also Deva-Tashta', from which is derived Deo-Tat ar Teutat in the west, called Twasht'a' or Tuisto by the German tribes. He produced Mannus, man, the first Manu, who had three sons. In Grecce, according to Pindar, God the father of mankind, and creator of the world, was called sating Aprootixns, the father and best artist. This carpenter, the father of 'Sa'liva'hana was not a mere mortal, he was the chief of the Tacshacas, a serpentine tribe, famous in the Purdin'as. There, they are declared to be the most expert artists and mechanics in the world; and they are by no means confined to a few trades; but their skill embraces every branch. When the elephant Air'avata, with his immense retinue in the D 4
same shape, came, in his way to the plains of Uterat Curu or Siberia, to worship at Prabhása in Gurjardt', they planned and executed a road for him through the N. W." quarter of India, which is said still to exist. The Tacshacas, or Taohas, have, as usual, two countenances, that of serpents, and a human one, which they assume at pleasure.

The chief of them is obviously the same with the serpent Agatho-Diemon, the Demi-urgos, Opifen, and artist of the Egyptians, Greeks, Gnostics, Basilin. dians, \&c. These sectaries asserted, that the serpent was the father, and author of all arts and sciences: and this serpent, they said, was the Christ, whe was thus the son of a carpenter and artist; and at the same time an incarnation of the great serpent, exaactly like 'Sa'liva'hana, the 'Saca, or mighty and glorious King. 'Sa'liva'hana was the son; or rather an incaination of the great serpent ${ }_{3}$ and his mother was also of that tribe, and incarnate in the house of a pot-maker. She conceived at the age of one year and a half, the great serpent gently gliding ower her, whilst she was asleep in her cradle.

The heresy of the Ophites spread widely at a very early period: they extolled the serpent, as the author of the science of good and evil. Such was, they said, the majesty and the power of the brass serpent, exposed upon a stake in the desert, that whatever man looked up to him was immediately cured. In the same manner that the serpent had been exalted upon a stake in the desert, for the good of tho people, so it was necessary that Christ should be exalted also, upon a stake or cross, for the good of

[^12]mankind; and, in a scriptural sense; ; this serpent was the type of the Saviour of the world.

The pot-maker used to make figures of elly of ad sonts, to amuse his grandson, who soon hearned to imitate them; but he endued them with tife. bis mother carried hinm one day to a place fall of serpents, telling him, "go and play with thiom; they are your relations:" the child went and played with them, without fear, and without reociving the least ingury. These two particalais ane never omitted by the narrators.

About that time Vicrama'mitya, the Emperor of India, was made very uneasy, by gemeral numours that the old prophecies were accomplished in the person of a child born of a virgin, and who would conquer India, and all the world. He sent emissaries every where to inquire into the truth of this extraordinary event, and find out this heayen-bom child. They sooh returned, and informed him, that it was but too true, and that the child was then in lis. fifth year. Vichama'ditya immediately raised a large army in order to destroy the child, and his adherenta, in case he should have any., He advanced with all pessible speed, and found the child surrounded with innumerable figures of soldiers, harses, and el'phants. These the child endued with life, and attacked Vncramaditya, who was defeated, and left on the field of battle, mortally wounded by the hand of young 'Sa'liva'hana.* The dying monarch only begged of his conqueror, that he would allow his own period to be equally eurrent all over India with his. This the cliild granted, and then cut off

[^13]his head, which he flung into the middle of the city of Ujjayini, though at an immense distance. In the mean time Vichama'ditya's army fell back toward $U_{j j a y i n i ;}$ pursued by 'Sa'liva'hana's forces, and in their way crossed the Narmadá. There the army of 'Sa'liva'hana, consisting of soldiers of mere clay, was suddenly dissolved, and disappeared in the waters of the river. After this, we hear no more of Sa'livaibana, except that he disappeared in the 79th year of the Christian Era, which is the first of his period. His name is not even mentioned in the lists, either of the Emperors of India, or of the Kings of Uijain. Immediately after the death of Vicrama'ditya, his wife was delivered of a son, whom they wanted to crown Emperor of India, in the same manner as if 'Sa'liva'hana had never existed: but, being a posthumous child, he could not succeed to the empire; he was, however, perfectly eligible to the throne of the kingdom of Mallava; and was of course immediately crowned at $U_{j j a i n}$.

This took place, according to the Cumáricáchand'a, in the first year of the Christian Era, when 'Sa'liva'hana was in his fifth year; and it. is remarkable, that our Saviour was equally in his fifth year at that time. The principal circumstances of this legend are taken from the Apocryphal Gospel of the infancy of Jesus, written in Greek in the third century ; of which an Arabic translation, made at a very early period, is still extant. Henry Syee has given a translation of it in Latin, with some fragments still remaining of the Greek original. In these fragments it is declared, that the infant Jesus, when five years of age, amused himself with making figures of clay, which he endued with life. This idle story is mentioned also in the Korán, and is well
known to Muselmans. This remarkable coincidence of historical facts, legendary tales, and also of times, in my humble opinion, cannot be merely accidental.

Those, who acknowledge, that there are four $V_{1}$ chamas, always consider Sa'liva'hana as one of them, and assert that he had of course a famous bard at his court called Calion'sa. Thus, when called Vicrama'ditya, he always appears alone as King of Pratishtana, and as such he is represented in the appendix to the Agni-purán'a. This is the famous King of Pratish'tana, with the title of Tri-Vrcaama, or with the triple energy, as we have seen before: but his real name was $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{I}}$-Sama-Sila, or simply Sama-Sila. As Pratishtana is acknowledged to belong exclusively to 'Sa'liva'hana, as Ujjayini' does to Vicramíditya, whatever King, called Vicrama, or Vicramaditya, is represented as sovereign of Pratishtana, the same is 'Sa'liva'hana: and, when we find a Vicrama'ditya said to have lived or reigned eighty-four years; him we must conclude to be 'Saliva'hana, according to the learned Pandits, and astronomers, who gave me this information.

There was a King at that time called Vicramamitra, the seventeenth from Chandragupta, according to the Bhágavat, Brahmán'da, Váyu and VishnuPurán'as; and Vicramamitra or Vicramitra, as it is erroneously spelt, is synonymous with Vicramáditya or Vicbamarca; and that Vicramamitra was intended for Vicramáditya, by the compilers of the Purin'as, admits of no doubt, for they say, that his father was Grosha-raja, who was the same with Gandharupa, as we have seen before.

- Sections on Futurity.
'Sa'miva'hana is coasidered:under three differeat points of view, accorting to the three different objectits and purposes of his mission 5 and, accordiugly the is said to be either an incarnation of Brahma', of 'Siva, or of Visunu. He is' sometimes eonsidered as iconjointly possessing these three powers and he is then said to be Tri-Vicrama.

When the objeet of his mission is declaped to be to destroy the kingdom, and power, of the Daityas or demons, he is then said to be an incarnation of Siva; as in the legends of Sama: Sila King of Pratiskitána.

In consequence of this destruction, a regeneration takes place, as attested in the legends of the good MA ND'avyeh called 'Sulastha, or be who was crucified. Sa'liva'hana is then said to be an incarnation of Braнma': and this is the general opinion of theinhabitants of the Dekhin, according to A. Roosk, and others.

But, when comsidered independently of these two energies, meek and benevolent, doing good to all mankind, he is then Vishnu, and this is the opinion of the 'Sa'inva'nsas in the provinces of Benares and Oude.

Thus we see, that 'Sa'liva'hana goes through the Thimuntri; and when these three energies are considered as united in him, he is then Vr-Sama-.Sila-Tri-Vicrama King of Pratishtána, called also Saileyda'hara, or simply Saileyam, in a derivative. form.

Pratish'ta'na is the usual Sanscrit expression for any consecrated place or spot, and it implies here, the holy and consecrated city, and is synonimous with the

Bet-al-Kaddes, and Bet-al-Makaddes of -the Mussel,
mans.
Saileyard'ha' ${ }^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ another name 'for it, is mentioned in the beginning of the Jyotiroidabharana an. astronomical treatise, in which the author, giving an. account of the six 'Sacas, says that 'Sa'liva'mana, would' appear at 'Saileyard'hárá; or the city firmly. sepped upqn a rock, which compound alludes to the city of SLon, whose foundations are upon the holy hillis, "the city of our God, even upon his holy bill." Saideyam would be a very appropriate name, for it is. also, in. a derivative form from 'Saila, and is really the same with Saileya'd dhard: and the whole is not improbably: borrowed from the Arabic Dár-al-Salam, or Dar-es:Salem, the house of peace, and the name of the; celestial, Jerusalem, in allusion to the Hehreze name of the terrestrial one. The Sanscrit names. of $;$ this city of the King of 'Saileyam, or 'Sälem imply: its being a moat holy place, and consecrated apart and thatit is firmly seated upon a stony hill.

I nientioned, in the preceding essay, that ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{SA}^{\prime} \mathrm{LL}$ va'hana was also called Samudra-pa'la, that is to say, fostered by, or the son of, the ocean. This implies, that either he, or his disciples, came by seaand this notion has a strong resemblance with a passage from thiesecond book of Esdras, in which Christ is represented, as ascending from the sea, firmly sented üpom a rock. This christian ronance is of great antiquity, for it is mentioned by Ireneus, Clemens. af: Alequandria and Tertullian, who considered it as: a. Moqk of some:antiquity, and almost'canonical..

Aut these sacreds and most expressive epithets, the iHixdus, have applied to an ancient, city in India.
now called Pattana, on the banks of the Godfoceri: but with what propriety, will appear hereafter. Be this as it may, whether in India or out of it, there at 'Saileyam, 'Sailiva'hana was to be born, of a virgin, one year and a half old : his father was to be the great Tacshaca or carpenter, and himself was to live in the humble cottage of a pot-maker. This legend is somewhat differently told by others, as we have seen in our account of Vicrama'ditya. His mother was a married woman; but her husband, a Bráhmen, died, whilst she was still very young. She conceived by the great Tacshaca, carpenter or artist, and when her pregnancy became obvious, her two brothers, ashamed of her seemingly unwarrantable behaviour, left Pratishtána, and the unfortunate young woman, thus unprotected, found an asylum in the humble cottage of a pot-maker: and, in the $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{I}}$ -crama-charitra, she is said to be his daughter; whilst according to another legend, Siva was-incarnated in the womb of the wife of King Sura-Mahendrádi-tya-Bhu'-pati, and there was born, under the name of Sama-Sila-Tri-Vicrama, or with the triple energy.

It is declared in the Vicrama-charitra, that the birth of this divine child, from a virgin, had been foretold one thousand years before it happened, nay some say two thousand. That a Saviour was expected with a regeneration of the universe, all oves the more civilised parts of world, in consequence of certain old prophecies, cannot be denied, at least in my humble opinion. It was firmly believed in the west: it was so in the east; and in the intermediate countries among the Hebrews, it was a fundamental tenet of their religion. Whether this notion was borrowed from the Jews or not, is immaterial to
the present subject. It is by no means necessary to have recourse to this expedient, in order to account for this once prevailing opinion, and I am rather inclined to think, that this was not the case.

The time of his birth is thus ascertained from the Cumárica-c'harida, a section of the Scanda-purâna,* in which we read, Tatah trishu sahasreshu s'ate chdpyadhicéshiu cha; 'SACA nama bhavishyas'cha ybtiddfidra háraca. "When three thousand and one hun* dred years of the Cáli-yuga are elapsed, then SACA will appear and remove wreatchedness and misery from the world." But it is necessary to observe here, that this is the first year of his reign, and that it has nothing to do with the first of his era. In the same manner, the author of that section says, that the first year of Vicramáditya's reign answered to the 9021 of the Caliyuga, which date is equally unconnected with the first year of his era. In the appendix to the Agni-puran'a, we find that 'Sa'liva'hana began his seign 312 years after the death of Cha'nacya; and Chaindragupta, which places it also in the first'year of our era. It is remarkable however; that in the appendix to the Agni-purdin'a, and the copy from it in the Ayin-Acberi, the years are computed, or reckoned, from the first of 'SA'LI-
 but not from, the first of the former's era.

Sasiváhana died in the year of our era 79, and he lived eighty-four years. According to the Vr-crama-charitan, he was in the fifth year of his age, when he manifested himself to the world, and

[^14]defeated. Viera.m.áditya. This places his manifess tation in the first of the Christian Rra, when Christ was also in his fifth year and in the latter end of it, for he was really bom four years before the beginning, of uur era.

This places, also, the accomplishment of the old prophecies, Vicrama'ditys.s inquiries after this diwine child, born of a virgin, exactly in the first year of our era. For, a thousand years before that event; the goddess. C'axi had foretorel him, that he would reign, or rather his posterity, according to several learned commentators: in the Dehhin, as mentiomed by: Major Mackenzie, till a divine child, born: of a virgin, should put an end, both to his life and kingdom; or to his dynasty, nearly in the same words of Jaco ${ }^{*}$ foretelling to Judah, that the sceptre should not depart from him, or his Dynasty, until Shiloh came, 'Sa'liva'hana or King'Sa'la.

As to his character, it is declared in the Cumáricáchan'da; as we have seen before, that he would come. for the purpose of removing wretchedness, and misory, from the world:

In the appendis to the Agni-purana, it is declared thatin the holy and consecrated city of Pratishtána, firmly seated upon a rock, called Saileya-dhdrar or 'Saileyam, through the mercy of 'Siva, would appear Sasiva hana, great and inighty, the-spirit of righteonsness and justice, whose words would be truth it-: self, free from spite and envy, and whose empire would exextend all over the world (or in other words, that the

[^15]people would be gathered unto him) the conveyor of souls to places of eternal bliss.. On account of this benevolent disposition, he is compared in the Vanstuali to Dhananjaya or Arjujuna, whose character is so well delineated in the inscription on a pillar at Buddal. He did not exult over the ignorant and ill favoured: he neither vainly accepted adulation, nor uttered honey words, and was the wouder of all good men. His wonderful equanimity on all occasions, and with regard to every one, of whatever rank in life, and whatever might be their natural faculties, and mental dispositions, are implied by the epithet of $V_{1-S a m a-S i l a ~ b e s t o w e d ~ u p o n ~ h i m . ~}^{\text {- }}$

His conception was miraculous, and in the womb of a virgin : he was the son of the great artist, and the virtue of his mother was at first suspected: but choirs of angels came down to worship her. His birth was equally wonderful : choirs of angels with the celestial minstrelsy attended on the occasion showers of flowers fell from on high. The King of the country, hearing of these prodigies, was alarmed, and sought in vain to destroy him. He is made absolute master of the three worlds, heaten, earth and hell: good and bad spirits acknowledge him for their lord and master. He used to play with snakes, and tread upon the adder, without receiving the least injury from them: he soon surpassed his teachers; and, when five years of years of age, he stood before a most respectable assembly of the doctors of the land, and explained several difficult cases, to their admiration, and utmost astonishment; and his words were like ambrosia.

In the copies of the Vanstrali, current through E
the reestern parts of India, he is constantly called Sa-mubra-pa'LA; because either he, or some of his disciples, came by sea; and he is of course the same with the Mlich hadoatara, or incarnation of thie deity artrong foreign tribes, mentioned in several astronomical tracts; and he is mentioned, in that character. in the section erroneously attributed to the Bhavishya. There he is declared to be Ru'mades's's'dhi-patt-Saces'wara, the lord and master of the empire of Rome; and the author of the sacred period current through that vast empire; and which, according to the appendix to the $\operatorname{Agni-purdn'a}$, began to prevail over that of Vicrama'ditya in the year 676 of our era. We have seen before, that he was born for the purpose of removing misery from the world, and to check the power of the demons; and, at the earnest intreaties of the subaltern deities on earth, and all good men, who were groaning under their tyranny, Siva comforted them, and assured them, that after a certain time, he would be incarnated in the character of $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{Sama}_{\mathrm{an}}-\mathrm{Sila}_{\mathrm{La}}$, with the title of TríViceama, or with the triple energy.

The occasion of his being born, is declared also in the Vrǐhät-cat'háa. The gods, being vexed by the wicked, went to Mahaideiti, and said, "ybu and Vishnu, hadue destroyed the Asuras or Denionk, bat they are born again as Mlechihas, who constantly. vex us and the Bráhmens. They will not allow sacrifices to be performed, but destroy the implements and holy utensils: they even carry away the daughters of the Minis:" Maria'-de'va promised: relief, and caused one of his forms, of emanations, called Ma'tyafána, to be incarnated, saying to him, "go and destroy the wicked: anl the world
will submit to thy power, as well as good and wicked. spirits." Then Manáde'va appeared to the father, informing him, that his wife would conceive, and the fruit of her womb be an incarnation of the deity: and he, directed that his name should be Vicrama. When his mother had conceived, she became resplendent like the morning sun; and this resplendence answers to the Núr of the Muselmans, from which Issa proceeded. Immediately all the heavenly. spirits came down to bow to her, and worship her. When the child was bnrn, the celestial music was. heard, and a shower of flowers took place. The high. priest, whe was childless, obtained also a son, as well. as the prime minister.
 general asserted, that his mother being found with child, her character suffered so much, that her two brothers, through shame, left their native country:

In the present legend, Sa'liya'hana, y y $^{\prime}$ yder the name of Vi-Sama-Sila with the triple energy, is represented as the son of a King, and as residing at Pratisht'ana, the consecrated city, or 'Saileyam. We are then informed, that young VI-Sama-Sila made a surprising progress in learning, and soon surpassed his teachers. His father then resigned the kingdom to him, and Sama-Sila became king of heaven, carth and hell: all spirits, good and bad, obeyed his ofders; : bis resplefidence; was like that of the sun, and his fame reached the White Island in the White Sear, The scene is then transferred to Ujjain, where he appears like Vicramáditya: then follows a minute account of his words; but even then, there is E 9
no mention made of his wars with Sa'liva'fan a, for a very obvious reason, though in the latter part the story is somewhat misrepresented.

Let us now consider Sama-Sila or Sa'la-va'hat $^{\prime}$ NA, an incarnation of the great Tacshaca, in the humble cottage of a pot-maker in the skirts of Saileyam, or the consecrated city, as related above.*

Though without teachers in that humble station, he surpassed all the learned in knowledge, and wisdom ; and I have already mentioned the famous will, which puzzled all the princes and learned men of the country, till a solution of the mystery was given by Sa'liva'hana, who was then in the fifth year of his age. $\dagger$

There is a curious account of 'Sa'liva'hana, and of his crucifixion, in the Rája Tarangin", or history of Casmir. There we read, that 145 years after the accession of Vicramáditya to the throne, there appeared King 'Aryya, who was before prime minister of King Jaya-Indra, and whose name signifies the lord of victory, or of victorious hosts. It was decreed, that he should be wretched, and persecuted all his life time, and ultimately that he should die upon a cross; that he would be brought to life again, through the assistance of a Phari-Canyd, or damsel of the Serpentine tribe; and then would become a great and powerful monarch. The King, having been circumvented by his enemies, threw into a loathsome dun-

[^16]geon SANDHI-math, for such was the name of his prime minister. But his enemies were not satisfied, and they informed the King, that Sarasva'ti, divime wisdom, or collectively those endued with divine knowledge, had declated that he would be a King. Jaya-Indra, called Chandra in the Ayin-Acberi, ordered him immediately to be crucified. There he remained, till his flesh dropped off, or was torn off by wild beasts. A certain holy man happened to pass by, and reading his destiny in the Brahmanida, or in his scull, immediately resolved to bring him to life again. For this purpose he performed the $p a j a$, and after the usual ceremonies and invocations, he rung the bel, and was surrounded by a fiery meteon, which announced the presence : of the Yoginis, of forms of De'ví: : Then, arming himself with a seit mitar, as usual on such appearances, he went to the forest, where the prime minister hung upon the cross. He was immediately surrounded by Yoginfs, one of whom, the Phant-camya I mentioned hefore; arranged the bones together, and Sandhi-mats stoad upon his legs. The King, hearing of this, went to the forest, when all the Ybginis disappeared: 1his resurrection of Sandhi-matt toak place in $M u$ mitpurai, or the city of holy cantemplators. He then asconded, the threne, and, on account of his transpeq:dent vistues, was called 'Abyia-Ra'ja, or the good King:

The author gives us then an account of his excellencies, and of his worth; and informs us that he was a servant and favourite of Mahia'déva. The ways of the supreme being, says he, are wonderful; and truly pass all understanding and belief; yet there are similar instances recorded of old, such as in the

E 3
case of $P$ encicshita, *o.* The difference between the two eras of Viceama'titya and 'Saliva'hana; is made here to be 145 years, according to the computation used all over the Dekkin: for in the northern parts of India, they reckon only 185.

King'Aryya is the stume with the Pra-Aryyasira of the followers of Gautama in Siam, and other countries to the eastward of it. This signifies the mighty and venerable' Sire, or chief of the Aky*as or Christians! and with him Butib'ha waged wat, as well as with his disciple Phasiwana, thus catled because he loudly preached against the doctribe of Budd'ha. The 'Aryya-Ra'yn is also the same with Déva-Twashta' or De'va-Ta't, who was ctucified by order of Budd'ha. King 'Aryya was Hucceded in the throne by G6pA'DITYA, the grandson of king: Yuditshthira, the immediate predecessor of Pretápa'ditya, who brought Vicramaiditya from distant regions to Cas'mir, and made him King of that cointry. Pretaipaiditya, and Vicramá dipya are epithets synonymous, or very nearly 80 .

- MMany-peaned Hindus, for several centuries past, conceive that the eldest Vicramáditya was far from being contemporay with 'Sa'liva'hana; and of course conchude, that he is not the famous Sacadowishi or 'SACA'RI', that is to say the enemy of 'SA'LIva'hana; and consequently they suppose, that SaCA'ri must have been the epithet of some more modern Vicramáditya. This notion is countenanced certainly in several of the lists, which I have produced; and the author of the Raja-Tarangin'z ac-

[^17]knowledges, that it wan the opinion of many; apd though he does not countenapee it, shews plainly, that in his time it wan by no means a new idea: The cosspiler of the Vandarali seems willing to adopt it, when he says that many deapned men reject the whole, as altogether fabulous, and unwarrantable. Their reason, I am told is, that 'Saca is the Mle'cu'ma $A^{\prime} V A A^{\prime} A_{0}$ who did not appear, or tather whose period was not known in India, till about 1200 years ago. In eopformity to this idea, in the section'attributed to the Bhevishya-Punéria; 'Snca, is declared to be the lord and master of Rome, which is to be taken in a spiritual, sense : and in the Agmi-purai'ta, the iatroduction of his period into India is made to correspond with the year 676 of Chriss.
$\therefore$ This MLech'kduatára, or incarnation of the deity among foreign tribes, is poculiarly noticed in the Romaca-Siddhanta, an astronomical treatise, according to the system of the Romacas, or Romains, called Romajoii (Papeunoi) by the Greeks. This treatise is said to be very voluminous, and is so scarce, that I have not been able to procure it; and I believe it is mot to be found at Benares. This deficiency I have heen able ta supply from the Súryarunianequmoda, the Sidd'kántg-Raga, qna, the Súrya-Sidd'kanta. The sun, having been appointed by Brahmad, to be the eye witness of all tramsactions. in this world, and to regulate the hopars and time, refused to obey, and withdrew into, the rdesert, to perform, tapasya, in onder to be xeunited to the Supreme Being. In consequonce of this nefusal, he was cursed by Puru'hu'ta, or Indra, and Kıanoнi, or Banamá. In the Surya-Siddhan-

[^18]$$
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$t a_{3}$; it is saird, that MAyA, the chief engineer of the Daityas, and the son of 'Twash'ta', made tapasya in honour of the sun, in order to obtain astronomical knowledge; the sun appeared to him, and said, "I know the rectitude of thy heart, and I ann much pleased with thy tapasya. I shall therefore impart unto thee the doctrine of Time, and of the revolutions of the planets. But as no body can bear my refulgence, and as it is not in my power to stop my course, for a single moment (for this reason go back to thy own pouri, town, or place of abode, and there'I shall impart unto thee knowledge, in the town of Romaca, where I shall become the Mle'ch'ha'vata'ria, through the curse of Brahma'). This form of mine, liere present, will teach thee every thing?: then the sun, having directed this new form to teach him, disappeared; and Mara.bowed himself to the ground before this emanation.

The sloca between the two brackets is not found in general in the copies of the Súrya-siddhanta; yet. without it there seems to be something wanting: but whether an interpolation of not, its purport is established in the following astronomical treatises. In the beginning of the Sidd'شanta-Rája; the author says, from history (Itihtisa). I know, that BHa's-cara-Su'rta became a Romaca, through the curse of Puro'hu'ta and Virancif. He became a Yerana in Romaca-pattana; and in the gerb and countenance of a Rbìaca, he composed:a most complete treatise on astronomy.:

In the beginning of the skryárun'a-samodada, the sun is introduced, saying; "I gave the Rbmaca-Sidd'hanta to Romact, whilst living among the Yavanas, in consequence of Brawma"s curse. Rómaca taught
it Romacónagare in the towi of Rome, for he dwelt among the Mléch'has in consequence of that carse; ${ }^{\text {p }}$ Romaca-purs is the town of Rome in.the voest. "Then," says $A v$ unda, " how came you to assume the countenance of a Mlech'ha in the west, in a land of umrighteousness." "Brahma' cursed me," answered the sun, " and said be thou born in the west, in Romacapura, and of the Mlech'has, who are ignorant of the Vedas, of the Yajna, or of the proper mode of perform ing sacrifices, Carma, religious rites and discipline; who have rejected sarvadharma, all religious duties, are dushita, inclined to evil, nástica, heretics; and who (the Romans) are a Yavana tribe, guilty of every sort of uncleanliness. Thus, in that shape, I taught them astronomy."

This Mexich'ha'vatára, or superior incarnation* of the deity among foreign tribes, Ruma-drisa-pati the lord of the country or empirc of Roum, or Rame, (because his doctrine, institutes, and laws prevail through it; ) Rbnaca-nagare, said to reside in Rome its metropotis, (because he is recoered and worshipped thereiroith unusual magnificence;) 'Saces'wara the lord of a sacred period, (opeas I think it should be understrood, after whom it is denominated;') is obviously Jesus Christ; at least it appears so.to me. From his being a 'Saces', zoasc, the Himdes suppose him also to be a great astronomer. In the Wärya-Siddhdinta, he is repeatedly called 'Smi-Su'rya'tian, or the blessed Su'bya'nsa; he is also styled Rgmaca-Avatara, or simply Romaca. In consequence of this, 'Sa'liva'hana is considered all over India as a great astronomer, or as a prince remarkgbly fond of astronomy. $\dagger$

[^19]$\$ 8$ ORIGIN AND DECLINE OF THE
Various are the opinions about Sa'livaihana $:$ in general it is believeds that he did not die, but was translated to heaven, being a SACA; after having retired, for many years, into the desert, to give himself up to heavenly contemplation.

I have mentioned, that the Hindus represented 'Sa'liv's'hana in his fifth year, exactly like our Saviour in the first year of the Christian Era: it was not in consequence of deep chronological investigations, that they seemingly attempted to correct the mistake of Dionysius Exiguus, or the little; but because it was so in the Apocryphal Gospel of the infancy of Jesus, or rather because it was the general opinion in the east, that Jesus manifested himself to the world at that age. Sa'liva'hana did not marry, nor thad he any offspring: for even in India, he is looked upon as a mysterious, and supernatural being, and called an Utpata, or prodigy.

I have thus arranged and brought together all the information I could procure, concerning 'Sa'iva'hana, under that name, or any of his well known titles, and as King of Pratishtâna: for 'Sa'liva'bana and that holy city ane intimatelyr related; to each other, and cannot be separated. Yat:we: find 'Sayva'mana sometimes leaving Pratiahitána, gad gaing
 tya; as in the legends relating to him, zunder the names. of Vi-Sama-Sila, and Dhananjayan!: It,ig nearly the same with. Vicrama' 1 ity y, wowbose hiotory is equally connected with Ujjuhán, or Ujjagyini,s I mean the real one,-for there were soyeral of them.
:- There rare many othei legends, concerning a certain holy man, who seems to be ineant for 'SA'iva:hana; but as the application is not so obvious, they will be iniserted in a distinct place by themselves.

The followers of Budd'ha and Jina, as well as the followers of Brahma', claim 'Sa'liva'hana as their own:; and in the Calpa-sutra-Calicá, 'Sa'liva'hana, 2s his name is generally written, is said to be a form of I 1 Na , with the title of 'Sa'baca-pati, or 'Sra'ba-ca-pati. The followers of Gautama, the BbdhiStoata in Siam, and the Burman Empire, called him Deva-Tat, which is a cortuption from Deva-Tasht'a $^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ or Déva-Twashy'a', the divine artist, or Tacshaca : and that it is so, is asserted from the Buddhacharitra in my possession, wherein he is called Vis'vacarma. They say, thas he was a collateral form, or the brother of Budd'нa, and they are fully persuaded, that he is the same with Christ. Their being made contemporaries, shews that through this whole romance, there is an obvious allusion to the wars and feuds between their followers in subsequent ages.

This singular mode of treating historical events, is not peculiar to the Hindus; for the Greeks seldom distinguished between the tutelar deities, and their disciples, associates or followers, who were called by their titkes. These tutelar deities were supposed to lead their armies in an invisible manner, thourgh they sometimes appeared, and victory was always aseribed to them. Thus the wars of the Muhamedans with the Spaniards, might be ascribed to Muhamed, and St. Jago the champion of Spain, who led constantly her armies, and destroyed very many Moors: hence he
is called St. Jago Mata: Moros. Diodorus, the Sicilian, says the same of Alexander the son of Jupiter ;.; and, though dead, he was supposed to be at the head of the armies, and to regulate the conduct of their chiefs, and thus every victory was ascribed to him.

In many parts of the Peninsula, Christians are called, and considered, as followers of Buddia ; and their divine legislator, whom they confound with the apostle of India, is declared to be a'form of BuDd'на, both by the followers of 'Brimma', and those of Jina : and the information I had received on that subject, is confirmed by F. Paulino. ${ }^{\prime \prime}$

Some legendary tales, obviously relating to the death of our Saviour, have found also their way into the Peninsula. There was a certain Peishe-cára Brahmen (for thus the Christians were called, and Curist in the Apocryphal Gospels, and by the Manicheans was considered as a Peishé-car Brähmen, an artist, manufacturer, or carpenter;) who came to a certain place, and there loudly proclaimed, that all persons in distress should come to him ; and that he would take them under his protection, and EVEN LAY down his life for them. He was then sitting like a Muni, or contemplator; and many came to him: among them was a thief, who had robbed the King's palace to a considerable amount. The officers of justice soon arrived in pursuit or him, but the holy man would not deliver him up, saying, that he was.

[^20]ready to die in his place; and in that of all those who claimed his protection. The King ordered, that the holy man should suffer immediate death, upon a -Sula or Suli, which means a stake, either one for empaling, or a gibbet, or cross. Crucifixion being unknown to the Hindus, they of course, have no name for it: and 'Sula or Suli, originally a stake, signifies also a gibbet, or the cross; exactly like Stauros in Greek. It is so even in the Persian language; and so it was among the Romans, according to Seneca;** crucifixion signified both empaling and extending the arms upon a cross bar; for these two modes of punishment were equally in use among them: a circumstance very little known.

Then the holy man was stretched upon the Sula, amidst the lamentations of the surrounding multitude, to whom he observed, that he came for that purpose, (to atone with his life for the sins of others). The Sula was suddenly changed into a Sala, or tree loaded with flowers; a pushpa-carsha took place, as usual on such occasions; that is to say, it rained flowers from on high; a celestial car, with divine choristers, came down to translate into heaven the holy man. who, taking the thief by the hand, said, "thou shalt also be with me in Cailása or paradise." Thus they went to Cailasa in the presence of an immense crowd, 'who' with uplifted hands, loud huzzas and tears of joy, testified their satisfaction, at the stidden change. The Muselmans, and the Manicheans, with many other sectaries, will not allow that Christ was really crucified. Some say, that it was a mere illusion; others allege, that he

- Sanaca de Corsol. ad Marcium, p. c. 20.
disappeared, and went to heaven. The Manicheans, Who spread their errors at a very early period; not only in the northern parts of Iudia, but also in the Peninsuba, always represented Chнrst crucified upon a tree, among its foliage and flowers. Though this legend is not applied to 'Sa'li-va'han, or 'Sa'la-vaHAN; as it is pronounced in the Dekhin; yet, when the good Peishé-car Bráhmen was stretched upon the Sula or Suli, he was really 'Suli-váhana, or cross borne: and when the 'Sula was changed into a 'Sála or tree, he was certainly 'Sála-oâhan, or Sali-oáhan, he was exalted, or borne upon the tree. Though the punishment of the cross be unknown to the Hindus, yet the followers of Budd'ha have some knowledge: of it, when they represent De'va-Tat, crucified by. order of Budd'ha upon an instrument somewhat resembling a cross, according to the account of several travellers to Siam, and other countries.

We read in Sanscrit lexicons, that 'Sa'liva'han was also called Ha'la a plough : it should be Ha'la-va'hana, or in composition, Haill-va'hana; he who was borne, or crucified upon a plough. The old Indian plough had originally the shape of the letter Y, like the old Latian Furca, or bifurcated stump of a tree. To one branch the plough-share was. fixed; and the other branch served as a handle. In the statues of Visanu, and Bala-ra'ma, the plough in their hands is represented nearly in that manner; and, from that circumstance, Bala-raima is called also Ha'la, and Ha'li, or he with the plough.

The legend of the good Peisht-car Bráhmen, is found in Major Mackenzie's historical sketches of the ancient kings of W . arang ola, otherwise $I$ should
not have presumed to insert it here. It is inter: woven with the history of the first Kings, of that country, and of course the compilers by no means entertained an idea, that it was anterior to the Chris, tian Era.

As I was mentioning this traditionary legend to some learned Paxdits, they informed me, that the same; or one at least very much like it, was to be found in the Mahd-Bhárata, the Sahybdri-c'handa a section of the Scanda-parania, and in the Bhágerata also. I produced the books, and they pointed outh the respective pages immediately. I read the whole, and found it illustrated with circumstances of a most extraordinary nature.

In the Bhhagacata, and its commentary, this legend is only alluded to. In the Mahd-Bharata there is a short account of the transaction; but in the Sahyiddric'handa the legend is drawn to a very great length,* and the principal features, and circumstances in these legends, which in reality are but one, are the following:

There appeared, in the Dekhin, a most holy Brathmen, of those called Peishé-caras, Tacshacas, Sabacas, or handicraftmen, and whose name was MAND'Avyai. He ptoclaimed, that he came for the sole purpose of relieving the distressed; and that whatever men claimed his protection, he would readily grant it to them, and even lay down his own life for them. Very many of all descriptions came accord-

[^21]ingly; and among them a thief, who being pursued by the officers of justice, claimed his protection, which he readily granted, and was really crucified in his room. He then ascended into heaven, and took the thief along with him.

This circumstance is otherwise related in the above Purdrias. A numerous banditti had taken shelter near the holy man, thinking themselves safe: but the officers of justice arriving, they were seized, and immediately crucified. The holy man was supposed to be a thief, numbered among them, and crucified also. He did not open his mouth, but remained absorbed in holy contemplation, inwardly repeating sacred names, with his arms extended, and uplifted.

Whilst on the cross, all the Ryshis crowded from all parts of the worid, in the shape of birds, to see him, and comfort him. A certain thief, who was also covered with leprosy, and, in consequence of it, deprived of the use of his limbs; was accidentally dropped at the foot of the cross; wrapped up like a child in his swaddling clothes. The man, after remaining there some time, was perfectly cured; and, being irradiated, repented, lived to a good old age, and obtained eternal bliss.: A thick darkness overspread the face of the world; and the animated creation was in the utmost distress, and consternation. The holy man, being afterwards taken down from the cross, descendedin to hell, and there emcountered, and overcame, death, or Yama. Then a general renovation of the world took place, under the inspection of Brahma. The holy man, from his having been crucified, was ever since called Sulastha, or the cross-borne, which is synonymous with
'Saliva'hana. If we prefix ta this abstract the legends concernipg the infancy of 'Sa'liva'hana, and the eqa of his manifestation, we shall have the principal circumstances of the life of our Saviour, either from the true Gospels, or from the Apocryphal Qness.

There are two singular circumstances in these legends: the first is that it was decreed, that the iron should pierce the body of Mandiavyif as well as that of Crish Ní, because loth were accursed, though guiltless. The second is, that neither Crishna nor Mandayyah died, the first in conséquence of his wound, nor the second after being crucified; and both are represented as contemporaries.

The Christian sectaries in the first ages, and Muhamed, himself with the Musleman's to this day, highly reprobated the idea of Cririst dying upon the cross, and even considered it almbst a blasphemy. Crishna, though guiltless, was involved in the general curse denounced against his whole tribe, by which all the Yadus were doomed to be pierced with iron, and to die. Neither Crishna nor MandavYAB could die; but they were to be brought, as near as possible, to the point of death, that the words of the Muni should not be done away. Besides, Yama, as King of death, has a claim upon every individual, and with regard to some exalted characters, he must be satisfied, and a compromise must take place. But another difficulty arises; Yama cannot condemn a man to die, without some reason; it would be unjust in him, who is also King of justice. All incarnations of the deity, however dignified and exalted, such as that of Cryshns, which is considered as the first in rank, and the most perfect of all; all
manifestations of the deity, I say, on becoming Hesh are more or less subjected to the infirmities, and even the weikness of human nature, being certainly involved, in some measwe, in the gloom of máya, or worldity illusion.' In this case, Yama is always sure to find some taint of negative guilt, in conseyuence of which he can at least bring them to death's door: and it was found that Mandavivit, in his infancy, had destroyed'a feeble and innocent insect ${ }^{5}$ by piercing him either with a needle or with a blade of grass. This fatal needile was the only thing that Christ ever possessed in this world; yet, however insignuficant in itself, it was ceertainly a worldly impleinent, and it prevented his admission inito heaven, according to Muselmans in India; neither win he ever be admitted till after his secoud manifestation, at the end of the world. Others say;, that he was admitted into the fourth only, instead of the highest heaven, on that account.'
We read in the Mahá-Bhárata, that there was a most holy and pious Bráhmen called Mandiayyab, who was making tapasya with his arms uplifted, absorbed in holy contemplation. Some loptras, ifters or thieces, placed themselves near him, with their stolen goods, thinking to be safe; but the King of that place, who was in pursuit of them, ordered them to be crucified, and as the holy man gave no answei, he was numbered among them, and crucified with the rest. In the night-time, all the Rishis, hearing of his misfortune, flocked from all quarters, in the shape of birds, to comfort him. In the mean time -the thieves died on the cross; but the holy man remained meditating, without uttering a word, with his ärms uplifted. The King hearing this, immediately sáw tḥat Mand'vyan was a Rishiz, and hastened
to take him down from the cross, and then falling at his feet, humbly begged his forgiveness. Immediately the Rüshi descencled into hell, and asked the King of death, and of justice, how he could allow him to be crucified, as he was guiltless. Yama answered, that in his infancy he had pierced an innocent insect with a blacle of grass. The Rïshi said, that at that age be could not incur guilt of any kind, and of course drove him out of the infernal kingdom; and willed, that he should be born of the womb of a woman of the Sudra tribe. This was effected, in the house of Vichitravirya, who was dead; but Dwaipáyana, or Vyasa, raised seed to hime, through his wife and a handnaid. Yama was born of the latter under the name of Vidu'ra, and remained on earth 100 years, during which the government of the infernal regions was committed to Aryama,', according to the Bhágavata. In the Sahyádrịic'kand'a, wee have a most prolix account of this momentous event, which I shall give in $a b$. stract.,

[^22]was, from that time, surnamed Sulastha; or the crossborne.
$\because$ There lived in the adjacent village a most virtuous and faithful wife, who was married to a thief, and a debauchee, whose whole body was covered with leprosy ; some of his limbs had dropped, and others wère deprived of motion. He was very fond of gambling and his faithful wife used to carry him, wrapped up like a child in swaddling clothes, to a gambling house; where he spent a great part of the night, when she carried him back in the same manner. It was midnight, and the night very dark, she passed near the cross, and stumbling against it, she shook it violently, and let her husband fall at the fogt of it. The holy man being put to great' pain, said to lrer, at the rising of the sun, thy husband shall die. Such are the powers of a virtuous and faithful wife, that she forbade the sun to rise.. A thick darkness covered the face of the world, and lasted 10,000 years, during which the gods and the created beings were in the utmost distress and consternatipu.

〔All the gods, with Siva aiid Bramma, went to Vishnu the preserver, who resides on the northern shores of the White Sea, that is to say, in the sacred isles in the west. Vishivo was very much embarrassed; as he did not wish to reverse the decrees of either of two such exalted characters.' After' some consideration, he said to the gods, "Avasu'y $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$; the wife of Atri, is most virtuous and faithful; go to her, and prevail upon her to go and speak to the wife of the thief, when they will together come to some arrangement." Anasu'ya' consented, and after having discussed the matter with her, every thing was
settled. In her character of a virtupus and faithful wife, she ordered that the husband should live; and Gun'avati, the thief's wife, ordered the sun to rise. Still it was necessary to satisfy the holy Mand'avyah, whose words could not be done away. They. agreed, that in future all married women, when it is dark, or night, should remain as in a state of widowhood, taking off their nuptial dress and ornarhents, The benevolent Mandiavyah was easily pacified, the sun rose as usual, darkness was dispelled; the holy man, who had remained all the while absorbed in contemplation, with his arms uplifted, descended from the cross; the leper, at the foot of it, was cured of his disease, lived to a good old age, and obtained eternal bliss; and the two virtuous and faithful wives were crowned with honor and glory. The air was filled with numberless choirs of celestial minstrels, singing heavenly strains, and the whole concluded with a shower of flowers from on high. In the mean time, the animated beings had all perished; and Brammá was directed to proceed immediately to a new creation, and a genetal renovation of the world took place.
II. Christianity certainly had made a great progress in the Peninsula, even at a very early period. The venerable Pan tenus of Alerandria visited India, about the year 189, and there found Christiuns, who had a copy of the Gospel of St. Matthew in Hebrece, which he carried to Alexandria, where it existed in the tifie of Jeroate. Frumentius, the Apostle of Abyssinia, who had resided a long time in India, and spoke the language remarkably well, preached the Gospel in the southern parts, where he had great influence, and was highly respected, having been for many years prime minister, and reger ${ }^{+}$of one
of the Kings, during his minority: There he converted many Hindus, and built many churches, and then went to Abyssinia. He came to India with his brother Adesius, along with their paternal uncle, a native of Tyre, who was a Christian, and a very learned man. . He-travelled into the interior parts of India as a philosopher, and having satisfied his curiosity, he re-embarked on his way back with his two nephews; but, happening to put into a certain harbour; in order to get -a supply of water, they were, at their landing; suđdenly attacked by the natives. Many perished, and the rest were carried into captivity. Among the former was the uncle; but his two nephews-were presented to the King, who took particular notice of them, and they were afterward raised by him to the first dignities of the state. They obtained leave to revisit their mative country, wher Frumentius was ordained a bishop, and in that character went back to India. At the council of Nice, in the year 325, the Primate of India was present, and subscribed his rame. In the year following, Frumentius was consécrated Primate of India, by Athanasius, at Alexandpia. "He resided in the Peninsala, and the Christians there had always a bishop, 'called the Primate of India. The Christian religion made also some progress in the north of India: Musseus, bishop of Aduli, on the Abyssinian shores, visited the northern parts of India in the latter end of the fourth century, in campany with the famous Paliadius, a Gooh from Galitia. When they arrived on the borders of $I n$ dia, they were both disgusted with the climate. Palladius went back, but Museus proceeded' to the lesser Boc'hara; where, it seems, he was more successful. Yet there was at Sirlind, or Serinda, a seminary for Christians, in the sixth century: for, in
the year 686, two Monks, who had long resided there, returned to their native country; and being at Canstantinople, the Emperor Jusqiniamr. sent for them, to inquire into the nature and origin of silk, and he prevailed upon them to go back to Sirhind, in-order to bring from thence the eggs of the real silk butterfly.
$\therefore$ Theophilue, the famous Arian bishop, *' was a native of Divus, now Diu in Gujrat; and, as he was remarkably black, he was simamed the Blacka: moor. His Hindu name was probably Deo-pa'f, perfectly symonymous with Theophifus in Greeh. He flourished in the times of the great Constantine, and of his sons; and he had been sent to Constantinople with others as hostages. From this circmastance it appears, that the inhabitants of Gujrát; who have been always famnus as pirates, had ill used the Roman traders. There was a great trade carried on at that time to India, by the Romans; aad there was an annual fair held at Batak, for the nent of Indiqn and Chinese commodities, and there was. 2 great concourse of merchants, mayy of whom were settled there. It was situated at some distance from the eastern bank of the Euphiates, and nearly in the same latitude with Antioch., He was very young whep he was sent to Constantinople, where he studied, became a Christian, and embraced a monastic life. He was afterwarls ordained a bishaps and sent to ! Aigbia by Constantius, in order to promate the interests of the Christian religion. He met with great opposition from the Jews,

[^23]F 4
who were very numepus in that country; but sacceeded at last, and built threerehurches; for the benefit chiefly of the Roman traders. One was at Taphar or Tapharon, now Dafar, and the metropolis of that country; the second was at $A$ dexi, near the straits of Babelmandel, and the third near the entrance of the Persian Gulf. From thence he went by. sea to Dius, his native country, visited several parts of India, comforting' the Christiaws, introducing :wholesame regulations, and spreading the errors of Arives: He thence returned to Antioch, according to Suqdas, where he lived a long time; highty respocted. i.He accompanied afterwards Constantius Gallus into Germany, as far as Petavium, ! now Pettaza in Stiriay in the year 354.

Marutha, a Hindu, and a bishop of Suphaia, now Sufferdam, assisted at the Synod of Sides, 'in Pantphylia, in the year 383. He was afterward translated to the bishoprick of Meyaferkin, " on the botcders of Mesopotamia, when Yezdejird l:, King of Persia, charmed with his piety, was very near becoming a Christian; and Chrysostom speaks highly in favour* of our bishop. "According to the Notitia of Nisos Doxopatrius, the Greek Patriarch of "Antioch, ordained a certain Ramogyris Metropotitan of India; and, from his name, there is every reason to believe that he was also a native of Indiá, where the appellation of RA'MA-G1R is by to means uncommon. Cosmas Indico-pléosties, who visited India about the year 522, says, that there were churches and priests, with the whole liturgy, in Ceylon: also on

[^24]the Malabar Caast, and in the inorth west. of India, In these countries, , says he, there are a vast:numbern of chutches.

The Mission of St. Tromas to India, with the surprising progress of the Christian religion, are facts; in $\cdot \mathrm{my}$; laumble opinion, sufficiently authenticated. Jebone; who died in the year 420 , speaks of the Missjon of St: Thousss to India, as a fact universally acknowledged in his time: byt I must refer the sceptic reader to the works of Farricius, and Assemanni, adfortunately not to be procured in this country. Buas the learned histary of the Anglo-Sazons by Mr. Tiumadie will abunctantly make up for this sleficiency, in his dissertation on the embassy of the bishop of Shireburn, sent by the great Alpred, to the tomb of St. Tyomas in India. That the holy Apostle suffered martyrdonr in Indic, is sufficiently proved: but, at the same time, it is certain also, that his body was afterwards carried back, and deposited at Edesse, as attested by Ruranus, who wert to sigria in the year 371 , and remained there twenty-five years. The place, however, whese he was first entombed, became a famous place of pilgrimage, where prohably, they kept some:particles of his body, either true or false: but the chief relic was his blood; which had impregnated the spmat , where he suffered martyrdoph. This earth, was carrien, in suall quantities, all oser the Peninsula,; and, heing drunk with water, proved mpst efficacious in all surts: of disenses, and complaints. His tomb at Edessa, was, probably destroyed, during the wars of the Emperors of the west with the Persians; or afterwards by the Muselmans.

In the sixth century, Gregory of Tours, the father of French listory; became acquainted with a
respectable man, called Taeodorvs, who had visited the tomb of St. Thomas in India. In the ninth century, Sighelm bishop of Shireburn was sent there also by Alfrfy, in consequence of a vow. Now, these two elergymen were too orthodox to worship the toribs and relics of an heretic, a Nestorian of the name of Thomas, as has beensupposed by many; and they were too near the time, in which he lived, to have been imposed upon. The two Nfwedmans, : who visited that place soon after Sighelm, mention the church of Thomas, on the Coast of Corommandel, $\mathfrak{x s}$ well as Marco Polo about the year 12ga, long before the Portugueze had found their way to India. M. Pono says, that Christians and Muselmans were very numerous in the Peminsula.

The plare where he suffered martyrdom, that is to say; the country about Madras, was seldom visited by merchants, as there was no trade. His body, or tomb at least, was in a small city of that coontry, and the native Masselmans, and:Christians, held it in great veneration. Pitgrims, from distant countries, came to visit this holy place; and the earth impregnated with his blood, was given in some beverage, to sick and infirm people; and miracles were often performed there. In speaking of Aden in Arabia, he informs us, that "St. Thomas was said to have preached there, before he went to Maabar in India, where he suffered for Chrisf, and there reposes to this day his most holy body. In that country (Maabar) the Christians are good soldiers, and remarkable for their honesty.".

The inhabitants say, that the holy Apostle was a great prophet, and they call him Avarias, which in their language signifies a holy and pious man. As

Marco Polo has given us the meaning of the word Avarieia, it is very casy to reascond to its pure and original form, which is Av-Aryya in Sanscrit; and, as he says, that the Christians there were highly respected, being good soldiers, and above all, good and holy men, remarkable for their integrity, they were certainly Av-Aryyas, or 'Aryyas, as well as their holy Apostle. The word Avariza is derived from the Sianscrit compound $A v-A r y y a$, from two words perfeetly synonymous, Ava, and Aryya. The first is rendered in lexicons, by 'Sudd'ha, or Pavitra, equally imiplying holiness, and purity. It is often used in composition, where it enhances the sense. One of the titles of Bund'ha is Ava-Locita, or Ava-LocaNa'th', the holy sovereign of the world: Ava-n6ma or A-ко́ни, well seated. This word is very often pronnonced Asa, and more particularly so, in the S. W. parts of India : and the same M. Pous mentions in the country of Lafe, a race of most pious men called Abraiani and Abraiam in the M.S.S. But the editors thought proper to write that word, Abrajamim ; because they concelved that they wero Bráhmens. But it is much more probable, that it is the same word with Avarilam, or Avariia, which he mentioned defere. Ab-Aryya in the objective case. in the singular nember, makes $A b-A$ ryyman, and $A b-$ 'Al'gyán in the plural, in the first case. These Almaiani, says he, have in abhorrence lying, theft, and cheating. They marry but one wife, and abstain from intoxicating liquors, and flesh. They eat moderately, and theif tasts are long, and most severe: otherwise, says he, they are idolaters. He then mentions other idolaters in that country; but from the context, entirely different from the $A b-$ Aryyas: who it seems, were only degenerated Christians, who
had in great measure relapsed into the errors of their ancestors, and of their contemporaries.

From the situation, assigned to the country of Laé, by M. Polo, these good people, with the most austere manners, called Aryyas, seem to be the same with the holy and rigid penitents, and anchoretsmentioned in the third century by Prolemy in the country of Ariáca, a derivative form from 'Aryya, under the name of Tabassi Magi, from the Sanscrit Tapaswi, pronounced Tabásd in the Tamuli Dialect; and which signifies contemplators, and by implication men performing austere penances, like the anchorets in the wilds of Thebes, and Tabenna in Egypt; which denominations are probably derived from Tapa, austerities, and Taporoan, the wilderness of austerities. The :Aryyas are mentioned in the Brahmánda-purá$n a^{*}$ as a powerful tribe of foreigners (Mlech'ha) living among the mountains of the Dekhin.

Ptolemy says, that Ariaca belonged to the Sadinoi, a strange name certainly for a tribe. I suspect however, that it is derived from the Sanscrit Sád'hana, and that the `Aryigas were thus denominated by the native Hindus, in the same manner, that the Portugueze were styled is Bengal, T"hac'hurs, rulers or lords, and the English all over India are called Sáheblocas, or Sahebrlbgues, and the most apposite Sanscrit expression for the above epithets is Sadhana: the $E n$ glish are often styled by learned Pandits, SádhanaEngriz: and the famous Brója is often called Sádhana Bhbja. M. PoLo mentions also Abraians on the

[^25]Pearl-Fishery Coast; these were consulter by the fishermen; but, he says that they were bad men, and great sorcerers: and their descendants, to this day, are not much better, According to the acts of St. Thomas, and other notices, the holy Apostle embarked at Aden in Arabia, in his way to India, where he landed at a place called Halabor; and afterwards Sklo-patan, synonymous with 'Salo-pur;' or 'Sala-bu' fram, Hala-buram; and now Cranganor. He was well received by Masdeus, called also Seqamus, King of that country, whose son Zuzan he convert ed, "and afterwards oidained him a Deacon." The Apostle, long after, suffered martyrdom, at a place called Calamina, known afterwards by the name of Maliar-piur, or the city of Pea-cocks, froth the Sinnscrit Meyur-pura; and the' same which is 'called Maliar-pha by Ptolemy. Its present name is St. Thome, called by the Arabs, during the middle àges, Betuma, or Beit-Thoma, the house or church of Thomas.

Masdeus, the name of the King, who'kindly received St. Thomas, Zuzan that of his son, and Seganus his own surname, are all Hindí denominations. Musdeus is for Basdeo, the usual prontrici-
 mus is for Sugama, synionymous' with Sugit, and shews that he was a follower of Budd'Ha: and Sangaifi,' even now, is not an uncommon name in India, particularly in the Peninsula. Zuzan is, for Sajana, or Sezan, as written by Father Grorgi. It is the name of the father of Budd'ha, called also Ajana, by the Puranics; and the disciple and successor of Manes, who pretended to be an incarnation of Budd'ha, was called Sibinius.

- The place of his martyrdom is called Calamina by Hippolytus, accordigg to Mr. Turner. . Calamiza is a Tamuli denomination, and literally signifies earth, and stones, alluding to the nature of the soil. It is synonyppous with Mana-para, which signifies the same thing, according to F. Bartolemeo, missionary acquainted with both the Sanserit and Tawzuli langnages : but I by no means conceive them to be the same place. Cálá or Cálu in Taxudi signifies a stone, or Callou in French, and Mána earth. Thus, point Calymere, the true name of which is Cidad-medras, signifies the stony hill. There were two bishops of the name, of Hippolytus, one of whom resided in Arabia; and they were contemporaries. The latter probably wrote the treatise conceming the .peregrinations of the Apostles, and died, A..D. $930 .{ }^{*}$ Donotheus, another bishop, born in the year 9 at, wrote also on the same subject; andspone fragments of his work are to be found at the snd of the Chronicon Paschate. There he asserts, that St. Thomar died at Calamita (Caldó-mèdu,) which is synonymeus with Calamika, or nearly so.

Some Manicheans, at a very eaply period, went to the Malabar Coast: for, according to La Cboze, in his history of Christianism in India, the Christians of that country said, that, before they had submitted to the jurisiciction of the Catholicas, ar: Nestorian Patriarch, and of course, before the arrival of Mar-Thome', there came into their country a certaib Mannacavassar, whe preached a new doctrine, seduced the people by his prestiges, and introduced his ertors. Lan. Croze did not understand the mean-

- Series Patrim, -p. 62.
ing of the ward Mannacanasmar.; but. suspectede that be was a Manichean. He was called, by: the people of the Delding, Mami-Cavissar, which signifies the bard, the prophet Mani. Cavissar is derived from the Sanscrit:Cavg, poetry, suags, and Is'rugra, lond, chief: Cavis'ar,: for Cavidio'waras sigaifies the lord of the soag, or the ohief bard, and is used, in that sense in the Peninsula, according to Majar Mackenzie.

The two Marselman: travellers in the ninth centapry, and the Nubiaz Greagtapher, probably on, their authority, declave, that there: were many Christians, Manchecans, Jews, .and Musedmans in Ceshon: and that the King :encouraged their public meetings, and that the learned Hindus of that country used to froquent them; and that the King tiept secretaries to vorite doren their raspactive kistorien and the exparition of their doctrimes and. losess. These two travellews were is Claybon, atithat time; and these meetings; well as the places at which they were held, are called Charchita by the Pardenics, and appointed for the purpose of making Charchá, séarch or investigation, into new dogmas, and opiniens, which began to disturb the peace of the country.

The Shahamedases in India acknowletge the early egtablushment of the Christiaus in that country. Ferisura, in his general history of. Hindostan, saya: "Eormerty; before the rise of the seligion of Islam, a company of Jews and Christians came by sea into the country (Malabar.) and settled as meschants or Pishadras. They continued to live there until the rise of the Muselman religion."*

- Asiat. Reg. Miseell. p. 151.
- III. The décline of the Christian teligion in India, must be attributed, in a great measure, to the progress, equally rapid and astonishing, of Islamism, in Syria, Persia, Egypt and Arabia. The Christians in these countries, being in a state of distraction, no longer sent pastors to India; as we are informed in \& letter written in the seventh century, and still extant, according to Mr. Turner. There we see the Nestorian Patriarch Jesujabius of Abiabene, reproaching the Metropolitan of Persia, with, having sthit the doors of the episcopal imposition of hands, before many people of India: that the sacerdotal succession had been interrupted, from the maritime bopders of Persia; down to Colon, or Coilan, a space of above 1200 Farsangs. This agrees with what is related by Muselman writers, who say, that in the reign of the Caliph Abdulmalec, in the latter, end of the seventh century, the Christians of India sent to Sinion, the Syrian and Jacobite Patriarch of Alexandria, requesting that he would send them abishop.*

The bulk of the Ckristians of $\mathbf{S t}$. Thomér accorditig to Mr. Wrede, like the 'Aryyas, consisted of canverts'from the higher classes; and they were nearly upon the same footing with the Bráhmens, and Nairs or nobles. They were originally much respected by the Hindus, and native princes; and they considered themselves equal in rank with the Bradmens and :Nairs, and claimed the same exemptions and privileges, which were granted to them. Many amongst thein; presterve till now the manners, and mode of life of the Bráhmens, as to personal cleanliness, 'and abstaining from animal food: and the Roman missiona-

[^26]ries, in general, adopt the same reginmen, in order to gain credit among them:

These Christians were' then very properly demom minated 'Aryyas and Tacshacas, or Peishediva Brahmens.' 'These and their Kings probably introduced the Christian Era invo their country: but, in the same mannet, that their sanctity, and their power in Indiza are foretold in the Purtinas, their fall is equahly mentioned. When, says the compiler of the VayuPurára, their time is come, the 'Aryyas will pass. away, like the rest.

These good 'Aryyas are called Saheas, Sálarvas and Sátyas in the Cumedricd-e'hardda. These three forms are regular, but the last, according to Mr. Join-. vilee, pherails in the Dekhin, and Ceylon; where théy are called 'Sáue, 'Sályas, and Chéllyas, because, I suppose, they were the followers of 'SA' ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{LA}$. They are called also in that country, 'Saca-Raj̀n-odinsas, and Sála-vansas in the western parts of India. They are: now followers of Budn'нa; and in the Peninsula the Christians are included in the general denomination of Bauddhists, and their divine legislator is considered as a form of Budd ${ }^{\circ}$ Ha $^{\text {. }}$

The chief of the Salyas, or'Argyas, is called 'Aryyastira by the followers of BudDHA, a Sanscrit compound implying as much. He was overthrown by Budd'ha, and yet he is called Pra-Aryya-sira, or Pra-Aria-seria, the venerable Sire, or chief of the -Aryyas.

The Manicheans, and the Muselmans, on the authority of the Apocryphal Gospel of the childhood of Cheist, and that of St. Barnabas, of which
they have copies in Arabic, Persian, and even in the western languages of Africa, represent Christ, as the most complete Tacshaca, that ever existed. He was not only an excellent carpenter and statuary; but he was deeply skilled in the combination of all sorts of colours. For this reason, the ingenious $\mathbf{H}$. Syie, who has given us a translation of the Gospel of Christ's childhood, from the Arabic, and some fragments of the original in Greek, says, that dyers in Persia, consider Christ as their patron. It seems indeed, that the greatest part of the Christians, in Arabia and Persia, were handicraftmen: and that they were accordingly called Peishe-cáras, both because they were really so, and because they were the followers of the great Tacshaca or Peishe-ckra. According to D'Herbelot, the disciples of Christ were called in Persian and Arabic, Kassarins or Kas-: sáruns, and Haváryuns, that is to say, fullers and bleachers: and the priests of the Christians of St . Thomas are called Kassanars to this day, perhaps for Kassaruns.

Mr. Jornville, in his account of Ceylon,* mentions the arrival of numerous families of these Peishecaras, Peish-círs, into that island; and declares, that they were all artificers, and handicraftmen, as implied by their name, which is truly of Persian origin; though used all over India, in the northern parts of which, it is generally pronounced Peishe-Raz. Ac-- cording to T. Hyde, the Parsis in India, are all artificers, and those in Kirman deal chiefly in woollens.

There were formerly Brahmens in India, says the

[^27]same gentleman, who were handicraftmen, such as weavers, weaving stuffs variegated with gold and silver, and of divers colours. These were called, from that circumstance, Peish-chri-Brahmens. But they could not be followers of Brahma'; for the employments of weavers, and dyers, are absolutely incompatible with the sacerdotal class: in extreme distiess a Brâhmen may sell stuffs, but even then, under very peculiar restrictions. They might however have called themselves Brahmens, at least their priests; without any impropriety ; for every priest is really a Bráhmen in his own religion. A few individuals might have become weavers; but then, they would lose their cast, and it is impossible that a numerous body of Bráhmens should follow that profession. It is then much more probable, that they were not, strictly speaking, Brahmens of Hindu extraction; but the followers of a new religion, introduced by foreigners, the disciples of a Peish-cára, and themselves Peish-cáras, or at least many of them.

Their first arrival in Ceylon, happened nearly about 1845, after the famous war between $\mathrm{Ra}^{\prime} \mathrm{ma}_{\mathrm{a}}$ and Ra'vana, called the Ravana-Yudd'ha. Ra'ma lived thirteen generations before the Cali-yuga, answering to aboat 400 years; and the Cali-yuga began 1370 years before Christ. The completion of the 184.5 years will then fall about 77 years after Christ. Vijaya, according to Captain Mahóny, was the first King of Ceylon, after this period of 1845; during which, the island was desolate, and overrun by Demons. Then, says the same gentleman, the Christian natives insist, that this King Vijaya was crowned 77 years after the birth of our Saviour. This King Vijaya was not a Bauddhist: for the ninth King after him was the first who embraced

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that religion; and his name was Deveni-path All the missionaries to China, were really Tacshacas or Peish-cára-Bráhmens, in the strictest sense of the word, as well as the pious Moraviams: and Paul tho Apostle was a Tacshaca, and a Peish-círa-Bratomen: and, by the account of Mr. Waede in his narrative of the Christians of St. Thomé, they were formerly Peishi-cdras: for, says he, they were in fact the only, or at least, the principal merchants in the country, till the arrival of the Arabs.

The ingenious Mr. Joinvilees, on the authority of several treatises in the Magad'hí language, the names of which he mentions, says, that there were even Kings among these Peish-cára-Bráhmens, in the Pens insula, to the mumber thirty-five:* from the context; it appears, that some were in a collateral, and others in a successive line. The names of their kingdoms, or rather their Metropolitan Cities, were Sobo-patas; Mahá-patan now Patan, the Baitana of Ptodemy in the Dekhin, on the banks of the Goddrveri, to the southward of Dörvetabad); Curu (now Cauri, or Coyr): Gadahare (Gauida); Mácanda, (now Mahd-curida-pilli); and Cásit. This is confirmed in the Bhagavat, Vayu, and Brahmánida-puranias, in which it is declared † that Aryyá, or Saca, and S\&lava was the name of a dynasty of Kings in India; and who. were to be immediately Rollowed by the invasion of numerous swarms of other foreign tribes; and of the dynasty of these Sacas, there were five and twenty: Kings, according to the Purfor'as in the chapters on futurity.

Solo-phbase was a sea-port town, according to Cos-

[^28]mas Indopleustes, about the middle of the sixth centary, on the Pepper or Matabar Coast., There were, says he, five sea-ports famous for trade, Parti, Mangarouth, Salou-patna, Nalo-petana, and Poxduspatana; and adl these names are truly Indian. There are several places in the Peninsula, called Parti-guddy, or fort of Parti. Mangarouth seems to be Mangalare, and Nalo-patana, Nali-suram; Sabou-patana is called Sooloo-patonow by the people of Ceylow, and had Kings of its own of the Peishe-care-E-Brahmen tribe, or Christians.

Sabo-patan, otherwise 'Sálo-buram, and 'Sulo-pur, is the same with Hala-bor where St. Thomas landed, and its present name is Crangasore. There he conyerted SAJANA son of the King of that conintry.

We read in the history of the Christicave of St Tнамas, that they had Christian: Kings of ther own ; the first of whom, was called Baliatite', from the Sanscrit Bali-anhat. After several surcessions, one of these 'Christian Kings d'ying without male issue; adopted the King of Diamper for: wis son, according to the custom of the country; :though he was a heathen, and appoizted him his successor.

That a society of Peioke-chras, weeroers,' and handicraftmen, however mumerous, shoubd have Kings of their own, is inadmissible; unless they were upon such a footing, as the Christions were tormerly in the Peninsula.i. St. Thomas counerted the soin of the King of some country on the coast of Malabar; and the Purdn'as declare; that there was a dynasty of -dryya Kings.

The name of Avaryya is not totally unknown in G 3
the Pexinsula: they have still in great veneration, at certain Sibyl of divine origin, most pious, and good, called 'Avya'r; and who lived in the ninth century: A translation of some of her moral sentences, is inserted in the seventh vol. of the Asiatic Researches: It seems she was conversant with the Christians of that counrry'; for among her proverbs, there are some, that are far from being in the usual style of the Hindus.

The descendants, or followers, of 'Sa'lava'hana are mentioned in the commentary upon the Calpadruma. In religious matters, and particularly in the east, they generally call the followers of any reformer, or legislator, his descendants. In the above commentaty isa'lava'hana is declared to be a Juina, meaning, either a follower, or a form of Jins. He is cadled there also, a Sritroaca, or 'Stroaca; that is to say a : Peishtcarra. In the western parts of India, as in' Giurjar'ât, they call all tradesmen, banyans, \&c. 'Savacas, or Sábacas. . The famous Callica'cha'rya is supposed to have misited 'Sa'lava'hana, at Pratishțána in the Dekhin; ;and, according to the above commentary, he was born 993 years after the ascension of Jina, or 43 years .B. C. He travelled all over the Peninsula, teaching, and explaining the doctrine of Jinar; and particularly among the 'Sabacas. He is supposed to have taught 'Sa'lava'hasa some peculiar rites, to be observed at the fuH, and new moon; which, he promised, he woould enjoin his descendants, or followers to observe.. The posterity of a Sabaca, or Peish'cára, particutarly in.Iudia; were: necessarily Reish-cáras, and'Sábacas. A patronymic denomination was also given to them; for they are called $\mathbf{S} \mathbf{S a l}$ was, Salavas, and 'Salbas in the Cumárica-c'harida, anfwering to the Arabic expression, of Ashab-al-Sálib,

Or Balb , the followers of the cross, or of him, who was crucified. According to A. Roger, there is stili in the Dekhin a considerable tribe of men called 'SaZarádis, from the Sanscrit 'Sálavádicás, the 'Salavaş or followers of 'SA'La'.

In the Vayu-puran't, they are called 'Sacas, and in that passage, this name is used in the room of Aryya to be found in other Puran'as; and it is declared there, that they would appear with the And'hras and Pulindas; the dynasty of the first began in the year 191 after Christ: and it is obvious from the context ${ }_{2}$ that the dynasty of the Sacas, 'Aryyäs, or 'Saloas was contemporary with those of the $A n d^{3} h r d s$, and $P u$ lindas; though we cannot fix precisely the time when it began. By Pulindas, they understand dynasties of Kings from the lowest and vilest classes in India:

The descendants, or followers of King Saca, are called by Mr. Joinville, and Captain Mahony, Saca-Rájá-Vánsas, a true Sanscrit expression, implying as much : and we have seen, that there are still in the Dekhin, and Ceylon, some families or tribes so called to this day. I was greatly surprised, sometime ago, to hear from most respectahle Pandits, that there was in the district of Benares, and in the province of Oude, a tribe of Rajaputras, who boasted of their descent from 'Sa'lava'haina; ' and that the chief of that tribe was considered as a living hereditary deity, and a form of Vishnu, like their Sire 'Sa'lava'hanA. What is still more surprising, is, that this chief does what he can to conceal his divinity, and to make penple believe, that it is not so. But in despite of his endeavours, some peculiar circumstances will occasionally betray him; and such an instance, it is said, happened last century, They are descended
more probably from the followers of another 'SA'LAva'haina, a Manicheom, or Manes himself, as $\ddagger$ observed before.

As these Rajaputs call themselves Vais'yas, synonymous with Sravaca or tradesman, it seems, that they originally followed that profession. $\cdot \cdot$ Probaply some will say, that if the Saca-Rája-Cumáras, had been once:Christians, they must of course have lost their cast. This might be the case now.: but, I do not believe it was so formerly; and then, the $P u$ ran'as afford us immediate remedy, for in the chapters on futurity it is declared, that the Kings of Magadllha wauld, raise men. of the lowest classes to the rank of Brahmens, and other, superior casts; exactly like Jead, $о А м$, and ather Kings of Israel. This prophecy was to take place, after the fall of the And'hra dynasty in the seventh century.*

Besides, a whole district, a whole tribe; might embrace another religion, without losing cast; the full exercise of its privileges being always. confined to themselves. For we must ngit think, that persons of the same cast, will communicate one with another all over India, and eat together, or of food dressed by another. The copmonication is confined to a few families in their neighbourhood, whom they. know to be strict observers of the rules relative to their cast", , The rest of the tribe are in a great measure outcasts to them. This almost incredible adherence to the punctilio of casts, was in a great measure owing probably to the rapid increase of the religion of Budd'ha, then, afterwards of that of Carist, and

[^29]Mohamed, and of the heresy of Manes, in the N . W. parts of India, and also on the coast of Malabar, and Ceylon. Among the Christians in the Peninsula, be they Protestants, Romar Catholics, or Nestorians, there are Brahmens, who are nearly upon the same footing with the other Brthmens: and, when acgraiated with them, such civilities, as are usual among well brod people, are never omitted. The Christian Bráhmens most rigarously abstain from beef, and animal food, though they say they can eat of it. The greatest part of the Bráhmens in Persia, Turan, and near Baku, eat beef, but never of the flesh of the cow, likemany of the Egyptians of old. There are seweral of these Brakmens settled at Bexares; and they are acknowledged as such, though not much respected, being nick-named Veda braolitas, or breakers of the Vedes; for a Buthmen may be a heretic without losing his cast, which is not so much connocted. with his creed as might be supposed. In shart, the Hindus acknowledge themselves, and it appears from their sacred books, that they ate beef formenly; bat they took care to inform me, at the same time, that they never ate of the flesh of the cow. It is declared, that there are no Cshettris now, or in other whords; that the second class no longer exists. Yet those, who have been-raised to that rank from the lowest classes, are treated as such by every Bnathomen.

We read an, the institutes of Menu, that all the C'hasycs, or those who inhabit the snowy mountaing, have lost their cast. Yet they must bave recovered it; for there are mumerous families of Brahmsens in those countries :particularly in Almorah or Camanh, and much respected at Benares, who by no means consider the bulk of the inhahitapts, who are Chasyer,
as outcasts. They assured me on the contrary, that they considered them as belonging to the second class, and that they are treated as such by evefy Bráhmen, in despite of Menv and of the Puránicas.-

Let us suppose some extensive district in India solely inhiabited by Europeans, and that these were entirely willing to conform, in every thing, to the religion of Brahma', and the manners of the Hindus. Their resolution would be highly approved of by every Brathmen; and they would soon find many to officiate, and pray for them; on their being of course paid for their trouble. Let us add to this, numerous grahts of land, villages, honours, privileges, and an entire submission to their will, they would soon treat. them as Cshettris, as they do the present Rajputs. It is true, they could neither intermarry, nor eat with the other Hindus, but the four great classes never intermarry, nor eat, but with particular families' of the same tribe in their own class. After a few. generations, they would say of these Eiropeans; what they say of the present Rajputs and Mahrattas, that they were not originally Cshettvis nor Brahmens, and are a spurious race. This would not do, it is true, for a single individual, who would find himself insulated, and lost entirely, unless he assumed the character of an anchoret or penitent. I had long conversations with learned Pandits, on the subject, and this was their opinion, and that even they might have Bralmens of their own, by studying their saored books, and obtaining the necessary knowledge, which would not be attended with much difficulty. With regard to their ancestors having ate beef, this could be no objection, as there is not a Hindu, whose. ancestors, at some remote period, it is true; did; not eat beef, and every sort of animal food, except
perhaps a few unclean sorts. Whatever man, say the learned, performs the duties (Carma) of a Cshettri, him you must consider as a Cshettri. But what should put an end to the controversy, at least in my humble opinion, is that the Mahríttas, a numerous and respectable tribe of Bráhmens, and Cshettris, are acknowledged, all over India, to be foreigners from the western parts of Persia, who left their native country not 1200 years ago, as I shall shew in the appendix. Even though this alleged origin of the Máhrattas should prove untrue, yet the universal acknowledgment of it is very much in favour of my assertion.
. The followers of Brahma', and those of Budn'ha, were by no meadis indifferent to the progress of, foreign creeds. They often ordered conferences to be held, where the principles of these religions wero inquired into, the history of their legislators, \&cc. This was practised in Ceylon in the ninth century, according to Renaudot's two Muselman travellers; and Bräkmens unanimously acknowledge, that this was their practice formerly, with regard to the Baudd'hists; and that these conferences were called Charchá, or investigation, search, Cherche in Prench; and that towns appointed for that purpose, were called Charchita anagari, one of which is mentioned in the
 yuga (or 191: after Christ) King 'Sudraca zoill reign in the tozon of Cha'rchita nagaba, and destroy the workers of iniquity.". This points out a persecition in religions matters, at a very early period. These conferences ended in bloodshed, and the most cruel and rancoroas persecution of the followers of BudDHA, even from the confession of the Brahmens themselves.. They were tied hand and foot, and
thus thrown into rivers, lakes, ponds, and sometimes whole strings of them. Be this as it may, the followers of Budd'ha did not fail to retaliate whonever it was in their power; for Dr. F. Buchanan informs me, that in the Dekhin the Jainas make their boast of the cruelties that they exercised at different times upon the Bráhmens, and that there are even inscriptions still extant in which they are recorded. This general persecution was begun by a Bráhener called Cumarillla-Bhatta'cha'rya, and cartied on afterwards by Sancara'cha'rya, who nearly extirpated the whole race. It is difficult to say when this took place; but as there were vast numbers of Baudd'hists in the Peninsula, in the Gangetic Prooinces, and Gujaricit, in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries, this general proseription cauld not of course have taken place at these per riods. It is very probable that the Christians wers occasionally involved in these persecutions, as the Christians of St. Thomas ane considered as :Bandd'kists in the Dekhim, and either their divine legistator, or his apostle Teomas, is asserted to be a form of Budd'ha.

The Hindus, and more particularly the followers of Budd'ha and Jina, fancy, that there are hidden mysteries in certain numbers. It was so farmenly in the west, among the heathens, the Jeros, and whd Christians. All:over the world, the nombets one and three were considered as radical; and their combination was subject to whimeical rules. They are by no means to be added together, for one and therec, in a mystical sense, are but one and the samre thing. We might suppose, that the square, and cube' of three would be sacred numbersi; but it is by no means the case. Eight is the mystical number, and
theeo times eight, or twenty-four, is a sacred numker; and being multiplied by three, the produces is mystical also, and the number of years of JINA's life. The reason is, that one stands in the centre representing Jina, who is three and one. Eight forms sprang from this toward the eight corners of the world, and each of these is three and anc: but we cannot say, that these eight forms, with the original one in the center, make either sine, or twenty-seoen; for though each collateral form is perfectly distinct from each other, yet it is individually the same with the original one. Sectaries, at an early period entertained accordingly strange notions. concerning the number of years that Charsy lived conctaled, performed the duties of his ministry, and lastly about the length of his life. They conceived that every circumstance relating to so exalted a character, was mysterious. Some insisted that he lived thirty, thirty-three, forty, and others nearly, lhat not quite fifty years. Stephanus Gobarús has collected many of these idle notions, in the extracts made of his warks by Рнorius.

It is mot obvious at first, why 'Sa'liva'hana is made to have lived eighty-four years; but it appears to me, that this number was in some measure asacred period among the first Christians, and also the Jews, and introduced in order to regulate Easterday; and it is the opinion of the learned, that itbegan five years before the Christian Era, and the fifte year of that cycle was really the fifth of Chisisr, biot the first only of his manifestation to the world,: according to the Apocryphal Gospels; and it was also the first of the Christian Era. In this manner the cycle of eighty-four years ended on the 79th of the Christian, which was the first of 'Sa'luva':
mans's Era, and was probably mistaken for the perod of his life. It is mentioned by St. Epiphanyus, who lived about the middle of the fourth century.*
IV. The followers of Budd'ha, in Siam and the: Burman Empire, mention the wars of their legislator with De've-Ta't, who, they say, is the legislator of the Christians. He is the same who is called a Tacshaca also by the Hindus, and who manifested himself in the first year of the Christian Era. They say that he was either a brother, or a relation of Budd'ha; or in other words, he was a collateral form of Budd'ha. They acknowledge some conformity between his doctrine and theirs; because, as they say, his disciples borrowed many things from Budd'ha. He allowed them, however, to kill and. eat all sorts of animals, and seduced very many of the disciples of Budd'ha; and, aspiring to sovereignty, he waged war against Samana-Gauтамa. He appeared at the head of a new sect, and. engaged several kings and nations to join him. . He had the gift of miracles, and asserted that he was a: gud. Déve-Tat being several times worsted in this war, made overtures of peace, and Samana-Gautama consented, on condition that he would subscribe to three articles which he was going to propose. These were to worship, first, God; then his word; and thirdly, the person who imitates di-. vine perfection, or, in other words, to worship Budd'ha. This last article was rejected by De've$\mathrm{Ta}^{\prime} \mathrm{r}$ or his disciples, and they went to war again; when De've-Ta't was defeated in the forest of Sálatúyah in the Peninsula. $\dagger \mathrm{He}$ was taken pri-

[^30]soner, and empaled alive, with his limbs trussed up, upon a double eross; and in that state hurled into the infernal regions. 'Saman'a-Gautama, however, foretold, that in the end he would really become a god. Budd'ha, or Gautama is also represented waging war with Pra-'Aria-Seria, for Pra-'Aryya''Sira, the venerable chief, or Sire of the 'Aryydis or Christians; and another chief of them, called PraSwane, or Pra-Swana, from his loudly preaching against the doctrine of Gautama. Budd'ha and De'va-Twasht' $^{\prime}$ are made contempoiaries in this romance : but this can be no objection; for it is onlyin allusion to the wars of their, followers in subsequent times. The learned are very well acquainted, that this mode of writing history once prevailed in the west at a very early period.

The beginning of the seventh century is remarkable for the introduction of new eras among the civilized nations of the world. The Christian Era was introduced at Constantinople in the year 526; but, as the learned observe, it was a hundred years before it was generally adopted, and this was in the beginning of the seventh centary.

In Persia, the era of Yezdegird began in the year 63\%; that of the Hejra was introduced by Omar in the year 638. Those of Siam with the Bṻmáhs have an era beginning in the year 638; but as they borrowed overy thing relating, either to their religion or their astronomy, from Ceylon, and the Péninsula of India, this period must have originated there. The Japanese consider the ascension of the latter Budd'ha, under the name of Guso-bosatz, as a memorable epocha; and it happened in the year 631, because they say that he lived only fifty-nine
years, and he was born in the year 579. Accordiag tor the 'Satrujaya-mahditmya, the translation into heaver' of Guso-bosatt or Gaja-Vasishta, that is to say, he who abides in the mortal frame of an elephant, and called in the above treatise 'Sri-hasti-sisna, a compound nearly of the same import, happened three years, eight months and fifteen days before the timeof the Panchmárás, or Mohined and his four associates; that is to say, he died in November 617. But if we suppose with the Paurumies, that he lived sixty-six years, his ascension will fall in the year 638, according to the computation of the Burmans and Siamese. This Budd'ha was born in the year 500, and reigned sixty-six years, according to the Cumárici-chanidd, in some copies of which weread 62 and 64 ; but he appears to be the same with-Gaja-Vasisht'a, both being represented as the last inoarnation of Budd'ha; the Japanese having mistaken the era of his manifestation as a god, or his death, for that of his manifestation as a man.

Thus the Jainas in India say, that their legislator died in the year 1036 B . C. which the divines of. Tibet consider as the year of his birth.

The Christians of India, in the seventh century, were actuated by the same principles, and chose the supposed year of Christ's ascension for the first of. their new era. They were at that time in India in the most profound ignorance, through the want of, pastors, as we observed befote; and their religion was a strange medley of the Christian, and of that: of Budd'ha, which prevailed at that time in the Peninsula; insomuch, that M. Pozo considered some of the aryyas, in despite of their virtues, as idolaters. 'Sala-ta'hana, or Déva-Tat, was considered as 2 brother or relatioh of Budg'ha.

Our blessed Saviour entered on his mission when thirty years of age, like Budd'ha; and like him, he was born of a virgin : the additional years were introduced from their mistaking the ecclesiastical cycle of 84 years for the period of his life; and like them,' the Christians made a point of reckoning their era from this supposed year of his ascension. This was not peculiar to the Hindus; the Christians of fegypt chose the various manifestations of Chrisf, during his ministry, and the different events of his life, in preference to that of his birth. According to the appendix to the Agni-puran'a, the era of 'SACA, or 'Sa'java'hana, was introduced into India, or Geysan to prevail, in the year corresponding to that of Chbist 676, exactly 135 years after the death of 2. certain Vicrauáditya. The bloody wars between these two exalted characters, are supposed to have been only about their respective eras; and VIcra'maditya, in his dying moments, thought of nothing but his era; whilst it is the general opinion, that it began at his death, and of course he could mot be the author of it. One would imagine that 'Sa'lava'hana's era would have begun the moment that he became a Saca, by puitting to death another 'Saca, such as Vicrama'ditya was; but it happened atherwise: SA'LAVA'HANA thought no more of his own era, which was introduced after his death, by his followers, or adherents in the Dekhin; for it never was used in any other part of India except Bengal.

It is thexefore my humble opinion, that the Christian Era was introduced, and new modelled in India by the Christians, and the 'Aryya, or Salaca, Kings, on the decline of the Christian religion; and used by them and other Hindus in their intercourse with threm.

It is supposed, that the Bráhmens are too proud to borrow any thing from their neighbours; but this is by no means the case; and whenever they are acquainted with the circumstance, they will most candidly acknuwledge it, particularly astronomers and physicians.

After the conquests of Alexander, and for many centuries after, there seems to have been an eager desire in India for foreign arts and sciences, curiosities, instruments of music, wine, and even beautiful damsels from Greece. According to Elian and Dio Chrysostom, the Hindus, as well as the Persians, had the works of Homer translated into their native languages: and Philostratus says, that they were well acquainted with the ancient heroes of Greece; and that they had statues made by Grecian artists. And this is very possible, as the Greehs of Bactriana were in possession of the Panjab for more than a hundred and iwenty years. The Kings of Magad'ha repeatedly wrote to the successors of Alexander for sophists, or learned men, from Greece; and lately the famous Jaya-Sinha, Rája of Jaypúr, wrote to the King of Portugal for learned men. and he had several sent to him; and the King of France sent him also an astronomer, P. Boudier. He had the elements of Euclid translated into Sanscrit, part of which fell into the hands of Mr. Davis.' There, it is said, that this valuable book, originally written by Vis'vacarma, or Twashta', the aptist god, had. been lost for many thousand years; but was rescued from obscurity by the extraordinary efforts of JAYAsinha.

He had also another voluminous treatise, called the Sidd'hanta-Samrát, on geometry and astronomy, en-
tirely compiled from various authors from the west: The greatest part of it is now in my possession, and was procured at Jaypur by Colonel Collins, resident with Sindia. Mr. Davis informs me also, that at the same time the work of Theodosius, on the sphere was translated into Sanscrit. As these thefts are not recorded, the circumstance is hardly known now to any of the natives. Jaya-sinh'a had also an extract made of all the constellations in Senex's celestial planisphere, and instead of 72 asterisms, he had 144 'made out, by splitting all those that would admit of it into two or three new ones. The royal oak of course has found its way there, under the name of Mula-vricsha, the radical or primeval tree; and the Indian is called Sárendra, or the chief of archers; and as the Hindus have no altars, the constellation of that name has been converted into a footstool.

There is a famous astronomer, whose works, or at least part of them, are still extant, well known all over India, and declared to have been a foreigner, as implied by his name of Yavanácha'rya, or the Grecian philosopher, and who lived, according to tradition, a little before the time of Muhamed. The Hindus give the name of Yavanas, or Greeks, to the inhabitants of the countries to the west of India, probably because the Greeks were once masters of Persia, and afterwards the seat of empire was fixed at Constantinople. From the account they give of him, it does not appear that he was a native of Greece, but only deeply skilled in the learning of the Greeks, having probably attended the university at Alexandria.

They say that he was a Bráhmen, born in Arabia, H 2
the inhabitants of which country were at that time followers of Brahma', and that the Sanscrit language was studied and well understood there by the learned. He came to India, where he resided for 2 long time, and in his old age he returned to his native country, in order to end his days. at Mbcshes-wara-sthán, or Mecca, in the performance of religious duties. Dr. Buchanan informs me, that ho saw in the Dekhin several tribes of Jainas, who insisted that they came originally from Mecca or Arabia; and that they were expelled by Muhamed; of his successors.

There are certainly followers of Brahma' and Bránmens to this day in Arabia; and I am credibly informed, by natives of that country, that in the interior parts there are still many idolaters, whom they suppose to be followers of Brahma', or Hindus, af they call them. The greatest part of the old names of places in Arabia are either Sanscrit or Hindi; and Pliny mentions two celebrated islands on the southern coasts of 4 rabia, in which there were pillars with inscriptions in characters unknown, I suppose, to the Greek merchants who traded there: but these were probably Sanscrit; as one of these two islands was: called Isura or Is'wara's island, and the other Rinsea, from the Sanscrit Hriniyá, or the island of the merciful goddess.

The Hindus claim Mecca as a place of worship belonging to them, and certainly with good reason. They say, that they were allowed to go and worship there for several centuries after the introduction of the religion of Muhamed; but were afterwards positively forbidden even to approach this sacred - place.

I always conceived, that there was only one sage of the name of Yavanachairya, who was considered as a foreigner; but having consulted lately several learned astronomers, they informed me, that there were no less than five who are considered as foreigners. Their names are C'hatta, Chutta, Rómaca, Hilla'ja, and Dishana; these, it is said, were Yávanas or Greeks. They certainly have very little resemblance with any Greek proper names, which we are acquainted with. Be this as it may, they are all supposed to have returned to their native country, with an intention to end their days at Mecca. From this circumstance, I suspect that they were Greeks from the famous university of Alexans dria, and Mecca was at a very early period a famous place of woiship: Guy Patin mentions a medal of Antoninus, in which it is called Moca the sacted, the inviolable, and using its own laws : and of this I took notice in my essay on Semiramis. The university at Alexandria was in a flourishing state, from the time of the Prolemies to the fourth and fifth centuries, and even till the time of Muhamed. Hindus often visited that famous city ; for Ptolemp conversed with several in the third century, who appear to have been well-informed men.

These five foreign astronomers wrote many books, but few remain; and the reason, in the very words of my learned friends, is, that the substance of these treatises having been incorporated into more recent tracts, they were of course neglected, and afterwards lost. This acknowledgment from Brahmens surprised me not a little; but I find that astronomers in genes ral, and learned physicians, are much more tractable and conversable than the other Hindus.

H 3

Whatever may be our opinion about these five strangers, their names, and their country ; yet from such an acknowledgment, and more particularly so from Hindus, we may rest assured, that there is some truth in it: The Hindus reckon three and twenty famous astronomers, eighteen of whom were natives of India; and the five others, foreigners. These' they insist were natives of Arabia: and if so, they were called Yavanacháryas, nôt because they were of Grecian extraction: but because they were skilled in the learning of the Greeks. Indeed their names; or rather surnames, appear to be Arabic. 'Hallage, and Cathan are names well known to Arabian writers: and Ebn-Dissan is the name of a famous impostor born at Edessus. Of R6maca or the Mléch'hávatára, I took particular notice before; and Dishan is the name of Omar in several copies of Raghu-na'tha's list; and it was he who first established the era of Muhamed in the year of Christ 638, and for this reason, they supposed him also to be a great astronomer, as well as Romaca.

There is another astronomer, called Cangha or Cangham, and Cangheh, whom the Hindus suppose to have been a foreigner; yet Muselman writers say, that he was a Hindu, and perhaps he lived on the western frontiers of India. By D'Herbelot he is called Cancah-al-Hindi, Kenker, Kencar and Cangha. He wrote a treatise on astrology, in Hindi or rather Sanscrit, which wàs translated into Arabic, and is said to be extant. He is perhaps the same with Mangheh, who, according to D'Herbelot, made so conspicuous a figure at the court of Harun.-al-Rashíd, about the year 808, as a physician. The famous Dandamis or Dama-Damis is unknown to
the Hindus; hut the Muselmans in India call him Tumtum, and D'Herbelot Thomthom-al-Hendi. He is noticed by Abul-Fazil in his preface to the third volume of the Ayin-Acberi. He was probably thus called, because he lived upon a Dumdum, or Dumduma, which is a platform of earth, now more generally called a Chebootra or Thána, from Sthana a stand.

As the names, or rather the surnames of these foreigners, are in great part derivable from the Arabic, and from no other language, it is not improbable, but that several, if not all of them, were from Arabia, whatever their, religious tenets might have been. The first of them, according to tradition, lived a little before Muhamed, when the schools of Alexandria, and Berytus in Phornice, were still flourishing. From that period, learning began to revive among the followers of Muhamed; and of course this learned man flourished, from the latter end of the sixth, or from the beginning of the seventh century to the time of Al-Mamun, who reigned at Balkh in the tenth, and till the invasion of India by the Muselmans.

The Hindus, at an early period, were famous for their knowledge of astronomy and astrology. The latter is entirely grounded upon the former; and the accuracy of the decisions, and predictions, depends entirely upon the precision, with which the conjunctions, oppositions, and the various aspects of the heavenly bodies are ascertained. In the first century, Hindu astrologers were in high estimation and repute at Rome, and none but the richest men could afford to
emplay them. It appears from Arryan on the auds thority of Megasthenes,* that in the time of AeexANDER, they had almanacks, with predictions concerning the weather, and impending calamities, such as they have at present, but more particularly so in the Peninsula. Strabo says, that the Bráhments professed astronomy ; $\dagger$ and he extols, at the same time, the attention they paid to learning. Q. Curtius testifies, that they skilfully observed the motions of the heavenly bodies. $\ddagger$ Eusebius, who lived in the third and the beginning of the fourth century, says that it was a Hindu, who first delineated schemes of the heavens, or the principal constellations His name was Andubarius, and he was considered as the founder of astronomy in India, and was famous for his skill and wisdom. According to Eusebitus, he lived soon after the flood, in the western parts of India; and this famous astronomer probably formed, and delipeated the twenty-seven lunar mansions, which seem to be the exclusive property of the Hindus. The opinion of Eusebius, and the other learned authors whom I have mentioned, was certainly that of the age in which they lived; and Strabo says, that the notions of the Hindus concerning the universe, and the sphericity of the earth, were the same with those of the Greeks. They had a code of laws in the time of Alexanden, and they wrote upon a sort of paper; for
 en cloth well beaten. $\$$ Strabo takes notice, that ind his time some asserted, that the Hindus were acquainted with the use of letters, whilst others denied it. He adduces the above pabsage frem Nearches in

[^31]+ Lib. 15.
\% 8mando, lib. 15. p. 717
proof of the former assertion; but the passage against it from Megasthenes is by no means conelusive; and seems to me, on the contrary, to prove that they were acquainted with the use of letters; for it ime plies only that they used no writing in their courts of justice in camp, where every thing was settled in a summary way; and it is even so to this day. Besides; says our author, such is the probity of the Hindus, that all the time, he was in the camp of Savdrocuptos, which consisted of 400,000 nen, notwe but petty thefts were ever brought before these courts, and they (the judges) even could not write Under such circumstances; neither any code of laws, nor much learning, or any writing, were necessary; common sense and integrity were the only requisites on the part of the judges.*.

During the first centuries of the Christian Era, the Hindus were very fond of travelling. Their Kings sent frequent embassies to the Roman and Greek Emperors: and some of these Embassadors went as far as Spain. Others visited Alexandria and Egypt, where Prolemp, in the third century, saw them, and conversed with them. Some of these Embassadors had long conferences, at Babylon, or rather Selewcia, with the famous Bamdeantes: and pilgrimages to the St'háre of Mahd́-Bhagá, now Mabog, or Bambyke in Syria, were very common, according to Lucian, as cited by the authors of the ancient Universal History. Even to this day, pilgrims from India go to Persia, Georgia, Moscow, and Arabia, Bootan, China, ànd even Siberia.

[^32]We are not to suppose, that there never was any intercourse between India and the more western countries of the old continent. There were diviners and soothsayers in Syria and Palestine, from beyond the east; that is to say from beyond Persia, and of course from India, 700 years before Christ, according to Isaiah; and these, long after, found their way even to Rome; and, according to some, it was a $H \eta d u$, that had been shipwrecked in the Red Sea, who first pointed out the way to India by sea.* Xxrxes, when he invaded Greece in the year 480 B. C. had a large body of Hindus with him, whose officers were men of respectability, and there is little doubt but that they had Brahmens with them.

Three hundred years before our era, the Carthagimians had numerous elephants from India, and their mahots or drivers were Hindus. They seldom used the African elephants, which, says Pliny, were timorous, and could not bear the sight of the elephants from India. $\dagger$ The Carthaginians had no proper name for an elephant, and from the mahots they adopted the Hindu name Gaja, which they pronounced Gaisa: Till that time, they, as well as the Phenicians their ancestors, called them Elaph or Alpha, beeves or oxen $\ddagger \ddagger$ and the Romans, when they shw Pyrrhus's elephants, called them also Luca Booes, and this was in the year 280 B. C.

Polybius || informs us, that in the year answering

[^33]to 251 B. C. Metellus defeated Asdrubal in Sicily, killed six and twenty of his elephants, took one hundred and four, and sent them to Rome, with their drivers, who were Hindus. According to the same author, when Hannibal crossed the Rhone 918 years B. C. the drivers of his elephants were also Hindus; and after this period, we find a Hindí word for an elephant introduced into Italy; for till that time, they called them large oxen. This name was Barrus, or Baro, as it is written by Isidorus,* who says, that it was a Hindu denomination: Baro and Baronem in the objective case, are from the Sanscrit Báran'a and Báran'am. From Barrus or Baro, the Latins made barritus, to express a noise like that made by an elephant, and also the verb barrive; and probably the word Ebur is derived from it.

When Manlius marched, at the head of an army, through Caria and Pamphylia, 189 years B. C. he came to the banks of a river, near the fort of Thabusion, called the river Indus, or of the Hindu; from a Hindu mahot, who fell into it from his elephant, and was drowned; $\dagger$ and this was on the borders of the greater Phrygia. Sometime before this, we read in Alciphron's letters, that Hindus of both sexes, in the capacity of servants, were not uncommon in Greece. Several emiyrations took place from India, and we find some tribes of Hindus settled in Colchis, where are Hindus to this day; and Hesychius asserts, that the Sindi of Thrace came originally from India. $\ddagger$ When Q. Metellus Celer was proconsul of Gaul, 59 years B. C. the famous Ariovist king of

[^34]the Suevi made a present to him of some Hindus, who had been shipwrecked on the German shores. They were merchants, who had ventured thus far from' their native country.* In the Vrihat-cathd we read of several Hindu merchants, who visited the Sacred Isles in the west, and being shipwrecked, they were made slaves; and some of them were so fortunate, as to obtain their liberty, and to revisit their native country. It is declared there, that they went a great part of the way by land, and then embarked at a place called Itanca : $\dagger$ another harbour is mentioned also under the name of Pauta-pur, and this subject I shall resume when I come to treat of the Sacred Isles. Strahlenberg saw a Hindu at Tobolsk, who went from India to that place, through China. Bell saw another Hindul from Madras, on the banks of the Argone; and Mr. Duncan, Governor of Bombay, introduced another to my acquaintance, who had been there also. The distance from the Indus to England is one fourth less than that from Madras to Tobolsk through China $\ddagger \ddagger$ and the embassadors of Pokus travelled as far as Spain 24 years B. C. The constant embassies, sent from India to the Emperors of Rome and Constantinople, are well known to the learned, even as late as the sixth century; but in the seventh, the growing power of the Muhamedans became an insurmountable obstacle to any further intercourse. Besides, the present state of society, manners and politics in the west, make it impossible for Hindu pilgrims to travel through Eur-

- Cornel. Nepos apud Plin. Sueton. Cicero in Vatin. c. 10. Pletarch, \&c.
$t$ Vrihat-cat'há Lambaca or Section the 5th called also Chaturdárìca.
$\ddagger$ Strablenberg p. 103. Asiat. Reseáches vol. vi. 483.
rops. They would be stopped at every step, and occasionally confined; and instead of alms, they would neceive insults only from the lower classes.

But the most famous of all, was the embassy sent. by Porus to Augustus: the embassadors went to Spain, where he was at that time, 24 years B. C. according to Orosius; and the purport of their commission was to enter into an alliance with him. But, as some time was spent before any progress could be made in this affair, other embassadors were sent by Porus, some years after, when they found the Enperor at Samos. This Pokus in his letter boasted, that he was lord paramount over 600 kings; and, in the supplement to the Bhavishya-purána, it is declared, that no less than 800 kings were the vassals of the famous Vicramaiditya. With them wera also embassadors from Pandien, king of the southern parts of the Peninsula; and they had in their train a Brahmen, a native of Brigugosha (now Baroach) called C'hadga the Sarmama, Zarmanos Chagas. He chose to remain behind, and attached himself to Augustus, in whose service he remained for some time, in the capacity, it seems, of an augur or sonthsayer.*

When the Emperor was at Athens, C'had'ga the Sarmana caused himself to be initiated into the sacred mysteries, though it was not the usual time; and foon after he voluntarily ended his days on a funeral pile. Calanus followed Alexander of his own accord, and ascended likewise the funeral pile at Pasargada. . There was even a large detachment of

[^35]
## 110

## ORIGIN AND DECLINE OF THE

Hindus, who followed Alexander into Persia, and which we find on the borders of Media, with Eumenes,' eight years after the death of the former. It was commanded by the brave $\mathrm{K}_{\text {eteus, }}$ probably Ketú, or the fiery meteor of war; and there was certainly little, or no compulsion used by the Greeks, for they took even their wives and families along with them. Keteus died fighting valiantly, and his two wives insisted upon burning themselves with the dead body; but it was found that the eldest was with child, and therefore she was prevented from following her husband. The youngest went triumphantly, and was led by her brother, and other relatives, and servants, to the funeral pile.*

Claudius received also an embassy from a king of Ceylon: and when Trajan was marehing against the Parthians in the year 103, some princes of India sent embassadors to him, requesting him to settle some disputes between them and their neighbours, probably the Parthians. It is remarkable, that during this expedition, Trajan was constantly supplied with oysters from Great Britain; and which were preserved fresh, by a particular process, discovered by one of the first epicures of the age. There were embassadors from India sent to Antoninus Pius, to Diocletian, and Maximian; to Thepdosius, Heraclius, and Justinian; and we read $\dagger$ of two Hindu kings, putting themselves under the protection of Diocletian and Maximian, and their names were Gennobon and Esatecih. In the year 274, Aurelian took Palmyra, and made Queen Zenobia

[^36]prisoner. There he found a body of Hindus, whom he carried to Rome, to grace his triumph. Damascius, who was contemporary with Justinian, in his life of Isidorus, relates several curious anecdotes of Severus, a Roman, but by birth an African, and who lived in the time of the Emperor Anthemius. Severus was a philosopher of most austere manners, and great learning, and fond of the society of learned men. After the death of that Emperor in 473; he retired to Alexandria, where he received at his house several Brahmens from India, and whom he treated with the greatest hospitality and respect. Dates and. rice were their food, and water their beverage, and they shewed not the least curiosity, refusing to go and see the most superb fabrics and palaces, with which that famous city was adorned.**

It is remarkable, that ancient travellers make no mention of the monstrous statues of the Hindus. The historians of Alexander take notice of the Siba, carrying among their standards the image of Hercules, whoever he was. The Suraseni round Muttra on the Jumna, had also a statue of Hercules, $\dagger$ or Bala-deva. Philostratus takes notice of some figures cut out of the rock beyond Hardwar; but these statues had nothing monstrous in them, no more than those made by Grecian artists in the Pan$j a b$, according to the same author. It is not improbable then, that at that time the Hindus had not yet attempted to represent, either in stone or wood, their monstrous deities. They were first introduced to our

[^37]knowledge by Jeeps, according to Claudian, who wrote in the fifth century, and who says:

> Jam fruyibus aptum
> Jamor, et assuetum sylvis delplina videbo:
> Jam cochleis homines junctos, et quidquid inane Nutrit JvDAICIS, quæ pingitur India, velis.

From this it appears, that in his time the Romans adorned their houses with tapestries, worked by Jews, and representing all the wild and monstrous figures of Hindu mythology, such as men growing out of shells. This is an obvious allusion to 'SANc'ha'sura, and his tribe living in shells, and peeping out of them in 'Shanc'ha-dwipa or Zangh-Bar.

In the year 529, a king of the Hemiarites in Arabia, called Al-Mondar, a general name for the kings of that tribe, and generally residing at Hirah, invaded Syria; and the Roman exarchs, or Governors, were obliged to fly to India for shelter, and certainly by sea, as the Romans were at war with the Persians,* and probably they found no other means of escaping, but by getting on board of some ship just going to sail for India.

There were at Rome augurs, and diviners from all nations, but mostly from Chaldea. There were some from Armenia, Egypt, and even a few Jecus, and particularly women from that nation. There were also astrologers, says Juvenalit from Phrygia and India; and none but very rich people employed these, and this was about the middle of the first

[^38]century. There were many Hindus at Alexandria, according to Ptolemy, who lived in the beginning of the third century. The inhabitants of Europe, at an early period, did by no means show so much readiness in leaving their native homes to visit distant countries, and particularly India. We are told that Pythagoras and Democritus visited the Hindu sages; but these accounts are delivered in too vague a manner, to deserve any credit.

The first European upon record, who visited India, is Scrlax, a Greek and experienced seaman, sent by Darius Hystaspes above 500 years B. C. to explore India. For this purpose he went to Caspatyrus or Caspapyriss, now Coskabpoor upon the Hydaspes, called also Indus, and by the Hindus the lesser Sindhu or Sindk. Having made the necessary arrangements, he sailed down a large river, which flowed toward the east, and then he entered the ocean, and returned by the way of the Red Sea,, and sailed to the bottom of it, where his voyage ended, after a circumnavigation, both on the river and by sea, of two and thirty months. This river is unfortunately called the Indus by Herodotus; otherwise, from the particulars, such as the course of that river, and the time that his circumnavigation lasted, one would suppose that it was the Ganges; and indeed many learned men are of that opinion.

The next European who visited India was the philosopher Phedon, about 430 years B. C. but it was not an act of his own. He is said to have been an Elean, probably because he was a native of Elea in the lesser Asia. It is recorded of him, that he was taken, and detained by Indians and afterwards sold by them as a slave. It is probable, that be had been
sold first to some Persian nobleman, sometime after appointed to the government of some district in India, where Phedon was carried away by a party of Hindus. Be this as it may, we find him afterwards at Athens, as a slave again, to a man, who kept women and handsome young men, for the purpose of prostitution. He was redeemed by Alcibiades at the request of Socrates, whose disciple he became. He founded the Eliac school, called Eretrian afterwards, from its having been transferred to Eretria in Eubaa, by Menedemus his successor.*'

There was a regular trade carried on, to India, from the accesson of the Ptolemies to the throne of Egypt, to the conquest of that country by the Romans, which did not cease till the middle of the seventh century, when the growing power of the Muhamedans put an insurmountable obstacle to a regular intercourse. The Greeks under the Ptolemies, had settlements at Callian near Bombay; but they were driven out of them by the native kings. It seems also from the Peutingerian Tables, that the Romans had a conṣiderable settlement near Muziris now Mirjee, where they had erected a temple in honour of Augustus $; \dagger$ and they had also two cohorts, or 1200 men, to protect their trade. The imports and exports were the same as they are to this day, as it appears from Arrian's Periplus, and the Justinian code.

The Greek Kings of Bactriana ruled over all the countries on the banks of the Indus, even as far as Sirhind, during a period of 129 years, that is to

[^39]say from the year 255 to 126 B. C. Eyen some of them were in possession of the western parts of the Gangetic provinces: and Demetrius is mentioued as one of them; and according to Sig. BAYRA; hp never was King of Bactriana or Balk, but of some inland part of India, extending beyond, the Gänges, about the year 195 B. C. According to'Strabo, his predecessor Menander conquered the countries to the east of the Hypanis, as far as the Jumnd.".His empire extended from Pattalena, to Zizerus, whichI take to be the small, but famous lake called Jid-jer, or the spring of Jid, noticed by Ctesinas, under the pame of Sid, and a little to the westward of the $J_{\mu m n n}$ and Dilli. $\dagger$

To these conquests Demetrius added some maritime countries to the eastward of Patalene, such as Sigertis, and the kingdom of Tessariostus, now the countries of Cachha and Gujjar'at, as I shall show in the appendix.

There are now numerous Hindus roving all over Arabia and'Persia, as far as Astrachan, or settled in some places of trade for a few years only, when they return to India. $\ddagger$ for I take no notice here of numerous tribes of Hindus, who are considered as natives of Persia, Turan and Colchis or Georgia: they are called Hindi all over these countries, and have been settled there from time immemorial. $\$$

[^40]From the Malaber Coast they go to Mosambique, where they have agents, who generally reside there seven or eight years; and Strahlen berg takes notice of a merchant from the Malabar Coast, at Astrachan.* From Surat and Guijarat, they go to Mascat and other trading places in arabia, where Bráh-' mens are to be found also, according to Niebuhr. Arrian in his Periplus says, that the inhabitants of the island of Dioscoridis (now Socotora,) consisted of Arabs and Hindus, with a few Greeks, settled there on account of the trade to India. The famous Pra'n-puri told me, that when he was at Baharein on the Persian Gulf, he was informed by the Hindus, whom he found settled there, that they used to go formerly to Egypt, where they had houses of agency, but that they had left off going there for about two or three generations.

This shows, that there was between the Greeks, Romans, Carthaginians and the Hindus, a constant and-reciprocal intercourse (which is by no means the case now) for a period of 1200 years at least: and to which nothing, but the overgrowing power of the Muselmans, could put a stop. In visiting the sages of Babylonia and Egypt, the Hindus must have been greatly surprised, and their vanity humbled, when they heard them talk of their remote antiquity. Then, and not before, in my opinion, they resolved not to be behind hand with any of them; and certainly they have succeeded wonderfully. Neither the Greeks and Romans, nor the Turdetani, a Galic nation, though settled in Spain, according to Strabo, carried history, and the beginning of things, beyond

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2 period of 6000 years, exactly like the Jews, and Hindus formerly, according to Megasthenes. The Gothic tribes entertained also the same notions, ak appears from the cosmogony of Orpheus, who was à Goth:*

The Hindus had the system of the Fugas long before; but this was not peculiar to them, for it pred vailed all over the west, and Hestob; who lived bed tween 900 and 1000 years before Christ, declarés that Cali-yugu was just beginning; and the Jairias assert that it began about that time. Though the Yugas are of a very great antiquity all over the world, yet the Hindus did not think of stretching their daration to such an enormous length, till a period conde paratively modern; and the Yugas in the west were also the component of their grand Calpa, which consisted equally of 12,000 years, but with this difference, that in the west these were considered as naitutal years, which is not the case in the east, at least now.

The first time we heard, in the west, of this extravagant system of chronology, was about the middle of the ninth century; when we were informed by Abu-Mazar, a famous astronomer, who tived at the court of Al-Mamixy at Balhh, that the Hindus rec koned from the flood or the beginning of the Cafi: yuga, to the Hejra, 720,634,442,715 days, or 3795 years.

There is obviously a mistake, originating either with the transcriber or translator : but it may be ea-

[^41]sily rectified. There is exactly that number of years, from the beginning of the Cali-yuga to the Hejra: but that immense number of days ${ }^{\text {que }}$ e reckoned from the creation to the Cali-yuga, according to Brammagupta's system. Mr. Davis, after reading this passage in my manuscript, kindly undertook ta examine it mø̄re particularly, and I beg leave to refer to his leatmed note on the subject, in the appendix at the ged of the éssay on Vicrama'ditya and. Sapivaghan: :
fill that time, the extravagant numbers of the Hindus were unknown to the Greeks and Romans, with whom they kept up a constant intercourse: That the Hindus concealed the whole from them, is inadmissible: for it is natural to suppose, that they were equally vain with the rest of mankind, We are well acquainted with the pretensions of the Egyptians and Chaldeans to antiquity : and surely they did not take the trouble of inventing fables to conceal them. On the contrary, Megasthenes, a man of no ordinary abilities, $\dagger$ who had spent the greatest part of his life in India, in a public character, and was well acquainted with the chronological systems of the Egyptians, Chaldeans and Jews, made particular inquiries inco their history, and declayes, according to Clemens of Aleixandria, that the Hindus and dewo were the oily people, who had a true idea of the creation of the world, and the beginning of things: and we learn from him, that the history of the Hindus did not go back above 5042 years, from the invasion of India by Alexander. Manuscripts differ; some have 5042, or 6042: others have 5402

[^42]years, apd three months; for he calculated even the months; but the difference is. immaterial in the present case.

This period of the Hixdus was adopted afterwards by the Persians, or was common to both: and the latter reckoned, from the creation to the era of, Mi-Lic-shan, in the year 1079 of Christ, 6,586 yeans; that is, they placed the creation 5507 years before Chrisf. It appears alsoffrom Geobee of Trebzzond, that the Persians reckoned, frop the fload to the year of Christ 632, or era of Yezdeiord, 3,7, 5 years, ten months, and twenty-three days, conformably, to the ideas of ABO-mAzAR: apd this is again the period of the Cali-yuga of the Hindass... From Aleanander's entering India, to the same era of Me-lic-Shan, there are 1406 years, which deducted from 6,586, there remains 5178; and this I believe was originally the true reading in Magasthenes's afcount of India. Be this as it may, the difference, felatively speaking, is not very considerable, and is immaterial in the present case.

Charss was the son of a carpenter, and himself a carpenter, or Tacshaca in Sanscrit. The Persians called him a Peishe-cara, handicraftman and tradesman. In the Calpa-druma-Calica, a treatise of the Jainas, and in my possession, 'Sa'la-va'hana, called by the Hindus a Tacshaca, and said to be also the son of a Tacshaca, Tash'th, or Twash'tá, is declared to have been a 'Sr'avaca or 'Shuaca, a tradesman.: and in the western parts of India, as in Gurjar'át, all banyans and tradesmen are called 'Sávacas. The words of the Calich are, "Sa'lava'hana Námá RájáJaina; Parama'Srávaca-pati. . The King called 'Sa'mava'-

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hana was a Jaina, and the lord and master of the Sravacas," or 'Sábacas, as more generally written anid pronounced.

Even the name of Sa'il-va'han; 'Sa'liban, and
 to be of Persian and Arabic origin, as well as Peisheh--chr, the name of his followers. Salib, or Sulib, signifies a stake, a cross, a gibbet, the Roman Furca; like the Greek Eruvesos, Salib or Salb signifies also crucified, and in the plural form, it becomes Sálub; and Sálbún. Ashab-al-Salib, means the Christians' in Arabic, that is to say, the followers of thie crucified. The best Sanscrit expression for this is 'Sutiva, "Saluon, or Salwa in a derivative form, and these are indifferently pronounced Salaba, or Salba, and in the plural number 'Sálabán, and 'Salban.' In the Cumben ricác'handa, these 'Salavas, or Salbans, are mentioned, in the same page with Saca, or Sála-va'hana, and as existing at the time this Ruran'a was written. The copy of that section of the Scanda-puran'ta in my possession, was written about 230 years'ago in Gurjardt: and the writer or transcriber, well knowing, that 'Stuoca was a title of 'Saca, or 'Sa'liva'hana, wrote first Saroaca; instead of Saca; but recollecting himself, and finding that there was a redundant syklable in the verse, he drew two small strokes with the pen across the middle syllable, showing, that it was to be left out, and the whole word to be read 'Saca. In the Luecknow copies of this' section, na mention is made of 'Saca, and the whole verse is omitted.

The copies from Chitra-chta, have the whole verse; but the name of 'Saca is variously written, sometimes Sacra, Sraca, \&c. These readings are obviously erroneous. There were.no other copies of that sec-
tion at Benares but those procured from Chitra-cita, and Lucknow, till I was lately presented with a neat copy 230 years old, from Gujarát, by a Pandit of that country. The Lucknow copies are tolerably accurate; but those from Chitra-cuita are miserably mangled, through the carelessuess of transcribers. The passage relating to 'Saca, is in the following words: Tatah trishu sakasresku sate chkpyadhiceshu cha; 'Sacóináma bhavishyas'cha ybtidaridre háracah: and whether we read 'Saca or 'Savaca, it points to the same individual.
.. The idea that SAMIVAHNA was borne on a tree. cross, or furca, they might have borrowed from the Manicheans, who represented Christ atrétched upon a tree. Váhana, báhana, and váha or báha, are nouns derived from the verb vah, veho, to carny; : and used both in an active and passive sense. 'Tihur Habyiaváhana is one of the titles of Agni, or fureer Indra is called Megha-cthana, or the cloud borne; Gand!-ha-dedika; is, the wind, from its being the vehicle of perfiumes. The clouds loaded with water are called Vári-oáha. Thus Sál-bah, Hál-bah, Sal-báhana, \&c. may signify either he who carries his cross, or tho was borne, or exalted upon the cross.: Crucifer is one of the tithes of Chaist, perfectly answering to Sála-baha.

The Hindus are very fond of forms or emanations, which they consider to be the same with the original from which those emanations sprang; and disciples are very often considered as so many forms of their masters: It is then very possible, that they should have considered the Apostle and disciple, who fixst preached the Guspel in India, as a form of Christ, or as Christ himself, after several centuries had elapsed; and thus possibly have mistaken the year
of the death of the form, or disciple, for that of his principal. Now some of the Apostles lived to a great age; and St. Thomas; for instance, is supposed to have lived seventy-three years, and to have suffered martyrdom about the seventy-fourth or se-venty-fifth year of the Christian Era.

The year of the death of Vicrama'rca, and that of the manifestation of 'SA'L-bA'HAN; are acknowledged to be but one and the same; and they are obviously so, according to the Cumarich-charda, that remarkable year was the 3101st of the Caliyuga, and the first of the Christian Era, thus coinciding also with the Samaritan text,' which is a remarkable circumstance.

Some learned Pandits, from the western parts of India, afe of opinion, that the era of Vicrama'di-TYA was originally reckoned from the first year of his reign, in the year 3044; and that, after a reign of fifty-six years, his death happened in the year 3101.

- This was certainly the opinion of the author of the Cumaricá-c'hand'a, and of the Pardits who assisted Abul Fazil, who says, in his summary of the history of the Kings of Malava, that Vicrama'ditya's era began the first year of his reign; and this makes this legend more consistent and probable.

In the Vrǐhat-Cathá, 'Saliva'hana' is called Nrisinha, or the man-lion, answering to the lion of the tribe of Juda; and one of the forms of Budd'ha is called Nri-sinha, both by the Pauránics and the Baudd'has. 'Sacti-sinha, or the energetic lion, is also the name of 'SA'LIVA'HANA in the appendix to the Agni-purán'a. According to the Vrihat-cat'há, Vi-
cramídity marched from his capital city Pátallputra, or Patna, to wage war against Nri-sinifa, King of Pratishthetivit
VI. The cross though not an object of worship among the Baudd has, is a favourite emblem and device with them. It is exactly the cross of the Manicheans, with leaves and flowers springing from it, and placed upon a mount Caloary, as among the Roman Calholics. They reptesent it various ways; but the shaft with the cross bar, and the Catoary remain the same. 'The tree of life and knowledge, or the Jаmbu tree, in their maps of the world, is always represented in the shape of a Manichean cross, eighty-four Yojanas (answering to the eightyfour years of the life of him who was exalted upon the cross), or 423 miles high, including the three steps of the Caloary.. ..

This cross, putting forth leaves and flowers, (and fruit also, as I am told) is called the divine tree, the tree of the gods, the tree of life and knowledge, and productive of whatever is good and desirable, and is placed in the terrestrial Paradise. Agapius, according to PHotius, ${ }^{*}$ maintained, that this divine tree in Paradise, was Christ himself. In their delineations of the heavens, the globe of the earth is filled up with this cross and its Calvary. The divines of Tibet place it to the S. W. of Meru, towards the source of the Ganges. The Manicheans always represented Carist crucified upon a tree among the foliage. The Christians of India, and of St. Thomas, though they did not admit of images, still entertained the greatest veneration for the cross. They

* Phot. Biblioth. p. 403.
placed it on a Calvary, in public places, and at the meeting of cross roads; , and it is said, that even the heathen Hindus in these parts paid also great regard to it. I have annexed the drawings of two crosses, from a book entitled the Cshetra-samasa, lately given to me by a learned Baudd'ha, who is visiting the holy places in the countries bordering upon the Ganges.*
There are various representations of this mystical symbol, which my friend the Jati could not explain to me; but says, that the shaft and the two arms of the cross remain invariably the same, and that the Caloary is sometimes omitted. It becomes then a cross, with four points, sometimes altered into a cross cramponnt, as used in heraldry.

In the second figure there are two instruments depicted, the meaning of which my learned friend, the Jati, could not explain. Neither, did he know what they were intended to represent; but, says he, they look like two spears: and indeed they look very much like the spear and reed, often represented with the cross. The third figure represents the same tree, but somewhat nearer to its natural shape. When it is represented as a trunk without branches, as in Japan, it is then said to be the seat of the supreme One. When two arms are added, as in our cross, the Trimurti is said to be seated there. When with five branches, the five Sugats, or grand forms of Búdd'ha, are said to reside upon them. Be this as it may, I cannot believe the resemblance of this cross and Calvary, with the sign of our redemption, to be merely accidental. I have written this account of the progress of the Christian religion in India, with the impartiality of an historian, fully

persuaded that our holy religion cannot possibly acceive any additional lustre from $i t$.

The word Mtéch'ha in Sanscrit, does not signify literally a foreigner; but it is generally understood in that sense by the Pauranics, when announcing, in a prophetical style, thie different powers who were to rule over India. Hear now, says the author of the Vishnu-purtmra, hear notv what woill come to pass in these times: porverful Kings among. the AryyaMléch'has will appear; they will subvert the reigning religion, spoil and deceive the Prajás, or the people.

In the Bhagavata, they are called Abrahmazarchasah in the plural, and Abrahmavarchah in the singular; because, as they understood not the fundamental tenets of their own religion, through their spiritual blindness, and the hardness of their hearts, they gave it up to embrace a new one.

In the Brahmanida we read, then will come the Aryya-Mlech'has, who zoill seduce the people; they woill be proul, and at the same time distrustfil, as if constantly alarmed.

In the Váyu-purán'a it is declared, that generations of Kings woill rise, and set like the sun. Then zeill come the 'Ary ya-Mléch' has, who will forsake the D'harma, religious creed, Carma zoorship, Tirt'ha the places of pilgrimage of their ancestors; they will seduce the people weith their new doctrine, and will grow worse and worse every day. After them Sarva Mlech'ha, all sorts of foreign and impure tribes will overrun the country.

Such is the character given of these good 'Aryyas, called Avariam, and Abraiam, as well as their

Apostle, even as low as the times of Mi Polo in the 13th century. From Aláryyam, the Pauraniç pror bably made $A$-Brahma, in order to shew their contempt of them, but more particuldarly in the latter times, when they grew worse and worse; and M. Poso speaks of some of the Abraiam, or Abramiam, nearly in the same terms. Yet in his time the denomination of Avariiam, in Sansorit Aváryyam, and Abdryyam, was applied to them; and he was told that it signified good and pious men.

I had, for a long time past, particularly inquired from the Baudd'has whether they knew any thing of the wars of Budd'ha with Teyetat;* but I was always answered in the negative. It was my fault in some measure; I did not make use of the other synonymous names of that enemy of the religion of Budd'ha. I mentioned before, that I supposed that Tevetat was a corruption from Df'va-Tashta, synonymous with De'va-Twashta', or De'va-Silpí, the divine artist, or carpenter, who is more generally known under the name of Visva-carma, or the universal artist. Under this last appellation, Te'veta't is known to them. Soon after a learned Jati presented me with a book called the Budd'ha-charitra, with leave to take a copy, in which the wars of Budd'ha, with Vis'va-carma, or De'vaTwasht ' $A^{\prime}$, are related. It is a most voluminous work, and still it is incomplete, and the seat of war was in India.

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## ESSAY VI.

## PART I.-CHAPTER I.

Of the two Tri-Cu'ta'd'ri, or Mountains with three Peaks; one in the N. W. and the other in the S. E. Quarters of the Old Continent.
I. TRI-CUT'A'D'RI, the mountain (Adri) with three peaks (Tri-Cúta,) answers to Tpuxpupos and $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{p} \text { romeroos }}$ in Greek: for in that language dxpor signifies properly a peak, summit, and implicitly a headland, or promontory. Polyenus calls Mount Meru or Meros, Tri-coryphus: it is true, that he bestows improperly that epithet on Mount Meru near Cabul, which is inadmissible. Merru, with its three peaks on the summit, and its seven steps, includes and encompasses really the whole world, according to the notions of the Hindus and other nations, previously to their being acquainted with the globular shape of the earth. I'mentioned in the first part, that the Jews were acquainted with the seven stages, Zones or Dwípas of the Hindus; but I have since discovered a curious passage from the Zohar-Manasse on the creation, as cited by Basnage, in his history of the Jews." "There are, says the author, "seven earths, whereof one is higher than the other; for the holy-land is situated upon the highest earth, and Mount Moriah (or Méru) is in the middle of that holyland. This is the hill of God, so often men-

[^45]tioned in the Old Testament, the mount of the congregation, where the mighty King sits in the sides of the north, according to Isaiah, and there is the city of our God."\% The Méra of the Hindus has the name of Sabhá, or the congregation, and the gols are seated upon it in the sides of the north. There is the holy city of Brahmid-puri, where resides Brahmá with his court, in the most pure and holy land of Ilároratta.

Thus Méru is the worfdly temple of the supreme being, in an embodied state, and of the Tri-Mu'rtti, or sacred Triad, which resides on its summit, either in a single, or three-fold temple, or rather in both : for it is all one, as they are one and thiree. They are three, only with regard to men involved in the gloom of worldly illusion; but to men who have emerged out of it, they are but one; and their threefold temple, and mountain with its three peaks, become one equally. Mythologists in the west called the world, or Merru, with its appendages, the temple of God; according to Macrobius.

Hence this most sacred temple of the supreme being, is generally typified by a cone or pyramid, with either a single chapel on its summit, or with three; either with, or without steps.

This worldly temple is also considered, by the followers of BUDD'HA, as the tomb of the son of the spirit of heaven, whom 1 conceive to be the first man, re-emerging in every Calpa, or the first lawgiver, often confounded with the first man. His bones, or limbs were ṡcat-

[^46]tered all over the face of the earth, like those of Osiris and Jupiter Zagheus. To gollect them was the first duty of his descendants and followers, and then to entomb them. Out of filial piety, the remembrance of this mournful search was yearly kept up by a fictitious one, with all possible marks of grief and sorrow, till a priest announced, that the sacred relics were at last found. This is practised to this day by several Tartariain tribes of the religion of Bud$\mathrm{D}^{\prime} \mathrm{Ha}$; and the expression of the bones of the son of the spirit of heaven is peculiar to the Chinese, and solhe tribes in Tartary.

The Baudd'hists in this country are so close, reserved, and iguorant, in general, that hardly any information can be obtained on this subject.. Besides, they acknowledge that it is so awful a theme, that they really avoid to make it a subject of conversation. They confess that the pyramids, in which the sacred relics are deposited, be their shape what it will, are an imitation of the worldly temple of the supreme being, and which is really the tomb of the first of his embodied forms; or of his son, in the language of the Chinese, Tartars, and of the Greeks also, who were little, acquainted with the system of emanations and incarnations. They also declare, that many of these pyramids do not really contain the bones of the Thúcur, or Lord: and though they are to be supposed, and asserted to contain them, the real place where they are deposited, should remain unknown, in order to prevent profanation; exactly like the various tombs of Osiris. For this reason, the sacred relics, instead of being deposited in the pyramid, are always placed in a small vault deep under ground, at some distance from it, as at Sárnát ha, near Benares.

This monnument is about fifty feet high, of a cylindrical form, with its top shaped like a dome. Similar mortumentss, but never more than three or four feet hight, are often erected by Hindus, upon the spot where a married woman burned herself with her hustband. These monuments are in general called Sattí; and the enormous one at Sarnáth is a sort of Satt ovet the bones of Budd'ha. According to tradition, it was etected over the ashes of those who fell there in battle, in the invasion of the Muslemans. But this is impossible; as this monument is the chief and principal piece of that sacred fabric, which was begun many years before the said invasion. The only part that was finished is the tomb of Budd'нa; all the others," which were intended for the splendor of the place, and the convenience of the royal inhabitants and priests, remaining in an unfinished state. The secret vault, in which these relics are deposited in general, is called the Thácur's Cutti, the room or cell of the Lord; and in the inscription found amontrst the ruins above this cell, it is de-. clated that Sthirpaita and Vasaita, sons of a King of Gour, in Bengal, built this Cúti. It follows from hence, that these were the persons who deposited there the Thacur's bones. In the above inscription it is declared, that this happened in the year of Vitcamáditya 1083, or of our Lord either 1017 or 1027.*. In the inscription found at Islamabad, $\dagger$ these relics, consisting of a few bones, are saind to have been deposited in two brass vessels in a Críti, or romin under ground. In the account of the

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\text { † As. Res. v. } 2 .
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discovery of two urns at Stirnatha, it is mentioned that the Cuiti was eighteen cubits, or twentyseven feett, under ground.* There the relics were deposited in an urn, enclosed in a vessel of miarble, in the shape; and of the size of the famous' Butberini monument. There were a few bones onily, with various trinkets, whith consisted of pieces of coloured glass, all of them perforated, with thin Kekdes of gold, ath sothe coarse pearls. These ornaminelts are by no means a proof that these bones were thrsis of a fethate. It is more probable, that they fotthed a chaplet used by devout people, or rosaries. athe Bracelets, with which the statues of Budn'ha ate gethérally decorated. The marble vessel, which: cobtietuind the urn, is more highly finished than that of the Barberini monument. The urn itself is of a more elegant form than that in the above monument. It is in the shape and of the size of a chalice; it has ne catuled flgares, but elegant mouldings, exquisitely firliskeid; ard is of greetr marble. I suspect the whole to be of foreign workmanship; for it is totally dffetettr; both in shape and workmaniship, from vases ith ${ }^{\prime}$ rise' atriong the Hindus, either at this day or in foritiot timies. Pithostratus informs us, that statades, By Girecian artists, were by no means uncomrion in the N: W. parts of India. Stiabo says also, thiat altart's of Greciain workmanship were often found' iid the'westetn parts of Indid; and Arrifan; in his Ftriplis's, takeds notice of altars and of small temples in the Grectian taste, near Barygaza or Baroach. Phe pratitice of thas preserving the boties of Bud$D^{\prime} H \kappa^{\prime}$ is of great antiquity; for it is expressly mentrioned By Elemens of Aleitandria, who says, that

- As. Res. tol. v. p. 151.

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they were deposited under a pyramid. In the history of China we read, that in the year 335, a bone of Fo was sent from India to the Emperor of that country, who was highly pleased with this precious relic: though his minister Hanru made a very spirited remonstrance against this innovation; and which is to be found in Du Halde's China.

The followers of Brahma are not addicted to the worship of dead men's bones, and I know but one instance to the contrary. At Jagan-nat'ha they have a bone of Chrishina, which is considered as a most. precious and venerable relic; so much so, that few people are allowed to see it : and Hindus are not fond of miaking it the subject of conversation, any more than the Baudd'has.

The shape of these monuments is always either that of a pyranid or of a cone, with some trifling deviations occasionally. Thus the cone assumes the shape of a trump-roof: sometimes it is formed by the revolution of a cymatium, or Ogive round an, axis; and these two forms are generally said to be in the shape of a bell. Mount Méru, and the seven stories, are represented in the shape of a trump by the divines of Ceylon, according to Mr. Joinviles's delineation in the seventh volume of the Asiatic Re-: searches. The pyramid is equally subject to the same variations, the'hips, or angles, being sometimes. in the shape of a cymatium. As Mount Méru is also. represented of a cylindrical form, the tombs of the Thúcur are equally made in that shape, as that of Sárnátha. Sacrifices and offerings are never made in' Tibet, 'without placing before the devotees a cone or pyramid, the image of MECrú and of the worldy Linga. Brâhmens, instead of either, make a cylinder
of earth, and for the same purpose. This they call the primeval Lirga; which was represented in the west, and to this day in the Dekhin; by a cone, according to Arnobius and other authors.

The steps, stories, and retreats are always omitted in India: but I was told, that it was considered as immaterial. The seven stories, however, are marked by lines, in a delineation of the worldly temple and tomb of Budd'ha, in a large map of the world, accompanying the Cshetra-samása, a geographical treatise in my possession. This representation of the mountain of God struck me forcibly, and was the occasion of further inquiries into this subject. It is of the same shape with the pyramids of Egypt: the base only is a little shorter, with a small flat top, with a chapel in honour of Budd'ha. The sides are smooth, as in the pyramids; but the seven stories are represented by lines, which brings it still nearer to the tower of Babel. The pyramids of Egypt are not all alike : some are in. the shape of a cone; one with recesses is mentioned by De Non, who notices also another with a circular base. The square base of this worldly temple is peculiar to the Baudd'hists of Tibet; for in India the Bráhmens, and the Jainas, always give it a cirenlar form. In the representation of it in the Oshétra-samása, it is a square. . Though the dimensions are much neglectell, yet in all these monuments at Benares, the most modern, and of course the most perfect, are of a conical figure; the perpendicular section of which, through the center, is an equilateral triangle. There is nlways a small temple on the summit, except one near Benares, at a place called Camow'y. Such of these monnments as belong to the Baudd'has are called the K 3
temples of BuDD'ina : they might alse be called the temples of Bala or Balas, ome of the titles of Budd'ha, but little known new, and mpre partigur larly so to the vulgar. The word Bafas, property pronounced, sounds exactly like Belos in Greek; and Belus in Latin. May we not then reasonably
 bylon, was precisely a similar monument, and ealcyr lated for the very same purpose.

On the summit of it was a chapel, dedicated to Belus, according to Herodotus. Dioporus, the Sicilian, says there were three; but this is immaterial: for balas is three and one. Begides, this temple of Ненодотия probably consisted of thres chapels. About the center of the tower, in the middle, was the tomb of BaLAS, and near it, in the body of the pyramid also, another chapel, exactly in the great pyramid of Giza in Egypt. It is propable, however, that the bones of Befus wers. not deposited in the osteusible tomb, but were concealed in a secret vault, in some other part of the pypamid or tower. It appears then, that the pyramids were similar fabrics, and intended for the very same purt pose. For the Egyptians, the Phenicians likewise, had their Belus, as well as the Babylonians and Hipa dus: and this Belus, it is probable, was originally the same through these different countrieg. In the eastern patts of Bengal, particularly toward the Sunderbunds, there is, almost in every village, a representation of this worldly temple, of earth with steps. The whole is neatly plastered with a whitish clay; and on stated festivals, the statue of some favourite deity is placed on the summit, in a small, but handsome portable temple. Some of these fabrics
are from five to tweity foet high, apcording to the circumstances and zeal of the villagers. These ane considered as a representation of mount Meru; and, in the inscription of Sarnáth, the conical mount, near the sacred repository, is called Meru.

Like all the temples and tombs of Banus in India, the pyramids had no opening whatevel, except one or two. It is however pretty certain, that all the pyramids were not intended for the reception of the bones of Belus. Many. were probably intended for the burial of a very few exalted and sacred characters, like the grand Lamas of Tibet, with a few others, who are always buried under pyramids : but these are acknowledged to be forms of Budn'ma, though of an inferior rank. As the Egyptians orancealed most carefully the real place where their Belus was entombed, it is not uulikely that the great pyramid was only an ostensible one, and of course allowed to remain open. For we are told, that the body of him for whom it was intended, never was deposited there; or if deposited, it was roit into the ostensible tomb, but into some secret place inder the pyramid. The limbs of Osiris ware buried separately, and on the very gpot when Isis found them: and he was torn into fourteen pieces; others say six-and-twenty. The gengral opinion is, that Isis collected all the limbs in a poffin, like which she made many others, and presentod them to several cities through Egypt; assuring privately every one, that they possessed the real one. It is supposed, that Osiris was entombed nak Memphis, though the spot never was known.

The tower of Babel seems then to have been the wordly temple of the spirit of heaven, and the tomb K 4
of his son, either the first man of the Calpa, or the mast ancient king and legislator of the country.

There were four Adams, and four Budd has also; and we are now under the fourth, according to the traditions of the Muselmans, and of the Baudd has. Adam's body was, at his own request, entombed in a cave or vautt, called Alconuz, in a mountain in the center of the world; and of course the Meru of the Hindus, and represented by artificial hills, either of stone or earth, and of various shapes, like Méru.

His:descendants removed to that holy mountain; the wicked offspring of Cain were-allowed only to diwell at the foot of it, whilst that of Seth were seated ligher up; as far as the top; where they lived ini great sanctity and purity of manners, every day worshipping Gon on the sumnit of the mountain, and visiting the body of $\Lambda \mathrm{dAm}$ in his vault, as the means of procuring the divine blessing.* This mountain, in the center of : the earth, with seven steps or stories, or mount Méru, was really the mountain of Goid, the worldly temple of the spirit of heaven, and the tomb of his son. Cointus of Smyrna says, that this holy mountain was depicted upon the shield of Achicies; and that on its summit resided the efficacy or 'Sacti of the world,' or of the supreme being, towering to the skies: and he ands, that this most sacred place was very difficult of access. .

The limbs, or bones; of this son of the spirit of heaven, Purncu in Chinese, Budd'ha, Osiris, Dionyisus, or Adam, were dispersed all over the

[^48]world. ADAM's remains, after the flood, were divided among his posterity, and, his scull fell to the -share of Shem, who deposited it in a vault on mount $^{\text {sen }}$ Catoary; neat the holy hill of Moriah or Moreh. The inhabitants of Ceylon showed formerly one of his teeth; and they have now one of his tusks: for their last-ADAM or Budd'ha, was incarnate in the shape of an elephant; and ascended ipto heaven, from the stimmit of the peak of Adam. Muselmans, who were settled in the Peninsula, and in that island, at a very early period, concluded, and not without some plausible ground, that this Budvina must have been Abam : and accordingly, Persian writers gravely inform us, that Apam was banished to Ceylon, and thence translated into heaven, from the summit of the peak, which was denominated after him. ZArades. Zoboades or Zarat was the name given, by the Chaldeans; to the eldest Zoroas'ter, claimed equally by the Persians. Some say that Becus taught the Chaldeans astronomy, whilst others in sist, that it was Zarades or Zoroaster; whom several learned men consider as the same with Mizraim, the son of Ham. Be this as it may, the eldest Zarades was the son of Oromazes, the spirit of heaven, according to Suidas. Like Adam, he directed that his bomes should be carefully preserved: his precepts for a long time were complied with; and his relics, carefully and secretly entombed; like those of Balia or Budd'ha, like the limbs of Osiris; and like those of Bacchus at Delphi, became añ object of worship. The eldest Zoroaster, called Zarades, Zoroades and Zarates by the Chabdeans, is probably the same with Belus and the Saurid of Arabian writers: and the Goddess Zaretis was probably his consort. Several learned oriental writers insist that Zohondes, or Zononster assisted at
the building of the tower of Babel; and that he is the same with Zohac or Nimatod, and that under the name of Saurin he built the great pyramid in Egypt. The Parsis in India say, that he was a pative of China; but I suppose that they originally meant Bactria, seemingly the native country. of the Chinus, according to the Purán'us, and the earliest Persian and Arabian authors, who say that formerly the country about Samarcand was called Chinistan, and its inhabitants Chinas.*.
II. The three peaks of Meru are, one of gold, the other of silyer, and the third of iron, stone: or earth, which is considered as the same. Thus, the impn age is generally called the age of stone or earth in India. In the west, mankind was produced from stones, thrown by Depucalion and Pybria behind their backs, in the beginning of the ipon age; and from them sprang the present stony or stone-hearted race.

In consequence of this, some powertul princes ate declared, in the Purán'as and other books, to bave erected three mountains, of gold, silver, and stone; or three pyramids or conical bills, like the three peaks of Méru, though the materials they were built with were only stone or clay. Poly enos has givan us the names of these three peaks, Menom, Candaskl, and Corasibé; which, however distorted and disfigured, may be still traced back to their :original standard. For this purpase let us suppase, that a travellef asked a Hindus the names of these three peaks, the Hindu probably answered Mana, Cusit'háckya, Cailáśspi, of litẹrally in English, Mana,

[^49]Su'fitha' thus celled, Caila'sa also. The firet peak, is is true, is not known under that nasne; but it is described as such, ond this appears to be ith reai mame. Upowit BraHma' resides, and his seat is salled. Brahema-puri, or the town of Brahma': it is also Mara-puri, the town of Mama, or of his heart. or the delight of his heart, near the fanacus lake of Mares or Mdnexa; the waters of which, proceerling from hapven, are the delight of his heart likewise. They are otherwise said to procesd from his heart, and iadeed every thing there is from his heast. The shyio $4 \theta$ meaning of Maza is mized, (meins,) but it is abweys rendered here heart, because the mind proceeds from the heart, according to the Hindus, who swen are qble to trace its track through the bridy to the head. The radical name of Vai-Curitha is Cunct'ba, an ideot. The name of Vishno's mother; in one of his incamations, duriug the fifth Mawregrtara, was Cun't'ina or the ideot; gad as she wes yery much so, she was called Vi Cun't'ha Vishno, since that time, is supnamed Vai Cunt'ha; and after him, the peak on which he resides is denominated likewise. In Cailadeapi, api signigies nlgo. This Trincuitddri, or mountain with three summits, is declared to be the lord of mountains; and of course the other Tri-coryphean hills, for there are many, are sonsidered as inferior to it. The next in rank is the three-peak-land in the N. W, emphatically called the Warif imand, the island of the Moon, a celfastial. aerth or regim, a ternestrial heaven or paradiss.

The next to this in the Tri-cita mountain in the south-east, including the peninsula of Muslácé, Sumemtrh, and Ceylon. These twa Tri-cít tadris axe declared to cormaspond to each other, in their respective quaters, and thair Téja, Cirn'm'g, or splendef, ase the
constant theme of the Pauranics and other Hindes writers. These two Tri-cútas, or three-peakedislands may probably be the two islands of Cerne, east and west, of the ancients. When speaking in general terms, the Pauránics sometimes place them, one in the east, and the other in the west. But numerous and explicit passages show, that they are situated in the N. W. and S. E. quarters of the old continent. There are however, some few passages, which place them north and south of Meru; and Lanca is now considered as situated on the equator, exactly to the south of $U_{j j a y i n i ́, ~ M e r u, ~ a n d ~ o p p o s i t e ~}^{\text {e }}$ to the island of the moon. The last assigned situation was the first I hit upon, on my first acquaintance with the Puránas, and perplexed me very much; as the Pandits, I was acquainted with, insisted that the White island, one of the peaks of the western Tri-cú'ta, was in the N. W. quarter, that is to say, it occupied the whole space between the N. W. and N. points: and that likewise the eastern Tri-cút tádri was between the S. and S. E. points. Unfortunately, they could not then produce the necessary vouchers from their sacred books; but in the mean time, they exhibited the accompanying map of Jambu, in order to illustrate the subject.

In the plate, the map of Jambu is represented under three different projections. The first is according to the ideas of the Pauránics, in which one half of the equator is obviously combined with another half of the meridian, on the plain of which the map is projected. I have marked the degrees of longitude upon the equator, and the degrees of latitude north, upon an arch of the first meridian. No notice is ever taken of these particulars by the Pauranics; but a little reflection will show the original

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VolX. Plate 3.
design of this diagram, though the projection be ever so disfigured *.

The true projection of it should be in the shape of what the ancients called the botiom part of a sling: and this was admitted by Dionysius Periegetes. Posidonius before him admitted of it also: but he insisted, that the greatest length of this projection was in a north and south direction. This sort of projection is represented in the third number of the same plate. Number II. represents the same portion of the globe, that is to say, the northern part of the old continent, as projected in the usual form, upor the plain of the first meridian.

In the first and second numbers, the two Tri-cútàdris, or islands, abounding with Cirn'n'a or resplendence, are represented diametrically opposite, with all due symmetrical arrangement in every part, to which the Hindus will always sacpifice truth. There are, however, some gencral outlines, which are strictly true. There are really three islands, or $d w i-$ pas in the south east, and as many in the north west quarter of the old continent, correspouding exactly, or nearly so, to each other ; and they have also thie same names. The rest of the superstructure owes its origin to the fertile and inventive genius of the Hindus. The idea, however, is by no means a modern one; nor was it confined to India: for ancient writers in the west acknowledged two islands, called Cerne, one in the east, and the other in the west: the latter, called also Cyrene, was placed near the straits of Hercules; and was said to consist equally

[^50]of tlireée istánds. Thē eàstern Cetrie, it is true, was said to be near the eastern shores of Africä. "This mistaken notion arose, through the information of the Hindus, who will have it that the dioizod of Lañod. really joins the shores of Sanchá, Zeing, or Africa. The Nubian geographer adopted this idea, as well' as Arabian writers in general.

The Gods areè représénted às trâvelling frow one Tri-cúta to the other; and the griañ đepoot for sontils. after death, is at Yama-puri, in the Peñinsiuld of Málàcá; from which, on certain daysi fixed for that
 north west, which they reach after a painful march of twelve months.

These three islands in the south east, are in generat called Lancá; and in every one of thèm is süpposed' to be a city called a Lanch-puri, and theie is actually': a place of that name in Sumatra, accoiving to $\mathbf{A t r}$. Marsden. The walls of these three citiés atee of the" same metal with the soil of their respective islands: of course the walls and palaces of Lañca-phut in the Gold-Island, are of that metal; and of silvèt in the Sitver-1sland. In the island of iron, brass, stone, of clay, the walls are of these materials: ' But more generally they are said to be either of iron or brass: The Gold-Island, or Suroarna, is also called Mana-: Lancá and Má-Lancá; from which is: probably' derived its modern name of Málucáa whiteck is atso". called Maláchya in the Devi-puran'á.

These islands were well knoówn to the andieftrt, unider the appellations of Chryse, Argyrea, and Taprobank, That of Taprobant, though generally understood of Ceylon, was also exterded to the three islands; for

Stephanus of Byzantium says, that Argyrea, the Stiver-Isldand, or Sumutra, made part of Taprobant, and very properly too: for Taprobant is obviously derived from the Hindi TApu-Ravana, the istand, or islands of Ra'vana, who was the lord of them, and whose nande, in the spoken dialects, patticulatly in the Dekhin, is always pronounced $\mathrm{RA}^{i}{ }^{i} \mathrm{~A} x$. . Theit Sanscrit names are Canchana or the Gold-Island; Rajata the silver one, and Sinhala is Ceylon, On the latter the epithet of Iron:Island is never bestowed in any book which I have seen: but it is understood as a matter of course: it was called also the brass country by. Ptoletty, though stratigely misplaced by him.

From various documents, through different channels, he has introduced twice in bis map of that country, this Fri-cittadri, first, as three islands or Penitstulas, and also as three countries on the mainlaidu, wider the names of gold, silver, and brass. countries. Mr. Dantrlese has proved that the Pertizustld of Maláça, with most of the places belonging to it; are twice repeated, and made contiguous by him.

In the Gold-Lsland, or Má-Lanca, is the abode of Yamea, called Yama-purl, or in the spoken diafects. Jath-cote, a place well kiown to Arabian and' Persian writetrs. It is also called Lancá-purí, Läncâ-nagara, : the town of Lancá; and the straits of Máácáa' are called, itit the Puradn'as, Lanca-dzdatod, or the gates of Larrca**, as we shall see in the course of this work. Canca is another name of Yama or Phuto; and as: the place of his abode is in Málanca, áccording to the

[^51]Puránas, the Lancâ-dwára or gates of Lancá, the straits of Máláca might be called also with propriety the gates of Canca, Pluto, or Canca-dwára. This denomination is never used now by the Paurannics; but there is no doubt, that it was so forinerly; for the Cancador of Ali-Coshgi, and other early Muselman writers, is obviously derived from Canca-dwára, Canca's door or gate. It is true, that they make a town of it, which they call also more correctly Cancunor for Cancíl-núr, which last is acknowledged to be the same with Canca nagara, the town of Canca: and in the Dehhin they always say nur or nuru, instead of nagar. This town is obviously the same, which is called Cocco-nagara or Conco-nagara by Ptolemp. The country of Canca is Cancadesa in Sanscrit; hence Muselman writers callit also Gung-diz.

Cancapuri or Canca nagara is then the same with Yama-puri or Jamcote, called also in the Puránas Mahá-Lancá-puri, or Má-Lancá: and it is probably the same with that called Balanca by Prolemy, and placed by him in Long. $162^{\circ}$ and in $4^{\circ} 40^{\circ}$ Lat. North. It appears, however, that Muselman writers understood by it the town of Saba or Zaba: for Yama-puri or Jam-cote is a mythological city and never existed.

We observed before that Prolemy has introduced into his map the golden country, island or peninsula, not only twice; but that he has likewise introduced twice, most of the places belonging to that country. Accordingly Conco nagara is again notieed under the name of Coccoro nagara, or Cocco nagara; from which Muselman writers have made Caracor for Canca-rai-ghur, the house or place of abode of Cancaha'ja' or Yama: but they consider it as the same with Cancanor. This town
they' call-also. Canacor, which is some place inthe Gangetic provinces : but I have shown before, that Canacor or Cancar, was the capital city of the country of Gancar-deha, or of the Gangaride in Bengal. . . :

Jum-cote or Lancá-puri, which. D'Herbetor writës Giamcout, they place, with the Hindus,, in the center of the Peninsula, in five degrees of Lat. North, and in Long. 176 or 175, according to Abul-Fazil and others; and Prolemy places Balonsa, or Ma-Lancá-puri in Lat. $4^{\circ} 40^{\prime}$ North, and in Long. 162. The: Longitude of Lancá or Má-Lancá may be ascertained from the Purán'as; a circumstance very unusual. Yama-puri is declared in these sacred books to be the general rendezvous of the departed from all parts of the world, and from which they proceed in a body with a proper guard, composed of the servants of Yama, to D'harma-puri, which I shall show' hereafter to be the purgatory of St. Patrick in Hiran'ya or Surarn'eya, the gold island in the west. The days and distances are accurately described, which summed up amount to 81,554 Y. ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{janas}$.* . The breadth of the world is 100,000 Yojanas, equal to $180^{\circ}$ of longitude : and these 81,554 Y Yójanas answer of course to $146^{\circ} 48^{\prime}$, which 'subtracted from 180 degrees, leave 33 ; the half of which $16^{\prime \prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ is the longitude of Dharma-puri, and added to $146^{\circ}$ : $50^{\prime}$ will place Má-Lancá or Jum-cote in long. 16́2". 20'. For these two places are at the furthermost extremities of the earth, which forms a perfect circle, surrounded by a sea, every where of the same breadth. This singular route of the departed will be the subject of a separate paragraph. It passes through India in

[^52]the direction of the first rauge of snowy mountains. The Pandits, whom Abul-Fazil consulted, placed Cancador 1265 Yójanas from Lancá, or the peak of Adam, which is in $90^{\circ}$ of longitude, according to them. Yama-puri is accordingly 1205s Yojanas from Lancá; some reckon 1242, which will place Yama-puri in long. $178^{\circ}$. 22.'

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The commentator on the Súrya-Sidd'hánta, has reduced that distance very much; for he says that Lancá, or the three islands, occupy a space of 30 degrees ahong the equator; and this will bring their assumed longitude of the easternmost shores of MáLancá nearer to its real one.

As Ptolemy places Ma-Lanch-puri in the same longitude with the Paurarics, he must have used the same data, and which he had probably received from the Hindus whom he conversed with at Alexandria. Má-Lancá being, according to the Pauránicic, in the center of the $P$ eninsula, it must be of course in about five degrees of Latitude North: and there it is placed by Abul-Fazil: and in 4020 by Prolemp. Má Lancía is called in the Puránás. Yamala and Malaya; which last denomination it still retains. It is styled also Canchana-pada, or with the golden skirts. It may be translated the country of the golden feet, a title assumed by the Emperors of Ava, and other Kiags of that part of the world: and the Malayan breeze is as famous in the east, as the Sabradn in the west, and its capital was also called Saba or Zaba.

In the beginning of the Brahminda-puran'a, it is declared, that the strong hold of Yama in Tri-cuta, that is to say the Peninsula of Malaca, is 100 Yojanas long, and 30 broad, which is sufficiently accurate.

Proinwiny mentions there a place called Malaior-colon,- probably from the Sanscrit Malaya-ctlam, which implies a place on the borders or shores of $M a$ laya: the same is called Maletur by Marco-Polo; Malaya-tir and Malaya-culam are synonymous. Perisoula in Ptolemy, I suppose to be derived from the Sanscrit Pari-Malaya, which implies the same thing. For it is probable, that they were acquainted only with the tiram, tir or culam of the Peninsula: and Canchoma-pada may also signify the foot, skirts of the golden mountain, or Peninsula.

The next island is Sumatra, called in the Puran'as Rajata, or silver island, the Argyre of the western geographers. In the Vrthat-catha it is called Naircella or Nalicéra and Srimat, or the fortunate, and synonymous with Srimatra.

That famous island is called now Sumatra, and by former European travellers Symotta. In the same book, and in the Hitopadesa, it is called Carpura, or camphire island: In the spoken dialects, that word is pronounoed Capuer and C'áfur. Marco-Polo gives the name of Fanfiur to one of its provinces, probably for Canfur or Campar, as it is now called. A beautiful lake on the island, is mentioned in the Hitopades'a under the name of Padma-nilaya, or the abode of Padma'-de'vi.

It is also called Mandara in the Puran'as: and as it is.represented as a most delightful country, it may be denominated Su-Mandara; and it was called Samander by former geographers. But it seems, that this appellation is derived from Samander in the spoken dialects' of India, from the Sanscrit Samidra, which signiffes the ocean. The author of the Periplus mentions an island near the Ganges called Oceanis; and.

El-Edrissr says that the island of Samandar is near the Ganges. Probably the author of the Periplus confounded it with Sagara island, a name of the same import, at the mouth of the Ganges and called also Oceanis by Diodorus the Sicilian. The context, however of this author, and of more modern geographers, show that it cannot be the same island. Salmasius and others improperly laugh at the idea of an island at sea being called $O$ ceanis. This $O$ ceanis was probably the place of abode of old Samudra, the old man of the sea, often mentioned in romancei in the east.

The word Samudra, or Samundur, are pronounced, Sumuindu, and Mundu in the dialects of Ceylon; and there is an island of that name mentioned by ancient geographers in the eastern seas, and supposed by them to be the same with Taproband or Ceylon; but Stephanus of Byzantium says that the silver island made part of Taprobane, which is really the case. It is also called by them Palai-Simundu, which I take to be a corruption from Pulo-Simunidu, PuloSymotta, the island of Simundu, or Symotta. The description of that island, under the name of Simondu, does by no means agree with Ceylon: but is easily reconciled with Sumatra, though we know but little of the interior parts.

The large lake called Meigisba, with the metropolis; does not exist in Ceylon, but is probably that extensive lake to the south of Menangcaborv, mentioned by Mr. Marsden in his map of Sumatra, from which several large rivers seem to issue. The harbour of Hippuros or Ipporus in Pulo-Simundu is called Aypoor by Danville, and Ippu by Mr. Marsden from the Sanscrit and Hindi $\Upsilon$ I-pura or $冫$ I-pu, and in a derivative from Ai pura, the town of the goddess 'I or

Bhava'ni. From this lake issues the river Andraguerii or Indergeree, in Sanscrit Indra-giri ; because its source is in the giri, or mountain of Indra, or Maghaba; from whom probably the lake in the plains below was denominated Maghabá or Megisbá, according to Pliny, and Padmá-nilaya or the place of abode of Padma'-de'ví the consort of Vishnu, in the Hitopades'a.

From this lake issued two rivers, according to Pliny; one called Palesimundus flowed towards the south, and towards a town of the same name (perhaps the modern Palembang) which was the metropolis of the island, and had a famous harbour. .The river divided then into three streams, the smallest of which was five furlongs broad, and the largest two miles nearly. Thus I translate this passage of Pliny : for it is impossible that three such large arms of a river should fall into a harbour. According to Mr. Marsden, this lake communicates with the river of Palembang : for, says he, the inhabitants avail themselves of this lake in transporting their goods to, and from Palembang.*

The other river, toward the north, and supposed to issue from that lake, was called Cydara; probailly because it flowed' through the country of $R u$ or $A r u$, called Dàru by former European travellers: the capi-: tal of which, on its banks, was probably called Cota$R u$, or the town and fort of $R u$. . This is the largest river in the island, and of course its source far remote -into the interior parts of the country. The river Siac seems to be a branch of it: and the Campar is supposed to communicate with the river Indra-giri. Op-

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posite to this, toward the west, another river flows from the mountains of Indra-giri, and is called $A n-$ drapour or Indrapour from the Sanscrit Indra-pura: and I believe that the town is the same which is talled Andra-Simundu by Prolemy, and foisted into Ceylon by him, on a supposition that it was the same island with Pulo-Simundu; and I believe that this is not the only place in Taprobane, that belongs to Pulo-Simurdu. The mountains of Indra, or Maghabá in the island of Sumatra, are mentioned in the Vrühat-cat'há, under the name of Baláhaca, which is synonymous with Megha, from its summit being capped with clouds: and Indra, who presides over rain, resides above the clauds : hence he is called Me'ghava'hana, Méghaba'hana; and in conversation Méghaba'n, or the cloud borne. The other mountains in Sumatra, mentioned in the Vrǐhat-cat há, are Maináca Vrishabha, and Chacra. Upon these four mountains, as many gods are, in the same book, declared to reside, and to travel occasionally in their self-moving cars to the White Island in the west, in order to pay their respects to Vishnu, and his consort Abditanaya', or the daaghter of the Ocean. Nâricéla, another name for this island, implies its abounding with cocoa-nut trees, the leaves of which being agitated by the winds strike against each other, and seem to repeat the words Boc-boc or Vac-vac: or the continual noise which they make is compared by the Hindus to what is called in Hindi Boc-boc or constant chattering. Socmatra is then the island of Boc-boc, Vac-vac or Wacwac of Arabian authors; who say that the leaves of these trees striking against each other seem to repeat the word $W a c$.

Sumatra appears to me to be the same island, in which Jambulus is supposed to have resided seven years, and from which he went to Palibothra. The
inhabitants, says he, have two tongues, or languages; their own first; and probably the Malay was the other, which they spoke fluently, but I suppose only in the districts bordering upon the sea. Jambulus takes notice, that this island abounded with hot springs, which is true of Sumatra, but not of Ceylon. They had also an alphabet, consisting of twenty-eight letters, divided into seven classes, each of four letters. There were seven original characters, which, after undergoing four different variations each, constituted these seven classes. They wrote also from top to bottom : and that this was the case formerly in Sumatra is my opinion.* For the mannérs of the natives of the Philippine islands, correspond in so many striking particulars, with those of the Sumatrans $\dagger$ that no doubt can be entertained, says Mr. Marsden, if not of a sameness of origin, at least of an intercourse and connexion, in former times, which no longer exists. They used to write from top to bottom, till the Spaniards taught them to write from left to right. The Tagala alphabet in these islands, has certainly great affinity with those of Sumatra.

The two alphabets of the Sumatrans consist only, one of twenty-three, and the other of nineteen letters: but it is probable that there were two sorts of them formerly, as in India, and which were originally the same. One was used by the more civilized

[^54]and learned classes, and at court; the other was current among the lower classes, whose poor and barren dialect had fewer sounds to express. Be this as it may, the elements of their alphabets have an obvious aftinity with those of the Sanscrit. The Sanscrit alphabet, after striking off the double letters, and such as are used to express sounds peculiar to that language, has a surprising affinity with the old alphabets used in Europe; and they seem to have been originally the same. This subject I intend to resume hereafter. The Emperors of Sumatra, when endeavouring to introduce civilization into their country, opened an intercourse with India, but more particularly with the kingdom of Magad'ha, and Palibothra; for as Mr. Marsden judiciously observes*, the Malay language has received no improvement from the dialects of the $P e$ ninsula in India. All the Hindi and Sanscrit words in that language are such as were in use at the court of the Emperors of India, residing in Bahar, and among the better sort of the inhabitants of that country.

The Kings of Sumatra call themselves Mahá-rájas to this day; their prime ministers are called Mantri $\dagger$ which are both Sanscrit terms. In their language Dewa and Dewata are derived from Deva and Dévata in Sanscrit; the first of which signifies God, and the other a deity. Among the names of places in Sumatra, very few are Sanscrit, but the following are undoubtedly such; viz. Indragiri, Indrapura, Ipura or Aipura, Sinha-pura, Singá-pour, or Sincápour.

Jambulus says that this tract of islands, or Lanca, consisted of seven principal ones: and to this day in

[^55]the Peninsula, Lancá is often called Yail-Lancá or the seven Lancás; because it consisted of seven islands. This information I owe to Mr. Dúvcan, Governor of Bombay. From Yail-Lanca former travellers made Ylanca.

Sumatra is perhaps the island of Sabalá mentioned in one of the Purana's; and it is the same which is called 'Saivalá or 'Saibalá in the Váyu purára, section of the earth, and represented as a mountainous region in the skirts of Bhadras'va, or that part of the old continent between the N. E. and S. E. quarters. From 'Saibalá, Apuleius and Aristotle** probably made Phebol or Psebol, as some learned men are inclined to read it The former says, that in the eastern seas, there are two large islands, Taprobane and Phebol: Aristotle places the latter opposite to Arabia, and we have seen before that the Pauránics, Arabian and Persian authors insist, that Sumatra is close to the continent of Africa. The island of Sabala is probably the Samil or Shamel of El-Edrissir and other eastern geographers, who call it also Sabil. The country of Cephala is noticed by former European travellers; and in the year 1543, adventurers from that country plundered and ravaged part of the island of Sumatra. $\dagger$
III. Let us now pass to the third island, or Sinhala, now Ceylon. Its Sanscrit name is a derivative form from Sinha, a lion, and it was given to it on account of its being inhabited by Sinhalas, or the

[^56]offspring of a lion.* It is, however, more generally called Lancá in the Puran'as, and is represented there as the country of Rávana, or Rában, the brother of Cuvera; and both were born at the extremities of the world, in the N. W. As he was contemporary with Ra'machandra, if there ever was such a being, he must have lived about 1800 years before Christ. The wars of Ra'vana in Lancá, and the adjacent countries, are famous all over India, and make an era in the history of Ceylon. Traditionary legends in that island say, that in consequence of this bloody war, the island was depopulated, and remained in that state for 1845 years, being only inhabited by Daityas, or rather savage tribes. Ceylon was afterwards called Saláva, or Sálavam according to F. Bartholomeo, from the Sáleyas, a certain tribe in India, called also in the Puran'as Sálaroas. The famous peak of Adam was called Sálnala, or the mountain of Sála. It is mentioned in the commentary on the Súrya-Sidd"hanta; in which it is said, that Maya the offspring of the Sun, by the daughter of the divine Trwashtá in the west, came from Romaca-nagara, or Rome to the mountain of Sálmala in Lancă, to make tapasya in honour of the sun, in order to obtain astronomical knowledge from him. Another name for it is Samánala from Saumya-Nala another son of Twashtá, who built Ra'ma's bridge. Twashta is the chief engineer of the gods, and his grand-son Maya of the Daityas.
The appellation of Salica, or Salice, as it was called by ancient geograghers of the second century, is also a regular derivative form in Sanscrit, from Sall or Salis: this denomination was unknown to Pliny. According to F. Bartholomeo, and former

[^57]travellers, Ceylon was called Ilam, and Ila-nid, Ilanatr ; the country of Ilá, which signifies the earth in general. Tra-nd́d, or Tranáté, another name for it, signifies the three countries, meaning I suppose the three islands of Lanca.

The Hindus reckon the longitude from the meridian of Lancá, passing through the peak of 'Sálmalá, the place of worship called Rámeszoara, (or dedicated to Iswara, with the title of Rama), Avanti or Llijain, Meriu, and the mountain of Vatsa in Curu or Siberia, which last is most probably an imaginary place in that country. The place of Ráma was called Arima by Muselman writers; and they said that it was under the equator, and exactly half way between the straits of Alexander or Malaca, and those of Hercules or Gades in the west: and they gave the name of Gadir or Gades to these two straits, both leading into two vast Mediterranean seas; and through Arima the Hindus, and even some Arabian authors, it is said, made their first meridian to pass. AlrCoshgi a Persian astronomer, who lived about 350 years ago, says, that in his time some Hindus placed their first meridian at Cancadora, or Jum-cote in the east.* I believe that some of them did so formerly, and this of course occasioned afterwards some confusion. Their first meridian then passed through the eastern Cerne, and the last through the western one, the several islands of which tract were the original islands of the blessed. When this mode of reckoning was attered, the meridian was placed in the middle of the world,' yet it still passed throuh the eastern Cerne; though through a different part of it. This

[^58]induced them also to bring one extremity of the western Cerne under the same meridian, probably for the sake of symmetry, which was certainly a sufficient reason with them. Thus the iron peaks of the two Tri-cütadris fell in the same meridian, and the northern one might be about Nooa-Zembla.

This made me suppose, on my first acquaintance with the Purtn'as, that the White Island was'an Utopian land, and I resolved of course to give myself no further trouble about it. The ingenious Mr . Bailey would not have failed, to have considered this projection of the northern Tri-cuita, as a confirmation of his own system. There is another instance of the fondness of the Hindus for a symmetrical arrangemert, and noticed by Strabo, as we have seen in the first part. The mountains to the north of India are in an oblique direction, and the first range of the snowy mountains is in the same line with Romaca-. pattan or Rame, and Yamapuri or Jumcote, as placed by the Hindus, one at the furthest extremities of the west, and the other in the same manner toward the east, as represented in the second number of the ag-companying plate. But as this oblique direction of the mountains to the north of India, does not look so well in the mode of projection adopted by the Hindus, they have represented them in a parallel direction with the equator; and with them Jumcote and Rome. Strabo highly reprobates that alteration in the direction of the mountains to the north of India; and which in his time, had been adopted by geopraphers in the west.

The two Gadirs, called the eastern and western gates, by Arab and Persian authors, are in an oblique direction, and may be called the terrestrial gates:
for in heaven there are also two gateways, one in the west in the tropic of Cancer and the other in the east in the other tropic. These were called the gates of the sun: the southern one was denominated the water gate, and the fire gate was in the north. The souls of the departed ascend through one gate, and those who are to be born again descend through the other, according to western mythologists. The Hindus have also two roads, one in the north or left, and the other in the south. Those who follow the left path, ascend through the northern road; and those, who follow the right one, ascend through the southern path.

## III.

On the Languages and Literature of the IndoCifinese Nations.

## BY J. EEYDEN, M. D.

THE inhabitants of the regions which lie between India and China, and the greater part of the islanders of the eastern sea, thongh divided into numerous tribes, and equally dissimilar in their languages and manners, may yet with propriety be characterized by the term Indo-Chinese. Situated between India. and China, each of which proudly styles itself the most ancient among the nations of the earth, they have contented themselves with more modest claims to antiquity, and professed to borrow from one or other of their neighbours the principal features of their religion, laws and manners. The different periods, however, at which these were adopted in different countries, the various degrees of civilization, and the preexisting habits on which they were engrafted, have produced a diversity of national characteristics, by which they are not only distinguished from the Indian and Chinese nations, but also from one another, notwithstanding their common mixed origin.

The intercourse of Europeans with the Indo-Chinese nations, though, for the first two centuries after the arrival of the Portuguese in the east, scarcely inferior to that which was carried on with India or China, was not of such a kind as to furnish us with a very accurate or extensive knowledge of their laws, manners or literature; and for more than a century it has been rather declining than increasing. Neither, since our

ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE, SEC. 153
late rapid acquisitions in Indian languages and literature, have we obtained any important accessions to our information in this quarter; though both political and literary reasons seem to require them.

The materials of this imperfect sketch were chiefly collected in the course of a voyage, which the state of my health caused me to take to the eastern isles, in 1805, during which I resided some time at Penang, and visted Achi, with some other places on the coast of Sumatra and the Malayan peninsula. Cultivating an intercourse with a variety of individuals of different eastern tribes, I availed myself of the facilities which the situation presented, to correct the vagus ideas which I had previously entertained, concerning their languages, literature and the filiation of their tribes. Though my information was chiely collected from native sources, yet it sometimes happened, that these were not exactly such as I should have preferred, had better been attainable; and some times too, from the indifferent state of moy health and other causes, I was no table to avail myself of these sources of information to the extent I could have wished. Feeling myself equally embarrassed by the extent of the subject, the difficulty of the research, and, perbaps I may add, in some instances, by the novelty of the investigation, I should have hesitated to lay before the Asiatic Society these imperfect results, had I had any immediate prospect of pursuing the discusssion. I do not however despair of being able, at no very distant period, to offer some more minute and correct views of several of the subjects treated here in a cursory manner; and, at all events, I trust this attempt to introduce order and arrangement into a subject at ance so extensive and intricate, and to disentangle it from a degree of confusion which seemed almost in-
extricable, may not be altogether without its use; but may, even where I have failed, serve to point out the proper method of investigation..:

The Indo-Chinese nations, at a very early period, seem to have generally embraced the system of Budd'ha. From the want of original historical documents, we can only conjecture the period at which this event took place, in the different regions over which it has extended; but at present it is chiefly confined to the continent. The coasts of the Malayan peninsula, and of the greater part of the eastern isles, are chiefly occupied by the Moslems. The original inhabitants, therefore, being for the most part confined to the interior of these islands, are still very imperfectly known to Europeans ; so that it is often impossible to determine, whether their religious insti-' tutions are most connected with the tenets of Brahma or Bund'ra, and often to reduce them to any known system. From the names and epithets, however, of some of their deities, even as given in the vulgar and incurious manner of common navigators, it is often easy to discover their connexion with the grand features of Hindu superstition; but our notices concerning them are generally too scanty, and our narratives too erroneous, to enable us to classify them with absolute certainty. Such is the difference of oriental and European manners, that the simplest narrator is apt to mingle conjecture with observation ; while an absurd affectation of superior sagacity and a disdain of vulgar superstitions and prejudices, often prevent those who have had the opportunity of observation, from detailing the most useful pieces of information, or induce them to reject, as anile and useless fables, the mythological narratives which would enable us to determine the origin of a nation or a tribe.

With the exception of the Malays, and perhaps some rude tribes of mountaineers, the nations who occupy the countries which extend from India to China, profess only one religion, and adhere almost solely to the system of Budd'Ha. In so vast an extent of country some diversity of local institutions is always to be expected; but the spirit of the system and its influence on the manners of the people, in the same state of civilization, is essentially the same from Chatigan to China. This system in its grand features identifies itself with that which prevails in Nepal, Buttan, and Tibet, and has extended itself over the immense regions of Chin, Cham, and Japuen, or China, Tartary, and Iapan. Though it does not, appear that all the nations who occupy this prodigious extent of territory employ thessame learned, language in the preservation of their sacred books and religious tracts, yet this is the case with the Indo-Chinese nations, who, with the Singhalese, or inhabitants of Ceylon, uniformly employ the Bali or Pali, 'in' the sacred compositions of the Budd'hist sect. This language does not exist as a vernacular tongue, but is the language of religion, learning, and science, and appears to have exerted an influence over the vernacular languages of the Indo-Chinese nations, similar to that which the Sanscrit has exhibited among the popalar languages of Hindostan and Dek'hin.

The Malayu language, and the more original languages of the eastern isles, seem in their original formation, to have been polysyllabic, like Sanscrit, Pali, and the spoken dialects of India. The modifications which these languages have received from a foreign source, seem for the most part, to have been effected, rather by the immediate agency of San-
scrit than of Paki; though the influence of this latter is not to be entirely excluded. . But several of them' have been a second time modified, by the introduction of Arabic, as the langaage of religion and learning, after the conversion of several of these tribes to the Mahammedan faith:'
$\therefore$ The vernacular Indo-Chinese languages on the continent, seem all to be, in their original structure, either purely monosyllabic, like the spoken languages of China, or they incline so much to this class, that it may be strongly suspected, that the few original polysyltables which they contain, have either been immediately derived from the Pali, or formed of coalescing monosyllables. These languages are all prodigiously varied by: accentuation, like the spoken languages of Chink; and every foreign modification which they have received seems to have been immediately derived from the Padl.

In the paucity of existing monuments, tetative to the Indo-Chinesie nations, no better method presented itself, either for classing their tribes, or laying a fonndation for historical researclees, than by examining the mutual relation of the severat languages which are current among them. This method, when applied on an extensive scale, is always the surest clue for developing the origin of a nation, and indicating the revolutions to which it may have been. subjected, either by foreign conquest or colonization. After the relations of the language itself, the ancient monuments and compositions, preserved in it, claim our regard; and I have therefore noted, under their respective heads, such as have come to my knowledge; premising that my opportunities of procuring this species of information have been very unfavourable, and of examining them, very limited.

The Indo-Chinese languages may be considered in the following order.

> Polysyllabic languages.
> Monosylabic languages.
> 1 Malàyu.
> 2 Jáwa,
> 3 Bugis,
> 4 Bima,
> 5 Batta,
> 6 Gála, or Tägála.

## The learned language.

## 14 Pali.

I. Malayu.-The-Malayu language, so pronounced in the Malaya peninsula, but by Europeans generally denominated Malay, is used by the numerous and enterprising nation of that name, wha are termed Khek by the Siamese, and Masú by the Barmas. This language, which from its sweetness, has been termed the Italian, and from its widely extended use, the Hindostani of the East, though it coincides with the monosyllabic languages in its general construction and analogies, is properly polysyllabic in its form. Having spread itself over a great extent of country, not only in the Malaya peninsula, but far among the eastern isles; and having been propagated by a race more skilled in arms than in letters, it has branched out into almost as many dialects as states, by mixing in different proportions with the native languages of the aboriginal races. This is the circumstance which renders the investigation of the origin and relations of the Malayu language a matter of difficulty, as it becomes necessary to examine the history of the nation, as well as the structure and composition of the language itself. . Though used hy a nation of comparatively late origin at least with M 2
respect to the principal features which it at present presents, the history of this nation is still very obscure, rather, it may be presumed, from the want of investigation, than from the want of materials for its illustration. The history of the origin and progress of the Malayu tongue, of course partakes of this obscurity; but notwithstanding the great diversity which occurs in the spoken dialects, in the bazar jargon, or as the Malays term it, the Basa Dagang, of the several Malay states, the Basa Jawoi or written language of composition, is nearly the same in all ; and the popular, or vernacular languages, are reckoned pure, in proportion as they approximate to the written language.

Assuming therefore the Basa Jazwi as the standard of comparison, the Malayu language, in its present state, consists of three principal component parts. The first of these, which is rather the most copious and current in the language of conversation, may, perhaps, in the present state of our knowledge, be regarded as original, though it is not only connected with the insular ianguages, but with some of the monosyllabic, as Barma and Thay. The second, which is obviously derived from the Sanscrit, is rather inferior in the number of vocables to the first, though as far as regards general use, greatly superior to the third part, which is derived from the Arabic. As a spoken language, the Malayu exists in the greatest purity in the tin countries, or the peninsula of Malaya, which is obviously the Temala of Prolemy. Temala is a regular derivative from the Malay vocable tema, which signifies tin, and from this, among other circumstances, we may be permitted to infer the high antiquity of the basis of the Malay language, from its giving name to the Cassiterides of the east. The

Malayu language is spoken in its greatest purity in the states of Kiddeh or Tanna Say, Pera'k, Salangor, Killung, Johor, Tringgano, Pahang, and as far as Patani, where it meets the Siamise. Among the western Malays in general, it is spoken with more purity than among the more easterly isles, but on the coast of Sumatra, or Pulbw Purichu, it is intermixed with the Batta and other original languages. The Menangkabow race, who seem at an early period to have ruled the whole island of Sumatra, whose chief assumes the name of Maha' Ra'ja' of Rasa's, and derives his origin from Lánkápura, speak a dialect of Malayu, which differs considerably from that of the peninsula; but which seems, as far as I can judge, to coincide in many respects with the Jarva or Javanese language. The race have probably derived their origin from Lankapura in Java. The Malayu dialects of Riybow and Linga seem to be mixed with Jacanese, as are those of the Malay states on the island of Java. The dialect of Puntiana and Sambas, is purer than that of Borneo or of Banjar ; but that of Passir, on the east coast of Borneo, is greatly mixed with the original language of Celebes, or the Bugis. The Malays of Celebes speak a dialect greatly mixed with Búgis, while those of the Moluccas and the more eastern isles have adopted such a multitude of foreign words, that their dialect sometimes seems to be quite a different language. The simplicity of structure which the Malayu language possesses, in common with those of the monosyllabic class, greatly facilitates this adoption of foreign terms; and the practice is so prevalent in the more easterly isles, that the term Basa Timor, or the eastern language, is currently applied to every kind of jargon.

As the Malayu language, from its wide extent and the adventurous spirit of the nation, seems to have exerted, in the eastern isles, a modifying influence, similar to that of the Sanscrit in Hindostan and Dekhin, and of the Pali among the Indo-Chinesse nations; it becomes necessary to examine it somewhat more particularly; especially as some of the opinions I have been led to addopt concerning it, are somewhat different from those which have been entertained by names of great authority.

The Malay language, according to Marisden, whose opinion has been rather admitted than cone firmed by Sir W. Jones, is "a branch or dialect of the widely extended language, prevailing throughout the islands of the Aichipelage, to which it gives name, (which may be understood to comprehend the Sunda, Philippine, and Molucca islands) and those of the Wouth Sea; comprehending, between Madagascar on the one hand, and Easter Island on the other, both inclusive, the space of full $\mathbf{2 0 0}$ degtees of longitude. This consideration alone," adds that able author, " is sufficient to give it claim to the highest degree of antiquity, and to originality, as far as that term can be applied. The various dialects of this speech, though they have a wonderful accordante in many essential properties, have experienced those changes which separation, time, and accident produce; and, in respect to the purposes of intercourse, may be classed into several languages, differing cons: siderably from each other "." In another paper, published in the Archæologia, vol. VI. this able author has successfully exliibited a variety of instances of coincidence, both in soünd and siguifit

[^59]cation, between the Malay and several of the enstern dialects. By attempting to prove too much, however, I apprehrend, that he has faited essentially. He has pointed out a few coincidences, but has left the mass of the language totally unaccounted for ; and as the few coinciding words may all have been derived from a common source, it is perhaps a more natural inference to conclude that they have all been modified by some general language, than with Sir W. Jones; to determine that the parent of them all has been the Sanscrit. The same author, in his history of Sumatra, seems inclined to think that the Malay language was indigenous in the Malay pemmsula, from which it extended itself among the eastern isles, till it became the lingua franca of that part of the globe. The author of the description of Siam, in the modern part of the Universal History, not only assigns a very different origin to the language, but accounts in a very different manner for its uncommon extent. Describing Mulacca, he observes, "The Malayan tongue is formed ou't of the languages of the different nations which resort hither, by selecting the choicest words in each. Hence it is reckoned the most agreeable and elegant in all the Indies, which quality, joined to its use in trade, causes it to be learned by the remotest eastern peaple." A language, formed according to this ingenious idea of selection, might probably be remarkably agreeable and elegant, but it would be still more remarkable, as a new phænomenon in the history of nations. It would certainly be a very uncommon occurence in the history of mankind, to discover a nation so choice in matters of abstract sound, and so refined in their organs of hearing, as to take the trouble to learn a copious and unknown language, for the mere abstract pleasure of gratifying this delicate sense or appetite
for sweet vocalic sounds. Nevertheless, though the author is a little unfortunate in his doctrine of causes, the fact to which he alludes is worthy of attention; for it is not necessary to possess a very minute knowledge of the Malayu language, to be able to call its originality in question. It may be safely affirmed, that neither the Malay lingua franca of commerce, nor any of the maritime dialects of Malayu existed previous to the era of Manummed, in a state similar to that in which they appear at present; and these dialects seem to comprehend all that are usually included under the denomination of the Malayu language.

The Malayu language, in this limited sense, is obviously indebted to two foreign sources, for the majority of the vocables which compose it, and these are the Sanscrit and the Arabic.

The connection between the Sanscrit and Malayu was first remarked by Sir W. Jones, and Mr. Marsden has confirmed the fact, by about fifteen examples, selected, as he says, with little pains, from a Malay dictionary, which had he been acquainted with the Sanscrit lanyuage, he might with very little labour, have extended to fifteen hundred, or perhaps five thousand. Many of the Sanscrit words in the Malayu, as he observes, are such as the progress of civilization must soon have rendered necessary, being frequently expressive of niental feelings, or such modes of thinking as naturally result from the social habits of mankind, or from the evils which tend to interrupt them. 'Many of the names of the common objects of sensation are also of Sanscrit origin; never: theless, the simplest part of the Malayu language, and that which is most indispensable to its existence
as a distinct tongue, is certainly not 'derived from the Sanscrit.

With respect to the connection between Arabic and Malayu, Marsden observes, that the latter language abounds with Arabic words, which writers affect to introduce, because this display of literary skill is, at the same time, a proof of their religious knowledge. He adds, that these words are generally legal or metaphysical terms, borrowed from the Koran or its commentaries, that they are never expressive of simple ideas, are rarely used in conversation, and, with few exceptions, seem never to have been thoroughly incorporated into the language. This account of the introduction of Arabic into Malayu is unexceptionably just, excepting with respect to the use of Arabic terms in conversation, which is affected by all Malays who have any pretensions to literature. The number of Arabic vocables too, that have been introduced into Malay compositions, though certainly inferior to those of Sanscrit origin, are considerably more numerous than might be suppposed from this statement; or rather, as in Persic and Turki, it is difficult to assign any bounds to their introduction, but the pleasure of the writer. It may also be observed here, that in the Malayu language, Arabic plurals are very commonly used as singulars, as often happens in Trurki, and other dialects which admit of a mixture of Arabic. Marsden has mentioned another peculiarity, in which Arabic vocables, adopted by the Malayu, differ from adopted Sanscrit terms. While the Arabic words retain their peculiar and harsh pronunciation, those of Sanscrit origin are softened down, and assimilated with the rest of the language. This observation must likewise be taken with many limitations; for numerous words, of Ara-
bic origin, are so completely assimilated to the Malayu pronunciation, that they are no longer capable of being recognized, even by a native Arab, unless by attention to their radicals; the ain and ghain, in particulat, excepting in religious terms, are very generally converted into Alif and Gaf, both in writing and pronunciation. It is certain, however, that Arabic words are naturally untractable, and are apt to have a foreign appearance when assumed into any other language, in spite of all modifications. The Arabic is a language so complete in itself, and so peculiar in its structure, that it is as little capable of coalescing neatly with any other language, as a curved line with a straight one.

Marsden has likewise hazarded an opinion, that the polish, which the Malayu has derived from Sanscrit or Hindwoi, has been obtained immediately from the natives of Guzerat, previous to the debasement of the genuine Hinduvi of the northern provinces, by the mixture of Arabic nouns, and the abuse of verbal auxiliaries. The resort of the peopte of Guzerat to Malacca, he ardds; "is particularly noticed by De Barros and other authentic writers; and it is well known that the Hindu language has been preserved with more parity in that, than in any other maritime province of India." To this, it is sufficient to answer, that the Sanscrit vocables, adopted in Malayu and Guzeráti, are generally preserved purer in the former than in the latter; that the Guzerati has no pretensions to be considered as a pure dialect of Hindroí, but on the contrary, is one of the very first that was corrupted by a mixture of Arabic, and that long prior to the period mentioned by De Barros. The Bengáli language itself, corrupted in pronunciation, as it certainly is, might have
been more safèly adopted, as the medium for the introduction of Sanscrit vocables into Malayu. Many Sanscrit words that are in current use in Bengali, likewise occur in Malayu, with almost the very same pronunciation. Of this it is easy to prodace a multitude of instances. The following are such as present themselves spontaneously :

Beng. Malay.
Tot'hapi ....................... Tatapi......... but, however.
Punah ........................ Pín........... farther, again.
Tutkalé ....................... Tutkala ....... then.
Bongsth ....................... Bangsu ....... a racedrfamily.
Kichbu or Kichhi .............. Kichi ......... a little.
Inggit, a signal ................ Ingat ......... notice,memory. Barung, a gift, a thing, a quality. Barang-barang, any thing.

But it is needless to adduce further instances; as the Malay history and the language itself, exhibit traces sufficiently clear, to direct us to the region, with which the Malays had the most frequent inter-. course, at an early period, and from which their language seems to have received the most considerable modifications, and that is the ancient kingdom of Kalinga. Here I am again under the necessity of dissenting from Marsden's opinion. He says, "It is evident, that from the Telinga, or the Tamool, the Malayan has not received any portion of its improvement." I apprehend that the express reverse of this opinion is evident; for the Malays, at this very period, know the Coromandel coast by no other name than Tanna Keling, the land of Keling or Kalinga: a multitude of compositions, current among them, profess to be translations from the Basa-Keling, or Kalinga language; and the Malayu language contains a great number of words that are Tamul, Malayálam, and Telinga; though neither Sanscrit, Hinduvi, nor Guzeráti; and a variety that are only to be found in Telinga, the vernacular language of the Kalinga Desa.

For the same reasons that I infer an ancient intercourse to have subsisted between the Malays and Kalingas, I am induced to think that a very intimate connection subsisted, at a very early period, between the Malays and Javanese: Not only the proximity of the island of Java, and the constant intercourse between the Malays and Jarvanese, point to this connection, but the whole of Malay literature, the state of the language, and the whole series of Malay history, confirm it. It is from the Javanese that the Malays profess to have received all their earlier mythological fables; and a great variety of their books profess to be translations from that language: even in compositions professedly translated from the Keling language, the Javanese name of the story is often mentioned: and almost every Sanscrit term, that occurs in Malaya, is likewise to be found in the Basa Dalam Jawa, the high language of Java, or rather the language of the interior; though a multitude of Sanscrit words, current in the Javanese language, are not to be found in the Malagu. Besides many of the Malay states, and those of the greatest antiquity, are known to have been founded by Javanese adventurers, anterior to the arrival of the Arabs: and if the historical traditions of the Malays were better known, there are many reasons for supposing, that more of them would be found to claim the same origin.

The greater part of the words of Sanscrit origin, found in Malayu, do not appear to have been introduced through the medium of the Bali. In many instances, the Malayi form approaches nearer the pure Sanscrit than even the Bali itself; and many mythological stories exist in Malayu, and mythological characters are introduced in them, that as far as I have been able to learn, do not occur in Bali
compositions at all, nor in any of the Indo-Chinese languages of the continent.

Bat after assigning the Arabic and Sanscrit vocables to their proper sources, a large proportion of words in the language will still remain unaccounted for; and these words too, expressive of the most simple class of our ideas, and the most remarkable objects in nature. This part of the language, which in comparison of the rest, may be termed native or original, Marsden attributes to what he reckons the original insular language of the South Seas; and this original language, again Sir W. Jones pronounces a derivative from the Sanscrit. That it is not Sainserit, a very slender knowledge of the two languages is sufficient to evince ; and if this original part should itself turn out to be derived, as I apprehend, from different sources, the idea of an original insular language will fall to the ground. Now there are a variety of reasons for supposing that this part of the Malayu language, which might be imagined the notst simple and original, is in reality, more corrupted and mixed, than those parts which are confessedly derived from a foreign source. Several of the Malaya terms, which express the most-simple and remarkable objects in nature, appear to be only gross auricular corruptions of true regular terms in the more ancient eastern languages, as Juzwa, Bágis, T"hay, and Barna; and many of the simplest objects are notdistinguished in Malayu by simple words, but by compound metaphorical and significant terms. The omission of the first syllable, in words derived from a foreiga language, whether ancient or modern, is a frequent practice in the Malayu language: thus the Sanscric Avatara becomes Bitara, and thus rumbilum, the moon, in Javanese, becomes Balum in Malayu-and Mopputi, which signifies whitc, in Búgis, becomes puti
in Malayu. Again the metaphorical term mata-hari, which literally- signifies the eye of day, is the only native tern for the sun; though Chinkerwala, a corruption of the Bali term Chakrawala, has been adopted in the higher dialect, or poetical style, termed the Basa Dalam. The Malay term tuhin which signifies the aged, is used as synonymous with Allaht'aala, which they have adupted from the drabic. A number of Thay vocables occur in Malayu; but, for the most part, they are neither expressive of our simplest ideas, nor of the most remarkable objects in nature, excepting perhaps $k u$, the contracted term of $A k u, \mathbf{I}$, in Malayu, which is the same in Thay or Siamese. A variety, however, of important words seem to have been adopted from the Barma language, especially in the verbal auxiliaries; and in most of these instances, it may be observed, that the Malayu- pronounciation coincides better with that of Tavay, or Tinnau, than with that of the Barmgas proper. Thus the substantive rerbal auxiliary of the present, $a d d a$, seems to be only a modification of the more simple da or dé of the Barma language. . The past sudai of the Barma syi $d \ell$, the auxiliary of the future $j a d i$ of the Barma rade, pronounced ya-de or $j a-d e$, madzo, will or mayy is a modification of the Bamma Mi, or minh', and the permissive auxiliary leh of the Barmall. Of the connection of the Malayu with any of the spoken dialects of China, it is more difficult to speak with aqcuracy, in the present state of our knowledge. Barrow, and some other authors of reputation, are inclined to attribute the origin of the Malay tribes to the nations of China; and that author observas, that many words, in the languages of Sumatra, are similar in sound to Chinese vocables; and that the corresponding words generally express the same idea in both languages. Of the value of this opinion it is not easy to speak in correct terms, for the proper Chinese languages, are
at least ten in number, and the dialects of Samatra; vary almost as much, on a small scale, as the diglecta of the Chinese; and to jumble together a namber of corresponding words in all those dialects, may therefore be no very difficult task. Some coincidencen there certainly are, between the Malayu and tha Chinese-Mandarin language ; thus in the first personal pronoun, saya and gesa, which both signify $I$ in $M a$ bayu, very nearly coincide with tho Clkinese segé and ngo, which have the same simnification; but, on tho whole, these coincidences seem neither very pumprous nor important.

The Mahayu language is axtremely well fitted far being a Lingua Franca, or generat medium of cam munication among the eastern isles, by the smoothness and sweatneas of its tone, and the simplicity of its structure and construction. Its simple pronoups indicate rank and situation, and are almost as numorous as in Chinese; but the different dialects of the Malaytu vary considerably, both in the use of the pronapus and of the verbal auxiliarios. It may alsm be obsanyed, that the more mixed and impure any dialect of , Malayu is; it is moze verbose, more indef. nite in its;'\&xpressions, and more loaded with useless auxiliaries, and eppithets, which encumber the lam gurge, without adding either elegance, foroe, or dignity. The beauty and elegance of the Malay is it simplicity ; and the purity of its minor dialects may often be ascertained by this critarion alone.

The literature of the Malays, though the language is weld adapted for poetry, is not distinguished by many features of priginality. A degree of monotony and repatition oecurs in all the componitions of tho mpnosyllabic lapguages, whioh has a great rendency
to damp the ardour of composition, and extinguish poetical fire. The construction of the Malay is analogous to that of the monosyllabic languages, and there is also considerable similarity in the character of its compositions. The most favourite species of composition among the Malays, is the Pantún, a word which is generally translated song, but which perhaps might with more propriety be rendered simile or proverb, as it consists of a simile, proverb, or apophthegm versified, and its application. A Pantún is a rhyming quatrain, and is always restricted to four lines; hence it affects a kind of oracular brevity, which is very difficult to be comprehended by Europeans, who can seldnm perceive any connection between the similitude and the application. The Malays allege, that the application of the image, maxim, or similitude, is always accurate; but it may be suspected that if one half of the verse be for the sense, it often happens that the other is only for the rhyme, as in the ancient Welsh triads or triplets, in which there is professedly no connection between the natural image and the moral maxim. These Pantuins the Malays often recite, in alternate contest, for several hours; the preceding Pantún always furnishing the catch-word to that which follows, until one of the parties be silenced or vanquished, or as the Malays express it, be dead, suda mati; Many of these. Pantuins bear no inconsiderable resemblances to the Dohrais and Kubitas in the ancient Hixduoi and Vruja dialects of Hindostan.

The Shyer is another species of composition, which is analogous to the Persic:Musneci. Moral poems, resembling the Pundnamehs of the Persians, didactic works, or descriptive compositions and legendary or heroic narratives, are.composed in this measure. The

Chertorariox' Hikatat lakso denominaved Chitrarand Fuggexion, iffomithei yatanese, is more getretally: writt ten. im prose, but ftequently intermixed with terse; Both in, the measufes'of the Sdyer and Bantúni: Those Cheritras Eontain the ndohological steries current aniong' the Malay tribes', 'and also fragments of theit midtory, 'em'bellished ini a poetical manner: The thee greát sodrtes of all' thie Malay legends are the Javá misa; in itetided and:xtrabic languages, but in the comprotionsof' datter date, the charactets :and incidents areibermiked, that it is not always easy to determine to dind of these sources they ought to be teferted! Thereisi also one class of stories which the leartiod Aralays iterm' Susuption, I imagine from an ancient dyw masty of Javancse princes to whom they relate. Sonnd of these 'legends also coincide in the general story with ithose iof the Siamese, as the Malay Selimbiari with the "Siamese Khuxphen; and the Hikaiat Whah MIxrdan with the diamese Lin-tong. When characters familiar in. Sanserit mythology are indoroduced itto the Maday legends, their adventures are generally trams ferred by the Malays to the interion? of Jawa; and even Ariabian characters are often represented as per 2 forming their' adventures in the :Maldy countries:Many of these narratives exist both in prose and verse, and of several there seem to be two edjtions; : one derived immediately from. the Javainese language, and which commonly contains a considerable number of Javanese vocables; the other from the Keling; 'which often contains a certain proportion of words more immediately derived from the Sansorit and Telinga.

Of this latter class are probably the narratives termed. Hikaiat Pindawa, or Pandu stories, which
seam; papulat verviqang, ion tathar, abridgomsate, of





 five IPerdetis: Rindaria; waga, the vintarye of ithe semp





 Kaling of the dramatist Muncoanapra Nrsinianif The
 bably deriyd from: the same sauecie. 'is The Hiliaint

 the Sakt Kbluty, ionihistory: Df:the war with the ifipes,
 the Hitectiat. Rugia. Rikermadi, an Viobamadirya
 kaiat Katil: Dathen or Makay nersion of she Jatide Desmna.

The following are Jemamese relations, the Filkatiat Chitkid Wumpuengpecti Rasian of Kirriphen, in the in terion of Jatoa, the Fibsiat Jaxanat Tamasa, or the Iove of apwentrixes of a chieftain of Mixy epphit; ; Fana, composed by Andika; the Killine Perbagey Cheritra, or story of a prince of Kirripún, the NGe Perbujaya Cheritra, the Misa Kiamong Cheritra, or history of a Princess of Data, in Jawe, carried of by


Butafa Kado: the Jaran Kilinang Cheritra; the Ratu Rader: Kisya Cheritra; the. Pangy Witin, or history of Invi,Kumpapurti; : the , Cambar. Winqn
 or history: of Giamipar Sra, Pringess of Daha giad Baid Ango m Malaya; the. Naga Bisaru, of hist.
 snalie, amd confined in allakto, the Putti Kola Bime
 a.ehief of Ranjawkylin in Java, the Kilania Nayazes sitaru; onhiatory of Radin. Jaman Tiniamelu, the Amging Dermanci Ragia-Cheritra; and the Afikejiqt Rapang Ruting, ar bistory of the hatchet widlout the handle. Ip the; same cource are probably to be mefeixed :the fodolowing. if they are not.purely; of Malay ;cpopposition; ; ,the: Hikeiat P,elanduk Jienalys on: histoiny of the -sagacions hogdeer. The - Hikeqigh Bharung Pingegey, at hiatory of: a wonderful hisd. $\rightarrow$
 Hikiaiat Bien and the Hikaiat Regah Boodelk.1

1:The following axe modifications of Arabic namativasi accompmodated, howeverg to the peculiatitios of : 赖
 Himmoda:. The Hikaiat, Rajah Kheiber, the chief af
 Rajati:Winduh, the Kihamiat Maknempmed FIanifah the
 saiat IRajach Shak Murdon, the :Hikaiat Sultan Ibruc him-ibn-Adhem, the Hikaiat Sekunder Dulkharugint!: The Koran is also translated into Malayu in the same paraphastic:mainer as into Persic.

There are many -Maleyy componitions of a historical mature, though they are not so common as the N 2
classes that have been enumerated: such as the HiAaiat Rajah-bangsi, which I have not seen, but which has been described to me as a genealogical history of the Malay Rajahs. The Hikaiat Malaka, which relates the founding of that city by a.Jacoanese adveinturer, the arrival of the Portuguese and the comblots of the Malays, with Albuquerque and the bther Portuguese commanders: . The Hikaiat Pitrajayd: Putti, or history of an ancient Rajah of Maliocca, the Hikdiat Achi', or history of Acht or Achis in! 'Suthatra and the Hikaiat Harig-Tuha, or the adventures of a Malay chief during the reign of the last Rajah of Malacca, and the account of 2 .Malay embassy sent to Mekka and Constantinople, to request assistance against the Portuguese. Such historical narratives are extremely numerous; indeed there is reason to believe that there is one of every state or tribe; and though occasionally embellished by fiction, it is only. from them that we can obtain any outline of the Malay history, and of the progress of the nation. The juridical customs or traditions of the Malays have likewise been collected into codes of different antiquity and authority. Among those of the greatest authority are the Undang Undang, and the Addat. Malayu. The most ancient of these regulations, however, appear to have been adopted from the Ja ranese and Bugis. Particular states have at different periods composed peculiar regulations; as the $A d d a t$ -Kiddeh, which were compiled by Rajah Shan Atumr, in An. Heg. 1151.

No dramatic compositions, in the Malayu language; have falleu, as yet, into my hands, though many of them are said to exist Scenic exhibitions ternred "Wayang-wayang, were till lately, very com-
mon in the peninsula of Malayu, but are now represented as less frequently exhibited. The subjects of the Malayu dramas are the same as those of ther histories and romances, from which, like the dramatic compositions of the Siamese and Chinese, they only differ in assuming the form of dialogue and soliloquy, the progress of the incidents being generally the same.

The following specimens of the Malayu Pantán and Sayer will exhibit the measure of the verse and the style of the composition. - The first Pantun is a challenge to engage in a poetical contest. The rest exhibit the peculiar images introduced, and the manner of presenting them in the Pantưn.

> Tuan bulu, saya tumiang
> Marileh kita beıkiler taji
> Tuan sapulu, saya súmbilan
> Marileh kita bersindir nyani.

You are a bamboo and I am but a slender twig;
Yet come on, let us sharpen our weapons:
You are as ten, and I am only as nine;
Yet come, let us contend in ironical verse.
Boah dilama ber pangsu pängsia
Samajuga bijinya merah
, Janganituan berpilis bangsti
Sumajuga daranya merahi
The pomegranate has many partitions,
But the seed is equally red in them all :
Do pot give an undue preference to a race of men,
$\therefore$ For the blood is equally red in them all,
Boah thamplum deri Patrani
Masa sabiji de kuluma rûna

## ON THE LANGUAEEX ANE XITERKTQRE

Tuan Iolan sayd Nasrani
Stuma sama manangung dúsa.
Of all the Mangoes of Patani
A ripe one is but a mouthful to a stag;
You are a Moslem and I am a Christian,
But we must equally bear our own faults.
Batang padi jangan de rúrút
Kalu de rúrút rúsa batangnya
Hatì mữà jangan dé túrứt
Kalu de túrủt rúsa badínỳa.
Shake not the rice staik,
If you shake it the stalk is ruinedt.
Do not yiald to youthfur shclinafions;
If you yield your person is ruined.
Siri kúning deri Patani
Pinang muda deri Maláka
Puti kúning ana'k Nasrani.
Itu membawa badin chilaka.
The yellow betel leaf of Patand,
The fresh betel-nuit. of Madacosh :
A white yellew chrisitiax darksell.
Bring a person to total ruin.
The following passage of the Netimbari is given as a specimen of the Sayer verse, in which the Malay romances and moral poems are generally composed. In both measure atrd style they exhibit considerable resemblande to thie ancient English and French romances; there re little variety of pause or accent, and the linte consists indifferently of eight or nine syllables, one long syltable beivgi reckentid equivalent to two short.

Tutkaletwha luaksh de nitare
Matw maimandang beptorti biminet:
Chahianye limpah gitang gumilang
Teadaléh abang dapat mamanimang
Pipinya bagei pai de lalong
Bersambiat dangat lehernya jinjants
Paras sepinti gumbat dar wayang
Barang de makan berbmyeng beypaty
Dahidya batgei sehari betun
Kinningnya bintuh begai detillang
Lefu de ambìl jadirah túlun
Mamaki chinchin perimata Selw,
Changgeynya panfang ber kilat kettut
Sepirti mutiasa suda tericat
Pinggangnya ramping teilalu chantit
Leher laksona gumbar delarik
Munglumikan kata yang patih chirdik
Bibirma bagei patey chicharik
Teada ímanaki laku ber saja
Giginya itam, bukkus'ber baja
Chartik mqïlik gilàng de Raja
Bersunting kutum bunga Seraja,, Parąspyạ elok búloup kapalang
Intahkap,jiwa garangan hilang
Kapada smata suda torpandang
Teadaleh dapat kumbali pulang.14
When my mistress looks forth from her window,
Har eye sparkling like 2 star,
Ifs lurilliant rays glancing and glittering

- Hes alder brothar cannot support its lustre:'
Filkathe ned mangoe is the hue of,her cheek,
Becoming her tapering neck,
ijs:!., Trateried with ahadows whenever she swallows :
 ..... if
$\because \therefore$ IIt fordiead lite the'netr mopp in its fint days ..... $!$ ¢


## ON THE LANGUAGES A-ND:DIEERATURE

Her eye-brows curvedy'sofair I could devour her,
Long has she been chosen to be my:miatress.
Wearing a ring set, with gems of Ceylbn,
Her long nails shining like lightning,
Trapsparent as a string of pearls,
Her waist slender and extremely elegant;
Her neck turned like a polished statue, Eloquent in the enuniciation of her words,
Her parting lips like the crimson red wood
Not by dress, but by herself adorned;
Black are her tecth stained with baja powder;:
Graceful, slender, appearing like a queen;
Her locks adorned with the Seraja flowers,
Her features beautiful with no defect of symmetry,
My soul is often fluttering ready to depart,
Glancing eagerly forth from my eyes,
And quite unable to' retura to its station.
The character generally used by the Malays, is a modification of the Arabic ; and, in addition to the proper Arabic alphabet, the Malayu uses six letters, of which one is the Persic.che; a second the slurred dal, of the Hindostani, two more correspond in power to the Persic and Hindostani pa and ga, but are written' of a different form, and the remaining two, nga and rya, are peculiar in form, but correspond to the nasals of the first and second series of the Deoa-Nagari alphabet. The Malays of Jara, however, often use the Javanese character, to express their bwn language, as those of Celebes do the Bügis. In the Moluccas, the Latin character has obtained some degree of currency, even among the Malays; ind is somer times used by them to express the Malaythatiguage.

The Malayu langurge was one of the firsteultivated in the east by Eurepeans. The fistst atteinpt to form a grammar or dictionary of it;'as 'far as I khow, was
made by David Haex, who pubtished in Malayu'and Dutch, a vocabulaty with some grammatical observations. At the request of Cardinal Barberini, the Dutch was rendered into Lation, and published with the Propaganda types at Rome, 1631, under the title of "Dictionarium. Malaico-Latinum et Latino-Malaicam operd et studio Davidis. Hakx." This is a work of some merit, but seems to have beea composed in the Moluccas, and inclines to the -Basa Timor, or eastern dialect of the Malayu.. 'The author has given a short list of Tarnata and Porstaytiese words; that have been adopted into Malayn, and some useful observations on the phraseologiz Professor Thunitra, probably by mistake, mentions this work as published in 1707. It seems to have served among the Dutch, as a basis for similar compilations. The " Malaica Collectanea Vocabularia,". or collection of vacabulaties, was printed at Batroia in $17.07-8$, in 2. vols: 4to. and the "Dictionarium of te Woord ende Spraak bock in de Datseheren de.Maleysche Tale," at the same place in 1708, in 4to. $\Lambda$ "Ma:keische Spraak-kunst" or Malay Grammar, was pubt lishod by Georée Hendric Werxdey, at Amsterdam, in 1726, 8vo. A" Nieuve Woordenschaft in NederDuitsch, Maleisch en Portugeesch, was also published at Batavia in 8vo. 1780: The English have also contributed their.share to the cultivation of this language. Bowrey's Grammar and Dictionary of the Malay lapguage were published at London in 1701, in 4to. after the author had passed nineteen years in trading among the eastern isles. This is a work of great merit and labour, and though the English character only is used, yet the pronunciation add the signification of words are generally given with great accuracy. Bowrex, however, had the assistance of the two eminent oriensalists, Hyde and Marshale, in its composition,
both of whom wein'expeallenty istidied if the lasp gragá In 1801 was probisthed at: Luatons; "A.Dick tionary of the Maday tongine, to which is 'prefixed, a Grammar: of that hangiaget, byy, James Howreoty M. D.": The author faunds his clamsion a tent years acquaintance with the Malays, and: their languago From the s'carcity of Bourrity's work, I have mot beem abled to compare it with ithe publication of Dr. How Ison, but I suspect the additions of the latter toabe neither numerous nos important. Ono improiemselt he has attempted, and it is the following. "Incigising the Malay wprids in the Artabie character," asys he, "we have followed the exicellett iexample of Rocreabson and Griciarist in their Remsianicmend Hiedloostamee Dictionarits, 'and it is', ip fact', the chat recter nsed by the Malays theniselves."!. But kad Dr. How ison been acquainted with the Malay ortholgraphy, he would have perceived that this baibatous mode of converting the Einglish charactev into whe Persic, could be of wo prosilble entility, either to dh - Barropean, of an Asiatic. The Malayal has an ectioblished orthography, like the Arabic, Persic, and Hindostani ;' and this established orthegraphy. of Malay MSS. he has violated, repeatedly; in' every page, not only by spelling the Malda words in a mode never used among the Malays themsetves; but by omitting all their peculiar characters; and by uding some Persic characters, as pa and ga, with which the Malays are unacquainted altogether. "A short Vocabulary, English and Malayo with grammar Tules for the attainment of the Malanio language;" was published at Calcutta in 1798 . The nules differ little from those which appear in Howsson's Grammar, prefixed to his Dictionary, and the nocabulary generally coincides with it in the: iexplanation of words, which are not yery numeroms. Betides thiase
werks thedit have beet printed, many Vocabilaries (and. Diefionariet exist in MSS. in Putch, Bkg ith and Portugkest ; and of these severalare itrmy possession: Rexand, in his "Dissertatio "de lingwis Insularum: Orientakion,", mientions "a latge.! MS:", Dictiotary Which he had consulted, cothpesedi by LKMDERtern, a Dutch cletgynan in Bataria'; from which he hast selected a specimen of the linguagre: 'Several smallert Vocabulaties of Malkyu have been published, chiefly by voyagers and travellets, with vatives degtees of aceutacy. Being genefally construeted in a very. hurried manner, by persons devoid of a radical knowfedge of thie language, and often, as mayy be presstumed, under the hecestity of expressing theit questions by a misture of sigtsts, they genetally. atbound in nery ludicrous eftors whd risible mistakes. Of this kind; maury forsthences might easily be selected from Labitienrdieke's Mablay Vocabülary; noit is
 etatirely free from theirh. Besides they ate genterally milxed wth a watiety of lingua fravera, etind other dastemi wotlds that are hever received In , eotrecte Mothy@.'
 be translated inteo the Matayit lang uade. The gospelo of MAtryitw ath Mank were first publimhed in the Matlayu lainguage whod Arabse ehatracter at Emehuists,
 Cobeiv: Rtyri, and accompanied with the Dufth wer-
 in 1588: the gdspels of Luke and J6in Were' paby. Holted at himsterdam; in 1646; aceotefiry to whe vasi siot bf Joht Van Hasel and Jext: HeUns, it T648;


correctly, with a version of the Acts of the Apostles, by Just. Heukn, at Amsterdam, in 4to. 1651. Ge= nesis was published in Malay, at Amsterdam, in 1668, according to the version of Dan. Brouwer, and the New Testament, by the same author, in 1668. A second edition of Genesis was published in 1687. The four - Evangelists and the Acts of the Apostles were. published "in the Malayan tongue," at Oxford, in: 1677, in 4 to. and reprinted in 1704. . Both editions are in the Roman character, and though Heurn's version was followed, yet the first edition had the advantage of being superintended by the learned HYDE, who has prefixed to it, a dissertation on the dialects of the Malay, and the method to be employed in studying the language. The Psalms, or "Psal, terium lingua Malaica et Belgica," was published by Yan Hasef and Heurn at Amsterdam in 1688. The ". Psalterium Malaice" was published at Amsterdam in 1735, with musical notes. A complete version of the Bible was published at Amsterdam, in Roman characters, in 1733, and this version was again published in the Arabic character, with the addition, of the Malay peculiar letters, at Batavia, in 5 vols. 8vo. 1758, under the direction of $\mathrm{J}_{\mathrm{Ac}}{ }^{\text {ob }}$ Mossel, Governor General of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies. The persons who superintended the edition were Johan: Mauritz Mohr, and Herm. Petrus Yan de Webth. A Mulay catechism was. also composed by Gustavus William Baron Vian: Im hofr, and printed at Batavia in 1746. This, ver-: sion of the Bible, is composed in the idiom, of Batacia and Malacca, and I have heard it objected, that it is: not very intelligible in Sumatra, and other Malayi countries; but 1 regard it as quite impossible ta form a Malayunersion which would be approved in. popat. of styled. in every Malay oguntry at the same timen
for: so great is the diversity in point of style beawieen the Javanese-Malayu and the Arabic-Malayu, that everi in the same country, those who are proficients in the one, are often scarcely able to understand the other.
$\because$ II. Jawn.-The Jatoa, or Jtranese language, is admitted by the Malays to be that of a mote ancient nation than themiselves, and at no very distant period seems: to have been cursent through the whole extent of Jaca. The island of Juva was formerly subject to a single sovereign, bearing the title of Raty Agong or Susurunang, of the Susupin race, who generally held his court at Kirripín or Suryakarta. The riation was brave, enterprising and populous, and before the introduction of the Mahummedan religion, about the year A: C. 1400 , their power was supreme in the eastern seas, and they extended their conquests to Sumatra; Borneo, aud even as far as the Moluccas. Their voyages often fivalled the celebrated Argonautic expedition in the spirit of adventure. They became known to Buripeans only in the decline of their power,; yet it was still so formidable as repeatdelly to shake the authority of the Portugucse in Madacca itself; 'and one of the dependent princes of Jrice was able to fit out a fleet of thirty large vessels, the admiral of which was so strongly built, as to be reckoned, at thai period, cannon-proof. The Jawa language is subdivided into a great number of diabects', all of which may be respectively classed under the heads of Basa-ildam and Basa-liar, the interior or thigh language, and the exterior or vulgar lan guage of the coasts. Both of these differ considerably from the Malayu, which has adopted a multitude ofternis from the Basa-liar Jaza, or coast lavguage of Jaza, compared even with which the Malayulan:
guage appears to be a ompupt derivative. The 1antr guage of the interior, howrever, or the Baparalater Jexa, has a elose and intimate connoction with ajant sexit, and expresse the simplest pobjents and idea by vocables which seem to differ no farther from the Sanscrit than in the correct pronunciation necessarily producediby the use of a less perfeqt alphabet. The only waurese: that I have met, whe sould speak the
 tor; ; yet"II : perceived'; in :forming, a short, radical vocabularys; that he used many suppscrit words for common, ohjects, which, dre not, in: apy dialect. of Matayota: A:

Firthe:alphalet of Jatua, is pacalion, apd has no mosemblance im the onder of position to the Meraq nggiare The unmber of oharacters are twenty; and these ate
 ber of vocalic sounds is considerably greateri The Jowanese character is: written ifromiright to deft. T:The adphabet has beea exhibited.with considerable accut: racy, by Le Binun, and also by Remand; and itope peans to have attracted the attention of the learned Hypes, as an " ".Alphabetum Baptamense". was fompl amengst his Posthumous papers, which had betch written for him by the Ampassador of the king of simetans:

- Warious ancient inscriptions and monuments are said to exist in the interior of Jasa, :one of which was seen by Thu s berg, at Paditúlis, near the blue mpun+ teins in the interior of the island, which consisted of eight lines and a hadf, engaaved on, a stone pillafs sboust two feet in breadth. The chduraters seemed, to him, to be written fiom right to left, and po perm sea had been able to decypher, them.
 said to bei very, diatinct from the Jaowacse preppery and, from the firs of them, the language of Siffle is oupposed to be depiwed: : This :point, howiewer, I hate not boers able: to investigate in a satisfaotory madner.

The literature of the Javanese is similar to that of the Afalays; tob: which it seicind to have given ofigin. Their Kaggiexuint or Cheritras, contain their my tho logy', and ithe adventures of their anovient thereses, and exhipit. them in: a stiyle which has no inconsiderable zesemblance to that of the Hixidu. Patrunics." The Javanasc laws :are zoranged in codes of oonsiderable entiquity, dand cedebrated among all the eastern islonds.

The Jassia or Jacouncse language does not appesp to hore ibeen regularty cultivated by Eunopemins, though some af the outlimes of their myybuological stories have heece published in the transabtions of the A siatic Socioty: in Batavia, ins well as some vocabularios of the Jurveq lauguage.' In the Dutch'work; enitited "Begin an veaoritgeng adu Oostimed Compan.". or the rise and pros gress of the 砇st: Irdia comphany, a comparative view is exchibited of the Javewese and Matayke languages. The Mahunamedans have translated the Korah into Javanese.

The Mali and infadura languages, spoken by the inhebitants of the isles of the same name, appear from the best information I could procure, to be dialeets of Javuruse.! The greater part of the inhabitants profess the ancient religion of their ancestors; secumble the Hindus in their eppearance, wear the Hindu marks on thelr forchead, and the woneem buirn themselves with their deceaser husbands, according
ta the practice of the Hindus. Like the unconverted Jruanese; they are peculiarly addicted to the worship of Initra, Surya and $V_{l b h n u}$; but being neither in possession: of their original religibus books, nor of the extracts from them which have been adduced in the Transactions of the Batavian Society, I forbear to dilate on this subject at present.
III. Bu'gis.-The Búgis may be reckoned the original language of the island Cebebes, in the same manner as the Javanese is that of the island of Java. This ancient, brave, and martial nation, also, became known to the Eurbpeans only in their decline, but there are a maiiety of circumstances; relative to them, which incline me to regand them as probably more ancient, in the eastern seas, than even the Javanese. -In courage, enterprize, fidelity, and even fair dealing in commerce, they are placed at the head of all the orang timor,: or eastern men, even by the testimony of the Malays and Javanese themselves, and to compare to them; either the Chinese, or the continental Indo-Chinese nations, were to compare an ass, caparisoned in stiff and gilded trappings, to a generous courser. The nation, to which the Bugts exhibit the greatest resemblance, is the Japanese, but I have not been able to discover that the same similarity exists between their respective languages, which appears in their natural characters.

The istand of Celebes wàs formerly divided into seven principalities, which were all united under an elective and limited sovereign. In this state, the island was the centie of eastern commerce, and extended its conquests, on the one hand, as far the island of Bali, and on the other, beyond the Moluccas. The Bágis language was assiduously cultivated. and their ancient mythology, traditions, laws and history, preserved in
books, the greater part of which are still extant, especially in the interior, among the tribes who still adhere to their ancient religion. On the sea coast, the Mahummedan religion prevails, and their books. resemble more the later Cheritras of the Malays. In 1603, the Mungktasar Rajah, with the whole Mungkasar nation, by one of the most singular revolutions on record, renounced their ancient religion, and not only adopted Islamism, but compelled a number of the inferior states to imitate their example.

The Búgis language, on the coasts, is much mixed with the eastern Malayu, and is found pure only in the ancient books, and in the interior of Ceiecbes. It exhibits strong features of originality in its vocables, but resembles the Malayu and Tăgála. In its construction. With Malayu, Javanese and Tăgalá it exhibits many coincidences, but it contains, in its original state, almost no words of Sanscrit origin. With the ancient Tarnata. or Molucca language, it also exhibits some conicidences, but as I have had no favourable opportunity of studying the Búgis, and none at all of examining the Tarnata, ' with any degree of accuracy, I cannot pretend to determine the nature of this connection, Compared'with the Malayu or Javanese, it has certainly more the air of an original than of a derivative tongue.

The Bágis alphabet consists of twenty-two letters, which are varied by the six vocalic sounds a, $u, i, e$, o, ang. The form of the character is peculiar, though it appears to belong to the same class as the Batta and Tăgalá. The power of the character's coincides nearly with that of the Javanese letters, though they differ a little both in number and in the
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## 194

 on the lánguages and hiteratureorder of arrangement. The form of the Bugis character seems not only to differ considerably, in differet states, but the alphabet also varies in the numler and order of the letters. This proceeds from the adoption or rejection of the double conspnants, which, though used in ancient and classical compositions, are seldom or never employed in letter-writing or common business; and hence, when a Bug's writes down his alphabet, it may vary, in the num. ber of the characters, from seventeen to twenty-two. The only Búgis alphabet, printed or engraved, with which I am acquainted, is that which is given by Forest, in a corner of one of the maps of his " Vayage to the Mergui Archipelago." The letters are not formed according to the common round Bugis hand; but sharp angled, like the Rajang and Batta chos racter ; but in other respects it is sutficiently correct. The Bug's character is also employed frequently in writing Málayu compositions.

The language of the ancient Búgis compositions displays little diversity of dialect, but considerable variety exists in the language of conversation, in the different Bu'gis states. The dialect of Muingkásar or Macassar, the bravest and most renowned of the Bug's tribes, differs considerably from the Búgis proper; but the dialects of Lúbú, Enrékang, Mandar, and especially Tä-Rajja, seem almost to be different languages.

> The Búgis language has never been regularly cultiyated by Europcans, though the Dutch have formed abridgements of some of the historical relations in which it abounds. I have formed a short radical vocabulary of both the. Búgis and Mungloásar, buit camnot consider it as pure and unnmixed, being de-
rived from inhabitants of the coast, though some of them were very intelligent, and tinctured with their peculiar learning. From the same source I obtained the following list of the most populat Búgís compositions:

| 1. Nama Sagóni, $\because$ | 28. Rotum-risosk, |
| :---: | :---: |
| 2. Batita Guru; | 29. Lagathigo, |
| 3. Guru De Sillang, | 30. Tobala Onji, |
| 4. Tojorisúmpa, | 31. Radaöng Labeh. |
| 5. Lasini Leléh; | 32. Lamada Romang, |
| 6. Batára Latoh, | 33. Palawago, |
| 7. Oputolaga, | 34. Lawaju-Langi, |
| 8. Araulangi, | 35. Lamapa-puli, |
| 9. Panori Tawgeh, | 36. Datı-Mowunléh, |
| 10. Lajiri-hoi, | 37. Lalúmpang Méga, |
| 11. Jamuri China, | 38. Lasawring-Langi, |
| 12. Laurupoysi, | 39. Rotan di Papang, |
| 15. Rotun Nari-Tatta, Datu Nagima, | 40. Aji Lédeh, |
| 14. Lamaputoda-Turipo; | 41. Lamapang Aniro, |
| 15. Latum Mullurung, | 42. Latan-nari-jivi, |
| 16. Lauhdun-Reठ, | 43. Bayapágúli, |
| 17. Lapa Bichara LariSindénare, | 44. Latupu Sallau, |
| 18. Gutupatalótopalaguna, | 45. Latúpugulla, |
| 19. Lappang Ngarisang, | 46. Latan nari Pulang, |
| 20. Opu-Sauginuda, | 47. Satya-bonga, |
| 21. Opala-Maru-Datu-nd-Sopéng, | 48. Lasatúng-puge, |
| 28. Laxtu-getanna Priju Limpoy, | 49. Laga-lego Tokolingheng, |
| 23. Sawira Gading | 50. Latan naroagi, |
| 24. Adewata, | 51. Datula-Kila, |
| 25. Rotun Diliwung, | 52. Lapanadora, |
| 26. Data Pàmúsu, | 53. Rotan di timang toan laniú. |
| 27. Lanaga Ladaing, |  |

The greater part of the compositions here enu--merated, celebrate the deeds of their national heroes. But besides these, the "Addat," or codes of Búgis law are of considerable antiquity, particularly those of Gua, Waju, Boni and Mandar; and of great repute, among the eastern tribes. Several of them are translated into Malayu and Javanese. The Koran is also translated into the Búgis language.

O 9

The Búgis songs and romances are famous among all the islands of the East; and, as far as I can judge, from a very limited knowledge of them, equally excel, in force of thought and fluency of versification. The use of rhyme is much less frequent than among the Malays. The melody of the verse depends on the rhythm, and the measure, in the historical poems, has often considerable similarity to some of the species of Sanscrit verse. The following lines are given as a specimen from the "Wépaletei," the only Bügis story in my possession.
Narételangi napapabaja natokúnruna WEpaléteż
Lalo saliwang pasisi aji rito matindro sésimpangi
Rittomapiddang sisulingi matduadua mua kakana
Wemapamaï natijinruna lalu saliwang rútúpanimpa
Lakunatillum tirrimakudda Wullirijáwa to Sopengi
Jillokasawa kakapamaï lúmpuna Chína tujuna Sabang
Naranrukiè Iajutenio sésumangutnah Passaüngé
Mabaliada wemapamaï richinaruna kuëm muă
Megama katu tudangpalluna linna samanna tuributili
Lolangungé turipasałti ujutanai tádillerlé
Muarinili aülaïn patalutuna lolangunge.
" In the morning twilight, when the day began to dawn, awaked Wepalettei, and went out of the palace, stepping carefully over those who were sleeping in regular rows, and those who were reposing irregularly, where her elder brothers were sleeping two by two, and along with her went out Pamai, her nurse and attendant. Wullirijaiva of Sopéng, went forth, and having opened the beautifully formed window, began to express her grief, "O! my elder sister Pamar, point out to me the situation of China (a district in Celebes) and show me in what direction Sabang lies, where Passaïnge dwells, the brother of Lajú Tenió." Pamai answered, "see how beautifully, the floating clouds rest on the stately trees of

China; as if they had been arranged by art. How beautiful are the lawus, which seem as if the earth had of her own accord accommodated herself to the request of man. How graceful wave the trees, with their foliage to the view, and the golden bamboos which enclose the lawns."

The Bugis songs are very numerous. Some ofthem are short proverbial maxims versified and display considerable force of both thought and language, but I have not met with any which exhibit the peculiar character of the Malayı Pantun. They however exhibit many traits of the peculiar manners of the Bught tribes. In the following specimens, the first allides to a very common mode of punishing cowardice in Celebes, the second to the practice of poisoning weapons, and the last is a brief dialogue between a lover, going to battle, and his'mistress, who presents him with her betel-box as a parting token.

Tikkungi talasêi joa maliaii
Tapasilaséli andraguru maliäi
Corripe nififitem segnem, castráa,
Immo ducem timidum castrato.
Tillu ritumati balubahu rilleleang
Ria paserakané lanru tojirru
Túmera ritirilébu dadi aju ta Sàngala.
There are three articles exposed to sale'
In the clash of cembat- - the temper of the lance-
The form of the 'bullet-and the gum of the poison tree'of Sungula.
EJA ripaliñrłtnğ ajatñu marakka silla
$\therefore$ Rikóa biritta poli ruälapí sía
Raja-Túnp̣a rikapeku münappa rinniawating -
-Tilla returona salina lopalopaku
Sapahna rikko otáko tíndria pauwa
Timmáanroä paraparưng tíndria kampulajangang.

EJA ! opject of my secret affection, be not easily moved to grieve,
Whatever news arrive from the batlle, till you see
My kris Raja Tumpa taken from my girdle, but then grieve for the dead-
-There are three prohibitions in my betel-box, with which you must conform :
They are wrapt up in the folds of the betel leaf,-talk not in the time of action-
Loiter not idly within your tent-skulk not as you advance on the foe.
The Mungkḑar poetry is characterized by the same features as the Búgis, and their national wars with the Dutch is said to be a favourite topic among the poets of that race. The following specimen, which is a poetical challenge, alludes to the diversion of cock-fighting, the favourite amusement of the nation.
$\because$ Kêrimi jangang riwaya bija jangang sundawa

Bukki tonja Kontasilla púna innukkẹ núṛúntu
Tinumbukkéya bára éyapún nisillung.
Where is that courageous cock, that true gapne-cock, trained to combatFor here is his match, full of youthful spirit, yet unconqueredLet him then enter the lists with me, if he would be cop,quẹred; Hitherto invincible, if I am ever conquered, it will bẹ now-
IV. Bima.-The Bima language is used in the independent state of Bima, which includes the eastern part of Sumbawa, and the western part of the island Endé, which was childishly denoninated Blores, by the early Portugueze navigators; : and, after them, by succeeding vayagers and geographers. "Iff my information is correct, the Bima language exteads over the greater part of the island $E n d C_{1}$, The $B$ Bima language is related in some respects to Búgis:and Javanese, and on the coast is nixerd with Malayu; but nevertheless it has strong pretensions to originality in its pronouns, verbal auxiliaries, and simple names of
objects. In those instances, in whieh it exhibits a relation to the Búgis, it seems to be more closely connected with the Mungkasar than the :Bugis proper, and yet, in sentences, the difference is striking, as in. the following example. "Where is the house of the Rajah?" Bikey kuassi rumata sangnsaji. (Bima) Kéré tujuna embana kérayeng. (Mungk.) The sun, in Bima is termed Mata-liro; in Mungkäsar, Matulo; in Búgis, Mataso. A man, in Malay, orang, is, in Mungkasar and Búgis, taï ; and in Bima, do. The dialect of Sumbawa, which prevails in the districts of the island of that name, which are not subject to the Sultan of Bima, is of a more mixed character, and though it appears to contain many original vocables, yet the mass of the language seems derived from other sources, as Bima, Javanese and Búgis. Neither the Bima nor Sumbatea have any peculiar character, but use, indifferently, the Búgis or Malayu. I attemptedto investigate the relations of both these languages, by forming comparative vocabularies of radical words; but not being able to procure any compositions int either of them, I do not flatter myself with having been able to obtain the purest native terms in every instance.
Specimen of the Bágis, Mungkásar, Bima and Sumbawa langiages.


| who | $\begin{gathered} \text { Bugis. } \\ \text { iga, niga } \end{gathered}$ | Mungkásar. inai | Bima. choeté | Sucrbarca. saí |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| what | aga | apa | au | komépo |
| where | pegi | kemi | benchi | mépo |
| when | siana | ungapana | bunēèi | pidan |
| which | kega | kerayéng | mabe | sangmépo |
| is. | unka | nia | wara | adda |
| will | mélo | eroko | ne | roa |
| can | makúleh | kúlégi | vau | bau |
| sun | mataso | matalo | mataliro | matahari |
| moon | ulúng | búlun | wúra | bùlun |
| star. | vit6ing, | bintoéng | tara | bíntang |
| wind | anging | angi | angi | angin |
| rain | bosi | bosi | ura | újin |
| day | aso | alo | liro | ano |
| night | wunni | bungr | aimangadi | anopotang |
| morning | élé | beribasa | aimasidi | anosiop |
| evening | arawéng | karvéng | aimumbiyang | anoravi |
| year | taúng | taung | baï | terob |
| earth | tana | bútta | dana | bumi |
| water | uwaï | jéné | oi | aik |
| sea | tási | tamparang | moti | let |
| river | salók | binanga | nanga | pungbǔrang |
| wave | bomba | bombang | balúmba | omak |
| sand | kasi | kasi | sarei | garsék |
| mountain | búlák | monchong | doro | olat |
| fire | api | pépé | afi | api |
| stone | batú | batu | watû | batú |
| gold | ulawúng | bulayeng | másanganga | bulayeng |
| silver | saláka | saláka | saláka | saláka |
| salt | păjé | chéla | síya | síra |
| iron | bissi | basi | besi | bosi |
| lead | túmera | túmbéra | tumbinga | tima |
| brass | túmbaga | túmbaga | romba | tomaga |
| white | maputi | kebok | lanta | puti |

OF THE INDO-CHINESE KATIONS.
201


This specimen of a comparative vocabulary, will convey someidea of the actual state of these languages, and of the actual variety which subsists in the language of conversation, especially on the coasts and maritime districts. Many of the words which occur in one language, are also found in others, though generally with some difference of pronunciation, and sometimes in an oblique sense. Frequently too, besides the terms which I have selected, which are only those of current use, several other words of the same signification might be found within the compass of the language. Thus, instead of anging, wind, in the high Bugis, salarung occurs in this signitication; and instead of salaka, silver, bultemata occurs in the high. Mungkásar dialect. In the same manner, the personal pronouns in Búgis terminate their plurals in manung, and in Mungkasar in ngasing, both of which signify all. Thus, (Bug.) idimanumg, (Mung,) ikuttengasing, we all. (Búg.) ikomanung, (Mung.) ikaïngásing, you all. (Büg.) eänanung, (Mung.) yenjo yang-ngasing, they all. . It is worthy of observation, that the Udia language spoken in Orissa, forms the plural of its personal pronouns by the addition of the particle mane;
or manang, like the Búgís. Thuss in Udia umbhémane, tumbhemaní, sémané or émané, signify zue, yf; they.,
V. Batta.-The Batta language, which I regard as the most ancient language of Sumatra, is used by the Batta tribes, who chiefly occupy the centre of that island. The singularity of their manners, and in particular the horrid custom of anthropophagy, practised by a nation in other respects more civilized than the Malays by whom they are surroundèd, has attracted the attention of Europeans from the time of the earliest voyagers to our own times, but no very satisfactory account has ever been given of them, as a nation. The best description of them is certainly given by Marsden, in his history of Sumatra, but even that is very imperfect and superficial, and at variance, in some respects, with the information I received from individuals of the nation. Marsden confines their cannibalism to two cases; that of persons condemned for crimes, and that of prisoners of war; but they themselves declare, that they frequently eat their own relations, when aged and infirm, and that, not so much to gratify their appetite, as to perform a pious ceremony. Thus, when a man becomes infirm and weary of the world, he is said to invite his own children to eat him, in the season when salt and limes are cheapest. He then ascends a tree, round which his friends aud offspring assemble, and as they shake the tree, join in a funeral dirge, the import of which is, "The season is come, the fruit is ripe, and it must descend." The victim descends, and those that are nearest and dearest to him, deprive him of life, and devour his remains in a solemn banquet. This account is certainly more likely to excite incredulity than the account of Mabsden $n_{2}$ but it is the account of spme of the Battas themselves, as well as that of the Malays in their vicinity. This inhumaps custom is mot, bowever, withqut a precedent iṇ history, for He-
nodotus positively asserts, that the Paday or Padaioi, about 500 years before our ara, were not only addicted to the eating of raw flesh, but accustomed to kill and eat their relations when they grew old. Now it is curious that Batta or Batay, for the name is written both ways, seems to be the very word which, in Greek, is rendered Padaioi, the letter $p$ being almost ab ways pronounced $b$ among several of the Indo-Chinese nations, as in the word Pali, which is almost always pronounced Bali. The following is the account which Herodo'rus gives us of the Paday, or Padaioi." Another Indian nation, who dwell to the eastward of these, (the Indian Ichthyophagi) are of nomadic habits, and eat raw flesh. They are called Paday, and are said to practise such customs as the following. Whoever of the community, be it man or woman, happens to fall sick, his most familiar friends, if it is a man, kill him: saying, that by his pining in sickness, his flesh will be spoiled for them ; and though he deny that he is sick, they do not attend to him, but put him to death, and feast on him. When a woman falls sick, she is treated in like manner by her most intimate female: associates. They also sacrifice and feast on him who arrives at old age, and. this is the reason that so few of them ever attain it, for they kill every one who falls sick, before that period."* This account of Heronotus certainly corresponds very minutely with the customs attributed to the Batta race, and reuders it probable that this modern nation derive their origin from the ancient Raday or Batay. Neither is it more incredible that the Battas should eat human flesh as a religious ceremony, than that anthropophagy should be practised by the class of mendicants termed Agórah Punt'h, in

[^60]Bengal, and other parts of India, which is a fact that cannot easily be called in question. It is surprizing. that this singular custom has received so little investigation.

The names of the different Batta tribes, of whom I have' been able to hear, are the following-

| 1. Batta Sebalúngú, | 5. Batta Toru, |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2. Batta Padembanin, | 6. Batta Bila, |  |
| 3. Batta Kwalu, | 7. Batta Kurúlang, |  |
| 4. Batta Pannay, |  | 8. Batta Sipagabu, |

In many of the Batta customs, considerable similarity to those of the Nairs of Malabar may be traced, as in the law of inlreritance, according to which it is not the son, but the nephew, that succeeds.

The Batta language has considerable claims to originality, though it is not only connected with the Malayu, but also with the Búgis and Bima languages. In point of construction it is equally simple as the Malayu, but it is with the Bug's that it seems to have the most intimate connection. Indeed, the manners of the aboriginal Bugis are supposed to have exhibited no small resemblance to the peculiar customs of the Batta nation; for the Rajja or Tä-Rajja tribe, in the central parts of the island Celelies, are said still to eat their prisoners of war. The Batta language is the chief source of that diversity of dialect which is discoverable in the languages of Sumatra. The Răjang or Rejang dialect is formed by the mixture of the Batta and Malaya; the Lampúng, by mixing Malay and Batta with a proportion of Javanese. The Karrows, who are subject to Achi or Achin, use only a slight variation of the Batta language, while the language of $A c h i$ proper consists of a mixture of Malayu and Batta, with all the jargons used.
by the Moslems of the east, whether Hindostani, Arab-Tamul or Mápilla. The Achinese resemble the Mápillas of Malabar more than any other tribe of Malays: they have long been connected with thein as a people, and use many Mápilla terms currently in their language. The dialects of Neas and the Poggy islands, the inhabitants of the latter of which are termed Mantazvay, by the Malays, have perhaps greater pretensions to originality than any of the dialects of Sumatra, but resemble the Batta more than any other dialect. Hence it may be suspected, that if we were acquainted with the books of the Battas, and knew the full extent of their language, in all its variety of expression, elliptic phrases, and obsolete words, the coincidence would be still more striking. There is probably, too, some diversity of expression in these dialects, even in their present state, for in forming a short radical vocabulary of the Néas language, I found it differed considerably, in some instances, from the specimen published by Marsiden, in the sixth volume of the Archaologia.

The Batta language has been cultivated by writing, from the earliest times, and numerous books are said to exist in it. I have only been able, however; to procure the names of the following-.
4. Siva Marangaja,
3. Raja Isiri,
2. Siva-Jarang-Mundopa,
4. Malamdeva.

The Batta alphabet is peculiar, both in the form of its characters, and in the order of their arrangement. It consists of nineteen letters, each of which is variable by six vocalic sounds like the Bugiss. In the power of the letters, it nearly corresponds with the Búgis and Javanese alphabets, the difference between all these being extremely trifling, consisting solely in
one of them expressing two cognate sounds by one character, or adding a new character, or the modification of a character, to express a double consonant of fréquent recurrence. Büt the Batta character has another peculiarity" "it is written neither from right to left, nor froin left to right, nor from top to bottom, bat; in a manner directly opposite to that of the Chinese, from the bottom to the top of the line, as the Mexicans are said to have arranged their fieroglyphics. The material for writing is a bamboo, or the branch of a tree, and the instrument for writing the point of a kris, consequently their nhtive forests always furnish them with matetials in abundance, and instead of our pages and volumes, they have their bamboos and literary faggots. Marsden has given a tolerably correct Batta alphabet, in his history of Sumatra, but instead of plating the characters in a perpendicular line, he has arranged theni horizontally, "which conveys an errorieous idea of their natural form: The Battas, sometimes, read their bamboos horizontally Instead of perpendicularly, as the Chinese and Japanese do their books, but the Chinese consider the correct mode of reading to be from the top to the bottom of the page, and the Battas from the bottom to the top. The lines at the top of a Chinese page are always regular, and if a line terminates in the middle of the page, the blank space is towards the bottom; now the Battas sometimes write on growing trees; and in this case, if a blank space occurs, it is towards the top of the division, a citcumstance which determines what they consider as the natural position of their characters. The Batta characters, when arranged in their proper position, have considerable analogy to the Búgis and Tagala. The Lampúng and Räjang characters coincide in power with those of the Batta, though the ar-
rangement is different, and so far from being considered as otiginal alphabets, they are only regarded, as far as I could learri, by the Battas, as different forms of the same character. Indeed, the greater part of the differences they exhibit in form, may be fairly attributed to the different materials on which they write, and the different manner of writing; while the diversity in the number and arrangement of the letters may be referred to the same causes which have produced a'smilar variety in the Bagis alphabet.
VI. Tágáda. -The Tagala or rather Tŭ-Gála or the Gala language is' among the Phillipines, what the Malayiu is in the Malay islands or the Hindostani in Hindostan proper. A Spunish missionary, whio possessed a minute knowledge of this language, has declated, that "Thie Tưgála possesses the combined ad. vantages of the four principal languages in the world. It is mysterious as the Hebreto; it has articles for nouns, both appellative and proper, like thie Greek; it is elegant and copious as the Latin; and eḍual to the Italian, as the language of compliment or business." To examine tigorously the justness of this eulogium, is foreign to my purpose; it is necessary ofily to state, that it is considered by those who have studied it with most attention, as the radical language, from which the greater part, if not all, the dialects of the Philippines are derived. A missionary, who had resided eightcen years in these islands, and whose account of them has been translated from the Spanish, and printed by Theveinọit in the second part of his "Relations de divers Voyages Curieuses. Paris 1664," declares, that though every district has its particular dialect, yèt that these have all sonie relation to each other, such as subsists. among the Lombard, Sicilian, and Tuscan dialects. Thete are six dialects of this kind, in the island of

Manila, and two in Oton. Some of these are current in several islands, but the most general are the Tŭgála and Bisaya, the last of which is very gross and barbarous; but the other more refined and polished. The opinion of this missionary is confirmed by Fra. Gaspar de San Augustin, who asserts; that all these particular tongues are dialects of one general language, in the same manner as the Attic, Ionic, and Eolic, are all dialects of Greek, or as the Italian, Spanish, Portugueze, and Frerich, are all derivatives from the Latin.

The Tŭgála language has been cultivated only by the Spanish missionaries. The Tăgála grammar of Fra. Gaspar de San Augustin, which has passed through two editions, was printed in 1703, and again in 1787. In his preface, he requests those who are desirous of more numerous examples in the language, to have recourse to other grammars, especially to that of Fra. Francisco de San Joseph, who is elsewhere called the Demosthenes of the Tăgála language. A confessional, by the same author, in Spanish and Tŭgála, was published in 171S, and republished with the second edition of his grammar. In 1627, Fra. Alphonso a St. Anna published his "Explicacion de la Doctrina Christiana en lingua Tăgála," and, besides these, many other religious compositions, both in prose and verse, have been published by the missionaries.

The Tagála alphabet consists of seventeen letters, three of which are vowels, and fourteen consonants. It is of the same class as the Búgis and Batta alphabets. and resembles them much in form; and, it is probably from some idea of this similarity, that Fra. Gaspar de San Augustin asserts that the Tăgála characters were derived from the Malays.

The Tuggata character is as difficult to read as it is sapy to write. It is, written with an inon style an beynbios and palp leaves, and the Spanish missionaFiens. apsert, thatit the ancient mode of writing was fropen top to battom, like the Chinese. From the circumstance of their writing with an iron style on bamboos, and from the resemblance of the letters to the Restta, characten, I should rather imagine that the ancient Taygala mode of writing was from the bottom to the topo. The Tăgala characters are still used in Comintan; and in goneralamong the Tquallas. who have mot embraced christianity; and even by the Ghristian connexts, they are still preferred in epistelary carrespondence, though the contrary: has bee, ithiguated by: some of the missionaries, the alledge that; the roman alphabet: was eagerly adoptedi on iaccount of its breing moxe ceasilytsead.

The Tagkala language, with a conaiderable number of peculiar vocables, and gTeat siagularity of idiom, is nevertheless to be considered as a eopgnatel language with Malazun, Bagis apd, Ieqameses $t$.Tew languagen, or a cursony examination; : Present: a greater appearance of originality than the Tugkla.:. Though; a mul titude of, itate terms :agree precisely with those of the languages just: enumerated, though the more simple idioms are precisely the same, and though; the nouns have neither, properly: speaking, genders, numbers nor cases, nor the verbs, moods, tenses or persons, yet the idioms are rendered so complex, and the simple terms are so much metamorphosed, by a variety of the most simple artifices, that it becomes quite impossible for a person who understands all the original words in a sentence, either to recognize them individually, or comprehend the meaning of the whole. In illustrating, therefore, the mechanism of
language, few languages are more instructive than the :Tăgélar. . The artifices'which' it chiefly' employs, are -the prefixing or postfixing to sinfte vocables, lepi :tain particles, which are again combined, and eoalesce with others; and the conlplete or partial repetifion of terms, in this reluplication, may again betconbined with other particles.

The Tăgala forms the plurals of nouns by thelyward manga, as the Malays by bamya'k; both of whieh sige nify many, and seem to be the very same word, ds the $m$ and $b$ are often pronounced in such an indistinct manner, in the Indo-Chinese languages, that they seem neither to correspond exactly to ovir m mor our $b$, but to an intermediate, sound. To piopet names, the Tăgála prefixes the particle si, and ang to appellative' nouns. The first of these catreepponds to the Malayu sa, and the latter to gang, book of which are frequently used in Malayu in the same manner; but the Tagada combines both these with the particles'mya and ka, the first ef which signifies of, it, and the latter to ; atd thus they forrir stwas stana, nina, nang, which (except the last; which is onty a different mode of writing the Matayw wyangs, of whest, who;) scarcely occur in Malligu. The pharal of ! 'nounss; in Malayu, is sometimes formed' by"the refeetition of the singukar, and sometimes this repetition istrot complete, but consists only of the first syllable or syllables. This also occurs in the Tăgala, in : which language banal, the Malayu banar, signifies just, true, and taro signifies a man, corresponding with the Bugis tau. A just man. in Tăgala, is therefore; ang banal na tavo, or by the addition of another particle, and altering the position of the words; ang tauong banal. Now if we substitute the Malayu word orang, for the Búgis and Tăgala term tauc or tavo, we may render both these sentences thus; yang orang yang.
benar, and yang benarnya orang. In the plural, to signify, just men, the Tagala.gives, ang manga tauong babanal, to which the corresponding Malayu phrase is, yang banyák orang yang babenar; or again in Tagala, ang babanalna manga taro, to which the corresponding .Malayu is, yang babenarnya banyak arang.

The simple pronouns, which vary so much in all the dialects of the eastern seas, are nearly the same in Tăgala and Malayu, though it is not very easy to recognize them in the former language when combined with particles. Thus in the first person ako, ko, kita, kami are pure Malayu; and in the second person, $m u$ corresponds equally with mo, while ikao and iyo seem to be only trivial variations of the Malayu ungkau and ayo. In the third person siya is only a variety of sa yea like siappa for sa-appa, who, in Malayu; while niya, of him, his, is pure Malayu, as are itu, that, and nin of this, while yan, this, and yain, that, correspond to ini and anu. It is however chiefly in the verb that the peculiar character of the Tăgála language displays itself. The substantive verb is generally omitted altogether, and its meaning is denoted by implication, or the position of the words in a sentence. Sometimes, however, it is expressed by the article ay, the contraction of the Malayu adda, as Sino ang masipag? Who is diligent? or rather, Who is he who is diligent? Ang masipag ay si Jagula, it is Jagula that is diligent, or literally, he who is diligent iş one Jagula.

The Tagala verbs being only names of actions or states of existence, they cannot properly be said to be either active or passive, neither have they any persons, numbers or moods: all these being expressed by particles prefixed or postifixed to the radical word.

The principal particles employed in modifying the Tăgala verbs are also common to the Malayu language. The Tăgála particles are na, nag, mag, pag, ungm, $y$, an, in: those which correspond to them in Malayu are na, nyang, meng or me, peng, yangmeng, yang̀, an, ahin. Their significations are radically the same, nor do they differ essentially in their simple application; but in the variety of modes according to which these particles may be combined with the verb, in its simple form, in its reduplicate form, in its semi-reduplicate form, and the variety of transpositions of letters and the changes of one letter for another, euphonice gratia, which all these combinations give occasion to; in all these, the Tägala is infinitely superior to the Malayn, if there is any merit in a superiority which consists in greater intricacy. The changes which occur in Malayu are few and obvious, in Tăgala they are digested into an extensive and complex system, in which perfect familiarity with every form that the word can assume, not only by the addition of particles, but by the interchange of letters, is necessary to enable a person to detect the radical, which is often more disguised than in the most complex Arabic derivatives. Thas in Tăgála the root, tolog signifies to sleep, natalog ako, 1 slept, natotolog ako, I am sleeping, matalog, sleep, matotolog ako, I will sleep, katolog, pagkatotog and paskakatolog, sleeping, natotologpa ako, I slept or was sleeping, ang natotolog the sleeper, ang matotolog, the person who is to sleep, nakatolog ako, 'T' had stept: atobgan, the having been asleep, natotologan, the being asleep, katologan and katotologan, the being asleep, or act of sleeping; or the sleeping place and for the plural nangatologan, ndingatotologdn, pangatologan, paingatototogan, \&c. the particles na, ma and pa, becoming nanga, manga and 'panga', in the' plural.This is ain instance in which the changes of the radical
word are very obvious; in the following they are less so, buhat to lift; bungmuhat, buingmubuhat, bumuhat, bubuhat, pagbuhat, nakabuhat, nabukat, binuhat, bimubuhat, buhatin, bubuhatin, nagpabuhat, nagpupabuhat, magpabuhat, magpapabuhat, pagpabuhat, pagpapabuhat, pinabuhat, pinababuhat, muhat, namuhat, namus makat, mamuhat, mamumuhat, pinamuhat, pinamamuhat, pamuhatin, pamumuhatin. The addition of a greater number of particles would still produce a considerable number of additional metamorphoses, in which it would be very difficult to recognize the original radical buhat; but these may suffice to shew the genius of the larguage; and they will also tend to shew the extreme danger that any etymologist or grammarian incurs, who presumes to treat of one of the castern languages without a radical knowledge of it, and even, in some degree, of its cognate dialects.

The greatest defects of Fra. Gaspar de S. Au-- Gustin's Tăgala grammar proceed from his not having comprehended sufficiently the original simplicity of the dialect, nor even the simple artifice by which the greater part of these changes have been effected; and from having composed his grammar on European principles, without attending uniformly to the pectuliar character of the language.

With respect to the original literature of the Tăgalas, the accounts of the Spanish missionaries are rather discordant. Sometimes they represent them as. totally devoid of histories, and books of science; and sometimes they represent them as in possession of many historical poems; not considering that almost the whole body of the eastern history must be gleaned from poetical tradition. - It however appears, clearly enough, from their own accounts, that the ancient P 3

## 214

religious traditions of the Tăgala race, their genealogies, and the feats of their gods and heroes, are carefully preserved in historical poems and songs, which, in their youth, they carefully commit to memory, and are accustomed to recite during Jabnur and long voyages, but particularly at their festivals and solemn lamentations for the dead. These original memorials of the race, the missionaries have, with pious care, attempted to extirpate, and have employed themselves sedulously in composing religious tracts, both in prose and verse, in the Tăgala, with the hope of supplanting the remains of national and pagan antiquity. Many psalms and hymns, and even some of the Greek dramas composed by Dionysiús Areopagita, have in this manner been translated into the Tăgála language. Among this brood of Tăgála poets, the names of Fra. Antonio de S. Gregorio, of Fra. Alonso de S. Ana, and of Fra. Pablo Clain, the translator of Kempis, into Tăgála, are celebrated, but the most illustrious of them all, says the reverend father Gaspar de S. Augustin, is Fra. Pedro de Herrera, the very Horace of the Tăgála language, as appears by his book of " Postrimerias." With the original Tăgála poetry I. am unacquainted, and I believe no specimen of it has been hitherto published. S. Augustin, in his grammar, treats, indeed, of Tăgálá poetry, but he piously confines his examples to the works of his ghostly brethren. He observes, that the Tăgatí verse, is regulated by the rhythm of the syllables, and the similarity of the vowels in the close. This similarity of the terminating vawels does not amount to regular rhyme; for the: consonants may be totally different though the vowels are similar, as in the Spanish thymes termed Asonantes: Thus laglag and taltal sút and cakuy, silip and bukkir, however imperfect as rhymes, are all that is required in the termi-
nations of Tăgala verse. .The Tăgala metres, adds the same author, are rather lyric than heroic, and he adduces specimens of several Lat in and Castilian measures, imitated in that language, besides a legitimate sonnet addressed to hin self, on publishing his Tăgála grammar by Fra. Joseph df el Valle. The following specimen from the Tagala version of one of the dramas of Dionysius Argopagita, is an imitation of the comic verse of Terence.

> Dito sa dakkilang kaharian nang Grecia
> Ay itong bayannang Athenas lalo, at mona. Sa ibang manga bayang na sasakop baga Hangan saona, at magpangayon pa.

Besides the Tăgála nation, there are several other races, which inhabit these islands, who differ considerably from each other in features, language, and the various relations of the social state; but concerning them, it is more difficult to speak with any degree of certainty. Such are the Pampangos, who reside to the north of Manilla; the Bistayas, who are generally diffused over the Philippines; and the painted race, termed, by the Spaniards, Pintados, who are, by some, reckoned a branch of the Bistay nation, and allied to the Tăgala and Bágis races; while, by others, they are supposed to be of the same origin as the:Haraforas.

Of the Bisarya layguage, I have seen some lists of words. It appeears to be either mixed with Tăgála, orderived from the same source; but it is seldom possible to jutge of any of the eastern languages from a few straggling spacimens, formed in the hurvied, inaccurate and incurious manner in which these are generally collected. . For this reasom, I shall offer no observations on the Pampango language, of which I have: alse seen specimegns; on the Biaju, Tirinn, or

Idan languages of Borrieo; nót on the Harafora, or the Papua languages of the eastern isles. The Sulí tongue is a very mixed dialect, but is derived chiefly from the Malayu; Jaoanese and Fägála. Fobhest, however, is inclined to refer its peculiarities to the Bisaya. The language of Melindenow, or Magindano, which nearly coincides with the Lanín dialect, is also a compound of Malayu, Búgis and Taggala, with a certain proportion of the ancient Tarnata or Molucca language, which seems to have been an original tongue. The Biaju language is reckoned original, but it has no written character. The Biajús are of two races; the one is settled on Borneo, and are a rude, but warlike and industrious nation, who reckon themselves the original possessors of the island of Borneo. The other is a species of sea-gypsies, of itinerant fishermen, who live in small covered boats, and enjoy a perpetual summer on the eastern ocean, shifting to leeward, from island to island; with the variations of the monsoon. In some of their customs, this singular race resemble the natives of the Maldive islands. The Maldivians annually launch a small bark, loaded with perfumes, gums, flowers and odoriferous wood, and turn it adrift at the merey of the winds and waves, as an offering to the Spirit of the reinds; and sometimes similar offerings are made to the spirit whom they term the King of the Sea. In like manner the Biajus perform their offering to the god of evil, launching a small bark, loaded with all the sins and misfortunes of the nation, which are Imagined to fall on the unhappy crew that may be so unlucky as first to meet with it.

The Tirún or Tedowt itribes live chiefly on the
north east coast of Borneo, and are reckoned
a savage and piratical: Tace, addicted to eating
the flesh of their ehemies. With their language $I$ am totally unacquainted, but it is reckoned peculiar. It is very probable, however, that they are only a tribe of Idán, whom, again, I imagine to be only a race of Haraforas or Alfoèrs, as they are termed by the Dutch, who seem to be the most original race of all the eastern islands, excepting perhaps, the Papuas. The Idan are sometimes termed Marit; they are certainly the original inhabitants of Borneo, and resenble the Haraforas equally in stature, agility, colour, and manners. The Haraforas are indigenous in almost all the eastern isles, and are sometimes found on the same island with the Papuas or oriental negross. They are often lighter in colour than the Muhammedan races, and generally excel them in strength and activity. They are universally rude and unlettered, and where they have not been reduced to the state of slaves of the soil, their manners have a general resemblance: In their manners, the most singular feature is, the necessity imposed on every person, of some time in his life, embruing his hands in human bloord; and in general among all their tribes, as well as the Idán, no person is permitted to marry till he can shew the skull of a man whom he has slaughtered. They eat the flesh of their enemies, tike the Battas, and drink out of their skulls; and the ornaments of their houses are human skulls and teeth, which are, consequently, in great request among them, as formerly in Sumatra, the ancient inhabitants of which are said to have originally bad no other money than the skulls of their enemies. The Haraforas are found in all the Moluccas, in Celebes, the Phitippines, and Magindano, where they are termed Subano or Manubo; and the ferocious race mentioned by' Marsden, who live inland from Samanka in Sumatra, and are accustomed to atone their

218 ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE
own faults by offering the heads of strangers to the chiefs of their villages, are probably of the same description.

The Papuas, termed by themselves Igolote, but by the Spaniards of the Philippines, negritos del monté, from their colour and woolly hair, are the second race of aborigines, in the eastern isles; in several of which they are still to be found, and in all of which they seem to have originally existed. Some of their divisions have formed small savage states, and made some advances tewards civilization; but the greater part of them, even with the example of more civilized races before their eyes, have betrayed no symptoms, either of a taste or capacity for improvement, and continue in their primitive state of nakedness, sleeping on trees, devoid of houses or cloathing, and subsisting on the spontaneous products of the forest, or the precarious success of their hunting and fishing. The natives of the Andaman isles seem to be of this race, as also the black mountaineer tribes of the Malay peninsula, termed at Kiddeh, Samang; at Perak, and in the Malay countries to the N. W. of Kiddeh, Bila; while to the southward of Pera'k, and through the straits of Malacca, to the eastward, they are termed Dayak. The Papuas, or oriental negroes, seem to be all divided into very small states or rather societies, very little conneeted with each other. Hence their language is broken into a multitude of dialects, which in process of time, by separation, accident, and oral corruption, have nearly lost all resemblance. The Malays of the peninsula, consider the language of the blacks of the bills as a mere jargon, which can only be compared to the chattering of large birds; and the Papua dialects, in many of the sastern isles, are generally viewed in the same light.

The Arabs, in their early voyages, appear to have frequently encountered the Papuas, whom they describe in the most frightful colours, and constantly represent as cannibals. They are mentioned by the travellers Ibn Wahab and Abu Zeid, in the Silsilet-al-Tuarikh, translated by Renaupot, and nearly the same accounts seem to be repeated by Masudi, Yakuti, and Ibn al Wardi. The following passage, which gives the name of one of the tribe's, is adduced from the Persic treatise termed Seir ul Aklim, the author of which appears to have visited the eastern islands. After mentioning the great island of camphor, probably Borneo, he adds," Beyond this are other islands of different sizes, among which there is one of considerable extent, inhabited by a race of blacks termed Kahálut; who resemble brutes in form', and when they can seize on a person, they kill and eat him. Of this practice, I have had experience, having escaped only by throwing myself into the sea; as the saying is, 'when you are going to be slam, throw yourself into the sea, and perhaps you may survive.' Even so it happened to me, for getting on the trunk of a large tree, 1 kept my hold for three days, when I was thrown by the force of the winds and waves on a desert shore, and after enduring much hunger and thirst, feached at last an inhabited country."

The tribes of the eastern islands exhibit a variety of singular: and interesting appearances, not only in the civi ath political, but also in the natural and morak history of than. If some of them appear in a naked and primitive state of barbarism, in others the vestiges of ancient art and science indicate, that they have'suffered a rèlapse from a prior state of civilization. This is particularly obvious among the Malay, Jaca
nese, Batta, and Bugis tribes, among whom the polished style, and elevated sentiments, of many of their compositions, and their dexterity in some of the arts, especially the compounding and working of metals form a singular contrast with the neglect of personal morality and the relaxation of all the bonds of society; while ancient and wise regulations are in a great measure suparseded by the most absurd and barbarous usages. Among the most barbarous of the Harafora and Papua races, there are some, who whether male or female, use no species of cloathing whatsoever, and consequently exhibit few traces of that modesty which is supposed to be innate in the human species. The same phænomenon, whether natural or produced by situation, is exhibited among the Biajus, the families of whom live constantly together, on the sea, in small boats. Vestiges of cannibalism appear to exist among the greater part of the rude tribes in the eastern isles, but the Battas of Sumatra, who are superior to the Malays in the knowledge of the arts and letters, have likewise preserved it; as well as the Tabínka tribe in Celebes. Of many of the most absurd, unnatural, and barbarous of their usages, it is obviously impossible to form a just opinion in the present state of our knowledge, as we are totally ignorant of the spirit of them, and of the system of opinions with which they are connected. Some of them may find a parallel in India and China; and it may be observed, that both the Indian and the Indo-Chinese monuments contain many allusions to a state of society and manners on the continent, similar to that which subsists among the most babarous of the tribes of the eastern isles. Perhaps, too, we shall be disposed to regard; with some degree of complacency, the most absurd and the most illiberal portions of the religious systems of Brahma and

Budd'ha, if we consider the dreadful superstitions that they probably supplanted, and the brutal state of savage existence which they exchanged for civil polity and sorial order. The Vanaras of Huniman are reckoned a tribe of mountaineers, even by many of the Hindús. The barbarous, but brave and active Iddan of Borneo, are termed MAarkt, which is the Nanscrit name of the forty-nine regents of the winds, and companions of Indra. The standard of the Battas is a horse's head with a fowing mane, which seems to indicate a connection with the Hayagrivas of Sanscrit history. In the present state of our knowledge of these tribes, however, it is not conjecture, but rigid and accurate description that is required; and in the present instance, it is not my object to -consider their civil, political, or moral relations, unless as far as these affect the phylological investigation of -their langaages and literature. As the chief utility that results from the examination of some of these ruder dialects, is to enable us to ascertain the limits of languages, more interesting and important, perhaps it may be thought that great minuteness would be misapplied on objects of such secondary importance. It must, however, be recollected, that success in important researches,; often depends on the aceuracy with which inferior investigations háve been conducted; that in commencing an investigation it is not always easy to predict what will ultimately prove of superior, or inferior importance; and that, at all events, it is safer to bestow too much attention, than too little, on what must be the basis of historical investigation. In all such inquiries, I therefore do not hesitate to adopt the sentiment of the learned Le Long; that "Truth is so interesting and satisfactory, when pérceived, that no pains should be spared to discover.it, even in the smallest matters."
VII. Ruкhe'no:-The Rukhéng is the first of that singular class of Indo-Chinese languages, which may be properly termed monosyllabic, from the mass of their radical words consisting of monosyllables, like the spoken dialects of China. These monosyllables are subjected to great variety of accent and intonation, in almost every instance : and require an accuracy of pronunciation and a delicacy of ear in speaking and comprehending them, far beyond what is requisite in the languages of Europe, or even in the polysyllabic languages of Asia. The Indo-Chinese languages of the monosyllabic class, borrow a considerable variety of tetms from the Pali or Ball, which exists among them, as the language of learning and science; but in adopting these polysyllables, they accommodate them to their peculiar enunciation,by pronouncing every syllable as a distinct word. The Rukheng is the language of the original inhabitants of Arakan, who adhere to the tenets of Budd'ha. Forming in ancient times a part of the empire of Magadha, from which they seem to have derived the name of Mug or Mauga, by which they are generally termed by the inhabitants of Bengal; and being from their situation more immediately connected with India; their language is by no means purely monosyllabic, but forms, as it were, the connecting link between the polysyllabic and monosyllabic languages. The Rukheng race is admitted to be of the same radical stock as the Barmas or Birmans, and is understood to have greatly preceded that nation in civilization. The Barmas, indeed, derive their own origin from the Rukheng, whom they generally denominate Barmá kyi, or the great Barmas, and they consider the Rukhéng as the most ancient and original dialect of the Barma language. This idea is certainly correct, and it may be added,
that the Rukheng orthography and pronunciation are neither so defective, no: so much corrupted as the Barma, and that consequently, in tracing the history of the language; the Rukheng is of much greater utility to the philologist. In another respect the laxguage may be considered as'purer ; until their late conquest by the Barmas, the tribes of Rukheng seem for a long period to have retained their independence, while the proper Barma tribes have suffered various revolutions. Hence the Rukheng retains more of its ancient form, and is less corrupted by foreign mixtures. The modifications, therefore, which it has received, are chiefly derived from the Pali or Bali, which was cultivated in the country as the learned language, and contained all their sacred books. The Rukheng has accordingly adopted Bali words and phrases more copiously than the Barma, and has also preserved them in a greater state of orthographical purity. The pronuriciation of the Rukheng is perhaps broader and grosser, but more articulate than the :Barma;' in particular it strongly affects the use of the letter $r_{;}$which the Barmas generally convert into ys in their pronunciation. Such, however, is the difference of pronunciation between the two nations, that even in sentences, where the words are nearly the same, they are not easily intelligible to each other.

The Rukhéng alphabet coincides accutately with the Deoa-nagari system of characters in its arrangement, and very nearly in the power of the particular letters. The only variation of importance is, the expression of both the acute and grave accent of the vowels, as well as their common sound, in certain cases. This provision, however, does not extend to
all the vocalic sounds in the Rukheng alphabet, but only to those sounds of this species, which are of most general use. A similar contrivance for the expression of accent, occurs iniall the alphabets of the monosyllabic languages, but varies, in exteat, according to the exigencies of a particular language. Thus, in Rukhéng, after the simple alphabet, follaw the combinations of the simple letters; with zoa, ya, $r a$, and of $h$ preceding them. Then follow some triple combinations of the same letters, after which are exhibited the common forms of syllables which terminate in a consonant, as $a k$, ang, aich, a,t, \&'p, and others of a similar kind; and finally the yarieties of accent, as acute and grave, are presented, in those vowels and nasals which are chiefly subject to be influenced' by them.

The Rulhéng character has considerable similarity to the Barma, in the greater part of its letters. . The following simple characters, however, g'ha, ja, j'ha, mya, ta, t'ha, da, d'ha, 2a, 'd'ka, ra, Lla, as well as some of the more complex combinatiens, differ: greatly from the respective forms of these characters in the Barma alphabet, and exhibit considerable resemblance to some of the ancient Canara characters. The Rukhéng simple alphabet is exhibited with considerable correctness by Capt. J. Towers, in the fifth volume of the Asiatic Researches, though many of his particular observations, as well as general views, are far from being accurate; chiefly, it may be presumed, from the novelty of the investigation.

The Rukhéng language, in the simplicity of its structure and expression, has great analogy to the Malayu. It has properly no numbers,
cases, nor flections, in its nouns; nor conjugations; moods, tenses, or persons, in its verbs. Many words have a substantive, adjective, or verbal signification, accord-' ing to their position in: a sentence; but in general, the names of objects, qualities, and actions, are sufficiently distinct from each other. The plurals of nouns are formed by numerals, or words expressive of plurality, as lú, a man; lú-súng-razwk, three men; lú-ăkúng, many men; lú àkúng-lúng, all men; mímma, a woman; mimma akúng-su, many zoomen. Comparisons are made by particles expressive of number or quantity, such as mya, or mrét-té, much; akré and hlark, very; pret, less, under ; akúng, many. Cases are expressed by particles equivalent to the prepositions or postpositions of other languages, or by juxta-position, which has often the force of the genitive in the Rukheng language. Thus, a man's hand, may be expressed indifferently by lú-lák, lú-luma-lak, or lú-chwá-lák.

The simple pronouns are nga, I, ko, or móng, thou, and yaxg-su, he; the plurals of which are formed by the addition of ro, as nga-ro, we ; mong-ro, ye; yang-su-ro, they. But in addition to these simple pronouns, there are various others, which indicate rank and. situation, as in Malayu, Chinese, and the monosyllabic languages in general, which have all of them paid peculiar attention to the language of ceremony, in addressing superiors; inferiors, and equals. These ceremonial forms in Rukheng are sometimes formed by particles added to the simple pronouns, and sometimes they are significant terms, such as servant, lord, highness, majesty, used pronominally, or rather in an absolute sense, without any expressed pronominal adjuncts; as in addressing a superior, when
the terms asyang, lord, sir; sak'hang, highness; khangpărá, majesty, are employed.

The pronouns in common use in Rukheng, according to this variety of ceremonial forms, may be thus exhibited.

| 1, we, | thou, ye, | he, they, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nga, | k6, | dang, |
| mga-ro, | mong, | yang-su, |
| nga-ro-hma, | nang, | yang-su-re, |
| kyĕwéng, | awey, | su-ro. |
| akyěwéng, | mong-hma, |  |
| aky ${ }^{\text {axwéng-hma, }}$ | mong-re, |  |
| akyěwéng-ro, | mong-rohma, |  |
| akyěweng-ro-hma, ${ }^{\prime}$ | nang-ro, |  |
| aky ${ }^{\text {ckeng-tza-ré, }}$ | nang-hma, |  |
| akyeweng tz'hang-ré-ro . | nang-ro-hma, |  |
|  | awey-ro, |  |
|  | awey-hma, awey-ro-hma |  |

To explain the particular instances in which each of these pronominal terms is used, is not consistent with my present object, which is only to present a general outline of the structure of the language.

The moods and tenses of the verbs are in like manner expressed by means of particles, or significant words, like our auxiliary verbs. Such are si, hi, hi-rt and le-bi, is; bri and le yakk, is, been; bri-re and bri-kha-ré, was; míy, woill; ra and ra-mé, may, can; yaung, let, permit; hi-sua, been. The position of these particles in a sentence, is often, however, a matter of considerable difficulty, and is one of the circumstances in which the elegance of style chiefly consists. The style chiefly affected in Rukheng composition, is a species of measured prose, regulated by accent and the parallelism of the members of a
sentence. Rhyme, however, is not required, either in the terminating consonants or vowels, though it frequently occurs from the structure of the language. The general form of this measure seems to be four long syllables, each of which, however, is conversible into two short ones, or may have a short one interpolated before or after it. Thus, the passage adduced by Captain Towers, from the Manú Saingwan, as a specimen of his system of orthography in his "Observations on the Alphabetical System of the Language of Awer and Rac'haies,' 'may be arranged.

| Maha struxtax, | Tain-kha hnaik ch'baun |
| :---: | :---: |
| Man gri chak-kráwăk⿸广, | Khre sō taychhe, |
| San'khra prain brain, | Shai'ch pá so T'hám-mă-sat, |
| Tain dain pi' ${ }^{\text {tá, }}$ | Cha ga do go, \&rc. |

Sometimes, however, more complicated measures are employed in Rukheng composition, in imitation of those which occur in Bali: Many interesting works are represented to exist in the Rukheng language, but the greater part of them are translations from the Ball. The "Tillawar Cherita," is said to contain the historical traditions of the Rukheng nation: the "Karik," composed by Anguli-Mala, and the "T"hamma-sat or Dherma Sastra, contain their system of religious observances, and code of laws. The following is a list of the most popular Rukheng compositions:

1. Raja-búntza,
2. Sada-shyei'ch-chaung,
3. Raja-wongtza,
4. Témi,
5. Mabot,
6. Némi,
7. Jamaka,
8. Suwanna-asyang,
9. Bihutidat,
8! Tzaingdágangma
10. Uni-nga-gyaing,
11. So'p-soung-gyeng,
12. Bhuridat-kapya,
13. Bo-thi-hmain-déi,
14. Wé-faing-dara,
15. Saing-wera,
16. Krauk-che;
17. Khunei'ch-ra'k,
18. Nara-cho,
19. Athi'k-bala,
20. Abhi-dam-ma,
21. K'hunei'ch-kyéng,
22. Para-ma-saing-gou'k-kyénġ,
23. Maha-Raga-t'ha-kyéng,
24. Sapa-kyeng,
25. Tham-ma-sat-kweing-khya,
26. Tham-ma-sat-kra'k-ru,
27. 'T'ham-ma-sat-Manú,
28. T'ham-ma-sat-krudaing,
29. Logasara,
30. Sa-bri-hla,
31. Taing-t,haü,
32. Radana-hrwé-khri,
33. Radana-paing-gúng,
34. Rudana-paddaing;
35. Radana-kweing-khya,
36. Radana-powng-kbyowk,
37. Ba-na't-sa,
38. Kraing-ma-tei'ch-p'hak-pawng-wat'hú,
39. Nga-tzi-săda-pring-do,'
40. Ga'p-pha-kyéng?
41. Lakhana-dị-ba,
42. Noma-kapya,
43. Nga-chaing-braing,
44. Rama-wut'hú-cha;
45. Bramasara,
46. Bud-dho-wa-da,
47. Péda-sow't,
48. Mungǎla-sow't,
49. Khunei'ch-ra'k-parei'p;
50. Patha-wi-jéya,
51. Sa-gra-ú-ch'howng,
52. Lé-keweng-u-ch'howng,
53. Sit-thha-da-nú,
54. Sat-powng,
55. Sat-yéng,
56. Sat-hnĕwaing,
58.' Sa.hrwe-k'hé,

59: Moe-tó-krang-cha,
00. Gu-waing-podimownechar
61. Thi-to-padésa,
62. Noma-koigartha;.
63.: Tăche-hneP ch-ra-si;
64. Khowng-gri,
65. Khowng-láp,
06. Khowng-ngé,
67. Tă-hnaung-gra,
68. Mét'baung-gra,
69. Su-mét'ha,
70. Rewatta-cha,
71. Aswa-pida,
72. Prowng-bra,
73. Owng-pa-di-cha,
74. Paing-pru-cha,
75. Uga,
76. Mowng-chwa-cha,
77. Chorte,

78 Ya't-r
79. Lung-di-cha.

From this list, it is evident, that the subjects of some of these works are the adventures of characters well known in Sanscrit mythology, as the RamaWut hu, or history of Rama, the Budd'ho-wa-du of history of the Avatar Budn'ha; others of them seem to be.
only Ruekhéng versions of well known Sanscrit compositions, as the $\mathbf{T}^{\text {b }}$ hi-to-pa-désa, or Hitopadesa, the Tham-ma-sut-Manu, or Dherma-sastra of Menu. The Suroanna-Asyang, is the popular story of Suvukina Sprinat, or the golden cow, formed by the Báhmen Sumbuikara Misra, and presented to Raja Murunda Deva Cajapatr. The Bhuridatio the history of Raja Bhuridatta of Magadha, mentioned in the Maha Bharata, and the Bhuridat-kdpyd, of Bhuridutta-kaoya, is a poem on the same subject. The Raja-buntza is the Ruikiterg edition of the Rajab Vumsaoali, the Raja-Wontgza is a different work on the same subject, and the Pat'ha-wi-jłya seems tơ be the Prit thu-vijeya. Of the modifications they have received in the process of translation, I have hittiertó had little opportunity of judging, bưt as far as I Have been able to investigate the subject, not only thee style, but the incidents and progress of the Sainser, th narration is generally altered; to ${ }^{\prime}$ render them ${ }^{\prime}$ more illustrative of the ascetic dectrines of the Bidd hist sect; such as the guilt of 'killing anithals,' 'even acci'dentally; and the perfection acguired by Rishis in solitary retirement, by means of sublime penatice and meditation.

- Vilci:13

The Rukhéng language has never been cultivated by Europeans; the observations on "ites' thphabettcal system by Captain Tow exks, and'the'shbtt spetertien
 Vocubulary of some of the Languageff sobien'tin the Burma Empire," both in the 5 th vot: "fof the Asiatie Researches, beitg all that has been published coni cerning it in any European language. The speecimen given by Dr. Fr." Buchanan, only varies from the Barma in seven words out of fifty, and thése aree only varieties of pronuriation, excepting " looshec,"
a child, which is also Barma, and mateinay, which seems to be an error, as it does not signify to sit, either in Rukhéng or Barma, but literally "does not stand," the proper Rukheng term being ra't chorok. The words in the vocabulary certainly exist in $R \mu k$ Jieng 'as well as in Barma; but in some instances different words are in more general use, in the former; as ahri, long, instead of she, and po-mro-naing-grong, beast, instead of taraitzan. The Rukheng pronupciation, sometimes too, is modified by the Burma, and the letter $r$ is almost always omitted in the specimen, though it is a distinguishing characteristic of the Rulkeng pronunciation. Thus, the Rukheng requires mri-gri, earth, instead of mycgyee, in the sspecipen; kri, great, instead of kyee; hripamb, foot, instead of kiapamo; krow'k, six, instead of kiouk; kri, a star instead of kyay, and ni, the sun, instead of nay. These errors, however, are not to be attributed to Dr. Fr. Buchanan; nor detract, in the least, from the merit of his exertions in commencing the investigation; they evidently proceed from the inaccuracy, hurry; and indistinct pronunciation of his Barma assistants, and in his situation were perhaps not to be avoided, unless by attending to the native orthography.

Dr. F. Buchanan has also exhibited comparative specimens of two mixed dialects, spoken in Arakan; the first termed Ruinga, spoken by the Moslems of the country, and consisting of a mixture of Arabia, Hindi, aud Rukheng; the second, termed Rusán, used by the Hindús of Arskan, who adhere to the system of Bданиа, and formed by a large proportion of corrupted Sanscrit and Bengali, united to a compa-ratively- small portion of Rukheng. The dialect of the province of $Y o$, as it is pronounced by the Barmas, and $R 6$ as it is termed by the Rukheng, is
only a slight variation of the Rukheng, which it approaches much nearer than the Barma: The range of mountains to the north and east of Rukhéng is inhabited by a race termed Kheng, by the Ruk'héng and Barma tribes, or as it is written by Dr. Fr. Buchanan, Kiayn; but who term themselves Kolúr, and whose language is peculiar, having little or no. affinity to either Rukheng or Barma. From the two names, Ró and Kheng, the name of Rukheng is generally derived; but the national name of the Rukheng race is Ma-rum-ma, which seems to be only a conruption of Maha-Vurma; Vurma being an epithet generally assumed by the tribes of Kshatriya extraction. The inhabitants of the mountains between Rukheng and Chatigan are termed Sa-morong syang by the Rukheng tribes, and are asserted to speak a different language. They are probabiy only a division of the Kheng or Kolun. Whether these are the same with the Kukis, who inhabit the high rangea of bills to the N. E. of Chatigam, 1 have not been able to determine. In the able and curious description of this singular race, given by J. Macrae, Esq. in the seventh volume of the Asiatic Researches, the languages of the Kukí and Mug, or. Rukheng races, are said to be so intimately connected as to be mutually intelligible. That the two adjacent tribes should be mutually able to understand each other, is very probable; but that their respeçtive languages are counected, in this instance, I apprehend to be very dubious; for in a specimen of above 500 radical terms of the Kúki, which I owe to that gentleman's politeness, I find very few which are similar to the corresponding Rukheng, or that were understood by an intellgent native of Arakan. The subject; however, requires further investigation; and there seems to be no person better qualified than Mr. Machae, for
prosecuting the inquiry, both by his abilities, and his situation.
VIII. Barma.-The Barma language is used by the great and powerful nation of the Barmas: The name of this nation has beetw:written differently, by almost as many authors as, have mentioned it, while no person seems to have thought it worth his while to inquire how the Barmas w.tote their own name. This they constantly write Barma, though from affecting an indistinct pronunciation; they often term themselves Byamma, Bomma, and Myramwa, iwhich are only vocal correptions of the : written name. Amadutius, however; in his preface: to the "Alphabetum Barmaniurk seu Bomanum;" with equal ignorance and confidence, denies flatily, that any netion, country, city, ot ifangoage, exists, which by the matives' themselves: if denominated. Barma." "This aidimes" he asserts to have been introduced solely by the ignorance and vicious promunciation of Europeans, since, says he; by the amalogy of the languager othe nation is denominated Bomiah, the great mationj frowh bo, the head, a chief, iand mah, a man. This silly rac pouring etymologiy is, however, entirely averse to the established orthography of the Barmas themselves, and only worthy of P. Pa

The Barma language, like the Ruikheng, in its original state appears to be purely monosyllabic; but it has borrowed freely from the Bali, and in imitation apparently of that language, it has sometimes formed words of somellength, by the coalescing of its original monosyllables. Being completely: devoid of every species of flection, whether in nouns, pronouns, or verbs, its construction is extremely: simpte, and depends almost solely on the principle of juxta-position, like $\cdot$ its cognate dialect, the

Rukheng, which it resembles in structure. Its pronouns and particles are peculiar, its idioms few and simple, and its metaphors of the most obvious kind; but it is copious in terms expressive of rauk or dignity, and the rank of the speaker is characterized by the language he uses.

The Barma alphabet corresponds to the Bali, and is regulated by the same principles of accentua ion. In point of form, it has considerable resemblance to the Canara, Singala, and Telinga alphabets, but is rather more simple in the formation of the character. Carpanius, in his "Alphabetum Barmanum seu Bomaxum," is inclined to derive the Barma character immediately from the square Bali, used in Aca, and both of them from the Hebrew, through the medium of. the Persic. Amadutius, improving on this idea, or rather adopting that of BAYER, seems to be desirous of deducing both, as well as the Malabar or 'Matayalam, from the Armenian, a character to which they have scarcely the remotest resemblance, and the orgin of which, is itself involved in great obscurity.:

The character of the Barma language has a very. considerable effect on the style of the compositions it. contains. : Repetitions of the same turn and expression, are rather affected, than shinned; and a kind of naked strength and simplicity of phrase, with short sentences, pregnant with meaning, are the greatest beauties which the language admits of "The Bomans,", says Carpanivs, "in their poetry, are more careful of preserving similar terminations; than an equal number of syllables, and use this style, particularty in treating of religious subjects." The fact, however, is, that the similarity of termination is. neither sought, nor shunned; but recurs from the genius of the language, very frequently. The
style of the principal Barma compositions is a species of measured prose, regulated almost solely by the accent, as in the Rukhieng, the different dialects of Chinese, and the other monosyllabic languages. The tone of polished conversation requires an approximation to this style of composition. The verb is generally placed in the close of the sentence, and the defect of conjuctive particles, to connect the different members of a sentence, renders a considerable degree of repetition absolutely necessary to prevent confusion.

The Barma language has been highly cultivated in composition, and contains numerous works in religion and science. Besides numerous books on astrology, mythology, medicine, and law, in the latter of which the most important is the Dam ma-Sat kyex, or great system of justice, with the Constitutions of the Barma princes. The Barmas are asserted, by Dr. Buchanan, to possess numerous historical: works, re; lative to the different dynasties of their princes, the most celebrated of which is the Maha-raja-Wayngee. "These people," says he, " have also translated histories of the Chinese and Siamese, and of the kingdoms of Kathee, Koshan-pyee, Pagoo, Saymmey and Laynzayn." - On the importance of sach works, supposing them to be strictly of a historical nature, it is needless to dilate. It appears probable, however, that many of then may resemble the Hindú Cheritrás: The Barmas possess numerous smaller poems and songs, and éven natakas, which may probably be de ${ }^{\perp}$ rived from Sanscrit tradition, as the adventures of Rama in Lunka, are favourite topics in their dramas. The following are some of the most popular works in the Barma language, and several of them, I find, exist equally in Rulkeng, Siamese. and Malaym.

Some of then are purely mythological, but others are Cheritrids pf the historical class.

1. Jinar Mana,
2. Nunde-Jina,
3. Nuдdадumap,
4. Chundagyman
5. Napade:
6. Temi,
7. Nemi,
8. D'hammapade,
'9. Namagara,
9. Logasara,
10. Longanit'hi,
11. Mabo-Sutha,
12. Wesundura, or story of Rajah

Vesundara,
14. Paramik'han,
15. Chudongk'han,
16. Bungk'han,
27. Kado-k'han,
18. Chatu Damasara,
19. Sangwara, termed in Siamese, the Suthopp,
20. Bhuridat,
91. Kinara-pyeu, or account of the selestial Kipara,
22. Malinméng Wuthu, or bistory of Rajah Malin
43. Jinaka, or history or Rajah Jie naka, denominated in Siamesie
Mala-Chinók,
24. Yuwaji, tarmed in Ruk'beng Ruari,
25. Swipri-weng-khan,
26. To-twek-k'han,
27. Munigungrala,
28. Ancisapana,
29. Suan-qastian,
30. Withora,
31. Kagileinga,
32. Sada-sỳ'ch-ehaung,
35. Anaga-atweng,
34. Ngare-khan or description of Naraka,
25. Attagath-lérg.ga,
36. Hmat-clhew'. bon'g.

The Barma language has some variety of pronunciation in the different provinces of that empire. The dialect of the $I 6$, situated on the east of the Arakan mountains, has been already noticed. The Tanengsari, or language of the inhabitants of the Tanaserim district, denominated Tinnaw by the Siamese, also differs considerably from the cammon Barma. The Tanengsari certainly have nindy peculiarities of expression, and many words in common use among
them, are at present obsolete amoitig. "the Batmids of Ava, but the majority of them are to be founid in the Barma writings, and the Tanengsari are therefore reckoned to use an obsolete dialect, rather than adeculiar language. I have already mentioned in what respects the Barmáa and Rukhéng are related to each other. The following comparative list of terms will show more particularly the extent of their difference in current use.



The Barma affects a more delicate, but at the same time inarticulate pronunciation than the Rukheng, and less conformable to the actual orthography of the language. This is particularly obvious in the conversion of $r a$ into ya in Barma; but the Rukherg itself is not devoid of its peculiarities, among which may be mentioned the conversion of sha into ha.

Thus the word which is written shre, in both languages, is in Barma pronounced syi, and in Rukheng hri.

The specimenis which Dr. Buchanan has exhibited of the languages of the Karieng or Karayn, as he writes it, and of the Kiayn (which seems to be the same word softered in the pronunciation, ) the rude tribe which denominates itself Koltor, certainly show considerable analogy to exist between these dialects and the Barma proper. Some Barma words seem, likewise, to be discoverable, in the specimen he has given of the language of the Moituy, or inhabitants of Kassay, as mee, fire, nga, fish; and mpre copious and correct vocabularies, with a more exact orthography, would probably exhibit a more intimate connection; but a certain degree of acquaintance with the grammatical principles of every language, and with its alphabet and orthography, if a written one, is absolutely necessary to give any philological value to a specimen of its words. The inhabitants of the Nikobar islands are sometimes represented by those who have visited them, as speaking a language which is radically Barma, while, by others, it is reckoned Malayu. If Fontana's short vocabulary (Asiatick Researches, Vol. III.) can be depended on, the Nikobar language seems to have very little connection with either the one or the other; as it does not appear to corstain above two or three words which can with certainty be referred to either of them. i.

The Barma language has been little cultivated by Europeans, excepting the Catholic Missionaries. The " Alphabetum Barmanum," digested by Carpanius, was publishied at Rome in 1776. Carpanius men. tions, in his preliminary dissertation, that, at that
period, a grammar and vocabulary of the Barma language had been prepared by P. Joh. Maria Peacoro, Bishop of Messola, which seems never to have been published. In the preface to the same work, Amadutius mentions, that the gospel of St. Mathew, and the epistles of St. Paul, had been rendered into the Barma language, together with the "Evangelia dierum omnium Dominicalium," "Epistola Dogmatica, et Dialogus inter Missionarium et Talapoinum." T. Paulinves, also mentions among the Borgian MSS. a dialogue between a savage Khien and an Ex-Talapoin, written in the Italian language by D. Cajetanus Mantegatius, the object of which is to expose the doctrine of the Talapoins, as contained in the books of the Barmas. Khien seems to be the name of the rude tribe termed Kheng by Moslem writers, and Kiagn by Dr. Buchanan; and the work itself, the translation of a composition circulated among the converted Barmas by the catholic missionaries. The Talapoins seem, however, to have retaliated on the missionaries; and Dr. Fr. Buchanan has printed Vincevtius Sanaermano's translation of "A view of the Religion of Godama," composed by Atuli Zarado, for the express purpose of converting the Christians, in which the English; Dutch, Armenians, and other nations are exhorted to adore Godama, the'true God ; to adore, also, his law and his priests, to be solicitousin the giving of alms and in the observance of Sila, and in performing Bavana,
IX. MON.-The Mbn language is still used by the original inhabitants of Pegu, who denominate themselves M6n, though by the Barmas they are termed Taleing, and, by the Siamese, Ming-mon. This language has never been cultivated by Europeans, and the only specimen of it, known to me, is that printed by Dr. Fr. Buchasan, (Asiatic Researches, Vol. V.)

It seems to be quite original, and is said by the Barmas and Siamese to have no affinity with either of their languages. I have met-no learned man of the race; nor have had any opportunity of cultivating the' language, but I have been informed by a Talapoin that they possess many ancient histories in this language; which is not impossible, as they seem to have attained civilization, at a more early period than the Barmas; and, though now reduced, to have been formerly a great and potent nation. In the early Portugueze histories they are denominated the Pandálús of Môn; and they are supposed to have founded the ancient Kalaminham empire, at a very early period. The name Kalaminham, mentioned by the Portugueze, is probably connected with the Siamese name of the nation, Ming-mbn. The Mon alphabet, if I can depend on the speciunens of the character shown me by a Barman of some learning; is only a slight variety of the Barma-Báli, with which it corresponds, in the power and arrangement, as well as the form of the characters. I have, however, had little opportunity of investigating this subject; and, expecting to have visited Pegu, did not avail myself of that opportunity to the fullest extent. The examination of the Mión character and language, has no peculiar difficulty, and may be easily accomplished by the first literary inquirer who may visit Pegu; and I still indulge the hope that my future inquiries may be attended with success in investigating their relations.
X. Thay:-The Thay language is that which効: used by the Siamese, who, in their own tongue, assume this name as their national appellation. By the Barmas, they are denominated Syan, from whence the Portugueze seem to have borrowed their Siam and Siaom, from whom
the other,ations of Europe have adopted the term. La Loubere, who visited Siam in 1687-y, as Enyoy: Extraordinary from the French monarch, has given incomparably the most accurate account, that has ever been exhibited, of this nation, formerly reckoned the most polished of eastern India. He divides them into two races, the Tai and the Tai Yai. The later nation, he adds; are reckoned savages, though the most ancient. Their name signifies literally the great $T a i$, and in order to distinguish themselves. from this nation, the ruling race, in modern Siam, assume the name of Tai-noë, the little Tai. Dr. Fr. Buchanan, however, on the authority of the information he received in the Barma dominions, divides the Siamese race into many states; and gives a specimen of the vocables of three dialects. This brief vocabulary, with La Loubere's observations on the Siamese language, and "The maxims of the Talapoins," translated out of Siamese by the catholic missionaries, which he has published in his "Historical Relation of the Kingdom of Siam," constitute all that has been published, respecting the language or literature of this nation, in any European tongue. The result of my own inquiries certainly coincides more directly with La, Loubere's information, than with that received, by Dr. Fr. Buchanan. all the intelligent Siamese, whom I have met, and among these, there were Talapoins, both of the Tai and the Tai-yai race, agree in asserting, that the Siamese nation, properly so called, consists of two tribes, the T"hay and the T"háy$j$ jhay, for so the names are properly written. Of these the most ancient are the $T^{\prime \prime}$ 'hay-j hay, formerly famous for their learning, and the power of their empire. It is added; that many monuments of this ancient race exist in the kingdom of Siam; and I was informed, in particular, that in the vicinity of Ligór, R
about five days journey from Trang, there are various ancient inscriptions, on stone, among the ruins of a very ancient temple, which are attributed to the T"hay-j'kay, but which no person among the modern T'hay is able to decypher. The Thay language, or Siamese, as it is written by these two races, does not differ essentially; but the spoken dialect among the T'hay jhay, is much more strongly accented, than among the Thay proper, or the present ruling race of Siam. The T"hay j'hay inhabit the country between the $M e-n a m$ and the $M e-k o n$, or river of Cambodia; but the Thay, for the most part, inhabit on the west of the Me-nam, or between that river and the frontiers of the Tineazo, Mbn, and Barma nations. As to the Tai-loong, of whose vocabulary Dr. Buchanan has given a specimen, all the Siamese that I have met, though they admit that a district is de-nominated by this appellation, unanimously deny, that there is either a race of men, or a dialect of the language, which bears this name. The words themselves, which Dr. Fr. Buchanan adduces, as specimens either of the Tai loong or the Tai-yay, are pure T"hay, whenever they are not auricular corruptions of pronunciation, or words of different meaning, introduced, apparently, by the interpreter's misapprehension of the sense required to be expressed. Having myself been frequently exposed to similar misapprehensions, and knowing, from experience, the difficulty of avoiding it, especially in languages, in which not only the signification varies, with such delicate shades of pronunciation, as are almost undistinguishable to an European ear, but the train of ideas themselves, is regulated by such a subtile, and as it were hieoroglyphical set of principles, I am far from insinuating any carelessness in Dr. Fr. Bucha. van, whose comparative vocabulary is the first at-
tempt to classify these languages ; but I am attempting to account for the mistakes, into which he seetris to have been inevitably led, by the misapprehension of his interpreters. Thus,: moo signifies the hand, in T'hay, and parw-moo, which he exhibits as the Tarloong variation, is only Fa-mu, the palm of the hand, in the proper language: $K \Delta n$, which he writes Kaym, signifies the arm, in T"hay or Siamese proper, and in the same language, komooee, which he glves as the Tai-yay synonime, signifies the bower part of the arm, from the elbow to the wrist, anid moon. the Tailoong synomime, aignilles the hand; Tin, signifies the leg, in Siamese; but naung, which he gives as the Trimay, signifies the skin; and koteen, the Tai-yay synonime, the joints of the leg; in the samie manner langtieth, which he gives as the Taimay, of teommon Siameste, for foot, signifies literally the upper part of the fobt; and Swateen, the Tai-nay synonime, appears to be a mispronunciation of Fatin, the under part of the foot. Sitit signifies a beast, or animal, and nook, the Tariydy synonime, is only a mispronunciation of n6k; a.bird, as are noup and naut, the Tai-nay and Tai yay words, which are given to signify a bird; Parve signifies the modth, but toop, given as the Tai-yay synonime, is a mispronunciation of tsot, to drink; San signifies shiort, but lot, the Tai-yay synonime, signifies child, and wnlot, the Tailoong synonime, ont child; yoon signifes to stand, but boot-sook, the Tai-yay synonime misprotounced, signifies to rise up; and Peinung, the Tailuong synonime, go sit ; seeza, the head, is not Siamese, but Ball;, and the Tay-yay synonime ho and the Tai:loong, hod, are orly mispronunciations of the proper -Tikay term hud. It may be proper also to obsterive chere, that Dr. Fh. Bochanar has printed Tayinay instead of the Tai-moé of La Loubere, which ilignifies little:Stadmese ; whereas Thynay cknot posisibly
signify libtle Siamese, but only chief Siamese; the true meaning of nay, being chief or head. It is a term of similar import with nayen, nayer and nayenmar, used in Malabar, as the appellation of the military cast, or naya-ka, in Sanscrit.

The T"hay or Siamese language appears to be in a igreat measure original; and is more purely monosylslabic, and more powerfully accented, than any of the Indo-Clizzese languages, already mentioned. It certainly is connected, in some degree, with some of the Chinese dialects; especially the Mandarin or Couirt language, with which its numerals, as well as "some other terms, coincide, but these: are not very ,nymerousw, It iborrows words :freely from the Bali, daut centracts rand disgnises inore; the terms which it adopts, than either the, Rukibeng or the Barman In jitt finely: modulated intonations of sound, in its: exprassion of the rank of the speaker, by the simple pronguns: which he uses, in the copiousness of the language of civility, and the mode of expressing esteem and adulation, this language resembles the Chimese dialeets, with which also, it coincides more -nearly in construction than either Barma or Rukheng, Its construction is simple and inartificial, depending almost solely on the principle of juxta-position. Relative pronouns are not in the language; the nominative regularly precedes the verb, and the verb precedestthe case which it governs. When two substantices qome together, the last of them is for the most patt supposed to be in the genitive. Thisidioan is consonant to the Malayu; though not to the Barma or Rukheng, in which, as in English, the first substantive has a possessive signification.' Thus, the phrase, "a man's head", is expressed in Barma aad putk'héng, lyy lü-khaung, which is biterally mas-
head; but, in Siamese, it it is kuă-khon, and in Malayu, kapala orang, both of which are literally head$\operatorname{man} \mathrm{A}$ similar difference occurs in the pasition of the accusative with an active verb, which case, in Barma and Malayu, generally precedes the verb, as tummaing cha, literally rice eat; but in Siamese follows it, as kén katro, literally eat rice, which corresponds to the Malayn, makan-nasi. The adjective generally follows the substantive, and the adverb the word which it modifies, whether adjective or verb. Whenever the name of an animal, and in general; when that of a species or class, is mentioned, the generic, or more general name of the genus to which it belongs, is repeated with it, as often happens in the other monosyllabic languages, as well as in $M a$ layu. In the position of the adverbial particle, the Malayu, often differs from the Siamese; as Mana pargi, literally where go; but, in Siamese, pai hnei, go where. The Siamese composition is also, like that of the Barma, a species of measured prose, regulated solely by the accent, and the parallelism of the members of the sentence; but, in the recitative, the Siamese approaches more nearly to the Chinese mode of recitation, and becomes a kind of chaunt; which different Brahméns have assured me is very similar to the mode of chaunting the Samaveda.

The T"hay coincides occasionally, even in simple terms; both with the Barma and Malayu; but these terms bear so small a proportion to the mass of the language, that they seem rather the effect of accident or mixture, than of original connection. The following are some of these coincidences which present themselves spontaneously.
. 846
ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

| siver | T'hay klong, | Barms <br> kyong or krong, | I, | T'hay ku, | Malayue aku, and ku, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| elephant, | chang, | ch'herg, | this, | ni, | ini, |
| saw, | 1 Lei , | lia, | that, | munn | in¢n, |
| finger, | nyew, | nyo, | lock, | kache, | kunchi, |
| to, | ka; | ga, | dagger, | krit, | kris, |
| self, | eng, | Eng, | open, | bùk, | buka, ka, |
|  |  |  | to, come, | ka, $m_{1}$ | mari. |

The T'hay or Siamese alphabet, differs considerably in the power of its characters from the Ball; though it not only has a general resemblace to it, in point of form, but also in the arrangement of the character. The vowels, which are twenty in number, are not represented by separate characters, but ,by the character corresponding to the short äkar, variously accented; excepting the vocalic $r u$ and $l u$, which are only variations of the $r$ and $l$ consonants. The consonants are thirty-seven in number, and are not arranged by the series of five, like the Devanagari and Ball, but the first series $k a$, consists of seven letters; the second series, cha, of six; the third series, $t a$ or $d a$, of six ; the fourth series, $b a$ or $p a$, of eight; the fifth series, $j a$, of four; and the last series, sa, of six, including the vocalic ăkar, though two of them are not in common use. Each of these letter's is varied by sixteen simple accentuations, and by thirty-six complex ones. The letters $k a, n g a, t a$ or $d a, n a, m a, b a$ or $p a$, are also final consonants. Hence it is easy to perceive the near approximation of the Siamese to the delicacy of the Chinese accentuation; while in other respects, the alphabet is considerably more perfect, than in the Mandarin or Court language of the Chinese, which has neither the same variety of consonants, nor admits so many, in the close of a syllable. The Siamese pronunciation, even of consonants, corresponds very imperfectly to
the European mode: $r$ and $l$ are generally prewounced $n$, in the close of a syllable; $h$ is often prefixed to a consonant, but from the total suspension of voice, in pronouncing syllables which terminate in a consonant, no aspiration can be pronounced after them; ma, and ba, tya, and chya, are often difficult to be distinguished in pronunciation, as are $y a$, and $j a$, kye and chye with other combinations. From this circumstance, many combinations of letters are pronounced in a manner somewhat different from that in which they are written.

The first European who attempted the study of Siamese literature, was the learned Gervaise, but his lucubrations have never been published. The learned and indefatigable Hyde procured from the Siamese ambassador at London, an imperfect copy of the Siamese alphabet, which has been published by Greg. Sharpe, in the "Syntagma Dissertationum," 1767. It is inferior to La Loubere's alphabet in accuracy, though it contains a greater number of compound characters. La Lovbere's alphabet contains three forms of the sa, corresponding to the Nagari; but the sha and shiha being disused in common pronunciation, are coimmonly omitted both in the alphabet and in modern MSS.

The Siamese or Thay language contains a great variety of compositions of every species. Their poems and songs are very numerous, as are their Cheritrás, or historical and mythological fables. Many of the Siamese princes have been celebrated for their poetical powers, and several of their historical and moral compositions, are still preserved. In all their compositions, they either affect a plain, simple narrative, or an unconnected and abrupt style R 4

## 248

 ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATUREoff short, pithy sentences, of much meaning. Their books of medicine are reckoned of considerable antiquity. Both in science and poetry, those who affect learning and elegance of composition, sprinkle their style copiously with Bali. The laws of Siam are celebrated all over the east, and La Loubere has mentioned three works of superior reputation, the Pra-Tam-non, rhe Pra-Tan-Ra, and the Pra-Raja-Kam-manot. Of these, the first is a collection of the institutions of the ancient kings of Siam; the second is the constitutional code of the kingdom, and contains the names, functions, and prerogatives of all the officers; the third, which is about 150 years old; contains additional regulations. Of these, the first is the most celebrated and the most deserving the attention of Europeans.

The Siamese histories of the T'hay dynasty, detail with much minuteness, and great exaggeration, the events which have occurred in Siam, and the adjacent states and countries, during the last 1000 years. It also details the events of 400 years, previous to that period, with less precision, from the building of the city Maha Nalkbon. The records, however, of the T'hay J'hay dynasty are supposed still to exist; and, perhaps, it may yet be possible to glean a few grains of pure historic gold from the sands which glitter in the long vallies of the Me-nam and Mkkon.

The Cheritrds, or romantic fictions of the Siamese, are very numerous, and the personages introduced, with the exception of Rama and the characters of the Ramayan, have seldom much similarity to those of the Brahmens. The following are some of the most popular among the T'hay, several of which
contain the same stories and incidents as those which are current among the Rukheng, Barma, and Malayu nations.

1. Rámá-kién,
2. Rádin,
3. Sum-mut-ta-k $\sigma$-d $\sigma$ m,
4. Wét-jăsun ${ }^{\text {dón, }}$
5. Worawóng,
6. Un-narút,
7. Mab6-sot,
8. Mélyy,
9. Chativ,
10. Chalăwan,
11. P'húm-hóm,
12. Pra-thóm,
13. Su-thon,
14. Pok'ba-wad-di,
15. Teng-ón,
16. Lín-thhong,
17. Nok-k'hum,
18. P'ha-non-son-păjá,
19. Mak-kali-p'hon,
20. Súm-p'ban-sit,
21. Sŭan-na-hong,
'22. Prang-t'hong,
22. Nang-sip-song,
23. Ramá,
24. Chumpatthong,
25. Luk-sŭa-ko,
26. P'him-swan,
27. Pája-p’bali,
28. Thàw-krúng-són,
29. Khun-p'hen,
30. Trei-wong,
31. Chin-narat,
32. P'howithat,
33. Su-thin,
34. HYi-sang,
35. Sang-sin-chay,
36. Woranút,
37. Chitra-kán,
38. Nang-ut'hay,
39. Maha-Chinók,
40. Mlek-t'hòng.

In the general characteristics of style and manner, these Cheritras resemble those of the Rukheng, Bar$m a$, and Malayu tribes, and exhibit the peculiar manners of the 'Indo-Chinese nations, as well as the peculiar features of their mythology. The Rama-kien seemis to be a Siamese version of the Ramayan, and relates the adventures of Prám or Pra Ram, and his brother Pra-La'k or Lakshmana, and their wars with Totsa-kan or Dusha-kantha, (which is one of the names of Ravana,) who carried off Nang

Gribn or Si'ta:. This marrative corresponds as fur as Ihaye been able to learn, with the Sanscrit poem, and almost all its incidents have been converted into Natakas for representation by the Siamese, in the same manner as the Barmas have employed the incidents of the Yama-méng or Barma-Ramayan. Radin is the Siamese translation of a Javanese story. Shom-meut-ta-ko-dom is the history of Somonariodo abridged from the Bali. The Wet-jă-sun-don is the history of a Rajah who becomes an ascetic of the forest, being struck with a fit of devotion at the sight of a withered mango-tree, as he was walking in his garden. Worarobng is the history of an usfortunate Rajah, who fell in love with a lady, and was slain by an enchanted spear which guarded her, one night as he was escalading the window of his mistress. This is also a subject of dramatic representation. Mahb-sot contains the wars of Mara;sot with Chor-ni, and is the same as the Barma MahoSut'ha. Un-narat, narrates the story of Anírud'ha, the grand-son of Krishna. Malăy relates the benefits of Malay, the being whose office is to relieve the torments of Naraka. Chalăwán contains the history of a destructive alligator, who falls in love with a princess, whom he carries off to his recess in the ocean, and the account ōf her rescue. P'húmh6m is the history of another princess of whom an elephant was enamoured, and her rescue. Prat'hom is a mythological account of the origin of the universe, according to the principles of the Budd'hist sect. Nok-khiom is the mythoiogical account of the celebrated Hamsa. Pokha-wad-di is the history of Bha. eavati. Pha-nón-son-paja, contains the instructions of the sagacious ape P'hanon. The Mak-kaki-p'hon, the adventures of the son of a chief, who possessed a wonderful cow, resembling the Sanscrit Kamad'heru.

Nixm-phan-sit, a book of moral instructions. Prangthong relates the adventures of the persons who went to the land of the Rakshasas in search of the fruit Prang t'hong, for which a certain princess had longed when pregnant, the obtaining of the fruit on condition that the child of which the princess was pregnant should be presented to the Rakshasa, the carrying off of the child by the Rakshasa, anid her return to her parents when grown up. The Lukk-sua-k6 relates the friendship between the tyger and the bull, and their being afterwards metamorphosed into men by a certain Rishh. Paja-phali relates the adventures of Vali, the brother of Sugriva'. The Hoi Sang relates the adventures of the prince who was born in a chank shell, and remained in it till be arrived at maturity. The Sang-sin-chay is the account of a hero who was born with a chank and an arrow in his hand, with which, and mounted on a lion, he accomplished many adventures among the Rakshasas and Girgasis, Yakshas or Yak, as they are ternsed by the Siamese. The Woranut relates the adventures of the twin brothers Woranu't and Worane't. Nanguthay relates the adventures of a Naga princess, who was carried off by a Rajah. Some of these fictions exhibit a wild and singular style of fabling, with which we are little acquainted, but the greater part are obviously derived from the Sanscrit, through the Balí.

The Thay exhibits considerable variety of measures, in composition, and frequently introduces sevetal of them in the same work, in the same manuer as is frequently done in Brij'h. Punjabi, and Sik'h compositions. The most frequent measure, however, among the T"hay, as among the Ruliheng and Barma, seems to be that denominated râp, which consists of
four long syllables, but admits occasionally of one ot more intercalary short ones: the Já-ni which consists of five syllables, the Cho-bang of six, the Pat'hamang of seven, the Jésuntá of eight, are also frequently employed.

The following specimen of Thay, is taken from the beginning of the Mahá Chin6k, a work in which the greater part of these are introduced.

## DESCRIPTION OF MAITHILA.

Jang mì múung núng
Jay kwàng trăhúpg
Chu Mít thin là
Tháw p’hu suwoi rat
Krop krong para
Song rām maha
Chinok p'homi
Som det p'homi
Krong se narát
Pir chá nan ma
Bo mi àn aráa
Ké rat prachá
Thaw krong para
Pin cháw p'hen din
K'haw màk plá-thok
Bomi p'hai rók
Bibĩn p'ho min
Pinsúk kă priăm pri
Múung Pra Narin
Thaw krong p'hen din
Súkă sém pră cha

Lok'ha-ma k'hài
Wanit thang lii
Chai rŭa pai ma
Bo mi satru
Bibîn prăcha
Prathet naná
Jom ma thuk múŭng
Chin, Cham, Pram, Láw
Ming-môn, Tim-náw
Map mai nong núŭng P'Lărang phang-ka
Ma kha t'húk maŭng
Kkék môn nong núư̆ng
Ma mưưng ka kai
Kúla P'hrang-set
Chín Cham Pram-Thet
Chong sakk Naláy
Jipún Chinhó
Aw sin ma k'hái
Ni nún láă lay

[^61]the natives, while merchants resorted thither in fleets of ships, constantly going and coming; and as there was no disturbance in the land, the inhabitants of every country frequented it; the Cliin, (Chinese) the Chám, (the Chinese Tartars) the Pram, (Bralméns) the Ming-Môn, (Mb̂ns of Pegu) the Tinnazw, (Barmas of Tákasérim) all of them in innumerable multitudes: also the Fraske of. Ewepe came thither to traffic ; the Khek, (Malays) the Kíla, (Chulias) the Phrangset, (Frenck) the Pram-t'hét, (Kelings or Hindus of Kalinga) the Chong-sakk and Na-Lay, (Caffree tribes, with stained skins and tattoed facep), the Jipun, (Japanese) and the Chinho, (Tonkinese) resorted thither with goods, to buy and sell, constantly in great multitudes."

The Maha Chinok of the Siamese, seems to be a popular account of Raja Janaka, of Mait'hitá, derived from the Ramayan; but it is evident, if the text can be considered as correct, that the work has been either interpolated or modernized, from the mention of the Franks and the French.

The following specimens of Rukiheng and Barma, imill indicate the similarity of style and measure -which prevails in all the monosyllabic languages. $n$
$\cdots$ The specimen of the Ruk'herg is taken from the Ngächaing-braing :


Maya waing t'hé
Anri thaing dibe
Tsưue lé ti
O thaing de tscuswé bri
Mre gri kreit krak
Aup thak akowng
Lat lat towng é
O thaing dé tsuwé tlaa
Tsé la waing hneik
Paik towng bri tho
Piang érnan hmon
Ahlueng tu pró.
Angarang to hneik
Mi tso maya
Uyein sa go
Léla tan di
0 lé lat bri so
$U$ yefig the doang
Ko wat krang rue
Pra jang ron mra
Ni ma hla ni
Gotami hme
Mă pri rat leăt
Le krang sheat ruwé
Prang thak hnan moang
Ahlueng tu pro
Angarang to hueik
Mi tso maya
Thaing Sha ngeweh khak.
Káing hleăk Jek tsuwé
Amré rat né
Thowng lu chwa go
Pbwa héang lé i.

When one hundred thousand revolutions of the world were completed, each occupying four Sankhyas, then the devout worshipper obtained the object of earnest desire; and the sublime Thif D'rit, (Syon'taz:$T^{\prime}$ HA) who is acquainted with the secrets of futurity, obtained supreme felicity, tranquillity devoid of care, and self absorption. After the pure 'Deva Nat'ha had passed numetous ages in the possession of supreme felicity, meditating on the four laws of truth, when the pertod of the divine favour was nearly completed; in the excellent and populous region of Kupila, Suk-ró (Sùdd'hódana) became his beloved father, and Sri Mafa Maya, his venerable noother, begane pregnant of a perfect conception. When this conception took place, the strong earth was agitated upwards and downwards, trembling and stlaking. After ten months pregmancy, supporting her swelling womb trith hir hand, his mother Mayn was walking for recreation in a deep forest bf - Angarang trees, diffusing around an exquisite odour. Walking iup and down in a pleasant garden, reciting the divine names on her rosary, and radiating in brilliant beanty, and accompanied by two younger sisters of the same complexion, unable any longer to support the burden of Gotama, (Gautama) she leaned on the shoulders of her two younger sisters. Within a deep forest, in a grove of Angarang treti, which diffused arownd an 'exquisite odour; his mother Mayn, frmby grasping the branches with ber hands, and standing erect on ther feet, brought forth the deity Gotaism

Timeik-Dhator Thik-Dhat, is the Barma mode of pronouncing Sidiatita, as it is written, which is the Balí corruption of Sidd-har-t'ha. According to this analogy, Budo'ha is pronounced $\mathrm{Bu}^{\prime} \mathrm{GDA}_{\text {. }}$ and Sudd'ho, the contraction of Sidd'hodana; Suk-to, and sometimes Sug-do.

The following specimen of Barma verse is taken from the Chatu-Damasara, as it is termed in Pali, which is denominated the Ko-Khán in Barma.

## DESGRIPTION OF VARANASI.

| Baranasi |  | Ti di sóng ewe |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pyi gyi pyi bu |  | Hné lóng makyan |
| Kyóníy lú-bó |  | Kyeng dan mwe nyek |
| We-niy kosi |  | Myék sék niba |
| Năgo k'haing-gaing |  | Peng ga néng t'hek |
| Hwán hwón di |  | Hních chek muxishih |
| Baranasi |  | Shan khi si nyin |
| Chang ji pyo wa |  | P'hyeang bé pyo t'ha |
| The pyi ma hneit |  | Lú abwon hné |
| Dana-ma-mé |  | Machan kyěng hmu |
| Chawng lá sadéng |  | Leik hléo pyew sa |
| Meng i tang kbuin |  | Che khu hacik chana |
| Chüŭn gyeé han II |  | Raja t'han dǔêng |
| Khyiuk suin pyo bya |  | Ta eng makhyo |
| Hina myo me hiséang |  | Kye ju do gyowng |
| Hmya hné chêng êwe |  | Sépo pyéng gyěrim |
| Wan daéng p'byong tan |  | Myet lé thuln só |
| Makouk yurn di |  | Ku-san ble deík |
| Ta khuiln ha ga |  | Pyiuk la so kha |
| Hnei'clı kwa maswe |  | Ko gwé ya hlién |
| Myew chwe khye'ch so |  | Hman chua cheng chei'ct |
| Atileng kacha | ... | Phyeit pe so la it |
| Hloup shya maneying | , | Néng ngar sa.do : |

Kyan k'hèng myé chông
Cheng ye-bu-sa
Yé tu khyan p'hyeng
Tơng lé khyéng hina
Pyowk keng ché khyeng
Bowng.mi kéng ewé
Mwoi shéang lan-owng
Sín myan chông si
Swe tawng nan pŭéng
Cho yan hlueng ga
Meik myiang ko yo
Sivé khyi ko sa

> Myo baché yú
> Mito ketu
> Hmat takhu phyiěng
> Esukari
> Kyo hlueng nyi hliép
> B'hông cheit ta hmu
> Khát sin lu-do
> Up'hyu u nék
> Sowng teík tweik si
> Hwan teik pyi byi
> Hlyéan hlyéan di

Báranasi (Benares) was a beautiful and extensive region, inhabited by a race superior to every other, whether far or near, living fortunate and happy. Baranasi was, in every respect, an admirable country, possessing every thing desirable; for in that kingdom, prevailed the practice of charitable donation, and the performance of ascetic duties. So generous was the heart of the Rajah, that he gave, in charitable donations, the whole of his revenue. Devoid of every selfish desire, his mind was onefold, like the point of an arrow. Free from evil inclination, onefold and not double in his speech. Affectionate to all his relations, and beloved of them, remaining, firm as a massy roof-beam, no one could prevent or shake his purpose; never deviating from veracity, undivided in heart, excellent in his whole conduct, and his heart devoid of angry passion. Under his sway existed no violence, restraining the desire of his own eyes. Such was his universal character.

Performing no wicked action, and rendering all his people happy, he neglected none of the ten commandments in the practice of general benevolence. Like a bank of sand, which rises up into an island far at sea, and when the passing ships are wrecked, affording a sure and safe refuge to the mariner. Thus it was that he aided his subjects, who were sinking overwhelmed in misfortune; and thus those who were shivering under the chilling cold, (of distress) were revived by approaching the genial flame of authority. Like the motion of a serpent, cautious in his conduct. His palace was splendid as a mountain of gold: in his presence no enemy durst present himself. Sivakara Kasa Mitra Ke'ty, with his mind fixed on one object, Yesukari far celebrated; such was his regal state, that the whole human race, whether white or black, in ten thousand regions, lived in joy and happiness under his sway.

It is difficult to determine, from the Barma text, the true name of this sovereign of Benares; but several names, in some degree similar, as

Mitréya and Ketumat, occur in a Pauranic list of the Rajas of Benares, descended from Divodasa, which was pointed out to me by Mr. Colebrooke, of whose notices I have frequently had occasion to avail myself.
XI. К'нонме' by a nation of that name, who reside on the $M e-k \delta n$, or river of Kam-bú-chät or Camboja. It has never been cultivated by Europeans, and I have had no opportunity of examining it. The Siamese, from whom I received my information, assured me that it was entirely different from either the T"hay or the Júan, or language of Cochin China. The K'hbhmén are reckoned an ancient and learned people; and were formerly subdued by the Thay-jhay, or ancient Siamese race. The modern T"hay, or Siamese, still denominate the Bali character, Nangsu Khbm, or the K'hbhmen letter, from this nation. They are not, however, supposed to have existed as a polished nation so early as the Lazv, but are believed to derive their origin from the warlike race of mountaineers named Khb, the Gueos of the early Portugueze historians, who are still represented as practising their ancient customs, of eating human flesh, and painting and tattooing their bodies. De Barros, however, seems to represent the language of the K'hohmen as different from that of Camboja, though the Siamese do not distinguish them. "There are two kingdoms," says he, "adjacent to each other, and both of them maritime, which have each a peculiar language; the first is termed Como, and the second Camboja." (Decad. iii. lib. 2. c. 5.)
XII. Law.-The Law language is used by the inland nation of that name, who aregenerally termed
after the Portugucze writers, Lato, and in the plural, Laos, from their consisting of different races. Their language, De Barros observes, is peculiar, and the Siamese assert that it is different from the T'hay. It has never been cultivated by Europeans, very few of whom, besides Alexander De Rhodes, have ever visited the country. According to Kemprer, (History of Japan, P. 26,) the Law Hation do not differ much from the Sidmese, either in language or writing, "except that they are unable to pronounce the leiters $l$ and $r$ : and this opinion $I$ am much inclined to adopt, though I have had no favourable opportunity of investigatin'g the subject. If, however, I may be allowed to judge from the specimens of the Lato language, which I have been able to pro: cure from Siamese and Barmas, it appears to beár. the same relation to the Thay or Siamese, that the R'ulh'heng does to the Barma. With the T"hay-j'hay. it accords more fully than with the T"hay propet; and, in adopting Pali terms, it adheres more accurately to the Pali orthography than either of them. The following short list of words and phrases will convey some idea of the difference which subsists between the T"hay and the Lazw. As the T"hay-j'hay approaches the Lazo more nearly than the T"Fay, when that dialect uses peculiar terms, I have preferred adducing them, for the sake of comparisot. Where the Lizw and the Thay agree in the radical, an apparent diversity is often produced by the cone version of the $l$ and $r$ into $h$ or $d$.


OF THE INDO-CHINESE NATIOAS.


Lâzu. $\quad$ Thay.

| elder sister, | ùei, | pi-pu-jìng, |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| mother, | ümé, | mé, |
| $\mathbf{I}$, | ku, | k'hà, |
| I (honorific) | kha, | di-chan,, |
| we, | hôw, | râu. |

It is from this nation that both Siamese and Barmas allege that they derive their religion, laws, and institutions. It is in the country of Láw that all the celebrated founders of the religion of Budd'ha are represented to have left their most remarkable vestiges. Ceylon boasts the sacred traces of the left foot of Budd'ha on the top of the mountain Amála-Sri-padi, or Adam's Peak. Siam exhibits the traces of the right foot, on the top of the golden mountain Swa-na-bapato. Other traces of the sacred steps are sparingly scattered over Pegu, Ava, and Arakan; but it is among the Lios, that all the vestiges of the founders of this religion seem to be concentered, and whither devotees repair to worship at the traces of the sacred steps of Pra-Ku-ku-sin, Pra-Kbn-nă-kon, Pra-Put-t'ha-Kat-sop and Pra-Sa-mút-ta-ko-dom. These Siamese names of the four Budd'has seem to correspond to the Barma Kaukasan, Gonagom, Kasyapa, and Gotama, the Singhala, Kakusa'nda, Konagam, Kasyapa, and Gautama. There can be no doubt, however, fiom the order of the names, but that they are the four last Budd'has in the list given by Hemachandra Acha'rya in the Abhid'hanu Chintameni; under the following Sanscrit appellations, from which all these Siamese, Barma, and Sing'hala names, seem to be only Bali corruptions. The Sanscrit names are :Krukruclihunda, Karchana,

Kásyapa, and Sákyasinha. The language of Lárw is represented as abounding in books, especially translations from the Bali; and if the antiquity of the nation can be depended on, they must be extremely interesting, from the situation of the country between China and the other Indo-Chinese nations. The Law nation consists, like the Siamese, of two different races of people, denominated in Siamese, Chong-mai and Lan-chang, which are said by Kemprer, to be the names of their chief cities. The first of these are termed, by the Barmas, Yun, and the second, Lain-sain. De Barros adds a third tribe, which he denominates Chan-cray. ${ }^{-}$In their general appearance the Láz resemble the Món.
XIII. Anam.-The Anam language is that of Cochin-China and Tonkin. It is represented by the catholic missionaries to be likewise generally used in Champa and Kau-bang; but their assertions must be taken with some limitation when they add, Latw, Camboja, and Siam. The Anam language, as well as the nation, is often denominated the Juan, by the Malays and Siamese. It has always been more cultivated by the catholic missionaries, than any other of the Indo-Chinese languages, though these fathers may, with some degree of propriety, affect the title of " multiplicis idiomatis propagatores." So early as 1651, the Propaganda Society published at Rome, the " Dictionarium Annamiticum Lusitanum et Latinum," compiled by the jesuit Alexander de Rhodes, after twelve years residence in Cochin-China and Tonkin, where he had studied under P. Francisco de Pina, the first who aoquired skill and facility in that language. In composing his dictionary, he had also the advantage of employing the materials col-
lected by P. Gasparde Amaral aud P. Antonio Barbosa, the first or whom had made some progress in preparing am Anam and Portaguese dictionary, and the second in compiling one in Portugueze and Anium. This dictionary is printed wholly in the Inotin whanacter, as the author considered the Anawz character as too difficult to be asefud. It is accompanied by a short grammatical sketch of the Anans language, entitled "Linguce Annamaitice sea Tunckinensis boveois Declaratio." Though I have never met with a learned Cockin-Chinese, I have seen several persons who could speak the vulgar kanguage by rote, and have paid sufficient attention to it to perceive, that the dictionary of De Rhodes is a work of very great merit, though certainly susceptible both of adddions and emendations. A new erlition of it, would be a work of great utility, if our relations with Cochim-China should exer become mone intimate or ifaportant: a circumstance by me means undikety; from the formidable aspect which that-kingdom has lately assumed among the more easterly naticins. The principal defect of the werk is, its representing, very mpperfectly, the Anam pronunciation; a defect unforturiately very difficalt to be remedied, as the Aroum language contains many sounds which corteapond wery litutle to those of any Eurepeax language, awd respecting, which a grammarian might be tempted to say, with the devout missionary Didacus Collndo, when treating of the prenunciation of a Jappanese letter, "quando in atiquo vocabubo fuerit, (4ywod est oalde frequens) orav' debet discipulus, Deum, at ei oenes pronuntiettionis aperiat."-( Prolog. in arte Grammet. Japonic. ling. p. 4.) De Raodes also published at Rome, in 1652, a catechism, for the ose of his Anam converts, in Anam and Latio.

From the vicinity of the Chinese to the Apam nation, and the intimate connection that has at different periods subsisted between their countries, the Chinese character, as well as literature, has been introduced into both Tonkin and Cochin-China. Chinese literaturẹ is greatly affected by all who pretend to distinction in learning in these countries; and in the language of Anam, the Chirese characters are depominated Churco . But besides this, another speccies of character is in geperal use, and commonly employed in matters of business and private affairs, which is constructed on a principle entirely different; and though its letters are qumergus; they bear no proportion to the Chingase signs, and, according to De Rhodes, they are unintelligible to the Chinese and those who are unacquapinted with the Anam language. These chafacterf, in the Anam language, are termed Nom. What relation they bear to the Bali characters I have not been able to determine accurately, though I suspect they will be found to be connected with that, or the Thay alphabet. It is perfectly certain, however, that they have no connection with the proper Chinese character. I have been informed, by an jntelligent Chinese, who had resided some time in both \$iam and Cochin-China, that the proper Anam character greatly resembles that of the Siamese. The missionary Borri says, that the Cochin-Chinese, in harangues, letters, memorials, petitions, "and such things as do pot belong to printed books, for these, of necessity, mast be in Chinese characters," generally employ about three thousand characters, which they find sufficient to express their meaning. If the compound characters, and contractions of the Siamese, be included in their alphabet, they would nearly amount to this number.

## 264

 ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATUREThe Chinese character forms, ind reality, an abstract, philosophical language, such as lias long been the theme of speculation in Europe, though it is generally regarded as an absurd and impossible reverie. It is foot indicativè of sounds, but of real objects and ideas; and consequently it is read and understood by at least twenty different nations, who would scarcely understand a word of one another's oral language, and would all use different words to express the same meaning. The only Europcan characters, analogous to the Chinese symbolical written language, are our numeral; algebraical, astronomical, and chemical signs, 'which are constructed on the sande abstract principles. The Chinese, however, sometimes contrive to make these singular characters perform a double office, and express sounds, as well as ideas; as when they write down English names, which i another person can pronounce with great accuracy. As far as I have been able to learn, however, this can only be accomplished by persons who use the same spoken language.
吅

- The Anam language is simple, original, and monosyllabic. What relations it may possibly bear to some of the spoken monosyllabic languages of China, to the Man-chew Tartar, to the Korean, Formosan, Likyu, or rather Riu-kiu languages, I cannot possibly pretend to determine; but it certainly has very little affinity to the Mandarin or court language of China, which is properly termed Khunn; to the Kong-tong, or language of Canton; to the copious polysyllabic and inflected Japanese; or to any of the other Indo-Chinese languages.

It is certainly possible to find several Anam vocables which coincide both in sound and signitication
with words in the Khunn or Mandarin-Chinese, and also in the Kong-tong, as well as others, which closely resemble T"hay or Siamese vocables; but nevertheless, all the essential parts of the Anam language are original and unconnected with any of the other monosyllabic languages, of which I have any knowledge. Barrow, an authority of some weight, in his "Voyage to Cochin-China," seems to consider the Anam as a derivative from the Chinese, "because it is constructed on the same principle." (p. 301.) "The spoken language," he observes, " has undergone a very considerable change, which is the less surptising, as the inhabitants of the northern and southern provinces of China, are unintelligible to each other; but though it has been altered, it does not appear to have received any improvement, neither from additions of their own, nor from the introduction of foreign words." (p. 322.). The precise meaning of this sentence, I confess I do not understand. The mass of the Anam language, whether nouns, verbs, or significant particles, is totally different from that spoken Chinese language with which he has compared it; and he himself admits, "That it is so much changed from the original, as to be nearly, if not wholly, unintelligible to a Chinese." The Anam nation employ several sounds and letters which are incapable of being pronounced by a Chinese, such as $b, d$, and $r$. The particles which form the cement, or construction of the language, are also different; and in addition to all these, the Anam language has a peculiar character of its own, which is not understood by the Chinese. It is difficult, after this, to conceive what similarity exists between the Chinese and Anam, unless that they are both monosyllabic languages, and that the signification of terms is regulated, in a great measure, by
their necentuation. But though the same mono syllables oecur, and though they are also accented frequently in a similar manner, yet even in this case, the siguification of these monosyllables is, for the most part, totally different. In the syntax or construction of the two languages, there is also a very great difference, for in almost all the instances in which the Barma language differs in construction from the MIalayu, Thay, and Anam, the Chinese agrees with the Barma, and differs from the three others. Thus, when two substantives follow each other, in Chiness and Barma, the first is in the genitive or oblique case; whereas, in Malayu; Thay, and Anam, the second is in the oblique case, Somptimes, too, the Chinese order of arrangement differs equally from them all. Thus, in Chinese, the adjegtive generally precedes the substantive, whereas it follows it in Malayu, Barma, I'hay, and Anam. It must be observed, however, that when the term Chiness is applied to the spoken languages of Ching, it is used in a very wide signification, unless some particular province be specified. The Chinese colloquial languages appear to be more numerous than the 7ndo-Chinese tougues, and equally uncoppneted with each other. Barrow hinself declares, that scapcely two provinces in China have the same oral language. (Travels in China, p. 244.), While the nature of the Chinese character is still so imperfect ty understaod, it is mot syrprizing that the investigation of the spok $\neq n$ languages of China has been totally peglected. In the course of sone enquiries that I made anong the Chinese of Pknang, I found that four or five languages were curiknt among them, whigh were totally distinct fyom each other, apd the names of several others were mentioned. I was informed that the pripcipal Chingse languages were tern in number; but

I have found that considerable variety occurred is the enumeration of their names, and suspect that they are considerably more mumerous, in reality. The following is one of the lists I received of thesia tei languages; but I have since been informed that it relates only to those which are spoken in the southern and western provinces.

| 1. Kâng, | 6. Lŭi, |
| :--- | :---: |
| 2. Wáy, | 7. Limm, |
| 3. Nam, | 8. Khum, |
| 4. Chéw, | 9. Siw, |
| 5. S6w, | 10. Kunng. |

Of these, as ljas been stated, the first is represented as the language of Canton, and the eighth as the Mandarin language, or that which prevails in Pekin. To this list may be added the following:

| 11. Hyongsan, | 14. Pạ́ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 12. Santulk; | 15. Tòng-kkún; |
| 13. Nam-hoi; | 16. Fo-khin. |

The last of these is denominated Chin-cherv by the Chinese of Macao; but the language spoken in Macao itself, is the Hyong-San. This enumeration, however; is extremely imperfect; nor have 1 been able to determine which of them are to be accounted original languages, and which dialects. Neither, without particular investigation, is it possible to ascertain, whether the Anam language may not be included in this enumeration, though I am rather inctined to the contrary opinion.

The Aname language has neither genders, numbers; nor cases; moods, tenses, nor conjugations; all these -are supplied by the rase of particles and the juxtai position of words, as in the other monosyllabic tanguages. The same word has often the signification
of both'a noun and a verb, and its particular use, in such a case, is to be determined by the context, and the collocation of words in the sentence. The. principles of collocation in sentences are equally simple as in the other monosyllabic languages. The adjective generally follows the, substantive, as in Malayu, Barma, and T'hay; but when two substantives come together, the last of them is in the oblique case, as in Malayu and Thay, but contrary to the Barma order of arrangement. Thus, the phrase "the master of the house," is, in the Anam language chúa nyà ; but nyà chúa signifies the house of the master. In Malayu, these two phrases are rendered by túan ruma, and ruma túan; and int T"hay, by chàn rún, rún chàn; but the Barma follows a different order, and renders them by in-sak'héng, saliheng-in, where in signifies house, and sal'heng, master. The substantive verb is often omitted, as being reckoned inherent in adjectives, especially when preceded by the demonstrative pronouns. Thus, nui nay kaw, this mountain high, i. e. is high, the assertion being implied. The nominative precedes the verb, the preposition the word which it presides over, the adverb adheres to the word which itmodifies, the relative is wanting altogether, copulative conjunctions are generally omitted, and the peculiar modes of expression in the Anam idiom are chiefly such as result from the manners and habits of the people. The moods and tenses of verbs are formed by significant particles as in the other monosyllabic languages. As the Anam nation are equally formal and ceremonious as the :Chinese; in their phrases of urbanity, and equally accurate in marking, with a mindte and tedinus precision, the degrees of respect and honour due to every person, in the several relations of stranger, acquastance, neighbour, relation, parent, magistrate, and all the several degrees of magistracy
and office; a great deal of the idiom of the language consists in. the different modes of expressing the respective relations subsisting between the speaker and the peison addressed: hence originates the number of personal pronouns, expressive of these relations, as well as numerous circumlocutory forms of expression; the genius of both the Anam and the Chinese language requiring, that as often as possible, appellative nouns;' and names of office, dignity, relationship, or consanguinity, should be substituted instead of the simple personal .pronouns. Thus, a husband addressing his wife, and using the pronour $I$, instead of saying taze, ta, or gia, any of which has the signification of the simple pronoun $I$, ought to say anh, which signifies elder brother; and his wife, on the other hand, ought either to denominate herself toi, handmaid, or eng, younger sister; a woman, in like manner, addressing herself kindly to another, who is either younger in years, or inferior in rank, ought always to denominate' herself elder sister; a husband addressing his wife, in polite terms, ought always to term her younger sister; and, in general, speaking'to a young woman, she should use the same expression, but an old woman he ought to term bau or aunt. A lover, addressing his mistress, terms her younger sister, while she, in return, terms him elder brother. A son, addressing his father, ought not even to term him cha, father; but anh, father's elder brother; chu, father's younger brother; or cau, mother's brother: in a similar manner, addressing his mother, he ought not to term her mé, mother; but either cb, father's sister, or di, mother's sister. : It is easy to perceive that this minute accuracy of phraseology must have occasioned great trouble to the catholic missionaries in rendering portions of scripture into the Axim language; accordingly we find,
that they were extremely distressed about the propriety of the terms to be used, whenever God the Father, Jesus Christ, The Holy Ghost, or the Virgin Mary, were to be introduced as interlocutors; and dismally puzzled whether the Virgin ought to denominate herself, tti, handmaid, or $\boldsymbol{m} \boldsymbol{E}$, mother, in addressing her son Jisus Christ; as a very trivial change of phraseology, in a language so delicate in its shades and distinctions, might have given origin to the most dangerous heresy.

The accents in the Anam tongue, are of such indispensable utility, that they have been very properly termed the soul of the language, while the primary monosyllables, varied by accent, have been made to represent its body. Conversation is a species of chaunt, or recitative, as in the Chinese dialects, and the other monosyllabic languages, which has, at first, a very ludicrous effect to an ear unaccustomed to it. The intonation or accent of the Anam, struck me as entirely similar to Chinese, though Borri, the catholic missionary, to whom it was familiar, pronounces it softer and sweeter, more harmonious and copious in both its tones and accents. He adds, that every word expresses a variety of significations, according to the diversity of accents with which it - is pronounced ; so that, to converse in it correctly, a person ought to understand the grounds of music. That he ought to have an ear of the most delicate sensibility is indisputable; and as this can never prevail very equally in a numerous nation, this variety of accent gives rise to such diversity of dialect, that through the whole Anam region, every considerable village or district has, as it were, a different language, and are often obliged to have recourse to the written character, for communication with the districts in their vicinity.

Boturt affirms, that the saered books of the Anam nation, are termed Sél King, while those relative to civil subjects are denominated Sek Chuzb. He adds; that the first treat of the creation of the world, the thature of mind, the different classes of intelligent beings, moral and metaphysical theology; but both these classes of books seem rather to refer to Chinese literature, than to that which is peculiarly Anam; for Sêk signifies only book, Chírw is the name applied to the Chinese character, and King is the name of the books first put into the hands of the students of Chinese literature. Numerous Tru-yin or Cherlitras, however, are known to exist in the Anam language, and form the subject of their dramatic representations, in which the Anam nation are not inferior to the Chinese.

The ancient code of Tonkin laws, possessed great celebrity, and was highly venerated previous to the late ceinquest of that country by the Cochin-Chinese. it is represented, by the missionary Le Roy, as composed in the most elevated style of Chinese, and full of uncommon modes of expression. He akso mentions, that it was printed with an $A$ mam transiation, eomposed by an ancient Tonkin Mandarin.

The Andm style is sometimes highly bold and figurative, and atteins a degree of animation which is mot very common among the Indo-Chimese nations of the continent. If the French version can be thepended on, we need only refer, in proof of this, to the manifesto issued by the usurper Quang-tru'ng; in 1790 , to quiet the minds of his subjects, afarmed at the reports of the prowess of the French auxihiaries, Who aided the first efforts of the present monarch sor the tecovery of his throne. "Be not so credulows
as to listen to what they say of the Europeans. What superior ability should that race be possessed of? They have all the eyes of green serpents, and we ought only to regard them as floating corpses, cast on our shores by the seas of the north." (Nouvelles des missions Orientales-p. 144.)

The religion of the Anam nation is a modification of the Budd'hist system, nearly resembling that which prevails in China. Many local and peculiar superstitions, however, are blended with it ; such as the worship of the dog and tyger, to the first of which human excrement, and to the second, human flesh is offered. Traces of this worship are found among the mountaineers on the borders of India, as welh as in the proper Indo-Chinese countries. Thus the tyger is worshipped by the Hajin tribe, in the vicinity of the Garrows or Garudas.

The Quan-t 0, an ancient race, as the name signifies, who inhabit Kaubang or the mountainous range which divides the Anam countries from China, regard themselves as the original inhabitants of Tonkin and Cochin-China; and consider the Anam as a Chinese colony. The Quan-to have a peculiar language, and write with a style, on the leaves of a plant, termed in Anam, jiwa. The Mbi and Mǜ̀ng are also mountaineer tribes, who speak languages different from the Anam, but it is hitherto unknown whether they are original races, or only branches of the Quan-tó.

The following comparative vocabulary of the Barma, T'hay, and Anam languages, with the Kong , dialect of the Chinese, will conyey some idea of their mutual relations and differenceq. A, few, Rulihéng

Variations are also exhibited in the Barma column with the initial $R$. prefixed.

| God | Barma. prá yieng | T'hay. pra-cháw | Anam. <br> chúa | Kong-Chinese. sunn, t'bien-chi |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| heaven | nip-ban | sawan | t'hién | t'hien |
| the earth | kam-ba | pi-p'hop | 'dia | thien-ha |
| earth | mye R. mre | dín | 'dat | ti |
| air | le | $1 \mathrm{rbm}^{\text {m }}$ | phrr-jy 6 | hung |
| water | ye R. re | nam | nâk, nuwok, thuy | 86 |
| fire | mi R. meing | fai | Juwa, hoa | ffö |
| sun | ne | tawan | nyit, mat-bloei | thai-yong, ngut |
| moon | 13 | dùin | nguyit, matblang | ngtit |
| star | kyi R. kri | dàw | saw, tinh | tin-sang |
| sky | m6 | 81 | bloei | mun-thien |
| sea | peng-le | tă-le | be, bién, hǎi | hơë |
| river | k'hyong $R$. kh'rôn | klong | sa | ho |
| animal | tareich-chan | săt | thu | chhôk-16i |
| bird | hngek | n6k | ching | chheok-chay |
| fish | nga | pla | ka | ngui |
| plant | - apéng | ton | thuw | ch'háw |
| tree | apeng gyi | tón-mái | sang | su, sut |
| - Jeaf | ayewék | bắ | 12 | hyep |
| hill | towng | p'hu-khaw | nai | san |
| plain | le-bieng | t'hung | 'd6w, nù | pheng |
| stone | kyiowk | his | 'da | syưk, lis |
| gold | swe | t'hòng | wang | kumm |
| silver | ngwe | ngùn | bak | ngunn |
| brass | kyt | thòng-K'ham | t'haw | thong |
| iron | san | lek | thiet, 䋨t | thit |
| tin | khe | trat | thiek $\sim$ | syăk |
| rice | ch'han | ká-sằn | gàw, lua, kXem | mây |
| egg | u | khài | tlueng | ch'hệnn |
| day | nex | wan | ngay | yat |
| night | nya | k'hùn | 'dêm | man |
| evening | nya-ne | kham | ban-hom | y2 |
| morning | manek | cháw | sang-nyay | chew |
| nonth | la . | dùin. | thang | yuč, nguit |

274

| year. | Barma. <br> neit | Thay. pí | Anam. <br> nien, nam, tuë, tuôi | Kong-Chinese. <br> nín |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| man | lu' | khōn | ngúwói | yun |
| man | yowk-kya | pacháy | ${ }^{1}$ nam | nan-yun |
| ' woman | mim-ma | paning | núw | nyu-yun |
| father | p'haé | p'hó | cha | hù, fú |
| mother | maé | me | mé | mu |
| husband | léng. | p’húwă | chàw, phu | law k'hung |
| wife: | maya | miya | vwo, the | láw-p’ho |
| son | sa | lok pachay | kon-blai | chí |
| daughter | sa-mi | lok paning | kon-gai | nguë |
| elder , $\}$ bro- | ako | p'hi-pachay | anh | akko |
| younger $\}$ ther | nyi | nong pachay | eng | tí |
| elder ${ }^{\text {sis- }}$ | umina | pi păjing | chi | amui |
| younger $\}$ ter | nyi-ma | nong-păñing | eng | moei |
| friend | sang-é-gyien | kla | nghia | púng-yôw |
| enemy | yan-su | satru | nghéich, thu | tzow-yun |
| head | gowng | huă | thư 'dâu | thow |
| face | hmiek-na | ná | mat, may màt | míen |
| eye | hmiek-chei'ch | tá | nyan, môk, mát kon-mát | $\} \text { ngān }$ |
| mose | nakhaung | tằmúk | múi | pi |
| ear | na ${ }^{\prime}$ | hus | tái | ngi |
| mouth | pajat | pâk | khau, mieng, lômieng | $\text { \} how }$ |
| tooth | swa | fan | răgg | nga |
| tongue | sha | lin | luwòi | li |
| hand | lek | mù | tay | sర̆w |
| font | khye | tín | chên | khúok |
| belly | wun | p'hùng, thòng | deà, bâw | thú |
| back | kyọ́ | lang | kât | püi-hów |
| skin | ayé, saye. R. | nang | děa | phi |
|  | are, saré | $\cdot$ |  |  |
| bone | ayo. R. aro | kădúk | kôt, shwang-kôt |  |
| flesh | .asa | núă | thit | héwŭk |
| blood | swè | lŭit | máu tiet | hit |
| milk | no-ye | nám-nóm | suwa : | nín |
| sat | chá | kin | an | .kiĕ |
| drink | sok | hinn-nám | üông | .yúm |

OF THE INDO-CHINESE VATIONS.
273

| stand | Barma. mat-tat | rhay. jùn | Anam. <br> "duěng | Kong-Chinese. khi |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sit | t'haing | náng | ngôi | cho |
| sleep | ft | nón | nga | mi |
| strike | ¢eik | ti | 'dam, 'danh | wat |
| kill | sat-pi'ch | k'ha | jiet, sat | sat |
| red | ani | déng | 'do, tham | hưng |
| green | acheing | k'héow | shanh | lok |
| yellow | awa | luang | hoa ka, vang | urong |
| white | ap'hyu | kháw | tlang, bak | pak |
| black | anék | dam | tham, ak | húkt |
| one | tit | nting | mot | yútt |
| two | hinit | song | hui | ni |
| three | sông | sám | teng | sain |
| four | 1e | si | bon | si |
| five | nga | ha | lang | ung |
| six | khyowk | h\%k | lak | lok |
| séven | khuhnich | chet | baí | chhat |
| ceight | shyit | pet | tang | pat |
| nine | k6 | kàw | chin | kow |
| ten | ta che | sip | tap | sap |
| hundred | tă ra | roi | klang | pak |
| thousan'd | tax thawng | p'hån | kin | chin |
| I | Kyewin nou'p | k'há | toij; tàu, ta, | a ngo, nga |
| we' | khewin-nou'p | O ráu | chang-toi, mo toi | - nga-te |
| thou | méng | mưn'g | bai, mâi, ngưw |  |
| ye ${ }^{\text {- }}$ | maung, meng |  | chûng-bá, mo bái | - ni-té |
| he | dën | măñ' | nio | k'hi, tha |
| they | den-do | măn arài | chúng-n6 | k'hi-te,tha-te |
| who | bédu, beliu | . $\times$ ài | ai | nâko |
| what | baḥa | arái | nào | méy |
| which | bédeng ' | anei | nào (placed $\mathbf{a}$ ter a word) | nà̉ko' |
| all | alúng | , it'lang-ph .i thang-m6 | $\text { \} Kak }$ | tưţ. |
| many | apowng | ': mà. | deư, ny̧eu | to |
| . . |  | T 2 |  |  |


| 276 | ON THE | LANGUAGES | AND LIFE | AATURE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Barma. | T'hay. | Anam. | Kong-Chinese. |
| few | cheich-cha-gule hit, nit |  | be, do, nyo | tuk, shaw |
| any, some | takhyo | kài kài | ko-ai | y 6 w |
| above | at'hek | bon | tlen | shyang |
| under | awk | tai, láng | chuéng | ha |
| in | at'hé | nay | oei, tlaw | li, in |
| without | pyieng | n6\% | vo, chàng-ko, ngoii wai ngöài |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| to | ko, go | ké | cho | ni, $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ |
| from | ka, ga | te | boei | tzong |
| this | di-hu | ni | nây | téko |
| that | ho-hu | nun | ey, no | koko |
| there | ho hma | tino | bên-nd | nuné |
| here | di hma | tiní | bên-nAy | kone |
| before | shyé | na | tluwòk | $\sin$ |
| behind | nawk | t’bi láng | fâu | hôw |

XIV. Pali'-The Pali language among the IndoChinese nations, occupies the same place which Sanscrit holds among the Hindús, or Arabic among the followers of Islam. Thrdughout the greater part of the maritime countries which lie between India and China, it is the language of religion, law, literature, and science, and has had an extensive influenc̣e in modifying the vernacular languages of these regions. The name of this language, though commonly pronounced Bali, is more generally written Pali'; but both forms are occasionally used. 'As the origit of the word is still very obscure, it is difficult to determine which is the more correct orthography. , If, however, we coild venture to identify the term with the Báhlika b'hasha, which, in the Sahítya De'rpana of Viscanátha, is' enumerated as one of the languages proper to be used by certain characters, in dranatic worke, the latter ought to be considered as the more correct. La Louberi, on the authority of D'Herbelot, 'has stated (Tom. I. p. 422) that the ancient 'Persie' language was termed Pahalevi; (Pahlavi) and that the Persians do not
distinguish in writing between Pahali and Bahali. This conjecture would be confirmed by the identity of the termas Balf and Badlika b'hasha, were it to be established; for no donbt can be entertained that in Sanscrit geography, the epithet Bahlika is applied to a northern Indo-Persic region, probably corresponding to Balkh Baimiyan. Among the Indo-Chinese nations, the Bali is frequently denominated Lanka-basa, or the language of Lanka, and Magàta, or, as it is often pronounced Mungata, a ferm which seems to correspond with the Sanscrit Magad'hi, which, in many of the Vyakaranas, is enumerated as one of the dialects proper to be used by certain characters introduced in Natakas, or Hindú dramas. According to Kgmpfer; the Bali in the Khom language, and by the inhabitants of Pegu, was termed "Mac-cata-pasa," or Magad'hi b'hasha, as we may safely venture to render it. P. Paulinus however applies this term inaccurately : to the square Ball character, instead of the language (Mus. Borg. p. 1):

This language, notwithstanding its extensive use among so many nations, and the degree of cultivation which it has received from the different tribes by whom it is employed, has hitherto attracted little attention among Europeans. The indefatigable Кєм fer, in his Amcenitates Exotica," has very imperfectly exhibited the Bali'alphabet. La Loubere had previously published it more correctly, according to the form employed among the Siamese; his Bali alphabet is repeated in the French Encyclopædia, and Cairanius, in his "Alphabetum Barmanum," has exhibited the simple letters, according to the square form, employed by the Barmas. La Loubere, in his "Historical Relation of Siam," has published "The Life of Thevrtat," said to be translated from the Ball, with a fragment termed "An Explanation of the Patimouc, petulant, inaccurate; and desultory manner, exhibited some confused notices concerning the Bidagat the Padi-mauki, the Kammerva, and a "Compendiun of the Barma Laws," composed Dr. F. Buchanan, in his "Eissay an the Religion and Literature of the Barmas," (Asiat. Research. vol. vi.) has published a trapslation of the "Kammua," "exdcuted from the Latin version of Vincentio Sangera mano, which differs considerably from the notices concerning that work published by P. Paulinus, accórding to whom, in , 1776 , an Italian translation of it was made in Pegu, at the instance of cardinal Borgin: Whether any of these versions have been made directly from the Pali, or only through the medium of a Barma or Siamese version, is, at least, very dubious; but the enumeration may suffice to show how far the attention of Europeans has been turned to this language! It would appear, that the learned La Croze, in his epistolary correspondence, has also treated concerning the relations and affinities of the Pall, buit 1 have had no opportunity of consulting the collection of his letters. P. Paulinus, in his coarse, acrimunious, and offensive way has also obtruded on the public, some conjectures concerning it, but the publication of his "Vyacarana, seu locupletissima Samscrdamicae linguae Institutio," Romiae 1804, has given a death-blow to his vaunted pretensions to profound oriental learning; and shown, as was previously suspected, that he was incapable of accurately distinguishing Sanscrit, from the vernacular languages of India.".

[^62]The Ball alphabet seems, in its origin, to be a deHivative from the Deoa-nagari, though it has not only aequired considerable difference of form, but has also beere modified : to a certain degree, in the power'of the letters,' by the monosyllabic pronunciation of the IndoChinese nations. It has dropped, in

Been, by 'Eurbpean writers, 'in competition with such authorities in Hindfy literature, as Sir W. Jones, or. Mr. Colzbeookr. In his Muscium Bongianum he has mistaken a specimen of Malayu for Bengali ; but this is nothing to what occurs in his Sanscrit Grammar. The same blunder had been made before him, by the Editors of the polyglott "Oratif Dobmenica;" but the following late his own. A numerous class of. Saxacrits nqutss form the fifth.case in AT; in Tamul and Madayalam, howeever, a case of similar import terminates in AL; and this case, which belongs to these vernacular languages, but neverto Sanscrit, has P. PAucintos unifotrily substituted; in his Sanscrit Grammar, in the place of the regilar Semscrit flection in ass. This substitution. of the letter l.for $t$ is not egnfined to those indances on! y , in ' which the avalogous flections of a vernacular language may be supposed to have led to the error; it occurs in numerous instances, in which the Sanscrit and popular dialectis' coineide in'using the letter $t$; and which must therefore be considered as the blunders of absolute ignorance. •Thus, in the pames of the tenses of the Sanscrit verb, he gives lal for lat, lol for lot, lil for lid, and lül for lud. A blunder similar to that which occurs in the fifth case of nouns, runs through a variety of the flections of the Sanserit verb. Thus, the gives abheoal for ab'haoat; blavadal for bihuoatat, bhavel for b'haotut, bhuyal for b'huyut, abhul for ab'hut, abhavisyyal for ab'harishyat : but the whole work swarms with similar errors. What should we think of a Latin grammarian who should falsify the ablative case in nouns, and misrepresent the third person singular in verbs? Yet this is nothing more than' what has been done by the redoubted. P. Paulanus; whom the learneal Sylyespike de Sacy terms "un des ecrivains les plus tranchans et les plus dedaigneux ;", and he has not ouly erred in the particular instantes which he has adduced in his Grammar, but he has also ladd down rules to justify his errors, as, in his rules for the permutation of the letter $l$ into $t, d ; d h$, sre. All his other works, that have fallen into my hands, equally abound in error, arrogance and igoorance. EquaHy superficial, inaccurate, and virulent in his invèctive, a critic of his own stainp would be tempted to retort on him his own quotation from Rinnus:

Simia quam similis turpissima bestia vobis. T 4
common use, some letters entirely; and accented others in a manner similar to the Uidhata, Anudhata, and Swarita tones, in the system of accentuation used in chaunting Mantris, and in reciting the Vedas themselves. Thus, it has dropped both the palatal and the celebral sh' of the Deoo-nagari, as well as the double consonant ksh, though the two first are still retained in the more correct alphabets.' Instead of pronouncing the first series of letters ka k'ha, ga $g^{\prime} h a, n g a$, it recites them ka k'há kà găha, nga pronouncing ka thrice; first, in its natural tone; secondly, softly accented in treble, as if with the tone úd hata; and thirdly, in a deep base tone, like the anúdhata of the Samavedá Brahméns; găha.or ga is only recited once and that slightly accented, while $n g a$ suffers no alteration. A similar alteration occurs in the second series, cha, and the fifth series, pas The vowels are generally presented in the same order as the Deva-nagari, but by a similar mode of accentuation, eighteen are sometimes employed. The peculiarities of this pronunciation are, however, more closely adhered to by the T"hay or Siamese, than by the Barma and Ruklieng nations, whose languages are neither so powerfully accented, nor so monosyllabic as the Thay.

The form of the Bali character varies essentially among the different nations by whom it is used. The square Bali character, employed by the Barmas, differs much from that which is used among the Siamese. and approaches nearer the form of the Barma character. The Siamese Balí character is termed, by the Siamese, Nangsu Khbm, the Khbm; or Khohmen character, having, according to their own tradition, derived it from that nation. The square Barma character seems to coincide with the Bali character of

Lanka or Ceylon; though in that island, Ball compositions are frequently written in the proper Sing' hala character. Of the character used in Law, Champa, and Anam, I have had no opportunity of judging. Cakpanius, in his "Alphabetum Barmamum," p. 37, asserts, that La Lou bere, in his "Historical Relation of Siam,", has mistaken the Barma. and Litw characters for the Bali; and Sir W. Jones, in his 8th anniversary discourse, if I understand him, affirms the same thing, on the authority of a native of Arakan. The fact, however, is, that La Lousere's alphabet, though imperfect, as the vowels are omitted, and the powers of several letters inaccurately expressed, is the real Bali alphabet of the Siamese, and that which I have found in ase among the Talapoins, both of the T'hay and the T'hay-j'hay race, however it may differ from the Bali, in use among the Barma and Rukhéng nations. This character, however, when correctly written,' is not round like the proper Barma character, but formed by a number of minute strokes, placed in an angular position, like the Sing'kala Pushpakshara, or flower character. Indeed, on comparing the two characters, the square Barma-Bali character will be found to approach nearer the proper Barma character, than the Bali of Siam.

The Bali is an ancient dialect of Sanserit, which sometimes approaches very near'the original. When allowance is made for the regular interchange of certair letters, the elision of harsh consonants, and the contraction of similar syllables, all the vocables which occur in its ancient books, seem to be purely Sanscrit. In Cherittis. and latter compositions, however, some words of the popular languages of the country sometimes insinuate themselves, in the same manner
as Tamul, Telinga, and Canara vocables occasionally occur, in the later Sanscrit compositions of the Dekhin. The Balk, while it retains almost the whole extent of Sanscrit flections, both in nouns and verbs, nevertheless employs this variety rather sparingly in composition, and affects the frequent introduction of the preterite participle, and the use of impersonal verbs. It also uses the cases of nouns in a more indeterminate manner than the Sanscrit, and often confounds the active, neuter, and passive tenses of verbs. Like other derivative dialects, it occasionally uses Sanscrit nouns and particles iñ an oblique sense; but notwithstanding all these circumstances, it approaches much nearer the pure Sanscrit, than any other dialect, and exhibits a close affinity to the Prtkrit, and the Zend.

These three dialects, the Prákrit, the Ball, and the Zend, are probably the most ancient derivatives from the Sanscrit. The great mass of vocables in all the three, and even the forms of flection; both in verbs and nouns, are derived from the Sanscrit, ac-cording to regular laws of elision, contraction, and ${ }^{1}$ permutation of letters. Sometimes, in pursuing these analogies, they nearly coincide, sometimes they differ considerably, sometimes one, and sometimes another of them approaches nearest to the original Sanscrit. Their connection with this parent language was perceived, and pointed out by Sir W. Jones, and has also been been alluded to by P. Paulinus, who derives his information, concerning the Bali, from Carpanius and Mantegatius. The fate of these' three languages is also, in some degree, similar. The' Prakrit is the language which contains the greater part of the sacred books of the' Jainas ; the Bali is equally revered among the followers of Budd'на;
while the Zend, of sacred language of ancient Iran, has long enjoyed a similar rank among the Parsis or worshippers of fire, and been the depository of the sacred books of Zoroaster. It is perhaps, however, more accurate to consider all the three, rather as different dialects of the same derivative language, than as different languages; and conformably to this idea, the Bal' itself may be reckoned a' dialect of Präkrit. The term Präkrit; both in books, and in common use among the Brahmens, is employed with some degree of latitude. Sonetimes the term is donfined to a particular dialect, employed by the Jainasy as the language of religion and science, and appropriated to females, and respectable chaiacters of an inferior class, in dramas. Sometimes. it includes all the dialects derived immediately from the Sanscrit, ‘whether denominated Prakrit, Mágad'hí, Súuraséni, Pais'ach́, or Apábhrans'a; and sometimes it is even extended to the Désa-b'háshas, or popular tongues of India, as Mahrásht or Muhratta, Canara, Telinga, Udia and Bengali. According to the extended use of the term Pritkrit, it may certainly include sboth Bali and Zend; and if more extensive research should justify the idea derived from an imperfect investigation, I apprehend that the Bali may be identified with the Mdgad'ht, and the Zend with the Súraseni, of Sanscrit authors:

These three dialects, the Prákrit, Bal̂, ${ }^{\text {, }}$ and Zénd, have been regularly cultivated and fixed by composition. The same laws of derivation are applicable to the formation of all the tluree; but yet there is often considerable diversity in the forms which particular words assume, as appears from the forliowing comparative specimen.

| $\operatorname{man}$ | Sanscrit. purushah | Prâkrìt. puriso | Ball. burutsa | Zend peborosche |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| woman | stri | trí | ithis | strée |
| daughter | putrí | pứ | butri | pothre |
| vife | b'harya | bharia <br> bhaja | phiriya | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { peere } \\ \text { perena } \end{array}\right\}$ |
| father | pită | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { piá } \\ \text { piărб }: \end{array}\right\}$ | pita | fedre |
| mother | matá | má maăro | matta | maté |
| wind | váyuh | baú | vayo | vato |
| fire | agnih | aggih | ak hi | atere |
| horse | astwah | åsó | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { atsa } \\ \text { acha } \end{array}\right\}$ | aspo aspahe |
| hog | s'úkarah | suaró | sukaro | soubaré |
| dog | s'wá, s'wan | sunău | sunak'ha | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{sunish} \\ \text { sepa } \end{array}\right\}$ |
| Buffalo | mahishah | mahisó | mahingsa | mesha |
| hand | hastah | hattó | hasti | zesté |
| sun | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { suryah } \\ \text { ravih } \end{array}\right\}$ | $\left.\begin{array}{c} \text { suró } \\ \text { rai } \end{array}\right\}$ | suriya <br> ravé | houere reeoué |
| tiger. | vyagrah | bagh\% | p'hayagho | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { azra } \\ \text { vuzra } \end{array}\right\}$ |
| tree | vrukshah | rukhó vuch'hah | rukha | orothe |
| village | grámam | gámam gáü | khaman | gueoué |
| the lingum | lingam | linkam | lankan | henghâme |
| mountain | parvatah | pabbau paüta | bapato | burezoete |
| orld | prit'hivi | pahavi | pattwé | peeté - |
| forest | aranyam | rannam | aranja | heramn |
| he enters | pravishat | pavishai | pawisi | freescheté |



In this specimen, the Prabkrit words are selected from the Manorama Vritti of B'hamaha, and the - Präkritalankeswarah of Vidya' Vin6d'ha; the Balí are taken at random from the Kumarh-Bap, Chitamnán, and Hatamnan; and the Zend, from the vocabularies of Anqietilidu Perkon, whose orthogra-. phy, since I have not been able to procure the original Zend, has been preserved, however inaccurate, in preference to conjectural emendation; though I am convinced that an orthography, more conformable to the original, would render the connection of. Zend, with its cognate dialects, more apparent.

## Specimen of Bali from the Hatamnan.

Segge' kámécharupé giri-s'ik'hara-gaté chántalilikk'hé vimáné dipe rat'hècha gamé taruvanagahané gêhavat'hamhí k'hetté.
Bhummá cháyàntu deva: jala-thala-visamé yakha-gandabba-naga tit hantám-antikéyám munivara-vachanam sádavo $m \in$ sunantu.

D'hainmassa-vanakéló-ayum bhaddanta namótassa-B'hagavató Arhatto tramma sambuddassa.

Yésantâ-santachittartisarano-saraņ́ éta-lókantarêvá bhummá-bhummá-cha-dévá guna-gana-gahaná d'háyatá sabbakálam etéayántu dévá varakanakamaé méru-rajé vasantó.
. Santosahétam munivaravachanam sotam maggam sammaggam sabbéú chakka-vèleś́ yakhá dévá-chạ bramhanó.
Which may be thus restored into Sanscrit, zoithout the radical change of a single zoord.
Swarge' kámécharúpé giris'ìhharagaté chântarikshé vimâné dipe rashtre' gramé tariuvanagabané grihavatihi kspetré.
Bhámau cháyántu devá jalast'hala-vishame yaksha-gandharva-nágass. tis'hantåm antiképám inunivarachanaun sad'havó mé s'rinantu.
Dhermas'rayanakáalóyum b'hanyastam: namastasyaB'hagavató Arhatósamyak sambudd'kasma.

Yesantah s'anta-chitta triṣarana s'arana ihalókóttarévá b'humau ab’humaucha, dévá gunaganagrahaná d'hayantah servakálam: eté áyántu dévà varakanakamaé mérurājé vasantah.

Santóshahêtum munivaravachanam s'rótum agre samagram servéshu chakravaléshu yakshá déváscha brámhanah.

The Devas frequent Swurga, Kamarupa, the mountain tops, and atmosphere, in their cars, and on earth, they visit the Dwipas, the fields, cities, recesses of forests, habitations, and sacred places. In inaccessible places, by land or water, the Yakshas, Gand-heroas and Nagas reside, in the vincity of waters. Listen to me, ye devotees, while I.recite the words of the Munivaras : this is the time for hearing sacred things(the derotees reply) Say on. (the speaker proceeds) Reverence to' Bhacafata Arhata, the all-comprehending. Those who hear, shall become pare of mind, and Trisara' strall protect them both in this and other worlds: the Devas, earthly and unearthly, possessed of various qualities, constantily present themselves to their thoughts, and the Devas Whe reside on Mferl, the chief of mountains, of pure gold, frequent them. In the full and perfect hearing of the words of the Munioarad, the Yakshas, Devas, and Bramhanas delight above all else.

This specimen may serve, in some degree, to ilustrate the relation which the Balí bears to its parent Sanscrit. The passage is chosen at random, but considerable portions of Bali have been subjected to the same process with a similar result; and I am satisfied that it applies equally to Prákrit and Zend, though words of an origin foreign to Sanscrit, may occasionally be expected to occur in all the three dialects.

After having thus briefly stated the origin of both the Bali language and written character, I should, in conformity to the plan which has been followed in this rapid sketch, proceed to the illustration of its characteristic structure and grammatical peculiarities, with the relations which it bears to Prakrit and Zend; but these, with a view of Ball literature, and its influence, as a learned language, on the vernacular Indo-Chinese tongues, I reserve for the subject of another essay. The politeness and literary zeal of Mr. Coeebroore', have furnished me with ample facilities of investigating the Prákrit, in all its variety
of dialects; but the paucity of my original materials, in Ball, and the total want of Mss. in Zend, have hitherto prevented me from giving the subject so full an investigation as its importance requires; but if the necessary materials can be procured, I hope to be soon able to submit to the Asiatic Society the result of my enquiries. Of the Bali language, different Kbshas and Vyákaranas are known to exist ; and several of them are to be procured in Ceylon, as the Bali 'Subdamala, Balavatara, Nigandu and Nigandu Sana. Of the Zend, various alphabets and vocabularies, as well as original compositions, are extant; but no set of grammatical forms, with which we are acquainted. The learned Tychesen, in his dissertation " De Cuneatis Inscriptionibus Persepolitanis," 1798, recommends, earnestly, to the Asiatic Society, to form grammars and lexicons of the Zend and Pahlavi; and this must undoubtedly be performed if ever the subject be accurately investigated; for as yet we are imperfectly acquainted even with the true arrangement of the Zend alphabet, though it is probably the origin of the ancient Kufic character, if not the actual Himyaric character itself. I have at present little doubt that the character of the ancient Zend, or as it is termed, according to Anauetil du Pernon's orthography, Azieante, is derived from the Déra-nágari; for that author himself admits that the vowels coincide with the Guzeratti, and hints that in some alphabets the consonants also have a similar arrangement. Numerous circumstances likewise lead us to conjecture, that if ever the Persepolitan inscriptions in the Arrow character are decyphered, it will be on the principles of this alphabet. Niebhur has stated, from actual observation, that the characters of these inscriptions are certainly written from left to right, like the Deva-nagari, and the alphabets derived from it. If this authority can be depended on, it completely sets aside every attempt to explain.
them by any alphabet written from the right hand to the left. 'A subject, however, like the Arrow character, concerning which there are almost as many opinions, as authors who have engaged in the discussion, can never be illustrated by mere conjectures, however ingenious or plausible.*

[^63]In addition to the list of Barma compositions, the following names of twelve popular works may be mentioned:

1. Wi bado,
2. Nyawa,
3. Wi beng,
4. Séng-gyb;,
5. Namosara Lénga,
6. Padi muk,
7. Wi-miy,
8. Yadana sui-gyaing,
9. Newa,
10. Siho namakara,
11. Tong-ach6,

The following additional notices and conrections of names refer to the list of Barma compositions given under the article Barma, according to the respective numbers.

1. Jainda Mama Bikhu, an account of the female ascetic Jainda Mana.
2. Nunda Jaina, the bistory of a Deva, also named Andnda.
3. Témi, the religious institutes of Temi.
4. Némi, Another of the ten great religious books of the Buddhists, which are recited in the following order: 1. Témi; 2. Némi; 3. Janaka ; 4. Savan Nasyan: 5. B'huridat ; 6. Maho sot'ha; 7. Samata; 8. Wit'hora; 9. Chanda Gûngma ; 10. Wesundara. Besides these, the two following works are of great authority.
The Parkil-gyf, which is the Barma Hatamnan.
'Pat'han, which is the book of their mythology; revealed by MYA Chew a-para.
5. Dherma pat'ha, a book on Justice.
6. Namagara, a ritual of prayers.
7. Logasara and Loganithi, Moral treatises.
8. Paramikhan; account of Samata and T'hik D'hat.
9. Bongkhan, the adventures of Nвmi,
10. Kado-khan, a religious work on the expiation of crimes.
11. To-twek-khan, the same work as the Rukhéng Nga-chaing brang.
12. Anusasana, a small book for children, like the Tamal Atisfidi
and other compositions of Avyar.
13. Attagat-Lénga, the Bídagat.
14. Hmat-chew-Bong, $A$ Syotem of morality.

## IV.

An Acçount of the Trigonometrical Operatrons in crossing the Peninsula of India, and connecting Fort St. George with Mangalore.

BY CAPT. WILLIAM LAMBTON.

Communicated by The Honorable William Petrie, Esq. Governor of Foht St. George.

## GENERAL ACCOUNT.

IN the year 1801 I had the honor of communicating to the Asiatic Society my intention of extending a geographical survey across the peninsula of: India, with a view to ascertain certain positions on the Coromandel and Malabar coasts, and to fix the latitudes and longitudes of all the principal places, in the interior country, within the extent of the operations for connecting the two seas., Mylabours commenced in the Carnatic, in 1803, in measuring a small arc on the meridian and on its perpendicular, an account of which has been published in the 8th Vol. of the Asiatic Researches. The triangles, from which those arcs were deduced, constitute a part of the general survey under my superintendance, now extended from sea to sea, taking in upwards of two degrees of latitude. A series of principal triaingles has also been carried down in a meridional direction, from which has been deduced an arc of three degrees and upwards in amplitude, giving the length of the degree, on the meridian, in lat. $11^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 55^{\prime \prime}$, equal 60494 fathoms, and that from a great number of observations of different fixed stars. As I expect that the detailed par-
ticulars of that arc will appear before the public in another place, it will be sufficient barely to mention it here, as being the scale from which the latitudes of places are computed.*

A full account of this survey being intended for a separate publication at some future period, when more materials will be collected, I have chosen for the subject of the present paper, that part of it which I think will be the most interesting; viz; the triangular operations in connecting the two seas, and the method by which the difference of longitude has been determined in my progress from east to west: and that it may be better adapted to the general reader, who, perhaps, may have neither time norimclination to enter into minute detail, I shall previously state, in a concise form, the manner in which these extensive operations have been carried over the great mountains, forming the eastern and western

[^64]ghauts, and through the whole extent from Fort St. George to Mangalore, being a distance of three humdred and sixty two miles and upwards, on the parallel of the mean latitude between these two places.

In the triangles of 1803, a great distance was determined between Carangooly and Carnatighur, at which stations pole-star observations were made for determining the difference of longitude of those two places, and it was then thought probable that others might be found in succession, nearly west from Carnatighur, so as to afford great distances for connecting the meridian lines; but it was afterwards discovered that Kylasghur was preferable, and it was accordingly chosen for continuing those distances to the westward, that between Carangooly and Carnatighur, as already determined in 1803, remaining the first.

Kylasghur was laid down from the side Carnatighur and Hanandamulla, being given in the 39th triangle; and the side Hanandamulla and Poonauk of the 21 st triangle, was the base for finding the distance of Poonauk from Pilloor hill. From this last, and from the side Kylasghur and Hanandamulla, each as a base, the side Kylasghur and Pilloor hill has been obtained as a mean of the two results. From this, as a base, the series has been carried on to Yerracondah and Kylasghur, depending on the measured line near St. Thomas's Mount; the particulars of which have already been given in the 8th Vol. of the Researches.

The base near Bangalore (an account of which is given in Art, 2) is then had recourse to, for bringing out the same distance, and it will appear, in the arrangement of the triangles depending on that base,
that all the errors are intended to be combined in the distance between Rymandroog and Yerracondah. From that the triangles are carried eastward, and the side Yerracondah and Kylasghur again brought out, differing from the former two feet, which will show, by proportioning the said side to the length of the new base, that had the triangles been carried on, and that base computed therefrom, it would have differed from the measurement $3 \frac{7}{10}$ inches. The distance, therefore, between Kylasghur and Yerracondah, is the second great distance for connecting the meridian lines.

The third of these distances is that between Yer racondah and Sabendroog, which is had from the base Savendroog and Nundydroog to the northward, and Savendroog Deorabetta to the southward, differing 11 feet, the mean of which is made use of.

The same two sides are used as bases to proceed to the westward: the stations to the northward areDevaroydroog, Bomanelly, and Mullapunnabetta; those to the southward are Bundhullydroog, Mysoor hill, and Mullapunnabetta; and, from the mean of these, (the difference being 5 feet) the fourth great distance is had between Savendroog and Mullapunnabetta.

Finding the three stations, comprehending the two last distances, fall very favourably with respect to each other, the positions of their meridians have been fixed, with more than ordinary care, in moving to the westward. But, as this will be more particularly treated of in giving an account of the perpendicular arcs deduced therefrom, I shall proceed to state the manner in which the triangles have been continued across the great mountains that form the western ghauts.

After the observations were completed at Mullapunnabetta in Nov. 1804, the western monsoon being then over, and the favourable season on the Malabar coast approaching, it became necessary, that some previous knowledge of the country should be had, as I found that my intended direction would take me across the Bullum district, which is a part of the ghauts forming a curve convex to the eastward, and, in consequence, is at too great a distance to discover any object on the sea coast; for I had all along entertained a hope of finding two or three stations, on the tops of these high mountains, from which to intersect the flag staves at Cannanore, Tellicherry, and Mangalore. For the purpose of selecting stations I had detached Lieut. Kater, one of my assistants, who after encountering many difficulties, succeeded in the choice of two, one on the top of Balroyndroog, in the Bednore province, and the other on Koondhully, a mountain in the Koorg. The distance between them has been derived from the base, Muthapumabetta and Duesauneegooda; as is also the fifth great distance connecting the meridians of Mullapunnabetta and Balroyndroog. These stations, however, being too remote from the sea, I decided on descending the ghauts, and on the distance between them as a base, a series of triangles was carried through to Mangalore, and thence down the coast to Mount Delli and Cannanore.

It will no doubt be noticed, that the great extent from Bangalore to the sea coast required that another base should have been measured to verify the truth of the triangular operations, and it was my intention that it should have been done, but circumstances and various avocations prevented it, till the season became so far advanced that every other object would have been lost. I had tọ fix the meridian at Balroyndroog,
and to observe zenith distances at Paughur, the intended northern extremity of my meridian arc; and, by the time I arrived at the latter place, it was the end of April, and very shortly after that the monsoon set in. I had, however, laid the foundation for a southern series of triangles, to be carried through the Koorg to Mount Delli, which was rendered practicable by the assistance afforded me by the Koorg Rajah, to whose liberal aid I am indebted for the' successful means I had in carrying the triangles over these stupendous mountains. Several beacons had been erected on commanding situations pointed out by me, previous to my descending the ghauts, some of which were distinctly seen from every part of the coast, and one of them (Taddiandamole) being visited as a station, the season following, I was enabled thereby to intersect the flag staves at Cannanore and Tellicherry, and also a signal flag on my former station on Mount Delli. . This branch of triangles was carried on in the beginning of 1806, and commenced from Mullapunnabetta and Mysoor hill, and thence to Bettatipoor,Soobramanee hill, Taddiandamole, Kunduddakamully, Mount Delli, and Baekul. From the distance between Taddiandamole and Mount Delli, Cannanore, and Tellicherry, have been laid down; and upon the distance between Backul and Kunduddakamully, a branch of triangles has been carried up for finding the distance from Bullamully to Kunnoor hill, which was also determined by the northern series, and there is a difference of $3_{\frac{7}{10}}$ feet. I have been more particular in giving an account of this southern series, because the object was to do away any doubt that might exist, as to the accuracy of the northern one, from the want of a base on the Malabar coast; and I think, so far as regards nautical purposes, no error, of any importance, can exist. It will, however, be necessary that a base
line be measured near Mangolore, from which all these distances, near the sea, should be derived anew, when a more minute survey of the coast is made.

As the situation of the places on the Malabar coast, and their relative positions, with respect to the observatory at Madras, and other places on the coast of Coromandel, constitute a most important part of this survey, I have left nothing undone, in that respect, to give full and entire satisfaction. But the great accuracy required, in these low latitudes, in ascertaining the length of a degree of longitude, has called forth more than ordinary attention; and $\mathbf{I}$ have reason to hope, from the many favourable and concurring circumstances, that my endeavours have been rewarded with success. The three statious best situated for determining the length of an arc, perpendicular to the meridian, are Yerracondah, Savendroog, and Mullapunnabetta; their respective distances from each other being nearly 67 miles; and lying in a direction very nearly east and west, the spheriodical corrections for the angles are trifling. All the other great stations have therefore been used for connecting the meridian lines, their latitudes and longitudes being computed spherically by using the oblique arcs, as obtained on the elliptical hypothesis, the perpendicular degrees having been found equal to 60748 fathoms, and the meridional degree 60498 fathoms, in laiitude $12^{\circ} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$, which is the latitude of Saren. droog, as had by referring to the latitude of Dodagoontah, the great station of observation; (Art. 8) for fixing the point of departure.

The scale of 60748 fathoms, for the length of the degree perpendicular to the meridian, in lat. $12^{\circ} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$, is considerably different from what was formerly obtained from the observations made at Carangooly
and Carnatighur, and reduced to the same latitude; but this is not to be wondered at, considering under what great disadvantages they were made, and the extreme accuracy required in making them: and it may be further remarked, that Carnatighur is by no means an eligible station, on account of the great mass of mountains on the west, and the low sandy plain to the east, which comes to the foot of the mountain. Such an inequality of matter must doubtless produce a great lateral attraction, and sensibly affect the instrument. The station on Balroyndroog, on the top of the western ghauts, has been laid aside on a similar account.

The relative positions of Savendroog, Mullapunnabet $t a$, and Yerracondah, havingbeen fixed with great accuracy, the connection with the observatory at Madras is effected, by working back to Carangooly, by means of the oblique arcs, (Art. 15) and then using the noithing and easting, and computing spherically, by converting the easting into an arc at right angles to the meridian of Carangooly, and passing through the observatory; and also using the co-latitude of the point of intersection of the said arc and meridian: From this computation, the latitude of the stone pedestal in the centre of the observatory is had equal $13^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 7^{\prime \prime}$. The position of the flag-staff at Mangalore, is deduced from the meridian of Balroyndroog, by using the southing and westing, in a similar manner as at Carangooly, with respect to the observatory. It is thence found to be in lat. $120^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 38^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. and $34^{\prime} 50^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. from the meridian of Balroyndroog. By summing up the respective differences of longitude, we shall lave $5^{\circ} 25^{\prime} 23^{\prime \prime}$ for the longitude of Mangalore west from the observatory; to which add $2^{\prime} 22^{\prime \prime}$, the easting of the church steeple in

Fort St. George, we get $5^{\circ} 27^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime}$ for the difference. of longitude between the steeple in Fort St. George and the flag-staff at Mangalore.

The meridians of Carangooly and Balroyndroog are also used for fixing the latitudes and longitudes of other places on the two coasts, as will be seen in the detailed account (Art. 15); so that by having the positions of a few places accurately laid, the general form of the peninsula may be determined, and a foundation laid for carrying on more minute surveys, both along the coasts, and in the interior. I have given here the mode of computing the positions of the most remarkable places on the coasts, and of the great stations connecting the meridian lines. But from these different meridians, the latitudes and longitudes of other places are fixed by using the eastings and westings, and the northing and southing from the great stations, and computing spherically; so that the whole together amount to near six hundred. I have subjoined to this paper an alphabetical list, which includes the most remarkable places within the extent of the survey; and I have also added a table, giving the perpendicular height of all the great stations above the level of the sea, and the ultimate comparisons of the height of a station on the beach, near Mangalore, as had by computing from this coast, and by measuring from the low water mark on the other, where there appears an error only of $8 \frac{6}{10}$ feet. This table also contains the terrestrial refractions.

It will be unnecessary to say more here, there being sufficient, by referring to the plan of the triangles, to convey a general idea, and the adjoining detail will furnish all the materials for a more critical ex-


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amination of the subject. The work is now grown to a magnitude far exceeding what was first proposed, and will, I hope, be adopted, as a foundation for a more finished superstructure, in times to come. The task has been an interesting one, and by no means arduons. Freed from restriction of every kind, and permitted to act under the most liberal conditions, I . have been enabled to obviate every difficulty ; which otherwise must have embarrassed my exertions, and defeated the ultimate objects of my labours.

## SECTION. I.

Series of triangles taken up at Hanandamulla aud Pilloor Hill, and carried to the base near Bangalore.
I. ANGLES.

At Hanandamulla.

| Between | And |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kylasghur | ........ . Pilloor Hill | . . . . . $\left.98^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 34^{\prime \prime} .6\right)$ |  |
|  |  | $31: 6$ | $33^{\prime \prime} .6$ |
|  |  | 34.5 |  |

At Pilloor Hill.


At Kylasghur,



At Bodeemulla.

| Kylasghur | ........Patticondah, ......85 $\left.83 \begin{array}{r}41.5 \\ 39.1\end{array}\right\}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | $1 .$ | ..... 9358 | $\left.\begin{array}{l}8.3 \\ 5.15\end{array}\right\}$ |
|  |  |  | 7.15 |
|  |  | , | 7.4 |
|  |  |  | 4.25 ) |

At Patticondah.
$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text { Rymandroog …..Yerracondab....... } 56 & 22 & 19.75 \\ 21 .\end{array}\right\} 20.97$

## At Patticondah, continued.

Between
And.


At Yerracondah.



Rymandroog. .......Tirtapully Hill..... 37 | 31 | 19.33 |
| :--- | :--- |

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |

Patticondah 0,0....... Kylasghur ....... 422248 .94

| Referring flag. ......Tirtapully ...... 732245 |
| :---: |


Deorabetta …......TTirtapully Hill .... 4447 55.88


Rymandroog .......Savendroog ....... 58 24 48.4

- Deocahetta ...... 821915.21


| Referring flag. . . . Pole-star's W. elongation, 9 | 3 | 6.5 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |

- 

2. 3.5

## At Yerracondah, continued.



Tirtapully Hill $\ldots . .$. . Nundydroog $\ldots . \overline{72} \quad 4 \quad 35.47$

> At Tirtapully Hill.



At Bonnairgottah, continued.


## , At the Muntapum Centre.



## At the MuntapumiStation.



At the S. End of the Base.


## At the N. End of the Base.

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| . end of the Base....Muntapum Station $89^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 21^{\prime \prime} .5{ }^{\prime}$ |  |  |
|  | , 19.75 | $20^{\prime \prime} .75$ |
|  | $\left.\begin{array}{l} 20.25 \\ 21.5 \end{array}\right\}$ | 20.75 |
|  | Dodagooutah Station 674124.5 |  |
|  | . 2075 |  |
|  | 20.75 | 22.55 |
|  | 21.25 |  |
|  | $25.5)$ |  |

At Deorabetta.



Tirtapully Hill . . . . . Ankissgherry . . . . 52 10 04.27.
II. Measurement of the Base Line near Bangalore.

This base was executed by Lieut. Warren, of H. M. 33d Regt. then one of my assistants; and was intended as a datum for extending the triangles to the Malabar coast: and also as a base of verification to the triangular measurement brought from the base near Madras; and it appeared that, by continuing the computations the whole distance, and making this base one of the sides of the last triangle, the computation exceeded the measurement only $3 \frac{7}{10}$ inches.

No further account need therefore be given of the manner of performing this very important and delicate part of the work, than that in addition to the apparatus used in the former measurement near St . Thomas's Mount, there was a transit telescope, in all respects similar to that mentioned in the account of the trigonometrical survey of England for fixing objects in the alignement, and taking the elevations and depressions at the same time. The manner of using it was as follows :

When the instrument was placed at a sufficient distance behind the commencement of an hypothenuse, so as to see distinctly the mark placed on the head of the drawing post, and the elevation or depression of the hypothenuse finally determined, the instrument being covered from the sun by a small cloth pandal, remained in that position, till four or sometimes five chains were measured. Previous to removing it, a small hooped picket was placed, by signal from the person at the transit, at a proper distance behind the termination of the last chain. In fixing the spot for this little picket, a common rod, with a sharp point was used, and the telescope of the transit depressed to the place on the ground intended to be marked. After the spot was fixed on, and the picket driven down, the instrument was removed, and placed in the alignement, with the plummet hanging over the centre of the little picket, and then a new hypothenuse was laid out, or the former one continued.

When the hypothenușe was terminated, a register picket was driven into the ground. opposite to the arrow of the chain, and in such a manner, that when the brass head was fixed thereon, the slide might X 9
be parallel to the chain, and very near it. A piece of wood was contrived to be placed upon the brass head, and fixed by a screw, which pressed against the end of the slider, so that when that slider was moved by its own screw, the wood, thus attached, moved with it, in the direction of the alignement, as nearly as the eye could judge. On the top of this wood was placed a T , having also a motion in the same direction with the brass slider, to expedite the operation; and on the top of this T , a brass ruler, in length about six inches, was placed, having a sliding motion at right angles to the other; and in the middle of the projecting end, was a mark from which the plummet was suspended, and by the two motions, at right angles to each other, the plumb line was easily brought to coincide with the arrow terminating the hypotheneuse. A like operation was gone through with the commencement of the next hypothenuse, and the arrow brought to coincide with the same plumb line. Here the distance of each arrow above or below the brass rule was noticed as in the former measurement.

If, after the removal of the transit, the same hypothenuse was continued, the register picket, at the end of the chain, was left standing; and when the instrument was brought into the alignement with the plummet over the mark, nothing was required but to place the telescope at the former elevation or depression, and move the cross vane which is applied to the heads of the pickets and stands, till the appropriate mark coincided with the horizontal wire in the focus of the eye glass.

Experiments, made for comparing the Chains, previous to the Measurement.


Experiments, made for comparing the Сhains, after the conclusion of the Measurement.


Table，containing the Particulars of the Measurement．

|  |  | Angles of |  | Perpendicular． |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Commence- } \\ & \text { nent from } \\ & \text { the fast. } \end{aligned}$ |  |  | 先 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 躬告 |  | $\mathrm{E}^{\mathrm{n}}$ \＆ $\mathrm{D}^{\text {a }}$ |  | Ascents． | Descents． | Above iaches | Below inches |  |  |
|  |  |  | feet | feet | feet |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 600 | $0^{\prime} 16 \mathrm{Ol}^{\prime \prime}$ | ． 00648 |  | 2.7954 | 26． 6 |  | 94.8 |  |
| 2 | 600 | $\begin{array}{lll}0 & 217\end{array}$ | ． 00012 | 0.3985 |  | 3． 6 |  | 86.5 |  |
| 3 | 400 | 02256 | ． 00892 |  | 2.6684 |  | 5． 9 | 84.9 |  |
| 4. | 300 | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 53 & 31.5 \\ 1 & 18\end{array}$ | ． 03636 |  | 4.6707 |  | 7． 5 | 82.1 |  |
| 5 | 400 | 11315 | ． 09080 |  | 8.5224 |  | 3． 5 | 83.4 |  |
| 6 | 300 | 01643.5 | ． 00351 |  | 1.4595 |  | 5． 8 | 96.6 |  |
| 7 | 900 | 01316.5 | ． 00675 |  | 3.4754 |  | 6． 9 | 81.9 |  |
| 8 | 800 | 03915 | ． 05208 |  | 9.1337 | 6． 9 |  | 81.8 |  |
| 9 | 300 | 11515 | ． 07188 |  | 6.5663 |  | 4． 7 | 80.2 |  |
| 10 | 300 | 04728.5 | ． 02682 |  | 4.1428 |  | 3． 4 | 88.5 |  |
| 11 | 800 | 05715 | ． 11096 |  | 13.3220 |  | 6． 9 | 82 |  |
| 12 | 300 | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 3 & 42\end{array}$ | ． 05151 |  | 5.5585 |  | 6． 4 | 86.7 |  |
| 13 | 200 | 04830 | ． 01990 |  | 2.8215 |  |  | 74 |  |
| 14 | 600 | 01231.5 | ． 00402 | 2.1860 |  |  | 19． 5 | 83.4 |  |
| 15 | 600 | 0291.15 | ． 02132 |  | 5.0658 |  | 6． 9 | 88.1 |  |
| 16 | 700 | 1230 | ． 11564 |  | 12.7257 |  | 15． 0 | 82.7 |  |
| 17 | 600 | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 26 & 34.5\end{array}$ | ． 19026 |  | 15.1086 | 6． 4 |  | 99.8 | $\stackrel{\square}{\square}$ |
| 18 | 700 | 1． 2549.5 | ． 21812 |  | 17.4740 |  | 5． 2 | 95.8 |  |
| 19 | 200 | 04535 | ． 01758 |  | 2.6518 | 1． 1 |  | 79.7 | 奢 |
| 20 | 500 | 02610 | ． 01450 |  | 9.8057 |  | 25． 2 | 84.4 |  |
| 21 | 200 | 024.52 .5 | ． 00522 | 1.4471 |  | 4． 7 |  | 90.9 | $\stackrel{5}{5}$ |
| 22 | 200 | 11041 | ． 04228 |  | 4.1119 | 3． 4 |  | 79.1 | \％ |
| 23 | 300 | Level ．．．． |  |  |  | 3． 5 |  | 77.2 | $\stackrel{1}{4}$ |
| 24 | 600 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 10 & 40.5 \\ 0 & 58\end{array}$ | ． 00288 |  | 1.8631 | 46 |  | 82.9 | $\stackrel{\square}{4}$ |
| 25 | 1100 | 0 0 0 21 | ． 15840 | 18.6697 |  | 15 |  | 80.5 | ت |
| 26 | 400 500 | 0 0 0 4657 | ． 056880 | 6.7425 6.7387 |  |  | 6． 9 | 87.8 | E |
| 27 28 | 500 | $\begin{array}{lccc}0 & 46 & 20 \\ 0 & 16 & 1.5\end{array}$ | ． 04540 | 6.7387 3.2630 |  | 22． 1 |  | 79.2 | ， |
| 29 | 500 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 22 & 1.5\end{array}$ | ． 01027 |  | 3.2033 |  | 5 | 80.7 | － |
| 30 | 400 | 12400 | ． 11940 |  | 9.7729 |  | 10 | 80.2 |  |
| 31 | 500 | 14243.5 | ． 22320 |  | 14.9385 |  | 4 | 77.1 |  |
| 32 | 200 | Level ．．．． |  |  |  | 4． 9 |  | 77.1 |  |
| 33 | 500 | $\begin{array}{lll}0 & 541\end{array}$ | ． 00070 |  | 0.8266 | 43． 6 |  | 83.6 |  |
| 34 | 800 | 02533 | ． 02208 | 5.9457 |  | 7． 5 |  | 85.2 |  |
| 35 | 1000 | $\begin{array}{lll}0 & 12 & 1.5\end{array}$ | ． 00610 | 3.4979 |  |  | 10． 4 | 75.6 |  |
| 36 | 700 | 03739 | ． 042200 | 7.6662 |  | 8.75 |  | 86.1 |  |
| 37 | 900 | 05216 | ． 10404 | 13.6828 |  | 9 |  | 81.1 |  |
| 38 | 500 | O 53 － 49.5 | ． 0613130 | 7.8282 |  | 16． 1 |  | 78.9 |  |
| 39 40 | 1200 800 | O 4044. | ． 08424 | 14．2183 |  |  | 8.25 | 81.4 74.3 |  |
| 41 | 200 | － 5217 | ． 02312 | 3.0416 |  |  |  | 87.1 |  |
| 42 | 300 | 11441 | ． 07080 | 6.5168 |  |  | 3． 3 | 80 |  |
| 43 | 500 | $\begin{array}{llll}2 & 5 & 1.5\end{array}$ | ． 33065 | 18.1801 |  | 16 |  | 83.3 |  |
| 44 | 300 | 12055.5 | ． 08313 | 7.0614 |  |  | 9． 9 | 89.1 |  |
| 45 | 200 | 04842 | ． 02008 | 2.8331 |  | 7． 5 |  | 93.6 |  |

Table, containing the Particulars of the Measurement, continued.

|  |  | Ancles of <br> $\mathbf{E}^{n} \& \mathbf{D}^{n}$ |  | Perpendicnlar. |  | Commencement from the last. |  |  | \% |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Ascents. |  | Descen | $\begin{aligned} & \text { A bove } \\ & \text { meches } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { below } \\ & \text { incher } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | et | feet | feet |  |  |  |  |
| 46 | 300 | $09^{\prime} 27^{\prime \prime}$ | . 00114 |  | 0.8247 |  | 6.75 | 71.6 |  |
| 47 | 200 | 11046.5 | . 04239 |  | 4.1172 |  | 8.5 |  |  |
| 48 | 500 | 20015 | .30587 |  | 17.4860 |  | 8.8 | 88.6 |  |
| 49 | 400 | 04230 | . 03056 |  | 4.9450 | 15. 2 |  | 89.9 |  |
| 50 | 300 | 01147 | . 00177 |  | 1.0283 | 11. 9 |  | 82.1 |  |
| 51 | 200 | 01630 | . 00230 | . 9599 |  | 13. 9 |  | 80.8 |  |
| 52 | 300 | 2.827 | . 20940 | 11.2067 |  | 11. 7 |  | 89.1 |  |
| 53 | 500 | $1 \begin{array}{llll}13 & 31.5\end{array}$ | . 11437 | 10.6929 |  |  | 10. 4 | 90.8 |  |
| 54 | 400 | $\begin{array}{ll}0 & 51 \\ 0 & 43.5\end{array}$ | . 05428 | 6.0182 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 55 | 200 | 03231.5 | 00896 |  | 1.8922 |  |  | 88.9 |  |
| 56 | 400 | $1 \begin{array}{ll}138 \\ 2\end{array}$ | . 16300 |  | 11.4178 |  | 8. | 91 |  |
| 57 | 300 | 23358.5 | . 30087 |  | 13.4323 | 0. 3 |  | 91.2 |  |
| 58 | 200 | 0 0 0 | . 02504 |  | 3.1647 | 5. 5 |  | 82.2 71.8 |  |
| 59 | 200 | 032 1 1 | . 00868 | $\left\|\begin{array}{r} 1.8645 \\ 20.6344 \end{array}\right\|$ |  | 23. 8 |  | 71.8 84.7 |  |
| 60 | 600 | $\begin{array}{llll}1 & 58 & 15 \\ 1 & 51 & 25.5\end{array}$ | .35490 .31514 | 20.6344 |  |  |  | 84.7 |  |
| 62 | 700 | 12627 | .22134 | 17.6012 |  |  | 4. 5 | $y$ | 官 |
| 63 | 500 | 03816.5 | 03100 | 5.5667 |  |  |  | 89.8 | 5 |
| 64 | 800 | 0.614 | . 00128 |  | 1.4505 |  | 9. 2 | 79.6 |  |
| 65 | 400 | 0 2727 | . 01276 |  | 3.1939 | 7. 5 |  | 87.8 | T |
| 66 | 500 | $\begin{array}{lll}1 & 13 & 4.5\end{array}$ | . 11300 |  | 10.6275 |  | 6. 2 |  | $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{4}$ |
| 67 | 400 | $\begin{array}{lll}1 & 42 & 4.5\end{array}$ | . 17630 |  | 11.8752 |  |  | 79.5 | 兑 |
| 68 | 500 | 22630 | . 45395 |  | 21.3011 | 8. 6 |  | 79.5 | E |
| 69 | 200 | $\begin{array}{lll}0 & 14 & 3\end{array}$ | . 00167 |  | 0.8174 |  |  | 71 |  |
| 70 | 200 | 03616.5 | . 01113 | 2.1103 |  | 3. 8 |  | 79 |  |
| 71 | 300 | 21636 | . 21381 | 11.9174. |  | 25 |  | 84.3 |  |
| 72 | 200 | 14722 | . 09752 | 6.2453 |  |  | 2. 3 | 84 |  |
| 73 | 400 | 11143.5 | . 18208 | 8.3450 |  | 21. 2 |  | 72 |  |
| 74 | 900 | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 41 & 11\end{array}$ | . 06453 | 10.7815 |  | 4. 9 |  | 87.6 |  |
| 75 | 300 | $\begin{array}{llllll}0 & 35 & 13 \\ 1 & 1\end{array}$ | . 01573 |  | 3.0732 |  |  | 76.8 |  |
| 76 | 200 | $\begin{array}{llll}1 & 1 & 43 \\ 0\end{array}$ | $.03222$ |  | 3.5903 | 0. 5 |  | 70.8 |  |
| 77 | 300 | $0{ }^{0} 64$ | . 00053 | 0.5585 |  | 2.75 |  | 77.6 |  |
| 78 | 200 | 22345 | . 17483 | 8.3606 |  |  | 7. 5 | 87 |  |
| 79 | 400 | $1 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 3 & 28.5\end{array}$ | 06820 | 7.3852 |  | 26. 5 |  | 87.8 |  |
| 80 | 800 | 0 3213 | . 03512 |  | 7.4971 |  |  |  |  |
| 81 | 700 | 0 <br> 0 <br> 0 <br> 0 | $\mid .015688$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4.6799 \\ & 8.2668 \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| 83 | 400 | 05935 | . 06008 | 6.9325 |  | 11.55 |  | 83 |  |
| 84 | 400 | 1320 | . 06788 | 7.3687 |  | 7. |  | 79 |  |
| 85 | O | 01000 | 00126 | 0.8727 |  |  | 3. | 76.7 |  |
| Descent from the termination of the? base to the ground$\qquad$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9800\| | $6.63475 \mid 307.7304$, $278.4189\|514.32\| 389.2 \mid 83.1$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

North above the South extremity of the base $=39.74$ feet.

## 312

At the commencement the old chain exceeded the new one 15.47 divisions of the micrometer $=0.00619$ feet. Therefore $898 \times 100.00619$ feet will be the measure in terms of the new chain
39802.4636

At the conclusion the old chain exceeded the new one 17.9 divisions; and had therefore increased 2.43 divisions $=0.00097$ feet. Hence $398 \times \frac{0.00097}{9}=0.1930$ feet, is the correction for the wear, which add
The sum of the deductions from col. 4th is 6.68475 feet, which beng increased in the ratio of 100 to 100.00619 will be 6.635 l feet, which subtract r
$-6.6351$
Hence the apparent horizontal distance will be
39796.0215

The correction for the expansion and reduced to the standard temperature of $62^{\circ}$ will be
$\frac{\left(83^{\circ} .1-50\right) \times 0.0074-\left(62^{\circ}-50^{\circ}\right) \times 001237}{12} \times 39796$. 0215 feet, which add
$+3.1096$
Hence the corrected measure of the base for the temperature of $62^{\circ}$ will be

- 39799.2211

To which add the correction for reducing all the hypothenuses to the level of the south end of the base -
$+0.0893$
39799.5104

Which being reduced to the level of the sea, will be

[^65]III. TRIANGLES.

Hanandamulla from Pilloor Hill 110381.9


Hanandamulla from Kylasgh ir 120128

| 6 | Hanandamulla <br> Kylasghúr $\qquad$ <br> Pilloor Hill $\qquad$ $\qquad$ | $\begin{array}{ccc} 98 & 13 & 33.6 \\ 38 & 47 & 22.4 \\ 42 & 59 & 8 \end{array}$ | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & -0.8 \\ & -0.6 \\ & -0.7 \end{aligned}\right.$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{lllll}98 & 13 & 31.5 \\ 38 & 47 & 21.5 \\ 42 & 59 & 7\end{array}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 1800004 |  | 3.1 | +0.9 | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | Pilloor Hill from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Hanandamulla .................................................................. }\end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} 110375.6 \\ 174377.5 \end{gathered}$ |

Kylasghur from Pilloor Hill 174382.3

| 17 |  | 86 12 27.96 -3.7 <br> 50 13 26.32 -2.14 <br> . . .  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}86 & 12 & 24.25 \\ 50 & 13 & 24.25 \\ 43 & 34 & 11 & .5\end{array}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | 1800000 |  |
|  | $\text { Patticondah from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Kylasghur ...0.0.000.0.0.0.0.0.0.0.0.0. } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 194447.4 \\ & 2524.52 .9 \end{aligned}$ |

TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.

Kylasghur from Pilloor Hill 1744382.3

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Arigles. | 遃 |  | 容 | Anglè́s for Calculation. | Distance in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 48 | Kylasghur $\qquad$ <br> Pilloor Hill <br> Bodeemulla $\qquad$ | $35^{\circ}$ $25^{\prime}$ $37^{\prime \prime} .05$ <br> 50 36 21.07 <br> 93 58 6.45 | $\begin{aligned} & -0.8 \\ & -0.7 \\ & -1.7 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}35 & 25^{\prime} & 35^{\prime \prime} .5 \\ 50 & 38 & 20.5 \\ 93 & 58 & 4 .\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | $18000 \quad \$ .57$ |  | $3^{\prime} .2$ | +1':37 | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | Bodeemulla fr | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} K \\ P \end{array}\right.$ | asgh <br> or |  |  | $3508 \varepsilon \sim$ $013 \varepsilon$ |

Kylasghur from Bodeemulla 135085.8


Kylasghur from Patticondah 194447.5


TRIANGLES, taken up at the Base, and continued back to Perracondah ana Kylasghur..
N. end of the Base from the S. end of the Base 39793.7

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. | 兑 |  | 亩 | Angles for Calculation. | Distance |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| . 51 | N. end of the Base <br> S. end of the Base <br> Muntapum Station | $89^{\circ}$ $19^{\prime}$ $20^{\prime} .75$ <br> 33 44 0.06 <br> 56 56 41.42 | $\begin{array}{r} -0.12 \\ -0.06 \\ -0.06 \end{array}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{ll} 89^{\prime \prime} & 19 \\ 33 & 20^{\prime \prime} \\ 33 & 43 \\ 56 & 59.3 \\ 50.7 \end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | 1800002.23 |  | $0^{\prime} .24$ | 1".99 | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | Muntapum | tion fr | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \mathrm{s} \\ \mathrm{~s} \end{array}\right.$ | d | e Base .... | 26365.95 <br> 47475.03 |

S. end of the base from Muntapum Station 47475.03


Muntapum Station from Bonnairgottah 72811.7


## ACCOUNT OF TRIGONOMETRICAL

TRIANGLES-CONTINURD.
Bonnairgottah from Tirtapully Hill 138492.9


With the sides Muntapum centre from Tirtapully hill 108705.1 set, and Muntapum centre from Savendroog $=108661.6$ feet, and et included angle at Muntapum $=167^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 29^{\prime \prime} .3$ the side Savenoog from Tirtapally hill is found $=216038.9$ feet.

Again with the sides Bonnairgottah from Tirtapully hill 138492.9 et, and Bonnairgottah from Savendroog $=107968.7$ feet, and the sluded angle at Bonnairgottah $=121 \circ 58^{\prime} 19^{\prime \prime}$ the side Savendroog m Tirtapully hill is found $=216038.8$ feet differing from the ove $\frac{1}{10}$ of a foot, and of which the mean is 216038.85 feet.

TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.

Savendroog from Tirtapully Hill 216038.85.

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. | 范 |  | 安 | Angles for Calculation. | Distance in |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 56 | Savendroog ..... . <br> Tirtapully Hill .... <br> Deorabetta | $\begin{array}{ll} 53^{\circ} 36^{\prime} & 47^{\prime \prime} .5 \\ 46 & 42 \\ 79 & 90 \\ 70 & 52.5 \end{array}$ |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{ll} 53^{\circ} 96^{\prime} & 45^{\prime \prime} .5 \\ 46 & 52 \\ 79 & 40 \\ 70 & 52 \end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | 1800004.9 |  | $6^{\prime} .6$ | -1".7 | 180000 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $1 \begin{aligned} & 159828.8 \\ & 17675.8 \end{aligned}$ |
| 57 | Savendroog ....... <br> Tirtapully Hill .... <br> Nundydroog...... | $\begin{array}{lll} 37 & 4.4 & 43.15 \\ 70 & 48 & 419 \\ 71 & 26 & 38.55 \end{array}$ |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}37 & 44 & 41.25 \\ 70 & 48 & 42.5 \\ 71 & 26 & 36.25\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | 1800003.6 |  |  | -3.1 | 1800000 |  |
|  | $\text { Nundydroog from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Savendroog . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . } \\ \text { Tirtapully Hill. . . . . . . . . . . . } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |  | $\text { - } \begin{array}{r} 215226.3 \\ -394.99 .8 \end{array}$ |

Tirtapully Hill from Nundydroog 1:39499.8.

| 513144.03 | -1.0 |  |  | 513143 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 562344 | -1.0 |  |  | 562342.5 |
| $72 \quad 435.47$ | -1.2 |  |  | 724345 |
| 180003.5 |  | 3.15 | +35 | 1800000 |



TRIANGLES-CONTINURD.
Tirtapully Hill from Rymandroog 122112.3.


Tirtapully Hill fram Deorabetta 176775.8.


TRIANGLES-ODNTINUBD.
Tirtappuly, Hidl frasn Ankiaggherry 150322.7.

| TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. | 葂 |  | 品 | Angles for Calcnlation. | Distance in |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tirtapully Hill... Ankissgherry Yerracondah | $\begin{array}{ccc} 38^{\circ} & 16^{\prime \prime} & 9.25 \\ \dot{69} & \cdot & \cdot \\ 50 & 35 & .4 \end{array}$ | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & -0^{\prime \prime} .9 \\ & -1.2 \end{aligned}\right.$ |  |  | $38^{\circ} 16^{\prime} 8^{\prime \prime} .25$ <br> $\begin{array}{lll}71 & 53 & 17.5\end{array}$ <br> $6950 \quad 34.25$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | 1800000 |  |
| $\text { Yerracondah from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Tirtapully Hill } \ldots \text {.............. } \\ \text { Ankissgherry } \ldots . . . . . . . . . . . . . \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} 152196.3 \\ 99177.5 \end{gathered}$ |

Tirtapully Hill from Yerracondah 152:96.9.

| Tirtapully Hill Yerracondah. . Rymandroog | $\begin{array}{lll} 93 & 5 & 51.3 \\ 37 & 31 & 19.39 \\ 49 & 22 & 54.58 \end{array}$ | \|r $\begin{array}{r}-213 \\ -1.03 \\ -1.04 \\ \hline\end{array}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}93 & 5 & 49 \\ 37 & 31 & 18 \\ 49 & 22 & 53\end{array}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1800005.26 |  | 4.2 | +1.06 | 1800000 |  |
|  | mandroog | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{T} \\ \mathbf{Y} \end{array}\right.$ |  | y Hill <br> dah . |  | $\begin{aligned} & 122121.2 \\ & 200214.3 \end{aligned}$ |

Che side from Tirtapully hill to Yerracondah is the mean distance nd in the triangles Tirtapully hill, Deorabetta, and Yerracondah Tirtapully hill, Ankissgherry and Yerracondah.

Yerracondak from Rymandroog 200214.3.


## TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.



Series of triangles direct from the Base near Bangalore, to Ma galore on the Malabar coast.
IV. ANGLES.

## At Dodagoontah Station.



At Savendroog.



> At Devaroydroog.

|  | At Devaroydroog. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\left.\begin{array}{ccccc\|}\text { Cheetkul Hill............Rungaswamy Hill } 82 & 48 & 18 \\ 18\end{array}\right\}$ |  |  | 17.62 |
| Bomanelly .........n....Savendroog........... 893342 , |  |  | 44.8 |
| Savendroog ..............Nundydroog .........79 52 `7.75 |  |  |  |
|  |  | 8.75 |  |
|  |  |  | 8.45 |
|  |  | $8.25$ |  |



## At Bomanelly Hill.

Hytalloo Flag ....co.......Mullapunnabetta 17540

OPERATLONS EN THE PENANGULA.
At Bomanethy ATill, cortinued.


## At Mullapunnabetta.




At Mullapunnabetta, contihued.



## A4 Bundhully.



## At. Cheetkul Hills



At Mysoor Hilld.

oferations fin tee pritisula. At Mysoor Hill, continued.

| Between Referring Flago...oMMapunnabe ta | $\left.\begin{array}{r} 17^{\prime} 47^{\prime} 28^{\nu} \cdot \\ 25,45 \\ 27,89 \\ 28.5 \\ 27 \\ 27,5 . \\ 25.25 \\ 25.5 \\ 25.43 \end{array}\right\}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Referring Flag. ......Bundhully Hill Savendroog. .... | $\begin{array}{r} 552645.22 \\ \cdot 108 \quad 1745.19 \end{array}$ |
| Bundhully Hill . . . . . Sayendroog .. . . . | 525059.97 |
| Referring Flağ....... $\begin{gathered}\text { Seyendreog }-. . .9 .0 \\ \text { Mullapunnabetta }\end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1081745.19 \\ & 1774726.5 \end{aligned}$ |
| Saxendroog . . . . . . Mullapunnabetta | .73 54.48.31. |

At Daesaunéegooda.


At Koondeorbetta.


$$
Y 4
$$

At Koondoorbetta, continued.

## Between <br> And

Mullapunnabetta.... Daesauneegooda $53^{\circ} 57^{\prime} 31^{\prime \prime} .17$ Hannabetta …119 3416.25

Daesauneegooda .... Hannabetta .... 653645 .08
Mullapunnabetta.... Balroyndroog..... 1411047.25
Koondhully Hill .... Balroyndroog. ... $75 \cdot 1217.37$
Mullapunnabetta .... Koondhully Hill ${ }^{-} 1433655.38$


At Hannabetta.


At Balroyndraog.

Koondhully HiH .... Bullamally Hill .. 81 12 11 . 66

At Buillamully.
Koondhully Hill . . . . Balroyndroog . . . $\left.57 \begin{array}{lll}46 & 30 \\ 29.25\end{array}\right)$

$$
27.25
$$

31.5
$30^{\prime \prime} .42$

$$
81.75
$$

32.75



Goompay Hill $\ldots . . . . \begin{array}{llll}\text { Kunnoor Hill } \ldots . . & 81 & 27 & 45.14 \\ & \text { Kuddapoonabetta } & 89 & 14 \\ 45.56\end{array}$
Kunnoor Hill .......Kuddapoonabetta 74656.42
Balroyndroog ....... Bullanaudgooda .. 805319.19
Bullanaudgooda ....Goompay Hill.... 791742.17

At Buillamally, continued.


## At Ungargooda.



At Booggargooda.



| Ungargooda |
| :---: |
| $\cdots$ |
| $\because .21$. |

54. 

55.75

$$
56.5
$$

53.75

## At Treejar Hill.



## At $t^{\prime}$ Kuddapoohabettá.

| 31. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

Kunnöor Hill $\quad$.... $\left.4838 \begin{array}{r}44.25 \\ 46.75\end{array}\right\} \quad 45.5$

it Kuinoor Hill. .
Bullamully Hill.... Kuddapoonabetta $\left.\begin{array}{llll}123 & 34 & 21.25 \\ 21\end{array}\right\} \quad 21.12$
V. TRIANGLES.

Bonnairgottah from Savendroog 107968.7

| TRIANGLES. | Ohed. Adgles. | 域 |  | 产 | Angles for Calculation. | Ditańce in $;$ Seet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bonnairgottah $\qquad$ <br> Savendroeg: $\qquad$ <br> Dodagoontah Stat ${ }^{n}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 613451.29 | 0.52 |  |  | 613450.8 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | 1800000 |  |
| $\text { Dodagoontah Station from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Bonnairgottah ............. } \\ \text { Savendroog .............. } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} 70556.7 \\ 121938.2 \end{gathered}$ |

## TRIANGLES－CONTINUED．

Savendroog from Deorabetta 159828．8．

| No． | TRIANGLES． | Obsd．Angles． | 苞 | 或菏 | 京 | Angles for Calculation． | Distance feet． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 67 | Savendroog <br> Deorabetta <br> Bundhully ．．．．．． | $\begin{array}{ll} 44^{\circ} 41^{\prime} & 40^{\prime \prime} .93 \\ 97 & 47 \\ 57 \\ 37 & 30 \\ 30.75 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | ＇${ }^{\prime \prime}$ |  |  |  | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} 260072 \\ 184620.5 \end{array}\right.$ |
|  |  | $1800008: 8$ |  | 6 m .9 | ＋1＂${ }^{\prime \prime} 9$ | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | ndhully from | Saven <br> Deora |  |  |  |  |

Savendroog from Nundydroog 215226．3．


Savendroog from Deorabetta 159828．8．


## TRIANGLES－Continued．

Savendroog from Allasoor Hill 145859.1

| RTA PTGLES． | Obsd．Augles． | 它． |  | －㞻 | Angles for Calculation． | Distance in feet． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ndroog <br> soor Hill：．．．．．．．． <br> きtkul Hill ．．．．．． | $55^{\prime \prime} 41^{\prime} 34{ }^{\prime \prime} .9$ ¢ | －1＂\％ 3 |  |  | $55^{\prime} 41^{\prime} 32^{\prime \prime} .8$ | 145924.8 <br> 136292.3 |
|  | 621043.71. | － $1 \rightarrow .4$ | ： |  | 621041.5 |  |
|  | 62 47.87 | －1． 4 |  |  | 62745.7. |  |
|  | 1800006.5 |  | 4＂． 2 | $+2^{\prime \prime} .3$ | 1800000 |  |
| $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Savendroog ............................. } \\ \text { Allasoor .................................... } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Savendroog from Cheetkul Hill 145924.8


Savendroog from Devaroydrcog 167229.25


## TRIANGLES - CONTINURD.

Savendroog from Bamarelly Hilll 265594.9


Savendroog from Bundhully Hìill 260072


Sapendroog from Myseor Hill 381385.4


## TRIANGLES-CONFINTBP.

| Savendroog from Mullapunnabetta 357641.2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| inA NGLES; | Obsd. Angles. | 免 |  | $\stackrel{\vdots}{4}$ | Angles for - Calculation. | Distance in ffet. |
| Idroog Station ppannabeita anelly Hifli.. | $\begin{array}{r\|r\|} 280 & 48^{\prime} \\ 45 & 2^{\prime \prime} .85 \\ 105 & 41^{\prime} \\ 105 & 31.87 \\ \hline 1.06 \end{array}$ | $-2^{\prime \prime}$ -1.3 -7.5 |  |  | $\begin{array}{cccc}28^{\circ} & 48 \\ 45 & 000 \\ 41 & 41 \\ 105 & 26 \\ 1050 & 30.6\end{array}$ |  |
|  | $1800^{\circ} 0^{\prime} 8.78$ |  | $10^{\prime \prime} 8$ | " 02 | 1800000 | ; - |
| Bomanelly Hill from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Savendroog .................... } \\ \text { Mullapunnabetta .............. }\end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |  | $265 \$ 92.8$ 178807.7 |

Savendroog from Muellapunnabetta 357641.2

| ıvendroog ${ }^{*}$ Station Culkapunnabetta lysdor Hill..... | $\begin{array}{lll}46 & 23 & 6.26 \\ 59 & 42 & 21.78 \\ 73 & 54 & 48.31\end{array}$ | -5.7 -6.3 -7.7 |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}46 & 23 & 0.5 \\ 59 & 42 & 15.5 \\ 73 & 54 & 44\end{array}$ | 321387.6 <br> 2694/7.5 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $180 \quad 0016.35$ |  | 19.7 | $-3.35$ | 1800000 |  |
|  | ysoor Hill fr |  |  |  |  |  |

Mullapunnabetta from Bomanelly 178807.7.


## TRIANGLES-CONTINURD.

## Mullapunnabetta from Daèsauneegooda 134840.9.

| No. | TRIANGLES، | Obsd.'Angles. |  |  | 它 | Angles for Calculation. | Distance feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 79 | Mullapuinriabetta .. <br> Daesauneegooda .. <br> Hamiabelta | $\begin{array}{rrr} 49^{\circ} & 25^{\wedge} & 48^{\prime \prime} .27 \\ 89 & 54 & 6.00 \end{array}$ | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & -1^{\prime \prime} .25 \\ & -2.37 \end{aligned}\right.$ | $\therefore$ | i. | $\begin{array}{llll}49 & 25^{\prime} & 47^{\prime \prime} \\ 89 & 54 & 3.6 \\ 40 & 40 & 90\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | - | 180.0000 |  |
|  |  | Hannabetta fro | $\text { om }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Mul } \\ \text { Dae } \end{array}\right.$ |  | gabet |  |  |

Mullapunnabetta from Hannabelta 206922.5


Mullapunnabetta from Daesauneejooda 134849.9


TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.

Dacsamneegooda from Hanmabetta 157180.4

| No. | 'TBIANGLES. | Obed: Angles. | - 苞 |  | 兌 | Angles for Galculation. | Distance in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 82 | $\left\|\begin{array}{lll} \text { Daesaimeesooda } & \text {. } \\ \text { Hannabetta } & \cdots & . \end{array}\right\|$ | $\begin{aligned} & 42^{\circ} 50^{\prime} 40^{\prime \prime} .37 \\ & 71 \\ & 71 \\ & 65 \\ & \hline 6 \end{aligned} \frac{34}{46} .00$ | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & -1^{\prime \prime} .2 \\ & -1.5 \\ & -1.4 \end{aligned}\right.$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}42^{\circ} \cdot 50^{\prime} & 40^{\prime \prime} .4 \\ 71 & 32 & 34.7 \\ 65 & 38 & 44.9\end{array}$ | , |
|  |  | $18000 \quad 0.45$ |  | *" ${ }^{\prime \prime} 1$ | $-3^{\prime \prime} .65$ | $1800000$ |  |
|  |  | Hill fron | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Daesa } \\ \text { Hann } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & 183701.8 \\ & 117355.7 \end{aligned}\right.$ |

Hannabetta from Koondoorbetta 117355.7


Mullaputnabetta fram Koondoorbetta 122081.4 '


The side Mullapunnabetta from Koondoorbetta is the mean distance had from the 80th and 81 st triangle.

TRIANGLES－CONTINUED．

## Koondoorbetta from Koondhully Hill 96366.3

| No． | TRIANGLES． | Obsd．Angles． | 遒 |  | 安定 | Angles for Calculation． | Distance in feet． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 85 | Koondoorbetta Koondhully Hill Balroyndroog．a．．．．．．． | $\begin{array}{ccc} 75^{\circ} 12^{\prime} & 17^{\prime \prime} .37 & -1^{\prime} .7 \\ \bullet & ! & \\ \bullet & \cdot & \end{array}$ |  |  | － | $\begin{array}{ccc} 750 & 12 & 15.67 \\ 78 & 48 & 9.73 \\ 25.59 & 34.6 \end{array}$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 1800000 |  |
|  | $\underline{\mathbf{B}}$ | oyndroog |  |  |  |  | 215698 <br> 212592.8 |

Koondoorbetta from Mullapunnabetta 122081.4

86


Mullapunnabetta from Koondhully Hill 207682．8．

$$
87
$$



TRIANGLES-continukd.
Koondhully Hill from Balroyndroog 212588.5


The side Koondhully hill from Balroyndroog is the mean distance. found in the 85th and 87th triangle.

Balroyndroog from Bultamully 164944.6


The supplemental chord angle at Bullamully, between Meejar hill and Ungargooda, corrected, is subtracted from the observed angle between Balroyndroog and Meejar hill, to get the angle at Bultamully, between Balroyndroog and Ungargeoda, as an observed one.

$$
\text { Z. } 2
$$

Bullamully from Ungägooda $\mathbf{7} 9345.5$


At Meejar hill, the supplemental chord angle between Booggargooda and Ungargooda, corrected as an observed one, and subtracted from the observed angle between Booggargooda and Büllamully, gives the angle between Bullamully and Ungargooda as an observed angle.

Bullamully from Merjar: Station 104.550 .2


BECTION. III.
Southern series of triangles, commencing from I Rell.punnabettd and Mysoor hill, and continued to. $\geq$ Mulabar coast, terminating with the distance $\cdots<\mathrm{m}$ Bullamully to Kunnoor station, which is also $\rightarrow$ - ought but by the northern series.
vi. ANGLES.

At Mysoor Hill.
Between And Feeferring Flag. .......Multapunnabetta $\quad 177^{\circ} 77^{\prime} 26^{\circ}$, ${ }_{25.45}$
27.89
28.5
27.
$26^{\prime \prime} .50$
27.5
25.25
25.5
25.43

Beitatipoor Hill ••136 0658.65 )
$\left.\begin{array}{l}57.42 \\ 56.25\end{array}\right\} .67 .01$
55.73 )
$\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { Referring flag, } & \ldots . & \text {. } & \text { Mullapunnabetta } & 177 & 47 & 26.50 \\ & & \text { Bettatipoor Hill } & \cdots & 136 & 06 & 57.01\end{array}$
Mullapunnabetta .... Bettatipoor Hill . . 414029.49

10.75
12.75
12.25

14
10.5

12
12.25

14
18.25
14.5
12.75

Bettatipoor Hill •. 12 | 26 | 40.75 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 185 |  |

38.5
40.5
39.5
40.75
39.25
40.75
40.5

40
39.25 At Mullapunnabetta, continued.




## OPERATIONS IN THE PENINSULA.

## At Mount Dilli.



## At Kunduddakamully.



$$
\text { Z } 4
$$



## At Bullamully.


VII. TRIANGLES.

Mullapunnabetta from Mysoor Hill 2009477.5


Mullapunnabetta from Bettatipoor Hill 179294.4

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Helll } \\ & \text { eil } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{ll} 46 & 38 \\ 83 & 26.03 \\ 85.11 .26 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} -1.98 \\ -3.23 \end{array}$ |  | $\begin{array}{llll}46 & 38 & 24 \\ 83 & 35 & 8 \\ 49 & 46 & 28\end{array}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | 1800000 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

Bettatipoor Hill from Soobramanee 170734,


Soobramanee Hill from Taddiandamole 163730.4


The supplemental chord angle at Taddiandamole, between Kunluddakamully and Mount Dilli, reduced as an observed one, is subracted from the angle Soobramanee hill and Mount Dilli, as oberved at Taddiandamole, to give the angle Kunddudakamuilly and roobramanee hill. The station at Kunduddakamully could not be een when the angles were taken at Taddiandamole.

Taddiandamole from Kunduddakamully 149160.2

| nully | 69 18 26 81 -1.61 <br> 60 21 28 .08 -1.44 | 50 20 8.26 <br> 69 18 25.10 <br> 60 21 26.64 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 1800000 |  |
| Mount Dilli from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Taddiandamole ............... } \\ \text { Kunduddakamully ....an...... }\end{array}\right.$ |  |  | 160548,9 <br> 132113 |

The supplemental chord angle at Kunduddakamully, between Mount Ditli and Munjuimpiuddy, made as an observed angle by ap̈plying the correction, and subtracted from the observed angle between Munjuimpuddy and Taddiandumole, gives the angle Mount Dilli and Taddiandamole as an obseryed angle.

TRIANGLES-Continued.

Kunduddakamully from Mount Dilli 132113


In this triangle the same supplemental chord angle between Mount Dilli and Munjuimpuddy, corrected, is added to the observed angle at Kunduddakamully; between Baekul and Munjuimpuddy, to get the observed angle between Mount Dilli and Baekul.

Kunduddakamully from Baekul 70102


## ACCOUNT OF TRIGONOMETRICAL

TRIANGLES-cọntinutd.
Kusduddakamully from Goompay Hill 126145.9.

| No | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. | 苞 |  | 星 | Angles for Calculation. | Distance in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Kunduddakamully <br> Goompay Hilt $\qquad$ <br> Ballanandgooda $\qquad$ | $\begin{aligned} & 86^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 99^{\circ} .35 \\ & 834440.95 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \sigma^{\prime} .6 \\ -0.7 \end{gathered}$ | - |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 1800000 |  |
|  | Ba | ndgooda | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} k \\ \dot{G} \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 133429.4 \\ & 69355.8 \end{aligned}$ |

Goompay Hill from Ballanandgooda 59355.8


Goompay Hill from Bullamülly 54990.2


The same side Bullamully from Kunnoor hill brought out dow from the northern series is 71655.7 feet: therefore the mean will b 716.57 .55 feet. Hence, as the side Bullamully from Kunnoor hill brought down from the northern series, is the mean, so is the sid Mecjar hill and Kuddapoonabetta, brought down from the northerı series, to 59764.6 feet, as derived from the mcan of both series.

TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.
Meejar Hill from Kudapoonabetta 50764.6


## ACCOUNT OF TRIGONOMETRICAL

SECONDARY TRIANGLES.

Kudapoonabetta from Kooliebogooda 36956.5

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. | Distances from the infersected Objects in Feet. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Eedgak Station from Kooliebogooda 39680.7

| Eedgah Station | 660943 |  | 10073 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kooliebogooda ..' | 14.30 24 | $\}$ Station on the Beach $\{$ | 36782.3 |
| Station on the Beach | 991953 |  |  |

Bullamully from Goompay Hill 54990.2

| Bullamully . . . . . . | 763733 |  | 91763.7 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Goompay Hill . . . | 691659 | \} Mangalore ........ | 95446.7 |
| Mangalore ...... | 340528 |  |  |

Bullamully from Kunnoor Station 71659.4

| Bullamully . . . . . | 4. 5012 | \} Mangalore . . . . . . . . \{ | 91761.4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kunnoor Station . -- | 1583757 | $\}$ Mangalore $\cdots \cdots \cdots\}$ | 21234.9 |
| Mangalore . . . . . | 163151 |  |  |

Moant Dilli from Kunduddakamully 132113

| Mount Dilli...... | 1321039 | Ca | 87563.4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kunduddakamully | 184624 | \} Cannanore $\cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots$ | 201632.7 |
| Cannanore | 290257 |  |  |

Taddiandamole from Mount Dilli 160548.9


Taddiandamole from Cannanore 157072


Taddiandamole from Station in Redoubt 171686.4:

| Taddiandamole .. | 2926 |  | 175846.6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Station in Redoubt | 1325233 | \} Lellicherry ........\{ | 6143.1 |
| Tellicherry . . . . . | 463801 |  |  |

## SECTION Iv.

Latitude of Dodagoontah Station, with the position of its. Meridian.
Dodagoontah station is selected as the point of departure in preference to the observatory at Madras, as it is nearly in the middle of the Peninsula, and its meridian is intended to be carried down to Cape Comorin. It has already been extended below the latitude of $11^{\circ}$, and the series of triangles from which it is deduced, being to form the foundation of all the branches which may hereafter be carried to each coast, I have considered it as the properest meridian to which all latitudes and relative longitudes should be referred.
8. Zenith distances of stars observed at Dodagoontah, with their corrections for precession, nutation, aberration, and the semi-annual solar equation, back to the beginning of the year 1805, for determining the latitude of that station.
observations at dodagoontah.
a SERPENTIS.
nearest point on the himb $5^{\circ} 55^{\prime}$ S.

| 1805. | 违 | Obsd. Zenith Distances. | 发: | Correct Zenith Distances. | Thermometers. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Montb. |  |  |  |  | Upper. | Lower. |
| July 10. | E. | $5^{\circ} 57^{\prime} 04{ }^{\prime \prime} 49$ | 7 7".14 | $5^{\circ} 56^{\prime} 57^{\prime \prime} .35$ | $70^{\circ}$ | $70^{\circ}$ |
| 12. | W. | 55659.38 | 6.93 | $5 \quad 5652.45$ | 73 | 73 |
| 15. | E. | 55707.74 | 6.64 | 55701.10 | 79.5 | 79 |
| 18. | W. | 55654.73 | 6.36 | 55648.37 | 78' | 78 |
| ${ }^{\prime} 19$. | E. | $557 \quad 9.64$ | 6.26 | 5573.38 | 76 | 76 |
| 24. | W. | 55659.24 | 5.82 | 55653.43 | 79.5 | 79 |
| 26. | E. | 55705.74 | 5.66 | 55700.08 | 75.5 | 75 |
| 27. | W. | 55652.13 | 5.58 | 55646.55 | 79 | 79 |
| 29. | E. | 55659.41 | 5.43 | 55653.98 | 72 | 72 |
| 31. | W. | 55652.73 | 5.28 | 55647.45 | 75.5 | 76 |
| 1806, June 19. | E. | '5 5616.76 | 19.08 | 55657.68 | 73 | 73 |
| 20. | W. | 55610.88 | 18.95 | 55651.93 | 72 | 72 |
| 22. | W. | '5. 5607.38 | 18.70 | 55648.68 | 76 | 76 |
| 23. | E. | 55618.21 | 18.57 | 55654.64 | 73 | 73 |
|  |  |  |  | Mean.... | 75.1 | 75.1 |

a HERCULIS．
NEAREST POINT ON THE LIMB $1^{\circ} 35^{\prime}$ N．

| 1805. | 蓫 | Obsd．Zenith Distance． | 发竒 | Correct Zenith Distance． | Thermometers． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month． |  |  |  |  | Upper． | Lower． |
| July 12. | E． | $1^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 19.83$ | $\stackrel{+}{+}$ | $1^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime} .22$ | $68^{\circ}$ | $69^{\circ}$ |
| 16. | E． | 13720.53 | 0.27 | ． 13720.26 | 72.5 | 73 |
| 19. | W． | 13737.14 | 0.73 | 13736.41 | 75 | 76 |
| 28. | W． | 13735.88 | 2.03 | 13733.85 | 74 | 74 |
| 29. | E． | 13722.55 | 2.16 | 13720.39 | 76 | 76 |
| 31. | E． | 13723.16 | 2.42 | 13720.74 | 69 | 68.5 |
| August 2. | W． | 13735.26 | 2.66 | 13732.60 | 77.5 | 77.5 |
| Aug 7. | E． | 13724.76 | 3.26 | 13721.50 | 71.5 | 72 |
| 8. | W． | 13736.89 | 3.37 | 13733.52 | 71.5 | 71 |
| 9. | E． | － 1325.56 | 3．48 | 13722.08 | 71 | 71 |
| 10. | W． | 13736.79 | 3.58 | 13733.21 | 73 | 73 |
| 12. | E． | 113724.76 | 3.78 | 13720.98 | 74 | 74 |
| 14. | W． | 13797.87 | 3.98 | 13739.89 | 74 | 74 |
| 16. | E． | 1－37 27.06 | 4.17 | 13722.89 | 71.5 | 71 |
|  |  |  |  | Mean．．．． | 73 | 73.5 |

a OPHIUCHI．
nearest point on the limb $0^{\circ} 15^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ ．

| July 12. | E． | 01714.49 | $\stackrel{+}{+}$ | 01714.78 | 69 | 70 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| July 13. | W． | 0.7703 .10 | 0.46 | 01703.36 | 71 | 72 |
| 15. | E． | 01718.54 | 0.77 | 01714.31 | 71 | 71.5 |
| 19. | E． | 01711.60 | 1.43 | 01713.03 | 75 | 75 |
| 22. | W． | 01659.10 | 1.89 | 01700.99 | 74 | 74 |
| 28. | E． | 01710.74 | 2.76 | 0 O 171713.50 | 74 | 74 |
| 29. | W． | 01657.63 | 2.89 | $01700 \cdot 52$ | 76.5 | 76 |
| 30. | E． | 01709.24 | 3.02 | 01712.26 | $77{ }^{\circ}$ | 77 |
| 31. | W． | 01658.93 | 3.15 | 01702.08 | 69.5 | 69 |
| August | E． | 01708.51 | 4.02 | 01712.53 | 72 | 72 |
|  | W． | 01657.24 | 4.14 | 01701.38 | 71 | 71 |
|  | E． | 01709.08 | 4.25 | 0 17－13．33 | 71 |  |
| 10.12.14.17. | W． | 01657.76 | 4.36 | 01702.12 | 73 | 73 |
|  | E． | 01707.54 | 4.58 | 01712.12 | 73 | 73 |
|  | W． | 0.1655 .13 | 4.78 | 01659.91 | 7.4 | 74 |
|  | E． | 0178.74 | 5.07 | － 1713.81 | 72.5 | 72.5 |
|  |  |  |  | Mean．．．． | 72.7 | 72.8 |

, AQUILE.
NEAREST POINT ON THE LIMB $\boldsymbol{2}^{\circ} 50^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$.

| 1805. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { む } \\ & \text { むum } \end{aligned}$ | Observed Zenith Distance. | نٍ | Correct Zenith Distance. | Thermometer. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. |  |  |  |  | Upper. | Lower. |
| July 12. | E. | $2^{\circ} 50^{\prime} 55^{\prime \prime} .13$ | 7"'96 | $2^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 03^{\prime \prime} .09$ | $67^{\circ} .5$ | $68^{\circ}$ |
| 13. | W. | 25042.80 | 8.17 | 25050.97 | 70 | 70 |
| 15. | E. | 25051.50 | 8.57 | $251 \quad 0.07$ | 69 | 70 |
| 16. | W. | 25042.50 | 8.77 | 25051.27 | 70 | 71 |
| 19. | E. | 25055.50 | 9.36 | 2514.86 | 74 | 73 |
| 22. | W. | 25037.40 | 9.94 | 25047.34 | 73 | 72.5 |
| 31. | E. | 25050.40 | 11.58 | $\begin{array}{lll}2 & 51 & 1.98\end{array}$ | 69 | 69 |
| August 7. | W. | 25039.40 | 12.76 | 25052.16 | 70 | 70 |
| - 8. | E. | 25046.13 | 12.92 | 25059.05 | 69.5 | 70 |
| 9. | W. | 25040.75 | 13.08 | 25053.83 | 70 | 70 |
| 10. | E. | 250499.50 | 13.24 | 2512.74 | 70 | 70 |
| 12. | W. | 25038.33 | 13.55 | 25051.88 . | 73 | 72 |
| 13. | E. | 25048.63 | 13.70 | 2512.33 | 70 | 70 |
| 17. | W. | 25038.30 | 14.27 | $2 \begin{array}{llll}2 & 50 & 52.57\end{array}$ | 72 | 72 |
| 20. | E. | 25049.00 | 14.70 | $251 \quad 3.70$ | 70 | 70 |
| 30. | W. | 25038.20 | 15.91 | 25054.11 | 72 | 72 |
|  |  |  |  | Mean.... | 70.6 | 70.6 |

ATAIR.
NRAREST POINTI ON THE LIMB 435 S.

| July 12. | E. | 43755.62 | $\begin{gathered} + \\ 8.49 \end{gathered}$ | 4.3804 .11 | 67.5 | 63 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 13. | W. | 43742.39 | 8.68 | 43751.07 | 70 | 70 |
| 15. | E. | 43756.47 | 9.07 | 43805.54 | 69 | 70 |
| 16. | W. | 43743.39 | 9.26 | 4. 3752.65 | 70 | 71 |
| 19. | E. | 43756.14 | 9.83 | $438 \quad 5.97$ | 73 | 72.5 |
| 22. | W. | 43742.01 | 10.41 | 4 37: 52.42 | 73 | 73 |
| 29. | E. | 4 47,53.89 | 11.65 | 4.88 5.54 | 74.5 | 74.5 |
| 30. | W. | 43740.39 | 11.82 | 43752.21 | 76 | 76 |
| 31. | E. | 43751.84 | 11.99 | $438 \quad 3.83$ | 69 | 69 |
| August 7. | W. | 43740.96 | 13.13 | 43754.09 | 71 | 71 |
| - 8. | E. | 43748.97 | 43:28 | 4 48,01.66 | 69.5 | 70 |
| 9. | W. | 43741.89 | 13.44 | 43755.33 | 70 | 70 |
| 10. | E. | 43748.34 | 13.59 | 438.1 .93 | 70 | 70 |
| 12. | W. | 4.3739 .76 | 13.89 | 43753.65 | 73 | 72 |
| 13. | E. | 43748.17 - | 14.04 | 438.2 .21 | 70 | 70 |
| 17. | W. | :4 377 i41. 86 | 14.60 | 43756.45 | 72 | 72 |
| 20. | E. | 437 A9.37 | 14.99 | 4.38. 4.36 | 7.0 | 70 |
| 30. | W. | 4373782 | 16.16 | 4.137 54.05 | . 72 | 72 |
|  |  |  |  | Mean.... | 71.1 | 71.2 |

NEAREST FOINT ON THE LIMB $7^{\circ} 5^{\prime} \mathbf{S}$ ．

| ． 1806. | 㐌 | Observed Zenith Distance． | 边定定 | Correct Zenith Distance． | Thernometer． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month． |  |  |  |  | Upper． | Lower． |
| August 25. | E． | $7{ }^{\circ} 03^{\prime} 38{ }^{\prime \prime} .62$ | $\underset{26^{\prime \prime} .27}{+}$ | $704^{7}$ 4＇ 4 ＂． 89 | $76^{\circ}$ | $76^{\circ}$ |
| 26． | W． | 70329.87 | 26.37 | $7 \quad 356.24$ | 72 | 73 |
| 27. | E． | 70340.87 | 26.47 | 7 4 7 ．34 | 71 | 71 |
|  |  | ， |  | Mean．．．． | 73 | 73.3 |

ARCTURUS．
NEAREST POINT ON THE LIMB 710 N．

| $\begin{aligned} & 1805 . \\ & \text { July } 11 . \end{aligned}$ | W． | 71212.43 | $\underset{7.50}{t}$ | 71219.93 | 74.5 | 74． 5 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 13. | E． | 71158.13 | 7.36 | 71265.49 | 74 | 74． 5 |
| 16. | W． | 71211.36 | 7.16 | 71218.52 | 77 | 77 |
| 22. | E． | 71159.98 | 6.85 | $7 \quad 12 \quad 6.83$ | 80 | 79.5 |
| 26. | W． | 71213.26 | 6.60 | 71219.95 | 84 | 83 |
|  |  |  |  | Mean．．．． | 77.9 | 77.7 |

MARKAB．
NEAREST POINT ON THE LIMB 10 N．

，PEGAST．
nearest point ón the timb 15 N

| August 22. | E． | 1 | 621.26 | $24.04$ |  | 557.22 | 68 | 69 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 23. | W． | 1 | 631.63 | 24.42 | 1 | 607.21 | 70 | 71 |
| 27. | E． | 1 | 623.50 | 24.93 | 1 | 558.56 | 68 | 69 |
| 30. | W． | 1 | 635.13 | 25.44 | 1 | 609.69 | 68 | 70 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | Mean．．．． | 68.5 | 69.8 |

Means of the Zenith Distances taken on the right and , left Arcs, corrected for refraction, equation of the sectorial tube, and the mean runs of the Micrometer.

Previous to this arrangement of the zenith distances it may be proper to say a few words on the different corrections here mentioned.

The refraction is had from the tables of mean refraction, and no notice taken of the barometer or thermometer, or of the heights of, the stations above the level of the sea, considering it doubtful what corrections to apply until observations are made, and tables of refraction constructed, for this climate, and for different elevations.

The corrections for the micrometer were determined by taking the runs between every dot on the arc when the mean temperature was $74^{\circ}$, it having been discovered upon more minute attention, that one degree on the limb was more than 3600 divisions marked seconds on the micrometer; and the average of all the results gave 3604. Therefore one minute counted by that scale required a deduction of $0^{\prime \prime} .066$ to give its true measure from the nearest dot. In all these observations two thermometers were used, one opposite the upper axis, the other opposite the arc, and the experiments for ascertaining the runs were made when the thermometers stood at the same degree.

This error in the scale of the micrometer has doubtless arisen in a great measure from the unequal expansion of the sectorial tube and the frame which carries it, whereby the point of the screw does not coincide with the centre of the steel plate against which it presses, and in consequence causes a greater equation than what would arise simply from the expansion of
the arc while the point rested on the centre of the plate. Exclusive of the above correction, I have endeavoured to make some allowance for the variation. of temperature from $74^{\circ}$, but $I$ have found it too trifling to be noticed.

- The correction for the sectorial tube, is a smali equation which arises when the temperature above is different from that below; on which account the expansion and contraction of the tube are not in the same ratio with those of the arc. This irregularity, like the last, is in general very inconsiderable, though the correction for it is taken into account.


## ZENITH DISTANCES at Dodagoontah, arranged and finally corrected.

« SERPENTIS.

| 1805. | ' Left Arc. | 1805. | Right Arc. | Meas. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. |  | Month. |  |  |
| July 10. | $5^{\circ} 56^{\prime} 57^{\prime} .35$ | July 12. | $5^{\circ} 56^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime} .45$ | Mean ....... . $5^{\circ} 56^{\prime} 53^{\prime \prime} .82$ |
| 15. | 5571.10 | 18. | 556.48 .37 | Refraction, \&c... + 5.82 |
| 19. | 55713.38 | 24. | 55653.42 | R ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| 26. | $557 \quad 0.08$ | 27. | 55646.55 | Zenith Distances 55659.64 |
| 29. | 55653.98 | . 31. | 55647.45 |  |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}306 . \\ \text { ane }\end{array}\right\} 19$. | 55757.68 | $\text { June }\} 20$ | 55651.93 | - |
| 23. | 55654.64 | - 22. | 55648.68 | 1 |
| Mean.... | 55657.67 | Mean.... | 55649.97 |  |

a HERCULIS.

a OPHIUCHI.


| July 12. | 251 | 3.09 | July 13. | 25050.97 | Mean ........ 2 50 57. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 15. | 251 | 0.07 | 16. | $2 \begin{aligned} & 2 \\ & 50 \\ & 2\end{aligned}$ | Refraction, \&c. +2. |
| 19. | 251 | 4,86 | 22. | 25047.34 |  |
| 31. | 251 | 1.98 | August 7. | 25052.16 | Zenith Distance 25059 |
| August 8. | 250 | 59.05 | 9. | 25053.83 |  |
| 10. | 251 | 2.74 | 12. | 25051.88 |  |
| 13. | 251 | 2.33 | 17. | 25052.57 |  |
| 20. | 251 | 3.70 | 30. | $250 \cdot 54.11$ |  |
| Mean. | 251 | 2.23 | Mean | 25051.77 |  |

ATAIR.

| 1805. | Left Arc. | 180. | Right Arc. | Mean. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. |  | Month. |  |  |
| July 12. | $4^{\prime \prime} 38^{\prime} .4{ }^{\prime \prime} .11$ | July 13. | $44^{3} 37^{\prime} 51^{\prime \prime} .07$ |  |
| ; 1.5 | $4.38 \quad 5.54$. | $\cdots 16$. | 4.3752 .65 | $\text { Refraction; \&c. } \quad+4 \&$ |
| - - $\quad 19$. | $\begin{array}{lll}4 & 38 & 5.97 \\ 4 & 38 & 5.54\end{array}$ | - 22. 30. | 437.52 .42 4.3752 .21 | Zenith Distance 4 38 3 S |
| $\begin{array}{r} \\ \hdashline \quad 29 . \\ \hdashline \quad 31 .\end{array}$ | $4.38-58.54$ $4.38-3.83$ | August ${ }^{30} 7$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \quad 37.52 .21 \\ & 4 \\ & 4 \\ & 47.54 .09 \end{aligned}$ | Zenith Distance 438 3.3 |
| agust 8. | $4{ }^{4} 38$, 1.66 | A 9 | 4.37 .55 .33 |  |
| 10. | 4381.93 | 12. | 43753.65 |  |
| 13. | $438 \quad 2.21$ | 17. | 4.37 .56 .45 |  |
| 20. | $438 \quad 4.36$ |  | 4.37 54.05 | , |
| Mean.... | $4.38 \quad 3.91$ | Mean.... | 43753.55 | - |

$\beta$ AQUILE.


MARKAB.

| 1805. ugust 14. | 1942.98 | August 13.17. | $\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 9 \cdot & 28.28 \\ .1 & .9 & 32.07 \end{array}$ | Mean $\ldots . . . . . .1 \quad 996.57$Refraction, \&c. +1.19 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 21. | 1941.58 |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & 23 . \\ & 28 . \\ & 80 \end{aligned}$ |  | 29. 1934.82 |  | Zenith Distance 1937.76 |  |
|  | $\begin{array}{llll}1 & 9 & 39.42 \\ 1 & 9 & 41.15\end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mean.... | 1'9 41.41 | Mean.... | 1931.73 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| gust 23. 80. <br> Tean.... | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 6 & 7.21\end{array}$ | August 22. 27. | 1557.22 | Mean $\ldots . . . . . . .1$ 6 3.17 <br> Refraction, $\& c$. + 1.06 |  |
|  | 169.69 |  | 1558.56 |  |  |
|  | 1688.45 | Mean.... 1 |  | Zenith Distance 1 |  |

ARCTURUS.

| 1805. July 11. | $7^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 190.93$ | July 13. 22. | $\begin{array}{lll} 7^{\circ} & 12^{\prime} & 5^{\prime} .49 \\ 7 & 12 & 6.83 \end{array}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 16. | 71218.52 |  |  |  |
| 26. | 71219.95 |  |  |  |
| Mean... | 71219.47 | Mean | 7126.16 |  |

The Latitude of Dodagoontah Station, deduced from the foregoing Stars.

| STARS. | From the beginning of 1805. |  | Latitude. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean Declination. | Correct Z. Distance. |  |
| Arcturas. | $20^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 19^{\prime \prime} .23 \mathrm{~N}$. | $7 \cdot 12^{\prime} 19^{\prime \prime} .84 \mathrm{~N} .$ | $12^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 59^{\prime \prime} .39 \mathrm{~N}$. |
| a Serpentis | $7{ }^{7} 30.3$ ' | 55659.64 S. | $59.97$ |
| a Herculis | 14 3730.96 | $1{ }^{1} 3728.99 \mathrm{~N}$. | 61.97 |
| a Ophiuchi | 124250.91 | $\mathrm{O}^{\circ} 1787.71 \mathrm{~S}$. | 58.62 |
| - Aquilx | 10858.34 | 25059.78 S. | 58.12 |
| Alair | 82153.53 | 438 3 34 S. | 56.87 |
| $\beta$ Aquilx | 5 55562.71 | 7 4 8.73 | 61.44 |
| Markab | $14 \quad 940.09$ | 1 l 937.76 N. | 62.33 |
| , Pegasi........ | 1464.7 | $1{ }^{1} 64.23 .23 \mathrm{~N}$. | 60.47 |
|  |  | M | 125959.98. |

This is one of the stations alluded to in the note p.291, where the plummet is supposed to have been drawn to the northward; in which case the latitude here deduced must be something in defect.
9. Pole-star observations at Dodagoontah Station, reduced for determining the position of the Meridian.

| 805. |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ionth. |  | de. |  | Lamp. | Lamp. |
|  | 104588 |  | 146 | $1^{\circ} 31^{\prime} \cdot 53^{\prime \prime} .00$ | $0^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime}$ |
| 22. | 1143 57 <br> 1  |  | 14641.70 | 13156.25 | 01445 |
| August 8. | 14354.07 |  | 14638.10 | 13151.25 | 01446.85 |
| 12. | 14353.05 |  | 14637.06 | 13148.50 | 01448.56 |
| 17. | 14351.70 |  | 14635.67 | 13146.25 | 01449.42 |
| 18. | 14351.44 |  | 14635.40 | 13147.50 | 01447.90 |
| 19. | 14351.16 |  | 14635.10 | 13145.50 | 01449.60 |
| 23. | 14350.04 |  | 14633.97 | 13145.50 | 01448.47 |
| 26. | 14349.09 |  | 14632.99 | 13143.50 | 0 14 49.49 |
| 27. | 14348.82 |  | 14632.73 | 13144.50 | 01448.23 |
| Angle between the N. Pole and Referring Lamp N. easterly Angle between the Referring Flag and Savendroog <br> Angle hetween the N. Pole and Savendroog Station |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

## SECTION

Length of the Perpendicular Degree, and the Latitudes and relative Longitudes of all the great Stations of Obseroation, and other places on the trop Coasts.
10. The measurement of an arc perpendicular to the meridian, and the length of a degree in latitude $12^{\prime \prime} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$.

For determining the latitude of Savendroog, we have at Dodagoontah station, the bearing of Savendroog station with the meridian $76^{\circ} 10^{\prime} 18^{\prime \prime} .63 \mathrm{~S}$. $\mathrm{W}^{\text {1/ }}$ and the distance between these two stations $=121933.2$ feet. "These will give the westing of Savendroog $=$ 118399.2 feet, and the southing of the point on the meridian of Dodagoontah, where the perpendicular let fall from Savendroog, will cut the said meridian 29143.3 feet, which is equal to an arc of 4' $48^{\prime \prime} .88$, and this deducted from the latitude of Dodagoontah gives $120^{\circ} 55^{\prime} \cdot 11^{\prime \prime} .03$. The westing will give an arc perfiendicular to the meridian $19^{\prime} 29^{\prime \prime} .04$, with which, and the co-latitude of the above point, the latitude of Savendroog will be had $12^{\circ} \cdot 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime} .24$.

Note. The meridional degree is taken at 60498 fathoms, being the computed degree for Latitude $12^{\prime \prime} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$, as deduced from the measured degrees for latitude $11^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 55^{\prime \prime}$ and latitude $52^{\circ} 02^{\prime \prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$.

## Pole-Star Observations at Savendroog Station, reduced for determin ing the position of the Meridian.

| 1814 |  |  |  |  | Angle betw |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. | Distan | tuto | Azimuths. |  |  |
| March 6. | $1^{\circ} 43^{\prime} 57^{\prime \prime} .66$ |  | $1^{\circ} 4639^{\prime} .72$ | $2^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 56^{\prime \prime} .75$ | $0^{0} 42^{\prime} 17^{\prime \prime} .93$ |
| 7. | 14357.94 |  | 14640 | 22857.25 | 0, 4217.25 |
| 8. | 14358.23 |  | 14640.3 | 22854 | $0 \underline{4213.7}$ |
| 9. | 14358.49 |  | 14640.57 | 22853.5 | 04212.93 |
| 10. | 14358.77 | G | 14640.86 | 22857.75 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 42 & 16.89\end{array}$ |
| 13. | 14359.62 |  | 14641.73 | 22856 | 042.14 .27 |
| 14. | 14359.91 |  | 14642.03 | 22858.75 | O 4216.72 |
| 15. | 1.4400 .19 | \% | 14642.31 | 22858.75 | O 4216.44 |
| 16. | 14400.49 |  | $1.46{ }^{42}$ \% 62 | 2.2858 .25 | 04215.63 |
| 21. | 14400.96 |  | 1 46 43.11 | 22901.12 | 04218.02 |
| Angle between the North Pole and Referring:Lainp . . . . . . . . . . . . Angle between the Referring Lamp and Mullapannabetta ....... <br> Angle between the North. Pole and.Mullapunnabetta $\square$ |  |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{rrr} 0 & 4215.89 \mathrm{E} \end{array}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  | 8957 |
| Angle between the North Pole and Referring Lainp .............. Angle between the Referring Lamp and Yerracondain Angle between the North Pole and Yerracondah |  |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{rrrr} 0 & 42 & 15.89 \\ 92 & 04 & 49.45 \end{array}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  | 924705.34 E . |

Pole-Star Obseroations at Mullapunnabetta Station, reduced for de termining the position of the Meridian.

| Nov. 7. | $14342: 37$ |  | 14624 | 17043 | 15.25 | 17229 | 939.25 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8. | 14342.03 |  | 14623.69 | 170.43 | 18 | 17229 | 941.65 |
| 10. | 14341.36 |  | 14622.96 | 17043 | 18.37 | 17229 | 941.33 |
| 12. | 14340.71 |  | 14622.29 | 17043 | 19,13 | 17229 | 941.42 |
| 13. | 114340.39 |  | 14621.96 | 17043 | 19.38 | 17229 | 941.31 |
| 14. | 14340.07 |  | 14621.64 | 17043 |  | 17229 | 941.64 |
| 15. | 14339.75 |  | 14621.31 | 17043 | 19.62 | 17229 | 940.93 |
| 16. | 14339.42 | $\cdots$ | 14620.97 | 17043 | 20 | 17229 | 940.97 |
| 17. | 14339.11 | Cr | 14620,65 | 17043 | 19.25 | 17229 | 939.9 |
| 19. | 14338.49 |  | 14620.02 | 17043 | 19.25 | 17229 | 939.27 |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}1805 \\ \text { Dec: }\end{array}\right\} 12$. | 14313.24 | $8$ | 14554.11 | 17043 |  | 17229 | 943.11 |
| 13. | 14313.04 |  | 14553.9 | 17043 | 48.25 | 17229 | 942.15 |
| 14. | 14312.85 |  | 145.53 .71 | 17043 | 48.12 | 17229 | 941.83 |
| 15. | 14312.67 |  | 14553.52 | 17043 | 47.75 | 17229 | 941.27 |
| 16. | $1 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 43 & 12.49\end{array}$ |  | 14553.34 | 17043 | 39.25 | 17229 | 942.59 |
| 20. | $1 \begin{array}{lllllll}1 & 43 & 11.84 \\ 1\end{array}$ |  | 14552.67 | 17043 | 48.2 | 17229 | 940.87 |
| 24. | 14311.29 |  | 14552.11 | 17043 | 48.5 | 17229 | 9.40 .61 |
| 25. | 14311.16 |  | 14.551 .99 | 17048 | 50.3 .5 | 17229 | 942.34 |
| Angle between the North Pole and Referring Lamp . . . . . . . . . . . . Angle between the Referring Lamp and Savendroog |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{r} 17229 \\ 97 \quad 41 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 941.25 \\ & 134.36 \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 89 48 | 844. |

Pole-Star Observations at Yerracondah Station, reduced for determining the position of the Meridian.

| 1804 | Apparent Polar | Latitude | Azimutbs. | Angle <br> the Po |  | Angle between' the N Pole and Referring |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. |  |  |  | Referrin |  |  |
| Jain. 15. | $1^{\circ} 43^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime} .81$ |  | $1^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime} .42$ | $\mathrm{g}^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{s}^{\prime}$ | 6'.5 | $7^{\circ} 1636{ }^{\prime \prime} .08$ |
| 16. | 14349.82 |  | 14630.43 | 93 | 3.85 | 71633.42 |
| 19. | 14349.9 | $\stackrel{ }{0}$ | 14680.51 | 93 | 2 | 71631.49 |
| 20. | 14349.92 |  | 14630.53 | 93 | 3.5 | 71632.97 |
| 21. | 14349.95 |  | 14630.56 | 93 | 5.5 | 71634.94 |
| 22. | 14350.02 | 先 | 14630.63 | 93 | 3.75 | 71633.12 |
| 23. | 14350.07 | \% | 14630.68 | 93 | 4 | 71633.32 |
| 26. | 14350.26 | - | 14630.87 | 93 | 5 | 71634.12 |
| 27. | $14350: 35$ |  | . 14630.96 |  | 4.25 | 71633 . |
| Angle between the North Pole and Referring Lampl- . . . . . . . . . . . Angle between the Referring Lamp and Savendroog <br> Angle between the North Pole and Savendroog .................. |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \hline 71633.64 \mathrm{E} . \\ 941614.97 \end{array}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 365941.33 W . |

As the latitudes were necessary for computing the azimuths, they were first had spherically for the two stations at Mullapunnabetta and Yerracondah, by taking the westing and easting from the meridian of Savendroog, and converting them into parts of great circles. These came so near the truth, that on recomputing the azimuths jy the latitudes finally brought out, there was no sensible diference.

It may be remarked here, that no double azimuths have been :aken. The pole-star being so low, and the vapour in the atmoiphere so great in general, that I have never, except in two initances, been able to discern it while the sun was above the horizon.

The Arc comprehended by the Meridians of Savendroog and Mullapunnabetta.

Let S and M be the stations at Savendroog and Mullapunnabetta, and P the pole, and SR be a great circle perpendicular to the meridian SP at S, and also Ss a parallel of latitude at the same point $S$. Then we have given the observed angles PSM and PMS, the distance SM, and the latitude of $\mathbf{S}$, to find the latitude of $M$.


In the spheriodical triangle MSR, the angle MSR $=90^{\circ}-\angle \mathrm{PSM}=\sigma^{\prime} 2^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} ; 73$, and the angle SMR $=1800-\angle \mathrm{PMS}=90^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime} .61$, and these being corrected for the chords, we shall have the angle MSR $=02^{\prime \prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .73$, and the angle $\mathrm{RMS}=90^{\circ} 11^{\prime}$ 15 ". 58 for the chord angles. Whence the angle SRM $=180^{\circ}$ - sums of the above angles, or $89^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 29.69$, $a_{\text {nd }}$ with these and the side or chord MS, the distance given by the triangles, we shall find the chord of the perpendicular arc $\mathrm{SR}=357644.6$ and the side $\mathbf{M R}=\mathbf{2 9 3 . 6 4}$ feet, and this last may be taken either as a chord or arc indifferently.

Now the spherical excess of the triangle SMR is $0^{\prime \prime} .02$, and the sum of the corrections for the angles MSR and SMR being - $0^{\circ} .05$, the difference between this sum and the said spherical excess is $+00^{\prime \prime} .01$ the correction for the angle MSR, which applied to the chord angle, we get the angle MRS or PRS as an observed angle, equal $89 \cdot 46^{\prime} 29^{\prime \prime} .68$.

Continue the meridian PS to t , and draw Rt parallel to Ss . Then, since the small angle SR , or its equal $\mathrm{RS}_{\text {, }}$ is half the difference between the angles

PRS and PSR, that is half the difference between! $90^{\circ}$ and the angle PRS as an oobserved one, we have $\frac{90^{\circ}-\left(89^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 29^{\prime \prime} .68\right)}{2}=6^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime} .16$, the angle RSs. Hence
in triangle RSs considered as a plane one, there are giver the angles at $R$ and $S$ and the side $S R$, as formerly found, from which will be had Ss and Rs equal 357642.6 feet and 702.51 feet respectively; as also Ms ( $=$ RS - RM) equal 468.87 feet, which measures the distance between the parallels of $S$ and M. But 468.87 feet as an aro on the meridian is 4.65, which substracted from the latitude of $\$$ gives $12^{\circ} 55^{\circ} 05^{\prime \prime} .59$ for the latitude of M , the station at Mullapunnabetta.

Hence in the triangle SPM there are given the sides SP and MP (the co-latitudes of S and $M$ ) and the angles PSM, PMS, the observed angles at S and M. Then, as the tangent $77^{\circ} 4^{\prime}, 52^{\prime \prime} .085$ : tangent $0_{0} 0^{\prime} 2^{\prime} .325::$ tangent $89^{\circ} 53^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .83$ : tangent $0^{\circ} 4$ $31^{1} .26$; which last applied to the half sum of the observed angles, we get $89^{\circ} 53^{\prime} 14^{\circ} .83+4^{\prime} ; 31^{\prime \prime} .26=$ $89^{\circ} 57^{\prime \prime} 46^{\prime \prime} .09$ and $89^{\circ} 53^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .83-4^{\prime} 31^{\prime \prime}, 26=89^{\circ}$ 48' $43^{\prime \prime}: 57$.for the angles at Savendroog and Mrullaprimnabetta such as they would have been observed on a sphere. Then proceeding by spherical computation with the sides PS, PM, and the angles PSM and PMS given, the angle SPM, or difference of longitude of $S$ and $M$ will be had equal $1^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 24^{\prime} .44$, from which and thie side SP in, the right angled spherical triangle PSR the side SR or arc SR perpendicular to the meridian PS at the point $S$ will be had equal $0_{i}^{\circ} 58^{\prime} 529.71$.

Now the chord of the arc $S R$ is had $=357644.6$ feet, half of which will be as the sine of half the arc SR, and from which is got the radius of the same arc, and thence the length of the arc SR is found to be 357650.8 feet. Then as $58^{\prime} 522^{\prime \prime} .71: 357650.3:: 60^{\circ}$ : 364463.3 feet, or 60743.8 fathoms,-for the measure of the degree at right!angles to the meridian of Savendroog.

The Arc comprehended by the Meridians of Savendroog and Yerracondah.

Let $S$ and $Y$ be the stations at Savendroog and Yerracondah respectively, and let the latitude of Y be deduced from that of S, the angles PSY and PYS having been observed. Let $\mathbf{S R}$ be a great circle perpendicular to the meridian SP at S, and $\mathbf{S t}^{\prime}$ a parallel of latitude at the same point S. Here the angle
 $\mathbf{R S Y}=\mathbf{P S Y}-90^{\circ}=$ $9^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 5^{\prime \prime} .34$, and the angle RYS being the observed angle at $Y=86_{0} 59^{\prime}: 41^{\prime \prime} .33$. These angles being corrected for the chords, the supplement to their sum will be the chord angle at $R$ in the spheriodical triangle SRY. Let the chords of SR and YR be computed with the corrected angles, then if the angle at $\mathbf{R}$ be augmented by the difference between the sum of the corrections for the other two angles and the spherical excess, it will become $90^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .74$, or such as would have been observed at R. Hence $180^{\circ}$ $\angle$ SRY $=89^{\circ} 46^{\circ} 45^{\prime \prime} .26$ the angle $t^{\prime}$ RS, and by considering the triangle $\mathrm{St}^{\prime} \mathrm{R}$ as a plane one, the small angle tSR is equal $\frac{90-\angle t^{\prime} R S}{2}=0.6^{\prime} 37^{\prime \prime} .37$. With this angle, and the angle tRS, and the distance SR, as found above, the small side $t^{\prime} \mathrm{R}$ is had $=675.86$ feet, which added to $\mathrm{RY}=17067.72$ gives $\mathrm{t} Y=$ 17748.58 feet, the distance between the parallels of $S$ and $Y$. But 17743.58 feet is equal to an arc on the meridian of $22^{\prime \prime} 55^{\prime \prime} .98$, and this deducted from the latitude of Savendroog, gives $12^{\circ} 52^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .26$ for the latitude of Yerracondah.

Hence, with the co-latitudes of Savendroog and

Yerracondah, and the observed angles PSY and PYS, we have, the tangent of half the sum of the first, to the tangent of half their difference, as the tangent of half the sum of the second, to tangent of $2^{\circ} 54^{\prime} 25^{\prime \prime} .92$, their half difference: from which we get the greater angle at $S=92^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime} .25$, and the less angle at $\mathbf{Y}$. $=86^{\circ} 58^{\prime} 57^{\prime \prime} .41$ thus corrected for computing spherically : and with these and co-latitudes, proceeding as before, the angle SPY will be had $=0^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .83$, and the perpendicular arc $=0^{\circ} 57^{\prime \prime} 44^{\prime \prime} .86$. But the chord subtended by this arc is 350824 feet, and therefore the arc itself 350827.7 feet. Then, as 57.74767 : 350827.7 feet :: $60^{\prime}$ : 364510.8 feet, or 60751.8 fathoms, for the length of the degree at right angles to the meridian of Savendroog, as deduced from the distance between Savendroog and Yerracondah; and the length of the perpendicular degree deduced from the distance between Savendroog and Mullapunnabetta being 60743.8 fathoms, the mean of these two, or 60747.8 fathoms, may be considered as nearly the true measure for latitude $12^{\circ} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$ 。

If the ratio of the earth's diameters be taken as. 1 $: 1.003125$, and the meridional degree in latitude $11^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 55^{\prime \prime}$ be 60494 fathoms; then, ly using these data, the computed meridional degree on the ellipsoid in latitude $12^{\circ} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime}$ will be 60498 fathoms; with which and the above ratio, the computed degree at right angles to the meridian in the same latitude will be had 60858 fathoms, which exceeds the measured one by 110 fathoms nearly; so that we may infer from this, either that the earth is not an ellipsoid, or that this measurement is incorrect.

The more we investigate this interesting subject, and the more ample mean's we employ to ascertain the exact figure of the earth, the more seems to be wanting to satisfy our research; and if we feel reluctant in giving up the elliptic hypothesis, because it is consonant to that harmony and order with which we are familiar, the discord which these results indicate, afford by no means sufficient évidence
to induce us to abandon that theory. The great nicety in making the pole-star observations is well understood, and it will be made more manifest in the case before us by increasing or diminishing the half sum of the angles with the meridians, reciprocally taken at Mullapunnabetta.and Savendroog, by one second only, when it will appear that a difference of nearly one hundred and fifty fathoms, in the perpendicular degree, will be occasioned thereby.

I am fully aware of the delicacy necessary in taking these angles, and I am also aware that some eminent mathematicians consider the method of determining the difference of longitude by the convergency of meridians as insufficient in these low latitudes; yet I am of opinion that by repeating these observations whenever stations can be found, either in the same, or in different latitudes, the truth may ultimately be very nearly attained. I at one time had determined on increasing the number of observations at Mullapunnabetta, Savendroog and Yerracondah, on my return to the eastward; but when I was at Mullapunnabetta a second time, and had increased the number of pole-star observations there to eighteen. and had also taken several other angles between Sacendroog and the referring lamp, and after all finding that the angle betiveen the meridian and Savendroog was altered only $\frac{1}{25}$ part of a second, I did not think it necessary to go to the other stations, particularly as the observations there had been made under the most favorable circumstances. It is, notwithstanding. desirable that many more measurements of the kind should be made, and that other methods should be tried for getting the length of a degree of longitude, particularly that of carrying a good time-keeper between two meridians at a known distance, a method which has been strongly represented to me by the Astronomer Royal, and which I mean to put in practice in the course of my future operations. I had also devised another method by the instantaneous extinction of large blue lights fired at Savendroog, the times of which were to be noticed by observers at

Mullapunnabetta and Yerracondah, the distance of whose meridians on a parallel of latitude passing through Savendroog being nearly 135 miles. The experiments were attempted, but the weather was so dull that the lights could scarcely be distinguished. There is besides a difficulty in fixing the precise moment of extinction; and even in the most favorable state of the atmosphere, when the lights may be distinctly seen with the naked eye at near seventy miles distance, to come within half a second of the truth, would be as near as the eye is capable of, which is equal to $7^{\prime \prime} \frac{1}{2}$ in an angle at the pole: but the mean of a great number of successful results might come very near the truth.

Since the triangles in this survey have been carried direct from the observatory at Madras to Mangalore, by which easy means are offered to determine the length of a parallel of latitude subtended by two meridians nearly five degrees and a half distant from each other, it may be further suggested, whether a long course of corresponding observations made at Madras observatory and at another place on the Malabar coast, by the eclipses of the satellites, occultations of stars by the moon, \&c. might not afford another eligible method for determining the length of a degree of longitude.

In short, the difficulty of obtaining this desideratum, and the important advantages to geography and physical science which must accrue therefrom, are such powerful incitements to a zealous prosecution of the inquiry, that I may venture an assurance of leaving nothing undone, which may come within the compass of my abilities, to give every possible satisfaction on the subject; and if my endeavours to throw some light on the path to future discovery be successful, I shall close the period of my labours with the grateful reflection, that, while employed in conducting a work of national utility, I shall have added my humble mite to the stock of general science.

## 11. Latitude and longitude of Kylasghur.

Let Y be Yerracondah, $\mathbf{K}$ Kylasghar, and $\mathbf{P}$ the pole. Then in the spherical triangle PYK there are given $\mathrm{YP}=77^{\circ} 7^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime} .74$; the co-latitude of- Yerracondah, $\mathrm{YK}=46^{\prime} 33^{\prime} .51$, the oblique arc as computed on the spheroid; and the angle PYK = $92^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 46^{\prime \prime} .11$, as observed at Yerracondah, to find PK, the co-latitude of Kylasghur which by spherical computation will be had equal $77^{\circ}$ $9^{\prime} 38^{\prime \prime} .7$, and therefore the latitude equal $12^{\circ}$
 $50^{\circ} 21^{\prime \prime} .3$, with which latitude the azimuths being reduced, the pole-star observations at Kylasghur will stand as follow:

| 1803. | Apparent Polar |  | Azimut | Angle between | Angle between the |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. | Distance. |  | Azimuths. | Referring Lamp. | Referring Lamp. |
| Dec. 3. | $1^{\circ} 43^{\prime} 544^{\prime \prime} 74$ | $):$ | $1^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 35^{\prime \prime} .41$ | $3^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 57{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | $1042^{\prime} 21^{\prime \prime}, 59$ |
| 7. | 14353.82 | ¢ 6 | $1.4634 .511^{\circ}$ | 32852.4 | 14217.89 |
| 12. | 14352.84 | 隹) | 14633.56 | 32855.25 | 14221.69 |
| 13. | 14352.5 |  | 14633.46 | $328 \cdot 58.5$ | 14220.04 |
| Angle between the North Pole and Referring Lamp.............. Angle between the Referring Lamp and Yerracondah ........... |  |  |  |  | 1.4220 .30 E . |
|  |  |  |  |  | $8917 \quad 57.607$ |
| Angle between the North Pole and Yerracondah |  |  |  |  | 873537.307 W . |

If the same angle be brought out by using the co-latitudes of Yerracondah and Kylasghur, and the observed angle at Yerracondah, between the N. pole and Kylasghur, it will be $87^{\circ} 35^{\prime} 37^{\prime \prime}$, very nearly the same as was observed.

Then again, as the sine of either of the co-latitudes, is to the sine of the opposite angle, so is the sine of the oblique arc KY, to sine of the angle KPY, equal B b
$47^{\prime} 42^{\prime \prime} .98$, the difference of longitude; to which add the difference of longitude between Yerracondah and Savendroog, equal $59^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .83$, we have $1^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 57^{\prime} .81$ for the longitude of Kylasghur, east from the mericlian of Savendroog.
12. Latitude and Longitude of Karnatighur, and the position of its meridian; deduced from that of Kylasghur.

The southing of Karnatighur from Kylasghur is 95144 feet, equal to an arc of $15^{\prime} 43^{\prime \prime} .61$ on the meridian of Kylasghur; and the easting is 1093.83 feet, equal to $10^{\prime \prime} .8$ of a great circle at right angles to the said meridian, and passing through Karnatighur. From the nearness of the meridians of these two stations, the former arc may be considered as the difference of latitude, and therefore being subtracted from the latitude of Kylasghur, we have 120 34' $37^{\prime \prime} .69$ for the latitude of Karnatighur. Hence, by using the co-latitude $77^{\circ} 25^{\prime} 22^{\prime \prime} .31$, and the small perpendicular arc $10^{\circ} .8$, we shalt have the difference of longitude $11^{\prime \prime}: 06$, and the convergency of the meridian of Karnatighur towards that of Kylasghur $2{ }^{2 \prime} .46$ nearly. The former of which being applied to the longitude of Kylasghur, will give $1^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 8^{\prime \prime} .87$ for the longitude of Karnatighur from the meridian of Savendroog, E.

Now the observed angle at Kylasghur, between the north pole and Karnatighur, was $179^{\circ} 20^{\prime} 28^{\prime \prime} .83$, whose supplement is $0^{\circ} 39^{\prime} 31^{\prime \prime} .17$, which wilb therefore be the angle at Karnatighur; between the north pole and the parallel to the meridian of Kylasghur ; from which subtract the convergency, we get $0^{\circ} 39^{\prime}$ $28^{\prime \prime} .71$ for the angle between the north pole and Kylasghur, westerly ; and this subtracted from $93^{\circ}$ 28' $42^{\prime \prime} .22$, the angle formerly taken at Karnatighur, between Kylasghur and Carangooly, gives $92^{\circ} 49 \cdot 13^{\prime \prime} .51$ for the angle between the north pole and Carangooly.

The same angle taken at Karnatighur, in 1803,
Danted by Google
was $92049^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime} .93$, but as there is reason to doubt the accuracy of that angle, from reasons already given, to which may perhaps be added the want of experience, I shall reject it and adopt the one now brought out for determining

## 13. The latitude and longitude of Carangooly Hill.

The length of the arc comprehended by the stations at Karnatighur and Carangooly, as determined by the triangles in 1803; was 291196.9 feet, which, as an oblique arc, according to the present scales; will be equal $47^{\circ} 50^{\prime \prime} .21$.

Let P be the pole, K Karnatighur, and C Carangooly; and therefore $\mathrm{K}^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ the oblique arc $=$ $47^{\prime \prime} 56^{\prime \prime} .21$. Then if * the observed angle at Carangooly, be made use of, (which must be accurate enough for this purpose) we have sine $\mathrm{PK}^{\prime}$ : sine $\angle \mathrm{PCK}^{\prime}$ :: sine $\mathrm{K}^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ : sine angle
 $K^{\prime}$ PC equal $49^{\prime} \varepsilon^{\prime \prime} .9$. the difference of longitude. Hence $1^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 8^{\prime \prime} .87+49^{\prime}$ $2^{\prime \prime} .9=2^{\circ} 36^{\prime} 11^{\prime \prime} .77$, the longitude of Carangooly from the meridian of Savendroog.

And as sine angle $\mathrm{PCK}^{\prime}$ : sine $\mathrm{K}^{\prime} \mathrm{P}$ :: sine $<\mathrm{PK}^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ $: \mathrm{PC}=77^{\circ}-27^{\prime} 42^{\prime \prime} .2$, the co-latitude of Carangooly, whose complement $12^{\circ} 32^{\prime} 11^{\prime \prime} .8$ is therefore the latitude.

14: Latitude and longitude of Balroyndroog, with the position of its meridian.

As the atmosphere was so extremely dull when

[^66]$$
\mathrm{B} \text { b } 2
$$
the pole-star observations were made at Balroyndroog, the angle between its meridian and the station at Mullapunnabetta, could not be taken, we must therefore depend altogether on computations made with the oblique arc, the latitude of Mullapunnabetta, and the angle at that station with the N. pole, and the station at Balroyndroog.

Let $\mathbf{M}$ and $B$ be the stations at Mhellapunnabetta and Balroyndroog respectively, and let $\mathbf{P}$ be the pole, then having given PM equal $77^{\circ}$ 4' $54^{\prime \prime} .41$, BM the oblique arc equal. $52^{\prime \prime} 42^{\prime \prime} .12$, and the observed angle PMBequal $75^{\circ} 52^{\prime} 54^{\prime} .95$, we shall obtain by sphe-
 rical computation the:
side $\mathrm{BP}=76^{\circ} 52^{\prime} 08^{\prime \prime} .4$ the co-latitude, and the angle BPM $52^{\prime} 28^{\prime \prime} .94$ the difference of longitude, which add to the longitude of Savendroog from Ca rangooly hill, and Mullapunnabetta from Savendroog, there will be $4^{\circ} 29^{\prime} 05^{\prime \prime} 1.15$, the longitude of Balroyndroog from Garangooly hill:
> - Taking the latitude thus found for computing the azimuths, the pole-star observations at Balroyndroog will stand as foijlow :

| 1805 | at Polar |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. | Presar | Latitude | Azimutis. | the Pole-star and Referring Lamp. | Pole and Referring Lamp. |
| Feb. 20. | $1^{\circ} 43^{\prime} 34{ }^{\prime \prime} 15$ |  | $1^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 21^{\prime \prime} .05$ | $56^{\prime \prime} 46^{\prime} 43^{\prime \prime} .50$ | $55^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 22^{\prime \prime} .45$ |
| 23. | 14334.82 | $\omega$ | 14621.73 | 564643.75 | 550022.02 |
| 24. | 14335.06 |  | 14621.98 | 564643.25 | 550021.27 |
| 25. | 14335.33 | $\stackrel{+}{1}$ | 14622.25 | 564643 | 550020.75 |
| 26. | $1 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 43 & 35.57\end{array}$ |  | 14622.50 | 564644.5 | 550022 |
| 27. | 14335.80 | ¢ | 14622.74 | 564644.25 | 550021.51 |
| 28. | 14336.03 |  | 1.4622 .97 | 564643.44 | 550020.44 |
| Angle between the North Pole and Referring Lamp . . . . . . . . . . |  |  |  |  | 550021.49 N. |

15. Reduction of some principal places on the two coasts in latitude and longitude.
TABLE I. Containing the angles with the Meridian of Balroyndroog and its parallels, and the distanees of

| Stations at | Places computed. | Bearings referred to the Meridian of Balroyndroog. | Dists. | Distances on the |  | Distances from Balroyn-droog on the |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Perpendic. | Meridian: | Perpendic. | Meridian. |
|  |  |  | feet. 164945 | feet. <br> 116546 W. | feet. $\mathrm{H} 16722 \mathrm{~S}$ | feet. <br> 116546 W . | feet. $116722 \mathrm{~S} .$ |
| Balroyndroog | Bullamully | $44^{\circ}$ $57^{\prime}$ <br> 78 $26^{\prime \prime}$ <br> 8 S. W. |  |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{rrr} 116722 & \mathbf{S} . \\ 980 c 8 & \mathbf{N} . \end{array}$ |
| Bullamully | Mangalore Goompay | $\begin{array}{lllll}78 & 13 & 58 & \text { N. W. } \\ 25 & 08 & 29 & \text { S. W. }\end{array}$ | 91762 54990 | $\begin{aligned} & 89834 \mathrm{~W} . \\ & 23363 \mathrm{~W} . \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{cc} 18714 & \mathrm{~N} \\ 49780 & \mathrm{~S} \end{array}$ | 206380 W | $\begin{array}{rc} 980 c 8 & \mathrm{~N} . \\ 166502 & \mathrm{~S} . \end{array}$ |
| Gaompay | Goomp | 2 12335 | 101681 | 23920 E. | 101606 S. | 135989 E. | 268107 S . |
|  | Kunduddakamully | 355746 S. E. | 126146 | 74080 E. | 102102 S | 65829 W. | 268603 S. |
| Kunducdakamully | Mount Dilli | 423 Os S. W. | 132113 | 10102 W . | 131726 S | 75931 W. | 400329 S. |
|  | Taddiandamole | 645519 S. E. | 149160 | 135101 E. | 63223 S. | 69272 E. | 331826 S. |
| Taddiandamole | Cannanore | $324522.5 . W$. | 157072 | 84986 W. | 132094 S | 15714 W | 463920 S. |
|  | Tellicherry | 142551 S. W. | $\mid 175847$ | 4.3773 W | 170311 S . | 25499 W. | 502137 S. |

Tabie 2. Containing the angles, with the Meridian of Carangooly and its parallels, and the distances of certuin places on the Coromandel coast from that Meridian, and from its perpendicular.

| Stations at | Places computed. | Bearings referred to the Meridian of Carangooly. | Dists. | Distances on the |  | Distances from Carangoolyon the |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Perpendic. | Meridian. | Perpendic. | Meridian. |
|  |  |  | feet. | fee | feet. | , | feet. |
| Carangooly Hili | Mullapode | $17^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 01^{\prime \prime}$ N. E. | 144405 | 44105 E. | 137505 N. | 44105 E . | 137505 N. |
|  | Permacoil | $241420 \cdot$ S. W. | 134240 | 55111 W. | 122406 S. | 55111 W. | 122406 S. |
| Multa | Fort St. George | 582757 N. E. | 113759 | 96960 E. | 59497 N. | 141065 E. | 197002 N |
| , | Mowbrey's House | 6441615 N. E. | 92027 | 82903 E. | 39951 N. | 127008 E. | 177456 N. |
| Muwbrey's H | Madras Observators | 00018 N. E. | 15914 | 1 E . | 15914 N. | 127009 E. | 193370 N. |
| Permacoil Hill | Mooratan Statio | 122028 S. E. | 83352 | 17815 E. | 81496 S. | 37296 W. | 203832 S. |
| Mooratan Station | Pondicherry | 473845 S. E. | 23207 | $17150{ }^{\text {E }}$ E | 15635 S. | 20146 W. | 219467 S. |
|  | Trivandeporum | 174321 S. W. | 87363 | 26594 W. | 83217 S. | 63890 W. | 287049 S. |
| Trivandeporım | Cuddalore | $70 \quad 2302$ S. E | 24644 | 23214 E | 8273 S. | 40676 W. | 295322 S. |

By table the first, Mangalore flag-staff is west from the meridian of Balroyndroog 206380 feet, and south 98008 feet from the station; and these converted into arcs according to the above scales, will give $33^{\circ}$ $58^{\prime \prime}$ and $16^{\prime} 12^{\prime \prime}$ respectively, and the latter arc added to the co-latitude of Balroyndroog (equal 760 $52^{\prime} 8^{\prime \prime} .4$ ) gives $77^{\circ} 08^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ for the co-latitude of the point where a perpendicular from Mangalore will cut the meridian of Balroyndroog at right angles. Then as Rad.: Cos. $77^{\circ} 8^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}:$ : Cos. $33^{\prime} 58^{\prime \prime \prime}$ (the perpendicular) : $7,7^{\circ} 08^{\prime} 22^{\prime \prime}$, the co-latitude of Mangalore.

And again, as Tan. $33^{\prime} 58^{\prime \prime}$ : Sin. $77^{\circ} 08^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}::$ Rad. : Cot. 34 50", the difference of longitude between Balroyndroog and the flag-staff at Mangalore.

By proceeding in the same manner with the other places on that coast, we shall have their latitudes, and their longitudes from the meridian of Balroyndroog as follow:

| Names of Places. | Latitudes. | Longitudes from Balroyndroog. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mangalore Flag-staff . . . . . . . | $12^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 38^{\prime \prime}$ | $0^{\circ} 34^{\prime} 50^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. |
| Baekul Fort S. E. Cavalier | 122332 | 02255 W . |
| Mount Dilli Station | 120141 | 01247 W . |
| Cannanore Flag-staff | 115111 | 00238 W. |
| Tellicherry Flag-staff . . . . . . . | 1144.52 | 00417 E. |

By table 2d, the observatory at Madras is 127009 feet east, and 193370 feet north from the station at Carangooly, which converted into arcs give $90^{\circ} 54.4{ }^{\circ}$ and $31^{\prime} 57^{\circ} .78$ respectively; which being applied to the meridian and its perpendicular, passing through the observatory, and computing spherically, as in the last case, we shall obtain $13^{\circ} 04^{\prime} 8^{\prime \prime} .7$ for the latitude of the observatory, and $21^{\prime} 97^{\prime \prime} .81$ for its longitude east from the meridian of Carangooly. And by pursuing the same method of calculation, we shall have certain places on the Coromandel coast referred to the meridian of Carangooly as follow :

| Names of Places. | Latitudes. | Longitudes from Carangooly. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Madras Observatory | $13^{\circ} 04^{\prime} 08^{\prime \prime} .7$ | $0^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 27^{\prime \prime} .81$ | E. |
| Fort St. George Church Steeple | 130445 | 023 44. | E. |
| Pondicherry Flag-staff . . . . . . . . | 115556 | 00320 | W. |
| Cuddalore Flag-staff. . . . . . . . . . | 114323 | 00648 | W. |

The difference of longitude between the meridians of Carangooly and Balroyndroog, by Art. 14, is $4^{\circ} 29^{\prime} 15^{\prime} .15$, to which add the longitudes of the different places from the respective meridians, as heretofore deduced, we shall have the difference of longitude of those places which lie nearly in the same parallels of latitude as follows :

Difference of longitude between the observatory and
Mangalore, - - - - 5025.23.
Church in Fort St. Gieorge and ditto, 52745
Pondicherry and Cannanore, - $\quad 42813$
Cuddalore and Tellicherry - - 418
Here it may be proper to notice that in the requisite tables, the difference of longitude between Fort St. George and Mangalore is $5^{\circ} 27^{\circ} 95^{\prime \prime}$, within $20^{\circ}$ of what is here given; but the difference of longitude between Cuddalore and Tellicherry is $4^{\circ} 8^{\prime} 44^{\prime \prime}$, differing no less than $9^{\prime} 18^{\prime \prime}$ from the triangular measurement.

## ACCOUNT OF TRIGONOMETRICAL

## APPENDIX.

## E of LATITUDES and LONGITUDES

incipal Places, as deduced from the Operation

In the abbreviations H signifies hill; P pagods as the tower is meant, unless otherwise specif atform is generally the place where the in d by a small mill-stone. All places having e stations of the large theodolite, and are arge stones in the middle, having small


## OPERATIONS IN THE PENINSULA.

TABLE-continued.

Bettatipoo
tavany
3odeemu
DEELTM?
LCONDA
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Sonnair
loogga
iullar
ullar
usis

## APPENDIX.

## TABLE of LATITUDES and LONGITUDES of some of the principal Places, as deduced from the Operations in general.

Note. In the abbreviations H signifies hill; P pagoda; and Dg. droog. In al pagodas the tower is meant, unless otherwise specified; or, if they are station, the platform is generally the place where the instrument stood, and is mostly marked by a small mill-stone. All places having the asterisk (*) annexed to them are the stations of the large theodolite, and are distinguished either by platorms with large stones in the middle, having small-circles inserted thereon; or if on a rock, the circle is inserted on the rock: and in both cases the centre of the circle denotes the point over which the plummet was suspended.


TABLEmcontinued.


TABLE-continued.

| Names of Places. | Latitude. | Longitude from |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Madras Obser. | Greenw |
| Ennore Tre | $13^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 59^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $0^{\prime \prime} 4^{\prime} 42^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$. | $80^{\circ}$ |
| Erode Fort S. E. Cavali | 112027 | 23126 W . | 7745 |
| French Rook's Pillar | 123031. | 33324 | 7643 |
| Gingee Dg. | 121518 | 05119 | 792511 |
| Gopaul Dg. | 122952 | 25731 | 771859 |
| Gooderbundah Dg | 134034 | 2. 333 | 774327 |
| * Goompay H. | 124019 | 51410 | 75 |
| Goonicul Fort | 13133 | 31334 | $\begin{array}{llll}77 & 2 & 56\end{array}$ |
| Giooriattum P. | 125552 | 12442 | 785148 |
| Gungangherry Dg | 122554 | 15747 | 781848 |
| Gurradan Dg. | 132854 | $4{ }^{4} 047$ | $\begin{array}{llll}76 & 15 & 49\end{array}$ |
| * Hallagamulla | 11052 | 24854 | 772736 |
| * Hanandamul | 125557 | 05114 | 79. 1516 |
| Hassun | 13013 | 4942 | 76648 |
| Hooly Dg. | 124913 | $313 \quad 5$ | 77 3 |
| * Hunnabett | 13 6. 1 | 43112 | 754518 |
| Hunnamun Dg. | 135541 | 41938 | 755659 |
| Hurroor Fort | 12250 | 1461 | 783029 |
| Hyderghur | 13426 | 5.1527 | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 1 & 3\end{array}$ |
| Jainkul Dg. | 135435 | 35950 | 761640 |
| Jemalabad Flag Staff | $13 \quad 134$ | 45746 | 751844 |
| Karkul Fort | 131234 | 51536 | 75054 |
| * Karnatighur | 123438 | 1.1031 | 79 <br> 75 |
| Kasragooda For | 122936 | 5163 | $75 \quad 087$ |
| Kaumun Dg. | 141459 | 25844 | 771746 |
| Kaup Battery | 1313.24 | 53121 | 74459 |
| Kistnagherry | 12. 32.15 | 229 | 781491 |
| Koadicondah Dg. | 134949 | 22824 | 77. 486 |
| Kongoondy Dg. - | 12463 | 1490 | 782730 |
| Koomlah Fort | 12365 | 5196 | 74.5794 |
| Koondapoor For | 133810 | 53411 | 744219 |
| * Koondhully H. | 123933 | 42921 | 75479 |
| * Koondoorbett | 125116 | 41819 | 755811 |
| Kopa Dg. | 13323 | 4.56 .5 | 752025 |
| Kowlae Dg. | 13435 | 5827 | 7588 |
| * Kuddapoonabetta | 125537 | 52229 | 74541 |
| Kul Dg. | 133847 | 42056 | 755592 |
| * Kulkolah | 132514 | 2399 | 773721 |
| * Kumbetarenemulla | 113531 | 25857 | 771735 |
| * Kunduddakamully | 122328 | 51139 | 771451 |
| * Kunnoor H.- | 125155 | 1259 | 791899 |
| * Kylasghur | 125021.3 | 11042 | $79 \quad 548$ |
| Mackly Dg. | 132558 | 2.454 | 773126 |
| Madranticum P. | 123036 | 04312 | 793818 |
| Madras (Observatory) | $\begin{array}{lll}13 & 4 & 8.7\end{array}$ | 00000 | 801630 |
| *Maillacherry Dg. | 12166 | 0 5232 | 792358 764021 75 |
| Mailcottah H. and P. Maharajh Dg...... | 123957 | 31869 41940 | 764021 755650 |
| Maharaje Dg. | 125384 | 41940 | 755650 |

TABLE-continued.

| Names of Places. | Latitude. | Longitude from |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Madras Obser. | Grernwich. |
| * Mullapode H... | $12^{\prime} 54^{\prime} 56^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $0^{4} 14^{\prime} 1^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. | $80^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 29^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$ |
| Mallavilly Fort (S. W. Cavalier) | 12230 | 31154 : | $77 \quad 436$ |
| MANGALORE Fort (Flag Staff).. | 125138 | 52523 | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 51 & 7\end{array}$ |
| * Mannoor | 13039 | 01851 | 795739 |
| Marakerra (Tree) | 1226 | 4. 3046 | 7545.15 |
| * Maumdoor H. | 124444 | 0 34. 59 | 794131 |
| Medagashie Dg. Mosque | 1349 54 | 3.3 34 | 771256 |
| * Meejar Hill | $13 \quad 321$ | 51921 | 74. $57 \quad 9$ |
| Minchicul Dg | 132747 | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 3 & 16\end{array}$ | 771314 |
| Moodabidderry $\mathbf{P}$ | 13 4 24 | 51538 | 75052 |
| Mooduwaddie Dg. | 124057 | 2.48 38 | $77 \quad 2752$ |
| Moolisy Fort | $13 \quad 512$ | 52813 | 794817 |
| Monjerab | 12554 | 42951 | 754639 |
| * Moratan | i1 5830 | 02742 | 794848 |
| * Mount Dilli | 12141 | 5320 | 751310 |
| Mount St. Thomas' (Flag Staff) | 13020. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 3 & 18\end{array}$ | 801312 |
| Muddokserah Dg. | 135641 | 2590 | $77 \quad 1730$ |
| Mudgherry D. | i3 $39 \cdot 7$ | 3 3 11 | $77 \quad 1319$ |
| Muglee H. (Stone) | 13959 | 12522 | 78 51 |
| Mullanaig P , | 124443 | 1392 | 783728 |
| - Mullapunnabett | 12556 | 358.4 | 761826 |
| Mulwaggle Dg. | 131014 | 1526 | 7823 24 |
| * Mungot H. | $13 \cdot 0 \cdot 31$ | $\begin{array}{ll}0 & 8.57\end{array}$ | 80733 |
| Muntapum N. of Bangalore | 13,045 | $240 \cdot 19$ | 779617 |
| * Mylum H. | i2 7 544: | $0.37 \cdot 65$ | 79385 |
| MYSOOR FORT (High Cavalier) | 121821 | 33559 | 764031 |
| * Mysoor H. | 121640.5 | 3352 | 764128 |
| Naggerry Nose | 132250 | 03913 | 793717 |
| Nagmungatum For | 124911 | 3301 | 77-46 29 |
| Narráin Dg. | 124245 | 3407 | .76 3623 |
| Narricut Dg. | 13754 | 1358 | $79 \cdot 1233$ |
| * Naudkaunee. | 105557 | - $2 \cdot 38 \cdot 10$ | 773820 |
| Neddigul Dg. (Muntapum) | 14931 | 31021 | $77 \quad 69$ |
| Negraul Dg. ( Pillir): ....... | 131450 | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 2 & 17\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llllll}77 & 14 & 13\end{array}$ |
| NUGGUR (BEDNORE) Flag Staff | 134910 | $\begin{array}{ll}513 & 27\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 3 & 3\end{array}$ |
| * Nundr Dg. ....................... | 132212.5 | $\begin{array}{lllll}2 & 34 & 1\end{array}$ | 772229 |
| Nunjengode | 1279 | 33343 | 764247 |
| Odea Dg. | 123655 | 21920 | 775710 |
| Oosscotra (Eedgah) | 13 421 | 22813 | 774817 |
| Oossoor H. and P. | 124333 | $2 \cdot 24.49$ | 775141 |
| Ootramalloor Fort | 123655 | 02932 | 794658 |
| Ootur Dg. | 125740 | $\begin{array}{ll}3 & 747\end{array}$ | 77843 |
| Oymungaul Fort | 14544 | 34315 | 763315 |
| Patticondah Pr | 125445 | 11846 | ,78 5744 |
| * Patticondah | 131025 | 13623 | 78407 |
| * Paudree | 131941.3 | 034.8 | 794222 |
| * Paughor | 14.619 | $25834 \bigcirc 8$ | 771756 |
| * Paulamulla . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 114139 | 2310 | 774530 |

TABLE-CONTINUED.

| Names of Places. | Latitude. | Longitude from |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Madras Obser. | Greenwich. |
| Pediata Dg, | $12^{\circ} 57^{\prime} 33^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $1^{\circ} 38^{\prime} 4^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. | $78^{\circ} 38^{\prime} 26^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$. |
| Percondah Tre | 14413 | 2402 | 773628 |
| Pennagra Fort | 12745 | 22058 | 775532 |
| * Permacoil H. | 121158 | 03045 | 794545 |
| * Perambauk H. | 12537 | 039 | 801321 |
| Pilloor H. | 131359 | 65350 | .79 2240 |
| PONDICHERRY Flag Staf | 115556 | 02448 | 795142 |
| * Ponnassmulla | 12847 | 23627 | $7740{ }^{7}$ |
| * Poonauk H. | 1310.2 | 0398 | 793722 |
| Poonamallee Flag Staff | $13 \quad 237$ | 0816 | 80814 |
| Pullicate Flag Staff | 13259 | $04^{4} 13 \mathrm{E}$. | 802043 |
| Ramgherry Dg. | 135653 | 4819 W . | 76811. |
| Ravalnellore Dg. | 11580 | 11932 | 785658 |
| Riojees Choultry | 125225 | 02954 | 794636 |
| * Runganelly H. anc | 133955 | 32523 | 76517 |
| * Rungaswamy H. a | $13 \quad 23$ | 31656 | 765934 |
| Rungyan Dg. | 1355.21 | 41931 | 755659 |
| Rungyan Dg. | 135414 | 4.930 | 7678 |
| Ryacottah Flag Staff | 123116 | 21254 | $\begin{array}{llll}78 & 3 & 36\end{array}$ |
| * Ryman Dg. | 132117 | 21437 | $\begin{array}{llll}78 & 153\end{array}$ |
| SADRAS Flag Staff | 123134 | 0459 | 80 11. 31 |
| St. GEORGE (Ft.) Church steeple.. | $\begin{array}{ll}13 & 445\end{array}$ | 0222 E . | 801852 |
| Sankerry Dg. Bungaloe on the top | 112849 | 22340 W . | 775250 |
| Sattiagul Fort | 121438 | 3.632 | 76958 |
| Sattimungalum Fort Bungaloe | 113017 | 3015 | 771615 |
| Sautghur Building on the top. | 125749 | 13028 | 78462 |
| * Savèn Dg. Sta ${ }^{\text {n. }}$. near the Muntapum | 125510.24 | 25740 | 771850 |
| Serah Fort Flag Staff .......... | 134439 | 32029 | 76561 |
| SERINGAPATAM ${ }^{\text {P }}$ | 122529 | 33438 | 764152 |
| Seven Ps. P. on the roc | 123656 | 0321 | 80139 |
| Shâ Dg. | 14 946 | 24458 | 773132 |
| Shermo | 135533 | 44025 | 75365 |
| * Shennimulla | 11927 | 23958 | 773632 |
| Shevagunga G. P. | 13109 | $3-151$ | 771439 |
| Sheveram H. Choultry | 124617 | 0224.5 | 79 53 |
| Sholanghur G. P. | 13520 | 04949 | 792641 |
| Soobramanee H.old P. (G. Mountain) | 123944 | 4,34 11 | 754219 |
| Soolagherry Dg.................. | 1240 - 8 | 21357 | $78 \quad 238$ |
| Sooloopgherry Dg | 12434 | 11259 | 79331 |
| Stree Permatoor | 12587 | 01757 | 795833 |
| - Taddiandamole | 12133 | 43852 | 753738 |
| C Tandray | 1385 | 01046. | 80844 |
| Tattacutroo Dg. | 12245 | 13942 | 783648 |
| TOLLACHERRY Fort (Flag Staff) | 114452 | 44616 | 753014 |
| Telloor H. | 123151 | 0405 | 7936.25 |
| engricotta Fort | 12044 | 15114 | 782516 |
| Thitt | 1120.49 | 25349 | 77.2241 |
|  | 114414 | 1028 | 796.2 |

TABLE-CONTINUED.

| Names of Places. | - Latitude. | Longitude from |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Madras Obser. | Greenwich. |
| Timmaroor Dg............................... | $12^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $1^{0} 2^{\prime} 2^{\prime} 4^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. | $79^{\prime \prime} 14^{\prime} 8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$ |
| Tirchunkode H. and P. .................... | 112229 | 22059 | 775531 |
| Tirekrara Fort | 134234 | 42620 | 755010 |
| Terikitchcoonum H. and P. ............... | 123637 | 0 <br> 11 | $\begin{array}{llll}80 & 5 & 13\end{array}$ |
| * Tirtapully H. ................................ | $\begin{array}{ll}13 & 225\end{array}$ | 22155 | 77 54, 35 |
| Trinomallee H. .....o...................... | 121430 | 11132 | 79 4. 58 |
|  | 121353 | 11046 | 79544 |
| Ttippasogr Fort N. Face | 13836 | 022.22 | 7954 |
| * Trivandeporum... | 114445 | 03210 | 794420 |
| Trivillogr P. | $\begin{array}{lll}13 & 8 & 37\end{array}$ | 02019 | 795611 |
| Undar Ghaut (Peak) | 132032 | 51045 | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 5 & 45\end{array}$ |
| Unganamulia Dg.......................... | 1238 4 | 15849 | 781741 |
| * Ungargooda ................................... | $\begin{array}{llll}13 & 1 & 13\end{array}$ | 51342 | $\begin{array}{rrr}75 & 2 & 48 \\ 79 & 52\end{array}$ |
| * Urrumbaucum H. | $1312 \quad 5$ | 02353 | 795237 |
| Vaipoor Dg. ........ | 12844 | 12524 | 7851 |
| Vandiwash H. and P. | $1232 \quad 7$ | 03849 | 7937.41 |
| Fort | 123032 | 03847 | 793743 |
| Vaniambaddy | 124019 | 13828 | 78372 |
| Veer Rajenderpett H. and P. ............ | 121231 | 42647 | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 49 & 43\end{array}$ |
| Vellore Dg. ...................................... | 125459 | 1545 | 7910.45 |
| VELLORE FORT G. P. ................. | 125520 | 1715 | $\begin{array}{lll}79 & 9 & 15\end{array}$ |
| * Vellengcaud ................................... | 1220.41 | 01847 | 795713 |
| Venkettygherry Fort ..................... | 1302 | 14550 | 783040 |
| Verabud'r Dg. ................................ | 122320 | 2841 | $\begin{array}{lll}78 & 7 & 49\end{array}$ |
| Villanoor P................................... | 1154.44 | 02935 | 794655 |
| Wallajabad Commandg. Officer's ho. | 124756 | 02.525 | 79515 |
| Wallajapett Mosque .................... | 125513 | 0548 | 792222 |
| Wholy Honoor Fort .................... | $\begin{array}{lll}13 & 59 & 7\end{array}$ | 4. 34.22 | 75428 |
| * Womootoor H. ............................ | 12 4 55 | 3221 | 765429 |
| * Woorachmulla.. | 112837 | 23343 | 774247 |
| * Wooritty H. .................................. | 12.2241 | 03416 | 794214 |
| Woos Dg. | 121830 | 50948 | 750642 |
| Wurrelcondah H. and P | 133812 | 22823 | 754807 |
| Wuss Dg. | 134723 | 358 | 761890 |
| Yaelmatoor H,..........o. ......................... | 111206 | 23012 | 774618 |
|  | 140058 | 3. 2716 | $\cdot 76 \cdot 4914$ |
| Yamagherry H. and P. ...................... | 124846 | 31219 | 778411 |
|  | 131641 | 25946 | $\begin{array}{llll}77 & 16 & 44\end{array}$ |
| Yerracondah (Mysoor) ....................... | 125214.26 | 1.5825 | 781805 |
| Yerracondah (Ceded Districts) ..000.0.0.0. | 135459 | 23605 | 774025 |

Elevations and Depressions, contained Arcs, terrestrial Refractions, together with the heights above the level of sea, of all the principal Stations.

1. Stations lying in the nearest direction between the two seas, ommencing with the S. end of the base near St. Thomas's Mount, vhose perpendicular height above the low water mark is 18.7 feet.

| Stations | Stations Observer |  |  | Elevations above the Sea, |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | tations | s. |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| umbauk | S. end of the Base | $\left.\begin{array}{lll} 1 & 47 & 25 \\ \mathrm{D} \end{array}\right\} 1^{\prime} 21^{\prime \prime}$ |  | Perumbauk |  |
| crumbauk Iullapode | Mullapode Perumbauk | 00618 E. $\}$ | ${ }_{16}{ }^{16}$ | Mullapode |  |
| Tullapode |  | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 11 & 34 & \text { D. }\end{array}$ |  |  |  |
| arangooly | Mullapode |  |  | Carangooly | 434.3 |
| arangooly | Wooritty Hill .. | $\left.\begin{array}{llll}0 & 02 & 17 & \mathrm{D} . \\ 0 & 10 & 2 & \mathrm{D}\end{array}\right\}$ | $\frac{1}{10}$ | Wooritty . ..... |  |
| Vooritty Hill | Parangocoil Hill. | 25 |  |  |  |
| Sermacoil Hill. | Wooritty Hill | - $\left.\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 01 & 38 & \mathrm{D} .\end{array}\right\}$ |  | Permacoil | 484.5 |
| ermacoil H | Maillacherry |  | ry |  |  |
| Maillacherry |  | $\left.\begin{array}{l}26 \\ 34 \\ 42 \\ \hline 2 \\ \text { E. }\end{array}\right\}$ |  |  |  |
| natighur | Maillacherry | $\left.\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 57 & 03 & \text { D. }\end{array}\right\}$ |  | Ka | 204.0 |
| Karnatighur Kylasghur $^{\text {a }}$ | Kylasghur Karnatighu: |  |  |  |  |
| ylasghur <br> ylasghur | Karnatighur. |  |  |  |  |
| Cerracondah | Kylasghur | $\left.\begin{array}{llll}28 & 13 & \text { D. }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & 4633\end{aligned}$ | $\frac{1}{1}=$ | Yerrac | 9 |
| yerracondah | Savendroog | 17ccl $\left.\begin{array}{lll}17 & 55 & \mathrm{D}\end{array}\right\}$ |  |  |  |
| avendroog | Yerracondah . <br> Mullapunnabett | $\begin{array}{lll} 29 & 50 & \mathrm{D} \\ 31 & 10 & \mathrm{D} \end{array} .$ |  |  |  |
| Iullapunnabetta | Savendroog. | $\left.\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 19 & 41 & \text { D }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & \text { c }\end{aligned}$ | 1 | Mulla | 3406.7 |
| Mullapunnabetta | Koondhully Hill | O 0051 E.$\}$ |  |  |  |
| Foondhully Hill | Mullapunnabetta | 0 $3036 \mathrm{D} . \left\lvert\, \begin{array}{llll} \\ 34 & 14\end{array}\right.$ |  | Koon | 4366.3 |
| ondhully Hill | Bullamully .... | $\begin{array}{lll} 17 & 40 & \mathrm{D} \cdot\} \\ 40 & 53 \end{array}$ |  |  |  |
| lamully | Koondhully ... | $\left.\begin{array}{lll} 1 & 46 & \mathrm{E} . \\ 25 & 08 & \mathrm{D} \end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{ll} 40 & 53 \\ \hline \end{array}$ |  | Bullamuly | 774.5 |
| Cudapoonabetta | Bullamully ... | 14.15 E. $\} 13$ |  | Kudapoonabetta | 318.7 |
| Sudapoonabetta | Eedgah Station |  |  |  |  |
| h Station | Kudapoonabetta |  | $\frac{1}{7}$ | Eedgah Station | 146.7 |
| gah Station t.on the Beach | Stat.on the Beach Eedgah Station | $\left[\begin{array}{llll} 0 & 58 & 53 & \mathrm{D} . \\ 0 & 56 & 36 & \mathrm{E} . \end{array}\right\} \quad 1 \quad 39$ |  | at.on the Beach | 22.6 |
| The station on the beach above the low-water mark |  |  |  |  |  |
| Difference or error........ |  |  |  |  |  |

Digitized by coOgle
2. Stations not lying in the nearest direction between the two seas, and commencing from Kylnsghur.


TABLE－continuen．

| Stations at ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Stations Observed． | Apparent$\mathbf{E}^{\mathrm{d}} . \& \mathbf{D}^{\mathrm{n}}$ | 管罗 | 产 | Elevations above the Sea． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | tio | ${ }^{6}$ |
| Cheetkul | Bailipp | 2534 |  |  |  | feet． |
| Bailippee | Cheetkul | － 6156 E ． | $2 *$ |  | Bailippe | 2760.6 |
| Bundhully | Kumbet | 0 3126 E |  |  | Kumbeta | 55 |
| Kumbetarenemu | Bundhull | O 3623.3 D ． | 3656 |  | Kumbet |  |
| Bundhully Mysoor Hill | Mysoor |  |  |  | M | 3446. |
| Mysoor Hill | Bettatipoor | $0{ }_{0} 0011 \mathrm{D}$ |  |  |  |  |
| Bettatipoor | Mysoor Hill | 0 30 cred |  |  | Bettatipo | 434 |
| Mullapunnabetta | Bettatipoor Hill |  |  |  | Be | 434 |
| Bettatipoor Hill | Mullapumabetta | O 30588 D. | 37 |  | Be | 434 |
| Mullapunuabetta | Bomanelly | 0018 512 D. | 2930 |  | Bomanel | 3142.3 |
| Bomanelly | Mullapunnabeita | 0 0842 l D． | 2930 |  | 俍 |  |
| Bomanelly ．．． Daesauneegooda | Daesauncegonda Bomanelly | （rrrr． | 46 | $\frac{1}{16}$ | Daesauneegooda | 3804. |
| Daesauneegooda | Hanuabetta | 0 13 30 3 D． |  |  |  |  |
| Hannabetta ．．． | Daesauneegoo | － 927 D. |  |  |  |  |
| Mullapunnabetta | Balroynd | O 73 |  |  | Bal | 098 |
| Balroyudroog－ | Mullapunnabett | O 4116 |  |  |  |  |
| Bettatipoor ．．．． | Taddiandamole |  |  |  | diandamole | 5681. |
| Taddiandamole | Beftatip | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 37 & 30 & \mathrm{D} .\end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |
| Taddiandainole | Mount Dilli ．． | $\begin{array}{cccc}1 & 56 & 5 & \text { D．} \\ 1 & 17 & 19 & \text { cher }\end{array}$ |  | $\frac{1}{12}$ | Mount Dilli ．．．． <br> Kunduddakamully |  |
| Kunduddakamully Kunduddakámully | Taddiandamole | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 17 & 19\end{array}$ | 24 |  | Kunduddakamully |  |
| Kunduddakámully Baekul ．．．．．． | Baekul | $1 \begin{aligned} & 1 \\ & 1 \\ & 1\end{aligned} 147$ |  |  |  |  |
| Baekul ．．． Bullamully | Kunduddakamully <br> Kunnoor Hill ．． | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{llll}1 & 21 & 40 & \mathrm{E} . \\ 0 & 29 & 53 & \mathrm{D} .\end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |
| Kunnoor | Buillamully | O29 | 1148 |  | nno | 25 |
| Koondhully | Soobramane | 2． 2257 | 432 |  | Soobraman |  |
| Koondhulliy | Koondoor H | 0 25 49 D |  |  |  |  |
| Koondoor Hill－ | Koondhully | $0 \begin{array}{llll}0 & 11 & 25 & \text { E．}\end{array}$ | 15 54 |  |  |  |
| Meejar Hill ： | Kudapoonabetta | 02331 D ． | 952 |  | Meeja | 651 |
| Meejar Hill | Booggargooda | 0 1116 D |  |  |  |  |
| Booggargooda－ | Meejar Hill ． | 0 2223 |  |  |  |  |
| Stat．on the Beech Kooliebogooda． | Kooliebogooda Stat，on the Beach | （14ccc｜ |  |  |  | 0 |
| Kooliebogooda－ | Stat，on the Beach | O 1755 D ． |  |  | Kooliebogooda | 200.5 |





## v.

An Account of the Male Plant, which furnishes the Medicine generally called Columbo, or Colomba Rool.

## by boctior andrew berry,

Member of the Medical Board of Fort St. George.

## Kalumb of the Africans.

Colomba, or Columbo of the Shops.

IT is spelt Kalumbo by the Portuguése, in whose language the $o$ is mute, and from this the name originated, by which this valuable root is known in Europe. It is a staple export of the Portuguese from Mozambique, and from the quantity exported, it is remarkable that the place of its growth, should have been so long unknown or doubttul to the rest of Europe.
$I_{T}$ is never cultivated, but grows naturally, and in abundance, in the thick forests, that are said to cover the coast about Oibo, and Mozambique, and inland about 15 or 20 miles. The roots are dug up in the month of March, the dry season; or when the natives are not employed in agriculture ; not the original root, which is perennial, but offsets from its base, and that of sufficient size, yet not so old as to be full of fibres, which render it unfit for commerce.

This root is in high estimation amiong all the Africans, even far removed from Mozambique, for the cure of dysentery, which is frequent among them ; for venereals; for all complaints of long standing; in powder for the cure of ulcers, and as a remedy for almost every disorder.
Vox. $\mathbf{X}$.
C c

Soon ${ }^{\prime}$ after it is dug up, the root is cut into slices, strung on cords, and hung up to dry in the shade. It is deemed merchantable, when, on exposure to the sun, it breaks short ; and of a bad quality when it is soft, or black.

I am indebted for the above account of the columbo root, to Mons. Fortin ; who, when at Mozambique, purchasing it as an article of rrade, procured an entire offset from the main root, of a larger size than usual ; which he brought with him to Madras, in September 1805 ; and presented it to Doctor James Anderson, the Physician General ; who considered it a valuable present to himself, and a great acquisition to India.

This root was cylindrical, somewhat flattened on the opposite sides; about 15 inches in length, a part being broken off; and between 3 and $\pm$ inches in diameter; outwardly the common colour of columbo, but on breaking the surface, which is covered by a thin, tender, brownish pellicle, of a fine yellow.

The root being succulent, and heavy, I planted it horizontally in a large box, filled with garden mould, where, in about a fortnight, it shot out two stems from the end that had been broken off from the parent root, but from not being vigorous, no flowers were then produced; and in about six months, from the time it had been planted, the stems withered down to the ground.

The root was then carefully taken up, which was not altered in size, or appearance, but from the end opposite to where the stems had shot out several fusitorm toots, or sessile tubers, had grown, as represented in the accompanying drawing, (Fig. 2) These had evidently suffered from confinement in the box; none of
the roots were then separated, and the whole was deposited in a cool room, and covered with a moist sand; where in about two months, the old root began again to throw out several buds from the same end as before. It was now planted in the ground, when one more vigorous shoot, which grew rapidly, soon destroyed the others; and in a month this shoot produced male flowers only, nor after the strictest search, could any other be found on the plant, so that the genus is as yet uncertain.

This stem, like the former, withered in six months, when the roots were dug up, and found considerably larger, but not much altered in shape, nor had any of them attained a size to be compared with the original. There was only the addition of one new lateral root or branch, from this second year's growth. As it was supposed that these roots would now vegetate, they were detached; which has been unfortunate, as several months have now elapsed, and no buds have formed : they are howerer still very fresh, and may yet grow. From this it appears that only large roots are fit for planting out.

From the male flowers, and habit of the plant, the columbo seems to belong to the natural order of Sarmentacea Linn. or Menisperma of Jussieu. The following description may help to decide.

## Planta Herbacea.

Radix perennis, ramosa; rami fusiformes.
Caulis annuus, post sex, aut septem menses marcescens, volubilis, simplex, teres, pilosus, crassitudine pennæ.
Folia alterna, petiolata, semipedalia et majora, quinqueloba, quinquenervia; lobis integerrimis, acuminatis.
Petioli teretes, pilcsi, basi reflexi, folio paulo breviores.
Cc. 2

## Masculi Flores.

Raczmı axillares, solitarii, compositi, pilosi, folio breviores. Pedunculi partiales alterni, floribus sessilibus.
Bractese lanceolate, ciliate, decidux.
Calyx Perianthium hexaphyllum; foliolís æqualibus, tribus exterioribus, tribus interioribus; oblongis, obtusis, glabris.
Corolia hexapetala, minuta, Petala cuneato-oblonga, concava, carnosa, obtusa, stamina ambientia.
Sramina, Filamenta sex, corolla paulo lougiora. Anthera quadrilobæ, quadriloculares.
Pistillum nullum.

## EXPLANATION OF THE FIGURES.

iFig. I. The extremity of the shoot that flowered in 1807, rather smaller than the natural size.
2. The whole root, about one-third of the natural size only.
3. One of the bractex.
4. The underside of one of the flowers.
5. The upperside of the same. These three are magnified.
6. One of the petals more magnified than the last three.
7. The underside of one of the stamina, in the enlarged apex of which the four polliniferous pits are seen.

## VI

## On Sanscritt and Prácrit Poetry.

## BY HENRY THOMAS COLEBROOKE, ESQ.

Ths design of the present essay is not an enumeration of the poetical compositions current among the Hindus, nor an examination of their poetry by maxims of criticism recognized in Europe; or by rules of composition taught in their own treatises of rhetorick; but to exhibit the laws of versification, together with brief notices of the most celebrated poems in which these. have been exemplified.

An inquiry into the prosody of the ancient and learned language of India will not be deemed an unnecessary introduction to the extracts from'Indian poems, which may be occasionally inserted in the supplementary volumes of Asiatick Researches : and our transactions record more than one instance of the aid which was derived from a knowledge of Sanscrit prosody, in decyphering passages rendered obscure by the obsoleteness of the character, or by the inaccuracy of the transcripts*. It will be found similarly useful by every person who studies that language ; sirce manuscripts are in general grossly incorrect : and a familiarity with the metre will frequently assist the reader in restoring the text where it has been corrupted. Even to those, who are unacquainted with the linguage, a concise explanation of the Indian system of prosody may be curious, since the artifice of its construction is peculiar,

[^67]and not devoid of ingenuity : and the prosody of Sanscril will be found to be richer than that of any other known language, in variations of metre, regulated either by quantity or by number of syllables, both with and without rhyme, and subject to laws imposing in some instances rigid restrictions, in others allowing ample latitude. I am prompted by these considerations to undertake the explanation of that system, premising a few remarks on the original works in which it is taught, and adding notices of the poems from which examples are selected.

The rules of prosody are contained in Súţas or brief aphorisms, the reputed author of which is Pingalanága, a fabulous being, represented by mythologists in the shape of a serpent ; and the same, who, under the title of Patanjali, is the supposed author o the Mahábháshya, or great commentary on grammar, and also of the text of the Yóga s'ástra*; and to whom likewise the text or the comuientary of the Jyotish annexed to the Védas $\psi$, appears to be attributed. The aphorisms of Pingala'cha'ria, as he is sometimes called, on the prosody of Sanscrit (exclusive of the rules in Prácrı̈l likewise ascribed to him), are collected into eight books, the' first of which allots names, or rather literal marks, to feet consisting of one, two or three syllables. The second book teaches the manner, in which passages of the Vedas are measured. The third explains the variations in the subdivision of the couplet and stanza The fourth treats of profane poetry, and especially of verses, in which the number of syllables, or their quantity, is not uniform. The

[^68]fifth, sixth and seventh exhibit metres of that sort which has been called monoschemastic, or uniform, because the same feet recur invariably in the same places. The eighth and last book serves as an appendix to the whole, and contains rules for computing all the possible combinations of long and short syllables in verses of any length.

This author cites earlier writers on prosody, whose works appear to have been lost: such as Saitava, Craushtica, Tándin, and other ancient sages,


Pingala's text has been interpreted by various commentators; and, among others, by Hbla'yud'ha внат'т's, author of an excellent gloss entitled Mrita sanjizini *. It is the work on which I have chiefly relied. A more modern commentary, or rather a paraphrase in verse, by ' $\mathbf{N a}^{\prime}$ ra'yan' buat'tia ta'ba', under the title of Vrizlbcti ratna, presents the singularity of being interpreted throughout in a duuble sense, by the author himself; in a further gloss entitled Paricshá.

The Agnipurán'a is quoted for a complete system of prosody $t$, founded apparently on Pingala's aphorisms; but which serves to correct or to supply the text in many places; and which is accordingly used for that purpose by commentators. Original treatises likewise have been composed by various authors $\ddagger$ : and among others by the celebrated poet Ca'lida'sa. In

[^69]a short treatise entitled $S^{\prime}$ ruta $b 6 d^{\prime} h a$, this poet teaches the laws of versification in the very metre to which they relate : and has thus united the example with the precept. The same mode has been also practised by many other writers on prosody; and, in particular, by Pingala's commentator Na'ra'yan'a bhat ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{t}^{\prime} \mathrm{A}$; and by the authors of the Vrìtta Retnácara and Vritta derpan'a.

Ca'lida'sa's S'ruta bódha exhibits only the most common sorts of metre, and is founded on Pingala's Prácrït rules of prosody; as has been remarked by one of the conmentators * on the Vrìtta Relnácara.

The rules, generally cited under the title of Prácrit Pingala, have been explained in a metrical paraphrase, teaching the construction of each species of metre in a stanza of the same measure, and subjoining select examples. This Prácrit paraphrase, entitled Pingala vritti, is quoted under the name of Hammía $\psi$, who is celebrated in more than one passage given as examples of metre: and who probably patronised the author. It has been imitated in a modern Sanscrit treatise on Prácrit prosody entitled Vritta muclávalí $\downarrow$; and has been copiously explained in a Sanscrit commentary named Píngala pracása $\S$.

[^70]
$\bullet$

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|  |
| :---: |
|  |  |

Fig. 6.
 सभितानिनिएव कामान म ख्वनातमोएह्ह त चेटि

Fig. 7.







 अमुनाघने :क्षिनिमूतानिमृतास मती न्प

Though relative to $P$ ácritt prosody, the rules are applicable, for the moft part, to Sanscrit prosody alfo : since the laws of versification in both languages are nearly the same.

Thi Prácrit, here meant, is the language ufually employed, under this name by dramatick writers; and not in a more general fenfe of the term, any regular provincial dialect corrupted from Sunscrit. He'machandra, in his grammar of Prícrit, declares it to be so called because it is derived from Sanscrit*.

Accordingly his and other grammars of the language consift of rules for the transformation of Sanscrit words into the derivative tongue: and the specimens of it in the Indian dramas, as well as in the books of the Juins, exhibit few words which may not be traced to a Sanscrit origin. This is equally true of the several dialects of Prácrit: viz. S'auraséní or language of $\mathbb{S}^{\prime} u$ rastna, $\dagger$ and Mágad'hi or dialect of Magadha; $\ddagger$ which according to grammarians, who give rules for deducing the first from Sanscrit, and the second from the first, $\S$ or both from Sanscrit, $\|$ are dialects nearly allied to Prácrit, and regularly formed by permutations, for which the rules are stated by them. The same may be

[^71]said of the Pais'áchi, as a language, (and distinguished from the jargonor gibberish which either dramatick writers, or actors exhibiting their dramas, sometimes put into the mouths of demons); for the grammarians of Prácrit teach the manner of forming the Pais áchi* from the dialect called $S^{\prime}$ auraséni. $\uparrow$ That remark may be also extended to Apabhrans'a as a fixed language partaking of Prácrǐt and S'auraséni, but deducing many terms immediately from the Sanscrit under rules of permutation peculiar to itself. $\ddagger$

The affinity of these dialects of Prácrit to the Sanscrit and to each other is so great, that they reciprocally borrow, notwithstanding their own particular rules, terms permuted in the manner of other dialects, and even admit, without alteration, words inflected according to the Sanscrit grammar. § They may be, therefore, cunsidered as dialects of a single language, the Prágrit or derivative tongue; so termed with reference to Sanscrit, from which it is derived.

Besides these cognate dialects, the dramatick writers introduced other lansuages as spoken by different persons of the drama. Such, according to the enumeration in the Sáhitya áerpan'a, $\|$ are the Dácshin'átyá, $\mathbb{T}$ or language used in the south of India; the Drázizdi or

[^72]dialect of the southetn extremity of the peninsula; the Avanticá (probably the language of Málavá);* the Ard'ha mágad'hí, distinguished from Mágad'híproperly so called; the Báhlicábháshá, perhaps the language of Balk in the Transuxana); the Maharcishtri or did alect of the Marhablas; the Práchyá or language employed in the east of India; $\ddagger$ the Abhiríand Chándálı, which from their names, seem to be dialects used by herdsmen and by persons of the lowest tribes; the Sáncará and Sáliari, concerning which nothing satisfactory can be at present suggested; and generally any provincial dialect.

It is not to be supposed, that the Prácrit rules of prosody, as taught by Pingala, are suited to all these langnages: but it is probable, that they were framed for the same dialect of Prácrit, in which they are composed; and they are applicable to those cognate dialects, which differ much less from each other (be. ing very easily confounded), than they all do from Sanscrit, their acknowledged common parent. Generally those rules may be considered applicable to all the languages comprehended under the designation of Prácrit, $\oint$ as derivative from Sansirit; and certainly so to the vernacular tongues of the ten nations of Hindus now inhabiting India. A writer on Sanscrit prosody $\|$ pronounces

[^73]the various kind of metre to be admissible in the provincial languages, and has quoted examples in those of Mäháráshi'ra', Gurjara and Cányacubja. The last mentioned, which is the same with the old Hindi, as is demonstrated by this specinen of it, might furnish very numerous instances; especially the Hinai poetry of Césava da'sa, , who bas studiously eniployed a great variety of metre. Some examples will accordingly be quoted from the most distinguished Hindi poets. The sacred books of the Sikhs, composed ir a Penjábi dialect, which is undoubtedly derived from the ancient Sáreswata; $\uparrow$ abound in specimens of such metre. The language of Mit hilá, and its kindred tongue, which prevails in Bengal, also supply proof of the aptitude of Sanscrit prosody: and the same is probably true of the other four national languages. $\ddagger$

Pingala's rules of Sanscrit prosody are expressed with singular brevity. The artifice, by which this has been effected, is the use of single letters to denote the feet of the syllables. Thus L. the initial of a word signifying short (lag' $h u$ ), indicates a short syllable. G. for a similar reason, § intends a long one. The combinations of these two leiters denote the several dissyllables: $\lg$ signifying an iambic; gl a trochæus or choreus; gg a spondee; 11 a pyrrichius. The letters, M.Y.R.S.T.J.Bh. and $\mathbf{N}$, mark all the trisyllabical feet, from three long syliables to as many short. A San-

[^74]sctit verse is generally scaned by these last mentioned feet; with the addition of either a dissyllable or a monosyllable at the close of the verse, if necessary. This may be rendered plain by an example taken from the Greek and Latin prosody.

Scanned in the Indian manner, a phaleucian verse, instead of a spondee, a dactyl and three trochees, would be measured by a molossus, an anapæst, an amphibrachys and a trochec ; expressed thus, m. s. j. g.l. A sapphic verse would be similarly measured by a cretic, an antibacchius, an amphibrachys and a trochee: written r. t. j. g.l.

To avoid the two frequent use of uncommon terms, I shall, in describing the different sorts of Sanscrit metre, occasionally adopt a mode of stating the measure more consonant to the Greek and Latin prosody, in which the iambic, trochee, and spondee, dactyl, anapæst, and tribrachys are the only feet of two or three syllables which are commonly employed.

In Prácrit prosody the variety of feet is much greater: verses being scanned by feet of different lengths from two mátrás, (two short syllables or one long) to three, four, five and even six márrás or instants. These various descriptions of feet have been classed, and denominated, by the writers on this branch of prosody.

The verse, according to the Sanscrit system of prosody, is the component part of a couplet, stanza or strophe, commonly named a $S^{\prime} l 6 c a$, although this term be sometimes restricted to one sort of metre, as will be subsequently shown on the authority of $\mathrm{Ca}^{\prime}$ midasa.

The stanza or strophe consists isually of four verses denominated páda; or, considered as a counlet, it comprises two verses subdivided into pádas or measures. Whether it be deemed a stanza or a couplet, its half, called ard'has'lóca, contains usually two pádas; and in general the pauses of the sense correspond with the principal pauses of the metre, which are accordingly indicated by lines of'separation at the close of the s'loca and of its hemistich. When the sense is suspended to the close of a second $s^{\prime}$ loca, the double stanza is denominated Yugma; while one, comprising a greater number of measure, is termed Culaca. In cominon with others. I have sometimes translated s'lóca by " verse," or by "cou;,let;" but, in prosody, it can only be considered as a stanza, though the pauses are not al ways very perfectly marked until the close of the first half: and in conformity to the Indian system, it is generally treated as a tetrastich, though some kinds of regular metre have uniform pauses which might permit a division of the stanza into eight,' twelve, and even sixteen verses.

In Priacrit prosody, a greater variety is admitted in the length of the stanza; some species of metre being restricted to a true couplet, and others extended to stanzas of six and even sixteen verses: independently of pauses, which. being usually marked by rhyme, would justify the farther subdivision of the stanza, into as many verses as there are pauses. Even in Sanscrit prosody, instances occur of stanzas, avowedly comprising a greater or a less number of verses than four: as three, five, six, \&c. But these are merely exceptions to the general rule.

Concraning the length of the vowels in Sanscrit verse, since none are ambiguous, it is only necessary to remark, that the comparative length of syllables is determined by the allotment of one instant or matrí to a short syllable, and two to a long one; chat a naturally short vowel becomes long in prosody wheilit is followed by a double or conjunct consonant;* and that the last syllable of a verse is either long or short, according to the exigence of the-metre, $\dagger$ whatever may be its natural length.

Sanscrit prosody admits two sorts of metre. One governed by the number of syllables; and which is mostly uniform or monoschematic in profane poetry, but altogether arbitrary in various metrical passages of the Vedas. The other is in fact measured by feet like the hexameters of Greek and Latin: but only one sort of this metre, which is denominated $A^{\prime} r y a ́$, is. acknowledged to be so regulated; while another sort is governed by the number of syllabic instants or mátrás.

[^75]1. Gan'acli'handas or metre regulated byfeet (mátráganá.)

$$
A^{\prime} \text { RYA }^{\prime} \text { or } G_{A^{\prime}}^{\prime} \mathbf{T}^{\prime} \mathrm{HA}^{\prime} \text {. }
$$

The metre, named' $A^{\prime} r y a ́$, or in Prácrit, Gáhá, from the sanscrit Gtichá, is measured by feet denominated gan'a, or mátrágan'a, which are equivalent to two long syllables or to four short: it is described as a couplet, in which the first verse contains seven and half feet; and the sixth foot must consist of a long syllable between two short, or else of four short; while the odd feet (1st, 3d, 5th, and ; th) must never be amphibrachys.* In the second verse of the couplet, the sixth foot (for here too it retains that name) consists of a single short syllable. Consequently the proportion of syllabick instants in the long and short verses is thirty to twenty-seven. $\downarrow$ The same metre has, with some propriety, been described as a stanza of four verses : $\ddagger$ for it is subdivided by its pauses into four pádas, which have the usual privilege of going to the last syllable, whether naturally long or short, the length required by the metre. The cause is commonly restricted to the close of the third foot; and the measure is in this case denominated Pathyá: but, if the pause be placed otherwise in either verse, or in both of them, the metre is named Vipulá.

A particular sort of this measure, deduced from either species above described, is called Chapalá ; and the laws of its construction require, that the second and fourth feet should be amphibrachys; and that the first foot should be either a spondee or an anapæst; and

[^76]the fifth, a dactyl or a spondee. The first verse of the couplet, the second or both, may be constructed according to these rigid rules : hence three varieties of this sort of metre.

The regular $A^{\prime}$ ry'íconsists of alternate long and short verges : but, if the short verse precede the long one, the metre is called Udgiti. If the couplet consist of two long verses, it is named Gitit; or of two short verses, Upagiti. : Another sort of this metre is named A'ryá guti: it is constructed by completing the eighth foot of the regular $\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime}$ ryá*.

This measure admits therefore of eighty principal variations ; deducible from the nine sorts abovementioned: for the pause may be placed at the close of the third foot in either verse of each couplet, in both, or in neither; and either verse, both, or neither, may be constructed according to the strict rules of the Chapala measure; and the verse may consist of seven and a half, or of eight feet; and may be arranged in couplets consisting of verses alternately long and short, or alternately short and long, or else uniformly long, or uniformly short.

The $\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime}$ ryá metre is very frequently employed by Indian poets; but works of great length in this measure are not common: it is oftener intermixed with verses of other kinds, though instances do occur of its exclusive use : thus the first and fourth cantos, and most part of the 2 d and 3 d , in the poem entitled Nalodaya, and the entire work of Go'verd'hana $\dagger$, are in the A'ryá metre. And so is the brief text of the Sainc'hya

[^77]philosophy of Capila, as taught byilstwaractish$\mathrm{N}^{\prime} \mathrm{A}^{*}$; and the copious treatise of astronomy by Brahmeguptał.

The Nalodaya abovementioned, which is ascribed to the celebrated poet $\mathrm{OA}^{\prime}$ brda'sa, is a poem in four cantos, comprising 220 couplets or stanzas ${ }_{+}^{*} ;$ on the adventures of Nala and Damayantí: a story which is already knbwn to the English reader $\oint \because$ In this singular poem, rhyme and alliteration are combined in the termination of the verses: for the three or four last syllables of each hemistich within the stanza are the same in sound though different in sense. It is a series of puns or a pathetick subject.

Ir is supposed to have been written in emulation of a short poem (of 22 stanzas) similarly constructed but 'with less repetition of each rhyme; and entitled from the words of the challenge with which it concludes, Ghat'a carpara.

## [Seeplate A. Fig. J.]


#### Abstract

- Thirsty and touching water to be sipped from the hollow palms of my hands, I swear by the loves of sprightly damsels, that I will carry water in a broken pitcher for any poet by whom I am surpassed in rhyines.'


[^78]However, the epick poem of Ma'g'ha, which will be mentioned 'more particularly under the next head, contains a specimen of similar alliteration and rhyme; the last fourteen sianzas of the sixth canto, (descriptive of the seasons,) being constructed with like terminations to ,each half of the stanza. Instances will also be cited from Bhatravi's poem hereafter noticed.

The following example of a species of the $A^{\prime}$ ryá metre is taken from the preface of the Naludaya.

## $\boldsymbol{A}^{\prime}$ ryá giti (8 feet).

## [See Plate A. Fig. 2.]

" The king celebrated under the name of Rama *, exists, who is conversant with the supteme ways of moral conduct; in whose family, exempt from calamity and enriched with the gems of the earth, dependants flourish." 1.5.

The next is taken from Damayanti's lamentation on finding herself deserted by her husband Nala. It is in the same species of metre.
26. Tatra, padé vyálínám,
at'la vibhrán:am vané cha dévyá, 'línám
tanu-vrindé vyálínám
tatin dad'háné, tayáspadé vyálínaın.
87. Véga -balá ’pásitayáa,

Vènyá, Bhaimí yutá lalápá 'sitayá.
" Nripa!. sa-calápá 'sitayá . :
hatwá 'rin, bándhaván cilá 'pási tayá.
28. Sa cat'ham mána-vạnánam,

Nyáyavid! ácharasi sévyamána-vanánám, D'hrita-síma navánám,
Dáránám tyágam, anupanná! 'navanánám.

[^79]D d 2

> 28. Para-critam état twénah [tu énah] Samarámi, tan na smritó 'si mé tattwéna,

> Dosha-samétatwêna
pradúshayé nà'tra sambhìamé tat twéna! [twa, ína!]"
[See Plate A. Fig. 3.]


#### Abstract

- Then the princess wandered in the forest, an abode of serpqnts, crowded with trees which resound with the sweet buzz of bees, the resort of flocks of birds. With her dark hair dishevelled through her haste, Bfaimí thus lamented:' "King! thou slayest foes, but defendest thy kindred, with thy quiver and thy sword. Unrivalled in excellence and conversant with morality, how hast thou practised the desertion of a wife proud but left helpless in a forest; thus rendering thyself the limit of praise? but I consider this evil to be the act of another; and do not charge thee with it : I do not blame thee, my husband, as in fault for this terror.' 3. 2 6 - 29.


In the passage here cited, some variations in the reading, and greater differences in the interpretation, occur: with which it is, however, unnecessary to detain the reader. After consulting several scholia, the interpretation, which appeared preferable, has been selected. The same mode will be followed in subsequent quotations from other poems.
II. Mátráchihlandas or metre regulated by quantity.

> 1. Vaitaili'ya.

Another sort of metre, regulated by the proportion of mátras or syllabick instants, is measured by the time of the syllables exclusively; without noticing, as in the Ganacli'handas, the number of feet. It is therefore, denominated Mátrách'handas, and the chief metre of this kind is named Vaitáliya. It is a tetrastich.or strophe of four verses, the first and third containing the time of fourteen short syllables; and the second and
fourth, sixteen. The laws of its construction impose that each verse shall end in a cretic and iambic; or else in a dactyl and spondee *; or, by bacchius f. In regard to the remaining moments, which are six in the odd verses, and eight in the even verses of the strophe, it must be observed as a general rule. that neither the second and third, nor the fourth and fifth moments should be combined in the same long syllable ; nor, in the second and fourth verses, should the sixth mátrá be combined with the seventh. That general rule however admits of exceptions: and the name of the metre varies accordingly $\ddagger$.

Although the Vaitáliya regularly consist of alternate short and long verses, it may be varied by making the stanza consist either of four short or four long verses; admitting at the same time the exception just now hinted \$§.

The following is an example of a stanza composed in a species of this metre!

- This varicty of the metre is named $A$ patalica.
+ Thus angmented, the measure is called Aupach'handasica: the whole of the last canto of Magha's epick poem hereafter mentioned is in this metre: and so is the first half of the 13th canto in Bharavi's Citatarjuniya.
$\ddagger$ In the even verses of the strophe, if the 4th and 5 th moments be combined in one long syllable, contrary to the general rule abovementioned, the metre is named Prachya vritti: or, in the odd verses, if the 2d and 3d moments be so combined, the metre is denominated Udichyla vritti : or the rule may be violated in both instances, at the same time; and the measure then takes ahe name of Pravrittaca.
§ A tetrastich, consisting of fuur short verses of the sort called Pravrittaca, is named Charuhasini: and one comprising fuur long verses of that description is termed Aparantici.

$$
\text { Dd } 3
$$

## Vaita'liya (Pravrittaca).

Idam, Bharata-vansa-bhúbhritám, sruyatám, sruti-manórasáyanam, pavitram, ad'hicam, subhódayam, Vyása-vactra-cat'hitam, Pravrittacam.
[See Plate A. Fig. 4.]
" Listen to this pure, auspicious and pleasing history of the kings of the race of Bharata as uttered from the mouth of Vyasa."

Here, as in most of the examples given by the commentator Hela'yud'ha, and by other writers on prosody, the name of the metre occurs, but with a different acceptation. Where the stanza has the appearance of being a quotation (as in the present instance), it might be conjectured, that the denomination of the measure was originally assumed from the example; and this conjecture would appear probable, wherever the name (as is frequently the case,) has no radical meaning connected with the subject of metre. But, in many instances, the radical interpretation of the word is pertinent and has obviously suggested its application' as a term of prosody; and the stanza, which is given as an example, must therefore have been purposely constructed to exhibit the metre by words in which its denomination is included. This is contromed by the circumstance of some of the words being incompatible with the measure which they designate : and in such cases the author apologizes on that ground for not exhibiting the name in the example.

The Vaitálíya metre has been employed by same of the most eminent poets ; for instance, in the epick poem of $M_{A^{\prime}} \mathbf{G}^{\prime} \mathbf{H A}^{\prime}$, the 16 th canto of which is chiefly in this measure, as the 20th and last canto
is in that species of it which is called Aupuch'handasica.

The work here mentioned is an epick poem, the subject of which is the death of S'Is'upa'la slain in war by Crishn'a : it is entitled S'is'upala: bad'ha, but is usually cited under the name of its author, whose designation, with praises of his family, appears in the concluding stanzas of the poem. Yet, if tradition may be trusted, Ma'g'ha, though expressly named as the author, was the patron, not the poet. As the subject is heroick, and even the unity of action well preserved,' and the style of the composition elevated, this poem is' entitled to the name of epick. But the Indian taste for descriptive poetry, and particularly for licentious description; has disfigured even this work, which is otherwise not undeserving of its high reputation. The two first cantos and the last eight are suitable to the design of the poem. But the intermediate ten, describing the journey of Crishn'a with a train of amorous damsels,' from Dwáracá to Indraprasi'ha, is misplaced, and in more than one respect exceptionable.
, THE argument of the poem is as follows. In the first eanto, Na'reda, commissioned by Indra, visits. Crishn'a and incites him to war with his cousin, but mortal enemy, S'is'upa'la king of the Chédis. In the second, Crishn'a consults with his uncle and brother, whether war should be immediately commenced, or he should first assist Yud'hisht'hira in complet ng a solemn sacrifice which had been appointed by him : the result of the consultation is in favour of the latter measure : and accordingly, in the 3d canto, Crishn'a departs for Yud'inisht'hira's capital. In the thirteenth he arrives and is welcomed by the Pa'n'davas. In the following canto, the sacrifice is begun ; and, in the next, $S^{\prime}$ is'upa'la impatient of the divine honours. raid to. Crishn'a retires with his partisans from the Dd 4
place of sacrifice. A negociation ensues; which is however ineffectual, and both armies prepare for action. This occupies two cantos.' In the eighteenth both armies'issue to the field of battle, and the conflict commences. The battle continues in the next canto, which describes the discomfiture and slaughter of S'is'upa'la's army. In the last canto, the king, grown desperate, dares Crishn'a to the combat. They engage, and in the Indian manner fight with supernatural weapons. S'is'upa'la assails his enemy with serpents, which the other destroys by means of gigantic cranes. The king has recourse to igneous arms, which Crishn'á extinguishes by a neptunian weapon. The combat is prolonged with other miraculous arms, and finally Crishńa slays $\mathrm{S}^{\prime}$ is'upata with an arrow.

The following example is from a speech of $S^{\prime} 1 s^{\prime} U-$ pa'la's embassador, in reply to a discourse of S'atyaci brother of Crishn'a, at an interview immediately preceding the battle.

## [Sbe Plate A. Fig. 5.]

*A low man, poor in understanding, does not perceive his own advantage: that he should not comprehend it when shown by others, is surprising. The wife, of themselves, know the approach of danger, or they put trust in others: but a foolish man does not believe information without personal experience. The proposal, which I made to thee, Crishna, was truly for thy benefit : the generous are ready to advise even their enemies bent on their destruction. Peace and war have been offered at the same time by me; judging their respective advantages, thou wilt choose between them. Yet good advice addressed to those whose understanding is astray, becomes vain, like the beams of the cold moon directed towards lakes eager for the warm rays of the sun." 16.39-43.

Anothrr passage of the same poem is here subjoined as a specimen of a different species of this metre. It is the opening of the last canto; where $S^{\prime}$ iss
upa'la, impatient of the discomfiture of his troops and of those of his allies, dares Crishn'a to single: combat.

## Aupaclihandasica.

-[See Plate A. Fig. 6.]

Muc'ham ullasita-tri-rec'ham uchchair bhidura-bhrú-yugabhishan'an dad'bánah,
Samitáv iti vicramán amrishyan, gatabhír, áliwata Chédirát Murárim.

- Raising his head, and with a countenance terrible by its forked brow and wrinkled furehead, the king of the Cbédis, impatient of the prowess thus displayed in battle, banished fear, and challenged the foe of Mura to the fight.' 20.1.

A further example of the same metre is the second starza of the following extract from the Cirátájuniya** of Bha'ratí. The remaining stanzas exhibit variety of measure, with two instances of singular alliteration.

The subject of that celebrated poem is Arjuna's ohtaining celestial arms from S'iva, Indra and the rest of the gods, to be employed against Duryód'hana. It is by a rigid observance of severe austerities in the first instance, and afterwards by his prowess in a conflict with S'iva (in the disguise of a mauntaineer), that Arjuna prevails. This is the whole subject of the poem; which is ranked with the Cumára. and Raghu of Ca'lida'sa, the Naishad hijy of Sríharsha, and Ma'gha's epick poem, among the six, excellent compositions in Sanscrit. The sixth is the Méghaditia also ascribed to $\mathrm{Ca}^{\prime} \mathrm{L} \ddagger \mathrm{D}^{\prime} \mathrm{A} A \mathrm{sa}$; and, on ac.

[^80]count of its excellence, admitted among the great poems (Maha'cavya), notwithstanding its brevity.

## [See Plate A. Fig. 7.]

The stanzas, which contain alliteration, are here copied in Roman characters.

> 18. Iba durad'higamaih
> Cinchid évágamaih
> Satatan asutaram
> Varn'ayantyantaram.
> 19. Aınum ativipinam
> Véda digryápinam
> Purusham iva param
> Padmayónih param.
> 20. Sulabhaih sadà nayavatá 'yavatá Nid'hi-guhyacad'hipa-ramaih paramaih
> Anuná d'hanaih cshitibhrita 'tibhritá Samatítya bhăti jagatí jagati..

- Then Arjuna, admiring the mountain in silent astonishment, was respectfully addressed by his conductor, $\mathbf{C u}$ verba's attendant: for even loquacity is becoming in its. season.'
"Thłs mountain with its snowy peaks rending the cloudy. sky in a thousand places, is, when viewed, able to remove at once the sins of man. An imperceptible something within it, the wise ever demonstrate to exist by proofs difficultly apprehended. But Brahmá alone thoroughly knows this vast and inaccessible-mountain, as he alone knows the supreme soul. With its lakes overspread by the bloom of lotus, and overshadowed by arbours of creeping plants whose foliage and blos? soms are enchanting, the pleasing scenery subdues the hearts of women who maintained their steadiness of mind even in the company of a lover. By this happy and well governed mountain, the earth, filled with gems of easy acquisition and great excellence delightful to the god of riches, seems to surpass both rival worlds *." 5. 16-20.
- The first and fourth stanzas, in this quotation, are in the Drutavilambita metres and the fifth in the Pramita'cshara'; which


## 2. Ma'trá-samaca.

The metre denominated Mátrićsamaca consists of four verses, each of which contains the quantity of sixteen short syllables; and in which the last syllable must be a long one; and the ninth syllabick noment must be in general detached from the eighth and tenth, and be exhibited of course by a short syllable; if the twelfth be so likewise, the metre is distinguished by another name; or if the fifth and eighth remain short, the denomination is again changed. The last sort of metre is varied by devialing from the rule respecting the ninth moment; and another variety exhibits the fifth, eighth, and twelfth moments by short syllables *. These five varieties of the metre called Mátrásamaca may be variously combined in the same stanza ; and in that case the measure is denominated Poduculaca: a name, which is applied with greater latitude in Pracrit prosody, to denote a tetrastich wherein each verse contains sixteen moments, without any other restriction as to the number and place of the long and short syllables.

A poem inserted in the first volume of Asiatic Researches $\psi$ is a specimen of the variety, which this sort of metre admits. In a collection of tales entitled Vétala panchavins'ati, the author S'ivada'sa has quoted several stanzas of that poem intermixed with others, in

[^81]which the measure is still more varied : and I may here remark, that the introduction of rhyme into Sanscrit verse is not peculiar to this anapæstick metre : JayaDE'VA has adopted it with success in several other sorts of lyrick measure ; and it is frequent in Sanscrit poetry composed in any species of Pracrit metre.

## 3. Gítya'ryá:

Another species of metre regulated by quantity is named Gityaryá. Like the preceding, it is a tetrastich in which each verse consists of sixteen matras or moments; but all expressed by short syllables. In other words the stanza contains sixty-four syllables distributed into four verses. From the mixture of verses of this description, with others consisting exclusively of long syllables, arises another metre distinguished into two sorts according as the first couplet in the stanza consists of short syllables and the second of long; or, conversely, the first long, and the second short*. The Gityáryá may be further varied by making the last syllable of each couplet long, and all the rest short; àt the same time reducing both couplets to twenty-nine moments, or the first only to that measure ; and the second to thirty-one : or the first couplet to thirty, while the second contains thirty-two + .

## 4. Pracrit measures.

The foregoing are all comprehended under the general designation of Jati: and besides these, which are

[^82]noticed in treatises on Sanscrit prosody, other kinds, belonging to the class of metre regulated by quantity, are specified by writers on Pracrit prosody. They enumerate no less than forty-two kinds, some of which comprehend many species and varieties. The most remarkable, including some of those already described as belonging to Sanscrit prosody, are the following, of which instances are frequent in Pracrit, and which are also sometimes employed in Sanscrit poetry.

A stanza of four verses, containing alternately thirteen and eleven moments (and scanned $6+4+3$ and and $6+4+1$ ) is named either Dohá*. (S. Dwipatha) or Sorattha (S. Suurashi'ra), according as the long verse precedes the short one, or the contrary. This metre, of which no less than twenty three species bear distinct names, (from 48 syllables to 23 long and two short,) is very commonly used in Hindi poetry. As an instance of it, the work of Biha'rila'l may be mentioned, which consists of seven hundred couplets (sat sai) all in this measure. It is a collection of descriptive poetry; of which Crishn'a, sporting with $\mathbf{R a}^{\prime} \mathbf{D}^{\prime} \mathrm{HA}^{\prime}$ and the Gopis, is the hero. The following example is from that celebrated author.

> Macarácrita Gópála cé
> Cun'd'ala jhalacata cána.
> D'hasyó nanó hiya gad'ha samata :
> D'yod'hi lasata nisána. $^{\prime}$.
[See Plate A. Fig. 8.]

- The dolphin-shaped ring, which glitters in Gópaila's ear, may be taken for the symbol of Cupid suspended at the gate, while the god is lodged in his heart.'

To understand this stanza, it must be remarked, that the symbol of the Indian Cupid is the aquatick animal
gamed Macara: (which has in the Hindu Zodiack the place of Capricorn). It is here translated dolphin, without however supposing either the deliverer of Arion, or any species of dolphin (as the term is appropriated in systems of natural history), to be meant.

The Gat'ka or Guha has been already noticed as a name of the $A^{\prime} r y a$ measure in Pracrit prosody. Including under this as a general designation the seven species of it, with all their numerous varieties, it is no - uncommon metre in Pracril poetry. A collection of amatory verses ascribed to the famous monarch $\mathbf{S}^{\prime} \mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathrm{Li}-$ va'mana, comprising seven hundred stanzas* and purporting to be a selection from many thousands by the same author, is exclusively in metre of this kind. The introductory verse intimates, that
"Seven hundred couplets (gábais) are here selected out of ten millions of elegani coupiets composed by the poet Ha'l $^{\prime} A^{\prime}$.",
2. Ha'la is a known title of Sa'liva'hana, and is so explained both here and in a subsequent passage by the sicholiast Ganga'd'hara bhat'ta. It is not, however, probable, that be really composed those verses; and it would be perhaps too much to conjecture, that the true author of them was patronised by that monarch whose existence as an Indian sovereign has been brought in doubt.

The metre called Maharashtra in Pracrit, Marahat $t^{\prime}$ ' $a$ ) is a tetrastich; of which each verse contains 29 matras, scanned by one foot of 6 and five of 4 ; with a terminating trochee. It has pauses at the 18 th and 29 tli matras. This measure is evidently denominated from the country, which gives name to the Marahatta nation; as another species, beforementioned, takes its

[^83]designation from Saurashtra or Soratika*. The circumstance is remarkaple,

Another tetrastich, which it is requisite to notice, is denominated Rola. Each verse contains 24 matras: and this species of metre admits twelve varieties; from 24 short syllables to 11 long and two short, bearing distinct names.

The Shat'padica (Pr. Ch'happüa) is a stanza of six verses : arranged in a tetrastich and couplet; the first termed Cavya, and the second Ullala. In the tetrastich, each verse contains 24 moments (scanned $2+$ five times $4+2$, or else $6+$ four times $4+2$ ) with a pause at the ilth moment; and each verse of the couplet contains 28 moments, with a pause at the 15 th. The varieties are extremely numerous, according to the number and the places of the long and short syllables. No fewer than forty-five variations of the tetrastich, and seventy-one of the whole stanza, have separate names. They are distinguished by the number of short and long syllables (from 152 short to 70 long and 12 short in the whole stanza, or froin 96 short to 44 long and 8 short in the tetrastich). The following example is extracted from the Pingala-vritti.

## Ch'happäa or Shat'padica.

Pind'häu did'ha san'n'áha ; báha uppara pac'hc'hara daï, Band'hu samadi; ran'a d'haläu. Sảmí Hammí baäna laï, Udun na'ha; paha bhamäu; c'hagra rïu sísa hi jháläu. Pac'hc'hara pac'hchara, 't'hćlli pélli, pabbaä appáräu. Hammíra cajja Jajjalla`bhan'a, cóhád’alá mabu maha jaläu. Sulatána sísa carabála daï, téjji calévara, dïa chaläu.

[^84]
## [See Plate A. Fig. 9.7

Jajuala, general of Hammíra's forces, taking the field against the Muhammedan emperor, says vauntingly
"I put on strong armour, placing barbs on my horse, and taking leave of kinsmen, I hasten to the war. Having received the cominands of my master Hammira, I fly through the sky; I pursue the road ; I flourish my scimitar on the head of the foe.. Amid the bustle of horse and foot I scale mountains. In Hammíra's cause, Jajuala declares, The fire of wrath burns within me; laying my sword on the head of the Sultan, and abandoning this corporeal frame, I ascend to heaven."

Thr emperor, whose death was thus vainly promised to Hammíra, by his braggart general, must have been Sulta'n Muhammed Khu'ní, with whom he is stated to have been contemporary; and who reigned from A. D. 1325 to 1351 *. Hammíra was sovereign of Sácambhari, which, with unfeigned deference for the opinion of Captain Wilford on a geographical question, I still think to be Sámbher $\downarrow$ : and for this simple reason; that the culinary salt, brought from the lakes of Sa'mbher, is named in Sanscrit, Sa'cambhariju lavana, answering to the Hindi Sa'mbher läzn. It is, however, proper to remark, that maps exhibit a place of the name of Sambhere between Ujjayani and Indor.

The Ulcach'ha' is a stanza of six verses, each comprising eleven moments (scanned $4+4+3$ ). It admits eight species from 60 short syllables to 28 long and 10 short.

[^85]
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\text { Fig. } 2 .
$$




: The Cuindalicit is composed of one"stanza of the metre named Doha, foliowed by another in the measure called Rolá. The entire stanza consequently comprises eight verses. In this species of merre; rhyme and alliteration are so appropriate ornaments, that it admits :the repetition of a complete hemistich or even an entire verse : as in the following example extracted from the Pingala writta.

## Cun'd ${ }^{\prime}$ alivá or Cun'd'alitit. $^{\prime}$.

D'hóllá mária D'hilli mahạ, nuch'hia Méch'ła saritra, Pura Jajjallá mala bara, chalia bira Hammíra. Chalia bíra Hammírá, páa bhára ménèni campaï. Diga maga naha and hára d'hali súraha raha j'hampaï. Digamaga naha and'hára ánu. C'hurasánaca ólla Davali, damafi vipac'hc'ha : ınáru D'hilli maha d'hollá.
[See Plate B. Fig. 1.]

- Having made the barbarians faint at the sound of the dram beaten in the midst of $D^{\prime} b i l l i$, and preceted by Jajjàita eminent above athlets, the hero Hammíra advances; and as the hero Ham míra $_{\text {a }}$ advances, the earth trembles under bis feet. The clond of dust, raised by the march of his multituexes, obscures the chariot of the sun. Darkness spreads with the march of his multitudes. The hostages of the Khorasanian are slain; th foe is slawghtered; and the drum is beat in the midst of $D^{\prime}$ billi.'

A stanza of nine verses, composed of one of five with a tetastrich of the metre called Dohá subjoined to it, is denominated Rudd'd'kí. Here the stanza of five contains three verses of 15 moments each, with tivid of 12 and 11 interposed: The distribution of the feet, together with a restriction as to the erminstinyione, varies in each verse: and a difference in phe regalition of the feet gives rise to six tarieties which thate distinct appellations.
Vol. X .
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The Chatushpadicí (Pr. Chaupaia or Chíuptai) is a stanza of sixteen verses distributed into four tetrastichs, in. which each verse containg 30 moments (scanned seven times $4-2$, and terminated by a long syilable. This measure is of very frequent use in the poetry of the modern languages. The Rámájan'a of Tulas'l A'sA, in seven cantos; a poem treld in great estimation by Hindus of the middle tribes, is composed chiefly in a similar metre under the same name (Chaupái) ard containing the saine number of verses ( 16 ) in the stainza. It alternates with the Dohá; and very rarely gives place in that poem to any other metre.

In this metre the stamza contains the greatest number of verses of any admitted into Pra'crit prosody. The other measures, regulated by quantrity are tetrastichs, except the Ghat t'a and certain other couplets, noticed at the foot of the page*; some of which might have been ranked with more propriety under the next head of uniform metre.

On O other measure which is placed in this class, but which belongs rather to another, remains to be noticed. It is an irregular stanza of four verses containing alternately 17 and 18 syllables with no regulation of their length or of the quantity of the verse or stanza. It is termed Gatid'ha, or in Pracrit Gaudl'hána.
: The rest of the Prácrit metres may be sought in the synopticat tables subjoined to this essay:

[^86]: THE present may be a proper place fon moticing aclass of poetry, which have been even more cuttivated in the Práoritand provincial languages than in Sanscrit. TalLude to the erotick poetry of the Hindus.
$\because \mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{N}}$ its general character, I shall briefly observe, that it is free from the grievous defects of the Hindi poems composed in the stile and metre of Persian verse: but it wants elevation of sentiment and simplicity of diction, The passion, which it pictures, is sensual, but the language refined; with some tenderness in the expression and in the thoughts.' Among the most celebrated poems in this class, may be mentioned the Chaur a panchasicá comprising fifty stanzas by Chaura, and Amaru s'ataca containing twice that number by Amaru. The first is supposed to be uttered by the poet Chaura, who, being detected in an intrigue with a king's daughter, and condemned to death, triumphs in the recollection of his successful love. The other, which is a collection of unconnected stanzas on amatory topicks, is reputed to be the work of the great Sancara $a^{\prime} \mathbf{c h}^{\prime}$ arya; composed by him in his youth before he devoted himself to the study of theology.

Some of the commentators on this poem have attempted to explain it in a devout and mybtical sense, on the same principle upon which Jay ade'vin's lyrick poems are interpreted as bearing a religious meaning. The interpretation, however, is too strainedt to be admitted; and though Jayade'va's imtention may have been devout, and his meaning spiritual; Amaru, or whoever was the true author of the work bearing this names is:qlearly the love of an earthly mistress.

ThB mosit singular counposition in this class of pqes try, and for which;cbiefly a notice of is has :been heve infooduced, are those in which the subject is treated E e 2
with the studied arrangement and formal precision of the schools. I shall instance the Rasamanjari of $\mathrm{BHa}^{\prime}$ nedatta mis'ra in Sanscrit, and the works of Matirama and Sundara in Hindi. Here various descriptions of lovers and mistresses distinguished by temper, age and circumstances, are systematically classed and logically defined, with the seriousness and elaborate precision of scholastick writers. As ridicule was not intended, these poems are not humorous but trifling: and I should not have dwelt on the subject, if their number and the recurrence of them in different languages of Iudia, were not evidence that the national mste is consulted in such compositions.
III. Varn'a vritta; metre regulated by the number of syllables.

The next sort of metre is that, which is measured by the number of syllables: it is denominated Acsharachihandas or Varn'a vritta in contradistinction to the preceding kinds which are requlated by quantity; and it may be subdivided into three sorts, according as the verses, composing the stanza, are all simsilar, or the alternate alike, or all dissimilar.

This also is a stanza of four verses (padas), each containing an equal number of syllables; the length of which is regulated by special rules. The number of syllables varies from.twenty-four, toa hundred and four, in each strophe: this is, from six to twenty-six in each verse. There are indeed names in Prácrit prosody for verses from one to tive syllables, and instances of Sanscril verse containing a higher number than abore stated, viz. from twenty-seven, to one less than a thousand. But these constitute distinct classes of metre. Between the limits first mentioned, twemy-one'kinds receive different appellations appropriated to the num of syllables containied in the stanza.

Eacr kind comprehends a great variety of possible metres according to the different modes in which long and short syllables, as well as panses, may be distributed: and since the four quarters of each stanza mat be either all. alike, or only the alternate similar, or all different, the variety of possible metres is almost infinite. Pingala, however, gives directions for computing the number of species, and for finding their places, or that of any single one, in a regular enumefation of them; or conversely the metre of any species of which the place is assigned: and rules have bieen given even for calculating the space which would be requisite fot writing down all the various species.

In the first class, or kind, wherein the verse consists of six syllables, 64 combinations are computed on the syllables of each verse; $4096^{*}$. on those of the half stanza; and $16,777,216 \downarrow$ on the 24 syllables which $\cdot$ constitute the complete stanza of this class. In the Jast of the twenty-one kinds, $67,108,864$ combinations are compated on 26 syllables within each verse; nearly 4,503,621,000,000,000, on :52 syllables; and more than $20,282.389,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000$, on a hundred and four syllables which form the stanza. $\ddagger$

The different sorts, which have been used by poets, ate few in comparison with the vaft multitude of possible metres: Still they are foo numerons to be all described

[^87] E. 3
at full length. I shall therefore select, as specimen, those isorts of metre; which are most frequently employed, or which tequire particular notice ; reterting for the rest to the sutjoined tables is which the vafocus kinds are succinctly exhibited by single letters descriptive of feet scanned in the Indian and in the Latin mode.

In the best Sanscrit poems, as those of Ca'mida'sa, Bháratió, S'bi'harsha, Aágha;: \&ce the poet usually adheres to the same, or at least to similar metre, throughout the whole of the canfe; : excepting towards the close of it, where the metre is usuadly changed in the laft two or three stanzas, : apparently with the intention of rendering the conclusion more impressive. Sometimes indeed the nietre is more irregular, being changed several fimes' within the same canto; or even altering with every stanza.

The Rüghàva pándaviya, by Cuvira'ja, $\gamma^{\prime}$ is an instance of a complete poem, every canto of which exhibits variety of metre. This extraordinary poem is composed with studied ambiguity ; so that it may, at the option of the reader, be interpreted as relating the histoty of $\mathrm{RA}^{\prime} \mathrm{mA}^{\prime}$ and other descendants of Das'ar: A'tha, or that of Yud'hisht'hira and other sons of Pa'ndu. The exampie of this singular style of composition had been set by Suband"hu in the story of Vásavadalta and Ba'nabhatta in his untinished work entitled Cádambari; as is hinted by Cayiba'sa. Both these works, which like the Das'acumára of Dandí, are prose compositions in poetical language,

[^88]atad therefore reckoned among poems, do indeed exr. hibit continual inftances of terms and phrases employed: in a double sense: but not, like the Räghava pándurviza, two distinct stories tald in the same words.

The following paseage will sufficiently explain the manner in which the poem is composed. The first stanza is of the mixed sort of metre named Upajati, which will be immediately described; the second is in one of the measures composing it, termed Upendravigira:
[SEE Plate B. Fig. 2.]

50 Mátuh s'riyan sandad'had Indumàtyâh
8 lághyah s'aratcála inv6'du panoteth,
Asau, prajápálanadacsha blàradk.
Ajasya chacré manasab pramódan.
31. Vichitraviryasya divan gatasya

Pituh sa rájyam patipadya bályé,
Purín Ayodhyán, Dhritráshıra bhadrám, Sa Hastisopham suc'ham ad'hyurísa.
"Having the beauty of his mother lixdmatí, and admirable like the dewy season when it enjoys the beauty of the stare, he (DAS'ARA'TBA) made giad the mind of AJA: by his skill in the protection of the people. Succeeding in youth to the kingdom of his varionsly valiant father, who departed for heaven, he dwelt happily in the city of Aydd? bya'; which was adorned with elephants and upheld the prosperity of his realm,"

Othbrwise interpreted the same passage signifies
"Havivig the beauty of his mother, and admirable like the dewy season, when it enjoys the beanty of the stacs and of the moon, he ( $\mathrm{PA}^{\prime} \mathrm{NDU}$ ) made glad the heart of the unborn god, by his skill in the protection.aof. creatures. Succeiding in youth to the kingdom of his:fathor Vichirantirya

E C 4
who departed from heaven, he dwelt happily; in tho peeceful city of 'I'cslinápura auspicioualy inbabited by Daritara'SHTRA." 1.50. and 51.

To proceed with the subject." In general the different sorts of verse, which are contaiped in the subjoined synoptical table of uniform metre, are used singly, -and the stanza is consequently regular : but some of 'the species, differing liftle from each other, are in ermixed. Thus the Indravojra, measured by a dactyl between two epitrites ( 3 d and 2 d ), and the Upéndravajra, which begins with a diambus, may be mixed in the same stanza. - This sort of mixt metre an example of which has been just now exhibited) is denominated Upajati: it of course admits fourteen variations;* or, with the regular stanzaf, sixteen. The relief which it affords from the rigorous laws of the uniform stanza, render it a favourite metre with the best poets. It has been much cmployed by Ca' Lida'sa, in whose oem on the birth and marriage of $P_{\text {a! }}$ bvatí, three out of the seven cantos. which compose it, are in this metre; as are eight out of nineteen in his heroick poem on the glory of the race of RAGHu.

The last mentioned work, which is entitled Raghavans' $a$, and is among the most admired compositions in the Sanscrit tongue, contains the history of Ra'ma and of his predecessors and suecessors from Dilipa father of Raghu, to Agnivern'a a slothfal priace who was succeeded by his widow and posthumous son. The first eight cantos relate chiefly to kaghu, with whose history that of his father Dili'pa and of his san Aja, is nearly connected. The next eight concern Ra'ma, whose story is in like manner inṭimately con-

[^89]nected with that of his father DAs'Aratina and of his sons Cus'a and Lava. The three concluding cantosregard the descendants of Cus'a, from Atit'hi to Agnivern'a, both of whom are noticed at considerable length ; each being the subject of a single canto; in which their characters are strongly contrasted; while the intermediate princes, to the number of twenty, are crowded into the intervening canto, which is little else than a dry genealogy.

The adventures of $\mathrm{Ra}^{\prime}$ ma are too well known to res: quire any detailed notice in this place. The poet has selected the chief circumstances of his story, and nat:rates them nearly as they are told in the mythological poems and theogonies; but with far greater poetical embellishments. Indeed the general style of the poems esteemed sacred (not excepting from this censure the Ramayan'a of $\mathrm{Va}^{\prime} \mathrm{Lmi}^{\prime} \mathrm{c}^{\prime}$, ) is flat, diffuse; and no less deficient in ornament than abundant in repetitions; and it is for this reason, that examplos have been selected, for the present essay, exclusively from the celebrated prophane pocms. 'Ra'ma's.'achievements bave. been sung by the prophane as frequently as. by the san cred poets. His story. occupies a congiderable. place in matiy of the Pura'n'as, and is the sole object of. V $A^{\prime} \boldsymbol{m}^{\prime}-3$ mici’s poem, and of another entitled Ad'hya'ma $R a^{\prime}$ $m^{\prime}$ 'an' $^{\prime} a$, which is ascribed to Vya'sa. 'A fragment of a Ra'máyan'a attributed to Baud'ha'yana is current ip the southern part of the. Indian pgoinsura ; and the great philosophical poem, usually cited under the title of Yo'ga wasishtha, is a part of a-Ra'ma'yan'e; comprising the education of the devout hero. Among. prophane poems on the same subject; the Raghurans'a
 mentioned, are the moft efteemed in Sanscrit,' as 'theRa'ma'yan'a of Tulas'ída'sa and Ra'machandrica of Cp'sayada'sa are in Hindi.. The minor poets, who haye employed themselves on the same topick, "besth
in Sanscrit and in the Protcrit and provincial dialecta; are by far too numerous to be here specified.

Thr other poem of Caícida'sa abovementioned, though entitled Cumára sambhava or origin of Cumáiá (who is son of Pa'rivatí, closes with Pa'rvatis wedding. It has the appearance of being incomplete : and 2 tradition runs, that it originally consisted of twenty-two books. However, it relates the birth of the goddess as daughter of mount Himailaya; and celebrates the religious austerities by which she gained Sina for her husband; after Candarha, or Cupid; had failed in inspiring S'rva with a passion for her, and had perished (for the time) by the fiery wrath of the god. The personages, not excepting her father, the \$nowy mountain, ate described with human manners and the human form; and with an exact observance of Indian costume.

Tur following stanza from a poem in mixed language, upon the same subject (the birth of Cuma'ra), is selected as a further example of Upaja'ti metre, and as a specimen of the manner in which Sanscrit and Pracris are sometimes intermixed. It is quoted for that purpose in the Pingala-writti.

## [Ser Prate B. Fig. 3.]

. Dutah. Comotrah'; sa ch’ha-munn’da-d'hárí. Upáā-hiná $\therefore \quad \cdots$ hamu ecca- pári,
$\therefore \therefore$ Abar-n'is'an c'bäil visham bhic'hári, Gatir bhavitri hamári.

Dr'vi', grieving over heer infant son Cuma'ra or Scanda, says,

[^90]husband swallows poison; what resodrce is inema, elas, for sme?"

An instance of the same measure used in the Marahat t'a (Maha'ra'shtra) language is quoted by the come mentator on the Vrittu-relna'cara. It appears, however, from the rhymes, that the verse is there subdivided by a pause after the 5th syllable...

The variety of the Upaja'ti metre is increased by the further mixture of two sorts of iambic measuret named Vans'asi'ha and Indravans'a'. The first is com'; posed of a choriambus between two diambi; in thes second, the first dissyllable is a spondee instead of at ianbic. Instances of this mixt metre occurin $V_{A}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{L}$ mici's Ra'm'yan'a,* in the Sri-bha'gavata Purána $\frac{\text { ? }}{}$ and in a meraphysical and theological drama entitled Prabo'd'hu Chandr'odaya $\ddagger$.

The following example from the dramu now mentioned, exlubits the combination of those four sorts os metre in a single stanza.

Vídyá-prabodhódaya-jaǹma-bhümir, Vátánosi thuctio purí niratyaya
A tah culóchch'heda-vid'him vid'hitsur nivastupa stréch'\% hati nityam eva sah.

$$
\text { [See Plate B. Fig. } 4 .\rceil^{\prime}
$$

"Várän'asi, the indestructible: city of eternal' saldation, is
the native land of sciénce and intellect : hente, one desirous
of observitgg the precepts by which a continuance of fanily is
cut off, Fand final beatitude obtained], is solicitous to dwell
there continually."

[^91]Thes same term ( $U_{p a j j}{ }^{\prime} t i$ ), as deseriptive of mixt metre, has been also applied to the intermixture of two spondaic measures named $V a^{\prime} t_{0}^{\prime} r m i$ and $S a^{\prime} l i n i$ : which are very similar, the first having an anapæst, the other acretic, between a dispondeus and 2d epirritus, with a pause at the fourth syllahle. A nalogous to the first of these are the Rat'hoddhata', and 'Sicua'gata' measared by an anapæst preceded by two trochees, and followed in the one by two iambics: and in the other by an ionic. These and the preceding are netres in very co mon use with the best poets : and instances of them, wifl occur in subsequent extrarts chosen for the sake of other measures with which they are joined.

The several sorts of metre above described are, like the two last, also employed sepatately: for instance the frst cantos of the Naishad My ia of S'ri'harsha, and Cira'tárjuniya of Bhá ${ }^{\prime}$ a ví, as well as that of the epick poem of Mágha, are in the iambic measure called Vans'ast'ha; which recurs again in other parts of the same poems: especially in the Cirdta, of which four books out of eighteen are in this measure.
$\mathbf{T H e}_{\text {He }}$ first of the works just now mentioned is a poem in twenty-two cantos on the marriage of Naia king of Nishad ha and Damayanti :daughter of Buima king of Viderbha. It is a favourite poem on a favourite subject : and though confessedly not free from faults, is by many esteemed the most beautiful composition in the Sanscrit language. The marriage of Nafa and Damayanti, his loss of his kingdom by gaming, through :the fraudulent devices of Cali disgnised in the human, form, his desertion of his wife and his tratisformation, tier distresses, her discovery of his wife and his transformation, her distresses, her discovery of him, and his restoration to his proper form and to his throne, are related in another poem already noticed under the title of Nalódaya : their adventures likewise constitute an
episode of the Maha'bha'rata, ${ }^{*}$ and are the subjeet of $\dot{\alpha}$ novel in prose and verse, by Trivicrama bhatt'a, entitled Nalachampi fy or Damayanti cat'ha'. Srimarswa's poom, though containing much beautiful poetry according to the Indian taste, is very barren of incident. It brings the story no further than the marriage of Nala and Damaynatí, and the description of their mutual affection and happiness which continues notwithstanding the machinations of Cali. The romantick and interesting adventures subsequent to the marriage; as told in the Nalodaya, are here wholly omitted; while the poet, with a degree of licentiousness, which - is but too well accommodated to the taste of his countrymen, indulges in glowing descriptions of sensual love.

The following example of Vans'ast'ka metre is from the introduction of the Naishad'hiva To render the author's meaning intelligible, it may be necessary to premise, that the mere celebrating of Nala end DaMAXANTI is reckoned sufficient to remove the taint of a sinful age; and is so declared in a passage of the Maha'bha'rata.

## Vans'ast'ha' metre.

Pavitram atrátanuté jagad yugé, smritá, rasa-cshảlaqü. ayéva yat, cat'há;
Cat'ham na sá mad giram, âvilàm api, swaséviním éva; pavitrayishyati.
[See Plate B. Fig: 5.]
"How should a story, which, being remembered, purifies the world in the present age, as it were by an actual ablution,

[^92]fail of purifying iny voice, however faulty, when emploged ons this narration." 1.3.
: In the following passage from $\mathrm{Pha}^{\prime}$ ravís Cirátár$j$ juitiya, the last stanza is an example of the Mailini wetre; 'and the preceding one, of the Pushpitàgra; which will be noticed further on : all the rest are in the Vans'ust'ha measure." It is the close of a reproachful speech of Diaupadi to her eldest husband Yud'hisht" hira, inciting him to break the compact wite Dúryód'hana, by which the Pánda vas had engaged to remain twelve years in exile.

## [See Plate B. Fig. 6.]

""I do not comprehend this thy prudence; for opinions are indeed various: but anguish forces itself on my mind, when eqasidering thy extreme distress. Thou, who didst formerly sepose on a costly couch, and wert.wakened with auspicious praise and song, now sleepest on the ground strewed with pungent grass; and art roused from thy slumbers by the dismal howlings of shakals. Thy feet, which, resting on a foottool adorned with precious stones, were tinged by the dust of the blosioms in the chaplets worn by prostrate monarchs, now tread the wilderness where'the tips of sharp grass are cropped by the teeth of stags. Thy person, 0 king 'which formerly gained beauty by feeding on the blessed remnant of the feast given to holy men, now wastes with thy glory, while thou feedest on the fruits of the forest. That thou art reduced to this condition by the act of thy enemies, harrows up ing soul. To the valiant, whose courage is unsubdued by the foe, inisfortune is a triuinph. Relinguishing peace, $\mathbf{O}$ king, be active and oouse thy energy, for the slaughter of thy foes, Placid saints, not kings, attain perfection, disarming thers enemies by patience, If persons such as thee, whose ho nour is their wealth, who are leaders of the brave, sobmis to such insupportable disgrace, then is maguanimity destroyed without resource. If divested of conrage, thou deem sub: mission the peans of lasting ease, then quit thy bow, the symbol of a sovereign, and becoming a hermit, feed here with oblations the purifying flatie. "Adference to the compaci is not good for thee, valiant prince, white thy föes compass thy
segrace; for kings, ambitious of victory, scruple not the e of stratagem in treating with enemies. Thee, who try rce of fate and time art not sunk in the deep ocean of calain y dull with diminished splendour, and slow to enterptise, iay ${ }^{-7}$ fortune again attend, as thou risest like the sun with the ew born day, dispelling hostile gloom." 1. 37.-46.

To return to the enumeration of analogous sorts of netre. A true spondaic metre, named Vidjunmala, :onsisting of four spondees, with a pause in the middle of the verse which virtually divides the tetrastich into 3 stanza of eight, is often mixed, as before observed; with the metre termed Gityarya, containing the same quantity in a greater number of syllables.

Other measures also containing the same quantity, but in a greater number of syllables, occur among the species of uniform metre. The subjoined note* ex: hibits several species, in whichethe verse is divided by the position of the pauses into two parts equal in quantity, and some of them equal in number of syllables. Further instances are also stated in the notes, of metre containing the same quantity similarly reducible to equạl feet $\downarrow$. Some of the species of metre, which contain a greater number of syllables, are reducible, in eonformity to the position of thcir pauses, to this class $\dagger$ :

[^93]Aly these varieties of metre have a great analogy to the Mátrasamaca and other species before described, which similarly contain the quantity of 16 short syllables or 8 long; reducible to four equal feet.

Among the kinds of metre described at the foot of the preceding paragraphs, the Dódhaca, Totaca and Pramitacshara are the most cummon. A stanza in the anapestic measure named Pramitacshara, in which each werse exhibits alliteration at its close, has been already. duoted from the fifth canto of the Ciratajunia of $\mathrm{BHa}^{\prime}$. Raví. The specimen of anapæstic measure Totacd, which will be here cited from the close of the Nalndays, is a further instance of alliteration introduced into every stanza of this singular poem.

## Totaca.

Ari-sanhatir asya vanéshu s'uchám padam ápàdam ápad amá'padainá.
Suc'hadan cha yat'haívájanáya Harim jatam âyatamáyz tamá yata Má.

> [See Plate B. Fig. 7.]
"The Tuckless and despondent croud of his foes found in the forests a calamitous place of sorrow; and prosperity was constant to him, who gave happiness to a sincerely affectionate people, as she clings to Hari, who blesses the guileless." 4.46.

It has been before said, that, in several sorts of metre, the pauses would justify the division of the stanza into a greater number of verses than four and instances have been shown, where either the number of syllables, or the quantity, would be the same in each werse of a stanza of eight, twelve, or even sixteen short verses. In the following species of metre, the verses of the stanza, subdivided according to the pauses, are nnequal.
VoL. $\mathbf{X .}$



Fig. 7.








Fig. 9.

इएटं च यथि ब जनाय इरिंय तमा यतमायतमायतमा \| لह॥
\& II

The Sárdúlavicrûdita, a very common metre, of which examples occur in the former volumes of Asiatick Researches*, is a retrastich in which the verse consists of nineteen syllables divided by the pause into portions of twelve and seven syllables respectively. The following instance of this metre is from the close of the first book of MA'GHA's epick poem; where. $\mathrm{NA}^{\prime}$ 'Reda, having delivered a message from Indra, inciting Crishn'a to war with Sis'upa'la, king of the Chedis, departs, leav, ing the hero highly. incensed against his kiasman and enemy.

## [Sge Platb C. Fig. 1.]

O'm ityuctavoto't'ha sa'rngin'a, iti
Vyo'hritoa va'chan, nabhas
Tasminn utpatiré purah sura-muna'v Indo'h s'riyan vibhroti,

S'atru'n'a'm anis'am vina's'a pis'unab, Crudd'hosya Chaidyam prati,

Vyómni'va, bhrucuti' ch'haléna, vadane Cétus' chaca'r'a'padam.

- While the divine sage, having delivered this discourse, ascended the sky, bearing on his front the radiance of the moon; the hero, armed with a bow, uttered an expression of assent ; and the frown, which found place on his brow wreakful against the prince of the Cbedis, was as a portent in the heavens, foretokening destruction of his foes.' 1.75.

The Manda' cra'nta', which is the metre in which the Még'hadúta is composed, has pauses suddividing each verse of seventeen syllables into three portions, con'taining' four, six, and seven syllables respectively: viz. two spondees; two pyrrichii and an iambic; a cretic, trochee, and spondec. The Harin'i' differs from the preceding in transposing the first and second portions of the verse, and making the third consist of an anapest between two iambics. An instance of it will be fubsequently exhibited.

[^94]The example of the firft mentioned metre, here inserted, is from the Mégha-dúta. This elegant little poem, attributed as before observed to Ca'lida'sa, and comprising no more than 116 stanzas, supposes a Yacsha or attendant of Cuve'ra to have been separated from a beloved wife by an imprecation of the god Cuve'ra, who was irritated by the negligence of the attendant in suffering the celeftial garden to be trodden down by Indra's elephant. The distracted demigod, banished from heaven to the earth, where he takes his abode on a hill on which Ra'ma once sojourned, *' entreats a passing cloud to convey an affectionate message to his wife.

## Mandiácrátá metre.

## [See Plate C. Fig. 2.]

0. Játan vanss ć, bhuvana-vidité, pushcárávartaeánám, Ja'na'mi twa'm, pracriti-purusan, ca'marúpam, Maghónah. Téna' rt'hitwan, twayi, vid'hi-sasad dúraband'hur, gatôham.
Ya'ehna' mógha' varam ad'higúné, nad'hamé labd'haca'ma.
1. Santapta'na'n twam asi s'aran'an ; tat, payb, priya'ya'h Sandés'am mé hara, d'hanapati-crod'ha-vis léshitasya, Gantavya' té vasatir Alaca' na'ma yacshés wara'n'am. Va'hyódya'na-st'hita-harz-s'iras' - chandrica' - d'hcutaharmya'.
"I KNEW thee sprung from the celebrated race of diluvian clouds, a minister of INDRA, who dost assume any form at pleasure: to thee. I become an humble suitor, being separated by the power of fate from my beloved spouse: a request preferred in vain to the noble is better than successful solicitation to the vile. Thou art the refuge of the inflamed : therefore do thou, $\mathbf{O}$ cloud, convey to my beloved a message from me who am banished by the wrath of the god of riches. Thou must repair to Alocá the abode of the lord of Yacsbas, a palace of which the whitened by the moonbeam

[^95]from the crescent on the head of S'iva, who seems fixed in the grove without." 6 and 7.

The Sicharin'i, also a common metre, distributes seventeen syllables into portions of six and eleven 3 an iambic and two spondees in the one, and a tribrachys, anapæst, dactyl, and iambic in the other. This is the metre of the Ananda lahaai, a hymn of which Sancara'chárya is the reputed authot, and which is addressed to $\mathrm{S}^{\prime}$ iva', the Sactior energy of Siva or Maháde'va. It comprises a huindred stanzas of orthodox poetry held in great estimation by the devout followers of Sancara: the devotional poetry of the Hindus does not ufually employ metre of so high an order.

Examples of this measure will be shown in a subsequent extract from a work of a very different kind: a drama, by Bhavarhu'ti entitled Málati Mád'hava.

The Málini', consisting of fifteen syllables, places two tribrachys and a spondee in the one subdivided portion of the verse, and a cretic, trochee, and spondee in the other. An instance of it occurs in a former extract from the Cira' ia'rjunitya. 'The following example of this metre is from the drama abovementioned. The passage is descriptivé of a love-sick maid.

## Ma'lini metre.

[See Plate C. Fig. 3.]
Parimridita-moriry:díl-mlánam angam ; prarittih
: Cat'ham api:prafíááatprárt 'hanábhih criyásu.
Calayati cha-bimáns'ór nishcalancasya lacshmim
Abhinava: cari-dantaecchcch'héda-ç̣nntah capólạh.

- Her person is weary like bruised threads of a lotos ; searcely can the earnest intreaties of her attendants incite ber to any exertioh; her cheèk; pale aé' new! torought ivory, emulate the beauty of a spotiess moon:' 1.22.

Thi Praharshini, containing thirty syllables, separates a molossus, from two pyrrichii, as many trochees and a spondee. An example of it will be shown in a subsequent exfract from Bhavabiu'ri's drama.
$T_{\text {He }}$ Ruchira', with the same number of syllables, disjoins two iambics, from two pyrrichii, a trochee and cretic. The opening stanza of the Bhattica'vya may serve as an instance of this metre. The poem bearing that title, is on the subject of the adventures of Ra'ma: $^{\prime}$ : it is comprised in 22 cantos. Being composed purposely for the practical illustration of grammar, it exhibits a studied variety of diction in which words anomalously inflected are most frequent. The style, however, is neither obscure nor inelegant : and the poem is reckoned among the classical compositions in the Sanscrit language. The author was Bhartrifari : not, as might be supposed from the name, the celebrated brother of Vicramáditya: but a grammarian and poet, who was son of S'ríd'hara sw $\mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathrm{Mi}^{\prime}$, as we are informed by one of his scholiasts Vidyá vinóde.

## Ruchiri' metre:

## [See Plate C. Fig. 4:]

Abhún nripó, vibud'ha-sac'hab, parantapah, s'rutánwit 6,Das arat é'ba ityndahritah,
Gunair varan, bhuvana hita-chch'haléna, yam Sanálanah pitaram up'gamat swayam.

[^96]The Suvadano dissributes twenty syylables in thre portions of the verse : ione contaixing two spondet: and a bacchius; the sec̣ond four short syllables and an
anapæest ; the third a spondee, pyrrichius, and iambic. The Sragd'hara' a very common metre, differs from it, only in the third portion of the verse, which contains a trochee, spondee, and bacchias : but here the number of syllables in every subdivision is equal : viz. seven. In all the other instances above described, the subdivisions of the regular verses were unequal.

The following sorts of metre, which are usually employed, have no pauses but at the close of the vése. The Drata vilambitá contains in each verse two anapæsts preceded by three short syllables and a long one, and followed by a trochee. Instances of this measure. bave been already cited in an extract from the Cirttárjuniya. The Sragvini is measured by a trochee, spandee, and iambic repeated; as the Bhujangaprayata is.by 'a similar repetition of an iambic, trochee, and spondee. Both sorts of metre are of frequent occurrence in classick poems.

Thr Vasantatilaca, which consists of a spondee, iambic, tribrachys, dactyl, trochee, and spondee, is one of the metres in most 'general use. It commonly occur's as a change from other metre. But the whole 5th canto of MA'gha's poem is in this measure. The Chaura panchasica, a short poem before described, is in the same metre, and so is a pathetick elegy on the death of a beloved wife which occurs in the Bhamani vilasa a collection of miscellaneous poetry by Jaganna'tian Pandita rája. It begins thus:

## Vasantatilaca.

> [See Plate C. Fig. 5.]

[^97]The following passage from some Hindi poem, is quoted in Na'rayan'a bhat'ta's commentary on the Vritla Retnacara as a. specimen of this metre in the Canyạcubja dialect.

## [See Plate C. Fig. 6.].

Canḍarpa-rúpa jaba tén tumba' línha, Crishn'a! Lócópaçcáma hama hín, baéu-píra, ch'horíl.
$\therefore$ Jau bhéticain yiraba-píra nasáii méúc Yain bhénti dúti $\therefore$ : patłäi ${ }^{2}$, cahi páta, Gópí.*
"Cbishna, since thou didf assume the form of Cupid, I have neglected worldly affairs, suffering much anxiety. Relieve by thy presence the pain of separation which I endure. Such was the message, with which the Gopi dispatched her. embassadress."
$\therefore \quad . \quad$ V. Sloca or Vactra.
The most common Sanscrit metre is the stanza of foper verses containing eight syllables each : and denominated from the name of the class, Anushtubh. Scverral species of it have been described. Two very simple kinds of it occur, conṣisting of iambic, or trochaic feet exclusively $\downarrow$. The rest are included in one gene.ral designationł. But several analogous species are comprehended under the denomination of Vactra. Here the laws of the metre, leaving only the first and eighth syllables indẹterminate, require either a bacchiu

[^98]or an amphibrachys* before the eighth syllable, and forbid an anapaest or tribrachys after, the first; as also in the 2d and 4th verses of the stanza, an amphimacer. A variety of this metre introduces a tribrachys before the 8th syllable in the 1 st and 3rd verses, and a bacchius in the 2 d and 4 th $\dagger$. And another sort + , which admits five varieties, requires the penultimate syllable to be short in the 2d and 4th verses; and introduces before the 8th syllable of the 1st and third verses, a dactyl, anapæst; tribrachys, amphimacer, or molossus.

Tha metre, which is most in use, is one of the species now described, in which the number of syllables is determinate (viz. 8); but the quantity variable. Ca'lida'sa appropriates to this metre the term S'loca (abbreviated from Anushtubh s'loca); and directs, that the fifth syllable of each verse be short; the sixth, long; and the seventh alternately long and short. The mythological poems under the title of Pura'n'a, and the metrical treatises on law and other sciences, are almost entirely composed in this easy verse: with a sparing intermixture of other analogous sorts, and with the still rarer introduction of other kinds of metre. The varieties: of the Anushtubh S'loca, which most frequently occur, make the 5 th, 6 th, and 7 th syllables of the 1 st and 3 d rerses all long or all short; or else the 5 th long with 6th and ith short. Thus varied, it is much used by the best poets. Ca'lida'sa has employed it in the 2 d and 6th cantos of his poem entitled Cumara sambhava; and in the 1 st , 4th, and several others of the Raghuvan'a. The 2d and 19th cantos of Ma'g'ha's poems are in this metre, and so is the 11 th of the Ciratarjuniya.

The examples, here subjoined, are from Ma'q'hi's poem. One passage is part of a speech of Ralara'ma

[^99]'o Crishn'a, urging bim to the immediate commence. ment of hostilities against Sisupala: the other is extracted from Udd'hava's reply, dissuading Crishna from instant war, and advising his previous compliance with Yud'hisht'hipa's invitation to assist at a solemn sacrifice which the king was on the point of celebrating at Indraprastha.

## [See Plate C. Fig. 7.]

Batara'ma speaks, 'A proved enemy, and a tried friend, ape most to be regarded; for they; are known by their actions: others, presumed to be so, from temper or afinity, may he found in the end to be friend or foe. Peace may be maintained with a natural enemy, who confers benefits; not with a presumptive friend, who commits outrages; kindness, or injury is the proper test of bath. The king of the Cbedicis was offended, 10 Hari, by thy seizure of Ruchmint: for woman is the chief cause, that the aree of discord rakes roat. Whilnt thou wert engaged in'subduing the offspring of the earth, he besieged this city, as darkness encircles the skitts of Mèru, while the sun is remote. To hint, that he ravished the wife of Vabhru is enough : the narration of crimes is too disgustful. Thus aggrieved by thee, and having much injured us,
 The man, who is negligent, while an enraged foe meditates aggressions, sleeps in the wind with'fire under kis amm. What forbearing man, who would cheerfully dissemble a slight and single injury, can patiently endure repeated wrongs. At ather times, patience becomes a man; and pudency, a woman : but waleur befits the insulted warrior; as modesty should be laid moide by a woman in the nuptial bed. Whoever lives, (may none so'live'!) tortured by the pain of insultsfrom his enemy; would that he had never been born, wainly giving his mather anguish. Dust, which, kicked by the foot of the traveller, rises and settles on his head, is less contemptible than the das: tard, wha!is cantented under wrongs:' 9. 36-46.

> Upp’hava in reply addresseḍ to Crusena,
. 1 [Soe Plate:C: Pig. 8.]

- The just King, and his kinsmen, relying on thee for an associate capable of sustaining the heaviest burden, are willing to undertake the task of a solemn sacrifice. Even to enemiés who court them, the magnanimous show kindness; as rivers. convey to the ocean the rival torents from the mountains. Violence, used against foes by the strong, is at length successfod ; but friends, once offended, are not easily reconciled even by compliances. Thou thinkest, that the slaughter of the foe will most gratify the inhabitants of heaven : but far better is it to present offerings, which are desired by the deities, who devour oblations. What the virtuous offer, under the name of ambrosia, in flames, whose tongues are holy prayers, was the splendid ornament of the ocean churned by the moun$t a i n$ Mandara. The promise made by thee to thy fafher's veperable sister, to forgive her son a hundred offences, should be strictly observed. Let the intellect of a good man be sharp without wounding; let his actions be vigorous, but conciliatory; let his mind be warm without inflaming: and let his word, when he speaks, he rigidly maintained. Before the appointed hour, even thou art not able to destroy the tyrant, $q$ on whom thyself conferred that boon ; no more than the sun can prematurely close the day, which he himself enlight. яns. 9. $103-110$.


## V. Campaund metre.

Instances of compound metre have beon already exhibited under the designation of Upajati, consisting of two kinds of simple metre variously combined: two of these combinations are repeated under the head of half equal metre with the contrasted names of $A c^{\prime} h$ yanaci and Viparitac'hyanaci. Other species of metre, belonging to this class, are in use among eminent poets: particularly the Pushpifagr.a, and Aparavactra. In the first, both verses are terminated by two trochees and a spondee, and begin with four short syllables, one verse jinterposing a pyrrichius, and the other a dactyl. In the next species, both verses are terminated by three iambics; and begin like the preceding with four short ayllablea; but one verse interpases a single short syllable, and the other a troches,

The royal and military tribe is prohibited from killing elephants 36 in battle.


The royal and military tribe is prohibited from killing elephants :ss in battle.
reeds. He found the vase; and, near it, a hermit's son pierced by his arrow ; and be stood amazed as if internally wounded. The king, of glorious lineage, who had already alighted from his horse, eagerly inquired the parentage of the youth; who, resting on the vase, with feeble accents said " he was the son of a hermit, but no priest." Instructed bj him, the king conveyed the wounded youth to his blind parents: and to them as they approached their only son, be related his mistaken deed. The unhappy pair, lamenting, conjured the king to draw the arrow from the breast of their wounded son. The youth was dead. The aged hermit ratifying his curse with tears instead of water for a libation; pronounced this imprecation on the king. "In thy extreme age thou shalt reach thy fated time, with grief like mine for a beloved son." While he spoke, as it were a serpent assailing first and then discharging fatal venom; CAUs'ALyA"s lord, conscious of the first offence, addressed him thus: "Thy curse has fallen like a boon on me, who have not seen the beauteous countenance of offspring; as fire, fed with fuel, fertilises the soil which it burns." The king then said, "For me, who merciless deserves death at thy hands, what are thy commands ?" The holy hermit asked fuel for the funeral pile ; he and his wife resolving to follow their son in death. The king, whose attendants were now arrived, promptly fulfilled his cnmmand, and remained dejected, bearing with him the her-mit's curse, a cause of his future destruction, as the ocean embraces the devouring fire. Again the king addressed him. "Wise hermit! what shall this shameless criminal, who de--serves death from thee, now perform." He desired the funeral flame to be duly lighted, and the king presented the fire for him and his wife and son.

- The chief of the race of Raghu, attended by his army, now returned to his palace, dejected, bearing in his mind the heavy imprecation of the saint, as the ocean holds within itself the fire of destruction.' 9. 74.-89.

This extract exhibits, besides two stanzas of Puspilagrá* and as many of Sundari metre, $\psi$ both belonging to the present head, and one, of which an example was promised in this place, $\ddagger$ several others

- 75 and 76.
$\dagger 77$ and 79 , most properly the last.
$\ddagger$ Squágatá 78.
which bave been before exemplified, * and twe which are loss cammon. $\dagger$

A singuzar species of variable metre is mencioned by writers on prosody, who describe it as a stanza in which the verses increase in arithmetical progression. In the instance exhibited by them the four verses of the otanza intrease regularly from 8 to 20 syllables. Varieties of it are noticed in which the progression is not ragular: the short verse exchanging places with the second, third, or fourth. The quantity of the syllables is in general indeterminate: but varieties are stated in which the verse consists of short syllables, either ending, or beginning with a spondee, or both ending and beginning with spondees.

A crass of metre, which admits an inordinate dength of the verse, is known under the general designation of Danidaca. The verse may consist of any number of syllables from 27 to 999 ; and the specifick name varies accordingly. $\ddagger$ The construction of the metre requires that the fix first syllables be short, and the semainder of the verse be composed of cretick Ifeet; or, instead of the cretick foot, the bacchius. These two kinds of metre are distinguished by different names. A verse consisting of any number of anapæsts within the limitation abovementioned, is also comprehended under this general designation; as are verses of similar length consisting exclusively of jambick or trochaick feet. They have their peculiar -denominations.

[^100]Examples of these extravagantly long vetses are to be found in the works of the poet $\mathrm{VA}^{\prime} \mathrm{ina}$. It is unnecessary to insert any specimen of them in this place; as an example will occur in a subequent quotation from Bhavabhuti's drama.

That class of metre which is termed halfequal, because the alternate verses are alike, comprises various sorts, which appear to be compounded of two simple kinds with an appropriate number of syllables of a determinate quantity.

Anothrr class, in which every verse of the stanza is different, appear more complex. But, here also, the quantity as well as the number of syllables being regulated, the stanza is in fact composed of four kinds of uniform métre.

The most common metre of this class is that called Udgatá. Here the number of syllables in each verse, as well as their quantity differs; the first verse comprising an anapæst, iambick, tribrachys, and trochee: the second a tribrachys and anapæst with two iambics; the third, à trochee, tribrachys, and two atiapæsts*; and the fourth, an anapæst, iambick, and pyrrichius, with three iambicks.

The 12th canto of the Ciradtárijuniya is in this me-
 It begins thus:
[See Plate D. Fig. 2.]
"But the king of the Cbedis was impatient of the honours, which the son of Pándu commanded to be shown in that as-

[^101]sembly to the foe of Mad bu: for the mind of the proud $\mathrm{i}^{9}$ envious of the prosperity of others."

Othbr kinds of metre, in which every verse of the stanza differs in the number and quantity of syllaoles, are comprehended under the general name of Gaithá; under which also some writers on prosody* include any sort of metre not described by Pingala, or not distinguished by a specific appellation. The same denomination is applicable also to stanzas consisting of any number of verses other than four $\psi$. An instance of 2 stanza of six verses has been remarked in the Maháb. kárata; and another example occurs at the beginning of Ma'gha's poem+.

[Ske Plate D. Fig. 3.]

> Dwidhá critátmá, cim ayam divácarb ?
> Vid'húma róchil, ciun ayam hutás'anah ?
> Gatan tiraschínam anúru sárat'héh.
> Prasidd'haın úrddhajwáanám havirbhujah.
> Patatyad'hó dhámaa-visári sarvatuah.
> Cim étad ? ityáculam ícshitam janaih.

## Na'reda desconding from the heavens to visit Crishna, is thus described:

"Is this the sun self parted into two orbs? It is fire shining with light divested of smoke. The motion of the luminary, whose charioteer has no legs, is distinguished by its curvature. The assent of flame is a known property of fire., Then what is this, which descends diffusing light around ?" Thus was the sight contemplated with wonder by the people.' Mág'ba 1. 2,

- Hela'yud'ha and Na'ra'yan'a Tara'.
† Diva'cara on the Vritta Retnacara.
$\ddagger$ It is cited by Diva'cara bhatta as an instance of a stanza of six. Yet the scholiasts of the poem omit the two first verses, and sead the stanza as a tetrastich : one commentator, however, dues remark, that copies of the poem exhibit the additional verses; and another commentator has joined them with two more verses in a $s$ parate atanza.


## VI. Prose ; and Verse mixed with Prose.

I follow the example of Sanscrit writers on prosody , in proceeding to notice the different species of prose. They discriminate three and even four sorts, under distinct names. 1st. Simple prose, admitting no compound terms. It is denominated Muctaca. This is little used in polished compositions: unless in the familiar dialogue of dramas. It must undoubtedly have been the colloquial style, at the period when Sanscrit was a spoken language. 2d, Prose, in which compound terms are sparingly admitted. It is called Culaca. This and the preceding sort are by some considered as varieties of a single species named Chúrn'icá. It is of course a common stile of composition : and, when polished, is the most elegant as it is the chastest. But it does not command the adiniration of Hindu readers. 3d, Prose abounding in compound words. It bears the appellation of Utcalica praya. Examples of it exhibit compounds of the most inordinate length : and a single word exceeding a hundred syllables is not unprecedented. This extravagant stile of composition, being suitable to the taste of the Indian learned, is common in the most elaborate works of their favourite aurhors. 4th, Prose modulated so as frequently to exhibit portions of verse. It is named Vrittagand'hi. It will occur without study, and even against design, in elevated compositions; and may be expected in the works of the best writers.

Some of the most elegant and highly wrought works in proseare reckoned among poems, as already intimated, in like manner as the "Telemache" of Fenelon and "Tod Abels" of Gesner. The most celebrated are the Vasavadatta of Suband'nu, the Das'a Cumára of Dan'di, and the Cadambari of Va'na.

The first of these is a short romance of which the story is simply this. Candarpace'tu, a young and valiant prince, son of Chinta'nan'i king of Cusumapura*, saw in a dream a beautiful maiden of whom he became desperately enamoured. Impressed with the belief, that a person, such as seen by him in his dream, had a real existence, he resolves to travel in search of ber, and departs, attended only by his confidant Macamanda. While reposing under a tree in a forest at the foot of the Vind hyo mountains, where they halted, Macaranda overhears ewo birds conversing, and from their discourse, he learns, that the princess $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{a}}$ 'savadatta', having rejected all the suitors who had bern assembled by the king her-father for her to make choice of a husband, had seen Candarpace'tu in a dream, in which she had even dreamt his name. Her confidant, Tamálica, sent by her in search of the prince, was arrived in the same forest, and is discovered there by Macaranda. She delivers to the prince a letter from the princess, and conducts him to the king's palace. He obtains from the princess the avowal of her love; and her confidant, Calatí reveals to the prince the violence of her passion.

The lovers depart together: but, passing through the forest, he loses her in the night. After long and unsuccessful search, in the course of which he reaches the shore of the sea, the prince, grown desperate through grief, resolves on death. Bur at the moment when he was about to cast himself into the sea, he hears a voice from heaven which pronsises to him the recovery of his mistress and indicates the means. After come time, Candarpace'tu finds a marble statute the precise resemblance of Va'savadattá. It proves to be her; and she quits her marble form and regains ans-

[^102]mation. She recounts the circumstances under which she was transformed into stone.

Having thus fortunately recovered his beloved princess, the prince proceeds to his city, where they pass many years in uninterrupted happiness.

This story, told in elegant language and intermixed with many flowery descriptions in a poetical style, is the Va'savadattá of Subandiuu. There is an allusion, however, in Bhavabhu'ti's drama *, to another tale of Vasavadatta"s having been promised by her father to the king Sanjaya and giving herself in marriage to Udayana. I am unable to reconcile this contradiction otherwise than by admitting an identity of name and difference of story. But no other traces has been yet fothd of the story to which Bhavabhu'ti has ahuded.

In the work above described, as in various compositions of the same kind, the occasional introduction of a stanza, or even several, either in the preface, or in the body of the work, does not take them out of the class of prose. But other works exist, in which more frequent introduction of verse makes of these a class apart. It bears the name of Champic: and of this kind is the Nula Champio of Trivicrama before mentioned. This style of coinposition is not without example in European literature. The "Voyage de Bachaumont et de la Chapele," which is the most known, if not the first instance of it, in French, has found imitators in that and in other languages. The Sanscritt inventor of it has been equally fortunate : and a numerous list may be collected of works expressly entitled Champú $\boldsymbol{\psi}$.

[^103]The Indiun dramas are also instances of the mixture of prose and verse ; and as alraady mentioned, they likewise intermixed a variety of dialects. Our own language exhibits too many instances of the first to render it necessary to cite any example in explanation of the transition from verse to prose. In regard to mixture of languages the Italian theatre presents instances quite parallel in the comedies of Angrlo Beolco surnamed Ruzanti: : * with this difference, however, that the dramas of Ruzanti and his imitators are 'rustic farces; while the Indian dramatists intermingle various dialects in their serious compositions.

Notwithstanding this defect, which may indeed be easily removed by reading the Prácrit speeches in a Sanscrit version, the theatre of the Hindus is the most pleasing part of their polite literature and the best suited to the European taste. The reason probably is, that authors are restrained more within the bounds of poetic probability, when composing for aqhibition before an audience, than in writing for private perusal or even for public recital.

The Sacuntalú by Cálida'sa, which certainly is no unfavorable specimen of the Indian theatre, will sufficiently justify what has been here asserted. I shall conclude this essay with a short extract from Bhavaвни'ri's unrivalled drama, entitled Málatimádhava; prefixing a concise argument of the play, the fable of which is of pure invention.:

- Bhu'ritiasu, minister of the king of Padmárati', and Devara'ta in the service of the king of Viderbha, had agreed, when their children were yet infants, to cement a long subsisting friendship, by the intermari-

[^104]age of Mailatí daughter of the first with Ma'dinava son of the latter. The king having indicated an intention to propose a match, between Bhu'rivasu's daughter, and his own favourite Nandana, who was both old and ugly, the minister is apprehensive of giving offence to the king by refusing the match ; and the two friends concert a plan with an old priestess, who has their confidence, to throw the young people in each other's way, and to connive at a stolen marriage. In pursuance of this scheme, $\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime} \mathrm{D}^{\prime} \mathrm{hava}^{2}$ is sent to finish his studies at the city of the Padmávalí under the care of the old priestess Camandací. By her contrivance, and with the aid of Ma'lati's foster sister Lavangica', the young people meet and become mutually enamoured. It is at this period of the story, immediately after their first interview, that the play opens. The : first scene, which is between the old priestess and her female pupil Avalócita, in a very natural manner introduces an intimation of the previous events, and prepares the appearance of other characters, and particularly a former pupil of the same priestess named Sauda'miní, who has now arrived at supernatural power by religious austerities; a circumstance which her successor Avalócir'a has learnt from Capailacundala' the female pupil of a tremendous magician Aghóraghantia who frequents the temple of the dreadful goddess near the cemetery of the city.
> ' The business of the play commences; and Ma'd'hava, his companion Macaranda, and servant Calahansa appcar upon the scene. Ma'd'ava relates the circumstances of the interview with Ma'latí, and acknowledges himself deeply smitten. His attendant produces a picture which Ma'latí had drawn of $M_{a^{\prime}} \mathrm{D}^{\prime} h a v a$, and which had come into his hands from one of her female attendants. In return Ma'd'hava delineates the likeness of Ma'latí on the same tablet Gg 2
and writes under it an impassioned stanza. It is restored; and being in the sequel brought back to Malatí, their mutual passion, encouraged by their respectice confidants, is naturally increased. This incident furnishes matter for several scenes. . Mean time, the king had made the long expected demand; and the minister has returned an answer that "the king may dispose of his daughter as he pleases." The intelligence reaching the lovers throws them into despair. Anather interview in a public garden takes place by the contrivance of Ca'mandací. At this moment, a cry of terror announces that a tremendous tiger has issued from the the temple of S'iva: an instant after, Nandana's youthtul sister Madayantica is reported to be in imminent danger. Then M'ad'hava's companion, Macaranda, is seen rushing to her rescue. He has killed the tiger. He is himself - wounded. : Tbis pisses behind the scenes. Madayantica, saved. by the valour of Macaranda, appears on the stage. The gallant youth is brought in insensible. By the care of the women he revives: and MadayanTiCA of course falls in love with her deliverer. The preparations for Malati's wedding with Nandana are announced. The women are called away. MA'Dinava in despair resolres to sell his living flesh for food to the ghosts and malignant spirits as his, only resource to purchase the accomplishment of his wish. He accordingly goes at night to the cementery. Previous to his appearance there, Capa'lacun'd'ala', in a short, soliloquy, has hinted the magician's design of affering a human sacritice at the shrine of the dreadful goddess, and selecting a beautiful woman for the vicitim. Ma'd'hava appears as a vender of human flesh; offering, but in vain, to the ghosts and demons the flesh off his limbs as the purchase of the accomplishment of his wish. He hears a cry of distress and thinks be recognises the voice of Ma'latí. The scene opens, and she is discovered dressed as a
victim, and the magician and sorceress preparing for the sacrifice. They proceed in their drcadful preparat:ves. Ma'dimava rushes forward to her rescue: she flies to his arms. Voices are herard as of persons in search of Málatí. Ma'd'hava, placing her in safety, encourters the magician. They quit the stage fighting. The event of the combat is announced by the sorceress, who vows rengeance against $\mathrm{M}_{\mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathbf{D}^{\prime} \text { hava for }}$ slaying the magician her preceptor.'

The fable of the play would have heen perhaps more judiciously arranged if this very theatrical situation had been introduced nearer to the close of the drama. Bhatabhu'ti has placed it so early as the fifth act. The remaining five (for the play is in ten acts) have less interest.

- Ma'latí who had been stolen by the magician while asleep, being now restored to her friends, the preparations for her wedding with Nandana are continued. By contrivance of the old priestess, who advised that she should put on her wedding dress at a particular temple, Macarandida assumes that dress and is carriea in procession, in place of MA"lati, to the house of Nandana. Disgusted with the masculine appearance of the preterided bride, and offended by the rude recèption given to him, Nandana to have no further communcation with his bride, vows and consigns her to his' sister's care. This of course produces an interview berween the lovers, in which Macaranda discovers himself to his mistress: and she consents to accompany him to the place of Ma'zati's concealment. The friends accordingly assemble at the garden of the temiple: but the sorceress, Capa'lacundalá", watches an opportunity, when $\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime} \mathrm{LA}$ rí is unprotecred, and carries her off in a flying car. The distress of her lover and friends is well depicted: and, when reduced to despair, G g 3
being hopeless of recovering her, they are-happily relieved by the arrival of Sauda'miní, the former pupil of the priestess. She has rescued Ma'latí from the hands of the sorceress, and now restores her to her despairing lover. The play concludes with a double wedding.'

From this sketch of the story it will be readily perceived, that the subject is not ill suited to the stage: and making allowance for the belief of the Hindus in magick and supernatural powers, attainable by worship of evil beings as well as of beneficent deities, the story would not even carry the appearance of improbability to an Indian audience. Setting aside this consideration, it is certainly conducted with art ; and, notwithstanding some defects in the fable, the intereft upon the whole is not ill preserved. The incidents are striking. The intrigue well managed. As to the style, it is of the highest order of Sanscrit composition: and the poetry, according to the Indiantaste, is beautiful.

I shall now close this essay with the promised extract from the play here described. It contains an example, among other kinds of metre, of the Danldaca or long stanza: and is selected more on this account than as a fair specimen of the drama. This disadvantage attends all the quotations of the present essay. To which another may be added: that of a prose translation, which never conveys a just nution of the original verse.

Extract from Málatí Mád'hava. Act 5.
M'd'hava conlinues to wander in the cemetery.
" Human flesh to be sold: unwounded real flesh from the members of a man. Take it. Take it. *"

[^105]${ }^{6}$ How rapidly the Pais ácbas flee, quitting their terrifick forms. Alas! the weakness of these beings.'

## He walks about.

- The road, of this cemetery is involved in darkness. Here is bofore me " the river that bounds it; and tremendons is the roaring of the stream, breaking away the bank, while its waters are embarrassed among the fragments of skulls, and its shores resound horribly with the howling of shakals and the cry of owls screeching amidst the contiguous woods. ""


## Behind the sceners.

' Ah! unpitying father, the person, whom thou wouldest make the ipstrument of conciliating the king's mind, now perishes.'

MA'd'н. listening witb anxiety.] "I hẹard a sound piercing as the eagle's cry; and penetrating iny soul as a voice but two well known. Ny heart feels rent within ine; my limbs fail ; I can scarcely stand. What means this $\dagger$ ?"
 Is it not the resort of the wicked ? a place for such deeds $\ddagger$ ? Be it what it may; I will look.'

## He walks round.

The scene opens; and discovers Capa'lacun'd'alá and Aghoraghanto, engagerd in worshipping the idot: and Ma'latí dressed as a victim.

MA'L.] 'Ab unpitying father! the person, whom thou wouldest make the instrument of concilliating the king's

[^106]mind, now perishes. Ah fond mo! her! thou too art slain by the evil sport of fate. Ah venerable priestess; who lived but for Malati; whose every effort was for my prosperity; thou hast been laught by thy fondness, a lasting sorrow. Ah gentle Lavangica'! I have been shown to thee but as in a dream ".
$M_{A} D^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$.] 'Surely it is she. Then I find her living.'
Capa'lacun'inala' worshipping tbe idol Cara'ba'.] I I bow to thee, divine Cha'munda'.'
"I revere thy sport, which delights the happy court of S'iva, while the globe of the carth, sinking under the weight of thy stamping foot, depresses the shell of the tortoise and shakes one portion of the universe, whence the ocean retires within a deep absys that rivals hell $\dagger$."
"May thy. vehement dance contribute to our success and satisfaction; amidst the praise of attendant spirits astonished by the loud laugh issuing trom thy necklace of heads which are animated by the immortalizing liquid that drops from the moon in thy crest fractured by the nails of the elephant's hide round thy waist, swinging to the violence of thy gestures: while mountains are overtbrown by the jerk of thy arm, terrible for the flashes of empoisoned flame which issue from the expanded heads of hissing serpents closely entwined. The region of space mean time are contracted, as within a circle marked by a flaming brand, by the rolling of thy head terrifick for the wide fame of thy eye red as raging fire. The stars are scattered by the flag that waves at the extremity of the vast skeleton which thou bearest. And the three-eyed god exults in the close embrace of GAURI $^{\text {a }}$ frightened by the cries of ghosts and spirits triumphant $\ddagger$."

## They both bow before the idol.

[^107]Ma'd'e.] 'Ah!what neglect.
"The timid maid, clad as a victip in clothes and garlands stained with a sanguine die, and exposed to the view of these wicked and accursed magicians, like a fawn before wolves, is in the jaws of death; unhappy daughter of the happy $\mathrm{BH}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}^{\prime}$ rivasu; Alas! that such should be the relentless course of fate "."

Capa'l.] 'Now, pretty maid, think on him who was thy beloved. Cruel death hastens towards thee $\dagger$.'

Ma'latí.] 'Beloved Madhava! remember me when I am gone. That person is not dead, who is cherished in the memory of a lover.'

Capa'l.] 'Ah! enamoured of Ma'b'hava she will become a faithful dove. However that be, no time should be lost.'

Aghorá, lifting up tbe sword.] "c Divine Cha'mun'da! accept this victim vowed in prayer and now offered to thee $\ddagger$."

Ma'd'h. rusbing forizuard raises Ma'lati in bis arms.] $^{\prime}$ ' Wicked magician! thou art slain.'

Capa'r.] 'Avaunt villain. Art thou not so.'
Ma'L] 'Save me, prince!' Sbe embraces Ma'd'hava.
Ma'd'н.] 'Fear nothing. "Thy friend is before thee, who banishing terror in the monent of death has proved his affection by the efforts of despair. Cease thy trembling. This wicked wretch shall soon feel the retribution of his crime on his own head $\|$."

Aghora.] 'Ah! who is he that dares to interrupt us?'
Capa'l.] 'Venerable Sir! he is her lover; he is Ma'd.hava, son of Ca'mandaci's friend, and a vender of human flesh.'

MA'd'H. in tears.] 'How is this? auspicious maid!'

[^108]Ms's. sigbing.] 'I know not; Prince! I was sleeping on the terrace. I awoke here. But how come you in this place?

MA'D'H. blusbing.] "Urged by the eager wish that I soay be blessed with thy hand, I came to this abode of death to sell myself to the ghosts. I heard thy weeping. I cane hither." *
$M_{A^{\prime}}$ L.] 'Alas! for my sake wert thou wandering regardless of thyself!"

MA'd'h.] - Indeed, it is an opportune chance. -
"c Having happily sared my beloved from the sword of this murderer, like the mgon's orb from the mouth of devouring Rábu, how is my mind distracted with doubt, melted with pity, agitated with wonder, inflamed with anger, and bursting with joy." $\dagger$

Aghor.] 'Ah! thou Brábmen boy! "Like a stag drawn by pity for his doe whom a tiger has seized, thou seized thy own destruction, approaching me engaged in the worship of this place of humanosacrifice. Wretch! I will first gratify the great mother of beings with thy blood flowing from a headless trunk."J

- Ma'd's.] •Thou worst of sinful wretches! " How couldst thou attempt to deprive the triple world of its rarest gem, and the universe of its greatest excellence, to bereave the people of light, to drive the kindred to desperation, to humble love, to make vision vain, and render the world a miserable waste !"
- Vasanta tilaca. [See Plate D. Fig. 14.]
$\dagger$ Sárdula vicridiia. [See Plate D. Fig. 15.]
$\ddagger$ Sa'du'la vicridita. [See Plate D. Fig. 16.]
\& Sac'harini.' [See Plate . Fig. D. 17.]
- A very uncommon metre named Avilat' ha or Narcut'aca.
[Sec Platz D, Fig. 18.]
'Ah wicked wretch!" Hast thou dared to lift a weapon against that tender form, which even shrunk from the blow of light blossoms thrown in merry mood by playful damsels. This arm shall light on thy head like the sudden club of Yama."

Aghór. 3 'Strike, villain : Art thou not such ?'
Ma'l. to Mád'h.] 'Be pacified, dear Ma'd'hava! The cruel man is desperate. Abstain from this needless hazard.'

Capa'l. to Aghór.], 'Venerable sir, be on your guard. Kill the wretchs'

Ma'd'h and Aghór, addressing tbe women.] "Take courage. The wretch is slain. Was it ever seen that the lion, whose sharp fangs are fitted to lacerate the front of the elephant, was foiled in fight with deer." $\dagger$

A noise behind the scenes. They listen,


#### Abstract

- Ho! ye guards who seek Ma'latí. The venerable and unerring Ca'manhací encourages Bhórivasu and intructs you to beset the temple of Caraila'. She says this strange and horrid deed can proceed from none but Aghóraghant'a; norcan aught else, buta sacrifice to Cara'la', be conjectured.'


Aghór.] 'Now is the moment which calls for courage.'

Ma'L.」 ' Oh father! Oh venerable mother! ${ }^{\prime}$
Ma'd'h.] " 'Tis resolved. I will place Ma'latí in safety with her friends, and slay this wicked sorcerer.

Capal'.] ' We are surrounded.'

- Vasanta iilaca. [See D Platy. Fig. 19.]

Ma'd'h conducts Ma'lati to the other side, and returns towards Aghóraghant'a.

Agh6r.] 'Ah wretch! "My sword shall even now cut thee to pieces, ringing against the joints of thy bones, passing instantaneous rapidity thy tough muscles, and playing unresisted in thy flesh like moist clay:"

They fight. The scene closes.

- Sicharini. [See.Plate D. Fig. 20.]


# SYNOPTICAL TABLES 

# 08 <br> INDIAN PROSODY. 

Feet used in Sanscrit Prosody.
Trisylabic.
M. - - Molossus. M. T. - - Antibácchiuí $\int$. Paiimbacchius $v$. Hypobacemius. H.
Y. 〕- Bacchius. B. J. - -R.- ${ }^{-}$CReticusf. Am- Scolius. Sc.
phimacer. C.
S. o u-Anapestus. A. Th.

Monosileabic.
L. o Brevis. Br. G. - Longus. . Lo

## Feet ufed in Pracrit Prosady.

1. c. One Cálá. or Máırá Hasta: Anapretus o o -
Sara: Brbvis o Br. A. 2. e. Two Mátrás or Calás. Cbaran'a Dactylus-u o Hára: Longus- L.
Supriya: Pyrritchius s. Vipra: Procrusmati-

2. c. Three Mâtrás or Calấs. Indrásano : 5, c. Five Matrás

Talá: Trochevs - i T.
Dwaja: Iambus u-1.
Tándava: Tribrachys ○ 0 © $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{R}}$.
Haya: Mátrás or Calás.
Carnia: Srondeus.--S. Mołossus.M. \&c.
Payód'bara:Scaliusu-wSc.
or Calds.
Creticus C. Bacciius B. Peon Pr. \& c.

Svröja: 6. c. Six Mátrás or Calás.

Metre of the Vedas; regulated by the number of syllables. Seven classes subdivided into eight orders.

## CLASSES.

|  | Gaiyatri. | $T_{\text {Thenih }}$ | Anushtubh. | Vrihatí. | Pancti. | Trishtubh. | Jagati |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A'rshá, | 24 | 28 | 32 | 36 | 40 | 44 | 48 |
| Daivi, | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| $\sim_{\sim}^{\circ}$ A'suri, 1 | 5 | 14 | 13 | 12. | 11 | 10 | 9 |
| 䍖 Prájápatyá | á, 8 | 12 | 16 | 20 | 24 | 28 | 32 |
| Q Yajush, | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| Ofrman, | 12 | 14 | . 16 | 18 | 20 | 22 | 24 |
| - Rich, | 18 | 21 | 24 | 27 | 30 | 33 | 36 |
| Bráhmi, | 36 | 42 | 48 | 54 | 60 | - 66 | 72 |

Distribution of the Syllables in Triplets, Tetrasticks, $\mathcal{E}^{\circ} c$.
I. Ga'tatrí.

1. Tripad, - $8 \times 3=24$
2. Chatusbpad, $-6 \times 4=34$
3. Pádanivitr, $-7 \times 3=21$
4. Atipádanivrit, $6+8+7=21$
5. Váráhi, - $-6+6+9=24$
6. Bardbrnána, $-6+7+8=21$
7. Pratisht'há, $-8+7+6=21$
8. Dwipádvíráj, - - $1:+2,8=21$
9. Tripádviraij, - $11 \times 3=22$
-II. Usinim.
10. Tripád, (12+812)
i. Cacubh, - $-8+12+8=28$
11. Pura L'sknih, $12+8+4=28$
12. 'Paroshnit, - $8+8+12=28$
13. Chatushpát, - $-7 \times 4=28$
III. Anushtitain.
14. Chatushpard, - $8 \times 4=32$

2 , Tripád, $(8+12 \times 2) \cdot v i z .12+$ $8+12 .+$ or $12+12+8 .+12+$ $12=32$.
IV. Vrifati.

1. Ctuatushpád, $-9 \times 4 \times=36$
2.     -         - $\quad 8 \times 2+10 \times 2=30$
3.     -         - $8 \times 3+12=36$
4. Pat'hyá, - $8+8+12+8=36$
5. Nyancusarim (Scand'hogriva or

Crowrihati,) $8+12+8+8=36$
3. Uparishtadvrihati, $8 \times 3+12$ $=36$
4. Purastadvrihati, $12+8 \times 3=$
3. Mahavrihati, (Satorribati,) 12 $\times 3=30$
V. Pancti.

1. Chatushpád, $(12 \times 2+8 \times 2)$.
2. Satalh.p. - - $12+8+12+$ $8=40$ or $8+12+8+12=40$
3. Astara-p $8+8+12+12=40$
4. Prastara-p $12+12+8+8=$ 40
5. Vistara- $p=8+12+12+8=$ 40
6. Sanstára-p, $12+8+8+12=$ $\cdot 40$
7. 8. Acsharapaneti, $5 \times 4=20$
1. Alpasahpancti, $5 \times 2=10$
2. Padapancti, $-5 \times 5=25$
3. $-\quad 4+6+5 \times 3=25$
4. Pat'hyá, - - $8 \times 5=40$
5. Jagati, - - $8 \times 6=48$

## VI.Trishtubh.

1. Jyotishmati, $11+8 \times 4=43$
2. Jagati, $-\quad-12+8 \times 4 \pm 44$ Purastídjyotishmati, 11 (12) $+8 \times 3$
Mad'hyá, $8+8+11(12)+8+8$
Uparishtád, $8+8+8+8+11$ (12)

## Deficient and exuberant Metre.

1. Sancamati, $=5+\mathrm{a} \times 3 \mathrm{ex}$. (Gáyatri) $5+6 \times 3=23$.
2. Cicudmati, $=6+a \times 3$
3. Yipilica mad'hyá, $=$ (Tripád) $=$ many + few + many $\mathrm{ex} .8+4+8$,
4. Yavamad'hyá, $=($ Tripád $)=$ few + many + few ex. $8+10+8$.
5. Nivrit, =a-1 ex. (Gáyatri) 24-1=23.
6. Bhurij, $=\mathrm{a}+1$ ex. (Gáyatri) $24 \nmid 1=25$.
7. Viráj $=$ il-2 ex. (Gáyatri) $8+8+6=22$.
8. Swaráj, 〒a+2 ex. (Gáyatri,) $8+8+10=26^{*}$.

## 1 Gan'acritta of Panscrit Prosody, and Ma'travritia of

 Pra'crit Prosody; regulated by quantily.1. A'ryá or Gáa'há Pr. Gáhá. $30+27=57 \mathrm{c}$.
Odd verse: $30 \mathrm{c} .=7 \frac{1}{3} \mathrm{ft}$. ( $6 \mathrm{tb}=$ Sc. or Pr.)
Even verse: $27 \mathrm{c} .=7 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{ft}$. ( $6 \mathrm{th}=$ $\mathrm{Br})$.
Each verse ends in L.
Pause in lst verse before 7th ft. if Pr. But if 6th tt. be Pr. then pause after 1st syllable.
Pause in 2d verse before 5 thft. if Pr .

16 Species: Pat'hyá: Pause after 3d. ft. $13+4 \frac{1}{2}=7 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{ft} . \& 12$
$+18+12+15=57 \mathrm{c}$.) Vipula : Passe placed otherwise. Hence A'divipula, Antyavipula, and-Ubhayavipula, with ist verse, 2 d , or both, irregularly divided by the pause.' Chapalí ist f. 8. or A. 2d Sc. 3d S.' 4th Sc. or D. 6th Sc. or. (in the short verse, Br). 7th S. D. A. or Pr. Hence Muc'hachapalà, Jag'hanya chapuIif and Mahachapala, with 1st, 2d or both verses so constructed. Therefore $A$ 'ryía +3 Chapalás $x$ Pat'hyá +3 Vipulás三 16 species.

[^109]Variations: A'ryá, 1st verse 10800. 2d verse 6400. Chapalá 1 st verse $32,2 \mathrm{~d}$ verse 16.
In Präcrit prosody, 27 species: from 27 L. $+3 \mathrm{Br}_{\mathrm{r}} .=30$ syll. to 1 L . and 55 Br . $=56$ syll.

Specifick yarieties. Culiná. sontaining 1 Sc . Culathd, 2 Sc. Vesyá, many Sc, Ran'dú, no Sc. Gurvin'i, Sc. 1st, 3d, 5th or 7th ft. But this is against rule: which excludes amphibrachys from the odd feet.
2. Udgiti or Vighthá Pr. Vi$\mathrm{ga}^{\prime} h a^{\prime} .27+30=57 \mathrm{c}$. viz. $12+$ $15+12+18$.
3. Upagiti Pr. Ga'hu. $27+$ $27=54 \mathrm{c} . \mathrm{viz} .12+15+12+15$.

4, Girior Udga't'ha' Pr. U ${ }_{5}$ $\mathrm{ga}^{\prime} h a^{\prime} .30+30=60 \mathrm{c} . \mathrm{viz} .12+$ $18+12+18$.
5. A'rxa'griti or C"hand haca Pr. Scand'hi. $32+32=64 \mathrm{c}$. 8 ft . complete. $\left(3+5^{\circ}=8 \mathrm{ff}\right.$. and $12+20^{\prime}+12+20=64{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{c}$ :
Species 16 (Pat दyá \&sc.), vasiations of each versec 10800 .
In Pracrit prosody, 28 species from 28 L . \& 8 Br . tol L . and 62 Br .
6. Chandrise', Sangiti or Gát'hi-
ni Pr. Gáhni 30+32=62 c. viz. $12+18+12+20$.
7. Sugiti, ot Parigiti Pr. Sinhini $32+30=62 \mathrm{c}$. viz. $12+20+12$ $+18$.
Also 6. Sangiti; $32+29=61 \mathrm{c}$. A'ryá (7i ft.) + L. in both verses.
7:Sugiti, $32+27=59 \mathrm{c}$.
L. in first verse only.
8. Pragiti, $30+29=59 \mathrm{c}$.

+ L. in second verse only.

9. Anugiti, $27+32=59 \mathrm{c}$. Reverse of Sugiti.
10. Manjugiki, $29+30=59 \mathrm{c}$.

Reverse of Pragiti.
11. Vigiti, $29+=58 \mathrm{c}$.
$\mathrm{U}_{\text {pagiti }}+\mathrm{L}$. in both verses.
12. Charugiti, $29+32=61 \mathrm{c}$.

Reverse of Sangiti.
13. Vallari, $32+30=62 \mathrm{c}$. A'ryagiti-L. in last verse.
14. Lalitá, $30+32=62 \mathrm{c}$. -L. in first verse.
16. Pramadú, $29+27=56 \mathrm{c}$. Upagiti + L. in first verse.
16. Cuandricí, $27+22=56 \mathrm{c}$. $+\mathbf{L}$. in last verse.
All these kinds admit 16 species as abore: viz. Pai'hyla, \&c

## I1. Ma'tra' rritta or Matria' ch'handas, of Sanscrit Prosody:

1. Vaita'tiya, 56 to 68 c.
2. Vaitaliya, $14+16+14$ f $16=60 \mathrm{c}$.
End in C. +1.
.Short syllables by pairs feven verses not to begin with 2 Ta ).
3. Apitalica, End in D. \&i S.
4. Aupachhandasica, $16+18$ $+16+18=68 \mathrm{c}$. End in C. \& B.

Each kind admits 8 varieties of the short verse \& 13 of the long ; from 3 long syll. to 6 short beginning the one, and from 4 long syll. to 1 long \& 6 short in the other.
Also the following species under each kind.

1. Dacshinintic<́, begin with 1.

Comprising 2 varieties of the odd verses.
I. I. (or Tr.) ; and 4 of the even verses. 1. B (or Prx. 2d or 4th or 5 Br .)
3. Udichya viitia, odd verses begin with I.
3. Práchya vritta, even verses C. or Pes. 4.
4. Pravrittaca, the 2 preceding combined.
5. Aparanticá, $16 \times 4=6.1 \mathrm{c}$. (Prúch).
6. Cháru'hásini, $14 \times 4=56 \mathrm{c}$ (Udich).
2. Ma'tra' samaca, $10(4 \times 4)$ $\times 4=64 \mathrm{c}$. End S . or A . Begin S. A. D. or Pr.

1. Mítrá samaca, 2d. ft.-S. A. or D. 3d. ft. A.
2. Vis'loca, 2d Sc. or Pr. 3d. S. or D.
3. Vínavisácá, 2d S. A. or D. 3d Sc, or Pr.
4. Chitrá, 2d Sc. or Pn. 3d A. Sc. or Pr.
5. Upachitrá, 2d S. A. or D. 3d S. or D.
6. Púdáculaca, the above intermixed.
The ist species admits 24 varieties; the $2 \mathrm{~d}, 32 ; \&$ the 3 next, 48 each. The variations of the last species are very numerous.
7. Gitya'rya' or Achalad'hriti, $10+4$ All short syllables.
8. Dwic'bandaca; or Couplet.
9. Sicihá or Chudá, 32 Br. +16 L.
2 species: Jyotich 1st verse 32 Br. 2 d 16 L.
S:zımyú or Arangúcridá 1st verse 16 L .2 d 32 Br .
Alsa $1 S^{\prime} i c^{\prime} / a 30+32=$ 62 c.

1 st Verse 28 Br. +L . 2d 30 Br. L. +
2, Chınnjı, $32+30=62$ c. 1st $30 \mathrm{Br} .+\mathrm{L} .2 \mathrm{~d} 28 \mathrm{Br}$. + L.
3. Chulica or Atiruchira $29+29$ $=5 \mathrm{Sc} 27 \mathrm{BE} .+L.$.
Also 3 Chulica $29+31=60 \mathrm{c}$. lst $\backslash$ erse 27 Ba : + L. 2d $29 \mathrm{Br} .+\mathrm{L}$.

## III. Matra vritia of Pracril prosody continued frome Table I.

8. Doha S. Dwipat'ha, $13+$ $11+13+11=48 \mathrm{c}$.
3 ft . viz. odd verses $6+4+3$. even verse $6+4+1$.
23 species from $23 \mathrm{~L}+2 \mathrm{Br}$. to 48 Br .
9. Utcach'ha Pr. Uicach'ha, $11 \times 6=66 \mathrm{c}$.
6 verses, 3 ft , each $4+4+3$.
10. species from 66 Br, to 28 L
+10 Br .
11. Rola or Lola, $24 \times 4=96 \mathrm{c}$.

Pause 11+13. Usually end in Lo
Kor. X.

12 specie: from 12 L to 24 Br .
11. Gandha Pr. Gandhana, 17 . $+18+17+18=70$ Syll.
12. Chatushpada or Chatushpadica Pr. Chaupaia Chaupaa, $30 \times 4 \times 4=480 \mathrm{c}$.
10 verses ; $7 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{ft} .4 \times 7+\mathrm{L}$.
13. Gharta \& G4tattanianda, 31 , $x^{\prime 2}=62<10+8+13$ 秋 $4 \times 7+$ 3 Br. or $11+7+13 \pm 6+3 \times 3$ $+5+4+3+2+2 \mathrm{Br}:$
1.4. Shat'packa or .Shat'padica . $\operatorname{Pr} C_{i^{i}}^{i}: a / \alpha a a, 90+56=152 \mathrm{c}$. Hh

- Cavya $24(i)+13=6+4 \times 4$ $+2 \mathrm{Br}) \cdot+4=96$, Ullala 28 ( 15 $+13) \times 2=56$. Varieties of the Tetrastich 45 from 96 Br . to $44 \mathrm{~L}+8 \mathrm{Br}$. Varieties of the whole stanza 71 from 70 L +12 Br . to 152 Br .

15. Prajatica Pr. Pajjatia, 16 $\times 4=64$ c. 4 ft . End in Sc.
16. Atiliha At hilla Pr. Atila $16 \times 4=64 \mathrm{c}$. No Sc.End in P.
17. Parlaculaca Pr. Culapaa, $16 \times 4=64 \mathrm{c} .6+4 \times 2+2 \mathrm{~L}$.
18. Raddi stanza of nine $=$ 116 c.
viz. 1 st $=15 \mathrm{c} .=4 \mathrm{ft}$. viz. $3+4$
$=4+4$. End in Sc. or Pr. $2 \mathrm{~d}=12 \mathrm{c} .=4 \mathrm{ft}$. End in Pr .
3d $=15 \mathrm{c}$. End in D.
$4 \mathbf{h}=11 \mathrm{c} .=3 \mathrm{ft}$. End in Tr. 5 th $=15 \mathrm{c}$. End in D.
6th to gth=Doha as before. 5 species.
19. Padmavati Pr. Pauma, $82 \times 4=128 \mathrm{c} .8 \mathrm{ft}$. no Sc.
20. Cundatica Pr. Cundaliar stanza of eight $=142 \mathrm{c}$. Doha 4 Rola or Cavya.
21. Gagan'angana, $25 \times 4=$ 100 c̀. 20 syll. viz. $5 \mathrm{~L} \& 15 \mathrm{Br}$. sird in I.
22. Dwipadi or Dwipada, 28 $\times 2=56:$ c. $6 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{ft}$. viz $0+4+5$ + L.
23. C'hanja, $41 \times 2=82 \mathrm{c}$. 10 ft. $\boldsymbol{\nabla}$ iz. 1 Pr. + C.
24. S'ic'ha, $28 \times 2=56 \mathrm{c}$. 2 ft. viz. 6 Pp. + Sc. Sec Sapsorit metre.
25. Mala, $45 \times 2=90 \mathrm{c}$. 1 tft . viz. $4 \times 9+\mathrm{c} .+\mathrm{S}$. Also 25. Mala 45+27=72 c. Ist verse as above, 2 d verse $A^{\prime} r y a$.
26. Cbudicala Pr. Chuliala,'29 $\times 2=58 \mathrm{c}$. Half the Doha +5 .
27. Saurashtra Pr. Soratike, $41+13+11+13=48 \mathrm{c}$. Heverse of the Doha. 28. Hacali, $14 \times 4=56 \mathrm{c}$.

3否ft. viz. $4 \times 3+$ L. 1 ayll. 11 or 10). ft. D.

Pr. or A. sometimes S. Not end in P. S:
29. Mad'hubhava, $8 \times 4=$ 32 c .
2. ft. End in Sc.
30. Abhira, $11 \times 4=44 \mathrm{c}$. $7+$ Sc. or D. $+\mathrm{I}+8 \mathrm{sc}$. or 8c. $+\mathrm{Tr} .+\mathrm{Sc}$.
31. Dan'dacala, $32 \times 4=128 \mathrm{c}$. $4 \times 4+6+2+8$ or $10+8+14$. End in L.
32. Dipaca, $10 \times 4=40$. c. $4+5+\mathrm{Br}$. usually end in Sc.
33. Sinha'valoca Pr. Sinhaloo $16 \times 4=64 \mathrm{c}$.
4 ft . A. or Pr. but end in A.
34. Plavangama Pr, Paranga$m a, 21 \times 4=84 \mathrm{c}$.
$6 \times 3+1$. Begin with L.
35. Lila'vati, 24 or less $\times 4=$ 96 or less. 6 ft . or less : not end in $A$.
36. Harigita, $28 \times 4=113 \mathrm{c}$. $5+6+5 \times 3+$ L. Should begin with $\operatorname{Pr}:$ and end in S .
3.7. Tribhangi, $32 \times 4=128 \mathrm{c}$. 8 ft . No Sc. End in L.
38. Durmila' or Durmilica', $32 \times 4=128 \mathrm{c} .10+8+14 . \mathrm{ft} .8$.
39. Hira or liiraca, $23 \times 4=$ 92. c.

4 ft . viz. $6 \times 3+5$ ft. 6 Br . or 1 L. with 4 Br . End in. L.
40. Jalad'hara or Jalahiarana', $32 \times 4=128 \mathrm{c}$.
Pauses $10+8+6+8$. ft. 8 Ger nerally Pr. End in A.
'ì1. Mad́ńagriha or Madanahara', $40 \times 4=160 \mathrm{c}$ 。 $10+8+14+8=40$.
42. Maha'ra'sht'ra Pr. Mara. hat't'a, $29 \times 4=116 \mathrm{c}$.
$10+8+11+$ or $6+4 \times 5+\operatorname{Ln}$ +Br .
Also the following kinds :
43. Ruchira', $80 \times 4=129$ c. $7^{\frac{1}{3}} \mathrm{ft}$. end in L.
44. Calica', $14 \times 4=56$ c. Pauses 8+6.
45. Va'san'a, $20 \times 4=90 \mathrm{c}$. 4 ft . End in C. Pause before the last.
46. Chaurola, $16+14+16$ $+14=60$ c. ft. A. or Pr .
47. JhaHana', $37 \times 4=148 \mathrm{c}$. $7 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{ft} 5 \times 7+$ L. Pauses $10+10$ $+10+7$.
48. Ashad'ha, $12+7+12+7$ $=38 \mathrm{c}$.
49. Ma'lavi, $16+12+16+$ $12=56 \mathrm{c}$.
Long verses 4 ft . short verse end in $L$.
50. Matta', $20 \times 4=80 \mathrm{c}$. 5 ft . no Sc.
51. Rasamala, $24 \times 4=\mathbf{9 6}$ c. $6 \mathrm{ft}^{\prime}$
52. Avalambaca, $13 \times 4=$ 52 c.
$3 \mathrm{ft} .4 \times 2+6$. End in L.

## IV. Metre regulated by number of Syllables.

Vactra, $8 \times 4=32$ syll. 2 ft . between 2 syll. The species vary in the 2 d ft . or 3d place.

1. Simple Vactra.
L. or Br. + M. \&c. (except Tr. \& A. and, in the even verse, $C$ ) $+\mathrm{B} .+\mathrm{L}$. or Br . Therefore 1st 4th \& 8th syll. either loag or short. 5th short. 6th \& 7th long. Either 2d or 3d long.
Variations of the Ist verse 24; of the 2 d 20.
2. Pat'kyá.

1 st verse as above; 2 d with Sc. for 2d ft. Hence 7th syll. short.
3. Viparita pai'hya.

The preceding transposed.
4. Chapala.

1 st verse with Tr. for 2d ft. Therefore 6th \& 7th syll. short.
5. Vipula.
-2 d verse (some say 1st, others all) with 7th syll. short.Therefore 2dft. D.Sc. H. or Tr.

5 or 7 species : Bha-vipula. 1st verse (some say either) with D. for 2 dt . Ra-vipula, with C. for 2d ft. Navipula, 2 d ft. Tr. Ta-vipula, 2 dft . H. Ma-चipula, 2d ft. M. Ya-vipula, 8d ft. B. Javipula, ad ft. Sc.
No instance occurs with an anaprest for the $\mathbf{2 d f t}$. or 3 d place.
V. Acshara chikandas or Varría vritta. Metre regulated by uumber and quantity.,
Regular or uniform metre; the stanza being composed of equal and similar verses. Frow one to five syllables in the verse, or fromt form to twenty in the stanza.
I. Uctá or Uct'ha. 1

$$
x_{4}=4 .
$$

1. Sri, g. $=$ L. 2Mahi, $l .=\mathrm{Br}$.
II. Atyuctaí. $2 \times 4=8$.
2. Stri, or Cama, 2 g. =S. 2. Rati, or Mahi, l. g. =1. 3 Saru, g. l. = T. 4. Madhu, Pr. Mahu, $2 \%=$ P.
III. Madhyá. $3 \times 4=12$.
3. Nari, or Tali, m. = M. 2 $\mathbf{S}$ as $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{Pr}$. Sasisi, $y=$ B. 3. Priya, Pr. Pia; or Mrigi, r. = C. 4. Raman'i, or Raman'a, s. =A. 5. Parichala, or Panchala, $t=\mathrm{H}$. f. Mrigendra, Pr. Mainda, j. = Sc. 7. Mandara; bh. =1. 8. Camali, ox Camala, $n, \mp \mathbf{T r}$.
IV. Pratishi"há ${ }^{\prime} \times$ $4=16$.
4. Canya, or Tirba, Pr. Tinna, m. g. $=2$ S. 2. Ghari, or Harica, $r$. $\%=2$ T. 3. Nagaléa; La galica, Nagani, or Naganiea, Pr. Magania, or Nagani, j. $g .=2$ 1. 4. Sati, $n . g:=1$ P.I.
V. Supratishtiháj $\times 4=20$.

1 Pancti, Acsharapancti, or Hansa, bh. 2. g. $=1$ ). S. 2. Sammoha, m. 2 g. $=$ M. S. $\quad$. Haritabandha, or Hari, 2 g. $l$. 2.g. or t. 2 g. =S. B. 4. Priya, 2 2. r: = A. I. 5. Yamaca, Pr. Jemaca, n. 2 l. = P, Tr.

From six to twenty-six syllables in the Verse.
i. Ga'yatri. $6 \times 4=24$.

1. Tanumad'hya, ' $\boldsymbol{y}$. $=$ SPS. 2. Vidytllecha, or Sesha, Pr. Sesa. $2 \mathrm{~m} .=3$ S. 3. Sasidradana, or Chauransa, $n \boldsymbol{n}=2$ P S. ${ }^{4} 4$. Vasumati, $t s=$ S P 1. 5. Vanitt, or Tilaca, Pr. Dilla, $2 s=$ 2 A. 6. Yodba, or Dwiyod'bi, Pr. Vijoha, 2 r. =TS 1. 7. Cbatransa, $\operatorname{Pr}$, Cbawvansa, $n!=2$ PS. 6. Mant'hana, or Camavatara, (ball of the Saranga), 2 ^ = ŞIT. 9. Sanc' hamari or

Somaraji, thalf of the Bhujangaprayata), $2 y=1$ T'S. 10. Malati, Sumalati, Vasanta, or Caminicanta, $8 j=1$ PT. 11. Dan anaca, $2 n=3 \mathrm{P}$.
1I. Ushnim $7 \times 4=28$.

1. Cumaralatita, $(2+5)$ j $s g$ $=1+$ Tr. S. 2. Madalech'a, $m s g=$ SD S. 3. Hansamala, $\mathrm{srg}_{\mathrm{g}}^{\mathrm{g}}$ ATS. 4. Mad'homati, $2 n g=2 \mathrm{P}$ A. 5. Sumanica, $r g l=2$ TC. 6. Suvasá, $n j l$ $=2$ PD. 7. Curahancha, insl
$=2$ PSc. 8. Sirsha, Pr. Sisa, $2 \mathrm{mg}=2 \mathrm{SM}$.
III. Anushtubh $8 \times 4$ $=32$.
2. Chitrapada, $2 b k, 2 g=2$ DS. 2. Vidyunmala, Pr. Bijjumala, $(4+4 \ddagger) 2 \cdot m 2 g=2$ $\mathrm{S}+2 \mathrm{~S}$. 3. Manavaca, or Manavacrida, $(4+4 t) b h, t l g=$ TI + TI: 4. Hansaruta, $u n$ $2 g=$ S DB. 5. Pramanica, Nagaswarapini, or Matallica, $j r$ $l g=4$ 1. 6. Samanica, or Mallica, $r j_{g} l=4$ T. 7. Vitana, $j t 2 g=2$ ITS. 8, Tunga, 2 $n 2 g=3$ PS. 9. Camala, $2 l$ $n r_{0}=2$ P 2 I. 10. Hansapadi, $2 \mathrm{gms}=2$ STI. 11. Matangi, m $2 l m=S T I S .12$. Rambha, $n l g m=2$ P $2 S$.
IV. Vrifati $9 \times 4=36$.
3. Halamuc'hi, $(3+6), r n s$ $=\mathrm{C}+2$ PI. 2. Bhujagasisusrita, $\{7+2\}, 2 n m=2 \mathrm{P}$ A + 8. 3. Bhadrica, $r n r \div 2$ T A.I. 4. Mahalacstmi, $3 \dot{r}=$ TS B I. 5. Sarangi, or Sarngi. $n y s=2$ PSA. 6. Pavitra, Pr. Payitta, mbh. s. $=2$ S P A. 7. Camala, $2 u$ s $=3$ PA. 8. Bimba, $n$ s $y=$ P Tr. TS. $\quad$. Tomara, s2g=AIPT. 10. Rupamali, $r m=3 \mathrm{~S}$ M. $\quad 11$. Manitrad'bya or Maniband'ha, bh.ts = D 2 III. 12. Bhujangasangata, $s j r=A 3 \mathrm{~L}$.

## V. Pancti $10 \times 4=40$.

1. Sudd'baviraj, $m$ s $j g=S$ T 3 I. 2. Panava, $(5+5)$, $m n$ $y, s=\mathrm{S} \mathrm{D}+\mathrm{AS}$ or $m n j g=$ $\mathrm{S} \mathrm{D}+\mathrm{A}$ J. 3. Mayurasarini, $r$ $j r g=4$ T \&., 4. Matta, $(4+$ 6), mbív $s g=2 S+2$ PS. 5. Upast'hita, $(2+8) t 2 i g=8+$ 2 A I. ©. Rucmavatior Champacamala $(5+5$ §). bh. $m$ r $g$ DS+ DS. 7. Manorama, $n$ r $j g .=P$
2. 8: Sanyucta, P:Sanjunta, s2 $j g=$ P2 T21. 9. Saravati, 3 bl. $y=2$ D T I. 10. Sushama, $t y$ 6h $g=$ S A S A. 11. Amritamati. or Amritagati, $n j n g=1 \mathbf{P}$ APA. 12. Hami, $(1+6), m$ bh. $m g=2 \mathrm{STr}$. S. 13.Clarumuc'hi, $n y$ bh. $g=\mathrm{PASA}$. 14. Chandramuc'hi, $t$ in.bk. $g=$ SP. 2.
VI. Trishtubhll $x$ $=44$.
3. Indravajrá, $2: \boldsymbol{j}^{\boldsymbol{2}} \boldsymbol{g}=\mathrm{SI}$ DTS. 2. Upendravajra, $i t j 2$ $g=2$ IDTS. 3. Upajáti, or Ac'hyánaci, (14 species.) The two foregoing intermixed. 4. Dod'haca, Band'hu or Nileswarupa, $3 \mathrm{bh} .2 \mathrm{~g}=3 \mathrm{D} \mathrm{S}$. 5. Salini, $(4+7 \dagger), m 2 t 2 g=2 S+C$ T.S. 6. Vatorui, $(4+7+)_{4} m$ $h h . t 2 g=2 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{AT} \mathrm{S}$. 7. Bhramaravilasita, $(4+7 \dagger)$, m bl. $n f g=2 S+2$ P. A. 8 . Hat'hod'dhata, $r \boldsymbol{n} r l \boldsymbol{g}=2 \mathrm{~T}$ A 21. 9. Swagata, $r=3 h .2 \mathrm{~g}$ $=2$ TAPS. 10. Vriota or Vritta, $(4+7 \dagger), 2 n s=2 \boldsymbol{g}=3$ PAS. 11. Syenica, or Srenica, $r j r l g=4$ TC. 12. Sumuchin, $(5+6$ ),$n 2 j l g=P A+2 A$. 13. Bhadrica, $2 \operatorname{lq} / \mathrm{lg}=2$ PA 2 1. 14. Mauclicamala, Sri, Anucula or Cudmaladanti, $(5+6)$, bh. $\operatorname{tn} 2 \mathrm{~g}=\mathrm{DS}+2 \mathrm{PS} .15$. Upast'hisa, $j$ st $2 g=1$ Tr.STS. 16. Upachitra or Visestrica, 3 s $l$ $g=3$ AI. 17. Сирииияіајаиіta, 2 zr2.g $=2$, PAA 18.18. Anavasita, $n y$ hh. $2 \mathrm{~g}=2 \mathrm{P}$ 1) S. 19. Mot'anach, $\& 3 i l y$ =S 3 A.1 20. Alilaبimpla; $\beta$ m $2 g=4 \mathrm{~S}$ M. . 2 2 . Damanaca, $r n l g=4$ P A. 24. Madand'ha, $m \operatorname{m}^{2} \mathrm{~g}=\mathrm{S} 2 \mathrm{~T}$ S...
VII. JAGATÍ12 $\times 4=4 \dot{8}$.
4. Vansas'tha or Vans'ast'ha-
 Hh 3
dravans'a, 2 tir=SIT3I. 3. Upajati, the two foregoing intermised. 4. Totiaca, $4 s=4 \mathrm{~A}$. 5. Drutavilambita, $n 2 b h r=$ PI 2 A. J. 6. S'triputa or Puta, $(8+4), 2 n m y=3$ PS + T 8. 7. Jalodd'hatagati, $(6+6)$, $j s j s=I P I+1 P I .8$. Tata or Lalita, $2 n \operatorname{me}=3$ P 2 S 1. 9. Cusumarichitra, $(6+6)$, mymy=2PS+2PS.. 10 . Chanchala'cshica,Pramudvitavadana, Mandacini, Gauri or Prabha, $(7+5), 2 x 2 r=2$ PA + BIf 14. Bhajangaprayata, $4 y$ =ITSITS. 12. Sragvini or Lacshmid'hara, $4 r=$ TSITS T. 13. Pramitacshara, sj $2 \mathrm{~s}=$ A Sc. 2 A. 14. Cantotpada or Jaladharamala, $(4+8), m b h$. $s$ $m=28+2$ P2S or $6 h$. $m s m$ \#DSD 2 S. $\mid$ 15. Vais' wadevi, $(5+7), 2 m 2 y=M S+T S$ B. 16. Navamalini, $(8+4)$,
 Chandravartma, $(4+8 \ddagger), r n$ bh. $s=2 \mathrm{~T}+\mathrm{PDA}$. 18. Priyambida, $n$ bh. $j r=P$ IP 3 I. 19. Man'imala, $(6+6), t y t y$ $=\mathbf{S P S}+\mathbf{S P S}$. 20. Lalita, $t$ bh. $j r=S 1 P 3 I$. 21. Uijwali, $2 n b h_{0}$ r. $^{2}=3$ P' 2I. 22. Malati or Varacanu, $(5+7)$, h $2 j$ $\boldsymbol{r}=\mathbf{P} \mathbf{A + A} 2$ I. 23. Tamarasa or Lalitapada, $n 2 j y=2$ P 2 D 8. 24. Lalana, $(5+7) b h . m 2 s$ $=\mathrm{D}+\mathrm{DTI}$ or bh. $t n=\mathrm{D}$ 8+23A. 25: Drufapada, n 6h. $z^{2} y=$ PI 3 P 8. 26. Vidyadhara, $(4+8\}, 4 m=2 S+4$ S. 27. Saranga, $4 . t=$ S.ITSI T. 28. Mancticadama, $4 j=I$ PTIPT. 29. Modaca, 4 bh. $=4$ D.- 30. Tartlanayani, $4 n$ $=6 \mathrm{P}$.

- VIIl. Atijagati, $13 \times$ $4=52$.

1. Praharshini, $(3+10) n_{n j}$
$r g=M+2 \mathbf{P} 2 T S . \quad$ 2. $\mathbf{R o}_{-}$ chira, or Atiruchira, $(4+9)$ jbh. s.jg=2I+2PTC. 3. Mattamayura, or Maya, $(4+9) m$ $t$ ij $s=2$ S+T I DS. 4. Gauri, $2 n 2 r g=3$ PTSBi 5. Manjubhashin'i, Prabod'hitạ, Sunandini, or Canacaprabha sj sij $g=$ $A \cdot+P \cdot 3$ I. ' 6. Ch ndrica, Cshama, Utpalini, or Cut'ilagati, $(7+6) 2 n 2 t g=P A+T S$ I. 7. Calahansa, Chitravati, or Sinhanada, $j 2$ s $g=P 2 T P$ D 8. 8. Chancharicavali, y m2 $r g=12 S C T S . \quad$ 9. Chandralec'ha, $(6+7) \pi$ rry $y=2$ $\mathrm{PI}+2 \mathrm{~T}$ M. 10 . Vidyut, $(6$ +7) ns2tg $2 \mathbf{2 P 1}+\mathrm{SI}$ C. 11. Mrigendramuc'ha, $n 2 j$ $r g=$ PAP2TS. 12. Taraca, $4 s g=3$ APS. 13. Calacanda, or Canda $4 y l=$ B 1 T S I T. 14. Papcajavali, or Pancavali, bh. $u 2 j l=\mathbf{D} 2$ P2D. 15. Cdandi, $2 n 2 \mathrm{sg}=4 \mathrm{PD}$ S. 16. Prabbavati, $(4+9)$ t.bh. s.j $g=S I+2$ PTC.
IX. SACCARI, $14 \times 4$ $=56$.
2. Asambad'ha, $(5+9) n t n$ s $2 g=M S+2 P A S .2$. Aparajita, $(7+7) 2 n r s l g=$ $2 \mathrm{PA}+1 \mathrm{AIOr} \operatorname{cor} \mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{g}}=$ PTAIAI. 3. Praharanacalita, or Calica, $(7+7) 2$ z bh. $\mathfrak{z}$ lg= $2 \mathrm{PA}+2$ PA. 4. Vassntatilaca, Sinhonnata, Udd'harshin'i, Mad'humad'havi. or Sobhayati, thh. $2 j 2 \mathrm{~g}=$ SIPIPTS. 5. Lola, or Alola, $(7+7) m \mathrm{~m}$ m bh. $2 \mathrm{~g}=\mathrm{SDS}+\mathrm{SDS}$. 6. Induvadana, or Varasundari, hh. $j$ s $n$ $2 \mathrm{~g} \doteq \mathrm{TPTPTPS}$. 7. Nadi, $(7+7) 2 n t j 2 \mathrm{~s}=2 \mathrm{PA}+$ 1 TS. 8. Lacshmi, $m s t b h$. $2 g=S D S T D$. 9. Supravitra, $(8+6) 4 n 25=4 P+2$ PS. 10. Madhyacshama, $(4+10)$ or

Eatila，$(4+6+4)$ 得 $6 h . \pi y 2$ $5=28+3$ P＋2 S．11．Prama． da，$n j b h . j l g=2 P 2 T P T I$. 12．Manjari，$(5+9) s j$ s ylg＝ P2TPTSI．13．Cumari，（8 ＋6）njbh．j2g三 2 P 2 TP TS．14．8ucesara．n．rnel－g＝ P． 2 I P3I．15．Vasántí；m t $n$ m $2 g=2 S D A 2 S . \quad$ 16．Nandi－ muchi，$(7+7) 2$ n 2 t＇ $2 \mathrm{~g}=3$ PSIT 8．17．Chacra，or Cha－ crapata，Wh． $3 n l g^{f}=$ T 5 PI． 18. Lilopavati，$(4+10) 4 \mathrm{~m} \cdot 2 \mathrm{~g}=$ $2 \mathrm{~S}+5 \mathrm{~S} \cdot 19$ ：Nat＇agati， $4 \mathrm{n}_{2}$ $g=6 \mathrm{P}+\mathrm{S} . \quad 20$ ．Copavati，bh．$m$ jtlg＝D．SDSTI．

X．Atisaggarí， $15 \times$ $4=60$ ．

1．Chandrávarta，$(7+8 \ddagger) 4 n s=$ $2 \mathbf{P r}_{\mathrm{r}}+\mathrm{P} \mathrm{Tr}_{\mathrm{r}} \mathrm{A} .2$ ：Málá，or Sraj． $(6+9) .4 n \cdot s=2$ Tr．+2 Tr． A．3．Manigunanicara，$(8+$ 7） $4 n s=4 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{PA} .4$. Máliníi or Nan＇dimuc＇hí，（8 $+712 n m 2 y=3 \mathrm{PS}+\mathrm{CT}$ S．5．Chandralec＇bá，$(7 \not+8)$ $m r m 2 y=2 S B+S I T S$. 6．Cámacri＇dá，Lilach＇hela，or Sárangicá and Sarangaca， $5 \mathrm{~m}=$ 6 S M．7．Prabhadraca，or Sưb－ hadraca and Sucesara，$(7+8)$ ． $n, j b h . j r=2$ PO +t P 3 I． 8. Elá．$(5+10)$ s j2ny＝AI ＋41T．．9．Upamálini，（8＋ 7） $2 \pi t b h . r=3 \mathrm{PT}+\mathrm{SAI}$ ． 10．Vipinatilaca，n s $n 2 r=2$ PITr．TSI．11．Chitra， 3 m $2 y=3$ SMITS．12．Tun＇－ aca，or Chamara，（8 L 7 Br ．$二$ $23 \mathrm{c}_{0}$ ）$=6$ T＇C．13．Bhramara－ vali， $5 s=5$ A．14．Manahansa， s2jbh．r二A1P2T21． 15. Sarabha，or 8 ＇as＇icala， $4 n+s=$ 6 P A．16．Nisipala，bh．js $n r$ $=D$ I PI P2 I．17．Utsara，$r z$ 2 bh． $\mathrm{r}=2 \mathrm{~T} 3$ AI．18．Hansa， $(8+7) \pi 2 j r y=2$ PD 3 TS．

XI．Ashtr； $16 \times 4=64$ ．
1．Rishabhagajavilaslta，or Ga－ jaturangavilasita，（779）bh．r3n
 ini，njbh：jrg＝2P2TP2TS． 3．Chitra，Chitrasanga，Atisun－ dara or Chanchala，（double Sa－ manica）$r j r j+l=8$ T．4．Pan－ chachamara，Naracha or Nara－ cha，（double Pramínica），$j r j r$ $j g=8 \mathrm{~T} . \quad 5$. Dhiralalita， $3 h$ ．in $r n g=\mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{TP} 2 \mathrm{TA}$. 6．Cha： gati，Nila，Lila or Aswagati， 5 bh．$g=4$ D T I．7．Chacita 18 ＋8）bh．smtng＝DAS＋SD A．8．Madanalalita，$(4+6+6)$ $m$ bh．$n m n g=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{SPI}$ ． 9．Pravaralalita，mnsrg＝I2S 2 PITS．10．Garudaruta，nj bh． $j t g=2$ P2TPTSI．11．Sai－ las＇ticha，$(16$ or $5+6+5) b b$ ．$r$ n2 $2 \mathrm{bh} . \mathrm{g} 二 \mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{~T} 3 \mathrm{~A}$ or पT＋T PT＋1A．12．Varayuvati，bh． ry2ug＝D2TS2PA．， 13. Brahuerupaca，（double Vidyun－ mala， $5 m g=8 \mathrm{~S} .14$ Achalad－ hrita，or Gityarya， $5 \dot{n} l=8 \mathrm{P}$ ． 15．Pinanitamba，$(4+5+7) m t$ $y m s g=2 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{D}$ S＋S D S． 16. Yauvanamatta，$(5+11) 6 h .3 \mathrm{~ms}$ $g=\mathrm{DS}+3 \mathrm{SBS}$ ．

XII．Atyashiti， $17^{\prime} \times$ $4=68$ ．

1．Sic＇harin＇i，$(6+11) y \mathrm{mms}$ ． bh． $1 \mathrm{~g}=\mathrm{I} 2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PIDI} .2$. Prit＇hwi，$(8+9)$ i sis y $l g=\mathbf{I}$ P2I＋Tr．TSI．3．Vans＇apa＇－ trapatita，or Vansaparra，$\{10+$ 7）bh．rn bh．$n l \boldsymbol{g}=\mathrm{D}: 2 \mathrm{TA}+2$ P A．4．Harin＇i，$(6+4+7$ or $4+7$ ）$n \mathrm{smrslg}=2 . \mathrm{PI}+2 \mathrm{~S}$ ＋IAl．5．Mandacranta，$(4+6$ ＋7）mbh．$n 2$ t $2 g=2 S+2$ PI + C T S．6．Narcut＇aca，or Nardat＇aca $17+10$ ，or Avitat＇ha （ $17+1$ ），njbh． 2 j $l g=\operatorname{Tr} .21+$ Ir．TIA．7．Cocilaca， $17+6$ $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{h}}$
$+4 \pm$ or $8+5+4+1=$ Tr. $21+$ PI.P+TI. 8. Hari, $(6+4+7)$ $2 n m r s l g=3 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{I} A \mathrm{I}$. 9. Canta, or Cranta, $(4+6+7)$ y öh. $u r \operatorname{sig}=\mathrm{IS}+2 \mathrm{PI}+1 \cdot \mathrm{Al}$. 10. Chitralec'ha, or Atisayani, $(10+7) 2 s j b h . j 2 g=2$ A 2 I +Tr T S. 11. Malad'hara: or Vanamalad'hara, n sjs ylg=2 P2ITr. TSI. 12. Harini, (4 $+6+7) m b h . n$ z $y l g=2 S+2$ PI+SBI.
XIII. Dhriti, $18 \times 4=$ 72.
I. Cusumitalata vellita, $(5+6$ +7) $m t n 3 y=\mathrm{M}$ 6+2 $\mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{C}$ TS. 2. Mahamalica; Naracha, Lata, Vanamala, $(10+8 \dagger) 2 n$ $4 r=$ PTStI'TSI. 3: Sud"ha, $(6+6+6)$, $m$ msts $=128$ +2 P ItS PI. 4. Harinapluta, $(8+5+5) \mathrm{ms} 2$ jbh. $r=\mathrm{ST} 2 \mathrm{~L}$ +AI+AI. 5. Aswagati, 5 bh. $s=5$ D A. . 6. Chitralec'ina, (4-+ 7 +7) m $2 \boldsymbol{n} 2 t m=\mathrm{ST}+\mathrm{P}$ Tr. S + ITM. 7. Bhramaíapada, bh. $\boldsymbol{r} 3 n=\mathrm{m} 2 \mathrm{~T} 3$ PAS. 8. Saidulalalita, $12+6) \mathrm{msj}$ sts =SD2TA+SPT. G. Sardula, $(12+6) \mathrm{ms}$ j $\mathrm{s} r \mathrm{~m}=\mathrm{S} \mathrm{D} 2$ TA+T2S. jo. Cesirn, $4+7$ +7) $m k h . n y 2 r=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PA}$ +SIC. 1i. Nandana, $111+$ 7).m.jbh. $j 2 r=2 \mathrm{PTDI}+2 \mathrm{I}$ C. 12. Chitrasala, Chitralec'ha, $(4+7+7) m b h, n 3 y=2 S+2$ PA+CTS. 13. C.bala. $(+1+7$ +7) $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{m}}$ bh.njbh. $x=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PA}$ +TAI. 14. Vivuirhapryartat 10 t) $r 2 j b h, r=2 \mathrm{~T} 2 \mathrm{I}+$ P2T2I. J5. Maujiaa, 2 in bh. $m$ s $m=3$ SDSD 2 S. 16. Cridwichandra, 6x=ITPITPITP.
 1D.2T. 1 I.: :
XIV. Atidhtrti, M9x $4=76$.

1. Sardulavicridita, or Sardula,
(12+7)ms,jsatg=SD.2T $\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{S}$ I C.f. 2. Meg'bawisp'burjita, or Vismitra, $(6+6+7$.$) y n$ $n ; 2+g=I 2 S+2 P I+C T S$. 3. Panchachamara, $2 n=$ alter-
 dama, $(5+7+7)$ stserg= MS+2PA+CTS: 5. Bimba,
 PA+HSI. 6. Ch'haya, ( $6+6$ +7 or $12+7$ y $y$ m $n \cdot s$ bhot $g=1$ $2 S+2 \cdot \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{DSI} .7$. Macatrandica; $(6+6+7)$ y m $\operatorname{ms} 2$ jg $=I 2 S+2 P I+I A I$. 8. Samudratate, $(8+4+7) j$ sj stbh. $g=I \mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{I}+\mathrm{PI} \mathrm{C}$ SIA. 9. Surasa. $(7+7+5) n$ r $b h \cdot n y n g$ $=M \mathrm{TS}+2 \mathrm{PA}+\mathrm{BI} 10^{\circ}$ Manimanjari, y bh. ny 2 jg =I S_2PAT2I! 11 Chandramoalas or Chandra, $(10+9) 3 n j$ $2 n l=5 \mathrm{P}+\mathrm{D} 3 \mathrm{P}$. 12. Dha. wetunca, or.Dhavala, $6 n g=8 \mathrm{P}$ A. 13. Sambhu, $(7+0+6)$ st $y$ bh. $2 m g \dot{m}=A S S 3 S$.
XV. Chiti, $20 \times 4=80 \cdot$
2. Suvadana, $(7+7+6) m r b h^{\circ}$ $n y b l . \lg =2 \mathrm{SB}+2 \mathrm{PA}+\mathrm{S} \mathrm{PI}$. 2. Vritto, or Gandaca, r.jr j r $j$ $g l=10 \mathrm{~T} . \quad$ 3. Solha, $(6+7+$ 7) $112 n 2 t 2 g=12 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PA}$ + T S B. 4. Gitica, or Gita, s


## XVI. Prackifi, $21: x$

 $4=84$.1. Sragdhará, $(7+7+7) m$ rbh: $n 3 y=2 S B+2 P A+$ T S B. 3. Salilinid'hi, Sarasi, Sidd'haca, Sasivadapa or Dhritasri, n.jbh. 3jr=2PTDI+2 A 2I. 3. Narei:dra, $67, r 2 n$ $2, y=\mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{~T} 3 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{D}$ S.

XVIH: A'cbiti, $22 \times 4$ $=83$.
${ }^{5} 1$ Bi,adraca; (tól +12 ) bh. r $n$
 2. Madira, or Lalita, 7 bh. $g=6$

DTI., 8a:Hadis, $(8+14) 2 m 2$ $g 4 n 2 g=4 S+6: P 8$.
XVIII. Vrcariti, $23 \times 4$ $=92$.

1. As' walalita, or Adritanay, $(1-1+12)=j b h_{1} j$ bh. $i b h . l g=$ $2 \mathrm{PTDI}+\mathrm{ITr}$ TDI. 2. Mattacrida, or Vajivahana, $(8+$ 15) $2 m t 4 n l g=4 S+P A$. 3: Sundari, $(7+6+10) 2$ sbh. st $2 j=\mathrm{APS}+2 \mathrm{PS}+2 \mathrm{D}$. 4 。 Ma'lati, or Madamatta, 7 bh .2 g . $=\gamma \mathrm{DS} . \quad 5$, Chitrapada, 7 bh; $l$ $g=7 \mathrm{DI}$. Mallica, $7 . j$ bg=IP, TIJTIPTIA.
XIX. Santcitit, $24 \times 4$ $=96$.
2. Tanwi, $(5+7+12+12) 6 h$. $t$ ns 2 bh. ny=D S+2PA+.2
D. 2P S. 2: Dormila, $8 s=8 \mathrm{~A}$. 3: Cirita, 8 th. = 8 D. 4. Jenaci, 8 r=TSITSITSITSI. 5. Madhaivica', $7 j y=1 P^{\prime} \mathcal{L} \mid P T$ IPTIPS.
XX. Aticritic, $25 \times$ \& $=100$.
3. Craunchpada, $(5+5+8+$ 7) $b h . m s b k 4 n g=D S+D S$ $+4 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{PA}$. 2. S'ambhu, 8 $m \cdot g=11 \mathrm{~S}$ M.

XXI:UTCRITI $26 \times 4=:$ 104.

1. Rhujangavijrimbhita, $(8$ to $11+7) 2 \mathrm{man} \mathrm{ms} \lg =4 \mathrm{~S}+$ $4 P A+I A$ I. 2.Apavaha, (9 $+6+6+5) m 0 n s 2 g=S D_{2}$. $\mathrm{P}+3 \mathrm{P}+3 \mathrm{P}+\mathrm{AS}$. 3. Gauri, $8 m 2 g=13 S_{i}$

## Erom 27 to 999 syllables in the verse.

Dan'daca, $27 \times 4=108$ to 999 $\times 4=3996$.

1. Chan'darishtiprayata, $2 n 7$ $r=2$ Tr. 6 C.
2. Prachita, 2 n 8 \&c. . 325 species from 9 to 333 feet viz. 2d Arna, 2 n8 r. 3d Arnava, $2 n .9 r$. 4ttr Vyala, $2 n 10$ r. 5th Jimuta, 2 n 11 .r \& c. Or 3. Prachita, $2 n 7$ \&c. $y=2$ 'I'r. 7 \&c. B.
3. Mattamatangalilacara, 9 \& 8 c. $r$ $=9 \& c . C$.
4. Sinhavieranta, $2 \boldsymbol{n} 10 \& c . r$.
5. Cusumastevaca, $9 \& c . s=9$ \&c. A.
6. Anangasec'bara, $\lg \lg$ \&xc. $=$ 15 \&cc. I.
7. Asocamanjari, r $j \& c .=15$. \&c. T,
Alfo Saluza, 2 g 8 ns $=$ S 12 . PA.
VI. Half equal Metre; the slanza being composed of equal and similar couplets; but the coupless, of dissimilar verses.
8. Upachitra, (Upajati-F Tamarasa). 1st 3 verse 3 slg $=3$ A. I. 2 d 3 bh. $2 g=3 \mathrm{DS}$.
9. Drutamad'hya, (Dodhaca + Tamara"). 1st 3 bh. $2 \mathrm{~g}=3 \mathrm{D}$ S. 2d $n 2 y=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{D}^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$.
10. Vegavati, (Upachitra-penult Br. in 1st verse). 1 st 3 s $g$ $=2$ A P S. $2 \mathrm{~d} 3 \mathrm{bh} .9 \mathrm{~g}=2 \mathrm{DS}$.
11. Bhadraviraj (species of $A u$ pachihandaica). |sityrg=5P $2 \mathrm{TS} .2 \mathrm{dmsj2g}=\mathrm{SD} 2 \mathrm{Tc}$.
12. Cetumati. lat $s j s g=A I$ Tr.s. 2d bh. rn $2 g$ =T. 2 I Tr. S.
13. Ac'byanaci Tpajati viz. alternate Indravajra and Upendravajira; some say, one verse Indravajra three Upendravajra.) 1st (and 3d) $2 t j 2 g=S$ I DTS. 2d (and 4th some say 3d) $j t j t$ $2 g=2$ IDTS.
14. Viparitac'hyanaci the conaerse of the preceding.) 1 st $j t ; 2$ g=2IDTS. 2d $2 t j 2 g=8$ I DTS.
15. Harin'aplutá (DrutavilamLita - one ryllable) 1st $3 \mathrm{~s} \lg =$ 3 AI. 2dn 2 bhr $=$ PI2AI.
16. Apargaotra (species of Paitáliya: or Bhadrica + Málati). 1st $2 n r l g=2 \mathrm{PA} 2 \mathrm{I}$. 2 d $\boldsymbol{x} 2 j r=\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{~A} 2 \mathrm{I}$.
17. Pushpitágrá (species of Aupachihantisica). 1st $2=1 \geqslant$ $=3 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{TS}$. 2dr2Jrg 2 PD 2 TS.
18. Yavamatí. 1strjrj= 6 T. $2 \mathrm{~N}^{\prime} j r j r g=5 \mathrm{I} \mathrm{B}$.
19. S'ic'há. 1st $28 / g=7$ Tr. PI.
20. Chanjá. 1st 30 lg=7 Tr. P. $2 \mathrm{~d} 281 \mathrm{~g}=7$ Tr.'P. 2 d $28 l g=7$ Tr. 1.
21. Lahitá. 1st $r \operatorname{slg}=2 \mathrm{~T}$ 21. 2dsajg $=$ ATr. 2 I.
22. Caumadí (Bhadricá + Chanchalúcshic3). Ist 2 mlg $=$ Tr. P 3 I. $2 \mathrm{~d} 2 \boldsymbol{n} 2 \boldsymbol{r}=8 \mathbf{P}$ 'rsi.
23. Manjusaurabha (Málati + Manjuhháshini). 1st n2jr =2PT3I. 2dsjsjg=AI P. 3 I.
VII. Unequal Metre; the stanza being composed of dissimilar verses.
24. Udgata, 1 st verse $\operatorname{si} ; l=$ AITr.T.2dns.jg=Tr. A 2 I: 3d bh. $n j l \mathrm{~g}=\mathrm{T}$ Tr. 2 A. tth sjijg =AIP3I.
2 varieties: viz. Saurabiaca, 3d verser $n$ bh. $g=T \mathrm{D} 2$ A. Lalita, 3d verse $2 \pi \mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{s}}=2$ Tr. 2 A .
25. Upast'bitaprachupita, 1st verse m sj bh. $2 \mathrm{~g}=\mathrm{S} \mathbf{D} 2 \mathrm{TDS}$. 2dsnjrg=A2PTS.3d8ts $=\mathrm{PA} .4 \mathrm{ch} 3 n . j y=5 \mathrm{P} \mathrm{D}$ S. 2 varieties: viz. Bard"hma' $n^{\prime} a$, .3d verse 2 n. 2 ns二 3 PA. 3 'P \& Sudd'havira'lrishabha, 3d
verset.jr $=$ SA. 2 I.
26. Padachatúberdiba, increasing in arithmetical progression from 8 to 20 syll. viz. Jst verse 8, 2d 12, 3d 16, 4th 20. 6-species: viz. Apid a, End in S Rest Br. Pratyáfida, Begin with S orbegin and end with S. Manjari or Colicá, 1st and 2d verses transposed $12+8+16+20$. Lavali, 1st and 3d tranajosed 16 $+12+8+20$. Amritad' húrá, 1 st and 4:h transiosed $20+12$ $+16+8$.

## VIII. Supplement, under the denomination of $\mathbf{G A}^{\prime} \mathbf{t H A} A^{\prime}$.

1. Stapzas comprising four unequal verses, constituting a metre not described by writers on prosody
2. Stanzas comprising more or tewer verses than four ; viz.
three, five, six, \&c.
3. Any metre not specified by Fingala.
4. Metre not specified by any u riter on prosody.

## VII.

Remaiks upan the Authoritigs of Mosulmák
BY J. H. HARINGTON, ESQ.
The basis of Mohummudan law, religious, civil, and criminal, is the Korán; believed to be of divine. origin, and to have been revealed by an angel to Mohummud ; who caused it to be written and published, from time to time, as occasion required, for the refutation of his opponents, or the instruction and guidance of his followers: though the hundred and fourteen Soozeur, or chapters, which compose the Koran, were not digested, in their present form, until after the death of Mониммиd : when they were collected by his immediate successor Aboo Bukr; and were afterwards, in the 30th year of the Hijrah, transcribed, collated, and promulgated, by order of the Khuleefah Othma's $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$.

The Korán being thus considered the writien word of God, its texts, when clear and applicable, and not abrogated by other texts of subsequent revelation, are unquestionable and decisive. But, (as remarked by an eminent historian ${ }_{\downarrow}$,) "In all religions the life of the founder supplies the silence of written revelation: the sayings of Mahommat:were so many lessons of truth;

[^110]his actions so many examples of virtue; and the public and private memorials were preserved by his wives and companions." In fact, the ordinances of the Korán, in civil affairs are few and imperfect; and must have proved altogether inadequate to provide for the various objects of legislation, in a large and civilized community, without the aid of the Soonnit, or rule of conduct, deduced from the oral precepts, actions, and decisions, of the prophet. These were not committed to writing by Mohummud ; but were collected after his death, by tradition, from his companions, (the Sakábah;) their contemporaries, (Tabizeen, literally, followers;) and successors (Tubá-i-liabiticen;) and the authentic traditions, which have been preserved in numerous compilations of Ahádees, (dicta, factaque; precepts and transactions; Soonun, (instituta vita, exempla; rules of practice and examples;) or Riwáyat, (rclationes, reports;). constitute a second autbority of Mosulman law ; conclusive (if the authenticity and application of the traditions be admitted) in all cases. not expressly determined by the words of the Korăn *.

[^111]The schisms and dissentions, however, which took place among the Mohummudans, after the demise of their legislator and fuunder, especially the contest of the succession to the Khilafut, or pontificate, which gave rise to the Shiya, or sectaries of Alee, have occafioned various differences and disagreements, both in reading and interpreting the words of the Koran, and in admitting or rejecting the traditions, which compose the oral law. There appear to be an error, or verbal inac-

[^112]curacy, in the observation of the learned, and in general accurate, translator of the Korán, that " the Son: nites receive the Sonna, or book of traditions of their prophet, as of canonical authority; 'whereas the Shiites reject it as apocryphal, and unworthy of credit*." From this remark it might be inferred, that the Shiyá reject the traditions altogether; whereas they admit many which are not deemed authentic, and are consequently rejected, by the Sơonees. They have also their collections of Ahádees, and Söonun, which they deem genuine and authoritative $\dagger$. . The difference between them, and the Ahl-i-Söonnui, or othodox traditionists, who, as remarked by Mr. Hamilton, appear to have assumed this title of distinction, " in opposition to the innovations of the sectaries $\ddagger$, " lies, as far as respects the traditions, in the different autho-

[^113]rities, which are admitted by the two sects for the Ahaadees, received by them respectively. The Sooonees allow traditionary credit to the Sahabah, or companions of their Prophet; ' especially to the most eminent amongst them, or those who had the longest and most familiar intercotirse with Moнимmud; and to the Khoolfa-i rashideen, or the four Khuleefahs, who were the immediate successors of the Prophet; and instructed by him in the principles,' and tenets of his religion. Also to several intelligent and learned men, who were contemporary with the companions and first Khuleefahs, and who are included in the general description of Tabiteen already mentioned ; as well as to others, who succeeded these; (the Taba-i-taibi-ieen ;) and have verified their reports of traditions, by citing the names of the persons, through whom they were successively traced to their genuire source, the inspired Apostle of God*.

The Shyý, on the contrary gave no authority; or credit, to the three flist Khuleefahs, Aboo BuKr, Omir $_{\text {and }}$ Othmán : nor to any other companions $^{\text {then }}$ of Mohummud, excepting sach as wore partisans of Alee. They extend their faith and obedience, however, to the admission of all traditions of their Pro-

[^114]phet's sayings and actions, which they believe to have been verified by any one of the twelve Imámeeyah; as well as to the precepts and examples of those Inams themselves; the whole of whom they venerate, as being the lineal descendants (through Fa'timah), and according to their tenets, the rightful successors, of Mohummud; and the last of whom they believe to be still living, though invisible; it having been predicted of him, that he will return to judge. and rule the world ; to punish sinners, and those who bave departed from the true faith; and to restore and confirm the genuine truths of religion, with piety, justice, and every other virtue*.

When neither the written nor oral law prescribes a rule of decision, the concurrence of the companions of Mohummud (Ijnuiáa Sahabah) is received by the Sǒonees, as a third source of legal authority : and if

[^115]is alsodfail, they'allbw'the validity of teason; 'qestricted) - arialógy'; ('kiyas') in applying; by inference; the 'ge-' :ral principles of taw and jusfice; to the various trandoi tions and circumstances of the changeful scene of: cinari'life; whichi as theycould not be all foreseen, : was impossible they should be completely and ex-1 resily provided for:' This is'st clearly statech, with" he origin of the principal soonee sects, who agree in, natters of faith, (akabed.) but differ on points' of prac-ical jurisprudence, $\left(f f_{k}, h_{j}\right)$ in a section of the Mokhtiosur:, io dozeril (comipendium of dynasties) of Gregorius Aboo'l Fures, transkated (into Latin) by Pooock, in his Specimen Historiae Arubtim; that the following: English version will not, it is persumed, be unacceptable ; especially as both the 'Arabictorignal and Lation translation, are:little known in India, 业.
" Of the "sects (Mizazhib) which'differ upon the branches, or derivative parts of the law, concerning rules of jurisprudence, and cases of disquisizion, four are the'most celebrated : viz. those of M'ALIK BiN-E
 of Ahmudbin i Hunbul; and of Abod Huneefah Naóma'n binai Thábit. The fundamental grounds of disquisition (Ijtihad, are also four; the scripture

[^116](kitab;) the traditionary law (Šoonnut;) the concurrence of the prophet's companions ( $l$ jmad; ; and analogy, or analogical reasoning (kiyas). For, when any lagal question arose, respecting what was lawful or unlawful, a regular investigation took place, in the following manner. First, they searched the book of Almighty God (the Keran;) and if any clear text were found in it, such was adhered to. But, if not, they sought for a precept, or example, of the Prophet; and abided by it, if applicable, as decisive. If none such were discovered, they inquired for a concurrent opinion of the zahabak; who, being directed in the right way, are not open to suspicion of misleading; and therefore, if their sentiments could be ascertained, on the point in question, they were deemed conclusive. If not, an ultimate resort was had to analogy and reason; the variety of contingent events being infinite ; whereas the texts of the law are finite. It thus appears certain that the exercise of reason may be proper and necessary in legal disquisition. Ima'm $\mathrm{Da}_{\boldsymbol{A}}{ }^{\prime} \mathbf{0 o d}$ of Isfahan, however, entirely rejected the exercise of reason; whilst, on the contrary, Aboo Hunbefah was so much inclined to it, that he frequently preferred it, in manifest cases, to traditions of single authority. But Málik, Shafifer, and Ibn-i Hunbul, had seldom recourse to analogical argument, whether manifest or recondite, when they could apply either a positive rule, or a tradition. This gave rise to therr different opinions and judgment ; which are recorded in books that treat of their disputations; yet neither infidelity, or error, is to be charged against them on this account."

The four principal jurists, and founders of sects, among the soonees, who are noticed by Aboo's Furuj, have been particularly mentioned in the notes: of

Pocock's Specimen, already referred to; in the Bibliotheque of D'Harbelot; and in the preliminary discourse of Sale and Hamilton*. The doctrines of Ma'lik, and lbar- Hunbut, are not known to prevail in any padt of India. Those of Sha'filize have a limited prevalence on the sea coast of the peninsula; and are understood to obtain among the Malays, and other Mosulman ingabitants of the Eastern Islands. But the authority of Aboo Hunerpah, and his two disciples, Aboo Yoosur and Im'am Монummud, is paramount, and exclusively governs judicial

[^117]decisions, in Bengal and Hindoostan, as well as at Cone stantinople, and other seats of Mohummudan dominion in Turkey and Tartary: It will therefore be sufficient to state the system of Asod Hunerfar, with the illustrations, and amendments of Aboo Yoosur and Im'am Mohummud *; noticing, after the manner of the Hidayah, any particular opinions of the other orthodox sects, upon points of importance, which may appear to require it.

It has been remarked by Sir W. Jones, in his preface to the Sirajeeyah $\psi$, "that although Aвоо

[^118]Huneefah be the acknowledged bead of the prevall: ing sect, and has given his name to it, yet so great veneration is shown to Aboo Yoosup, and the law yer Mohummud, that, when they both dissent from their master, the Moosulman judge is at liberty to adopt either of the two decisions, which may seem to him the more consonant to reason and founded on the better authority." This remark corresponds with the received opinion of present lawyers; and is sanctioned, for the most part, by a passage to the following effect in the Hummadeeyah *. "Futwas (law decisions, or opinions) are given primarily, according to the doctrine of Abao Yoosur ; next according to Im'am
and succession to lands, rents, and goods.". And it is of particular value to the jurisprudence of British India, as the Hidayah, translated by Mr. Hamilton, does not include the law of inheritance: It has not been ascertained when the author of the original treatise lived. But the Kushf $00^{\circ}$ Zunoon, (or dhunoon, as pronounced in Arabia) the bibliographical work of Hajee Khulpah, which furnished materials for a considerable part of the Bibliotheque Orientale, (Vid. Galand's preface, p. xiv. Ed. M.DCC.LXXVI.) mentions it, under the title of Furayid oo' Sujawundee in the following terms; together with the date of the commentary of Syyud Shureef; the substance of which is given by Sir W. Jones, with that of a recent Persian comment, by Moulavee Mohummud. Kasim, who was employed by Mr. Hastings to translate, from the Arabic, into Persian, botb the Sirajeeyah and the Shuree feeyah. "The Furaíjid-oo' Sujawundee, composed by Imam Siraj oo'been, Mahmood bin-i Abd oo' Rusherd, of Sujaquad, is commonly called the Fura,eezi Sirajoeyah. It is held in bigh estimation and in general use. Many of the learned have written commentaries upop it, to the number of forty; the best of which is the comment of Syyud oo'Shureff Alee binei Mohummud, of Joorjan; finished, Sumurkund, in the year (of the Hijrah) 104. This. commentary is of the first authority, and universally received. Several Scholiasts, of erudition, have given annotations upon it.

- A collection of legal expositions, by Aboo'l futha, Rokn oo deen ibn-i Hosam, Mooftee of Nagor,in the D'ikyun; and dedicated to his teacher, Humad oo' yeen, Ahmud, chief Kazee, of Nithr wulah. The time when this work was compiled is not exact'y known ; but, thought of modern date, it is held in considerable estimation. The court of Nizamut Adalut possess a complete copy, obtained for them, with some other law books, by Lord Teignmoyth, from the Nuwab Vizeer, in the year 1797.

Mohummud next according to Zoopun; and then according to Husun bin-i Ziy'ad. It is said, that if Aboo Hunbeyah be of one opivion, and his two disciples of another, the Mooftee is at liberty tochuse tither; but the preceeding rule mast be abserved, when the Mooftee is not a scientific jurist ; (and therefore not competent to judge of the opposite opinions.) This is copied from the koेonvak *. In judicial decreees however a preference is given to the doctrine of Aboo Yoosur (who was an eminent judge): for Imam Surikkhsee $\uparrow$, has declared it safe to rely upon Aboo Yoosur in judicial matters; and that the learned have followed him in such cases; though if there be a difference between the two disciples, which ever agres with Aboo Huneefar must be preferred. The joint opinion of the disciples may also be adopted, though different from that of Aboo Huneffaf, if the difference appear to proceed from a change of human affairs; (lit. a change of men, and alteration of times;) and modern lawyers are agreed, that the doctrine of the two disciples may be taken for adjudication in all matters of civil justice."

It appears, however, that the ancient jurists held the authority of Aboo Hunbefah to be absolute, although both bis disciples might differ from him. This is stated, without reservation, in a chapter, "on the order of authorities to be observed in practise,"

[^119]forming part of the book entitled Adâb ool kázee, or duties of the kázee, in the Futáwá-i Aálumgeeree, or collection of law cases, compiled by order of the Emperor Aa'lumgere. The same chapter contains other useful information upon the rules and discretion, under which the Mosulman magistrate is empowered to administer justice ; and as it is not long, a literal translation of it is here introduced; omitting only a quotation from the Mubsoot, which being nearly a repetition of that given from the Budayia, the insertion of both appeared superfluous.
"Ir is incumbent upon a káree (or judge) to give judgment according to the book of God; to know what parts of the divine book are in force, and what have been abrogated; to be able to distinguish between the texts which are clear and positive; and such as are of doubtful meaning, having obtained a different interpretation from the learned. If no rule be found in the book of God, the kásee is to decide according to the traditions from the Prophet. He must therefore be competent to discriminate those in force from such as have been superseded; and the spurious and invalid, from such as are genuine and authoritative. He must be acquainted with those which have obtained successive, notorious, or single, verification; and with the character and credit of the reporters of them. Because soine are celebrated for their knowiedge of jurisprudence ( $f k-h$ o adalut;) as the four first khuleefahs, and the three Abdoollahs, (viz. Abdoollah ifn-i Omur, Abdloolah ibn-i Abba's, and Abdoollah ibN-1 Musóood, three of the more learned of the companions;) whilst others are esteemed on account of their long and familiar intercourse with the Prophet, and their perfect recollection of the traditions; and they are preferred accordingly ; the former as the best authorities on the general principles
of legal science ; the'latter for the authenticity of particular traditions. It a case arise to which none of the traditions, derived from the Prophet, may be applicable, let the kazee determine it, according to the concurrent opinion of the Sahabah (companions), for their concurrence affords a just and obligatory rule of conduct. If there be a difference of opinion among the companions, let the kazee compare their respective arguments, and follow those which, on investigation, may appear to him preferable; supposing him qualified to enter into such a disquisition. He is not authorized to reject the whole of thece opinions, and adopt a judgment of his own, altogether novel. For the companions have agreed upon this point, that although they may differ - from each other, it is not lawful to institute new doctrines, at variance with the whole of them. Khusup * holds the contrary opinion, that when the companions differ, the kasee may adopt a judgment altogether distinct, as their dissention affords ground for disquisition : but what. is above stated has the best foundation. When the companions have agreed upon a point, in which one of their followers (labiizeen) has dissented from them; if the dissenter was not their contemporary, his opposition has no weight ; and a judgment given conformably thereto, against the concurrent opinion of the companions, would be invalid : but if he were contemporary with them, and then expounded the law in. opposition to their opinions,

[^120]and they gave sanction to his disquisitions, as in the instances of Shory'a and Shabee*, the concurrence of the companions does not bar the opposite exposition, so adinitted. With respect, however, to expositions which have no other authority than part of the Tabiieen, there are two reports of the sentiments of Aboo Huneffah. One, that he did not consider such to be authoritative : and this appears to be the true doctrine. The other, contained in the Nuwadir $\psi$, states, that if some of the followers of the companions have given Futwas in their time, and have received from the latter a sanction to their disquisitions; as Shory'a, Husun $\downarrow$, and Musroor bin-i Ajda $\|$, their decisions should be observed. It is thus written in the Moheet $\$$.

[^121]" Ir the concurrent opinion of the companions be not found in any case, which their followers may have agreed upon, the Kázee must be guided by the latter. Should there be a difference in opinion between the followers, let the Kázee compare their arguments and adopt the judgment he deems preferable. If, however, none of the authorities referred to be forthcoming, and the Kázee be a qualified jurist; (Abil ool- [jtihäd, literally a person capable of disquisition; he may consider in his own mind what is consonant to the principles of right and justice; and applying the result, with a pure intention, to the facts and circumstances of the case, let him pass judgment accordingly. But if he be not a qualified person, let him take a legal opinion from others who are versed in the law, and decide in conformity thereto. He should, in no case, give judgment without knowledre of the law ; and should never be ashamed to ask questions for information and advice. It is further requisite that the Kázee attended to two rules: first, that when the three Imáms (Aboo Huneefah, Aboo Yoosup, and Ima'm Mohummud) all agree, he is not at liberty to deviate from their joint opinion, upon his own judgment. Secondly, when the Imams differ, Abdoollab bin-i Moba'ruk * says, the Kázee's sentence is to be given according to the
proor, who, in the notes prefixed by Syrud Ahmud- Humaver to an old copy of the Hidayah, purchased at Mukkah, is said to have compiled the opinions of the followers of Aboo Hunebfah, in a tegular series; whereas other compilers had blended them. This Mehect, however, is not extant in India, and is only known by quotations from it.

[^122]opinion of Aboo HuNeEfAh, because the was one of che immediate followers, and contemporaries, of the companions, and opposed them in the futwas. So it is in the Moheet of Surukhsee*.
"If no precedent be found from Aboo Hunberat and his disciples, and the case have been determined by subsequent lawyers, the Kazee is to abide by the judgment of the latter; unless there be a difference in their decisions, in which event the preference is left to his discretion. If not even a modern precedent be forthcoming, the Kaizee may exercise his own reason and judgment; provided he be conversant with jurisprudence, and have consulted with sages of the law. In the commentary of Taha'vere $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$; it is stated, that if the Kidzee pass sentence on his own judgment, in opposition to the manifest letter of the law (Nuss), such sentence is not valid. But if the sentence be not contrary to the clear letter of the law, and the Kazee, after passing it, should change his opinion, his former judgment is, nevertheless, valid : though his future adjudi-

[^123]cations must be regulated by his recent opinion. This is the doctrine of the two elders (Shy'khy'n, viz. Aboo Huneefah and Aboo Yoosuf, and Ima'm Мониmmud agrees with them, provided the second opinion of the kazee, in such cases be deemed by others preferable to the first. It is further stated (by Taha'$\mathbf{v E E}^{\prime}$, that if the ancient jurists have formed different opinions upon any point, and their successors have agreed upon the opinion to be preferred; according to the two elders, this agreement does not remove the effect of the former difference; but Ima'm ${ }^{\prime}$ Монимmud thinks it is removed thereby. Shy'kh ool Islam Shums ool aímmah Súbuighebe, reports, however, that all the disciples of Аboo Hunbefah agree in opinion upon this point, and that a few of the learned only hold the continuance of the original dissent, notwithstanding the subrequent agreement. If the lawyers of one age concur in any particular doctrine, and a kazee, in after times, differing in opinion from them, with an upright intention, pass an opposite judgment; some hold his so doing to be legal, provided there were an original difference among the learned upon the doctrine in question; whilst others deem it illegal, notwithstanding such original difference; but all agree upon the illegality of the opposite judgment, supposing no difference of opinion to have been at any time entertained upon the subject. In the Futarea-i Itabiyah* it is stated, that if a kaxee take an exposition of the law from a Mooftee, and differ in opinion from the latter, he is to pass sentence in the case according to his own judgment; provided he be a person of understanding and knowtedge; and that if the sentence be passed

[^124]against his own opinion, in deference to that of the Mooftee, it is according to the two disciples ( $\mathrm{Sa}_{\mathrm{A}}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{HI}-$ by'n, viz. Aboo Yoosuf and Ima'm Mohummud) invalid : in; like, manner as.insmatters of religious preference on presumption it is forbidden to act upon the judgment of athers: but Aboo. Huneefah holds the sentence to be vatid in such cases, as it is the result of legal disquisition. Supposing the kazee not to have exercised his own reason on the case, at the time of his giving judginent according to the opinion of the Mooftee; and that he subsequently forms an opinion, at variance with that of the Mooftee; Im'am Mohummud says, his sentence is liable to abrogation; but Авоо Yoosur affirms, it is not affected thereby; in the same manner as it would not, be affected if the kazee had passed sentence on his own opinion, and had afterwards changed that opinion. The foregoing is copied from the Tatarkhuneeyah.*.".
" When there is neither written law, or concarrence of opinions, for the guidance of the kazee, if he be capable of legal disquisition, and have formed a decisive judgment on the case, he should carry such judgment into effect by his sentence, although other scientific lawyers may differ in opinion from him; and should not be governed by their sentiments, in opposition to his own ; for that which, upon deliberate investigation, appears to be right and just, is accepted as such in the sight of God. If however the persons, who declare an opinion different from that of the kazee be superior to him in science, and he consequently adopt their judg-

[^125]ment, questioning the grounds of it, from' respect to their superior knowledge, Aboo Hunbefar admits the legality of his proceeding. Aboo Yoosur and Im'am Mohummud, on the contrary, do not allow it to be legal, unless he ultimately adopt their opinion as the result of his own judgment. This, at least, is one report : but another says, that the master and his two disciples held, respectively, the reverse of what has been mentioned. If in apy case, the kasee be perplexed by opposite proofs, let him reflect upon the case, and determine as he should judge right: or, for the greater certainty, let him consult other able lawyers; and if they differ, after weighing their arguments, let him decide, as appears just. Should they agree with each other, but differ from his own opinion on the case, he is to adhere to the latter until he be convinced it is ill founded, and may give judgment accordingly ; but not precipitately, or until he has duly weighed and examined the whole of the circumstances and evidence. Let him not fear or hesitate to act upon the result of his own judgment, after a full and deliberate examination : but let him beware of a doubtful and conjectural decision, without complete investigation, as such will not be approved in the account of his actions to God; though, from want of certain information to the contrary, it may pass as a ralid sentence among men. What has been here said supposes the kázee to be a Moojtahid, or scientific jurist, competent, from his talents and learning, to undertake legal disquisition. If he be not a person so qualified, but possesses a knowledge and full recollection of the points and cases determined by the eminent lawyers of his persuasion, let him give judgment according to the tenets of those in whom he confides; and whom he believes it right to follow. Should he not have a perfect recollection of decided law-points, let him act upon expositions of the .law, by Mooftees of the orthodox doctrine; or if
there be only one such Mouftee on the spot, his single exposition may be acted upon, without fear of imputed deficiency. It is thus written in the Budáyìa *."
"The legal meaning of ljtihád is the diligent exercise of the mental faculties in search of the thing desired ; and the requisite qualification of a Moojtahid, is a discriminative knowledge of what is contained in the book of God, and in the traditions from the Prophet, relative to legal rules and ordinances (ahkám.) It is not essential that he should also know the moral preeepts and admonitions included therein. It has been likewise declared that a person, whose general rectitude exceeds his deviations from right, may lawfully practise Ijtihad, or disquisition. But the definition above given is accurate : as stated in the Fosool ool Imadeeyah $\downarrow$. The most correct account given of a Moojtahid is, that he have a comprehensive knowledge of the divine book, with the different interpretations thereof; a full acquaintance with the traditions; their gradations, texts, and comments; a right understanding, or power

[^126]of just reasoning ; and experience in human affairs and usages. This is quoted from the Kafee *."

Having thus stated the authorities for the Mohummudan law; and the preference to be observed, or discretion allowed, when they differ; it may be proper to add a short notice of the books of jurisprudence which are esteemed by the Huneefeeyah sect of Soonee lawyers, for practical exposition of the temporal law ; especially such as are extant and govern judicialdecisions in India.

Аboo Huneefah himself does not apppear to have left any work upon jurisprudence + . His legal doctrines were recorded and illustrated by his disciples: particularly by Іма'м Мониmmud ; whose.most celebrated law-tracts, entitled the Jama i-sugheer, Jamá-i kubeer, Mubsool, Zecadat, and Siyur, have been already noticed, as collectively quoted by the title of Zahir oo' ruwayat ${ }_{+}$. These works are described in the kushf oo'

[^127]Zunoon as being of the first authority for the opinions of Aboo Huneefah and Aboo Yoosuf *, as well as of Ima'm Mohummud. Various commentaries are also stated to have been written upon them during the early age of the Mohummudan era; and several are quoted in the Futáwa-i Aalumgeeree, compiled in the reign of Au'rungzer $\uparrow$. But neither the texts, or

Tbrmaz1. The apparent origin of this mistake has been pointed out in a former note. He further remarks that the author of the Jama-i-sugheer is uncertain. But independently of numerous other authorities, Imax Monummud is expressly cited in the Hidayah as the author of both works, and of the Mubsoot. (See Vol. I. of the translatien, p. 153.) Mr. Hamiltow has been led into another error, by supposing the Mubsoot, quoted in the Hidayah, to have been written by Fuxr-ool Islam Buzduvbe ; whereas, of the two Mubsoots cited by the author of the Hidayah, one is the composition of Imam Mohumudd, above noticed; and the of her was compneed by Shums ool Aimmar Suruxusee, as observed in a preceding note.

- The only work known to have been composed by Aboo Yoosur is an Adub ool Kazee; and the repufation of this has been superceded by the celebrity of Khusaf's tract of the same title, already mentioned. He is said, however, to have furnimed bis pupil, lmam Morummud, with notes (amalce) for a considerable part of his compositions ; particularly for the Jama-i-sugheer.
$\dagger$ The principal commentators of the "Jamariosugheer" are Shums ool Aimmah Surukhsee ; Aboo Bukr Ahmud Razee, commonly called Jussas, (the plasterer; Aboo Jafur Ahmud Tahavee; Fukr ool Islam Alee Buzduvee; Aboo Nusur Ahmud ool Itabee of Bokbara; Aboo'l Lys Nusur, of Sumurkund; Aboo Nusur Ahmud, Isbecjabee; Husun bin-i-Munsoor, of Ouzjund, better known by the appellation of Kazee Khan; 'Taj-oo' deen Abd ool Ghutir Kurduree; Zuheer oo deen Ahmud Tumurtashee; and Kazee Musaood, of Yuzd; and Aboo reed Moutuhur, of the same city; whose commentary is quoted by the title of "Tuhzerb." The seven persons first mentioned have also written comments on the " Ja-ma-i-kubeer;" besides Kazee Aboo Zyd Abdoollah, of Duboos; Boorhan oo' deen Mahmood, author of the "Moheet-i-Boorhanee;" Boorhan 00 ' deen Alee, author of the "Hidayah ;" Shums ool Aimmah Mohummud, called Hulwaee (the confectioner;) Iba:i ubduk Joorjanee ; and Jumal oo' deen Mahmud, of Kokhara, whose common designation is Huseeree (the mat-maker;) and whose second commentary is often quoted by the name of "Tukreer." The "Tukreer" and "Doorur" are also known comments on the work in question; the former by Abool Abbaa Ahmud; the latter by Nasiroo' deen Mohummud, of Damascus.
Vol. X.
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comments, are now known to be in India, except an imperfect copy of the commencement of $\mathrm{Ka}^{\prime} \mathbf{z E E} \mathrm{KHAN}$, on the Jámá i-sugheer, which was obtained from the library of the Nuwab of Oudh ; and is in the possession of the Nisamut Adalut. Nor is there a treatise on the Mosulman law, written during the four first centuries of the Hijrah, at present, in the possession of any person, from whom enquiry could be made upon the subject at Cálcutta*.

The oldest work on jurisprudence in the possession of the law officers of the Nizámut Adálut, and other learned Mosulman lawyers, in Calcutta, is the Mokhtusar ool Kudiooree, a compendium, or general law-tract, composed by Ima'm Abool Hosén Ahmud, of Kudroor, a quarter of Bughdád, who died A. H. 428. It is often referred to in the Hidáyah, and described in the Kushf $00^{\circ}$ Zunoon as a book of authority in general use, and held in the highest estimation. It is said to contain twelve thousand cases; and has been illustrated in

[^128]numerous commentaries ; among which several are quoted in the Futáráa-i Aalungeeree; but are not now known to be extant in Hindostan *.

The other books in actual use for expounding the Mohummudan law are of two descriptions. The first consists of texts and comments, which, in a scientific method, state the elements and principles of the law; establish them by proofs and reasoning; and illustrate the applieation of them by select cases, real or supposed ; such as the Hidáyah, Kunz oo' dukáyah, Vikáyah, Nikáyah, and Ashbah o' Nuzáyir, with their respective commentaries. The second description is commonly, but not always, distinguished by the title of Futiazaid; and is, for the most part, a collection of law cases, arranged under proper heads, with a short recital of facts and circumstances, without arguments, and with authorities only for the cases as quoted; being intended chiefly for practical purposes; whereas the elementary

[^129]works first mentioned are more calculated for study and instruction. The Futawa ! Kázee Khan by Fukr oo' deen Husun, of Oüzjund in Furgháná, who was contemporary with the author of the Hidáyah, and whose collection is esteened of equal authority with that celebrated work, must, in some measure, be excepted from the above remark; as it illustrates many cases by the proofs and reasoning upon which the decision of them is founded *.

The other Futúrwá extant in India, besides those already mentioned in the preceding pages and notes, are the husánul ool Moofticen, Futáwádi-Buxáziyah, Futá-wá-i.Nukshbundiyah, Mun' hool ghufar, and Mokktár ool Futáwá by unknown authors ; the Foosool-i- Isturooshee, by Mohummud bin-i Mahmood, who compiled it in the 625th year of the Hijraht; the Futáwá-i Ibráheemsháhiyah,' by Sha'hab oo' deen Ahmud, a native of Hindoostan, who composed it for Soolta's Irbra'herm Sha'h, at Jounpoor, in the 9th century of the

[^130]Hijrah*; and the Fútawá-i Aálumgeeree, compiled at Dehli, by order of the Emperor An'lumgeek) in the 11 th year of his reign, corresponding with A. H. 1067.

The Hidayah is so well known, from the English version of it, made by Mr. Charles Hamilton, and published in the year 1791, that it will be unnecessary to say much of it. The kásee ool koozát, in his catalogue of books already adverted to, describes it in the following terms. "The Hidayah is a commentary upon the Bidayut ool Moobtudee, and both the text and comments, were composed by Sax'кн Воовна'n oo' deen Albe, son of Aboo Bukr, of Murgheenan, who lived to the age of sixty-two; and, after employing thirteen years in the composition of the latter work, departed from this world A. H. 598. The general arrangement, and division of it, are adopted from the Jama-i-Sugheer of Ima'm Монumíud. It is celebrated amongst the learned for its selection of law cases, and connection of them with the proofs and arguments by which they have been determined. Wherefore inevery age it has been esteemed by lawyers ; many of whom have written comments and annotations upon it." It is spoken of in nearly the same language, by the author of the Kushf oo' Zunoon who adds, "it is a rule observed by the composer of this work to state first the opinions and arguments of the two disciples (Авоо Yoosur and Ima'm Moнummud); afterwards the doctrine of the

[^131]Kk3
great Ima'm (Авoo Huneefah) ; and then to expatiate on the proof adduced by the latter, in such manner as to refute any opposite reasoning on the part of the disciples. Whenever he deviates from this rule it may be inferred that he inclines to the opinion of Aboo Yoosuf and Ima'm Монummud. It is also his practice to illustrate the cases specified in the Jama-i. Sugheer, and by Kudooree: intending the latter, whenever he uses the expression he has said in the book. In praise of the Hidayah, it has been declared, like the koran, to have superseded all precious books on the law; that all persons should remember the rules prescribed in it ; and that it should, be followed as a guide through life:" This eulogium on the Hidajah is confirmed in a paper written by Mou'lavee Mohummud Ra'shid, one of the Mooftees of the Supreme Court of Judicature and Courts of Sudr Deezeánee and Nizámut Aldalut, as well as one of the most learned Mosulmans in India; who remarks on the text, and some of the principal comments, to the following effect. " No text or commertary, now extant, can be compared with the Hiduyah as a digest of approved law cases, illustrated by the proofs and arguments which establish them. It is therefore, with its comments, fit to be the standard of legal decision in the present times. Many commentaries have been written upon it: but four only, the Nihárah, Ináyah, Kifuyah and Futh ool kudeer, are forthcoming in Bensal. The Nihayah was first composed : and has superior credit as being the original from which the others have borrowed. But the author of the Inayah has merited esteem by his studious analysis; and interpretation of the letter and meaning of Hidayah. The kifayah also deserves conmendation, from its concise statement of the substance of other commentaries, as well as from some additions to them. And the Futh ool kucleer is preferable to the whole, as an ample collection of cases,
(rendering it equal in this respect to a Fatawa) expressed with suitable brevity of language *."

The Kuns oo dukayik has been already mentioned, as composed by Ha'fiz oo deen, author of the Kafec and Wafee. It is a short general treatise of law, used

- The "Nihayah" was composed by Hosam oo'deen Hosen Ibni Alee, said to have been a pupil of Boorhan oo deen, author of the "Hidayab." The latter having, from some unknown cause, omitted the law of inheritance, it has been added by the commentator. But this part of the "Nihayah" does not appear to have obtained equal celebrity with the "Fura, eez-i-sirajee-yah" mentioned in a firmer note. The "Kushf oo' Zunoon" notices two commentaries of the title of "Inayah;" the first of which was commenced by Abool Abas Ahmud, a Kazee in Egypt, who died A. H. 7i0; and was completed in the succeeding century of the Hijrah by Kazee Saeed oo deen, of Dubur. The second, which is that referred to as extant in India, was composed by Shykh Akmul oo' deen Mohummud, who died A. H. 786 ; Imam on' deen Ameer Katib Bin-i Ameer Omur, who had previously written another commentary entilled "Ghayutool biyan" after employing himself for twenty-seven years at Cairo, and other places, to render his second work more complete, finished the "Kifayah," at Damasous, in the 747th year of the Hijrab. The "Futh ool Kudeer" is stated to have been commenced by its author Kumal or deen Mohummud of Seewas, commonly called lbn-:-Homam, in the 29th year of the Hijrah; and to bave occupicd a considerable part of the remaining period of his life, which was terminated in 861 . Other commentaries upon the "Hidayah" are mentioned in the "Kushi oo' Zanoon ;" but as they are not procurable in India, it will be sulficient to notice the "Fuwaeed," by Humeed oo deen Mee, of Bokhara, who died A. H. 607 ; and is supposed hy some to hive been the first commentator; but his tract, being extremely bricf, $h$ :s beensuperseded by the subsequent comments: the "Miarai oo dirayut," by Kuwam oo' deen Mohummud, also of Bokhara, who died A. If; 747 ; and whose commentary is quoted in the "Aalumgee ce:" and the "Odah" by Kumal oo' deen Mohummud, also qu ted ;' though it is described as ratner an abstract, than a commen'; $b$. ing a methodical collection of the law cases contained in the " Hidayah," without the arguments stated in priof of thein. The "Nihayah ool Kifayalh,"' by Tajoo' shurceyut Omur, is also men o ed in the "Kushf oo' Zunoon" as a cominentary on the " H da. 1 ;" but the Kazee ool Koozat, in describing an inn; e:fect copy of $t$. belonging to the Nizzamut Adalut, terms it a "Hasheeah," or $m$ irginal note book. An incomplete copy of the "Kifayab" is also a sung the law books of that court.
in Mosulman colleges, as an elementary book of instruction; but superseded, as a book of reference for legal exposition, by its commentaries; of which the following are extant in India. The Tubieen ool hukayik, by Bukr oo'deen Aboo Mohummud asman of Zyl, who died A. H. 743. His comment is valued by the followers of Aboo Hungefah, as containing a complete refutation of the opposite doctrine of Shafieer. The Buhr oo' rayik, by the learned Zy'n ool Aabideen Ibn-i Nujbim of Egypt', left incomplete, at his death, A. H. 970 ; and unequally finished by his brother Siraj oo' deen Omur, who also wrote a commentary entitled the Nuhrifayik, but of inferior merit to that of Zy'n ool Aa'bidere; which is held in the utmost estimation: and is spoken of in the kushf oo' Zunoon as equalled only by the Futh ool Kudeer; Ibn-i Homa'm's commentary on the Hidayah. The Mutlubi fayik or, as more generally called Aynee by Rudr oo' deen Mohummud Ay'ner, of Duburin Arabia. This commentary is also esteemed, as containing an ample collection of law cases: and though surpassed, in this respect, by the Buhr-i rayik, it has the advantage of having been brought to a conclusion by the author; whose erudition obtained him the title of Ulamah, in common with $Z_{y}^{\prime} \mathbf{n}^{\prime}$ ool Aa'bideren $^{*}$.

[^132]The text of the Vikayah, composed in the 7th century of the Hijrah by Boorha'n oo' Shureeut Mahmoon, son of the first Sudr oo Shucent like that of the Kunz on Dukàyik, has been superseded, for legal consultation, by its more extensive commentaries; especially by that of the second Sudr oo' Shureent, Oby'd oollah bin-i-Musaood, who died A. H. 750 ; distinguished by the title of Shurh-i-Vikáyah; and combining, with the original treatise, an ample comment in illuffration of it. But both are used in Mosulman Colleges, for instruction in the science of law, preparatory to the study of the Hidayah; upon which the Vikáyah is founded; being, as its title at length imports, (Vikáyut oo' riwayah, fee Musáéel il Hidáyah ;) the Custos, guardian, or preserver, of the reports of cases in the Hidáyal: Other commentaries are mentioned in the Küshf oo' Zunoon; but they are not known to be extant in lidia; or quoted as authorities. *

[^133]The Vikáyah was abridged from the Vikáyah by the second Sudr oo' Shureut, already mentioned as the principal commentator on the Vikáyah. It is also called Mokhtusur i Vikayah, and used as a book of instruction, the rules and cases contained in it being committed to memory by the student. But its utility, for legal reference, is superseded by its commentaries; of which there are extant, composed by Aboo'l Mukárim bin-i Abdoollah, A. H. 907; by Abdool Alee, Bin-i-Mohummud Birjindee, in the year 937 ; and by Shums oo' deen Mohummud, of Khoristan, in 941 . The whole of these comments are held in esteem; but the latter, entitled Jamá $00^{\circ}$ rumooz, is the most copious. *

The Ashbah ó Nuzayir is an elementary treatise, composed in the tenth century of the Hijrah, by Zyn oul Aa'bideen, already ment:oned as the author of the Bulr-i-áyik. It is stated in the Kushf on Zunoon to consist of seven sections, (denominated fun); the two first of which relate to the general principles and rules of law ; and the kásee ool koozat. in describing a copy of it, which belongs to the Nizámut Addálut, observes, that " although a short tract, it contains legal principia, from which numerous cases may be deduced ; wherefore to able lawyers it is of the utmost advantage." Thirteen commentaries upon it are noticed in the 'Kushf oo' Zunuon, but none of them are known to be in India. $\downarrow$
place, that in noticing, for obvious reasons, what has appeared upon inyuiry to be erroneous or deficient in the late Mr. Hamilton's translation of the "Hidayah," no intention whatever is entertained of impeaching the personal merits or reputation of that gentleman ; who laboured under a material disadvantage in not having completed his arduous and laudable undertaking in India.

- Complete copies of the three commentaries are among the books procured from Lukhnow, for the court of Nizániut Adalut.
+ Mou'lavee Mohumud Rashid possesses two commentaries on the Astbba o Nuza', yir, one of which, called the "Ghumzool Oyoon,

Besides the texts and commentaries above described, as in actual use for legal expositions, the Mujma oo Buhryn, a text book composed by Mozuffer oo' Deen Ahmud, of Bughdád. A. H. 690, is also in the possession of a learned Mosulman in Calcutta,* together with one of its commentaries, written l,y Abd oo' Luterf Bin-i-Abd ool Azeez; but as no other copy of either the text or comment is known to be forthcoming; they cannot be in general use. $t$
weas written by Sy,yid ahmud bin-i-Mohummud Humavee. The author of the other is unknown.
*Moúlavee Kureem $o o$ deen, by whom (in concert with Moúlavee Mohummud Ra'shid) I bave been materially assisted in preparing the short account given of books on the Mohuramudan law : and who has made for me a complete Peisian translation from the Arabic original of the "d Kushf oo Zunoon." He received the "Majmà-ool buhry'n," and its conmentary, from Shura'iut Mohummud Khan, MeerMoonshee to the Nuwab Mozaffur Jung: who supported a Mudrusah at Moorshidabad, in which Kureem $\bullet 0$ deen was Modurrir or Lecturer.
$\dagger$ In addition to the books on jurisprudence, which have been noticed; the foilowing are described in the "Kushi oo Zunoon;" but none of them are known to be at present in Hindostan. The "Ajnias" and "Akkam," by Abcol Abas Ahmud Nittiffe, who died A. H. 440; the "Tujnees o' Muzeed" by the author of the "Hida'yah;" the "Ha'vee ool Huseeree" by Mohamul-bin-iIbraheem, of Huseer, who died A. H. 505. The "Futawa-i-koobra," by Shatheed Hisam oo deen Omur, who suffered martyrdom in, the 536 th year of the Hijrah, 'The "Kholasut ool futawa," by Tahir bin-i-Abmud, of Bokhara; who died A. H. 542. The Mooltukut,"' by Nasir oo' deen, Abool Kasim, of Sumurkund; Ginished A. H:- 549. The "Havee ool Koodsee," by Kazee Jumal 00 deen Ahmud of Gbuzna, who lived in the latter part of the 6 th century of the Hijrah. A "Tulkhees" (abridginent) of the Jama-i-kuleer," by Kumal oo' deen Mohummad, of Kbilat, who died A. H. 652. The "Mokhtar," and its commentary, the "lkhtiyar," by Mujd oo' deen Abdoollah of M osul, supposed to have flourished in the 7 th century of the Hijrah. The "Ghoorur ool Abkam," and its comment, the "Doorur ool hookham," by Mohummud bin-i Furamoorz, commonly called Moolla Khoosro, who died A. H. 887 ; and the "Mooltuca onl Abhoor," by Ibraheem bin iMohummud Chulpee (a Syrian) finished A. H. 923. Of there works the three last mentioned only ar: text books. The re:ma nder (excepting the abridgments of Imam Mohummud's great

Or the books of Futázéa which have been mentioned, mone appear to require further notice, except the Futáwás-i Aálumgeeree. Mr. Hamilton, by an extraordinary mistake, has'stated this work to have been "composed in the Persian language *, by the authority and under the inspection of the Emperor Au'rungze's;" whereas it is well known to have been written in Arabic, the usual language of Mohummudan law and science; and to have been translated into Persian, by order of the Einperor's daughter, the Princess Zeb co'Nisa'. Several copies of the Arabic original are in Calcutta; and some imperfect copies of the Persian version; or rather of parts of it $\psi$. In the

[^134]catalogue of books appertaining to the Nixamut Adalut (among which is an incomplete copy of the Arabic Futawa-i Aalumgeeree) the kazee ool koozat describes this work in the following terms:-"It was commenced A. H. 106', corresponding with the 11th year of Aa'lumgeer's reign, Credible persons have related, that when Meerza' Kázim, author of the Aalumgeernamah, had finished, and presentéd to his, Majesty, the history of the first ten years of the reign, it occurred to the King that there were many books of history in the world, and that from the inclination which mankind have to read such books, they are composed without orders from Kings and Nobles; that the foundation of good government is justice ; and that this depends upon a knowledge of the ordinances of the law; that although the learned of: every age had compiled expositions of the law, yet in some instances the examples were so dispersed that they could not readily be found, when required : and in others, the cases of less weight were not distinguished from those adjudged to be authoritative ; whilst some decisions also had been unnecessarily repeated; and others, though-requisite, had been omitted; wherefore it was proper that, in the present reign, a new Futawa should be compiled, to be arranged in the most approved manner; and to contain the most authoritative decisions of law, including every useful case, which had been adjudged, without reperttion or omission. As soon as the King had termed this design, he ordered Meerza' Kazim to discontinue writing the Aalumgeernamah; and not to take in future the sum allotted for it from the royal treasiury. He then assembled a number of eminent lawyers from the Punjau, the environs of Shahjahan abad, Akbur abud, Ilah-abad, and the Dukhun ; and employed them in compiling the work, which was afterwards called the

Fututea-i Aalumgeeree. In truth no other Futawa is equal to it in excellence. It has become celebrated in every city, as well in Arabia as in other countries; and is termed at Mecca the Futazva-i Hind, or Indian expositions. It is esteemed by the learned of every country, and is received as an authority for law decisions in this empire." It is added, that lacks of rupees are said to have been disbursed n stipends to the learned compilers, the purchase of books, and other expences attending the execution of the work.

Tbe Futazea-i Aalumgeeree being four times the size of the Hidayah, and containing little more than a recital of law cases, without the arguments and proofs, which are diffusively stated in the Hidayah it must possess an advantage over that work, for practical use, in its greater number of cases and examples. On the other hand, the full illustration of the law, its principles, and the different doctrines promnlgated by some of the most eminent expounders of it, which distinguish the Hudayah, as an original composition by a celebrated jurist, who, from his superior knowledge and qualifications, was esteemed a Mojtahid, is also above that of the Futazea-i:Aalumgeeree; which, howevervaluable, as the latest and nost comprehensive collection of cases, is held in less comparative estimation, from its being a modern compilation, made by several persons, of different judgment, and unequal ability. Without contrasting their respective merits, however, the one is universally admitted to be a most useful supplement to the other ; and a conversance in both, or an easy means of reference to them in cases of judicial occurrence, must be of essential use towards the due administration of the Mohummudan law, as far as that law is
eclared to be the established, rule and standard of lecision *.

[^135]Sijillat," "Shooroot," "Hiyul," and " Fura,eez," are not included in the " Hidayah."

The general division and arraagement of both the "Hidayah," and "Aalumgeeree," appear to have been adopted from the "Jama-i-Sugheer," of Imam Mohnmmud. The same order is also observed in most other works written by the followers of Aboo Hancefah ; and the author of the "Buhsnoo-rayik," has endeavoured to shew to that it is founded on a principle of successive connection. But his reasoning does not appear eatisfactory. It may be useful to add, howerer, that the Mosulman law, in the most extensive sense of the term (Shura, or Deen-i-islam) comprehends the ordinances of religion, and the duties of mes towards bis Creator, as well as his rights and obligations towards his fellow creatures. It is therefore stated in the "Bukri-rayik," to comprise. Give principal heads: namely, 1, Iatikadat, articles of faith. 2, Ibadat, acts of worship and piety. 3, Moâamulat, affairs of life, or civil transactions. 4, Muzajir, punishments for the prevention of crinses. 5, Adah, manner, or rules of behaviour. 'In books of jurisprudence (fik-h) the first and last heads are omitted. The other three are included; and the head of "Ibadat," always precedes the "Moâamulat," and "Muzajir," as of superior importance.

## VIII.

An Account of Astronomical Observitions taken at the Honourable Company's Obsbrvatory, near Fort St. George in the East Indies, in the. Years 1806 and 1807. To which are added some Remarkson the Drclination of certain Stars and of the SUN, when near the Zenith of that Place.
-BY CAPTAIS JOHN WARREN,
of h. m. 33d regiment of fout.

1. Major Lambton having sent his zenith sector to ${ }^{\prime}$ the Madras Observatory in September 1806, I began early in the ensuing month the observations which form the subject of the present paper. As an account of this instrument has already been given to the public, in a paper written by that gentleman, and published in the 8th volume of the Asiatic Researches, I shall only observe here that it came to me in high order, and that I observed constantly with it from October 1806 to June 1807, without perceiving any material change in its powers or mode of performing.
2. In undertaking a series of observations of zenith distances, I had in view to establish permanently the latitude of the Madras Observatory, on which there seemed still to be a doubt of several seconds; and also to verify the declination of several stars near the zenith, wherf used for obtaining the latitudes of places, disagreed in their results.
3. This laborious and dry enquiry, I am aware caǹ afford but little entertainment to the generality of read-

Vol. X.
L 1

## 514 ACCOUNT OF ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATIONS

ers. The present paper, therefore, can only claim the advantage of recording good observations, taken in great numbers, and computed with scrupulous attention: and perhaps of affording some data to astronomers in other climates, for further investigation into the effects of refraction.
4. Althovgh the method for correcting zenith distances at any given time, for abbreviation, nutation, and solar equation, is well known to astronomers, yet I do not omit giving a general statement of the manner in which I have applied these various corrections to my observations. Such as belong to Regulus are given in Table I. and may serve as an example for the rest. For the detail of each respective rule I, must refer the reader to books of astronomy, for I have nothing new to offer on the principles upan which they are grounded.
5. I hate however to observe, that refractions being one of the subjects under consideration, I have coma puted it separately for every star, according to $\mathbf{D r}$. Bradeey's theory, in which the state of the atmosphere at the time of observation is considered, and without any reference to the tables. The rule may be found demonstrated in Vince's Complete System of Astronomy, Chap. VIII. page 82, and following. I have reduced it, for a more convenient arrangement, in othe following form :

Corrected Refraction $\mathrm{R}=\frac{\text { Tangt. } \overline{\mathrm{Z}-3} r \times R^{\prime} \times \frac{n}{A \times 400}}{h+350^{\circ}}$.
The following example will shew the notation.

## Example.

The mean observed zenith distance of Regulus by observation is $0^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} \cdot 326=Z$.

路
of Regulus．

Total² Equation for

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## :d Zenith Distances of Regulus.

| $\begin{gathered} \text { Months } \\ \text { and } \\ \text { Days. } \end{gathered}$ | Star'kt. | Solar Equation. | Total Equation for |  | 禺道 | Observed Zenith Distance. | Corrected Zenith Distance. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | Declin. | Z. Dist. |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ov. 26. | 4296 | $0^{\prime \prime} .015$ | 40". 207 | $40^{\prime \prime} .207$ | E. | $0^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 566^{\prime \prime} .5$ | $0^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 16^{\prime \prime} .293$ |
| 28. | 429.3 | 0.049 | 40.588 | 40.588 | W. | 0951.8 | 0910.212 |
| 30. | 429.9 | 0.084 | 40.959 | 40.959 | E. | 0958.0 | O 917.041 |
| ec. 1. | 4292 | 0.101 | 41.140 | 41.140 | W. | 09515 | 0910.360 |
| 4. | 4290 | 0.154 | 41.701 | 41.701 | W. | - 951.25 | 099.549 |
| 10. | 4293 | 0.264 | 42.807 | 42.807 | W. | 0 9 51.5 | $\begin{array}{lll}0 & 9 & 8.698\end{array}$ |
| 11. | 4291 | 0.281 | 42.983 | 42.983 | E. | 0102.0 | 0919.017 |
| 12. | 429.2 | 0.299 | 43.122 | 43.122 | W. | 0953.79 | 0910.668 |
| 17. | 4297 | 0.389 | 44.049 | 44.049 | E. | 0102.0 | O 917.951 |
| 18. | 4290 | 0.406 | 44.219 | 44.219 | W. | 0 9 52.5 | O 988.281 |
| 19. | 4293 | 0.424 | 44.389 | 44.389 | E. | 0103.5 | 0919.111 |
| 21. | ${ }_{4} 4298$ | 0.457 | 44.727 | 44.727 | W. | 0 9 54.0 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 9 & 9.279\end{array}$ |
| 22. | ${ }_{4}{ }_{4} 294$ | 0.474 | 44.902 | 44.902 | E. | 0103.0 | O 9018.098 |
| 23. | 4294 | 0 . 489 | 45.164 | 45.164 | E. | 0104.0 | $00^{0} 18.836$ |
| 27. | 4298 | 0. 547 | 45.691 | 45.691 | W. | 0 O 956.0 | $0 \begin{array}{llll}0 & 10.309\end{array}$ |
| ${ }^{7}$ Jan.2. | 4291 | 0.629 | 46.695 | 46.695 | W. | 0 9 96.0 | O 9 9 9 S05 |
| 3. | 4290 | 0.641 | 46.777 | 46.777 | E. | 0105.0 | 0918.223 |
| 10. | 4299 | 0.705 | 47.728 | 47.728 | E. | 0104.38 | 0916.652 |



The refraction due to $45^{\circ}$ altitude, as established by experiments, and very near the level of the sea is $50^{\prime \prime}=R^{\prime}$.*
The mean altitude of barometer at the time of observing was 30.035 inches $=\alpha$.
The general medium height of Mercury is $29.6=A$.
The mean alctitude of thermometer at the time of observation was $71^{\circ}=h$.

## Rule.


3

$$
\mathbf{3 r}=0: 402
$$

Tangt: $Z-3 r=0^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 13^{\prime \prime} .924 \log .7 .42902297$ $R^{\prime}=50^{\prime} \log .1 .6989700$ $\frac{a}{A}=\frac{30.035}{29.6} \log \cdot 0.0062636$ 400 log. 2.6088284
1.7430849
$h+350=421$ log. 2.623282 i
Corrected Refract. $R=0.131$ N.N. 9.1188028 」

$$
\begin{gathered}
\alpha=30.035 \log .1 .4775553 \\
A=29.6 \log \cdot \frac{1.4712917}{0.0062636} \\
\log \text { of } \frac{a}{A} \begin{array}{c}
31^{\circ} \\
h+30 \\
h+421 \\
\hline
\end{array} \\
\hline
\end{gathered}
$$

[^136]516 ACCOUNT OF ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATIONS which quantity $0^{\prime \prime} .131$ is entered on the IX. column of Table II. and so of the rest.
6. I was at first doubtful respecting the best mode of obtaining a very accurate mean latitude for the Ob servatory, and hesitated between making a selection of a certain set of stars whose declination was determined at Greenwich after the same method, and with the same instruments; or taking the whole mass of my observations without adverting to the catalogues either English, French, or German, from which I had taken the declinations.
7. Had the whole of the stars given in Table III. been computed when I began writing this paper, I might 'have been induced to think the separate catalogue in Table II, unnecessary. since the two means only differ by $0^{\prime \prime} .36 \mathrm{~J}$. However, I was, at the time, determined by an opinion that the results of a few very accurate operations were always preferable to the mean of a great number of indifferent ones, and chose therefore twelve principal stars (six on each side of the zenith) the declinations of which are given in Dr. Maskelyne's catalogue for January 1802. $\cdot$ With these I constructed Table II. to which I particularly wish to call the attention of the reader, as every thing that I shall say hereafter is grounded on the mean latitude which is derived from it.
8. In this catalogue, the maximum of deviation in the respective latitudes is only $4^{\prime \prime} .551$, and their gradual decrease as the stars become more southerly indicates that this difference is not solely to be attributed to inaccuracy in the observation ; for it is to be observed that the regularity of this decrement (which is scarcely interrupted) cannot altogether be ascribed to

## Table II.

Sherwing the Latitude for the Madras Observatory such as derived from 12 Principal Stars.

| 1. | II. | III. | IV. | $\checkmark$. | VI. | VII. | VIII. | IX. | X. | X | XII. | XIII. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Names and Characters of Stars. |  | $\begin{aligned} & \dot{0} \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & \dot{0} \\ & \dot{E} \\ & \dot{N} \end{aligned}$ | Interval during. when observed. | Mean Declination from Greenw. Cat. for 1805. | Observed Zen. distances corrected for $A b$ ber. Nat. and Solar Equation. |  |  | 苞 | Corrected Zenith distances. | Latitudes. | Mcan by Northern and Southern Stars. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Mean Lati- } \\ & \text { tude. } \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  | 20 | Feb. 6. Mar. 20. | 20 $0^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .426$ | $77^{-7} 7^{\prime} 52^{\prime} .699$ | Inches <br> 99.975 | $75^{\circ}$ | $6^{\prime \prime} .051$ | $77^{\circ} 77^{\prime} 58^{\prime \prime} .690$ | $13^{*} 4^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime} .736$ |  |  |
| Arcturus,- Aldebaran, | 1 | 16 | Fet. 30. Dec. 9. | $16 \quad 693.880$ | 3 2 7.548 | 29.983 | 77 | 22.557 | $\begin{array}{llll}3 & 2 & 9 & 9.005\end{array}$ | 13 $\quad 13.829$ |  |  |
| $\beta$ Leonis, .- | 2 | 20 | $\text { Jan. 2. Feb. } 24 .$ | $\begin{array}{lllll}15 & 39 & 48 & .544 \\ 14 & 57 & 97\end{array}$ | ( 23531.288 | 30.019 | $74$ | ${ }^{2} .197$ | $\begin{array}{llll}2 & 35 & 33 & .485 \\ 1 & 33 & 19 & 158\end{array}$ | 15.077 |  |  |
| a Herculis, | 3 2 | $\begin{aligned} & 16 \\ & 16 \end{aligned}$ | Mar. 27. Apr. 24. Oct. 25. Nov. 14. | 14 57 27.091 <br> 14 98  <br> 14 050  | $\begin{array}{rrrr}1 & 33 & 10.870 \\ 1 & 5 & 22 \\ 1 & 1 & \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 29.942 \mid \\ & 29.960 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 81 \\ & 83 \end{aligned}$ | 1 10.288 0.902 | 1 33 12  <br> 1 5 23 .158 <br> 1 1   | 14.93314 |  |  |
| $\underline{\text { a Pegasi, }} \mathrm{\gamma}$ Pegasi,.. | 2 | 16 12 | Oct. 25. Nov. 14. Oct. 25. Nov. 14. | 14 $14 \begin{array}{cccc}14 & 1.006\end{array}$ | $1 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 1 & 47 \\ 1 & 47\end{array}$ | 29.960 | 81 | 0.850 | $\begin{array}{lllll}1 & 1 & 4 & 47 & .091\end{array}$ | 13.915 | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .721$ |  |
|  |  | 18 | Nov. 28. Jan. 19. | 195458.950 |  |  |  |  | 0 |  |  | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 13^{\prime \prime} 654$. |
| \% Regnulus, -- | 2 | 10 | Mar. 15. Apr. 29. | 124950.910 | 0 0 2122.369 | 29.993 | 84 | 0 . 293 | 02129.655 | \| $\quad 13.565$ |  |  |
| - Attair, ...- | 2 | 16 | Арг. 2s. Jan. 9. | 8 2153.530 | 4 4 5 4215.8291 | 29.862 | 85 | 3 3.874 | $\begin{array}{lllll}4 & 42 & 19.695 \\ 5 & 49 & 34\end{array}$ | 13.225 |  |  |
| \% Orionis, -- | 1 | 20 | Nov. 7. Jan. 15. |  | 6188.009 | 20.993 | S0 |  | $\begin{array}{llllll}5 & 1 & 13 & .0815\end{array}$ |  |  |  |
| a Serpentis,. | 1.3 <br> 1.2 <br>  | 12 | Mar. 9. Apr. Nov. 8. Jan. 23. | 7 43 0 | 7 21 5.529 | $\|30.035\|$ | 73 | 边 280 | 72111.802 | 11.812 | 13 4 <br> 12.587  |  |

Vol $X$. Plate 6.


- $y$,
.

IV.
eroed North or South of the Zenith.




## She 52 Stars near the Zenith by 500 Observations.

| I. | VIII. | IX. | X. | XI. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Names and ch ters of Star | Corrected Zenith Distarces. | Latitudes. | Corrected Declinations for Jan. 180\%. |  |
| $\zeta$ Geminor | $7^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 24^{\prime \prime} .909$ | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 18^{\prime \prime} .091$ | $26^{\circ} 50^{\prime} 98^{*} .343$ | -4'.657 |
| ${ }_{4}$ Lebnis | 74510.691 | 15.309 | 204924.125 | -1.875 |
| - Arcturus | $\begin{array}{lrr}7 & 7 & 58.690\end{array}$ | 15.736 | 201212.124 | -2.296 |
| $\zeta$ Bootis | $\begin{array}{llll}6 & 50 & 48.497\end{array}$ | 17.703 | 19550.731 | -5.209 |
| $\beta$ Arietis | $\begin{array}{llll}6 & 46 & 47.860\end{array}$ | 14.140 | $1951 \quad 1.294$ | -0.706 |
| \% Bootis | 61835.373 | 22.627 | 192248.907 | -9.093 |
| \% Arietis | $5{ }_{5}^{5} 54437.879$ | 13.071 | 185851.313 | +0.363 |
| 8 Caneri | 54751.454 | 15.546 | 185144.888 | -2.112 |
| 5 a Sagitim | 43014.884 | 19.116 | 173428.318 | -5.682 |
| \% Bootis | 411129.087 | 16.913 | 171542.521 | -3.479 |
| \% Geminol | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 29 & 3.022\end{array}$ | 14.978 | 163316.456 | -1.544 |
| $\theta$ Leonis | 32528.995. | 11.005 | 162942.429 | +2.429 |
| y Serpenti | $\begin{array}{lllll}3 & 14 & 14.188\end{array}$ | 20.812 | 161827.702 | -7.298 |
| Aldfebara | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 2 & 9 \\ 2 & 9 & 905\end{array}$ | 13.829 | 160623.339 | +0.339 |
| $\beta$ I eonis | 23533.485 | 15.077 | 153946.919 | +1.639 |
| \% Tauri . | $\begin{array}{lrrr}2 & 4 & 35 & 851\end{array}$ | 13.149 | $\begin{array}{lll}15 & 8 & 49.285\end{array}$ | +0.285 |
| a Hertcules | 13312.158 | 14.933 | 143725.592 | -1.498 |
| c Pegasi | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 5 & 23.214\end{array}$ | 14.836 | 146936.0 .48 | -1.402 |
| \% Pegasi | $\begin{array}{lrr}1 & 1 & 47 \\ 0 & 51 & 92\end{array}$ | 13.915 | $\begin{array}{rrrr}16 & 6 & 1.425\end{array}$ | -0.475 |
| $\beta \cdot$ Betphin | 05122.614 | 13.386 | 1355536.048 | +0.048 |
| - Orionis | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 50 & 44.926\end{array}$ | 9.076 | 13.5455 .360 | +4.360 |
| 9 Aquilie | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 30 & 4.9 .474\end{array}$ | 18.526 | 133502.905 | -5.095 |
| - 2 Orion | $0 \quad 733.275$ | 14.325 | 131146.709 | -1.291 |
| $\because \cdot 1+$ 'Star's N. of Zen. $13 \quad 415.482$ |  |  |  |  |


'erived from 12 Principal Stars.



## Table V.

## Zenith Distances and Latitudes by the Sun,

 April and May 1807.| Days on which obscrved. | Zcnith dist. of O's centre. | Corresponding Latitudes. | Mcan of Lat. by Noithern and Southern z. distances. | Mean Lat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| April 15. | $3^{\circ} 36^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime} .849$ | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} \quad 4^{\prime \prime} .949$ |  |  |
| 16. | $\begin{array}{llll}3 & 1519.065\end{array}$ | 43.265 |  |  |
| 18. | 23935.999 | 47.619 |  |  |
| 19. | ¢ 1152.194 | 43.324 |  |  |
| 20.1 | 1510.725 | 359.525 |  |  |
| 21. | 13026.776 | 41.976 |  |  |
| 23. | 04945.564 | 359.504 |  |  |
| 24. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 29 & 41.305\end{array}$ | 358.004 |  |  |
| 25. | $\begin{gathered} 0956.799 \\ 0 \text { North. } \end{gathered}$ | 42.339 | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 2^{\prime \prime} .207$ | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 3^{\prime \prime} .328$ |
| 26. | $0 \quad 939.001$ | 43.389 |  |  |
| 27. | 0292.601 | 3.496 |  |  |
| 28. | 04811.508 | 5.692 |  |  |
| 30. | 12553.806 | 4.389 |  |  |
| May 3. | 22039.055 | 2.345 |  |  |
| 5. | 25554.866 | 0.134 |  |  |
| 8. | 34640.172 | 5.298 |  |  |
| 9. | 435.912 | 5.588 |  |  |
| 11. | $435 \quad 0.418$ | 8.652 |  |  |
| 12. | 45035.340 | 3.500 |  |  |
| 13. | $5 \quad 548.551$ | 6.449 | 1344.449 |  |
|  |  |  | Diff. 2.242 |  |


| Names of Stars. | Mug. | $\begin{aligned} & N_{0} \text { of } \\ & O_{b} \text {. } \end{aligned}$ | Pcriodduriag werhobs. | Mca.Dcc. 1805. | Corr. <br> - Refyaction. | Refrac. | $\text { Cor. } \neq \text { dist. }$ | Latiludes. | Cor. Declin. | Difference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Regulus, | 1 | 15 | Nov. 28. Jim. 12. | $12^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 58^{\prime \prime} .93$ | $0^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .396$ | 0". 131 | $0^{\circ} 9.91{ }^{\prime \prime} .504$ | $13^{00} 4^{\prime} 13^{\prime \prime} .434$ | $12^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 58^{\prime \prime} .930$ | - $0^{\prime} .000$ |
| a Ophiuchi | 2 | 12 | March 15. April 22. | 124950.91 | 02129.362 | 0.293 | 02127.655 | 13.565 | 124250.779 | 0.151 |
| 09 Cancri, | 4 | 16 | Nor. 10. Jan. 10. | 193618.0 | $0_{0}^{0} 2755.057$ | 0.395 |  | 13.459 | 193617.932 | - 0.018 |
| ${ }^{4} \mathrm{Cancri}$ | 4 | 6 | 1 1pril 15. and 29. | 122148.0 | 04921.166 | 0.579 | 04221.745 | 9.745 | $122151.65 \%$ | +3.089 |
| 5 幺LLeonis, | 4 | 18 | Lpril 15. May 5. | 129898 | 05446.352 | 0.791 | 00 51 47.143 <br> 1 3 49 | 15.143 | 12929.091 | + 1.709 |
| E Virginis, $h /$ Herculis, | 3 | 18 | Jan. 19. March 4. | $\begin{array}{lll}12 & 0 & 40 \\ 11 & 55 & 5\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llrr}1 & 3 & 31.500 \\ 1 & 9 & 8.678 \\ 1 & 7\end{array}$ | 0.887 | $\begin{array}{llll}1 & 3 & 32.387 \\ 1 & 9 & 9.386\end{array}$ | 12.387 | $\begin{array}{rrr} 10 & 041.017 \\ 11 & 50 & 3.798 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{\|c} +1.017 \\ -1.202 \end{array}$ |
| ${ }_{2}$ Herculis, | 4 | 8 | March 96. April Mat May 12. and co. | $\begin{array}{llll}11 & 55 & 5 \\ 11 & 50 & 19\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{lll}1 & 9 & 8 \\ 1 & 27 & 57.678 \\ 1 & 57 & 806\end{array}$ | 0.958 | $\begin{array}{rrrr}1 & 9 & 9.636 \\ 1 & 27 & 59.009\end{array}$ | 14.0 .36 | $\begin{array}{ccc}11 & 53 & 3.798 \\ 11 & 56 & 14.425\end{array}$ | + 1.209 |
| ${ }^{\prime}$ Cancri, | 4 | 6 | Ipril 10. Mity 1. | 112645 | 13723.593 | 1.333 | 13724.926 | 9.926 | 11206 is . 508 | +3.508 |
| $\delta$ Scrpenti | 3 | 8 | March 11. April 6. | 11124 | $\begin{array}{lll}1 & 59 & 9.903\end{array}$ | 1.561 | 1 59 10.764 <br> 9 17 45 | 14.764 | 11119.9 .670 | -1.330 |
| - Leonis, | 4 | 8 | Dec. 1. Jatls 8. | 104693 |  | 1.961 | 2 17 4.5 .901 <br> 9 $2+$  | $\begin{array}{r}10.901 \\ \hline 58\end{array}$ | 104027.533 | +2.533 |
| $\varepsilon$ Delphini, | 4 | 18 | May 2. June 11. | $\begin{array}{llll}10 & 39 & 5 \\ 10 & 90 & 5\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{lllll}2 & 24 & 51.228 \\ 9 & 31\end{array}$ | 1.081 | ¢ 21753. | 3 <br> 4 <br> 4 <br> 15.023 | $\begin{array}{llll}10 & 39 & 20 \\ 10 & 90 \\ 10\end{array}$ | +15.292 |
| 2.5 c Ophiuchi, | 2 | 18 | March 11. April 15. | $\begin{array}{llll}10 & 99 & 54 \\ 10 & 18 \\ 10\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{lll} 9 & 34 & 18.886 \\ 2 & 45 & 49.388 \end{array}$ | $\stackrel{9}{2.147}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}2 & 34 & 21.033 \\ 2 & 45 & 40.053\end{array}$ | 415.033 | $\begin{array}{ccc}10 & 29 & 59.401 \\ 10 & 18 & 33.381\end{array}$ | + 1.5991 |
| 15 Leonis, | 4 | 8 | Dec. 10. Jan. 8. | $\begin{array}{rrr}10 & 18 & 23 \\ 10 & 3 & 57\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}2 & 45 & 49.888 \\ 3 & 0 & 10.875\end{array}$ | 2.510 | $\begin{array}{llrl}2 & 45 & 40.053 \\ 3 & 0 & 13 & 385\end{array}$ | 10.0885 | 10 $10 \times 80.049$ | 15.381 +3.049 |
| 15 O Cancor | 3.4 | 12 | Nov. 19. Dec. 21. | 94629 | 31727.977 | 2.800 | $317 \quad 30.777$ | 359.777 | 104642.657 | 3.657 |
| ¢ | 4 | 8 | Fub. 19. March 4. | 93810 | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 26 & 0.693\end{array}$ | 2.870 |  | $41+.503$ | $\begin{array}{llll}9 & 38 & 9.871 \\ 0 & 17 & 1\end{array}$ | - 0.129 |
|  | 4 | 10 | Jan. 12. and 28. | $\begin{array}{llll}9 & 17 & 6\end{array}$ | 34659.187 | 3.209 | $347 \quad 2.396$ | 8.596 | 91711.058 | + 5.0 .38 |
| $\varepsilon$ Pegasi | 2 | 14 | Oct. 28. Nov. 14. | 85918 | $4 \begin{array}{llll}4 & 4 & 49.450\end{array}$ | $3.39 \%$ | 4459.818 | 10.818 | ${ }^{8} 5020.586$ | 2.586 |
| $\pi$ Orionis, | 4 | 19 | Nov. 8. Dec. 4. | 89317 | 43044.501 | 3.791 | ${ }^{4} 3048.2991$ | 5.299 | 8 <br> 8 <br> 8 <br> 83 <br> 83 <br> 20.149 | 8.142 |
| $x$ Leonis, | 4 | 0 | Dic. 21. June | 82390 | 44048.397 | 4.018 | 44059.4 | 12. |  |  |
| a Aquila, | 1 | 16 | April ${ }^{\text {2S. Jan. }} 9$ | 82153 | 44215.821 | 3.874 | $4{ }^{4} 4219.695$ | 16.20 | 872703.709 |  |
| $\checkmark$ Virginis, | 4 | 4 | May 19. and 95. | 73720 | 52045.915 |  | 5 20 42 <br> 5 94.412  | 11.051 | 72139.053 | 2 |
| ${ }^{\sim}$ Orionis, | 1 | 20 | Nov. 7. Jatn. 15. | 7 <br> 7 <br> 7 | $\begin{aligned} & 5 \\ & 5 \\ & 5\end{aligned} 5815$. | 5.089 | 558920.8831 | 8.883 | 7559.551 | 4.551 |
| $\sigma$ Leonis, |  | 12 | March 9. April 9. | 7 7 259.39 | $\mathrm{Cb}_{6} 188.009$ | 5.013 | $6 \quad 113.045$ | 12.435 | $\begin{array}{llll}7 & 3 & 0.389\end{array}$ | 0.999 |
|  | 4 | 12 | May 1. June 5. | 658 \% 6 | $\begin{array}{llll}6 & 5 & 32.359\end{array}$ | 5.091 | 6 5 37.383 <br> 6 51 4 <br> 158   | 15.383 | $\begin{array}{lllll}6 & 58 & 36.051 \\ 6 & 0 & 45 \\ 5\end{array}$ | - 1.919 |
|  | 2 | 14 | Jan. 10. Feb. 18. | 6 9 43 <br> 5   | $\begin{array}{llll}6 & 54 & 22.193\end{array}$ | 5.805 | $\begin{array}{llll}6 & 54 & 81.158 \\ 7 & 91 & 11.809\end{array}$ | 111.815 | $\begin{array}{llll}6 & 9 & 45 \\ 5 & 43\end{array}$ | +2.276 +1.622 |
| Procyon, |  | 14 | Nov. 8. Jan. 23.\| | 5430.01 | 7215.532 | 0.200 | 72111.802 | 11.8 | 5 20 | 2 |

hance ; and it was this consideration which led me to xamine whether I could not discover some law by which it was governed.
9. For this purpose I gathered all the observations which I could collect, and from as many different places in the Peninsula as I could, provided they were obtained in sufficient numbers at each place. These being arranged in the order of the declinations, and the mean results of northern and southern zenith distances being taken separately, I noticed invariably (though in unequal degrees) a small excess in the northern, anid defect in the southern sets.
10. An abstract of these deviations is given in Table IV. and the reader will do well to refer to it in order to judge of the consistency of the preceding remark, and of the solidity of what I have further to say on the subject.
11. This exposition being sufficient to shew the tendency of observations taken north of the zenith to give too great a latitude, and the contrary of the southern ones, I shall now endeavour to account for this circumstance as follows.
12. Let Z (Plate VI. Fig. 1) be the true zenith of any place. $E D$, and $E d$, the declinations of any two stars, one north, the other south, and nearly at equal distances from the said zenith. By the present experiments, if we use the declination of $D$, the latitude will fall somewhere in $L$ : but if we use the declination of $d$, then it will fall on the opposite side, somewhere in l. Therefore the sum of the zenith distances $D L_{+} l d$, L 13

518 ACCOUNT OF Astionomical observations will fall short of the differences of declinations $E D$, and $E d$ by the small are $L \boldsymbol{l}$.
13. Let now the zenith be altered into $\zeta$ (Fig 2) so that $d$ be now north of it, and let $\delta$ be the place of a third star, south of the zenith $\zeta$. Then if we use the declination of $d$ (which before gave us too low a latitude) it will now give it in $\lambda$; and if we use that of $\delta$ it will fall in $\Lambda$ south of the true zenith : so that instead of having $E D-E \delta=$ sum of the four zenith distances, we have it (Fig. 2) $=\boldsymbol{D} L+L l+l d+d \lambda+\lambda \Lambda+\Lambda \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{\delta}$. That is, the four observed distances + the small arcs $\boldsymbol{L} l+\lambda \Lambda$. Therefore, if we suppose the declination $\boldsymbol{E}$ $D$ to have been well determined, that of $d$ is too low by the arc $L l$, and that of $\delta$, by $L l+\lambda \Lambda$.
14. For example; let the true place of Aldebaran be at $x$, and its apparent place (affected by the error in the declination) be at $D$, Regulus at $d$ and $a$ Orionis at $\delta ;$ then at the observations at Paudree and Tivandaporam we have
$\left.\begin{array}{llllll}D L & 20 & 46^{\prime} & 33^{\prime \prime} & 682 & \mathrm{~N} \cdot \\ l d & 0 & 24 & 43 & .04 \Theta & \mathrm{~S} . \\ d \lambda & 1 & 10 & 9 & .920 & \mathrm{~N} . \\ \lambda^{\prime} & 4 & 23 & 4 & .810 & \mathrm{~S} .\end{array}\right\}$ of the respective zenitha.

Sum, 84431.452
Now the mean declination of Aldebaran being

And $\alpha$ Orionis $=72136.61$
We have ED—RA8 1447 .12
84431.45

Diff $L l+\lambda \Lambda=$. 15.55
and in order to have separately the values of these quantities, we have at Paudree

Différence Ll......7.678
At Trivandaporam,
Latitude $E \lambda$ by Regulus . $11044^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime} .329$ $E \boldsymbol{A}$ by a Orionis . . . . . 41.67

Difference $\lambda$ A. . . . . . . . . . 7 . 879
Hence $L l+{ }^{\lambda} \Lambda=7^{\prime \prime} .678+7.879=15.557$ as before.
15. It is therefore evident that, taking the declination of Aldebaran to be corrected, and the observation good, then the declination of a Orionis should be increased by $15^{\prime \prime} .557$. Again, if we revert to what I have said higher up (Para. $7{ }^{*}$ ) it may be inferred, that these errors proceed from assigning originally too great a difference of polar distance between the extreme stars from which the mean latitude is deduced (as for example between Arcturus, and Procyon:) hence the mean latitude, which is derived from both, will fall somewhat too low; both on account of the excess of this arc, and also of the error of polar distance of $P D$ $-P x$.
16. It follows from this, that the successive small arcs of declination $D y, y v, v d, d \delta(F i g .3)$ will severally be too great, and this seems to be the case with the declinations of the twelve stars registered in Table II.
17. I I is true that in the foregoing example, where I have compared the results given by Aldebaran, Regulus and a Orionis, I have selected an extreme case; but

[^137]it is likewise evident, from what appears in Table IV. that were the mean of any number of northern and southern stars, to be taken separately at any two places of different latitudes, and in the order here described, the deviation would tend the same way as in the above exposition ; and this, it may be supposed, by a certain quantity, thrown in from a distant zenith, on account of refraction, which cannot be corrected here for the quantity $P x$, nor done away by that due to the small arcs $D y$ near the zeniths. Also that the latitude of $\zeta$ will fall too low by a certain quantity $(P D-P x) D x+$ $\frac{L l+\lambda \Lambda}{n}$, where $D x$ is the whole error affecting the declination of $D$; and the divisor $n$, will be in some proportion of the error affecting the whole arc $\boldsymbol{D} \delta$. (always in excess) from the extremities of which the mean latitudes of $Z$ and $\zeta$ were deduced.
18. With the mean latitude given in Table II. we can therefore be no otherwise satisfied than from the following consideration, which as far as it affects our latitude seems to reduce the error $D x+\frac{L l+\lambda}{n}$ to a mere nothing.
19. Regulus, a star of the first magnitpde, no doubt attentively observed from every part of Europe, owing to its being very near the ecliptic, and situated only 9 minutes and 14 'seconds from the zenith of the Madras Observatory, gives a latitude differing only from the mean results in Table II. by $20^{\prime \prime} .22$. This, no doubt, will be admitted to be a strong indication, that its declination, such as laid down in the tables, is very accurate. Regulus may therefore, without inconveniency, be taken as a visible point in the heavens, from which to lay down the position of the other stars; by this
means the zenith distances applied to it will give results consistent both with the observations at Greenwich, and at Madras, and thus form a link by which the two zeniths may hereafter be connected.
20. For this reason, in computing the Xth column in Table III. I haye adopted the following process:

> I.

Doclination of Regulus, . . $12054^{\prime} 58^{\prime \prime} .930$
Zenith distance of do. . : . $0 \quad 9$ 14. . 504
Z. D. of Arcturus N. . . . $7 \quad 7 \quad 58$. 690

Corrected declin. of Arcturus, 201212.124 N.
II.

21. Ir is greatly to be regretted that there are no instruments in the Madras Observatory, wherewith to take accurately great zenith distances; for corresponding observations of stars near the zenith of Greenwich and of Paris, would have afforded powerful means for correcting, after the same manner, the declinations of all stars in that extensive space of the heavens which divides the two Observatories.
Onthe Sun's Declination.
22. $I_{T}$ is a fact deserving of notice, that the medium. of 20 observations of the sun, taken with the zenith
seetor, (Table V.) gives the latitude of the Observatory only $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 3^{\prime \prime} .328$ which is. less by $10^{\circ \prime} .326$ than that brought out by the stars in Table II.
23. The great difficulty of observing the sun, when in the meredian in tropical climates, owing to the great tremor of the atmosphere ar noon time, induced me not to consult it in laying down the latitude of this Observatory.
24. However, on comparing the mean latitude in Table V. with the result of similar observations, formerly taken with the same instrument by Mr. Goldingham, ( 56 in number) I found that his latitude by the sun, namely, $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 5^{\prime \prime} .66$, differed only by $2^{\prime \prime} .332$ from mine. There could therefore remain no doubt that the sun gave a lower latitude than the stars; and I was further confirmed in this opinion, on Major Lambton communicating to me his remark, that when observing the sun, in various parts of the Peninsula, his results were likewise in defect.
25. In order to make a further trial of this, let us compute the exact time when the sun was precisely in the parallel of the Madras Observatory, and then (taking the difference of longitude between Greenzeich and this place to be well known) determine the sun's declination for that moment, from what it is given in the nautical almanac for two preceding, and two succeeding moons.
26. For this, taking the four zenith distances observed nearest and on each side of the zenith, and interpolating in the usual way *, we have

$$
\text { - The formula of which is } y=a+P x Q \times \frac{x-1}{2}+R x^{x-2}
$$

Exc. where $x$ is to be found by resolving the equation.
April 24, $029^{\prime} 41^{\prime \prime}$ S. $\neq 1781+=a$ 25, o 9 56 S. $=596+=6$ $26, \quad 0 \quad 939$ N. $=579-=c$ $27, \quad 0293$ N. $=1743-=d$ Hence:


Therefore $a=11781 ; P=-1158 ; Q=10 ; \frac{2 P}{2}=2$
$=-237$. Heace $X=-\frac{z-1}{2} \pm \sqrt{\sqrt{z-1)^{2}} \frac{8}{2}-2}$
$=1.50617$ or 1 day $122^{\mathrm{b}} 8^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime}: 84$. Therefore the sut was exactly in the parallel of the Observatory on the 25 th of April at $12^{\mathrm{h}} 8^{\prime} \quad 52^{\prime \prime} 84$ P. M. Madras time, and taking the difference of longitude to be $80^{\circ} 18^{\prime \prime} 30^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$. which gives in time $5^{\mathrm{h}} 21^{\mathrm{m}} 14^{\mathrm{s}}$, then the sun was in the said parallel on the 25 th of April at $6^{\mathrm{h}} 4 \mathrm{ym}^{\mathrm{m}} 38^{\prime \prime \prime}$. Greenwich time.
27. Now by interpolating again for the sun's declination at that instant, we have by the ephemerides

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
\text { April } 24, & 1203844 \\
25,12 & 58 \\
25 & =450710=b \\
26,1318 & 4
\end{array}=47884=c
$$

Hence:


524 ACCOUNT OF AStRONOMICAL OBSERVATIONS
Therefore $a=45524 ; P=1186 ; Q .=-12$, and $x=$ 61.587; and $y=a+P x+Q x \cdot x-1=13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 3^{\prime \prime} .159$, which differs only from the mean latitude by the sun (Table V.) by $0^{\prime \prime} .169$.
28. It is, I own, no easy matter to give a reason for so great a deviation. The difference between this position of the sun when in the parallel of the Observatory, and the latitude of that place as given by the stars, being $10^{\prime \prime} .326$, no error in the difference of longitude assumed between the Greenwick and Madras Observatories can accouut for it. For if we take $y=13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 13^{\prime \prime} .654$ or 47053". 654 (Table II.) then resolving the equation we have, $x=-\frac{\tilde{z}-1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{2-1})^{2}+\frac{2 y-a}{2}}{2}=1$, day 28912 or 1 day $6^{\text {h }} 50^{\mathrm{m}} 19^{\mathrm{s}} .9$, which gives a difference of 8 minutes and 43 seconds of time for moving through $10^{\prime \prime} .326$ of a degree in declination. So that if we suppose the sun to be in the parallel given by the stars, the interval of time allowed for the difference of longitude between Madras and Greenwich must be diminished by that quantity, which is far beyond any uncertainty that may still subsist on that head.
29. Again; as to the time of apparent noon at Madras, the sun's transit was always observed with the fixed transit instıument, whilst I was observing it with the zenith sector; and these contemporary observations agreed always to a second of time. There can therefore be but little irregularity to apprehend from this element, and we are compelled, though under equal objections and difficulties, to ascribe the error to the declination either as assigned to the sun in the ephemerides, or to the stars in the catalogue for 1802 ; and and I believe the former are the most likely to create suspicion.
30. Where great talents are combined with the most perfect instruments and assiduous practice, the cause can only be ascribed to that important correction on which we are still so yery uncertain : and on this I shall venture an opinion, not altogether unsupported by experiments *; which is, that the declination of the sun being deduced from observations taken at noon, and that of the stars at night time, the effects of refraction at these different periods may possibly vary materially, and what is allowed for zenith distances of the stars, be too much for zenith distances of the sun ; a surmise which explains at once why the sun, in the present instance, gives a lower latitude than the stars. This strongly suggests the expediency of further experiments. for ascertaining a point, which, if established, would be highly conductive to important discoveries, in an interesting but imperfectly known branch of natural philosophy.

JOHN WARREN.
Observatory, near Fort St. $\}$ George, ift of March, 1808: $\}$

[^138]
## IX.

# Trantlations of tem Letters of Nadir Shah, with Istraductogy Obseryations in a Lettex to the Prisidicnt. 

## BI BRIGADIER GERERAL JOHN MALCOLM.

> to hanky colerbaak, bse. President of the Asiatic Society.

## MY DEAR GIR,

IN the course of researches into the history of Persia, my attention was particularly drawn to a collection of letters, and original state papers, of Nadir Shaf, published after his decease by his favourite secretary Mirza Mehedi. This collection is held in the highest estimation in Persia, not only from the light it throws upon the history of that nation, but from the stile in which it is written, and which is considered to be the best model for those who desire to attain excellence in this branch of writing.

I have the pleasure to transmit, for the consideration of the Asiatic Society, translations of two of these letters which appear to be strongly illustrative of the cbaracter of Nadir Shaif, and the history of the period at which they were written, and which may perhaps be deemed on that account not unworthy of a place in the Society's Researches.

The first is addressed to Muhammud Ali Khan, Beglerbeg* of Fars, and must fromits tenor have been

[^139]written early in the year 1731, a few months previous to the dethronement of Shah Tamasp، which took place in the month of August of that year: Nadir Shah published, at the period at which he wrote this letter, aproclamation or manifesto addressed to the inhabitants of Persia, in which, after stating his own successes against the Afghans and the other enemies of his country, and the evils which appeared likely to arise from the shameful peace which had been concluded with the Turks, he announces his intention of marching after the feast of Nau Roz (which occurred that year on the 22d of Ramzon or 10th of March) and of not only obliging tbe Turks to consent to more just terms, but of depriving of dignity and power, and considering as infidels, all those who should oppose his intentions. This manifesto, as well as his letter to the Beglerbeg of Fars, sufficiently prove, that his designs were at that moment more directed against his own sovereign than that of Constantinople.

There is no epoch in the life of Nadir Shaf at which he acted with more consummate art and policy, than upon this occasion. The crown of Persia was completely within his grasp. But he appears to have considered it as indispensable to have his right uniyer's sally acknowledged by his countrymen before he seized it. - He had within a period of thirteen years risen from obscurity to unrivalled pre-eminence in the service of his weak monarch; and, by his wonderful valour and conduct, had not only rescued his country from the Afghans, the Turks and the Russians, who taking adyantage of the decline of the Sofaviyah dynasty and consequent dissentions of the nobles of the empire, had made themselves masters of its richest cities and finest pro-
vinces; but he had received the military spirit of the Persians, and roused a nation sunk in sloth and luxury, to great and successful exertion. But neither this success, the imbecility of Shah Tamasp, nor a reliance upon his own fame and strength, could induce him to take the last step of usurpation, until he had by his arts excited a complete contempt in the minds of his countrymen for their reigning sovereign, and a pride in his glory, that was likely to make his elevation seem. more the accomplishment of their wishes than of their ambition. The great ability with which he laboured to effect this object, is admirably shown in his letter to Muhammed Ali Khan. He commences by stating his victories over the Afghans, whom he had not only completely expelled from the empire, but pursued into their own territories. He next exposes the impolitic and humiliating conditions of the treaty which the king had concluded with the Turkish government; and, on the ground of its bringing disgrace on Persia, asserts his right and intention, as the successful champion of the independence of his country, to abrogate the ignominious engagement ; and while he flatters the national spirit of the Persians by anticipating success against their ancient rivals the Turks, he endeavours to enflame all theit bigotry by giving the colour of religion to the cause which he has undertaken; and calls upon them, with the well feigned zeal of an enthusiast, to fight for the preservation and existence of the holy sect of Shiah, a schism which, as appears froni his whole life, he always considered to be a heresy, and which it was the first and last object of his reign to eradicate and destroy : and, to make the effect of this letter complete, he concludes it with the usual declaration of all Muhammedan leaders who have made religion the pretext of
war, that he should consider and punish as infidels all those that refused their concurrence and aid in the sacred cause to which he professed himself devoted.

The second letter is from Delhi, and must have been written immediately after the arrival of Nadir $\mathrm{S}_{\text {har }}$ in that city, in the month of February 1738. It commences with a clear statement of the causes of his invasion of Hindustan; which is followed by a concise relation of his military operations, and a particular account of the celebrated battle of Karnál, in which he defeated the emperor of Indiá. The account of occurrences before the action, the action itself, the subsequent visit which Nadir received from Muhammed $\mathbf{S H A h}^{\text {, and his resolution to replace that monarch upon }}$ the throne of his ancestors, are stated with equal perspicuity and force, and the whole of this lettrer is written in a less inflated stile than any oriental composition of a similar nature which has fallen under my observation. It records events of almost unparalleled magnitude, and the expression is (as far as I can judge) never more warm than what the subject justifies, and indeed requires.

These letters are perhaps calculated to give the reader a more favourable impression of the character of Nadir $\mathrm{Sham}_{\text {, that }}$ than any thing before published relating to that great and successful conqueror; who is chiefly known in Europe by the report of his tyranny and cruclies, and above all by the massacre of Delhi, which reached European narrators through the exaggerated statements of the surviving inhabitants of that unfortunate city. It is far from my intention to trouble you with what the Persian advocates of Nadir Shaf state in vindication of his conduct upon that memorable occasion ; nor do I mean to enter in this place into Vol. X. 1 m
any inquiry regarding the character and actions of this extraordinary man ; but you will, I am assured, forgive me, if I offer some observations on the manner in which the history of Nadir Shaf and of several other Asiatic princes of eminence have been given by European writers.

In describing eastern despots, there has often appeared to me a stronger desire to satisfy the public of the author's attachment to freedom and his abhorrence to tyranny, and despotic power, under every shape, than to give a clear and just view of those characters whose history was the immediate object of his labours. This usage may no doubt, in some points of view, appear laudable. It may have a tendency to impress those who peruse the work with a still greater love of the first of all human blessings, rational liberty. But others, who look to a volume of Asiatic listory with no other desire but that of obtaining historical truth, and a correct knowledge of the social and political state of the nation that is described, will be disposed to regret that there was any prejudice on the mind of an author or translator, that gave him a bias unfavourable to the gratification of their hopes. They will wish, that he had looked upon the political world with more toleration; and though they may not censure his warm admiration of the government of his own country, they' will lament the existence of a feeling which was adverse to an impartial consideration of events illustrative of the general history of the human mind, and which has led him to stamp with general and ungualified reprobation rulers, who, however low their pretentions may be rated, if tried by the standard of countries towards whom that over which they reigned had no one point of affinity, must have stood high in the scale, if measured by that more applicable principle,
which takes as its foundation, the actual state of the community in which such characters were born, the means which they possessed, and the actions which they achieved ; and, on this fair and just ground, pronounces with truth and discernment, on the right they had, from their qualities and achievements, to that preeminence which they attained.

If such an author were to write the history of Nadir Shah, he would probably see something more than a mere usurper and tyrant in the man, who, born in a low rank of life, at a period when his country was overrun by foreign invaders, raised himself by the force of his own genius and courage to the highest military rank ; attacked, defeated, and expelled every enemy from Persiu; and afterwards, with the universal consent of his countrymen, seized the sceptre which his valor had saved, and which a weaker hand could not have wielded. Such an historian, after dwelling with pleasure if not enthusiasm, on the early events of his life, would accompany Nadir with satisfaction in his war upon those barbarous Afghan tribes, who for a series of years had committed the most horrid ravages in Persia ; and though it would be impossible to commend the motives that led that monarch to attack the Emperor of India, the extraordinary valour and conduct which he displays in that enterprise, the exercise he gave by it to that military spirit which he had with such difficulty rekindled among his countrymen, and the magnanimity with which he restored the crown (which he had conquered) to the weak representative of the illustrious house of Timur, might, without offence to truth, be stated by such a writer in mitigation of that insatiable desire of glory which prompted the enterprise, and of those excesses by which it was attended.

The actions of Nadir Shah, until the period of his return from India, are a theme of constant praise among his conntrymen. Of the remainder of his life they say, that, though it was not unmarked by great deeds, it was too evident that he had become intoxicated with success, and no longer acted under the guidance of reason ; and all Persian autherities agree, that, after he had in a paroxysm of rage, or rather madness, put out the eyes of his eldest son Rbza Kuli Mírza, he became altogether insane. Bur neither this act of attrocity, nor the other cruelties which Nadir committed towards the close of his regn, have eradicated from the minds of his countrymen the seniments of veneration which they entertain for his memory, as the deliverer of his country from its numerous, cruel, and insolent enemies.

I must trust to your indulgence to excuse the length of this letter. If the accompanying translations are deemed worthy of being inserted in the transactions of the Asiatic Society, I hope to be able to forward hereafter others of a similar kind.

I am, My Dear Sir,
wrih sincere respect and esteem Yours faithfully, JOHN MALCOLM.
31 st October, 1808.

## LETTERI.

(Written before Nadir Shat ascended the throne, ) addressed to Muhammbd AцíKhan, Beglerleg of Fars: and giving an account of the conquest of Herap.

Tothe highest of the exalted in station, the Chief of the great Nobles Muhammed Ali Khan, these happy tidings be conveyed.

Aided by the bounty of an all powerful Creator, and the happy auspices of the house of Haider * and the twelve holy Imams (on whom be eternal mercy,) with my crescent formed and all subduing scimitar, which in glory resembles the recent moon, and with my powerful and victorious army, and soldiers of propitious destiny, who are those sent from heaven $\psi$, I have, under the influence of good fortune, surpassed all others in the capture of fortresses and cities.

At this happy and auspicious period, the host of Afghans of the tribe of Abdalli, who fled from the edge of the conquering swords of my dragon-like warriors, retired, as a spider within its web + , into the fort of Herat. Their hearts were distracted with fear, and the pillars of patience and fortitude, that had supported their resolution, were cast dowṇ. Reduced to

[^140]distress by the complicated evils of famine and of the sword, they implored mercy; and "as clemency is enjoined to the powerful," I permitted them to evacuate the fort ; and have sent (with a view to disperse them) sixty thousand of this tribe with their families, who were reduced to great misery, to the city of Khar Shahyar in the province of Khorasan. By the favour and blessing of that omnipotent being, by whom I have been protected, the fort of Herat is in my possession ; and the whole of the tribe of Afghans, as also of the Ghelyahs* of Candahar, who were in the bounds of alliance with them, have submitted ; and have placed upon their necks the collar of obedience.

In the midst of these actions, by which the whole country from Herat to Candahar has been completely subdued, and the disturbers of tranquillity on the borders of Khorasan exemplarily punished, I learn by a letter from Muhammed Reza Khan, who was sent ambassador to the court of Rúm $\psi$, that he has concluded a treaty with the king, by which it is agreed that the Turkish empire shall possess the territory on the other bank of the river Aras; and the Persian, all upon this: but no arrangement appears to have been made for the liberation of the prisoners of the sect of Alí who are confined in the Turkish dominions.

Is is an incontestible truth, that the existence of humble persons, like us, who, from the favour of a divine providence, have obtained rank and pre-eminence over others, is for no other purpose than that we should be the friends of the sect of Shiahi, that we

[^141]should relieve the distress and dispel the grief of the poor and afflicted; ("for to protect the ruled is the duty of the ruler.") That we should combat the enemies of the weak, and eradicate the distemper of sedition from the body of the state : not deaf (deaf to the voice of the helpless and unmindful of those that are prisoners) we should break such sacred engagements, to conciliate the approbation and yield to the power of a proud enemy.

By the great and powerful God, this day is big with ruin to their enemies and with joy to the sect of Shiahs, the discomfiture of the evil-minded is the glory and exaltation of the followers of Alr. When the avenger is at hand the weicked tremble and are appalled. Their eyes roll wildly like one in the agonies of death. Let the danger pass over, and it is forgotten. They revile and mock with their longues.

This is a just description of the Tirkesh tribe. Why should we listen to more prevarications? Or why confine ourselves to the bank of the Aras*; when it is manifest, that the peace, which has been concluded, is contrary to the will of God and irreconcileable to the wisdom or dignity of imperial greatness.

I have stated to the minister of the exalted prince, that such a peace cannot be permanent, and that I conclude the mission of an ambassador to have been an act of compulsion, as I cannot believe that the prince would, under other circumstances; have consented to such a degradation of his dignity. But at all events, as offerings are continually made in the palaces of the lords of the faithful, and the holy men with broken

[^142]hearts are praying to their divine creator for the release of the Musulman prisoners; it wasimy determination, after receiving leave from the holy prince of regions * Ali Ibn Mausa Reza (on whom be eternal bleasings) to march on the second day after the feast of Feter + towards the disputed quarter, aided by the divine power, and accompanied by an army raging like the troubled ocean.

## VERSES.

1 shall overfow my banks, and fly like an impatient lover to his mistress ;
Like a torrent, will I rush, with my breast ever on the earth.
Haftz! if'thy footsteps desire to gain, by the true path, the holy house,
Carry along with thee the virtue of the exalted of Nejef.
I have represented also, that I have sent the high in dignity, Mahsum Ali Beg Geraili, ambassador to the court of Rúm, and that he is attended by a respectable escort; and that he is fully acquainted with my wishes and sentiments.

You will no doubt be rejoiced to hear, that, as it was to be hoped from the goodness of God, this peace with the Turks is not likely to endure ; and you may rest in expectation of my approach. For, by the blessing of the most high, I will advance immediately, with an army elated with success, skilled in sieges, numerous as emmets, valiant as lions; and combining with the vigor of youth the prudence of age. I will attend on the exalted prince, and then proceed towards the Turkish frontier.

[^143]
## VERSE.

Let the cup-bearer tell our enemy, the worshipper of fire, To cover his head with duat ;
For the water, that had departed, is returned into its channel.
Such of the tribe of Shiahs, as are backward on this great occasion, and are reconciled to this shameful peace, should be expelled from the faithful seat; and for ever counted among its enemies. To slaughter them will be meritorious; to permit their existence, impious.
" I have beard, that, during the reign of Mutasim,
"A woman of Ajim was taken by the foe:
" Her eyes became channels for torrents of blood, !
"She thus complained of her wretched state.
" Ob Mutasim! why art thou supine ? I call for justice!
"c Thy subject is a prisoner in the hands of thine enemy,
"Thou art the flame in the lamp of the country.
"On thee depends the shame and glory of the nation.

- Thou art the protector of the poor and wretched:
" All their children are the children of their sovereign !
! Her masters, astonished at these exclamations,
" In rage struck her on the face ;
" And said," now let your monarch Murasim, ....
* With all the renowned heroes of Persia,
"Collect an innumerable army,
" And come, if they chose, to thy rescue."
" This speech soon rcached the great Mutasim,
"Who immediately published throughout Persia,
" That all, who pretended to the name of men,
" Should instantly assemble in arms.
"When the monarch had completed his mighty preparations.
"He soon heaped destruction on the heads of his enemies *.
"To release one prisoner from the hand of the foe,

[^144]" If an incomparable army were assembled,
"At this moment, when numbers of the Shiahs of Persia
"Are prisoners in the hand of cruel men,
" And, with their lamentable cries uttered morn and eve,
" Have rendered dark and gloomy the azure sky ?
" It is acknowledged by the tribe of Shiahs,
"That the king $\dagger$ of Khorasan, the Imam of the age,
"Is not considered by the men of Persia
"As less honourable, nor of lesser fame, than Mutasim!
" Then, by the mercy and greatness of the creator,
" Vietory is still declared to these soldiers.
" Under the auspices of the most merciful of the world,
"I have taken ample vengeance on the Afghanis.
"Aided by the fortune of the lord of Khorasan,
" I have been revenged on the whole tribe of the Afghans.
"There remains not in this quarter, at this period,
" Aught of that tribe but their name.
"In this war great actions have been fought,
"The Kezel-bashes* became each a sharp pointed thorn.
"From the slaughter that has been made, and the blood that has been shed,
"Our high polished scimitars have received a purple stain.
or I have taken from the worthless foe,
" With my sword, the region from Herat to Candahar 1
" By the sacred temple of the lord $t$ of $N e j e f$,
" We will turh with vehemence to that quarter:
" We will perform a pilgrimage to that threshold :
" And we will afford protection to our prisoners:
"We will take ample vengeance of the Turks.
"We will punish $\ddagger$ all our fues.
"And in this war, whoever continues inactive,
"Or from baseness remains in pretended ignorance,

* Both his property and his blood are lawful prize.
"He is to be considered out of the pale of the true faith."
+ Ali Mausa Reza, the seventh Imam, buried at Meshed.
- Persians; literally Redheads, a name given to them, from the circumstance of Shab Ismail having directed all true followers of the scet of Shiah to wear red caps.
t All, the son in law of the prophet, whois buried at Nejef.
$\ddagger$ Literally, furbish the garments.

Most Noble Lord, if the state of the province of Fars will permit, lose not a moment in repairing to the court of the most exalted prince at Ispahan; and represent to him that, as the peace which has been concluded will benefit no person whosoever, and can in no light be viewed as proper or reputable, it neither meets the approbation of the, nobles nor the commonalty of the empire.

But, if you should be prevented from moving to the capital, owing to the dispute with the Arabs not being adjusted, let me be instantly informed. If you are able to quell these troubles, it is well. But, if you require aid, make me acquainted; and a detachment of my victorious army shall march to your support.

Keep me regularly informed of the news of your quarter.

## LETTERII.

From Nadir Shaf, to his son Reza Kuli Mirza, giving an account of the conquest of. Delhi.

To the exalted and glorious son of our wishes the valiant Reza Kuli Mírza, who is our vicegerent in Irdn, the seat of our empire; our most beloved, the pre-eminent in royal rank, allied to us in dignity :-be these glorious commands known.

Agrbeably to our former communications, after the defeat of Afghan prince, Ashref Ali' Merdan Khan was appointed our ambassador to the court of Hindustan for the purpose of representing to that court,
that as the turbulent Afghans of Candahar and its neighbouring provinces were to be considered equal enemies to both states, it would be advisable to appoint an army from Hindustan, to occupy the passes and prevent the retreat of the marauders. The emperor Muнammed Shah gave a ready assent, and concluded a treaty to the proposed effect. After the return of our ambassador, we sent Muhammed Auí Khan to the court of the Indian emperor to repear our instances on this subject, and Muhammed Shaf confirmed his former engagement.

After our glorious and victorious standards returned to Candahar, we understood from our conqnering generals employed with a part of our force in the reduction of the Afghans of Kallat and Ghizni, that Murammed Shaf had in no respect fulfilled his engagements ; and that no appearance of an Indian army had been seen in that quarter. This intelligence induced us to send with the utmost expedition, Muhammed Khan Turkoman to the court of Delhito remind the Emperor of his promises ; but that sovereign and his :ministers, in dereliction of their former engageinents, treated the subject with neglect omitted answering our letters, and even put restraint on the person of our ambassador.

In this situation we were impelled to march against the Afghans of Ghizni and Cabul, and after punishing the retractory mountaineers in that quarter, as we considered the neglect and contempt with which Muhammed Shaf had behaved, and his conduct to our ambassador irreconcileable with friendship,' we marched towards Sháhjehainaibád.

Of our success' in reducing the provinces of Peshavir and taking possession of Lahore, the former seat of empire, our beloved son has already been informed. We marched from that city the last day of Shavall, and on Friday the 10th of Zelkád reached Ambala, forty farfakhs from Sháhjehánábád. We here learnt, that Mur'ammbd Shaf had collected from. Hindustán and the Dec'hin a numerous force, and accompanied by all his nobles, by an army of three hundred thousand men, three hundred pieces of cannon, three or four hundred elephants, and other equipments in proportion, had marched from Delhi and arrived at Pánipet, a village twenty farsakhs from Ambala. We inmediately directed the superfluous and heavy baggage of our conquering army to be left at Ambalu, and advanced to meet the enemy. Muh'ammed Shaf also left Painipet and marched to Carnál, which is twenty-five farsakhs from Delhi.

In the course of our march we detached a force of five or six thousand men in advance, who had orders to observe the appearance, numbers and order of Muhammed Shah's army. This body, when about two farsakhs from Carnál, fell in with the advance of the Hindustaini army, which amounted to twelve thousand men: these they attacked and totally routed; presenting us with their general and many others, whom they made prisoners.

This signal defeat put a stop to Muhammed Shat's further advance. He halted at Carnál and surrounded his army with a trench : he also constructed ramparts and batteries on which he placed his cannon.

We had sent a detachment to march to the east
of Múh ammed. Shah's camp and post themselve on the road that led to Delhi: this party received accounts on the night of Tuesday the 15 th, that Saadet Khan, known by his title of Burhán ul Mulk, and one of the chief, nobles of the empire had reached Malabat accompanied by an army of 30,000 men, a train of artillery, and a number of elephants, and intended forcing.a junction with Mu hammed Shah.

With a view of intercepting this force, we marched our army, two hours before day break, to the east of Carnál, and occupied the road between that village and Panipet. 'This movement, we hoped, would force Muíammed Shaf from his entrenchments. About an hour and a half after day light we had passed Carnál, and gained the east side of the Hindustini camp, when the advance guard made prisoners some stragglers of Saadet'Khan's party, from whose information we learnt, that that general had succeeded in his design of forming a junction with the emperor; in whose camp he had arrived at ten o'clock the preceding night.

On this intelligence we were pleased to order $^{\text {w }}$ our royal tents to be pitched on the ground which we then occupied, opposite to the camp of Muhammbd Shah, from whom we were distant about one $^{\text {wh }}$ farsakh.

As the junction of Saadet Khan had been the cause of Muhammbd Shai's delays, he conceived on that event his appointments to be complete; and, leaving two thirds of his cannon for the protection of his camp, he advanced with a great part of his army, a third of his artillery, and a number of his elephants, at twelve o'clock the same day, half a farsakh in the
direction of our royal army; and drew up his troops in order of battle. Placing himself in the centre of the advanced lines, he stationed the remainder of his troops in the rear as a support. Their numbers were incredible. They occupied, as close as they could be draivn up in depth, from the front line to the entrenched camp, a distance of half a farsakh ; and their front was of equal extent. The ground was every where dark with their numbers, and to judge from appearance, we should suppose they were ten or twelve times nore numerous than the army of the Abclal Gardoghly.

We, whose only wishes were for such a day, after appointing guards for our camp and invoking the support of a bouutiful creator, mounted and advanced to give battle.

For two complete hours the battle raged with violence, and a heavy fire from cannon and musquetry was kept up. After that, by the aid of the Alinighty, our lion-hunting heroes broke the enemy's line, and chaced them from the field of action, dispersing them in every direction.

Saadet Khan mounted on his state elephant, his Nisha Muhammed Khan and other relations, fell prisoners into our hands. Samsa'm Alí Khan Dauran Amir ul Omra Bahádur, the first minister of the empire, was wounded. One of his sons, with his brother Muzefer Khan, was slain; and another of his sons, Mír Aa'sh'ue, was taken prisoner. He himself died the following day of his wounds.

Wasilil Khan, the commander of the emperor's body guard, Shad'ar Khan. Amir Kuli Khan, Ali Muhammee Khan, Mir Husen Khan,

Khája Ashref Khan, Ali-yar Khan, A'aril Bgg Khan, Shahd'ad Khan Afghan, Ahmbd Ali Khan, Razin Rai Khan, commander of the artillery, as also Shir Khal'u, with about three hundred other nobles and leaders, of whom fifteen were commanders of seven thousand, of four and of three thousand, were slain.

Muh'ammed Shafy, with Nizam ul Mule, ruler of the seven provinces of the Dee'hin, and a chief noble of the empire, Kamer ul Din Khan, chief vizier, and some other nobles of less note, protected by a covering party which had been left, made good their retreat within the entrenchments, and escaped the shock of our victorious swords

This action lasted two hours; and for two hours and a half more were our conquering soldiers engaged in pursuit. When one hour of the day remained, the field was entirely cleared of the enemy; and as the entrenchments of their, camp were strong, and the fortifications formidable, we would not permit our army to assault it.

An immense treasure, a number of grand elephants, the artillery of the emperor, and great spoils of every description, were the reward of our victory. Upwards of twenty thousand of the enemy were slain on the field of battle, and a much greater number were made prisoners.

Immediately after this action, we surrounded the emperar's camp, and took measures to prevent all communication with the adjacent country, preparing at the same time our cannon and mortars to level with the ground the fortification which had been erected.

As the utmost confusion reigned in the imperial camp, and all discipline was abandoned, the emperor, compelled by irresistible necessity, after the lapse of one day, sent Nizah ul-Mule, on Thursday the 17th; to our royal camp; and the day following Muh'ammed Shaf himself, attended by his nobles, came to our heaven-like presence, in an afflicted state.

When the emperor was approaching, as we are ourselves of a Turkoman family, and Mur'ammed Shaf is a Tarkoman, and the lineal descendant of the noble house of Gaurga'n'ı; we sent our dear son Nasir Ali Khan beyond the bounds of our camp to meet him. The emperor entered our tents, and delivered over to him the signet of our empire. He remained that day a suest in our royal tent.

Considering our affinity as Turkomans, and also reflecting on the favors and honors that befitted the dignity and majesty of a king of kings; we bestowed such upon the emperor, and ordered his royal pavilions, his family and his nobles, to be preserved; and we have established him $\cdot$ in a manner equal to his great dignity.

At this time, the Emperor with his family and all the lords of Hindustan who marched from camp, are arrived at Delhi : and or Thursday the 29th of Zilkad, we moved our glorious standard towards that capital.

Ir is our royal intention, from the consideration of the high birth of Muhammed Shaf, of his descent from the house of Gaurga' n'f, and of his affinity to us a Turkoman, to fix bim on the throne of empire, and to place the crown of royalty upon his head.
Vol. $\mathbf{X}$.
$\mathrm{Na}_{7}$

Praise be to God, glory to the most high, who has granted us the power to perform such action! For this great grace which we have received from the Almighty, we múst ever remain grateful.

God has made the seven great seas like unto the vapour of the desart, beneath our glorious and conquering footstepsand those of our faithtul and victorious heroes. He has made, in our victorious mind, the thrones of kings, and the deep ocean of earthly glory more despicable than the light bubble that floats on the surface of the wave; and no doubt his extraordinary mercy, which he bas now shown, will be evident to all mankind.

As we have taken possession of a great number of cannon, we send 26,000 Moghals of. Lran and Turan, with a detachment from our own conquering army, and a body of artillery with some large elephants, whom we have directed to march to Cabul. No doubt our sons will inform us of the affairs of that quarter.

After the arrival of your letter, we will either order the detachment which we have sent, to proceed to Balkh or to go to Herat.
-We have appointed the high in dignity Aa'shur Khan to march to, Balkh, after the Nau róz, (22d March)'which he no doubt will do.

Consiner our glorious victory as derived from the bounty of the creator of fortune beyond all calculation. Make copies of this our royal mandate and disperse them over our empire, that the well wishers of our throne may be happy and rejoice, and our secret enemies be dejected, and confounded. Be you con-
stantly employed in adorning and arranging your government ; placing your hopes in the favor of the most high, so that by the blessing of God, all those, whether near or distant, that are not reconciled to our glorious state, and are brooding mischief, may be caught in their own snares; and all real friends, who are under our dominion, may attain their wishes, and prosper under the auspices of our munificent government.

## 'Dated 29th Zilkad, 1115 Hejira, <br> Shahjehanabad or Dehli.

END OF THE TENTH VOLUME.

## OCT 9190



Printed by Sthousseau.
Wood Strcet, Spa Fields.


[^0]:    * Qu. Is not this the watering with the font mentioned in Scripture, Deut, xi. ver. 10, and may not there be an allusion to the facility with which this water is directed at the will of the husbaudenan, in Prov. xxi. ver. 1 ?

[^1]:    - Sinapis dichotoma. $\quad+$ S. ramosa.
    $\ddagger$ S. glauca.
    © Linum usitatissimum.

[^2]:    - Lathyrus sativa.- † Ervum lens. $\ddagger$ Cicer arietinum.

[^3]:    * Solanum Melongena.
    - Cucurbita citrullus.

    5. Cucumis pentanguhus.

    - Monardica mixta.
    \# Cucurbita allia.

[^4]:    - Convolvulus batatus.
    + Dioscorea.

[^5]:    - I hove not oboerved that any of the smaller graina, such as Paspalum, Holcus, \&ec. are cultivated in this district: they would andoubtedly proeper in many situations.
    $\pm$ Particularly H, cannabinus, H. surattensis, and H. strictus.
    1 Dalbergia Siseoo. II Pterocarpus Dalbergius.
    I Artocarpus integrifolius. $\$$ Tectona grandis.

[^6]:    - Suvietenia Muhoganis
    $\ddagger$ Swieteria Chulrassa.
    5 Mimosa Seereesa.
    - Swistesia chloroigylom.
    - Cedrola tuna II Strorea robuotu.
    ** The genus of tree is not yet detammised.
    + Lagerstrcemia flos reginse.
    $\ddagger$ Tectona grandis
    III The caltivatiou of Teak has been encouraged by Government.

[^7]:    * Saguerus Rumphii.
    $\dagger$ Phoenix Silvestris.

[^8]:    - See Supplement to Tit. Liv. cii. Decad. c. 39.
    + Piutarch in Syiliam, p. 456.
    $\ddagger$ Juvenal, Sityui, xili, vi 28 :

[^9]:    * Reland de Samarit. p. 15, \&c.

[^10]:    - As. Res. vol. 1. p. 2, 3.

[^11]:    ${ }^{*} \%$ These are $a_{1}$ component part of the, great year, ar period; of, 12,000 years, used both in the east, and in the west, and also in Persia. In India they say that these' are divine years; but inEfriuria and Persia, they insisted; that these were only natural. years.

[^12]:    - Cumarícarc'handa, p. 155.

[^13]:    - See Asial. Besearch, Val. IX. p. 118, 120.

[^14]:    - Paragraph 48.

[^15]:    - Geneis, chap, 49. v. 10.

[^16]:    - Page 39.
    $\dagger$ As. Res. vol. ix. p. 128.

[^17]:    * See Raja Tarangini, and the extract from it in the Ayin Acberi; history of the Kings of Cashmir.

[^18]:    - SACARI Vicramaditya 'ill sabhramamis'rithlh, anyair atrányatuí lec'hiviśamvadi cadanthitam.

[^19]:    - Inferior incamationg are denominated Ayantara.
    + See aboo Mr. Gzntilis Voyage, p. 214 and 238.

[^20]:    10 Diod. Sic. p. 660 and 678.

    + Systema Brahmanicum, p. 161.

[^21]:    -. RLitgavata: Sectioni 1. p. 13. Mahà-Bhírata; Section 1.

[^22]:    - Whatever man listens with due attention to this legend, his sins shall be remitted. In the forest of Dandaca, in the Sahyádri mountains in the Delihin, on the banks of the siver Pran'itá, was the hermitage of Mandavyah, a most holy Rishi, most benevolent, and no accepter of persons. There he remained, between five fires, entirely taken up with boly. contemplation, and inwardly repeating sacred מames. A numerous banditti, with the goods they had, stolen, being pursued by the King at the head of. a strong party, took shelter near the holy man. As soon as the King came, he ordered them all to be cracified impediately; and the holy man was numkexed among them, and from his being crucified, he F 4

[^23]:    - See Philistorgius, Sozomeness, \&c. 1 .

[^24]:    - Photii Biblioth. p. 38, \& c.

[^25]:    * Seetion of the Earth.

[^26]:    - See D'Herbator's.Bibliothr Orient. v. Hend. u. Sind p. 415.

[^27]:    - As. Res. vol. vii. p. 435, 443.

[^28]:    - As. Res. Fof. vii, p. 468.

    In the Sections on Futwingo

[^29]:    ** See Bratimán'da and Váyu-puran'as. Section on Futurity

[^30]:    - See Basnage's History of the Jews, page 436. Euglish trauslation.
    $\dagger$ This is noticed also in the As. Res. vol. vi. p. 269.

[^31]:    - Arrian de Indicis.
    - Lils 8.

[^32]:    - Strabo, lib. 15. p. 609.

[^33]:    - Strabo, p. 98 and 100.
    $\dagger$ Salmas. Exercitat. Plinian. p. 217.
    $\ddagger$ Hesych. under the word Alpha.
    \| Polyb. Liba 1. p. 12. and Lib. 8. p. 200.

[^34]:    - IsIDOR. de origin.
    $t$ Tit. liv. lib. xxxviri. C. 14.
    $\ddagger$ Bryant's Mythol. Vol. 3d.p. 217.

[^35]:    - Steabo. Dio. Plutarca and Nicol. Dayagcen.

[^36]:    * Diodor. Sic. lib. xix. C. 2.
    $\dagger$ Anc: Univ. Hist. vol. xviii. p. 78.

[^37]:    - Photii Bibliotheca, p. 1040 and Suidas v. Severue.
    t Asiat. Researches, vol. v. p. 294.

[^38]:    - Du Fressoy Cbronologe A. D. 529.
    t Sat. vi. v. 584 and 549.

[^39]:    * See Suidas, Hesyohius de illustrib; and Lagrtius.
    $\dagger$ See Peutingerian Tables.

[^40]:    ST\&ABO, Lib. 11. p. 516.
    t See Maurice's Modern History of Hindoston, vol. 1. p. 95. It is called erroneonsly Bhedar in the Ayia-Acberi, vol. 2. p. 107.
    $\ddagger$ Forster's Travels, vol. 2.
    \% According to the late Nabob Mehdi-Ali-Kian, a native of Mesched. See Essay on the origin, of Mecca, Asiatic Researches, vol. 5. I 2

[^41]:    - See Grsner's notes on the fragments of Orpirus, also Fabricius Cod. Pseudepigr.

[^42]:    - As. Res. ष. 9. p. 242.
    t See Asiatic. Researches, vol. 5s p. 290.

[^43]:    * Bailixis Astronomond. p.251.

[^44]:    - In the Lalita vistara purana, which was brought by Major Knox from Népal, the name of Budd 'ha's kinsman and rival is Drivadatta (answering to Deodatus). It is probable, that LaLoubere's Tewetat is a corruption of the name of Dr'vadatta. H. T. C.

[^45]:    - See English Translation, p. 247.

[^46]:    - Isalah, c. 14. v. 13. Psalm 48, \&c.

[^47]:    * As. Hes. - Y. 5.-p. 1 ss.

[^48]:    $4 . \quad: \quad . \quad . \quad$, Alac. Univ. Hist, vol. I. Eec.

[^49]:    - 'D'Herbelot's Biblioth. Orient. voce Tarikh and Tabari. 8ir W. Ougrany's. Trapplat. of Pho Hpucal in the Appeydjs.

[^50]:    - Plate III.

[^51]:    

[^52]:    * Gawes'a Purán'a.
    L.

[^53]:    * History of Sumatra, p. 9.

[^54]:    * Dr. Leyden. who had been lately engaged in inquiries concerning the tribes inhabiting the islands of the eastern Archipelago, partly confirms this conjecture by the information, that the mode of writing, practised by one of the tribes in Sumatra (the Battas), is perpendicular : but instead of commencing at the top of the line, the writing begins at the bottom. Marsden's Batta alphabet is stated to be correct, provided the plate be turned in a perpendicular instead of a horizontal direction. H. T. C.
    + History of Sumatra, p. 255.

[^55]:    * As. Res. v. iv. p. 233.
    + Hist. of Sumatra, p. 285, and from Mantri the Portuguese made Mandarin.

[^56]:    * Aristot. de Mundo.
    $\dagger$ Hist. of Sumatra, p. 6.

[^57]:    * As. Res. v. vii. p. 48.

[^58]:    - Abulfedæ Chorasmix, \&c. descriptio int. Geograph. min. vol. iii. p. 9.

[^59]:    - Asiat. Research. Vol. IV.

[^60]:    - Herodot. Lib. III. s. 99.

[^61]:    *e There was a certain country, powerful and of great extent, termed Mithinla (Maithila). In this country a certain Rajah exercised the sovereign authority, named Mafa Chinok, (Janaka), overshadowing his people like the spreading banian tree. For a long series of years, he ruled this country, while none was able to injure it, or subject it to foreign authority. Rice was abundant, and of a cheap price : no disease prevailed, and no discontent against the sovereign, and the inhabitants enjoyed every pleasure, as in the region of Pra-Narayen. The sovereign of the country diffused joy over the face of the land, among

[^62]:    * The philological merits or demerits of P. Paulinus form no part of the proper subject of this essay; be is only mention'ed here' for tbe purposi of disclaiming his critical authority, when placed, as it has frequently

[^63]:    * In revising the sheets of this essay, I perceive that several omissions have occurred from the number and nature of the various materials employed, and the difficulty of classing them in the proper order of arrangement. The following additions are therefore subjoined.

    To the notices concerning Malay compositions, the following may be added.

    1. Asál agáma Islam, or the principles of the Islam faith.
    2. Idlal agáma Istam, explanation of the Ismalic worship.
    3. Idlahu'l fikek, explanatios of the law of Islam.
    4. Makóta segála Raja.
    5. Pasirul Korán.
    6. Hafid Imam, ul Mumenín.
    7. Hikaiat Miáraj Nabi Mahummed.
    8. Hikaiat Nabi Mahumined.
    9. Hikaiat Nabi Músa.
    10. Hikaiat Nabi Yúsuf.
    11. Hikaiat deripada kajadiaün Mahummed.
    12. Húkam Islam.
    13. Húkam Khaj.
    14. Hûkam Kanún.
    15. Elmu Fikeh.
    16. Elmu Falak.
    17. Kítabu'l Faraid.
    18. Kitab ul Allah.
    19. Sijihu'l Huseinu'l Káshefí.
    20. Samar adaínu'l Islam.
    21. Mirat al Múminin.
    22. Mirifat ul Islam, or Pungar nál agáma Islam.
    23. Permáta marifat Allah,
    24. Reazu'l lehaf.
    25. Ruein parungan.
    26. Núr Mahumned.
    27. Cheritra deripada Sulimań.
    28. Cheritra derinada al Omar.
    29. Cheritra Raja Dewa Ahmud.
    30. Cheritra Kobat Leila Indara.
    31. Humsah penchurí.
    32. Hikaiat segála Súsuhúnan.
    33. Ilikaiat Misa Túmon papji Wila Kasúma.
    34. Hikaiat Misa Gomitar.
    35. Hikaiat Jarau Kolina.
    36. Hikaiat Chahaju Langarei.
    37. Silsilitu'l Salátin, or, Penúrtnan segála Raja.
    38. Hikaiat Ambon.
    39. Hikaiat Achi.
    40. Hikaiat Bayan.
    41. Hikaiat Baktiyan.
    42. Hikaiat Tana Hitum.
    43. Hikaiat Jowhar Manikam.
    44. Hikaiat Datu perjanga.
    45. Hikaiat Dewa Raja.
    46. Hikaiat Raja Bosman dam Lokman.
    47. Hikaiat Raja Tambik baja.
    48. Hikaiat Raja Suliman.
    49. Hikaiat Rajah ul Ajam 0 Azbah.
    50. Hikaiat Raja Kirripun.
    51. Hikaiat Raja-Kambáyu.
    52. Hikaiat Raja Nila Datu Kawaja.
    53. Hikaiat Runga Rati.
    54. Hikaiat Isma Jatim.
    55. Hikaiat Abdullah ibn ul Omar.
[^64]:    * It may not be amiss to mention here, that some little irregularity had occurred at some of the stations of observation, occasioned no doubt by the plumb-line's being drawn out of its vertical position ; but it is impossible to say at which of the stations this has happened, as at the three where the zenith distances were deemed the most unexceptionable, there is nothing, to appearance, which can be conisidered competent to produce the effect in question. One of these three is it the ceded districts, in latitude $14^{\circ}$ and upwards. Another one is on the table laid, near Bangalore, in lat. $18^{\circ}$, and the most southerly one is in the Coimbetoor country, in lat. $11^{\circ}$. The arc, comprised between the stations in $11^{\circ}$ and $13^{\circ}$, gives the measure of the degree $60533^{\circ}$ fathoms; and that, comprehended between $11^{\circ}$ and $14^{\circ}$, giveś onily 60461 'fathoms ; so that there evidently has existed some caise; for deflecting the plumb-line, at oue or both of these northern stations. I have, for the present, taken the mean result of the two cases, reducing them to the same latitude, $11^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 55^{\prime \prime}$, which is 60494 fathoms. This measure, used with all the recent measurements made in England, France, and at the polar circle, will give the mean ellipticity of the earth $3 \frac{1}{3!}$ nearly, and therefore the polar, to the equatorial diaueter, will be in the ratio of 1 to 1.003125 nearly ${ }_{\text {, }}$,

[^65]:    39793.7

[^66]:    $\ldots$. . As determined in 1803, equal $87^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 07^{\prime \prime} .54$.

[^67]:    - Vol. I. p 279. Vol. II. p. 389.

    Cc 3

[^68]:    - Or Sánc'hya system of philo;ophy; distịguished from that of Capila.
    $\dagger$ In the subiscription to the on'y copy of this commentary, which I have seen, it is ascribed to Sgshanima; but, in the body of the work, the commentator calls himself Suacara.

[^69]:    * I possess three copies of it ; two of which are apparently an cient: but they have no dates.
    $\dagger$ It is stated by the authors, who quote it, (Narayana bhatta and oth.rs, ), to be an extract from the Agni purana: but I hate not been able ti) verify its place in that Purána.
    $\ddagger$ Such are the Vänibhüshana, Vritta-derpana, Vritta-caumudi, and Vitta-retnácara, with the Ch'handó-manjari, Ch'handó-mártanda, Ch'handjo-málá. Ch'handó-niviti, Ch'handö-govinda, and several tracts punder the title of Vritta-mueturvali, besides treatises included in

[^70]:    works on other subjects. For example Varahamihira's system of as:rn "gv, which contains a cha! ter oi prosedy.

    The Vritta-retnácara Cbdara bhatta, with its commentaries by Divacara bhatta, Narayana bhatta and Hari-bhascara, bas 'een the must c ' nsulted for the prevent treatise. The Vrittaderpina, which relates chiefly to Prácit prosody, has been also much e:"ployed

    - Divacarabhatta.

    I In the co mentary on the Vrittocti-ratna.
    $\ddagger$ The author Duggadatta was patronised by the Hindípati princes of Bundicic hand. The examples, which like the text are Sanscrit in Pricrit measure, are in praise of these chiettains.
    $\oint$ Ly Vibwaratha.

[^71]:    - Spr Plate A. Fig.a.
    $\dagger$ Culluca bhatta (on Menu 2. 19.) says, that Surasína is the country of Mat'hura.
    $\ddagger$ Cleata or Bihar. But it does not appear, that either this, or the preceding dialect, is now spoken in the country, from which it takes its name. Specimens of both are frequent in the Indian dramas.
    § Vararuchi, and his commentator Bhamaha.
    || Hemachandra, who, after ftating the feecial permutations of these dialects as derived from Sanscrit, obferves in both places, that the reft of the permutations are the same with thofe of Pracrit.

[^72]:    - Or language of the Pistáchas. [See Piate A. Fig. 6.] Bhamaha on Vararuchi.
    t Vararućgí and Hemachandra. The last mentioned author notices a variation of this dialect under the name of Chulicápaisúchi; which differs very little from the proper Paisuchi.
    $\ddagger$ It is taught under this name by Hemachandra, among othes dialects of Prácrit. But the name uoually signifies ungrammatical Janguage.
    §Hemachanara ad finem.
    IICh. 5.
    II Some with Vaidarbhi, according to the commentator of the Slihitya derpana. The country of Viderbhe is said to be the modern Rerar proper.

[^73]:    * Avanti is another name of Ujjayani.
    + Bahlica or Bahlicg (for the word is spelt variously (is a country famous for the breed of horses. Ambra.2.8.45. It appears to be situated north of India; brilig mentioned in enumerations of countries, with Turushca, C'hasa, Casmira, \&c. (Hвmachandra. 4. 25: Tricanda s'ésha.2. 1. 9.)
    $\ddagger$ The commentator on the Sahitya derpana (Rama Charana): interprets Prachya, by Gapdiya; meaning, no doubt, the language of Bengal. He was himself a native of this province; and his work is modern, being dated $S_{a c a} 1622$ (A. D. 1700.)
    §As. Res. VII. p. 219.
    II Narayana bhatta in a commentary on the Vritta retnagarg pritten in Sambat 1602 (A. D. 1546.)

[^74]:    - Contemporary with Jehangir ánd Shaf Jbhan.
    $t$ The remaining Saresquata Brahmanas inhabit chiefly the Penjab,
    $\ddagger$ Those of Dravida, Carnataca, Telinga, and Odra or Udiya. I omit Gaura. The Brahmanas, bearing this national designation, are fettled in the districts around Delhi: but, unless theirs be the language of Mathura, it is not ealy to assign to them a particular par tional tongue.
    § Being the initial of guru, long.

[^75]:    - Or by the nasal termed Anuswara, or the aspirate Visarga. By poetical license, a vowel may be short before certain conjuncts (viz. as in Plate A. Fig. c.) This license has been borrowed fromPracrit prosody, by the rules of which a vowel is allowed to be sometimes short before any conjunct, as before the nasal : but instances of this license occur in classical poens with ony four conjuncts as above mentioned; and, even there, emendations of the lext have been proposed by criticks to render the verse conformable to the general laws of prosody, (See remarks in the Durghat'a uritti; Cumara.)
    $\dagger$ This rule of prosody is applicable to any verse of the tetrastichs: but it is considered by writer's on rhetorick inelegant to use the privilege in the uneven verses; and they thus restrict the rute to the close of the stanza and of its half, especially in the more rigid species of regular metre.

[^76]:    - If the rule be violated, the metre is named Gurvini ; bnt this is reprobated by writers on frosody.
    $\dagger$ As Res. Vol. Il. pt 390.
    $\ddagger$ Vitta muctavali.

[^77]:    * It may be varied by alternating a long and a short verse, or a short and a long one, or by making both verses long.
    $\dagger$ Consisting of seven hundred (or with the introduction 755) stanzas of miscellaneous poetry; and entitled from the number of stanzas Sapta sati.

    Vol. X. D d

[^78]:    - Author of the Carica or metrical maxims of this philosophy. Sutras, or aphotisms in prose, which are ascribed to Cipila himself, are exiant: but the work of Iswara Crishna is studied as the text of the Sanc' $h_{1 i}$ a (As. Res. Vol. VIII. p. 460.)
    $\dagger$ Entitled Brahmesphuta sidd'hanta: other treatises, bearing the same or a similar title, are works of different authors.
    $\ddagger$ Chiefly Arya, with a few anapestic stanzas (Totaca), and a ptill smaller number of iambics and trochaics (Pramani and Samiani.)
    § Translated by Mr. Kindersley of Mindras, from a tale in the provincial language.

[^79]:    * Ramaraja, by whose command the poem was composed. So the commentators remark: but it remains uncertain who he was, or where he reigned.

[^80]:    * Arjuna and the mountaineer. Cirata is the name of a tribe of mountaineers considered as barbarians.

[^81]:    will be both noticed under a sub-equent head. The third is in an uncommen measure named Chandrica' or Cshama'.

    - The names of these four varieties are 1st, Vana vísica, which exhibits the 9th and 12tb moments by shorts syllablés, and 15th and 16th by a long one: the rest being optional., 2dly, Chitrá exhibiting the 5 th, 8 th, and 9 th, by short syllables, the 15 th and 16 th by a long one, 3dy Upachitrú, the 5 th, 8th short ; 9 th and luth long; also 15th and 16 th long. 4thly, Vis'loca; 5th, 8th, and 12 ith short ; 15 th and 16 th long ; and the rest indeterminate,
    $\dagger$ † Page 35.

[^82]:    - The mixed metre, in which one couplet of the stanza contains short syllables, and the ather long, is termed Sicha or Chuida: if the first couplet contain the short syllables, it is denominated Jyotish; but is called Saumya, or Anangancrid' $a$, when the first couplet consists of long syllables.
    $\dagger$ This metre, concerning which authorities disagree; is called Chu'dice or Chuli.e; or according to the Vritta Ratnacara, Atiruchira.

[^83]:    - From their number, entitled Sat sai.

[^84]:    *The peninsula, between the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch. The name remains, but the boundaries of the province are more restricted than in ancient times. It still, howerer, includes the remains of Caisina's eity of Dwa'rca'; the celebrated temple of Somana't:ha so frequently plundered by the Mifhamidans; and the mountain of Girana'ra held sacred by the Jainas no.less thas by the followers of the Veda.

[^85]:    - As. Res. Vol. IX. 192.
    $\dagger$ As. Res. Vol. VII. p. 511.

[^86]:    $\therefore$. The Gheotai and Ghattainanda, consisting of two rerses of $3 i$ imitruis each. Ita the first species ohe pauses are after the 10 ih and "I8th mitrás; in the other alter the 1 ith and 18th. There is also a stight difference in the distribution of the feet ( 7 times $4+3$ short; atic $6+3$ times $3+5+6+3+3$ shott.) The Dwipadicá has
    
     and the Lále with 45 , are couplets; but the feet are strictly regulated.

[^87]:    - Vizt 64 uniform and 4032 half equal.
    + Viz. òt unifurm; 4032 balf equal: and 16,773,120 unequal or dissimilar.
    $\ddagger$ A mode of catculating the possible varieties of metre is ajso taught in the Lild vati, a treatise of arithmetick and. geomerry by Bna'scara. This truly learned astronomer was als: a joe'; and his mathenatical works are composed in highly pulished metie." If the reader figure to himfelf EucLin in alcaick meafure, DiopaninTus in asapest, or the Almagest vergified with all the vaticty of Horatian metre, be will form an adequate nution of this incongruity.

[^88]:    - Writers on'rhetrrick (as the author of the Sáhitya darpan'a and others) tay it down as a maxim, that the metre and :style should ip general be uniform in each canto: but they admit occasiopal deriay tions in regard to the metre.
    $t$ So the author has called hipnsalf,;

[^89]:    - Vichitravírya was husband of $P_{A^{\prime}}{ }^{n}$ 任's mother.
    $\dagger$ Th. y have distinct names, which are enumerated in the Ch'handimirtan'da, cited by the commentator on the Vrita Retnácara: as Maxiperabhé Cantimeti, \&tc.

[^90]:    -The child is an infant, but he has six mouttis [to be fed] : l am a helpless, solitary female : night and day my mendicant

[^91]:    - In a passase of the Suindara Kaiñ dà.
    + Book 10th.
    : Among the perfons of this drama are the pafions and vices (pride, anger, avariçe, \&cc.), with the, virtues, (as pity and patience;) and other abstract motions ; some of which constitute yery strange
    

[^92]:    - Fromithe 53d to the 79th chapters of the Hanaparva.
    + A compasition, in which prose and verse are intexmixed, is called Champú..

[^93]:    *Rusmavati or Champacamálá compofed of alternate dactyls and spondees; 'Mattá measured by three spondees with four short syllables before the last ; Pan'ava containing a spondee and dactyl, and an anaræst and spondee; Bhramarathila ititi measured by two spone dees, four short syllables and an anapæst ; Jalodíhatagath cumpoied, of alternate amphibracbys and anapzest, and several other species: as Cusuma vichitra, Manigun'a nicara. Cudmala danti, Lalaná, \&e.
    t Dod'haca compofed of three dactyls and a spondee; To:aca cond taining four anapæests; Pramitácshara, measured by thiee anapesti with an arpphibrachys for the second foot; M: Li, e species of Chans dravartí, and some others.
    $\ddagger$ Thus Mattácridí combines two simple kinds; the Viduıumalá and Chandravarth. So Craurchapadá, is composed of two specjes before: mentioned, the Champacamála añ Mäniguvia.

[^94]:    - Vol. I. $\underset{F}{\mathrm{~F}} \mathbf{f} \mathbf{f}$

    Vol. $\mathbf{X}$.

[^95]:    - Called Rámagiri.

[^96]:    - He, whom the eternal chose for a father, that he imight benefit the world [in a human form,] wasta Kids, a friend of the gods, a discoinfiter of foes, and versed in science : bis name was Das'arat'ha. He wasà prince emfinent for bis virtues.' 1.1.

[^97]:    - Since fate, alas ! is become adverse; and the gem of kindred is departed towards heaven; to whom, $\mathbf{O} \mathrm{my}$ soul, wilt thou tell thy grief? and who will appease thy anguish with refresting words?

[^98]:    * Short vowels, when final, are so fainitly sounded, that they are ufually omitted in writing the provincial languages of India in Roman character. But they have been here preserved at the close of words; being necessary, as in Sanscrit, for exhibiting the metre.
    $\dagger$ The first termed Pram'ni, the other Samáni. Considered as a species of unitorm metre, the trst is also named Nagaswarupini or Matallicá; and the second is denominated Mallicá. There is also a regular measure which alternates trochees and rambics, and is denominated Manavacúcrida : and another, named Chitrapada; consisting of i wo dactyls and a spondee.
    $\ddagger$ Vitana.

[^99]:    - The metre is named Pathya when an amphibrachys is introduced in the 2d and Ath verses; sompe' say. in the det and 3d.
    + Chapalu.
    $\$$ Vipula.

[^100]:    - Wasanta tilaca 81 - 87 and Upéudravoajra 88. Ruchiŕ́ 99.
    † Maniybháshini 74 (P. T. D. 3 I.) and Mattamayúra 80 (2 S + T.I.D.S.)
    $\ddagger$ For example. Arma, which comprises 10 feet ; Aanava 11; Tyala 12; Jimu'ta 13; \&xc,

[^101]:    - Or the third verse inay eonsist of a trockee and dactyl, with tw anapants; or of two trochees, with two ahipaigts: and the metre is -denominited, in'the first instarice Saxrabhdica; in the tecond, Lalita.

[^102]:    - Same with Pat'ali pura or Pat'ali putra; the ancient Palibothra, now Patne. As. Res. Vol. IV. p. 11.

[^103]:    * Malati madha'va. Act 2d.
    $\dagger$ As the Nrisinha Champu, Ginga Champu, Vrindavanna Champu, \&c.

    Vol. X.
    Gg

[^104]:    - Walkrr's poem on Italian tragedy.

[^105]:    - Anushtubh. [See Pexte D. Fig. 4.]

[^106]:    - Sardula viciciaita. [SEe Plate D. Fig. 5.]
    $\dagger$ Mandacranta. [Sed Plate D. Fig. 6.]
    $\ddagger$ The Pracrit original of this pas age, though prose, is too beautiful to be omitted.

    Há jadada nıcarun'a !. esó dán'i n'arenda-ćhittáráhóbaäran’anj aón tibajjaï. Há amba sinèhamä̈hiaé ! tum api hadási debba dubbilasidéna. Há Máladímaä-jívidé, maına cal!ánasábanécci-suha-sa-äla-bbábáré, bhaävadı! chirassa jánábidási ducc'ham sinéhéna. Há piá sahi Lavangié ! sivina-ávasara-mèrta dansaná aham dè sambutta.'

[^107]:    - Mitra. [Ser Plate D. Fig. 7.]
    + Sardula vicridita. [See Plate D. Fig. 8.]
    $\pm$ Tiue ariginal stanza is in Ban daca metre; of the species denomilated Prachita and Suhavieranta. The verse contains 18 feet (2 Tra. 16 C.) or 54 syll? ${ }^{2}$ es, and the stanza comprises 216 cyllables.
    [Seé Plate D. Fig. 9.]

[^108]:    - Sardula vicridita. [Ser Plate D. Fig. 10.]
    $\dagger$ Praharshini: [See Pla'i e 1).Fig. 11.]
    $\ddagger$ Praharshini. [See Plate D. Fig 12.]
    H Harini. [See Plate D. Fig. 13.]

[^109]:    - If there be room to doubt whether the metre be reduced fram the next above, or raised from the next below, the first verse determines the question ; for it is referred to the class to which the first verse or prida belongs. If this do not suflice, the metre is referped to that class, which is sacred to the deity, to whom the prayer is addressed. Should this also be insufficient, other rules of selecetion have been provided. Sometimes the metre is eked out by substituting ily or woa for correspondent vowels. This in particular, appears to be practised in the Súmaveda

[^110]:    - These remarks are intended to form part an Analysis of tho Laws and Regulations, for the civil government of the Br:tish territories, under the Presidency of Bengal. This work is designed for the use of the students in the college of Firt LYilliam; and the second part, which relates to Criminal Jnstice, is introduced by a summary of the Mobummulan law of crimes and punishments, fof the parpoie of renderinginore inselligible the anmendments of it enacted by the Regulations of the Governor General in Council.
    $\dagger$ V. Sale's Preliminary Discourse, Sccion III!.
    IIn chap.L. of the Dicline aud Fall of the Roman E.npire, relative. to Arabia.

[^111]:    - The collections of traditions held in the most genetal estimation, 28 genuine and authoritative, by the Soonees, or orthodox traditionists, are the following; deneninated Sihäh-i-sitta; or the six authentics.

    1. Sahech-i-Bokhúree. Compiled by- Aboo Abdoollaf, Mohummud, of Bokhárá. He was born A. H. 194; and died in the year 256; in the suburbs of Sumurkund. His compilation is said to contain ubove seven thousand traditions; seleoted from 500.000.
    2. Sahceh-i-Moolim. By Aboo'l Hose's, Mooslam; of Ny'shápoor. He died A. H. 261; and is also said to have compiled his work from 300,000 traditions. This and the preceding collection, when eited together, are called Salicehy' $n$, or the two iuthentics.
    3. Soonan-i-15n-i Migah. By Монummud-kín-r yuzede bin-i Majah: of Kuzeen. (Erroneously named Ben Morummud, in D'Herbelot. Title Sanan Ẹ'n Magiah.) He died at Kuzveen, in Trík, A, H. 273.
    4. Soonun-i Aboo Dírod. By Aboo Da'con, Soxy'ma'n, of Sejistan. He was born A. H. 202 ; and died at Busrah, in the year 275. His work is stated to consist of 4,800 traditio.s selected from 800,000.
[^112]:    5. Jima-i Tirmizec. By Aboo Iebsa Mohummud, of Tirmiz, in Toorkistán. He is also surnamed Zurerr nt Dhurere, from his blindness. His birth was A. H. 209; and his death in 279. His compilation is noticed by DHerberot, under the title of Giame ab Kebir; and is erroneously cited (apparently from D:IIebbelot, ) in Hamilton's Preliminary Discoprse, page 36; as quoted in the Hidiyah: instead of the Juma-i-Kubeer, on fik-h, or jurisprudence, by Imam Mohummui.
    6. Jama-i Niscreé; called also Soomn-i Nisíce. By Aboo-i abdoo Rabman Ahmud, of Nisa, a city of Khoraiay. He was born A. H. 215; and died in the year 303. This collection is selected from a former compilation, by the same author, called the Soonun-ikoobra; and mentioned by D'Herbelot, under the title of Sonen Al Kebir.

    The four works last mentioned, when cited collectively, have the designation of Soonun-i-urba, or the four collects of traditions. The Thort notices, which have bean given, of their compilers, and of the authors of the Sahechyn, are taken chietly from the Mirat-ool-aalum, an esteemed general history composed by Burhtiyar Khan, in the reign of Aurungzeb. They are contirned, with many other particulars, in the Mishkat, a work of authority on the traditions admitied by the Soonser; apd used, as a class bouk, in Mosulman Colleges, with the Sahech-i Bukharee, and Salacil-i Mooslion. The quthor, Shyeh Waleboodeqn, Aboo Abloullah, Mahmood, who finished his undertaking (to verily and illuscrate the traditions contained in a foriner compilation, called the Misabeeh' soonnut, by Hosen bin-i musuo-ood, Furare) A. H. 73\%, states that the Mowutta of Malik bin Ans, 'the founder of the second orthodox sect, who died A. H. 179) is, by sume reck ped on: of the sixth authentic collections, instead of the Soon:1n-i Ibni Majah. He adds that others are of opiniun, the Darumee, complid by Aboo Monummud Abdoollah of Sumutkemé, surnamed Darlembe, who was born A. H. 181, and died in 255 , sbuuld be class ad as the sixth authentic. But he has himself given this place to the compilation of Monummud, the grandion of Majarf; and it is comme:ly placed third in the series, with reference to tie supprsed order of publicat:on.

[^113]:    * Sale's Preliminary Discourse, Section VIII.
    $\dagger$ Moulaver Sikaj oo'debn Alee (one of the law officers of the courts of Sudr Deewanee and Nizamut Adalut, as well as of the Supreme Court, and employed by the late Sir W. Jones, to compile the Sheeah part of a Digest of Mosulman Law, upon contracts and inheritance) states the Kooioob-i urba, or four books of traditions, held authentic by the Shiy, to be the following:

    1. Tahzeeb. 2. Ittibsar. Both conpiled by Aboo Jafur Monummun, of Toos in Khorasan.
    2. Jama-i Kafec. By Mohummud bin-i Yaxoor. Of Ry in Persian Irak.
    3. Munla Yahzoorb ool-fukeeh. By Monumaudtbin Aleb, of Komm, also in lrak-i Ajum.

    The third of these collections, which quotes the compiler of the two first, is said to have been presented to Imain Marider, who was born A. H. 255. The author of the fourth compilation is stated in the Mujalisool-Momuncen, to have been contemporary with, and protected by, the Persian King Roxn-oo'doulah, who died, A. H. 366.
    $\ddagger$ Preliminary Diseourse to his translation of the Hidayah, page 22. His observation, at length, is "the Mussulmains, who assume to themselves the distinction of orthodox, are such as maintain the mostobtious interpretation of the Koran, and the obligatory force of the traditions, in opposition to the innovation of the sectaries; whence they are termed Soonis, or traditionists." This, however, is partly open to the same objection, as has been stated to the remark of Mr. Sale.

[^114]:    - The nature of this treatise does not admit of a fuller account of the Soonee tradititions; which are distinguished by some authors as Saheck (anthenticated;) Husur (approved:) Zaieef-o-ghureeh (weak and poor ;) Moonkur-o-mouzsooa (denied and imposed:) by others, as Moosnud (vouched or certified;) and' Moorsul, or Moonkiuta (detached or divided.) The Moosnud àre also suivdivided as Murfooa (ascending to the Prophet;) Monckoff (resting with"the 'Sathatbah';) and Muktooa (severed or cut short among the Tabitten;) or by any other classification as Mootareatur (repeated, "• succebsive';) Mrush;hopr public, notorious; and Whad 'single, 'particular.)' 'Ther Misthat, referred to in a former note; has however been translated by an of: ficer of the Bingal establishment, and if it rebeive suffictitit enicourage ment terepaty the heavy cripencesof printinty in Irdiz, it wif be speciuly published.

[^115]:    - The names of the twel Imants are given by D'Hzarbiot, under the head of Imam . He has also given a brief statement of the tenets of the Shiya, under the titles of Schiah, Ali, and other titles of his valuable, though (as might be expected in so voluminous and miscellaneous a work) sometimes erroneous and often imperfect compilation. A fuller account of the doctrines, and practice of the Shiya is contained in the 2 d vol. of Chardin. (Description de la Religion des Persans, in the Amsterdam Edition of his Vayage en Perse published in M.ISCC.XI.) But the most authentic information upon the jurisprudence of the Imámeeyah sect, (which, not having been established, for the administration of justice, in any part of the Company's territories, needs not to be further noticed in this tract,) will be furnished by the completion of a work, the first volume of which is already printed,) and entitled-"A Digest of Mohummudan Law, according to the tenets of the Twelvi Imams; "compiled under the superintendence of the late Sir Wiliinm " Jonss: extended, so as to comprise the whole of the Imameca code " of jurisprudence, in temporal matters; and ranslated, from the " original Arabic, by order of the Supreme Government of Bengal ; " with Notes, illustrative of the decisions of other sects of Mohum"c mudan lawyers, on many leading and important questions. By "Captain Johir Bailline, Profeffor of the Arabic and Persian Lan"guages, and of Mohwwmudan Law, in the College of Fort "William."

[^116]:    - Asoo'l Fubvs was a Christian, born at Malathia in Aldudilia, or Armenia minors A. C. 1226 . But he wfote in Arabic, and appears to have leen well versed in the religion and law, as well as it the history, of Araija. V. Pococklo Specimen Iistoria Arabinn, comprising an extract from the dynasties of Aboo't Furux, which, Gibgow observes, "form a classic and orivipal work on the Arabian antiquities." Published at Oxford, in 1650. Also thie complete Latin version of the original work by Pococ; published in 1603. Gibsoa bas added, upon this, however, that "it is more usefal for the literary than the civil history of toe East." Cap. L. n. $\mathrm{L3}$.:-

[^117]:    - Their names, at length, are-1. Aboo Hunbefar Naômán bin-i Thabit: or, as pronounced in India, Sabit. 2. Aboo Abvoollah Malik bin-i-ans, or, as otherwise read, Anus. - 3. Aboo Abdoqleah Mohumud ibn-i. Lderes oo'Shafíer, or a descendant from Shafil. 4. Aboo Abdoollah Ahmud ibn-i Hunbul. The first is commonly called Aboo Hunbefah, meaning the father of Hunberih, and therefore is improperly cited, in the translation of the Hidayah, by the name of Hungefar only; which, moreover is a feminine appellation, and was the name of the second wife of Aleb. (Vide Tit. Hanifar, in the Bib. of D'Hereblot,) He was born at Koofah, about A. H. 80 ; (some say ten, and others twenty-one, years earlier ;) was instructed in the traditions, by Iman Jafun-i Sadic, the sixth Imam; who, as an authority for the precepts and actions of Mohimmud, is esteemed by the Soonees, as well as by the Shiya; (not the Sheeah Doctor, Aboo Japur, mentioned in a former note; as erroneously stated in Hamilton's Preliminary Difcourse, p. xxiii. Vid. Tit. Giafar in the Bib. Or.) and died in prifon, at Bughdid, in the Khilafut of Munsoor, A. H. 150. The founder of the second sect is known by his proper name Malix. He was born at $M u$ deenah, between the years 90 and 95 of the Hijrah; and died, at the same place, in a state of religions retirement, during the reign of Haroon oo'Rusherd, A. H. 179. The patronymic, Shafief, usually distinguishes the third leader: who was born at Gaza or Ascalon, in Palestine; in the hundred and 6 ftieth year of the Hijrah; and died at Cairo, (where the famous Salab oo dren, some centuries afterwards, founded a College, in honcur of his memory and doctrines,) A. H. 204. The last chief, Ahmud, is more generally called, from his father, Ibn-r Hunbul. He was born at Bughdad, or according to some at Murv, or Muroo, in Khorasun, A. H. 164, and died at Bughdad, where he attended the lecture of Shafitisy, A. H. 241.

[^118]:    - Aboo Yoosly Yakoor bin i Jbraaeem ool Koofee, was born at Koofah, A. H. 113; and after finishing his studies under AbooHunerfan, was appointed Kazee of Bughdad by the Khalleefah, Hadeb. He was afterwards, in the reign of Haroon $00^{\circ}$ Rushred, made Kazee ool Koozat, or chief Judge; and retained that high station, (which is said to have been first instituted for him) until his death, A. H. i82-Abco, Abdoollah Mohumudd bin-i Husun $00^{\circ}$ Shybanee (of the tribe of Shyban) who is usually called Imam Monummud, was born at Wasit in Arabian Irak, A. H. 132. He was a fellow pupil with Aboo Yoosuy, under Aboo Huneefar, and on the death of the latter, contiliued bis studies under the former. He is also said to have received instruction from Malik. He was appointed by Haroon oo'Rusheed to administer justice in Irak-i Ajum or Persian Irak, and died at Ry, the former capital of that province, A.H. 179: or, according to the Rouzut oo'ri"aheen, an esteemed history from the commencement to the 759 th year of the Hijrah, by Yafiees; A.H. 189. (See further particulars respecting Abso Yoosur and Iman Muhummud, in Hamilton's Preliminary Discourse). Zoufur bin-i Hoozel, and Husun bin-i Ziyad, (the former of whom held the appointment of chief magistrate at Busrah, where he died A.H. 158) were also two distinguished contemporaries, and scholars, of Aboo Huneefah; and are sometimes quoted as authorities for his doctrines; especially when the two principal difciples are silent.
    $\dagger$ A work of authority upon the Mohummudan law of inheritance, trans!ated and published, with a commentary, bv Sir W. Jonss, in the year 1792. This is the only part of the Mosulman Digest, undertaken by the venerabie judge in 1788, which his various avocations and studies allowed him to complete. He deemed it worthy of being exhibited entire, as containing the "Institutes of Arabian law on the impurtant title mentioned by the British legislature (in the Statute 21 George III. Chapter LXX) of inheritance

[^119]:    - A law tract often quoted in the Futawa-i Aalumgecree, not known'to be at present extant; and by whom composed, has not been ascertained.
    - Shums ool Aimmah, Aboo Burr Mohummud, native of Surukhs, in Khoraasan. The Mohect composed by him will be mentioned in a subsequent note. He also wrote a commentary on the Jama-i Sugheer of Imam Mohumuud ; and a comment upon the K'ffe ool Hakim, (stated in the Kushf-oo'zunoon to bave been composed by Hakim-i Shaheed, Mofummud; but no longer extant, which is called Mubsoot-i Sarizhsce, and often quoted in the Hidayah. He died, at the place of bis nativity, A. H. 483.

[^120]:    - Imam Abbo Bukr, : Ahmpdifinet Omur, surnamed Khusap, or the farrier. He composed the most, celebrated of the works known under the title of Adqb' ool Kazee, or duties of the Kazel; and is stated, in the Kuighfoo Zurioen, to have died A. H. 261. A higb encomium is added upon bis composition; which is said to consist of 120 Chapters, replete with useful information. Several learned men have written commentaries uponit, of which the most esteemed is that of Tmam. Omur Bin-r-Abd-dol-arbez, cammonly called Hoosam', the martyr; A. H. 526.

[^121]:    *The first was Kaxce, the second Mooftee, of Koofah, in the first century of the Hijrah; and they were estecmed two of the most learned men'of their age. The former, whose name at length, is Aboo Omyyar Shoria bin dol Hiras ool Kindee, held the station of Kazee, at Koofah, for seventy five years, and died A. H. 78 or 80 ; atcer resigning his office the year before his death. The entire name of the lat'er is Abou Omur Aamir bin-i Sbupafbe 00 Shabee, deriving his sumame from the tuwn of Shab, in Arabia. He died A. H. 104.
    $\dagger$ Ten different works of this name, (meaning, literally, rare, scarce) are specificd in the Kushf on Zunoon; of which one was composed by Imam Mohummud, the disciple of Aboo Hunerfah; and it is probably that bere relerred to. It is considered to be of less auihority than bis five other works, the Jane-i sugheer, Jama-i kubeer, Mubsoot, Zeeadat, and Siyur, which are well known, and frequenly quoted, under the general designation of Zahir oo Ruwayat, the conspicuous reports.
    $\ddagger$ Vid. Bib. Or. Tit. Hassan al Basri.
    I| A learned native of Hamadun, who became a convert to Islam, during the life of Mohummud ; and died at Koofah, A. H. 62.
    § There are three works of this title; all of which are quoted in the Futawa-i Aalumgecree; but the two others are distinguished by the addition of Surukshee or Boorhanec. The two latter will be mentioned in a subsequent note. The Moheet, here referred to, is supposed to have been written by Moulama Ruzee 00 deben of Nysha-

[^122]:    - Otie of the pupils of Aboo Hunbsfah, surnamed Muroozbs from Munoo, the place of his nativity. He was held in high veneration for his piely, and bis tomb is said to be visited, at Hit, in Arahian Erak, (Vid. Bib. Or. Tit. Abdalla). He died at the age of 63, A. H. 180, (Mirat ool-álum).

[^123]:    - The author of this work, which is extant, and he in high estimation, is stated, in the Kushf oo Zunoon, to be Shums ool aimmai, Авоо Burb Mohommud, of Suu ukhs, mentioned in a former note. The Mohect-i Boorhanee, coinposed by Boorifan $00^{\circ}$ debenMahmond bin-f Ahmup, is alio noticed in the Kul,hf oo Zunoon; bat wi hout any other particulars of the author. He is mentioned by D'Herbilot, under the title of Sarakhsi, as having beed born at Surukhs; and having gone from hence into Syria, where he superintended a Collegeat Aleppo; and died at Damascus, A. H. 571. His Moheet is known in India; and an incomplete copy is possessed by the court of Nizamut Adálut; but it is less esteemed than that of Shums onl Aimian.
    $\dagger$ Ima'm Aboo Japur Amud biñ-i Moңummud, of Tabá (a town in Upper Egypt) is one among the unuherous compentators of the Ja-ma-i Sugheer of Imam Mohummud. He also wrote an ábridgement of the doctrine of Asoo Hunsrafa, and his two disciples, intitled Mokhtusur-i Tahavee. Both works are often quoted, as authorities, but are not known to be now extant. He is stated in the Kushfoo Zunoon, to have died A. H. 371.

[^124]:    - The author of this work, Asoo Nusr Ahmud bin-1-Mohummud ool Itabee, of Bokhata, is mentioned in the Kushf oo Zuroon as having also written a commentary on the Jamái Sugheer of lm. am Mohumpud. He died A. H. 585.

[^125]:    * Vid. Bib. Or. Tatarkhan. An imperfect copy of the work referred to, entitled Futawa-i Taiarkhanceyah, is in the possession of the courtof Nizainut Adalut.

[^126]:    - A commentary on the Tohfut ool Fokaha, of Smyer ola oonebm Moнummud, of Sumurkund, by his pupil, Asoo Buere, bin-i Musoood, of Kashan, in Persian Irak. The author of the Kushf oo' Zunoon states the death of the latter to have been A. H. 587 ; and adds the master was so well pleased with the comment of his scholar, that he gave in marriage to the latter his daughter Fatimah, who was also learned in the science of jurisprudence. The entire name of the commentary is Budayia oo' Sunayia fee turteeh oo Shurayia. Both the text and comment are quoted as authorities; but neither is known to be now extant in India.
    + By Abool purf Mohumaud bin-i Anoo Bukr, of Murgheonan. He is stated, in the Kushf oo Zunoon, to bave composed the work quoted, A. H. 651, at the College founded by Imad oolMoolk, in the suburbs of Sumurkund. It contains forty sections, on civil transactions (Moamulat) only; and being left incomplete at his death, was finished by his son, Jumal oo' deen. A copy is among the books of the Nizamxt Adelut, and iuis considered a work of affthority.

[^127]:    * A commentary on the Wafee, and written by the same author Imam Abool Burkat, Abdoclla bin-i Abmub, commernly called Hapiz oo' deen, of Nusuf, who died A. H. 710 . He als: wroe the Kunz $00^{\prime}$ Dukayilik, a work of high authority, and extant in India; but eclipsed by its comment the Buhr-i-Ra:ik. composed in the tenth century of the Hijrah by Zyn ool Aabidren Ibn-i Nujeex, of Egupt. Vid. Tit. Nagim of D'Herbelot, who aplears however to bave stated the year of his death A. H. 670, instead of 970 ; which is menti. ned more than once in the Kushf oo' Zunoor.
    $\dagger$ Mr. Hamilton meations three treatises, on theological subjects, as written by Ab.o Honfepah: viz. the Masnad, Filk-al-elm, and Moallim. Of these the 廿hoosnud is described in the Kushf on Zunoon, as a book of trad tions. The work apparently intended as the sccond, but misnamed Filk-al clm, instead of Fil kulam (on theology, is well known in India, by the na:ne Fikh-i-Akbur. The third is unknown. D'Herbelict, who seems to have been Mr. Hamiliton's principal authority, mentions the three woiks, under the title of Abou-Hanifah.
    $\ddagger$ Mr. Hamilton (in his Preliminary Diccourse, p. 36.) has inadvertently stated the Jama-i-kubeer to be acollection of traditors, called also the Jama-i-sahech, Ysesoo Mohummud bin Yesoo al

[^128]:    - It does not appear that any work on jurisprudence was published during the first century of the Hijrah : or that any was written on the doctrines of Aboo Huneefah, during the second century, except the treatises, which have been noticed, of his two discipics Aboo Yoosuf, and Imam Mohummud. In the third and fourth centuries, besides commentaries on the works of the latter, (which as fundamental authorities, are denominated Osool or Original) the following law-tracts are stated to have been composed; and are briefly de:cribed in the "Kushf oo' Zunoon." An "Adub ool Kazee" and "Nuwadir," by Mohummad bin-i-Sumaah, who died A. H. 233. Anothor treatise, of the former title, by Aboo Hazim Abd ool Humeed, who died in 292. Several treatises of the latter title, by Ibn-i-Roostum, Hisham, and others. Also books of both titles, and a compendium of the law, entitled " Mokhtusur-i Tahavee," by boo Jafur Ahmud of Taba in Egypt who died A. H. 371 ; and who seems to be the author erroneously cited by the name of Aboo Faka, in Mr. Hamilton's Prel. Dis. p. 38. Another comper:dium, eatiled "Mokhtusur-i Kurkhee," by Aboo'l Hosen AbdoolJah of Kurkh (a ward in the city of Bughdad) who died A. H. 340. And a "Nuwadir," with two other books, entitled "Ouzoun" and ". Nuwazil", by Aboo'l Lys Nusur, of Sumurkund.

[^129]:    - The titles and authors of the principal commentaries are as follows. The "Siraj-i Wuhbaj," and "Jouhurah-i-nyyirah" (the latter abridged from the former) by Aboo Bukr bin-i-Alee, commonly called Hudadee (the blacksmith). Ahmud bin-i-Mohummud also made an abridzement if the "Sisaj-i-Wuhhaj," which is quoted by the title of "Bu iur-i-Zakhir." The "Mooltumus ool ikhwan" by Aboo'l Mailee, of Gbuzna. The "Kifayab," by Shums ool a mmah Ismaeel, of Byhuk. The "Biyan," by Mohummud bin-irusool of Tookat. 'I he "Lohab" by Julal aboo Saeed Mootuhur, of Buzdah. The "Yunabee" by Budr oo' deen Mohummud, of Ushbeeleeah. The "Kholasut oo' dulaeel," by Hosam $00^{\circ}$ deen Alee, of Mukkib. The last mentioned commentary is highly praised, for its utility, in the " Kusbi oo' Zunoon." and is stated to have been further improved by the annotations of Ibn-i Subeeh oo' deen Osman, a nátive of Tartary. Mr. Hamilton, (in his Prel. Disc. p. 36, 37,) has erroneously mentioned the commentary of Kudooree, as quoted in the "Hidayab," instead of his Mokhtusur." He appears to have nade a further mistake in stating the commentary of Kudooree to be about th: "Adub ool Kazee" af Aboo Yoosul, whereas no comment of that work is noticed in the "Kushf $00^{\circ}$ 'Zunoon;" but Kudonree is specitied as onc of the commentarors of the "Adub oul Kazee" of Khusat, mientioned in a precediag noce. K k 2

[^130]:    - A complete and accurate copy of the "Futawari Kazee Kban," supposed to have formerly belonged to the royal library, is among the books of the Nixamut Adalut, obtained from Lukhnow. The author of the "Kushf oo' Zunoon" and the present Kazee ool Koozat, concur in extolling this work, as replete with cases of common occurrence, and consequently of particular utility for practical reference. A digest (" Moruttub") of the cases recited in it is also mentioned in the "Kushf oo' Zunoon," as made in the serenth century of the Hijrah, by a learned Syrian, named Mohummud bin-i-Moostafaafunder, and entitled "Wubhajoo" Shureeut."
    $\dagger$ The court of Nizamut Adalut have a complete copy of this compilation, presented to them, with six other law books purchased at Lukbnow, by the Kazee ool Koozat, Mohummud Nujm oo' deen. It consists of thirty sections, upon "Moamulat" only: like the "Foosool ool Imadeeyah," beforementionod. The contents of both were arranged and incorporated in a collection, entitled " $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{a}}$ -mi-ool Fonsoolyn," by Budr no' deen Mahmood; better known by the name of Ibni-Kazec-i-Suma wunah, who died A. H. 823. The author of the "Kusbf oo' Zunoon" states this work $t$ s be in great estimation with the learned, as a civil digest ; but though often quoted as an authority, it is not known to be at present in India.

[^131]:    - Ibraheem Shah reigned at Jounpoor (during the confusion of the Empire of Dehly, consequent to the invasion of Tymoor) for forty years, and died A. H. 844. The court of Nizamut Adalut possess an entire copy of the work referred to: but it is a mixed collection, and not deemed autheritative.

[^132]:    "Anther commentary on the "Kunz oo dukayik," entitled "Maadun," is known in India. But the name of the author has not been ascertained. The "Eezah" by Shykh Yahya, and "Rumz ool Hukayik" by Kazee Budr oo deen Mahmood, are also noticed, with the names of some other commentators, in the "Kushf oo' Zunoon ;" but they are not celebrated, or quoted as as authorities. The court of Nixamut Adalut possess an incomplete copy of the " Bubroo' rayik ;" on which the Kazes ool Koozat remarks (in his catalogue) that " it comprises a compilation of cases, general and particular; wihh the useful result of the author's researches upon a variety of legal questions; and is received as auhentic by the followers of Aboo Huneefah in every city of Islam.

[^133]:    * Numerous Huwashos, or books of annotations, have also been written on the text and commentaries; of which the most celebrated is the Hasheeah of Yoosur bin-i Jonyd, commonly called Axere Chulper. This work, entitled Zukbeerut ool Okba is in the possession of the court of Nizamut Adalut, who have also a correct and complete copy of the Shurh-i-Vikayah. It may be useful to add that a Persian translation of the latter has been made by a person named Abd onl Hue Sujawal, of Surhind; who in his preface, states it to have been completed A. H. 1076 ; during the reign ol'Aunungzes. A copy of this version is in my possession, The language is not elegant; but it bears the character of accuracy ; and with a careful revision, it may deserve publication. In bulk it does not much exceed a fourth of the Persian version of the Hidayah; made by the former chief Kazee, Gholam Yuhya Khan ${ }_{2}$ and his learned associates, employed for that purpose under the patronage of Mr. Hastings; a revised edition of which, under the superintendence of Mou'lavee Mohummud Rashid, is now printing, at my suggestion, by order of Government; and besides facilitating the study of the Arabic text, will tend to explain and correct the English translation; which, though on the whole deserving of praise, has been found in some parts inaccurate, and in many less intelligible than the Persian version. It may be proper to add in this

[^134]:    "Jama,") are collections of cases, of the nature of "Futawa." A fur:her collection, entitled "Khuzanut ool futawa," by Ahmud bin-i-Mohummud, is among the books of the Nizamut Adalut, and supposed by the "Kazee ool Koozat" to have been compiled towards the end of the 8th century of the Hijrah. Also a Persian compilation, named "Futawa-i-Kurakhanee," the cases included in which were collected by Moolla Sudr oo' deen bin-i Yakood, anc arranged, some geare afier his death, by Kura Khan, in the reig' of Sooltan uls oo'deen, The Kazee sol Koozat has likewise pre sented to the Nizamut Adalut a strall Persian book, entitled Mokhts. ool Ikhiyar, written A. H. 271; by Ikhtiyar son of Ghyas $0^{\circ}$ deen Husun ; cuntaining, besides the duties of a kazee and moltee legal forms of various descriptions for practical use.

    - Preliminary Discourse, p. 44.
    $\dagger$ Mr. H. Colebrooke posesses a folio volume, containing about half of the entire translation, from the cominencement to the book $n_{;}$on evidence. I have also a volume which confains from the book on marriage, to that $u_{;}$;on endowments, or religious and charitable api ropriations. And, at my suggestion, the Governor General in Council has been pleased to instruct the Resident at Dehly to endeavour to procure two or more conplete capies of the Persian versiou nuade by order of Zeboo Nisa, with a view to prepare a colfated transcript, which may be hereafter printed and published. I have likewise a correct Persian translation of the book on "Jinayat," or offences aga nst the peison, made for me, a few years since, by Moulavee Saeed oodeen, (now law officer of the Burely court of circuit) under the superintendence of bis father, the Kazee ool Koozat, who has added notes of explanation where they appeared requisite. This version will probably be printed and published, as it well deserves to be.

[^135]:    * Mr. Hamilton's translations of the "Hidayah" renders it unnecessary to state the general contents of that work. The "Tutawa-i-Aalumgeeree," consists of 61 books (kitab) in the following order :-1, Taharut, purification. 2, Sulat, prayer. 3, Zukat, alms. 4, Som, fasting. 5, Hujj, pilgrimage. 6, Nikah, marriage. 7, Ruzáa, fosterage. 8, Tulak, divorce. 9. Utak, manumission. 10, Ayman, vows. 11, Hoodood, fixed penalties. 12, Surikah, larceny. 13, Seyur, institutes or regulations concerning infidels, apostates, apostates, and rebels. 14, Lukeet, foundlings. 15, Looktah, troves. 16, Ibak, absconding of slaves. 17, Mufkood, missing persons. 18, Shirkut, partnership. 19, Waukf, endowment ; or religious and charitable appropriation. 20, Bya, sale. 21, Surf, exchange of coin or bullion. 22, Kufalut, bail. 23, Huwalut, transfer of debts. 24, Adub ool Kazee, the duty $a$ Kazee. 25, shahadut, evidence. 26, Roojooa un Shahadut, retraction of evidence. 27, Vukalut, agency. 28, Dawa, claim. 29, Ikrar, acknowlegdment. 30, Soolh, composition. 31, Mozarubut, coparinership in stock and labour. 32. Wudee, ut, deposit. 33, Adeeyut, lending without return. 34, Hibah, gift. 35, ljarah, hire and farm. 36, Mokatub, covenanted slave. 37, Wnla, connection of emancipator and fi eedman; or of patron and client. 38, Ikrah, compulsion. 39, Hujr, inhibition and disqualification. 40, Mazoon, liceused slave, and ward. 41, Ghusb, usurpation. 42, Shoofah, right of vicinity. 43, Kismut, partition. 44. Mozaraut, compact of cultivation. 45, Moa,amulut or Mosakat, compact oí gardening. 46, Zubayith, animals slain by Zubh, or incision of the throat. 47, Oazheeyah, sacrifice. 48, Kurahigut, abomination, disapprobation, or censure. 49, Tuhurre, presumptive preference. 50, Ihya ool muwat, cultivation of waste land. 51, Shirb, right to water. 52, Ushrihab, intoxicating liquors. 53, Syd, game. 54, Rihn, pledge. 55, Jinayat, offences against the persoin. 50, Wusaya, testamentary bequests. 57, Mukazir o Sijillat, judicial proccedings and decrees. 58, Shooroot, legal forms. 59, Hiyu,l legal' devices. 60, Khoonsa, hermaprodite. 61, Fura,eez, rulss of inheritance.

    Of the sixty-one books enumerated, fifty-five correspond with similartitles iu the llidayah. Two other books in the latter work, entitled "Wiyut," (the fine of blood), and "Mu,aakil" (exaction of the fine of bloud), are included in the "F.Aalungeeree," as chapters of the book of Jinayat. The book of "Shirb," in the " $\mathfrak{i}$. Aalumgeerec," forms a section, of the book entitled " [hyaool muwat" in the "Hidayah." Theremaining five books of the "Futaya-iAalumgeeree," viz. those entitled "Tuhurree," "Mahaz r o

[^136]:    * The quantity R', which represents the refraction due to $\mathbf{4} 50$ al titude'(where Rad. $=1$ ) is give.1 in Bradrby's Tables $=57^{\prime \prime}$. But for obvious reasons I have preierred Le Gentis's quantity, as his experiments at Pondicherry appears to me unexceptionable.

    Lel 2

[^137]:    *See also infra, Pa. 17.
    Ll

[^138]:    * See Asiatic Researches Volume IX, Article 1st, Page 13, the experiments on terrestrial refraction, where the refraction at night was something more than double what it was in the day-time, owing (it is supposed) to the increased moisture of the atmosphere.

[^139]:    * Governor of Persia prol er.

[^140]:    * Aỳr. Here the tribe of Shiahs are meant, who are supposed to be under Ali's protection, and in fact part of his family.
    $\dagger$ Sentences marked in italics, are passages from the Koran; of which I have concisely rendered the meaning.
    $\ddagger$ From the Koran. The passage literally signifies "like unto the spider that maketh himself a house." But the weakest of houses surely is the spider's.

[^141]:    - A particular tribe of Afghans. -
    + Constantinople.

[^142]:    * Araxes.

    Mm 4

[^143]:    * One of the twelve Imams, who died at Meshed in Khorasan, where he is buried
    + This feast happens at the conclusion of the month of Ramzan.

[^144]:    - This story is related by historians, of Muta'sim, the son of Ha'run'al Ra'shid, and $D^{\prime}$ Herbelot Bibl. Or. 639.

