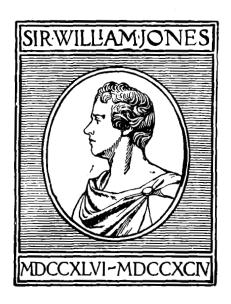
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ERRATA.

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Page 647, line 8, for Plate xviii read Plate xxvii.

,, ii ,, ,, Elecranon ,, Olecranon.

,, ii ,, ,, Patella ,, Patellae.

,, cx, last table, for discount £ 1/1 read discount 1/1.
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JOURNAL

OF THE

ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL.

New Series.

Vol. VI.-1910.

1. Fashion in Iron Styles.

By I. H. BURKILL.

Most of the styles in the Indian Museum belong to a long, representative and very interesting series which the Government of Madras collected at the instance of the Reporter on Economic Products, from almost every district of that Presidency. In the Agricultural Ledger No. 6 of 1908-09 on "Indian Pens," pp. 95-96, the collection is referred to. To that Ledger, this paper on "fashion" in the shape of the styles is supplementary: by illustrating the different types and indicating in what parts of the western peninsula of India each type is used, it carries the subject further than would have been appropriate to a journal such as the Agricultural Ledger: it makes no attempt to connect the shape of the pens with the character of the writing, for such a subject is well beyond the writer's field of work and best left to philologists.

The numbers quoted for each style in this account are the permanent registration numbers of the Ethnologic court of the Indian Museum, where the specimens are all exhibited. The drawings reproduced were made in the Government School of Art, Calcutta, under the kind supervision of Mr. Percy Brown, the Principal. All are drawn to the same scale, viz., $\frac{1}{6}$ of the

original.

For the purpose of the paper the styles have been classed under four divisions.

FIRST DIVISION.

Styles without a Knife edge attached.

Pens belonging to the first division are figured on plate xx. If the reader will kindly turn to the plate he will observe that the pens are grouped on it into six series. The first series illustrates types 1 to 4, being simple light styles: the second series is of equally double-pointed styles,—types 5 and 6: the third series is of long styles weighted at the very apex, being types 7 to 9: the fourth series is of fusiform styles,—types 10 and 11: the fifth series is of styles weighted by a more abrupt swelling,—types 12 to 15; and the last series of the plate is of heavy tapering styles which are here types 16 and 17. The descriptions of the figures may conveniently be given series by series: the first series is of the following styles:—

Fig. 1. Type 1. Style No. 10862, from the Kistna District.
Fig. 2. Type 2. Style No. 10666, from the Malabar District.
Fig. 3. Type 3. Style No. 10790, from the Godaveri District.
Fig. 4. Type 4. Style No. 10808, from the Kistna District.
Fig. 5. Type 4. Style No. 10810, from the Kistna District.

Type I porcupine quill; and with such a type we may conveniently start. Short light styles of no greater length than the porcupine quill are uncommon but exist; and figure 1 is of an example from the Kistna.

District: its total length is 7½ inches; its weight is only ¾ oz., and its centre of gravity 4½ inches from the point.

A somewhat similar style is seen in figure 2 from Malabar:

tit is 6\frac{3}{4} inches long; it weighs 1\frac{1}{4} oz., and has its centre of gravity 4 inches from the tip. It is a transition towards type 10.

Longer simple styles are much commoner than these short simple styles. Firstly may be considered two which come from the Godaveri District, one of which is here shown as figure 3. It has an unusual slight, but abrupt, thickening towards the middle. The other has no such thickening. Both have exactly similar obtuse points. Their lengths are respectively $8\frac{3}{4}$ and $9\frac{1}{4}$ inches; their weights are 2 oz. each, and their centres of gravity $4\frac{3}{4}$ and $4\frac{5}{8}$ inches distant from their tips.

Longer styles have been received abundantly from the

Type 4.

Districts of the Kistna and Godaveri and
also from the contiguous Districts of
Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Kurnool and Nellore. The longest of
all come from the Kistna District: indeed the average length
(15 inches) of styles received from that District is greater than
the average length of all the styles of this type.

Here follows a table, arranged with the shortest styles first, stating the lengths, weights, and the distances of the centre

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[N.S.]

of gravity of each from its tip. Figs. 4 and 5 are given in illustration of the type.

District of O	rigin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.
Godaveri	10789	103	2	5 }
Vizagapatam	10759	11 j	2 1	$5\frac{5}{4}$
Kistna, Guntur	10803	12 \$	3 <u>i</u>	8 j
Ganjain	10733	13 §	2	7
Kistna, Guntur	10805	13∄	3	8
Kistna, Guntur	10800	13 🖁	$2\frac{1}{4}$	63
Vizagapatam	10760	13 🖁	21	6 3
Kistna, Bezwada	10844	14	2 8	73
Vizagapatam	10761	14	2 1	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Kistna, Guntur	10804	14	$2\frac{1}{2}$	7 7
Nellore	10767	14}	3	71 82
Godaveri	10785	14 🖁	3	83
Godaveri	10787	14 }	31	8
Godaveri	10788	141	31/4	61
Godaveri	10791	141	3 1	81
Godaveri	10792	141	3 }	8
Kistna, Guntur	10802	141	$2\frac{3}{4}$	77
Kurnool	10816	148	2 3	8
Kistna, Tiruvur	10850	145	3	$\frac{81}{82}$
Kistna	10859	15	31	$8\frac{1}{2}$
Godaveri	10794	15	$3\frac{1}{2}$	8
Kistna	10808	15}	$3\frac{1}{8}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$
Kistna, Tiruvur	10852	151	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$
Kistna	10810	153	41	87
Kistna, Bezwada	10845	163	41/2	93
Kistna	10809	171	54	97
Kistna, Bezwada	10847	17 🖁	4	93
Average		14.38	3.11	7.52
Average of Kistne	a specimens	15.00	3.41	8.49

The following figures, illustrative of pens next to be described, make the second series on plate xx:—

Fig. 6. Type 5. Style No. 10745, from Ganjam.

Fig. 7. Type 6. Style No. 10683, from Malabar, Pannianur. Fig. 8. Type 6. Style No. 10690, from Malabar,

Fig. 9. Type 6a. Style No. 10839, from Burma.

Type 5. little double-pointed style, fig. 6. There are five such styles in the Indian Museum: and four of them are very similar indeed to one another. The length varies from 5½ to 6½ inches, the weight from 1½ to 1½ oz., and the centre of gravity of all is at the middle. The fifth specimen, from Vizagapatam, is smaller, weighing

only \(\frac{3}{4}\) oz., and being 4\(\frac{1}{2}\) inches long. Every specimen is similarly ornamented at the middle.

District of	Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Centre of Gravity.
Vizagapatam Ganjam Ganjam Ganjam Vizagapatam	10749 10746 10745 10747 10751	4 ½ 5 ¼ 5 ¼ 6 6 6 ¼	144 161 161 144	at the middle.
Average	•	5.55	1.17	

Far away from the Circars in Malabar and South Canara another double pointed style is used; but it is of a much heavier That the two are quite unlike is readily shown by a comparison of the figures 7 and 8 with figure 6.

The following table gives the length and weight of this heavy pen. The centre of gravity is in Type 6. all examples at the middle.

District of Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Centre of Gravity.
Malabar, Pannianur' 10683 South Canara 10822 Malabar 10686 Malabar, Pannianur 10674 Malabar 10690	10 103 133 141 171	$\begin{array}{c} 6^{3}_{4} \\ 8 \\ 9^{3}_{4} \\ 14 \\ 22^{1}_{2} \end{array}$	at the middle
Average	13.50	12.20	~_ _ _

The last style of the five in the table is so very large and heavy that it almost might have been separated from the other as a distinct type.

We now pass on to styles weighted towards the upper end such as are illustrated by the follow-Type 7. ing figures on plate xx:—

Figs. 10 and 11. Type 7. Styles Nos. 10853 and 10855, from the Kistna District.

Fig. 12. Fig. 13. Туре 8. Style No. 10734, from the Ganjam District.

Type 9. Style No. 10858, from the Kistna District. Fig. 14. Style No. 10848, from Bezwada, Kistna District. Type 9.

Style No. 10860, from the Kistna District. Type 9.

A very simple form of weighting is that in which the top is turned over: two such pens have been received from the

Kistna District (figs. 10 and 11): they are respectively 13½ inches and $11\frac{1}{4}$ inches long; they weigh respectively $2\frac{5}{8}$ and 3 oz., and their centres of gravity are 73 and 61 inches remote from the tips. That they differ in very little from type No. 4 is evident. Type 4 is also from the Kistna District.

The next form of weighting is a curious one (fig. 12), seen only in one style received from Type 8. Ganjam: it is contrived by a bar affixed across the top. The style is 9 inches long, weighs $2\frac{1}{4}$ oz., and has its centre of gravity 61 inches from the tip.

The next set of specimens are like long nails (vide figs. 13. 14, and 15). They all come from the Type 9. Kistna or Kurnool Districts, whence the similar types 4 and 7 come.

Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.
111 123	$2\frac{1}{2}$	8½ 7½
121	27	71/2
121	3 }	7 1
12 13½	$\frac{3\frac{1}{4}}{3\frac{1}{2}}$	71
12:31	2.94	7.71
	111 12½ 12½ 12½ 12½ 13½	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Next in turn may be taken in succession of types of pen weighted above by means of a fusiform Type 10. swelling. These types are illustrated on plate xx by the following figures:—

Style No. 10664, from the Coimbatore District. Type 10.

Fig. 16. Fig. 17. Fig. 18. Style No. 10775, from the Tanjore District. Type 11.

Style No. 10829, from North Arcot. Type 11.

F10. 19. F10. 20. Style No. 10776, from the Tanjore District. Type 11.

Style No. 10669, from Malabar. Type 11.

Fig. 21. Style No. 10720, from South Arcot. Type 11.

Style No. 10664 from Coimbatore (fig. 16) which has a length of 63 inches, and a weight of 11 oz., and in which the distance of the centre of gravity from the tip is 4 inches, is the simplest of the types, being a transition between type 1, figure 1, and the types 11 and 12.

Of styles of type 11 are here offered five illustrations,—
figures 17, 18, 19, 20 and 21. Some
styles of this type are rounded, but most
are octagonal in section above, either equal sided or with
broader and narrower sides alternating as in figure 21. I give
a table of styles of type 11 arranged according to their
lengths:—

District of Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.
Madura 10728 Coimbatore 10662 Malabar 10681 Trichinopoly 10707 South Arcot 10721 Trichinopoly 10708 Tanjore 10775 Tinnevelly 10782 South Arcot 10720 Salem 10655 Tanjore 10779 Salem 10653 Trichinopoly 10704 Tanjore 10776 Chingleput 10799 North Arcot 10829 Malabar 10669 South Arcot 10713 Kistna, Guntur 10801 Kistna 10857 Kurnool 10187 Godaveri 10793 North Arcot 10828 Nellore 10765 Kistna, Guntur 10806 Kistna, Bezwada 10840 Kurnool 10825	56468845478 6668645478 77777788814586884785414 888888888881100887818 11111111111111111	21121212121212121212121212121212121212	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 6 6 6 5 6 6 5 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7
Average Average of specimens from N. of Madras Average of specimens from Madras and South	8·67 10·91 7·49	3·00 3·54 2·72	5·75 7·30 4·93

It is very easy to see from the table that the style of the Southern Districts is much shorter than that of the Northern.

The fourth series on plate xx is composed of the following pens now to be described: -

Fig. 22. Type 12. Style No. 10849, from the Kistna District. Fig. 23. Type 12. Style No. 10769, from the Nellore District.

Fig. 24. Type 13. Style No. 10667, from Malabar.

Fig. 25. Type 13. Style No. 10730, from the Madura District.

Fig. 26. Fig. 27. Style No. 10807, from the Kistna District. Type 14.

Style No. 10766, from the Nellore District. Type 15.

Departing from the last type in the direction of type No. 9 are the following pens constructed Type 12. as in figures 22 and 23. It will be noticed that they all belong to the Districts which have supplied type 9 (figs. 13-15), except No. 10769 (fig. 23) which came from a more southern District, and differs in being half of brass.

District of Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.
Vizagapatam 10756 Vizagapatam 10755 Nellore 10769 Kistna, Attili 10851 Vizagapatam 10753 Kistna, Mogalter range 10849	712 72 8 8 8 8 9 4 1 1 2	13 2 25 31 3 37	5 5 5 5 7 6 4 7 7
Average	8.85	2.75	5.96

The next type has a bulb on the stem, solid generally. but in one of the specimens it is Type 13. hollow. Often the stem of styles of this type is ornamented prettily with bidri work. The examples in the Indian Museum are arranged in the next table by length; and two are drawn in figures 24 and 25.

District of Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.
Madura 10730 South Canara 10824 Malabar 10673 Malabar, Pannianur 10671 Malabar 10675 Malabar 40699 Malabar 10815 Malabar 10667 Malabar 10682 Malabar 10693 Malabar 10701 Nellore 10768 Malabar 10697	4 1 1 1 2 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	14 0 1 2 2 2 2 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 5 5	2 1 2 2 2 4 4 5 5 5 6 6 6 6 7 1 2 2 2 4 4 5 5 5 6 6 6 6 7 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
Average	7.98	2.48	5.27

We find one heavy Malabar pen, which might almost be made a separate type. The very short pen from Madura is of brass with an iron point and has its swelling hollow.

Four styles have been received with the swelling higher up the stem, one of which is represented in fig. 26. They are as follows:—

District of Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.
Kistna, Guntur 10807 Kistna 10861 Nellore 10764 Kistna, Bezwada 10843	9 1 4 10	31 41 23 41	61 61 64 8
Average	10:37	3.59	6.87

The upper parts of the first, second and last are made of brass.

Style No. 10766 (fig. 27) is a peculiar departure akin to the last. It was received from Nellore, weighs 13 oz., is 7 inches long, and its centre of gravity is 5 inches above the point.

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The last series on plate xx is composed of the following four figures :--

Style No. 10670, from the Malabar District. Style No. 10672, from South Canara. Style No. 10311, from the Malabar District. Style No. 10691, from the Malabar District. Type 16. Fig. 28.

Fig. 29. Type 16.

Type 16. Fig. 30.

Fig. 31. Type 17.

Heavy cigar-shaped styles, such as is figured as 28, come from Malabar: and if ornamented they Type 16. become like figs. 29 and 30, the first of which was received from South Canara, an adjoining District: otherwise the examples have all come from Malabar.

The weights and length of these pens are:—

District of Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.		
Malabar, Pannianur 10680 Malabar, Anjengo 10812 Malabar 10668 Malabar, Pannianur 10676 Malabar, Pannianur 10679 Malabar, Pannianur 10665 South Canara 10823 Malabar, Anjengo 10811 Malabar, Pannianur 10672 Malabar, Pannianur 10670	5518 7 1458 8 8 8 8 9 5 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	2 2 4 2 4 3 4 4 4 5 2 4 4 4 5 2 8 10 5	3 1 2 3 4 5 4 5 4 5 5 5 5 5 6 7 7 7 7		
Average	8.40	4.61	5.52		

We find in the same part of India styles that taper evenly from a flat head to the point (fig. 31). Type 17.

District of Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.		
Malabar	0814 71 0698 72 0693 91 0685 101 0691 12	31 21 41 51	51 46 63 7 83		
Average	9.25	6.22	6.52		

SECOND DIVISION.

Styles with a Knife edge associated.

The simplest forms of styles, with a knife blade worked on to them, are to be seen in figs. 32, 33, 34 and 35.

These four figures, 32-35, together with figure 36, make the first series on plate xxi:-

Style No. 10717, from South Arcot. Ftg. 32. Type 19.

Style No. 10748, from the Vizagapatam District. Style No. 10750, from the Vizagapatam District. Type 22. Fig. 33. Fig. 34. Fig. 35. Туре 20.

Style No. 10763, from the Nellore District. Type 21.

Style No. 10738, from Ganjam. Fig. 36. Type 23.

The simplest of all is style No. 10750 (fig. 34), from the district of Vizagapatam, which may be used as the starting point of a series. We may group the similar styles to be found in the Indian Museum Collection as follows:-

> Type 18, long thin style with straight blade. Vizagapatam, 10750 (fig. 34), and 10754.

Type 19, thin style, blade turned at an angle of about 30°, South Arcot, 10717 (fig. 32).

Type 20, thin style, blade sickle-shaped.

Vizagapatam, 10758 (not figured, is, as it were, an exaggeration of the next, fig. 35).

Type 21, very long, otherwise as type 21,

Nellore, 10763 (fig. 35).

Type 22, thin style, blade turned about at an angle of 90°, Vizagapatam, 10748 (fig. 33).

It is noteworthy that they all come from the Coromandel ('oast, whence come also the thin styles that have no knife blades attached.

The weight and length of these pens are as follows:—

District of Origin.	77			4000
District of	Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.
Vizagapatam Vizagapatam South Arcot Vizagapatam Nellore Vizagapatam	10748 10758 10717 10764 10764	7	1 2 3 5 1 1 2 4 4 5 4 4 5 4	41 31/4 5 6 91/9

Styles such as these just described, lead up to the very characteristic style of Orissa (fig. 36) which has a downwardly directly cutting edge, and an eye-hole by which it may be suspended. All Orissa styles of this type are very much alike, as a glance down the following table shows. Their use extends to Midnapur, Calcutta (among immigrant Uriyas), Ganjam and Vizagapatam.

District of Origin.		Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.		
Vizagapatam	10757	51	0 <u>a</u>	31		
Ganjam	10737	$6\frac{1}{2}$	2	48		
Ganjam	10744	$6\frac{1}{2}$	2	4.1		
Orissa	7240	$6\frac{1}{2}$	1	4.8		
Ganjam	10742	63	13	4 1		
Ganjam	10740	71	. 2	4 2		
Midnapur	4243	$\frac{7}{2}$	13	5 8		
Cuttack	491	<u>78</u>	15	5 1		
Ganjam	10736	7 3	1 8	58		
Ganjam	10735	77	2 4	. Dig		
Ganjam	10741	8	1 4	4 7		
Ganjam	10743	8	2}	54		
Vizagapatam	10752	8	2	54		
Ganjam	10739	81	15	5 g		
Cuttack	489	81	24	51		
Ganjam	10736	9រ៉	. 2	$5\frac{3}{4}$		
Average		7.44	1.79	4.96		

The second series of pens on plate xxi is made up of the following:—

Fig. 37. Type 24. Style No. 10687, from the district of Malabar. Fig. 38. Type 25. Style No. 10700, from the district of Malabar. Fig. 39. Type 26. Style No. 10821, from the district of Kurnool. Fig. 41. Type 28. Style No. 10820, from the district of Cuddapah.

The eye-holes of the Orissa styles reappear in styles of the same coast from Districts further south (vide figs. 40 and 41): but no styles from the Malabar coast exist in the Indian Museum which have these eye-holes in the knife blade. However, Malabar has supplied the style figured as fig. 37, which possesses two rows of six holes below the blade. This style is a long thin one such as one would have expected from the Districts of the Kistna or Kurnool, its weight is 6½ oz., its length 17 inches, and its centre of gravity is 10 inches from the tip.

Very like type 25 are two other styles from Malabar, one of which is figured as fig. 38. Their weight, length and the position of the centre of gravity are as follows:—

District o	of Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.
Malabar Malabar	10700 10702	13 13 \$	47 37 38	7 75

Type 26. The eastern coast and the District of Coimbatore have supplied type 26 (fig. 39).

District of Origin.		Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.		
Coimbatore Kistna Kurnool Kurnool	10663 10842 10819 10821	81 91 103 111	21 21 23 23 21	4 3 5 8 6 1 7 1		
Average	••	10.00	2.34	5.87		

Very similar but with two eye-holes (vide fig. 40).

District of Origin. Anantapur 10827		Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.		
Anantapur Kistna Kurnool Kistna	10827 10856 10820 10841	113 121 121 127	28 21 31 21	73 73 71 8		
Average	••	12.00	2.53	7.89		

The pen figured as fig. 41 differs from the last in having Type 28. two knife edges. It comes from Cudda-

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pah, its weight is 3 oz.; it is 14½ inches long, and has the centre of gravity 8½ inches from the tip.

The above completes the enumeration of the light styles with knife edges attached; and we proceed to the heavy styles with such knives. They fall into types by the shapes of the blade.

The third series of figures on plate xxi illustrates them.

Fig. 42. Type 29. Style No. 10684, from Malabar.

Fig. 43. Type 29. Style No. 10774, from Trichinopoly.

Fig. 44. Type 30. Style No. 10709, from Trichinopoly.

Fig. 45. Type 31. Style No. 10725, from Madura. Fig. 46. Type 32. Style No. 10795, from Chingleput.

Just as the heavy styles without knife-edges come from southern and western India, so do the heavy styles with knife-edges. The following enumerates those of the heavy series in which (as in fig. 42) the edge is straight.

District of Origin.		Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.		
Trichinopoly Tanjore Madura Tanjore Tanjore South Arcot Tanjore Chingleput Tanjore Malabar Malabar	10706 10770 10729 10777 10771 10780 10788 10798 10798 10692 10694	5608-4-3552-14-5274-54-4-53 7772-14-5274-54-4-53 8888-891111	21846454 13113 2215 2215 38	3 4 4 5 78 78 78 78 78 78 78 78 78 78 78 78 78		
Malabar Average	10688	$-\frac{16\frac{1}{2}}{9.06}$	$-\frac{7\frac{3}{8}}{3\cdot 43}$	9§ 5·67		

We pass on to those of the heavy series in which the blade is hooked (fig. 44). A table enumerating them is to be found on the next page.

The average length and weight of styles with hooked blades (type 30) is less than the average weight and styles with straight blades (type 29), as a consequence of Malabar supplying some characteristically heavy styles with straight

blades, and none with hooked blades: from a glance at the preceding table of the specimens of type 29, it will be observed that Malabar has supplied the four pens which are the heaviest.

District of Origin.		Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.
m	10770	63	11	
Tanjore Madura	10729	71	91	41
	10717	71	13	51
Tanjore	10771	7.5	1 1	5 8 5
Tanjore	10771	7 g	1 2	47
Tanjore		01	3	1 4 1
<u>T</u> anjore	10780	81	$\frac{3\frac{1}{2}}{2}$	9 8
Tanjore	10778	8 <u>1</u>	3	34
Trichinopoly	10774	<u> 8</u> ភូ	1 3	7.5
Trichinopoly	10709	9 %	314	61
Average		7.99	2.46	5.19

The blade again differs in the styles Type 31 and 32. figured as figs. 45 and 46.

District of Origin.	Length in Inches.	Weight in Ounces.	Distance in inches of the Centre of Gravity from the tip.
31 Madura 10725 Chingleput 10798 32 Chingleput 10795	8½	44	51
	8¾	23	51
	12½	33	78

THIRD DIVISION.

Clasp Knives.

The figures of this type are given on plate xxi.

Fig. 47. Type 33. Style No. 10659, from Coimbatore.

Fig. 48. Туре 34. Туре 36. Style No. 10826, from Chingleput.

Fig. 49. Style No. 10689, from Malabar.

The two common forms of styles constructed as claspknives are drawn in figs. 47 and 48. They vary in the shape of the blade: the shape of the style is always the same. The base of the style is always folded round the base of the blade.

Knives of the first type (fig. 47) with light brown wood handles have come from the Districts of Coimbatore, Madura, and Tinnevelly, with ebony handles from the Districts of Chingleput, South Arcot, Coimbatore, Salem, Tanjore and Madura, and with bone handles from the Districts of Coimbatore, Salem, Tanjore and Madura.

Knives of the second type with ebony handles have come from the Districts of North Arcot, Chingleput, South Arcot, Nellore and Trichinoply; and with bone handles from the Districts of Tri-

chinopoly.

Sometimes these knives, instead of the brass knob which is figured at the base in fig. 47, have a brass disc for a seal: sometimes they have a bone knob: but often they have nothing, as in fig. 48.

An European two-bladed knife, with one blade filed down to make a style, has been received from Salem: and a curious knife (fig. 49) has been received from Malabar, which has the style and blade in one piece, so that when one is sheathed the other must be unsheathed.

FOURTH DIVISION.

Circle Machines.

Last of all is to be figured the machine (fig. 50) for making circles, which can also be used for making parallel lines. Three such styles have been received: one from Madura (which is figured on plate xxi as fig. 50), one from South Arcot, and one from Salem.

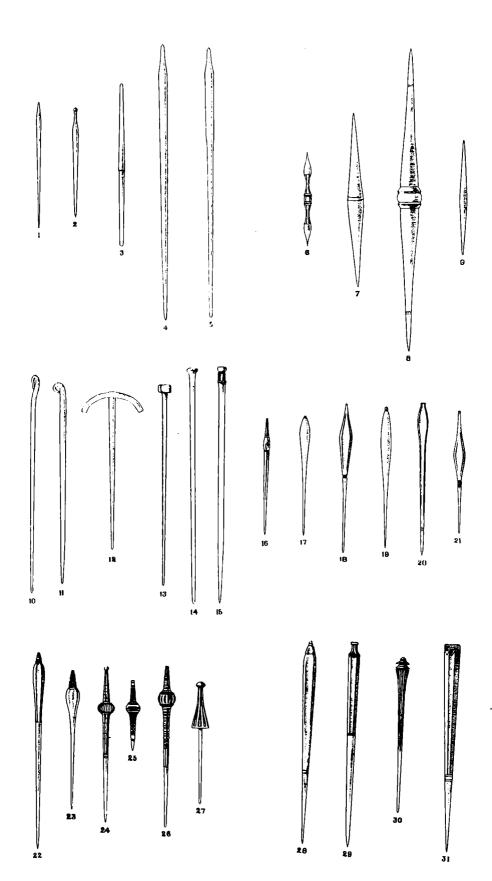
District o	f Origin.		Length in Inche	s. Weight in Ounces.
Salem South Arcot	,	10654 10718	33 5	i i
Madura		10731	5	Ş

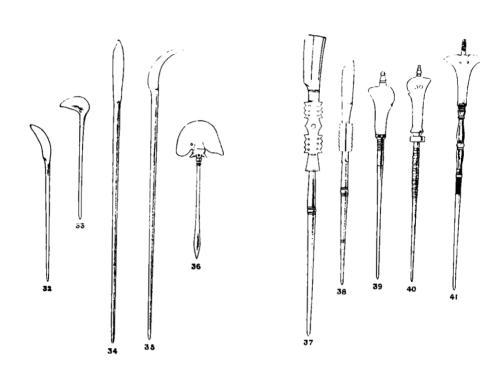
In conclusion, by way of bringing out clearly that the types of style are local, the following table has been drawn up:—

ì	Spirie Rods.	Type 1—Short, like a porcupine quill, (fig. 1)	towards type 10 (fig. 2)	Type 3—Longer (fig. 3)	Type 4—Longer still (figs. 4 and 5)	Double Styles. Type 5—Double-pointed short rods (fig. 6) Type 8—Very beavy Amble delta (fig. 6)	7 and 8)	WEIGHTED STYLES. Type 7—Thin and looped over (fine 10 and 11)	Type 8—T-shaped (fig. 12) Type 9—With a short head (fig. 13 14	and 15)	1 and 11 (fig. 16).
			<u>.</u> g, :	:	- <u>·</u> :			(figs.	: 1		} :
Origan.		· :	- <u>:</u> -	· :	<u>-</u> :	× :	· :	· :	:	······································	. · ·
Ganjam. Vizagapatam.	.			: 		×	: 	: 	×	•	· :
Godeveri.		:	:	X	× 	:			<u>:</u> 	_:	
Kietna.		×	<u>:</u>	<u>:</u>	×	:	:	×	<u>:</u>	×	_:
Каптооl.		<u>:</u>	:	:	×	:	:	:		×	
Bellary.		_:	:	_:	:	:	<u>:</u>	·	:	:	
Anentepur		:	:	:	:	:	:	:		:	
Cuddapah.		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
Nellore.		:	:	:	×		:	:		:	
North Aroot.		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
Chingleput.		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
South Arcot.		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	_:	_:	
Salem.		:	;	:	:	:	:		:	:	
·Vloqonidoi·T		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
.erojnaT		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
Madura.		•	:	:	:	•	:	:	:	:	
Tinnevelly.		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
Coimbatore.		:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	,
Meleber.		:	×	:	:	:	×	:	:	:	
South Canara		:	:	:	:	:	×	:	:	:	

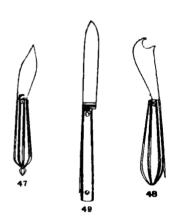
 X : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	٠, ،	Type 12—Intermediate between 11 and 9 (figs. 22 and 23) × ×	Type 13—Lance-shaped with a globose swelling (figs. 24 and 25)	Type 14—With the swelling near the top (fig. 26)	e 14, shape peculiar	d (figs. 28, 29 and 30)	Type 11—1apering eventy from a new end (fig. 31)	STYLES WITH KNIFE EDGE.	Type 18—Thin, with small straight blade (fig. 34)	Type 19—Thin, with bent blade (fig. 32)	., sickle blade	1 very long (fig. 35)	Type 22—11mn blade at a right angle (fg. 33)	ting style (fig. 36) × ×	Type Z= Long pen with Droad Suraignt	out without holes	Type 26—Lighter and less elaborate (fig. 39)
x:::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	 X : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		:	:	:	: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	:	:	:	; ;
x:::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x	×	×	×	× :	×	:	<u>:</u> :		:	:	:	<u>*</u>	:	:	:	:	:
x:::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x . x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :		:	:	:	:	:	· :			:	:	:	:	· :	· :	:	:
× : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	× : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x . x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :		:	:	:	:	:	:			×	:	- <u>:</u> 	: 	<u>:</u>	:	: 	_ : - <u>:</u>
		× : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x . x : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	×	:	:	:	:	:			:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
x . x : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	* : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	x:::::::::		×	:	×	:	:	×	<u>.</u> ×		:	:	:	:	:	:		×	:

	STYLES WITH KNIFE EDGE.—(Conid.)	Type 27-Similar but with 2 eye holes	(ng. 40) Type 28—Similar with double knife edge	(fig. 41)	Type 29—Heavy stout styles with straight knife edge (fig. 42)	Type 30—Heavy stout styles with hooked blade (fg. 44)	Type 31—Blade differing (fig. 45)	Type 32— ,, (fig. 46)	CLASP KNIFE.	Type 33—Clasp knife with straight blade (fig. 47)	Type 34—Clasp knife with half moon cut out of blade (fig. 48)	35-European clasp knife	1) pe sonine and style in one piece (fig. 49)	CIBOLE MACHINE. Type 37—(fig. 50)
	.geaiTO	2	:	- : - :	; 	: ਰ :	:	: :	-	e	: :		; •	
	Ganjam.		:	:	. !	:	:	:		:	:	:	:	:
	.casta qayasiV		:	:		:	:	:		:		:	:	:
	Godaveri.		:	:	;	:	:	:		:	:	:	•	
-	Kistna.	:	×	:	;	:	:	:		:	:	:	:	:
-	Karnool.		 K	:	:	:	:	:		:	:	:	:	•
-	Bellary.		:	:	:	•	:	:		:	:	:	:	:
-	Anantapur.		· <	<u>-</u> :	· :	. :	· :	_ <u>·</u> :		<u>-</u>	:		· :	:
	Cuddapah.		• :	· ×		· :	•	· :		- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	:	· · ·	<u>.</u> :	-
	North Aroot.			:	:	:	:	:			×	•		
-	Chingleput.		: ,	:	×		× .	× .		×	X	:	: 	:
_	South Arcot.		:	:	×	:	:	:		×	×	:		×
	Salam.		· 	:	_:	:	:	:		x	:	×	:	×
	Trichinopoly.		:	:	×	×	:	:		:	×	:	:	:
	.erojnaT		:	:	×	×	:	:		×		:	:	:
-	Madure.		:	:	×	×	×	•		×	:	:	:	×
-	.VllevenniT		:	:	:	:	:	:		×	:	:	:	:
-	Coimbatore.		:	:	:	:	:	;	٠	×	:	:	:	:
-	Malabar.		:	:	·	:	:	:		:	:	:	×	:









50

IRON STYLES, x i

2. On a probable identity between Clypeaster complanatus, Duncan and Sladen, and Clypeaster duncanensis, Noetling.

By HEM CHANDRA DAS-GUPTA.

1886. Clypcaster complanatus, Duncan and Sladen, in Pal. Ind., Ser. xiv., Vol. I., 3 fasc., v, p. 325, pl. L.
1901. Clypcaster duncanensis, Noetl., in Pal. Ind., New Ser., Vol. I., pt. 3, p. 105, pl. I, fig. 13.

While arranging the duplicates of Clypeaster described from the Indian Tertiaries I had an opportunity of studying Clupeaster duncanensis, Noetl., from the miocene beds Burma occurring at an 'unknown horizon near Prome.' Noetling believed this species to be quite different from any of the species previously described from Western India but compared it, among others, with Clypeaster complanatus. Dunc. and Slad. Dr. Noetling, however, thought that these two species could be distinguished by (1) the large size, (2) the small base and (3) the nature of the poriferous zones in the type from In plate I, fig. 13, of Dr. Noetling's monograph there is a restoration of the species, and on a careful examination of the restored figure two features stand out prominently. In the text it is mentioned that the length is greater than the breadth. but the length of the restored specimen is 100 mm. while that of the greatest breadth is 107 mm. Dr. Noetling's specimen which is in a fragmentary state shows parts only of the ambulacral petals III and IV and a very small portion of Va. careful measurement of the angles between the adjacent median-lines of the ambulacral petals as restored by Dr. Noetling gives the following results:—

Between	the median-lin	ne of I and	l that of	II .	. 40°	(a)
,,	,,	Ħ	,,	III .		
,,	,,	III	,,	IV.		
• •	,,	IV	,,		-	
,,	,,	V	,,	Ι.,	. 74°	(€)

In the measurements given above the differences between (a) and (δ) are very striking, showing clearly that the relative lines of the ambulacral petals must be quite different from what we find in the restored figure in Dr. Noetling's monograph.

Dr. Noetling lays a great stress on the large size attained by his species; but in the collection of Mr. Vredenburg from the Gaj beds of Rochro in Kelat (K 10. 630) there is a specimen of Clypeaster complanatus, Dunc. and Slad., which is intermediate between the Western Indian and the Burman types in size. One important character of Clypeaster complanatus is that the inner pores are round and the outer pores are oval. This distinction is also constant in Mr. Vredenburg's specimen, i.e., in those parts of the ambulacral zones which have escaped weathering. But many of the inner pores of the latter specimen are oval due to weathering, and on close inspection I find that a few of the pores lying in IIIb of Dr. Noetling's type are more rounded than oval, showing that those portions of the poriferous zones which are better preserved have retained more of their original form, and that originally the characters of the poriferous zones in Clypeaster complanatus and in C. duncanensis were alike.

It is clear that the restoration of this species, after Dr. Noetling, is open to modification: and the dimensions of (A) Duncan and Sladen's type of C. complanatus, (B) Mr. Vredenburg's specimen and (C) the Burman type as proposed to be restored by me, are given below:—

Dimensions in millimetres.

		A.	В.	C.
Length	(a)	 7 9	84	110
Breadth	(b)	 72	79	107
\mathbf{Base}	(c)	 4 7	53	74
I	(d)	 22	25	33
II	(d)	 22	25	3 3
III	(e)	 24	27	3 5

From the dimensions given above the following ratios are obtained:—

	Α.	В.	$\mathbf{C}.$
b:a	 0.91	0.94	0.97
c : b	 0.65	0.67	0.69
$\mathbf{d} : \mathbf{c}$	 0.51	0.47	0.44
$\mathbf{d} : \mathbf{e}$	 0.91	0.92	0.94

It may be mentioned in this connection that the Geological Survey collections contain a few duplicates of *C. complanatus*, but most of these are in a fragmentary state, and I could pick out from them only two capable of being measured, and they gave the following results in millimetres:—

			(i)	(ii)
Length	(a)		62	70
Breadth	(b)		55	63
Base	(c)	• •	3	41

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From these dimensions the following ratios are obtained:

	(1)	(U)
	 0.89	0.90
• • •	 Š	0.65
		0.89

These ratios show that with the growth of the test, the relative dimensions of the species in the different directions are a little variable.

The figures obtained for A, B and C, taken in consideration with the above remarks, clearly point out the probability of A, B and C as belonging to the same species. It may also be mentioned that the portion of the base that is preserved in Dr. Noetling's type indicates a slight convexity in the median interradial line with slight concavities on the two sides, a feature which is also found in C. complanatus.

From the foregoing considerations it appears to me that there is probably no specific difference between C. complanatus, Duncan and Sladen, and C. duncanensis, Noetl., and that the latter is only a large sized representative of the typical Gaj species with a base of about 74 mm., and that the specimen collected by Mr. Vredenburg from the province of Kelat is intermediate between these two.

3. Pre-Mughal Mosques of Bengal.

By Monmohan Chakravarti, M.A., B.L., M.R.A.S.

In the article on Bengali Temples ¹ I pointed out how the Hindu structures were influenced, and powerfully influenced, by old Bengali mosques. A few words on these buildings will not therefore be out of place, specially as I notice considerable confusion in the general notions about such mosques.

A.—EARLIEST MOSQUES.

Mosques had been built in Bengal from the very beginning of Moslem rule. Tabakāt-i-Nāṣiri mentions that mosques were erected in the capital Lakhaṇāwaṭi by the first Sultān Muḥammad-i-Bakhtyār (596-602 H.), and his successor Huṣām-ud-dīn 'Iwaẓ (612 ?-624 H.).² No building of their times has survived. The oldest existing inscription regarding the erection of a mosque in Bengal is that of Gaṇgārāmpūr in Māldā District. It bears the date 1st Maḥarram 647 H. (16th April, 1249 A.D.) in the time of the Sultān Jalāl-ul-haķ Ma'sūd Shāh Jāni.³ This mosque, too, is no longer traceable.

Of the existing mosques the oldest ones are found near Satgāon. The mosque of Jāfar Khān at Trivenī has an inscription, dated 698 H. (1298 A.D.), and is thus the oldest in Bengal. At Chota Pāṇduā the Bāradwārī appears to be another old mosque. It has lost its inscription, if any. Tradition ascribes it to the time of Shāh Safi-ud-dīn, said to be a contemporary of the aforesaid Jāfar Khān, and the architectural details resemble largely those of Jāfar Khān's mosque. These two may be briefly described as follows:—

1. Jāfar Khān's mosque of Trivenī. 698 H. Externally 76'·9" × 34'·7". In the hall, pillars partly buried in earth, ten in number, in two rows of five each, 6 to 8 ft. high, the front row hexagonal, the back row square and octagonal; openings on three sides, five in front, and two on each side (5+2+2), with unequal interspaces; back-wall with five prayer niches (corresponding to five

¹ J.A.S.B., 1909, pp. 148—150.

² Raverty's Translation, pp. 560, 583.

¹ Ar. Sur. Rep., xv., plate xxi; J.A.S.B., 1909, pp. 54-5.

front openings), of which the southernmost one is fallen with the roof. Above the stone pillars rise brick arches that originally held up ten low hemispherical domes, in two rows of five each, of which only seven now remain, the front five and the back two. Much of it in ruips.

[See the half-plan, fig. 1.]

2. Bāradwāri Mosque of Chota Pānduā,—1st quarter of the 14th century (?). Pānduā, Bāradwāri. ternally $231' \times 42'$. In the hall, pillars, 6 ft. high, 42, in two rows of 21 each, in varying size and shape, about half uncarved, the rest carved with garlands ending in bell, etc., some octagonal, others square at the base and octagonal above; openings 27 (21 + 3 + 3); in the back-wall 21 prayer niches or mihrabs corresponding to 21 openings in front, the niches well carved on the top and at the sides; above the pillars spring brick arches supporting 63 low hemispherical domes, in 3 rows of 21 each, many damaged; several carvings traceable on the front wall, though more or less dilapidated; in the N.W. corner a high masonry platform with a small room on it, said to have been the chillah $kh\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ or resting-house of the saint, but more likely the zenana portion. Much of it in ruins.

[See half-plan, fig. 2.]

Their architectural details reveal several peculiarities, due Hindu Influence. Partly to the age, and partly to the country. Though the general plan is Saracenic, the details are broadly Hinduistic. The carvings on the pillars, on the front wall, and round the prayer niches, are more or less copies of Hindu ornamentations, the tessellated garlands and the geometrical intertwinings being specially noticeable. The arches spring direct from the pillars, without any pendentivis, thus differing from Saracenic examples. The domes are also built up of concentric rings of bricks, one ring above the other, each becoming smaller and smaller in circumference, until the top opening is closed by a stone, just as in Hindu towers built on horizontal arches.

This Hindu influence is quite natural. During the first century of Moslem rule, the governors and their chief amirs were mostly Turks, hardy, active soldiers, but rude and illiterate. For the practice of their religion, prayer-places were a necessity; but they had not sufficient taste or attainments to build them by themselves, or even to supervise their construction properly. They had to depend almost entirely on Hindu

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artisans for construction; and for materials they utilised the fragments of Hindu temples they had demolished. The result was this curious superposition of Hindu details on general

Saracenic plans.

Another peculiarity is the prevalence of bricks. In the plains of Bengal no stone can be had Prevalence of Bricks. anywhere, and if required had to be brought from long distances, chiefly by water. Hence stones were very sparingly used. The bricks made from stiff clav of the plains were fairly lasting and far cheaper, and could further at a small cost be moulded into various neat carvings. Hence in the Bengal mosques bricks practically superseded stones as building material. Its effect was that the mosques became more and more long with numerous domes and a profusion of carvings, but they could not be made high, with correspondingly imposing openings. The domes were also low in height, in the earliest mosques partly from the use of horizontal arches. The pillars were of stone; but even they, from scarcity of this material, had to be made sufficiently low. pillars were usually of Rajamahal basalt. In some of the largest mosques of later times, the walls were up to a certain height faced with stones.

B.—LATER Mosques.

About 1338 A.D., Bengal became independent, and this independence lasted for nearly two cen-Later Mosques. turies and a half. Under the independent Sultans a large number of mosques came to be built in various parts of the province. Architectural art was more and more developed; and in course of time a special style was developed showing various peculiarities both in the general plan and in the details. Among such peculiarities may be mentioned curved battlements, four corner towers octagonal and rising just above the battlement, many low domes without any base of cylindrical drum, height low in comparison with length, and in consequence openings generally insignificant, a profusion of brick carvings and in several instances of fine glazed tiles. The best specimens of the style are naturally found in the two capitals, Gaur and Pandua. But notable examples lie scattered in and near Satgaon, Sunargaon, Khalifatābad, Devīkot and elsewhere. The earliest examples have disappeared. At present the oldest and the most imposing of them is the Adinah mosque of Hazrat Pandua bearing the date Rajab 776 H. or December 1374 A.D.

It is a matter of great regret that most of these mosques are more or less in ruins. A careful examination of their remains enables us, however, to group them into two broad divisions.

- (a) One-domed cubes, and
- (β) Many-domed parallelopipeds.

The first group is the simpler, having among other pecu-Cubical Mosques. liarities the following:—

- i. The halls have no internal pillars;
- ii. The halls are square in ground-plan, usually changing into octagonal above;
- iii. The roof has one dome; and where a corridor exists, usually with three more small domes over the corridor.

The presence or absence of the corridor subdivides this group into two sections. The better-known specimens may be described briefly as follows:—

- a. corridorless.
- (a) Those without a corridor—
- (1) The mosque at Mollā Simla, S'rīrāmpur subdivision, Huglī. Date uncertain; according to Blochmann, 777 H., but architecturally not earlier than the second half of the ninth century H. Internally 17 ft. sq. (externally 24 ft.); in the backwall three mihrābs, with a pulpit between the second and third niches; one door in the front wall, and two smaller side doors in the side walls; four octagonal corner towers, each face with a diameter of one foot; plastering fallen from S.W. corner of the outside (back wall) and showing thin bricks, $6\frac{3}{4}$ " × $3\frac{1}{2}$ " × $1\frac{3}{4}$ "; back wall buried a little at the base, the remaining height 15 6".

[See PHOTOGRAPH AND PLAN, figs. 3 and 4].

- (2) The smaller mosque at Chota Pānduā, Huglî, 1st Maḥarram, 882 H. (15th April, 1477 A.D.). 25½ ft. sq.; three miḥrābs in the back wall; five openings (3+1+1); four polygonal corner towers.
- (3) Purāni mosque at Goāldihi, Sunārgāon, 925 H. (1519 A D.). 16½ ft. sq.: in the back wall three semi-octagonal niches; and in each side wall two rectangular niches; five openings (3+1+1); four octagonal corner towers.
- b. With a corridor. (b) Those with a corridor in front.
 - (3) The mosque at Gopālgañj, Dinājpur, 16th Safar, 865 H. (1st December, 1460 A.D.). Hall 12 ft. sq. internally; corridor $12' \times 5\frac{1}{2}'$; hall openings five (3+1+1) and corridor openings five (3+1+1); in the back wall three niches; outer archways 6 ft. high and 28" wide; the wall faced with hewn stones up to a little below the arch-springs.

- (4) Chāmkatti mosque, Gaur. Inscription lost, 880 H. (?) or 1475 A.D. Hall 23.8" sq. (externally 50'.4" × 34'.10"); one bay in the back-wall; both hall and corridor, have each five openings (3+1+1); no domes over the corridor; four octagonal corner towers; wall face divided into panels, ornamented with chain and bell, and bordered with glazed tiles.
- (5) Lattan mosque, Gaur. Inscription lost, 880 H.(?) or 1475 A.D. Hall 34 ft. sq (74½ × 51'); hall openings nine (3+3+3) and corridor openings five (3+1+1); 3 bays in the back-wall; corner towers six, four on four sides of the hall and two on the front side of the corridor; three small domes on the corridor; the whole wall surface, inside and outside, covered with beautiful glazed tiles.

(6) The mosque at Kheraul, Murshidābād. 900 H. (1594-5 A.D.). Three bays in the back wall; three small domes over the corridor.

(7) Rukn Khān's mosque at Devīkot, Dinājpur. 918 H. (1512 A.D.). Hall 26' 10" sq. with walls 5' 9" thick; one niche highly ornamented; domes gone; the lower part of the wall of coarse grey stone.

The mosque at Mollā Simlā (No. I) has not been described before. The place is three quarter of a mile south of the new station Nasibpur in the Tārakeswar branch line of the East Indian Railway. The building stands close to the Sarasvatī river. It must have been built at a time when the place flourished as a bandar (port), having been situated on the junction of the Sarasvatī with some large creek of the Hugli river. Excavations now and then bring to light thin bricks of the old time and remains of masonry platforms.

The mosque has lost its inscription, if any. It was repaired from time to time, but the general plan does not appear to have been materially changed. In front of the mosque, i.e., to its east, is the tomb of the saint Shāh Anwar Kuli Halibi; and over the doorway of the latter is fixed an Arabic inscription recording the erection of a mosque in 777 H. (1475 A.D.). Blochmann takes this date to be that of the present one. Architecturally, however, the existing mosque belongs to a group, which were built only within a limited time, 865 to 925 H.; and no details can be found to antedate it by nearly a century. Traditions, curiously enough, postdate its erection to 1001 H.

According to local traditions, the mosque was built by a merchant. His boat while passing in the Sarasvatī was about to be drowned; he prayed to the local saint for help, and the

boat was miraculously saved; in gratitude the merchant caused this mosque to be built close to the saint's dargah. The saint is said to have been the son of a padshah, and to have wandered on to the place as a fakir. Two of his resting-places, nazargahs, are still pointed out, one at Burigan, two and a half miles west, and the other at Titagarh on the other side of the Hughi river. Various quaint legends are told of his power. Cocoanut trees bowed their heads before him and offered him fruit as tribute. A Hindu barber used to shave him. One day he noticed the right hand of the saint all of a sudden became wet. He asked the saint, who told him that just then he had heard a merchant's prayer for saving his sinking boat, and had raised the boat up. One day the saint picked up some earth, and putting it into the barber's hand, ordered him not to open the fist until he reached his home. When half-way, the barber's curiosity overcame his prudence. He opened the palm and found half the earth had been turned into gold.

The many-domed parallelopiped is the more common Peculiarities of Parallelopipeds. variety, and contains the best specimens of Bengali mosques. In this group:—

(1) The halls are oblong (not square);

(2) They are divided into aisles by free pillars which

support the dome arches;

(3) The back-wall is cut into several prayer-niches, three, five or eleven in number corresponding to as many front openings, or subdivided into a central nave and two wings, the nave being separated from the wings by thicker pillars;

(4) The roof-domes are many, corresponding to the

inter-spaces between the internal pillars.

Their brief description.

According to the number of the bays or prayer-niches, this group may be further subdivided.

(a) Those with three bays-

(1) Bābā Ādam's mosque, Vikrampur. Middle of Rajab, 888 H. (August 1483 A.D.). Hall 34' × 22\frac{3}{2}' (externally 43' × 36'); two aisles formed by one row of two octagonal stone pillars; two rectangular niches on each side wall; three openings all in front; four octagonal corner towers; six domes, in two rows of three each.

(2) Jalal-ud-din's mosque at Satgaon, Hugli. Ramazan, 936 H. (May 1529 A.D.). In ruins; the north bay smaller than the other two; six domes.

(3) Majlis Sāheb's mosque at Kālnā, Bardwān. Inscription lost. Hall, internally 75'.9" × 25'.3"; four (?) stone pillars; the two side bays provided with

platforms (for zenānā?); ten domes, in two rows of five each.

(4) Masjidkūr mosque, Khulnā. Inscription lost (10th century H.?). Hall, four pillars in two rows; three domes.

(5) Kasbā mosque, Bākhargañj. Inscription lost. Hall, four pillars in two rows; openings five (3 + 1 + 1); four corner towers of which three are fallen; nine domes in three rows of each.

(6) Kusumbhā mosque, Rājshāhi. Inscription not yet published. Hall, two (?) pillars in one row; openings five (3+1+1); a platform in the north bay (for zenānā?); six domes in two equal rows.

(7) Salik mosque at Bashirhāt, 24-Parganās. Date of inscription over the central mihrab not legible. Said to have been built by one 'Alā-ud-dīn in 1305 A.D., but architecturally much later. Hall, 36' × 24'; two stone pillars in a row 8 feet high, carved; three mihrabs; three front openings; two windows in each side wall with a niche between; six domes in two equal rows.

(b) Those with five bays—

(8) Tāntipārā mosque, Gaur. Inscription lost, 885 H.(?) 1480 A.D. Hall, 78' × 31' (externally 91' × 43½'); four square pillars in one row; openings nine (5+2+2); four octagonal corner towers; ten domes in two equal rows; outer wall-face ornamented with large panels flower-bordered and containing pointed arches under which is a bell hung by a chain; towers similarly ornamented. "The finest of all the buildings now remaining in Gaur" (Cunningham).

(9) Chota Sonā mosque, Fīrozpur suburb, Gaur. Inscription of Husen Shāh's time (899-925 H.), the

Translation:—"No God there is but He; and Muḥammad is His prophet" (creed). This mosque built by the great and the liberal Majlis, Majlis-i-A'zanı—May his greatness be perpetuated!—in the year eight hundred seventy one (1466-7 A.D.). "The great and liberal Majlis. Ulugh Majlis-i-A'zanı" is also mentioned in the inscription of the cubical mosque (No. 2), of Chota Pāṇduā, Huglī, dated 1st Maharram. 882 H., J.A.S.B., 1873, p. 276.

l Since writing this article, Moulvie Hamidul Huk, a matwalli of the mosque, has sent me a rubbing of the inscription taken by Babu R. D. Banerjea (see fig. 5). This Arabic inscription is in two lines, written in Tughra characters, and reads as follows:—

Lā ilāhā illillā Muḥammada-r-rasūl-Alla. Bane hāzal masjid-ul-Majlis =

 ⁻ul-muazzam-wal mukarram Majlis-i-A'zam dāmut azimutho. San aḥadā + subinā samanamāyata.

year being lost. Hall, $70'\cdot4'' \times 40'\cdot9''$ (externally $82\frac{1}{2}' \times 52'$); eight square pillars in two rows of four each; openings eleven (5+3+3); the bay in the N.W. corner in two storeys, the upper room screened with trellis-work for ladies; four octagonal corner towers; on the roof fourteen domes in three rows (besides the upper story room), the domes being of different heights diminishing from the centre to the end; interior covered with carvings and gilded; doorways and interdoorway niches bordered with broad bands of ornaments; wall of bricks with outside facings of stones up to the springing of arches.

(10) Bāghā mosque, Rājshāhi. 930 H. (1523—4 A.D.). Dimensions nearly the same as those of Tāntipārā (No. 8). Hall, four square pillars in a row; openings nine (5+2+2); the fourth bay occupied by the pulpit and the fifth bay in the N.W. corner has a smaller mihrāb with a platform (for zenānā?); ten domes in two equal rows, more or less broken; brick wall, adorned inside and outside with many ornamentations.

(11) Hemtābād mosque, Dinājpur. 906 H. (1500-1 A.D.).

Hall, eight pillars in two rows; openings eleven (5+3+3); the central bay largest; domes 15(?).

(c) Those with eleven bays—

- (12) Sātgumbaz mosque, near Bāgerhāt, Khulnā. Inscription lost, 9th century H. (?). Hall, 144' × 96' (externally 160' × 105'); twelve square stone pillars in two rows of six each, 8 ft. high; openings twenty-five (11+7+7); one door let through the bay to the right of the central, and in the central aisle two small brick platforms of which one near the prayer niche being probably for pulpit and the other for zenana (?); four corner towers; seventy domes in ten rows of seven each, besides one row of seven vaults over the central aisle.
- (13) Bara Sonā mosque, Gaur. 932 H. (1526 A.D.). Hall with a corridor in front, externally 168' × 76'. Hall divided into three long aisles by twenty square pillars in two rows of ten each, and separated from a long corridor by another row of ten thicker pillars. Main hall openings seventeen (11+3+3), and the corridor openings thirteen (11+1+1). The three bays in the N.W. corner occupied by a two-storeyed structure, the upper room of which is screened off for ladies.

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Eleven domes over the corridor, and some thirty over the hall in three rows. Six thin octagonal pinnacle-crowned minarets, four for the hall and two for the corridor. Walls of brick faced with stones, both inside and outside, up to a height of about 20 ft.; probably gilded inside. Three large gateways of the compound, $38\frac{1}{2} \times 13\frac{1}{2}$ each, faced with stone and ornamented with flowers in glazed tiles of different colours.

- (d) Those in which the bays are divided into a central nave and two wings.
 - (14) Adinah mosque, Hazrat Pānduā, Māldā. 776 H. (?),
 December, 1374 A.D. The largest and the most
 imposing mosque in Eastern India. For fuller
 descriptions, see Buchanan in Martin's Eastern
 India, vol. ii, Cunningham in Archæological Survey
 Report of India, vol. xv, and Ravenshaw's Gaur.

Externally 507½ × 285½ with a courtyard of 397' × 159' surrounded by cloisters. The cloisters on the west side form the prayer hall and are five aisles deep: those on the other three sides are only three aisles deep. In the centre of the prayer-hall is the nave, $64'\cdot 4'' \times 33' \cdot 82\frac{1}{2}$," made up in the back-wall of two bays, with a pulpit to the north of the northern bay. The wing to the south has 18 bays with 68 pillars in four rows of 17 each. The wing to the north had 18 bays; but has now a door let through the first bay (beginning from the south), while the bays 3rd to 8th are occupied by a raised two-stoned platform $P\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h\cdot k\bar{a}\cdot takht$, and three doors let through the 6th to 8th bays. The nave is accessible from the courtyard by a wide opening, 33 ft. in span and more than 60 ft. high; while each wing has fifteen openings into the courtyard. The nave is separate from the wings by two sets of four thick pillars. The ordinary pillars are 10 ft. high and 18 inches in diameter, except those below the $P\bar{a}dsh\bar{a}h-k\bar{a}-ta\underline{k}ht$ which are octagonal and thicker, 31 ft. in diameter. The wall is of plain stone up to 12 ft. and of brick above, of which some 20 ft. is elaborately carved. The doors are in comparison with length insignificant. The roof over the nave was a long vault; and over the cloisters the roof had no less than 378 small domes. vault and most of the small domes have fallen: and scores of the tall stone pillars have disappeared. No corner towers visible. This mosque is said to have been built after the celebrated

mosque of Damascus.

mosque, Gaur. (15) Gunmant Inscription 88) H. (?), 1484 A.D. Hall with a corridor-Hall, externally $140' \cdot 9'' \times 59' \cdot 3^3$, and the corridor from its remains appears to have been a long one. about 18 ft. wide. The hall is divided into a central nave $51' \times 16' \cdot 10''$ and two wings, the nave being separated from each wing by two octagonal pillars, 4½ ft. square at the base. In each wing are eight square pillars in two rows of four each. In the back wall are nine bays, one for the nave and four for each wing. Including the wide opening of the nave, the hall had nine openings in front, besides three openings on each side (9+3+3 or 15). The nave is covered by a ribbed vault with gable ends, and each wing by twelve hemispherical domes. The lower part of the walls up to the springing of the arches is of stones, rough blocks inside with cut facings. The brick walls faced with glazed tiles. In ruins now.

C.—PECULIAR MOSQUES.

Under this head fall the peculiar structures known as Kadam Rasul. Strictly they are not Kadem Rasül Buildmosques, but places sanctified by the ings. presence of prophet's footprints. Hence they do not contain prayer-inches. Kadam Rasūl buildings have been erected at various places in Bengal, e.g., near Murshidabad, at Katak and Balasore in Orissa, in Sunargaon and Nabigañi (Dacca), and elsewhere; but with one exception none of them appears to be pre-Mughal. The only exception is that at Gaur built in 937 H. (1530 A.D.). It consists of a threedoored hall, 25'·2" × 15', with a verandah on three sides, 9'·2" The verandah has three arched openings in front and one on each side or five in all (3+1+1). At each corner stands an octagonal tower, with the diameter of each face, 1'5" wide. According to traditions the sacred foot-print had been brought originally to Pānduā by Shāh Jalāl-ud-dīn Tabrizi; and these traditions must be pretty old, as in an unique gold coin of Fath Shah dated 890 H., the saint is described as "the Shaikh that waits on the Kadam Rasul." From Pandua the footprints were removed to Gaur, and were enshrined in this large edifice built by Sultan Nasrat Shah.

The simplest form of prayer-place is the *Idgah*, a masonry wall with prayer niches, facing which the Idgahe. Musalman prays, kneeling on a platform. No existing Idgah can be traced to the pre-Mughal time.

The dates of the existing mosques clearly show that the Bengal style was created and developed by three dynasties, the dynasty of Ilyās Shāh, of Maḥmūd Shāh, and of Huṣen Shāh. Among the Sultāns, Sikandar Shāh of the first dynasty, Bārbak and his son Yusūf of the second, and Huṣen and his son Naṣrat of the third dynasty stand out prominent as great mosque builders. The Adinah mosque is the only remains of Sikandar's time, surviving on account of the solidity of its construction. During the time of the other two dynasties Gaur was adorned with numerous mosques and other buildings, rivalling in splendour those of imperial Delhi.

It must be evident that architectural progress went on so long as Bengal remained independent. Architectural changes Under Mughal subjection, local skill and under Mughal Rule. enterprise declined seriously. With governors removable at pleasure, with the surplus incomes all drawn into the Emperor's coffers or misappropriated by the local authorities, with the best artisans attracted to the great capitals Agrā and Delhi, thus decline is inevitable. A few mosques were built in the headquarters by princely governors; viz., by Mansingh and Shah Sujah at Raimahal, by Shaista Khan and prince Azimus-shān at Dacca, or by the practically independent Nabāb Nāzims at Murshidābad. But they are, more or less, the reflex of the imperial glory imitations as a rule, and not even good imitations. Among the changes in the general plan may be noticed domes bulbous (not hemispherical), slender round minarets rising high crowned with pinnacles (not thick octagonal towers rising just above the battlement), larger and more imposing openings and doorways, with the arch-openings semi-circular (and not stilted or pointed).

¹ About these dynasties, see my article on Gaur and other Old Places in Bengal, J.A.S.B., 1909, pp. 204-211, 218-223.

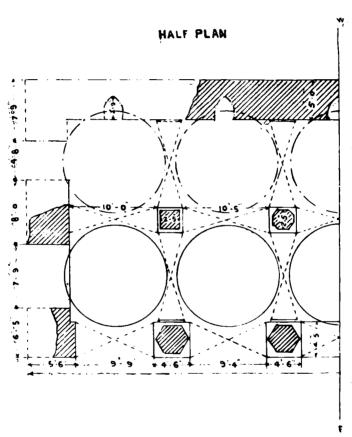
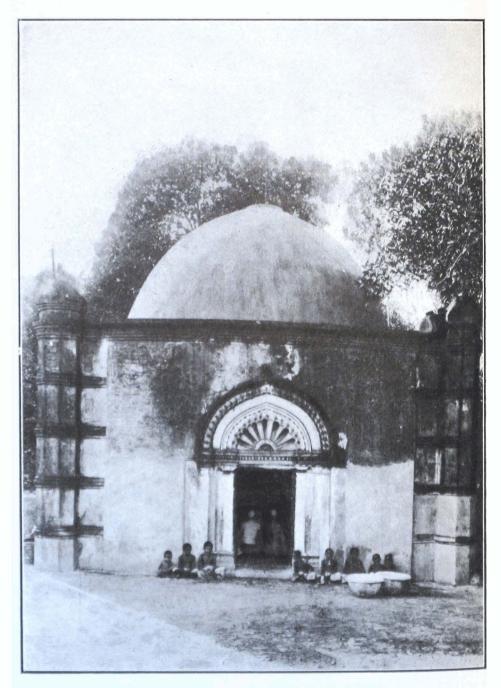


Fig. 1.—The Mosque at Triveni, Hugli, 10 ft.=1".

Fig. 2.—The Baradwari Mosque at Pāṇḍuā, Hugli, '10 ft. = 1".



Frg. 3.—Old Mosque at Mollā Simlā, Huglī.

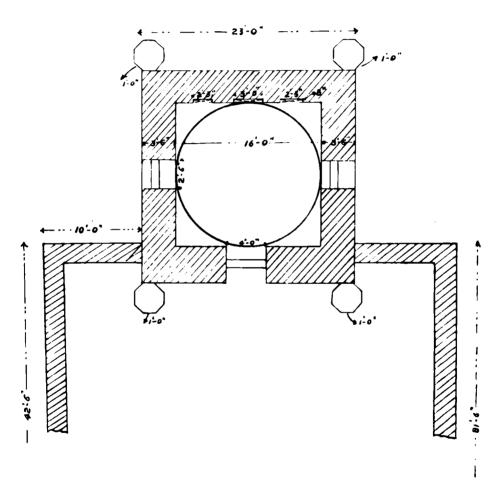


Fig. 4.—Plan of the Old Mosque at Molla Simla, Hugli, 8 ft.=1".



4. On the Experimental Determination of the Electro-Chemical Equivalent of Nickel.1

By S. N. MAITRA, M.A.

Formerly Government Research Scholar, Presidency College; Lecturer and Demonstrator in Physics, Presidency College, Calcutta.

The following research was undertaken as a preliminary to the accurate investigation of the effect of a magnetic field on electrolytes of magnetic metals. Nickel was the metal chosen for the present experiments, iron being undesirable on account of the readily oxidizable character of its deposits and solutions as well as its distinct double valency.

Previous Observations.

It has long been known that, during electrolysis of the magnetic metals, iron, nickel and cobalt, hydrogen is liberated at the cathode along with the metals themselves even from perfectly neutral solutions. Hittorf,2 who was the pioneer in the investigation of these and similar complicated cases of mixed conduction, found that, in consequence, the amount of these metals deposited was not by any means that which might have been expected from Faraday's laws. He ascribed the discrepancy to secondary reactions, some of which were too complicated to be got rid of at all easily. For instance, when investigating the effect of the temperature of an electrolyte on the amount of the metal deposited, he found that with nickel sulphate more metal is separated from a hot than from a cold solution, and that even at the same temperature the amount of deposit varies considerably.

Values given by Hittorf as well as other observers show how widely the e. c. e.'s vary from one another as well as from the theoretical value as given by the product of the e.c.e. of hydrogen and the ratio of the atomic weight and valency of nickel.

It appears that on account of these complications the values of the e.c.e. of nickel which are given in text-books are merely those which have been calculated from a knowledge of the atomic weight and valency.⁵

² Ann. Chim. Phys., lxxxix, 1853; also Dr. Alfred Coehn, in Electrotechnische Zeitschrift, 1891, p. 497.

3 Merrick in Journ. Chem. Soc., xi., p. 204; also in Chem. News, xxvi. p. 209.

¹ Being the Elliot Prize Essay for original research for 1904, awarded by the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

Object of Present Experiments.

The main object of this paper is to show that the matter is not by any means so complicated as it at first appears, and that it is possible to prescribe simple conditions under which a single experiment lasting for a quarter of an hour will give a value of the e.c.e., not differing from the mean of a large number of similar experiments by more than four parts in a thousand, the mean also agreeing very closely with the value of the e.c.e., which is usually adopted. It also appears probable that if special attention be paid to the chemical purity of the materials used, it will be possible to give a value of the atomic weight of nickel with considerably greater accuracy than one which can be expected from the purely chemical processes of investigation which have hitherto been used.

The work recorded below may be conveniently divided into two parts. Part I is an investigation into the nature and causes of the variations in the experimental value of the e.c.e. of nickel. Part II gives a gradual development of the method of successfully arresting these variations and of securing a steady value for the e.c.e. of nickel, agreeing within a very close limit with the value deduced from

Faraday's law.

PART I.

Preliminary Experiments.

The voltameter used in these experiments consisted of a glass reservoir with a pair of nickel plates suspended parallel to each other by means of adjustable clamps. A Kelvin Centi-Ampere balance, previously standardized with a silver voltameter, was used with a carbon rheostat to regulate the current. The current values easily agreed to within one part in a thousand. Both the cathode and anode were polished rectangular plates of nickel (10 c. m. × 4 c. m.), the area immersed being about 35 sq. c. m. Borda's method of double weighing was used in weighing these plates.² The temperature of the room was about 25°C on the average.

The double sulphate of nickel and ammonium was the first salt tried. Observations were made with different strengths of aqueous solutions and for various values of current between 2 to 1.2 amperes. The deposit was generally good, but a rapid

The sensibility of the balance was II divisions per milligramme

for a load of 70 grms, on the scale pans.

¹ Russell in Journ. Chem. Soc., 2. i., 1863, p. 58:—58. 59m. Russell in ibid 2. vii.. 1869, p. 292:—58.56. Schneider in Pogg. Ann., ci., 1857. p. 387:—57.90. Dumas in Ann. Chim. Phys., ser. 3. lv., 1859. p. 129:—58.87. Winkler in Zeit. Ann. Chem., vi., 1867, p. 22:—58.83. Winkler in Zeit. Anorg. Chem., iv., 1893, p. 462, also viii., 1894, p. 281:—58.60 or 58:42. Richards and Chusman in Zeit. Anorg. Chem., xx., 1899, p. 352:—58.25.

disengagement of gases with an unpleasant smell took place from the surface of both the electrodes, especially from the Cathode, and the value of the e.c.e.'s as determined from the deposits were much lower than the theoretical value '0003043. The best value obtained was '0002528. Saturated solutions gave no better results.

As it was thought that the complexity of the action in nickel ammonium sulphate might be the cause of the bad results, sulphate of nickel was the next salt worked with. At first a weak solution of the salt was taken, but the disengagement of gases, though much less than with the double sulphate, was still considerable. Strong solutions gave slightly better results. Lowering the difference of potentials between the plates reduced the evolution of gases, but owing to the high electrolytic resistance of nickel sulphate the current fell too low for accurate measurements with the apparatus employed.

Effect of Purity of the Salt.

The e.c.e.'s obtained in these preliminary experiments were much below the theoretical value and differed widely from one another. In every case there was copious evolution of gas from both the plates.

As these experiments showed that there was no prospect of getting constant values for the e.c.e., by means of small variations of current and voltage alone, attention was drawn to the materials employed.

The nickel sulphate crystals in stock were purified by repeated crystallisations. Two separate solutions were thus prepared, one the "pure stuff" consisting of the first few crops of crystals dissolved in distilled water, the other, the "impure stuff", i.e., the mother liquor left after the removal of the several crops of crystals. (S. G. of pure stuff 1:318 at 24'8 C., volume 216 c. c. S. G. of impure stuff 1:306 at 24°8 C., volume 750 c. c.).

It may be mentioned here that all the crystals obtained were of the prismatic or neutral type except those of the last crop, which were thrown down as the pyramidal or acid variety. These latter were not added to the "pure stuff" but redissolved in the mother liquor with addition of a little distilled water, and the process of separation by crystallisations was not continued any further. The last set of crystals gave an important clue as to the acid character of the mother liquor, i.e., the "impure stuff", an indication which was subsequently found very useful. A number of observations were made with both the stuffs in order to examine the effect of purification by crystallisation.

It was found that a much better value of the e.c.e. was obtained with the pure than with the impure solution. The

bubbling of gases though still noticeable, was considerably re-

duced, especially that from the cathode.

The acid character of the impure stuff, as guessed by the pyramidal crystals it had yielded, was naturally supposed to be associated with the very much larger quantity of gas which was evolved at the time of electrolysis. Both the solutions were, at this stage, tested for acid. The impure stuff was found to be strongly acid on chemical examination, the pure stuff only gave a slight acid reaction.

In order to examine whether the acid character of the solutions was the cause of the effervescence at the time of electrolysis and of the low values of the e.c.e., both the solutions were treated with precipitated Nickel Carbonate and filtered.

Experiments were now repeated with these neutralized solutions with a view to see if the absence of acid would also be marked by a corresponding disappearance or diminution of gaseous evolutions at the electrodes, as well as by a larger amount of deposit on the cathode, giving thereby a higher value of the e.c.e.

Results.

The evolution of gases was found to be considerably reduced in the impure solution at the first electrolysis after treatment with Nickel Carbonate. Only very minute bubbles appeared at the cathode; at the anode the evolution of gas was: still fairly large though much reduced. In the pure solution no difference was perceptible.

The impure stuff gave a value more than double its value before neutralization, better even than the one given by the pure stuff. The value, however, fell steadly on repeated electrolysis, being successively:—

 $\begin{array}{lll} \mbox{Before treatment:} & \cdot 000127 \\ \mbox{After treatment:} & \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \cdot 0002770 - 1 \mbox{st electrolysis.} \\ \cdot 0002406 - 2 \mbox{nd electrolysis.} \\ \cdot 0001666 - 3 \mbox{rd electrolysis.} \end{array} \right. \end{array}$

The pure stuff did not show any improvement at all. On the contrary the values were not quite so good as before, and the fall in successive experiments was even more marked and accompanied by a distinctly brisker evolution of gases.

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{Before treatment:-} & 0002590 \\ \text{After treatment:-} & \begin{cases} 0002359 - 1 \text{st electrolysis.} \\ 0001507 - 2 \text{nd electrolysis.} \end{cases} \end{array}$

The condition as regards time, current and temperature were almost the same throughout this series, yet the variations in the value of the e.c.e. are extremely large.

An attempt to interpret these discordant results may not, perhaps, be out of place here before proceeding to bring further experiments to bear upon such variations. The results obtained in the preceding experiments leave little room for doubt that the presence of free acid in the electrolyte was responsible for the anomolous values of the e.c.e., and that they went down steadily with increased production of acid in the voltameter, each time the liquid was electrolysed.

It appeared extremely probable that the comparative insolubility of the nickel anode was at the root of the irregularities. The sulphions, failing to dissolve the anode as readily as with silver and copper for instance, combined with water to form sulphuric acid. A gradual fall of the e.c.e. at each successive electrolysis and a simultaneous accumulation of acid thus seem to be closely allied phenomena, while the removal of of the acid by neutralization with the carbonate, accompanied by a corresponding set of higher values of the e.c.e. as obtained with the impure solution proved conclusively enough that the presence of the acid developed was the immediate cause of these discrepancies.

Since the amount of free acid produced may be taken to be proportional to the quantity of electricity passed through the solution, it is clear that, other conditions remaining the same, more acid was developed in the pure solution when it was electrolysed after treatment with Nickel Carbonate with a current '9396 ampere than before, when the current value was '9144 ampere, the solution being neutral to start with in either case. This will account for the worse result with the pure stuff as pointed out above.

An explanation of the slower rate of fall in the values for the impure stuff, though not quite clear at first sight, will be so on the following considerations.

The total volume (750 c. c.) of the impure solution was much greater than that of the pure stuff (216 c. c.), though equal volumes from each (160 c. c.) were taken for the experiments. After each electrolysis the solutions were put back into their respective stock bottles. The result was that the amount of acid liberated in an experiment became diluted (very largely so in the case of the impure stuff) in the bottles before the solutions were electrolised for the next time. The larger dilution of the acid in the impure stuff very much enfeebled its effect at the time of experiment, and the fall in the value of the e.c.e. was therefore much slower in consequence.

Effect of Repeated Electrolysis.

To examine more systematically the cumulative effect of the acid generated during electrolysis, experiments were made as follows. The nickel plates used in previous experiments were thickly electro-plated with nickel to ensure their purity. A fresh quantity of nickel sulphate solution was prepared from purified crystals, digested with nickel carbonate and filtered. Specific gravity of the neutral solution was found to be 1.336 at 18 C. The volume of solution taken for the experiments was 160 c. c. The same quantity was electrolised twenty times in succession for known intervals of time. Observations were taken at the end of each experiment both for cathode gain and anode loss, and the corresponding e.c.e.'s were determined from the two sets of data. The results are given below.

Table I.

Effect of successive determination on a given Solution.

Second.	Ampere.	Ca. Gain. (grm.)	An. Loss (grm.)	E. C. E. (ca)	E. C. E. (An)
8 4 0″	8669	2118	·0107	.0002908	·0000147
840"	8664	1867	.0097	.0002572	.0000133
840*	8735	-1001	0117	.0001363	0000159
740"	8675	.0903	.0113	0001334	.0000168
840"	8923	0974	.0109	.0001300	.0000148
840"	8925	.0716	0123	.0000955	.0000164
840"	8945	0710	.0211	.0000944	.0000280
840"	8875	.0575	.0243	.0000771	·0000320
840"	8820	.0573	·0 2 56	.0000772	0000345
840"	·8825	0516	.0160	.0000597	-0000210
1800"	8807	.1135	.0616	·0000716	.0000385
1800"	.8773	·1195	.0706	.0000756	.0000447
1800"	8741	·1038	0673	.0000660	.0000428
1800"	.8738	.0985	.0663	.0000622	0000422
1800"	.9222	·1092	.0726	.0000657	0000437
1800"	8854	1041	·0740	.0000633	·0000454
1800"	8323	.0879	.0670	'0000586	·0000447
1800"	8854	-0986	.0796	.0000615	·0000500
1800"	8629	.0930	.0736	·0000598	·0000473
3600"	·885 3	·1903	.1556	.0000597	-0000488

From the above results the average value of the e.c.e. for known times for which the current was passed are calculated from the total cathode gains and anode losses for these intervals and the mean values of the current over these times. The results are given in Table II.

TABLE II.

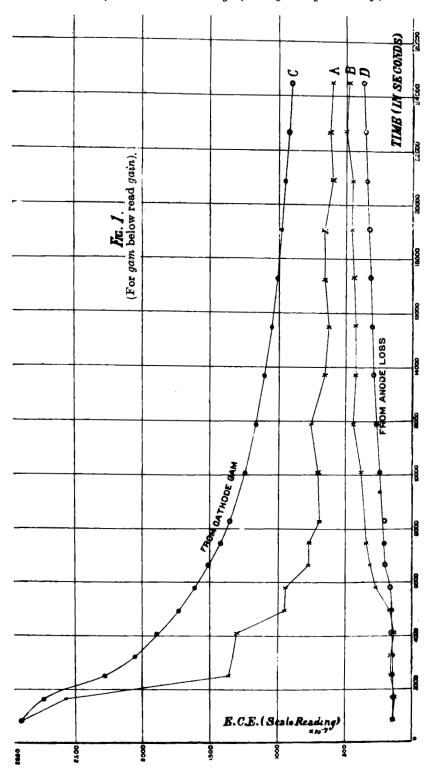
Total Time.	Total Ca. Gain.	Total An. loss.	Average.	Current.	Avrg. Av. E.C.E. E.C.E (Ca.) (An.)
840"	2118	.0107	·8669	.0002908	.0000147
1680"	.3985	.0204	·8667	.0002736	·0000140
2520"	·4986	.0321	·8689	$\cdot 0002276$.0000147
3300″	.5889	0433	8685	·0002055	.0000151
4140"	6863	0543	·8733	.0001898	.0000150
4980"	·7579	.0666	8765	.0001736	.0000153
5820"	·8289	-0877	8791	·0001620	.0000171
6660"	·8864	1120	·8801	0001512	.0000191
7500"	.9437	1376	8803	0001429	.0000208
8340"	.9953	.1536	·8806	0001355	.0000209
10140"	1.1088	.2152	8806	.0001242	.0000241
11940"	1.2283	.2858	-8803	.0001168	$\cdot 0000272$
13740"	1.3321	.3531	·8798	.0001103	.0000292
15540"	1.4310	4194	·8794	·0001048	.0000307
17340"	1.5402	·4920	·8822	$\cdot 0001006$.0000321
19140"	1.6494	.5660	·8824	0000972	.0000335
20940"	1.7322	6330	·8795	.0000941	.0000344
22740"	1.8308	.7126	·8798	.0000916	.0000356
24540"	1.9238	7862	-8789	.0000892	0000364
28140"	2·1141	•9418	·8792	$\cdot 0000854$.0000380

The results of Tables I and II are plotted in fig. 1 (see next page). The curves A and B are plotted between the actual experimental values of the e.c.e.'s both for cathode and anode, and the total time corresponding to each such value as given in Table I. The curves C and D are plotted between the average values of the e.c.e.'s (as deduced from total cathode gain or anode loss and the mean current) and the total time corresponding to each value given in Table II.

Results.

The foregoing experiments show very clearly how the observed e.c.e.'s for the cathode fall and those for the anode rise at each successive electrolysis. As the same solution was used throughout the series, the total quantity of acid liberated during these experiments was stored in the solution itself, its integral effect at each successive interval being given by a descending order of values for the one case and an ascending order for the other.

The rate of fall in the value of the cathode e.c.e. is comparatively small at the start, as the convexity of the curve C in fig. 1 at the beginning will show. This is soon followed by a rapid rate of fall with increased accumulation of acid; the portion of the curve C representing this part will be found to



have become concave after an inflexion. With prolonged electrolysis, however, the fall became gradually smaller and smaller till at last the values tended to become more or less stationary, as the last part of the curve would indicate.

With the anode e.c.e. the reverse is the case, though the rate of rise is more gradual and much smaller throughout than that for the fall of the cathode equivalent. It is interesting to note how the observed values of the e.c.e. both for cathode and anode tended to equalize with repeated electrolyses, the former coming down by rapid steps and the latter going up more slowly but steadily. For instance, at the end of the first experiment the e.c.e.'s for cathode and anode are '0002906 and '0000147; while at the end of the last determination they were found to be '0000597 and '0000488 respectively!

It is difficult to understand the sudden drop in experiment 3, Table I. The deposit obtained was good, so that there was no loss of weight at the time of washing. It could, however, be explained on the hypothesis that it was only due to the effect of accumulation of acid developed in previous experiments in the part of the solution lying between cathode and anode. In all subsequent experiments the solution was thoroughly stirred before the current was started. To investigate whether this sudden drop was accidental, the following set of observations were made with a fresh quantity of the same volume (160 c. c.) of neutral solution (specific gravity different). The current was passed for only five minutes at a time in order to examine the steps of fall more closely. The results are tabulated below:—

Table III.

Effect of successive Electrolysis for small intervals.

Total time. Second.	Current (Amp.) Actual.	Current (Amp.) Mean.	Ca. Gain (Grm.)	Total Ca. Gain (Grm.)	E.C.E. (Ca.) 7 × 10-7	E.C.E. (Ca.) Mean. × 10-7
300″	·8541	·8541	.0768	-0768	2997	2997
600"	8083	·8312	0697	1464	2872	2937
900″	.8738	·8454	.0718	2183	2739	2869
1200″	.8938	·≻575	.0688	2870	2564	2789
1500"	$\cdot 8922$	·8644	.0599	3469	2255	2675
1800″	.9197	·8736	.0604	4073	2188	2589
2100"	.8862	.8754	.0522	4594	1962	2499
2400"	.9092	8796	.0398	•4993	1459	2364
2700"	·8704	·8 793	·0373	.5365	1427	2261
3000"	$\cdot 8732$.8780	.0325	.5690	1240	2160

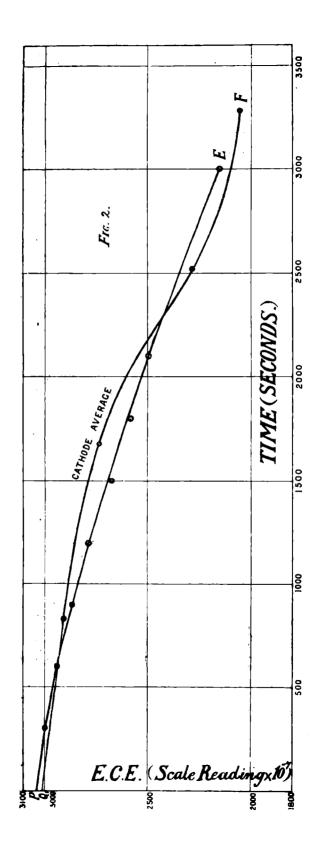
The above values of the e.c.e. show that the fall is gradu-

ally throughout and nowhere so abrupt as in experiment 3 of the previous series.

The curve E. in fig. 2 is plotted between the average value of the e.c.e. (Ca.) given in Table III and the total time corresponding to these values. The point P, at which the curve meets the Y axis, gives by extrapolation the value of the e.c.e. of a perfectly neutral solution, inasmuch as the acid developed may be regarded as proportional to the time of flow of current. This gives 0003045 as the approximate value of the e.c.e. as read from the curve.

Drawing F (fig. 2), the first part of curve C on the same scale as E and producing it to cut the axis at Q, a similar point is obtained which fixes the cathode e.c.e. approximately at .0003015; both these values do not differ from the standard value .0003043 by more than one per cent.

The results of Table I and II seem to reveal a definite experimental law with time, underlying this wide range of variation in the values of the e.c.e. of nickel. It appears that the only natural explanation lies in the fact that the anode is not readily attacked by the acid ions liberated at the time of electrolysis. The result is that, corresponding to the number of nickel ions leaving the solution at any instant, the number entering it is less, as these latter are supplied by the anode dissolved. The sulphions, thus failing to act on the anode, react upon the water forming sulphuric acid. As the acid goes on accumulating with time, it draws away a good portion of the current passing through the voltameter owing to its higher conductivity, and an equivalent quantity of hydrogen instead of nickel is deposited on the cathode. effective current actually employed in decomposing nickel sulphate is therefore only a fraction of the whole current sent through the voltameter, and the values of the e.c.e. based upon the Ammeter readings become necessarily lower and lower as the acid increases in proportion. A divided circuit thus seems to be established in the electrolyte, the total current branching off into the acid and nickel lines, in the inverse ratio of the resistances offered by each respectively. But this cannot go on indefinitely. For, with increased concentration of acid, the anode gradually becomes more amenable to its solvent action and begins to lose more weight than before, thus restoring nickelions in larger numbers to the solution, and thereby increasing the conduction through the nickel line. In consequence of this mixed conduction the cathode gradually gains less and the anode loses more, and the tendency is such as to make the gain and loss equal. Electrolitic balance will thus be reached at the point when the quantity of acid developed is just enough to dissolve away as many nickel ions from the anode as leave the solution at any moment. At this point the curves C and D will meet.



PART II.

Effect of Dilution.

A number of experiments were now undertaken with a view to see how far the effect of acid generated during electrolysis could be reduced by dilution if a large quantity of the solution were used. The following arrangements were made.

About three litres of saturated solution (specific gravity 1.334 at 23°C) was prepared from pure crystals, boiled with precipitated nickel carbonate and filtered. The clear solution was put in a bottle (fig. 3) with a tap at the bottom. bottle was placed on an adjustable stand just over the voltameter. At the time of experiment a continuous run of the solution through the voltameter was maintained by drawing off the liquid by a syphon and so adjusting the flow from the bottle as to keep its level always at the same height. The solution in the voltameter was thus continually replenished and the acid developed during electrolysis carried away from it. The rate of fall in the value of the e.c.e. was thus effectually checked.

Hardly any evolution of gas was noticed.

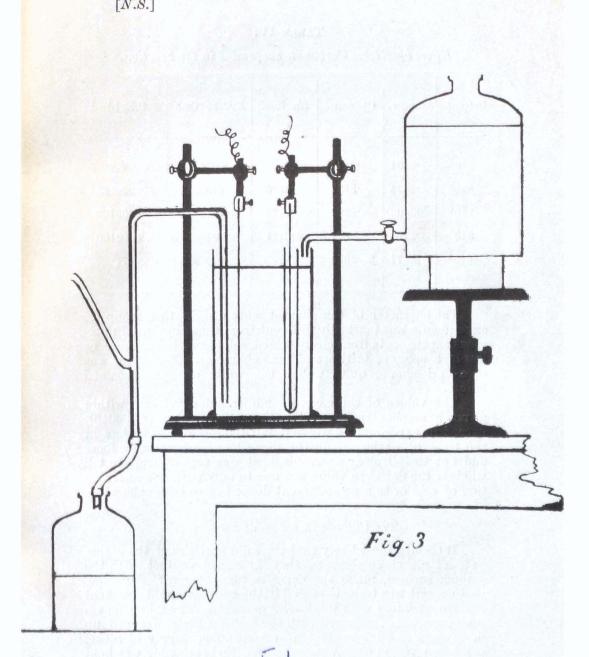
Though there was a steady fall in the e.c.e. all through this series, it was evidently very much slower than what was noticed when about the same current was passed through a smaller quantity for the same length of time.

The solution was again treated with nickel carbonate, filtered and subjected to a second course of electrolysis, just to make sure if the removal of the acid developed during the last experiment, by neutralization, would raise the value of the e.c.e. again. This was found to be the case.

Effect of Nickel Carbonate.

A number of determinations were next made with the solution kept thoroughly stirred with the carbonate in the voltameter during electrolysis, in order to neutralize the acid at the time of its production. The results are given in Table IV.

51



Effect of Nickel Caroonate suspended in the Solution						
Second.	Ampere.	Ca. gain.	An. loss.	E.C.E. (Ca.).	E.C.E. (An.).	
840"	.9204	·21 4 7		0002776		
840″	·8874	·2137	·0106	.0002867	·0 00014 3	
840"	.8803	·2062	·0 09 5	.0002788	·0000128	
840"	.8794	·1341	.0111	.0001814	.0000150	
840"	∙8874	·2090		.0002803		
•	į					

Table IV.

Effect of Nickel Carbonate suspended in the Solution.

The character of the deposit obtained in this group of experiments was markedly different from that obtained in previous experiments from clear filtered solutions, being more or less of a spongy, brittle and loose character. The colour was of a dark shade, quite unlike the white deposits obtained before.

The values of the e.c.e. though irregular, yet kept within a much smaller range of the theoretical value (.0003043), except in experiment 4 where it fell too low owing to loss at the time of washing. As the deposits were invariably loose and apt to fall away at washings, it was very difficult to tell whether the defect in value was due to only partial neutralization of acid or to a non-adherent deposit or to both causes.

The Cathode in a Porous Enclosure.

It seemed most likely that the solid particles of the carbonate of nickel coming, as they did, into contact with the cathode surface, made the deposits non-adherent. An adherent deposit was to be expected if the cathode could be kept free from contact with these solid particles. The following experiments were performed with the cathode plate wrapped up in a piece of filter paper, and a continuous supply of nickel sulphate solution largely mixed with nickel carbonate was kept flowing through the voltameter as described before. This arrangement combined the twofold advantage of large dilution and prompt neutralization of acid at the anode. The filter paper protected the cathode surface from contact with the carbonate particles. The results are given in Table V.

Table V.

Effect of covering the Cathode in Filter Paper.

Second.	Ampere.	Ca. gain.	An. loss.	E.C.E. (Ca.).	E.C.E. (an.)
840″	.9014	·2241	.0153	.0002959	00002023
840"	9014	-2225	.0187	.0002939	00002468
840"	·8874	·2139	.0169	0002869	00002267
840"	1.1924	2901	.0201	.0002896	00002006
840"	1.0840	.2686	.0201	.0002950	.00002004

Mean e.c.e. = '0002913. Mean probable error of the result = '000001. Probable error of one observation = '000003.

The values of the e.c.e. obtained in this series are fairly consistent. In experiments 3 and 4 the deposits were found to be dark and loose at those places where the filter paper pressed against the cathode surface. The values of the e.c.e. were therefore comparatively low.

In the next set of experiments, a bag of filter paper was prepared with a stiff collar to prevent its collapse under liquid pressure. There was sufficient space inside the enclosure to keep the cathode hanging quite freely. Decidedly better results were obtained as will be seen from Table VI.

Table VI.

Effect of circulating the replenishing mixture of Nickel Sulphate and Carbonate round the filter bag with the Cathode.

Second.	Ampere.	Ca. gain	An. loss.	M.C.E. (Ca.).	E.C.E. (An.).	Character of deposit.
960″	.9334	·2545	0191	0002872	.0000216	Loose and dark
840"	1.1762	2942	$\cdot 0202$	0002977	·0000 20 0	White and firm.
840"	8776	2195	.0130	0002978	0000176	$\mathbf{do.}$ $\mathbf{do.}$
840"	·8803	2214	$\cdot 0124$.0002993	.0000168	$\mathbf{do.}$ $\mathbf{do.}$
840"	9937	2495	$\cdot 0292$	0002989	·0000349	do. do
840"	•9014	2289	·015 5	0003023	0000204	$\mathbf{do.}$ $\mathbf{do.}$
840"	9151	2338	.0250	0003035	0000325	do. do
840"	8944	2197	-0606	0002924	.0000807	Loose and dark
840"	8944	2242		0002983		White and firm
840"	8944	2294	.0272	0003053	-0000362	do do.

Mean e.c.e. = $\cdot 0002983$. Probable error of the result = $\cdot 000001$. The modification in the shape of the filter partition thus produced the desired effect. The values of the e.c.e. for the cathode are on the whole quite concordant.

The arrangement was, however, still unsatisfactory, because in some cases the nickel carbonate got inside the enclosure through holes in the filter paper. It was also difficult to avoid contact with the filter paper altogether, specially at the bottom. The deposit obtained in such cases of contact were as a rule bad.

In experiment 8, the anode equivalent was exceptionally high. This was because the filter bag was, by mistake, put on the anode instead of the cathode. The result was, the acid ions which collect round the anode were inside the partition, and thus, protected to a great extent from the diluting and neutralizing action of the fluid circulating through the voltameter, they attacked the anode with greater concentration, and its loss was consequently much greater in this case. The cathode plate got the characteristic dark and loose deposit as it was exposed to contact with the carbonate particles.

A further improvement was made upon the porous partition by mounting the filter paper on an U-shaped wooden frame. A piece of thread was wound on the frame underneath the paper forming a sort of net-work, which prevented the walls of the filter paper from touching the cathode. About 3 litres of the solution largely mixed with nickel carbonate were run through the cell as before. The mixture was stirred from time to time with a glass rod both in the voltameter as well as in the bottle. The results are given below.

TABLE VII.

Final Results obtained with replenishing mixture and porous partition.

econd.	Ampere.	Ca. gain.	An. loss.	E.C.E. (Ca.).	E.C.E. (An.)
840″	·8803	·2209		0003023	
840"	8930	·22 7 5	.0079	.0003033	.00001054
840"	8902	-2279	.0262	-0003047	·0000 350 0
840"	8986	2281	0231	0003021	-00003057
840"	-9028	2309	-0252	·0003044	$\cdot 00003328$
840"	8944	·2290	$\cdot 0228$	·000 3048	$\cdot 00003032$
840"	.9069	2308	0282	0003029	00003698
840"	8930	-2286	0279	0003047	00003720

Mean e.c.e. = '0003036. Probable error of the mean = '0000003. Mean error of one observation = '0000008. Vol. VI, No. 2.] The Electro-chemical Equivalent of Nickel. 55 [N.S.]

In experiment 1 a flat earthern-ware pot (such as those used in ordinary Grove cells) was used, for the rest the specially devised filter paper partition was used.

Concluding Remarks.

The device adopted in the last series of experiments may probably be used with advantage in nickel-plating on a commercial scale both for the saving of current from useless waste in gaseous decompositions and also for the good adherent deposits which it ensures.

An experimental determination of the electro-chemical equivalent of cobalt and iron on these lines might be found useful.

The atomic weights of nickel and cobalt as determined by chemical methods, is at present only known with an uncertainty of about two per cent. A careful determination of the e.c.e. of nickel and cobalt according to the method suggested by these researches has, it may be presumed, its special advantages for examining the atomic weights of these metals and will evidently furnish quite an independent method of verifying results obtained by purely chemical processes. With the solution of nickel sulphate which has been worked with, not paying any attention to its chemical purity other than that which may be looked for from repeated crystallizations, I find that the e.c.e. of nickel (taken that of silver as '001118) is '0003036±'0000003 (probable error), which leads to a value of the atomic weight of nickel as $58.52 \pm .06$.

A repetition of Hittorf's experiments on the effect of temperature of the electrolyte upon its deposits performed with the precautions for eliminating spurious effects due to acid, as adopted in these investigations, would be an interesting experimental study.

In conclusion, I have much pleasure in acknowledging my indebtedness to Professor V. H. Jackson, M.A., of the Indian Educational Service, for many encouraging suggestions and help during the progress of the work.

5. Buddhist Legends of Asoka and his Times.

Translated from the Pāli of the Rasavāhinī by Laksmana S'astrī, Sadho Lal Scholar and Head Paṇḍit, Queen's Collegiate School, Benares, with a Prefatory Note by H. C. NORMAN.

Asoka is admittedly one of the most interesting figures in Indian history, and the story of his conversion presents many problems which have engaged the attention of most Indianists. Any old document which gives some account of this monarch, even though it be in a legendary form, is therefore of interest, and especially a Pāli work by a Buddhist, as representing the orthodox opinion on this matter. Various stories of Asoka are to be met within the Sinhalese chronicles and in Buddhaghosa, but as they are to be found conveniently arranged in a prose form in the Rasavāhinī, and as Pandit Laksmana Šāstrī is at present preparing an edition of that work for the Pali Text Society, I urged him to make a translation of this tale of Asoka—one of the longest in the book. The authorities on which the author of this interesting old work has drawn are the Mahavamsa and Buddhaghosa's commentaries, and he has followed his authorities with a minute exactitude which is characteristic of Buddhist works, following them almost word for word in the essential passages.

In addition to other matters, the legend gives the story of how Asoka found the Buddha's relics and distributed them over This story occurs in Buddhaghosa's Sumangalaviläsini. and forms part of a long account of the fate of the relics after their first dispersal. By way of explanation, and in order to make the account more connected. I have ventured to give a translation from that part of Buddhaghosa's Commentary on the Mahāparinibbāna Sutta which deals with Ajātasattu's treatment of the relics. For this the Burmese edition of Rangoon, 1903, has been used. Dr. Fleet in the J.R.A.S. for October 1906 has given the story of the relics from the Pāli, and presumably from the same edition. My version agrees in all essentials with Dr. Fleet's, but, at the risk of being wearisome, I have literally translated every detail of the text, with some notes on slight points of difference between us. For a complete discus sion of the fate of the relics, Dr. Fleet's articles in the J.R.A.S. must be referred to, for they are of prime importance, giving as they do the best results of modern criticism.

According to Goonaratne in the J.P.T.S. for 1884, p. 51, the Rasavāhinī is probably a work of the fourteenth century A.D.

TRANSLATION.

"After the stupas had thus been set up, however, the elder Mahākassapa, perceiving that danger threatened the relics. approached the presence of king Ajātasattu and said: 'O great king, one receptacle ought to be made for the relics.' 'Very well, reverend Sir, let the making of the receptacle be my concern. But how am I to get the remaining relics?' 'Great king, the getting of the relics is not your task, but mine.' 'Very well, reverend Sir, do you get the relics, and I will make the receptacle.' The elder brought the remaining relics, leaving with the various royal families only enough for purposes of worship, but at Rāmagāma the Nāgas took possession of the relics, and no accident happened to them. Knowing that in the future they would be deposited in the Great Caitya of the Mahāvihāra in Ceylon, he did not take them, but took them from the remaining seven cities. Then standing at a spot to the south-east of Rajagaha he willed the following resolve: 'Let the stone which is in this place vanish, let the sand become spotless, let not water rise up in it.' The king had that place dug up, and then caused bricks to be made with the soil therefrom. Then he had Caityas to the eighty great disciples constructed. When people asked: 'What is the king having made here?' they were told 'Caityas for the great dis-No one knew about the existence of a relic-receptacle. When that place had been made eighty cubits deep, he had laid down an iron! flooring. Then he had made a copper house of the size of the sanctuary in the Thuparama, and likewise eight boxes and stupas of vellow sandal and other woods. Then he took the relics of the Blessed One and cast them into a vellow sandal-wood box, and this yellow sandal-wood box he put in another yellow sandal-wood box, and that too in another, and so on, putting the boxes one inside the other. In exactly the same way he had the eight yellow sandal-wood boxes put in eight stupas of yellow sandal-wood, the eight stupas of yellow sandal-wood in eight boxes of red sandal-wood, the eight boxes of red sandal-wood in eight stupas of red sandal-wood, the eight stupas of red sandal-wood in eight boxes of ivory, these boxes in eight stupas of ivory, these stupas in eight boxes of all kinds of jewels, these boxes in eight stupas of all kinds of jewels, these stupas in eight golden boxes, these boxes in eight golden stupas, these stupas in eight silver boxes, these boxes in eight silver stūpas, these stūpas in eight jewel-boxes, these boxes in eight jewel-stūpas, these stūpas in eight ruby-boxes, these boxes in eight ruby-stupas, these stupas in eight cat's-eye hoxes, these

l 'Brass.' Fleet. The Pāli has lohasanthāram. ' Its bottom was lined with iron bars,' Bigandet, who in his second volume follows Buddhaghosa's account of the fate of the relics.

boxes in eight cat's-eye stupas, these stupas in eight boxes of crystal, these boxes in eight stupas of crystal. Above them all was a crystal Caitva of the same size as the Caitva in the Thūpârāma. Above it he had made a house of all kinds of jewels, above that was one of gold, above that again one of silver, above that one of copper. Having scattered there the dust of all kinds of jewels and having strewn thousands of flowers that grow on land and flowers that grow in the water. he caused to be made (figures of) the five hundred and fifty births, the eighty great Elders, the great king Suddhodana, Queen Māyā, and the seven Connate Ones -all these of gold. He had set up five hundred brimming jars of gold and five hundred of silver and five hundred banners; five hundred lamps of gold and five hundred of silver he had made and filled them with fragrant oil and set in them wicks of fine cloth. Then the reverend Mahākassapa willed: 'Let not the garlands wither, let not the perfumes be destroyed, and let not the lamps be extinguished.' He then caused letters to be engraved on a plate of gold: 'In the future a prince called Piyadasa shall raise the royal umbrella and become Asoka, the king of righteousness. He shall cause these relics to be dispersed far and wide.' The king having performed adoration with all his ornaments first of all went out shutting the door. Having closed the copper door, he fastened a key-ring to the string for closing the door and in that very place set a great magic jewel, 5 on which he had engraved: 'In the future let a poor king come and take this jewel and pay honour to the relics.' Sakka, the king of the gods, summoned Vissakammā, and saving: 'Sir, Ajātasattu has made a receptacle for the relics, set up a guard here,' sent him off. When he arrived, he fitted up a vālasnaghāta-machine (a revolving platform). Having set up his machine which caused wooden figures with crystal-bright swords in their hands to revolve in the relic-chamber with a speed like that of the wind, he fastened it with just one pin, 5 and, having made a stone enclosure round about like the Ginjakâvasatha 6 (or 'like a tiled dwelling'), closed it with one pin. Having thrown about sand and made the ground even, he set above it a stone stupa. After the relic-receptacle had been constructed, the elder entered into complete Nibbana, after

¹ See for these, J.A.S.B., vol. iv, No. 3, 1908.

² Āviñchanarajjuyam kuñcikamuddikam bandhitvā. See Vinaya Texts (S.B.E.) III, 106. "Fastened it with a rope and sealed the knot." (Fleet.)

³ Manikkhandham.

Vätasadisena vegena anupariyäyantam yantam.

⁵ Ani. This would act as an axis.

^{6 &#}x27;This, the Brick Hall or Tiled Hall, was a building at Nādika.' (Fleet). (f. M.P.S. II, 5,6: 'tatra sudam Bhagavā Nādike viharati Giñja-kàvasathe.' Cy. itthakāmaye āvasathe.

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finishing his term of life. The king too departed this life, and so did those (work) men."

THE STORY OF THE THREE BROTHERS, THE HONEY MERCHANTS.

Formerly there were three brothers in Benares who lived harmoniously together. They maintained their family by the honey-trade. One of them used to go to foreign countries and buy honey from the hands of the residents of the Malaya country, the second despatched the honey to the town. and the third sold it at Benares. At that time a Paccekabuddha (one who has attained the knowledge necessary to Nirvana), who lived on the Gandhamadana mountain, was suffering from a wound. Another Paccekabuddha, perceiving him thus indisposed, thought within himself that the wound was to be cured only by means of honey. He accordingly put on his robe on the Gandhamadana mountain and went through the air. Having alighted at the gate of the town, he stayed there, looking about him to find out whence the honey was to be procured.

Meanwhile a servant maid, who earned her bread by serving, was passing by, holding a jar in her hand in order to fetch water from the river; she made way for him, and having placed her jar on the ground, saluted him, and stood aside. The Paccekabuddha addressed her, 'Sister! in which place is the honey obtained by mendicants?' She having heard what he had to say, conducted him to the honey-market, and pointing with her hand, she said, 'Here, Sir, is the honey-market.' While thus pointing, she was pondering within herself, 'In case this Paccekabuddha does not get the honey, I shall supply him with it even at the cost of the clothes I wear.' Thus medita-

ting, she stayed there awaiting his return.

Now the Paccekabuddha proceeding in due course at last reached the honey-market. A man of affluence (one of the three brothers) on seeing him, took the bowl from his hands, and having placed it on a stand, brought a jar of honey and in pouring the contents into the bowl tilted up the jar quickly. When the bowl was filled up to the brim, the honey began to flow out on to the ground. On seeing it the merchant was overjoyed and made the following request. It is said in the Mahāvamsa:-" When the Paccekabuddha arrived there, that pious merchant gave him a bowl full of honey, and seeing it filled up and the honey brimming over and falling to the ground, he full of faith then made the following prayer:- 'Let me alone enjoy the undisputed authority over Jambudipa by the virtue of this charity, and let my commands have their control over the regions of the sky and those of the earth for a yojana in both directions." Having thus spoken, he presented the

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bowl to the Paccekabuddha, which he accepted, and standing in that self-same spot he said:—" Let this charity quickly fulfil all your wishes, just as the fifteenth day of the month fulfils the moon, or as a magical jewel does the wishes of its possessor." Having thus blessed him, he departed.

The maid-servant of the jar, who was waiting in the way, seeing him return, proceeded to welcome him and asked, 'Sir, did you get the honey?' 'Yes, sister.' 'What did the merchant say at the time he presented the bowl to you?' The Paccekabuddha related to her all that had passed. Having heard it, she requested him, 'Be so good, Sir, as to wait a moment here for the sake of your humble servant, and she went quickly home. There she took a piece of cloth, her own garment. and having washed and folded it, she presented it to him, saying, 'Whenever, Sir, the honey-supplier should happen to be the king of the whole of Jambudipa, I should like to become his chief queen,' and making a prayer she spoke as follows: 'When he, reverend Sir, who gave thee the honey, becomes king over the earth, may I then, Sir, become his beloved queen: of fair form, voice, and fame, devoted to him, and beautiful may I be, and dear and pleasing and adorable to him always.' Paccekabuddha having poured his blessings upon her also, saying, 'So be it', took his aerial way to the Gandhamadana mountain.

Thereafter those three brothers met together, and when investigating the honey enquired, 'Where is that jar of honey?' He gave an explanation by narrating what he had done, and thus concluded, 'If you want to take advantage of this charity, so much the better: if not, take the price of the honey from me. They said, 'The honey is nothing to us, but to what kind of a person did you give it?' On hearing this the other said, 'These Paccekabuddhas are people who live in seclusion on the Gandhamādana mountain and wear yellow robes. They live by begging from family to family. They are pious and observe the Sīla precepts.' 'The Candālas in the guise of Brāhmans,' said the eldest, 'go about wearing such yellow robes. I think he must be one of them.' The second brother also got angry, and said, 'I shall throw your Paccekabuddha to the other side of the sea.' The honey-supplier, having heard their talk, warned them, 'Do not be so harsh unto the reverend Paccekabuddhas, who possess great influence and power. not you fear the sufferings of hell?' He tried thus to warn them and convince them of their power. Both the brothers were satisfied by the reasoning and agreed to what he had done.

Afterwards when they died they transmigrated in the devaworlds and in the world of men, and having enjoyed great fortune in their various existences at last were again born two hundred years after the death of Buddha in the place that each one had attained. It is thus related:—"The merchant who gave the honey was born as king Asoka, the maid-servant as the queen Asandhimittā, he who had called the Paccekabuddha a Caṇḍāla as Nigrodha, and he who blamed him as Tissa."

The eldest who had abused him as a Candala was born as the son of prince Sumana, the eldest son of king Bindusāra. His story runs thus:—

At the time that king Bindusara became powerless, prince Asoka, having left the kingdom of Ujjain, which had been taken by him, came and took possession of the whole city and captured prince Sumana. On that very day the wife of prince Sumana, who was about to be delivered, disguised herself, and, when she had left the city no great distance behind and was going in the direction of a village of Candalas, she heard the voice of a deity who had occupied the banyan tree close to the house of the head Candala, saving: 'Come along this way.' She went close to the deity. The deity suddenly built a house by its power and awarded it to her, saying, 'Dwell in this house.' On the very day of her going, she was delivered of a male child. She called him by the name of Nigrodha, as he was favoured by the deity residing in the Nigrodha (or banyan) tree. The head Candala, from the day he saw her, looked upon her as the daughter of his master, and continually took every possible care of her. The princess lived there seven years, and the prince Nigrodha grew up to the age of seven.

■ In the meantime an Arahat called Mahāvarunatthera, who had perceived that the child was destined to become an Arahat, sojourning (there) thought: 'The boy is now seven years old, now has the proper time arrived to ordain him a monk.' cordingly he caused the princess to be apprised of the fact, and admitted prince Nigrodha into the monastic life. The prince attained to Arahatship in the Hall of Tonsure. It is said in the Mahavamsa: -- 'Having seen that the little prince was destined to become an Arahat, the elder Mahavaruna ordained him; the prince attained to Arahatship in the Hall of Tonsure. Now one day he, after taking care of his body and having performed the duties of a monk, took his bowl and robe, and started, resolving that he would go to the door of his mother, the lay devotee. To reach his mother's dwelling-place, he had to enter the city by the south gate, go by the king's palace, and emerge by the east gate, and at that time Asoka, the pious king, was pacing up and down at a window and looking towards the eastern direction. At that very moment Nigrodha, who had attained to tranquillity of mind and senses, looking only nine spans before him and endowed with the decency of deportment, reached the compound of the palace. As soon as the king perceived him, he began to think, "All these people are persons of scattered thoughts, and always have an inclination for food and game. But this boy seems to be undisturbed. His looks

as well as his other movements are very seemly. He must have acquired some transcendent virtue." The king was pleased immediately on seeing him and at once felt an inclination and attachment towards him. The cause of this was that he was the eldest brother of the king, the merchant, at the time of doing that charity in the previous life. "An inclination towards somebody arises either through an association with him in a former birth, or through the present obligation he is under, as a lotus springs up in water.'' The king thus feeling a strong inclination and respect towards the Samanera, ordered his ministers to summon him. Being impatient at their delay he again despatched some two or three servants to tell him to come quickly. Presently the Sāmanera presented himself before him in his usual way. He pointed to him a seat, befitting his rank, and requested him to take it. He looking around him to see that there was no other Bhikkhu present, approached the royal throne, on which the umbrella had been raised, and made a sign to the king to take the bowl. king, seeing him approaching the throne, thought within himself: 'This Sāmanera would become the lord of this palace this very day.' The Samanera, presenting the bowl to the king, ascended the throne. The king ordered various articles of food to be brought before him that had been prepared for himself. The Sāmanera accepted as much as was necessary for his sustenance. When he had taken his food, the king said: 'Do you know the exhortation given you by your teacher?" "Yes, my lord, a portion of it." "Tell it to me also, Sir." "Very well, my lord." So he recited to him, by way of returning thanks, the Appamadavagga (section on Heedfulness) of the Dhammapada as suitable for the king.

When the king heard, 'carefulness is the source of immortality and carelessness is that of death,' he said, 'I have understood, Sir, please complete it.' The Samanera at the end of returning thanks received thirty-two fixed portions of food. Next day he took along with him thirty-two Bhikkhus and penetrated into the private apartments of the king. There he took his food. The king requested him: "Let another thirtytwo Bhikkhus take their food with you to-morrow." In this way increasing the number day by day, the king stopped the sanctioned food of sixty-thousand Brahman mendicants and apportioned it forever to as many Bhikkhus in the inner apartment. By the virtue of the inclination to Nigrodha shown by the king Nigrodhatthera established the king along with his court in the three Saranas (or Refuges) and in the five Sila Nigrodhatthera too instilled into the king a firm faith in the Buddha's teaching, a faith firmer than that of the ordinary unconverted man. The king, on his part, commanded a monastery, namely, the Asokârāma, to be built, and supplied sixty-thousand Bhikkhus with boiled rice every day. He also

built eighty-four thousand monasteries in eighty-four thousand towns throughout Jambudīpa. And so it is said: "Through the fault of having used 'Caṇḍāla' as a term of abuse he (Nigrodha) was born in a Caṇḍāla hamlet, and through obtainment of the fruition of his approval of the good deed he became a perfect Arahat." This is the narrative of Nigrodhatthera.

The merchant who gave the honey, however, having descended from the world of Devas, was reborn in the royal family of Pupphapura as the prince Piyadāsa, and after having raised aloft the royal umbrella enjoyed an undisputed authority over the whole of Jambudīpa. How was this?

King Bindusāra had a hundred sons. Asoka assassinated them all with the exception of prince Tissa, who was born of the same mother as himself. After murdering them all he managed the government for four years without being formally anointed. But at the expiration of that period, two hundred and eighteen years after the death of Buddha, he attained to a coronation as sole ruler over the whole of Jambudīpa. On this occasion the kings ruling over the eighty-four thousand cities in the whole of Jambudīpa, came to pay respect to him. He had three palaces appropriate to the three seasons. One of them was called Mahasappika, the second Moragiva, and the third Mangala; in these he abode, surrounded by countless thousands of dancers. The maid-servant, who had shown him (the Paccekabuddha) the honey-market, was born as the princess Asandhimittā, as beautiful as a heavenly nymph, and became the principal queen of king Dhammasoka, with authority over sixty thousand women.

No sooner had the coronation taken place than the king was furnished with the following kingly powers. His commands prevailed for a vojana below the earth and for a vojana above in the sky. Deities daily brought sixteen jars full of water, eight men's load, from the Anotatta lake, from which when converted to the Faith he gave eight to the assembly of mendicants, two to sixty Tipitaka-bhikkhus, two to his chief queen, Asandhimittā, and four he kept for his private use. Deities also supplied him daily with tender, fresh and tasteful tooth-cleaners, made from the betel-vine and brought from the Himālaya. They were so abundant that they sufficed for the daily cleansing of the teeth of all—the king, the chief queen, sixteen-thousand dancers, and sixty thousand Bhikkhus. deities also presented him with the Amalaka and the Haritaka medicines and the tasty and sweet-scented golden leaves of They brought for him clothes of five colours mango trees. from the Chaddanta lake, and gave him a yellow kerchief for wiping the hands, and heavenly beverages. And daily too the Nāga kings brought him from the Nāga palace emollient scent, jasmine-flowered cloth without seam for his apparel, and collyrium. Likewise from the Chaddanta lake every day parrots

brought for him nine hundred thousand cart-loads of rice which was produced there. Mice cleared it of the husks: there was not a broken grain of rice. This very rice was in use in every place belonging to the king. The bees prepared honey for him. In the workshops bears smote with the sledgehammers. The birds warbling sweetly brought him an oblation of song.

Endowed with these Iddhis (supernatural powers), the king one day despatched a golden chain and ordered the king of Nāgas, named Mahākāla, who had seen all the four Buddhas and was destined to live for a Kappa, to be brought before him. The king seated him on a costly royal couch underneath a white umbrella, and worshipped him with flowers of countless hundreds of colours, those produced on the earth as well as those that grow in the water, and also with golden flowers. And then surrounding him on all sides with the sixteen thousand dancers, decked with all kinds of ornaments, he entreated him, 'Please bring before the ken of these eyes of mine the form of the supreme Buddha of endless knowledge who set in motion the excellent wheel of the Good Law.'

Thereupon he made the image. It had a pure lustre spreading throughout its person, was endowed with the eighty minor characteristics of a Buddha, and beautified with the thirty-two marks of a Mahāpurusha. It seemed like the surface of water, smiling with blossoming lotuses, pink and blue, and it had the lustre of the sky illuminated by the refulgence sparkling from the multitudes of the gleams of the rays of the starry hosts. It had its fair head irradiated with a halo of blue, vellow, and other colours, which surrounded it with variegated hues which shone for a fathom round about it and made it look like the peak of a golden mountain on which play the hues of twilight, the rainbow, and the lightning. It afforded great delight to the eyes of the hosts of gods of the Brahma and Devaworlds men. Nagas, and Yakshas. The king, seeing the image, performed the worship named Akkhipūjā for a week. attachment to heretical and non-Buddhistic sects continued for three years after his coronation. But in the fourth year he became a believer in the Buddhist faith.

His father, king Bindusāra, was an adherent of Brāhmanism. He used to feed sixty thousand Brāhmans, heretics of Brāhman caste, and white-robed mendicants every day. King Asoka was following the same system of charity in his palace.

One day the king, while standing at a window, saw them eating in an unrestrained way, with no control over their passions and uncomely in their deportment, and he thought within himself: 'Such a system of charity must be abolished, and it should be bestowed on some fitting object.' Having formed this opinion, he summoned his ministers and commanded them: 'Go and introduce the Samanas and Brāhmanas of good report with you into the palace; I will bestow gifts on them.' 'As it

pleases your Majesty,' they said, and went away to execute the royal commands. Soon they returned accompanied by whiterobed mendicants, naked ascetics, and Nirgranthakas, and having presented them before the king, said, 'Here, may it please your Majesty, are our Arahats.' The king ordered seats of various kinds to be brought for them, and bade them as they came up take their seats according to their ranks. Some of them occupied the best seats and others benches. Seeing them, the king thought: 'these men have not the truth in them.' He then gave them suitable food, hard and soft, and sent them away. While the time was thus passing away, the king one day saw Nigrodhasāmanera from the window. On account of the natural inclination towards him, he became a believer in the Buddhist faith, and driving away the sixty thousand heretics he entertained as many Bhikkhus in their stead. Having become a convert to Buddhism he had built a monastery named the Asokârāma and made the monks reside therein.

One day the king, after having bestowed gifts on the sixty thousand mendicants at the Asokarama, sat among the Bhikkhus, and offering to the Order the four Paccayas or requisites, asked them, "Reverend Sirs, what is the extent of the Law of

Piety as laid down by the Blessed One?"

"It has nine divisions," said they, "and the divisions thereof are eighty-four thousand." The king was filled with faith in the Dhamma, and saying, 'I will honour each division of the Law by building a monastery,' on a certain day he expended ninety-six crores of wealth and ordered his ministers: · By building in each several city a monastery have eighty-four thousand monasteries built.' He himself provided the work for the building of the Asokamahāvihāra in the Asokarāma. Order provided the elder Indagutta by name, an Arahat of wonderful ability and power, as superintendent of the new work; whatever was not completed he caused to be completed by his own miraculous power. Thus in three years the work of building the monasteries was completed.

On a certain day letters were received, containing the news of the completion of the eighty-four thousand monasteries. Then the king approached the Order of mendicants and said: 'Reverend Sirs, I have had eighty-four thousand monasteries built, whence am I to get the relics?" "Your Majesty, we hear that there is a repository of relics, but its exact position

is not known."

The king had the Caitya at Rājagaha broken open, but did not see any relics. He restored it to its former condition, and accompanied by the four classes of disciples-monks, nuns, lay disciples, and female devotees—went to Vesall. there too his efforts were in vain, so he went to Kapilavatthu, but to no purpose. He then went to Rāmagāma. But the Nāgas did not allow him to break open the Caitya at Rāmagama; as the picks fell upon the Caitya, they broke in pieces. Thus his attempts were useless there too. He broke open all the Caityas at Allakappa, Pāvā, and Kusinārā, but could not find the relics, so he restored them to their original condition and went to Rajagaha. There he caused the four classes of disciples to be assembled and asked: "Has anyone heard before of the relics being deposited in this or that place?" Thereupon a certain elder, aged one hundred and twenty years, said: "My lord, I do not know the exact place where the relics are deposited, but when I was seven years old, my father, an eminent thero, giving the basket of garlands into my hands, said to me, 'Come, Sāmanera, in the midst of a certain clump of trees is a stone stupa, let us go there.' Having gone thither and worshipped, he said: 'It is fitting to pay careful heed to this spot, O Sāmanera.' So much do I know, my lord," said the monk. "It is the very place," said the king, and having had the shrubs removed and the stone stupa and the dust taken away, he saw underneath a plastered floor. Then he ordered the plaster and bricks to be removed therefrom, and in due course descending to the cell, he saw the dust of seven kinds of jewels and revolving wooden figures with swords in their hands. He invoked the aid of the yakshaservants and had oblations offered, but seeing that even this was of no effect he made obeisance to the gods and said: "If I obtain the relics, I will deposit them in the eighty-four thousand monasteries and treat them with reverence; let not the gods defeat my purpose." Sakka, lord of gods, who was discharging his usual duties, perceived him, and summoning Vissakammā, commanded: "Go and help king Asoka, the commander of the Faith, to take away the wooden images, for he has gone to the cell with an intention of taking the relics out." disguised as a village lad with five locks of hair. went and stood bow in hand before the king, and said: "Your Majesty, I can remove them." "Do so, my lad," said the king. He took out an arrow and discharged it against the very joints of the masonry. Everything was rent asunder. Then the king took hold of the key-ring that was fastened to the string for opening the door, and seeing the magic jewel, he deciphered the letters engrave on it as follows 'In future time let poor kings take this jewel and pay reverence to the relics.' This made him angry and he said: 'Are kings like myself poor?' This was an improper thing to say. After repeated efforts he opened the door, and penetrated within. The lamps that had been set up more than two hundred and eighteen years ago were burning as brightly as ever. The blue lotus flowers looked as if they had just been

Pañcaculagamadarakavesena, Buddhaghosa. Pañcaculakaº. Ras.

¹ Kattharūpakāni samparivattakāni (Buddhaghosa) °ntāni (Rasavāhinī).

plucked and laid there, the flowery couch as if it had that moment been spread. The perfumes were as fresh as if they had been pounded up and put there that very instant. The king took up the golden plate and read as follows: "In the future a prince, called Piyadāsa, shall raise the royal umbrella and become Asoka, the king of Righteousness: he shall cause these relics to be dispersed far and wide." Having read it, he said: 'I have been specially appointed by Mahākassapa,' and hollowing his left hand he smote on it with his right. He deposited there only as much of the relics as was necessary for worship, took away the rest, closed the door as it had been closed before, arranged the things in their original position, had a Caitya of stones built on top and distributed the relics over the eighty-four thousand Vihāras.

One day the king went to the Vihāra, and, having saluted the assembly of Bhikkhus, sat down on one side, and said: "Reverend Sirs, I have spent ninety-six crores of wealth and have had eighty-four thousand monasteries with Caityas built: if I am not a Sāsanadāyāda (entitled to the inheritance of religion), what other person is?" "Your Majesty, you are indeed a Paccavadāvaka (donor of requisites), but he who admits his son and daughter into the Order is said to be a Sasanadayāda." The king being desirous of becoming a Sāsanadāyāda and seeing Prince Mahinda standing at a little distance, said: "My dear son, will you be able to become a monk?" prince, who had a natural inclination towards the Order, was very much pleased to hear the speech of the king, and said to him: "I am ready, Sir, to enter the monastic life, therefore cause me to be admitted, and become yourself a Sāsanadāyāda. At that time, too, the princess Sanghamitta was standing in that place. Looking at her, he said: 'Wilt thou also be able to enter the Order?' She complied, saying: " Certainly, dear father." The king was highly delighted at learning the will of his children and approached the assembly of mendicants and said: "Reverend Sirs, kindly initiate these children and make me a Sāsanadāyāda." The Sangha agreed to the king's proposal and initiated the prince into the Order through the aid of Tissatthera, the son of Moggali as preceptor, as well as that of Mahadevatthera as spiritual guide, and had him ordained by the elder Majihantika. In the enclosure of ordination he obtained Arahatship along with its supernatural faculties. The spiritual guide of Sanghamitta the princess was called Ayupālattheri, her preceptress was called Dhammapālattheri.

The king, however, having illumined the Order in many ways, with the aid of Moggaliputtatissa expelled sixty-thousand vicious sectarians from the Buddhist Order and held the third Rehearsal of the Law. Now at that meeting how many monks and nuns were there? It is said:—

At that meeting were eighty crores of Bhikkhus, among

whom were one hundred thousand ascetics free from worldly attachments and ninety hundred Bhikkhunīs, among whom were a thousand free from worldly attachments.

Thus Asoka, having become the paramount power in India, lived beautifying the doctrine. This is only a brief account, the details are to be found in the Mahāvaṃsa. Thus it is said:—

'King Tissa, the honey-supplier, by virtue of his exceeding merit, enjoyed everywhere and always all felicity.'

The second honey-dealer was reborn in Lanka, on account of the sin he had committed in using harsh words against the Paccekabuddha. His story runs thus:—

A king named Mutasiva ruled over the island of Tambapanni for sixty years. He had ten sons, each endowed with the virtues of purity and wisdom and mutually striving for each other's good. He had also two daughters. All of them lived together in harmony. Once upon a time, after the death of king Mutasiva, the ministers anointed prince Devānampiyatissa as king. Contemporaneously with his coronation many wonderful things took place. The Ācāryas, who composed the Mahāvaṃsa to throw light on these wonders, have said—

"The second son of the king far-famed as Devanampiyatissa was more pure and wise than his brothers. He ascended the throne after the death of his father. Simultaneously with his coronation many wonderful things took place. merous treasures and jewels, that had hitherto been hidden under the ground, rose up above the surface of the earth, throughout the whole of Lankadipa. And both the jewels which came from ships wrecked near Lankadipa and those which were produced in the sea rose up upon the dry land. the foot of the Chata mountain there sprang up three posts as large as chariot-goads. One of them was a creeper-post, its creepers glittered with silver sheen; some of the creepers were golden, and they all looked charming and delightful. The other was a flower-post covered with flowers of various kinds and colours, and spread its charming lustre round The third, a bird-post, had artificial birds animals so perfectly made that they seemed alive. There were altogether eight kinds of pearls, namely, the Horse, the Elephant, the Chariot, the Amalakya, the Bracelet, the Angulivethaka, the Kakudhaphala, and the ordinary pearl. Pearls coming out of the sea were scattered all round the shore. It was all a result of the merit of Devānampiyatissa. All kinds of jewals such as the sapphire, the beryl, the ruby, and the pearls and the posts they brought to the king within a week of his coronation."

At this time both Devānampiyatissa, the great king, and Asoka, the king of Righteousness, were friends, although they had not personally seen each other. Therefore, king Tissa sent

these jewels and many other presents by way of a gift to the great king Asoka, saying: "Give these to my friend." Asoka was pleased on seeing this and sent in return the five royal insignia and many other presents for the ensuing coronation-festival, saying: 'Let them induct my friend.' Not only did he send these material presents, but also this religious present. Thus:—"I have taken refuge in the Buddha, the Law, and the Order, and have become a lay devotee in the Order of Sakyaputta. O best of men, put your trust in these three, the best of all things, and with faith take these as your refuge." The ministers returned to Laūkā and solemnised the coronation of the king.

Meanwhile king Asoka made enquiries of Moggaliputtatissa as to where the Order must be well established in future, and investigating came to know that it was to be established in a foreign country. He accordingly despatched many Theras to various parts of the world and ordered Mahamahindatthera to go and convert Tambapannidīpa. Instantly Sakka, the lord of gods, approached the Thera, saying: "Respected Sir, Mutasīva being dead, Devānampiyatissa, the great king, is ruling on his throne, and your going has been predicted by the Supreme Buddha, 'In future times the mendicant Mahinda shall convert Tambapannidipa to the Faith.' So the proper time for your departure to the best of islands has now come; I too will attend upon you." The elder complied with this request, and departing with six others from the monastery of the Caityaka mountain, flew up into the air and descended on the top of the Missaka mountain, to the east of Anuradhapura, which is known to-day also as the Cetiva mountain.

There was a great rejoicing throughout Tambapannidipa on that day. The king ordered his ministers to observe the festival and himself started for the Missaka mountain, accompanied by forty thousand attendants, with the intention of hunting. A deity who lived on this very mountain determined within himself to present the Theras to the king, and appeared before him in the form of a red deer, grazing on grass and leaves not far away from the spot where he was. The king thought within himself: "It is not proper to kill a being unconscious of danger," and he twanged his bow-The deer began to run away, taking the road to Ambatthala. The king in pursuit of the deer ascended to Ambatthala. Now the deer disappeared not very far from the place where the Theras stood. Mahindatthera, perceiving the king coming towards him at no great distance, willed that the king should see himself but not the others, and said: "Tissa, Tissa, come this way." The king, hearing him, thought within himself: "None has the boldness in Tambapannidipa to address me in such a way. And this shaveling dressed in rags dares call me by name. Who is he? A mortal or an immortal?"

The elder said:—"We are, O lord, monks, disciples of the king of righteousness. We have come from Jambudīpa out of kindness to you." King Tissa, recollecting in what way the admonition had been sent him by Asoka Dhammarāja, threw down his weapon and sat down on one side holding friendly converse with him.

While he was doing so his forty thousand followers came up and surrounded him. The Thera then showed the other elders to the king. "When did they come?" inquired the king. "They came along with me, lord," responded the Thera. "Are there any other monks like these in Jambudīpa?" asked the king. "My lord," answered the Thera, "Jambudīpa now-a-days is glittering with orange robes, and holy ones abound in all directions. There are many Arahats who know all the three Vedas, who have attained to the supernatural powers, who can penetrate into the hearts of others, and in whom human passion is extinct." The king was highly pleased to hear this speech.

The elder having discerned his intellectual skill by means of the Tree-simile and so on taught him the Dhamma, causing

men and gods to applaud. It is said:-

"Having known the king to be a wise man, the wise Thera imparted to him the small Suttanta of the elephant's foot-print simile. At the end of the sermon he, along with those forty thousand men, became established in the three Refuges."

Now the king, having invited the Thera to take food at his place the next day, went to the city and decorated the whole city as well as the palace for this occasion. Then he caused the elders to sit down and served them with choice food, specially prepared for the occasion. Then he went and sat down on one side with five hundred women headed by queen Anulā. Then the Thera caused to rain down upon them a shower of the precious jewels of the Law, and the five hundred women attained to the fruits of the First Path.

Thereafter he converted a thousand people in the elephant-stables and a thousand in Nandanavana; thus, on the second day, he established in the fruits of the First Path two thousand five hundred souls, on the third day eight or nine thousand. Thus he caused the mind of many hundreds, of many thousands, of many hundreds of thousands to imbibe the Law. It is said:

"Mahāmahindatthera like the sun, shining in the sky of Lankā, made the converted people bloom like lotuses by means of the rays of the Dhamma. Mahāmahinda in the midst of the sky of Lankā caused the converted people who were like lotuses to blossom by means of the rays of the Dhamma. Mahāma-

¹ Cullahatthipadopamam suttantam. Majjhima I. 175 ff. Compare Samyutta I. 86, Ang. V. 21, and the Dhammapada Commentary I. 228.

hinda was, too, like a cloud, in sprinkling the water of the Dhamma on the hearts of people which were like seeds, and

produced thereby the shoots of happiness."

Then the king obtained from the hands of Asoka, by means of Sumanasāmanera, relies which filled a begging bowl used by the Sammāsambuddha and the right-collar-bone relie from Sakka, and starting with a stūpa on the Cetiya mountain had stūpas built at every yojana throughout Lankā, and having enshrined the right-collar-bone relie he had set up over it the Thūpârāma dagoba. Then he planted the right great bough of the illustrious great Bodhi tree which had been brought by the Therī Sanghamittā, and worshipped it. The details of this story should be seen in the Mahāvamsa.

On account of the sin he had committed in blaming the Paccekabuddha, he was born far away, on the farther shore of the sea, and at the same time, for granting the bowl, he became

the king of Lanka.

Reflecting that a sinful action produces the one kind of fruit and a meritorious action another kind of fruit, perform, Sirs, meritorious actions, which cause not sorrow wherever you may go (in whatever existence you may be born).

. Murgh-Nāma.

By LIEUT.-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT.

Extract on Cocking ("Murgh-Nāma") from the "Sayd-gāh-i Shawkatī," an Urdu work on sport, written by Nawāb Yār Muhammad Khān of the Rāmpūr State, A.D. 1883, and two Appendices: translation by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, F.A.S.B., Secretary, Board of Examiners, Calcutta.

The Cocker must know that there are in Hindustan ¹ four breeds of fowl. First there is the $ten\bar{\imath}^2$ or common barn-door fowl kept for domestic purposes: second the $gh\bar{a}gas$ ³ or cross between the game-fowl and the $ten\bar{\imath}$: third the $karn\bar{a}tak$ or $karakn\bar{a}th$, ⁴ a breed in which the skin, bones, tongue, eyes and blood are all black; this breed is useless for fighting: and fourth the $as\bar{\imath}l$ ⁵ or Indian game-fowl, which is kept for fighting only.

The points 6 of the Indian game-cock are, beak white, shanks 7 white, eyes white and blood-shot (if the white of the eye be slightly yellowish it does not signify), the comb of medium size, the jaw and cheeks 8 large and hard and with little flesh, the bones of the neck small, the whole neck being like an iron bar, the pope's nose large, the tail-feathers small, and the jaws and wings not fleshy. In Its crow is not as long as that of the barn-door cock. In The best breed is obtained from Haiderabad, 12 Deccan.

¹ Hindustan amongst natives generally means the United Provinces.

² Tenī, H., a breed of small fowls; also a bantam.

³ A large breed with feathered feet.

⁴ Probably from the Karnatak, Deccan, just as $sabzu\bar{u}r$ is the name of a breed of fowls from Sabzwar in Persia. The test of this breed is the colour of the tongue, which should be black.

⁵ The asil is also called kulang. A common taunting proverb is:— Mān tenī bāp kulang jin ke bachche rang ba rang. "The father was a game-cock, the mother a bantam. The offspring are a mixed lot."

⁶ For further points see Appendix.

⁷ Saqain ساقیس In one Persian MS. it is laid down that the shanks must be void of red marks.

⁸ Kalla, lit. "head", is by some "Cockers" applied to the "jaw and cheeks" only.

⁹ Dum kā gath.

¹⁰ Sutā hū, ā.

¹¹ The end of the crow $(az\bar{a}n \text{ or } b\bar{a}ng)$ especially, is not so long drawn out.

¹² The Singapore cocks are also famous: they are called kal-kāṭiyā as they have black spurs. In an Indian-Persian MS. without name or date, it is stated that the Chāṭgāmī (Chittagong) breed, though fine and large, is not equal to the former.

When the game-cockerels are a year old, the cocker should keep them apart, feeding them on $b\bar{a}jra^{-1}$ wetted in water. Should $b\bar{a}jra$ not be obtainable, he must substitute wheat-flour mixed with butter. In either case he must give them but little water to drink. When the cockerel is in high condition, he must foment it with butter 2 and begin feeding it on the yolks of two eggs 3 to begin with. The following is the method of feeding on the yolks of eggs:—

Take the yolk * of one egg, one $tol\bar{a}^{5}$ of butter, one $m\bar{a}sha^{6}$ of $S\bar{a}mbhar$ salt, and four $m\bar{a}shas$ of pepper-corns: mix together and half fry, and give to the cockerel, giving it water every third or fourth day. This will make it strong and lusty.

Another Receipt.—Take the yolks of 200 eggs, of musk 2 māshas, of good ambergris 3 2 māshas, of saffron 2 māshas, of white sifted sugar 5 sers, 9 of almond kernels 2½ sers, of kernels of the Edible Pine 10 1½ sers, of pista kernels 2 sers, of walnut kernels one ser, of butter 6 sers, and of fine wheaten flour 5 sers. First fry the flour well in the butter, and then cast in the sifted sugar. Next add all the ingredients (with the exception of the saffron) having previously pounded them well. Then add to the mixture 11 the saffron well-rubbed

¹ Bājra, spiked millet, Pennisetumt yphoideum. In a Persian MS. it is stated that they should be fed on grain (dāna) and small millet (bājrī) wetted overnight, and that in the rains mustard seed (sarshaf) should be substituted for these grains. In the language of saises dāna means gram but amongst pigeon-fanciers it means the phatkan or mixed winnowed refuse of several grains, wheat, gram, pease, masūr, pulse, etc., etc. In another MS. it is stated that the following strengthening food should be given in the evening: fine flour, turmeric, white sugar, butter, 2 migqāl (13 drachm) of each, pounded and made into a halwā, and that two hours later water should be given.

Every day? The hand is warmed before the fire, the palm and fingers dipped in butter and pressed on the joints. $Senkn\bar{a}$ is a term specially applied to fomenting with $halw\bar{a}$. The $halw\bar{a}$ is tied up in a bag, warmed before a fire, and pressed on the limb.

³ Later the writer says one egg.

⁴ Indian eggs are very small.

⁵ The tolā is reckoned at 16 māshas of $6\frac{1}{2}$ grains each, and weighs therefore 184 grains Troy: in practice, however, it is calculate t at 12 māshas, a jewellers' and druggists' weight, and weighs nearly 210 grains. A rupee, however, is considered to be one tolā, and a rupee weighs onl. 10 māshas.

⁶ See above. The *māsha* weighs in practice about 17 grains.

⁷ A variety of natural salt, obtained from the saline lake of Sambar. near Ajmeer. See Khory's Bom. Mat. Med., p. 70.

^{8 &#}x27;Ambar-i ashhab, the best kind of ambergris, described as being of a clear, yellowish colour: see Makhzan-ul-Adwiyah, II, 959.

⁹ Ser about 2 lbs.

¹⁰ Chilyhoza, the seeds of the Neosia or Edible Pine, Pinus Gerardiana.

¹¹ Halwa is properly an Arab sweetmeat made of flour, sugar and butter: hence any soft, sticky mixture.

down in 'kewra' water.' The first day give one $tol\bar{a}$ as a dose, and on the top of that a feed of wheaten flour unmixed with butter, so that the grease may be removed from the cock's throat. Then put on the muzzle, either the leather muzzle,3 or the string-muzzle4 (so that it may neither pick up any grit nor drink) and let it loose to exercise itself. There are two times for exercise: first early in the morning till seven o'clock when the cockerel should be fed, spouted with water, 5 and confined under a square coop 6 or a round coop. 7 At four o'clock it must be released, spouted as before, and muzzled and freed for exercise till five o'clock. The cock should be studied, to see whether it has increased in strength or not. If the cock is lusty and strong, more $halw\bar{a}$ should be given to it and less flour. If it is not strong and has become fat, it should, at night, be dry-fomented with a pad.9 If fat has collected on the langer (stomach), it must be reduced by dry fomentation, and the cock must be kept confined in a warm place away from cold air. In the morning it should be fought for two $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ with a $dalb\bar{a}$ 10 to see whether it has improved in condition or not. If it has improved, then keep it at this weight and condition. If it has disimproved, fight it again, fat, thin, and medium, and observe in which condition it fights best and keep it in that condition. Every week increase the

² 'Arq-i-keora "keora water." The keorā is a species of Pandanus odoratissimus, a plant which bears a strong-scented flower.

3 Tomrī, a leather tip.

8 The pad is heated before the fire and applied hot.

[|] Kharal karnā, to rub down spices, etc., in butter or in juice, on a curry-stone.

⁴ $Radd\hat{a}$ (in the text incorrectly roda), is loop-muzzle of cotton-thread.

⁵ Phū'ī karnā: the mouth is filled with water and blown in a spray over the cock's face and head.

⁶ Karkul, in text incorrectly qalqul, is a square hen-coop.
7 Sūtī or sotī is a round coop, generally called tāpā.

⁹ Do $p\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}$. A match is made for so many $p\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}$ or intervals for rest, The first day, the first $p\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}$ is 20 minutes, the second 30, the third 40, the fourth 50, and the fifth 60. On the second day (or any $p\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}$ after the fifth) every $p\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}$ is 60 minutes.

On the first day, the match may commence at any time between 2 and 4 o'clock, usually the second hour. On the second day the match must commence at 2 o'clock. An antagonist failing to come to the scratch when time is called, or to turn up at the correct time, loses a $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$. Say A and B make a match for five $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$. A sees his cock getting the worst of the encounter: he claims a $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$. The fight is stopped for 20 minutes, while both pitters spout their cocks, etc. A, however, has now only 4 $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ to his credit while B has still 5. The cocker who first loses his five $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ is counted the loser, and has to pay. Though the duration of each $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ is fixed by scale, no limit is fixed for each round in fighting. Written rules are not drawn up: custom alone rules

¹⁰ Dalbā H. is a weak barn-door cock or an inferior game-cock, kept for a young game-cock to bully. Chutthā is a quail kept for a fighting quail to bully.

number of rounds $(p\bar{a}n\bar{i})$ with the $dalb\bar{a}$ by one, till the number of 11 pani is reached, which is called by cockers lam.

After each day's bout foment with the following:—

Receipt. Take of turmeric 4 oz., of dry ginger 2 oz., of small pepper 2 2 tolās, of aloes 2 tolās, of maidā lakrī 3 one tolā, of butter ½ lb., of wheaten flour ½ lb., of white sugar ½ lb., of almonds 4 tolās, and of spikenard 4 2 tolās. Pound and make into a halwa and put into two bags, and foment by first dipping the bag into butter and then applying to the joints. Use one bag in the evening and the other in the morning, and anoint with the following dressing:—

Ingredients of the zimad or ointment 5: Take of turmeric 2 māshas, of dry ginger 2 māshas, of zedoary 6 2 māshas, of dry mako⁷ 2 māshas, of small pepper 2 māshas, of spikenard 2 māshas, of alum 2 māshas, of maidā lakrī 8 2 māshas, and of aloes 2 māshas. Pound all these ingredients and cook them in

water, and apply as a thick dressing to the cock's face.

A second dry fomentation s: Maidā lakrī 10 9 māshas, baibarang 11 4 māshas, taj 12 6 māshas, pomegranate-rind 18 one māsha, sajjī 14 3 māshas, green māzū 15 4 māshas, white sugar one māsha, and butter 1 lb. Pound, mix, and make into a halwa, and foment the cock with it after battle.

Ingredients of a second ointment or zimād: Take of maidā lakrī 9 māshas, of round zedoaru 16 6 māshas, of tai 17 2 māshas, of misī 18 7 māshas, of nāspāl 19 (pomegranate-rind) 2 māshas, of dry mako 20 2 māshas, of white cumin seeds 21 one māsha, of majīth 22 2 māshas, of chiniā gond 23 2 māshas, of

1 Lām H. is an expedition, a raid.

3 The bark of Litsaea sebifera.

* Bāl-chhar Spikenard, Nardostachys Jatamansi.

5 For a description of the zimād see Makhzanu'l-Adwiya. Vol. I. p. 92. An ointment, a dressing and also a poultice.

6 Jadwar, zedoary, Curcuma zedoaria; Khory, p. 126.

7 Mako, Solanum nigrum, Khory, p. 454.

9 Vide note 3, above.

9 Takmīd.

10 Vide note 3, above.

II Fruits of Embelia Ribes.

12 Taj, H., Malabar cassia bark. Cinnamomum Tamala.

13 Nāspāl, Hind., rind of the Pomegranate, Punica granatum.

14 Sanii, H., a variety of carbonate of soda; natron.

15 Mazu. P., the Gall or Dyer's Oak, Quercus injectoria.

16 Ambā haldī, round zedoary, Curcuma aromatica.

17 Vide note 12, above.

18 According to the Makhzan, the Hindi name for Kakanj, Withania coagulans or Indian Rennet.

19 Vide note 13, above.

20 Vide note 7, above.

² The small variety of long pepper, Piper longum.

²¹ Zira safed, white cumin, Cuminum cyminum.

²² Majith, Indian medder, Rubia cordifolia.

⁹³ Bengal kino, the gum of Butea frondosa.

green $m\bar{a}z\bar{u}^{-1}$ one tola, of betel-leaf juice ² a sufficiency, of double-distilled wine, a sufficient quantity. Grind the ingredients and then heat them in the wine and betel-leaf juice, and dress or anoint the cock's face.

Ingredients for washing a cock's face.—Ambā haldī 2 māshas, fried alum of Yemen 3 one māsha, aloes 2 māshas, dry mako 2 māshas, opium one māsha, leaves of taj * 2 māshas, juice of green mako 5 a sufficient quantity. Cook all the ingredients in hot water, wash the cock's face with the liquid, and dry with a handkerchief.

Receipt for a food to be given to the cock before battle.— Take of syrup of sweet pomegranates one tolā, of preserved $\bar{a}ml\bar{a}^6$ one, of apples one, of preserved quinces one, of gold leaf 6 $m\bar{a}shas$, of silver leaf 6 $m\bar{a}shas$, of barberries 2 $m\bar{a}shas$, of cucumber seeds 2 $m\bar{a}shas$, of $k\bar{a}sn\bar{\imath}^7$ seeds 3 $m\bar{a}shas$, of seed of the bel fruit 2 $m\bar{a}shas$. Grind; add the pomegranate syrup; roll into pills of four $m\bar{a}shas$ each, and cover with gold and silver leaf, and give four $m\bar{a}shas$ to the cock; after one ghari 8 go to the cock-pit 9 and fight your cock. If you find a lack of fire in the cock, give it half a fresh jalebī, 10 peppercorns, and the egg of a red fowl, mixed with the juice of garlic and the juice of green ginger. Next, tying up the spurs 11 with cloth, and then spouting the bird, make it fight. It then rests with the cocker 12 to make or mar the bird.

Further binding on the horn covering ¹³ of the beak, if it becomes loosened, fitting (i.e., imping) a cock with a spur ¹⁴, imping a feather, ¹⁵ cutting round the eyelids, ¹⁶ sewing up the eyelids, ¹⁷ are also the business of a cocker.

- 1 Vide note 15, p. 76,
- ² Areca Catechu.
- å Shabb-i-Yamānī: the best kind of alum. See $Ma\underline{k}hzan$, Vol. II. p. 832
 - 4 Vide note 12, p. 76.
 - b Vide note 7, p. 76.
- ⁶ The fresh fruit of the Emblic Myrobalan, *Phyllanthus Emblica*, preserved as a confection.
 - ⁷ Kāsnī, Endive chichory, Cichorium Intybus.
 - The space of twenty-four minutes; a small (indefinite) period of time
 - 10 Jalebī, a sweetmeat made of inspissated milk, flour and sugar.
- 11 Kāntā bāndhnā is blunting the spur with a file and then binding it up to make it ineffective.
 - 🗽 Khilārī, sportsman.
- 13 Chonch, the upper mandible and $jabr\bar{a}$, the lower. The chilkā or horn covering of the beak sometimes gets loosened by fighting.
- 14 Kāntā charhānā. If a spur is broken another natural spur is taken from another cock and fitted on.
 - 15 Par ganthnā "to imp a cock's or a hawk's feather."
- 16 Chakkar chashm ke tarāshnā, cutting off, during the fight, the swollen flesh that closes the eyes and prevents the cock seeing. The eye will thenceforward always remain open since the eyelid is removed. This is a delicate and very rarely performed operation.
 - 17 Chaupalkā tānknā: if during a fight the lids swell from wounds,

To know the colours and breeding of a game-cock.—You must know that the following are the colours of the game-fowl:—

1. $L\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ (or red).

2. $Pil\bar{a}^{-1}$ (or dark yellow).

3. $Jaw\bar{a}^{2}$ (or well-mixed white and black).

- 4. $Ch\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ (or spotted, main colour dark with white spots, i.e., of several colours).
 - 5. $N\bar{u}r\bar{i}$ (or pure white).
 - 6. Lākhorī (or very dark red).
 - 7. Kesariyā 3 (or light yellow).
 - 8. Gul-i khiyār 4 (or ——?).
 - 9. Do- $b\bar{a}z$ (or half the wing $l\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ and half white).

10. Siyāh (or black).

Game-fowls are found in all these colours. The game cock has a beak, white like a pealed almond or like ivory, and the stalke, feet, and nails are white like the beak, and down the middle of the stalke there is a line drawn ⁵: the eyes are white and blood-shot, the comb is small, and the head large. A cock with a hanging comb is a powerful spurrer ⁶; but one with a small comb is quick and active. One with a large, straight and castellated comb and very pendulous wattles ⁷ is called bihangum ⁸ or "awkward looking", and one with a small comb shorter than its head is called tikariya ⁹ and is quick and active, and if the pope's nose is hard and compact ¹⁰ so much the better.

In the author's opinion the best birds have thick, powerful beaks, white as described above; the eyes white like lustrous pearls; large jaws and head; a small comb; the $t\bar{u}tan^{11}$ bone is conspicuous; the neck short and the neck-bones 12 small, fine, and the ridges small, fleshless, and strong as an iron rod; and the back broad like the stone of a hand-mill; the feathers and the muhra, 13 $gul-k\bar{a}r$ or spotted, and beautiful like the eye of a

the upper or lower lids are stitched to the bottom or the top of the head so that the eyes are forcibly kept open and the cock can see. When in about 10 days the swelling goes down the stitches are removed.

1 Yellow is not a game colour.

² Or jāwā.

3 "Saffron-coloured."

4 Gul-i-khairū? Marsh mallow flowers, Althaa officinalis.

⁵ The scales (fils or $p\bar{u}lak$) should so meet in front that an indented line is formed.

6 Katet strikes forcibly and quickly.

7 Lolki; wattles, below.

9 Bihangam, Hindi, clumsy in shape and also awkward in manner. 9 Tikariya or tekar with a small low comb, in Hindi chaptā tāj. It is not necessary to cut such a comb.

10 Taini fowls have a soft loose pope's nose. The tail-feathers, too,

should droop and not point upwards.

11. Tūtan, the neckbone next the skull.

12 Garden ke manke.

apparently a misprint.

peacock's feather. The bird should be handsome, and shapely, and active, and quick as a cobra in movement; and in fighting it should be hama-gir, and retiring after a blow so as to avoid its adversary's counter; and should it receive a blow, it should so retaliate as to lay its adversary at its feet in the throes of death, fluttering as though its throat had been cut.

To make the young cockerel strong and fit for battle.—When the cockerel is four months old the cocker should separate it from the mother and make it familiar with him, and give it daily two almonds mixed with $\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ (course wheaten flour) and feed it on $pil\bar{a}$, or $s\bar{a}lan$, tet., i.e., whatever the cocker eats himself, and give it $halw\bar{a}$, of yolks of eggs, according to the following receipt:—

Receipt.—The yolk of one egg, clarified butter $9 \text{ } m\bar{a}shas$, white sugar one $tol\bar{a}$, ground pepper-corns $2 \text{ } m\bar{a}shas$, seed of red chillies one $m\bar{a}sha$, almonds three, pistachio nuts two, black raisins b two, one gold leaf, fine wheaten flour $25 \text{ } d\bar{a}ms$, 6

Lahore salt $^{\uparrow}$ three māshas. Make into a halwa.

In the morning give half a belly-full of the halwā, and on the top of it half a belly-full of balls of course wheaten flour. After exercising below, put on the muzzle, spout water over it's face, shampoo with the hand, and confine in a qalqul or square coop, releasing it at four in the afternoon. After a time look and see if it is thirsty, and if it is, take it out of the coop and give it water. At four o'clock release it. If it is thirsty it will drink. If it is not thirsty and wont drink, then again spout it and shampoo it, and exercise it for an hour. After that bring it into the house, and confining a hen in a small basketcage, 10 let loose the cockerel that it may see the hen and run round and round her and by the exercise increase his strength, but do not let him tread the hen. After running, lift up the

3 Game chicks will remain with the mother for a year if not interfered with, but common fowls not more than 4 or 5 months.

¹ Hama-gir, adj.; applied to a cock that will seize with the beak any part of its antagonist's body: opposed to ek-gharā, adj., one that always attacks a particular shot.

Pichhal-pā,i karnā.

^{*} Sālan, anything eaten with bread or with rice, and specially vegetables cooked with meat, such as curry, etc. Game fowls are fed from the hand and are not allowed to pick up food from the ground lest the beak should become worn. Some game-fowl given to the translator were so wedded to the hand that they starved rather than pick up food from the ground.

⁵ Mawez-i munaqqu, black raisins, bloom raisins.

⁶ Dām; according to the Makhzan, p. 96, it is a weight of five tank or 20 māshas.

⁷ Rock salt from Lahore.

⁸ Tahlānā.

By grasping and pressing all the limbs and joints.
 Khānchā or khānchī.

cockerel, and shampoo him. In the evening see whether the cock has digested its food. If it has, then in the evening too give it halwa, etc., as before. If, however, the cock has not digested its morning meal, give it a few whole pepper-corns: the cocker had, too, better continue to give it pepper-corns in the evening, and keep it awake by lamp-light for an hour, tickling it under the pope's nose to make it oil itself. 1 Then setting it down on a swing made out of a child's cot 2 swing it for an hour, or else place it on a perch. 3 Then confine it somewhere in a safe place, in a basket-cage. In the morning at prayer time, take it out of the coop, give it water to drink, and then spout it, and, putting on the muzzle, let it exercise 6 itself for a full hour. After this feed it. You must gradually increase the amount of $halw\bar{a}$ and decrease the amount of flour, feeding and treating the bird as already described for forty days. Once a week too, at night, you must foment it with a damp, hot, pad, fomenting those parts of the body that have accumulated fat. The places to foment are, first from the head to the neck or rather to the shoulders, next the two wings on the top, next the thighs inside and outside, also the hip joints and the loins, and underneath between the legs, omitting the lower gut or the stomach near the anus, and also the breast. The object of fomenting is to make flesh and ioints hard and strong.

When the cockerel is ten months old then feed on the

following halwā:—

Receipt for strengthening the cock.—Take of white sugar one pound, butter one pound, fine wheaten flour one and a half pounds, hen's eggs 39, pistachio nuts 4 oz., almonds 4 oz., saffron 6 $m\bar{a}shas$, cloves 3 $tol\bar{a}s$, cardamums one $tol\bar{a}$, nutmegs 2, sweet fennel 2 oz., black pepper 2 $tol\bar{a}s$, gum mastic of

1 Kurīz karnā, the author's word for to preen or oil, is properly "to

moult." Ordinary fowls are said not to oil their feathers.

3 The author probably means a hanging perch.

4 i.e., about an hour before sunrise.

 5 $T\bar{a}p\bar{a}$, properly a dome-shaped coop, either of close basket-work or else barred like a cage.

6 Large heavy cocks may be exercised for an hour, but small active cocks get worn out and should be only exercised for 4 hour—so an

experienced cocker informs the translator.

The method of strengthening the cock's legs is to lift it with both hands a few inches from the ground and drop it. This is done a few times and the cock is then shampooed on the breast and legs. It is then again 'danced' as before, and so on.

Fighting quails are 'danced' by hand on a cloth.

 $^{^2}$ Katholi, dim. of kāth. Some cockers say this is injurious. The swinging strengthens the legs. To exercise a cock, the cocker carrying a second cock in his arms will run for a short distance with it and then show it to its antagonist. The cock on the ground will run up to the attack when the cocker repeats the manœuvre, and so on.

⁷ Saunt or sont, H., Indian sweet fennel seeds. Foeniculum vulgare.

Rūm 16 māshas, sal ammoniac fried 6 māshas, Indian senna 2 6 māshas. Socotrine aloes 6 māsha, silver-leaf 3, gold-leaf one, preserved apples 9, preserved quinces one, preserve of har's nine, sultana raisins 4 oz., dried apricots 4 oz., black raisins 4 oz. Make into a halwa in the ordinary way. The first day give one ounce of the halwa, and on the top of it a few pills of flour. After three days, again give the halwa with a few dough pills; and, as described above, put on the muzzle and confine under a coop and act as already described. If the cock does not digest the halvā then give it the following digestive 5:—

Receipt to promote digestion and increase appetite.—All four kinds of Ajava seeds 6 4 tolās, mālkangnī 7 one tolā, black salt 8 one tolā, bay salt 6 one tolā, chūrī salt 10 one tolā. Lahore salt 11 one $tol\bar{a}$, dry ginger one $tol\bar{a}$, pepper-corns one $tol\bar{a}$, dried mint one $tol\bar{a}$, English vinegar a sufficient quantity, Indian senna 12 one $tol\bar{a}$, green ginger one $tol\bar{a}$, garlic juice a sufficient quantity, mustard seed one tola, long pepper one $tol\bar{a}$.

Another receipt for halwā.—Wheat one seer, goat's milk 2 seers, almonds 2 tolās, pistachio nuts one tolā, seed of the edible pine one $tol\bar{a}$. First soak the wheat in the milk and make it into a starch; then make the whole into a halwā. Next add the following: Peeled walnut kernels 2 tolas, turnip seed one $tol\bar{a}$, raddish seed one $tol\bar{a}$, juice of both kinds of pomegranate 13 one $tol\bar{a}$, peeled celery stalk 14 one $tol\bar{a}$, Chinese rhubarb 15 two tolās, gum mastic of Rūm 16 6 māshas.

¹ The word $R\bar{u}m$ applies to Asia Minor as well as to Greece.

² Sanāmakkī, Cassia lanceolata.

³ Terminalia chebula, the chebulic or black myrobalan.

⁴ Khūbānī are a kind of dried apricots from Kabut.

⁵ Chūran or pāchak is a digestive, generally in powder form. 6 Ajwain is, according to Watt, Bishop's weed and Lovage.

are the Indian, the Khurasani, the Rūmī and the Ajmūd varieties.

Mr. Burkill of the Indian Museum tells me that the first is the seed of Carum copticum; that the second is 10 per cent, of the seeds of Hyoseyamus plus 90 per cent. of purposely sifted grit; that the fourth is the seed of Carum Roxburghianum; while the third is the seed of an allied plant common in the Punjab bazaars but not yet determined. Hyoscyamus niger is the English Henbane.

Mālkangnī Oleum Nigrum, Celastrus paniculata.
 Namak-i siyāh, black salt, Khory, p. 70. 9 Namak-i sang, bay salt, Khory, p. 67.

¹⁰ Namak i churī=kānch-namak.

¹¹ Vide note 7, p. 79.
12 Vide note 2, above.

¹³ Probably the juice of the sweet and acid varieties of pomegranate.

¹⁴ Maghz-i karais, celery, Apium graveolens.

¹⁶ Chinese Rhubarb, said to be the dried root stock of Rheum officinale. Raivand or rāwand-i Chīnī is the name of the imported article of commerce.

¹⁶ Vide note 1, above.

 $bat\bar{a}sha^{-1}$ 6 $m\bar{a}shas$, sugar-candy 4 oz., cardamums one $tol\bar{a}$, the yolks of nine eggs. Fry the yolks in butter and then add them to the $halw\bar{a}$; put the whole into a coarse cloth and rub through, and then add wheaten flour sufficient to soak up all liquid. Give of this to the cock as described above from six $m\bar{a}shas$ up to two $tol\bar{a}s$.

When the cockerel is ten months old, fight it one $p\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ with a $dalb\bar{a}^2$ of its own age, but first put the muzzle on to the $dalb\bar{a}$. Afterwards spout and suck the cock's beak and face well, to remove blood-spots, and damp a rag in water and clean the inside of the throat with it.

If the jaws be fleshy³ or if the wattles are large and it is desired to remove them, then extract the oil of bhilawan 4 and rub it on the cock's face, and if it please God this defect will be removed and will not return. If the comb is too large and it is desired to cut it off, then, after fighting, cut the comb immediately to the size desired, applying to the wound the white web 5 of a spider, or else staunch with small feathers plucked from under the cock's wings; until a recovery takes place do not spout the cock. Agar murah ko sāda hī pharkana ho 6 then take a quarter of a piece of turmeric and add half a nux vomica nut and a little edible lime 8 and heat over the fire, and plaster the mixture thickly on the cock's face; but first of all take 9 māsha of gur 9 with 3 māsha of ground turmeric and make into a pill and give it to the cock; and, if it is the cold season, keep the cock in the sun, if the hot in the shade. The cock must not be fed during the day but in the evening after fomentation, when it should be fed on halwa or on bread dipped in fresh milk. In the evening the cock should be fomented with a pad dipped in a liquid decoction.

 $^{^{\}rm I}$ A sweetmeat or sugar-cake (of a spongy texture and hollow within).

² Dalbā a cocking term for a common or a half-bred cock kept to be bullied by a game cockerel. The dalbā is muzzled and hobbled before being pitted against its aristocratic antagonist.

One writer states that a cockerel should not be fought till he is one year old and that he should then be pitted against one of his own age for five minutes the first day, ten the second, and fifteen the third, and then for as long as desirable; and that at the expiration of the fixed time the birds should be separated and their beaks sucked and blown upon. (If a child falls and hurts itself, Indians generally blow upon the seat of injury with the idea of cooling the spot and lessening the pain.)

³ Bad-goshtā adj., with too much flesh on the jaws. The wattles only can be cut off, not the flesh from the jaws.

⁴ Bhilāwan H., the marking-nut plant, Semecarpus anacardium.
5 i.e., the "white web" of small spiders opposed to the "yellow web" of large spiders.

⁶ Author's meaning unintelligible. He probably means, "If it is wished to fight the cock at once before the wound has healed."

⁷ Turmeric is sold in pieces about two inches long.

⁸ Chūna-e khurdani.

V Qand-i siyāh is probably gur, a raw, unrefined sugar.

After fifteen days when the cock has recovered from its wound let it be fought for two pānī with the unmuzzled dalbā, and act as described above. After twenty-two days let the trainer fight his cock three $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ and act as before. After forty days let him fight four pani, and lastly after an interval five $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$. After fighting five $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$, he should foment the cock's face with a small bag of halwa, and dipping a pad into the hot liquid application he should foment the loins, the hip-joints. both the shoulder joints, the breast, and between the legs as described before. After this evening fomentation, he should feed the cock on $halw\bar{a}$, or on bread dipped in fresh milk. In the morning he should again foment in the same manner, and, mixing some of the best missi in wine should heat it on the fire and paint the cock's face thickly with it. Increase gradually the number of $p\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ up to eleven, acting as just described. Then fight your cock for a wager with someone, having first put it on dry food 2, and please God the cock of your antagonist will be unable to face yours.

Just before fighting your cock, you (being in a state of ceremonial purity), should repeat once into each of its ears the words "Allah the Immutable" and exhale your breath, and if it please God Most High your cock will never deteriorate.

Should your cock show signs of flight then give it this

badriga 3 [reinforcement !]:—

Musk one $m\bar{a}sha$, $tab\bar{a}sh\bar{i}r^4$ three $m\bar{a}shas$, small cardamoms three $m\bar{a}shas$: pound and put in a paper. Take of juice of Indian sweet fennel seed two ounces and put it in a vessel. When you see that your cock intends flight, first give it two $m\bar{a}shas$ of the powdered medicine, and then two $tol\bar{a}s$ of the juice. Your cock will go mad and will never quit the field.

When you wish to cease fighting your cock and to pair him with a hen do so, but pair him with a mature hen ⁵, but this must be in the warm days of spring. You must not mate your cock with a young hen. ⁶

Missī, a powder (compound of yellow myrobalan, gall-nut, iron filings, vitriol, etc.), supposed to be beneficial for the teeth. It turns the teeth black.

 $^{^{2}}$ $R\bar{u}kh\bar{a}$ $karn\bar{a}$ is to stop feeding on $halw\bar{a}$ and butter, etc., and to feed on $b\bar{u}jr\bar{a}$, etc.

A Persian word meaning "a vehicle in medicine; a corrective or anything prescribed to be taken with medicine."

⁴ Thbāshīr, a silicious substance found in the interior of the hollow stems of some hamboos, chiefly Bambusa arundinacea. In modern Arabic tabāshir means chalk.

^b Pakhat; of 3 or 6 years old. The hen will certainly desire the attentions of the cock in spring; only a few game hens will mate in the cold weather.

⁶ Pattha mase., and patthi fem., i.e., chicks about a year old. These words are also applied to young pigeons (squeakers), and to young wrestlers

As long as the cock is treading the hen, give him daily a little halwā to keep his strength up.

Diseases of the Game-Fowl.

The game fowl is subject to several diseases: (1) Zahrbād 1 or Ervsipelas; (2) Chechak or small-pox; (3) Tālū kā sar-jānā or canker of the palate; and (4) Laqua or paralysis of the face.

There are three forms of zahrbād. In the first, the comb turns black; in the second, the face turns black; and in the third, the nails and comb turn black. If the comb becomes black, chew up some cocoa-nut, with betel-leaf prepared for eating, and give it to the cock. If the face turns black, take long peppers of the smaller variety 3 and old gur and mix and make pills and give to the cock. If the nails turn black, cut off the cock's comb, and pound up cinnamon, gūgal, and Lahore salt, together with betel-leaf, and make a pill the size of a wild ber fruit 6 and give it to the cock. Please God a complete recovery will take place.

Receipt for Zahrbād.—Khurāsānī ajwāsin 6 two dām, pepper-corns 7 māshas, long-pepper 7 māshas, dry ginger one fulūs (pice), bindal one fulus, parched wheat 7 mashas, bairbarang 10 7 māshas, black hellobore 1 7 māshas, sonf 2 3 māshas, anise 3 3 māshas, caraway seed 14 7 māshas, kālī zīrī 15 7 māshas, rock salt one tolā, namak-i shor 16 one tolā, black salt 17 one tolā, sāmbhar 18 salt one $tol\bar{a}$, $kasond\bar{i}$ leaves one $tol\bar{a}$, leaves of Persian lilac 20

2 Pan kā berā is a pān-leaf containing the areca-nut, lime, spices, catechu, etc., prepared for chewing.

3 Pipal-i khurd.

• Gum Gügal or Indian Bdellium, Balsamodendron Mukul.

5 Ber-i-saḥrā,ī, i.e., the size of a small acorn. 6 Seeds of Hyoscyamus niger, black henbane.

7 Vide note 6, p. 79. 8 A pice weight is 6 mashas. According to the Makhzan, p. 95, it is 10 mashas; while the Alamgiri pice, according to the same authority. is equivalent to one tola or 12 mashas.

9 Bindal, H., a medicinal herb, resembling the betel-leaf.

Makhzan, I. 374. Probably Luffa echinata.

10 Vide note 11, p. 76.

11 Kutki, H., a bitter root, Picrorhiza kurrooa.

12 Vide note 7, p. 80.

18 Anisūn, the Anise, Pimpinella anisum.

14 Zira-e siyāh, Caraway seed (Carum nigrum).

16 Kāli zīrī, the Purple Floa bane, Vernonia anthe mintica.

16 Khārī nimak, earth-salt: nimak shor, saltpetre-salt.

17 Vide note 8, p. 81. 19 Vide note 7, p. 74.

19 Kasondi, H., Cassia occidentalis, Khory, p. 258. 20 Bakayan, the Persian lilac, Melia Azedarach.

¹ Zahr-bad, a name given to several vague diseases, including erysipelas, quinsy, leprous sores, etc. Horses and elephants are specially subject to zahrbad.

one $tol\bar{a}$, leaves of 'Inab'-'s-Sa'lab' (or make) one $tol\bar{a}$, dried leaves of the $n\bar{i}m^2$ tree one $tol\bar{a}$, juice of the leaves of the castor-oil plant a sufficient quantity, fresh green ginger one $tul\bar{u}s$, dry mint two $tol\bar{a}s$, garlic two $tol\bar{a}s$, seed of red chillies one $tol\bar{a}$, old qur two $tol\bar{a}s$, Indian senna 3 one $tol\bar{a}$, common country ajwārin three dam, black myrobalan one māsha. palās pāprā 6 4 $m\bar{a}shas$, $bhil\bar{a}wan$ nuts seven, flowers of the $mah\bar{u},\bar{a}$ tree * 9 māshas, aloes wood 9 9 māshas, dark aloes wood 10 9 māshas. pale ambergris 11 one māsha, musk two ratī, 12 saffron 6 māshas, otters' testes 13 3 māshas, salep 14 6 māshas, curds from the belly of a young Arabian camel 16 6 māshas, āgargarhā 16 3 dām, taj 17 two $d\bar{a}m$, gum mastic of Rūm 18 two tolās, the red-velvet insect 18 two tolās, walnut 9 māshas, cinnamon 6 māshas, cloves one tolā, quick-silver 9 māshas, juice of betel-leaf two ounces, opium one tola. Pound all together, make a pill the size of a wild kunār 20 and give when necessary; give also warm water to drink.

Chechak or small-pox.—This is the common and well-known disease that attacks men as well as birds and beasts. It arises from black bile. 21 Every man holds and expresses his own opinion concerning the origin of this disease, but most people

1 Solanum nigrum, Khory, p. 454. For make, vide note 7, p. 76.

² Melia Azadirachta, the Neem or Margosa Tree

3 Vide note 2, p. 81.

4 Common ajwain, in contradistinction to ajwain-i-khurāsānī, the henbane: vide note 6, p. 81.

b Halila-e khurd, the ripe fruit of Terminalia Chebula, the chebulic

or Black Myrobalan.

6 Pālāspāprā, the seeds of Butea frondosa or Bastard teak.

7 Vide note 4, p. 82.

8 Mahū,ā Bassia lati/olia. Native wine is made from this fruit. Bears are fond of the fruit.

9 'Ud-i-hindi (Indian wood), technical name for the Aloes-wood,

Aquilaria Agallocha.

- 10 'Ud-i-jharqi, aloes-wood that sinks when thrown into water; it is of a black colour. See Watt's Dictionary of Economic Products, A. 1252.
 - 11 Ambar-i-ashhab, white or pale ambergris, pure ambergris.

12 i.e., about 4 grains.

- 13 Jund-i-bedastar, the castorcum of European writers. Vide also Khory, p. 101.
- 14 Sá'lab-i-misrī, salep, the root of a species of orchis, Orchis mascula.
 15 Māya-y-shutur-i-a'rabī; a forty-days' old camel is allowed to suck its fill of milk and is five hours later slaughtered, when the milk in the intestines is found in a curdled state. This is dried and sold as a drug.

16 Agarqarhā, the Pellitory of Spain, Anacyclus Pyrethrum.

17 Vide note 12, p. 76.
18 Vide note 1, p. 81.

10 Bir-bahuti, the red-velvet insect, the scarlet fly, Trombidium grandissimum.

20 Kunār, P=H., ber, the Indian Jujube, or Chinese Date, Zizyphus Jujuba.

21 Ar. As Sawdā, an imagined secretion of the renal or atrabiliary glands.

hold the view that it is engendered in the foetus while still in

the womb, through the mother's menstrual blood.

Remedy.—Kakarwandā leaves 1 2 tolās, pepper-corns 4 māshas. Apply juice of the leaves of the above plant to the cock's face. Then pound together the two ingredients as stated and make into pills the size of a wild ber 2 and give daily morning and evening. Should a cure not take place, then burn old leather and smoke the cock's head. Should even this not result in a cure, then grind together equal quantities of cubebs 3 and red ochre.

Another.---رفن سياة مردار مين مردار مردار

Disease of the Palate.—This is a common disease known to

all cockers: it needs no description.

Remedy.—Safida of Kāshghār 14 6 māshas, white catechu 15 4 māshas. Grind together and apply to the palate, which should be first well cleansed. Take juice of henna leaves 4 ozs., red ochre one tolā, rasaut 16 9 māshas, cubebs 9 māshas. Mix a suffici-

(Watt's Dictionary.)

** Kabāb-chīnī, H., cubebs, Piper cubeba.

4 Gerū, red ochre.

5 Chūna-e-sadat, called in Hindustani sīpī kā chūna.

6 Sajji, natron, impure carbonate of soda.

7 The Sanbar stag.

9 Asgand nagawri, the root of Withania somnifera.

⁹ Kath, the pale catechu of India, a groy crystalline substance prepared from a concentrated decoction of Acacia Catechu wood.

10 Murdar sang, litharge or oxide of lead.

11 .Imla-sar, the pale yellow variety of sulphur, also called Kibrit-i-

Fārsī. Vide Khory, p. 60.

12 It is a convention to wash it in a hundred waters, Kamilā H., a red powder chiefly obtained from the ripe capsules of Mallotus philippinensis.

13 Kaselā Hindi, the name of two species of gall. Called in Bengali Barā and chhotā mā,ī. Dr. Hooper of the Indian Museum tells me that the latter is the gall of Tamarix articulata, a tree abundant in Sindh and in the Punjah. The Arabic name is said to be samarat 'l-asl. The former is the gall of Tamarix gallica. Both are astringent and used in tanning instead of the true oak-gall.

14 Saleda-e-Kashyhārī, carbonate of lead.

15 Vide note 9, above.

The leaves of Blumea lacera, also called in Hindi janglī mūlī.

The fruit of the wild ber, Zizyphus Jujuba, resembles the crabapple in flavour and appearance and is never larger than a gooseberry.

¹⁶ Rasaut. H., the dried extract of the root of the barberry, Berberis aristata.

ent quantity and paint thickly on the palate, but first cleanse the palate well with cloth. Do this twice or thrice a day. Should this application not prove effective, try the following receipt, to which some cockers add missi powder.

Receipt.—Large cardamons one tolā, shell tabāshīr 2 5 mashas, مقفش 6 māshas. Make into a powder and apply to the palate three or four times a day, and if God please a complete recovery will result.

Dislocation or sprain of the wing or leg.—This is an accident known to all cockers, and is caused by the cock jumping from a height, or running too much, or from a blow, or from rough handling by the cocker. The cock is useless for further fighting purposes, but can be kept for breeding, after treatment.

Remedy. — Kutkī ⁵ 9 $m\bar{a}shas$, $b\bar{a}rtang$ ⁶ 5 $m\bar{a}shas$, dried Bukhara plums ⁷ seven, opium 2 $m\bar{a}shas$. Make into an ointment and "foment" with this.

Another.—Mummy 8 one $rat\bar{\imath}$ (about 2 grains), pulp of the $gekw\bar{a}r$ 9 leaf 4 ozs., $h\bar{a}l\bar{u}n$ 10 2 $tol\bar{a}s$, henna leaf 2 $tol\bar{a}s$, butter 4 ozs., white sugar 4 ozs., fine wheat-flour one lb. Make into a $halw\bar{a}$ in the ordinary way and foment with this.

Laqua or Paralysis of the face.—In this disease, which is also called hawā-zadagī or wind-stroke, the cock's head is twisted to one side.

Remedy.—Give soup made of wild pigeons or lawā-quails.¹¹ Also give to drink an infusion of kānphal,¹² saffron, opiumpoppy-heads, small long-pepper,¹³ and garlie; give this and not water. Keep the cock in a dark place. After this ¹⁴ purge.

Receipt for a purge.—Gum $gogal^{-15}$ one $tol\bar{a}$, turmeric one

¹ Missi, vide note 1, p. 83.

² Tabāshīr-i ṣadafī, vide note 4, p. 83. In modern Arabic ṭabāshīr means " chalk."

[.]the shink سقذقور = سقنقس ? دود ساهنقس 3

^{*} Ordinary natives, not cockers, often carry a fowl by one or by both wings.

⁵ Vide note 11, p. 84.

⁶ Bartang, seeds of Plantago major, or P. psyllium.

¹ Alū Bukhāra, the Plum, ālūcha (Prunus communis).

Osteo colla, supposed to be an exudation from mummies.
 Ghigwar, H., Barbadoes or Indian Aloes, Alce vera of Linn.

¹⁰ Hālūn is the cress; but this is probably a corrupt reading for haluūn, the berries of Asparagus officinalis.

¹¹ Lawa, a name given to several species of quail used for fighting, other than the common quail.

¹² Kānphal=kā'ephal, the bark of Myrica Nagi.

¹³ Vide note 2, p. 76.

¹⁴ Apparently the next day.

¹⁶ Vide note 4, p. 84.

tolā, dry powdered ginger 1 9 mashas, black myrobalan 2 9 māshas. old gur 2½ tolās. Make into pills and of these give one tola in weight; give, too, in the evening, warm water to

drink.³ Please God a recovery will take place.

Remedy for a hen that is egg-bound or for one that lays eggs with soft shells -To make a hen lay, some experts give burnt cowrie-shells, while others give wheat-flour mixed with barley-bran, and others again give wax and gum-mastic mixed. Some cockers, to an egg-bound hen, give, mixed with wax, two grains of glass as finely powdered as antimony for the eyes; and to a hen that does not lay, one māsha of similarly ground glass and one māsha of wax, mixed together and made into a pill: this should prove efficacious. Others give in the morning before food bone-dust mixed with wax, for a period of from three days to one week, which is a good and proved remedy for a hen-pigeon also, the quantity being regulated to the size of the bird.

On making a dusting-place for towls.—Dig a hole in the ground about one and a half spans deep, and fill up with fine earth as fine as hemp-seed. Let the fowls take dust-baths and clean themselves in this. Should lice make their appearance, or canker of the feathers, then take 4 ounces of ghar-bachcha b with 1 lb. of onion-juice, 1 lb. of old water from a used waterpipe, and sprinkle the fowl with it, and then let the fowl dust itself in the pit.

To cause a broken spur to grow.—Take of the marking-nut plant half a pound, castor-oil seed 1 lb., small burnt fish 2 ounces, mom-rawahan 4 ounces, and red mustard seed (sarson). Make all into an ointment and bind on to the injured spur with a cloth, and spout the spur daily, three times, with cold water. Do this for a week. If the soles of the feet get swollen, scrape them, apply to them a thick coating of antimony for the eyes, and bind above that a rag well smeared with the

above ointment.

I South satū'ā; south is dry ginger; while satū'ā is applied to a special kind of ginger, and means 'pulverable, free from threads or fibres.

² Vide note 5, p. 85.

³ The cock would be kept thirsty during the day.

^{*} Dāna-e-mūng, lit. mūng, a kind of pulse.

b Ghar bachcha is the same as darūnaj-i-'agrabī Doronicum pardalianches: it is described by the author of the Makhzan, p. 647, as a scorpioid knotted root with greyish exterior and white interior; hard, faintly bitter, and aromatic. See also Khory, p. 362.

6 Bhilāwan; vide note 4, p. 82.

⁷ Māhī-e sokhta-e-khurd.

⁹ Wax and oil mixed; dubbing.

APPENDIX A.

FURTHER POINTS OF THE GAME-COCK.1

The bill is thick but short, the white of the eye pearl-coloured 2 (not red or yellow), the comb 3 thick and very low, the wattles very small, the region below the ears red,4 the cheeckbones protuberant, the head large and square, the neck long, the wings held apart from the body, the chest thrown out, the tail small and drooping from the base, the back flat and not roached, 5 the back and wings viewed from above heart-shaped,6 the flesh hard and the body compact, the stalk-bones thick and square. In fight the game-cock is staunch till death

If tickled lightly by the finger on the stomach about an inch above the vent, it should begin to oil itself $\bar{}$; it should be very free and familiar with man. Its crow is short and deep. If the cock is young and has been parted for some time from hens, it should "dance" when the fingers are snapped. There are many breeds of game, viz.: (1) Shaykh Buddhū g ; (2) Kal-kātiyā or "black-spurred" [3] Paṭṭ̄-tūtā 11 ; (4) Sonā-tol 12 or "gold in value"; (5) Amīr Khān; (6) Muḥammad 'Alī Beg.

The Shaykh Buddhū is never the aggressor in fight. The best birds of this breed will stand on the spot they are placed without advancing an inch towards their antagonist, and therefore cocks of this breed can be turned out loose together.

Game-cocks are never white yellow, nor $b\bar{a}ndhn\bar{u}$ (regularly speckled throughout).

The game hen lays one or at the most two clutches ¹³ of eggs in the year.

- ! For this information the translator has to thank a learned Indian Mawlavi, an amateur breeder.
 - ² Motī chūr, "like powdered pearl."
 - 8 Mor or mawr=taj.
 - 4 In domestic fowls generally white.
 - b Māhī pusht, "fish-backed."
 - 6 Lit. shaped like a betel-leaf .
- 7 This is a sign of familiarity with men and of fearlessness. Common fowls do not preen, however tame.
- ⁹ i.e.. show off by lowering the wing and circling, as a cock does before a hen.
- 9 $Buddh\bar{u}$ is a name given by the vulgar to a son born on Buddh or Wednesday.
- 10 No. 1 is the heaviest built of all game-fowls and (2) the lightest. The latter, a famous breed in Singapore, is noted for its activity.
- 11 Two cocks of this breed were once fighting. A man separated them by inserting between them a chār pā'i or Indian bedstead. The spurring cock struck the bedstead and split its patti or frame.
- 12 One of this breed was once scaled and sold to a Nawab for its weight in gold.
- 13 Ek jhol andā "a clutch laid by one hen." Ek jhol bachcha "a brood."

APPENDIX B.

From the 'Aja'iB-UL-MakhlūQāt'

(Or The "World of Wonders").

The cock is the most lustful and the vainest of birds. It heralds the dawn. One of the strangest things about it is that it knows the watches of the night, and apportions the times for its night-crowing according to the length or shortness of the nights; for instance, if the night is fifteen hours in length. he crows, at stated intervals, the same number of times as he does in a night of nine hours; and this he does by a Godgiven instinct. It is related that the Prophet (May the Peace and Blessing of God be upon him) said, "God the Most High has created a cock beneath His Throne, with wings that can extend beyond the East and the West; and towards dawn he spreeds his wings, and flaps them, and raises his voice in praise of Him, crying, 'Glory to the Most Holy King' and; when he has ceased, all the cocks in the Earth join in returning that cry, flapping their wings in like manner. It is said that the chief caller-to-prayer amongst the cocks, is that breed that has long wattles and a castellated comb. The cock has a sense of jealous honour about his wives, and he is generous to them, and cares for them. It is a belief that, should a man rise from sleep at cock-crow, he will be fresh and bright all day. A white cock puts to flight the lion. The best of cocks is the game-cock. Its points are, a red comb, a thick neck, small and black eyes, sharp claws, a loud cry. A cock is unselfish to his hens; he takes a grain in his beak and casts it to them. It is said that he does this in the time of his youth, when his passions dominate him; but that when he ages he no longer does so. The cock defends his hens from the attack of an enemy, and at night collects them in a safe place and stands guard at the door. They say, too, that the cock lays one egg in his lifetime, called in Arabic bayzat" 'l-'ugr (يضة العقر),3 and that it is very small.

The following lines are by the poet Bashshār:--

Thou hast visited me but once in all this time. Make not thy visit rare like the egg of the cock.

It is a belief that one who slaughters a white cock with a divided comb, will suffer loss in his possessions and in his house, and also that the Devil never enters a house in which

¹ An Arabic work by Al-Qazwini, who died A.D. 1283.

الهام من الله ٤

⁸ An obscure phrase.

such a cock is to be found. As for the properties of the several parts of the cock, if the comb be dried and pounded and given to drink to a piss-a-bed, the bad habit will depart from him. The smoke of the dried comb of a white or of a red cock does good to a madman. The gall applied as a collyrium to the eyes, cures dimness of sight, or a film over the eye. Some physician has said that the gall must be placed in a silver vessel and used continuously to obtain a cure. Polonias has said that the gall of a cock, mixed with mutton-broth and taken in the morning on a fasting stomach, is a cure for loss of memory. If the wing-bone be bound on one suffering from intermittent fever, the fever will depart. If a rider ties that bone on his loins he will suffer no fatigue. The blood, used as a collyrium is beneficial for film over the eyes. If the blood drawn in a cock-fight be mixed with food and given to a number of people, it will cause dissension amongst them. If you take a cock's blood and mix it with honey, and place it on the fire, and apply the mixture to the penis of a man, it will increase his virile power as well as his sexual enjoyment. If you take the dried flesh of a cock and pound it with equal quantities of gall-nuts and sumach, and make pills the size of peas, and administer them with a draught of water to one that has a pain in his belly, he will be relieved on the spot. In the stomach of the cock there is a pebble, sometimes sky-blue in colour and sometimes crystal, which, if suspended round the neck of a madman, cures him: and if it be attached to the person of any man, it increases his sexual appetite.

7. The Kingdom of gNya khri btsanpo, the first King of Tibet.

By REV. A. H. FRANCKE.

At present I am engaged in making a collection of Tibetan geographical names, as I find them in Tibetan works on History and Geography. These original names I try to trace on Tibetan maps compiled by Europeans, the Royal Geographical Society's map, Sven Hedin's map, or Indian Government maps. I must confess that these maps are still very incomplete. Although covered with hundreds of names, many places which are of the greatest importance from a Tibetan point of view, are entirely omitted.

When I studied the Tibetan text of Schlagintweit's 'Die Könige von Tibet,' which badly wants re-translating, I tried to trace all the places mentioned in the account of gNya khri btsanpo. I, however, found the maps of very little use, but my personal local knowledge of the ancient Ladakhi Kingdom, which is now embodied in the Kashmir State, made it plain to me that gNya khri btsanpo's Kingdom, as we find it described in the rGyal rabs, must be looked for in Ladakh. All the place names, with the exception of dBus and Yarlung, can be traced there.

Let me first say a few words about these two names, dBus and Yarlung. dBus means 'the middle.' It is used of a place which is of importance, the residence of some important person. Thus in the first part of the Ladakhi $rGyal\ rabs$, the word dBus is used to signify $G\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ in Magadha, for this town was of the greatest importance in the ancient Buddhist times on account of its connection with the founder of this religion. In the later portions of the $rGyal\ rabs$, dBus is the name of the Lhasa district, because Lhasa had become the capital of Tibet. But I can well imagine that before Lhasa was made the capital of Tibet by $Srong\ btsan\ sgampo$, the surroundings of the previous capital $Phyi\ dbang\ stag\ rtsc$ were called dBus, the centre. The Tibetan inscriptions of Kunawar speak of Sarahan, the old capital of the Bashahr State, as the dBus of that country.

As regards Yarlung, this name does not fit in in any case, whether we place the kingdom of the first king near Lhasa or near Leh; for the Yarlung is a river or a river valley of the Eastern Tibetan province of Khams, and even if the first king entered the country by way of the Yarlha shambu, as the

Lhasa accounts have it, it is difficult to see why he should have taken up his abode in the remotest part of the country. Yarlung means 'the upper valley.' It is a name which might well have been given in contrast to Maryul, 'the lower land,' the actual name of Ladakh from the remotest times. Now the Tibetans are very fond of exchanging synonyms, thus, Maryul is also called Marsa (Hiuen Tsang's Moloso) and Markhams; king bkrashis rnam rgyal is also called bkrashis mgon (the Tashikun of the Tarikh-i-Rashidi), lama Mipham dbangpo is also called Mipham mgon, etc. And thus the word Yarlung may have become exchanged in course of time for another word of the same meaning. Now we actually find that the plain below the place which is in my opinion the ancient capital of the first king, is called Ladvags gongkhai thang, 'the upper plain of Ladakh'; this may have been exchanged for Yarthang 'the upper plain,' and a valley branching off from this plain could very well be called Yarlung. But it is evident that Yarlung as a place name may occur in various parts of Tibet, and therefore I do not attach great importance to this point.

The king's original name was Spu rayal, which means 'king of Spu.' Spu is a large village on the Sutlej in Upper Kunawar with vast ruins around, and may very well have been the seat of a petty king. In the most ancient version of this tale, brought to light by Waddell in his inscription of king Khri srong lde btsan, the king is called 'Od lde spu rgyal.' 'beautiful light,' is his personal name; Spurgyal means king of Spu. The spelling Spu of this village is testified to by many stone inscriptions in the vicinity, the oldest being apparently written by the orders of the royal priest Yeshes 'od (c. 1025 A.D.) On the maps, the place is spelt Spooch. The name Spurgual was also given to a mountain in the neighbourhood, which is now generally called Purguul. This is a case of assimilation of the vowel of the second syllable to the first. As I have shown previously, the Tibetan law of assimilation is different, according to which the first syllable is modified to assimilate with the vowel of the second. However, the people of Spu, who have accepted only recently the Tibetan language, have a law of assimilation of their own, as appears to me. I found two inscriptions with names of modern Bashahr kings, in which the vowel of the second syllable had been assimilated to the vowel of the first. Instead of Rudar (Rudra) Singh, these inscriptions spell Lu rdur Singh, and instead of Ugra Singh they spell Ukur Singh. In the same way the name Spurgyal could be changed to Purgyul.

The place where the first king was found by the hunters is called Lhari. The name Lhari occurs in various parts of Tibet. It means 'mountain of the gods.' And to suit their case, the Central Tibetan historians who wanted by all means to land the first king near Lhasa, added the word Lhari to the

name Yarlha-shambu and called the mountain Yarlha shambu lhari. (See dPag bsam Ijon bzang.)

The classical country of *Lhari* is, however, in the west. A river which for some distance forms the frontier of Spiti, and a village on it, are called *Lhari*. A mountain near Leh is called *Lharimo*.

The capital of aNua khri btsanpo which was already in existence when he arrived in the country, is called Phyi dbang stag rtse. As a place of this name has not yet been discovered in Central Tibet, the Central Tibetan historians (S. Ch. Das, J.A.S.B., 1881) simply said that Lhasa was built on the top of it and that it therefore disappeared. But there is a place, spelt Phyi dbang, only eight miles from Leh. situated in a valley which opens out on the plain Ladvags gongkhai thang. On the maps, the place is spelt Phayang. This, in my opinion, was the capital of the ancient king. It must be a place different from Lhasa, for we find that one branch of the descendants of Khri bkrashis tsegs dpal, in c. 1000 A.D., went from Lhasa to Phyi dbang stag rtse to reside there. Phyi dbang is the name of the town, and Stag rtse is the name of the royal palace in it. Whether the name Stagrtse still exists at Phyi dbang or not, I cannot say. The castle of Stagrtse in Purig was evidently called after this old royal castle of Phyi dbang. There are very extensive ruins in the Phyi dbang valley which have never been examined. When I asked the people of this place, who had once resided there, they said: "The king"! And yet, there is not a single passage in the Ladakhi portion of the rGyal rabs which says that any of the Ladakhi kings ever resided there. The site of this village in a warm valley opening to the south, is superb. From the lower part of it, the view up the Indus valley over a large portion of Maryul is glorious. More even than Leh, Phyi dbang was a suitable site as a residence of kings.

After a time, the king built the palace of Ubu bla sgang. There is evidently a mistake here. The nasal sign over the U was forgotten by the man who copied Schlagintweit's MS. From a comparison with the names in the Bodhimör and Ssanang Ssetsen it becomes evident that Umbu bla sgang (or lha sgang) Umbu is the Ladakhi pronunciation of Ombu, the tamarisk. In the form Um or Om it is found in many local names of Ladakh. The name Umbu bla sgang means 'the hill of the priests (or lha 'gods') with the tamarisks.' This name can be abbreviated in the same way as are many compound words. (See my Ladakhi Grammar.) Then only one syllable each of the two component parts is taken, and these are put together. Thus the abridged form of Umbu blasgang would be Um bla or Umsgang. Now a place called Umla actually exists at the other end of the plain on which Phyi dbang is situated. It is perhaps eight or ten miles distant from the

latter, and also contains ruins of a castle, as I am told. I have not yet had an opportunity to visit the place. On the maps it is called Umleh. Two other place names of gNya khri btsanpo's kingdom which are mentioned together are rGod ldod and gYur ldod. The word ldod I cannot find in the dictionaries, but it seems to mean 'district.' rGod ldod is the rGod district. Now there is a rGod vul (rGod country) within the present limits of Ladakh. It is mentioned in K. Marx's version of the rGyal rabs, in connection with Sengge rnam rayal's reign. The rGodyul is the eastern part of Ladakh, or the territory of Hanle, as stated by K. Marx. All these eastern parts of Ladakh, Shaqti, Nyoma, etc., were once strongly fortified against the invasions of the Turks, as their grand ruins show. Therefore it is quite in the nature of things that the first king of Tibet should have posted there a guard against outside foes.

gYuru ldod means the district of gYuru. The name gYuru is the abbreviated form of ancient gYung drung (the Lama Yuru of the maps). When the Ladvags rGyal rabs was written, the ancient spelling gYung drung had already been replaced by the modern gYuru. The place gYur ldod was the centre of the first king's inner administration. This is quite in accordance with the central situation of the place. gYuru (Lama yuru is a modern invention) seems to have been a foremost place in ancient times. It is still called the ancient centre of the Bon religion, and I was so fortunate as to discover the ruined Bonpo temple in the place.

Another important place in gNya khri btsanpo's empire was Rongdo where his granaries were. There are two places called Rongdo within the limits of Kashmir Tibet. The western province of Baltistan is called Rongdo, and a village in the Nubra valley is called by the same name. I am convinced that the latter is meant. There is a convenient pass from Phyi dbang into Nubra, and the Nubra village of Rongdo is found almost on the northern opening of the Phyi dbang pass. On the maps it is called Rongdu.

The five names of chiefs given in the account, we cannot expect to find anywhere on maps. gTso means simply 'Lord,' bTsan khyung is a personal name of the Bon religion, sNums is a house name still extant at Khalatse, Khustegs is a family

name, and *qNyara rtse* may be another house name.

As regards the general state of civilisation of the country, the description suits Ladakh very well, whilst it does not suit Lhasa. The art of writing is stated to have been known. In Ladakh it has actually been known since c. 250 B. C. going by rock-inscriptions. Agriculture has existed in the country since those remote times when the Gilgit Dards founded their colonies in Ladakh.

Now it may be said that there is nothing extraordinary

about all this. The Ladvags rGyal rabs was written in Ladakh, and its writer naturally contrived to make his home the kingdom of the first king of Tibet. In the same way, the Central Tibetan historians placed his kingdom near Lhasa. Quite so, and yet, the Ladakhi account strikes me as being more original. The Lhari was evidently added to the name Yarlha shambu, to make the mountain fit in the story. The name Umbu bla sgang was misunderstood and changed to Yumbu gla sgang which cannot be traced anywhere. The only other local name in the central Tibetan version is bTsan thang (plain of the btsanpo or king) which can be given to any plain near the royal residence.

Although qNya khri btsanpo's empire was apparently very small, it seems to have grown in extent towards the east, until Srong bisan sgampo made Lhasa his capital. Before he went there, he resided in Ladakh, at least according to my explanation of Tibetan history. Thus, the message to the Chinese emperor in which he asked the hand of Kongjo in marriage was sent from Ladakh, and a Ladakhi, the minister Rigpacan, a native of Shargolha in Purig, was the ambassador in this The name of Rigpacan actually occurs in the rGyalrabs, but Schlagintweit in his translation mistook it for an adjective and translated it accordingly. At Shargolha, the house of this very same minister is still shown to travellers. embassy of Thonmi sambhota started from Ladakh. Ladvags rayal rabs says, it was sent to Kashmir, and to no other part of India. This was very natural, for the Ladakhi form of Buddhism which then prevailed among the Dards of Ladakh, was closely related to the Buddhism of Kashmir, it used the same kind of characters, a form of the Gupta character, but it had become stagnated. As the Ladakhi inscriptions of these times (700-900 A.D.) show us, the characters were used for nothing, but the summum bonum of Buddhism of those times, the Ye dharma formula.

In Kashmir, the motherland of Ladakhi Dard Buddhism, Thonmi received instructions from a Brahman called Libyin. This name has always been wrongly translated. It has to be translated 'Glory' (or blessing) of the land 'Li.' It is a name parallel to another name mentioned under King Gung srong 'adu rje. Under the latter king a priest called Khri bdun yul byin is mentioned. This name can only be translated by 'Glory of the land Khri bdun.' Li byin had apparently received his name, because the land Li had reason to be proud of him. The land Li is either a country near Nepal or Turkistan. I am convinced that it here signifies Turkestan; for there is some probability that it was in the Turkistan monasteries that Tibetan was first reduced to writing, and Thonmi sambhota simply reaped the fruit of such learning. The theory of the first origin of the Tibetan script in Turkistan was first propounded by Dr.

Barnett. I readily accepted his view. Dr. Waddell has recently repudiated it stating that it was founded on nothing better than the occasional occurrence of the drag in ancient documents. (J.R.A.S. October, 1909) No, it was never based on

so poor a foundation.

What induced Dr. Barnett to believe in a possibly earlier introduction of the Tibetan script, was the fact that in Turkestan at Endere, on the very confines of the Tibetan empire, were found specimens of Tibetan writing in not one but two forms of script, one of which exhibited already traces of great simplification, which can be explained only with the acceptance of the theory of a long period of use of the same. And the latest date which can be assigned to these documents is c. 780 A.D., about 120 years after the asserted invention of the script by Thonmi. But the Endere relics are not all of the same type, some exhibit a more archaic type of orthography than the others, and have to be dated considerably earlier than 780.

Turkestan is exactly the country where a new kind of script and literature could most probably have originated. The Buddhists of Turkestan were more eager than any other to provide people of various tongues with Buddhist literature in their own language. Proof of this are the various MSS. in unknown languages which have come to light there. Turkestan was in possession of a form of the Gupta alphabet (the Bower MSS., etc.), and this alphabet impressed its type on the Kashgar Brāhmi as well as on the Tibetan script. When I wrote my article on "The Similarity between the Tibetan and Kashgar Brāhmī alphabets," published by this Society, I might have added a column showing the Gupta characters! The Gupta alphabet has variants, but its descendants here in the West are all sprung from one and the same type of Gupta. These descendants are the Kashgar Brāhmi and Tibetan characters, and the Indian characters used in Ladakh between 700 and 900 for writing the Sanskrit formula Ye dharma, etc. This formula was written in Tibetan characters as well, and at first sight, the Indian and the Tibetan variety of this formula can hardly be distinguished; for most of the characters look the same. The difference rests in this, that in the Tibetan version the aspirated mediae are written with an ordinary media furnished with a subjoined "h," whilst in the Indian version gh, dh and bh are written with simple characters. Besides, the Tibetan version has the Tripartite y, whilst the Indian version has a later form of the y. The west (Kashmir, Ladakh, Turkestan) is the country where the Gupta form of characters remained stationary for a longer period than elsewhere. Here is the probable home of the Tibetan script. was invented not many centuries before Srong bisan sgampo, possibly one or two centuries before him. The Brahman Libyin was apparently a native of Turkestan, and it was he who initiated the Ladakhi minister into the art already practised there.

Before the introduction of Buddhism into Tibet (i.e., to the Tibetan, not Dard, inhabitants of the country) a number of Buddhist symbols came down from heaven in the time of Lhatho thori when this king was at the palace of Umbu bla sgang, in Ladakh. One of the symbols was a Pangkong, a 'pātra of the lap.' The West Tibetan lake Pangkong was called after this symbol. This speaks again in favour of my view that Umbu bla sgang was situated in Ladakh, and not near Lhasa. For had it been situated there, one of the numerous lakes near Lhasa would probably have been called Pangkong.

As is stated in the rGyalrabs, Srong btsan sgampo conquered rTsami and Shingmi in the east. rTsami is pronounced Sami according to a Tibetan law of sound. A place Sami is found on the map south-west of the Manasarowar lake. In the vicinity is the Shing lab cha pass, probably the old Shingmi. If these places were conquered 'in the east,' the chronicler must have looked towards them from Ladakh. If Srong btsan sgampo had then resided at Lhasa, he would have said 'in the west.'

8. Notes on the Pollination of Flowers in India. Note No. 7. A few observations made in the Central Provinces and Berar.

By I. H. BURKILL.

The following observations were made on tours in the Central Provinces and Berár, in 1908 and 1909. The first of the tours comprised a visit to the hill of Asirgarh in Nimár (26-28. ix. 08) and a journey by road from Ellichpur over the Sátpuras through the forests of the Melghát to Lewáda where the Sipna valley opens towards the river Tápti, (3-19. x. 09): the second comprised a visit to Nágpur (14-22. ii. 09) and the third an excursion into the Melghát from Akot, along the Ban valley and to Jálgáon in the Buldána district (16-26. ix. 09). The weather during the last tour was unsettled.

The notes are fragmentary; but years may pass before an opportunity occurs for making them more complete. The chief point in them is connected with the cotton plant,—chief, because for those who are trying to breed out of our cottons improved races, it is essential to recognise the extent of that crosspollination in the field which will level down what they are raising up.

The insects have been determined for me by Messrs. H. Maxwell-Lefroy, E. Brunetti and C. A. Paiva, to whom I offer

my best thanks.

A Bee as a regular visitor to Cotton flowers, and some other visitors.

There is evidence that in the Ganges valley, the races of cotton, when grown mixed, are crossed naturally with some The literature is in three places. Firstly, in the Agricultural Ledger No. 8 of 1895, p. 10, Professor T. H. Middleton set forward his belief that seed of the Behar cottons-'Bhogila' and 'Deshi'—gave rise to hybrids in his experimental plot at Baroda. Secondly, in this journal for 1907, pp. 517-526, I called attention to the insects which visit cotton flowers in Behar in May and to the presence of apparent hybrids in Thirdly. Mr. Martin Leake (this Journal, 1908, the crops there. p. 18) felt himself justified in saying that indirect evidence exists in abundance for regarding the crossing of cottons in nature as of common occurrence: and he recorded a few observations made by himself on the variability of progeny from seed collected when precautions were not taken to prevent natural crossing.

Fyson (Memoirs Dept. Agric. ii, no. 6) has more recently

stated on similar grounds that in Madras at least some natural crossing occurs.

All this evidence is opposed to Gammie's view, based on observation at Poona, that cotton does not get cross-fertilised in nature (*Memoirs Dipt. Agric.* ii, no. 2). Certainly Gammie's view cannot be made a generalisation for India as a whole.

In this connection it is now interesting to record, as an apparently regular insect-visitor to cotton flowers in parts of Berár, a bee, which by reason of its large hairy body is admirably adapted for carrying pollen from flower to flower. This insect is *Megachile albifrons*, Smith. It is, however, not very active in moving from flower to flower. I first observed the bee on the afternoon of September 22nd, 1909, sheltering in cotton flowers during rain at Pingli, which is a village lying just under the hills in the north-east corner of the Buldána district. By a search through a field four more individuals were found. On the next day between Pingli and Wasáli, during the morning, nine insects were seen, and in the afternoon at Wasáli eight more.

No observations were made on September 24th owing to rain; and on the 25th between showers no bees were seen on the cotton flowers during a march from Jamod to Jálgáon; but on September 26th, four miles south of Jálgáon, two more individuals were seen on cotton flowers. This makes a total of 24 individuals seen on cotton flowers in six days. On the 26th I left the district.

The common cotton of north-eastern Buldána is the yellow flowered Jari (Gossypium neglectum, Tod., var. vera, Gammie). Grown mixed with it, is a considerable quantity of white flowered Jari (G. neglectum, Tod., var., rosea, Gammie) and a not inconsiderable amount of Dharwar American cotton (G. hirsutum, Mill.). No individuals of Megachile albifrons were seen on G. neglectum, var. rosea, and only one on G. hirsutum: all the others were on G. neglectum, var. vera.

From the insects' point of view these three cottons may be very unlike; for G. neglectum, var. vera, has large yellow flowers which nod as a rule and open rather widely; G. neglectum, var. rosea, has smaller rose-white flowers which generally ascend slightly from the horizontal and open but little; G. hirsutum has upright pale yellow flowers which open earlier than the other two, and widely.

Bani (G. indicum) has flowers exactly as G. neglectum, var. vera, but not a single plant was noticed in north-eastern Buldána, where the Megachile was seen, whereby to prove (as might well be the case) that the bee would go from G. neglectum, var. vera, to it.

G. neglectum, var. vera,—Jari,—in north-eastern Buldána spontaneously self-pollinates within an hour or two of opening; and the flowers are fertile to their own pollen: so that the bolls set whether insects go to the flowers or not.

Vol. VI, No. 3.] The Pollination of Flowers in India. [N.S.]

It is the habit of the Megachile to fly into the flowers and at first to seek for honey at the base,—whether generally found or not, I was unable to ascertain: that done the insect turns round and with its head towards the light sits on the anthers and eats pollen. When caught its hairy body is always abundantly dusted with pollen: and it certainly carries it from one flower to another, and probably produces the occasional cross which seems to be the rule with so many plants.

Over the period during which the cotton was under observation, a few butterflies were observed on the flowers. Catopsilia crocale, Cramer, was seen at Wasáli, and again to the south of Jálgáon on G. neglectum, var. rosea, generally going to the extra-floral nectaries but sometimes to the intra-floral nectaries. Its constancy to the white flowers was marked.

Papilio polytes, Linn., was seen on two days near Jálgáon going both to extra- and intra-floral nectaries of G. neglectum, var. vera, and G. neglectum, var. rosea.

A Terias visited flowers of G. neglectum, var. vera, between Jamod and Jálgáon. Commoner still than any of these was Parnara colaca, Moore. Seven individuals were seen going to the intra-floral nectaries of G. neglectum, var. vera, between Pingli and Wasáli on September 23rd, eleven between Jamod and Jálgáon on September 25th, one on September 26th on the south of Jálgáon, and another at Nandura—making a total of 20. Further, on September 25th, between Jamod and Jálgáon, one went to the extra-floral nectaries of G. neglectum, var. vera, and six to the intra-floral nectaries of G. hirsutum.

Thus there were seen:-

	To G. neglectum var. vera.	To G. neglectum var. rosea.	To G. hirsutum.
Megachile albifrons.	23 individuals entering the		l individual in flowers.
Catopsilia crocale.		5 individuals generally at extrafloral nectaries.	
Papilio polytes.	l individual.	l individual.	
Terias sp.	1 individual entering flower.	- • •	
Parnara colaca.	20 individuals, all but one entering the flowers: that		6 individuals entering a flower.
	one at extre- floral necta- ries.		

Parnara and Papilio were also seen on yellow Cotton flowers between Nandurbár and Táloda in West Khándesh on September 29th, 1909: but flower-visiting insects, except the injurious beetle,—Glycyphana versicolor, Fabr.,—were there exceedingly rare.

Elæodendron glaucum, Pers.

The yellow-green somewhat massed flowers have a large

disc, bearing a considerable amount of honey. They open widely, facing upwards or horizontally. At first they are male, the stamens standing up as in the upper figure: then they become female, the filaments, having bent as in *Rhamnus*, and the style elongated. The lower figure represents the flower in the second stage.

A few hours of leisure spent at Wasáli, Buldána district, on September 23rd, while waiting for the carts that were bringing my camp-furniture, enabled me to collect the following visitors at honey on the flowers.





Fig. 1.—Upper flower, early or male state; lower flower, later or female state. × 2.

DIPTERA.—Syrphidae. Eristalis arvorum, F. & and & plentiful. Megaspis crassus, F. & Syrphus sp. Muscidae. Lucilia dux, Erichs., plentiful. Musca sp. near M. domestica, L. Tachinidae. 1 sp.

Hardwickia binata, Roxb.

Hardwickia binata is an anemophilous Leguminosa, with the light foliage and flexible branchlets of a birch tree. On these thin flexible branchlets are produced in September the panicles of yellow green flowers. Apparently the flowers open chiefly at night. As the sepals part, the stigma is thrust out by the straightening of curves in the style: it straightens slowly, retaining a knee, by means of which the stigma is carried to a lateral position. After the stigma has thus been removed to a position and is no longer under the flower, the anthers emerge and dehisce.



Fig. 2.—On the left younger stages—overy and style and stigma : on the right opening and wide open flower, $\times 2$.

The sequence is sufficiently illustrated by the figures above, for further description to be unnecessary. The stigma is 5-angled, thick and raised into ridges: it is without papillae.



Fig. 3. Stigma seen from above and in section, much enlarged.

Dalbergia Sissoo, Roxb.

In February, 1909, during nine days (14th to 22nd) spent in Nágpur, I had opportunities of making observations on Dalbergia Sissoo, because my tent was pitched under a tree in Apis dorsata, Fabr., visited this tree in great full flower. numbers, coming with the dawn, and leaving in the twilight, but not working steadily all day. That it should come in the grey of the first dawn and go in the dim light when night had nearly closed in, is interesting, for in Britain the hive bee—Apis mellifica, Linn.—does not leave its hive except in broad daylight; and even the longer-working wasp is never out in the twilight. Once halting in a 'ziat' (a shelter without walls) at the village of Pa-ngat, in Tenasserim, during the month of March, I heard from 4-30 A.M. into daylight a steady continuous humming overhead as of numerous bees, and when it was possible to see, Apis was found to be diligently visiting the white flowers of a tree of Mesua ferrea, Linn., overhanging the ziat. The observation does not prove that Apis dorsata is nocturnal at times, but suggests it: and on rare occasions in Calcutta and in other places, Apis has flown to my lamp as I read after dinner.

The following is the history of a Sissoo flower as exemplified on the tree in Nágpur. The flower opens in the early afternoon, between noon and 2 p.m. As more and more new flowers open, more and more bees (Apis dorsata) come to it, and they work diligently until night has almost closed in. All the next day these flowers are open, and through the night to the morning after, when, after sunrise—after a duration of forty-four hours—they fade, and most of them fall off the tree. The mornings are times when many bees are busy: they work hard from the time when the east is only just red until about 9 a.m.: after which they desert the trees for the most part until afternoon

Sissoo flowers secrete plenty of honey, which Apis dorsata readily reaches. Apis florea, Fabr., visited the flowers in less numbers with the Apis dorsata, but at hours neither so early

nor so late. A Pierid butterfly was also seen on the flowers in the broad sunlight.

A few further observations from Asirgarh and the Melghát.

The following observations are all, additional to the above, that I could make over twenty-six days spent almost entirely in the open. They show how few insect-visitors can be observed in the Sátpura hills at the season of my tours: and they suggest that the scarcity of visitors to crops like cotton grown under the Melghát is due to the poverty of the country side in flower-visiting insects. At the time of my tours in the Melghát, few trees were in flower, but under the trees occurred sporadically the large blossoms of several species of Barleria, a Strobilanthes, other Acanthaceæ, Crotalarias, etc.; and in other places an abundance of Indigofera glandulosa, Tridax procumbens, Ageratum conyzoides, and Impatiens balsamina; while on the plateaux Linum, Tradescantia, Pimpinella, Senecio, etc., were in flower—flowers sufficiently conspicuous to attract many insects in Britain, during an equal period.

Xylocopa fenestrata, Bingham, was seen in Asirgarh (25—26. ix. 08) at honey on Celosia cristata, Linn., and Zinnia elegans, Jacq.; and X. aureipennis, Lepel., in the Sipna valley (10—13. x. 08) on Anisomeles ovata, R. Br., Crotalaria albida, Heyne, Sopubia delphinifolia, G. Don, and Celosia cristata, Linn.

Megachile anthracina, Smith, which is a somewhat similar insect, was seen in the Ban valley (19. ix. 09) in great numbers on Crotalaria juncea, Linn., and also freely on flowers of Sesbania aculeata, Pers. Anthophora zonata, Bingham, was seen abundantly on flowers of Leucas urticæfolia just where the Ban river debouches on to the plains (22. ix. 09): the association of this insect with small labiates is noticed in Lefroy's Indian Insect Life (Calcutta, 1909, p. 222). Apis florea, Fabr.. on the pass near Ghátáng (10. x. 08) visited in great numbers for honey the flowers of Kydia calycina, Roxb., and in the Ban valley (19. ix. 09) it was seen in hundreds on the greenish-white flowers of Aspidopterys cordata, A. Juss., which smell like those of Sambucus nigra, Linn.

Apis dorsata, Fabr., was seen in the Sipna valley collecting pollen on the anthers of Andropogon contortus, Linn. (17. x. 08). No other Apiids were seen on flowers.

Of butterflies numbers were seen on the flowers of Celosia cristata, Linn., in all parts of the hills north of Ellichpur and in Asirgarh (25. ix—08. x. 18). They included species of Papilio, Danais and Parnara.

Papilio? polytes, Linn., was seen also on the flowers of Zinnia elegans in Asirgarh (25—26. ix. 08) and a Sphingid was seen on Ipomæa coccinea, Linn., in the Sipna valley (17. x. 08).

Flies were very rare: except a Calliphora on Kydia calycina, Roxb., near Ghátáng (10. x. 08), and Pangonia rufa, Macq., in the tube of Barleria grandiflora, Dalz., near Kohána (5. x. 08), none were observed in the hills. The Pangonia had forced its way half down the 22 mm. long tube of the Barleria: what it—a biting fly—was doing there, it is hard to say.

9. The Rupee and Indian Prices.

By H. R. PERROTT, B.A., I.C.S.

There are perhaps few subjects which have given rise to more discussion than the subject of Indian prices and their relations to changes in the Indian monetary system. often been gratuitously assumed that all secular changes observable in price levels are somehow necessarily determined by the quantity of the metallic circulating medium in the country. and that only the more temporary and transient changes are attributable to the relations of supply and demand in respect There has also been not a little confusion in of commodities. language. Terms are sometimes used without a very clear conception of the ideas they are intended to connote. Such terms are "redundancy," "over-issue," "depreciation." last is a particularly unfortunate term, for it appears to suggest that something is wrong with the currency which is described as "depreciated." This ethical colouring is probably to be traced to the time when we were first told that a certain autocratic Tudor Monarch had caused depreciation by tampering with the coinage. In its present-day use, however, the term is ethically a colourless one. It merely connotes the idea that, for some reason or another, about which nothing whatever is predicated, the currency has come to be regarded as of less value in exchange for commodities in general. dancy." on the other hand, has clear reference to "quantity." It immediately conveys the idea that there is too much of the currency in circulation, while "over-issue" similarly conveys the idea that too much has been issued. But too much is a relative term:—too much in relation to what? Let us imagine for a moment a number of countries mutually engaged in trade in which the same metal circulates as full value legal tender. Let us further suppose that in one of these countries the quantity of the metallic medium becomes increased: and let us further assume that this increase results in a rise in the general level of prices. We might then term the increase in the currency which is assumed to give rise to the higher prices a redundancy of the circulating medium. When, however, we come to token coinages, such as to all intents and purposes the rupee coinage of India now is, it is the relation of the token to the standard to which our attention is naturally drawn. we assume that an increase of the token has resulted in its depreciation with regard to the standard, we should term that redundancy. In this sense redundancy does not necessarily imply depreciation with regard to commodities in general.

because it might happen that both standard and token are appreciating with regard to commodities in general, but the token less quickly than the standard, and so we should have redundancy a concomitant of appreciation. So far then as India is concerned we would confine the meaning of redundancy to such an increase of the rupee currency as actually results in a fall in exchange. How redundancy may occur, and under what circumstances, are very difficult questions. The experience of countries which have used token coinages, and more particularly of those which have issued inconvertible paper, all goes to shew that there exists a fairly wide margin of issues, and that it is only when that margin is exceeded and public confidence is shaken that redundancy occurs.

Those who are ever ready to sound the tocsin of redundancy would do well to reflect on the case of countries like Brazil and Austria Hungary, in which large quantities of inconvertible paper have been maintained over considerable periods of time at fairly steady rates of exchange. In the case of Brazil it was only under an extraordinary increase of issues (more than £30 millions in three years, the paper issue in 1892 amounting to no less than £51,372,700) at a time of failing credit consequent on the establishment of the Republic that the exchange, the par gold value of which is 27d., fell to figures

ranging from 101d. to 151d.

Having so far cleared the way we are now in a position to outline a method of enquiry. This method consists in an analysis of the available facts as regards supply and demand in respect of commodities; secondly, such facts connected with the history and nature of the monetary medium as have a more obvious bearing on the subject; thirdly, the facts as regards prices in the concrete; and then, after a brief discussion of the present character of the rupee in relation to exchange, a résumé of the inferences and deductions which may be reasonably drawn from the facts. The present paper does not aim at finality: it is merely suggestive of methods which it is hoped may serve to throw a little light on this complicated question of prices.

We shall then proceed to the consideration of supply and demand in respect of commodities, and more particularly in respect of food stuffs. The importance of food stuffs to India is hardly capable of exaggeration. Compare for a moment agricultural India with manufacturing England. In the latter country about 23% of the population is rural and 77% urban. India, on the other hand, is more than 66% agricultural and less than 34% non-agricultural. It would be well to bear this fact in mind before generalising from the one country to the other. When, therefore, we come to the discussion of supply and demand it is natural that the food grains should absorb

our attention.

Everyone whose lot has been cast for any considerable period in close touch with the rural incidents of an agricultural country like India is familiar with the manner in which the crops are grown and harvested, and then sold by the cultivator to the local dealer, a portion of every favourable harvest being retained for local consumption. Fewer are fully conversant with the later stages, with the manner in which the local dealers sell their crops to the agents of the larger dealers who control the distributing agency. A portion of the crops—a far smaller portion than is commonly supposed,—is shipped to foreign countries. The principal exports are the cereals, wheat and rice, but a certain quantity of jawar, bajra, and pulses, is now exported. This export of crops is a distinctive feature of modern industrial and commercial conditions.

When we come to review the agricultural features of India throughout the 19th century we are at once struck by the extraordinary difference between the first half and the second half of the century. About the year 1860 we cross the rubicon between the old state of things and the new. The years 1850-1860 constitute in many respects an epoch-marking decade. As we shall presently see, a great monetary change was in progress, but the changes in the general conditions of trade and commerce were not less remarkable. These changes. first noticeable about the year 1853, but held in abeyance for a brief span by the terrible events of 1857, are rendered more conspicuous in the years immediately succeeding the assumption of government by the Crown. Trunk lines and telegraphs were pushed forward, and great progress was made with roads and canals. A policy was inaugurated of which the kev-note was consolidation and internal development as distinct from external acquisition and conquest. With all its marvellous commercial activity the Company had never really succeeded in materially altering the internal conditions that affected the supply of and demand for the staple food-stuffs. During the first half of the 19th century the conditions governing production and distribution remained much the same as they had been in the preceding centuries. With a very imperfect system of communications there could be little export of food-grains, and, in any case, the commercial instincts of the Company were chiefly directed to the making of large profits by quick Spices and silks absorbed their attention.

But what specially characterises the first half of the century is the absence of any considerable market. Such scanty information in respect of prices as we possess, derived chiefly through the medium of Settlement reports, the laborious compilations of Crown Officers, suffices to emphasize very clearly the enormous differences that prevailed between prices at neighbouring places in the same year, and at the same place in different years. The whole of India, in fact, consisted eco-

nomically of a congeries of petty local markets, for the most part independent of each other; and there might, and did, co-exist in the same year unexampled plenty in one District with dire famine in the next.

The difference in prices from 1860 onwards is most marked. The fluctuations, whether as between one place and another in the same year, or between one year and another in the same place, are far less pronounced, but the general level of prices is decidedly higher than it was during the first half of the century. This has often been assigned to monetary causes. It appears, however, that there exist in the altered conditions affecting the food supply itself causes which would produce this result.

We have seen how in the first part of the century each locality was dependent on its own crops. There must have existed most intense local famines. The improvement in communications naturally led to the gradual linking up of the disconnected petty markets, and so rendered available a surplus, which often in former years must have rotted in the granaries, to alleviate distress in places of scarcity and famine. posing now we could by some mysterious means, the evolution of which we leave to the imagination of Mr. H. G. Wells, plump down the surplus exactly where it is most wanted. We should then eliminate the extreme differences of price between one place and another. The general level of prices would, however, remain unaltered. Now railways and bullock-carts actually do this, but they do not do it free of charge, and they do not always do it without delay. In fact the distribution of the surplus costs something, and that something must enter somewhere into the price. In other words the general level of prices will be raised. In this view of the matter. then, it is possible that the higher level of prices that obtained from 1860 onwards is in part attributable to the cost of moving surplus crops from places of plenty to places of scarcity.

We come then to the closer consideration of the second half of the 19th century, an era characterised, as we have seen, by the formation of large markets, mutually sympathetic, as also by the linking up of Indian with European, American, and Australian markets. India has taken her place among the nations which engage in International Trade proper. In the days of John Company there were, no doubt, large exports and also considerable imports, but the conditions of trade were for the most part monopolistic, and the risks were so great, and the profits so well proportioned to the risks, as to remove this kind of trade altogether outside the category of modern International Trade. Moreover, under the aegis of the Pax Brittanica, which, for the first time in history, gave India immunity from the larger type of invasion from without, and from the internecine warrings of local chieftains—population

must have grown apace. We have, indeed, no authentic figures for population prior to the first census of 1872. From that year up to the last census in 1901 the population has increased enormously, in fact by no less than 88 millions, though the increase has been at a diminishing rate. The figures for the successive censuses are given below:—

1872 ... 206,162,360. 1881 ... 253,896,330. 1891 ... 287,314,671. 1901 ... 294,361,056.

There were, then, in 1901 nearly 90 million more mouths to feed than there were in 1872. This is a most significant fact considered in relation to the demand for food grains. But

what about the supply?

Our information on crops is principally derived from two sources, (1) the 'Agricultural Statistics of India', and (2) 'Area and Yield.' The latter publication has now been incorporated in the former as Table No. 9. The value of the 'Agricultural Statistics' for years prior to 1890-91 must be to some extent discounted by the fact that it has been several times modified and recast, though since that year, when the figures for the great rice-growing areas of Bengal were first included in the series, there has been no substantial change. The 'Area and Yield' statistics date from 1891-92. The figures in this publication are really a condensation of final estimates, and are necessarily only approximate. For our present purpose the principal importance of the figures exists in the light they throw on the conditions of supply of the rice crop.

It is to be noted that the figures in 'Area and Yield' for the rice crop relate only to the great rice-growing Provinces—Bengal, Eastern Bengal and Assam, Lower Burma, and Madras, whereas the figures for area in the summary attached to Vol. I of the 'Agricultural Statistics of India' relate to the whole of British India.¹ Now while the figures for Bengal (including for convenience since 1905-06 the Districts of Eastern Bengal but not Assam) exhibit a very slight increase since 1891-92, the increase is more readily discernible in the case of the other Provinces. Again, so far as Bengal is concerned, the figures for output do not exhibit such a clear increase as the figures for area. In fact the average output for Bengal rice for the four years, 1892-93 to 1895-96, works out at about $9\frac{1}{10}$ cwt. per acre, while the average output for the four years, 1903-04 to 1906-07 is $8\frac{1}{3}$ cwt. per acre.

But we have no figures for output except for the abovementioned Provinces. We may, however, adopt a rule-of-thumb

¹ Vol. II is for Native States. The figures are more open to question than those for British India.

method of comparison, and, assuming that the lands of the Central Provinces, Bombay, and the Punjab, which grow rice, produce the same return in the same year as the average rice-growing lands of Bengal, Madras, and Lower Burma, increase the figure for output proportionately to the increased area.

We are now in a position to collate the following figures:—

- Area under rice, Bengal, Lower Burma, and Madras, millions of acres, 'Area and Yield,' 1891-92 to 1905-06, p. 36.
- II. Output, millions of cwt. Do.
- III. Area under rice, whole of Br. India. 'Agric. Stat.' 1895-96 to 1899-00, p. 2; 1901-02 to 1905-06, p. 8.
- IV. Proportional output: Col. III of Col. II.
 - V. Export. 'Stat. of Br. India,' Part II, 1908, p. 18. millions of cwt.
- VI. Balance for Indian consumption; Col. IV minus Col. V.
- VII. Total area under all food grains (Br. India). Ref. Col. III.

The grains are wheat, barley, jawar, bajra, ragi, maize, gram, and other grains and pulses, the figure for rice being purposely omitted.

Year.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.
'91-92	49.5	315	63.5	404	32.7	371	109
'92-93	48.4	42 0	65.7	570	0.4	57 0	114
'9 3 –94	49.5	459	68.4	634	24	610	113
`94 –95	50	498	69.3	690	83.7	656	112
'95-96	$49 \cdot 4$	415	$69 \cdot 2$	581	34.6	546	103
'96-97	48	276	6 6·3	381	27.8	353	94
'97–98	52.2	498	70.8	675	26.4	649	112
'98 -9 9	52.7	506	74.8	718	$37 \cdot 4$	681	107
'9 9–00	52	452	72.8	633	31.9	601	9 2
'00-01	48.9	414	69	583	31	552	113
'0 1 –0 2	48.5	384	70	554	33.7	520	107
'02 - 03	51.8	469	71.6	648	47	601	112
'03-04	49.5	439	69.6	617	44.4	573	117
'0 4 –0 5	51.6	448	73.5	638	48.9	589	112
'05-06	54·4	433	73.4	584	$42 \cdot 2$	542	110
('06-07	54.5	430)					

We may notice incidentally that the export figures are much smaller than is often represented in discussions about crops and prices. In fact, if we except the extraordinarily bad years 1891-92 and 1896-97, the export has only since 1902-03 attained the percentage of 10% of the output of Bengal rice, and has never exceeded 10% of the output of the whole of India.

The years 1891-92 and 1896-9? were exceptionally bad years for rice, while the years 1897-98 and 1898-99 were exceptionally good. The figures in Col. III would appear to indicate a slight increase in the area under rice throughout British India. But the export has increased considerably, as we see from Col. V. and the figures in Col. VI, net balance of output, exhibit a more or less stationary character. If we take the average of the first five years and compare it with the average of the last five years we have an increase of 2.6 per cent. in ten years. this is taking into account the exceptionally bad year 1891-92. If we compare the average of the four years 1892-93 to 1895-96 with the average of the four years 1902-03 to 1905-06 we have a decrease of more than 3.2 per cent. Now the census figures shew that for the ten years 1891-92 to 1901-02 the population increased by 7 millions, or about 2½ per cent. Between 1891-92 and 1905-06 the increase in population is probably not less than ten millions, or 3½ per cent. We thus see that while the population has increased appreciably, the output, after deducting export, has fallen off. The census figures do not really give us an adequate idea of the price effect of the difference, because there is a good deal of internal evidence to shew that the consumption of rice is increasing amongst the poorer classes.

But the volume of the export is, as we have seen, relatively insignificant, and can have but little effect in directly raising the prices in Indian markets by diminishing the supply. It is when gold prices are rising, as they have done since 1902, that the export, however small in volume, exerts a powerful influence on the price of the residue. Our chief object in presenting the figures in the form we have done is to bring into prominence the fact that in spite of the stimulus afforded by an increasing export to an increase of cultivation, the area under rice has increased but little, and the balance of output given in Col. VI shews no appreciable increase in spite of an increase of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ % in the population. This is really a most significant fact, because it indicates that when this stimulus was absent, the increase in the area under cultivation must have failed to respond to the vast increase in population prior to the period we are now considering.

But the objection may be raised that we are confining ourselves to a single crop, and that, while the net output of rice has not appreciably increased, the output of other crops has more than made up for the difference. Now we have no reliable figures for output for the other crops (except wheat), and we have no space to go into detailed figures for areas, but, by way of anticipating this objection, we have added Col. VII to our figures, which shows the area year by year under all the

¹ The Economist Index number shews a rise of 30% in gold prices between December 1902 and May 1907.

food-grains. In collating these figures, we have deducted the figures in Col. III for rice. The stationary character of the

figures is at once apparent.

The comparative steadiness of the figures for area and output in these years is most significant if we consider the great increase in the population as revealed by the censuses of 1872 and 1901. It would indeed be a most extraordinary thing if the area of cultivation had increased from 1872 proportionately to the increase in population, i.e., nearly 43%, and then, under the added stimulus of a rapidly increasing export throughout the period under review, with gold prices rising towards the latter part of the period, along with a further increase in population, had assumed a stationary character. In the absence of satisfactory figures for either we may say, that there exists a high degree of probability that the increase in area, and hence in output, has been considerably less rapid than has been the increase in population.

In the case of Bengal, Sir W. W. Hunter in his "Statistical Account of Bengal" has given such figures as were available about the year 1870 for the area under cultivation in some of the Districts. These figures (with the exception perhaps of those for the District of Rangpur in the new province) are not sufficiently reliable to be worth quoting. The figures more often exhibit a decrease than an increase of the net cropped area, and a comparison of the figures for eighteen selected Districts with those for the same Districts according to the 'Agricultural Statistics' for the year 1905-06 discloses an aggregate decrease. The areas under cultivation were probably somewhat overestimated, but, even if we allow a margin of 25% for error, the areas would still bear a much larger proportion to the population than at present. The figures for Rangpur are given below ("Statistical Account of Bengal," Vol. VII, pp. 257, 258):-

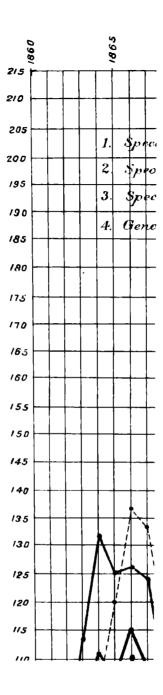
Total area of the District 2,360,294 2,235,520 acres.

Net cropped area ... 1,737,950 1,366,900

Rice ... 1,263,266 1,102,500

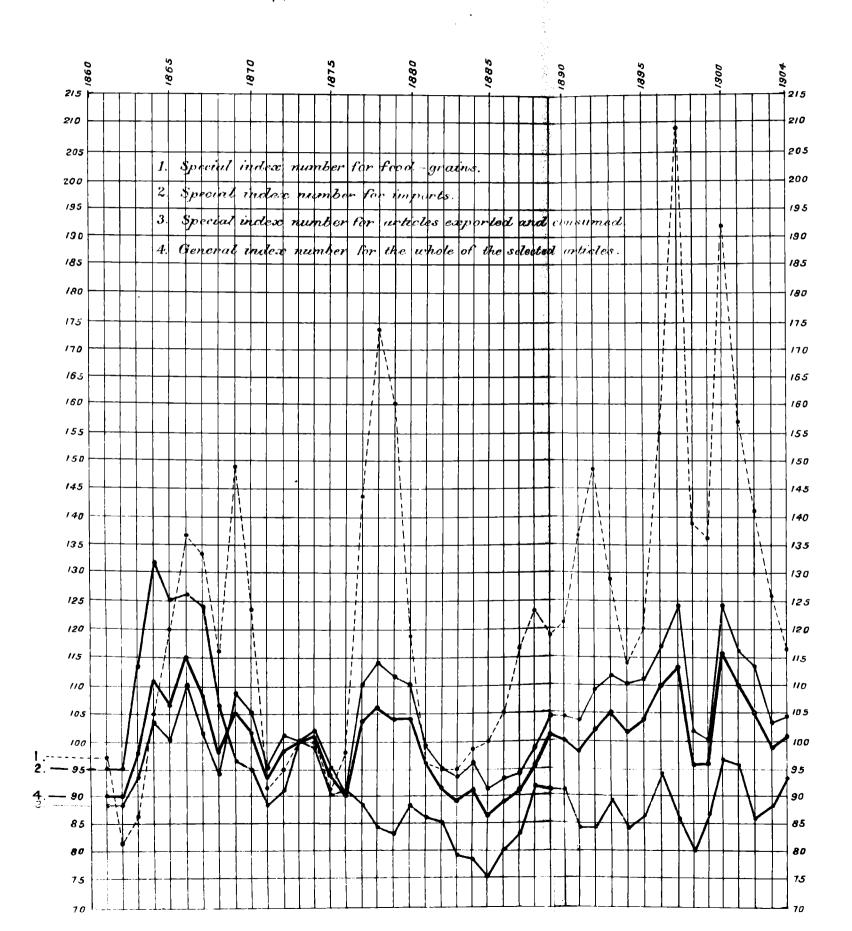
If we reflect for a moment first on the lesson conveyed by the figures we have tabulated, and then on the enormous increase in the population between 1872 and 1901, the wonderful thing appears to be, not that the prices of food-grains have risen during the last 20 or 25 years, but that they have not risen more rapidly than they have done. The land was there, but the people was not. We shall presently have occasion to

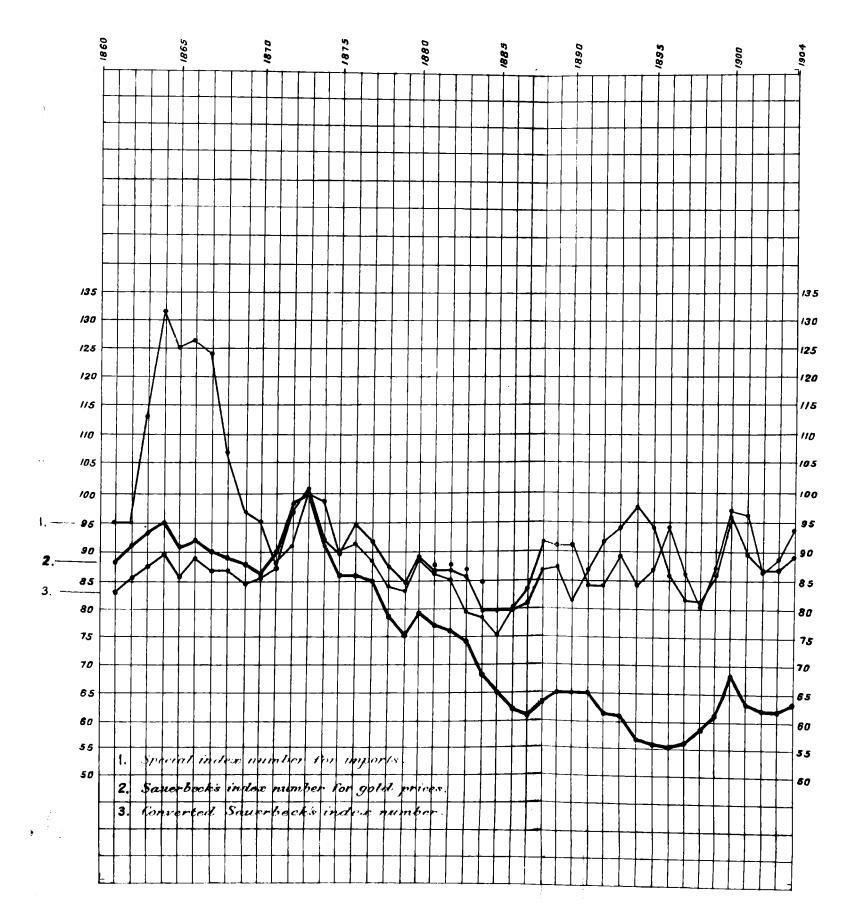
¹ The Districts are Burdwan, Bankura, Birbhum, Monghyr, Purnea. Cuttack, Balasore, Dacca, Backergunj, Maimensingh, Faridpur, Jessore, Rangpur, Bogra, Maldah, Rajshahi, Pabna, Dinajpur.



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notice one reason why, up to the year 1896, prices have not risen more rapidly (we refer to the fall in gold prices in Europe between 1873 and 1896). Doubtless there are other reasons. Perhaps there was always food in India, enough and to spare (except in years of widespread famine), if only it could have been readily transported to the places where it was most needed.

We have now seen something of the purely Indian incidents of supply and demand so far as the food-grains are concerned. We would do well, however, to bear in mind the fact that the prices of exported as well as imported commodities are now determined largely by the supply and demand in markets outside India. In other words the influence of gold prices tends to become paramount.

Whatever be the complex factors which really go to make the prices of Indian imports and exports what they are, we are still sure of one fact,—that it is the surplus of exports over imports, which, prior to the closure of the Mints in 1893. determined the quantity of the rupee coinage. The very causes which gave rise to a higher level of prices of food-grains also gave rise, as a less proximate and obvious effect, to such an inflow of silver as enabled exchanges in food-staples to be carried on without inconvenience at the higher level of prices. The money filled the gap. Given a fixed figure for the export, and putting loans aside, the question of what India will take in exchange—whether iron, spelter, copper, cotton goods, gold and silver ornaments, or, in the last resort after all other wants which can be satisfied by imports have been satisfied, silver bullion for coinage—is after all largely a question of the tastes and predilections of the people themselves.

If we would see the facts in clearer perspective we must look beyond the great Merchant Houses which control the import and export trade, and fix our attention for a moment on the cultivator, the consuming unit in the three hundred millions.

Our reasons for going to the cultivator are twofold: first, he is representative of about two-thirds of the population; next, he is the person who immediately profits by the higher prices of food-grains. There exist several important social classes above him, which subsist on fixed wages, or on what practically amount to fixed wages. It is clear that these classes do not profit by a higher level of prices of food-grains; in fact they are the losers thereby. When all is said and done they have less to spend on other things after they have satisfied their most pressing needs. It is not to them that we should look for a stimulated demand.

But, if we look to the cultivator we must not idealise him; we must not abstract him from the realm of actual facts and make of him an economic man, such as would thriftily set

aside so much of each harvest as would just tide him over to the next. This is too theoretic a method. We must make use of our experience of him to take into account his very human failings. In the first place he has been habituated to regard a good season as affording a golden opportunity for physical recuperation after the inroads caused by years of want and scarcity. It will next, perhaps, occur to him that he has had perforce to defer the marriage of Chandrabatti, his ten-year old daughter, no less than three years on account of bad seasons, and that, to avoid cause of scandal, she must be married at once. Accordingly great preparations are made. Relations to the most distant are fed and housed for many days. The nights are rendered hideous by all kinds of drumming and piping, and the net result is that much food and drink is consumed. There is, indeed, much redundancy, but not of the currency.

But all is over, and Chandrabatti happily disposed of. He may, if he be a very prosperous raiyat, and independent for the nonce of the local money-lender, have a little to spare on the

purchase of commodities other than food and drink.

His tastes are, however, of the simplest—a new thatch for his house, a new padlock for the chest containing the family ornaments, a new ploughshare, a new sari and a new silver anklet for his wife, a new turban or loin cloth for himself, a new vessel for cooking,—these are only realisable by the thrice-favoured of Fortune. All the more complicated wants are beyond his ken,—as unthinkable as Christmas crackers to the child of the Whitechapel slums.

If we except the first, these simple wants go to make up an integral Indian demand for iron, cotton stuffs, raw silk, silver for ornaments; copper, and spelter. After food-grains it is, then, to this class of commodities that we should first look for an indication of depreciation, if such existed. Now in estimating the effect of this kind of demand, we should remember that the commodities are imports, and that the Indian demand is but part of a much larger demand. On the other hand we must bear in mind the population of India. If only one man in a hundred requires a new turban, ten yards in length, or a new copper vessel for eating, there will arise a demand for thirty millions of yards of cotton fabric, or three millions of copper vessels. The Indian demand may, then, assume very considerable proportions.

We shall presently see, when we come to the consideration of the index figure for these imported commodities, that there never has occurred, except possibly between the years 1862 and 1867, such a rise in their price as might betoken depreciation of the currency. In fact from 1867 onwards the prices of these

A commercial name for raw zinc.

commodities fell away rapidly along with gold prices except for a temporary rise in 1873, till 1885, and from 1887 to 1902 the general level of these prices remained fairly steady. As regards the high prices that prevailed between 1862 and 1867 we shall presently see that this may be accounted for by the cotton crisis in Europe consequent on the Civil War in America.

From whichever point of view we look at the matter, there is no indication in the prices of these imported commodities that the quantity of money that flowed into India before 1893 was more than enough to enable the food-grains to be exchanged with facility at their higher level of prices in the local marts, and the causes of this upward tendency in prices we have found, not in the quantity of the circulating medium, but in causes affecting supply and demand in the Indian markets. In order to see more clearly how the money filled the gap we will pass in very brief review the more salient features of the rupee coinage between the years 1835 and 1893.

The present rupee coinage was first made legal tender all over British India by the Company in 1835. Yearly issues were made up to the year 1893. The issues previous to 1840, bearing the date 1835, and those previous to 1862, which all bear the date 1840, are at the present moment in process of withdrawal. The volume of the currency at the beginning of the period must have been comparatively small. Probably the amount in active circulation did not exceed forty crores Californian gold discoveries began in 1847, and were speedily followed by the Australian in 1851. Holland, taking alarm. hurriedly changed her standard from gold to silver, but reverted to her former standard as soon as she saw that the discoveries of gold were quickly followed by large discoveries of The Government of India was not altogether free from the contagion, and in 1852 Lord Dalhousie practically demonetised gold by refusing to accept it at the treasuries.

The boom in the Indian cotton trade due to the cotton famine caused by the American Civil War of 1861-65 at once occasioned a well-marked rise in prices all over Western India. We notice as a secondary result of this boom an unprecedented influx of silver, and very heavy coinages throughout the decade 1856-1865. In fact the gross coinage during that decade amounted to no less a sum than 98 crores of rupees as against 35½ crores in the preceding and 39 crores in the succeeding ten years. Here then is such a vast accession to the coinage as might be expected, at any rate in theory, to cause depreciation

Now we have already seen that there occurred about the year 1860 a marked rise in the general level of prices of the food-grains. We further traced one probable cause of this to

^{1 &}quot;Statistics of British India," Part IV (a), 1908, p. 36.

the improvement in communications, and the consequent addition to the general level of prices of something representing the aggregate cost of carriage. A further cause of the high prices of food-grains is, no doubt, to be found in the cotton boom itself. There must have occurred a great and sudden displacement of capital and labour from the cultivation of food-grains to the cultivation of cotton. Such a displacement on a large scale could only result in a shortage of supply of the food-grains, and a rise in their prices, first on the Bombay side, and later throughout India.

Let us now apply our next test. Was there any marked rise in the price of imports? Yes, there certainly did occur about this time a very well-defined rise in the price of imports. But now let us look a little closer and see what are the actual commodities of which the prices rose, and what do we find? We find that it is to the cotton goods that the rise of price is confined, and what is not attributable to cotton goods is attributable to Canton silk, the price of which was no doubt affected sympathetically by the boom in cotton. We see then that it would be illogical to draw any inference from the high price

of imports in those years.

Now there are at least two objections which may be urged against the preceding method of analysis. In the first place it may be said that the rise in the prices of food-grains consequent on the cotton boom was only temporary and could not be of a permanent character apart from the monetary change. Now so far as food-grains are concerned there were several causes, connected with supply and demand, which must obviously have contributed to the perpetuation of a high level of prices. In 1861 there was scarcity in parts of Agra and the Punjab, and also in Rajputana. In 1866—a year by which the Uriyas still compute their ages—the terrible Orissa famine. That famine probably forced up the prices of food-grains over the greater part of India, and the additions to the currency merely enabled a higher level of prices to be maintained after the acute distress had disappeared.

The second objection that may be taken is that it is not to either exports or imports that we should look for evidence of depreciation, but rather to such indigenous products as ghi, which would be altogether unaffected by supply and demand in extra-Indian markets. Now there is undoubtedly something in this contention, but unfortunately this is the very class of products about which we have least reliable information. The onus of proof is on those who assert the existence of depreciation. A great deal of course depends on the meaning we assign to the term. If we confine the meaning of the term to a general rise of prices of all commodities, irrespective of causes which may affect their relative values, then it is at least doubtful if there was any such thing as depreciation in these years,

in spite of the fact that the increase in the currency was, as we have seen, very remarkable. So far as the rise in the general level of food-grains is concerned, the increase in the currency appears rather in the nature of a concomitant condition, or perhaps we should liken it to a *mode* by which many complex causes were working out their effects.

There are no other vast movements in silver until 1872, when the increased output of the American mines began to make its effect felt on the European markets. The situation only assumed a critical aspect when Germany, by way of forestalling a further fall, bought gold heavily and sold silver, and so threw a vast quantity of silver on the markets at a most inopportune moment. France and the other countries forming the Latin League were forced to protect themselves by placing restrictions on the coinage of the depreciating metal. was the crisis precipitated which, after the most careful deliberations of Lord Herschell's Committee, led the Government of India, after ineffectual efforts, to enlist the sympathies of the Home Government in favour of bimetallism, to adopt a definite policy towards silver by closing the mints to the free coinage of that metal. We shall presently endeavour to throw a little light on the intricate questions that arise from this metamorphosis of the rupee. For the present we may content ourselves with noticing that it was not the high level of prices. nor the quantity of silver brought to the mints for coinage, that induced the Government of India to enter on this memorable phase of monetary policy.

The principal cause of alarm existed in the prospects of trade disturbed by a highly fluctuating rupee, a rupee the fluctuations of which were clearly attributable to circumstances altogether beyond the control of the Government of India.

We are now in a position to consider prices more in the concrete and less in the abstract. The principal source of our information on prices is the Government publication known as "Prices and Wages." There is also another most useful Government publication compiled by Mr. J. A. Robertson entitled "Variations in Indian Price Levels since 1861 expressed in Index Numbers.'' We have in the latter work various index numbers mapped out on charts. These are—(1) a special index number for food-grains: (2) a special index number for imported articles; (3) a special index number for articles exported and consumed; (4) a general index number for the whole of the selected articles. The period is from 1861 to 1904. We have also an index number prepared by Mr. F. J. Atkinson for 1861 to 1901. The principal feature of this index number is the great prominence it gives by weighting to the food-grains, and particularly to rice. In fact a comparison of Mr. Atkinson's index number with the special index number for food grains mapped on the

same chart shows at a glance the effect of this weighting. The manner in which the general index number line can by weighting be deflected from the low import index number line to the high food-grains index number line is only a graphic illustration of the difficulty that occurs in all discussions on prices to decide the degree of importance that should be attached to the food-grains. It also serves to indicate that extreme caution is needed in basing a theory on any particular index numbers, unless the system on which they have been prepared is clearly understood. The Statistical Department's index numbers are compiled on the exceedingly simple principle of calling the price of each commodity for the year 1873-100, and reducing all prices to a percentage of the price of that year and then dividing the sum of the converted prices for any particular year by the number of the commodities.

No doubt the ideal index number would be on a consumption basis, but the matter is not as simple as it at first sounds. We should first have to divide society up into typical classes, a task as difficult as forming electoral colleges: we should then have to frame for the average individual of each class a budget estimate of expenditure, a task only one degree simpler than the framing of the Imperial Budget Estimate. We should then arrive at a number of index numbers which might not help us very much on account of their mutual incompatibility. The fact is that the attempt to frame index numbers on a consumption basis seems fated to end in dissipated energy and disappointment. It is like piling Pelion on Ossa and Ossa on Pelion.

One fact, however, is obvious,—that so far as three quarters of the population of India is concerned, the importance of the food-grains is paramount. There is, in other words, a very strong case for weighting the food-grains, as Mr. Atkinson has, in fact, done. If, however, we weight the food-grains to anything like an adequate extent, we shall obtain an index line which differs little from the index line for food-grains.

But it must not be inferred that the latter line, as drawn on the principles adopted by the Statistical Department, is intended to represent in any sense the cost of living, for this is very far from the fact. If anyone were found so impatient of theoretical exactitude as to wish to frame his daily bill of diet on the proportions of the staples that enter into the food-grains index number, it would be necessary to add to that number a substantial item for medical fees. All that we can really claim for the figure is that it affords us a rough-and-ready means of comparison of the prices of food-grains in different years.

The food-grains included in this index number are wheat and rice, the two most important, and then jawar, bajra, gram, barley, and ragi. In this special index number the prices for the seven food-grains are retail prices, whereas, in the special

index number for commodities exported and consumed, as well as in the general index number for all the selected commodities, the prices of rice and wheat are wholesale prices, while the prices of the other five grains are retail prices. It does not appear that any valid objection can be urged to the mixing up of wholesale and retail prices in the same index number, so long as this distinction between the index numbers is clearly grasped.

Now let us see what the index numbers shew. Take first the special index number for food-grains. The first thing that strikes us, if we turn to the curve which represents this index number, is the marked amplitude of the fluctuations. At a glance we may pick out the highest points of the curve and feel assurance that these mark years of famine and scarcity—1866, 1869, 1878, 1892, 1897, and 1900. Similarly the lowest

points mark the years of plenty.

Now let us for a moment "damp" the extreme fluctuations and try and see the general tendency of the curve. Between the years 1861 and 1883 it is impossible to say whether the general tendency is upward or downward. All that we can say is that grain prices in the latter year did not sink to the same low level to which they sank in 1862, 1871, and 1875. From 1883 onwards, however, there appears to be a decided upward slope, and prices never again fall to anything like the level of those of 1883, though they rise in 1897 and 1900 very much higher than they did in 1878. These remarks apply to the period 1861 to 1904. The latter year serves to mark the beginning of a new period, the predominant characteristic of which appears to be the existence of famine prices without famine. We shall revert to this later.

Now let us look at the line representing the index numbers of the imported commodities. These are iron, copper braziers, spelter (a commercial name for zinc), grey shirtings, grey yarn, coloured yarn, sugar (Mauritius), raw silk (Canton), coal, kerosine oil, and salt. We see at a glance that there is very little resemblance between the contour of this line and that of the line just depicted. The next thing that strikes us is the great rise in the import line during the sixties. We have already attributed this rise to the cotton famine due to the American War. We will now consider imports from 1873 onwards.

A comparison of the import index line with Sauerbeck's index line for gold prices is most instructive. We at once notice a striking similarity between the lines especially during the years 1873 to 1885. Both index numbers are so arranged that each stands at 100 in the year 1873. Down to the year

¹ Mr. Sauerbeck's index figures have been equated to the base year 1873. The original base year selected by Mr. Sauerbeck was 1871.

1885 the lines remain very close together and singularly similar in contour. From 1885 to 1888, while a heavy fall in exchange has set in, the import line rises, and then oscillates about a level slightly lower than the level of the latter year, at a time when the prices of food-grains are subject to great fluctuations with the general level perceptibly rising.

It is a most useful exercise to convert Mr. Sauerbeck's index numbers for gold prices into index numbers for silver prices at the rates of exchange which prevail in each year. The resultant line is almost coincident with the import line. Here then lies the key to the riddle. The movements in the rupee prices of imports have at all times been ruled by the movements in gold prices in Europe. We see at a glance how much steadier as a measure of value of these commodities the rupee has been than the gold sovereign. Since 1893, however, or at any rate since the rupee arrived at 1s. 4d., the steadiness of the silver prices depends entirely on the steadiness of the gold prices, and this will be the case so long as the rupee is maintained fairly steady about 1s. 4d., in fact the import line becomes almost a replica of the gold line.

Now as regards the two index lines for articles exported and consumed and the general list of selected articles, they are so close in position and so similar in contour that we may consider them together. The effect of adding imports to the articles exported and consumed is simply to bring the index line of the latter a little nearer to the import index line, the representation of food-grains being so strong as to preserve its general contour. We will now follow the index figure line for the whole of the selected commodities. These include the foodgrains and the imported commodities. The remaining things (which enter into the index figure for commodities exported and consumed and have been incorporated in the general list of selected commodities) are --tea, sugar, qhi, hides, raw cotton, raw jute, raw silk, saltpetre, raw wool, castor oil, seeds, coal, manufactured cotton, gunny bags, dressed skins, lac, indigo. Some of these are further subdivided: for example, there are four sub-classes for tea, two for sugar, three for jute, etc., so that the weight given to all the articles is not the same. It is necessary here to repeat a warning. These index numbers are not based on the actual or estimated consumption stand-

$$1\frac{1\frac{10\cdot3}{12}}{3\cdot4}.56 = \frac{223}{154}.56 = 81 \text{ approx.}$$

 $^{^{-1}}$ e.g., we want to convert the gold index figure for the year 1897 into a silver index figure. The rate of exchange in that year was about 1-3.4, the rate of exchange in 1873 may be taken as 1-10.3. The gold index figure for 1897 is 56. The corresponding silver index figure is

ards of any particular class or classes. All that can be claimed for them is that they afford a rough and ready means of exhibiting the upward or downward tendency of general prices less obscured by the heavy fluctuations of the foodgrains. If we "damp", the extreme fluctuations unwards and downwards we see that there is a turn in the general tendency of the line at the year 1885. From 1866 to 1885 the general tendency is a downward one, but from 1885 to 1904 it is a rising one, though the rise is not nearly as strongly marked as some would have us believe. The reason of the extreme depression of the line in 1885 is to be found in the fact that food-grains were very plentiful in that year, and the imports fell to a low figure along with gold prices. Between 1885 and 1893 there is a certain degree of steadiness observable in gold prices in Europe. It is not surprising, then, that with silver falling heavily in those years, the tendency of rupee prices should be upward.

We are now in a position to expose the fallacy of the trite argument that the fall in prices in 1898 is attributable to a deficiency of the circulating medium brought about by the closure of the mints, and that the rise in 1900 is due to the influence of the large coinages of that year. As regards the fall in 1898, we may note in the first place that though foodgrains were exceptionally plentiful in that year, still the price was high above the level of '94 and '95, in fact 25 points higher than in the former year and no less than 42 points higher than the level of '82 and '83. It was not till 1904, after very heavy coinages, that the price of food-grains came down to near the level of '94.

As regards the fall in the prices of imports in 1898 we have only to reflect that in January, 1896, demand bills in Calcutta stood at $13\frac{7}{8}d$., whereas in January, 1898, they stood at $15\frac{1}{16}d$. It may of course be argued that the difference in exchange is itself evidence of the scarcity of the circulation. It is probable, indeed, that the volume of the circulation had become much contracted in 1898, but to argue that the rise in exchange was due to the scarcity of the circulating medium is, perhaps, to confound what is really a concomitant circumstance with a cause.

As regards the rise of prices in 1900, it seems highly improbable, on the face of it, that the new issues could have got into general circulation so quickly as to affect prices in that year. So far as food-grains are concerned, 1900 was an exceptionally bad year, and the high prices call for no further explanation. So far as imports are concerned, we have only to look at the line of gold prices, and see what a rise took place in that year. The fact is that there is nothing either in the fall of '98 or the rise of 1900 which remains to be explained in terms of the quantity of the rupce currency.

It is a remarkable fact that the index numbers afford us little or no indication of the nature of the great monetary change that was effected in 1893. By the closure of the mints in that year the old means of settling the balance of trade between Europe and India became no longer feasible. People were deterred from sending silver to India for the purpose of coinage by the uncertainty and risk attending its ultimate acceptance by the mints. It is, in fact, essential to the maintenance of exchange that the dates and hours of the purchase of silver by Government shall not be proclaimed from the housetops. It is to this uncertainty existing in the minds of the public with reference to the time and quantity of the issues, and not to its scarcity in circulation, that the so-called monopoly value of the rupee is due.

So far as prices after 1893 are concerned, it is not to be surprised at that they should exhibit some fluctuation, having regard to the great rise in exchange between 1895 and 1898.

We have already had occasion to notice the effect of this rise on the price of imports. From December 1898, onwards, exchange has remained fairly steady at about 1s. 4d. Now let us see what was happening to gold prices. Between December 1902 and December 1906, the Economist Index number shews a rise of 25 per cent in gold prices in Europe. Also in those years the export and import trade was peculiarly brisk. These facts go some way to explain how it is that the prices of foodgrains have risen, without the occurrence of famine, or at least with only such distress here and there as is clearly ascribable to local crop failure, above the level that is commonly assigned as the level of famine prices. The truth must be faced that the measure of prices as a criterion of famine seems to have failed.

To those who argue that the prices of food-stuffs would not have risen but for the great currency change of 1893, we would reply that the rise is one of the surest indications of the triumph of the policy of the closure, for it shews in a way that nothing else could shew, that trade is in a flourishing condition. Had it been possible for exchange to remain steady at 12 annas the rupee, trade would, no doubt, have exhibited just as vigorous a development, but rupee prices would have risen 33 per cent. above their present level. The partial failure of food-grains to respond to the influence of gold prices in Europe before 1893 can only be regarded as an indication of the damage inflicted on trade by a fluctuating and unstable rupee.

No doubt the change, like most secular changes in the economic world, involves a redistribution of burdens as between class and class, but, if one thing can be considered more certain than another, it is that it is not the poorer classes who

¹ Exchange on demand bills in Calcutta stood at 1s. $0\frac{35}{6}d$, in March, 1895, and rose pretty steadily to 1s. $4\frac{1}{2}d$, in January, 1898.

have suffered through the rise in price of Indian food-stuffs. The whole trend of opinion of those whose relations with the cultivator and the labourer entitle their views to most respect leads to the recognition of the amelioration of the lower classes as an established fact. As regards the cultivator, nothing can be more obvious than that, taking good years with bad, he profits by the high prices of food-grains. On the other hand the labourer is, owing to railways and the demands for labour by tea, indigo, jute, cotton, coal, and other industries, in a specially favoured position as regards bargaining strength. The real burden falls on those who work on fixed wages. The amlah class, no doubt, suffers, but it must be remembered that this is the class which has fattened for centuries on ill-gotten gains derived from the ignorant raiyat, who is only now getting back Moreover, so far as Government service is concerned, his own. the situation is largely relieved by the magnanimous distribution of largesse to clerks and menials in the form of grain compensation allowance.

Those who would by legislation stop the export of foodgrains in order to lower their price in India itself are advocating a principle which strikes at the very root of our present monetary policy. Our very salvation consists at present in the free export of food-grains and raw materials. Indian manufactures are not yet in such a flourishing condition as to enable them to replace the bulk of the exported food-grains in our export sheet, and the stoppage of this class of export would inevitably endanger, if not actually reverse, the present favourable balance of trade.

The surplus of exports is, however, being more and more provided by cotton, jute, and the simpler forms of manufac-Also India is supplying her own coal and gold to a larger extent than was formerly the case. It would, however, be idle to look for any great fall in the prices of food-grains on this account. India has now entered into full commercial relations with Europe, and she has, moreover, adopted a gold standard, and it is inevitable that the relative prices of food-stuffs to manufactures must approximate to the relative prices that obtain in the manufacturing countries with which India trades. Her efforts to establish manufacturing industries, in so far as they are seriously directed to economic results, and not misdirected to mischievous political obscurantism, are but the natural expression of the desire of every healthy country to so arrange its commercial and trade economy as to enable it to export manufactured articles and preserve its raw materials as far as possible for its own use. Most of the great countries of Europe and the United States of America have found the shortest solution of the problem in protection.

But whatever the future may contain, we may rest tolerably certain that it is gold prices which must determine the

rupee prices of food-grains, and trade interests have, in fact, become so linked up that a scarcity of the wheat crop in Canada will spell high rupee prices in India, whether India is actually exporting wheat or not. It seems superfluous to speculate about the return of rupee prices to the level of former days. High prices have come to stay, and can only be relieved by a fall in gold prices.

We may now epitomize the reasons assigned in the preced-

ing analysis for the rise in the prices of food-grains.

The factors, then, which have principally conduced to the

rise in the price of food-grains are—
(a) The improvement in communications; roads, railways, post office, telegraphs; and the consequent addition to the

cost of transport.

(b) The growth of the Mercantile Marine; with which we must mention the opening of the Suez Canal in 1870, and the permanent lowering of sea freights since about 1884.

general level of prices since 1860 of something representing the

(c) The increase in population.

- (d) The stationary character of the area and output of the
- (e) The increase in effective demand owing to the interlinking of markets. The intense local famines, in which people literally died of starvation, are now warded off by the intervention of Government in either feeding the people or in supplying them with the wherewithal to feed themselves.

(f) The rise in gold prices since 1902.

(g) Closely interconnected with several of these factors—the development of Indian trade both in its internal and external aspects; resulting in the closer adjustment of the proportion of prices of food-stuffs and manufactures to the proportion which obtains in the great gold-using manufacturing countries with which India now trades.

The period 1904-1907 was characterised by unprecedented trade activity. Both exports and imports attained figures they had not attained before. Along with this exceptional trade activity we have a quite phenomenal period of rising prices; in fact between 1903 and 1907, the general index number rose 40 per cent. There is also a good deal of internal evidence to shew that the rapid expansion of the export trade was financed by large coinages of rupees issued to meet bills drawn on India by the Secretary of State, beyond his own immediate requirements, to satisfy a growing demand for private investments in India. It was undoubtedly a period of great inflation, and many unusual factors are observable. It was followed by the failure of the monsoon of 1907 with the reversal of the favourable balance of trade in the financial year 1908-09. The period is an exciting one for Indian finance, as so many new factors are in evidence. To attempt to enumerate all these factors and trace their effects

would carry us altogether beyond the scope of the present paper, in which we have merely tried to indicate the larger and more permanent forces at work. The financial crisis was overcome by the drastic action of the Secretary of State during the year The general crisis produced by the failure of the monsoon of 1907 has now passed with the favourable crop returns of the present year, and prices have accordingly become easier. There is absolutely no reason, however, to infer that the larger influences we have indicated are no longer at work, and it appears highly improbable that, even with plentiful supplies, prices will fall below the level which prevailed at the beginning of the period. Apart from all other causes—and there are doubtless many—a period of exceptional trade activity must spell rising prices of food-grains because it gives free play to that natural adjustment we have already indicated in the proportional prices of raw materials and manufactures as between the manufacturing countries on the one hand and, on the other, the agricultural countries with which they trade.

10. King Gopichandra of Rangpur.

By BISVESVAR BHATTACHARYA.

In the district of Rangpur, about 8 miles off the railway station of Domar, far from the bustle of civilized life, is the small hamlet of Patkapara,—literally, the hamlet of bricks. Much of the place is now uninhabited waste land which the plough cares not to till on account of its high level and want of There are mounds here and there which are claimed by tradition to be the sites of stately mansions of old, while old people tell the pathetic story of its rich store of classic bricks having been laid under requisition by sacrilegious contractors for the Northern Bengal Railway. About 11 miles to the north-east lie the ramparts of what once was the fortified capital of king Dharmapal or his deputy, and about 2 miles to the north-west are the ramparts of what tradition still declares to have been the residence of king Gopichandra's mighty mother Mayanamati.

anyone acquainted with the ballad published by Dr. Grierson in the Asiatic Society's Journal under the title of 'Mānikchandra rājār Gān' (vol. xlvii, 1878) Mayanāmatī and Gonichandra are familiar names. There is, however, no mention in the ballad of the capital of king Gopichandra or his father Mānikchandra, while the ballad itself, as published, gives an inadequate idea of the great epic with its numerous episodes which the author of this paper has found to be still extant amongst some old Jugis of the neighbouring tract and has collected for publication. These Jugis are a class of indigenous bards, mostly illiterate, who supplement their earnings by singing the epic and dancing to the accompaniment of vocal and instrumental music. They are believed to be the degraded descendants of a class of Buddhist ascetics-followers of Gorakhnāth; and many of their local customs—their divergence from Brahmanical rites, their adoption of priests from their own caste, their worship of the Buddhist deity Dharma-con-The ballad published by Dr. Grierson may be said to be an abridged version of the epic as still sung by old Jugis credited with the possession of a richer lore than their com-Another abridged version deviating in some respects from the story as told by the Jugis made its appearance quite unexpectedly some years ago from Western Bengal. It is the production of one Durlav Mallik, a village bard of some antiquity, though hitherto unknown to fame. From Durlay Mallik's work—the publication of which we owe to Babu Sib

Chandra Sīl of Chinsura—we get the important fact that Gopīchandra's capital was at Pātikānagar, and his grandfather and great-grandfather were named Subarnachandra and Dhārichandra respectively. From local traditions, the existence of old ruins and the vicinity to Mayanāmatir kôt, Pātkāpārā can unquestionably lay claim to identity with Pātikānagar, the capital of Gopīchandra.

Dr. Buchanan Hamilton has told us, apparently on the authority of the Jugis whom he might have come across and possibly misunderstood, that Dharmapal was Manikchandra's brother and had a fight with Mayanamati after his death over the throne which he usurped. Dharmapāl undoubtedly belonged to the great Pal dynasty of Bengal, and if his alleged relationship to Manikchandra can be established. Manikchandra and Gopichandra must also be held to have belonged to that dyn-By sifting enquiries amongst the Jugis, however, I have been unable to find any trace of a tradition lending the least support to the theory of this relationship. On the other hand, I have come across a ballad composed some 40 or 50 years ago by a Jugi, since dead, which makes Manikchandra the grandson of Dharmapal. While I am ready to concede that the genealogy given in this newly-discovered ballad is devoid of any historical value, it demolishes the theory of a "universal" tradition amongst the Jugis ascribing a common parentage to Mānikchandra and Dharmanāl. If not a constructive, it has certainly a destructive value.

There are, in fact, no data for even a bare supposition that Mānikchandra and Dharmapāl were contemporaries or that the former belonged to the Pal dynasty. It is difficult to understand either how Buchanan gathered the story of a fight between Mayanāmati and Dharmapāl. Every Jugi questioned by me has expressed surprise at my mention of the alleged tradition, and the long tale of Mayanamati's achievements after her husband's death told in the great epic of the Jugis is significantly silent on the point. She fought with the infernal spirits that carried away her husband from the land of the living, she put the mighty deities of the Hindu Pantheon to various indignities, she worked numerous miracles and passed through unspeakably difficult ordeals to inspire her young and handsome son with confidence in the Jugi doctrine, but there is no mention of her rivalry with an earthly antagonist of the type of Dharmapal. We get from the ballads extant that she was the daughter of Tilakchand (sometimes called king Tilakchand), that she was sent to school at an early age, that she became the disciple of Gorakhnath when that great sage paid a visit to her father's domains and that this initiation was the secret of her extraordinary powers. The epic tells us also that after her marriage Mānikchandra took a number of other wives, and as Mayanā advanced in years and did not agree well with the younger queens,

the king adopted the prudent though somewhat drastic course of removing her from his capital to a place called Ferushanagar where she took to working at the wheel and spinning thread. The remains of the surroundings of her residence—the earthen rampart which has defied ages and the moat below, which, though mostly dried up, is still able to bear testimony to its past glory—do not certainly indicate that their owner had to subsist on manual labour. The story told in the recent ballad that Tilakchand reigned at Ferushanagar is entirely opposed to the spirit of the old song and the probabilities of things. The old ballad abounds in references to Buddhistic doctrines and practices, and the discovery of Buddhistic images in the neighbourhood even quite recently shows unmistakably that the faith proclaimed by the followers of Sakyamuni-albeit in a corrupt form—had its sway over the tract in days gone by. Yet it was not the universal—possibly not even the dominant—faith. The efforts of Mayanamati to win her husband over to her own way of looking at things and her struggles against the Brahmanical prejudices of her son show rather that Brahmanism, even though of exotic growth on the non-Brahmanical tribes of the north, had more than its fair share of hold on the popular mind.

I do not think the title of Gopichandra to be called the king of Bengal (as he has been called here and there in the songs) rests on a solid basis, nor am I prepared to identify Govindachandra of the rock-inscription of the Terumalaya with the Rangpur king who exchanged the sceptre and the crown for an ascetic's garb under the instructions of his mother and wandered in the forest with his great spiritual guide Hā-Disiddhā. Still less am I prepared to claim kinship of Gopichandra with king Vartrihari of Mālwā. Not only do the old songs give other account of his near relations, but their very spirit indicates that the temporal authority and the social surroundings of the king could not have been very extensive. While I am unable to agree with Dr. Grierson that Manikchandra "reigned over half-dozen square miles of territory which constituted him a Rājādhirāj," I am also unable to hold that the extent of his dominions was greater than perhaps that of a modern Bengal district. Songs relating to Gopichandra are, however, still sung in distant parts of India,—in the United Provinces, the Punjab, Central India, the Western Presidency, etc., --- and testify to the far-reaching fame which the self-abnegation of the young prince enabled the followers of Gorakhnāth to secure for him.

Every circumstance points to the probability that GopI-chandra and Dharmapāl belonged to two rival dynasties. Which Dharmapāl it was we do not exactly know, but an extensive village in the vicinity of Pātkāpārā still bears his name and contains the remains of his fortifications referred to above.

It is not unlikely that he was a king flourishing at a considerably later period than the celebrated father of Devapāl, but in any case he appears to have eclipsed the local repute of Mayanāmatī's son.

The main incidents of the epic which has come down to us from different sources and with more or less different versions clearly point to their origin in the pre-Mahomedan days, though, as is but natural in the case of a long ballad, transmitted from mouth to mouth and sung for the amusement of an everchanging audience, numerous interpolations have tended to give it a different colouring.

11. Review of our Knowledge of the Oriental Diptera.

By E. Brunetti.

In the year 1896 Van der Wulp published his Catalogue of South Asian Diptera, giving a list of 2889 species: since that date a certain number of new ones have been described, principally by Herr Kertesz, Herr Meijere, Profs. Bezzi, P. Stein and myself; with a few additional ones by Van der Wulp himself, and more are at present being discovered, the majority of which will be described in the Indian Museum publications.

It is my endeavour here to illustrate the advance made in our knowledge of the diptera of South Asia during the last few years, and to review the position in which the groups stand

that have not yet been recently revised.

Cecidomyiida.—Three species only were cited by Van der Wulp. With the exception of about six described since and a very limited number in the Indian Museum collection I know

of no fresh material in this family.

Mycetophilidæ (including Sciarinæ).—Apart from 3 species of Meijere's no new species have been described; but the Indian Museum possesses a considerable number, principally from Himalayan localities, and these I am describing in a forth-coming paper. They will number about 80 species, new, except about half a dozen conspicuous ones which I have recognised with certainty as previously described.

Culicidæ (with Corethra).—The bulk of the species of Nemocera recently described belong to this family, owing mainly to the indefatigable efforts of Messrs. Theobald, Leicester, Giles, Ludlow and others. From 32 species given by Van der Wulp, the number rose to about 240 in my recent Catalogue, and I have compiled a list of nearly 150 additional species from the East, making a total of just on 400 species known from oriental regions.

Many of the recently created species are now being regarded as varieties or intermediate forms, so that, eventually, many present catalogue names may disappear from specific rank. Probably this family has been more extensively collected and better worked out than any other.

Chironomida.—Only 15 species were known to Van der Wulp, to which but three have since been added. The Indian Museum possesses a peculiarly rich collection of insects of this

¹ Annotated Catalogue of Oriental Culicidee, Rec. Ind. Mus., i, 297-377.

family, and Prof. Kieffer has recently sent to it a monograph containing descriptions of about 90 new species, described from types in its collection. A further paper by the same author will deal with the residuum of the Museum's undescribed material.

Psychodidæ.—No species whatever were known from the East in this family till 1908, when Dr. Annandale described Phlebotomus argentipes. Since then I have added 14 species from India,2 which seems to suggest that the species must be very numerous in the East, as no other countries have apparently been collected over at all. Moreover, several additional forms of Phlebotomus are at present being described by Dr. Annandale. There are probably a very great number of existing species in this family throughout the world, as a considerable number were discovered in quite a limited region in England alone by Eaton, a fact which tends to support my view. A most interesting discovery in this family was made by Dr. Annandale recently; he found a living species of an extinct genus (Diplonema, Lw.) in the Darjeeling District,3 and he has subsequently found a second species of the same peculiar genus in South India: this latter to be described shortly.

Bibionida.—Only one new species has been described since the 12 recorded by Van der Wulp; but to this total I shall shortly add several others from specimens preserved in the

Indian Museum or in my own collection.

Simuliidæ.—Three or four additional undescribed species in the Indian Museum are to be added to the only two recorded from the East, viz., Simulium indicum, Becher, and S. nobile, Meij.

Tipulidæ.—140 species figure in the 1896 Catalogue, to which number Herr Meijere has added a few new ones. The Indian Museum is especially rich in this family, and my own collection contains a considerable number collected by me in Mussoorie, Darjeeling and the Far East, so that my forthcoming monographic revision in this family will comprise nearly 100 new oriental species.

Rhyphidæ.—Only one species is given by Van der Wulp, but I am shortly describing three new ones, as well as a variety

of the common European Rhyphus tenestralis, Scop.

Only one or two other species remain to be added to the Nemocera, additional to the one species each recorded by Van der Wulp in Dixidæ and Blepharoceridæ.

A revisionary glance of the first Suborder shows the following remarkable figures as the results of the past few years' work:—

Rec. Ind. Mus., ii, 101.
 Journ. Asiatic Soc. Bengal. (new ser.), iv. 353.

	Species known in 1896.	At present known, including those to be described shortly.
$Cecidomyiid$ α	3	10
Mycetophilida	23	70
Culicidæ	32	400
Chironomid x	15	100
Psychodidx	0	20
Bibionidæ and Simuliidæ	14	25
Tipulidx	140	$\boldsymbol{220}$
Rhyphida, etc.	3	10
		
Totals	230 Species	s. 855 Species.

The Nemocera have therefore been increased by three-and-a-half times the number of species known less than ten years ago. Descriptions of those included in the above table as known, but not yet actually published, will appear during the next few months at latest.

Turning to the next Suborder, the Brachycera (I prefer to retain, for the present, the older system of classification), the differences are not so marked, but only because many of the groups have not been dealt with, and not so assiduously collected; for those that have been worked out afford a high percentage of new forms.

Stratiomyidæ.—This family was revised to the best of my

ability 2 recently, only six new species being added.

Tabanidæ.—Miss Ricardo has recently worked through the British Museum and Indian Museum collections in this group, and has forwarded a voluminous manuscript on Tabanus, which almost brings up to date our knowledge of that genus; a second paper on the remainder of the family being in preparation.

Leptidæ and Bombylidæ.—Both were revised by me recently, and although a certain number of species were unavoidably unrecognisable through the brevity of the older descriptions, the absence of specimens of many of them, and the impossibility of examining the actual types, I believe that I have allocated the majority of those species originally placed in Anthrax and Exoprosopa to their correct genera; the kind assistance rendered me by Mr. E. E. Austen in this matter by an examination of the types that are in the British Museum, having been most valuable. In my three papers on the two families are added 47 new species.

² Rec. Ind. Mus., i, 85-132.

³ Both to appear shortly in the Rec. Ind. Mus.

With the exception of the Culicide we might say less than two years ago!

^{*} Revis. Orient. Leptidæ, in Rec. Ind. Mus., ii, 417-436. Annotated and Revis. Cat. Orient. Bombyl., loc. cit., ii, 437-492. New Orient. Leptidæ and Bombyl., loc. cit., iii, 211-230.

Nemestrinidæ, Therevidæ, Cyrtidæ.—Probably but few additions will be as yet made to these families.

Asilidæ.—Over 450 species were mentioned by Van der Wulp. The family is likely to remain in its present state for some considerable time, for until a complete examination of all the types has been made, in conjunction with a very careful study from a chætotactic point of view, it would be wholly unwise to describe new species. It has always been my desire to attack this group, there being a considerable amount of material at my disposal.

Empidæ.—Prof. Bezzi has added a score of new species to the half dozen described since 1896, when 12 only were known. The few additional ones existing in the Indian Museum will be worked out by me on finishing the few papers

now approaching completion.

Dolichopidæ.—In this family extensive additions are certain. Of the 100 species recorded in 1896, a great number are Walker's and must therefore be received with caution. Herr Lichtwardt is at present identifying the Indian Museum specimens, and some time ago, in separating them from the mass of undetermined material, a casual inspection caused me to estimate the number of species therein contained, at least 50.

In my own collection there are probably 20 to 30 species collected by me in various parts of India and the Far East, some of which are in all likelihood new.

Pipunculidæ, Platypezidæ.—Some few additions have been made; in the former by Herr Kertesz,² and in my "New Oriental Diptera" will be described nearly a dozen more.

Syrphidæ.—Certain genera in this family were revised by me recently, whilst Herr Meijere has dealt with certain other genera and described over 40 new species in his studies on South Asian Diptera. Altogether, a little over 100 new species have been described since 1896, but genera like Eristalis, Syrphus, Sphærophoria, Syritta, Bacha, Graptomyza, and some others, require careful and complete revision, for the reason that a number of well-known palæarctic species occur in the east (at least in the Himalayas, some extending also to the plains), either in typical or slightly varietal form. A number of new species are still at my disposal.

Conopidæ.—Judging from the descriptions, the 14 described species appear distinct; to these will be added three or four others.

Oestridæ.—Apparently only 4 species known from the East.

Ann. Mus. Hung., ii, 320.
 Ann. Mus. Hung., i, 465.

<sup>Notes on Oriental Syrphidæ, i. Rec. Ind. Mus., vol. i (plates only, XI, XII. XIII), vol. ii, 49-96, text, 42 sp. nov. described.
Tijd. v. Ent.. li.</sup>

Muscidæ.—In this great family but little revisionary work has been done, mainly owing, probably, to the impossibility of recognising species from the older brief descriptions. Austen has allocated a good number of Walker's species of Tachinidæ to their correct genera; Prof. Stein has described a number of species of Spilogaster, Lispa, Canosia, and Atherigona, chiefly from Papua; whilst amongst the Acalypterate groups, the Sepsinæ have been treated of by Meijere and myself, 2 bringing our knowledge of the group pretty completely up to date, and raising the total of known species from 20 to 51, including several European species recognised by me. In a paper shortly to be issued, the Oriental Stomoxyina are fully revised by me and described (including, however, only very few new species); whilst Prof. Bezzi has nearly completed his studies on the Trypetidæ. Herr Hendel's revision of the world's species of Sapromyzinæ (as Lauxaninæ) senables us to reconstruct the oriental list of species, to which over 40 names have been added and described by Herr Kertesz in the genus Sapromyza alone. Prof. Bezzi's revision of the genus Dacus disposes of most of the oriental species, but in all the other very extensive and difficult groups next to nothing has been done.

The Indian Museum possesses a very large number of undetermined species (of which a large proportion can hardly fail to be new) in Tachinidæ, Sarcophaga. Musca, Lucilia, Anthomyidæ and various groups of the Acalypterata, including a number of named but undescribed species erected by Bigot, all representing a mine of wealth to the earnest but advanced student in these respective groups.

In Van der Wulp's Catalogue, 20 pages are devoted to $Tachinid\alpha$ and $Dexid\alpha$, 30 species of Sarcsphaga are given, over 60 of Lucilia and 45 of Musca; of the latter genus the author very significantly observes, "only domestica and corvina belong with certainty to the genus in its strict sense".

In the *Phoridæ* Mr. Brues has described eleven new species,* whilst I am adding nearly a dozen more in my "New Oriental Diptera."

Respecting the last division of Diptera, *Pupipara*, Herr Speiser after describing 21 new species,⁵ is revising the whole of the known species.

The foregoing résumé will serve to give a general view of our present knowledge of Oriental Diptera.

It does not seem too much to state that a great part of the activity (displayed during the last 3 years at least) is due directly to the efforts of Dr. Annandale, the Superintendent of

¹ Ann. Mus. Hung., iv, 167. ² Rec. Ind. Mus., iii, 343-372.

³ Genera Insectorum, 68me, Fasc.

⁴ Ann. Mus. Hung., iii, 540. 5 In various journals.

the Indian Museum, in his endeavour to get the extensive collection of these insects possessed by that Institution arranged and determined. The whole of my own work in oriental species, and the enlistment of the valuable services of Prof. Kieffer in Chironomidæ, Mr. Theobald in Culicidæ, Miss Ricardo in Tabanidæ, Herr Lichtwardt in Dolichopidæ and Prof. Bezzi in Trypetidæ, have had that origin. In the above groups, about 200 species will figure as new, whilst the publication of the remaining papers I have in hand will raise the total of new species described by me to about 300.

The great majority of the types of these 500 new species are preserved in the Indian Museum collection.

12. Contributions to the History and Ethnology of North-Eastern India—I.

By H. E. Stapleton, B.A. B.Sc., Inspector of Schools, Dacca Division, and Honorary Secretary to the Coin Committee, Eastern Bengal and Assam.

A .- THE ANTIQUITY OF DACCA.

At the recent 125th Anniversary meeting of the Society. the writer exhibited a rubbing of a mosque inscription from Dacca town, dated in the year 863 A.H. (A.D. 1459), as an indication that Dacca is considerably older than the date of its reputed foundation by Islam Khan in A.D. 1608. Since then an interesting find of coins of a Gupta type has come to light which lends a certain amount of additional support to the suggestion that Dacca is a place of considerable antiquity. The town itself stands at the southernmost point of the raised land occupying the centre of Eastern Bengal, and the shrine of its patron goddess. Dhakeswari, is situated on the highest ground at the western side of the town, half a mile distant from the river Būrī Ganga. A mile away to the north-west is the Pīl-khāna, the former headquarters of the Kheddah Department, and just beyond this (still to the north-west) we come to a large stretch of arable land which, though now split up into fields, continues to bear the name of Nawāb Rashīd Khān ka Bagicha. tank, breached at the southern end, lies close to the road leading from the Pil-khāna, and it was here, 100 yards to the south

¹ The former owner of this garden seems to have been the Rashid Khān who was appointed Faujdār of Kāmrūp by Aurangzeb in 1662 (Blochmann, Koch Bihār and Āsām, J.A.S.B., 1872, pp. 92 and 96), He accepted the post unwillingly and resigned after holding it for 3 or 4 years, being succeeded by Saiyid Fīrūz Khān who was captured and killed by the Assamese in 1667. During Shāista Khān's expedition in 1665 for the conquest of Chittagong, Rashīd Khān's brother, 'Abdul Karīm, was placed in charge of the captured island of Sondīp ('Alāmgīrnāmah, quoted by 'Abdu-s-Salām on p. 230 of his translation of the Riyāzu-s-Salāţīn). Later, in 1669, Rashīd Khān accompanied Rājā Singh in his expedition to recover Gauhati from the Assamese, but he quarrelled with Rām Singh and was ordered out of the camp (Gait, History, p. 149). The last reference to him occurs in the Ma'āṣir-i-'Alamgīrī, when he is found reporting (apparently from Dacca) on the expenditure incurred in connexion with the "conquest" of Gauhati in 1679 (Blochmann, op. cit., p. 99). Rashīd Khān is nowhere recorded to have been given the title of Nawāb, but it is possible he may have obtained it in connexion with this temporary re-occupation of Gauhati during the Viceroyalty of Prince Muhammad 'Āzam (1678-1679).

west of the tank and within a stone's throw of the road, that the first coin figured in the annexed Plate XXII was picked up three years ago, the finder being a son of one Jamadar 'Ali, a rvot of Munshi Akbar of Maneswar, the large village lying on the old river bank to the west and north-west of the Pil-khana According to another son of Jamadar 'Ali whom I saw when enquiring about the find, there was a dispute at the time of its discovery as to whether or not it was brass, and on the coin being taken to Bābu Monohar De, a local talukdar and goldsmith, it was declared to be gold and purchased by him for Rs. 8. Last March Babu Mohini Mohan Basu, Headmaster of the Mymensingh Zilla School, happened to be visiting this man, and having been shewn the coin, was informed that others were obtainable at a neighbouring poddar's. Being interested, he asked that one should be obtained for him, with the result that coin No. 2 in Plate XXII was purchased for Rs. 9 and sent him shortly afterwards. The discovery of the first coin in the earth close to Nawab Rashid Khan's tank is certain, having been verified by personal enquiry from the villagers concerned, and it was also ascertained from the poddar who sold the second coin to the Headmaster, through whom information of the find first reached me, that he had obtained it, as well as another, a few months back, from one Ghulām Nabī, a Newārī (নেওয়ারী), or dealer in old jewelry. Ghulām Nabī could not be found as he is said to be absent from Dacca in connexion with his business for most of the year, but the poddar informed me that he had seen several other coins of the same sort in his possession.

No. 1.—Gold (apparently cast). Weight 87-6 grains. Size :80 inch.

Obverse:—Typical Gupta king, facing right, his left hand holding a bow, and right extended over the $gar\bar{u}da$ standard, grasping an arrow. The appearance of the figure on the coin resembles that of Fig. 12, Plate XV (a coin of Chandragupta II) in Mr. Vincent Smith's Indian Museum catalogue of Gupta Coins, while the bow is identical with that shewn on a coin of Samudragupta (cf. Mr. Vincent Smith's paper in the J.A.S.B. for 1884, Pl. II, Fig 6). There is, however, no halo round the head of the king nor visible lettering on the field, which is surrounded by a symmetrical arrangement of dots and dashes. The edge of the coin has been clipped.

Reverse:—Within a circle surrounded by a circle of dots, a standing Queen or Goddess, looking to the left. Behind her lines suggestive of flowing hair, while in front appear characters suggestive of Gupta letters.

Both the appearance as well as the weight (roughly half a tola) at first led the writer to believe that the coin was a forgery, though, from the clearness of the bow, the maker must evidently

have had a genuine Gupta coin as a model. The type seems altogether new, as nothing approximating to the reverse can be found in any paper dealing with Gupta coinage; but the rubbing of an almost identical coin (found in the possession of a ryot at Kotwālipārā) was sent me last year by Bābu Kālīpada Maitra, Assistant Settlement officer, Farīdpūr. Subsequent attempts to purchase this Kotwālipārā coin have proved unsuccessful, but as it was found in company of a Skandagupta coin with very similar type of figure of king, it appears likely to be an example of a new type of Skandagupta's coinage.

No. 2.—Gold (probably struck from a die). Weight 88.3 grs. Size 88 inch.

Obverse:—Similar to the first coin, except that a horse, standing in front of a small altar, occurs under the king's left arm, while between the king's head and the head of the garūda standard is the word Srī in Gupta characters (cf. I.M.C., Pl. XV, No. 12, for similar letters). The bow is also smaller than in No. 1.

Reverse:—Practically the same as the reverse of No. I, but with more detail. The edge of the coin has evidently been mechanically waved after the coin has been struck, a hollow on the obverse corresponding with a dot on the reverse. Both in this coin, as well as in No. 1, the figure on the reverse is at 90° to that on the obverse.

This second coin is evidently based upon one of a similar type to the first. It is, however, more interesting as pointing to the existence of another series of coins commemorating an Asvamedha (Horse sacrifice). If the identification of the first coin with one of Skandagupta's be correct, this may perhaps be the Asvamedha celebrated by Kumāragupta I in which his son Skandagupta may well have taken a part.

Unless these coins be genuine, it is difficult to suggest any hypothesis to account for the discovery of coin No. 1, except that the manufacture of these coins from genuine Gupta coins has been going on for some time in the vicinity of Dacca. Moreover in the absence of the $New\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ who disposed of coin No. 2 to the poddar, it is impossible to say for certain whether the coins actually originate from Dacca. There is, however, nothing inherently improbable in believing the latter to be the case, as besides the Kotwālipārā find mentioned above, Gupta coins belonging to several kings have also been discovered as Muḥammadpūr in the north-east of Jessore (J.A.S.B., 1852, p. 401), while the well-known Allāhābād inscription of Samūdra-

¹ A cast of this Skandagupta coin was shown at the Anniversary meeting. It resembles I.M.C., No. 8, Plate XVI. From the discovery during a visit to Kotwālipārā on 30/1/10 of three more coins similar to No. 1, I am now inclined to regard them as Bengal coins of a somewhat ater date than Skandagupta. On one coin a clear A appears on the obverse under the king's left arm.

gupta records his suzerainty over the frontier kings of Samatata, Davaka, Kamarupa and Nepala (Fleet, Corpus Inscrip. Ind. Vol. III, page 14). Mr. Vincent Smith assigns Davāka to the area now covered by the present Rājshāhī Division, but he appears to have overlooked the fact that until 100 years ago the Brahmaputra ran through Mymensingh and that there was no physical obstacle between what is now Pabna and Bogra. and the present district of Dacca. Davāka would therefore seem to be the land lying between the Brahmaputra—from the point where it turns the Garo Hills, down to the old junction of the Meghna with the Ganges, north of the island of Dakhin Shābāzpūr—and the Ganges from Gaur to the same junction (vide Rennell's map No. IX, from which Mr. Vincent Smith's map facing page 270 of his Early History of India should be corrected). If too. Mr. Vincent Smith's identification of the famous Vikramāditva of Ujjain with Chandragupta II be correct, the district of Vikrampur, immediately to the south of Dacca, probably owes its name to this king, who records on the iron pillar of Dihli that he warred in the Vanga countries (op. cit., 2nd Ed., p. 275). Mr. Vincent Smith's map also seems to need correction as regards the situation of Vanga, the boundary of which has long been the Karatova on the west, Ganges on the south, the Meghna on the east, and the Khasi Hills on the north (vide Cunningham, Archæological Report XV, page 145). In fact Vanga may be practically regarded as an alternative name for Davāka.

In this connexion, I take the opportunity to place on permanent record the two earliest mosque inscriptions that occur in Dacca town. The first is that found on a small slab of stone above the door of a mosque at Nārāvandia, the northeastern suburb of Dacca. The mosque is a very small one and of modern appearance, but from its position at the extreme south-east point of the raised land on which the main city of Dacca stands, the stone may possibly be in its original position. Just to the south runs the khāl, which passes through Dacca and marks the former channel of the Buriganga when this river ran into the Lakhya instead of the Dhaleswari, while beyond the $kh\bar{a}l$ lies the char (island) now occupied by the mahallas of Islampur, Patuātulī, Bānglā Bazār, Farāshgani. Sütrāpur, Ikrāmpur, Shāh Ujijālnagar and Ruknpur, on which the town of Bangala, visited by Vertomannus in 1503, seems to have been situated. (Taylor, Topography and Statistics of Dacca, p. 92.)

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بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم لا اله الا الله محمد رسول الله أو الله مدد مزين ببانگ حي فلاح مسجد اين غريب ليل و صباح مسماة بخت بينت دختر مرحمت

The Basmalah. The Kalimah.

"Adorned by the sound of Hayya Falah 1

At night and morning is the mosque of this humble person: (Erected by) Musammāt Bakht Bīnat, daughter of Marhamat.

In the year 861 (= 1457 A.D.)."

(Length of the stone 1' $0\frac{3}{4}$ "; height $8\frac{1}{4}$ ").

The inscription is somewhat curious as being in Persian, and for its omission of any reference to the reigning king. As pointed out by Khān Bahādur Saiyid Aulad Hasan (whose reading of the inscription in his Notes on the Antiquities of Dacca first drew my attention to it—vide p. 28), the name of the lady shows that she belonged to the lower class of society.

The second inscription, two years later in date is the one referred to at the beginning of this paper. As noted by Khān Bahādur Saiyid Aulad Ḥasan (op. cit., p. 34) this inscription, which is now in the Record room of the Dacca Collectorate, came from an old mosque in Nāswalla Gully, a street in the quarter of the town of Dacca known as Gird-i Qila' and not from the adjoining quarter of Churihāttā as reported by Dr. Wise. Owing to a defective rubbing, Dr. Blochmann was unable to give a full reading in his Notes on Arabic and Persian Inscriptions, (J.A.S.B., 1872, page 107), but from a recent photo, reproduced in Plate XXIV, it will be seen that this important inscription runs as follows:

قال الله تعالى وان المساجد لله فلا تدعوا مع الله احدا استحكم هذا الباب و بنى في ايام خلافة الخليفة المستعان ناصر الدنيا والدين ابو المظفر محمود شالا السلطان خلد ملكه السبحان المخاطب بخطاب خواجه جهان صانه عن الإفات الرحمان فى حد اقليم مباركاباد - عصمها 2 إلله الى يوم

ا More properly حيّ على الفلاح (Come to Safety), a sentence in the Jzān (call to prayer).

² I am indebted to Dr. Ross, Philological Secretary of the Society, for the reading of this word.

التناد و كان ذلك في العشرين من شعبان سنة ثلث وسنين وثمانمائة من هجوة سنن ا صلى الله عليه واله اجمعين *

"Saith Almighty God; Verily mosques belong to Allah!

Do not worship any one save Allah!

"This gate was firmly constructed and built in the days of the reign of the Khalīfah of Him whose aid is sought (by men) Nāṣiru-d-Duniya wa-d-Dīn Abu-l-Muzaffar Maḥmūd Shāh, the King—May Allāh perpetuate his rule!—by one entitled Khwā-jah Jahān—May the Merciful protect him from (all) evils!—in the frontier territory of Mubārakābād—May Allāh preserve it to the Day of Judgment! And this was on the 20th of Sha'bān in the year 863 of the years of the Hijra (of the Prophet)—May the peace of God be on him and on all his family!"

Dr. Wise, who was probably misled by Stewart's assertion that Dacca is a modern city, suggested to Dr. Blochmann that the slab on which the inscription is found "has been removed from some other older mosque and city to Dhākā," but from the position of the mosque on high land close to the Dhakeswari shrine and next to the site of the old fort erected by Ibrāhim Khān Fath Jang, the third Mughul Governor of Bengal, about the year 1620 A.D.,2 as well as the facts stated earlier in this paper, there seems no reason to doubt that the inscription has always belonged to the Gird-i Qila' mosque. The original building has now disappeared, the roof having collapsed in 1902 as the combined result of being struck by lightning and shaken by the 1897 earthquake, but the local people are now rebuilding another mosque on the foundations of the old one. According to Khan Bahadur Saiyid Aulad Hasan (op. cit., p. 34) the original building measured inside $27' \times 16$? and the walls were 4' thick. The slab (now broken in two pieces) is of slate and has the following dimensions:-

The stone originally belonged to some even older building, as the top is still covered with sculptured floral designs.

¹ As pointed out by Dr. Ross this is unlikely though apparently is the reading of the inscription. Mr. Azo, to whom a photo of the slab was subsequently shown, suggests that just as in the middle of the first line the individual letters of the words المداب و المد

³ Aulad Hasan, op. cit., p. 17.

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The Mubarakabad referred to in the inscription probably takes us back to the time of the rule of independent Kings in Eastern Bengal. After the defeat and death of the rebellious Vicerov Bahadur Shah in 731 A.H., the Emperor Muhammad Ibn Tughlug returned to Dihlī, leaving Bahrām Khān in his old post of Governor of Sunarganw and Qadr Khan as Governor of Lakhnauti. Bahrām Khān died in 739 AH., whereupon his armour-bearer, Fakhru-d-Dīn Mubārak, seized Sunār-Muhammad Ibn Tughluq ordered Qadr Khān to expel the rebel, and Fakhru-d-Din being defeated, "fled and concealed himself in the forests" but soon after succeeded in inducing the soldiers left behind in Sunarganw to kill Qadr Khan under promise of distributing among them the treasure which Qadr Khān had collected and was on the point of forwarding to This appears to have happened in 741 A.H., and Fakhru-d-Din ruled continuously as the first independent sovereign of Sunarganw until 750. A glance at Rennell's map No. XII will show that there is strong likelihood of Fakhru-d-Din having retreated from Qadr Khān into the Lākhvā River, from which there was easy access to the maze of waterways round Dacca by means of the Tangi and Turag rivers or the Dolaigani creek, and his success is also not unlikely to have been commemorated by calling his place of refuge after his own From the phrase "Frontier Territory" it would appear probable that the district of which Mubarakabad was the chief town stretched S.E. to the Meghna and (apart from any thing north of Dacca) included all old Vikrampur, i.e., those portions of the existing districts of Dacca and Faridpur, south of the Dhaleswari, which lay in the acute angle between the old course of the Ganges, and the Meghna on the east (vide Rennell's maps Nos. IX and XVII). A relic of the Iqlim seems to be the Mubārak Ujiyāl mentioned in the 'Ain as a parganah of Sirkar Bazuha (Vol. II, Jarrett's trans., p. 138). This still exists as a large parganah of the Dacca district, comprising much of the land south-west and west of Dacca town, between the Padma on the south and the Dhaleswari on the north.

No coins minted in Mubārakābād have yet come to light, the series of Fakhru-d-Dîn's coins from 741—750 mentioned by Thomas (Chronicles, p. 263) being all from Sunārgānw.

Blochmann's suggestion (loc. cit., p. 108) that Khwājah Jahān is the same person as Ulugh Khān Jahān, the founder of Khalīfatābād, the modern Bāgherhāt in Khulnā, is untenable, as in the first place, a striking change in name is not likely to have taken place in the interval, June to October, 1459, nor is it likely for any one to have travelled from Dacca to

¹ Stewart, History of Bengal (Sect. III, under the year A.D. 1338).

southern Jessore in these three months, as the crossing of the Ganges is dangerous during the Rains. The Dacca inscription, however. enables the origin of the name "Khalīfatābād" to be explained, i.e., it was given by Khān Jahān to his Sunderban settlement in honour of the reigning Nasiru-d-Din Mahmud, the king who had granted him a sanad to reclaim land, and who alone amongst Bengal kings styled himself "Vicar of خليفة الله or more simply خليفة المستعان or more as in his coin of which a figure is given by Blochmann on page 295 of the Second of his Contributions to the Geography and History of Bengal (J.A.S.B., 1874). Khalifatābād came into prominence as a mint town in the time of the Husaini kings, owing, it appears, to 'Ala'u-d-Din Husain Shah having originally settled at 'Alaipur near Khulna to the north of Haveli Khalīfatābād (Blochmann, Contributions, I, 1873, p. 227, note). His son Nāsiru-d-Dīn Nasrat Shāh issued coins there in the lifetime of his father, and the mint continued to issue coins until the end of the Husaini dynasty with Ghiyasu-d-Din Mahmud II in 945 A.H. (1538 A.D.; cf. Nelson Wright's I.M.C., Bengal coins, Nos. 211, 212 and 225.)

A full account of all that is known about Khān Jahān, the earliest Commissioner of the Sunderbans of whom we have any knowledge, will be found in Chapter III of Westland's Jessore, published by the Bengal Secretariat Press in 1871.

B.—THE EARLY GOLD COINAGE OF THE DIHLI EMPERORS.

According to the most recent authority (Mr. Nelson Wright, in his Indian Museum Catalogue of the Coins of the Dihli Sultans, p. 7), the earliest ruler to introduce gold tankas of the same pattern and weight as the silver tanka of 175 grains was Nāṣiru-d-Dīn Maḥmūd I (644—664 A.H.). A find of gold coins which has been slowly passed during the last year into the shops of Calcutta poddars enables us, however, to antedate this coinage by at least one reign. Both the coins which will now be described were purchased in Calcutta, the place of origin being stated in the case of the first coin to be Tārkeswar, the well-known shrine, a few miles west of Chandernagar. Little reliance, however, can be placed on the statement.

l Cunningham (Report XV, p. 46) states that he had a coin of Nāṣiru-d-Dīn Maḥmūd I in his possession minted at Haẓrat Khalīf[at]-ābād in 846 A.H. If his reading was correct it shows that Maḥmūd I resided and minted coins in the Sunderbans as early as 1442 A.D., and that Khalīfatābād was probably the stronghold to which the descendants of Ilyās Shāh retreated after Rājā Ganesh's usurpation and from which Maḥmūd's successful rebellion originated.

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No. 3.—'ALĀ'U-D-DĪN MA'SŪD SHĀH.

Gold Tanka (unique). Weight 166.4 grains. Size .92".

Obverse:—In double square within circle, three dots in each segment—

Reverse:—Area enclosed in double square, with scroll work in segments—

- (ف)ي عهد الاعمام (1)
- علا الدنيا و الدين ابو (2)
- المستنصر بالله امير (2)
- (3) mlg mldlu (3)

(1) سلطان الاعظم (1)

المومنين لله (3)

المظفر مسعود بن

[No margin.]

[No margin.]

This coin closely follows in all its details the Gauhati silver coin of 'Alā'u-d-Dīn described by Hoernle in the Journal for 1881 (pp. 58 and 59), and catalogued as No. 119 in Wright's I.M.C., but the letters are much smaller and the engraving better, e.g., the of the old is properly represented with the three up strokes. As regards date, the Khalif Al-Mustansir having died in the middle of 640 while 'Alā'u-d-Dīn ascended the throne in 639, 'it would seem to be limited to one of these two years.' Hoernle, however, subsequently suggests (loc. cit., p. 64) that this was the standard die used throughout 'Alā'u-d-Dīn's reign. The mint is probably Dihlī.

No. 4,-Nāsiru-d-din Mahmūd Şhān.

Gold Tanka (unique). Weight 166.6 grains. Size 1.0".

Obverse:—In double square within circle, four dots in segments—

Reverse:—In double square, with traces of ornamental scroll in segments—

- في عهد الأمام (1)
- السلطان الأعظم (1)
- المستنصر بالله امير (2)
- ناصر الدنيا و الدين (2)
- المومنين ل(له) (3)
- ابو المظفر محمود (3) (شا) لا بن سلطان (4)

[No margin.]

[No margin.]

The coin is almost an exact copy of the Gauhati silver coin of Nāṣiru-d-Dīn described by Hoernle (loc. cit., p. 59), and catalogued as No. 134 of the new I.M.C.; while there is also a

striking similarity between this gold tanka and that of 'Alā'u-d-Dīn Mas'ūd previously described. The mint is probably Dihlī and the date 644 A.H. (idem, p. 64). The gold coin given as No. 133 of the I.M.C. is altogether different in type as the areas are round and there is a marginal inscription on both sides.

Attention may also be drawn in connexion with these coins to the fact that the Gauhati find lends considerable corroboration to the statement of the Tabagāt-i-Nāsirī regarding the invasion of Kāmrūp by Ikhtiyāru-d-Dīn Yuzbak Tughril Khān, the Governor who assumed independence about the year 652 A.H. with the title Sultan Mughisu-d-Din Yuzbak, and who was killed in Kāmrūp in 655. The find may be regarded as a relic of the expedition, either deposited by a Musalman soldier in Gauhati or, more probably, loot captured from the Musalmans by the then inhabitants of Gauhati in one of the engagements that led to Mughisu-d-Din's defeat and death. Mr. Gait in his History of Assam (p. 35) confuses this Tughril Khān, the second Bengal Governor of this name, with the third Tughril, who also, on declaring himself independent, assumed the title Mughisu-d-Din and who was killed by the soldiers of the Emperor Balban in Tippera (c. 681 A.H.); vide Thomas, Initial Coinage of Bengal, 1866, p. 34.

C.—The First Bengal Coinage of Sher Shan.

In the June number of the *Proceedings* for 1898, pp. 169 to 173, the late Dr. Bloch described a find of 317 coins (chiefly of Husaini dynasty) which was made in December, 1897, by one Girish Chandra Aich Ray, a talukdar of Jasodal, a village 2 miles east of the Sub-Divisional headquarters of Kishoreganj in the Mymensingh District. Besides two strange coins, which have not yet been satisfactorily read (vide I.M.C., Bengal coins, Nos. 239 and 240), the most interesting coins in the find were three of the Emperor Humayun Shah, probably minted at Gaur, while he was in residence there in A.H. 945 (1538 A.D.) after Sher Khān had retreated to Upper India (vide Wright's I.M.C., Vol. III, Mughal Emperors, Humayun, Nos. 21 and 22 and Plate i). Only a small proportion of this find seems to have been recovered by the Collector, as coins which evidently belong to the same find have been on sale ever since in the Kishoreganj Sub-Division. Most of these coins are similar to those described by Dr. Bloch, but among the ones I have been able to purchase are two typical Bengal coins minted in the name of Sher Khān after he had defeated Humāyun at Chaunsa in 946 A.H. and assumed his new title of Sher Shah. year he also recaptured Gaur from Humāyūn's governor Jahāngir Quli Beg.

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No. 5.—Silver. Size ·83" and ·85".

Obverse:—(In square area)— Reverse:—(In square area)—

- لا اله إلا الله (1)
- معمد رسول الله (2)
- السلطان العادل (3)

- شـيـر (2)
- السلطان خلد (3)
- الله ملكه وعود (4)
- (5) सी से र सा ची

Margins missing save for traces of عثمان at bottom of best coin (in the second specimen there is also trace of علي in the left margin).

Margins missing, but there is a slight indication on the right of the ن of

The Devanāgarī characters are very crudely represented, and the date (probably 946) is written backwards. The weight of the coin figured (Plate XXII, fig. 5) is 164.8 grains, while the second specimen (which, however, is much mutilated by shroff-marks, especially one deep cut across the Kalimah) only weighs 154.4 grains. As the coins upon which these Bengal coins are modelled (Nos. 659 and 660, I.M.C.—Sultāns of Dihlī—Sher Shāh,—946) weigh 171 grains, and similar coins minted in Fathābād (Farīdpūr) 3 years later weigh 173 grains, it would seem that the coins now described were issued at Gaur by Khizr Khān, the Governor who was appointed in 946 by Sher Shāh to rule over Bengal, and that in addition to the other reasons stated for his replacement in 948 by Qāzī Fazīlat, peculation in the coinage may also have been included.

The following notes may be added regarding the Jasodal find-spot. The coins were discovered by Bābu Girish Chandra (Aich) Ray in a decorated porcelain pot about 5 feet under the ground, while levelling a mound in the precincts of the ruined home of his ancestor Rājā Ganik Chandra (গণিক চক্র). The Aichs (আইচ) state that they are Kayasths, who came from Rād, and are descended from one Bhuban Aich, who settled in the Madhyadesa—perhaps Gaur—nine generations before the time of Rājā Ganik Chandra. The first of the family to move to Mymensingh was Devibar Aich, 6th in descent from Bhuban and 14 generations from Girish Bābu (the finder of the coins) and the village of Jasodal owes its name to Devibar's son, Jasomanta Khān, one of 3 brothers who all had the title Khān.

^{1 &#}x27;Abdu-s-Salām's trans. of the Riyāz, p. 145.

Rājā Ganik Chandra alias Govardhan, son of Govinda Hazrā and great-grandson of Devibar Aich, is said to have received his title from 'Alā'u-d-Dīn Husain Shāh or Nasrat Shāh, being at the same time given the parganahs of Hazradi and Husainshāhī in the present Mymensingh district. These two parganahs were included among the 22 subsequently conferred by Akbar on 'Isā Khān (vide my recent Note on Seven Sixteenth Century Cannon, J.A.S.B., 1909, pp. 370 and 372); and the story goes on to say that when 'Isa Khan came back from Dihli with the firman granting him these 22 parganahs, much fighting ensued between the old and new owners, one battle being fought at a village called Kakūrdia, between Jasodal and Jangalbārī, the place from which 'Isa Khan had previously expelled a Koch Rājā called Lakshman, and where he had made his home. 'Isā Khān, however, was unable to defeat Rājā Ganik Chandra and finally had recourse to the same stratagem as that used by Husain Shāh in capturing Kāmatāpūr in 1494 (vide later in this paper), as well as by Sher Shah at Fort Rohtas in 1538 (=945 A.H.), while Humāyūn idled at Gaur. 'Isā Khān suggested that fighting should cease, and that as a sign of amity between the two families, his ladies should visit the zenana of the Rājā. Instead of women, however, the palanquins were filled with armed men, who, as soon as they were safely inside the walls of the Rājā's house, leapt out and killed him. Rājā is said to have been worshipping at the time in his private temple of Bhairavi (Kāli), and it was near the ruins of this temple that the coins were found. According to the 'Ain, 'Isa Khan is said to have returned from an expedition to Kuch Bihār in 992 A.H. (1584 A.D.). If this can be interpreted as including Mymensingh, the greater part of which was then inhabited by Kochs, it is probable that the burial of the treasure and Ganik Chandra's tragic death should be assigned to about this date and not to 1003-1004 A.H. when 'Isa Khan returned from Dihli, after being granted the 22 parganas by Akbar. Local tradition states that 'Isa Khan was already in possession of Jangalbari in 1002 A.H., and advanced from there with an army of Kochs to fight Man Singh at Egarosindhu. If, on the other hand, the capture of the Koch fort at Jangalbārī took place before 992 A.H., it is hardly likely that Isā Khān would have tolerated for so long the existence of a rival only three miles distant from his own house. The connexion of 'Isā Khān and the Tippera Rāj in 1587 (996 A.H.) referred to in my paper on 'Isa Khan's Cannon (loc. cit., p. 369, note 1), also shows that 'Isa Khan was firmly established in the neighbourhood of south-east Mymensingh, several years before Man Singh's invasion.

^{1 &#}x27;Ain, Vol. I. Blochmann's translation, page 343.

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The evidence of the coins themselves points indeed to a still earlier date, as the latest coin belongs to Muḥammad Shāh Sūrī (960—964 A.H.), but as Eastern Bengal was for the next 40 years any one's land in which it is doubtful whether Akbar's coinage was current, the Jasodal find might have been buried at a much later date without it containing a single coin of Akbar. On the whole, the evidence can only be said to indicate some date between 965 and 990 A.H. (A.D. 1557—1582) as the time at which the treasure was buried and Rājā Gaṇik Chandra killed.

From the name of one of the parganahs, as well as the interval of time between 1520, the date of Ḥusain Ṣhāh's death, and 1582, it would appear that the grant of land was made by Ḥusain Ṣhāh's son, Naṣrat Ṣhāh, to the Rājā's father, Govinda Hazrā, after whom the Mymensingh parganah Hazrādī seems to be named, and not to the Rājā himself.

Bābu Girish Chandra Ray also possesses a gold coin of Bijay Māṇikya, the Rājā of Tippera, mentioned in the 'Ain (Jarrett's trans., II, p. 117), who, according to the $R\bar{a}jm\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, reigned from 1535 to 1583; but up to the time of writing, I have only seen a bad rubbing of the coin on which the date is illegible. It is said to be an heirloom and not to have been one of the coins found in 1897.

D.—THE ORIGIN OF THE FULL KOCH COINS AND THEIR RELATION TO THOSE OF THE JAINTIA KINGS.

So far as I am aware no representative collection of Koch coins has yet been catalogued, and only scattered notices have appeared of the full-coins that were issued prior to the introduction of the system of half-coins described by Mr. Gait in his Note on the Coinage of the Koch Kings (J.A.S.B., 1895, pp. 237—241). The following list epitomises our knowledge on the subject:—

- I. BISVA SIMHA—Founder of the Koch dynasty—Circa A.D. 1515-1540. No coins known.
- II. NARA NĀRĀYAŅ—Circa 1540-1584.
 - (i) Coin described and figured by R. L. Mitra— (*Proc. A.S.B.*, 1856, p. 457). Date 1477 Sāka (= A.D. 1555).

No measurements given.

(ii) Coin of the same date described by Blochmann (J.A.S.B., 1874, p. 306). This slightly differs from No. (i) in reading "Nara Nārāyanashya" on the obverse instead of "Nara Nārāyana Bhūpālashya," the inscription therefore being of four lines instead of five. Weight 157.5 grains; exact size not given.

- (iii) and (iv) Mr. Gait's two specimens figured as Nos. 1 and 2 in Plate XXIV of his paper on the Koch Coinage. Both are dated 1477 Sāka, but no measurements are given. The first is erroneously said to be a reproduction of Blochmann's coin, but it has "Bhūpālashya" inserted after Nārāyan and appears to be one of those belonging to Mr. Gait. Both of Mr. Gait's coins therefore have the same, and not different, readings as he states (op. cit., p. 238).
- III. (a) LAKSHMĪ NĀRĀYAŅ:— 1584-1622 (Western Koch kingdom, or Kuch Bihār).
 - (i) and (ii) Marsden, Numismata Orientalia Illustrata, Nos. MCCIII and MCCIV [Plate LII]. Weights: 151 and 152 grains respectively. Size (from Plate) 1.2".
 - (iii—v) Mr. Gait notes in the Postscript to his Koch paper (loc. cit., p. 241) that the British Museum possesses in all five full-coins of Lakshmi Nārāyan (including those described by Marsden), all dated 1509 Sāka (A.D. 1587).
 - (vi) Shillong Cabinet. (Vide Plate XXII, No. 6). Weight: 152.4 grains. Size: 1.22".

(4)

করস্য

Obverse. Reverse. (1) এ প্রীম (1) এ প্রী (2) অক্ষমীনারায় (2) নিব চরণ (3) প্রস্যাপাকে (3) কমল সধু

(4)

1000

- III. (b) RAGHUDEV, 1581—1593. Son of Sīlarai, Nara Nārāyaṇ's brother and General, and cousin of of Lakshmī Nārāyaṇ. Ruler of the Eastern Koch Kingdom, or Koch Hajo.
 - (i) J.A.S.B., Proc., May 1895, page 86. Coin dated 1510 Sāka. In this notice the Bhūpālashya of the 3rd and 4th lines of the obverse is wrongly given as Pālashya, an error which is repeated by Mr. Gait on page 238 of his Koch paper previously referred to. No measurements are given; and the coin (like all the Koch coins described from time to time in the Journal) has now disappeared from the combined collection in the Indian Museum.

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 - Mr. Gait notes however in his Postscript that
 - (ii) the British Museum also possesses an identical coin.

 No coins of Raghudev's successors in the Eastern

 Kingdom are known.
 - IV. Bīr Nārāyan, 1622—1627. No coin known.
 - V. PRĀŅ NĀRĀYAŅ, 1627—1666. Marsden, op cit., Nos. MCCV--MCCVII (Plate LII.)
 - Weights:—148, 146½ and 142 grains respectively.

The first two are both dated 1555 Sāka (1633 A.D.) but the date of the third coin is illegible. If the engraving of the coin is a facsimile, the size is 1.25".

This issue of coins seems to contradict the story given in Hunter's Statistical Account of Kuch Behar (p. 409) that Lakshmi Nārāyaṇ was allowed to return to his kingdom from Dihlī in 1618 A.D., on condition that he would in future strike coin only in halves; nor can it be accounted for by Prāṇ Nārāyaṇ being then in rebellion, as only five years later we find him accompanying a Muhammadan force as ally up the Brahmaputra against the Āhōms (Gait, History, p. 115). No full coin however of any Rājā subsequent to Prāṇ Nārāyaṇ is known, and as the earliest specimens in the Shillong cabinet of the half coins ("Nārāyaṇī Rupees"), described by Mr. Gait, belong to this Rājā, it would appear that Prāṇ Nārāyaṇ was the first to mint such coins.

The coin which served as a model to Nara Nārāyaṇ is that belonging to Ḥusain Shāh of Bengal, of which four specimens ranging in date from A.H. 900—913 (1494—1517 A.D.) are mentioned in the recently published Indian Museum Catalogue (Vol. II, Bengal series). For facility of reference a specimen of the coin (found in the Murshidābād District) from my own cabinet is reproduced as No. 7 of Plate XXII. The relationship of the two coins will also be clearly evident from the following comparison.

	Koch coin No. 6.	Ḥusainī coin No. 7.
Size	1.22"	1.28" (the I.M.C. examples range from 1.18"—1.25").
Weight	152.4 grains (but vide Nara Nārāyaṇ's coin, No. ii above, for weight of 157.5 grains. As time went on the weight decreased still more—cf. Prāṇ Nārāyaṇ's coins in the British Museum—and it was by the later standards that the weight of the ordinary Koch half-coins was fixed).	164·1 grains (in the I.M.C. examples, the weight ranges from 161·5—164·5 grains).
Appear - ance.	Identical, a 4-line inscripti each case in a double circl between. The reproductiof one of the groups of Husain Shāh coin is speci	e with a row of dots on in the Koch coin three dots from the

To account for this adoption by the Koch kings of the coin belonging to the Muhammadan kings of Bengal, a brief consideration of the conquests of Husain Shāh is necessary. Husain Shāh defeated his predecessor Shamsu-d-Din Muzaffar Shāh either at the end of A.H. 898 (1493 A.D.) or the beginning of 899,2 and from the conquest of Bengal he forthwith

Obverse.

Reverse.

السلطان العادل علا الدنيا و الدين ابوالمظفو حسين شالا سلطان بن سید اشرف الحسین خلد ملکه و سلطانه محمداباد ۱۱۳

¹ The inscription on the Hussini coin runs as follows:—

² There is a mosque inscription of Muzaffar at Panduah, dated Ramazān 898 (cf. Blochmann, Contributions I, p. 291), while most of 899 must be allowed to Husain Shāh to enable him to issue the coins next referred to.

proceeded to the conquest of the surrounding countries. In A.H. 899 he is found issuing coins from Fathabad, the modern Faridpur, in which he proclaims himself the conqueror of Kāmrūp, Kāmatā, Jājnagar and Orissa (I.M.C., Bengal coins. No. 175). Only the two former conquests need be considered The north of the present Rājshāhi Division as well as the modern districts of Goalpara and Kamrup had then for at least two centuries been under the control of a race of Khen kings (allied to the Kachārīs of the central Brahmaputra Valley) who ruled from Kāmatāpūr, a town situated not far from the modern capital of Kuch Bihar. Subsequent to his conquest of Orissa, Husain Shāh captured Kāmatāpūr by stratagem (vide Gait's History, page 43), the date being certainly (from the evidence of the Fathabad coin) 1493 or 1494, and not 1498 as given by Prinsep (Thomas' edition, Useful Tables, page 273). It is possible that Husain Shah may then have marched into Kāmrūp, e.g., from the appearance of the gateway of the Kachari fortress of Dimanur which (as the illustration opposite p. 245 of Gait's History shows) is very similar to one of Husain Shah's mosques: it seems possible that the Kachāris may also have come into contact with Husain Shah; but from the absence of any reference to Assam on his coins or inscriptions, as well as the silence of the Buraniis, it is certain that Husain Shah never invaded Assam proper, which was then confined to the eastern half of the Brahmaputra valley. The constantly repeated story that he did, appears to be based on the statement of the author of the Rivazu-s-Salātīn (quoting from the 'Alamgīrnāmah; cf. Blochmann, Koch Bihār and Āsām, J.A.S.B., 1872, p. 79). "After this (the conquest of Orissa) he planned to conquer Assam and conquering the whole of that country up to Kāmrūp, Kāmtah and other districts, which were subject to powerful Rajahs like Rup Narayan, Mal Kunwar, Gos Lakhan and Lachmi Nārāyan and others, he collected much wealth from the conquered tracts The Rajah of Assam not being able to oppose him, relinquishing his country fled to the mountains. The king, leaving his son ' returned to Bengal, but when the rainy season set in, the Rajah with his adherents issued from the hills, surrounded the royal army, and in a short time put all to the sword." Gait suggests (History, p. 88, note) the Riyaz (or rather the author of the 'Alamgirnamah') here undoubtedly mixes up the accounts of two expeditions, Husain Shah's expedition against Kāmatā in 1494 and the disastrous invasions of the Assam valley by Muhammadans in 1527 (934 A.H.) and 1531-1533, of

¹ Evidently not Prince Danyāl, as this son of Husain Shāh erected a mosque at Mongīr in 903 A.H. (Blochmann, A New King of Bengal, J.A.S.B., 1872, pp. 334 and 335).

which Mr. Gait gives an account from the Buranjis on pp. 87—92 of his History of Assam.

On the ruins of the kingdom of Kāmatāpūr arose the Koch Power, and the fact that Nara Nārāyan adopted a coin of the Husainī dynasty as a type for his own coinage, probably points to his father Bisva Simha having been a tributary of 'Alā'u-d-Dīn and his successors. The issue of coins by Nara Nārāyan is also easily accounted for by the fact that the Husainī dynasty came to an end in 1538, i.e., just prior to the date when Nara Nārāyan came to the throne.

The interesting coin figured as No. 8 of Plate XXII furnishes us with the first example of a half-tanka of the Koch kings.

No. 8.—A silver half-tanka of LAKSHMI NĀRĀYAŅ.

Weight 85·1 grains. Size 1·18" (from the Cabinet of Mr. J. C. Higgins, I.C.S., late Sub-Divisional Officer, Jorhat.)

Obverse and Reverse. The same as the full coin of Lakshmī Nārāyan in the Shillong cabinet already described. The weight is somewhat high, but closely conforms to half the weight of the Husaini coin on which the Koch coin was modelled, which in turn was supposed to represent a tanka of 175 grains. The highest full coin of Husain Shah in the I.M.C. weighs 167 grains (No. 181), while there is a coin of his son Ghiyasu-d-Din weighing 168 grains (No. 225). As has been already noted, the weights of the ordinary half-coins in the Shillong cabinet, which are similar to those described by Mr. Gait in his Koch paper, range from 66.8 grains in the case of the present Māhārājā to 73·1 and 73·2 in the case of Prān Nārāyan and his successor Mada Nārāyan (1666—1681), so that Prān Nārāyan evidently adopted for this coinage half the weight of his large coins taken as a standard, irrespective of their theoretical weight.

Under Nara Nārāyan the Kochs soon came in contact with the Āhōms, who had just previously (1536) driven the Kachārīs out of the Brahmaputra valley into the present Kachār Hills, and extended their dominion west as far as Gauhati. At first, in 1547, Nara Nārāyan was unsuccessful, but in 1563, a fresh conflict ended in the Āhōms suing for peace and acknowledging the Koch suzerainty (Gait, History, p. 51). Once the Āhōms had been crushed a rapid process of conquest of the surrounding nations ensued, the Kochs under Sīlarai, the brother of Nara Nārāyan, successively conquering the Kachārīs, the Jaintias, the Sylhetis, and even, it is said, the Rājā of Tippera. In the case of the Jaintias, their Rājā was killed by Sīlarai with his own hand, and his son was placed on the throne on condition that he paid regular tribute and undertook in future not to strike coins in his own name.

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This latter condition was observed by the Jaintia Rājās, at first literally and later technically, for nearly 170 years. Another sign of their dependence on the Koch kingdom is the fact that their coinage is modelled on the same type as that of Kuch Bihār. This will be seen from the coin in the Shillong Cabinet reproduced as No. 9, Plate XXIII.

No. 9.—Silver tanka of Jayantāpūr (probably minted by Pratāpa Simha, 1669—1678 A.D.). Weight 150'7 grains. Size 1:13".

	Obverse.		Reverse.
(1)	এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ এ	(1)	<u>aa</u> a (7
(2)	য়ন্তাপুরপু	(2)	্ৰ চরণক টু
(3)	রস্বস্য শা	(3)	ठ यत्रमधूक A
(4)	কে ১৫৯২	(4)	রম্য 🗘 ী

The coin given by Mr. Gait 'as 1592 Sāka, though very similar, appears to be of 1692. The three dots on the right of the first line of the obverse are a reproduction of those that appear so prominently at the end of the first line of the reverse of the These dots also reappear above the first line of Koch coin the reverse, just under a star and crescent which can be traced either to another Bengal coin issued by 'Ala'u-d-Din's son, Nasrat Shāh (vide Pl. XXIII, No. 11) or to the undated coin of Ghiyāsu-d-Din Mahmud referred to later on (vide Pl. XXIII, No. 13), on one or other of which the Assam coinage is based. The gun and twohanded sword appear to have only a local reference, while the Solomon's seal is probably taken from the coins of the later Sūrī dynasty (cf. I.M.C., No. 805—Islām Shāh—954 A.H.; and No. 879—Muhammad ' \bar{A} dil—A.H. 961 = 1553 A.D.). It is also a common shroff mark (c/, I.M.C., Bengal Coins, No. 216). number of lines on obverse and reverse are the same in both Koch and Jaintia coins, and the inscription on the reverse of both is the same. As no coins seem to have been issued from Jayantāpūr prior to 1591 $S\overline{a}ka_1 = 1669 \text{ A.D.}$, it would appear that the Jaintia Rajas, for 100 years after the conquest of Jaintia by Silarai, observed the orders of their conqueror literally, and issued no coins at all. The circumstances that led to their issuing coins about 1670 were probably the conquest of Pran Narayan by Mir Jumlah in 1661 and his subsequent death in 1666, but as the Rājās of Kuch Bihār-especially Mada Nārāvan. Prān Nārāvan's successor—continued to maintain a certain amount of local authority, the Jaintia Rājās still technically observed the condition imposed on them in 1563 by referring to themselves not by name but as the "Purandars of

¹ Some Notes on Jaintia History, J.A.S.B., 1895, p. 244; and Fig. 9, Plate XXIV.

Jayantāpūr." Gradually however the Koch dominions lessened in size and the power of the Rājās decreased (vide Hunter, Statistical Account of Bengal, Vol. X) till finally, in 1731, the pretence of submitting to the Koch kingdom ceased and we find the names of the Jaintia Rājās appearing for the first time on their coinage. The direct cause was probably the appointment in 1727 of Mīrzā Muḥammad Sa'īd to the post of Faujdār of the Chaklah of Ghoraghāt, Rangpūr and Kuch Bihār, as it is recorded by Muhammadan historians that this officer conquered the Rājās of Kuch Bihār and Dinājpūr, "and acquired possession of their treasures, buried hoards, jewelleries and effects" (Riyāz, 'Abdu-s-Salām's trans., p. 306).

The section may conveniently be concluded by a reference to the coin figured as No. 10 of Plate XXIII. This coin, which belongs to Mr. E. C. Stuart Baker, Deputy Inspector-General of the Criminal Investigation Department, Eastern Bengal and Assam, was brought to him when stationed in 1896 or 1897 at Maibong in the Kachār Hills by a Kachārī who said he had found it among some bricks at the side of one of the old tanks in the neighbourhood. Maibong was established as the Kachārī capital in 1536 after their defeat by the Ahoms had caused the Kachārīs to desert their old capital at Dīmāpūr, and it remained the Kachārī headquarters until 1706 when the defeat of King Tamradhvaja by the Ahom King Rudra Simha led to another migration to Khaspur in the Kachari Plains. The history of Gaur was repeated at Maibong in the 'nineties of the last century, when the construction of the Hill Section of the Assam-Bengal Railway led to wholesale removal of bricks from the ruins of the Kachārī capital, for surki; but numerous brick-fined tanks and other signs of human habitation still testify to the former importance of the place.

The coin is evidently closely related to the two Jaintia quarter-coins illustrated by Mr. Gait in Plate XXIV of the J.A.S.B. for 1895 and referred to on p. 244 of his paper of the same year (op. cit.). The type of coin with its marginal circle of dots and 3-lined inscription is the same, but whereas the inscription on the Jaintia coin is in Bengali characters, that on the obverse of the Maibong coin appears to be a debased Devanagari, while the reverse is an unknown script, somewhat suggestive of the cuneiform characters of Assyrian inscriptions. Nothing certain has yet been made of the inscription on the obverse, though it evidently begins with the usual 3 3. To the right appears the matchlock, which has hitherto been regarded as the characteristic sign of a Jaintia coin. Mr. Gait on p. 4 (para. 7) of his Report on the Progress of Historical Research in Assam states that it is doubtful whether the Kachari Kings ever had a mint, nor has any distinctive Kachari character survived, but from the place of discovery, there is a strong presumption that Mr. Baker's coin is a specimen of the long-sought-for Kachari

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coinage. It may also be possible that another coin of these kings is the coin in Bengali characters bearing the name of Jaya Simha and date 1585 $S\bar{a}ka$, described by Mr. Gait on p. 245 of his Notes on Jaintia History (loc. cit.), as a seal of a Rājā bearing the same name, and date 1706 $S\bar{a}ka$, was discovered by a Settlement Officer at Khāspūr during the search for historical materials in Assam (Report, p. 4).

Mr. Gait does not give any measurements for his Jaintia quarter-coins. The Maibong coin measures 82" across and 88" from top to bottom, while its weight is 38.4 grains. This weight is approximately one-quarter the weight of the Jaintia coin No. 9, previously described.

E.—THE ORIGIN OF THE ASSAMESE COINAGE.

The influence exerted by the Muhammadan coinage did not extend merely over the Kochs and Jaintias, for a careful examination shows that the Assamese coinage is similarly modelled on another variety of Husaini coins. To understand this we must return for a moment to a consideration of the Muhammadan invasions of Assam in the first half of the 16th century. The Buranjis state that the Muhammadans in 1527 advanced up the Brahmaputra valley under command of the Great Vizier, but were defeated and fled, losing 40 horses and a similar number of cannon. The Muhammadans again advanced in 1531 and fighting continued for two years, on or near the Brahmaputra, a little to the east of Tezpur. In the first year the Muhammadans were defeated and their commander Bit Malik slain. The following year, 1532, the Muhammadans were largely reinforced and were completely successful, the Ahoms being defeated, both in April and again after the Rains, while Süklenmun, the son of the Ahom King, was severely

l Since this paper was read the question as to whether Kācharī coins were ever struck has been settled by the receipt on loan from Mr. F. E. Jackson, C.S., Deputy Commissioner, Cachar, of a silver coin minted by Govinda Chandra, the last Kachārī King (1813-1830). The whole of the inscription, which is in Bengalī characters, cannot be deciphered, but what has been made out with the help of Bābu Rakhaldas Banerji of the Archaeological Dept. is given below—

Reverse.
(1) হিড়িম প্
(2) র ধাম এীর ণ
(3) চ তীপ দা
(4) (জু) জু ষ (:

The coin is in the possession of a descendant of Govinda Chandra's Prime Minister, and, as it is said to be the only one in existence, the owner refuses to part with it. It is '93" in diameter, and weighs 175'75 grains. As may be seen from the reproduction given at the end of this paper, it is struck from a good die. (25-1-10).

wounded and narrowly escaped capture. In the following year, however, the fortune of war changed, and after the Muhammadan leaders Bāngāl, Tāju, Turbak and Ḥusain Khān had been one after the other slain, the Musalmān forces broke and fled. The pursuit continued as far as the Karatoya river, and before returning the Āhōm commander is said to have sent an envoy to the King of Gaur with presents and received back a princess for the Āhōm King. (Gait, History, pp. 87—92).

At the time in question, A.H. 934-939, Nasrat Shāh was still on the throne of Gaur, but his brother Ghiyasu-d-Din Mahmud is also found issuing coins as co-ruler (cf. Bloch's notice of the Jasodal find—J.A.S.B., Proc., 1898, page 172). Prinsep states, on the authority of the Asam Buranji of Huliram Dhaikiyal Phūkan, that Assam was invaded by Dulal Ghazi, son of Husain Shah, in 1498, and immediately afterwards, in the same connexion, come the names of Musundar Ghāzī and Sultan Ghiyasu-d-Din. This clearly points to the Great Vizier having been none other than Ghiyasu-d-Din Mahmud, and the suggestion is strongly supported by two facts—(a) that (as noted below) the Assamese coinage is based on a type of coinage simultaneously in use both by Nasrat Shāh and Ghiyāgu-d-Din, and (b) that (as recently pointed out by Walsh in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society for 1908—Coinage of Nepal, pp. 685-688) the Nepalese under Java Mahendra Malla, King of Kathmandu from 1566 to 1576, shortly afterwards adopted Ghiyagu-d-Din's characteristic coinage, with a small circle in the middle of the coin, as a model for a new type of coin for use both in Nepal and Tibet. The pattern of coin might well have been taken to Nepal by Nara Simha, brother of the Koch King Nara Nārāyan, who, after being defeated by his brother, fled there for refuge about 1540 (Gait, History, p. 48); but (on the analogy of the coin of Ava referred to later) it is also possible that the Tibetans, in addition to supplying the silver for the new coinage, also supplied the type coin, which they could easily have obtained through their relations with Bhutan (Gait, idem, p. 49). In any case, however, this strange influence on the coinage of Nepal, Tibet and Assam could hardly have been exerted unless Ghiyasu-d-Din had exercised for a considerable period military influence at the base of the Himalayas.

Up to the reign of Sühunmün, the Āhōms do not appear to have needed any regular coinage, but as soon as Süklenmün succeeded to the throne in 1539, after killing his father Sühunmün, we find coins being issued, modelled either on a type of Naṣrat Shāh's coins minted in A.H. 927, or less probably, on a unique undated coin of Chiyāṣu-d-Dīn Maḥmūd of a similar type, which is wrongly ascribed in the *Indian Museum Catalogue*, Vol. II, Part II, No. 217) to Naṣrat Shāh. This affiliation will be

¹ Blochmann, Koch Bihar and Asam, J.A.S.B., 1872, p. 79, note.

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evident when a comparison is made between Süklenmün's coin of 1543 (No. 1, Plate XXIX of Vol. I of the I.M.C.), Nasrat Shāh's coin (No. 248, Plate V, I.M.C. Vol. II), and Mahmud's coin given on Pl. VI of the same Catalogue. The Ahom coins, it is true, are octagonal for the reason stated on page 97 of Mr. Gait's History, viz., that the Yogini Tantra describes the Āhōm country as being of this shape, and the weight may also be based on the old Hindu standard of 11 panas or 180 grains (vide Walsh, op. cit., p. 676) instead of the tanka of 175; but apart from these differences, the resemblance is marked.

To enable the derivation of the Ahom coinage from that of the Husaini Kings to be readily seen, I give in the annexed Plate XXIII. obverse of one Nasrat Shah coin and reverse of another of the type referred to (Nos. 11 and 12, both from my own cabinet) side by side with an undescribed coin of Chakradhvaja, who ruled over Assam from 1663 to 1670 (cf. Mr. Gait's History, pp. 144-149). The coin of Ghiyasu-d-Din Mahmud previously referred to is also reproduced (No. 13).1

No. 14.—Silver coin of Charradhvaja Simha—(belonging to Bābū Prithvindra Mohan Ray, Zemindar of Rowile, Dacca District).

Weight 174·1 grains. Size—·83". Date 1585 Sāka = 1663 A.D.

Obverse—In a double octagon Reverse—Appearance as on

(1)**ම්ම් ද** (2)ৰ্গদেৱ চক্ৰণৰ

জ সিংহস্য পাকে

with row of dots between.

(1)<u>ම්</u>ම් ම (2)

বরাম পদা

obverse.

(3)

(4)

It is noticeable that in this, as well as in the coin of the Assamese Pratāpa Simha figured as No. 2, Plate XXIX of Vol. I, of the I.M.C., the winged dragon is wanting, a fact which suggests that coins in Ahom characters, without the dragon,

No. 11.-Nașrat Shāh (Obverse): 927 A.H.: mint Nasratābād. Weight 160 3 grains. Size (across '84"; top to bottom ·90").

No. 12.—Nasrat Shah (Reverse) of 927 A.H.: mint Nașratābād. Weight 161.6 grains; Size, 90".

السلطان (1)

(3)

(4)

- (بن) السلطان (2)
- ناصر الدنيا و الدين
- ابو المظفر (4)

- (1) نصرتشاع سلطان
- بن حسين شالا سلطان (2)
- حسينى خلد ملكه (3)
- نصبتا بان ۱۳۰ (4)

¹ The following are the details of coins No. 11, 12 and 13:-

will also be found to have been issued by Süklenmün. The form of the Bengali wis noticeable, as it is more modern than the form η employed 50 years later by Rudra Simha (vide I.M.C., same Plate, No. 3, the reverse of which has been shown upside down).1

F.—THE BURMESE COINAGE IN ASSAM.

I conclude these notes on the coinage of North-Eastern India with two Assamese coins which apparently belong to a hitherto-undescribed coinage, issued by the Burmese during their brief sovereignty over Assam, 1819—1825.

No. 15.—Octagonal silver coin—cast (in the cabinet of Mr. A.W. Botham, C.S., late Deputy Commissioner, Sibsagar). Weight 144.9 grains. Size .93".

tion, not properly oriented to two opposite sides of the octagon.

Obverse: -Two-lined inscrip- Reverse: -Representation of a pig, iguana or mongoose.²

No. 13.—Ghiyāsu-d-Din Mahmūd (no date or mint). Weight and size, according to I.M.C. No. 217, 163.5 grains and .97". Corrected reading.

	Coverse.		neverse.
(1)	ا ل سلطان	(1)	السلطان
(2)	ابن السلطان غياث	(2)	ابن حسين شالا
(3)	الدنيا و الدين	(3)	السلطان خلد
(4)	ابو المظفر	(4)	الله ملكة
(5)	محمود شاع	(5)	و سلطانھ

1 An identical coin of Chakradhvaja from the British Museum Collection, recently described by Mr. J. Allan in Vol. IX of the Numismatic Chronicle, weighs 170.7 grains and is '8" in diameter.

Mr. Allan's paper also confirms my suggestion that the dragon (Simha) was not invariably used on the Assamese coins until Hindu titles were adopted by the Assamese Kings. Süklenmün's Muhur figured as No 1 of Plate XXIII (Num. Chron., Ser. IV, Vol. IX) shows two rising suns, but no dragon (25-1-10).

² The image of either a Gui-samp (iguana) or mongoose appears on the pedestal of a statue of Raksha Kālī, found at the village of Paikpārā in the Munshiganj Sub-Division of the Dacca District, and although the pig is considered lucky in Persia and Europe, I can find no reference to its being considered so in India or Burma. Srijut Golap Chandra Barua, the translator of the Ahom Buranjis for Mr. Gait, informs me however that the pig was essential for Ahom sacrifices and that the Deodhāis (Āhōm priests) of Sibsāgar still keep pigs and eat pork. reason why no food offered at the famous temple of Kāmākhyā is taken by Brahmins is said to be that pigs were once sacrificed there by some

Assamese king. The use of the pig in sacrifice probably accounts for its image being found on these Assamese coins.

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Mr. Botham writes as follows regarding this coin: "I am also sending what was sold to me as a "Gahuri" Muhur (Gahuri being Assamese for a pig), rumours of which I have heard ever since I began to collect. All I could learn of it was that it had a rough representation of a pig on it, and that owners were very chary of parting with it, as it was considered lucky. The coin I have got seems to be a casting—but even if it is not genuine, it is I fancy likely to be a casting of the genuine coin. The inscription might be Sri Sri Gahuri Nipra (?). I cannot learn what king is supposed to have struck these coins."

The coin itself furnishes no indication of its origin, but

another similar coin enables this to be stated.

No. 16.—Octagonal silver coin; (in the cabinet of Mr. J. C. Higgins).

Weight 190.4 grains. Size 1.0".

Obverse: —Unsymmetrical floral arrangement of lines similar to the pattern on the reverse of the coin of Āvā dating from 1796, of which an engraving is given by Marsden (op. cit., Plate LIII).

Reverse:—Animal as in Mr. Botham's coin.

The coin is struck—not cast—and only the animal is in relief. In the plate, by an optical illusion, the floral design also appears in relief, though in reality the lines are incused. Marsden, on page 805 of his Numismata Orientalia, states that no coinage of Āvā then existed, and explains the coin he illustrates as follows:—"When Symes, however, was taking his departure from the court of Āvā, to which he had been sent on a public mission, he was desired by that Government to procure dies to be engraved at Calcutta and pieces of silver representing the Tycal' to be struck for its use, according to a pattern with which he was furnished. With a specimen of these he favoured me.... There is no evidence of its having been put into circulation in Burmese dominions."

The obverse of the coin given by Marsden is very similar to the reverse of the Burmese symbolical coin, catalogued as No. 6 of Sundry Coins on page 333, Vol. I, of the *I.M. Catalogue*. Marsden does not give any measurements of his coin, but the weight of the symbolical coin is 142.7 grains.

As their widely varying weights show, these Burmese coins of Assam are more of the nature of trial pieces than actual coinage. Their production, however, may account to some

¹ On the previous page Marsden had referred to the Arakanese coins as being current at the trading ports of Arakan and Pegu under the denomination of *Tikal*, their average weight being about 152 grains.

extent for the extraordinary dearth of coins of the later rulers of Assam, for the period 1741-1747 Sāka (1819-1825), Only 7 coins of this time appear to be known, viz., 5 of Chandrakanta (2 full coins, dated 1741 and 1742 respectively; and undated 1. 1-, and 1-rupees); and 2 of Jogesvara (an undated 1-coin in the Shillong cabinet; and a 1-Rupee dated 1743 in the possession of Mr. Botham). No specimen of the coinage of Purandar Simha, the last king of Assam, has yet come to light.

POSTSCRIPT.

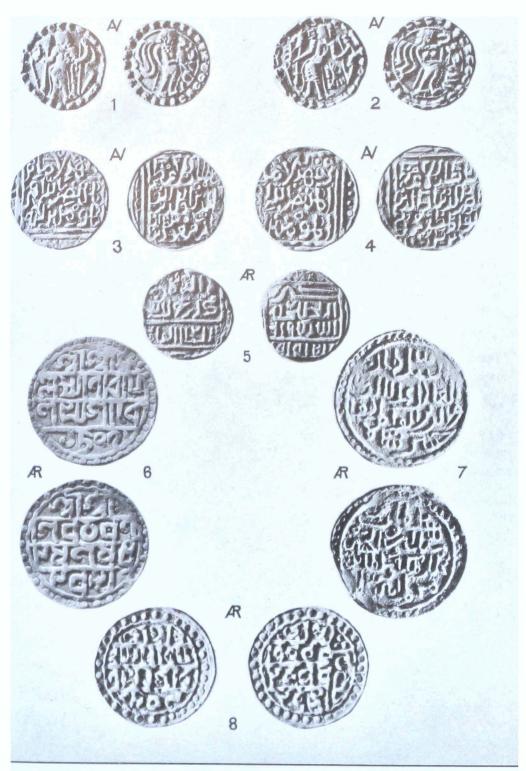




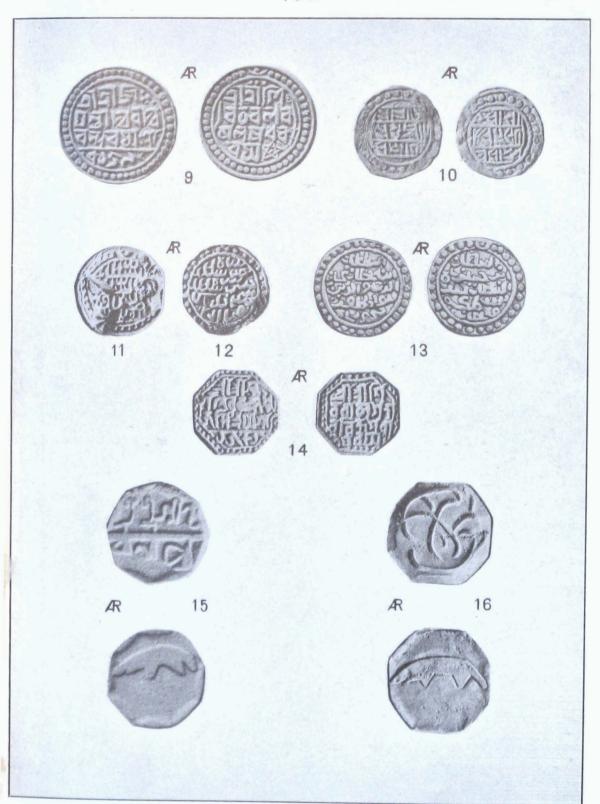
In connexion with the annexed reproduction of the Kachārī coin described in the note at the end of Section D of this paper, the Hidimbapura of the inscription probably refers to Silberband, near Khāspūr in the Cachar Plains, where Mr. Gait states that ruins of the palaces of the last three Kachārī kings are still to be found (Report, Appendix III, p. 69). Captain Fisher makes the following remarks on the goddess whose name occurs on the reverse of the coin :-

"The worship of irascible female spirits, and the practice of the Tantra magic ascribed by the Hindus to the people of Kamrup, are imputations which derive some countenance from the existing worship of Ramchundi [Ranacandī], the Thakoorain of Kachar, who is adored under the symbol of a sword religiously preserved in the Rajbarri, and to the possession of which the most inexpressible importance is attached."

(Memoir of Sylhet, Kachar, and the adjacent Districts: J.A.S.B., 1840, pp. 832 and 833). Ranacandi is the War-Goddess of Tantric Hinduism.



Engraved & printed at the Offices of the Survey of India, Calcutta, 1910. Coins of North-Eastern India.



13. Rasiapaāsaņa.

By S. P. V. RANGANATHASVAMI ARYAVARAGURU.

A short note on Rasiapaāsaņa, an old Prakrit work, newly brought to light, by Mahamahopadhyaya Pandit Haraprasad Sastri, M.A., and deposited in the Library of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, may not be uninteresting at present when Prakrit works are rare and even the few works known are rarely studied. Rasiapaāsana by Vairochana contains 400 verses: but about 46 more verses, in the same metre, have been added at the end of the work. Being similar in nature to those of the work and probably being the composition of the same author, these were perhaps added to this work. The fact that these verses were not intended by the author to form a part of his work, is clearly seen from the colophon which is given before the commencement of these verses (i.e. at the end of his work) and in which it is stated that his work contains 400 gāthās. So my conclusion is that these extra verses are Chatu Slokas (चारुश्लोकाः), composed by the same author, collected together and appended to the work, so that they might not fall into oblivion.

As to the work itself, it is complete with benedictory verses at the beginning and with a colophon at the end. It contains 400 verses, in one and the same metre, gāthā. It is not an anthology but an original work of the author. The following verses from the work will clearly convince us of the fact:—

सोजण कहंदगिरं रोखह में विरह्यं खुको सोउम्।
हरिष्य मञ्जपुस्पत्तं धावह को कुसरसं पाउम्॥ ८॥
[श्रुत्वा कवीन्द्रगिरं रोचते मया विरचितं खलुकः श्रोतुम्।
हत्वा मधुपूर्णपात्रं धावति कः कुश्ररसं पातुम्॥]

"Having heard the words of the best of poets, who will care to hear my composition? Having stolen a pot full of honey, who will run to drink the juice of Kusa?"

क्दे बंधिम्म सुए लक्ख्यमणे रसे खलशारे। विरयमि तश्र वि मुठो खह रसिखपद्यासमां कळम्॥ १८॥

[इटंदिस बन्धे श्रुते बच्चामार्गे रसे चबङ्कारे। विरुचयामि तथाऽपि मुटः खयि रसिकप्रकाश्चनं काश्चम ।]

"Although I am ignorant of Chandas, Bandha, Sastra, Lakshaṇamarga, Rasa and Alankara, yet am I composing the poem Rasiapaāsaṇa."

कमनकरस्स ज्ञ सुगई बज्जनमहामोह्यासग्यं कुग्रह । रोखंच हरह तह विचाग मग्यं हि हरेह सञ्जननोचासा ॥ ४००॥

Of the above three verses the first by the phrase मे विरस्थं (= मया विरचितं) undoubtedly proves that the work was composed by the author. The second by the clause विरम्भि रिश्वप्रवासणं कर्ष्यं (= विरचयामि रिश्वप्रकासनं कायं) asserts the above statement giving in addition the name of the work. Moreover, the fact of his professing 'ignorance of Chandas, etc.' (which is common to Oriental Poets) should only be stated when he is composing and not collecting the verses for a poem. The third verse proves the same fact in a peculiar way. By taking the initial and the last letters of each of the four pādas, we get the phrase कर प्राचित्र (इतिः वैरोचनस्थ) which means "the work (composition) of Vairochana."

The last verse, of the above set, unfolds the name of the author, Vairochana. That the author of this work is Vairochana is also evident from the colophon.

कद्दद्दोश्ययरद्वो विञ्चहुत्रकामियौदद्वो । विमन्नो ग्राष्ट्राकोसो सम्पृक्षच उस्त्र्यो समत्तो च ॥ ४०२ ॥ [किबिवैगोचनरचितः विद्ययवरकामिनौद्यितः। विमनो ग्राथाकोष्ट्रः संपूर्णचतुः स्रतः समाप्तस्य ॥]

"Thus ends the work of full 400 gāthās composed by the poet Vairochana which is pure and which is dear to inflamed lovers and affectionate women."

The work has four benedictory verses, of which the last is not clear. The first three are:

सुगचो समन्तभदो च्रवीच्यवाई च्यवेष्यवलवन्तो ।
वृद्धो च धम्मराचो जगसरग्र विगाचचो चिरं जच्चह ॥ १ ॥
विग्रतः समन्तभदो ऽद्वितीयवादी धनेकवलवान् ।
वृद्धच धर्मराजः जनग्ररग्रः विनायकः चिरं जयति ॥

"Buddha is ever victorious—that Buddha, who is well-bestowed, who is wholly auspicious, who teaches identity, who possesses the 10 powers, who is the enlightened, who is the king of justice, who is the defender of all and who is the remover of obstacles."

कोमनकुसुमसरे हिं पश्चे हिं चैन्य जन्म जो मुख्याम्। हेनामे त्तेय सन्धा तं रखरयन्त्रं चिरं वन्दे॥२॥ [कोमनकुसुमध्यदेः पंचिमिरेव जयति यो भुवनम्। हेनामा जेय सदा तं रखरयकं चिरं वन्दे॥]

"I salute for ever that Ranaranaka (Manmatha) who always conquers the world as sport by using only five tender flower-arrows."

यिव्यायहेउममलं भञ्चवन्तं विक्श्यिस्यदाचारम्। विसमेस् एकायाहं यिचं कोएसरं वन्दे॥३॥ [निर्वायहेतुममलं भगवन्तं वाष्क्रितार्थदातारम्। विषमेषुं एकनायं निव्यं कोकेश्वरं वन्दे॥]

"I constantly bow to the gods Manmatha and Lokesvara, who are both the causes of Nirvāṇa (Happiness and Moksha), who are both pure, who fulfil our desires and who are both sole masters.

The first is an invocation to Buddha in which almost all the words referring to him are given, the epithet चनेक्वलान conveying the idea of दणवलः an epithet of Buddha. The second verse invokes Raṇaraṇaka. The third is again an invocation to both Manmatha and Lokesvara.

The verses in the work, it seems, are arranged according to subjects like Nāyaka, Nāyikā, Dūtī, etc. But as there is neither a commentary nor a complete Sanskrit Chāyā, it is difficult to point out clearly where the various portions begin or end. But it is obvious that the earlier portion of the work treats of Šrígāra (e.g. Nāyaka, Nāyikā, etc.) while the latter portion treats of Vairāgya (e.g. Gurūpadeṣa, etc.). The manuscript itself of the Society's Library (which I had occasion to get on loan) is not free from scribal mistakes. The verse 59th is copied over again as the 89th, which led to the mistake of numbering the last verse as 401 instead of 400, which ought to be the case according to the colophon.

The work was written by the author at the request of his friends. This is made known to us by the author himself in his verse:

^{&#}x27; "रणरणको रितरमणः संसारगृदर्भमोजन्या।" Trikandasesha.

रइन्नं मण् वि षोन्नं कव्यं कइवरिवसेसिवसन्नं पि।
सहन्तरिदेवेवरोष्ट्रा णिन्नमइविष्टवाणुसारेण ॥ ३८०॥
[रचितं मयापि स्तोकं कार्यं कविवरिवशेषविषयमि ।
सहचरदृढोपरोधात् निजमतिविभवानुसारेण ॥]

"Being pressed by my friends, I compose, according to my abilities, this short poem, though really it is the pursuit of the ablest of poets."

Excepting a few facts nothing is known about the author. That the author is a Buddhist is evident from the fact that he invokes Buddha at the very commencement of the work and also from the following two verses:

पञ्चत्तग्रास्मि पत्ते पंचे हिंचे अ ग्रिस्मिए देहे।
बन्ध त्ति दइ हिस्स आ मूटा ता कीस कन्दन्ति ॥ ३४ ५
[पंचत्वे प्राप्ते पंचिभिरेव निर्मिते देहे।
बन्धरिति दम्भ हृदयाः मूटाः तत्वृतः कन्दन्ति ॥]

"When the body formed out of the five (elements) is dead (resolved into the five elements), why do foolish persons cry with inflamed hearts for their relative."

अससमय जोर कस विभावों कि है पि या उ छस।
रंजेइ को विकेश विसळं या जिसो विरंजिं तरह ॥ २२ ॥
[अन्यान्यमते जोके कस्यापि भावः कुत्रापि न त्वन्यसमन् ।
रज्यते कोऽपि केनापि सर्वे न जिनो ऽपि रंजयितुं प्रकोति ॥]

"In this world of different tastes, one has taste in one thing and not in another. A certain person is pleased by a certain other. Even Jina will not be able to please all."

In the first verse the author refers to one of the most important doctrines of Buddhism, viz., that the body comes into existence by the union of the five elements and not, as Hindus believe, by the creation by a Supreme power. In the second he attributes the superiority of power to Jina (Buddha) rather than to Sarvesvara or Brahman. We naturally expect a Brahmana (like Bhartrihari) to say anife at a spaff or some such thing.

As to the age of the poet, the information that can be collected from this work is scanty and unsatisfactory. In the extra verses at the end of the work, the following one occurs:

ग्रस्टड्रह्मत्ते हकुमाहा डिद्धि घट्ट संजात्यो । ए ओई पहचाऊ खोगीवाको चिरं जन्म उ॥ ४१२ ॥

In the fourth pada we have खोणोबालो चिरं अवड (= जोणोबाल चिरं अवडा), i.e. 'may the ruler of the earth be victorious', which undoubtedly refers to a contemporary king, perhaps the patron of the poet himself. Unfortunately it was not possible for me to make out the name of the king in the verse, the letters being illegible. Although our poet does not refer to other poets by name, yet that he is indebted to some of them for a few of his ideas will be evident from the following parallelisms:

- I. या पुरायोत्ति पद्मदुं कव्यं या यावं ति हो इसावज्ञम्। को मोत्त्या परिक्वं भूसं यादं च जम्पर सुद्ययो ॥ १६॥ [न पुराया इति प्रक्षष्टं काव्यं न नविमिति भवति सावद्यम्। को सुक्षा परीद्यां भूषां निंदां च जन्यते सुजनः॥]
- "A composition is not good simply because it is old. Nor is it despicable because it is new. Who, that are noble, will praise or condemn a thing without due examination?"

पुराग्रामित्येव न साधु सर्वे न चापि कार्यं नविमत्यवद्यम् । सन्तः परीच्यान्यतरङ्कान्ते मुदः परप्रत्ययनेयबुद्धिः ॥ २ ॥

"Everything (composition) is not good simply because it is old. Nor is a composition unworthy of praise (or fit to be condemned) because it is new. The wise (critics) having made a due examination adopt the one or the other. The blockhead has his judgment guided by the conviction of others."

(Kāļidāsā's Māļavikāgņimitra I. 2.)

- II. पत्तविसेश्वापिड्या डिम्सस् किदी वि हो इ वह्नल्या। सालिस्त तम्बक्दिरा ग्राज्ञ किसिच्यगुगा खवेक्वे इ ॥ २४ ॥ [पात्रविधोषे पतिता डिम्सस्य क्वतिः खिप भवति वज्जलायी। धालेः स्तंबक्दिता न यन्तु क्विक्यगुगान् अपेदाते ॥]
- "Even the composition of a boy attains greater excellence when imparted to a good recipient. The well-flourishing of the crop does not surely require the good qualities of the husbandman."

चौषते बालिग्रस्थापि सत्त्वेत्रपतिता क्रियः। न ग्रासेः स्तंबकरिता वप्तर्गुग्रमपेत्रते॥ ३॥ "Even the crop sown by an idiot in a good soil comes out flourishingly. The well flourishing of the crop does not require the good qualities of the husbandman."

(Visākhadattás Mudrārākshasa. I. 3.)

And also our poet seems to have borrowed the following from

III. चंदाच्चि कालऊडं दुगम्धं चंदगा जला जलग्रम्।

Dandin. (Cf. his Kāvyādarṣa II. 39.) From these we will not be far wrong in concluding that our poet is not older than Dandin or Viṣākhadatta, in the chronology of Indian poets.

Regarding the merit of his composition, I am of opinion that Rasiapaāsaņa stands inferior to Gāthāsaptaṣati and Setubandha. The style is not well-polished and flowery, though we find some of his verses beautifully wrought and pregnant with ideas worthy of praise. The following verses may be cited as specimens of his best production. The ideas contained in them are all new and striking.

स्रें अ अगपिक्सिमार्अं अण्हर दुक्तणो सुक्यणो। किहं कुणे इ एको पूर इस्रो गुणे हि गुणवंतो॥ १६६॥ [स्र्चाः अग्रपिसमागं बानुहरति दुर्जनः सुजनः। किहं करोति एकः पुरयति इतरो गुणैः गुणवान्॥]

"The good and the wicked imitate the two ends of a needle. The one always creates defects (holes) in others, while the other fills them with his own good qualities (thread)."

एकोश्वरसम्भूषा सिरसा सक्तरित्र धारिश्वा गिद्धा। केसा वि विरुष्णन्ते जराइ किसु वंकग्रश्वाणात्रो॥ ३२४॥ [एकोदरसंभूताः श्रिरसा सत्कृत्य धारिताः स्त्रिग्धाः। केश्वा खिप विरुष्यंते जर्या किसु वक्तनयनाः॥]

"Born of the same mother, borne on the head with reverence and combed with care, even the hairs turn grey (become indifferent) on attaining old age. And what of women?"

व्यनिसं जरायाने हिं व्यवसिव्यडा हम्मि ढद्धदेहाव्यो । यागम इपायुभप्पो पलिव्यव्या एया जन्तूया ॥ ३२५ ॥ विमायं जरानवैः व्यवसितदा हे दम्धदेहात्। निर्माक्कृति पायदभस्म पलितव्यानेन जन्तूनाम् ॥ "The ashes of the bodies of creatures, burnt incessantly by the fire of old age, the flames having subsided, are coming forth in the shape of grey hairs."

> लिंडियरो ग्रं जुस्तो भरिज्य गुगं सिरं धुगावेद । जुक्कं जुळगारच्यां च्यापुसरिजं चोगाचो भमद ॥ ३३ ॥ [यिधिकरः ननु जीगोः स्मृत्वा गुगं ग्रिरः धूनयति । निलीनं योवनरत्नं चनुसतुं च्यनतः समिति ॥]

"The old man having a stick in his hand, is walking, with bent body in search of the lost gem of youth, and shakes his head at the recollection of its good qualities."

आजम्माण्गश्रम्म वि सर्ले गालिम्म पङ्कां विसुह्म्।
पार्ण हि गुगावन्ते लिक्क्ज्ञाणं इमं चरिक्म्॥ १५८॥
[स्वाजन्मानुगतेऽपि सर्ले नाले पङ्कां विसुखम्।
पार्येण हि गुगावित लह्मीयतानां इदं चरितम्।]

"The lotus is turned away from its stalk although it is straight and accompanies it from its birth. The conduct of the rich towards the good is usually opposed."

श्वित्रक्षकंको गोसे ग्रथणोश्विष्टिपष्टिमंतश्रणलम्गो।
गूठपद्यो उत्ताणो पिडहाइ ससीह कुम्मराच्यो व्य ॥ १६०॥
[अधिककलंकः प्रभाते गगनोदिधपश्चिमांतानुलमः।
गुठपद उत्तानः प्रतिभाति श्रशी खलु कूर्मराण इव॥]

"The moon really shines like the king of tortoises by having many spots (Kalanka), by attaching itself to the western shore of the ocean of sky at daybreak and by putting forth the concealed rays (legs)."

The poet is also skilful in Chitra Kavitwa, as examples of which the following may be given:—

वज्जलगुणं दाष्ट्रहरं बह्नपरिमनं सुमंजुनं विमनम् । मोहमनोहं गुरुवर ते चरणसरो रहं वन्दे । १६६॥ गुरुवर मसङ्गचित्तं बज्जसरिणविबुद्धविमनवरबुद्धिम् । मोहकरिकुम्भदारणगुरुवनकरण्ठीरवं बन्दे ॥ १६०॥ संसारिसम्प्रतरणे तारस्मभारे वरम्बरन्देवि ॥ १६०॥ परमे विसुद्धकरणे सेवह वज्जगण मरन्देवि ॥ १६०॥ वाणासिकुन्तपिट्टसतोमरफरतूणभासुरे समरे।

वारण तुरंग वर वीर महारवचण्डले भासि ॥ ३६८ ॥

(चतन्द्रभिः भाषासमावेसम्)

किं वीच्यमणुष्पाइच्य सहलं किसु संग्रमं सुहं किं च !

तुह गुण्णस्च्यसहाच्यं नाणिस्चाइ चडरच्या केण ॥ १५४ ॥

(प्रक्रोत्तरम् ।)

चिन्तजन्तिचहुरे कच्यमृहि उप्पलण्याच्यणे सुण्णालकरचलणे ।

हंसज्वय्यणि कलरवतरङ्गवसणे सुकन्तिह्नो ॥ ६६ ॥

कमिनि च्यमले परिमलमणोहरे फेण्डारच्यद्दसिसिरे ।

जिस्त वर उववणमेन्ती तुन्भ गुणं किंगणप्रस्नन्तम् ॥ ६० ॥

(ज्ञाल्यम्)

Mahamahopadhyaya Pandit Haraprasad Sastri, M.A., has arrived at the following conclusion regarding this work in his report on the search of Sanskrit Manuscripts for the years 1895—1900. "During the period under review has been acquired a brand-new anthology in the Prakrit entitled Rasiapasāsaṇa. It commences with an invocation to Buddha. The second verse invokes Lokesvara; but the third makes an obeiance to Siva. It speaks of another Prakrit anthology which was at the height of its popularity at the author's time, entitled Gāthāratnakoṣa by Vairochana. The MS. is incomplete, still it contains 448 verses in one and the same metre. The numbers are given sometimes in figures and sometimes in letter numerals. The author's name has not been found in the work.' It is evident from my remarks given above that his surmises are not correct.

In conclusion, I have to say that I publish this article because it is not known to many that such a work exists in spite of its forming important addition to Prakrit Literature and also because Mahamahopadhyaya Pandit Haraprasad Sastri, M.A. (who brought it to light and the only one who wrote anything about it) has been misled by the following verse:—

विमनो स्वस्वाहिको गागानंकारभरिकाबह्लत्यो । वहरोकांगा रहको गाहाम्कागस्य रेहर कोसो ॥ ९ ॥ [विमना स्वर्णघटितः गागानकार्मस्तिबह्नार्थः। वैरोचनेन रिचतः गाणास्त्रस्य राजते कोष्यः ॥]

In this verse the author praises his own work by comparing it to a treasury, and the Shastri thought somebody else was praising Vairochana.

14. A Discovery of a Long Metre in Prabodhachandrodaya.

By Venkatesh Vaman Sovani, M.A.

At the end of Act IV we have a long passage forming a magnificent hymn of Ādikeśava at Benares. It extends over pp. 162-164 of the Nirnayasāgar Edition of the play furnished with two commentaries. It runs thus:—

खमरचय (चम्) चक्रचूडामिणश्रिणिनीराजितोपान्तपाददयाम्भोज राजन्नख्योतख्योतिकमौरितखर्णपीठ स्कृरद्देतिवभान्तिसंतानसंतप्तवन्दा-ससंसारिनदाप हारैकदत्त ज्ञमामख्लोद्धारसंभारसंघट्टदंष्ट्रायकोटिस्कृर-क्लैलचक्रकमाकान्तलोक नय,

प्रवत्तभुजवलोद्धृ(द्भू)तगोवर्धनच्छजनिवा(वर्ष)श्विताखग्छलोद्योजिता-काण्डचण्डाम्ब्वाद्वातिवर्षज्ञसद्गोकुलजागविस्मापिताप्रेषविश्वप्रभो

विबुधरिए बधूवर्गसौमन्तसिन्द्रसन्धामय्वक्तटोन्मार्जनोहामधामाधिष चक्तदेखेन्त्रवचक्तटौपाटनाकुग्रुभाखद्मखश्रीणपाणिदयसक्तविसा(स्ता)रि-रक्तार्णवामग्रलोकचय,

विभवनरि एकेटभो इग्डक गढ़ा स्थिकूट स्फुटोन्मा जितो हाम दो देग खग्डे-न्दुचूडिपय प्रौढदो देग्ड विश्वान्त मञ्चाचल चुब्ब दुग्धान्नु धिप्रो स्थित स्थी भुज-(जा) बह्मी (ह्मि) सं स्थेष संकान्त पीनन्त नाभो गपत्रावली लाब्कितो र स्थल स्थूल-मृक्ता प्रलोदार हारप्रभामगड़ल (प्र) स्फुरत्कगढ़ वैकुगढ़ भक्तस्य लोकस्य संसारमो हच्छिदं देहि बोधोदयं देव तुभ्यं नमः॥

As far as our knowledge goes nobody has considered this long passage to be metrical. But, to speak the truth, it is governed by the laws of metre as can be easily seen by scanning each portion of the said passage. Among these variants the first is variately and the last is variants given in circular brackets which are chosen mostly from old MSS, of the play and are to be found in Brockhaus' Edition of the play also. They are not the readings adopted by the commentary Prakāça except the first variant which is

धमर्चवचम्चक, although generally speaking Prakāça adopts the old and even better readings. Still these readings have to be adopted, because they make the passage conform to the rules of metre, although no commentator or scholar, eastern or western, seems to have had the faintest idea of the fact.

The metre we find to be a variety of देखक, having two a ganas at the beginning of each foot of the stanza and an unlimited number of a ganas in each foot as is the case with the Cyāmalādandaka, a short poem attributed to Kālidāsa by popular belief. If, however, there is still any doubt about its being the words at all, that can be removed by the expressions involving the words at a family, and, again, which are designations for different kinds of a consisting all of first two a ganas and then consisting respectively of 13, 22, 9, and 18 agains in each quarter! Further, we find the name are (= aus repeated in the words and alagas!!

For such kinds of irregular दख्ड the learned editors of the Kāvyamālā. Paṇḍit Durgaprasad and Mr. K. P. Parab (see काव्यमाचा गुच्छक I, p. 8, foot-note) give the name of मनमानक्रचीचाकर which is defined in नारायणभट्ट डीका on हमरबाकर, ch. III, § 114, as यब रेफान् कविः खेच्या पाउसीभाग्यसपित्रया ऽऽगेपयस्थेष धीरैः सूनो दख्डको मनमानक्रचीचाकरः (p. 57, Nirṇayasagar Edition) of हमरबाकर

But it seems that this analysis consists purely of the and has no fine at the beginning, as will be seen from the definition line which is in verse as well as from the illustration of the analysis of the analysis. But it is enough to say here that it is shown to be a variety of the the tillustration of the analysis. But it is enough to say here that it is shown to be a variety of the triple and irregular variety like that of where the attributed to Kālidāsa in praise of the goddess anal or which is irregular not only in the number of ganas in each quarter, but is irregular as regards the number of feet which are five instead of four, since every stanza of the Sanskrit poetry consists necessarily of four feet only. In fact, we may call such irregular the to be rather pieces of 'metric prose,' if I may be allowed to use such an expression.

The additional instances of **राउक** metre we find in literature are—

- (1) प्रचित्रकरिक्तनि॰ etc. in the fifth Act of नास्तीमाधन;
- (2) जग जननि सुधा॰ which forms the श्लासकाद्युक ascribed to काक्तिहास (pp. 8—11 काक्साका गण्ड I);
- (3) जय जय विजयी भवा (pp. 83-85 of विद्यापरिष्यनम् (काषमासा) called सपादच्यक by the learned editors;
- (4) जय जय जबदौज्ञ (p. 103 जीवानंदनम् काचमासाः ;

In शब्दकलाइम we find on pp. 481-2 the several varieties of देखक illustrated. On p. 56 of धनरज्ञाकर of केदारभड़ (Nirnayasāgar Edition) an illustration composed by himself and another in the form of a rule is quoted by नारायणभड़ in his commentary on धनरजाकर, ch. III, § 114, p. 56.

It may be noticed that all these illustrations are in praise of some god, to which indeed it is highly suited, since it can produce a well-sustained long passage of descriptive poetry. It contains mostly long and heavy compounds and has therefore the quality of vigour. Occasionally it may contain simple sentences free from long compounds as in खानसारखन, notably in the fourth foot (p. 10 कायमाना गुक्क I).

It would be a very desirable thing if some competent scholar should undertake a complete investigation into the Sanskrit Prosody and should write a comparative treatise on the subject. This meagre contribution would be more than amply rewarded if it should serve to promote such an inquiry.

NOTE.

It is a regular kind of दण्डक as distinguished from the irgular one of स्नामलादण्डक and that occurring in प्रयोधचंद्रीद्य, etc. This regular दण्डक has four quarters, each consisting of 108 syllables consisting of the initial pair of नगण s followed by रजण्ड.

This quanter, which very much resembles stately prose, was invented out of the desire to give expression to the sense of the sublime, which can be hardly adequately expressed by ordinary verse or by non-rhythmical prose. Therefore this rhythmical prose or poetic prose came into existence, which has its correspondence to the aftern of the Mahārāṣṭra poet unantur. The only difference we find there is that in aftern alliteration (unant) does the work of the prosodial au s. Now if we turn our attention to the hymn to Nārāyaṇa in the Nārāyaṇiyopākhyāna of Çāntiparva, chapter 338 of Mahābhārata by Nārada, we shall find that there is a piece of poetic prose with frequent Yamakas and Anuprāsas to give it rhythm. This exactly corresponds to the aftern of unantur and perhaps

throws some light on the origin of the दखन. From all the instances I have adduced and from examples of दखन given in सह्द तस्पद्धन, उत्तरकाकर, etc., we may conclude that it was often used in hymns to make them grand and sublime.

15. Palaeontological Notes on the Gangamopteris Beds of Khunmu (in Kashmir).

By Hem Chandra Das-Gupta.

During the summer of 1908 I had an opportunity of visiting the plant-bearing beds of Khunmu in Kashmir with the Presidency College Geological party. The beds were first described by Dr. Noetling and then by Mr. Hayden, while Mr. Middlemiss " went to the locality after I had left. The fossils previously obtained from these beds have already been described by Mr. Seward and Dr. Smith Woodward. During our visit, which had to be limited to a few hours, besides Gangamopteris kashmiriensis, Sew., and Psygmophyllum Hollandi, Sew., one Taniopteris sp. and a few fish fossils were obtained from these beds. The specimen of Taniopteris is extremely ill-preserved; and the piscine fauna includes a palæoniscid fish and an ichthyodorulite associated with the dental impression of a fish belonging to the Cestraciontidae. A short description of the ichthyodorulite and the palæoniscid fish is given below.

The ichthyodorulite belongs to the first group of Dr. Smith Woodward 5 and from its very close association with the cestraciontid tooth it can be very reasonably asserted that the tooth and the spine belong to the same individual. The dental impression recalls that of Orodus or of Ctenacanthus, both of which belong to the family of the Cestraciontidae and have been united into a single genus by Dr. Newberry.⁶ The ichthyodorulite is about 53 mm. in length and elongated triangular, the greatest width at the base being only 4 mm. It is striated longitudinally and the strice seem to have been set with tubercles.

The palaeoniscid fish shows a close resemblance with the lower Permian Amblypterus eupterygus, Ag. Two species of

¹ Gen. Rep., Geolog. Survey India for 1902-3, p. 22.

<sup>Records, Geolog. Survey India, xxxvi, pt. 1.
Records, Geolog. Survey India, xxxvii, pt. 4.
Palaeont. Ind., New. Ser., vol. ii, Mem. No. 2; Records, Geolog. Survey. India, xxxvi, pt. 1.</sup>

^b Catalogue of fossil fishes, pt. ii, p. 93.

⁶ Rep., Gool. Survey, Ohio, ii, pt ii (1875), p. 54.

⁷ Pois, foss., ii, pt. 1, pp. 41, 56, tab. 3, figs. 5, 6. This species and a few others have all been united together by Dr. Smith Woodward under the name Elonychthys macropterus (Bronn.), (Catalogue of fossil fishes, pt. ii, p. 491). In his paper on 'Amblypterus, Palæoniscus, Clyrolepis and Pygopteraus' (Quart. Journ. Geolog. Soc., xxxiii, p. 552), Dr. Traquair divides the species of Amblypterus into five distinct types, and of them A. macropterus, Ag., and A. nemopterus, Ag., are the types for the

Amblypterus have already been described from the Khunmu beds and they belong to the group of A. latus, and the present specimen perhaps indicates the existence of a different form. It is smaller than any of the specimens described by Dr. Smith Woodward, and the general outline appears to be more slender.

The portion preserved measures about 78 mm. The trunk is regularly fusiform and the dorsal contour seems to be perfeetly straight. The maximum depth of the trunk is nearly 2.5 times as great as the width of the caudal pedicle which is about three-quarters the length of the space between the termination of the anal fin and the origin of the caudal fin. In the extremely anterior region there are some impressions which represent some of the bones of the head, and among them may be distinguished the clavicular impressions ornamented with ridges, rather coarse and arranged more or less zonally. Of the different fins the dorsal and the anal are the best preserved ones; and next to them are the caudal; and only traces of the pectoral and the pelvic ones are to be met with. The dorsal and the anal fins are short-based: the former are somewhat in advance of, and slightly less than, the latter in size. The interspace between the anal and the pelvic fins is less than that between the pelvic and the pectoral ones. The articulated segments of the fin-rays are longer than broad. The scales are a little longer than broad and are quite smooth; the upper and lower margins show peg-and-socket structure. The course of the lateral line is marked by a very prominent continuous ridge on the inner surface of each scale through which it passes, this being very prominent also on some of Dr. Smith Woodward's specimens.

genera Rhabdolepis, Troschel, and Elonichthys, Giebel, respectively. Dr. Smith Woodward has, however, subsequently united these two genera together with (?) Propalæoniscus, (?) Ganacrodus and Cosmoptychus, and has retained Giebel's term (Catalogue of fossil fishes, pt. ii. p. 487).

16. A Chemical Examination of the Butter-fat of the Indian Buffalo.

By E. R. WATSON, MONOHAR GUPTA, Holder of the Agricultural Diploma, Bengal Government; and SATISH CHANDRA GANGULI, M.A.

In a preliminary note on this subject (Journ. Asiatic Soc. Bengal, Vol. II, pp. 293—297) one of us recorded analytical figures which seemed to show that in Indian buffalo butter-fat the volatile fatty acids were almost entirely butyric. It was pointed out that, if this were confirmed, it would serve as a method for distinguishing buffalo butter-fat from ordinary cow butter-fat, even if the former were mixed with some other oil or fat for the purpose of lowering the percentage of volatile fatty acids. This point has been further investigated, but this further examination has not confirmed the preliminary result. In fact, there can now be no doubt that the relative proportions of butyric and caproic acids are practically the same in the Indian buffalo butter-fat and in that of the ordinary cow.

Estimation of the ratio of butyric and caproic acids by Henriques' Process (Journ. Chem. Soc., 1899, abs. 258).—In this process the alkalimetric value of the volatile fatty acids is determined and also the weight of their potassium salts. Henriques expressed his results as the mean molecular weight of the volatile acids. It was by this method that the already accorded result (Watson, loc. cit.)—which is now seen to have been incorrect—was obtained. The following results have now been obtained:—

Description of butter-fat.			Mean mol. weight of volatile acids.	
Fresh buffalo butter-fat	(10-7-06)		102	
Ditto	(20-11-06)	••	(1) 95 (2) 97 (3) 97	
Ditto	(17-1-07)		`´96 ¯	
Old buffalo butter-fat, 10)`			
months' old, collected	(6.2.06)		99	
Danish butter-fat	••		105	
Mean for European cows	(Henriques) 93	3-99.8	

These results show that the mean molecular weight for the volatile acids of Indian buffalo butter-fat lies within the same limits as in the case of the ordinary European cow.

The method, however, is one very susceptible to error. It makes considerable difference whether the volatile fatty acids are filtered or not previous to titration with potash. They should not be filtered or some caproic or higher acid not very soluble in water may be removed. Again the titration with potash gives different results according as it is performed quickly or slowly. It must be performed slowly to allow the slightly soluble caproic acid to be attacked by the potash. Finally it makes a difference whether titration is stopped as soon as the red colour of the litmus changes, or whether it is continued until a blue is obtained. It seemed, therefore, very desirable to estimate the ratio of butyric to caproic acid by some other method. This has been done in the case of the European cow by Duclaux. His method was, therefore, applied to the case of the Indian buffalo.

Estimation of the ratio butyric to caproic acids by Duclaux's method.—By this process the volatile fatty acids in dilute aqueous solution are fractionally distilled and the various fractions titrated with alkali. From these titration figures a curve is drawn, and by comparing this curve with standard curves for butyric acid, for caproic acid and for definite mixtures of these two acids, the ratio of the two acids can be estimated.

Duclaux's results are given in the Comptes rendues (cii, 1022), but in that paper the experimental data are not recorded. A curve for butyric acid is given in Duclaux's Traité de Microbiologie, Vol. II, pp. 384--395, but no curves for caproic acid and mixtures of butyric and caproic were available. These curves have, therefore, been prepared (Diagram 1). Merck's purest acids were used in the preparation of these curves. Here as in all the other experiments the distillates were not filtered and were titrated slowly to allow the caproic acid to be acted on by the alkali. Owing to some initial difficulties it was investigated whether the shape of the curve for a given ratio of the two acids depended on the shape of the distilling flask, on the absolute concentration of the acids in the solution distilled or on the presence of sulphuric acid or potassium sulphate in the solution. It was found that the shape of the curve was practically the same under all these different conditions (Diagram 2). Duclaux's curve for butyric acid is practically identical with that we have obtained (see also Diagram 1).

Curves for the volatile fatty acids in buffalo butter-fat were now obtained by saponifying the fat, acidifying the product with sulphuric acid, distilling over the volatile acids in fractions and titrating. Curves closely corresponding with butyric acid alone were obtained (Diagram 3). This appeared to bear out the result obtained in the preliminary investigation (Watson, loc. cit.). However, a sample of Danish butter-fat was

examined in the same way, and also gave a curve corresponding almost exactly with that for butyric acid alone (Diagram 3). This difficulty was finally cleared up. If we take a sample of goat-fat and saponify, and then acidify with sulphuric acid and distil, we find that the distillate is neutral, showing the absence of volatile fatty acids in goat-fat. If we add a definite quantity of a mixture of butyric and caproic acids (2:1) before distillation, then fractionally distil and titrate, we get a curve corresponding to butyric acid alone and not to the mixture actually taken (Diagram 3). It appears that the presence of such acids as palmitic, stearic and oleic in the distillation mixture lower the curve.

It was, therefore, necessary in the examination of a sample of butter-fat first to distil over all the volatile fatty acids and then fractionally redistil and titrate. In this way the following curves (Diagram 4) were obtained for Indian buffalo butter-fat and for Danish butter-fat, showing that in each case the ratio of butyric to caproic acids is practically 2:1.

Examination of the volatile fatty acids by Thorp's Process.— This is a comparatively recent process invented to distinguish between real butter-fat and margarine containing cocoanut-oil, depending on the different relative proportions of the volatile fatty acids in butter-fat and cocoanut-oil. For a description see J.C.S. 1906, abs. ii, 588. Indian buffalo butter-fat gave by this process figures much the same as Thorp obtained for European cow butter-fat.

Description of butter-fat.		Titration value of 2nd distillate in cc.	Titration value of insol. volatile acids in cc. N KOH.
Fresh butter-fat 17-1-07		. 2·4	5.65
European cow (Thorp)	••	2.9—4.0	5-2—8-4
			l

Examination of the volatile fatty acids by Kirschner's Process.—This is another comparatively new process invented for the same purpose as Thorp's. For details see J.C.S., 1905, abs. II. 213. Again by this process the volatile fatty acids seemed to be present in Indian buffalo butter-fat in much the same proportion as in the case of the European cow.

Description of butter-fat.	New value.	Reichert-Wollny figure.
Fresh buffalo butter-fat (17-1-07)	25.0	30.5-32.3
European cow (Kirschner)	26.8	29•6.

It was felt, however, that much confidence could not be attached to the results obtained by these latter processes, and other chemists who have used these processes have arrived at similar results (Annual Report on Progress of Chemistry, Chemical Society, 1906, p. 217).

As already stated this further investigation has shown beyond doubt that the relative proportions of the volatile fatty acids are the same in the butter-fats of the Indian buffalo and the European cow. Up to the present, therefore, no method is available for distinguishing between cow-ghee and a mixture of buffalo-ghee and a suitable quantity of some other oil or fat, such as beef or mutton-fat.

Experimental data corresponding to the Curves.

CURVE No. 1 (DIAG. 1).

Caproic Acid alone.

One gram. of caproic acid was dissolved in water, the solution was made up to 550 cc. and 500 cc. were distilled over in 50 cc. fractions and titrated.

Fraction No.	Titration value (in terms of NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 0.947$).	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for the curve.
1	29.1	32.0	32.0
2	22.9	25.2	$57 \cdot 2$
_ 3	15.3	16.8	74 0
4	11.5	12.6	86.6
5	5.3	5-8	$92 \cdot 4$
6	3.5	3.8	96.4
. 7	l·7	1.8	98.0
8	0.9	1.0	99.0
9	0.5	0.6	99.6
10	0.3	0.4	100.0

To obtain the figures in the third column the titration values are multiplied by such a factor that the total titration value of the ten fractions is now expressed by 100. The figures in the fourth column are obtained from those in the

third as follows:—the figure corresponding to fraction No. 2 = new titration value of fraction No. 2 + ditto for fraction No. 1; the figure corresponding to fraction No. 3 = sum of new titration values of fractions 1, 2, 3—and so on.

CURVE No. 2 (DIAG. 1).

Butyric and Caproic Acids (1:1).

0.50 grams. butyric acid and 0.50 grams. caproic acid were dissolved in 550 cc. water. 500 cc. were distilled over in 50 cc. fractions and titrated.

Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 0.947$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.
1	25-4	25.6	25.6
2	19:3	19.4	45.0
3	15.4	15.5	60.5
4	11.9	12.0	72.5
5	8.9	9.0	81.2
6	6.7	6.8	88.4
7	4.6	4.7	93.1
8	3.3	3.3	96.4
9	2.0	2.0	98.4
10	1.5	1.6	100.0

CURVE No. 3 (DIAG. 1).

Butyric and Caproic Acids (1:2).

0.33 gram. butyric acid and 0.66 gram. caproic acid were dissolved in 550 cc. water. 500 cc. were distilled over in 50 cc. fractions and titrated

Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 0.947$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.
1	28.6	29.7	29.7
2	20.8	21.5	51.2
3	15.2	15.8	67.0
4	10.9	11.3	78.3
5	7.2	7.4	85· 7
6	5 5	5.6	91 ·3
7	3.6	3.7	95.0
8	2⋅6	2.7	97.7
9	1.5	1.5	99-2
10	0.8	0.8	100.0

CURVE No. 4 (DIAGS. 1, 2 AND 3).

Butyric and Caproic Acids (2:1).

0.66 gm. butyric acid and 0.33 gm. caproic acid were dissolved in 550 cc. water. 500 cc. were distilled over in 50 cc. fractions and titrated.

Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 1.28$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.
1	17:4	23.5	23.5
2	13.9	18.8	42.3
3	11.8	16.0	58.3
4	9.0	12.1	70·4
5	6.9	94	79.8
6	5∙7	7.7	87.5
7	4.0	5·4	92.9
8	3.0	4·1	97.0
9	2.0	2.3	99.3
10	0.5	0.7	100.0

CURVE No. 5 (DIAG. 1).

Butyric Acid alone.

1.00 gm. butyric acid dissolved in water and made up to 550 cc. 500 cc. were distilled over in 50 cc. fractions and titrated.

Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 0.947$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.
1	21:2	18.1	18.1
2	18.6	15.9	34 ·0
3	16.6	$14 \cdot 2$	48.2
4	15.6	13.3	61·5
5	12.1	10.3	71.8
6	10.2	8.7	80.5
7	$8\cdot 2$	7:0	87 ·5
8	$6\overline{.7}$	5.7	93.2
9	4.9	4.1	97.3
10	3.1	2.7	100.0

CURVE No. 6 (DIAG. 1).

Butyric Acid alone (Duclaux's Curve).

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CURVE No. 7 (DIAG. 2).

Butyric and Caproic Acids (2:1).

0.66 gm. butyric acid and 0.33 gm. caproic acid were dissolved in water, 3.8 cc. strong sulphuric acid added and made up to 550 cc. 500 cc. were distilled over in 50 cc. fractions and titrated.

Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 1.28$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.
1	15:9	22.8	22.8
$\tilde{2}$	12.6	18.1	40.9
3	10.0	14.4	55.3
4	$9\cdot 2$	13.2	68.5
5	6.7	96	78.1
6	5·1	7.3	85.4
7	3-9	5.6	91.0
8	2.8	4.0	95.0
9	1.8	2.6	97.6
10	1.7	2.4	100.0

CURVE No. 8 (DIAG. 2).

Butyric and Caproic Acids (2:1).

0.66 gm. butyric acid and 0.33 gm. caproic acid were dissolved in water, 5 gms. NaOH added, then 3.8 cc. strong sulphuric acid and made up to 550 cc. 500 cc. were distilled over in 50 cc. fractions and titrated.

Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 1.28$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.
1	17.2	22.4	22.4
2	13 ·9	18.0	40.4
3	11.4	14.9	5 5·3
4	9.3	12.0	67:3
5	7:4	9.6	76.9
6	6.2	8.0	84.9
7	4.4	5.8	90.7
8 i	3.3	4.3	95.0
9	$2 \cdot 3$	3.0 ∫	98.0
10	1.5	2.0	100.0

CURVE No. 9 (DIAG. 2).

Butyric and Caproic Acids (2:1).

1.33 gm. butyric acid and 0.66 gm. caproic acid were dissolved in water and titrated with KOH. 2.5 cc. strong sulphuric acid were then added and the solution made up to 220 cc. 200 cc. were distilled over in 20 cc. fractions and titrated.

Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 1.28$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.
1	35.7	22.8	22.8
2	28.9	18.5	41.3
3	23.7	15.2	56.5
4	19:4	12.5	69.0
ű õ	14.9	9.6	78.6
6	12.4	8.0	86.6
7	8.4	5.5	92.1
8	6.1	4.0	96.0
9	4.5	2.9	98.9
10	1.9	1.0	100.0

CURVE No. 10 (DIAG. 3).

Buffalo Butter-fat (Shibpur, 16-12-06).

20 gms. butter-fat was saponified by KOH as in Reichert-Wollny process, the alcohol was distilled off and residue dissolved in water; 3.8 cc. strong sulphuric acid were added and volume made up to 550 cc. 500 cc. were distilled off in 50 cc. fractions and titrated.

Fraction No.	Titration value KOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 0.87$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.	
1	21.9	14.6	14.6	
2	22.6	15.0	29.6	
3	22.7	15.1	44.7	
4	7 9·35	12.8	57· 5	
5	16.55	11.0	68.5	
6	13.5	9.0	77.5	
7	11.3	7.5	85.0	
8	8.95	5.6	90.6	
9	7.6	5.0	95.6	
10	6.55	4.4	100.0	

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CURVE No. 11 (DIAG. 3).

Buffalo Butter-fat (Dacca, 1909).

20 gms, butter-fat treated exactly as in preparation of Curve No. 10.

Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{\dot{N}}{10} \times 1.20$.	$\frac{N}{N} \times 1.20$. in new units.	
1	13.2	15.0	15.0
2	15.6	17.4	32.4
3	13.7	15.3	47.7
4	11.0	12.3	60.0
5	10.2	11.4	71.4
6	7.7	8.6	80.0
7	4 ·8	5.4	85.4
8	5.2	5.8	91.2
9	4.3	4.8	96.0
10	3.6	4.0	100.0

CURVE No. 12 (DIAG. 3).

Danish Butter-fat.

20 gms. butter-fat treated exactly as in preparation of Curves Nos. 10 and 11.

Fraction No.	Titration value $ \begin{array}{c} \text{NaOH} \frac{N}{10} \times 0.947. \end{array} $	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.
1	22.3	14.1	14.1
2	34.1	21.7	35.8
3	22 0	14.0	49.8
4	18.8	12.0	61.8
5 '	16:3	10.2	72.0
6	13.2	8.2	80.2
7	11.0	7.0	87.2
8	9·1	5.7	92.9
9	6.7	4.1	97.0
10	4.7	3.0	100.0

CURVE No. 13 (DIAG. 3).

20 gms. goat-fat saponified by KOH as in Reichert-Wollny process, alcohol distilled off, acidified with sulphuric acid, then 0.66 gm. butyric acid and 0.33 gm. caproic acid added, and

volume made up to 550 cc. 500 cc. were distilled off in 50 cc. fractions and titrated.

Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 0.947$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.
1	18.5	17.5	17 [:] 5
2	18.2	17:0	34.5
3	15.9	14.8	49.3
4	14.0	13.0	62.3
5	11.4	10.8	73·1
6	8.9	8.5	81.6
7	7.1	6.6	88.2
8	5.6	5.2	93.4
9	4.1	3.8	97.2
10	3.0	2.8	100.0

CURVE No. 14 (DIAG. 4). Buffalo Butter-tat (Shibpur, 16-11-06).

The Reichert-Wollny distillate from 40 gms. of buffalo butter-fat was made up to 220 cc. and 200 cc., were distilled over in 20 cc. fractions and titrated.

Fraction No.	Titration value KOH, 5.289 gms per litre. Titration value in new units.		Ordinate value for curve.	
1	51.85	22.1	22.1	
2	42.4	18.1	40.2	
3	36· 2 5	15.4	55.6	
4	28.10	11.9	67.5	
5	23.35	9.9	77.4	
6	18.9	8.0	85.4	
7	13.35	5.7	91.1	
8	9.95	4.3	95.4	
9	7.0	2.9	98.3	
10	4.15	1.7	100.0	

CURVE No. 15 (DIAG. 4).

Buffalo Butter-fat (Dacca, 1909).

The distillates from the preparation of Curve No. 11 were collected together, acidified with sulphuric acid and made up to 550 cc. 500 cc. were distilled off in 50 cc. fractions and titrated.

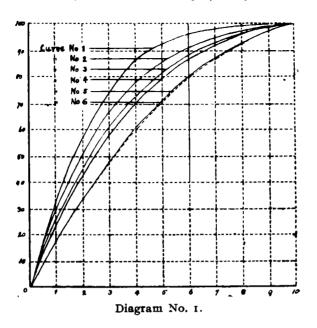
Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 1.20$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for curve.
1	12:6	21.0	21.0
2	11.3	18.9	39.9
3	9.6	16.0	55.9
4	7:3	12·1	68.0
5	6.0	10· 0	78.0
6	3 ·9	6.2	84.5
7	$4\cdot 2$	7.0	91.5
8	3.0	5.0	96.5
9	1.5	2.5	99.0
10	0.6	1.0	100.0

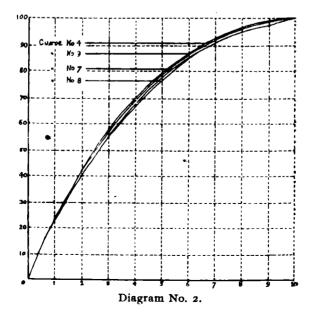
CURVE No. 16 (DIAG. 4).

Danish Butter-fat.

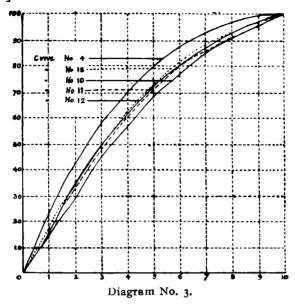
The distillates from the preparation of Curve No. 12 were collected together, acidified with sulphuric acid and made up to 550 cc. 500 cc. were distilled off in 50 cc. fractions and titrated.

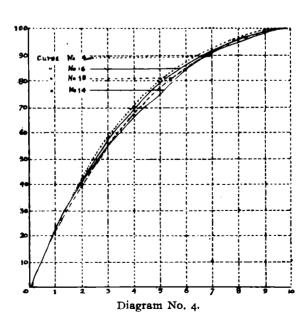
Fraction No.	Titration value NaOH $\frac{N}{10} \times 1.20$.	Titration value in new units.	Ordinate value for ourve.	
1	15.0	22.0	22.0	
2	13.0	19.0	41.0	
3	11.1	16.3	57.3	
4	8.7	12.7	70.0	
5	$6 \cdot 2$	9.1	79.1	
'6	5∙1	7.4	86.5	
7	3.8	5.5	92.0	
8	3·1	4.5	96.5	
9	1.8	2.5	99.0	
10	0.7	1.0	100.0	





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17. History of Kashmir.

By PANDIT ANAND KOUL.

PART I .- PRE-HISTORIC PERIOD.

The Nilamata Purána says that Kashyapa had two wives. Kadru and Vinata, the former being the mother of snakes and the latter that of birds, and they used often to quarrel with each other for supremacy. Ultimately it was decided among them that their supremacy should be decided in a wager, i.e., whoever lost it should become the slave of the other. wager took the following form: A horse was brought and Vinata was asked the colour of the animal by Kadru. Vinata said it was white, as it really was, whereupon Kadru got her sons, the snakes, to cover the horse with themselves so that it might look black. After this it was brought closer Vinata was again asked to say what its colour was. Vinata had to say then that it was black. As this showed a failure on the part of Vinata, the wager is said to have been won by Kadru, who claimed her right over Vinata as to become her maid-servant. After this Kadru used Vinata as a conveyance, riding her in a horse fashion. The sons of Vinata were also treated in the same manner by the sons of Kadru. Kadru said if Vinata's sons brought Amrita, she and her children would be released from this bondage. Garuda, son of Vinata, brought some Amrita and gave it to Kadru, whereupon both the mother and her children were released of the bondage. To retaliate the illtreatment, Garuda began to eat up all the snakes that came by his wav.1

Básuki, a son of Kadru, invoked the aid of Vishnu who used to be carried by Garuda, so that the latter would desist from the above practice. Vishnu advised Básuki to go to a place called Satisar, which was principally inhabited by Shiva, and thereby avoid Garuda. He was further advised in migrating thus to choose Nilanág, the most intelligent of them, as their king. Thereupon Nilanág and Básuki with many others came to Satisar to live there permanently. Nilanág chose a place which was then called Veri and now called Verinág. Another version is that the place chosen by him was the spring in the Nágám Purganah which is even now called Nilanág.

The word Nág means both a spring and a snake. All springs in Kashmir are associated with a presiding snake. It

¹ See also Mahábhárata, Adi Parba, sections xvi to xxxvii.

is commonly believed that by removing the snake the water can be made to disappear.

Indra and his wife, Indrani, once came to Satisar for a pleasure trip, where a demon, named Somagreh, became enamoured with Indrani and ran after her. Indra, however, killed him. While the demon was excited his virus fell in the water which was tended by the snakes, the result being Jalodbava, which name means "produced from water." This Jalodbava began to eat up men living on the banks of Satisar.

According to Vijayeshvara Mahátma the extent of Kashmir under water when it was known by the name of Satisar (Sati meaning Párvati and Sar, lake) was 24 kos long and 12 kos wide. The Nilamata Purána says that the places inhabited were Konsarbal (in Deosar) and Harmukh (in Lár), the rest being under water. Both these mountains are very high.

Kashyapa Muni came from the Deccan on a pilgrimage. Hearing of this, his son, Nilanág (snake), went to receive him at Kon Khel, a place near Hardwar. Nilanag asked Kashvapa to visit Vishnupád (in Deosar), a holy place. The first place in Kashmir they reached was Maddar Desh, now known as Moh The father asked the son the reason of there being no habitations. The son said that Jalodbava, son of Somagreh, was the cause of depopulation and that he did not pay any attention to his request to desist from doing so. The son asked for his father's help in this. After bathing in Vishnupád, so called up to the present time, Kashyapa with his son, Nilanág, went to Brahma-loka, where were present Vishnu and Shiva, and complained to them about Jalodbava having depopulated the The three, i.e., Brahma, Vishnu and Shiva, with Kashyapa and his son, thereupon agreed to come to the spot and do something to prevent the cause of complaint. They all came to a place called Náo Bandan (a place still so called in Deo-Jalodbava, fearing some mischief, hid himself under His exit was looked for by Brahma and others with a view to kill him, but without any result. Ananta, an incarnation of Vishnu, followed and produced a chasm in the mountains near Báramulla to let out the water. After the water was let out, Jalodbava was seen. He, however, caused darkness to come over the country, whereupon Vishnu took the Sun and Moon in his hands and thereby caused the darkness to disappear. Jalodbava was again seen and his head was cut off by Vishnu. After this Brahma, Vishnu, Shiva and Ananta went back to their respective abodes.

There is, however, another story in the shape of a traditionary legend as to the extinction of Jalodbava. After letting out of water as mentioned before, Jalodbava hid himself in a place which was a hollow having water in it. On this Kashyapa invoked the aid of Durga, who taking the form of a Miná went to the Sumira mountain and brought a portion of it

in her beak and threw it over the hollow and thereby killed Jalodbava. The present Hari Parbat near the Dal lake is said to be the place referred to above, and the hill now standing thereon is said to be the supposed portion of the Sumira brought by Durga. This hill is also called Sumira even now. The name Hari is said to have come from Shári $(Min\acute{a})$, Sha being often replaced by Ha in Kashmiri language.

Kashyapa, seeing that the place had been cleared of water, prayed to Vishnu that the place be inhabited by devas, men and Nágs. Vishnu gave the permission, whereupon Kashyapa got Brahmans from the Deccan (South) to migrate here. From this time Kashmir was called Kashyappur or Kashyapmar, and latterly Kashmir.

The name "Kashmir" also implies "land desiccated from water," from Sanskrit Ka water, Shimira to desiccate, so called because the valley of Kashmir was in the beginning, as stated above, a mountain-lake subsequently drained.

In Sanskrit Puránas, Kashmir is also called *Gerek* (hill), nestled as it is in mountains. In Chapter VIII of Avanádikosha, the meaning of the word Kashmir is given "land, ruling in which is difficult."

Kashmir has further been shortened into Kashir by the Kashmiris in their own tongue. The Tibetans call it Kha-chal (snowy mountain) and the Dards (the inhabitants of Gures. etc.) Kashrat.

The Vijaveshvara Mahátma says that at this time the country was said to have consisted of 66,063 villages commencing from Buta Shahar to Chamba. In the Kashmiri language a unit is called hundred; a hundred, thousand and so forth; and according to this the figure 66,063 would shrink down to 6,063, which looks correct. The people, however, were being oppressed by other demons. They used to live in it in summer and pursued agriculture in the fertile valley; but in winter, for fear of cold and snow and of the demons, they used to return to other parts. In one of these annual exodus, an old Brahman, named Chandardeva, who could not return to India on account of old age, stayed in Kashmir, hiding himself in a cave. He had his provisions and other necessities for winter with him. When snow began to fall, the demons came in hoards and two of them dragged Chandardeva out of the cave and took him to Nilanág spring where they tossed him about like a ball, in course of which the old man fell down into the spring and sank down to the bottom which he found to be a vast place and where he saw a king sitting on a throne in a grand palace. The Brahman approached him and complained to him of the trouble given by the demons. The king was Nilanág himself. He took pity on the old man and, calling him nearer, handed over to him a book called Nilamata Purána and advised him to give offerings to demons at certain holy places on certain days as detailed in that book, so that the people

coming to live in Kashmir would no more be troubled by the demons. At the approach of spring the Brahman was pushed out of the water upon the dry bank of the Nilanág spring. Men, who returned as usual from India, were astonished to find the old man safe and sound whom they had thought dead long ago. They heard with much amazement the wonderful experiences of the Brahman and about the book he had come in possession of. They showed his book to their Chief, named Daryádeva. Daryádeva ordered the people to act according to the instructions contained in the book, which they did, and thereby enjoyed complete immunity from the oppressions of demons and from the inclemency of cold weather, and began to live in Kashmir all the year round.

It is said that before Kaliyuga there was in Kashmir an established form of government and many great and good kings reigned in it. One of these kings was Parasráma, the extirpator of the Kshatraya race. Some say that Ráma, the hero of Rámáyana, conquered Kashmir and visited it several times. There are four springs on a hill at Báramulla which are called Ráma-kund, Sitá-kund, Lakshman-kund and Hunumán-kund. In olden times there used to be a temple of Ráma there. In the extreme west of the Naiharai Purganah at village Milyál there are four more springs of the same names, and at some distance above is a place where there is a large sculptured stone which is called the throne of Ráma. Lalitaditya, who ruled from 697 to 734 A.D., unearthed a temple at Shira-wardan on the door of which was an inscription to the effect that it had been built by Ráma and his brother Lakshman. Running from the Kájinág range to the low-lying land near the Jhelum is a long low spur where there are two cut stones of octagonal section which stand over four feet out of the ground. The inhabitants of this place have a legend that these two stones are the arrows shot by Ráma and his brother Lakshman.

In course of time the population increased and several villages were peopled. The headman of each village became nominal ruler of his village. As the time advanced more villages sprang up, and then there were more than one village under a These headmen, in order to be safe and defend headman. themselves from one another's attacks, built fortresses on elevated spots, and these were named Kots. And each Kot was under a Kot Rája. Some names of these Kots are known up to the present time, such as Indarkot, Zainakot, Shirakot, Sudrakot, Dadarkot, Butakot, etc. The chiefs of these Kots were called Sanz. For a very long period there was this form of Kotaráj government in Kashmir. Afterwards some Kota Rájas subdued others and there was constant warfare between them. The conqueror used to sack the villages of the subdued Rájas. At last some Rájas, who had lost their Kots, went to the Rája of Jammu and entreated him to come over to take Kashmir Vol. VI, No. 4.] [N.S.]

and deliver the country from anarchy that was prevailing, and promised to pay him the sixth part of the revenue for maintenance of peace and good government. The Rája of Jammu sent his own son, named Dayákarana, with a large force who defeated the insurgents and became supreme ruler of Kashmir.

PART II.-HINDU PERIOD.

CHAPTER L.

Rájatarangini, the Sanskrit history of Kashmir, written by Kalhana, is one of the oldest historical records in the world. Much interest was and is being taken by many scientists in its study. This history begins with a king named Gonanda I, and continuing the accounts of his son and successor, Dámudara, and of the latter's wife, Yashovati, who reigned as Queen Regent after her husband's death until her son. Gonanda II. attained to majority, and of Gonanda II, it says that the accounts of 35 kings of Kashmir are lost and unknown, and leaving this gap continues again. Hasan, a historian of Kashmir in Persian, however, says that Zainulábdin, who reigned in Kashmir from 1423 to 1474 A.D., got a translation of the Rájatarangini done in Persian by Mullah Ahmad who was poet-laureate of his court. For this purpose Zainulábdin made a search for Puránas and Taranginis of ancient writers. names of more than 15 different Rajataranginis were then known. but the ruthless hands of Zulchu (1323 A.D.) and Sikandar, the iconoclast (1393-1416 A.D.), had destroyed all old books of Hindus. With great efforts, however, only the Rájataranginis of Kalhana, Khimendra, Wachhulákar, and Padmamihar were obtained. Out of these, Khimendra's Rájatarangini was found replete with inaccuracies, but from other Rájataranginis the translation was completed. A few years later, some birch bark leaves of an old Rájatarangini, written by Pandit Ratnákar, called Ratnákar Purána, were, through the exertions of one Praja Pandit, obtained. From these leaves the account of 35 kings who had ruled in Kashmir in the beginning of the Kaliyuga age, whom Kalhana, owing to want of any record, had omitted from his book, was found out. This discovery gave much pleasure to all, and Zainulábdin had the facts, that were recorded in the Ratnákar Purána, inserted in his translation of the Rájatarangini.

The Ratnákar Purána is not now to be found anywhere, nor even the translation of the Rájatarangini by Mullah Ahmad, but Hasan says he has embodied the accounts of the 35 lost kings from Mullah Ahmad's translation. It is said that Hasan had obtained a copy of this translation from a Kashmiri emigrant at Ráwalpindi, but one day, when he was going in a boat in

the city of Srinagar, it so happened that his boat capsized and both he and the book were thrown into the water, he being rescued and saved but without the book. Hasan is now dead, and it is not known from which man at Ráwalpindi he had obtained the copy.

Be that as it may, the accounts given by him of these lost kings do not appear to be unfounded. There are legends current among the people which quite coincide with these accounts—legends of which there is no mention whatever in

Kalhana's Rájatarangini.

For instance, the Kashmiris say that kings belonging to the Pándava dynasty have ruled over Kashmir; and 23 of these "lost" kings do belong to the Pándava dynasty. The ruins on the Mártand plateau are popularly called Pándav-Lar or the building of the Pándavas, and the king, who according to Hasan built it, is Rámadeva, one of the descendants of Pándavas.

Dr. Stein says that it was built by Lalitáditya on the authority of verse 192 of Book IV of the Rájatarangini, but I consulted several learned Pandits in Kashmir and they are unanimous in saying that he has erroneously interpreted the text.

The text is :-

सोऽखिखितासम् प्राकारं प्रासादान्तर्थधत च। मार्तेखस्याङ्कतं दाता दाच्या स्कीतं च पतनम्॥

of which Dr. Stein gives the following translation :-

"That liberal (king) built the wonderful (shrine) of Mártanda with its massive walls of stone within a lofty enclosure (prásádántar) and its town swelling with grapes."

Mr. J. H. Marshall, the Archæological Superintendent of the Frontier Circle (Government of India), also acknowledges in a note on the Archæological work in Kashmir that Dr. Stein's

rendering is doubtful. He says-

"Now the manifest difficulty with Dr. Stein's translation is his supplying of the word for "Shrine." If the passage had occurred in a list of Lalitáditya's foundations or in any similar context where the word mandiram or some equivalent could have been drawn naturally from the preceding stanzas, its omission here would be nothing unusual and would not have constituted a difficulty. But unfortunately the stanza immediately preceding IV, 192 has nothing to do with temples, but recounts merely certain irrigation works. It is true that IV, 190 does speak of the erection of a temple, but it is at best bold to carry over the word from this stanza and supply it in 192. Again the usual meaning of the word prákára is "enclosure" or "rampart," i.e., a wall in the sense of a city wall or something of that sort, not a house or temple wall, whereas prásáda

usually means a lofty building, palace or temple. The passage, therefore, is not an easy one, and its interpretation is dis-

tinctly open to doubt."

The best Sanskrit scholars in Kashmir fully corroborate the renderings given to Mr. Marshall by Pandit Mukand Rám (who worked on the Rájatarangini for Dr. Stein), which are as follows:—

(1) And that liberal (king) built Mártanda near to the temple (*prasádántar*) of the wonderful city with its wall of massive stones and a park (*pattan*) full of vines.

(2) And that liberal (king) built the wonderful Martanda colonnade, of massive stones with the temple inside, and also

the town rich in grapes.

On these renderings Mr. Marshall makes the following observations:—

(1st rendering).—"This restores the word prákára to its more usual meaning and gives us a word for temple in prásádá. The objections to it are (a) the rendering of antar by "near," which is not authorized meaning for the word, and (b) the omission of the second connective, the cha in 'drákshásphitam cha pattanam', and these objections would appear fatal, on grammatical grounds."

But a reference to a Sanskrit Kusha, for instance the Shabda-Kalpadrum, will show that the meaning of antar is "near." "Also" has been omitted in the translation by Pandit Mukand Ram, which I have now given in italics, and this

disposes of the objection for cha.

(2nd rendering).—"This takes both the connectives into account, and assigns the usual meanings to both prákára and prásáda, but the compound prásádántar as a bahuvrihi, meaning "having a temple in the interior," is distinctly difficult and no parallels to it can be traced. Otherwise, and if this form of compound with antar can be established, there would be little or no objection to this rendering."

But the Sanskrit grammarians in Kashmir say that such bahuvrihis do often occur and that there are many parallels

to it.

It is clear from the above that there existed already a temple on the Mártanda plateau before the time of Lalitáditva.

The Kashmiris say that there was a city at the place where the Vular lake now rests, and recite a story which strikingly agrees with the accounts given in the above-mentioned history.

Nalsena in Kashmiri language is synonymous with a person of abominable character, and nobody knew why it was so. Nalsena is one of these 35 kings. He was a cruel and oppressive king and was, therefore, universally detested by his subjects.

"Lolare Bambro" is a favourite love-song among the Kashmiris but nobody knew its origin. Bambro was one of these

35 kings. He fell in love with a woman named Lolare and was so enamoured with her that he abdicated the throne in order to spend his life with his beloved.

Himál Nági-Arjuna is a popular love-story and its origin

is traced in the accounts of one of these "lost" kings.

It is not only these 35 kings that Hasan gives full accounts of, but he mentions, on the authority of the Ratnákar Purána, seven more kings later on, whose account is not to be found in Kalhana's Rájatarangini. According to him, Ranáditya's rule did not extend over 300 years as stated by Kalhana, which is, on the face of it, preposterous (see Dr. Stein's introduction to Kalhana's Chronicle, page 86), but over only 60 years and 3 months, and that six kings preceded, and one king followed him, the account of whose rule he gives in detail, but whom Kalhana has omitted. Among these 7 kings comes Vaináditya, and it is noteworthy that even up to now his name is a household word among the Kashmiris and he is remembered as to have been a most virtuous and noble king of Kashmir. There occurs in Kalhana's Rájatarangini (Book V, 97-100) a temple by the name of Vainyá-svámin about whose founder no mention is made therein anywhere, but it shows that there had been a king of the name of Vainváditva who had built it.

Hasan puts the date of accession of Gonanda I. as 20 years before Kaliyuga (3120 B.C.), while Kalhana puts it 653 after Kaliyuga (2448 B.C.) on the authority of Varáhmihira's Brahat Samhita. It is an admitted fact that Gonanda I. was a contemporary of Krishna, the hero of Mahábhárata. Srimat Bhágwat Ikádashskand says that Krishna in his last days told Udhava:

यर्द्धीवायं मया त्यक्तो लोकोऽयं नष्टमकुलः। भविष्यति चिरात्साधो कलिनाऽपि निरौच्चितः॥१॥

"When I shall depart from this world affliction will overtake it, and after sometime the Kaliyuga will also witness this, *i.e.*, after sometime the Kaliyuga will have begun." Kalhana says that the Munis (the Great Bear) were at the Maghah Nakshatra when Rája Yudhishthira, a contemporary of Krishna, was ruling the earth. In Srimat Bhágwat, Part XII, Chapter II, is written that when the Munis were at the Maghah Nakshatra, Kaliyuga commenced, and that when Krishna ascended heaven the same day did Kaliyuga begin. The Kaliyuga era is 3101 B.C.

Mr. Har Bilas Sarda, B.A., F.R.S.L., Member of the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, mentions in his Hindu Superiority," page 143-44:—

"Bradhgargh Muni holds that the Saptarishis were in the Maghah Nakshatra at the junction of the Dvápar and the Kaliyug. He says:—

काल द्वापर संधी त स्थितास्ते पित दैवतम । (मधाः) मनयोः धर्मनिरताः प्रजानां पालने रताः ॥

"According to him, therefore, Yudhishthira flourished at

the beginning of the Kaliyug.

"An inscription in a Jain temple on a hill near Yahola, Kaladaggi district, Deccan, says that the temple, built by King Pulkeshi II, of the Chalukya family, was erected 3735 vears after the Mahábhárata, and when 556 years of the Saka era had passed, thus proving that the Great War took place 3735-556 = 3179 years before the Saka era; in other words 3179 +1828 (Saka era) = 5007 years ago. The inscription runs as follows :-

> त्रिंग्रस् त्रिसच्सेष भारतादाच वादितः। सप्ताब्दघातय्क्षेष् ग्रा(ग)तेष्वब्देष् पश्चसु ॥ (३७३५) यं चाग्रत्य कली काले षट्सु पश्चग्रतासु च। (५५६) समास समतीतास प्रकानामपि भूभुजाम ॥

"Following evidently the view held by Bradhgargh Muni, the author of the Ayeen-i-Akbari says that Vikramáditya ascended the throne in the 3044th year of the Yudhishthira era. This also makes the Yudhishthira era begin 3044 + 1963 (Vikrama era) 5,007 years ago."

It is also popularly said, and even in Kalhana's time it was commonly believed, that the Bhárata war took place at the end of Dvápara Yuga (Rájatarangini, Book I, verses 48 and 49).

In the introduction to Metákshara by Bápudeva Shástri, the famous astronomer, is written that during the first century of Kaliyuga, Parikshit was born. Parikshit was grandson of Arjuna, the brother of Yudhishthira. also recorded in the same introduction that at the beginning of the reign of Janmejaya, only 125 years of Kaliyuga had elapsed. Janmejaya was the great-grandson of Arjuna. Tárá Nátha Tarkaváchaspati, late Principal of Free Sanskrit College, Calcutta, and the well-known author of Brahatabhidhán and other books in Sanskrit, has also, after making researches. written in his introduction to Sarala, the commentary of Sidhántakaumadi, that Parikshit was born when only 80 years of Kaliyuga had elapsed.

An important confirmation of this hypothesis is added from the following: About 1,300 years ago, when the great work on astronomy, namely, Khandakhádi, was written by Brahmagupta in which its author gives authority of Arya Bat, the famous astronomer of ancient times. This book is

considered a greater authority on astronomy than Varáhamihira's Samhita, and in it occurs the following Sloka:—

युधिष्ठिरोविक्रमण्णाल बाह्नौ नराधिनाथो विजयाभिनन्दनः। ततोऽनुनामार्जुन मेदिनौपति वेलिः क्रमात् षट्णककारकाःक्रजो ॥ १ ॥ युधिष्ठरादेदयुगाम्बरामयः करम्बविश्वाऽभ्रखखाऽस्मृमयः। यञ्चायृतं लद्यचतुरुयं क्रमा-द्धरादृगस्यविति श्वाकवत्सराः॥ १ ॥

The total period of the Kaliyuga age is 4,32,000 years, and according to Khandakhádi it is divided into the following six eras:—

Yudhishthira		 3,044
Vikramáditya		 135
Sháliváhana	, ,	 18,000
Vijayávinandana		 10,000
Nági Arjuna		 4,00,000
Balidánava		 821

It is evident that down to Vikramáditya's time 3,044 years of Kaliyuga, after Yudhishthira's accession, had passed. Vikramáditya's era is now 1967, and if we add these together they amount to 5011, which exactly is now the Kaliyuga era. It therefore shows that Yudhishthira was ruling in the beginning of Kaliyuga.

Nirnai-Sindhu, another book of authority on astronomy,

contains the following stanza:

वर्षसङ्खितयं धतमेकं सप्ततिनैवाग्रा च। ध्रककालयातमिश्रं कलेगैतं धर्मपुत्रात् ॥१॥

It states that to find out how much period passed since Kaliyuga began and Yudhishthira lived, 3179 should be added to the Saka era. The Saka at present being 1832, it comes to 5011 years.

Professor Dunker also says (History of Antiquity, vol. iv, page 219):—"The era of Yudhishthira is said to have preceded that of Vikramátditya by the space of 3044 years, and to

have commenced about 3100 B.C."

On the other hand, Kalhana's chronology has been proved at length to be inaccurate by Dr. M. A. Stein in the introduction to his English translation of the Rajatarangini (Chapter IV, Sections II and III).

So Hasan's date does not seem to be incorrect and all that he has written seems to be based on good authority.

CHAPTER II.

GONANDA I-3120-3103 B.C.

Gonanda became king of Kashmir in 3120 B.C. He was one of the relations of Jarásandha, king of Magadha. He was a good and just king. When Jarásandha was at war with Krishna, on the bank of the river Jamuna, Gonanda's army fought bravely for some time, but was at last routed and he himself was killed by Balabhadra, brother of Krishna. Gonanda I. reigned for 17 years.

DAMODARA I-3103-3090 B.C.

After Gonanda's death his son. Dámodara, sat on the throne in 3103 B.C. He was always brooding over his father's death. In those days Svayamvara or "maiden's own choice" of the daughter of the king of Kandahár (Gándhára) was proclaimed at the banks of the Indus. Dámodara heard the Yádavas had also been invited on the occasion, and he, therefore, left to meet them and fight with them in order to avenge his father's death. He fought but was killed by Krishna. His wife, Yashovati, who was pregnant, was, by order of Krishna, made queen regent of Kashmir. Dámodara's reign extended over a period of 13 years.

3. YASHOVATI-3090-3075 B.C.

Ráni Yashovati was declared queen of Kashmir in 3090 B.C. As she was pregnant she gave birth to a son whom she named Gonanda II. She reigned for 15 years.

GONANDA II-3075-3035 B.C.

Gonanda II., when yet a boy, was, by council of the ministers, crowned as king of Kashmir in 3075 B.C. About this time the great war of Mahábhárata occurred, and as Gonanda II. was a young prince he was not invited to assist by either the Kauravas or Pándavas. He was caused to be slain by Harnadeva, his Prime Minister, having reigned for 40 years.

CHAPTER III. — PANDAVA DYNASTY.

HARNADEVA--3035-3005 B.C. 5.

Harnadeva, the second son of Parikshit, grandson of Arjuna. the third brother of Pándavas, vainly contended with his brother.

Janmejava, for some time for the kingdom of Hastinapura or modern Delhi. When he could not withstand his brother. Harnadeva fled with a company of his men towards the hills of Chamba. Here he found an ascetic practising austere penances in a cave. Harnadeva, who had just been defeated by his brother and was, therefore, much disappointed, went to the hermit and remained as an attendant on him. One day the holv man was pleased with him and delighted him by foretelling that he was to become king of Kashmir. Harnadeva, trusting on the holy man's words, proceeded with his men to Kashmir, travelling over the mountains in the east of the valley, and got service in the army of Gonanda II. who was then the king of Kashmir. By dint of his abilities, he gradually rose to the office of Prime Minister. He pleased the commandants of the army and the other ministers by his liberality, but, blinded with selfishness, became unfaithful to his master. On finding an opportunity, he caused king Gonanda II. to be slain by his men, and then, supported by the courtiers, usurped the throne. By his generous disposition, he won the hearts of all and was renowned for justice. He had firm control over all parts of the country, and the peace that prevailed gave the country time to grow prosperous. The treasury was full, and Harnadeva maintained a large and strong army. He reigned for 30 years and then died.

6. RAMADEVA-3005-2936 B.C.

His son, Rámadeva, sat on the throne in 3005 B.C. He did much to maintain order and good government. Out of generosity he fixed only the tenth part of the produce of land as his share. He founded a large city, called Bábul, on the plateau of Mattan which comprised eleven lakhs of houses, and built there the temple of Mártandeshvara (the ruins of which are now to be seen) with large ornamented and beautifully carved stones, erecting it to a height of over 50 yards. The stones hewn superfine and the joints made imperceptible, the whole building looking as if one solid block. Some stones of this temple are three to eight yards in length and one yard in thickness and one to five yards in width, and it is surprising how they have been brought here and piled up. He enclosed the compound of the temple with a wall, having on all its four sides beautiful niches and a row of one hundred and ninety couples of octagonal pillars. A stream was excavated from the mountain of Khávurpura and brought for this city. He conquered the Punjáb, Kábul and Multán, and then advanced to Márwár; took the latter country from the possession of Kachwahs and filled his harem with the daughters of Kachwah Chiefs. After this he marched to Lucknow, conquered it and ceded it to his nephew. From that place he brought a large amount of spoil and then went to Kanauj where, after staying for two years, marched his army to Malwah and took it. Manv cities were founded by him. He married the daughter of Shiva Rái, ruler of Gándhára (Kandahár), and passed two years in that country. He then proceeded towards the Shwalik mountains and made the Chief of those places give him tribute. fought a battle with the ruler of Kumaon and subdued him. but eventually having married his daughter gave the country back Then he marched to Nagarkot, a mountain fortress between the sources of the Rávi (Hydraotes) and the Byás (Hyphasis), and, after capturing it, went to Hankot, and thence proceeded to make pilgrimage of the goddess Durga. The ruler of that place made allegiance and gave him presents. He married the daughter of the Chief of Nagarkot to his son. Thence he marched to Jammu, the ruler of which place did not at first submit and rose to oppose him, but was at last defeated by He made many people slaves and with much wealth returned to Kashmir. After staying in Kashmir for two years he again went to India and travelled from Multán to Bengál along the shores of the Indian Ocean and made en route about 500 chieftains give him tribute. He then returned viâ Kanaui and came to Kashmir with a large amount of wealth. Here a large public assembly was held by him in which gifts were given to brave men and the third part of his booty was distributed among the people. During his lifetime he gave away three lakhs of cows in charity and used to take much care of religious men. Two ascetics, one named Háru and the other Máru, who had come from Silhet, used to accompany him wherever he was leading his army for invasion. They had power to make themselves invisible when sitting in company of people and then visible at their will, and would not eat or sleep for days together.

Rámadeva reigned for 69 years, and then, giving over the kingdom to his son, clothed himself in a stag fur and sat with spiritual leaders (Háru and Máru) in the temple of Partheshvara on the Bhawan spring for ten years and then disappeared with them, leaving no trace of himself behind.

VYASDEVA - 2936-2880 B.C.

Vyásdeva assumed the reins of government in 2936 B.C. He was, like his father, a just and generous ruler. He invited learned men from India; promoted the learning; established the schools; and was always intent on promoting the welfare of the soldier and the ryot. The reservoir, which his father had brought through the city of Bábul, was stopping in winter owing to water being frozen, therefore the king, for the benefit of the people, constructed within the city a large and deep tank of pucca masonry with stone steps on all its sides.

He went to India in the attire of a fakir to make pilgrimages

of holy places, and spent lakhs. At that time, king Jaswant of Márwár had proclaimed svayamvara (maiden's own choice) of his daughter named Kálabhawáni. Vyásdeva went alone at this ceremony. The bride saw him from afar and chose him as her husband. He married her and returned to Kashmir with much wealth. He brought one thousand gold and silver images of Shiva and 99,000 Sáligrams (emblems of Vishnu) and placed them in the temple of Mártándeshvara and other places of worship. His reign extended over 56 years.

8. Druna-2880-2822 B.C.

After his father's death, Druna ascended the throne. He used to dress himself like a fakir and sit at the door of his father's temple, where he was from morning to evening attending to public affairs. He was so good and merciful that he would not fine a guilty person more than a couple of pice. In order to overawe the oppressors, however, he had erected a plough press near himself, but throughout his lifetime he pressed to death only one man; and thenceforward none dared molest anybody. He was a strict vegetarian but was not devoting his time to worshipping, saying that administering justice was more virtuous than worshipping. Theft and crime were unknown in his time, and the people were in the enjoyment of tranquillity and peace. His wife, Márgidevi, built the temple of Márgeshvara at the village of Kuther. He died after reigning for 58 years.

9. SIMHADEVA—2822-2768 B.C.

Simhadeva succeeded his father in 2822 B.C. He was a good and generous ruler. He spent his whole life in worshipping; never touched flesh meat; founded many villages and built many temples. The village Simhpur was founded by him. The population increased so much that people went to live in hills and high lands. His cousin, named Vishága, fell in love with the daughter of a farmer and forcibly took hold of the girl. The just king, on hearing this, summoned this wicked relative in his presence and put him to death. Vishága's mother, not bearing the sorrow of her son's death, burned herself alive on his funeral pile. By this horrible event the gentle heart of the good king was greatly affected, so much so that he died of grief in only four days after this occurrence. He ruled for 54 years.

10. Gopáldeva—2768-2755 B.C.

Gopáldeva succeeded his father in 2768 B.C. He suffered from a painful disease, which weakened both his mind and body, and could not, therefore, take the duties and responsibilities of a ruler upon himself. He entrusted manage-

ment of public affairs to his minister, named Shashopál, this time the Chief of Khuttan declared war with the Chief of Káshgar who was brother-in-law of Gopáldeva. Káshgar was killed in the battle and the possession of his country was taken by the conqueror. Thereupon Shashopál went with a large army to avenge the death of his master's relation and was met by the enemy's army near a mountain called Tong. Shashopál's troops were at the foot of the mountain and were destroyed by stones rolled down by the enemy from above. On hearing this news, Gopáldeva, who was already infirm-bodied. became broken-hearted and shortly died of liver disease. period of reign was 13 years and three months.

VIJAYANANDA—2755-2730 B.C.

Vijayananda, younger brother of Gopáldeva, now became king. He, after putting the government in order, went personally at the head of 50,000 cavalry and 100,000 infantry towards Káshgar and fought a decisive battle with the Chief of Khuttan. defeated him and took possession of Káshgar and Khuttan. Peace was afterwards concluded, the Chief of Khuttan giving him his daughter named Sumran Ráni in marriage, and then Vijavananda restored Khuttan to him and returned to Kashmir. He maintained peace on frontiers and managed the affairs of the country with justice. He built a grand temple of Vijaveshvara at Bijbihára, in which he had placed a cow suspending by magic power or talism. Ten lakhs of gold mohars were spent on the construction of this temple. He reigned for 25 years.

12. SUKHADEVA—2730-2686 B.C.

Sukhadeva, son of Gopáldeva, succeeded in 2730 B.C. Being a pleasure-loving king he was always busy in sports and merriments, having entrusted management of public affairs to Ráma Nanda, son of Vijayananda. As a consequence, slackness occurred in the administration, and, by it, weakness of The territories belonging to the kingdom in the Punjáb were seized by Chitrath, king of Delhi, and the Province of Turkistán was also lost. The treasury, and with it the army decreased. Ráma Nanda also got disloyal and rebellious and caught Sukhadeva while hunting in the mountains of Amarnáth and drowned him in the Liddar river; and then declared himself king of Kashmir. Sukhadeva's rule extended over 44 vears.

13. Rāma Nanda—2686-2629 B.C.

Ráma Nanda sat on the throne in 2686 B.C. the frontiers under control; subjugated the ruler of Jammu: and invaded Nagarkot. The peasant had to give one-fifth of the produce as government share. He put to death several rebellious men and established his power all over the kingdom. The people were happy under his firm rule, which lasted for 57 years.

14. Sandimán-2629-2564 B.C.

His son, Sandimán, succeeded in 2629 B.C. He was renowned for justice. He founded a big city at the place which now forms the bed of the Vular Lake, calling it after his own name Sandimatnagar, which is even to the present time popularly known by the name of Salábatnagar. The river Jhelum was flowing through this city, and he built many grand houses on its banks. He constructed 21 temples of stone, out of which the temple of Mahádeva was exquisitely fine and imposing, and placed in it 300 gold and silver images of Mahádeva, out of which two images were set with jewels. The temple of Zeshteshvara on the Sulimán hill, which is yet extant, was originally built by him. Sulimán hill, or Takht-i-Sulimán as it is popularly called, must be, from the fact that Sandimán built the temple on it, a corruption of Sandimán hill.

He marched with a large army to India; invaded countries as far as Kanauj; and after visiting many shrines and notable places returned, going to Kábul and Kandahár. The king of Kandahár solicited to be accepted under his suzerainty and gave his daughter, Pártidevi, in marriage to him. He then returned from there, but, while crossing the river Attock, his boat capsized and Pártidevi was drowned. The king became much afflicted at her loss, but the ruler of Kandahár sent his second daughter to him and thus beguiled his sorrow. Sandimán ruled for 65 years.

15 & 16. MARHANDEVA & KAMANDEVA—2564-2509 B.C.

After his father's death in 2564 B.C., Marhandeva came to the throne and made his younger brother, Kámandeva, his minister. After some time the two brothers grew hostile to each other and eventually were at war. The nobles of the kingdom then interposed and divided the country between them, giving the South-Eastern half to Marhandeva and North-Eastern to Kámandeva. Marhandeva founded the village Marháma and built a big temple there. He was a just and generous ruler and his subjects were happy under him. Kámandeva made Sandimatnagar his capital. He was a tyrant and the people were hard pressed. He exiled many people who took refuge in the tracts governed in peace by Marhandeva. During that time a large comet appeared in the sky which was shining very bright at night. In the same year rain fell heavily and a huge snake appeared at Chakdar which, however, died in a couple of days, but his carcase did not go till one year. From

[N.S.]

that time the tract owned by Marhandeva was called Marhan Ráj, and that by Kámandeva, Káman Ráj, and in course of time these names were shortened into Maráj and Kámráj, by which names they are at present known. Marhandeva ruled for 55 years.

CHANDARDEVA-2509-2457 B.C.

Chandardeva, who succeeded his father in 2509 B.C., planned a conspiracy for entrapping Kámandeva and was successful in it. He slew Kámandeva and put his son, Vargadeva, in prison. Having eased himself from fear of enemies, he fell in debauchery and indolence and in consequence anarchy ensued. He filled his harem with 360 wives and was with one each day of the (lunar) year by turn. His reign extended over 52 years.

Ananda—2457-2429 B.C. 18.

Ananda, brother of Chandardeva, succeeded to the throne in 2457 B.C. Being a cruel king he would hang men even for trivial offences. He died after ruling for 28 years.

19. Drupadadeva—2429-2378 B.C.

Ananda's son, Drupadadeva, ascended the throne. Unlike his father, he was generous and cherisher of his subjects. He built a temple of Jwálámukhi at the village of Shár. So strong was he that one day he saw a stone on the way which was over 100 maunds in weight, and he pushed it to one side by his left His brother, Harnámdeva, rebelled against him and there was war between them, in which Drupadadeva received an arrow in his eye and was killed. His rule extended over 51 years.

HARNÁMDEVA-2378-2329 B.C.

Harnámdeva, triumphant from the battle, seized the throne, but soon plunged into the whirl of luxury and indolence. He was so fond of liquors that he planted vineyards in many places and started distilleries, inducing every person. whether great or low, to drink. In his own palace compound he had a pond filled, out of which the liquor was profusely distributed and drunk. While under the influence of intoxication he was sitting to administer justice and was, as might be expected. awarding most severe punishments. He was taking away by force women of the people. At last his Commander-in-Chief. named Durga, revolted and declared war against him. After much blood-shed, Durga won the field and burned the palace and a part of the city of Bábul. Thereupon the people of the city united together and fell upon Durga's army which they defeated and also killed Durga. Thus saved by his people. Harnámdeva gave manifestation to his gratitude by remitting two years' revenue of the whole country. After some time Durga's son, named Rangu, in order to avenge his father's death, went with some of his companions and caught the king while hunting in a jungle and killed him. Harnámdeva's period of reign was 39 years.

21. SULKANDEVA-2329-2311 B.C.

After his father's death Sulkandeva sat on the throne. He was a pleasure-loving king but was administering justice impartially. Saturday he had allotted for public affairs and the rest of the week he used to spend in nothing but luxury. His rule extended over 28 years.

22. SINÁDITYA-2311-2294 B.C.

Sináditya succeeded his father in 2311 B.C. He was a foolish and a snappish king. One day he was looking his face in a mirror and his wife was unfortunately resting her head on his shoulder and her face reflected in the mirror. On this the king upbraided her, saying that she might be having intimacy with the person in the mirror, and cut off her nose there and then. It is said he ordered his minister to get for him a virgin of paradise. The minister, fearing that he would lose his life if he did not satisfy his master's wish, brought him a pretty girl, nicely dressed and wearing ornaments, and told him that she was the daughter of the lord of paradise, but ten million dinárs were asked for her. The foolish king at once gave the money to the minister and took the girl. The minister was the de factoruler, the king being ruler only in name. Sináditya was killed by his brother after 17 years of his accession to the throne.

23. MANGALÁDITYA-2294-2255 B.C.

Sinaditya was assassinated in his bed-chamber by his brother, Mangaladitya, and then the latter was, by the help of the nobles of the kingdom, installed as king of Kashmir. Mangaladitya also proved himself a bad ruler. He encouraged plantation of vineyards and had stills started in every house in the country. He was addicted to merry-makings and also encouraged gambling in the country. In his time a mist appeared in the atmosphere, by inhaling which many people died. His reign lasted 39 years.

24. KHIMENDRA-2355-2189 B.C.

Khimendra succeeded his father in 2255 B.C. He, after making his control stronger over the frontiers, also became luxurious and fond of hunting. It is said he had learnt an incantation and by its power used to enter the houses of the

people undetected and used to violate their women. One day he entered the house of his minister, Druna, and outraged his wife. There he forgetfully dropped his ring, which was afterward found by the minister. The latter recognized it to be the king's and was consequently much enraged, and at night caused the king to be slain by his own servants. The king ruled for 66 years.

25. BHIMSENA—2189-2128 B.C.

Khimendra's son, Bhimsena, was then proclaimed king of Kashmir. He was a wild, reckless prince and a drunkard. He enhanced the taxes in the country and introduced many oppressive measures. He built the temple of Koteshvara on the bank of the Jhelum and founded the village Simpur. As the Chief of Khuttan had previously invaded Káshgar, Bhimsena sent his troops to reconquer that country, but when the troops were crossing the Kurákoram mountains, they were overtaken by a snow-storm in which they all perished and not even one soul survived. During that time a magician, named Turjan, came in Kashmir from India, who used by his magic power to make people sick and then was coming before the same persons as physician and after taking money from them was curing them. One day he made the Ráni of the king sick by his magic power and took from the king one thousand ashrafis and then cured her. He had a pupil who disclosed his mysterv. The king got to know of this, and he at last hanged that magician. It is said that the magician appeared like a swine on the gallows. The king ruled for 61 years and 7 months and then died.

26. Indrasena—2128–2082 B.C.

Bhimsena's son, Indrasena, now sat on the throne. He also encouraged gambling and drinking. In his time the people were so far demoralized that the name of God was forgotten and the most heinous acts were perpetrated by them. The king was always busy with revelries, and the public affairs were managed by his minister, Surendra. But the king after some time got dissatisfied with his minister and dismissed him. The minister became desperate and turbulent, raised an army of his own and defeated the king in a battle, but in the meantime the minister accidentally tumbled down his horse and was caught by the soldiers of the king. The king, who was very much incensed against him, had his skin taken off his body and thus tortured him to death.

The Chief of Nagarkot also displayed a refractory spirit, and Indrasena sent a force to reduce him to obedience. The Chief of Nagarkot resisted but was killed in the battle.

Indrasena ruled for 46 years.

27. SUNDARSENA-2082-2041 B.C.

Indrasena's son, Sundarsena, sat on the throne in 2082 B.C. He indulged in debauchery, and the people also were demoralized to the highest degree. From the time of Harnámdeva. each successive ruler was a debauchee. The people had become addicted to lying, drinking, and gambling. They had no moral sense and were behaving like brutes. Then appeared a hermit, a potter by profession, whose name was Nanda Gupta. preached to the people inhabiting the city of Sandimatnagar, exhorting them against sinful deeds, but nobody would listen to him; on the contrary, he was ridiculed and molested. potter then took refuge on a hill which is now called Králasangar or potter's hill. One night a destructive earthquake occurred by which the earth in the middle of the city was rift and water gushed out in a flood and soon submerged the whole city. By the same earthquake a knoll of the hill at Báramulla near Khádanvar tumbled down, which choked the outlet of the river Jhelum and, consequently, the water rose high at once and drowned the whole city together with its king and the inhabi-This submerged city forms the bed of the Vular Lake.

Sundersena reigned for 41 years; and with him ended the Pándava dynasty, 23 descendants of which ruled for nearly one thousand years in Kashmir. After this there was no king in Kashmir for an interval of two months. Those who had survived the deluge by taking shelter on high places on the foot of the adjacent hills, came together and elected Lava, who was a relative of the ruler of Málwah and was a Jagir holder at Loláb, as

king of Kashmir.

The foregoing 23 kings of Pándava dynasty are among the 35 so-called lost kings of Kashmir. Kalhana says that after Gonanda II. to the time when Lava ascended the throne these 35 kings have ruled, but according to Hasan, on the authority of Ratnákar, it is not so. After Sundersena, the 23rd of these kings, Lava has come to the throne, and then after the successive reigns of 7 kings, the last of whom was Sachinara, the remaining twelve kings out of these 35 ruled over the land.

CHAPTER IV.

28. Lava—2041-1981 B.C.

Lava was crowned king of Kashmir by the burgesses of the country in 2041 B.C. He was a powerful ruler and held the frontiers quiet and free from foreign aggression. He founded a large city, named Lolau, in the Loláb valley, which contained eighty-four lakhs of houses according to Kalhana, but eighty thousand according to Ratnákar. He bestowed on the Bráhmans the village Levara now called Levar, on the Inddar river. He reigned for 60 years.

29. Kusha—1981-1794 B.C.

Lava's son, Kusha, succeeded in 1981 B.C. He granted the village Karuhara now known by the name of Kolar to the Brahmans, and ruled for 7 years.

30. KHAGENDRA—1974-1944 B.C.

Kusha's son, Khagendra, succeeded in 1944 B.C. He founded Khági and Khonamusha, now called Kákapur and Khunmuh respectively, and died after reigning for 30 years.

SURENDRA-1944-1901 B.C. 31.

Surendra succeeded his father, Khagendra, in 1944 B.C. He founded a town in the Dravad country calling it Soraka, and a village named Narendrabhavana. In his own kingdom he founded the village Saurasa which is now called Shurat in Deosar.

He ruled for 43 years and died issueless.

32. GUDHARA—1901-1864 B.C.

Gudhara, who belonged to a different dynasty, now took Being a noble-minded and pious king he bestowed on the Brahmans the villages Godhara and Hastishala, now known by the names of Godar and Hastihel, in Deosar.

His reign lasted 37 years.

SUVARNA-1864-1829 B.C. 33.

Suvarna succeeded his father in 1864 B.C. He brought to Krala now called Ardavani or Advin the canal called Suvarnamani (Sunamani-kul) for its irrigation. This canal flows even to this time along the east of Zainapur plateau. Suvarna was a good and benevolent king and reigned for 35 years.

34. JANAKA-1829-1797 B.C.

Janaka succeeded his father in 1829 B.C. and was, like his father, a good king. He founded two villages, called Jalora (Zalur) in Zainagir and Vihu, and ruled for 32 years.

SACHINARA—1797-1757 B.C.

Sachinara, son of Janaka, succeeded in 1797 B.C. He was a strong king and of forgiving disposition. He founded the village Shamangasa (Shángas in Kuthár) and the village Shánara (Shár in Vihu). His rule extended over 40 years.

After Sachinara come successively the remaining twelve

of the 35 so-called lost kings, the first of whom is Galgendra and the last, Bhagwant.

CHAPTER V.

36. GALGENDRA-1757-1712 B.C.

Galgendra, nephew of Sachinara, succeeded. He was reputed for justice. He framed a code of laws and brought it into force. In Maráj he founded on a plateau a large city named Naunagar, which is said to have contained 13,00,000 houses, and brought from the river Rambiára a stream through the city. He built many temples in this city and reigned for 45 years.

37. BALADEVA-1712-1669 B.C.

Baladeva who succeeded his father in 1712 B.C. was a good and generous king. He founded the village Balapur Suparsuman. It is said that Bhigham, who was then king of Ujain or modern Delhi, sent a large army to invade Kashmir, which was totally routed by Baladeva. Baladeva had a daughter named Himál, and a man, named Nági Arjuna, fell in love with her. At last they were married, but soon after they became separated and suffered long the pangs of separation.

Himál and Nági Arjuna is still a popular love story in

Kashmir.

Baladeva reigned for 43 years.

38. NALSENA-1669-1644 B.C.

Nalsena succeeded his father in 1669 B.C. He was a very tyrannical and cruel king. It is said that during the period of his rule this butcherly king put one lakh of people to death. This king was execrated and loathed throughout the country. Even to the present time, this name is remembered with abhorrence, and the word Nalsen has become synonymous with a man of abominable character. At last this terrible rule was cut short by the palace catching fire and Nalsena with all his family including three sons being burnt in the conflagration. His dreadful rule extended over 25 years.

39. GOKARNA-1644-1608 B.C.

Nalsena left no heir to the throne, they having all perished in the fire, and then the nobles of the kingdom elected Gukarna, who was from the family of the Jammu Rájas, and installed him as the king of Kashmir. This king was popular, being just and good-natured. He went to visit pilgrimages and shrines in India, and the king of Kanauj sent an army to oppose him, but eventually made peace with him. He visited many holy

places and gave lakhs of rupees in alms, and after three years returned to Kashmir. He built a grand temple of Sharkadevi at the foot of the Pradyumna-pitha, and the village Brand (Bren in Phák) was given as grant for the maintenance of this temple.

Gokarna ruled for 36 years.

Prahlad - 1608-1597 B.C.

His son, Prahlad, ascended the throne in 1608 B.C. built the temple of Priteshvara on the Shirakut hill in Khuihama. formerly called Bu Sangri and now Bába Shukruddin hill. He became a disciple of a saint, named Druna, whose teachings produced such an effect on his mind that he retired from the world and became a Sanvási, giving the kingdom to his minister Bambru. He ruled for 11 years.

41. BAMBRU-1597-1589 B.C.

Bambru sat on the throne in 1597 B.C. He was a sagacious and benevolent ruler and everybody was pleased with his rule. But he shortly fell in love with his maternal cousin's wife. named Lolare, and used to cry out "Lo, Lo, Lo" day and night. Meanwhile Lolare also fell in love with him, but she was put under restraint by her people. Bambru died, and at the same time Lolare also breathed her last. Lolare Bambru is even to the present time a popular love song. Bambru ruled for 8 years.

42 Pratápashila—1589-1553 B.C.

Pratápashila, who was from the descendents of Galgendra, was after Bambru had abdicated the throne and become mad. elected by the nobles of the kingdom and crowned king of Kashmir. He ruled with justice. He founded the city at the foot of the hill in Vular, calling it after his own name Pratapa-Nagar. and built the temple of Pratábeshvara at Bhawan. It is said that a woman fell in love with him who eloped with him and never re-appeared. He reigned for 36 years.

SANGRÁM CHANDRA—1553-1552 B.C.

Pratápashila's son, Sangrám Chandra, succeeded him in 1553 B.C. He founded a village in Pattan, calling it after his own name Sangrámpura. His reign was good, but lasted only one year and 4 months, after which he died.

Lárik Chandra—1552-1521 B.C.

Lárik Chandra, brother of Pratápashila, now took the throne. He established order and good government. He built a large city at the foot of the Vatargang hill, calling it after his own name Lárik-nagar (Lár), and brought a stream through it from the adjacent hill. The city was so dense and the houses were so contiguous that it is said that a kid got over the roof of a house at its eastern extremity, which went along from roof to roof and only descended at its western extremity. The stream Larkul which runs through the village Lár was excavated by him. He reigned for 31 years.

45. BIRAM CHANDRA-1521-1476 B.C.

His son, Biram Chandra, succeeded after his death in 1521 B.C. He was a good and pious king, being occupied day and night in worshipping. It is said that he used to bathe every morning at one hundred pilgrimages and worship at one hundred shrines. Whatever money came as revenue during the day he used to distribute among poor people at evening and nothing was kept by for next day. One evening, after he had distributed the day's income, a Brahman came and asked for alms. "Excuse this time," the king said, "come to-morrow and I will give you as much as you want." "It may be that Your Majesty dies during this night," the Brahman replied, "then who will supply my want?" On hearing this, the great charitable king gave himself up to the Brahman, telling the latter to sell him in the Bazar and get the money he could procure The Brahman took him to the bazar where a merchant, recognizing the king, bought him for one thousand ashrafis. The king passed the night in the merchant's house, and the following morning, making himself known to him, offered one thousand ashrafis he had paid to the Brahman for him. "I have bought a king," he said humorously, "and shall I give him up without making any profit over the bargain?" The king offered ten thousand ashrafis, but the merchant refused it, saying that he would not part with him even for ten lakhs of ashrafis. "What ransom then do you want!" asked the king. "I want that Your Majesty will henceforth take the evening meal in my house all your life through," said this liberal-minded merchant, who wanted thus to make a name for himself, "then I have no claim whatever upon Your Majesty." The king consented to this, and thenceforth dined every evening in the merchant's house.

Under Biram Chandra's rule the country was most prosperous. He reigned for 45 years.

46. BABIGHANA-1476-1459 B.C.

After Biram Chandra's death in 1476 B.C. his son, Babighana, was acclaimed as king. He was not endowed with much intellect, but his wife Chakra Ráni was a very wise woman and

she maintained order in the kingdom, and directed public affairs with cleverness and sagacity. It is said that she used to make round in the city at night in disguise, in order to find out that nothing marred the peace in the land. One dark night, while on her usual night tour, she overheard an ascetic in a hut talking to his wife. The wife told him, "Chakra Ráni is a brave and wise woman and it is surprising that she goes about alone at night in disguise like a man. Had this wife been the husband and her husband the wife, she could work miracles." ascetic replied. "May it be so." At the same time Chakra Ráni found in herself muscular power and she came to the ascetic, beseeching him that what he had just spoken should not happen. But the ascetic said that it could not be changed. She then returned to the palace and found her effeminite husband become more weak. Chakra Ráni told him all what the ascetic had said, and then the king was seized with intense grief and kept himself in seclusion for one month, after which he committed suicide by taking poison. Chakra Ráni then clad herself like a mendicant and spent her life with the ascetic by whose word all that misfortune had come about. Babighana's rule lasted 17 years.

47. BHAGWANT-1459-1445 B.C.

Bhagwant, brother of Babighana, was at the instance of Chakra Ráni, raised to the throne. His administration was good. He built three temples and died after reigning for 14 years.

With Bhagwant ends the history of the remaining twelve out of the 35 so-called lost kings of Kashmir.

18. A Passage in the Turki Text of the Babarnamah. By H. Beveridge.

In the two published texts of Bābar's Memoirs in the original Turki there is a long passage at the end of the year 908 A.H., 1502-03 A.D., which completes the story of Babar's flight from Akhsi and his final deliverance. The passage does not occur in the Elphinstone MS. of the Turki, nor in any of the Persian translations. All the Persian MSS, end with Bābar's being in a garden, and in imminent danger of being captured. The last words are part of a melancholy Persian verse quoted by Babar. The two Turki texts take up the narrative at this place and describe Bābar's deliverance, and his rejoining his maternal uncles at Andijan. A consideration of the passage seems to me to prove that the passage is an interpolation, and that in all probability it was added by some one many years after Bābar's death. Possibly it is one of the four passages which his great-grandson Jahangir added to the text (see Tūzuk, 2nd year, p. 52 of S. Ahmad's edition). reasons for disbelieving the authenticity of the passage are as

Firstly.—It is a very suspicious circumstance that the passage does not occur in the Elphinstone MS. of the Turki, nor in any of the numerous MSS. of the Persian translation of the Memoirs. If the Alwar MS, is to be believed, the Persian translation existed in the time of Humāyūn, and at all events it existed in the time of Akbar. It is commonly said that the translation was made for Akbar by the Khān-Khānān 'Abdu-r-Rahim. He must have had access to good Turki MSS. —We know that there was one in Babar's own handwriting in the Imperial Library as late as the time of Shah Jahan, see Pādshahnāmah, I, 42 and II, 703—and it is impossible to suppose that he would pass over so important and even thrilling a passage. It occurs, so far as is yet known, in two Turki MSS., namely, Kehr's MS. on which Ilminsky founded his edition, and the Haidarabad MS. in Sir Sālār Jang's library. The age of neither of these MSS, is known, but they do not seem to be more than one hundred and fifty or two hundred years old, and so are later than the Elphinstone. The Kehr MS., at all events, cannot be older than Jehangir's time, for it contains fragments translated from Abul-l-Fazl's Akbarnāma. If the passage had occurred in any early Turki MS. it would surely have been referred to in Ferishta's long account of Babar's reign. He makes copious use of the Memoirs, and speaks of them as being written in Turkī. He also (see the Newal Kishore's lithograph of Ferishta, p. 196) gives a translation of Bābar's comparison of his taking of Samarkand with Sultan Ḥusain's taking of Herat, which is certainly not in verbal agreement with 'Abdu-r-Raḥīm's translation, and seems to be an independent version. Ferishta was born at Astrabad on the shores of the Caspian, presumably therefore Turkī was almost, if not quite, his mother-tongue.

Secondly.—The story told in the passage in question implies the occurrence of the miraculous, and it is a generally accepted axiom that miracles do not occur. Not only does a certain Khwajah Y'aqub appear to Babar in a dream and announce to him, on the authority of his grandfather, his speedy deliverance, and his future greatness, but Khwājah 'Ubaid Ullah Ahrar himself appears in a dream to one of his servants at Andijan, and also apparently to his uncles, and announces that Babar is at Karman or Karnan. The servants Bābā Pargarī and Qutlūq Muḥammad Barlās are persons not mentioned elsewhere in Babar's Memoirs, for it seems very doubtful if Qutluq the Barlas is the same person as the Khwājah Qutluq Kokaltāsh mentioned as being at Samarkand in 906. Khwājah Y'āqūb also, the alleged son of Khwājah Yahīa, and grandson of Khwājah 'Ubaid Ullah, is, as far as I know, an otherwise unknown person. Khwajah Yahia and his two sons Zechariah and Baqi were killed by the Uzbegs some two years before, and though Yahia had a third son who survived him, his name was not Y'aqub.3 It also seems to me very improbable that if the story of Babar's dream were true, Khwand Amir should not have mentioned it. He probably never saw Bābar's Memoirs, but he heard of, and has reported, the dream which Babar had before taking Samarkand. If the dream in the garden at Karnan really occurred, he would surely have heard of it from Shaikh Zain or others, and if so, he would probably have reported it, as it was much more important and more intelligible than the Samarkand one.

Thirdly.—The story told in the passage seems to me to

¹ Mohl, J. des Savants, 1840, 221, thinks he must have used the translation, but he gives no reasons for this view.

² Karnan is not marked on the maps but must be near Ghiva and to the north of Akhai.

³ According to the Khazīna Aṣfiyā I, 594, Yaḥīa and his two sons Zechariah and Bāqī were killed at the village of Kasrāb in the Tāsh kend district on 11 Muḥarram 906, 7 August 1500. The third son was Khwājah Muḥammad Amīn. See also the Rashahāt-i-'ain adhayāt of Fakhru-d-dīn 'Ali the son of Ḥusain Wā'iz, Rieu's Cat. I. 353a and Ethe's Cat. I. O. MSS., p. 261, which was written in 909, 1503-04. The account of the martyrdom of K. Yaḥīa and his two sons is given at pp. 277 etc. of the I. O. MS., and it is stated that the life of the third son, Khwāja Muḥammad Amīn, was spared in order that one son of K. Yahīa might survive.

contradict the account given by Babar himself in the same chapter, and only a few pages previous. According to the passage, Qutluq Muh. Barlas was one of the men who fled from Akhsī at the same time as Bābar did, but got separated from him in the confusion and made his way to Andijan. He arrived there just as the Khāns, Bābar's uncles, were entering the place, and had his dream. He told it to the Khans. who informed him that they had had a similar intimation. He then went off with a party, found Babar, and rescued him just as he was about to be seized and murdered, and brought him to Andijan. Babar found his uncles there, stayed with them four months, and then made up his mind to leave Farghana. With this statement the chapter ends, and the next begins with the first month of 910 and the march towards Kabul. But according to Babar's own story, as related earlier in the chapter, the Khāns were not at Andījān at the time when he fled from Akhsi. They never had possession of Andijan fortress, but they came to the outskirts of the place (Erskine, p. 111, and Ferishta 197), and Babar saw them there and was sent by them to Akhsi. He got possession of the fort for a short time, but when Tambal came with 2,000 or 3,000 men he had to leave the place and fly for his life. But previous to doing so he had heard that the Khāns had raised the siege and retreated to Kand Bādām, Erskine 114. They went by Margīnān and Kand Bādām, and were followed to the former place by Tambal. When Tambal saw that they were in full retreat he came to Akhsī with the result that Bābar had to fly. The reason why the Khans retreated was because Tambal had applied to Shaibani for help, and the latter had replied that he would come shortly, Erskine 114. It was this retreat of the Khans which disturbed Babar so much and made it impossible for him to hold Akhsī. If the above view of the contradiction between Bābar's undoubted narrative and the Turkī passage be correct it must follow. I think, that the latter is not genuine.

Fourthly.—It seems to me very extraordinary that if the passage is genuine, Babar should not have gone on to describe

¹ The Khāns crossed the river at Khojand, i.e., I presume, they crossed from the south to the north bank. Apparently, their idea in retreating was to oppose the entry of Shaibānī into Farghāna, and perhaps, also, they thought of joining the Tāshkend army which was under Sultan Muḥammad the son of Sultan Maḥmūd, see T. Rashīdī, 158. Ḥaidar's father was left at Uratipa. The Khāns afterwards marched back to Akhsī with Bābar. They thought, says Ḥaidar, that Shaibānī could not pass between two armies, viz., the Tāshkend army under Maḥmūd's son, and the Uratipa army under Ḥaidar's father. But Shaibānī did pass between them, taking Uratipa on his road. Ḥaidar's father thought he had come to besiege him, but instead of that Shaibānī was sent from Uratipa of his approach, but he went so fast that the messengers and his army reached the Khāns at the same time.

the battle which took place in 908 between himself and his uncles on the one side, and Shaibānī on the other. Bābar and his uncles were defeated, and the latter were made prisoners, while Bābar had to fly, first towards Tāshkend, and afterwards to the hills in the south of Farghana and to Ḥiṣār. He eventually also went to Termiz on the Oxus and there got advice from the governor of that place (Amīr Muḥammad Bāqī), which led him to march into Afghanistan.

It was on this occasion that he passed through Khusrau Shāh's country. See the Ḥabību-s-Siyar, II, 318. According to the Shaibānīnāmah, as quoted by Vambèry in his history of Bokhara, 258, the battle was fought five miles off from Akhsī, and lasted for two days. But this latter statement as well as Vambèry's date of 911 must be incorrect, for the Tārīkh Rashīdī, while also stating that the battle was fought at Akhsī, says the conflict was a short one. Bābar marched to Kabul in 910, and was there on 911 and his younger uncle died after the battle in 909. The battle must have taken place either in the latter part of 908 or the beginning of 909. The uncle died in the winter season of 909, Tārīkh Rashīdī 123, and consequently at the end of 1503 or beginning of 1504. At p. 160, however, it is said that the uncle died at the end of 909, i.e., in April or May 1504.

If the Turki passage is genuine, Babar has passed over the battle in which his two uncles were made prisoners, and the events of more than a twelvemonth, for there is no question here of a gap in the MS. or of a page being lost. According to the Turki, Babar winds up the chapter by saying that he rejoined his uncles at Andijan, stayed with them for four months, and then resolved to leave Farghana. Nor can it be said that the apparent contradiction between Babar's own words and the Turki passage is the result of abridgment, and that Bābar merely means that he joined his uncles at Andījān some time before the battle. For according to the T. Rashīdī, p. 159. the uncles in marching into Farghana (for the second time apparently) did not get as far as Andijan before the battle. They went by Akhsi and were defeated and captured before they could get to Andijan. The statement that Babar stayed four months with his uncles at Andijan and then made 3 up his mind to leave Farghana has evidently been made by the interpolator to round off the chapter and to fit it into the begin-

¹ Bābar incidentally mentions the defeat of the Khāns in the early part of his Memoirs. See P. de Courtlille, pp. 6 and 24, and Erskine, 4 and 14.

² The Bāqī Cheghāniāni of Bābar's Memoirs. He was Khusrau Shāh's younger brother.

³ Vambery wrote his history of Bokhara before editing the Shaibānīnāma, and apparently, before he had studied that poem. I can find nothing in his translation of it to show that the battle lasted two days.

ning of the next one. But it is contrary to fact, and seems to indicate that the interpolator was ignorant or careless of the fact of the decisive battle between the Khāns and Shaibānī.

Fifthly.—In the Persian translation Bābar's account of his flight from Akhsī and his being in the garden at Karmān (or Karnān) ends in a very startling way with an unfinished verse. The last word is ākhir, "at last". It is judiciously pointed out by Erskine, p. 123, that the narrative breaks off in a similar abrupt fashion in the account of the year 914 (see Erskine, 235), and he inclines to think that in both instances the breaking! off was intentional. They are dramatic endings such as Shahrzāda made every morning to her stories. Erskine also says, "All the three copies which I have had an opportunity of comparing break off precisely at the same part, in both instances. This holds in the original Turkī (the Elphinstone MS.) as well as in the translation, and it is hardly conceivable that the translator would have deserted his hero in the most memorable passages of his life."

Now, it seems to me that if Bābar had written anything in the chapter in 908 after the verse, he would not have left the latter incomplete. And this seems to have struck the Turkī adapter, for in the Turkī the verse though in Persian is not the same as in the Persian MSS., and is a complete distich. The break off in the verse in the Persian MSS. is much more dramatic than the conventional second line in the Turkī text, and is like the Quos ego of Virgil, and Bābar's own ending in the record for 914. It is noteworthy that the first line in the Turkī text is also different from that in the Persian MSS., and that it is not the same in the two Turkī texts. It appears from a manuscript now in the Rylands' Library that another interpolator attempted to complete the chapter, for it says that Bābar's friends came up and rescued him and arranged for the care of his ladies. See A.S.B.J. for 1905.

For these reasons I am of opinion that the Turkī passage is not genuine, and that it may be one of Jahangir's additions. Perhaps some Turkī scholar will examine the passage, and say if the style is that of Bābar, or resembles the fragments in Ilminsky and Pavet de Courtlille, which must have been written not earlier than the end of Akbar's reign.

The "five miles" mentioned in his history are five <code>ighāch</code>, that is, five leagues and more. The battle took place at Arkhīā (?) between Akhsī and Andījān. Bābar was there and had the command of a thousand men. Shaibānī, when in pursuit of the Khāns, crossed the river at Akhsī, and apparently took the Khāns by surprise (p. 267 of the Shaibānīnāma). The battle soon ended in a victory for Shaibānī.

It is also contrary to Bābar's statement in the opening chapter of his Memoirs. There he says that after Shaibāni had taken Tāshkend and Shāhrukhia, he went to the Sukh and Hushiār hill country (in the south of Farghana) and was there nearly a year, and left from there for his expedition to Kabul (Erskine, p. 4).

With reference to Erskine's remark at the top of p. 124.1 and in order to prevent misconception, it is necessary for me to state that there is no doubt that Babar eventually rejoined his uncles after his flight from Akhsi. My point is that he did not do so at Andijan, at least not within a few days after his flight from Akhsi. What happened was, apparently, that the Khans returned to Farghana 2 after their retreat, and in company with Bābar were defeated by Shaibānī near Akhsī. That the Khans were not at Andijan at the time of Babar's flight has already been shown. To that evidence may be added the indication furnished by the direction of his flight. He wanted to join the Khāns and called upon his pursuers to help him in doing so, but he did not go towards Andijan and he spoke to the men about wishing to cross the river and to proceed to Khojand," Erskine, p. 120. Unfortunately Babar does not tell us the day or month when he fled from Akhsi. But at p. 121 of Erskine, we are told that it was winter and excessively cold. The flight therefore must have been in nearly the middle of 908, viz., December 1502 or January 1503. It was probably in the following spring that the battle took place between Shaibani and the Khāns, though it may have occurred in 909.

¹ The existence of gaps containing the accounts of several years is noticed in the Pādshāhnāma I. 42 as occurring in a MS. in the Imperial Library in Bābar's own handwriting.

Library in Bābar's own handwriting.

² Erskine did not know the T. Rashīdī when he was translating the Memoirs. His later work, the History of India, corrects some of the statements in the notes to his translation. See I. 184 for account of the battle.

³ Khojend, which is mentioned by Bābar as the place they retreated to, was often not reckoned as part of Farghana (Erskine 9). At least it is in the extreme west of it, and is, apparently, not now included in the Russian district of Farghana, but in Samarkand. See Kostenko's Turkistan I. 347.

10. NUMISMATIC SUPPLEMENT No. XIII.

Note. The numeration of the article below is continued from p. 389 of the "Journal and Proceedings" for 1909.

76. Punch-marked Coins from Afghanistan.

Though Cunningham has stated that punch-marked coins are found all over India "from the Himalaya mountains to Cape Comorin, and from Sistan to the mouths of the Ganges," it is by no means certain that they have ever been found in large numbers in Afghanistan. At least no one has described in detail any coin of this class found to the west of Indus. The westernmost limit of recorded coins is Rawalpindi, or more properly Shah-Dheri, near the Sarai Kala railway station of the North-Western Railway. Recently Dr. D. B. Spooner of the Archæological Survey has described a hoard of punchmarked coins found at Peshawar. In this connection I must record that no one of the solar symbols found on these coins are wheels. It would require an extra strong effort of one's imagination to call them so because in the majority of cases there are no rims.²

The coins described below were sent to me for examination by our President Sir Thomas Holland, who obtained them from his Majesty the Amir, when he was staying at Calcutta. The chief interest of the paper lies on the new symbols found on these coins. Mr. Theobald in his learned essay has given an elaborate account of the punch-marks on these coins. The coins from Afghanistan add no fewer than twenty new symbols to the list. These are most probably marks of the shroffs of Afghanistan. Of greater interest is the discovery of Brāhmī letters on some of these coins. New symbols have been found on three coins with blank reverses which according to Mr. V. A. Smith are to be ascribed to Taxila.³ The new symbols and letters are described below:—

I. Letters.—The occurrence of single letters on copper punch-marked coins has already been recorded, but their occurrence on silver coins has not, as far as I remember, been noticed as yet. The Brāhmī letter na occurs twice (Nos. 31 and 36). The punch-mark is elliptical in shape and bears the

Cunningham, A. S. R., vol. xiv, p. 18. pl. x. J. A. S. B., 1901, pt. I,

² Annual Report of the Archæological Survey of India, 1905-6, p. 150. ³ V. A. Smith, Catalogue of Coins in the Indian Museum, vol. i, p. 133.

⁴ Cunningham, A. S. R., vol. xxii, p. 114-16.

letter in relief. The form of na is that to be found in inscriptions of the Kushana period, viz, with a curved base line. The letter da occurs only once (No. 37). There is a short knob on its head, and if this be the mark for long then the character is di, and belongs most probably to the later Kushana or early Gupta alphabet. The remaining letter also occurs only once. It is the oldest in the series. It is either the Brahmi ga or the Kharosthi ya (No. 12). It is very difficult to particularise as both letters are identical in shape, and both alphabets were in use in Afghanistan at this period. Anyway it is certain that the letter belongs to the Maurya period.

II. Symbols.—The most common symbol is the linga. Here the form is different. It occurs thrice (Nos. 5, 19 and 26). The linga as a punch-mark existed up to a very late date. It occurs on a coin of 'Alāu-d-dīn Ḥusen Shāh of Bengal in the cabinet of one of my friends. The coin is in a very bad state of preservation. The Kalima occurs on the obverse, and on it are four or five punch-marks of which one is a linga and the other the Bengali syllable ka. The name "Husen Shāh" only is legible on the reverse. The coin was found in the

Sunderban forests.

Another round coin bears a new symbol, a man and a quad-

ruped; most probably the man is chasing the animal.

Another new symbol is the figure of a horse on No. 11. Two new symbols occur on No. 12, a monkey and two standing human figures. No. 38 presents another new symbol, viz., a sphere with four tridents. A spear-head occurs on No. 20 with a straight line and a parallel row of dots.

The collection contains an unique specimen of a cast silver coin. Cunningham has distinctly stated that cast coins are all of copper. Unfortunately punch-marks are not distinguishable

on this specimen (No. 39).

DESCRIPTION OF COINS.

RECTANGULAR COINS.

Class I.—Blank Reverse.

1. Size—Irregular hexagon, punch-marks indistinct.
Obverse—Solar symbol and portions of three others.

2. Size—Oblong, corners clipped.

Obverse-Solar symbol, Hare and portions of others.

3. Size—Oblong, one corner clipped.

Obverse—Solar and other illegible symbols.

4. Size—Oblong.

Obverse-Stupa and caduceus.

¹ Cf. Theobald, J.A.S.B., 1901, pt. I, p. 71, nos. 56-64.

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5. Size—Rectangular, one corner clipped. Obverse—Solar symbol, crescent, taurine and linga.

6. Size—Oblong, one corner clipped. Obverse—All symbols obscure.

7. Size—Oblong. In good preservation. Obverse—Solar symbol, double crescent.

8. Size—Rectangular. Worn out and blank on both sides.

9. Size—Oblong, one corner clipped.
Obverse—Four or five obscure symbols.

Size—Oblong, two corners clipped.
 Obverse—Solar symbol, Triskelis and others.

 Size—Oblong. Punch-marks indistinct. Obverse—Horse, Caduceus and others.

Class II .-- One Mark on the Reverse.

12. Size—Oblong, corners clipped.
Obverse—Monkey, two human figures, a horned animal, and two other symbols.

Reverse-A letter; Brāhmī ga or Kharosthi ya.

13. Size—Oblong, irregular. Indistinct punch-marks.

Obverse—Illegible symbols.

Reverse—Solar symbol.

14. Size—Oblong, irregular. In good preservation.

Obverse—Solar symbol, stupa, sphere surrounded by

ornaments, tree in enclosure and others.

Reverse—Peacock.

15. Size—Oblong, one corner clipped.

Obverse—Solar symbol and four others.

Reverse—Hemisphere, taurine and two stars, all on one stamp.

Size—Oblong, one corner clipped.
 Obverse—Three human figures and stupa.
 Reverse—Illegible.

17. Size—Oblong, one corner clipped.

Obverse—Solar symbol, sphere and crescent, stupa

with crescent and others.

Reverse—Illegible.

18. Size—Square, one corner clipped.

Obverse—A modified form of the caduceus, solar symbol, stupa and two others.

Reverse—Caduceus.

19. Size—Oblong, irregular, one corner clipped.

Obverse—Solar symbol, linga and others.

Reverse—Illegible symbol.

Class III. - Two Marks on the Reverse.

20. Size—Oblong, one corner slightly.

Obverse—Illegible.

Reverse—A spear head and a straight line with a parallel row of dots.

Obverse—Solar symbol, caduceus, sphere with crescents, triskelis.

Reverse—Caduceus and the profile of some animal (?).

Size—Rectangular, two corners clipped. 22.

Obverse—Two solar symbols, a tree inside a railed enclosure, etc.

Reverse—Stūpa and a star.

23. Size—Nearly square, one corner clipped.

Obverse-Solar symbol, sphere with crescents and one or two more.

Reverse—Star and another illegible symbol.

Size—Oblong, two opposite corners clipped, injured by 24. hammering.

Obverse—Solar symbol.

Reverse—Star and another illegible symbol.

25. Size—Oblong, one corner clipped off. Obverse—Solar symbol, stūpa, etc. Reverse—Illegible.

26. Size—Oblong, two adjacent corners clipped. Obverse—Solar symbol, svastika, linga and three others.

Reverse—Illegible.

27. Size—Oblong. In good preservation. Obverse-Solar symbol, sphere surrounded by taurines, another surrounded by crescents, etc.

Reverse—Illegible.

Size—Oblong, one corner clipped. 28. Obverse-Solar symbol, lower part of standing human figure, etc.

Reverse—Illegible.

29. Size—Oblong, two adjacent corners clipped. Obverse-Solar symbol, front legs of a quadruped, etc.

Reverse—Illegible.

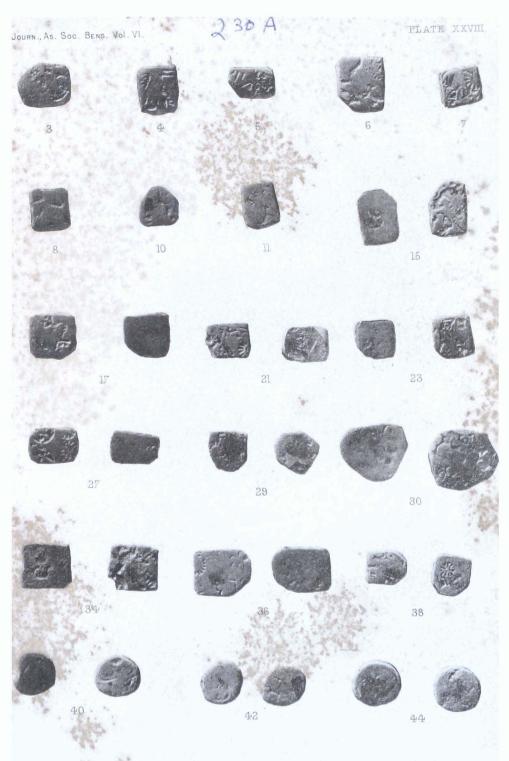
Class IV.—Three or more marks on the Reverse.

30. Size—Irregular, three corners clipped. Obverse—Solar symbol, taurine, head of an animal, etc.

Reverse—Two boughs, bow and arrow, and four or five illegible ones.

31. Size—Irregular, in a fair state of preservation. Obverse-Solar symbol, stūpa with hare, Brāhmi na in ellipse and four or five more.

Reverse-Stupa with crescent, and two more indistinct symbols.



PUNCH MARKED COINS FROM AFGHANISTAN.

- Vol. VI, No. 4.] Numismatic Supplement. [N.S.]
 - 32. Size—Oblong, irregular, two opposite corners clipped. Obverse—Solar symbol, stūpa, elephant, sphere with arrow heads, etc.

Reverse—Three illegible symbols.

33. Size—Oblong, irregular. In good preservation.

Obverse—Solar symbol, sphere with taurines and arrow heads.

Reverse—Four dots, and four other symbols, more or less indistinct.

- 34. Size—Nearly square. Both sides illegible.
- 35. Size—Oblong, one corner clipped off.

 Obverse—Solar symbol, elephant, etc.

 Reverse—Three illegible marks.

36. Size—Oblong, irregular, one corner clipped.

Obverse—Solar symbol, humped bull, sphere with taurines, Brāhmī na, etc.

Reverse-Five or six illegible marks.

37. Size—Oblong.

Obverse—Sphere with four crescents, stūpa with hare, a letter (Brāhmī da), etc.

Reverse—Tree in enclosure and five other marks.

38. Size—Oblong, two adjacent corners clipped off.

Obverse—Solar symbol, taurine, etc.

Reverse—Sphere with four tridents, and two small illegible marks.

39. Size—Oblong, cast silver, only specimen come to light. Both sides illegible.

ROUGHLY CIRCULAR OR OVAL COINS.

Class I.—Blank Reverse.

- 40. Obverse—Palm of the hand, sphere with crescents and etc.
- 41. Obverse-Lotus and other obscure symbols.

Class II .- One mark on the Reverse.

42. Obverse—Bull and another quadruped in square incuse, etc.

Reverse-Man and quadruped.

43. Obverse—Solar symbol, sphere with taurines tree in railed enclosure, etc.

Reverse—Illegible.

Class III.—Two marks on the Reverse.

44. Obverse—Four or five obscure symbols.

Reverse—Stūpa and another illegible symbol.

RAKHAL DAS BANERJEE.

77. RARE MUGHAL COINS.

The following have been selected from a number of rare Mughal coins in the cabinet of Mr. W. S. Talbot, I.C.S., Settlement Commissioner, Kashmir.

1. \mathbb{R} . $JAH\overline{A}NG\overline{I}R$.

Mint—Agra.
Date—1019 A. H.
Regnal year—5.
Month—Bahman.
Weight—219 grs.
Size—1:11.

Obverse.—In an octagon, each side of which is surmounted by a triple arch enclosing arabesques

Reverse.—In octagon, similarly ornamented

The couplet on this coin is the same as that on the gold coin of the same king and mint described as No. 4 in the catalogue of the collection of the late Mr. C. S. Rodgers in the Lāhor Museum. The coins of the last few months of 1019 and the first few months of 1020 mark the high-water mark of beauty in design of Mughal coinage. I know of no duplicate of this particular coin.

2. A. $JAH\bar{A}NG\bar{J}R$.

Mint—Tatta.
Date—1027 A.H.
Regnal year—12.
Month—Dī.
Weight—174 grs.
Size—75.

The only peculiarity about this coin is an ornament in the shape of a peacock just above the on the obverse. For the legends see No. 799 of Vol. III of the Indian Museum Catalogue, 1908.

3. AR. $SH\bar{A}HJAH\bar{A}N$.

Mint—Akbarābād, Dāru-l-khilāfat. Date—1068 A.H. Regnal year—31. Weight—175 grs. Size—•94.

Obverse.—In eight-foiled circle the kalima.

In margin, divided into four partitions

Reverse. - In eight-foiled circle

In margin, divided into four partitions

The coinage of Akbarābād (Agra) in the reign of Shāhjahān after presenting a variety of designs during the first six years settled down to what is known as the 'square areas' type in 1043 A.H., and to this type it appears to have remained constant for the remainder of the reign except for these "circular areas" coins of 1068-31, specimens of which are very rare.

4. A. AURANGZEB.

Mint—Kābul. Date—1084 A.H. Regnal year—16. Weight—175 grs. Size—:81.

Date to left بدر for مهر Date to left of middle line.

Reverse.

The Indian Museum Catalogue, Vol. III, 1908, figures a muhar of this type (No. 1129), and similar muhars were also found in the Bahāwalpūr Toshakhāna by Mr. Whitehead (Num. Supp. XI, art. 69). But no rupees appear to have been published previously.

5. R. AURANGZEB.

Mint—(Akbarabad) Mustaqirru-l-khilāfat. Date—Absent. Regnal year—? 49. Weight—43 grs. Size—•625.

This is a quarter-rupee with fragmentary inscriptions following the usual type. I have a similar one of regnal year 45.

6. AR. SHĀH 'ĀLAM BAHĀDUR.

Mint—Tatta.
Date—Absent.
Regnal year—2.
Weight—174 grs.
Size—825.

Obverse.

Reverse.

مانوس میمانت ۲ سده جلوس ب غمر تقه

Mr. Whitehead mentions finding rupees of Tatta in the Bahāwalpūr Toshakhana (N. S. XI, art. 69)—probably of this type. Those hitherto published in the Lāhor and Indian Museum Catalogues are of the couplet type on which the king's former name of Mu'azzam is given, and of the first year of the reign.

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7. R. SHĀH 'ĀLAM BAHADUR.

Mint—Ajmer, Dāru-l-khair. Date—1119 A. H. Regnal year—aḥd (1). Weight—176 grs. Size—·94.

Obverse.

غازی شساه عالم باد شسساه سکه ۱۱۱۹

Reverse.

The epithet دارالخير, which clung to Ajmer during the Mughal supremacy, gave place early in this reign to the more pretentious one of مستقر الخلاقة. I know of only one other specimen of the present type—in Dr. Taylor's Cabinet.

8. At. $JAH\bar{A}ND\bar{A}R$.

Mint—Alimadnagar. Date—Absent. Regnal year—alid (1). Weight—173 grs. Size—·94.

Obverse.—The coin is in poor condition, but the arrangement of the inscription appears to be the same as on No. 1722 of the I.M.C., Vol. III.

Reverse.

This mint appears to be unpublished for Jahandar.

9. AR. FARRUKHSIYAR.

Mint—Imtiyazgaḍh. Date—1124 A.H. Regnal year—Absent. Weight—170 grs. Size—94.

Obverse.

Reverse.



This mint seems new for Farrukhsiyar in silver. The Hijra date on the reverse is unusual.

10. AR. SHĀHJAHĀN II. ?

Mint—Burhānpūr, Dāru-s-sarūr. Date—? Regnal year—2. Weight—169 grs. Size—·94.

Obverse.

Reverse.

The attribution of this coin to the second Shāhjahān (Rafi-'u-d-daulah) is not free from doubt, but of whichever king it is, it seems to be unpublished though Dr. Taylor has a rupee of this mint and reign of Shājahān II. The regnal year "2" is noticeable.

11. R. MUḤAMMAD SHĀH.

Mint—Derajāt.
Date—1160 A. H.
Regnal year—30.
Weight—175 grs.
Size—9.

Obverse.

Reverse.

مانوس میمنست ۳۰ سنة جلوس ضـــوب دیر جات

Mr. Longworth Dames writes: "The Derajāt mint has hitherto only been known on the coins of the Durrānis. The earliest I have seen of Aḥmad Shāh Durrāni is of the year 1171. Its appearance on Muḥammad Shāh's coins is remarkable as Nādir Shāh's invasion took place in 1152 and the Derajāt remained in his possession after that date. He was assassinated in 1160, the year in which this coin is dated, and it would seem that on his death the mint at Dera Ismail Khān (Derajāt) again issued coins in the name of the Mughal Emperors until Aḥmad Shāh's invasion."

Rupees of "Dera" of Muhammad Shāh and Aḥmad Shāh were found by Mr. Whitehead in the Bahāwalpūr Toshakhāna (N.S. XI, p. 342), and a rupee of Muḥammad Shāh of the same mint is described on p. 214 of the Lāhor Museum Catalogue. This may, Mr. Dames thinks, be Dera Ghazī Khān.

12. AR. SHĀH ĀLAM.

Mint—Katak.
Date—Absent.
Regnal year—22.
Weight—176 grs.
Size—1.02.

Obverse.

Reperse

حامی دیسن شساه سایه فضل شاه عالم سسکسه زد بسر هفست کشور عادوس میمنست میمنست سنة جلوس

The only other specimen that I know of was in Dr. White King's collection. (Catalogue of sale No. 4111.)

H. NELSON WRIGHT.

78. TREASURE TROVE (MUGHAL).

Sixty-six Mughal rupees were recently found buried in the village of Ladkhed in the district of Yeotmal and sent to me for examination. The following four coins are of special interest:—

1. A. JAHĀNDAR <u>SH</u>ĀH.

Mint—Fatḥābād (Dhārūr?). Date—A.H. 1124. Regnal year—ahd.

Obverse.

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Reverse.



The bottom line of the reverse is unfortunately obliterated. The omission may, however, be supplied by comparing the coin with the one described and figured in Numismatic Supplement II, article 15. The arrangement of the reverse is the same and there are similar collections of dots in the curves of the of and the corresponding to the corresponding to the corresponding to the curves of the corresponding to the corresponding to the curves of the corresponding to the correspon

That coin was of Farrukhsiyar. The mint is new for Jahandar.

2. R. MUHAMMAD SHĀH.

Mint-Satāra.

Date—A.H. 11. Regnal year obliterated.

Obverse.—Usual inscription. Date to right of top line. Reverse.

مانوس میماست جاوس ضرب سـقــارا

This is an addition to the list of Mughal mints. Is the Satāra of this coin the well-known town in the Bombay Presidency, which bears the same name but is apparently spelt Sātāra (see Imperial Gazetteer)? I have been unable to identify it with any other place.

3. A. $MUHAMMADSH\overline{A}H$.

Mint—Balwantnagar.

Date—A.H. 115 x Regnal year, 28.

Obverse.—Usual inscription. Date to right of top line. Reverse.—Usual arrangement. Mint name in bottom line.

In Mr. Burn's list of Mughal mints (J.A.S.B., Vol. LXXIII, Part I, No. 2, 1904) is given a coin from my cabinet of this mint struck in the reign of Ahmad Shāh. This coin was

obtained at Jhānsī, and on enquiry from the Taḥṣīldār of that town I was informed that the old name of Jhānsī was Balwantnagar, and that there is still a Muḥalla in the town known as "Taksāl," i.e., mint, which is evidence of the issue of coins. The present coin carries the mint back to the reign of Muḥammad Shāh.

4. AR. MUHAMMAD $SH\overline{A}H.$

Mint—! Qandahār. Date—A.H. 115 × Regnal year, 30.

Obverse.—Usual inscription in three lines. Date to right of top line.

Reverse.—Usual arrangement. Mint name in bottom line.

The first two letters of the mint name are not quite distinct, but there are traces of the top of the $\ddot{\omega}$ and to its left a dot over the place where the ω should be. If, however, the reading is correct, it is not easy to understand how a coin came to issue from Qandahār in A.H. 1159 (A.D. 1746) in the name of Muḥammad Shāh of Dehli. Nādir Shāh, the Persian invader of Hindustān, took possession of Qandahār in 1737 A.D. (A.H. 1150-1151) and built a new city. Qandahār was taken by Aḥmad Khān Durrāni some ten years later, and it is just possible that in the confusion of these troublous times, the Dehli Emperor may have seized the opportunity to renew the old Mughal claim to Qandahār by issuing coins professing to be struck there under his authority. But that there was any striking of coinage at Qandahār itself in the name of Muḥammad Shāh seems extremely improbable.

H. NELSON WRIGHT.

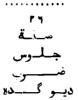
79. TREASURE TROVE (MUCHAL).

Out of a find of 129 silver coins discovered in an earthen pot while digging the foundation for a new building at Hanūmān Tāl in the Jubbulpore City, and sent to me for examination, I selected the following five rupees for a note in the Numismatic Supplement:—

 In the name of Shāh 'ĀLAM II. A.H.—1199. Regnal year—26. Mint—Deogadh? Obverse.

> ..!۹۹ بادشاع

Reverse.

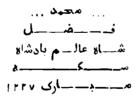


This is a small thick coin (size '75") with lettering much cruder than on the coins of this mint of Shah 'Alam II usually met with. This fact probably indicates the loss of influence of the suzerain power. Mr. W. S. Talbot, C.S., has a similar coin dated 1198. A coin of Deogadh in my cabinet of the normal fabric is dated 1190-17.

Shāh 'Ālam II. Mint-Bālānagar Gadha. A.H.—Absent. Regnal year--36.

A coin of this type has been published by Colonel Vost in Numismatic Supplement XI, p. 326. This coin has as mint marks a trisular ullet ulletline, and a star to the right of the regnal year on the reverse.

Shāh 'Ālam II. Mint-Nāgpūr? A.H.—1227. Regnal year—35. Size—.85". Obverse.



Over "bādshāh" are a trisūl and a flower with 11 petals and a stalk.

Reverse.



Below theirs a wis a trisul on its side.

4. In the name of Auman Shāh.
Mint?

A.H.—Absent. Regnal year—56?

Size ·82

242

Obverse.

احمد شا**ه** بهادر

Reverse.

ضــــــرب المانا

گ**دن**ارت

An arrowhead to left of the & in the lower line.

5. As on No. 4 but a smaller coin (size = .75") and the mint is written عگريت. The regnal year is represented by the figures هم.

These last two coins are evidently Mahratta-struck. They resemble in execution the Katak coins on pages 248-250 of the Indian Museum Catalogue, Volume III, 1908. What their mint town was I am not able to conjecture.

All the above coins are in the Nagpur Museum.

H. NELSON WRIGHT.

80. Dams of Akbar struck at Jaunpür and Ajmēr Mints.

Jaunpúr.

On the gold and silver coins of Jaunpur mint, Akbar is entitled المرافعة and Jaunpur is ordinarily termed 'Daru- Khilafat'—see Mr. Nelson Wright's Introduction to Vol. III of the Catalogue of the Coins in the Indian Museum, Calcutta. That Museum contains different types of Akbar's copper coins struck at Jaunpur, Nos. 449 and 451. The first is of the usual type with the obverse inscription 'Fulus Jaunpur Daru-l Khilafat', and the date is in words on the reverse side. The second is a quarter dám exhibiting a geometrical device on the reverse, and the inscription 'Dāru-z-zarb Jaunpur' on the obverse side.

[N.S.]

In the Delhi Bazar I have found a third type, the inscriptions on which are as follows:--

Obverse.	Reverse.
محمد اکبر	ناصر الدنيا و الدين
جلال الدين	ابو الفتح
	فلـــوس جونپور

Every word of this reading on the obverse is quite clear. but possibly state formed part of the legend. Over the last letter of the word Muhammad is ornament No. 25 in the Table of Ornament found on Mughal Coins-Vol. III of the Catalogue of the Coins in the Indian Museum, Calcutta. The first and third lines of the reverse are cut, but there is sufficient to make my reading almost certain. The epithet 'Abū-l-fath' is exhibited in full, and as far as I know this is the first instance of its use on coins in connection with Akbar's name. It invariably formed the reverse inscription on the smaller copper coins of the Jaunpur kings, and the Indian Museum possesses one of these of as late a date as A.H. 887—Catalogue of the Coins in the Indian Museum, Calcutta, Vol. II, Jaunpur, No. 175.

Possibly the use of the epithet on the present coin is a survival.

Since writing the above I have seen Col. Vost's article 'On some rare Muhammadan Coins' published in the A.S.B. Journal for 1896. I find that this dám was described by him—see Plate II, No 7-but he read it as being a coin of Muhammad Sháh, Súrí. The only word legible on the obverse of that specimen is Muhammad.

Ajmér.

The Indian Museum possesses two types of dáms struck at Ajmér mint. On one type Ajmér is probably styled 'Dáru-l Mansúr' and the second is the common variety presenting the obverse inscription 'Zarb Ajmér sikka fulús' - Indian Museum Catalogue, Vol. III, Nos. 358 and 359. Amongst a large number of Akbar's copper coins struck at Ajmér and Chitor mints, I came across two apparently new varieties of Ajmér $d\bar{a}m$. inscriptions on the first are:—



Those on the second are :-

Obverse.	$\it Reverse$.		
فلوس	<u>م</u> شت		
سكــــه	هزار		
سليما بان	1 • • A		
ضــــــرب			

In each case the reverse bears ornament No. 24 of the

Table of Ornaments already referred to.

The first coin is a dám of Dáru-l-khiláfat Salímábád, Ajmér, struck in the year 982. The second is a dám of Salímábád, dated 1008. The style of the obverse of the first is distinct, but that of the obverse of the second follows the usual style of the copper coins of Ajmér and Chitor.

In his paper, 'The Mints of the Mughal Emperors,' Mr. R. Burn noted on a copper coin of Ajmér of mint Salímgarh, Ajmér. dated 982. On my copper coin of same date, the name is undoubtedly Salímábád. Mr. Burn remarks that this name for Ajmér is doubtless connected with Shaikh Salím Chishtí from whom Prince Salím took his name. Shaikh Salím died in 979, and Prince Salím was born in 977.

Coins of Akbar are now, therefore, known of Ajmér, of Ajmér with its name Salímábád, and of Salímábád alone. I may instance the parallel case of the issues of Shāh 'Ālam II minted at Bindrában, alias Múminábád. Shāh 'Ālam II struck coins bearing the names of Múminábád, of Bindrában, and of the combination Múminábád, Bindrában, the first two in copper, and the last in silver.

R. B. WHITEHEAD, C.S.

81. Mudhal Emperors—Rafi'u-d-Darjāt. Gold.

Obverse.	Reverse.
(ر ف) يع الدرجات	مانوس
ب	ميهات
(بر) کا شاهنشه افاق	احد جلوس
(زد) [(سذج
(۱) ۱۱۳ با هزاران	ضوب
(بېند)	خجسته بنيان

The above muhar adds another to the list of Rafi'u-d-darjāt's mints. The title شاهنشه فاق in place of the usual is also new. With these two pretentious titles

may be compared شهنشاه زمان (e.g., Jahángír, I.M.C., Vol. III, 564); بادشاه بحرو بر (e.g., Jahāndār, I.M.C., 1713) بادشاه بحرو بر (Farrukhsiyar). The phrase در افاق appears in place of the usual در جهان on coins of Jahāndār (e.g., I.M.C., III, 1709). The above coin is at present in a private English collection.

J. ALLAN,

British Museum.

20. Some Remarks on Mundari Phonology and on its Treatment in the Records of the Linguistical Survey of India.

By The REV. C. MEHL, G.E.L. Mission, Chaibasa.

In my leisure hours during the last rainy season I went through vol. iv of the Linguistic Survey of India, containing the Mundā and Dravidian languages. My expectations to find the volume a mine of information about subjects of comparative philology were fully realized, and I do not hesitate to pay my full tribute of acknowledgement and admiration to the scholarship displayed in handling the linguistic problems, in which we missionaries, working in the respective languages, take a lively interest. So it was gratifying to me to find the assertion of an existing connection between the Kurukh and the Mundāri languages resting on so untenable grounds, finally disproved.

But turning to the Mundāri dialects, I was rather struck by the manner in which parts of the Mundāri phonology have been treated and Mundāri sounds written. During the years I have been in Chota Nagpur, I studied the Mundāri dialect of the Sonepur Pargana, that of Porāhāt, which is practically the same as the Mankipatti dialect, and that of the Hos of Singhbhum. I have been working among the Mundāri-speaking population east of Ranchi, and have here to do with Bhumij and Tamariās too, but from none of these various sections of the bulk of the Mundāri people, numbering about 900,000, I ever heard the semi-consonants and vowels pronounced as they are recorded in the respective language specimens and in the list of words. I showed the Mundāri specimen to an

It was a great mistake on the part of the compiler to regard the Kōdā dialect as "almost pure Muṇdāri," and to "correct" the Muṇdāri, etc., specimens and list of words according to the phonetics of that dialect. This a quite superficial analysis of the Kōdā specimen (pp. 111—113, vol. iv, L.S.I.) will show. The following Kōdā words and bases are not used in Muṇdāri, viz., "gam, ânsā, bisāe, kātāk, dā, dâtrân, bāchâlân, pora, lagā, rayât, than, pâd jæga, bagal, gârāj, kintu, jahāe, chimtit', bisi-k', layek, lâhâe, hoe, hâbâr, nakâr, hatâk, sânâk, anti, posao, damra, bati hât, rij rân, karân, änäch, mahindar, âtâk, lähâr, nitit, bâchhâr, daulat, nāstâ, khusi.' So also not the following which I could trace as Santāli words

educated Munda. He said, he understood it because he knew

the story, but that it was not his own language.

in the specimens extant, viz., "mâtâ, hä, äm, khange, jâtâ, samtao, häräl, disom, tahas nahas, ār, ubla dubla, enkhan, sän, kâl, choklak', chätan munis, rängäch', bendak, châk'â, khataok', hō, taram parâm, märâm, jämân, gate, kusmbi, bachha."

The bases and words "hich, natan, ajum, lahech, asu, hârâ, bogin, chekan, lâvân, hârmâ, jit', narech', rak'a, birit', rengech' perech', menak''' may represent a corrupted or santālized form of Mundāri, comp. Mundāri "hiju, natin, ayum, lae', isu, horo bugin, chikan, loyon, hormo, jid' nare' ra', birid', renge', pere', mena''; but genuine Mundari words I find in the Koda specimen only the following, viz., "sirma, lel, nam, nir, bugin odon, tusin." I have omitted a few words like apu, agu, hurin, haga, etc., which are the same in Mundari and Santali. Looking on the grammatical forms, I find indeed used the Mundari suffixes ren and te, but the former is used with mandi, while in Mundari it is used only with animate beings. Then the suffixes tak', tet' are not used in Mundāri, and ak' and lok' (comp. Mundāri a' and la') seem to be santalized. Nik'i, ani and ana occur instead of the Mundāri Demonstratives ni', ini' and ena', but inkin is found, and e at the end of the verb, as in Mundari. The predicate suffixes "tan" and "ken "are Mundari, "ket" is santalized, the suffix of the past time "en" is Santāli, and so are the forms tahan, tusin taepe and the use of the inceptive base lag and of chæ. The frequent omission of the categorical a, as in gamach'e, set'ene, sänok'ing, etc., is never met with in Mundari, nor forms as "birit' ke tâch', ämækena, hoeto kanme, chekan tan ak', at'ge tahan kenae." The position of the Pronoun at the end of the predicate is also a point of difference. In Mundari it is generally attached to the preceding word.

I think the result of this investigation shows that, with regard to grammar, the Ködā dialect of Birbhum stands between Mundari and Santāli, containing formative elements of both. With regard to the vocabulary about seventy per cent. of the words are non-Mundāri (Santāli, and Bengāli and Bihāri loan words). Of the twenty-five per cent. Mundari words only one-fourth is genuine, the rest is corrupted or santalized. compiler writes, p. 108, vol. iv, L.S.I.—" It seems as if the Munda Kodās originally spoke a dialect of Mundāri, but are gradually abandoning their old language for that of their neighbours in districts, where they are only found in small numbers." Birbhum 5,200 Kōdās are living and more than 47,000 Santāls. It is only to be expected that the Koda language was strongly influenced by Santāli and Bengali. But this should have precluded to draw conclusions from it concerning Mundari phonetics, and to regard the specimens setting it forth as a standard, according to which the specimens of other Mundari dialects were to be corrected.

In addition to e and o Santāli has the open vowel sounds ä and â. Mundāri has them not. therefore the Grammarians do not mention them and none are found in the Mundari specimens. Nevertheless the compiler writes, p. 83, vol. iv, L.S.I.—"Mr. Bodding's Kodā list shows that Mundāri in this respect agrees with Santāli, and I have therefore introduced the signs ä and â in the (Mundāri) list." In the introduction to the Mundari languages he says that "the materials collected for the purpose of this survey have not been prepared by scholars with a phonetical training" and that "only the specimens of Santāli and its dialects forwarded from the Santāl Parganas are quite trustworthy in this respect." Now Father Hoffmann and Dr. Nottrott, who both have written Mundari grammars, are Germans, and besides them at least a dozen more German Missionaries are working in the Mundari language area. If anybody, then they would have been qualified to observe the difference between e and a if it existed. because this is the case in German, and their ear from their childhood has been trained to distinguish these sounds. They all know English too, and can distinguish between the vowel sounds in "all" and "hole," in "hot" and "rode"; should they not have been able to mark the difference between o and â in Mundari if it existed? But the compiler, instead of sticking by the records from men on the spot, or, in case of doubt, getting more information from them, trusted more the unauthoritative notes of a Santāl Missionary who lives 250 miles off from the area of the Mundari language. Now this colleague of mine may be a great Santāli scholar, but he certainly does not speak any Mundari dialect, else he, as proofreader of the Mundari section of the volume, would have found means to prevent the creeping in of errors like the abovementioned. The words contained in the Mundari list with a and a vowel-sounds may be Koda or anything, but they are certainly not Mundari.

About long and neutral vowels the compiler says that they were not "separately marked in the specimens, but that Mr. Bodding's Ködā texts show that Mundāri also in this respect agrees with Santāli." Of course, both kinds of vowels occur in Mundāri and the latter are noticed in the Grammar of Father Hoffmann. But I can't find that in the use of them Mundāri agrees with Santāli. I give a list of words and bases marked long (—) in the Kōdā specimen, but which are pronounced short in Mundāri, viz., hōn, ĭnkĭn, hatĭn, hĕrēl, sangīn, dĭsūm, mărān, rengē', sūkrī, bĭrid', ìn, nŭtūm, am, nĭr, būgìn, tusin, kātā, nām, lŏyŏn, dūrān, chikān, orŏn." On the whole I may say that the quantity of the vowels in Mundāri words is not such a fixed matter as, for instance, in Hindi. Words, generally pronounced short, one may hear sometimes pronounced long by some people, and vice versā.

Neutral vowels only few are marked in the Koda specimen. The "a" in hatin, sangin, miad, duran is neutral also in Mundāri. But apu is āpu, ruar is ruar, an is an, agu is agu, asu is isu, ani is ini, in Mundari. The a in jad, jan, tad (predicate suffixes) is often pronounced neutral in Mundari. sound of that Mundari neutral a is that of the short a in Hindi रकना, or of the vowel pronounced in the second syllable of German "aber" or English "oral," a negligently pronounced short a. In some words, instead of reduplication, a becomes sometimes ā, e.g., jagar becomes jāgar, kaji = kāji, kājini etc. But words, generally pronounced with a neutral a, may in this or that locality, by this or that person, or even in sentences spoken with emotion or emphatically or jestingly, be heard pronounced with a short or even long a, and to frame rules about these changes is an impossible task. The same must be said about the laws of harmonic sequence. Traces of it are found in words like kuriku, ini', hiju'. But instead of the forms inkin, inku, niku, kajiua, bajua, etc., sometimes adduced as proof of the influence of those laws in Mundari, very frequently the forms enkin, enko, niko, and nearly generally the forms kajioa' and baioa' are heard. Besides, similar changes of e into i and o into u are taking place, where no trace of the working of the laws of harmonic sequence can be found, e.g., irio'tana, from ēre', banguja = banga'ia; compare Kurukh tingkan, from tengna, khutkan from khottna. All the rules about vowel changes in Santāli, laid down under the head "Harmonic Sequence," pp. 37 and 38, vol. iv, L.S.I., do not apply to Mundari. So also in this respect a very considerable difference between Mundāri and Santāli is to be stated.

The so-called semi-consonants are all pretty well described in the existing Mundari Grammars and have been marked there, d' and b' or dn and bm (for Santāli t' and p') and (') or (:) (for the equivalent of Santāli k' and ch') respectively. original Mundari specimens were marked in the same way but the compiler states that he marked them as in Santāli; sometimes, however, rather wrongly, e.g. orak'tích'ña Ranchirich'ña where no suffix ich' but in coalesces with te and re. He asserts, "the semi-consonants are hard and not soft sounds," p. 84, vol. iv, The Rev. Screfsrud in his grammar, p. 9, indeed, says so about the Santāli semi-consonants, but I don't think this is the case with them naturally. The process of pronouncing a consonant may be divided into two parts, (1) the putting into position the organs with which it is pronounced, and (2) the relaxing these organs and causing the air from the lungs to strike against them. Now the difference between the consonants, whether they are to be soft, hard, or aspirate, is caused solely by the second part of this process and depends on the more or less abrupt relaxation of the respective organs and on the measure of force with which the air is made to pass

over them. For instance, in pronouncing labials, the lips have first to be closed. This being done, I can pronounce a p, or b, or ph, or bh, as I like. Now the semi-consonants in Mundari consist only of the sound produced by the first part of the process described, and from the description of them in Screfsrud's Santāli Grammar, pp. 10 and 11. I conclude that the same is the case in They, therefore, naturally cannot be hard, but must be A neutral sound, however, stands. I think, nearer to neutral. a soft than to a hard sound. In Mundari, at least, e.g., ub' (Santāli up'), has not a pronunciation similar to p as in English "hoop", but rather to b as in German "hub"; and kented' in its pronunciation does not resemble that of German "kentert", but rather that of "kenternd." With some speakers who, in putting into position the respective organs, do not close their throat fully, naturally some air is escaping through the nose before they have relaxed their organs, and therefore a slight nasal sound is heard from them after the semi-consonant, which sometimes has been marked, e.g., ubm. medn.

When in Santāli the semi-consonants are described as hard sounds, and I myself had ample opportunity to notice their somewhat different pronunciation among the Santals of Dhalbhum and Morbhanj, this must have other reasons. Perhaps it is due to the pointed, jerklike pronunciation of the vowel preceding the semi-consonant, which before d' and b' in Mundari is pronounced quite in the ordinary way. Besides this, the Rev. Screfsrud in the description of these sounds in his Santāli Grammar, pp. 8 to 11, speaks of a "sharp inhalation of the breath' preceding or accompanying the closing of the organs. Nothing of this kind can be observed in connection with the pronunciation of Mundari b' and d', nor could I observe it among the Santāls in Dhalbhum. Like in Santāli, b' and d' before the passive voice suffix o' (Santāli ok') are changed into the resp. soft consonants in Mundari, e.g., jutidoa of jutid'. The predicative suffixes jad', tad', ad' and akad' drop d', the suffixes ked' and led' even ed' before the pronominal infixes of the first and third person singular, in and i, viz., neljaiaing, metaiñæ, emakaiai, kajikiñai nelliai instead of neljadiaing, metadinai, emakadiai, kajikedinai nellediai, but the full forms are heard in many places too. Around Ranchi occasionally instead of the suffix ked a form ker is heard, probably due to Kurukh influence, in which language kerā is frequently added to the past tense, e.g., bongā kerā-(Hindi bhâg gaya). Father De Smet mentioned this form too. (His Grammar, p. 2). So also Dr. Nottrott, p. 7, of his Gram-In the Ho dialect, the Mundari dental consonants, and likewise the dental semi-consonants, are generally pronounced as cerebrals, especially in the just mentioned predicative suffixes. In forms like nelkeded' (Mundari nelked'te) the position of the

semi-consonant seems to have been changed, but forms like hujuyaned' are heard too (Mundari hijuyante). The suffix te is in this form apparently weakened into ed' (neutral e and semi-consonant d').

While the Mundari dental and labial semi-consonants in their character resemble to some degree those in Santāli, the case with the Mundari equivalent of Santāli guttural and palatal semi-consonants is rather different. The semi-consonants d' and b' are pronounced by putting the dental and labial organs, respectively, into position and closing at the same time the throat. Where Santāli has guttural or palatal semi-consonants, in Mundari only the throat is closed, the guttural and palatal organs not being brought into activity. The sound thus produced is a mere check on the preceding vowel, the same for Santāli ch' and k'. A Munda, who is a teacher at the Ranchi G.E.L. Mission High English School, in a Mundari booklet published by him in the Devanagri character, in an introductory note describes this sound as follows: "It should be borne in mind that in Mundari the Bisarg (:) denotes that a similar halfsounded vowel is understood after the vowel which it follows, "जिर:=जिर (६)". Practically the sound is the same, as the check after the first vowel in Kurukh ci'ina, he'ena, ca'ana, ho'ona, hu'utang, but it is unquestionable that Mundari herein has not been influenced by Kurukh. The preceding vowel is pronounced in the same pointed manner as in Kurukh, but instead of pronouncing another sound after the check, the throat is only opened and the air allowed to pass, whereby a kind of "echo" of the first vowel is produced, as Father Hoffmann has called that aftersound very appropriately (p. 3 of his grammar). The Mundari Grammarians all, taking no notice of Santāli phonetics, this being not within the scope of their books, call this equivalent of Santāli guttural and palatal semi-consonants a vowel check, and rightly so from a Mundari standpoint, for nothing of the kind of a consonant is ever spoken or heard. In consequence thereof, they regard g and j, the guttural and palatal soft consonants, which here and there in certain grammatical forms reappear instead of the check, as euphonical. But this reappearance of g or j, which is confined to some localities, does not take place according to the fixed rules of Santāli Grammar.

Many names of places in the Ranchi District, compounds with da', are pronounced dag (Ichādāg, Banadāg, etc.) at least by all non-Muṇdās. The Muṇdāri name Hardugan, of the base du', is also to be noted here. Monosyllabic Muṇdāri bases and some dissyllabic bases too, ending in a' o' u' insert g before the passive suffix o', e.g., mago'a, togo'a, giugo'a of ma', to', giu', and also tebaga' of teba'. I noticed these forms chiefly in the Sonpur Pargana and in Porahat. Where no insertion of g takes place, the check on the vowel remains, that on the

passive suffix o' becoming less audible. I never noticed a g replacing the check on the Genitive suffixes a' and rea'. The emphatic forms amaga' and aiñaga' are apparently contractions of amagea' and aiñagea'. In Nagpuria, the Hindi dialect of Chota Nagpur, which many Mundas of the Basia, Palkot, and Kolabirā Thanas speak besides their own language, there is a genitive in k, e.g., umanak (comp. Oriva sehimānankar, Hindi (जन्होंका), which is, of course, a pure Aryan form of speech. But it has never influenced the Mundari Genitive in a', the latter there also being spoken only with a slight check on the Father Hoffmann noticed (p. 1 and 2 of his grammar, that the check of the passive suffix o' is generally transferred to the categorical a following it, if the form closes with that a'. e.g., bajoa'. I have noticed the insertion of a w between passive suffix o' and categorical a in Sonpur. Father De Smet mentions also such forms (p. 3 of his Grammar); e.g., hobaowa', namowa'. Bases with labials seem to favour this insertion of w. Forms in g are heard likewise, e.g., banoga'. A slight check is then heard on the categorical a. Pleonastic passive forms are sometimes heard like baiugoa'.

Bases ending in e' and i' (corresponding to Santali bases in ch') in Sonepur generally take j in the future, inserting an e between j and the categorical a, e.g. nijeai of ni', rejeako of re'. Before the passive suffix this i is often too inserted, and if not, the vowel check is dropped, e.g. ketejoa, of kete' tukujoa, of tukui'. The latter form shows, that bases ending in another vowel but i and e, when their palatal semi-consonant was lost, added i in Mundari, which then is changed into j, comp. the bases goi' lai' dubui', etc. In Porahat the bases ending in e' and i' do not insert i before the Passive suffix, but, probably in analogy to the bases in a. o. u, -g. Forms like nigoa', of ni'. regoa', of re', peregoa' of pere', are frequently heard, but of goi gojoa' only. Father Hoffmann has also observed these forms (see his Grammar, p. 152, Rem. 2). the inserted j is mostly heard in Sonepur in predicate forms with the infixed personal pronoun of the third person. I have told already that forms like neljadiai, emadiain, dotadia kajiakadiale, agukediako, and itulediape, etc., are often contracted into neljaiai, emaiaiñ, dotaiam, kajiakaiale, agukiako, and ituliane respectively. In consequence of the dropped d'a slight check is sometimes heard on the preceding a, while the e coalesces with the infix i into i. Now this infix i, corresponding to Santāli e, has never a check, and as far as I can see from the specimens in Santāli, e never has a palatal semi-consonant. But nevertheless the Mundari infix i of the above-mentioned contracted forms in Sonepur is changed into j, e.g., nelnajai, emajaiñ, dotajam, kajiakajale, agukijako, itulijape, etc. Idon't think this j can be due to any influence of the dropped semiconsonant d' of the predicate suffixes. But the pronouns ini'

and aw, which have the check, in Sonepur form their genitive inija', and aja', and it may be, that analogously to these forms the predicative infix i is changed into j. So this j represents rather a euphonical change, than proving the presence of a semi-consonant as the compiler would have it. All this goes to show that the Mundāri equivalents of the Santāli semi-consonants are neither uniform nor stable in their character, and that they in this respect, as well as in their pronunciation, differ widely from Santāli.

An unbiassed examination of the grammars and original language specimens of Mundāri must have led to the acknowledgment of this difference. But as it has been looked at through Santāli spectacles and no justice was done to its phonetical peculiarities, the language has been misrepresented and distorted in the records of the Linguistical Survey.

As a principle, I think, in every language only that is written what is really spoken. Nobody will find fault with the French, because they have no d in their jour (Latin dies), which is still preserved in the pronunciation of Italian giorno; or with the English, because they write no g in lay (Saxon leggan) as the Germans do in legen; or with Hindispeaking people who write the Tadbhava word सावन (Sanscr यावणः) instead of the Tatsama word जावन used in Bengali; or with somebody transliterating the Urdu word tarjuma (Arabic الرّحة) into Roman characters without h. because Persian has that h. So Mundari words should, and I am sure, will also in future not be written with a, a, k', ch', t', and p', which letters represent Santāli sounds not spoken in Mundāri. The letters a and a are to be dropped altogether. For the dental and labial semi-consonants d'and b' respectively should be used and for the vowel check the sign ('), as Father Hoffmann used, them. The apostrophe is preferable to the colon (:) (visarga in Nagri), because the latter with Roman characters is an interpunction only, while the apostrophe serves to denote elisions and similar checks. I have written the Mundari words in this paper as suggested. In Devanagri for the vowel check the visarga is used; for the dental and labial semi-consonants, at least of the roots, \mathbf{z} and \mathbf{z} (with virāma) should be written.

I am afraid, the section on Mundari phonetics in the Linguistical Survey will disappoint all who live among the Mundas and know the language, and will be misleading for beginners who use it in the study of the language, and for scholars abroad. I hope this is the only serious mistake found in the volumes of the Linguistical Survey, which should be corrected in a publication of such prominence and authority.

21. Chondrodonta Bosei: a new species of fossil Lamellibranchs from the Hippurite-bearing beds of Seistan.

By Ernest W. Vredenburg.

The geological period known as the Cretaceous witnessed an extraordinary development of certain ponderous marine bivalves, in which the ordinary structure of a pelecypod shell has became disguised to such an extent as to simulate frequently a coralloid growth, while the valves are apt to become so unequal in size as to bear to one another very much the same relation as the shell and operculum of a gastropod. These singular organisms were for a long time a puzzle to naturalists, and it is only quite lately that the homology of their structures has begun to be clearly understood. They grew together in shallow water forming large masses that recall a coral-reef much more than the banks built by certain gregarious mollusca such as ovsters. This abnormal mode of development occurs in a number of genera which are not always closely related to one another, and must be referable therefore to certain biological conditions special to the particular geological period during which these peculiar shells flourished. They reached the acme of their development towards the close of the Mesozoic or secondary period which not a single one survived. It is very remarkable to note that a closely similar mode of growth affected an entirely different class of organisms, that of the Brachiopods, at a previous period of the earth's history, that is during the final stages of the Palæozoic or Primary era. Both during the terminal stages of the Palæozoic and Mesozoic, there occurred an exceptional spreading of the oceans which overflowed all the low-lying parts of the continents, and considerably increased the area of the shallow portions of the sea floor which are best adapted to a luxurious development of marine life. It is during these exceptionally favourable periods that the peculiar types of permanently fixed organisms above alluded to have mainly flourished. In both instances, both at the end of the Palæozoic and at the end of the Mesozoic these periods of oceanic extension were followed by a sudden regression during which the sea-level sank far below present limits, and the great sub-marine continental ledges became dry land for a short time. To this sudden alteration of physical conditions is to be ascribed, in all probability, the abrupt changes in the organic world that marked the initial phases of the secondary and of the Tertiary eras.

and aw, which have the check, in Sonepur form their genitive inija', and aja', and it may be, that analogously to these forms the predicative infix i is changed into i. So this i represents rather a euphonical change, than proving the presence of a semi-consonant as the compiler would have it. All this goes to show that the Mundari equivalents of the Santali semi-consonants are neither uniform nor stable in their character, and that they in this respect, as well as in their pronunciation, differ widely from Santāli.

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21. Chondrodonta Bösei: a new species of fossil Lamellibranchs from the Hippurite-bearing beds of Seistan.

By Ernest W. Vredenburg.

The geological period known as the Cretaceous witnessed an extraordinary development of certain ponderous marine bivalves, in which the ordinary structure of a pelecopod shell has became disguised to such an extent as to simulate frequently a coralloid growth, while the valves are apt to become so unequal in size as to bear to one another very much the same relation as the shell and operculum of a gastropod. These singular organisms were for a long time a puzzle to naturalists, and it is only quite lately that the homology of their structures has begun to be clearly understood. They grew together in shallow water forming large masses that recall a coral-reef much more than the banks built by certain gregarious mollusca such as oysters. This abnormal mode of development occurs in a number of genera which are not always closely related to one another, and must be referable therefore to certain biological conditions special to the particular geological period during which these peculiar shells flourished. They reached the acme of their development towards the close of the Mesozoic or secondary period which not a single one survived. It is very remarkable to note that a closely similar mode of growth affected an entirely different class of organisms, that of the Brachiopods, at a previous period of the earth's history, that is during the final stages of the Palæozoic or Primary era. Both during the terminal stages of the Palæozoic and Mesozoic, there occurred an exceptional spreading of the oceans which overflowed all the low-lying parts of the continents, and considerably increased the area of the shallow portions of the sea floor which are best adapted to a luxurious development of marine life. It is during these exceptionally favourable periods that the peculiar types of permanently fixed organisms above alluded to have mainly flourished. In both instances, both at the end of the Palæozoic and at the end of the Mesozoic these periods of oceanic extension were followed by a sudden regression during which the sea-level sank far below present limits, and the great sub-marine continental ledges became dry land for a short time. To this sudden alteration of physical conditions is to be ascribed, in all probability, the abrupt changes in the organic world that marked the initial phases of the secondary and of the Tertiary eras.

To this cause is due no doubt the sudden disappearance, at the end of the secondary, of the curious mollusca here referred to. Some of these singular shells belong to the extinct family of the Rudistæ of which the most familiar type is represented by the large shells known as Hippurites. Curiously enough there has not been so far a single specimen of a genuine Hippurite discovered within the present limits of the Indian Empire, though certain closely related genera, especially Radiolites, are frequent amongst the deposits of the age of the great banks of Rudistæ. In one of the lately published numbers of the Records of the Geological Survey of India (xxxviii, pt. 3), I gave descriptions of two species of genuine Hippurites which were discovered quite close to the Indian frontier, in Seistan.

A close study of the Rudistæ banks constantly reveals the presence of abnormal organisms in which the original characters are not disguised to such an extent as in the Rudistæ themselves, though they are apt to assume a very exceptional appearance. In the case of the Seistan deposits, the hippurites are accompanied by large numbers of a singular bivalve which I was unable to refer to any genus with which I was then acquainted. I published a photograph of this curious organism, and, thanks to the courtsey of Dr. Emil Böse of Mexico, I am now able to give a name to this fossil.

The following is Dr. Emil Böse's communication dated Mexico den 30 January, 1910.

"In Ihrer letzen Publikation in den Records der Geol. Survey bilden Sie eine Bivalve ab, von der Ihnen das Genus unbekannt ist. Der Abbildung nach zu schliessen, durfte es sich wohl um eine Chondrodonta ähnlich der Chondrodonta Munsoni Hill handeln, die in den Ver. Staaten im Gaultvorkemmen soll, hier in Mexico findet sich eine verwändte species in Cenoman, in Europa kommt die Chondrodonta Joannæ im Turon, aber nach Schnarrenberger auch Vorcenoman vor. Sie finden einen Theil der betreffenden Litteratur in der Arbeit Stanton's "Chondrodonta, a new genus of ostreiform mollusks from the cretaceous, with descriptions of the Genotype and a new species" (Proc. U. S. National Museum, xxiv, p. 130-307). Nicht erwahnt ist darin Z.B. die Publikationen von R. Hoernes über Ostrea Joannæ, dis Sie aber leicht finden werden.

In der Hoffnung, dass Ihnen diese Angaben von Nutzen sein werden verbleibe ich mit dem Ausdrucke grosster Hochachtung.''

Amongst the specimens from Seistan there are several in which the hinge is slightly damaged in such a manner as to show the peculiar interlocking chondrophores characteristic of the genus established by Stanton in the work above alluded to by Dr. Böse, and thereby confirming Dr. Böse's attribution. They can be distinguished in the particular specimen already illustrated in the Records of the Geological Survey.

After examining the literature on the subject, it seems to me that the Seistan specimens represent a new species, which I have much pleasure in dedicating to my distinguished informer.

The species may be defined as follows: large, elongate-triangular, greatly compressed, with undulating almost flat valves, of which the upper one often shows a tendency to become concave; both valves similarly decorated with uniformly crowded excessively fine angular ribs increasing by dichotomy with the increase in size of the shell.

The dimensions ¹ of the figured specimen are about 160 mm. in height, 118 in length, and 20 mm. to 30 mm. in thickness. In another larger specimen, the approximate dimensions are

respectively 175 mm., 129 mm., and 25 to 35 mm.

All the specimens have the valves united. Judging from fractured examples the hinge plate seems relatively much shorter than in *Chondrodonta Joannæ*, Choffat, and *Ch. Munsoni*, (Hill) Stanton. These species differ from the Seistan form by their distinctly coarser sculpture. The form from northern Italy described by Boehm² as *Ostrea* aff. O. *Munsoni* and by Fütterer³ as *Pinna ostraeiformis* seems more nearly related, though, even in this case, the ornamentation still remains somewhat coarser. The occurrence of the ribs varies somewhat in the Seistan specimens, and is in some cases coarser toward the umbo than near the margin, but still it always remains finer than in the Alpine fossils even in the most extreme cases.

The nearest relative to C. Bösei appears to be the form described by Choffat as Ostrea Delgadoi (Faune Cretacique du Portugal. i, p. 36, pl. iii, figs. 1 and 2), which does not seem to have been included by Stanton in the genus Chondrodonta, though referred by Choffat to the group of "Ostrea Joanna." The ornamentation appears to be absolutely identical with that of the Asiatic species, only the size is much smaller. The shape of the shell is less elongate than in the full-grown specimens from Seistan, but this is a character which cannot be depended on in shells of such variable shape. Judging by the sections across the valves published by Choffat, the hinge-plate in Chondrodonta Delgadoi also seems relatively short, constituting another point of resemblance with the Asiatic form. Should specimens of intermediate size be described, it may become necessary to unite C. Bösei with C. Delgadoi.

When first mentioning this shell (Records Geolog. Survey of India, xxxviii, p. 223), I suggested that it may perhaps be

³ Palcont. Abhandl., Dames und Kayser, vi (new series), ii, 1896, pt. 2, p. 259.

J I am indebted to Bankim B. Gupta. Museum Assistant, for measuring the specimens.

² Beiträge zur Kenntniss der Kreide in den Südalpen. I Die Schiosi-und Calloneghe-Fauna, *Palæontographica* xli. 1894, p. 96, pl. viii, figs. 1, 2.

related to the Pinnidæ, and Fütterer has described the Alpine specimens under the generic name of *Pinna*. Douvillé has also expressed himself in favour of a connection with the Pinnidæ (Comptes-rendus des seances de la Société géologique de France 5 Mai, 1902, p. 68). Stanton has suggested a relation to the group of the Pectinidæ, perhaps to *Hinnites*. R. Hoernes (Sitz. math.-nat. Cl. k. Ak. Wiss., exi, 1902, pp. 667-684), from his own observations and those of G. Boehm, has shown that the structure of the shell in which the ribs affect only the external layers, while the inner ones are smooth, and also the absence of a distinct prismatic layer, clearly separate this genus from the Pinnidæ, while bringing into close connection with the Ostreidæ.

In all instances the shells of *Chondrodonta* whether from Europe, Asia, or America appear to accompany deposits containing shells of the Rudistæ. It may be noticed that the closely related form from the Venetian Alps occurs with an association of fossils closely similar to the Seistan species, and that the Alpine beds have been referred by several authors to the Turonian, which is also approximately the age which I suggested for the Seistan fossils, that is upper Turonian or at the limit of Turonian and Senonian.

22. Causes of the Dismemberment of the Maurya Empire.

By Mahāmahopādhyāya Haraprasād Shāstrī.

Vincent Smith, in his now classical work on Ašoka in the "Rulers of India" Series, regrets that the causes of the fall of the great empire of Ašoka are not known. In his 'Early History of India' he suggests that Kalinga was the first to declare its independence, and it was followed by Vidarbha and Andhra countries. The Punjab was lost to the empire on account of the invasions of Bactrian Greeks. All this is true. But why is it that the military despotism, so well-established, disappeared only forty or fifty years after the death of the greatest Indian monarch, whose memory is cherished with affection all over the Buddhist world, and who is regarded as a great and good ruler all over the world?

The causes are not far to seek. Ašoka was, to all intents and purposes, a Buddhist monarch, and a bigoted one, too. preaches indeed full toleration to the professors of all reli-He finds fault with "Ātma-pāsanda-pūjā" and "Parapāsanda-garahā, "which he considers to be of no use. may conclude that the different religious sects of India enjoyed complete freedom of conscience in his empire. But his other edicts tell a different tale. He put a stop to all animal sacrifices throughout his vast empire, and not, as Vincent Smith says. at Pātālíputra alone, otherwise the promulgation of that edict at Girnār, Khālsi and Saabazgadi would lose all force and be This is an order which was certainly directed against the Brāhmanas, a privileged class wherever they settled. Brāhmanas of those days were very fond of animal sacrifices. In fact with the diffusion of the Aryan people in different parts of India, the number of sacrifices increased, and with it the number of victims in each sacrifice. That a sudra ruler should. by one single fiat, put a stop to this long-established and cherished religious institution was certainly very offensive to the powerful body of the Brāhmanas and their followers all over the empire. This was followed by another edict in which Asoka boasted that those who were regarded as gods on earth have been reduced by him, in a short space of time, into false gods. If it means anything, it means that the Brāhmanas, who were regarded as Bhūdevas or gods on earth, had been shown up by him. This also was regarded by Brāhmanas as casting a slur on their whole body. They had the privilege from high antiquity as the superintendents of morals of the entire community in India. If anyone offended against the rules of

caste, the rules of society, the rules of religion, and the rules of conduct, they were the persons to prescribe atonements and levy fines. Feeding Brahmanas was regarded as an act of merit that would atone for many social offences. The appointments created by Asoka of Dharma Mahamatas, that is, of superintendents of morals, was a direct invasion of the rights and privileges of the Brahmanas. And they were not the persons to brook the injury done to them quietly. crown all, Asoka, in one of his edicts, insisted upon all his officers to strictly observe the principles of Danda-samatā and Vyavahāra-samatā, that is, the equality of punishment and the equality in law-suits, irrespective of caste colour and The words Danda-samatā and Vyavahāra-samatā has not been properly translated by any of the scholars that have dealt with the Asoka inscriptions. They have not, in fact, grasped the full meaning of these words. The Brahmanas have always claimed the privilege of immunity from criminal punishment. For offences, however heinous, their highest punishment was banishment with all their property and possession from the kingdom. Capital punishments were unknown to them. ral punishment to a Brāhmana was illegal. The highest indignity that can be inflicted on a Brahmana was the cutting of his top-knot. They also enjoyed various privileges in law-suits. They could not be summoned as witnesses. If they came to the witness-box of their own accord, the Judge is simply to take down their statements without cross-examinations, and so Under such circumstances, the prospects of being huddled together in prison with the unspeakable non-Aryans, whipped. impaled alive, and hanged, were very offensive to the highly educated, respectable and privileged community. They tolerated these indignities heaped on them as long as the strong hand of Asoka was guiding the empire. They were sullen and discontented. As soon as that strong hand was removed, they seemed to have stood against his successors. But they were not military people. They could not fight themselves. Ksatriyas, who fought for them and made them great, were all extirpated by the Nandas. They began to cast their eyes for a military man to fight for them. And they found such a man in Pusya Mittra, the Commander-in-Chief of the Maurya empire. To what caste Pusya Mittra belonged nobody knows. He belonged perhaps to those turbulent military spirits who had been driven away from Persia by the Greek conquest of that country. For the second half of his name, Mittra, and that of all the members of his family show his Persian origin. He was a Brahminist to the core and hated the Buddhists. At first he led the Maurya armies against the Greeks, who advanced year after year to the very heart of the Maurya empire. After a successful campaign, he returned to Pātaliputra with his victorious army, and the feeble representative

of Asoka on the throne accorded him a fitting reception. A camp was formed outside the city and a review was held of a large army. In the midst of the festivities an arrow struck the king on the forehead. The king expired instantly. The Maurya empire was gone and Pusya Mittra became the master of the situation, and we read in the Mālavikāgnimittra that he remained with his army at Pataliputra and made his son king of Vidisā. We clearly see the hands of Brāhmanas in this great revolution. For, shortly after the revolution, Pusya Mittra planned a horse sacrifice at Pātaliputra, the very capital of Asoka, who prohibited the slaughter of animals throughout his empire. Does not this show the Brāhmanas triumphant? Vasumittra, his grandson, was appointed to guard the horse in its unrestrained career through his empire. His mother, the queen of Agnimittra, invoked the blessings of Brahmanas for her son, and she arranged for the distribution of 800 gold money a month to विद्याचार्योभ्यो ब्राह्मणेभ्यः। Eight hundred gold money a month is a very respectable educational grant Buddhist books Pusya Mittra is regarded as a persecutor of Buddhism. In fact, he was entirely in the hands of Brahmanas, and in two generations, the Brahmanas not only made themselves actual masters of the Maurya empire as it then stood, but spread their influence far and wide, gave a new turn to Buddhist and Jaina religions, compiled and codified all branches of knowledge then known, and gave a turn to Brāhmanism which it has not lost ever since. It was this Pusva Mittra at whose sacrifices Patanjali officiated, and it was under his patronage that he wrote his great work the Mahābhāsva. The Kānvas codified the Manu Samhita, they caused Bhasyas to be written on the philosophical Sūtrās, they recast the Mahābhārata and the Rāmāvana to their present shape, they caused the Nātvasastra to be compiled from the previous literature on the subject. and they even caused the codification of the Kāmā Sāstra from the pre-existing materials. When not actually raised to the imperial dignity, they were the gurus of the Sungas and profoundly influenced their policy in Government. When they lost their imperial dignity, they remained for several generations at the head of the Brahminist community and gave it law. We find in the Manu-Samhita compiled under their influence all the rights and privileges of Brahmanas, which Asoka wanted to take away, fully confirmed and legalised; and their dignity raised to the highest pitch. For in several passages we find that the Brahmanas were the Lords of the Universe. they are the Lords of everything "मर्ने खाभिपति हैं मः" the gods on earth whom Ašoka proved to be false gods.

¹ In some editions it is one hundred gold money, in others the amount is not named.

again raised themselves to their former position, and even to higher position. How Asoka's policy of dealing equal punishments to all and giving no privilege in law suits fared in the long run, may be gathered from the Mrcchakatika. King Palaka of Ujjavini seems to have been a follower of Asoka. In his kingdom the Brāhmanas fared very badly. Cārudatta, a Brāhmana merchant, was reduced to penury with all his followers. other Brāhmana Šarvilaka felt so low that he had to take to thieving for his livelihood. Low, wretched people were advanced to high dignities. In the trial of Carudutta, the Judge was obliged to find him guilty, and pointed out to the king that Brāhmanas should not be capitally punished. But the king insisted upon Danda-samatā and ordered that he should be impaled alive. Before the order could be executed, however, there was a revolution. King Pālaka was hurled down from his throne. and Carudutta was raised to the dignity of the Prime Minister, and Sarvilaka raised to a high dignity. This Indian literature bears testimony how the great empire of Asoka came to an end by the opposition of the Brahmanas whom he wanted to reduce to the level of the common folk.

23. The Word "Scarlet."

By General A. Hontum-Schindler, of Teheran.

[In connection with a short note by Dr. Denison Ross which was published in August, 1908, in this Journal, General A. Hontum-Schindler, the well-known authority on all that concerns the Persian people and their language, has been good enough to send us the following interesting paper for publication.]

It seems to be generally accepted that the word scarlet is derived from the Persian or Arabic, and dictionaries give many forms of the etymon, but it is not certain that all the forms given have the same etymology, neither that they mean the same thing. Of all the forms given I consider sakirlāt, or better saghirlāt, to be the original and fundamental one. The various forms of the word and their meanings, as I find them in the dictionaries which I possess, are as follows:—

Ferhang-i-Rashīdī.

Sakirlāt.—A well-known woollen cloth (jāmahiṣūf) made in Europe. It is not known whether the word is Persian or of another language, and some say that the Persian has <u>gh</u>ain instead of kāt.

Siklāt—According to the kāmūs a woollen cloth used for covering howdahs of women.

Sikiāţūn—a town in Rūm where siklāt and other stuffs are woven, and as most pieces are woven in black and blue (kebūd), anything black and blue was named after that town. Mulla Surūrī Kāsht is of opinion that siklāṭūn was originally siklaṭ-gūn meaning blue, because in former times the colour of siklāṭ was always blue.

Ferhang-i-Surūrī.

Sakirlāt, sakirtāt, sakilāt—My copy omits the meanings.

Ferhang-i-Jehāngiri.

My copy does not have the word at all.

Burhān-i-kāti.

Saķirlāt—A woollen fabric woven in Europe, also in Rūm; it is also written with t.

Sakillāt, Sakallāt—Same as sakirlāt, a well-known stuff (pārchah) of wool; also written with one l and t (siklāt).

Siklātūn—Same as sakirlāt; it is also called cloth of Nakhchīvān. Some are of opinion that it is a cloth woven in the city of Siklātūn. It is also the name of a colour, some say blue because Siklātūn was originally Siklāt gūn and in former times the colour of siklāt was always blue.

Burhān-i-Jāmi.

Saķirlāt, saķillāt.—A woollen cloth made in Europe, apparently ordinary broad-cloth $(m\bar{a}h\bar{u}t)$, etc., as above.

Saklātīn—Same as sakirlāt and cloth of Nakhchīvān.

I have a collection of letters written by Rashīd-al-dīn, the Vazīr of the Mongol kings of Persia, from circa 1290 to 1318, and in letter No. 34 to his son Khojah Majd-al-dīn, ordering various stuffs and stores to be sent to Tabriz from the different provinces, the word $saghirl\bar{a}t$ appears twice, once in the list of things to be sent from Rūm and again in the list of Arsinjān. The opinion of the Ferhang-i-Rashīdī that ghain may stand for $k\bar{a}f$ is here confirmed, but nevertheless the word is not Persian. but of foreign origin as the t shows.

It appears that the Persian lexicographers of the 17th century considered siklāt, siklātun, siklātīn to be the same as sakirlāt or saghirlāt, viz., a blue woollen cloth made in Europe. But siklāt is the Arabic rendering of the Greek cyclas (κυκλάς), "a woman's gown cut circularly," and in the Middle Ages became to mean a heavy damask-like silk stuff. In the latter Middle Ages it was generally interwoven with gold. In Europe it was known as siglaton, and that made in Europe [notably at Al Maryat (Almeria) in Spain, as Edrisi relates, circa 1150] was mostly scarlet, while that made in the East, notably in Baghdad and Tabriz, was usually dark blue, as the Persian dictionaries have it s.v. siklātūn. The Persian lexicographers are right as to the colour of the siklātūn but wrong as regards the material. Saķirlāt, saghirlāt (and perhaps variants of it

¹ W Heyd, Geschichte des Levantehandels im Mittelalter, quoting Prof. Karabacek's Ueber einige Benennungen mittelalterlicher Gewebe, Mitteil. d. K. K. Mus. f. Kunst u. Industrie, Wien, März, 1879. It has Cyclas, Kreisförmig zugeschnittenes Frauenkleid. Pape, Griech. Wörterbuch has κυκλά, ein Staatskleid der Frauen mit rund herum-laufendem Saumo.

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as sakillāt, sakalāt) is the Chinese sa-ha-la, a woollen cloth. Probably at first all saghirlāt was red and the word introduced into Europe became in the Latin of the Middle Ages scarlatum, scarletum, adj. scarlatinus, the middle high German scharlāt, scharlachīn, Luther's (1522) scharlacken, scharlaken, English scarlet (Tyndale's N.T. 1525?), French escarlatte, écarlate, etc., and denoted the colour and not the stuff. The best siķlātūn was made in Baghdad and Tabriz, and the fact of Rashīd-al-dīn's ordering for his household at Tabriz a large quantity of saghirlāt from Rūm and Arsinjān would also prove that it was not the same as $siklāt\bar{u}n$.

In the lists ordering saghirlāt from Rūm and Arsinjān there also appear $kim\underline{k}h\bar{a}$, $kat\bar{i}fah$, $s\bar{u}f$ and $kat\bar{a}n$. It is difficult to say what these fabrics precisely were. $Kim\underline{k}h\bar{a}$, also $Kim\underline{k}h\bar{a}b$, camocato, camocas, etc., of the Middle Ages, later, the Kincob of Anglo-Indian trade, was adamask silk, frequently, not always, interwoven, or embroidered with gold (Heyd), while the Burhān-i-kati' explains it as a figured or painted cloth (jāmah-imunakķāsh) of many colours and also of one colour. Katīfah is explained as a kind of velvet or plush (wool or silk?); $s\bar{u}f$, originally wool, may here stand for an all-woollen cloth as specified in another letter (No. 47) " $s\bar{u}f$ mans $\bar{u}j$ az pashm," $s\bar{u}f$ woven of wool, or for a watered, or waved (moire) stuff half silk half cotton as nowadays made in India and Persia (Yezd, Kashan) and called $s\bar{u}f$; $kat\bar{a}n$ or $katt\bar{a}n$ is linen.

The "skarlets in great demand" in India in the latter part of the 16th century (Birdwood's Report on the E. I. Company's trade) were no doubt the saghirlat and sakirlat of the lexicographers, scarlet woollen cloth, broad-cloth, manufactured

in England, the $m\tilde{a}h\tilde{u}t$ of the present day.

Kimkhā, I believe, is a Mongolian or Northern Chinese word; may not saķirlāt have a similar origin? In Rashīd-aldīn's letter quoted above there is also a list of various stuffs ordered from Khātai (Northern China). The list has kimkhā, wrmak (a woollen cloth), aṭlās woven of wool, nachet (nacco, nacchetto, nacchetti de seta d'oro, of Rubruquis, Marco Polo, Pegolotti, gold brocade), etc., etc., but neither saghirlāt nor siķlāt.

NOTE.

Among the records of the Home Department I have recently come across a Portuguese letter, dated November 21st, 1787, addressed to Lord Clive by the king of Siam. In this letter occur many interesting words, among them the word escarlata. The king sends as a present (sagoate) to Lord Clive

¹ Atlas as now made in India is, I believe, half cotton half silk.

² Another form of Saguate, from the Turkish سيرغات.

several carpets (alcatifa de fiado), some muskets (espringardas), and two pieces of vermilion scarlet (duas peses de escarlata vermelho).

This last phrase proves that scarlet at this time still repre-

sented a material and not a colour.

(In Jäschke's Tibetan Dictionary we find under saq-lad (মান্মের') two meanings:

(1) fine-cloth, European broad-cloth; and

(2) round or twisted lace, round tape, strips of cloth set with spangles.)

E. DENISON Ross.

24. Śrī Hemacandrācārya's Yoga-Śāstra with the author's own commentary called Svopajūa-vivaraṇa published by the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

A Rejoinder by the Editor to the Review published in the Zeitschrift der Deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft by Dr. Ferdinando Belloni-Fillipi.

By Sri Vijayadharma Sūri.

For many years it has been my duty and pleasure to teach Hemacandra's Yoga-Sastra to successive generations of Jaina Sādhus and Srāvakas. The want of a critical edition of the text with the author's own commentary was keenly felt by every one engaged in the teaching and study of it. A European edition of it, that was published some 35 years ago, contained the text only printed in Roman character of the first four of the 12 prakāsas with a German translation. This edition, therefore, was of very little use to the class of students taking real interest in its study. There was another edition containing the text only, and a Guirati translation both of the text and the commentary published by Bhimsi Mānik, and was, therefore, not suited to the purpose of the students desiring to follow the subject in its original as laid down by the author both with respect to text and commentary. I was every now and then requested by my students to undertake an edition containing both the text and the author's own commentary on it, but owing to the scanty leisure at my disposal I was obliged to postpone this work for a very long period. Three or four formes of the first fasciculus of my edition were already printed when I was informed of another edition being taken in hand by Dr. Ferdinando Belloni-Fillipi under the auspices of the Jaina-Dharma-Prasāraka Sabhā of Bhāvnagar. And a few days later, that Sabhā sent to me for revision the first instalment of the press copy prepared by the learned scholar. This manuscript remained with me for a period of three months. Though I am not in a position to reproduce all such points which I marked then in his manuscript. I shall quote one point which I well remember and which will clearly indicate the nature of the difficulties he had to meet with in the course of his work.

For my reading affer, in page 5, line 9, he gives affer and marks it as an unsolved mystery. It would never have been the case with a Jaina who knows that affer is a unfunface or technical word and means unam. It would be enough to say

here, that every page of Dr. Belloni's manuscript which I examined made me more and more convinced that the Yoga-Sastra with its commentary is a book fit rather to be edited by a Jaina than by a non-Jaina, however erudite he might happen to be. So I continued my work as energetically as ever. the matter of adopting the text and the variants I have followed the Indian method. The Indian Pandits as a rule adopt the authoritative and the traditional readings for their text, and in this they are guided first by the reading handed down by Guruparamparā (i.e., by successive generations of teachers), and, secondly, by citations of passages made in other works. For instance, many of the passages in the Yoga-Sastra occur verbatim in the Mahavīra-Carita (a work of great value and merit written by Hemacandra before the Yoga-Sastra) and other works written before or after the Yoga-Sastra by Hemacandra and various other writers. I have always adopted that reading in my text, which is both traditionally known to me as the original, and in which I had the support of the majority of works collated (these are thirteen in number as will be seen in the sequel).

ষন্ত্ৰৰ, page 2, line 4 of my edition, was found invariably in all my manuscripts with the exception of the one marked ৰ (for the designation of manuscripts: vide the critical notice appended to this rejoinder) which has অ্থন্থৰ—and this I have given as a variant in the footnote; both these words mean the same thing and both of them equally suit the context.

Then comes my reading राजर, page 4, line 17. This is the reading to be met with even in the Mahāvīra-Carita (2nd Sarga, 67th Sloka, Triṣaṣṭi-śalākā-caritra, Tenth Parva, leaf 13, Jaina-Dharma-Prasāraka Sabhā's edition. As regards this work of Hemacandra, vide Peterson's Fifth Report on the Search of Sanskrit Manuscripts in Bombay Circle, pp. 4—7, April 1892—March 1895) where it is cited by the author from his Yoga-Sāstra. All the manuscripts which I have got of this latter book contain राजर, which is happier and more sensible.

Now of बिसे in the Sloka कुबायन्य मा यामीद् दृष्टिमें विषभीषण। दित तुण्डं बिसे खिला पपी स समतास्त्रम् ॥ २८॥ (page 15, line 11) which when translated runs thus:—"Let not my glance terrible like poison go anywhere else, with the object in view, he drank the ambrosia of quietitude putting his mouth into a hole." The word बिसे thus means "into a hole." I cannot see what the word बसे would mean in the present Sloka. Neither do I find it in any of my manuscripts of the Yoga-Sästra and of the Mahā-vīra-Carita, where it occurs in the 269th Sloka of the 3rd Sarga. It occurs also in the same Kathā by the great Hari-bhadra Sūri, in his Āvasyaka Vṛtti in the line नाई सो बिसे तुंड

etc., leaf 84 of our manuscript of the work. We find it again in Āvassaga-nijuttī-chunnī of Jinadāsa Mahattara in the line नाई सो बिसे तुडं etc., page 70 of our manuscript, dated Samvat 1500. Everywhere I find बिसे, and see no reason why the critic should introduce बसे in this instance and mark बिसे B. D. and बसे A. B.

I need not dwell much on जोए (page 18, line 20) and जोए; both the forms being correct, I should simply say that all my manuscripts give the form जाए. I consulted Mahāvīra-Carita (4th Sarga, 180th S'loka) on the point, there too I find जाए.

Now for my reading एनन् (page 33, line 17): the variant एनन् which the critic finds in his manuscript A. is grammatically wrong. According to the rule त्यदामेनदेनदो -॥२।१।३३३॥ (Siddha-Hema) with the खिकार of नित्यमन्दादेशे॥२।१।३१॥ (S. H.) the form is inadmissible here, since there is no trace of anvādeśa in the lines बद्धि कथिन्द यथेनन् प्ररोधेन नथापि दि etc. It is unusual for an Indian Pandit to mention the form एनन् even as a variant in the present instance.

Now ऋषभ, which the critic suggests in place of my इषभ (page 49, line 3), when standing immediately after एषा, may bring in some dubious points in question, and hence better to be avoided according to the rules of poetic diction. इषभ is synonymous with ऋषभ, and its use in the present case is essential in consideration of the Prasāda Guṇa of a Kāvya. I have got इषभ in all my MSS. It occurs also in connection with the same anecdote in the line " अस्तिषा इषभस्य विष्यपतेः पत्नी दिनीयेत्यभी—" in the Padmānanda Kāvya of Amaracandra Sūri, 8th Sarga, S'loka 171 (leaf 55, of my MS.).

Then in page 68, line 12, चाराबीचारचरिया नाजचाराऽतिचारियः। चिरकालाजितानाक्ष्यभारासीनियाऽविज्ञान्॥ २८॥ he finds the variant रासीमियाविज्ञाम् in his manuscripts A, B, and C. Manuscripts containing such a reading may be high class ones, but the Pandits I believe, are sure to discard it as a clerical mistake. यसोरासीन् refers to चारान् by Utprekṣā, and this चारान् being plural यसोरासीन् must also be plural, moreover the word रास् (and one short evident point that could be marked even by a superficial reader is that a word like रास्ने ending in long ī, as the critic puts it in रास्ने नियाविज्ञान, is nowhere to be found in the whole range

Sanskrit literature either in masculine or in feminine, I have taken therefore द्वांग which is but too patent a correction of दागी) is never feminine according to Hemacandra and other Indian lexicographers (vide Hemacandra's Lingānuśāsana, Kevalapullinga Prakaraṇa, 15th Sloka, पचरागियराम्बादः vide also the Amara, Kāṇḍa 2nd, 6th Varga, Sloka 42nd, पुत्रदामी तूलारः मूटम-चिम्याम्; vide also the Vaijayantī, Gustav Oppert's edition, page 186, line 6, रागिपुद्वोक्दरा नरि.

Again in page 83, line 5, सुरासुरनरोपास्था प्रीतो स्थेष मयास्थ किस the critic has in his manuscript A सर्थाप in place of our मयास्थ. If we consider this line in connection with the one that follows this, viz., मार्ग एव समः सन्धे रथः सच्चोऽपि भच्चते, it should be thus construed एष सुरासुरनरोपास्था प्रीतोऽस्त, मयाऽस्थ किस्, सच्चोऽपि रथः मार्गे एव समः सन्धे (तु) भच्चते and the meaning we have then is "he is pleased by being served by gods, demons and men; what am I to him (मया पद्म किस् translated in the active voice); even a well-equipped chariot, adequate for the road; (but) is broken in the bush."

[Here Bharat's brother compares himself with bush: he means to say that gods, etc., helped Bharat to run smoothly in the way of prosperity, whereas he may cause his destruction just as a way through the bush may lead to the destruction of a chariot. This passage also occurs in the same story of Bharat in the Ādīśvara Caritram, Sarga 5, Sloka 146 (vide the Trisasti Salākāpuruṣa Caritra, Jaina-Dharma-Prasāraka Sabhā's edition, leaf 129)].

The reading मराइपि which the critic has in his manuscript A in place of our मराइस fails, as far as I can judge, to give any meaning. Our explanation is simple and suits the context.

Then again page 103, line 15. I have पुत्री प्राणिपया स्ता in the couplet सम सर्वेखनायो अन्त पुत्री प्राणिपया स्ता। स्त्युकोटिं वयं प्राप्ता धिवहो देवस्थानम् ॥ अई॥ Here the reading प्राणिपयास्ता of the critic's manuscript A is seriously objectionable, since the Samāsa cannot be justified in any way; if, however, we make the Samāsa, the word स्ता in that case would be made the first member of the compound. If it be argued that प्राणिपयास्ता is a euphonic combination, that is also futile, since पस्ता can give no meaning in the sentence.

Again in page 134, line 14, where I have given भान्यादिवापः, the critic finds भान्यावादः in all his manuscripts in its place.

Now this धान्यावापः is, as is known to every Jaina, a defective reading. The word धादि is a necessary adjunct here. According to our Sastras (vide Siddhasena Sūri's Pravacana-Sāroddhāra, Tīkā, 67th Dvāra, where the writer says युग्नः प्रथमत धारधवे खाँचे पद्मात् प्रभूताण् यावद्धिनः पाण्याद्भाः साधुन् वा समागतान् धवगम्य तेषामधायाद्भावतरं जलतपुलादि प्रविद्यते साध्यप्रक रति) the word धादि indicates here that in addition to धान्त, i.e., तप्रक water, grain, wheat, etc., should also be taken. This is the Sanskrit elaboration by Hemacandra of the Prākrit gāthā which he gives at the head verbatim from the Piṇḍa-Niryukti (vide leaf 18 of the MS. of the work belonging to the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal). Malayagiri Sūri in his commentary of the gāthā takes the same view as we have done.

It is to be seen from the discussion given above that I do not pass over any thing that comes on my way without examining it in all its details. I should further like to state, that many other similar things I come across in course of my work, and at every point I have to spare a certain amount of my energy before I can definitely put down anything either as text or variant. And with a man working in this way the work will multiply with the multiplication of independent MSS. of the work he is editing. But this is not disgusting to me: I take more interest in it as is always the case with a man to whom the task of editing a work is a labour of love.

Now it remains for me to examine critically Dr. Belloni-Fillipi's other remarks concerning my work. In page 4, line 10, in the Sloka पतुष्कमुक्कमाना सा बाचं कर्तमिवार्णवाः । विवेषे सत्वरं तव नर्गनाभिम्बोन भः ॥ ११॥ Here I have निवेषे, and in this connection I have the support of all the MSS, that I have got with me. On the other hand, the critic holds that the proper reading should be विवेश, since this he finds in all his MSS, and thinks it more appropriate with respect to आनं कर्न and to the following नव. But as I understand, the word निवेश means "entered". and if the word be possibly inserted here, it must have for its nominative w: "the earth", and as a matter of common sense the earth cannot enter as a whole into anything that is situated on its own surface, as the मेच is. My use of the word विवेप is justified from the following considerations: The earth is trembling (lit., trembled as my reading विवेष means) in its own place, and by Utpreksā this trembling of the earth or the earthquake caused by the Lord's pressing the Meru with his thumb (since the force exerted upon any body will be conveyed to the base through its medium) has been taken to mean "dancing"

unanimously by all the commentators and translators. The word नव here means "on the occasion," "at the time." On this point the Gujrati translation of the Yoga-Sāstra (page 3, lines 14—17) published by Bhimsi Manik referred to above and also the Gujrati translation of the Mahāvīra-Carita (page 21, lines 15—20) (where the very same story has been given in the very same words) published by the Jaina-Dharma-Prasāraka Sabhā of Bhāvnagar, may also be consulted. And besides, all the MSS. of the Mahāvīra-Carita that I have got with me have विवेश, vide also recently published Mahāvīra-Carita, Sarga 2, Sloka 63.

Again in page 5, line 2. I read सपयिलाऽचेथिलाऽऽराधिकं झलें ति तुष्ट्वे as I find it in all my MSS. except क ख and ग. The reading of these three MSS. I have given in the foot-note. Grammatically सपयिला सापयिला are both correct according to the rule ज्ञा का ११२१३१॥ (S. H.). I have consulted the MSS. of Mahāvīra-('arita: there too I find the reading I have given in my text. ' सपयिलाऽचेथिलाथ कलाराचिकमस्वयोत्' I do not find in any of my MSS. of the Yoga-Sāstra.

Now पाणिषणकानी which the critic has in his MS. A for my reading पाणिषणकानी (page 46, line 5), does not appear to be correct, and I do not find it in any of my MSS. The reading suggested by the critic on the authority of his MS. A is wrong according to Hemacandra (vide his Lingānuśāsana, Dr. R. Otto Franke's edition, page 13, line 16); स्विशेषणका-कण is never neuter, so according to the rule विभिन्न जिन्न विशेषणिका प्रतिकारिका प्रतिकारिका प्रतिकार प्

Now of my reading भवनं, page 68, line 19, which the critic also has in his MSS. B, C, and D. Again on the authority of his MS. A he suggests the improvement मुननं. As the word मुननं never means a "temple" or a "house," it appears that the critic failed to find out the meaning of the lines where it comes, as is accepted by the Jaina authorities. The word in the present instance has been unanimously taken by all of them to mean the "temple of Sindhu-devī." The same story of Bharata occurs again in Hemacandra's Ādīśvara-carita (vide 4th Sarga, 216th Sloka of the edition published by the Jaina-Dharma-Prasāraka Sabhā of Bhāvnagar, oblong leaf 101). The meaning is clearly given by the line which reads विवाह स्थापनं स्वीविधन्—in the very same connection as will be

evident on reading the neighbouring lines. The consultation of the Gujrati translation of the Yoga-Sāstra, page 46, lines 5—8, will make the matter at once clear.

With regard to critic's reading चिद्योखिद्यादार which he thinks to be incomparably superior to the one given by me, viz., चिद्यादारयोजेन, page 43, line 22, I may say that I cannot find much difference between the two.

Again from the reading न तातो नच विक्रमः which he suggests as an improvement for my reading न तातोत्तमविक्रमः, page 82, line 13, I cannot make out anything. To me it does not give any sense whatever in spite of my utmost exertion to find one.

Then for my reading नदा जाला, page 7, line 7, he puts तदाजाला (tad ājñātvā). The ājñātvā as he gets it from नदाजाला by euphonic disjunction, cannot be supported in any way according to the rules of Sanskrit Grammar समाग्रेजन्यू ये क्वो खप्॥ ०। १। २०॥ (Pāṇinīya) अननः क्वो यप्॥ २। २। १५४॥ (S. H.); the proper form according to these rules should be आजाण not आजाला since the root जांग् is preceded by आङ्, therefore, it cannot take क्वा but it must take यप्. Such grammatical mistakes are unpardonable even for a tyro.

Again for my reading द्र्णेनमानं, page 36, line 9, he suggests द्र्णनं मानं: this is clearly a mistake, since for ekārthibhāva the omission of Vibhakti is quite essential.

Now of कपाटान्त्राम् which he gives in place of my reading कपाटां तां गुराम्, page 76, line 9. The reading I have given is without exception the one to be found in all my MSS. The reading suggested by the critic is not so happy as ours. This will be evident to any person knowing Sanskrit if he cares to bestow a little thought on it.

Now of my readings दक्षित, page 30, line 13; भोरं page 7, line 9, I have to say that they are authoritative and are to be found in the majority of my MSS. Not only that, on a little consideration it will be found that they are more appropriate to the contexts than those suggested by the critic.

The form दुर्दमः which I find only in two of my MSS., and consequently which I have given as a variant in the foot-note, is not so happy as दुर्भदः, page 104, line 6, of my text; this will be evident to anybody knowing Sanskrit considering the matter deeply.

Again such of my readings as आक्षेत्र निक्षित्र (page 10, line

6), ऋष्णेयाद् (page 14, line 18), एवंभूतो (page 24, line 13), खिख्यित (page 26, line 9), तल्लायद्वलिय (page 40, line 1), ज्याभिषीषं (page 67, line 16), which I have got in all my MSS.,—not only that, but which are found in other works such as the Avacuri on the Yoga-Sästra, the Mahāvīra-Carita (one of the MSS. of which that I have got with me is very old and very correct),—are the only authoritative ones. The readings suggested by the critic, I am sorry to say, are not to be found in any of my MSS.

कमेपुद्रजानामेन प्रभोऽप्रभो ना घात्यवानी च यो रहः छोऽनुभागननः रसन्भ रत्यवः उन्नं घ- नाण रहो घणुभागो, चन्यनायुक्तं घणुभागो रहः प्रोन्नः—It occurs also in the Fifth Karmagrantha (which we have got with the Avacūri) and in many other places. The Bhāvnagar edition of Navatatva (page 97), the commentary on Sthānānga-sūtra by Abhayadeva Sūri, the Dīpikā on this latter book by Megharāja (leaf 6 of our MS. of the work) and the Vṛhad-dravya Saṃgraha of Nemi-candra with the commentary of Brahmadeva (this work, belonging to the Digambara sect of the Jainas, is of great value and authority, vide page 80 of the Parama-Sruta-Prabhāvaka-Maṇḍala's edition) may also be advantageously consulted. Everywhere we find घनुभाग.

In what follows it will be proved by proper argument that I am not wrong in all those places where the critic says that I am. Let me examine critically the validity of my reading fai fain (page 32, line 3); here it is better to give the two words separately, since here is no compound as will be evident on a little consideration. It occurs in the same way as we have put it in the Trisasti-Salākā-Purusa-Carita by Hemcandrācārya (vide 356th Sloka of the 7th Sarga in Parva 4th of the book published by the Jaina-Dharma-Prasāraka Sabhā of Bhāvnagar).

Again our reading धंजवा in the passage प्राप्तायःकर्भसंज्या is

indisputably correct according to my views. It is an adjective to मद्देवी, and when the Samāsa is expounded we shall have प्राप्त चायुःकर्मणः संचयो यवा सा, otherwise if we put संचयाम् then the use of the word प्राप्त will be useless and redundant.

Now पापं फर्क is the critic's correction for our reading पापफर्क, page 93, line 5: what is the objection if we expound the expression as पापं च नत् फर्क चेति पापफर्क?

Again for my दुचितुः वा, page 100, line 22, he puts the other optionally common form दुचितुर्वा॰, blaming the former as a striking mistake. Does he not forget here the well-known Kārikā which closes with the words वाको तु पा विवक्षामपैन्दवै, thus defending the form we have given?

Now for our readings **qqui** and **qqui** he suggests the forms **qqui** and **qqui** as correct. These are the proper names that occur also in the Upadeśamālā-Vṛtti and Bharateśvara Bāhubali Vṛtti in the Adhikāra of Cilai-putta (Cilāti-putra) in several places.

Now we have to say something in connection with the critic's remark that भासदंश्वाभर (page 130, line 14) the word of the text should be added before चादिलाकिरण: in the commentary, the latter being a synonym for the former. In our opinion, it is not necessary in a commentary which aims at being didactic and not literary. In the present commentary the author first attempts to make the language of the text clear by a sort of paraphrase known to Sanskritists as Anvaya-mukhī Vyākhyā in which he sometimes repeats, as usual, the words of the text before their synonyms and sometimes does not (and this latter is the case in places where the words of the text naturally and unconsciously repeat themselves before their synonyms without being repeated by the commentator). This is more so because the writer's attention is not solely directed to the linguistic difficulty of the text of which he is writing the commentary and which is itself a very easy Sanskrit very often. His chief aim is to explain the text from an esoteric point of view and to enable his reader to enter deep into the mystery of the subject which is an abstruse one, and for this he takes every possible care. The most prominent features of his commentary are, as is well known to every student who has ever studied it, logical discussions, quotations from the canonized texts of Jaina Scriptures and a long series of illustrative anecdotes. The following are other instances (of course, according to my MSS.) which will clearly indicate that the author is not very particular about the linguistic difficulty of the text and that he does not strictly follow the rules of Anvaya-mukhi Vyākhyā, etc., as is necessary in a commentary intended for the instruction of boys. In page 198, line 14, the words परस्य चित्रां are the synonyms of चन्यस्य चित्रां in the Sloka 20 of the text in the same page. Again in page 388, line 4, निकासक्रेनोहने: is the synonymous rendering of चक्रसमनोहने: in the Sloka 101 preceding. The method which has been followed by Hemacandra in this connection may clearly be ascertained by the perusal of the Sloka 11 and the comment thereon in page 92. In concluding the present remark, I must say that to point such a mistake in such a work as the philosophic commentary on the Yoga-Sastra is nothing but to lower its dignity.

Now I should like to say something on such of my readings as धनमदावीरं and मनिष छला. For the first (page 7, line 8) the critic suggests the correction चन महावौरम् and for the second (page 133, line 3) the correction मनिस्त्रता. That is to say, he separates the two words which I have combined, and in a case where the uniformity holds, he combines the two words which I have put separately. I do not understand what he means by doing this. Are not the two cases similar? Is it not proper to follow the same rule or rules in one connection as in the other, the two cases being of like nature? मनीम must come separately, because the Samāsa is not possible in मनिष्कला; according to the rule मध्येपहेनियचने -॥ ३। १ ११॥ (S. H.) मनिष will have the Gati Samiña optionally, but if there be Gati Samiña. there will always be Samasa according to the rule गतिकन्यन-त्यद्रष: ॥ ३। १ ! ४२ ॥ (S. H.), and when we have the Samāsa अनञ्जाक्रो यप ॥ २। ३। १५४॥ (S. H.) we must have the form सनिवस्त . But since there is no Gati Samiña in the present case, therefore we must have them separately.

Then again of my reading उत्तमनितेयसंबर्धिसाइपुनं, page 106, line 7. The way in which I have read it can never violate the rules of prosody. The reading संबरं which he suggests as correct is grammatically wrong, and can give no sense at all. These Gāthās occur originally in the Sāmāyika-addhyayana of Āvaśyaka-niryukti of Bhadrabāhu Svāmi (leaf 22 of our MS.). In the commentary of these Gāthās Haribhadra Sūri, a writer prior to Hemacandra, has adopted the reading that we have given in our text. Nay; not only Haribhadra Sūri but Malayāgiri Suri, Tilakā-cārya, the Avacuri of Āvaśyaka-niryukti (in the Cilātīputra Adhikāra), etc., etc., all give it verbatim as we have done it. While criticising our reading उवचन, the critic does not consider even for a moment what may be the sources

of these Gāthās, nor does he attempt to think out the possible shades of meaning that may be given to them. We had consulted the Āvaśyaka-niryukti of Bhadrabāhu Svāmi with all the annotations thereon before we could give the reading that has been so severely condemned by the critic. We find उप
समादिग्णान-यलाधिकातिपुच रवोपसमिवविक्यंवर द्ति। च चासौ चिलातिपुच्छिति समानाधिकरण दिति गाणार्थः (vide Āvaśyaka Vṛtti Cilātiputra Adhikāra, leaf 166 of our MS.).

Now I should like to say something upon the word chaya. It is so called, because very often the Prakrita passages that occur in Sanskrit literature contain words generally of Sanskrit origin, and the meaning of those passages can be conveyed, in the time when Prakrita forms a forgotten vernacular and Sanskrit is still studied and remembered as a classic (I speak this in connection with the Prakrita of the Sanskrit dramatic literature: we the Jainas have our scriptures written in Prākrita, so we study it as a language independent of Sanskrit), by changing the Prakrita words into their Sanskrit original, the one being the shadow of the other. But it must be remembered that the word Prakrita is commonly used to denote three kinds of words: the first kind contains all those words which are properly Prākrita, that is, derived from Sanskrit; the second kind contains all those words which are not properly Prakrita. that is, not derived from Sanskrit: they exist independently of it and have the meaning and use of their own. Such words are properly called Desi. Hemachandra's Desi Nāmamālā gives a tolerably complete list of all such words with their meanings. The third kind is composed of all those words which can pass both for Sanskrit and Prākrita; as for instance in the Sahityadarpana (Bombay edition, page 62) we have তথ বিষয় -here the great commentator Rāmacarana Tarkavāgiša (a great logician too) renders the word sa by and the Bombay editor quotes जब रित प्रश्लेत्यर्थे देशीति नरमिंचढद्ध्राः खब्ययमिति नागीजिभद्दाः The last two names are sufficiently authoritative to prove the validity of our assertion, and moreover the whole of the thirteenth Sarga of the Bhatti Kāvya may be advantageously consulted in this connection; considering the nature of Prākrita as described above, it becomes evident that it is not always possible to give the chāyā of Prākrita passages in a manner indicated by the critic. It will be seen from the following examples that in dealing with the Präkrita passages of the Yoga-Sastra I have not departed from the beaten track. Take for instance the passage अने अधिरिक्षाओ -in Hemacandra's Kāvyānuśāsana (published in the Kāvya-mālā series, page 54, line 3) the word wfufter with it has been rendered by the word प्रतन्ताः by Hemacandra himself in his own commentary (following him the Bombay editors also give परतन्ताः in the chāyā: vide line 24 in the same page), since the word is Deśi and its signification cannot be better indicated but by the word परतन्ताः. Again in the S'loka गुणको विवसाया which occurs in page 5 of the Setubandham (also known by the name "Ravana Vaho") published in the Kāvya-mālā series, the commentator Sri Rāmadāsa Bhūpati gives for "गुणको" "वाकुला" and renders the whole line as बाकुला विपद्या- यिना मिलत रव सनांद्रके मरासुरक्की: In this case according to the critic's views the commentator should have put मुख्को for गुणको, not बाकुला. But the great commentator has not accepted the critic's views, since the Sanskrit word गुणको does not clearly indicate the sense of बाकुला which is the true sense of the Prākrita word गुणको in the passage.

Many such examples can be quoted, unnecessarily increasing the bulk of this essay in support of our view. I shall close the present remark by stating simply that कोडोबो in the verse referred to by the critic means विपीस्तिका, and the Sanskrit word कोडा: as suggested by the critic does not give the particular sense पिपोलिकाः. The equivalent of कोडी as given by Hemacandra in his Deśī Nāma-mālā (Bombay edition, Sastha Varga. 134th Sloka) is कीडिका, and कीडिका means पिपी सिका not कोडो. Of course, following the method of standard writers I have given डीनाको which also means पिपी जिका. I may add here that the critic's view of rendering a Prakrita word by the cognate Sanskrit word has not been strictly followed by the standard writers of olden time, even when it is possible to do so, i.e., when both the Prakrita word and its cognate Sanskrit word are exactly of the same sense (vide Jayavallabha's Vajjālagga and Ratnadeva's Chāyā thereon written in the Samvat 1393). The above remarks hold true for my rendering चार्बदिभः, since पर्धवतीय is not easily understood to be 25 (two-and-a-half) and is not much used too. Moreover this form is given by Vinaya-Vijaya-Upādhyāva in his commentary of the Kalpa-Sūtra, and Santi Sagaropadhyaya has also given the same form in his commentary of the same work

Now, my rendering of मुचक्क वा शिक्ष and this reading itself are quite satisfactory, as far as I can think of them. Moreover the reading मुदक्की वाचि, which the critic gives, is wrong according to my views, since according to the rules of Prākrit gram-

mar, it cannot give the Sanskrit equivalent स्टब्रु सियाभिः as given by the critic. My reading स्वक्रियादि and its rendering पियो-सिकाभिः are both correct. The great Haribhadra Sūri has taken these things just in the same way as I have done.

For my reading भिनेष (page 131, line 11) the critic suggests नेनेष according to his MSS. A, B, C, and D; but in my MSS. I have the reading which I have given in the text, and this is an Ārṣa by the rule च्रदा पंपीने ॥ ६ १ १ ६ ॥ (S. H.). In the glossary of the Kalpa-Sūtra, Prof. H. Jacobi gives mitta as the principal reading (vide Jacobi's edition, Leipzig, 1879, page 161, under the head of mitta. See also specimen der Nāyā Dhamma Kahā of P. Stenthal, Leipzig, 1881, page 76).

Again for my reading yt (page 132, line 15) he says that it should be year. This is wrong, since grammatically the form year is never possible. The word yt that I have given is also correct for the metre. The printer's mistake makes it ye instead of yt.

The following is the critical notice of the materials used by me in the collation of the first fasciculus. No strict rules have been followed in naming the MSS:—

Critical Notice.

In preparing the text of the present edition of the Yoga-Sastra, I have consulted the following works:—

The following are MSS. of the Yoga-Sastra:-

- (ৰূ) From Muni Hansvijaya of Barodā. Fairly correct.
- (From Bhaktivijayaji of Rādhanpur. Good and correct.
- (n) From Bhavnagar Bhandar. Though old but not correct.
- (च) My own. Fairly correct.
- (*) Also my own. It is also fairly correct and similar to (4).
- (च) From Pannyas Viravijavaji of Rādhanpur. Very correct, used by the owner for his study and therefore carefully corrected one.
 - (*) From Sānand Bhandār. It is similar to (4).
- (🖷) It is a MS. containing the Avacūri on the first four Prakāšas. It is old and tolerably correct. It was also received from Pannyās Vīravijayajī.
- (m) Also containing Avacūri on the first four Prakāsas. Written in the month of Phālguna Sukla Caturdasī, Somavāra. Samvat 1537. Fairly correct. Received from Kesara Vijayajī.

In addition to the above I have used also-

(ब) Antara S'loka; also from Keśara Vijayaji. It is an old and good MS.

(3) Bhimsi Mānik's Gujrāti translation of the text and the commentary. This edition, as has already been stated, contains the text also (not the commentary).

(a) The Dharma Samgraha is a book containing many passages cited from the Yoga-Sästra. I have consulted the MS.

of this book which belongs to me.

(w) Another MS. of the Yoga-Sastra. I have received this MS. latterly. It is old, worm-eaten and very correct.

(7) In addition to these the German edition of the first

four Prakāśas was also used.

Recently I have secured from the Deccan College Library, Poona, the manuscript A of my critic. I have examined it thoroughly, but apart from its age, it has nothing to commend it to a responsible editor. The scribe, as it appears to me, had little acquaintance with the language of his script, and as far as the subject-matter is concerned he was completely in the dark.

25. Who Planned the Táj?

By Rev. H. Hosten, S.J.

The opinion seems to be gaining ground that "the Italian or French origin of the Táj is exploded." When, where, how, and by whom was this result arrived at? What has been done to disprove that Jerome Veroneo, the Venetian, was the architect? The question, we insist, is not what workmen were employed on the Táj, but who planned it.

Let us go back to H. G. Keene's little Handbook for Visitors to Agra and its neighbourhood (Calcutta, Thacker, 5th Ed., 1888). "We learn from Manrique (a Spanish monk of the Augustinian Order, who was at Agra in 1641) that the plans and estimates were prepared by a Venetian, by name Geronimo Verroneo. Verroneo died at Lahore before Manrique's arrival, and long before the work was completed. The work is then believed to have been made over to a Byzantine Turk." (Cf. p. 23.)

Keene, then, did not hesitate to accept the Friar's plain "Much fruitless discussion has been waged on this subject [of the origin of the Táj]." he writes (ibid., p. 25); "but, the following considerations alone are likely to be of use to the general reader. The notion that the Táj was designed by an Italian is confirmed by Manrique. But, nothing can be less Italian than the general conception of the building with its simple and even stiff contour; nothing ever more in harmony with the style of Eastern feeling, which regards a white muslin tunic and an aigrette of diamonds as full dress for an Emperor. tomb of Humáyun (A.D. 1556) seems to have been the chief model of the elevation."

Quite so, and no one thinks of denying that the Italian copied Indian models. The plan of Humáyun's tomb at Delhi "is in fact," writes James Fergusson, "that adopted at the Taie, but used here without the depth and poetry of that celebrated building." (Cf. Hist. of Indian and Eastern Archit. London, 1876, p. 576.)

The conclusion, which Keene endeavours to popularize in his Handbook, had been arrived at by a careful perusal of Frey Manrique's writings. Of this we have sufficient evidence in his The Turks in India (London, Allen, 1879). There, Keene mentions Manrique in connection with a description of Akbar's tomb at Sikandra (pp. 106-107); he states that Manrique confirms the fact of Veroneo's procuring the discharge of some of the priests [!] taken prisoners at Hugli-fact noted by Manucci-Catrou (p. 121; I fail, however, to find the fact recorded by Manrique under Veroneo's name); he analyzes part of Manrique's account of Lahore and translates his curious relation of a banquet given at Lahore by Asaf Khán to the Emperor (pp. 126—130); finally he adds a note on Manrique's Mission and the Catholics in the time of Sháh Jahán (pp. 251—255. Cf. also J.R.A.S., Vol. X, N.S., 1879, pp. 93—98). This note makes it clear enough that Keene had before him a copy of Manrique's Itinerario. The best proof, however, is the testimony of Father Symphorian, a Capuchin Missionary of Agra, who, in his article "The Chapel of Padrec Santoos in Agra" (Cf. Indo-Europ. Corresp., Calcutta, 1878, pp. 452—4, and Agra Archaeol. Soc. Transactions, 1878), states that Mr. Keene lent him his copy of Manrique's Itinerario.

Keene does not hesitate to call the Augustinian's narrative the best account of the Court life of Sháh Jahán that has been preserved. He found it, however, no easy reading. He complains of "archaic words and forms of spelling which interfere with the reader's case, unless he be an unusually profound Spanish scholar." (Cf. The Turks in India, pp. 126, 251.)

If, instead of making only a few extracts, Keene had translated fully Manrique's account of the Táj, it is likely that less hesitation would have been shown towards accepting it as conclusive. Such as they are, the extracts in *The Turks in India* (pp. 251—255) are sufficiently cogent; and one cannot help being surprised at the off-hand manner in which certain writers, who were familiar with them, have passed them by or explained them away. Syad Muhammad Latif (*Agra*, *Historical and Descriptive*) studiously ignores them; Mr. E. B. Havell (*The Taj and its Designers*, in *Nineteenth Century and After*, 1903, pp. 1039—49) endeavours to explain them away.

Before we present the reader with the complete translation of Manrique's narrative, of which the Goethals Indian Library in St. Xavier's College possesses a copy, a short biographical sketch of the writer seems necessary. Father Symphorian's article and Keene's A Sketch of the History of Hindustán (London,

1885, pp. 198-199) will simplify our task.

Manrique was an Augustinian Friar who spent 13 years in He came to the Convent of his Order at Hugli in the East. 1628 and began applying himself to the languages of Bengal, Bengálí and Hindustání. On September 11, 1629, he left for Arakan, and continued his apostolic ministrations in Arakan and Bengal until 1636, leaving Pipli for Goa on February 25. His next mission brought him to the Philippines and Macao. On August 12, 1640, he was back at Balasore, and on the eve of Christmas, 1640, he arrived at Agra, where he was the guest of the Jesuit Fathers Anthony de Oliveira and Matthew de Cruz. Immediately after Christmas, he went to Biana [Bayána], passing through Fathpur-Sikri. A rich Armenian merchant of Biana, to whom he had letters of recommendation, sent with him one of his relatives to help him in his negotiations for the release of Father Anthony of Christ, an Augustinian who had been made prisoner at the

fall of Hugli in 1632 and was still in durance at Agra. In January 1641, Manrique was back at Agra, paying visits to his contrère in jail, and interviewing Subdal Khán, the governor of Agra, in his behalf; but, as the Emperor was then at Lahore, the negotiations could not proceed. Subdal Khán very courteously said that, as he himself was going to Lahore in a short time, he might join him in the journey. Manrique gladly accepted the offer, and profited by the delay to visit the principal monuments of Agra. After twenty-six days passed in expectation of Subdal Khán's departure, finding that he was not likely to move before another month, Manrique took leave of him, of Father Anthony, still in prison, and of the Jesuit Fathers, and set out for Lahore, where he arrived in 21 days. There he met Father Joseph de Castro, s.J., who invited him to his dwelling, promising to assist him in expediting his affairs. Manrique was admitted to an audience with Asaf Khán. To cut the story short, he obtained all his requests, and proceeded from Lahore to Sind, while Father Anthony was restored to liberty.

Manrique was evidently a man of mark, having been Visitor of his Order in the East. A keen and interested observer, he notes down many curious observations in his *Itinerario delas Missiones del India Oriental* (Rome, 1653, in 4°, pp. 476, 2 col.) This work, now very scarce, was never translated into English, though, if we remember rightly, the Hakluyt Society intended

many years ago preparing a translation.

In Ch. LVIII Manrique relates his experiences at Agra. In the following chapter, he describes the Mogul Court and its palaces. Ch. LX. is headed thus:

"In which is given an account of two Mocorabds or Mauso-

leums of Emperors Achabar and Corrombo ''.1

"Among the grand buildings of the town of Agra, the chief are two Mausoleums, and, to redeem my promise, I shall begin with Achabar's tomb, as being the first and the more ancient." [Here follows the description, pp. 350-351.] At p. 351, col. 2, we read: "The other Mausoleum, the work, as I have said, of Emperor Corrombo, is dedicated to the unhappy memory of his chief and cherished wife Begoma [the Begum], and is situated at the other extremity of the town. This edifice not being finished yet at the time, and a great portion being still wanting, judging from the plan which it bore and which was contemplated, I shall speak only of the portion which was finished. It consisted of a fine, very large, quadrangular and proportionately high wall of magnificent red hewn stone; at the top, in lieu of battlements, it is being adorned and embellished by thick strong spikes? (espigones) of the same stone. [An allusion, probably, to the balustrades. A la qual [muralla] por

¹ Khurram, i.e., Sháh Jahán. The word Mocorabà must be a corruption of the Persian Maybará = burial place, mausoleum.

remate en lugar de almenas la ornan y reparan gruessos, y fuertes espigones de la misma piedra. At the four corners of this great wall rose as many other Palaces built of large slabs of beautiful and whitest marble, which from more than forty leagues are brought there for those buildings. Some, which I met on the road to Biana, were of such extraordinary length and breadth that they set all in a perspiration many vokes of strong lazy oxen and of ferocious-looking, heavy-horned buffaloes, which in files of twenty and thirty pair were dragging strong unshapely carts. This great wall enclosed a very large quadrangular space, in the centre of which stood a large, high, circular tower, from the centre of which [tower], the famous Geometer [Jerome Veroneo, as I understand it], drawing equal lines, made his perfect circumference with less trouble than Archimedes the Syracusan. This tower, too, is of shining white marble. On this, and on the other works, were generally employed a thousand men, overseers. officials and workmen. A great number of them were likewise occupied, some in laying out curious gardens, others in planting shady groves and making orderly plantations of poplar-trees (alamedas): others, finally in making roads and reservoirs for the liquid crystals, without which it was impossible to go on with the works. The architect of those structures was a Venetian, named Jerome Veroneo, who went to those parts in the ships from Portugal, and died in the city of Laor [Lahore], shortly before Emperor Corrombo gave him large salaries: my arrival. but, it is thought that he profited so badly by them that, when he died, they say Father Joseph de Castro, of the Society, a Lombard by birth, found on him much less than was imagined. Of him Fame, fleet messenger of all good and evil tidings, had reported that the Padchà, having sent for him and manifested to him his desire of raising a grandiose and sumptuous monument to his defunct consort, and that for this he should make some designs which he should show him, Veroneo, the Architect, obeyed this order, and within a few days submitted to him in various models of the finest architecture all the perfection of the art which he knew; but that, having satisfied His Majesty in this matter, he displeased him—according to his barbarous and arrogant pride—by the low estimates which he made; they say also that, growing angry, he ordered him to spend three krors [crouras] of rupees, i.e., three hundred lakhs [leckas], and that. when they were spent, he should let him know—a sum of money so great that one is surprised. But, if the sepulchral apartments (sepulchrales estancias) were, as they said, to be covered with plates of gold, as was the urn in which were already deposited the bones of the Agarene [Mohammedan] Empress, such large sums will not be matter for surprise,—though he, in particular, will wonder who habitually spends his limited crowns [escudos] after first passing many hours in sundry considerations, seeing that, in as little time as it takes to open and close one's mouth,

fifteen millions of Spanish pesos were ordered to be spent, a sum amounting to the three krors above-said; and, for the better understanding of the curious reader, let it be known that a kror is a hundred lákhs, and a lákh a hundred thousand rupees, and a rupee half a Spanish peso."

This, then, is the text which must be got rid of. And why? What are the insuperable difficulties, the "wild im-

probabilities "militating against it?

The Táj was begun in 1630 or 1631 and completed in 1648, and here is a traveller who saw it, when the work was in full swing. He spent at least 26 days in Agra, and was the guest of the Jesuits, than whom he could have had no better informed cicerones. They knew the place; they knew its history. Since the days of Father Jerome Xavier, from 1595 to 1641, there had been no break of continuity in their stay at Agra. What was more natural than that Manrique, who must have kept a diary, should have questioned them on all matters of interest? Among the things worth recording, he noted that Veroneo had supplied the plans of the Táj and superintended the work.

Fathers de Oliveira and de Cruz were at Agra in 1641, and they could know, since fame had carried far and wide the report of Veroneo's share in the matter, even to minute particulars of his

interviews with Sháh Jahán.

One who surely knew was Father J. de Castro. He had been in the Mogul Empire since 1610, had occupied a high position of influence under Jahángír, and acted as Chaplain to Mirza Zú'l Qarnín, Court-poet under Jahángír, and Governor in Bengal, (Patna?) under Sháh Jahán (1629—32). We have letters of his dated Agra, 1633, 1637, 1638, 1640 and 1641. Finally, he was Veroneo's executor. During his stay at Lahore, Manrique was Father de Castro's guest. He had ample opportunities of satisfying his curiosity: but, even after his conversations with Father de Castro, Frey Manrique wrote as we have seen. What interest had he to write otherwise than he heard? Or what interest had the Jesuits, the Portuguese and other foreigners, with whom Manrique was brought into contact, to speak otherwise than they knew?

The a priori theories of some writers on the respective merits and the peculiar character of Indian and Western art—in appreciations of this nature a broad margin is left for the subjective—cannot weigh up against the cool testimony of a level-headed contemporary traveller. If Veroneo's name were found in Manrique only en passant, there might be room for carping; but, the circumstantial evidence adduced is such as must satisfy the ''ordinary ''historian in matters historical.

Mr. E. B. Havell, the late Principal of the Calcutta School of Arts, has acquired some celebrity by his writings on the Táj. Viewed in the light of Manrique's account, his opinions about its origin are found wanting all round. Let me quote only one

passage, which will show what his methods are, and how hasty conclusions can be reached. Cf. The Táj and its Designers, in Nineteenth Century and A/ter, 1903, pp. 1039-49. [The italics are mine.]

"Before discussing Verroneo's story, it will be interesting to analyse it in order to separate the truth which may be in it from the falsehood. It is highly probable that Verroneo was one of the many architects who submitted designs for the Táj." So much is granted to Manrique, but no more.—" They were doubtless in the style of the Renaissance, which was then the architectural style of Italy." Elsewhere he writes: "Neither in general conception nor in the smallest detail does it [the Tái] suggest the style of the Italian Renaissance, which a Venetian architect of the seventeenth century would certainly have followed." Could Veroneo not imitate existing designs and even improve on them? A priori, and with as much right as Mr. Havell, we might say that Renaissance was so sure to meet with no appreciation from a Mogul Emperor, that, if Veroneo presented him with any designs at all, they must have been in the style of Mogul architecture.- "Shah Jahan examined them [the designs] with curiosity and expressed some qualified praise, which Verroneo mistook for approval." What difficulty was there for Veroneo to distinguish between Shah Jahan's satisfaction at his work, and his irritation on hearing of his low estimates? — "The anger of the Padsha on hearing of the estimates and his order 'to spend three krors' clearly points to the indirect oriental method of rejecting a proposal." This we all fail to see; whereas little knowledge of Asiatic manners is required to understand with Manrique that Shah Jahan posed before the Westerner as the wealthiest and most munificent of monarchs.—" It is quite certain that Verroneo heard nothing more of his commission, from Sháh Jahán.'' Is it? All along, Mr. Havell travesties himself into one of Veroneo's contemporaries.—" [Verroneo] returned to Lahore, and poured the garbled account of his doings into the too credulous ears of Father de Castro, who retailed it as history to his fellow-priest." Father de Castro, as we have shown, would have been the last man to be taken in by an impostor.

Such is Mr. Havell's analysis of the story, and we look in vain for the "discussion" of the story, which ought to have followed.

"But, we have no mention of Veroneo," it is alleged, "in any of the Mohammedan authors!" We answer with Fergusson: "It is hardly to be expected that natives should record the names of those who surpassed them in their own arts, and needy Italian adventurers were even less likely to have an opportunity of recording the works they executed in a strange and foreign country. Had any Italian who lived at the Courts of Jehángír or Sháh Jahán written a book, he might have recorded

the artistic prowess of his countrymen, but none such, as far as I am aware, has yet seen the light." (Cf. Hist. of Indian and Eastern Archit., p. 588.) This, Mr. Havell admits.

Another argues that one look at the Táj ought to assure any intelligent man that it owes its existence to no foreign design: the contrary is impossible from the very nature of the thing. "If that were not sufficient, we have still the name of the Moslem architect sculptured upon the building." I suppose the name in question is that of Ustád I'sa, whose name is chronicled in the Tárikh-i-Táj Mahal as that of the chief architect, the Naksha Nawis or plan-drawer? But must the testimony of the Tárikh-i-Táj Mahal be taken as a denial of Manrique's statement? Can the two authorities not be reconciled? Evidently, after Veroneo's death, other architects were employed. And is the style of the various buildings of the Táj so uniform that we cannot recognize in them the work of different hands?

It is rather puzzling that Manrique's story should be treated as an obscure romance, as a legend, when, on the other hand, Ustád I'sa, of whom we know rather less, should, without more ado, be proclaimed the original architect. That Tavernier, Mandelslo, Bernier, Thévenot should be silent is merely a negative argument. They must not be expected to have recorded everything. One cannot help being surprised, for instance, that Manucci should give no description of the Táj in his voluminous memoirs. "Tavernier," writes Talboys Wheeler, "was emphatically a man of a business turn of mind, and his book of travels was written more for the information and amusement of business men than for the wits and scholars of his time." (The History of India, Vol. IV, Pt. II, p. 466.) Bernier was in India between 1655 and 1667; Thévenot came only in 1666.

Though Manrique stands so far alone, we find in Manucci an indirect proof of Veroneo's influence at the Court of Shah Jahán. After speaking of the constancy of the priests taken at Hugli, Manucci continues: "There were also a few otherslaymen who held fast to the faith, but were released through the petitions of some persons at Court, chiefly of an Armenian, who was a great favourite, or through the money paid by a Venetian, my compatriot, called Hieronimo Veroneo, a man ransomed by the Portuguese." (Cf. W. Irvine, Storia do Mogor, Vol. I, p. 183.) In the absence of further information, it is, of course, difficult to account for the words I have italicised. we know is that, at the time of the attack on Hugli, Shah Jahan vented his wrath on the Christians of Agra. From an unpublished letter of Father Corsi, s.J. (Agra, 5 October, 1633), we learn that even the great favourite, Mirza Zú-l Qarnín, the Catholic Armenian, to whom Manucci alludes, lost all his dignities and was thrown into prison with the Jesuits of Agra. The storm was of short duration, however. The Mirza was reinstated:

the Jesuits were restored to liberty; many of the captives of Hugli were ransomed a short time after their arrival in Agra, and those who brought their influence and their gold to bear on Sháh Jahán and his grandees were chiefly Zú-l Qarnín and Veroneo. Where did Veroneo get the money from? If he was the architect of the Táj, if the lavish pay he received from the Emperor justified the opinion that he was a wealthy man, we have the answer.

Searches made in our Roman Archives for further evidence on Veroneo's work on the Tái have proved fruitless: but, it may be remarked that our Archives have been partly scattered in iniquitous times. The following passage concerning Frey Manrique's journey through Lahore occurs in an unpublished Portuguese letter of Father Joseph de Castro to the Very Rev. Father Mutius Vitelleschi, General of the Society in Rome, (Agra, 25th August, 1641): "Through a religious of St. "Augustine, who passed here, coming from the Manilhas, on "his way by land to Rome, as Procurator of the Province, I "wrote at length to Your Paternity three months ago, when "he left from here. He is called Fré Sebastiáo Manriqe. I "helped him in what I could, and obtained for his journey "a goodly alms from the Lord Nawab Asafkao, the father-in-"law of the king, our ancient and only protector in these "realms."

What is more gratifying is that Mr. E. A. H. Blunt, who is revising the inscriptions on European tombs in the U. P., should have discovered Veroneo's grave during a recent visit to Agra. It is dated 1640, a date which is in perfect agreement with Manrique's statement that Veroneo had died at Lahore shortly before Manrique's arrival [end of February?, 1641]. That Veroneo should have been buried at Agra, though he died at Lahore, will not appear surprising to those who are acquainted with the times. Barring that, it would seem that even his contemporaries judged Agra the only fitting resting-place for the man. So much admiration is felt by all for the entrancing beauty of the Táj that it would be little short of a great injustice to its builder, if nothing better than a crumbling stone with a half-effaced inscription were left to mark his tomb, and that within the very shadow of the Mausoleum attesting his genius.

26. The Pramanas of Hindu Logic.

By Professor Vanamali Chakravartti, M.A., Vedantatirtha, Vedantaratna.

The pramānas are usually translated as "instruments of knowledge," "channels of evidential knowledge" or "authoritative evidences." The first of these renderings approaches nearest the original. The Nyāyavārtika of Uddyotakara defines it thus:—जपस्तिहेतः प्रमाणम्, i.e. "A pramāṇa is a cause or condition of knowledge or cognition." According to this definition, a pramāna is more a thing of psychology than of logic. That which serves to give us knowledge is a pramana. pramānas are, so to say, the windows of the mind, through which the objective world communicates its existence to us. have a suspicion that the philosophical consciousness of India never made any sharp distinction between this, the psychological sense of the word pramāna and its logical sense. Logic and Psychology as two separate studies, the one being conceived as a regulative and the other as a natural science, never did exist on Indian soil. The Hindu thinker asked, how do we know the world? The ordinary answer was:—(1) by observation (pratyaksa), (2) by reasoning (anumāna), and (3) by authority (cabda). If now the further question be raised, "Does all the knowledge thus derived correspond to reality? If not, by what criterion or standard is true knowledge to be distinguished from the false?" one steps into the domain of Logic. The question with the logician is, not how we actually know the world, but how we know it correctly or truly. What are the instruments of right or valid knowledge? Thus pramana, in a logical sense, may be translated "instruments of right knowledge," and in this sense "channels of evidential knowledge " or " authoritative evidences " may be better.

That the *pramāṇas*, as ordinarily conceived, are more psychological than logical, will also be evident from the statements of the neo-logicians such as the following:—

दोषोऽप्रमाया अनकः प्रमायास्त गुणो भवेत्। पित्तदूरत्वादिरूपो दोषो नानाविधः स्मतः॥

Bhāṣapariccheda, 131.

Translation.—False cognition is produced by the faults and true cognition by the excellences. There are various kinds of faults, such as bile, distance and the like.

A man suffering from jaundice will perceive the white conchabell to be yellow. This is sense-perception, its defective character is

Similarly a right conclusion is not the result of merely an ordinary deduction or anumāna. The deduction must have the adventitious quality of what has been termed excellence, if it is to lead to a valid conclusion. The ordinary anumāna is an inference or reasoning in the psychological sense of the term.

The author of the Nyāyu-sūtras, however, takes pramāna in its logical sense. His definition of perception is as follows:—

इन्द्रियार्थसित्रकाषीत्यद्गं ज्ञानम् (१) अव्ययदेश्यम्

(२) खर्यभिचारि (३) खनसायात्मकम् प्रवदाम्।

Translation.—Perception is the knowledge which results from the contact of sense with its object, (1) not employing the aid of language, and (2) being such as is not contradicted by future experience, and (3) of the nature of ascertainment (as opposed to doubt).

Here mark the clause (2). It distinctly provides for what may be termed logical or valid perception. The $Bh\bar{a}sya$ understands it in this sense, and observes that the cognition of the mirage would have been a case of perception, but for the clause walkate (2). The following observation of $R\bar{a}dh\bar{a}mohana$ $Vidy\bar{a}v\bar{a}caspati$ in his $Ny\bar{a}ya-s\bar{u}tra-vivaranam$ will substantiate the above remarks:—

इन्द्रियार्थसित्तकर्यात्यत्रं ज्ञानं प्रत्यक्तमिति प्रत्यक्तसामान्यविद्याम्। तत् च अव्यक्तिचारि भवत् प्रत्यक्तप्रमा इत्यर्थः।

Translation.—Perception in general is to be defined as the knowledge that arises from the contact of sense with its object, and when this is such as is not contradicted by future experience, it becomes valid [or logical] perception.

Gotama does not define anumāna or deduction. He merely states that it presupposes perception, and is of three kinds, namely, (1) pūrvavat (inference from cause to effect), (2) cesavat (inference from effect to cause), and (3) sāmānyato-drista (inference from similarity?). It should be pointed out here, that it is not definitely known at the present day what Gotama precisely meant by these terms. I have given in brackets what seem to me to be the most suitable renderings. Even the old Bhāsyakāra, Vātsāyana, gives two interpretations, which shows that in his time the precise meanings of these terms had already become a matter of conjecture. Gaudapāda, in his commentary on the Sānkhyakārikās, has explained these terms in

due to what is called bile (fum), which produced the jaundice. The moon is perceived to be of the size of a small plate. Here the deception s due to another fault, namely, distance.

[े] चित्र तस्पूर्वकं विविधमनुमानं पूर्ववत् धेववत् धामान्यतोद्दशम् च । न्यायः स्टबाबि । १ । १ । ४ ।

a third way. The interpretation of Varadarāja in his Tārkikaraksā and of the neo-naiyāyikas generally (e.g., of Vicvanātha and Rādhāmohana) who identify pūrvavat with kevalānvayi, cesavat with kevala-vyatireki, and samanyato-drista with anvayavyatireki, is due to their lack of the historical sense. and is manifestly absurd. First, these are neither the derivative nor the ordinary meanings of these words, and we have no right to suppose that Gotama used them in these technical senses. If he did, he must have indicated it in some part of his work. Secondly, if such a neat interpretation were available, Vatsayana and Gaudapāda would not have omitted to notice it. Thirdly, Gotama did not probably know what is called vyapti. and without it there could be no division of anumanas into kevalānvayi, Kevalavyatireki and anvaya-vyatireki. of modern Hindu Deductive Logic hinges on the doctrine of vuāpti, and it would be startling to many to be told that the celebrated founder of Indian Logic did not know what it was. Still such seems to be the truth.

 $Vy\bar{a}pti$ is the relation that exists between the middle term (hetu, reason) and the major term (called $s\bar{a}dhya$ by the neologicians) of a syllogism, justifying the inference. It corresponds to the universal major (called the sumption or ground

proposition) of the perfect figure in Aristotelian Logic.

The word $vy\bar{a}pii$ is a very old one. It occurs in the Vedas and the $Pur\bar{a}nas$. Its cognates such as $vy\bar{a}pyam\bar{a}na$, $vy\bar{a}ptimat$, etc., are found in such ancient treatises as the $s\bar{u}tras$ of $P\bar{a}nini$ and the code of Manu. But in none of these cases does it bear the technical sense. In Gotama's $Ny\bar{a}ya$ $s\bar{u}tras$ the word does not occur at all. The word $vy\bar{a}pti$ is found in the $s\bar{a}nkhya$ $s\bar{u}tras$ (v. 29), and in a discussion about its nature, the opinion of Pancacikha has been cited $(s\bar{a}nkhya$ $s\bar{u}tras$ v. 32). But it is notorious that the antiquity of the $s\bar{a}nkhya$ $s\bar{u}tras$ is extremely doubtful.

The word pratibandha (प्रतिष्य) might have been an older term for vyāpti in its technical sense. The sānkhya sūtras and the Nyāyamanjarī, besides other books, contain the word pratibandha.

The detailed treatment of the subject of $j\bar{a}ti$ (sufa) tends to indicate that the true theory of the syllogism based on $vy\bar{a}pti$ was unknown to the author of the $ny\bar{a}ya-s\bar{u}tras$. The masters of the neo-logical school have amplified every logical topic treated in the original $s\bar{u}tras$, but they have completely ignored the subject of $j\bar{a}ti$. This was so, because the treatment of $j\bar{a}ti$ was found to be superfluous after the discovery of the $vy\bar{a}pti$.

It may be said that the chapter on $j\bar{a}ti$ was not written by Gotama, and that he had simply incorporated into his $s\bar{u}tras$ an already existing chapter of some older logician, who was unacquainted with the $vy\bar{a}pti$. Quite possible. But it is undeniable that a genius like Gotama would have easily perceived the incongruity, nay the childish nature, of such a chapter in a book which dealt with the true theory of the syllogism. The neo-logicians saw this clearly, and Gotama would have seen it, if he had known what the $vy\bar{a}pti$ is.

The word $s\bar{a}dhya$, in neo-logic, means the major term read in connotation. In the $ny\bar{a}ya$ - $s\bar{u}tras$, it appears not to have yet acquired that technical sense. Thus the thesis or probandum $(pratijn\bar{a})$ is defined as "the statement of the $s\bar{a}dhya$ ". Here the word $s\bar{a}dhya$ means simply "that which is to be proved". Gangeça in his $Tattvacint\bar{a}mani$ criticizes this definition of the thesis as too wide, for according to him it is equally applicable to the major term. Says he—

" तत्र प्रतिका न साधानिर्देशः साधापदेऽतियाप्तेः "॥

This is a very good example of the want of the historical sense in the neo-logicians. Gangeça fancied that the word $s\bar{a}dhya$ bore the same limited technical meaning in Gotama's time as in his. Again in Nyāya Sūtras I, 1. 38, the word $s\bar{a}dhya$ is used for the minor term. It is well known how the greatest thinker of the tol in the nineteenth century had momentarily misinterpreted this aphorism by taking $s\bar{a}dhya$ to mean the major term, like his great predecessor, Gangeça.

The word pakṣa, in neo-logic, means the minor term. Gotama uses it in a different sense. Anumeya seems to have been an older term for pakṣa, though these two are not perfectly identical in meaning. (Vide Praçastapāda Bhāṣya, p. 200, and Yoga Bhāṣya I. 7, and Nyāyabindu, p. 104.)

Thus the terms $vy\bar{a}pti$, $s\bar{a}dhya$, and paksa had not acquired their present technical meanings in Gotama's time. These, together with the hetu, are the most important terms in the doctrine of the syllogism, and yet Gotama did not know these or anything equivalent to them. Does not this raise a pre-supposition against Gotama's knowledge of the $vy\bar{a}pti$! In fact, sciences do not spring, full-grown, into existence from the heads of their founders. The $Ny\bar{a}ya$ -sūtras contain some of the earliest efforts of humanity to formulate a doctrine of $anum\bar{a}na$, and as such, it is not at all surprising that the doctrine of $vy\bar{a}pti$ is absent therein. In the $s\bar{u}tras$ of Gotama and $Kan\bar{u}da$, we notice the beginnings of deductive logic, which afterwards developed into the doctrine of $vy\bar{u}pti$.

Kanāda gives the significant name laingika (lit. derived from a mark, nota) to inferential knowledge. But he too seems to have been unaware of the true nature of deduction. He enumerates five marks which lead to deduction—

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चास्येदं कार्य्यं कार्यां संबोगि विरोधि समवायि चेति लेक्किकम्। वैग्नेिषकस्त्रज्ञाया। ८।२।१।

These five marks are (1) effect, (2) cause, (3) connected thing, (4) opposed thing, and (5) something existing in intimate relation. Thus (1) from smoke is inferred fire (effect to cause). (2) from observing the contact of the stick with the drum is inferred sound (from cause to effect) when the sound is inaudible, (3) from observation of the body is inferred the sense of touch, which is connected with the body, (4) from the crouching of a snake is inferred the presence of an ichneumon (the snake and the ichneumon are supposed to be in eternal enmity), (5) from the temperature of water is inferred the presence of heat in water. Here we notice the same defect as we noticed in Gotama; this is a mere enumeration of the various kinds of deduction: it does not show in what consists the essence of the process. For one acquainted with the doctrine of the vyāpti such an enumeration can never take its place. If Kanāda had known the vyāpti, he would undoubtedly have said that the linga (mark) is the $vy\bar{a}pya$ and the major term is $vy\bar{a}paka$.

Praçastapāda in his Padārthadharma-sangraha and Kumārila in his Çloka-vārtika seem clearly to have known the true nature of deduction. There are two verses in the Padārthadharma-sangraha which credit one $K\bar{a}$ çyapa with the enunciation of the true theory of deduction—

> खनुमेयेन सम्बद्धं प्रसिद्धं च तद्दिन्वते । तदभावे च नास्त्येव तिस्तिष्ग्रमनुमापकम् ॥ विषशीतमतो यत्यात् एकेन दितयेन वा । विषद्यासिद्धसन्दिम्धमिलिङ्गं काश्यपोऽनवीत् ॥

Pracastapāda Bhāsya (Vizianagram Sanskrit Series), p. 200.

Translation.—"That mark (linga) which is connected with the subject of the inference (pakṣa), and is known to exist in what contains the major term read in connotation (sapakṣa), and does not exist in what is without the major term read in connotation (vi-pakṣa), leads to an inference. $K\bar{a}$ çyapa has said that whatever is without one or two of these characteristics is not a real middle term (hetu or linga), and gives rise to the fallacies of contradiction, false minor premiss, or doubt."

Now $K\bar{a}cyapa$ is popularly supposed to be only another name of $Kan\bar{a}da$. But a new difficulty arises here: "Why did $Kan\bar{a}da$ content himself with merely enumerating effect, cause, etc., as so many marks that lead to inference?" $Pra-castap\bar{a}da$ had felt this difficulty and tried to solve it in his own way. He says—

मास्त्रे कार्यादिग्रहणं निर्द्णनाधं हतम् नावधारणार्थम्। कसात्। यतिरेकदर्णनात्। तद्यथा अध्यर्थुरोम् श्रावयन् यवहितस्य होतुर्लिङ्गम् चन्द्रोदयः समुद्रहद्धेः कुमुद्दिकाणस्य च प्रार्ट्द जलप्रसादोऽगस्योदय-स्येति। एवमादितस्यर्थम् अस्येदिमिति सम्बन्धमाचवचनात् सिद्धम्।

Praçastapāda Bhāsya, p. 205.

Translation.—'' In the aphorism 'बसेंद कार्यं कार्यं कार्यं के विशेष अभवाधि चेति विशिष्ठ (Vaiçeşika Aphorisms ix. 2, 1), the enumeration of effect, cause, etc., is meant to serve as mere illustrations. It is not to be understood that these are the only kinds of inference. Why? Because there are exceptions; as for instance, the uttering of Om by the adhvaryu-priest serves as a sign to the hotā-priest, the rise of the moon is a sign of the rise of water in the ocean and of the blooming of the kumuda flower, the clear waters of the autumn is a sign of the rise of the constellation Agastya. All these and similar other cases of inference are to be treated as covered by the first two words of the Sūtra 'बसाइस्टू', which point out a mere relation without specifying it."

Praçastapāda, like most other Hindu writers, was labouring under the supposition that the old risis were infallible and omniscient. Such a supposition is directly opposed to the historical spirit. Hence it is no wonder that we find Praçastapāda attributing a later theory to $Kan\bar{a}da$, and trying to explain away the incongruity pointed out before on the gratuitous assumption that $Kan\bar{a}da$ was merely giving illustrations in his treatment of deduction. $K\bar{a}cyapa$ is not $Kan\bar{a}da$; and $Pracastap\bar{a}da$'s identification of the two must be rejected as uncritical.

According to the Japanese tradition, $Aksap\bar{a}da$ discovered the "nine reasons and fourteen fallacies," which contains an analysis of the true theory of the syllogism. Hence $Aksap\bar{a}da$ must be credited with a knowledge of the true theory of deduction. Is $Aksap\bar{a}da$ then different from the author of the $Ny\bar{a}ya-s\bar{u}tras$?

The $vy\bar{a}pti$ seems to have been rather vaguely conceived by the author of the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ $bh\bar{a}sya$ as well. The $M\hat{i}m\bar{a}m-s\bar{a}cloka-v\bar{a}rtika$ of $Kum\bar{a}rila$ mentions the word $vy\bar{a}pti$ in its logical sense. $Mah\bar{a}mahop\bar{a}dy\bar{a}ya$ Dr. S. C. Vidyābhūṣaṇa will lay Sanskrit scholars under a great debt, if he would point out the history of the word $vy\bar{a}pti$ or its equivalents in Buddhist logic. It seems that the true history of the theory of deduction should have to be worked out by the joint efforts of the students of Hindu and Buddhist Logic.

It has been observed above that $V\bar{a}ts\bar{a}yana's$ idea of deduction was rather vague. In commenting on the $Ny\bar{a}ya~S\bar{u}-tra~I$, 1. 35, "au turn", he gives the following example:—

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(१) स्त्रनित्यः ग्रब्दः (२) उत्पत्तिधर्मनेकालात् (३) स्त्रनुत्पत्तिधर्मर्भकं नित्यं यथा स्नात्मादिइत्यम् । 1

Translation.—"Sound is non-eternal on account of the possession of the attribute of being produced. That which has want of production as an attribute is eternal (e.g., a substance such as the soul)." Put into the syllogistic form the argument stands thus:—

Non-produced things are eternal;

Sound is produced;

... Sound is non-eternal.

As it stands, this involves the fallacy of five terms. But by taking the full inverse (i.e., the converse of the obverse of the contrapositive) of the major premise we get—

Some produced things are non-eternal;

Sound is produced;

. . Sound is non-eternal.

This involves the fallacy of undistributed middle. $V\bar{a}ts\bar{a}-yana$ did not see the fallacy of this argument, because, according to him, the major premiss "Non-produced things are eternal" is a U proposition, admitting of simple conversion.

In fact, clause (3) of the above syllogism **অনুমানিধৰ্মন নি**ই যথা আলাহির্থম্ may be directly taken to mean "eternal things are non-produced, e.g., the soul," and then partially contraposing this we get the following valid syllogism:—

> No produced things are eternal; Sound is produced;

... Sound is not eternal.

The language of Vātsāyana may surely yield such a meaning (making নিমন্ the subject and অনুমনিধর্মন the predicate). But we are not allowed so easily to justify Vātsāyana. For under I. 1, 37, he says—

चित्रः ग्रन्द उत्पत्तिधर्मकतात् चनुत्पत्तिधर्मकं निष्यम् चात्मादि सोऽयमात्मादिर्दृशन्तः साध्यवैधरमीत् चनुत्पत्तिधर्मकतात् चतद्वर्मभावी

The reading adopted above has the support of MSS.

¹ Readings in the Nyāyabhāṣya, edited by Mahāmahopādhyaya Gangādhara Çastri Tailanga, in the Vizianagram Sanskrit series, are generally very unreliable. The edition of Jayanārāyana in the Bibliotheca Indica is somewhat botter. Gangādhara reads here as follows:—

[&]quot;खनित्यः ग्रब्दः उत्पत्तिधर्माकं नित्यं यथा—"

योऽसी साध्यस्य धर्मोऽनित्यत्वं स तिसान् न भवतीति । खत्र खात्मादी दृष्टान्ते उत्पत्तिधर्माकत्वस्याभावात् खनित्यत्वं न भवति इति उपलभमानः शब्दे विपर्ययम् खनुमिनोति उत्पत्तिधर्माकत्वस्य भावात् खनित्यः शब्द इति ।

The first six words of this passage are almost identical with the above citation from the $Bh\bar{a}sya$ (I. 1, 35). The interpretation of these words is to be determined in the light of what follows.

Translation (भोऽयमातादिदेशान: etc.).—The soul, etc., are cited here as illustrations. These (i.e., the soul, etc.) do not possess that quality [non-eternalness] on account of their want of producedness constituting a point of disagreement with sound. Non-eternalness is an attribute of the subject of the conclusion (sound) and it does not belong to that (the soul). Here observing that non-eternalness does not belong to the soul, etc., on account of the want of producedness, the contrary is inferred with respect to sound, namely, that it is non-eternal on account of "producedness."

This translation, being literal, is rather cumbrous, and scholars unacquainted with Sanskrit may find it difficult to understand it. But one point is clear from the portion in italics, namely, that "want of producedness" has been taken as the reason (hetu) for "want of non-eternalness," or in other words

"All non-produced things are eternal,"

which is the interpretation we put upon the text in I. 1, 35 (Nyāyasūtra Bhāsya), and which has been shown to involve the fallacy of undistributed middle.

I have hitherto dealt with only Observation and Reasoning. These two are recognised in Indian as well as in European Logic. In addition to these, the Indian logician deals with the word (cabda), analogy (upamāna), tradition (aitihya), etc. The following well-known verses bear upon this point:—

प्रयद्यमेकं चार्वाकाः कगारसुगतौ पुनः।
खनुमानं च तचापि साङ्क्याः प्रव्यं च ते चापि॥
न्यायैकदेश्यिनोऽप्येवमुपमानं च केचन।
खर्यापच्या सहैतानि चत्वार्थाज्ञः प्रभाकराः॥
खभावषष्ठान्येतानि भाट्टा वेदान्तिनस्तथा।
सम्भवेतिस्यक्तानि तानि पौराग्यिका जग्नः॥

¹ Here again the reading in the Vizianagram Sanskrit series is faulty.

Translation.—"The cārvākas admit only one source of true knowledge, namely, observation, Kaṇāda and Sugata (i.e., the Buddha) admit observation and deduction, the Sānkhyas admit observation, deduction, and the word. One school of Naiyā-yikas are like the Sānkhyas in this respect, and admit three pramānas only. Other Naiyāyikas admit observation, deduction, the word and analogy. Prabhākara admits these four and Implication (arthāpatti) besides. The followers of Bhatta and the Vedantists admit these five and also Negation (abhāva). The Paurāṇikas admit the above six and also Sambhava and tradition (aitihya)."

I had much ado in tracing this passage to its earliest known source. It occurs in Varadarāja's Tārkika-rakṣā (verses 7—10), a work which has been undeservedly consigned to oblivion by our pandits. It cannot be earlier than Kumārila and Prabhākara, for both are expressly mentioned in the passage. The Mānasollāsa, otherwise called the Dakṣināmūrti-stostravārtika, of Sureçvara contains these verses. So they must have been either composed by Sureçvara himself or quoted from some author who lived during the generation that followed Kumārila and Prabhākara and preceded Sureçvara.

It will be noticed that the $S\bar{a}nk\bar{h}yas$ and a school of the $Naiy\bar{a}yikas$ are here described as admitting 'the Word,' as an independent source of valid cognition. Now what is 'the Word'? The $S\bar{a}nkhyas$ understand by 'the Word' what is now-a-days called revelation. The ancient $naiy\bar{a}yikas$ understood by it what might be termed 'Authority,' including revelation, and a passage in the $Bh\bar{a}sya$ of $V\bar{a}ts\bar{a}yana$ is often cited as proving that the Authority may be of even a barbarian or mleccha.\(^1\) The neo-logicians (followers of $navya\ Ny\bar{a}ya$) have discarded this meaning partly and given it an unnatural sense.

The ordinary $Naiy\bar{a}yikas$ admit a fourth source of valid cognition, namely, analogy $(upam\bar{a}na)$. Who are the $Ny\bar{a}yaikadecins$, then, that admit three $pram\bar{a}nas$ only? I consulted many pandits, but none could give any answer. Help came from a different quarter. $Mallin\bar{a}tha$, the well-known commentator on the $k\bar{a}vyas$, was also a philosophical writer. He wrote a very lucid commentary on the $T\bar{a}rkika-raks\bar{a}$ called the $Niskantak\bar{a}$. $\sqrt[3]{a}\sqrt[3]{a}\sqrt[3]{a}$ (the school of $naiy\bar{a}yikas$ here referred to is the school of $Bh\bar{u}sana$) says the $Niskantak\bar{a}$. Who are the $Bh\bar{u}san\bar{u}yas$ then? $Varadar\bar{a}ja$ himself quotes $Bh\bar{u}sana-k\bar{a}ra$ four times in the $T\bar{a}rkikaraks\bar{a}$ in connection with the $nigrahasth\bar{a}nas$ (situations of defeat). $Mallin\bar{a}tha$ quotes $Bh\bar{u}sana$ once more as holding the doctrine that action

¹ साचात् करणम् पर्यस्थाप्तिसाया प्रवर्णत इत्याप्तः। परवार्यस्य व्यानां समानं सचणम्। Nyāya-bhāsya I, 1, 7.

is a quality (π mift η w:). So $Bh\bar{u}$ sana must have been a very important and popular work. I would identify it with the $Ny\bar{a}yabh\bar{u}$ sana (a commentary on $Bh\bar{a}sarvajna$'s $Ny\bar{a}yas\bar{a}ra$) which Gunaratna mentions in his commentary on the $Saddarc\bar{a}na$ -samuccaya. From the MSS of the $Ny\bar{a}yas\bar{a}ra$, preserved in the library of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, it appears that the $Ny\bar{a}yas\bar{a}ra$ admits three $pram\bar{a}nas$ only, though it is admittedly a work of the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ School of Philosophy.

There is a rather remarkable, though obscure, passage in Gaudapāda's Commentary on the Sānkhya Kārikās which enumerates and explains the various pramānas. It runs thus—

षट् प्रमाणानीति जैमिनिः। उपय कानि तानि प्रमाणानि । अर्था-पत्तिः सम्भवोऽभावः प्रतिभैतिह्यसुपमानं चैति षट् प्रमाणानि ।

Translation.—Jaimini says there are six pramānas. What are these pramānas? The six pramānas are (1) arthāpatti (implication), (2) sambhava, (3) abhāva (negation), (4) pratibhā, (5) aitihya (tradition), (6) upamāna (analogy).

It will be noticed that observation, inference and authority are not given in this enumeration. Perhaps Jaimini admitted these pramānas as well, but Gaudapāda contented himself with the enumeration of those pramānas, which are admitted by Jaimini over and above the three admitted by the sānkhyas. On such an hypothesis, Jaimini would seem to have held nine pramānas in all. According to the verses quoted from the Tārkika-rakṣā and the Mānasollāsa, however, Prabhākara and Kumārila (both followers of Jaimini) are credited with five and six pramānas, respectively; it is only the Pauranics that are represented to have admitted eight pramāṇas.

The fourth pramāṇa mentioned by Gaudapāda (pratibhā) is

thus explained :—
प्रतिभा यथा—

दिच्चाने च विन्थस्य सञ्चस्य च यदुत्तरम् । एथियामासमृद्रायां स प्रदेशो मनोरमः॥

रवसृत्ते तस्मिन् प्रदेश्ये श्रोभना गुणाः सन्तीति प्रतिभोत्पद्यते । प्रति-भा च जानतां ज्ञानमिति । Sānkhya Kārikā Bhāsya, 4.

Translation.—''Now for the explanation of pratibhā. When it is said 'The province, which lies to the south of the Vindhyas and to the north of the Sahya mountains, is the most beautiful on the whole earth,' a knowledge arises that there are good qualities in that locality. Pratibhā, then, is the knowledge of those that know.''

I do not pretend to have understood this passage fully. It may, however, be usefully pointed out in this connection, that

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the $M\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}msaka$ philosopher $Kum\bar{a}rila$ (a follower of Jaimini) has expressly refuted the claims of $Pratibh\bar{a}$ to be regarded as a separate source of knowledge in the $Cloka-v\bar{a}rtika$.

लोकिकी प्रतिभा यदत् प्रत्यचाद्यनपे चित्रा । न निश्चयाय पर्याप्ता तथा स्थादोगिनामपि॥

iv, 32, p. 143.

Translation.—"Just as the pratibh \bar{a} of ordinary people is not sufficient to establish any truth without a reference to observation, etc., similarly the pratibh \bar{a} of the yogins (mystics) is also insufficient to establish truth."

Pārthasārathi Miçra, in commenting on the above verse, says—

वैग्रेषिकादयस्तु प्रतिभाख्यप्रमाणान्तरगम्यत्वं धर्माधर्ममयोर्मन्यन्ते ... बाज्जल्येन तदृषीणामेवेत्यार्थमित्युच्यते । तद्विराकरोति लौकिकेति ।

Çloka-vārtika, Chowkhamba series, p. 143.

Translation.—"The Vaiçeṣikas and others hold that dharma and adharma are known by another $pram\bar{a}na$, called intuition $(pratibh\bar{a})$... This faculty is possessed by the seers much more than by ordinary men, and hence it is called second-sight $(\bar{a}rsa)$. This doctrine is refuted in the verse beginning with the word "laukika."

Thus according to $Kum\bar{a}rila$ and $P\bar{a}rthas\bar{a}rathi$, it is not Jaimini that admits $pratibh\bar{a}$ as a separate $pram\bar{a}na$, but it is the opposed school of $Kan\bar{a}da$ that hold this view.

Now if we turn to the Vaiçesika $s\bar{u}tras$, we find no mention of $pratibh\bar{a}$ or intuition. So Cankara says in his $Upask\bar{a}ra$ (x. 2, 6):—

चार्षे चार्न सूत्रकता एघड न लच्चितं योगिप्रत्यचान्तर्भावितम्।

Translation.— "Second-sight has not been separately defined by the author of the Aphorisms, for it is included in (what is called) yogic-perception."

 $Praçastap\bar{a}da$ in the $P\bar{a}d\bar{a}rthadharma-sangraha$ mentions and explains $pratibh\bar{a}$ thus :—

खास्रायविधात्याम् ऋषीयाम् खतीतानागतवर्त्तमानेषु खतीन्त्रियेषु खर्णेषु धर्मादिषु ग्रस्थोपनिवद्धेषु खनुपनिवद्धेषु च खात्ममनसोः संयोगात् धर्मादिविश्रेषात् च यत् प्रातिभं यथार्थनिवेदनं चानमृत्पद्यते तदार्ष-मित्याचत्तते। तत्तु प्रस्तारेया देवधीयाम् कदाचिदेव खीकिकानां यथा कन्यका ब्रवीति श्रो मे भाता खागन्तित स्वदं मे कथयतीति।

Translation.—The seers who are the authors of Vedas possess an intuitive knowledge revealing to them the real nature of things, such as lie beyond the ken of sense, whether present, future or past, and of duties mentioned or unmentioned in the scriptures. This is called $\bar{a}rsa$ (second-sight). It is possessed largely by the angels and seers and only occasionally by the ordinary people, e.g., when a girl says, "My heart says, my brother will come to-morrow."

Bhavabh $\bar{u}ti$ in his $Uttarar\bar{a}macarita$ mentions both $\bar{a}rsa$ and $pr\bar{a}tibha$.

अवाहतन्योतिराषं ते प्रातिभं चर्चः (Act II).

 $Pr\bar{a}tibha$ or $pratibh\bar{a}$ is merely the philosophical term for ātma-tusti or hridayānujnā of religious literature. Manu, Yājnavalkya and Visnu distinctly mention this as a source of moral and religious knowledge. This is to be identified with the conscience or moral reason of European philosophy. Hindu philosophy had early formulated the doctrine that God is our inner self and the self of the universe as well. most valuable parts of the Upanishads contain an enunciation of this doctrine. We are not, however, ordinarily conscious of this inner and truer self. The doctrine of $Pratibh\bar{a}$ or conscience is a corrolary to this doctrine. It would have been quite surprising if the doctrine of an inner and truer self should not have led to the doctrine of conscience. For conscience is nothing but the voice of the inner self speaking to the outer self. Hence in Sanskrit it is called antarātman (lit. the inner self). The antarātman is no mere metaphor; it is a fairly explicit statement of the doctrine of personality, as it was conceived in ancient India. Thus I think I have conclusively established the identity of pratibha, atmatusti, and hridayānujnā with intuition and conscience of European philosophy.

[ं] इन्द्रियक्ति हाद्यभावे यद्धेप्रतिभानं सा प्रतिभा। प्रतिभेव प्रातिभनित्युष्यते नवभविद्यः।

Nyāyakandalī of Qrīdhara (Vizianagram Sanskrit Series), p. 258.

27. Medicinal Lizards.

By DAVID HOOPER.

In the bazars of Northern India dried lizards, in a well-preserved condition, are frequently exposed for sale for medicinal purposes. They are an article of regular consumption and are often mentioned in works on Eastern medicine. Considering that animal products are rare, compared with the large number of vegetable drugs employed in Hindu Materia Medica, I have collected a few notes on this interesting subject.

Dr. R. H. Irvine in "Materia Medica of Patna," 1848, refers the drug "Reg Mahee" to the skink (Lacerta scincus, Linn.), and informs us that it is imported from Kabul and is used as a restorative and aphrodisiac. He alludes to the dried and varnished state in which it is sold at Rs. 12 per pound, and gives the dose at one to two drachms (60 to 120 grains). Dr. J. M. Honigberger in "Thirty-five Years in the East" (1852) states that Lacerta scincus is still used by Eastern doctors and is recommended in leprosy.

Baden Powell in "Economic Products of the Punjab," under animal substances of Lahore, says: "Reg mahi is a small lizard from 6 to 8 inches in length found in the sands of Scind and occasionally in the dry tracts of the Multan division."

Sakharan Arjun in "Bombay Drugs," 1879, under Lacerta scincus, mentions "Reg-i-mahi" as a Persian name signifying a sand fish. He says: "This lizard which is brought from the Arabian deserts in a dried state is used by the Hakeems as a nervine tonic, stimulant and aphrodisiac.

Samples of the dried lizards, known as "Reg mahi," were recently procured by the Reporter on Economic Products from the drug bazar in Delhi. They were submitted to Dr. Annandale for identification, who at once pronounced them to be Scincus mitranus, Anderson (S. arenarius, Murray), a species peculiar to the plains of Sind. It is thus evident that the medicinal lizard of Northern India is this species and not Lacerta scincus, Linn. (Scincus officinalis, Gray) as given by the above quoted writers. Besides the difference in the anatomical markings Lacerta scincus belongs to Egypt and the Algerian Sahara, and, according to Boulenger, is not found east of the borders of the Red Sea. The genus Scincus is restricted to the sandy deserts of North Africa and South Western Asia from Sahara to Sind.

In Dr. Watt's "Dictionary of Economic Products" "Reg mahi" is referred to the Brahminy lizard or common skink (Mabuia carinata, Boulenger). This is one of the most common and widely distributed lizards of the East Indies. It is found in almost every part of the Continent, as well as of the Archipelago, from Afghanistan to China and to the Philippine Islands. Its saliva is said to be poisonous. An oil is made from this and other allied species, and is supposed to have restorative, stimulant and antisyphiletic properties. In "The Topography of Ajmere," Irvine enumerates "Sanda" as the name of a lizard which is distilled and the oil used by Mahomedans. Uromastix Hardwickii is the name of another lizard which is dried and sold in Calcutta

To prepare the lizards for market they are eviscerated and dried in the sun. They retain the natural smooth and glossy appearance of the skin for a long time and have no objectionable odour if kept from damp. It has been said that the flesh of lizards is as good eating as that of fish, raw or dried.

Dr. Whitelaw Ainslie gives various references to the medicinal use of lizards in "Materia Indica" (1826). He remarks that the *Lacerta scincus*, Linn., the officinal skink of Shaw, was eaten by the Egyptians as a restorative and aphrodisiac. The flesh used formerly to be an ingredient in an old compound preparation which went under the name of theriaca andromachi.

Of the gecho it is said that the bruised body of the animai made into electuary in conjunction with certain aromatics was given by Hindu doctors in leprous affections. The same properties have been attributed to the flesh of the grey lizard (Lacerta agilis). In Europe the internal use of the common green lizard has been extolled in cases of leprosy, scrofula and cancer (Flores Specifique nouvellement decouvert, Lausanne, 1785). Virey, in his Histoire Naturelle des Medicamens, informs us that in Spain and Naples the Lacerta agilis when deprived of the skin, head, tail and entrails is administered in venereal cases, and quotes Florez as his authority (1782), who says of its specific virtues "espicifico descubierto en el regno de quatiluana," adding that it produces salivation and sweating. Lizards were recognised in the Materia Medica of Europe in the 16th and 17th centuries. In a curious work brought out by J. J. Bechers in 1663 entitled Parnassus medicinalis illustratus the following lines referring to lizards occur:-

"Die Aidex (Lacerta) lebendig in öl man kochen tut, Es macht ein weisz Gesicht ist vor die Röte gut."

Although at present saurians are not officially recognised in the Pharmacopoeias, well-known physicians for a long time justified their use, as will be found in such works as Moquin Tandon's *Medical Zoology*.

Dried lizards under the name of "Ko-tche" form an important article of trade in China. They are collected and

prepared in Nanning and Wuchow in Kwangsi and are exported from Pakhoi. Over 100,000 are annually exported to the value of about £500. They are used for making medicine called 'lizard wine', said to be a tonic and cure for eye diseases. They are also made into bouillon for the treatment of consumption. There is a great demand for them in Hong Kong and in other parts of the East.

28. Refutation of Max Müller's theory of the Renaissance of Sanskrit literature in the fourth century A.D., after a lull of seven centuries from the time of the rise of Buddhism.

By Māhāmāhopādhyāya Haraprasād Shāstrī.

It is a fact known to all oriental scholars that the earliest inscriptions yet discovered in India are all written in the vernaculars of the time. The inscription in the Piprāhā vase is in vernacular. The Asoka inscriptions are all written in the local dialects of the third century B.C. The Dasaratha inscriptions are in the dialect of the earlier part of the second century B.C., the earlier inscriptions of the Barhat and Sānchi topes belong to the vernacular of about the same period. The Sāgāura copperplate also belongs to a similar dialect. All the Indo-Scythian inscriptions are written in a form of spoken language. Some of these are in a highly sanskritised form of the contemporary dialects.

The first inscription written in grammatical Sanskrit is the Girnar inscription of Rudradāma. But it is again followed by vernacular inscriptions. Sanskrit does not come before the middle of the fourth century A.D. as an inscriptional language.

From these facts, Sanskrit scholars, forty years ago, thought that Sanskrit disappeared as a literary language with the rise of Buddhism in the fifth century B.C., and they were justified by the utter want of chronology in Sanskrit literature. They could not accurately fix the date of any Sanskrit work whatever; while epigraphic evidence was certainly much more The theory of the renaissance of the Sanskrit literature in the fourth century A.D. found a powerful advocate in the late professor Max Müller whose authority was very great in all matters relating to Indian history, Indian literature and Indian scholarship generally. His brilliant power of expression and his fascinating style made the theory exceedingly popular both in Europe and India, and in some quarters it was regarded as a gospel truth. Though many distinguished Sanskritists did not accept the theory, none have ventured to openly refute The late Mr. R. C. Dutt accepted the Renaissance theory without much examination and spread it all over India in his brilliant publications. All Indian writers on history followed in his wake, and even such a discriminating author as Mr. Marsden, late of the Madras Educational Service, wrote in his History of the Hindus that with the rise of Buddhism, Sanskrit went to sleep for seven centuries.

In the interest of truth, therefore, the theory requires a thorough examination in the light of the discoveries of the last thirty or forty years, a period of great activity in the search of Sanskrit manuscripts and in giving descriptive catalogues to them. This is also the period of accurate scholarship in all matters relating to India and its literature, a period more of accurate knowledge than of theories and sweeping generalizations.

Do the facts stated in the first paragraph about the language of inscriptions justify the sweeping conclusion that Sanskrit went to sleep for seven centuries? No one would say they do. The only inference that can be drawn from these facts is that the inscription writers preferred contemporary vernaculars to Sanskrit, that is, the clerks employed by the various non-Brahminic Governments were vernacularists and not Sanskritists; and that, from 350 A.D. Sanskritists began to be employed as clerks and Inscription writers by Brahminic Governments. Beyond this they prove nothing; and the theory of the Renaissance of Sanskrit literature is not justified from these facts.

Another question may be asked to the supporters of this theory. "Where did the Brahmanas go during all these centuries?" Did they also go to sleep with their favourite language? Sanskrit was pre-eminently their language. their writings were in this language. They were very active before this period, and they were also very active after this period. And was all their activity gone between the two periods of great activity? This is impossible to suppose. It is useless to oppose arguments to arguments. The best course would be to oppose this theory by facts. If it could be shewn that many great Sanskrit works were written during these seven hundred years the theory would clearly be disproved. controversial dates will be excluded and only such works will be mentioned whose dates have been approximately ascertained. Pānini's great work is said to have been compiled in the fourth century B.C. But this a controversial matter; and it is excluded, though its inclusion will prove a fatal blow to the theory.

The first work that we know of, which was composed during these seven hundred years, is Kautilya's Artha-Sāstra. It is a compilation from ten previous works on the subject. The author quotes earlier authorities sometimes to refute them, and sometimes, again, to support his own views. The extent of the work is 6,000 šlokas. So it may be regarded as a tolerably large work. The author Kautilya is the same person who is known in the Indian tradition as Cāṇakya, the Brāhmaṇa politician who destroyed the Nanda dynasty and raised Candra Gupta to the throne of Magadha. He belonged to the latter end of the fourth century B.C. An examination of the book will show that it really belongs to that early period.

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The second book that was written during this period is Kāmandaki's Nīti Šāstra. The author Kāmandaki begins by an obeisance to his Guru Kautilya. He must have been a younger contemporary to that renowned author.

The third book is Patanjali's Mahabhasya, written during the reign of Pusyamitra, during the middle of the second century B.C. The author himself says "Pusyamitram Yajayamah." We officiate in the sacrifice of Pusyamitra.

The fourth book is the Bharata Nātya Šāstra which in a previous paper I have placed in the earlier part of the second

century B.C.

The fifth work is Manu Samhita, which Bühler placed between the second century B.C. and the second century A.D. But this period can be limited to the first century B.C. as the pretensions advanced in favor of Brāhmaṇas to possess all escheats and all minerals can only be tolerated when they held the imperial sway; and this the Brāhmaṇas did during the greater part of the first century B.C.

The sixth work is Vātsyāyana's Kāma Sūtras which gives the details of a scandalous deed in the family of Kuntala Sātakarni of the Andhra dynasty, which can be known only to a contemporary. And Kuntala Sātakarni's date is the beginning

of the first century B.C.

The seventh work is Vātsyāyana's Bhāsya to the Nyāya Sūtras, which has been refuted by Diūnāga during the earlier

years of the fifth century A.D.

8. Prašasta Pāda's Bhāsya to Vaešesika Sūtras comes to the same period as it belongs to the older class of Bhāsyas which do not care, as later Bhāsyas do, to follow the original word for word and in the same order.

- 9. Māthara Bhāṣya, now lost to the Šáṃkhya Sūtras, was written by an officer of the Emperor Kanişka who, whatever differences there may be about his exact date, comes clearly within the seven hundred years of the supposed inactivity in Sanskrit.
- 10. Within the same period also comes the redaction of the Agnivesa Samhita by Caraka, the physician to Kaniska.
- 11. Savara's Bhāsya to the Jaimini Sūtras refutes the vanavāda of the earlier Mahāyānists, and so it clearly comes within this period.
- 12. The Kātantra Sūtras were written for the benefit of Salivāhana, a king of the Andhra dynasty who wanted to learn Sanskrit in six months; and the whole period of the Andhra dynasty comes within the limits of these seven hundred years.
- 13. The earlier Mahāpurānas, Matsya, Visnu and Vāya were compiled during this period, and though there are later additions, the bulk of the works were written during this period.
- 14. Mrcchakatika, the oldest Sanskrit drama extant, has been by all authorities placed in or before the first century A.D.

The Mahābhārata, though based on ancient Vaidic stories, were reduced to its present form during this period.

The Rāmāyana, too, was reduced to its present form

during this period.

- 17. In the Māhābhāsya of Patañjali many poems are named; such as Vāsava Dattā, Vārarucam Kāvyam, Jālūkāh slokas and others.
 - 18. The Garga Samhita, an astronomical work, still extant

though very rare, was compiled during his period.

- Yavana-jataka was translated from Greek into Sanskrit in the year 91 probably of the Saka era in prose by Yavanā cārva, and it was reduced into 4,000 Indravajrā metre by Sphujidhvaja in 191 of the same era.
- The Siddhantas which have been abridged by Varahamihira in his Pañca Siddhāntikā also belong to the latter half of this period.
- Menetho's work on Astronomy was translated from Greek into Sanskrit during this period. It may be mentioned here, that if Sanskrit had really gone to sleep during these seven hundred years why were the Greek works on Astronomy translated into Sanskrit and not in one of the vernaculars.
- Professor Jolly thinks that the Nārada Smrti and the Vrhaspati Smrti are mere vārtikas to the Manu Samhitā, and. therefore they must have been compiled within a few centuries of that work. And these two works may safely be placed within our limits.
- The Dašakumāracarita which Wilson ascribes to the 23. sixth century may be placed within this period, as there is no geographical name which cannot be traced to these centuries. The author speaks of Kautilya's Artha-Sāstra as a recent work on "Politics."

Kālidās in the sixth century speaks of the Gaja Sūtras as an ancient work from the country Anga. Now the Palakappya which treats of elephants is a work in the Sūtra form and it was composed in the Anga desa. So this work also may be placed within these centuries.

The Lankavatara of the Buddhists speaks of several schools of Hindu philosophy, whose works must have been written during the earlier part of this period. In fact, the work entitled "Tatt-va Samāsa" or the 'Kapila Sutras' has been regarded by Dr. Mitra as more ancient than Iswara Krsna's Kārikās written

in the early part of the fifth century.

The Buddhists began to preach in district dialects. But within hundred years of the death of the master there was a split in the camp. The orthodox Theravadins continued their works in the vernaculars and at last fixed Pali, one of the vernaculars, as their religious language. But the heterodox people gradually began to Sanskritise the vernaculars and created what Senart calls the mixed Sanskrit, just as we now say sanskritised Bengali, or Sādhubhāsā. The degree of Sanskritization increased as time went on, as is evidenced by the variety of the forms of the language found in Gathas embodied in later Sanskrit works like the Lalitavistara and the Saddharmapundarika. large number of inscriptions in sanskritised vernaculars have also been found. One large work in this form of language is the Mahāvastvavadāna of the Lokattaravādins, a sect of the Mahāsānghikas. The process of sanskritization continued among the heterodox sects till the whole of heterodox classes were included in the newly rising Mahāyāna School, who wrote entirely in Sanskrit though their Sanskrit was a little different from that of the orthodox Brāhmanas. This process of sanskritization clearly indicates the presence of Sanskrit in the land in vigorous existence. Who were the great writers in Sanskrit among the Mahavanists? Brahmanas again, who were converted into Buddhism, as Asvaghosa, Nagarjuna and Aryadeva. They were born Brahmanas, received their finished education as Brāhmanas, they became converts into Buddhism and wrote Mahāvāna works in Sanskrit.

The first work on Mahāyāna in Sanskrit is Šrīmālā Sūtra.

The second work is Lankavatara Sūtra.

- 3. Then comes the great writer Asvaghosa, eight of whose Sanskrit works are known in Chinese translation. One of them is the well-known epic Buddhacarita, the Sanskrit text of which has been partly recovered. Two more of his Sanskrit works are known, one entitled Vajra Sūci, and the other Saundarananda Kāvya.
- 4. Nārgārjuna, twenty-four of whose Sanskrit works are known from Chinese translation, is the actual author of the Prajñā-pāramitā, 8000 or 10,000, though the entire Prajñāpāramitā literature is said to have been rescued by him from the nether world, नामाङ्गिन पातासाइद्वा; his Mādhyamaka-kārikā has already been twice partially printed. He was a voluminous writer, and he wrote only in Sanskrit.
- 5. Within 265 to 316 the Pañcavińsati Sāhasrikā Prajñā-pāramitā was twice translated into Sanskrit. It was a recast of the Asta Sāhasrikā according to the doctrines embodied in Maitreyanātha's Kārikās entitled **Thenrifuserita**.
- 6. This brings us to another Sanskrit writer Maitreyanātha, whose Abhisamayālankāra Kārikā has been lately discovered. Nanjio credits him with the authorship of ten Sanskrit works, the Chinese translation of which still exists.
- 7. Āryadeva, a disciple of Nāgārjuna, whose Cittavišuddhiprakaraņa in Sanskrit was recovered from Nepal in 1897, and who is credited by Nanjio with having written nine Sanskrit works, the translations of which exist in Chinese.
 - 8. Nanjio's catalogue of Sanskrit Tripatakas gives the name

of a large number of Sanskrit works translated into Chinese before 316 A.D.

The whole of the revealed literature of the Mahāyāna School in Sanskrit was composed during these centuries, and their number is very large.

Early in the second century B.C. the Jainas split into two large sections, one of which mainly used the vernaculars and

the other mainly Sanskrit.

Umasvātivācaka, orator of Pāṭaliputra, who is said to have flourished in 151 of the Vikrama era, wrote the Tattvārthādhigama Sūtra, an encyclopædia of Indian literature, from the Jaina point of view.

The theory of revival of Sanskrit is untenable for the follow-

ing amongst other reasons:-

(1) Brahmins wielded great influence and could not have been idle in the matter of literature.

- (2) Some of the non-Brahminic sects gradually Sanskritised their vernaculars and in the end took to Sanskrit.
- (3) Greek works were translated into Sanskrit and not in any of the vernaculars. Sanskrit therefore continued during all these seven centuries as the language of culture, of science, and of art, though some non-Brahaminic sects clung to their vernaculars.

With such a vast Sanskrit literature—Brahminic, Buddhistic and Jaina—before us, is it possible to say that with the death of Buddha Sanskrit went to sleep for seven hundred years only to awake by the middle of the fourth century A.D.?

29. The Bhasapariccheda.

By Mahāmahopādhyāya Haraprasād Shāstrī.

The Bhāṣāpariccheda is the standard text-book of the Navadvīpa school of Nyāya philosophy. It is widely studied throughout India, from Nepal to Travancore and from Burma to the Punjab. There are 166 verses in this work, but these are learnt by heart by almost every paṇḍita who has any pretensions to scholarship. The work is generally accompanied by a commentary by the author himself, which is as widely read as the original text.

The author is Visvanātha Tarkapañcānana, or simply Visvanātha Pañcānana, who also wrote a vrtti commentary on the Gautama-Sūtrās. Aufecht registers 16 other works as written by the same author. Dr. Röer translated the Bhāṣāpariccheda and its commentary in the Bibliotheca Indica series in 1850. He says, "There is no paṇḍita of any repute who does not know it (Bhāṣāpariccheda) well; and many know the whole of it by heart, and indeed, it is admirably adapted for the purpose of introduction into the study of the Nyāya philosophy. It is a succinct exposition of the principal topics of the whole system, and may easily be committed to memory. It is written in the well-known Anustup metre. The style, however, is not poetical at all, but that of the most sober prose, and nowhere is the attempt made to combine the graces of imagination with philosophical method."

But unfortunately we know nothing about the author, who he was where he lived, and the age in which he flourished. Rāya Rājendra Candra Šāstrī Bahādur in the preface to his translation of the Bhasapariccheda and its commentary, published in 1904, says that the author's age, birthplace, etc., are absolutely unknown. But his name betrays a Bengali origin. The author himself simply says that his father's name was Vidvānivāsa and that he wrote the commentary for the sake of Rājīva, who may be either a son or a pupil. From Bābu Nagendra Nātha Basu's Jātīva-Itihāsa, Vol. I, Part I, published without date, but presented to me in July 27, 1904, it is known that the author was a Banerjee, that he belonged to the family of Akhandala, which was respected all over Bengal, that he was 20th in descent from Bhattanārāyana, one of the five Bramhanas that came to Bengal in Vedavānāngasāke, that is, Sāka 654 or 732 A.D., that his father was Kāsīnātha Vidyānivāsa, that his grandfather was Ratnākara Vidvāvācaspati, that his

great grandfather was Narahari Visārada, that through Narahari he was connected with Vasudeva Sarvabhauma, the founder of the greatness of Navadvipa as a place of learning, and that through Narahari's father, Kesava, he was connected with Raghunandana, the legislator of Bengal, as well as with the Princely House of the Rājās of Naladāngā in the district of Jessore. As Mr. N. Basu compiled his Jatiya-Itihasa from the authentic genealogical records of the Brahmanas of Bengal. there was little reason to doubt the facts recorded therein. But as these genealogical lists have not yet been published, scholars may not be disposed to give them the credit they So I was anxious to secure some contemporary evidence, and fortunately I got it in No. 153 of the 2nd volume of the 2nd series of the Notices of Sanskrit Manuscripts. That number describes "Bhramara-Dūtam" a poem by Rudra Nyāyavācaspati, the son of Vidyānivāsa and the grandson of Vidvāvācaspati. So Rudra, I thought, must be a brother of Visvanātha; and referring to Nagendra Bābu's list, given in page 295, I found that Rudra, Nārāyana, and Visvanātha were three sons of Vidvānivāsa. The agreement of the statements in No. 153 with Mr. Basu's list proved the authenticity of the latter.

The foregoing considerations proved that Visvanatha was a Banerjee, was an Ākhendala, and was connected with some of the best Brahmin families in Bengal known for wealth and culture.

But what was the age in which he flourished? The panditās assured Dr. Röer that Visvanātha lived about 200 years ago. But this was vague and so not deserving of much reliance.

In the course of my reading through the descriptive catalogue of Sanskrit Manuscripts, I came to No. 1385 of the I.O. Catalogue, where I read:—

मर्त्वेषां मौलिरतानां भट्टाचार्यमहात्मनां एतद्विद्यानिवासानां दानकाच्छाख्यपुस्तकम् । व्योमेन्दुश्ररशौतांशुमितशाके विशेषतः श्रदेश कविषद्येश विलिख्य परिशोधितम् ॥

That is, a Sūdra scribe, named Kavicandra, copied the manuscript for Vidyānivāsa in Sāka 1510 = 1588 A.D. That paṇḍitas of wealth and influence employed Sūdras as salaried scribes, is a well-known fact. In this case Vidyānivāsa employed Kavicandra as his scribe, and Kavicandra says that he copied the manuscript for his employer in 1588 A.D. This was the time when Bengal was ruled on behalf of Ākbar, by the Hindu princes, Todarmall and Mānasinha. This gives some meaning to the statement about Vidyāvācaspati in No. 153

" योऽभूत् गौडितिपितिश्रिखारत्नघृष्टाङ्घिरेगुर्विद्यावाचर्ष्यातिरित ''

that is, Vidyāvācaspati, who must have been a venerable old man by this time, had the dust of his feet come in contact with

the crest-gems of the ruler of Gauda.

But I was on the look-out for a date of Visvanatha himself. And this has, fortunately, been furnished by a manuscript in the recent collection acquired for Government. The manuscript contains a copy of Visvanatha's Vrtti commentary on the Gau-At the end of the work there are three verses by tama-Sūtras. Višvanātha himself. These are:-

> रषा मुनिपवरगौतमसूत्रवृत्तिः श्रीविश्वनायकतिना स्ममात्यवर्धा । श्रीकृषाचन्द्रचरणाम्ब्जचन्द्ररीक-श्रीमक्तिरोम्सावनः प्रचर्षेरकारि ॥ कठिनार्थपदां कतिं समेतां सृहनि तचरखे समर्पयामि । चपराधियां प्रभी ससेशा ननु नारायण देव दीनबन्धी॥ रसवाणितिणौ श्रकेन्टकाले बहले कामतियौ ग्रचौ सिताहे। श्रकरोन्म्निमूत्रवृत्तिमेतां ननु वृन्दाविपिने स विश्वनायः॥

The work was composed by Visvanatha, in conformity with the teachings of Raghunātha Širomani, who was a votary of Krsna, at Vrndávana, in the Saka year 1556 = 1634 A.D.

So what Rāva Rājendra Šāstrī regretted as absolutely unknown six years ago, is now fully known. The author of Bhāṣāpariccheda retired in his old age to Vrndāvana and wrote his vrtti in 1634, while residing there. This also proves that he was a direct disciple of Siromani, the founder of the Navadvipa school of Nyāya, and that Siromani himself was a Vaisnava.

That Visvanatha was a pupil of Siromani is extremely probable. Visvanātha's grandfather Vidyāvācaspati, and Vāsudeva Sārvabhauma, were two brothers. Širomani was a pupil of Sārvabhauma. So Širomani was an elder contemporary of Visvanātha and probably his teacher. Širomani lived at Navadvipa. Vāsudeva, in his old age, retired to Puri where his descendants held high offices under the Hindu Rājā. Vidyavācaspati and his son Vidyānivāsa lived always at

Navadvīpa. All these learned men fell more or less under the influence of Caitanya, the Vaisnava-Reformer of Navadvīpa

in the early part of the 15th century.

From all these, the statement of Aufrecht in p. 574, that Vidyānivāsa, the father of Rudra and Višvanātha, was the son of Bhavānanda, proves erroneous; and the source of the error is traced out in No. 2938 of Notices of Sanskrit Manuscripts, First Series, in which Rudra Tarkavāgīša says that he was commenting upon a work by his grandfather, Bhavānanda Siddhānta-Vāgīša. So Aufrecht has evidently confounded Rudra Tarkavāgīša, the grandson of Bhavānanda, with Rudra Nyāyavācaspti, the grandson of Vidyānivāsa.

In pages 528 and 529 Aufrecht makes two entries as Rudra Nyāvavācaspati Bhattācārva and Rudra Nyāvavacaspati. The first is a Nyaivāyika and the second a poet. The first is the son of Vidvanivasa and the grandson of Bhavananda. and the second, son of Vidvāvilāsa. I believe that, with the facts before us, these two entries should be made into one. For the poet of "Bhramara-Dūta" says, that his grandfather was Vidvāvācaspati, and not Bhavānanda; and we know that he was both a poet and a Naiyāyika. Aufrecht gets Vidyāvilāsa apparently from the printed text of Bhāvavilāsa in the Kāvyamātā series. But the scribes of Western India often make strange mistakes in copying Bengali names, instances of which are found in abundance in the printed text of Vivadarnavasetu, published in Bombay. In the case of Bhāvavilāsa, however, Bhāndārkar mentions two manuscripts in which Vidyanivasa is the name of the author's father and not Vidyāvilāsa. Rudra Nyāyavācaspati, the author of Bhāvavilāsa, written to please Mānasinhā's son. Bhāvasinha, is no other than the elder brother of Visyanatha.

30. Vocabulary of Technical Falconry Terms in Urdu, Persian, and Arabic.

By LIEUT.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, F.A.S.B., Secretary and Member, Board of Examiners, Calcutta.

The English terms in this vocabulary have been taken mainly from the numerous works of Mr. J. E. Harting. The Eastern terms have been collected from Indian, Persian, and Arab falconers, as well as from MSS. As the vocabulary, however, does not claim to be exhaustive, the compiler not having lived more than thirty years in the East, English terms for which no equivalents could be found have been included. It is left to some future falconer to fill in the gaps.

A

Aggresteyne, [a disease; vide Boke of St. A., p. 29].

Agrum, [When thou seeth thy hauke uppon his mouth and his chekis blobbed, then she hath thys sekenes calde Agrum.—

Boke of St. A., p. 42].

Albino, تيڤون or تيڤون, tīqūn or tayghūn, T. and Pers., Class. and Mod.: vide also Goshawk.

Alphanet, vide Lanner.

Anguelles, [worms said by early writers to trouble sick hawks].

Anlet or Annulet, [small rings, vide Varvel].

Ant, موريانه mūriyāna, Mod. Pers. (White-ant) : رشهيز rishmīz, Mod. Pers. (White-ant or Weevil?).

Antelope, هرنى haran, masc., and هرنى harni, fem., Hindi (the Indian Antelope or Black-buck).

Antelope rat, vide Mouse.

Anus, vide Vent.

Apoplexy, مناه, sakta, Ind. Pers. MS.

Appetite, vide Meat.

Arms (the legs), پاؤك pā'on Hindu., and يا pā Pers.: vide Stalke.

Arsenie, مرك موش sankhiyā Hindī, مرك موش marg-i mūsh, Mod.

Pers., and مسم الغار sammu'l-far, Ar. (white arsenic).

Artetike, [When ye se yowre hawke fat abowte the hert trust it for trouth she hath the artitike.— Boke of St. A., p. 38].

Attrempé F., [neither fat nor thin—Burton's Falconry in the Valley of the Indus, p. 75].

Austringer, vide Ostrenger.

Avillons (or talons), قالب $qull\bar{a}b$, (Mod. Pers.) : هُنَا الْحُرِن $sh\bar{a}h$ - $n\bar{a}\underline{k}h\bar{u}n$, Ind. Pers. MS.

Ayre, and Eyrie, vide Nest.

В

Badelynge, [a badelyng (paddling) of dokis].

Bait, vide Decoy.

Balai, vide Tail.

Barbary Falcon, اليرضى al-yawasṣa, Ar. MS. (apparently the Barbary Falcon; vide Shahin).

Barbe-feathers, (the feathers under the beak vide Boke of St. A., p. 15) vide Feathers.

Bare-headed, قلدرة qalandara (Ind. Pers. MS.); without a hood. Bastard-wing, بچى bachī, (Panj. coll.).

Basse-volerie, خرده گير <u>k</u>hurda-gīrī (Mod. Pers.).

Bastarde (some kind of falcon), [" Also ther is a Bastarde and that hauke is for a Baron"].

Bate, Bating, Rebate, אָבּכְעׁוֹ phaṇaknā (Hindu.): בּיּנְעָּה מּלְּיָנִינּעׁ tapīdan, and בּיִנּינּע tapīsh dādan (Mod. Pers.): [Rebate is to make the hawk return to the fist after bating off it].

Bat-fowling, [A method of catching birds at night by means of a light and a bell, with or without the adjunct of nets; vide Bird-batting].

Bask, to, دهوپ تاپینا کهانا مهانا کهانا ک

Bathe, to, نهان nahānā (Hindu.) and شعن shustan (Ind. MS.) "to bathe in water"; these terms are also applied to a certain playful action in flight in which the hawk closes its wings and shakes itself, a sign that it is not keen: آب بازی کردن آمه db-bāzī kardan (Mod. Pers.), and عسل کردن (Ind. Pers.) "to bathe in water."

Bawtere (A species of Eagle), [First an Egle. a Bawtere. a Melowne. The symplest of theis iii will slee an Hynde

¹ Vide Borton's "Falconry in the Valley of the Indus," p. 18.

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 - calfe. a Fawn. a Roo. a Kydde. an Elke. a Crane. a Bustarde. a Storke. a Swan. a Fox in the playn grownde. And theis be not enlured. ne reclaymed. by cause that thay be so ponderowse to the perch portatiff. And theis iii by ther nature belong to an Emprowre.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 52].
- Beak, چونج chonch Hindu., gen.: عون muhra (Panj. coll.): نوک nok, Panj., and نول nol Hindu., and Ind. Pers. MS.: عنسر minsar (of hawks) and منقار minqār (of any bird) Ind. Pers. MS. and Ar.: چنگ ching (Mod. Pers.; vide also Claw and to Peck): vide Mandible.
- Beak, to, '["—yowre hawke colyeth and not beckyth."—Boke of St. A., p. 10. But elsewhere, p. 45, in the same book "She bekyth when she sewith: that is to say she wypith her beke]; vide Feake.
- Beam-feathers, [And the long federis of the Wynge of an hawke bene calde the beme federis of the Wyng.—Boke of St. A., p. 15.] For the "beam-feather of the tail, vide Deck-feathers, and Tail.
- Beasts trained to the chase, vide under Raptores.
- Beat, to, יל נו יעמא ניט א bāl rā bar-ham zadan (to beat the wings, i.e., not to sail): בּשּׁלְנֵּיל אָל יִי יִּאָּא זְנִיּל jhāṛṇā (to beat for game; wide Drive).
- Bechins (morsels, mouthfuls), جكهة chakh, Panj. (a taste of; vide Feed).
- Beck, fly at the, vide View.
- Bell, گهونگهرو ghunghrū, Hindu.: گهرنگهرو zāl f., T., Panj., and Pers.: مال zang, کارنگزاه zangola, and jalājal المحال با بالحل (Mod. Pers. and Ind. Pers. MS.); Indian hawk-bells should be of different tones, nar o māda, male and female, the latter being the shriller: المحالة zira, Ind. Pers. MSS. and m. c. (bells for pigeons عند painjnī Hindu.).
- Bench, $sak\tilde{u}$, Mod. Pers. (bench, seat, platform, of wood or mud).
- Besom-tailed, ["....the worst you can say by an hawke for their shape is, that shee is a long slender and beesome tailed hawke.—Bert., p. 56, Harting's Edition.
- Besrā, vide Sparrow-hawk.

[!] According to Halliwell "to beak" is a hawking term, as well as a term of cock-fighting.

² By the "long-feathers" the 2nd, 3rd and 4th primaries only are probably intended.

⁸ Prob. Ar. pl. jalājil, sing. juljul.

Bevy, [A beuy of Quaylis, Roos, or Ladies].

Bewits, [The strips of leather by which the bells are attached to the legs. In India gut is usually employed].

Big, قداور qadd-āwar (prop. "tall of stature"; amongst Panj. falconers and in an Ind. Pers. MS. = "big"; compare with māsel, etc., 'vide' Flesh).

Bile, مفواء ṣafrās; vide Casting and Gleam.

Bind, [To fasten on the quarry in the air.—Harting. According to Burton (pp. 18-19) the French equivalent lier is confined to falcons; "truss" being used for short-winged hawks. According to the same writer the French empiéter "to trample" is used of "hawks" as they hold the game down under foot]: vide Wrestle and Clutch.

Bird, فاف bughās, Ar. MS. (birds other than birds of prey).

Bird-batting, vide Bat-fowling.

Bird-bolt, [A short thick arrow with flat end used for knocking over birds without outward injury].

Bird-boy, (scares bird from corn) مرية هنكنا kawwā-hanknā, Hindu.

Bird-catcher, Birder, چَرِيار , chirī-mār, Hindu. : ميرشكار mīr-shikār,

Hindu.: ميّاد - شكارى - شكارى shīkārchī, shikārī and ṣayyād, (Mod. Pers.): vide Snarer.

Birder, vide Bird-catcher.

Birding, (bird-catching) أرجو narjū, Panj., and الكا nalka, Hindu. (the Indian bird-catcher's long jointed bamboo; and المالك kāmpā (the forked twig or strip of bamboo for the bird-lime): vide also Rod.

Birdlime, لاسا; lāsā, Hind. ; نَبُق dabq, Ar. MS. (لاسا dabbaqa verb, to lime); غراء in Baghdad colloquial.

Bird of prey, vide Raptores.

Bittern, کورکهار kharkhār, in Chach, (this name is also applied to the Purple Heron): گری gorī, Kashmiri (a species of Little Bittern): vide also Sedge.

Bittour, bittor, bitter, bitter bump, vide Bittern.

Blackbird, کستورا kastūrā and kastūrī (Indian Black bird; also of a species of thrush).

Blindness, vide Night-blindness.

Blain, [A disease of the second joint of the wing.—Corballis: appears to be unknown in India. Blain is also a boil and an eruption on the tongue of animals. In the Boke of St.

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Albans, p. 42, occurs the heading "For Blaynis i haukes mouthes cald frounches"].

Block, $|\ddot{s}|$ $add\bar{a}$, Hindu. (whence adj. addel): vide also Perch.

Block, to, vide Put in, (said of a hawk that instead of making her point, takes stand).

Blown, to be, نَفَى سوخةن nafas sūkhtan (Mod. Pers.).

Blue-eyed, ازرق چشم azraq-chashm, Ar., Pers.; زاق چشم $z\tilde{a}q$. chashm (Mod. Pers., i.e., with eyes like زاج alum, or like زاج a crow), vide Eye.

Blue-rock, vide Pigeon.

Bogge, (to shy, of a horse; vide Bert, p. 3), vide Fright.

Bole, گدر gerū, Hindī, red ochre; گل ارمنی gil-i-Armanī, Pers. (Armenian bole).

Bolt, to fly at, (to fly straight from the fist at a quarry; of short-winged hawks): (محت رو (کردن and محت dast-raw (kardan and shudan) Ind. Pers. MS., and Mod. Pers., tr. and intr.; vide Cast off.

Bolus, جالعه دادن chālma dādan (Mod. Pers., to give a bolus stealthily, concealed in the bag-like skin of the thigh of a bird).

Bone, دو شاخه $d\bar{u}$ -sh $\bar{a}\underline{k}ha$ (Hindu. coll., and Ind. Pers. MS.) : the pubis bone q.v.

Booch, vide Botch.

Booted, پاموز pā-mūz, Panj. (feathered on the tarsus).

Borax, suhāgā, Hindī (and Ind. Pers. MS.).

Botch, (inflamed tumour).

Bouke, [body, bulk.—Boke of St. A., p. 28).

Bow, فايل ghulel, Hindu., and Ind. Per. MS. (a pellet bow).

Bowiser,! (a hawk that can travel from bough to bough and returns to the nest), تَّال نَبِ $t\bar{a}l$ -tap, Hindu.; هَاخَى $sh\bar{a}\underline{k}h$, Panj.; مَّاخِ جِهاان and شَاخِ جِهاان $sh\bar{a}\underline{k}h$ -jah $\bar{a}n$, and $sh\bar{a}\underline{k}h$ -jah $\bar{a}n\bar{i}$, (Ind. Pers. MS.).

Harting, in the glossary of his edition of the Booke for Kepinge of Sparhawkes, quoting the Summary of Falconry by Ray, 1678, states that a 'brauncher' is a young hawk that has lately left the nest and that it was also called a "ramage-hawk,"

Apparently a "brancher" was a hawk that had lately flown but was still following its mother, while a "bowiser" was one that could only travel from branch to branch.

Bowse, Bouse, Booze, etc., (to drink), [Is when a Hawke drinketh often, and seems to be continually thirsty.1-Latham. 'Vide' also Gen. Rec. ii, 61].

Bowsin or Bowsing, (drinking).

Bracelet, الأوك bilājak, Ind. Pers. MS. (from الأجك bilāzik or balāzik T.).

Brahminy duck, vide Shieldrake.

Brail, [A narrow slip of thin soft leather, with a long slit in it, used for tying one wing of a restless hawk that bates much.—Harting. Eastern falconers use neither the brail nor the cadge. As a rule each hawk has its own falconer, but a spare hawk is sometimes carried on the head. A birdcatcher transporting a number of hawks carries them on the shoulder, on a long pole bound round with grass, etc.; newly-caught sparrow-hawks are done up in 'socks,' like grocer's parcels, and so transported).

Brain-fever Bird, vide Cuckoo-hawk.

Brancher, (a hawk that has left the nest and can fly from tree to tree, which according to the Boke of St. Albans takes place after St. Margaret's Day); wide Bowiser.

Bravles or brail-feathers, (the long small white feathers under the tail); نيفق nayfa (Ind. Pers. MS.) and نيفق nayfa (Ar. MS. ; said to be a corruption of the Pers. دم ليزة (nāfa) وافع dum līza, Mod. Pers. (the brayle-feathers, or the Pope's nose?).

Breast, نغل baghl (Panj. and Ind. MS.) and كجهة kachh, Panj., (in a hawk, the flesh on the side of the breast, under the wing, where the wing-joint is; vide also Joint): auxiliaria, Panj. and Ind. Pers. MS. (the whole breast; vide also Joint): vide Condition.

Brood, [A brode of hennys].

Bury, [A "Bery of Convis": vide Coney].

Building, [A beldyng of Rookes].

Bush-chat, vide Chat.

Bustard, نغدار tughdar, Panj., and Ind. Pers. MS. (the great Indian Bustard): مونى داخ mish murgh, P., and ميش مرخ dūy-dāgh or

I Ignorant - or over-physicking with sal-ammoniac produces an in-

satiable thirst that lasts for many days.

² According to the "Boke of St. Albans," hawks should be taken when branchers. St. Margaret's Day appears to be the 10th June, in honour of a canonized queen of Scotland. However the 20th July is sacred to another saint. Sainta Margarita, virgin and martyr.

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 $t\bar{u},\bar{i}$ - $d\bar{a}gh$ or تربطفلی $t\bar{u}gh$ or تربطفلی $t\bar{u}gh$ $dar\bar{i}$ in Kapurthala and Ind. Per. MSS.; تغدری $til\bar{u}r$, خومور $til\bar{u}r$, خومور thar-mor or الزئی thar-mor, in the Panjab; جرز charz, in Baluchistan; قرز charz, or charz, in Baluchistan; قرزی charz, or charz amongst Pathans; گرفنی charz or charz or

(the Indian Houbara Bustard): ما التعبية al-hubruj, Ar. MS. (the Houbara; in dict. said to be the male).

Button, And Jukma, T. (the "button" or tubercle in the centre of the nostril of a hawk).

Buzzard, ما sār (Mod. Pers.; for Turki ما Sā?; vide also Starling): جوهیدار دارشه د

 \mathbf{c}

- Cadge or Cage, [A wooden oblong or square frame on which hawks are carried hooded to the field.—Harting. Vide Brail].
- Cadger, [The person who carried the cadge; and perhaps any assistant falconer; vide Falconer].
- Call, to, [بهون هاتها کرنا . bhon-hāth karnā, Panj. (to exercise a short-winged hawk by calling it repeatedly from the ground to the garnished fist held aloft].
- Calling off, [Luring a hawk from an assistant at a distance, for exercise.—Harting.]. 'Vide' Lure, to.
- Canceleer, [Fr. chevaucher, to make two or three sharp turns in the descent when stooping.—Harting].
- Cancer, آکلهٔ دماغ \bar{a} \bar
- Canker, خورهٔ هند. <u>khura-yi minsar</u>, Ind. Pers. MS. (canker of the beak); پرخورگي or پرخورگي par-<u>kh</u>uragi or par-<u>kh</u>ura, and aقاشقه qāshiqa, T. (Mod. Pers. and Ind. Pers. MSS., canker of the flight—or of the tail-feathers at the root).

Canvas-mail, vide Mail.

Cardamoms, الأنجى or الأنجى ilāchī, Hindu., and alāchī Pers.

- Carriage, دست داری dast-dārī, Ind. Pers. MS. (keeping on the fist).
- Carry, to, (a hawk on the fist), هاتهه پر ليفا hāth par lenā, Hind. and بردست گرندن bardast giriftan, Mod. Pers. (to take on the fist): مازد نفان bāzār kā mār denā, Panj. (to carry in the streets): gasht dādan, Ind. Pers. MS., and گردانيدن gardānādan, Mod. Pers. (to carry a hawk about).
- Carry, to, ميد أنها كر أز جانا ṣayd uṭhākar uṛjānā (to fly away with the quarry).
- Case, کورل khol f., H., and خول khol, Ind. Pers. MS., (a leather case or protection for the beak or neck of a heron that is given as a 'train'): vide also Tail-cover.
- Cast.² (two hawks), جفت الداخةي juft and $\bar{a}\underline{kh}$ tan, Mod. Pers. (to fly as a "cast"): باهم جناح الداخةي $b\bar{a}$ ham janāh and $\bar{a}\underline{kh}$ tan, Mod. Pers. (ditto).
- Cast gorge, to, قى كونا qai karnā, Panj. (to vomit).
- Cast, to; Casting, (الحاقة) پر مهري الله par muhra (dālnā) (a casting, sp. of feathers): صفراء مفراء Mod. Pers. (a casting, lit. "bile"): صفراء tu'ma andākhtan, Mod. Pers., and الله munh jhārnā, Hindi (to cast; tu'ma, lit. "food"): منيله Ind. Pers. MS. (casting): تعافر tuk-samik, T.: تعافر fatīla, Ind. Pers. MS. (an artificial casting of wool; lit. = wick, etc.): vide last line of 'Meat'; [Ye shall say cast

9 Only Indian falconers trained by Englishmen fly a "cast" of

hawke.

In India hawks are usually trained to large quarry that they cannot "carry." There is no special word for the vice known to English falconers as "carrying."

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youre hawke to the perch, and not set youre hawke uppon the perch.—Boke of St. A., p. 10].

" Catch," vide Lure.

Cateract, موتيا بند <u>gh</u>ashāwah, Ar., and موتيا بند motiyā bind, Hindi, (from Ind. Pers. MS.): نزول الس nuzūl-i āb, Ind. Pers. MS.

Cat-gut, النت إنت إنت tānt, Hindī. : قانت zih, Mod. Pers.; and رودة rūda, vulg. coll.; watar, Ar.; vide also Sinew.

Cawking-time, إ جفائي كا موسم, إufti kā mausim, Hindu.

Cere or Sere, (the bare wax-like skin near the beak). [In the Boke of St. Albans, p. 13, the skin of the legs is called the "Seris of hir legges and hir fete"].

Chaff-nets, (nets for catching small birds), vide Net.

Chap, vide note to Mandible.

Charm, (flock), [A cherme of goldfynches].

Chat, گين dagin, in Chach Hazara, (a black and white chat, probably a Bush-chat, a quarry for the Merlin).

Chase, vide Stern-chase.

Check, checking, (to change the bird in pursuit, etc.), دورَنبوالا daurnewālā, Panj., and ارونده ravanda, Ind. Pers. MS., (checking at the lure and chasing passing birds).

Cheek-stripe, واجهه wāchh, f., Panj., [bāchh, f., Hindi], (prop. the sides of the mouth): صوحهه mūchh, f., H. (lit. moustache): مدم pl. مدامع , madma', pl. madāmi', Ar. MS. (lit. the place where the tears collect): سياء يشماغلي siyāh yashmāghlī, Pers. T. (black-headed? vide Trans. of Bāz-Nāma-yi Nāṣirī, p. 10 and note 3).

Cheetah, يوز بلنگ and يوز پلنگ, yūz and yūz-pālang, يوز بلنگ, yūz and yūz-pālang, Pers.: 'vide' Leopard.

Chemise, Fr., vide Sock.

Chicken, جورة chūza, Hindu.: جورة jūja, Pers.; vide Pup.

Choffs, Chough, زاغ zāgh (in Kerman, Persia; but the term is also loosely applied to jackdaws, etc.): vide also Clattering. Circle, اوى مونگري ² Ind. Pers. MS. (a semi-circle "like a half-

¹ However the Boke of St. Albans (p. 1) says, "And in the tyme of their love they call, and not kauke."

word not traceable; possibly a copyist's error. The word might mean "hue and cry" and be a Turki equivalent of the

moon '' in hunting or driving): قورفه qumurgha, T., and chargāh or جرگاء jargah T., Ind. Pers. MS. (a hunting circle formed by beaters; this is apparently a complete circle).

Clap, vide Mandible.

Clattering, [A clateryng (flock) of choughes.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 86].

Claw, ناحين nākhūn, gen. ; شاه ناخون shāh-nākhūn, Ind. Pers. MS. and Panj. (the hind claw, which is the key to opening the closed foot): قالب qullāb, Mod. Pers. (the hind claws): vide 'Closer,' 'Avillons,' Sengles, and Talons.

Closer or Key, مخلب mikhlab, pl. مخالب makhālib, Ar. and Mod. Pers. [Onderstond also that the longe Senclees be calde the key of the fote, or the closer. For what thyng som ever it be yt yowre hawke stenyth: open that Sengle, and all the fote is oppen, for the strength therof fortyfieth all the بيے کی انگلی: fote.—Boke of St. A., p. 13]. Vide Sengles bich ki ungli, Hindu., Panj.

Clutch, Clutching, [Taking the quarry in the feet in the air as short-winged hawks do (and occasionally falcons), instead of striking it down].

Clyster-stick, شاف or شافه shāt or shāta, Mod. Pers. and Hindu. (a stick with cotton-wool at one end; dipped in oil and used as an enema).

Coat, ["Hawk of the first coat, a hawk in her fourth year." See Genl. Rec.—Halliwell. "A Goshawke nor a tercell in there soreaage haue nott thau mayles named. bot it is calde their plumage, and after the cote it is called theyr Maill."— Boke of St. Albans, p. 12. From the latter it would appear that 'cote' meant the first moult, and that the breastfeathers of Goshawks were called 'plumage' in the immature, and 'mail' in the mature, bird. From the last section on p. 11 of the same author it would appear that the breast-feathers of falcons were called 'maill,' both in the immature and mature birds].

Cogh, (cough), vide Poose.

Cold, vide Rye.

Colon, (the largest intestine) vide Stomach.

Colver or Colvere, [A dove or a pigeon? vide Dove].

Hindi hānk "a drive" Dr. Denison Ross suggests وي مونكوري the

ox's horn,' apparently a hetter reading.

The real "key" of a hawk's foot, however, is the hind claw and not the "longe sengle" or middle claw.

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Coly, vide Beak and Feake.

Come to, (to begin obeying the falconer), زير تعليم zer-i ta'līm, Ind.

Pers. MS. ("under training," i.e., coming to the lure).

Comerowse or Comerous, [troublesome, old English].

Condition, بغل شناس baghal-shinās, adj., Ind. Pers. MS., (said of a falconer that can tell the condition of a hawk by feeling the flesh under the wings; vide also Breast): بگوشت شکار bi-gūsht-i shikār rasīdan, Mod. Pers. (to be in proper flying condition).

Congregation, ["A Congregation of Plovers"; vide also Lapwing].

Constipation, تبض qabz, Hindu. and Pers. : عبض sudda Ind. Pers. MS. (obstruction in the bowels; vide Stoone in the fundament): خشكى khushki, Mod. Pers.

Coney or Cony, [Rabbit more than a year old, vide Harting's Birds of Shakespeare, p. 12 Intro.].

Coo-coo, vide Cry.

Coot, پرلا parlā, T. and Mod. Pers. (coot ?) : قشقال qashqāl, T., (in Chach Hazara): [a couert of cootis].

Coping, (cutting off the sharp points of the beak and claws), or تراشنا or الخي كالنا or الخي كالنا or تراشنا الخي كالنا or للذا من المنا من nol kāṭnā, Hindu., (of the beak).

Corby, vide Crow.

Cormorant, گهاگر $gh\bar{a}gar$, in Derajat; هاري $h\bar{a}r\bar{i}$, (in Chach Hazara).

Cote, vide Coat.

Cover, vide Case and Tail-cover.

Covert, vide Coot.

coverts, مفتاح sarpūsh, Pers.: سر پوش sarpūsh, Pers.: سر پوش sarpūsh, Ar., lit., "a key" (a primary covert): خرکه jarka (۱),
MS. (a primary covert?): vide also 'Deck-feather'.

Covey, [A coup of partrichis]. If galla Pers. (but in Hindustani only for cattle; herd).

Cowardly, λ kam-himmat, Hindu. and Pers., (lacking in courage and also in perseverance); $bod\bar{a}$, Hindī: vide Ignoble.

Cower, Cowering, [of young hawks when they quiver and shake their wings].

Crabbed, Crabbing, لَوَاكُو larākū, Panj., (quarrelsome, crossgrained). ["Crabbing, i.e., grabbing; said of hawks when two are flown together, and one seizes the other on the quarry by mistake."-Harting. "Hawks fighting with each other.—Lascelles''].

Cramp, تشنّج tashannuj, Ind. Pers. MS. (violent cramps).
Crane, کلنگ kūnj. Panj., and کلنگ kulang, Hind., (the common crane): کلنگ or کلنگ kulang and kulank, P., and درنا or طرنا durnā or turnā, T., (are the Mod. Pers. names for the same): gargara. Turkī and Hindu. (the demoiselle crane): or علل gal or gala, a flock; vide also Covey and Herd]: سارس sāras Hindu. (the Sarus, Grus antigone).

Gray, (the disease), vide Constipation.

Creance, [No special words; ريسوان rīsmān in several MSS.].

Creep, to fly to the, [And yowre hawke sleeth at or to the Creepe when ye haue yowre hawke on yowre fyst and crepe softely to the Ryuer or to the pit. and stelith softeli to the brynke thereof. and then cry huff. and bi that meane nym a fowle. Then it is slayn at the crepe oder at the fer Jutty or at the Jutty ferry.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 48], vide Secretly and Stalk.

Crest, کلفی kalghi, Hindu. (a crest of a bird; also an artificial plume for the head): چونتی chonti, Hindī (of bird; also a woman's plaits).

Cricket, vide Mole-cricket.

Crines, Crinetts, [The small hair-like feathers about the beak].

Croaks or Kecks, (the disease), تنج نوز takh takh karnā, Pani.: خر خر كرنا khar khar karnā, (lit. to snore; to be hoarse in the throat, etc.).

Crop, يونا $ghogh\bar{a}$ (in Behar): يونا $pot\bar{a}$, Hindi: ئبوگها jhajhūra, Derawal ?: اوير كاته ūpar kā tah, Panj.: جينه chīna, Pers.: حوصله hawsala, Ar., Pers., and Hindu.

Crossing-flight, [When another bird flies between a hawk and her quarry.—Harting.].

Crow, كوا kawwā, Hindu., and كانو or كانو kānw or kān, Panj.: ديو كاو ; kārghah, Pushtu كارغة dew kā,o, Kashmiri (the Common Indian crow): گهاگهری کانو ghāgrī kānw, in the Derajat (the Indian Corby): كُلُّامَ لِيسَمْ kulāgh, Mod. Pers.: كُلُّامَ لِيسَمْ

In French créance, filière, and tiens-le-bien. 'Vide' also note to Reclaim.

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 - كلاغ ابلق, kulāgh-i-ablaq or kulāgh-i-pīsa, Mod. Pers. (the Hooded or Pied Crow; perhaps also the Magpie q. v.).
- Cry, آواز طلب $\bar{a}w\bar{a}z$ -i-talab, Ind. Pers. MS. (the luring-cry): وقو کردن $q\bar{u}$ $q\bar{u}$ kardan, Mod. Pers. (ditto): vide also "Warning."
- Cuckoo-hawk, پنيا papīhā, Hindî (the "Brain-fever Bird" "Hieroccyx varius).
- Cunning, دزی duzd, Mod. Pers. (cunning and lazy, of old hounds and hawks): مبن قاس āsān-gīr and مبن شناس subuk-shinās, Ind. Pers. MS. (recognising easy flights and not trying at difficult ones; a vice).
- Curlew, بُر buza, the Black Curlew or Common Ibis q. v.; برز ispalandū, in Chach Hazara (the Common Curlew): vide also Herd.

 \mathbf{D}

- Dabchick, vide Grebe.
- Dare, (to frighten), [To dare birds is to catch them by frightening them with a hawk or by other means].
- Deck-feathers, (i.e. the two centre feathers of the tail); طوخ or طوخ , togh or togh, Panj. and Ind. Pers. MS. (the centre tail-feather, the "beam-feather of the tail," from dūgh or tūgh, T. "a tail," vide Beam-feathers and Tail): عمود 'amūd Ar. (ditto; lit. column, pillar): تابات qāpāq, T. P., (ditto; perhaps this word means "coverts"): vide Beam-feathers and Tail.
- Decoy, ענו lāwā, Hindu. (a stale, i.e., a stuffed bird as a decoy, lit. "bringer"); ניטא ענו zinda lāwā, Hindu. (a live decoy): אַנְיבּט ענו bulāre kā lāwā, Hindu. (quails and partridges used as call-birds): איי mullā, Panj. and Ind. MS. (a live bird or bait for a hawk); איי mohlū, Panj. (ditto): איי mohlū, Panj., and בעני איי dīv-jāma, Mod. Pers. (a yellow screen or dress used in stalking): vide Stalking-horse).
- Degouted, (spotted), [Bot and a spare hawke be so Ermyned uppon the brayles. or a Musket. oder ye shall say she is Degouted to the uttermost brayle. and much it betokynis hardenes.—Boke of St. A., p. 14].
- Deplume, vide Plume.

Dessert, vide Lapwing,

Disclosed, (newly hatched) [Now to speke of hawkys. first thay ben Egges, and afterward they bene disclosed hawkys.— Boke of St. A., p. 1].

Distension, in nafakh Ind. Pers. MS. (of the stomach).

Dog, كارى kuttā, Hindu. (gen.); كارى tāzī, Hindu. and Pers. (gen. any greyhound); \vec{tazi} or luch, Panj. (smooth-coated Indian or Arab greyhound): جهازي, jahāzī, Panj. (English greyhound): بخمل or بريلا, bakhmal or burela. Panj. (longhaired Persian or Afghan greyhound): گوز gadar, Pani. (a pariah): غن but (the large Pawanda dog with cropped ears and cut tail): بول قانگ $b\bar{u}l\bar{i}$, Eng. (bull-dog) and بول قانگ $b\bar{u}l$ سگ ایلاتی ; .sag Pers سگ : پالاتی (bull-terrier in Panjab) sag-i-īlātī, P. (a large fierce breed of dog kept by the Persian wandering tribes): Y. tūla, Pers. (any sporting-dog except the $t\bar{a}z\bar{i}$; also means pup in m.c.): vide Trained.

Do-gaza, 'vide' Urines.

Dopping, [A dopping of sheldrakes].

Dove, أيرة (fakhta, Panj. and Pers. (a large species): عربة gera, in Derajat (a large species) and گهوگي ghughī or تَتَّن tuṭan (a small species): ترتبو turturū, in Kapurthala (a small species, probably Turtur cambayensis): vide Duell and Flight.

Down of feathers, نرم يوها gaddī, Panj.: نرم يوها narm-parhā (Ind. Pers. MS., and Mod. Pers.).

Down-wind, vide Up-wind.

Draw, to, [And we shall say that hawks doon draw when they bere tymbering to their nestes.—Boke of St. A., p. 1]; vide Timber.

Draw, to [said of a hawk that "will slee a Roke or a Crow or a Reuyn: uppon a londe sittyng," 'vide' Book of St. Albans, p. 49].

Draw the hood, [to draw the braces which open and close the hood behind.—Harting. The Indian hoods have no braces, but a pattern used in the Persian Gulf has].

Drawer, or Lure q. v.

Drawing from the mew, (after she has moulted), کوبز سے آئیانا

By Dove and Colver old English writers probably meant a pigeon.

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 - or $kur\bar{\imath}z$ se $uth\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ or $nik\bar{a}ln\bar{a}$, Hindu. (to take a hawk out of the moult).
- Drink, آب خور کرد آ āb-<u>kh</u>ur kardan, Mod. Pers. (to accustom a hawk to drink).
- Drive, the $h\bar{a}nkn\bar{a}$, Hindu. (to drive a vehicle; also to drive game: subs., $h\bar{a}nk$, f.).
- Drongo-shrike, بهذب bhāmrāj, Hindu. and بهذاع bhanrāj, Panj. (the Large Rachet-tailed Drongo, Edolius paradisens, a cage-bird): vide King-crow.
- Drops, vide Markings.
- Dropping, [said of a hawk that mutes in drops], vide Slice and Slime.
- Drug, to Drug, القمه luqma (any drug given before flying to increase hunger and courage): كيف دادى kayf dādan, Ind. MS. (to drug with camphor or other intoxicant before 'unseeling' and 'manning' a new hawk).
- Drum, غبل خورده <u>kh</u>urda, adj., Ind. Pers. MS. (said of a duck that has been alarmed and affected by the drum): <u>tabl-nā-kh</u>urda, adj. (one not affected by the drum-beating).
- Duck, مرفحابي murghābī, Hindu. (any water fowl, but especially duck): نيل سر مرفحابي urduk, T., P., and Ind. Pers. MS.: نيل سر مرفحابي shil-sar murghābī, Panj. (the Mallard); شيل بالش اوردک sīkh-dum murghābī, bāsh urduk, P., T., (ditto) منتخ دم مرفحابي sīkh-dum murghābī, Pers. and Panj.; الل سرا: lāl-sirā, Panj. (the Pink-headed Duck) الل سرا: lāl-sirā, Panj. (the Pink-headed Duck) مرواجي and خاروت ملائحة, kārwat male, and karwāchī female; also hārwat, and harwāchī, in Kashmir (the White-eyed Duck) اب خوره ألم المناسخة ألم المناسخة المن

Duel, Dule, [a Duell of Turtillis].

Dunbird, vide Pochard.

 \mathbf{E}

Eagle, عقاب 'uqāb Ind. Pers. MS. (a gen. term, but in Hindustani specially applied to the Tawny-eagle): معترف majnūn, the Serpent-eagle (in Chach Hazara): ترمج zummaj, Ind. Pers. MS. (a species of Eagle, probably the Golden Eagle,

formerly trained 1): عقاب or قريع قوش , 'uqāb or qara-qūsh, Mod. عقاب مالا دم : sanj Mod. Pers. (Serpent Eagle) سنر 'ugāb-i māh-dum, Mod. Pers. (an Eagle with a black band on the end of its white tail; Pallas's Sea-Eagle ?): عقال 'uqāb-i kūchikān, T., Mod. Pers., (an Eagle with the whole tail white): عقاب آئيذه لي 'uqāb-i ā-īna-lī, T., Mod. Pers. (an Eagle with a few white feathers in the back; the Imperial Eagle ?): کرلک karlak, Mod. Pers. (some very large Eagle): عقاب سياة 'uqāb-i siyāh, Mod. Pers. (some species of ' black ' Eagle): عقاب 'uqāb-i zard, Mod. Pers. (Tawny Eagle ?): عقاب سينه بازي 'uqāb-i sīna-bāzī, Mod. Pers. (the previous species in its immature plumage): برق خوره or عقاب قرباقه چي, 'uqāb-i qurbāqa-chī '' the frog-eagle,'' or buq-khura "the refuse Eater" (a small marsh-frequenting eagle that eats frogs): شينى shīnī, Panj. (Bonelli's Eagle): دو dubarā,² Mod. Pers. [apparently a corruption of دوبرا يرادران du-barādarān, Pers. and Ar. MSS.] (a species of small eagle, the male the size of a female Goshawk; hunts in couples); جوز jor, in Chach Hazara the name of a species that hunts in couples but said not to be Bonelli's Eagle: وريد graid, in Kashmir (the Ring-tailed Sea Eagle); كريد kurl, Hindu. (ditto): عقاب البعر ugābu 'l-bahr, Ar. (Sea-Eagle): الزمير al-zummaj, Ar. MS. (the Golden Eagle): as-sarrārah Ar. MS. العقاب al-'ugāb, gen., Ar. MS.: العرادة (Short-toed Eagle); قَدْهل dad hil, in Derajat (the Dwarf Eagle A. Pennata): vide Bawtere.

Eagle-owl, vide Owl.

Egret, الحله barā baglā, in Kapurthala, and الحله bāṭa in Kohat, (the Large Egret, Herodias alba); عبر الحاء brait, Kashmiri (the Little Egret, H. garzetta): سركيا بكالا الحاء الح

Electuary, معجون ma'jūn, Ind. Pers. MSS.

^{1 &#}x27;Vide' Qawānīn' 'e-Ṣayyād, p. xxiii, note 5. In the Ḥayāt'-'l-Ḥayāwān, however, it is stated to be identical with the Dubarā.

2 See Note 1, page 3294

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 [N.S.]
- Embowelled, (when the crop is empty but the bowel full). Vide Endew.
- Empiéter F., (trample), [Holding the quarry on the ground; of short-winged hawks only? vide Bind.]
- Endew, (to digest), [An hawke enduth neuer as long as his bowillis bene full at her fedyng, bot assone as she ir fedde, and restith she enduth littill by littill. And if her goorge be wide (void) and the bowell anythynge stiffid ye shall say she is embowellid and hath not fully endewed.—

 Boke of St. A., p. 11]. Vide Put over.
- Enew, Eneaw, or Inew, [And if it happen as it dooth oftimes the fowle for fere of yowre hawke woll spryng and fall agen in to the Ryuer. or the hawke sees hir. and so lie styll and dare not arise. ye shall say then yowre hawke hath ennewed the fowle in to the Ryuer.—Boke of St. A., p. 49. Vide also Harting's Birds of Shakespeare, pp. 66-7]. Vide Put in.
- Ensayme, [Ensayme of an hawke is the greee.—Boke of St. A., p. 15]; $charb\bar{i}$ Hindu. (lit. fat; vide infra).

Ensile, vide Seel.

- Enter, باولي ديكر جنكلي صيد پر چلانا, bā olī dekar janglī said par chalānā.
- Enterpenned, [apparently said of a nestling (eyees or brancher) when the flight-feathers had not attained their full length. 'Vide' Boke of St. A., p. 11].
- Epilepsy, مر ع ṣar', subs.¹, and ممروع maṣrū', past parti. (afflicted with—), Ar. Pers. MSS., etc.: اكمجه akmaja, Ind. Pers. MS. (a kind of fit).

Er [Eyrie.—Latham]; vide Nest.

Ermined, (with black spots like Ermine), vide Degouted.

Escaped, چليل chutel, adj., Panj., (an escaped or lost hawk caught by another).

in Qawānūra 's-Sayyād, p. xxiv.

Exalting [an Eyaltyng (flock) of Larkis.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 81].

Excrement, فضائع fuzla, gen. (of any living thing; vide Mutes). Exercise, vide Call.

Eye, گريه چشم gurba-chashm, adj., Ind. Pers. MS. (said of a goshawk that has blue eyes; lit. "cat-eyed"; vide Blue-eyed.

Eyer, to, (to breed) [And we shall say that hawkis doon Eyer. and not brede in the woodes.—Boke of St. Albans].

Eyess, or Nias, آگنی āshiyānī, Pers., and Panj.; الشاني أكني al ashānīyah, Ind. Pers. MS. (from أُكُنّةُ Ar. a nest); الشانيد al ashānīyah, Ar. MS. (from Pers.).

Eyrie, vide Nest.

F

Falcon, أسياة جشم siyāh-chashm, Pers. and Hindu. (the "black-eyed," i.e., the long-winged hawks or falcons as distinguished from the "yellow-eyed" q. v.): توار or طوار tuvār or tuvār—also qūsh-i tuvār—Mod. Pers. (the female of any hawk, opposed to غير jurra "tiercel"; also of any hawk="large"): سنگ sangak, Mod. Pers. (the name of a small 'falcon' exactly like the pīqū or Indian shikra sparrow-hawk).

Falconer, أو از دار نار الله bāzdār, Panj.: مست كش dast-kash, Panj., and Ind. Pers. MS. (lit. a "stroker," i.e., an assistant falconer or hawk-carrier): مير شكار mīr-shikār, Hindu. (a term in India applied to any falconer or bird-catcher): قرش چي ترشي ياشي qūsh-chī, Mod. Pers. (Grand Falconer): قرشي ياشي باشي لله bāziyār, Ar. MS. (from Persian): بازيار shāhīn-dār, Ar. MS. (a carrier of a shāhīn; Pers.): ماقر دار درست chāqīr-jī, T.: بازدوست bāz-dūst, adj., Pers., (fond of hawks).

call a gos-hawk also a falcon, giving her a kind of brevet-rank.

² Also a 'Falconer' meant a keeper of falcons as opposed to 'Ostreger' a keeper of goshawks and tiercels and 'Sperviter' a keeper of sparrow-hawks and muskets.

I The falcons are the long-winged as distinguished from the short-winged hawks. A 'falcon' is also a female of a long-winged hawk as opposed to a 'tiercel' or male. For some reason old falconers used to call a gos-hawk also a falcon, giving her a kind of brevet-rank

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Falconet, مورچنه and مورچنه, Ind. Pers. MS.

Fall, [A fall of Woodecockis].

Fall at mark, to, [To alight on the ground and await the falconer after 'putting in 'the quarry; of a goshawk]; vide Mark.

Fallera, [A disease in which the claws turn white and drop off. In India, giving hawks spices and unnatural food to force on the moult will cause this disease].

'False-moult,' پر گردان par-gardān, Panj., and Ind. Pers. MS., (name of a disease; vide Moult).

Fast, تيزير tez-par, Ind. Pers. MS. (of birds).

Fat, vide Enseam.

Fawken of the rock, [There is a fawken of the rock. And that is for a duke.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 52].

Fawn, Er barra, Pers., (lit. lamb; vide Sheep).

Feed, to, Feeding, (کرنا) طمعه داری (کرنا tu'ma-dārī (karnā), Panj. (understanding the correct amount of food to give; also giving a light meal after physic): طمعه كي ألت يات كرنا لين كرنا لين للت يات كرنا kī ulat pulat karnā, Panj., (not giving a fixed amount of food, i.e., giving more one day and less another and so getting a slack hawk into a proper condition of hunger): سور کردن sirkardan, Mod. Pers. (to feed up, not necessarily 'to gorge' or satiate a hawk): شير كرنا sher karnā, Panj. (to feed up a hawk on its quarry, especially its first kill; probably a corruption of the previous though supposed to be connected with sher "tiger "): اتبه بهري طعمه دينا ath-paharī tu'ma denā, Panj., and يک خوره کردن yak-khura kardan, Ind. Pers. MS. (to give one meal sufficient for twenty-four hours): chakhi. Hindi., and Panj. (the light morning meal): حکهه دينا chakh denā (to give just a taste of blood or meat): vide also 'to Gorge' and 'Taste.'

Feake, to, (wipe the beak; also to sew, snite, beak and coly(?); these terms are said of the hawk and not apparently of the falconer), نوک پونچهنا nok-ponchhnā, Panj.: خلال کردن برنچهنا khilal kardan, Ind. Pers. MS.: vide also Beak.

I crobably some kind of peregrine, perhaps one that had its eyrie in a cliff. It is mentioned in the "Boke of St. Albans" between the Fawken gentile and the Fawken peregrine, q.v.

Feathers, par, Hindi, Pers., (also = a wing): $m\bar{u}$, Ind. Pers. MS. (small feathers, lit., 'hair'): $j = jh\bar{a}r$, Panj. (the small feathers of the breast, back, and thighs): شلوار shalwar, Panj., and Ind. Pers. MS. (the pendant feathers of the thigh, vide Thigh): ييكان paikān, Ind. Pers. MS. (name of certain feathers; lit. 'arrow'): منيفه nayfa, Ind. Pers. MS. (the 'brayles' q.v.; دم ليزة dum-liza, Mod. Pers., (the same?): يار مالق $y\bar{a}r$ - $m\bar{a}liq$, Mod. Pers., (the two or the three large feathers that are uppermost when the wings are closed; noticeable in such species of bird as ير خوردها : the Common Crane and the Egyptian Vulture par-khurdahā, Mod. Pers. (small feathers): ثريا surayyā, Ar. and Mod. Pers. (the few white spots on the back of a saker; lit. Pleiades); سالم قُرِّيا sālim surrayā, adj., Ar. and Mod. Pers. (a saker is so styled when these spots are absent): ورق waraq, Ar. MS. (small feathers other than tail- and wing-feathers): کوریر rish, Ar.: کوریر kūr-par, Ind. Pers. MS., and Panj. (a diseased and stunted feather): باراني يبر bārānī par (a mature small feather in the immature plumage, i.e., one that has appeared in place of one uprooted by accident): ير قراش par-tarāsh, adj., Ind. Pers. MS., (said of a bird addicted to the vice of pulling out and eating its feathers): vide Flight-feathers, Plumage, Quills and Tail.

Fechen, [Stoat?].

Ferme, to, intr. [to strengthen, to harden; vide "Boke of St. Albans," p. 28].

Fever, vide Phthisis.

Field-hawk, [as opposed to a River-hawk].

Filanders, or fillenders, or fylaundres, (intestinal worms), جونک jonk, Hindī (prop. a leech), and جونکئي jonkļī (small); خومه kirma jonkī, Ind. Pers. MS.

Flags, [The federis of the wynges next the body be calde the flagg or the flagg-federis.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 15. The secondary or cubital feathers of the wing.—Harting. The feathers in the wing next the principals.—Salvin, Brodrick, Freeman]: vide Flight-feathers.

¹ French manteau, the whole plumage or coat.

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- Flamingo, بگ هنس bag-hans, Hindi.
- مار سر : <u>khwārazamī</u> sar, Ind. Pers. MS. خوار زدى سر mār-sar, Panj., and Ind. Pers. MS. (lit. snake-headed): vide also Snake-headed.
- Flesh, Fleshy, ماس والا or ماسيل, māsel or mās-wālā, Panj., and گرشت ناک $g\bar{u}sht$ - $n\bar{a}k$, Ind. Pers. MS., (full of flesh, wellfurnished; compare with qaddawar, 'vide' Big).
- دوسري طرف ,(to flutter out, fly off; of quarry put in), دوسري طرف تكل مهاكنا dūsrī taraf se nikal bhāgnā. Hindu.
- Flight, (flock), ["A flight of Doves." The term 'flight' was also used of swallows and goshawks.]
- سه دست برانیدن tīn hāth chalānā, Hindu., or تین هاتهد چلانا si dast parānīdan, Mod. Pers. (to give three flights); جا بند iā-band, adj., Panj. and Ind. Pers. MS., (said of a bird that has lost its powers of flight through confinement).
- Flight-feathers, قردق or فزرق or فزرق Pers. and Ar. MSS. (the first flight-feather, spec. of a goshawk, vide Sercell); شاه ير shāh-par (according to some pigeon-fanciers and some falconers the three first feathers only of the wing are so called, but according to others the largest and strongest feather in the wing; according to others the 2nd. 3rd, 4th, and 5th are so called); يذَّكه badga, Panj. (amongst some falconers the 4th, 5th, 6th and 7th feathers); يارير yār-par, Panj., (the 5th, 6th and 7th feathers of some; the 8th, 9th, 10th of others; but by others again the wing feathers from the 10th onwards are so called): بازخانه bazkhana, Panj., (the 6th, 7th, 8th, and 9th feathers of some); الله or نهان nahā or nīhān, Panj., (the 7th flightfeather); قينچى qainchi, Panj., (the longest flight-feathers, one on each side, so called from their 'scissors' appearance when crossed, vide also Warbel); القوادم al-qawādim, pl. of Ar. MS. قادمة
- Flighty, "yāwa," T. (lit., "wild"; in the Kapurthala State a term applied to the Shahins).
- Flock, کله gal or کله galla, Pers.; vide also Crane.

Vide "Qawānīnu" ş-Ṣayyād," p. 12, note 6.
 This word occurs several times in Bert.

⁸ Vide Ross's " Polyglot List of Birds", Mem. As. Soc. Beng., 1909.

Florican, چرز charaz or charz (and vulg. charaj).

Flush, to, (vide to Rise). بنه الهان buna uṭhānā (to flush quarry put in by a short-winged hawk that has fallen at mark); بازا دينا urā-denā, Hindī, vide Rise.

Fly, to, ازنا uṛṇā, Hindī; بعردك مردك كار كردك parīdan Pers.; بعردك مردك كار كردك (to fly with difficulty, work ill); vide Creep, Secretly, Stalk and View.

Fly on head, to, [Miss the quarry and check.—Harting].

Fly at the brook, vide Rivering.

Fly-catcher, دنگ بلبل dūdh shakar, Panj., and دوده شکر rang bulbul, in Kashmir (the Paradise Fly-catcher).

Foment, to, نكميد كونا senknā, Hindī and نكميد كونا takmīd karnā, Hindu. Pers. (with hot water, hot pads, etc., or with the palms heated at the fire).

Food, vide Feed.

Foot, ها مُعالَم hāth, Hindu., and دست dast, Mod. Pers. (lit. hand); پنجه $panj\bar{a}$, Panj., and Mod. Pers.; پ $p\bar{a}$, Mod. Pers. (also equals the whole leg); (for swollen feet, vide Pinne in the feet and Podagre).

Foot-track, او پا khurā, Panj.; کهوچ khoj, Hindu.; په پا radd-i-pā, Mod. Pers.

Foot, to, گرفت کرنا girift karnā, Hindu., vide Clutch.

Footer, یہ پنجے کا زبردست ہے yih panje kā zabar-dast hai, or اسکي iskī girift achchhī hai (a good footer).

Foot-work, پيادگي piyādagī, Panj., Ind. Pers. MS., and Mod. Pers., (foot-work, of goshawk; running round a bush in which the quarry has put in).

Fowl, بن مرغ ban-murgh, or جنگلي مرغ janglī murgh (the jungle fowl).

Fowling, vide Bird-catching.

Fowler, vide Bird-catcher.

Fright, چوک جان chamak jānā, Hindu. and چوک جان chamak khānā, Panj.; and إيقال شدن jafil shudan, Mod. Pers., (said of a goshawk that has taken a fright or dislike to some special sight or sound; "to take a skunner at").

Frog, قرباقه qurbāqa, T., P.

لنائي khunāq, Ar., (lit. quinsy), and خناق

nanā,ī Hindi, (Ind. Pers. MSS.) ; بدُرات حلق bāṣrāt-i ḥalq, Ind. Pers. MS. ; بدُرات حلق dahan-i qūsh joshish kardan, ادهن قوش جوشش کردن dahan-i qūsh joshish kardan, Mod. Pers.

Full-barred, [said of a hawk when the tail-feathers are fully grown or nearly so, i.e., when the seventh black-bar that runs across each feather of the tail is visible. "For when she is full barrid she stondith uppon. VII."—Boke of St. A., p. 14].

Full-fermyd, vide Full-summed.

Full-summed, or Summed. (When a hawk, either in the nest or in the mew, has all her feathers and is fit to be taken up).

Fulmart, or Foumart, or Folmert, (a pole cat).

Fur, to fly at, (to fly at hares and rabbits), خرگوش پر چلانا \underline{khar} gosh par chalānā, Hindu. ; vide Ground game.

G

Gadwell, ايوگا irgā, T. (in Chach-Hazara).

Gaggle, 1 (flock), [A gagle of gees].

Galbanum, (a gum), قنّه qinnah, Ar. and بارزه bārzad, Pers.

Galingale, (a sweet smelling grass), ناگر موتهد $n\bar{a}gar\ moth$, Hindī ناگر موتهد $s\bar{a}'d$ - $i\ k\bar{u}f\bar{i}$, Ar. and Pers.

Gall, پنا ; zahra, Hindu. and Pers. ; هری pittā, Hindī and Panj.; العرارة al-marārah, Ar.

Gape, ناجهه $b\bar{a}chh$, f., Hindu. and Panj. (the sides of the mouth); shidq, pl. اشداق $ashd\bar{a}q$, Ar.. (the sides of the mouth).

Garganey, کنیک kanaik (in Chach-Hazara).

Gauntlet, vide Glove.

Gazelle, يک دانه آهو $chik\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, Panj. ; هو $\bar{a}h\bar{u}$, Mod. Pers. ; yak $d\bar{a}na$ $\bar{a}h\bar{u}$ (a single gazelle) ; چرخ آهو گر chargh-i $\bar{a}h\bar{u}$ - $g\bar{i}r$, Ind. Pers. MS. (a saker trained to gazelle).

Gentill, Gentle, or Gentil, [the falcon or tiercel-gentle, another name for the peregrine though perhaps the term was formerly restricted to the eyess, the brancher, and the bowiser; vide also note to Peregrine].

شنقارچه ;.shungār, Ind. Pers. MS. and Mod. Pers. فنهار منهار (Gerfalcon, شنقارچه)

¹ Also "a gagle of women", but a "scoldyng of kemsteris."
2 For a full discus-ion of this word, vide Jl. As. Soc. Bengal. Volume III, No. 2, 1907. The Gerfalcon and its tiercel "belonged to a kyng," vide Boke of St. Albans. p. 52.

shunqārcha, Ind. Pers. MS. ; الشَّنْقَار ash-shunqār, Ar. MS., vide Jerkin.

Get in, (to reach the hawk after she has bound), پهنچنا pahunchnā, Hindu., and سيدن rasīdan Pers., (to arrive); vide Make in. Gin, کرکی kurkī.

Gizzard, پنهري pathrī, Hindu.; سنگ ده sang-dān, Ind. MS.

Gland, عدود $ghad\bar{u}d$, Ind. Pers. MS., (the saliva gland in sheep); معرود $qad\bar{u}d$, Mod. Pers.

Glaymous, (slimy; of a casting).

'Gleam,' (the substance thrown up with the casting), میل mail, Hindu.: میل $safr\bar{a}$ (also easting q.v.)

Gled or Glead, vide Kite.

Glove, دست کش dastāna, Hindu. (gen.), and دست کش dast-kash. Mod. Pers. (gen.); هاله bahla Pers., (a falconer's glove; si bahla qūsh "three hawks or falcons"); منقله dastbān, Ar. MS. (from Pers.); منقله manqalah, in Bahrein (the padded canvas cuff that takes the place of the glove); دستی dastī, Hindu. (a somewhat similar pad).

Glut, [The slimy substance that lies in a hawk's pannel. Gen. Rec. ii, 62.—Halliwell. The lower intestines.—Stonehenge's British Rural Sports].

Goose, منگهه mangh or magh, Panj. (the Grey-goose): قاز or غاز $q\bar{a}z$ or $gh\bar{a}z$, P. Vide Gaggle.

Gorge, (the crop and also its contents). Vide Crop.

Gorge, to, سير شكم كرنا $ser ext{-}shikam\ karnar{a}$: 'vide' also 'to Feed.'

[!] The goshawk was the hawk for a yeoman (or a servant of a rank next below a squire: a person of middling rank), while its tiercel was for a poor man.

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(the local race that breeds in Persia): בענט tarlān, (the race or races that migrate into Persia): تيقون tīqūn, (the white variety of goshawk; vide also Albino): طغرل tughral (an unidentified species mentioned in MSS.; it is probably the Crested Goshawk but it is sometimes described as being " black-eyed," and sometimes as a small eagle): گور بیسرا gorbesrā, or mountain besrā, Hindī, and جريالي churiyālī of the Eastern Terai, (the Crested Goshawk Lophospiza trivirgatus Jerdon No. 22; Delmè Radcliffe calls the female Manuk Besra and the male Manuk Dhoti): khandesara, male, and chatesara (a doubtful species of short-winged hawk): الغطراف al-ahitrāf, Ar. MS., (the eyess goshawk) : البدري al-badrī, Ar. MS. (a young goshawk caught after it has left the nest). al-urahuwān, Ar. MS. (a red-eyed passage goshawk, word from Pers.): زمج zummaj, Ar. MS. (a haggard goshawk; but vide also Eagle).

Gout, نقرس niqris, Ind. Pers. MS., and Mod. Pers.

Grain, وزي ratī Hindu., and سرخ surkh Ind. Pers. MS., (a small searlet seed with a black spot, weight about two grains, much used by goldsmiths: it is the seed of Abrus precatorius).

Grand Falconer, vide under Falconer.

Gravity, advantage of, عليه māya subs. (adj. māya-dār): از عليه dz māya andākhtan, or انداخلن az bulandā andākhtan. Mod. Pers. (to cast off a goshawk from a height so that she may have the advantage of her weight by flying as it were down-hill).

Grebe, پندوبي pan-dūbī, Hindu., and پندو pindī, Kashmiri (the Little Grebe); نوبه toba (in Chach Hazara).

Greedy, بهركيدل bhūkhel, Panj. (a greedy feeder and large eater).

Greyhound, vide Dog: قوش شناس qūsh-shinās and قوش شناس charkh-shinās, adj., (said of a greyhound that is trained to act in concert with the falcon at gazelle).

Ground-game, چرنده charanda, Mod. Pers. (lit. "grazers"; opposed to پرنده paranda); vide Quarry.

Grouse, vide Sand-grouse.

Gurgiting, [Choking with too large a mouthful.—Harting. Halliwell, on the authority of Gen. Rec. ii, 62, has "Gur-

giping. Stuffed up and stiff." Latham writes, "Gurgiting is when a Hawke is stuft or sufferoted (?) with anything, be it meat or otherwise."

H

- Hack, [keeping young eyesses in a state of liberty. Easterns do not fly hawks at hack. Hack also once signified the place where the hawk's meat was placed, vide Gen. Rec. ii, 62.]
- Hack-bells, [heavy bells put on hawks flying at hawk to impede their flight; vide Hack.]
- Hack-board, [The board on which the meat of hawks flying at hawk is laid, vide Hawk.]
- Haggard, قريفاک tarīnāk, Hindu.; and المن طولک dāsh-tūlak, T., Mod. Pers., (a hawk that has moulted in a wild state): vide also Intermewed: جرناس jirnās, in Bahrein Island (haggard or intermewed?).
- Halsband, جغولي jagholi, Panj.: چلقو or جغولي $jalq\bar{u}$, or $chalq\bar{u}$ Mod. Pers.
- Hand, ماتهه hāth, Hindu. and دست dast, Pers. (the hand, i.e. foot of a hawk): vide Foot.
- Handle, to, هاتهه پهيرنا hāth phernā, Hindu.: دست کشي کرنا or کردن or کردن dast-kashī karnā or kardan, Panj., and Ind. Pers. MS.
- Hang on, vide Wait on.
- Hard-penned, (when the young flight-feathers or tail-feathers are no longer in blood), vide Tender-penned.
- Hare, ساها or ساها or مسيط sāhā or sayyar, Panj.: خرگوش khar-gosh, Hindu. and Pers., vide Trip.
- Harrier, كافذي لا ه safed lāh and عندي لا ه safed lāh and عندي لا ه safed lāh and عندي لا ه kāghazī lāh (certain other species): مانديل dasht-māl, Panj. (the Pale Harrier C. Swainsonii, Jer., and Montague's Harrier, C. cineraceus, Jer.): ليها lehā and تيها tehā (names of two species of harrier in he Derajat, probably the previous): مانديل shāndel, in Chach Hazara: السبر as-subar Ar. MS.: دشت لمانديل bil bāqlī, T. and السبر abū hikab (?) (amongst some Arabs): the Turki word چيلاق chīlāq "kite" also includes a species of harrier.

¹ Intermewed peregrines can, in India, be flown at back during the moult in the hot season.

Hausse-pié, Fr., 'vide' Tombisseur.

Haute volerie, کلان گوري kalān-gīrī, P.: عران کوري vaḍ-mārā, adj., Panj. (of a hawk trained to large quarry = $kal\bar{a}n$ -gīr).

Hautein or Hawtyn ['Haughty'; and also 'loud.' Boke of St. A., p. 7—" bot it will make hir hawtyn and prowde''].

Hautein falcon [A high-flying falcon.—Halliwell].

Havock, to cry, [vide Harting's Bibliotheca Accipitraria, p. 224, and Cry].

Hawk, جانور jānwar, gen. (lit. 'animal,' in Panjabi falconers' language, a gen. term for hawks or falcons) : قوش qūsh, Mod. Pers. (vide Goshawk): طيورشكاري tuyūr-i shikārī, gen., Mod. Pers.: گلال چشم or گلاب چشم gulāl-chashm or gulāb-chashm, Panj., and Ind. Pers. MS. (the "vellow-eyed" as opposed to the siyāh-chashm or "black-eyed," vide Falcon): زرد چشم zard-chashm, Mod. Pers. (ditto): کیری آگیه kairī-ānkh, Hindī, azraq-chashm, Mod. Pers. ازرق العين azraq-chashm, Mod. Pers. ازرق چشم Ar., and $+ ch\bar{a}qir$, T. (lit. "blue-eyed"), have all the same application : البزاء al-bazy, pl. البزاء al-buzāt, Ar. MSS. (a gen. term for all hawks but specially for the female goshawk); al-bueuz, Ar. MSS. البوءوز al-buez and البوء al-buez al-bueuz, Ar. MSS. (another form of previous); الباز, al-baz, pls. البيد: ان al-bizan and يبش آهذكي al-ābwāz (ditto): يبش اهذاكي pesh-āhangī, adj., Hindu. (a term applied to all hawks caught early in the season): وروزى nau-rozī, adj., Panj. (a hawk caught on the return migration about the end of March, vide Lantimer):1 vide Goshawk, and Sparrow-hawk.

Hawks of the fist, (short-winged hawks), vide Hawk.

Hawks of the lure, (long-winged hawks), vide Falcon.

Hawks of the tower, (long-winged hawks), vide Falcon.

Hawk-Eagle, vide Fagle.

Head, www. sar sust kardan, Ind. Pers. MS. (hanging the head; a disease, 'vide' Qawānīn"'s Sayyād, p. xxv, note 1): vide Scabbiness.

Heart, دل dil.

Heat-stroke, گرما زدگی garmā-zadagī.

¹ From Nau-roz the New-Year's Day of the Persians; the 21st March.

Hedgehog, خوك chūla, Mod. Pers. : انته chāhā Panj.

Hen, مرفى $murgh\bar{i}$, Hindu.: ماكيان $m\bar{a}kiy\bar{a}n$ Pers.; مرفى $d\bar{u}j\bar{a}j$. Ar., vide also Brood.

Herd, [Of Swannys, Cranys, Corlewys, Wrennys, and Harlottys]. Heron, بوتيمار $b\bar{u}t\bar{i}m\bar{a}r$ in the Kapurthala State, Panj., and in Persia, also in Ind. Pers. MSS.: بالذي bilā,ī in the Derajat; narī (prop. the Purple Heron q.v.), in some parts of the Panjab; جلم ; chilam in Sindh; برگ brag in Kashmir; هويزة haveza in the Bannu District; کبود kabūd, انجن anjan, and بهاد $bh\bar{a}d$ in Oudh, etc.; چيلانگ $ch\bar{\imath}l\bar{a}ng$, in Kohat (a name also applied to the storks); 816,4 hukāra, in Parichinar, Kurram Valley (all names for the Common Heron): مقاد hagār, القار uqār, etc., for عقار 'uqār (in Persia the Common Heron, but in an Ind. Pers. MS. the Purple Heron): واق vaq, Mod. Pers. (Night-heron q. v.): کهرکار $khark\bar{a}r$ in Chach Hazara, جائم $j\bar{a}h$ in Sialkot, چيندخ ځواري chīn-dakh-khurai or "frog-eater" in Bannu, نزى jarda, Mod. Pers., and نزى nārē, Kapurthala (the Purple Heron); زَرْقي zuraqī (ditto in Basra, Pers. Gulf): vide Night-heron, Egret and Paddy-bird: vide also Sedge.

جلانے کے بدن میں کے اور Hey and Heye, (high, in good condition) or عفرشت بهرا هوا ملح chalāne ke badan men hai baghlon men gosht bharā hū,ā hai.

Hern, Hernshaw, vide Heron.

Hobby,² دوزى and دوزىلى, dauri and daureli, Hindi: دوزىلى regi, Hindu., (in some parts; a name given in the Derajat to the English Merlin, and in the Kapurthala State to the Common Kestrel): کجل kajal, in Chach Hazara : دهوتی dhotā (of some falconers; vide Sparrow-hawk): کیوٹی dhidi or کیوٹی ke,oti, Panj.: ليل layl, Mod. Pers.: البيدق al-baydaq, Ar. MS.; العقاوة as-saqāwah, Ar. MS.

Holde-fast In the begynning of kyndli spech of the termys

¹ Vide Jl. Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. III, No. 8, 1907.

² The 'Hoby' was a hawk for a 'yong man.

³ According to an Indian writer, the Hobby in Turki is لاجين بيه ه lächin bachcha.

⁴ Hold-fast. A phrase used to horses to move them from one cock of hay to the next in carting it, as well as to caution the men on the top to hold fast. Var. dial. - Halliwell.

that belong to hawkys here ye may fynde them. The first is holde fast at all timys. and specially whan she batith.—Boke of St. A., p. 9].

Hollyhock, خطمي <u>Khatmī</u> (also Marsh-Mallow).

Hood, توماعه and $top\bar{i}$, Hind.: $kul\bar{a}h$, Pers.; $top\bar{i}$ and $t\bar{u}m\bar{a}gha$ and $t\bar{u}m\bar{a}gha$, T. (in Ind. Pers. MS.; obs. in India): $kalgh\bar{i}$ (plume of a hood; also crest of a bird).

Hood off, تُوپِي أَتَارِكَرِ چِلَانًا topī utārke chalānā, Hindu.: كلايا برداشة kulāh bar-dāshta andākhtan, Mod. Pers.

Hood-shy, المكلاء bad-kulāh, Hindu. and Pers.

Hoo-ha-ha, قوقوها ها ها قوم $q\bar{u}$ $q\bar{u}$ $h\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}$ (in parts of the Panjab).

Hoopoe, عرغ سليمان hud hud, H., Pers., Ar.; مرغ سليمان murgh-i Sulay-mān, Pers.

Host. vide Ost.

Houbara, 1 (Otis Macquenii), vide Bustard.

Hound, vide Dog.

House, to,2 vide Roil.

Huff! vide View and Creep.

Hunger-traces, ---- ?

Hunting-ground, المنار الاله shikār-gāh, Hindu. and Pers.: حور shawr, Ar. (dried marsh-land, full of grass and reeds).

I

Ibis, אינ buza, Hindu. and Panj. (the Black Ibis, Geronticus papilosus).

Ignoble, دله و پست فطرت dila u past-fitrat. Mod. Pers. (mean, cowardly).

Immature, vide Sore-hawk.

Imping, وصل کودن پر شکسته wasl kardan-i par-i shikasta, Ind.

Pers. MS.: گانتهان gāṇṭhnā, Hindu. (also a cocking term):
پیوند کودن payvand kardan, Mod. Pers.: لوله پیوند کودن اردن کودن tūla payvand kardan, Mod. Pers. (to imp by inserting a shaft in the hollow quill).

¹ For a note on its habits, etc., vide Jl. As. Soc. Beng., Vol. II, No. 9, 1906.

² 'To royle and house' was said of a goshawk that wandered and sought for domestic fowl near a house; vide Bert, pp. 2, 50, and 74, Harting's Ed.

Imping-needle, $s\bar{u},\bar{i}$, Hindu. (= needle; Indian falconers often imp by means of a strip of bamboo and bird-lime, not a skilful method).

Incurable. لادوا or الاعالاج المعالى العالاء المعالى العالاء الأعلاج المعالى العالاء الأعلاج المعالى العالاء المعالى العالاء المعالى العالاء المعالى العالاء المعالى العالاء العالى العالاء العالى ال

Indigestible, شَقِيل sangīn, Hindu. and Ar., and سنگين sangīn, Mod. Pers. (lit. heavy).

Indue, Induing, vide Endew.

Inke or Ink, (the whole neck of a quarry), گردن gardan, gen., Hindu. and Pers. : منک $mank\bar{a}$, Hindi (a cocking term).

Inseam, vide Enseam,

Iren or Iron, [the tiercel of the golden Eagle! Vide Harting's Birds of Shakespeare, pp. 53-4].

Iron-mail or Red-mail, vide Mail.

Ispaghul, اسفرزة isfarza or اسيغول ispaghūl, Mod. Pers.

Intermewed, (moulted indoors, in confinement), خانی or خانگی منافعی منافعی در فانگی whānā or khanagī, Panj.; خانه کویز khāna-kurīz, Ind. Pers. MS.: طولکی tūlakī (moulted) and خانه طولکی khāna tūlak, Mod. Pers.: مربوط marbūt, Ar. MS.

Iuke, vide Juke and Inke.

J

Jack, (male of Merlin), vide Merlin.

Jackdaw, کوين kavin, in Kashmir (the Common Jackdaw).

Jay, سرگنگ (!) (the Green Jay Cissa sincresis; formerly trained to take small birds!): بلوط خور balūṭ-khur, Mod. Pers. (the Common Jay).

Jerboa, يرزوع $yarb\bar{u}'$ or جربوع $jarb\bar{u}'$, Ar. : موش دوپا $m\bar{u}sh$ -i du- $p\bar{a}$, Mod. Pers. ; vide Mouse.

Jerfalcon, vide Gerfalcon.

Jerkin, (male of Jerfalcon) شنقار ه shunqārcha, Ind. Pers. MS. Jesses, منقار عوال duwāl, f., H., and Panj.. and Ind. Pers. MS.:

tasma, P. ("strap"; amongst Panjabi falconers also applied to the jesses): پاچه بند pācha-band (in the Panjab applied to jesses of silk or cotton with 'varvels'; but in Persia jesses generally are so styled): بند band and مشت بند musht-band, Ind. Pers. MS.: پازه pā,iza, Ind. Pers. MS.; term also used

¹ Vide Jl. As. Soc. Beng., June 1907, p. 398, note 1.

by the Urdu poet Sauda: شراك, pl. شراك shuruk, Ar., Ind. MS.: شياقي siyāqayn (?) dual of سياقين siyāq Ar. ?, Ind. Pers. MS.; سياقين sāqayn, Ind. Pers. MS. (ditto): شكاربند shikār-band, Panj., (vide also Leash) (the leather thong that attaches the varvels to the leash or to the swivel): duwālen karnā, Panj. (to remove the créance and leash and to fly a new hawk at the lure with only the jesses on): عام المسترة المسترة

Jet up and down, vide Remove.

Join, [when a second hawk also binds'].

Joint, عفصل, pl. عفصل, pl. مفصل, pl. مفصل, pl. بند band, Panj., وغضل, pl. بند band, Panj., وغضل, pl. بند band, Panj., وغضل chahār band, amongst falconers means the flesh of both thighs and both sides of the breast—bajhal—given to a hawk; a bajhal in this connection is the عبد yak sīna of Mod. Pers. and signifies the wing with all the flesh of one side of the breast): vide also 'Wing.'

Jouke, Joke, ["-youre hauke Joukith. and not slepith."—
Boke of St. A., p. 9].

Juke, [The neck of a bird.—Halliwell; and Gen. Rec. ii, 62. Bert has iuke: 'vide' Inke].

Jungle-fowl, vide Fowl.

Jutty, to fly to, (of short-winged hawks), [Iff yowre hawke nyme the fowle at the fer side of the Ryuer or of the pitt from you. Then she sleeth the fowle at the fer Jutty and if she slee it uppon that side that ye been on as it may hap dyuerse times. Then ye shall say she hath sleen the fowle at the Jutty ferry.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 48].

Jutty Ferry, vide supra.

K

Kauke, to. vide Cawking-time.

Kernel, خسته mayhz: خسته <u>kh</u>asta or مغنر hasta, Mod. Pers. (the stone of fruit).

شكل ; larzānak Panj.: ريكي regī (in Kapurthala) لرزانك shikal and بدفوخ chhikal (in some parts of the Panjab): بادفوخ

l Far

² Vide Jl. As. Soc. Beng., Vol. II, No. 10, December 1906, p. 527.

bad-furukh, Pushtu (for bad-khurak?) the common Kestrel: دليجه ناخون سياة ي dalīja, Mod. Pers. : دليجه ناخون سياة dalīja, Mod. Pers. دليجه siyāh, Mod. Pers. (the "black-clawed, i.e., the Common Kestrel : دليجة ناخون سفيد dalija-yi nākhūn-i satīd, the " whiteclawed, '' i.e., the Lesser Kestrel): العويسق al-'uwaysiq Ar. MS.

Key or Clofer, vide Sengle.

- King-crow or Drongo-shrike, کال کرچهی $k\bar{a}l$ -kirich or کال کرچهی $k\bar{a}l$ (in Chachh-Hazara): buchanga, Hindu, : vide Drongoshrike.
- Kirnells, (or swellings near the eyes; contain small white 'kirnells' like those in cattle: vide Bert, p. 84), בארט zahr-bad, Panj. and Ind. Pers. MSS. (a name given to many ailments accompanied by swelling).
- Kistress, [a kestrel.—Halliwell quoting Blome. According to the former authority 'kress-hawk' is in Cornwall a hawk'.
- kite, گانئهه chil Hindu., and هل hil, Panj. and گانئهه gānth, Kashmiri (the Common Kite of India, Milvus Govinda): قينچي هل qainchī hil, Panj. (a fork-tailed kite) and ياتِّي هل pātan hil, Panj. (a square-tailed kite); the former is fancied to be the more difficult quarry) : چيلاق قا ياق chīlāg-i qāpāq or chīlāq-i qāpāq-i kūtāh, Mod. Pers. (the 'forktailed' kite; the Common Kite of India? vide also Harrier). العداة al-hida:ah Ar. MS.: بهماني چيل bahmnī chīl, Hindī (the Maroon-backed Kite).

 \mathbf{L}

Lamb, vide Sheep and Fawn.

الستال : Lammergeyer, هماى or hanā or hunāy, Mod. Pers فهاى Lammergeyer as-satal, pl. السنلان as-sitlān, Ar. MS.

Lanner, Lanneret, (male of Lanner), [The Lanner is not found

² Vide Journ. As Soc. Bengal, Vol. II. No. 10, 1906.

Ismān ki chil. zamin ki asil "the kite of the sky and the maid-servant of the earth (are alike bad)," Hindu. Prov. (Asil is a free maid-servant as opposed to laundi). It is an Indian superstition that if a traveller comes across a kite with a white beak he will attain the object of his journey.

in India. Alphanet is said to be a name for the Tunisian Lanner 17: rest al-hurr, Ar. MS.

Lantimer, [Young hawks caught wild before Lent.—Stone-henge's British Rural Sports]. Vide نوروزي nau-rozī, under Hawk.

Lapwing, [A dessert of Lapwyngs: vide Plover and Congregation].

Large, vide 'Big' and 'Fleshy.'

Lark, اگن aggin,² Hindu., (the Singing Bush-lark): بگيري bagerة (the Short-toed, or Social Lark, the ortolan of Calcutta): چندور chandūr, Hind. and Panj. (the Large-Crested Lark); bodal, lit., ''crested'' (ditto in Chach Hazara): بودل kākulī, Mod. Pers. (the Crested Lark, Alanda cristata): قنبون qumbarah, Ar. (the same species): قنبون qāzlāgh, T. and P. (the same species?). Vide Exalting.

Leash or Lease, قور, Panj., (also = 'the price of the leash' i.e., the 'tip,' one rupee or more, usually given to a falconer bringing a present of a hawk from his master): هکارروان shikār-rawān, Ind. Pers. MS.: شکار بند shikār-band, Mod. Pers., vide also Jesses: هرسة marasah or مرسل mirsal, Ar. MS.: ['A lece of haukis of ye tour is iii'], سد بهله قوش si bahla qūsh, Mod. Pers.

Leech, جونک jonk, Hindu., (vide also Fillanders) : $z\bar{a}l\bar{u}$, Mod. Pers. ; علق 'alaq', Ar. MS.

Leg, ψ or ψ or $p\bar{a}y$, gen., Pers., (sp. the hind leg of a quadruped, the foreleg being called const; 'vide' Hand, and Foot).

Leopard, يندوا tendwā, Hind.: يندوا palang P.: vide Cheetah.

Lice, جون $j\bar{u}n$, gen.: شیش shipish or shupush, Mod. Pers. : قمل qaml, Ar.; شیش rishk, Mod. Pers. (nits).

Lights, vide Lungs.

Lime, vide Bird-lime.

Lines, or lunes, or lewnes, or loynes, [probably a long cord used as a leash (instead of a long strap), the 55 dor of the

The falconers of the Shaykh of Biskrah, in Algeria, knew no other

name for the Lanner than Attayr " the Bird."

¹ Ther is a Lanare and a Lanrett. And theys belong to a Squyer.— Boke of St. Albans, p. 53.

² This lark sings on the wing as well as on the ground.

Panjab; but vide Harting's Bib. Acc., p. 225. "Lunys about her feet, Morte d' Arthur, i, 180."—Halliwell. In the Panjab, if a swivel is used, it is permanently attached to a long cord and the jesses are fitted with varvels. A fine leather strap is attached to the ring of the swivel, and, passed through the varvels, attaches them to the swivel. Ordinarily, however, the jesses are simple pointed straps without any hole or slit at the ends: they are knotted to the leash without any swivel].

Lion, بجر babar, in India and بجر shīr, in Persia, but vide also 'Tiger.'

Liquorice, ملها ساله mulhaṭṭī, Hindu. (liquorice-root).

Liver, کلیجا $kalej\bar{a}$, Hindu. : جگر jigar, P. (vide Lungs).

Lizard, سوسهار $s\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ or $s\bar{a}ndh\bar{a}$ (uromastix) : سوسهار $s\bar{u}smur$, Mod. Pers. (same species ?).

Lose, جانور کو لیجانا $j\bar{a}nwar$ ko $le-j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, Hindu., (said of a quarry that flies away straight, and fast pursued by the falcon, so that both get lost): دور کش شدن $d\bar{u}r$ -kash shudan, intr., Ind. Pers. MS. (said of the hawk).

Lowbelling, [the same as Bat-fowling q.v.].

Luggar, غر lagar (female), incorrectly لغز laghar, and جهكر jhagar (male) Hindu.

Lungs, جگر سفید jigar-i safīd, Mod. Pers. (lights): مده dama. Hindu. and Ind. Pers. MS. (a fatal disease of the lungs).

Lure, (or 'catch' or lewer), عليه إلماله إلله إلماله إلله إلماله إلماله

¹ Vide p. 52 Harting's reprint of Bert's Hawks and Hawking, of 1619.

² Not to be confused with the cocking term dalbā or dalba, which is an inferior cock kept for a game cockeril to bully.

Pers. MS. and coll. (coming to the lure crookedly, in a zigzag): گرم طلب garm-i talab, Mod. Pers. (keen on the lure, i.e., thoroughly trained to the lure): vide Obedient.

Lure, to, لبه پر بلانا dalbe par bulānā.

Luring-ground, طلب گاه talab-gāh, Ind. Pers. MS.

Lynx, سياع گوش siyāh-gūsh, Hindu. and Pers.: عناق الارض 'anāq" l-arz' or الْقَفْجُل al-ghunjul (Hayāt" l-Hayāwān).

M

- Mad, عجبول dīvāna, Pers., "mad" and مجبول majhūl, Ar., "ignorant" (said of a young hawk in its first season when it can be entered to any quarry).
- Madness, ديواگي جانوران dīwānagî-yi-jānwarān, Ind. Pers. MS (madness in hawks).
- Magpie, كا and مهالاك lāṭ, Panj., and mahā-lāṭ, Hindi (the Common Indian Magpie): كن 'akah, Ar. and T., and Ind. Pers. MS.; كراجك zāghcha, Pers.: كراجك karājak, in Kirman (the English Magpie). Vide Titengis.

Magpie-Robin, دیال dayāl, Hindu.

- Maill or Mailes, (breast feathers of hawks). [Hawkes have white maill. Canuas maill or Rede maill. and some call Red maill Iren mayll. White maill is soone knawe. Canuas maill is between white maill and Iron maill. And Iron maill is vara Rede.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 11: vide these terms and also Coat. According to Halliwell Mail also meant a 'spot on a hawk.']
- ' Mail, to,' کوچي کرنا kūchī karnā, Panj.: قپانچه کردی qapāncha kardan, Ind. Pers. MS. and Mod. Pers.: vide Sock.
- Maina, جاگيجة jāgcha, Panj. (the Common Maina); هارک shārak, Panj. (Panj.; هاري or ياليي gutārī or gutālī, Panj. (Murree hills); الآلي lālī (in Derajat); عينه maina, Hindu.: الآلي lālī, Hindu. (the Bank-maina). Vide Starling and Pastor.
- Make-hawk, [an experienced, and generally intermewed, hawk, flown with a raw hawk at wild quarry; vide Cast and note]: قوش أسفاد qūsh-i ustād, Mod. Pers.

Make in, vide Get in.

sona سونه عرعابي ... nīl-sir murgh abī, Panj. نيل سر مرعابي sona murgh abī, T., P. (in Chach Hazara): نلج nilich male and

tuj female (in Kashmir): مرغابي سر سبز $murgh\bar{a}b\bar{i}$ -yi sar-sabz, Mod. Pers., and مرغابي شل باش $murgh\bar{a}b\bar{i}$ -yi shilb $\bar{a}sh$, T. and Pers.; vide Sorde.

Manage, ("to handle anything with cunning; according to the true nature thereof," Latham).

Man, to, Manning, أَوْر صَارِنَا عَلَى مَار دِينَا dar mārnā, Hindu. : بازار كي مَار دينا bāzār ki mār denā, Hindu., ' vide ' Carry.

Mandible, (the upper was called 'beak' and the lower 'clap'): chonch, Hindu. (the upper mandible, and جوني $jabr\bar{a}$ H. the lower; cocking terms).

Mantle, (to stretch out one leg and then extend the wing along it), أَذُ فَيُ اللهُ لَهُ اللهُ اللهُ

Mar-hawk, (of a falconer who handles hawks clumsily), اسى ا هاتهد $isk\bar{a}\ h\bar{a}th\ \underline{kh}ar\bar{a}b\ hai: uzbak\ (lit.\ Uzbeg, i.e.,\ clumsy and\ stupid\ and\ uncivilized).$

Mark, به شدن buna shudan, Ind. Pers. MS. and Mod. Pers.; vide Fall at mark.

Markings, فط khatt, Hindu.: لونگ laung, Panj. (lit. "cloves," the long drops on the breast of an immature peregrine).

Marlion, vide Merlin.

Marrow, مغز اسنخوان maghz-i ustukhwān, Mod. Pers.

Marsh-Mallow, vide Hollyhock.

Maw, vide Stomach.

Meat, بوتي bots, Hindu. (pieces of butcher's meat): گرشت پشت صازه gusht-i pusht-i māza, Ind. Pers. MS., Mod. Pers., and Ar. MS. (flesh of an animal near the back-bone, the saddle; tender): نجي bachs, Panj. (lean meat near the shoulder, without skin, fat, or bone): تكمد tukma, Ind. Pers. MS. (chopped meat, wetted and placed inside a bird and given on the lure): خصي كردن khasī kardan, Ind. Pers. MS. and Panj. (to pluck and bone a bird for a hawk, vide

¹ In Stonehenge's British Rural Sports 'chap'; doubtless a mis

According to Lascelles, however, it is 'to sit on the perch with the wings and tail fully spread 'and is a sign of ill-temper.

Qawānīnu's-ṣayyād, p. 106, note 1): اشتها دادن ishtihā dādan, Mod. Pers. (lit. to cause appetite, is to give washed or wetted meat); وشت خررشدن gūsh-khur shudan, Mod. Pers. (to become accustomed to eat meat; of a new hawk): الله gālā, Hindu. (chopped-up meat; also, by some, the purge given previously to flying, and by others a doctored casting): وشت پشت مازه gosht, Hindu. (any meat): گرشت پست مازه gosht, Hindu. (any meat): گرشت پست مازه bushtumāzak (the tender meat near the back-bone, the saddle): من اله على buz (in Pers. 'goat' but amongst Punjabi falconers often 'goat's heart'): vide Breast and Washed meat.

Medarosis 'زَسَاعِ $ittisar{a}$ ', Ar. (from Ind. Pers. MS.)

Meddle, or Medylle, [to mix].

Melowne, (a species of eagle), vide Bawtere.

Merde, (excrement), فضَّاء fuzla, gen., Hindu., Pers., and Ar.: vide Mutes.

Merlin المرمطي or ترمتي turumtī female, and ترمتي turumtā male, Hindu. (the Red-headed Merlin Hypotriorchis Chicquera); المجال chetwā, Hindī (male of ditto): چيتوا chetwā, Hindī (male of ditto): المجال, in Ind. Pers. MS. said to be the Turki name of the previous species: ريتل ترمتي retal turumtī, Panj., and ريتل ترمتي turumtā, T. and Pers. (the English Merlin; vide Hobby): ترمتا ترمتا al-yuvyus, in one Ar. MS. the Merlin; but in another the male Sacer: تنولوان H., said to = chetwā.

Mew, Mews, قوش كانغ qūsh-khāna, Mod. Pers. (place where hawkt are kept): مربط marbat, Ar. MS.

Mew, to, بطولك بستن bi-tūlak bastan, Mod. Pers. (to cast to mew): وطولك در اعدى az tūlak dar āmadan (to come out of the mew): vide Moult.

Migrate, to, يدالق و قشالق كردك $yil\bar{a}q$ u $qishl\bar{a}q$ kardan, Mod. Pers. ; ميد معير و كرم سير كردك sardsīr a garmsīr kardan, Mod. Pers.

Migration, روى ravī, Panj.

Migratory, را ه خورد , rāh-naward, Ind. Pers. MS. : جال کا جانور chāl kā jānwar, Panj. (migratory bird, etc.) : مغرود addel, adj., Panj.

¹ Ther is a Merlyon. And that hawke is for a lady.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 53.

(said of a hawk that has reached its final destination and taken up its abode in one spot).

Mites. (small parasites), vide Lice.

Mole-cricket, گهؤان ghū an, Panj.

Momey, مومياي انساني mūmiyā-yi insānī (Egyptian).

Monaul, vide Pheasant.

Moorhen, جل مرفي jal-kukar, Panj. and جل مرفي jal-murghī, Hindu. جل مرفي manmantor, in Chach Hazara, vide Water-Rail.

Moult, غرين kurīz, incorrectly قريض qurīz, Hindu.: طولک tūlak, Mod. Pers.: پرگردان par-gardān (false moult, a curable disease; the hawk so afflicted sheds the new feathers as soon as they are grown).

Moult, to, خریز کهانا $kur\bar{\imath}z\ kh\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, Hindu., (sometimes but incorrectly طولک کردن $t\bar{\imath}ulak\ kardan$, Mod. Pers.

Moulted, بوزن bozam, adj., Panj., in an Indian MS. بوزن bozam, (by some applied to any hawk of one moult; by others to an intermewed hawk of one moult): vide Intermewed.

Mount to, چزهنا charhnā, Hindu.

Mount, to take at the, vide Souse.

Mounting سربالائي sar-bālāsī, subs., Mod. Pers., (of a goshawk; mounting to obtain an extensive view when the quarry has a good start and the exact spot of its putting in might escape detection).

Mouse, چوهي chūhī (but چوها chūhā rat) Hindu.: سونه mūsh,

Mod. Pers. (a gen. term for mice and rats and squirrels,
etc.): موش خوائي موش خانگي mūsh-i khānagī (house-mouse): موش خوائي mūsh-i ṣaḥṛāṣī, Mod. Pers. (a field rat): موش خوائي mūsh-i du pā, Mod. Pers. (the two-legged rat, the antelope rat): جربوم or جربوم jarbū' or yarbū', Ar., jerboa (applied to the previous species).

Moustache, vide Cheek-stripe and Gape.

Mouth, منهه munh, Hindu.: هي dahan P.: vide Cheek-stripe عنه tālū. Hindu. and كار kām, P. (roof of the mouth): عنه saq-i dahan, Mod. Pers. ditto (for سقف دهن saq-i dahan?).

Muer des champs, or Muer de haye, [vide Harting's Bib. Accipit-raria, pp. 227 and 226].

Mummy, vide Momey.

Munia, پەرى pidṛi (the Plain Brown Munia, Munia malabarica).

Murmuration, [a Murmuracion of stares.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 82].

Musket, (male sparrow-hawk) باشین bāshīn, Hindu. and Ind. Pers. MSS.: جرةً باشه or جرةً قرغي jurra-yi qirghī or jurra-yi bāsha, T., P.

Mustard قارا ميرا sarson: تارا ميرا tārāmīra, (black mustard).

Muster, (flock) [a mustre of Pecockys].

Mynah, vide Maina.

N

Narrel, or Narell = nostril, vide Nares.

Nares, (nostrils), نام $n\bar{a}s$ Panj.; ناک $n\bar{a}k$ Hindu.: سوراخ ناسان $s\bar{u}r\bar{a}\underline{k}h$ -i $n\bar{a}s\bar{a}n$, Ind. Pers. MS.; vide Button.

Neck, گردن gardan, Hindu., Pers. : گردن ṣurāḥī-gardān, Ind. Pers. MS. (long-necked).

Nest, گهونسا ghonslā, Hindu.: گهونسا khonthā (in Behar): آشيانه āshiyāna and گهونسا lāna, Mod. Pers. and Panj.

Nestling, vide Eyess.

Net, جالي jāl, Hindu. (any large net); جالي jālī, Hindu. (any small net; also net-work): پٽي paṭṭī, Hindu. (for catching birds in trees and hedges): تور tūr, Mod. Pers. (any net): vide Urines: دو پٽه جال do-palla jāl, Panj. (a doubled or clap-

2 Nuch-gayā in Derawal means "empty."

¹ Mitchell in his Art and Practice of Hawking (p. 20), states that "mute" is proper for long-winged hawks only and "slice" for "short winged."

net); پوشيده poshīda, Panj. (a large double net, similar to preceding; when set it is 'concealed' by earth, etc.): معجي dhajjī, Panj. (a doubled or clap-net set under water for water-fowl): vide also Snare.

Netted, vide Passage-hawk.

Nias, vide Eyess.

Night-blindness, عشاء 'ashā, Ar., and شب كورى shab-kūrī, Pers.

Night-heron, واق واق $w\bar{a}k$ Hindī, آوانک $\bar{a}w\ddot{a}nk$, Panj.; واق واق or $v\bar{a}q$ or $v\bar{a}q$, Pers.; بور bor Kashmiri.

Night-jar, چهپاکی chhapākī, but vide Owl.

Nightingale, لبل هزار داستان bulbul-i hazār dāstān, or bulbul-i hazār, or hazār, Pers.: عنادل, pl. عنادل, 'andalib, pl. 'anādil, Ar.: 'vide' Watch.

Noble, مر hurr, Ar. (noble; applied to the young of certain animals and birds): طير الحر tayru'l-hurr, Ar. (generally the Goshawk).

Nomme, to, or Seize a fowl, (if it breaks away?).1

Numbed, اگزا هوا thuṭharā hū,ā, or اگزا هوا akaṛā hū,ā, Hindu. اگزا هوا kīs, Mod. Pers.

Nut or Note, روفن دان $r\bar{u}ghan-d\bar{a}n$, Mod. Pers., and مَدْهُن mudhun, Ar. (the oil-bottle).

Nyas, vide Eyess.

Nye, [A nye of ffesaunttys].

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Obedient, اباز گردان $b\bar{a}z$ $gard\bar{a}n$, Ind. Pers. MS. (obedient to the lure, quickly returning to the lure).

Oil-bottle, vide Nut.

Oriel, پول posh nūl, in Kashmir (the Golden Oriel).

¹ If the quarry break away leaving feathers behind "nome or seize" and not "take," vide Boke of St. Albans, p. 12, reprint. Elsewhere, p. 21, 'Nomme and Nym' are used for 'take.'

- Osprey, مر فيناغ damirdizināk and مر فيناغ damirqaynāgh, T.,
 P. (lit. iron-clawed): القُرْبَع al-quray', Ar. MS.
- Ost, (Host) [an Ost of sparowis].
- Ostringer, or Austringer, (keeper of goshawks and tiercels), shikārchī-yi zard-chashm, Mod. Pers., vide Sperviter.
- Over-hand, گلیا کے دینا galiyāke denā or <u>kh</u>ilānā (to cram fowls or horses).
- Owl, گار ullū Hindī, gen. : گارا or گارا or گارا mamārā, gubārā, or gumārā, Panj. (a name given to both the Indian Grassowl, Strix candida, and the Short-eared owl, Otus brachyotus): such gumarā, Panj., "the white gumārā" Indian Grass-owl): هنگو $hukk\bar{u}$ (in Dera Ghazi Khan the name of a large owl that lives in ravines): روشک roshak, Panj. (a species of small owl): بل بتورى Panj. (another species of small owl): چغد $ch\bar{u}ghd$, Panj., in Derajat شياكى shapākī, and vulg. چياكى chapākī (the spotted owlet, Athene Brama, vide Night-jar): بوف $b\bar{u}m$, and colloquially بوم and $b\bar{v}ide$ and būf, Mod. Pers. (an owl): شاه بوف shah-būf, Mod. Pers. (Eagle-owl): يا پلاق صحرائي yāplāq-i ṣaḥrāsī, Mod. Pers., (the Short-eared Owl): يا يلاق باغي $y\bar{a}pl\bar{a}q$ - $i\ b\bar{a}gh\bar{i}$, Mod. Pers. (lit. the garden yāplāq, probably the Wood Owl): عروس چاه 'arūs-i chāh Mod. Pers. (lit. "bride of the well," a lightcoloured species, said to prey on pigeons in mosques, etc.): or جفد or بايه قوش chughd or baya-qush, Mod. Pers. (a small species, probably Athene Brama): مرغ شب آهنگ murgh-i shab āhang or مرغ حق murgh-i ḥaqq, Mod. Pers. (a small species; the male is said to be no larger than a lark; prob. Athene Persica).
- Owl-headed, چفد سر chugh-sar, Hindu. (said of a hawk).
- Owl's-light, (the time just after sunset), منه اندهيرا munh andherā, subs., Hindu. and Panj., (specially of morning time): جهيديا وقت المنابع jhutpuṭā waqt, Hindu. (of evening only): vaqt-i gurg u mīsh, Mod. Pers. (lit. the time of the wolf and lamb; specially of morning twilight).

Paddling, vide Badelynge.

Paddy-bird, M. bagulā, Hindu.: vide Egret.

Palate, vide Mouth.

Palpitations, هول دل hawl-i dil, Pers., and هنه khinna, Hindi, Ind. Pers. MS. (the disease of—), and خفقال <u>kh</u>afaqān Ind. Pers. (temporary —), but vide Pantas.

Pannel, قلوين ته talvīn tah, Panj.: عن مارتي هم chaṭā mārtī hai, Panj. = "the stomach is not yet empty" and اب بنديان پرآگلي ab bandiyān par ā-ga,ī="the stomach is quite empty," vide Mutes: خرينه khazīna or خرينه khazāna, Mod. Pers.

Pannus, (disease), سبل sabal, Ind. Pers. MS.

Pantas, دمن dama, Panj.land Ind. Pers. MS.; خفقان <u>kh</u>ajaqān, Mod. Pers. (lit. palpitation of the heart).

Paralysis, المَوْنَ laqwa, Ind. Pers. MS. (— of the face): وَالْنَ fālij,
Ind. Pers. MSS. (of half the body).

Partinger, (Partridge-hawk), كبك گير kabk-gir, etc., adj., Pers.

Passage-hawk, دامي dāmī, Hindu. and Ind. Pers. MS. (lit. 'snared,' said of any wild-caught hawk); ترري tūrī, Mod. Pers. (ditto: lit. ''netted''); جوز chūz, Panj. and Ind. Pers. MS. (any hawk in the immature plumage); تريتاک tarīnāk, Panj. (a haggard); vide also Saker and Hawk.

Paste, Liquida, Ind. Pers. MS. (any paste, intoxicating or otherwise, that artificially increases a hawk's hunger. A minute portion is concealed in a wafer of meat and given at least half-an-hour before flying. After half-an-hour a taste of blood is given).

Paster, (plaister) ضماد zamād, Ar. and Pers.; ليب lep, Hindi.

Pastor, الله ي مينا gulābī mainā, Hindu. (the Rose-coloured Starling).

Peacock, مورد mor, m., and مورد mornī, f., Hindi ; عاؤس tā'ūs,
Pers. ; vide also Muster.

Peck, to, vide Beak.

Peep, (flock), [a Pepe of chykennys].

Pelt, (dead quarry), کشته kushta, Panj., Pers. (also any dead bird used as a lure). [The dead body of any fowl howsoever dismembered.—Latham.]

Pelfe, vide Pill.

Pendant feathers, بورّا bahūṭā, Panj.; شلوار shalwār, Panj. and Ind. Pers. MS. (vide Thigh).

Penne, (a feather q. v.).

Perch, چكون chakas, Panj.; اتنا addā Panj. (block) پتواز or پتواز padwāz or patwāz, Ind. Pers. MS. (a high perch for pigeons or hawks, made of two uprights and a cross pole; the Arabic for this pattern is stated to be طفل ; (مينه , in two Ind. Pers. MSS.; شيس nishīman, Mod. Pers. (gen.); vide Migratory for addel: کنادر , pl. کنادر کنادر , pl. کنادر کنادر , pl. کنادر کنادر , pl. کنادر کنادر کنادر , pl. کنادر کن

Peregrine, بحري baḥrī, and incorrectly بحري bhairī, Hindu. (the female); بحري بعد baḥrī bachcha, Hindu. (the male); بحري بعد baḥri, and هاهين shāhīn q. v., Mod. Pers.; هاهين shāhīna, Ar. of Baghdad; in an Ind. Pers. MS. the Arabic name is said to be قرس, but according to Jerdon qarbash.

Petty singles, (the small toes), چهرٿي انگليان chhotī ungliyān : vide Sengles.

1 Mrig bandar titar mor ... Yih charon kheti ke chor; saying: "The black-buck, the monkey, the grey-partridge and the peacock. These are the four that rob the crops."

In Bengal the peacock is sacred as it is the vehicle of $K\bar{a}rt\bar{i}kiy\bar{a}$, the God of War. In Hindu poetry the $kek\bar{a}$ cry of the peacock is an accompaniment of rain. The ruling family of Morbhanj in Orissa sprang from the egg of a pea-hen; hence the name. The peacock calls both by night and by day and to Indian ears its discordant bawl, associated no doubt with cool days in the rains, is pleasing, just as to some English ears the harsh cry of the jay is akin to music.

² By old writers the term peregrine seems to have been restricted to the passage-hawk or the haggard; vide Gentle, and Fawken of the rock. "There is a Fawken peregrine and that is for an Erle."—Boke of St.

Albans, p. 52.

Pheasant, قرقاول qirqāvul, Mod. Pers.; تدرو or تذرو adarv, تدرو Ind. Pers. MS.; منال manāl (the Monal Pheasant, Lophophorus Impeyanus); مرغ زرين murgh-i zarrīn in Kuram Valley (ditto): vide also Nve.

Pie, vide Magpie and Titengis.

Piece. تكه tika or تكه tikka, Mod. Pers.

Pigeon. مردر المعاقر الموتر kabūtar, Hindu. and Pers. (gen.) : كبوتر golā kabūtar, Hındu. (the domesticated blue-rock); كبوتر خانكى kabūtar-i khānagī (a domestic pigeon) ; بُونُر صحرائي kabūtar-i $ahra, \bar{\imath}, \text{Mod. Pers. (wild pigeon)} : کبوتر چاهی <math>kab\bar{u}tar-i\ ch\bar{a}h\bar{\imath},$ Mod. Pers. (ditto; lit. well pigeon).

Pill. vide Paste.

Pill, or Pelf, [What is left of the quarry after the hawk has been fed on it.—Harting. In old English, pelf signifies trash, and hence money. "Pill or Pelfe of a fowle is that refuse and broken remains which are left after the Hawke hath been relieved."—Latham].

Pin-and-Web, (a disease of the eye), پردهٔ چشم parda-yi chashm, Ind. Pers. MS. (a film over the eyes); جدرى judarī (prop. small-pox; explained in an Ind. Pers. MS. as a disease of excrescences or marks in the eye; ulcer on the cornea?): bāmnī, Hindī (a disease in which مامى sulāq, Ar., and سلاق the hawk's eyelashes fall out). Vide also Cataract.

Pincers, منقاش بر gāz, Mod. Pers. (large) منقاش mingāsh, Mod. Pers. (tweezers for pulling out hairs).

Pinch, to, (to reduce in condition) ايک کاغد کياناد k kāahaz ghatānā, Panj., (to reduce a hawk the thickness of a paper, i.e., the least amount; do kāghaz to reduce it, double the previous amount, etc.): vide Raised.

Pinion, to, vide Mail, to.

Pinne in the feet, تلين talī and تلي taliyān pl., Panj. and Ind. Pers. MS.: ميخك mikhak, Mod. Pers. (when blackness is present): $hat\bar{a}$. Ar., Pers. (when no blackness is present); vide also Foot.

Pintail, vide Duck.

¹ Some orthodox Hindus consider the pigeon a bird of good omen and will not eat its flesh. By the Hindus in some parts of India it is an unlucky bird; it merely desires that its own race shall increase; should a pair build in the thatch, the house will become deserted.

Pitch, (the height at which a hawk waits on).

Pitch, is zift, Pers.

Phthisis, تب لازم tab-i lāzim, (also hectic-fever).

Pleiades, vide Plumage.

Plumage, the feathers under the wing (vide Boke of St. A., p. 15). [The mail of goshawks in their soreage was called plumage and not mail q.v.] Vide Feathers.

Plumage, (feathers given as a casting). Vide Casting.

Plume, to, or Deplume پر نوچنا par nochnā, Hindu. and Panj. ; : بر کندن par kandan, Pers.

Plume, to fly at, [To fly at birds.—Salvin and Brodrick.]

Plume s., vide Hood. [Plume is the general colour or mixture of feathers in a Hawke, which sheweth her constitution.—

Latham. In Hindustani this is called , rang or 'colour'].

Pochard, پيار panyār, the Red-crested (?), and أب خورة āb-khorā the Common Pochard (in Chach Hazara): nangīr pochard or dun-bird (in Chach Hazara): vide Duck.

Podagre, (gout in the feet), iniqris, Ar. and Pers. (gout). [When yowre hawkes fete be swollyn she hath the podagre.—Boke of St. A., p. 36.]

Point, make her, (of a hawk throwing herself up in the air over the exact spot where the quarry has 'put in'). Vide 'to Block' and 'Put in.'

Poose, or Cogh, (cough), كهانسى khānsī.

- Pope's nose, دمگزه dumrī, Hindu.: دمين dumcha; المري dumgāza, المري dumgāza, المري dumghāza, Ind. Pers. MS. and Indian: دم ليزه dum-līza, Mod. Pers. (the Pope's nose or the feathers under the tail?). Vide Nut and Brayle-feathers.
- Popilion, or Popylyen, (cocking term). [A special kind of ointment; for receipt vide Halliwell's Dict. of Arch. and Prov. words.]
- Pounces, (the innermost toes), vide Sengles.
- Poult, to, (to kill poultry; of a hawk: vide Royle and House).
- Pound, to, جوكوب jaw-kob ($karn\bar{a}$), Ind. Pers. MS. and Hindu. (to pound coarsely like $ard\bar{a}wa$).
- Powder, خشكه <u>khushka</u> and سفوف safūf, Ind. Pers. MS. (med.)
- Preen, (dress and oil the feathers with the beak), روعني كرنا $rawghani \ karn\bar{a}$, Hindu.: روعن گيري كردك $r\bar{u}ghan.giri \ kardan$, and روغن كشي كردك $r\bar{u}ghan.kashi \ kardan$, Mod. Pers. (to oil the feathers): vide also Reform.
- Prey, مار $m\bar{a}r$, f., Hindu., and ميد sayd Pers. (quarry); vide Quarry and Raptores.
- Primaries, دسوکها dasaukhā Hindī (the ten primaries in pigeons); vide Flight-feathers.
- Principals, (the two longest feathers in the wing), vide Flight-feathers and Flags.
- Prune, to Proigne, Proine, vide Preen.
- Pubis bone, دو ها من do-shākha, Hindu. and Ind. Pers. MS. (vide Qawānīn-"ṣ-Ṣayyād, p. xxix, note 8).
- Puff up, vide Swell.
- Pull through the food, (eat through it). [Not an Eastern device, as Hawks in the East get much carriage and are too tame and well-broken to need the device.]
- Pulse, بنض ديد *nabz dīdan*, Pers. (to feel the pulse in a hawk's wing; vide Trans. Bāz-Nāmayi Nāṣirī, p. 153).
- Pup, پلا pillā, Hindu.; سك بجه Pers. sag-bacha (without tashdid) يقام, P. (a pup, and also any sporting dog; m.c.; vide Dog).
- Purge, مانی بَقَرَة, Panj. and Ind. Pers. MS.: مانی بَقَة kardan, Ind. Pers. MS. and Panj.: اطلاق شدن iţlāq shudan, Mod. Pers. (to be moved): vide Enseam.
- Purge. to, vide Enseam and last line under 'Meat.'

Purple Heron, vide Heron.

Pus, پیپ $p\bar{i}p$, Hindu: جراحت $jar\bar{a}hat$, Mod. Pers. coll.

Put, in, باز نے بنہ کیا bāz ne buna kiyā, Hindu. (the goshawk has put in; vide Flush): عباد کر بیڈی ہے ان bāz ne dābkar baiṭhī hai, Hindu.: بینہ بردن or بینہ بردن bi-buna burdan or rasānīdan, Mod Pers.: vide Quarry, Enew and Mark.

Put over, گهرتا دینا ghotā denā, Hindu.; طعمه مرورنا du'ma marornā, Panj. and Hindu.; عين ميشكند qūsh gusht-ash mī-shikanad, Mod. Pers. (the hawk is putting over); آئين آپارر ātīn āpārir, T.: vide Endew.

Puttock, vide Kite.

Q

- Quail, بنير bater, Hindu. and Panj.: بالدرچين lawā Hindu. (the Rock Bush-Quail Perdimla Asiatica; used for fighting): بالدرچين būdina, Mod. Pers.: بالدرچين نتير ghāgas bater, Hindu. (the common European or Large Grey Quail; seldom used for fighting): چنک chinak or chinga (the Black-breasted or Rain-quail Cotumix coromandelica): vide also Bevy.
- Quarry, مدبوحات mazbūhāt, pl., Ind. Pers. MS. (quarry taken by hawks); منبوحات buna (quarry put in by a goshawk; vide Put in); vide Prey, and Ground-game.
- Quarry, to fly to the, [And yowre hawke fleeth to the querre. When ther be in a stobull tyme sordes of mallardes in the felde and When she espith theym and commyth couerte her selfe. and flie preuyli under hedges or law bi the grownde. and nym oon of hem or thay rise then ye shall say that the fowle was slayn at the querre.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 49].

Quarry-hawk, (an entered hawk).

- Quick, (alive) مردار zinda, Hindu. (opposed to مردار murdār (an animal that has died of its own accord or was slaughtered in a manner contrary to Islam).
- Quills, پرغزی par-yhaza, Ind. Pers. MS. (probably the quill portion of a feather, the shaft): پرهای حلال parhā-yi halāl, Mod. Pers. (lit. lawful feathers): وقع būqa, Mod. Pers. (the stump

Apparently in contradistinction to 'flying to the brook' or 'to the river.'

of a quill, lit., bucket): ریش rīsh, Ar. MS. (the tail- and wing-feathers of hawks).

Quinsy, vide Frounce.

R

Rail, vide Water-rail.

- Raise in flesh, tr., ایک پنه چرَهانا or ایک کاغذ ek kāghaz or ek patta charhānā, Panj. (to raise a hawk in flesh the thickness of a paper or a leaf, i.e., the least possible amount).
- Raised in flesh, (' is when a hawk grows fat or prospereth in flesh.'—Latham), پیه گرفتی $p\bar{i}h$ giriftan, Mod. Pers. موتا هوگیا $mot\bar{a}$ ho- $gay\bar{a}$; مست هوا mast $h\bar{u}$, \bar{a} ; vide Pinch.
- Rake, to,2 (to fly too wide?)———.
- Rake away, to, [To take off, instead of pursuing the quarry flown at, or to fly wide of it.—Harting].
- Raked, ["-when the hawk seizes the quarry and flies away with it.—Colonel Thornton's Sporting Tour, p. 112 and note].
- Raking, [Striking the game in the air.—Freeman and Salvin. Her direct pursuit without soaring is Raking.—Stonehenge's British Rural Sports].
- Ramage, (said of a wild hawk, difficult to reclaim) بهت جنگلي bahut janglī (very wild); سخت مزاج sakht-mizāj (hard of temperament). ["Ramage, is when a Hawk is wilde, coy, or disdainful to the man, and contrary to be reclaimed"].

Ramage-hawk, vide Bowiser.

- Rangle, (small stones given to aid digestion) [Indian and Persian falconers do not give rangle].
- Raptores, شكوة shikara, pl. shikaragān, Ind. Pers. MS. (an old-fashioned and unusual term for birds of prey; vide Sparrow-hawk): قوش $q\bar{u}sh$, P., T. (any bird of prey but especially the Goshawk; vide Eagle and Goshawk): طيور سبع tuyūr i sab', and طيور شكاري , pl. of جارح , pl. of جارح , ari, Ar. MSS. (birds of prey): الضاري az-zawārī, pl. of الضاري az-zārī, (birds and beasts trained to the chase).

Rat, vide Mouse.

Rat's bane, vide Arsenic.

Ratoner. [a rat-catcher].

¹ For other birds, rish is a general term.
2 Vide "Falconry in the British Isles" of Salvin and Brodrick, and Halliwell's Archaic Dictionary.

- Raundon, [And if the fowle spring not bot flee a long after the Reu and the hawke nym it then. ye shall say she flew it at the Raundon. 1—Boke of St. Albans, p. 48].
- Raven علائع سياء فزقون ; مائم مَالاغ سياء فزقون $kul\bar{a}gh$ -i $siy\bar{a}h$ -i $quzq\bar{u}n$ or $kul\bar{a}gh$ -i $quzq\bar{u}n$, Mod. Pers. (the Common Raven); غرق $q\bar{a}gh$ in the Murree hills, a name also applied to the Indian Corby $q.\ v.$
- Raw, المجة kachchā, gen., Hindu.: ده الم كار na-dānam kār, adj., Mod. Pers.; and عشم ghashīm Ar. coll., from قشم qashm (of hawks, hands, etc.).

Rebate, vide Bate.

Reclaim, (from a wild condition; to tame)³, vide to Man and to Train.

Recorder, (a flute to teach birds to sing).

Red-hawk, (or Sore-hawk), vide Sore-hawk and White-hawk.

Red-legged Falcon; اللزيق al-luzayiq, Ar. MS.

Reeves, vide Ruffs.

Reform, (to dress the feathers without oiling them), پر ځون کردن $par-\underline{k}\underline{h}\bar{u}n$ kardan, Mod. Pers.; حدنگ کردن $par-kash\bar{i}$ kardan, Mod. Pers. and Ind. Pers. MS.; vide also Preen.

Remove, (to change position in the field, with or without quarry in the foot), vide Carry.

Reume or Rheum, Catarrh; vide Snurt, etc.

- Rifler, or Rifelere, [a hawk that, cluching at the quarry in eagerness, seizes hold of the feathers only, is said to 'rifle'; a hawk that habitually does so is a 'rifler'].
- Rigid, مات شدن māt shudan, Mod. Pers. (to become rigid from astonishment, etc.; said of a goshawk when she spies a quarry at a distance).
- Ring, or Ring up, (to rise spirally to a height), چرَهائي کرنا charhā,i karnā and دور کردن charhā,i karnā and چرَهنا charhnā, Hindu.: دور کردن bi-dawr uftādan, wod. Pers. (also to soar): دور انتادن bi-dawr uftādan,

Rise, to, (vide Flush) لذه شدى buland shudan, intr., Mod. Pers., (of quarry or hawk).

¹ Run down?

<sup>Vide Jl. As. Soc. Beng., Vol. III. No. 2, February, 1907, p. 115.
One English writer naively informs us that the creance was a 'long</sup>

thread by which the hawk was drawn back after she was permitted to fly, and this was called the reclaiming of the hawk.'

River-hawk, [as opposed to a Field-hawk].

Rivering, [flying at river-fowl; vide Fly at the brook].

Robin, (male Hobby) vide Hobby; پذه pidda, Hindu. (the Whitewinged Black Robin).

Rod, النباد kāmpā Panj. (the limed twig at the end of the نرجو or long jointed bamboo of bird-catchers; vide also Bird-lime.)

Roil, or Royle, (to wander, rove about), vide House.

Roller, (Indian), نیل کنتهه $n\bar{\imath}l$ -kanth, Hindu.: سبزک sabzak, Panj. سبزک ch $\bar{a}h\bar{a}n$, in Derajat.

Rook, كَانَى $k\bar{a}gh\bar{i}$ or كَانَى $k\bar{a}g\bar{i}$, Panj. (the Common Rook): اغ $y\bar{a}gh$, in Baghdad: زاغ حلال $z\bar{a}gh$ -i $hal\bar{a}l$, Ind. Pers. MS.; vide Crow, and Building.

Rope, قاطمه qātima, T., P., (a rope of black goat-hair).

Rouse, to, (shaking all the feathers violently), پهري لينا lenā, Panj.: ځود را افشاندن phurkāre karnā, Panj.: ځود را افشاندن khud rā abshāndan, Ind. Pers. MS.: خودش را تکان دادن khud ash rā tukān dādan, Mod. Pers.; پرپوک کودن par pūk kardan, Mod. Pers.

Rousing, or Rowysin, vide Rouse.

Royle, vide Roil.

Ruff, to, (to hit the quarry and make the feathers fly without binding.)

Ruffs and reeves, پہاڑی pāhāṛī (in Chach Hazara).

Rufter-hood, (a plumeless hood of special construction used for newly-caught hawks only). [Easterns do not use the rufterhood: they seel the eyes].

Rye², ["—A Snurt, or colde in the heede of a Hawk, or the Rye."—Bert. The disease shows itself of a swelling in the head]: دهر باد zahrbād Hindu.; vide Snurt.

¹ Bert, p. 74, Harting's Ed., has "royled from marke."
2 For a Snurt or colde in the head of any hawke, it is most properly to be tearmed thus in long-winged hawkes, for short-winged hawks the Rye, and yet they differ. Bert, p. 92, Harting's Ed.

S

Sacer. [There is a Sacre and a Sacret. And theis be for a Knyght.—Boke of Albans, p. 53]: vide Saker.

Sacret, (male of Saker), vide Saker.

Sails, (wings of a hawk), vide Wing.

Sail, to, بال را در هوا نگاه داشتن bāl rā dar havā nigāh dāshtan, Mod. Pers., (opposed to بال را برهم زدن to beat the wings, vide Bert).

Sal-ammoniac, نوشادر naushādar, Hind.

Sand-grouse, بو تيتر or بخت تيتر bakht tītar or bar-tītar, Hindu. and Panj. (the Large Sand-grouse): منگ خوار sang-khwār, Ind. Pers. MS.: شنگ خوار qaṭā, Ar., collec. of قطاة qaṭāt (Pin-tailed); قطاة qil-qurūq, T. (Pin-tailed): مياه سينه ينه siyāh-sīna, Mod. Pers. (lit., '' black-breast ''; the Imperial Sand-grouse, Pterocles arenarius); باغري قرة bāqir qara, T. (and باغري قرة (ditto).

Scab, کوله kivla, Mod. Pers.

Scabbiness, قرم qar, Ind. Pers. MS. (scabbiness of the head).

Scale, يوك pūlak, Mod. Pers., (scale on toe of a hawk).

Seare-crow, مقرس dhokā, Hindu.; مقرس ma-tars, Mod. Pers.

Score [twenty yards; a common term in ancient archery]. Scouring, vide Purge.

Screen-perch, [not used by Easterns].

Seamed [according to Stonehenge the opposite of inseamed, or being in "good condition": vide Enseam].

¹ Vide Jl. As. Soc. Beng, vol. iii, No. 3, 1907.

² Vide translation of the Baz-Nama-yi Nasiri, pp. 49-56.

- Seare, and Sere, vide Cere.
- Secondaries, vide Flight-feathers: الخوافي al-khawāfī, Ar. MS. (the secondaries or tertaries?).
- Secretary-Bird, فرس الشيطان farasu'sh-Shaytān, Ar. (lit., horse of Satan): العبيب al-habīb, Ar. (the friend).
- Secretly بدزده bi-duzda and سلف salaf Mod. Pers : for ارغرى انداځتن vide (cast of).
- Sedge, at, [A corruption of "at siege"; said of a heron when at the water-side, in contradistinction to being "on passage."—Harting].
- Sedge, or Sege, (number) [A sedge of heronnys or of betouris.— Boke of St. Albans, p. 81].
- Seel, to, (or Ensile) آنکهه سینا āṅkh sīnā, Hindu.; چشم دوختن chashm dūkhtan, Mod. Pers.
- Seeled, آنکهه سیت $\bar{a}nkh$ - $s\bar{i}t$, Panj.: چشم درخته chashm $d\bar{u}\underline{k}hta$: چشم $b\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ $b\bar{i}n$, adj., Mod. Pers. (able to see out of the tops of the eyes, i.e., partially seeled).
- Selde, to, vide Seel.
- Sengles, or Sencles; [the long sengles = the keys or closers q.v., and the pety sengles are the small toes, while the innermost toes are called pounces].
- Sercell, (the pinion-feather of other birds; the feather last cast in the moult), قراق or گزدک ! Ind. MS.: كركت kirkit or kirkich, Panj. (properly of a goshawk only); vide Flightfeather.
- Sere, and pl. Seris, vide Cere.
- Serpent-Eagle, مجنون majnūn (in Chach Hazara).
- Serving a hawk, (driving out from cover, quarry that has 'put in') مدد دينا madad denā, Hindu. and Panj.
- Set, to, (make hungry) گرسنه کردن gurisna kardan; 'vide' Sharp-set.
- Set down, to, (putting into the mew) كريز مين بأهالنا kurīz men biṭhlānā, Hindu.; در طولك بستن dar ṭulak bastan.
- Set on, to, طوله راهي زدن tūla rā hay zadan (to set on a dog).
- Sew, to, the beak, vide Feake.
- Shaft, (of feather), قلم qalam, Mod. Pers., (opp. to ويشه risha web): vide Quills.
- Shahin, کوهي shāhīn and کوهي kohī, Hindu. and Panj. (the female of F. Peregrinator, Babylonicus, Atriceps etc.):

shāhīncha and كوهيلا kohelā, Hindu. and Panj. (male of ditto): المعانية shāhīn. Mod. Pers. and Ar. (a vague term for Shahins and Peregrines !; Ar. pl. هُمُونِين shawāhīn; 'vide' Peregrine): المُونِين lāchīn, T.; [kabarsh (?) Ar., vide Jerdon]: الكرك al-kūhī, Ar. MS. (from Pers.): الكرك al-kurak, Ar. MSS. (in one MS. said to be a small kind of Shahin and different from the baḥrī or the jabalī shahins; possibly the Barbary Falcon: in another said to be the male of the Shāhin): vide Barbary Falcon.

Shanks, ككئوا kakūsā, in Chach Hazara (any kind of long-shanks). Sharp-set, (very hungry), گرسته كردة شده gurisna karda shuda, Mod. Pers.; vide to Set.

Sheath, vide Case.

Sheep, יעא barra, Mod. Pers. (lamb and sometimes sheep; also fawn): יעל شير סست barra-yi shīr-mast, Mod. Pers. (sucking-lamb).

Sheldrake, Shieldrake, چگوا چگري chakwā chakwī, Hindi. (male and female); and سرځاب surkhāb, Panj. (the Ruddy Sheldrake): عنڤود 'anqūd, Mod. Pers. (ditto): vide Dopping. Shikra, vide Sparrow-hawk.

Shoveller, چنچه مرغابي chamcha mughābī (in Kapurthala) and dabbī murghābī (in Chach Hazara).

Shrike, عبالا latorā, Panj., and in Derajat التورا mamālā (Indian Grey Shrike); هر راجي harwājī in Derajat and هر راجي harwājī in Kashmir (the Rufus-backed Shrike): الا كوزاه ālāgūzina,² T., P., (a large shrike that is سرمه كشيده surma-kashīda or marked with a moustache); سرمه كشيده bāzūrī, Kurdish, (ditto): vide also Warbler, and Drongo.

Sinew, پنها paṭṭhā, Hindu and Panj.; پهي pay Mod. Pers. Skin, پوست pūst, Mod. Pers. (outer skin): پوست parda, Mod. Pers. (fine inner skin or membrane): vide Catgut.

l Vide Jl. As. Soc. Beng., vol. iii, 1907, and translation of the $B\bar{a}z$ - $N\bar{a}ma$ -yi $N\bar{a}sir\bar{i}$.

² In Scully's list of Turki birds the Grey Shrike Lanius Homeyeri is given as الا غوالاي ālā ghurālā,i; and the Desert Shrike Lanius arenaius as بوظ غوالاي boz ghurālā,i.

- Skin, to, کهال اتارنا khāl utārnā, Hindu. (of any bird or animal): خيكي کردن khīkī kardan, Mod. Pers. (to skin a bird, etc., so that the skin forms a bag): پرست کندن pūst kardan, Pers. (to flay).
- Slice, to, Slicing, [to cast the mutes a long way behind when muting]; vide Mutes.
- Slight-falcon, [the Peregrine].
- Slime, to, Sliming (vide Latham) [muting directly downwards instead of "slicing" or jerking the mutes backwards; while muting in drops is "dropping"; vide Mutes].
- Slip, to, a grey-hound, تازى كشيدن tāzī kashīdan, Mod. Pers.
- Sloose, (sloes), [vide Harting's Bib. Accip., p. 229].
- Slow, سنت پر sust-par, Panj. and Ind. Pers. MS., (of birds): کند kund, Mod. Pers.
- Smew, babilnazat, in Chach Hazara.
- Snake, هامن $s\bar{a}np$, Hindu.; دهامن $dh\bar{a}man$, Hindī (a large species of harmless snake): مار $m\bar{a}r$, Pers.
- Snake-headed, مار سر mār-sar, Ind. Pers. MS.; vide also Flatheaded.
- Snare, پا دام dām, Hindu and Pers. (gen.): پائه و الله بهاری به بقط بهاری الله مام pā,edam, Hindu. and Panj. (nooses, sp. on sticks, to snare birds by the legs): پهائي phā,ī, Hindu. and Panj. (noose, gen.): پهائي bāl-chhatrī, Hindu. and Panj. (ribs of bamboo shaped like the top of a small open umbrella covered with a net and horse-hair nooses are affixed to the ribs: for insect-eating birds a mole-cricket is tethered to a peg and for small hawks a live sparrow): vide Net: چوگذی chau-gaddī, Hindu. and Panj. (four thin strips of bamboo, limed, and bent in a curve, and placed crossways with their ends in the ground; the bait is tethered underneath).
- Snared. دامي dāmī, Hindu. and Panj. (of hawks, etc.): توري tūrī, Mod. Pers. (lit. netted).
- Snarer, پادامي pā-dāmī, Hindu. (vide Snare): دامدار dāmdār, Ind. Pers. MS.; vide Bird-catcher.
- Sneezewort, کندی nāk-chhiknī, Hindī. and کندی kundush, Ar. and Mod. Pers.

¹ Of short-winged hawk only? Vide mutes.

- Vol. VI, No. 7.] Vocabulary of Falconry Terms. [N.S.]
- Snide, or Snite, the beak, (to wipe the beak after feeding), vide Feake.
- Snipe, چاها chāhā, Hindu.: نک دراز nuk-darāz, Mod. Pers.
- Snite, or Snyte, [a snipe], vide Walk and Wisp.
- Snow-cock, ببك دري kabk-i darrī, Mod. Pers. (Tetraogallus Caspicus): رام چكور rām chakor, in Kashmir (the Himalayan Snow-cock).
- Snurt, (cold in the head), سر گرفته شدن sar girifta shudan, Ind. Pers. MS. (an ordinary cold in the head, but vide Rye).
- Soarer, دورچى dawr-chī, Mod. Pers.
- Soar-hawk, vide Sore-hawk.
- Soar, to, دور کودن و پرسه زدن dawr kardan, Mod. Pers.; دور کودن و پرسه زدن dawr kardan va parsa zadan, Mod. Pers.: vide also Ring.
- Sock, وَجَي kūchī, Panj. (for any bird; vide Mail); يرجي gaddī (the strait-waistcoat of a sparrow-hawk, used in early training).
- Soda, بورهٔ ارصني būra-yir Amanī, Mod. Pers. (crude carbonate of soda).
- Sorage, (the first year of a hawk, whether eyess or brancher or passage-hawk): چوزي or چوزگي or chūzā or chūzagī, Hindu. and Panj. (lit. chickenhood): بوزي و يوريگري buzīnu yūrīgarī, Mod. Pers.
- Sore, Sorde, or Sute [a flock of mallards].
- Sore-hawk, and Soar-hawk, $j = ch\bar{u}z$, Hindu. and Panj. (a hawk in the immature plumage): $b\bar{u}zy\bar{u}r$ or buz, P., T. (ditto): cy $far\underline{k}h$, Ar., cy $far\underline{k}h$ pl. (also nestling).
- Souse, (blow, stoop) [If youre hawke nym the fowle a lofte: ye shall say she toke it at the mount or at the souse.—Boke of St. A., p. 48. Halliwell has "Dead as a fowle at souse"...—Beaumont and Fletcher VII, 278. "To leape or seaze greedily upon, to souze downe as a hawke." Florio, p. 48, Ed. 1611." Harting in his Birds of Shakespeare, pp. 38-9, gives the derivation of this old falconry term, and also a quotation from King John, Act V, Sc. 2].
- Sparrow, گجشک chiri, Hindu. and Panj.: پخشک gunjishk, Pers., vide Ost; [Sparrowfart, break of day].
- Sparrow-hawk, باشين bāsha (female) and باشين bāshān (male), Hindu. and Panj., (the Common Sparrow-hawk); فاشد bāsha,

¹ A spare hawke was 'an hawke for a prest.' while the Muskyet was for a holiwater clerke.

Sperviter, (keeper of sparrow-hawks and muskets: vide Boke of St. A., p. 24), vide Ostringer.

Spleen, ثلي ناية, Hindu.: سپرز súpurz, Ind. Pers. MS.; طحال يناية, Ar.

Spoonbill, چمچه بزه chamcha buza, Hindu. and Panj.

Sportsman, vide Falconer and Bird-catcher.

Spouting, (blowing water over; vide Latham B. I, Part II, Chapt. I., p. 1): پهوارا کرنا پهوارا کرنا phū,ārā karnā, Panj.: بدهن بف نرم کردن ba-dahan-baf narm kardan, Ind. Pers. MS.: پهوارا پهوارا پهوارا بهوارا پهوارا پهوارا کرنا phū,ī karna, Hindu. (a cocking term).

Sprain, گهڏي ghaṭī, موچ moch f., لچک lachak f. Hindu.: رُك lachak f. Hindu.: رُك

Spring,² to, (flush the quarry) tr. and intr., vide Flush and View.

Spring s., [A Sprynge of Telis].

Stale, (a stuffed bird as a decoy), vide Decoy.

Stalk, to, (an animal) سيبه کردن sība kardan, Mod. Pers. and T.: سيبه کردن gurg shikār kardan, Mod. Pers.: هنوده ونقن شکار کردن bi-duzda raftan, Mod. Pers., vide Secretly.

Stalke, نلي nali Panj.: پاچه $p\bar{a}cha$, Ind. Pers. MS.: qalam, Mod. Pers.: ساق $s\bar{a}q$, Mod. Pers. (also leg).

Stalking-horse, شکاري بیل shikārī bail, Panj. (a bullock trained for use as a stalking horse): دریانه darīsah, Ar. (a camel or any animal used for stalking).

Standing, (remaining in idleness at the block), عباني baithi hai, Hindu.

¹ Indian poets and consequently lexicographers have incorrectly made *chipak* feminine.

2 Can this term have been confined to water-fowl?

- Vol. VI, No. 7.] Vocabulary of Falconry Terms.
 [N.S.]
- Stand, taking, (going to a tree or other point of vantage after putting in; by Eur. falconers considered a vice), vide Mark.

Staniel, or Stanniel, [Kestril q.v.].

Stare, vide Starling.

- Starling, سار sār, Mod. Pers.: المن حينة ablaq maina, Hindu. (the Pied Starling): كالا تليا kālā tiliyā, in Derajat (the Common English Starling): vide Pastor and Murmuration.
- Stavesaker, (a plant used for lice), حُب الراسن إمbbu 'r-rāsan or رُبيب الجهل zabību-'l-jabal, Ar.
- Steam, to, بخور كردن bukhūr kardan, med., Mod. Pers.
- Sternchase, در جلو انداځته عقب رفتن dar-jalav andākhta 'aqab raftan, Mod. Pers. (of a saker after a straight flying hubara = Panjabi idiom تلور چر غ کو لے گئي tilur chargh ko lega,ī "the hubara has carried off the chargh").
- Sternum, عظم زورقي azm-i zawraqī, Mod. Pers. (lit. keel-bone).

Stone-plover, vide Plover.

- Stoon, the, or Stoone in the fundament, z karaj, Mod. Pers.
- Stoop, الكه saṭ mārnā, Panj.: محله كردن ḥamla kardan, Ind. Pers. MS.: ست مارئ sar zadan, Mod. Pers.: الكه زدن lakad zadan, Mod. Pers. (lit. to kick, strike): القَفْقُ inqazza, Ar. MS. (of birds of prey only).
- Strap, تسمه tasma: vide also Jesses.
- Streyn, or strain, to, ["The IX. She streynith and not clithith nor cratchith."—Boke of St. A., p. 10. I strayne, as a hauke doth or any other syche like fowle or beest in theyr clawes, je estraings; Palsgrave, 1530, verb. f. 376.—Halliwell.]

According to Harting, Birds of Shakespeare, p. 73, this is a corruption of Standgale.

² Strene and strain also meant to copulate; specially of cats and dogs. "When he strains that lady." Shakespeare; Hen. VIII, iv. l.

Strike the hood, (to open the braces, previous to removing the hood). [Indian hoods have no braces.]

Stripes, معرّمات muḥarramāt, Mod. Pers. and Ar.

Stroke, to, vide Handle.

Succour, (help with a dog)———.

Sugar-candy, مسكري مصري kūza-miṣrī and سنگري مصري sangarī (for sanjarī) misrī, Panj.

Summed, vide Full-summed.

Sun-bird, شکر خوره shakar-khura, Ind. Pers. MS.

Sun, to, vide to Weather.

Sunstroke, جهولا $jhol\bar{a}$, Hindī, and باد پشت $b\bar{a}d\text{-}i$ pusht, Ind. Pers. MS.

Sute, vide Sorde.

Swallow, المابيك abābīl, Hindu. and Ind. Pers. MS.: فراهقوروک farāshturūk, Ind. Pers. MS. (a swift? for نرهقروک farashtūk?): vide Flight.

Swan, قو or $q\bar{u}$ or $qh\bar{u}$, T., P.; vide also Herd.

Swell, باد کردن bād kardan, Mod. Pers. (said of an houbara when it spies the hawk); براق شدن burrāq shudan, Mod. Pers. (ditto; burrāq is lit. the long-haired Persian cat).

Swift, vide Swallow.

Swivel, محور bhanwar kalī, Hindu. : محور midwar, Ar. MS.

Swollen feet, vide Pinne in the feet, and Podagre; منوله and بنوله banaulā, Hindī (some kind of swelling on the feet or legs, vide Qawānīnu's-Şayyād, p. xxix).

Т

Tabur, or Tabur-stick, vide View.

Tail-cover, پرچهال dumchī and پرچهال pūchhal, Panj. (the tail cover of cloth to protect the tail of a sparrow-hawk in training).

Taint, upon the feathers, vide Hunger-trace.

Take, to, دست رو گرفتن dast-raw giriftan, Mod. Pers. (of a hawk; to take straight away at the first dash); vide also Bolt, fly at, and Cast off.

Take the air, (to mount, said of the quarry), چَرَهَائِي كُرِنَا charhā,ī karnā (to mount) Hind.; vide Ring.

Taking stand, vide Stand.

Tallent, or 1 Talons, (or hind claws), تلاب qullāb, Mod. Pers.

Tame, adj., آرام و امين ārām u amīn (tame, i.e., fearless; of gazelle, cranes, etc., in a wild state).

Tame, to, پالنا Hindu. (to rear from the nest, or to keep in captivity or domesticity): سدهانا sadhānā Hindu. (to make tame): دره rām kardan, Ind. Pers. MS. and Mod. Pers.: ساختن mānūs kardan, or اهلي ساختن ahlī sākhtan, Mod. Pers.; vide Man.

Tame, Tamed, سدها هوا $s\bar{u}dh\bar{a}$ (naturally tame) and سدها $h\bar{u},\bar{a}$ (tamed): هلا هوا helak, Panj., = هلا هوا hila $h\bar{u},\bar{a}$, Hindu: هاله $ahl\bar{i}$, Pers.

Tarsus, vide Stalke.

Tassel, (Shak); Tarsell (Bert), vide Tiercel.

Taste, جکهه دينا ; chakh, subs., Panj.: چکهه دينا ; chakh denā, (to give a taste, give a beakful of meat), vide also 'Feed.'

Teal, جلو jalūkā (in Chach Hazara); vide Spring.

Tender, سیاک Ind. Pers. MS. : چائیده chā,īda, Mod. Pers.

Tender-penned, (with the quills still in blood), vide Hard-penned.

Tendon, رگ پاrag-i $p\bar{a}$ (tendon of the foot) : عصب 'aṣab, pl. عصاب ' $aṣ\bar{a}b$, Ar. : vide Sinew.

Teneur,² (the third hawk or grappler east off at a heron; 'vide 'Tombisseur).

Tern, کرو krū, in Kashmir (the Small Marsh Tern): کونائی karnāsī, in Derajat (a tern).

² Vide Burton's "Falconry in the Valley of the Indus," p. 61, note. Indians do not fly a 'cast' (except such natives as have served

Europeans) much less three hawks together.

¹ Bert (p. 69, Harting's Edition) uses "hinder tallent" in speaking of a goshawk, but Mitchell in his "Art and Practice of Hawking" (p. 20) remarks that talon is proper for the claws of a long-winged hawk only.

Tewell, & tah.

Teyne, [a disease in which a hawk pants much, 'vide' Boke of St. A., p. 26].

Thief, [Understonde ye that a Goshawke shulde not flie to any fowle of the Ryuer with bellis in no wise, and therfore a Goshawke is calde a thefe.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 49].

Thigh, colon border variable variable

Throat, مدبعه mazbaha, Mod. Pers. (lit., the place of cutting the throat).

Throw, to, vide Cast.

Thrush, mālā-gīr, in Kashmir (the name of a species of song thrush, probably the Dusky Ground Thrush). Vide Blackbird.

Tiercel, Tercel, أَورِهُ اللهِ الله

Tiger, شير sher in India and بدر babar in Persia : vide also Lion.

Timber, to, (to build a nest), vide Draw.

Tire, (to pull at a tough piece of a bone and so strengthen the muscles of the back and neck), vide Tiring.

Tiring; [It is not an Eastern custom to give tiring].

Titengis, [a Titengis of Pies.—Boke of St. Albans, the Compaynys of beestys and fowlys, p. 81].

Tobacco, نعباكو $tamb\bar{a}k\bar{u}$ (the leaf), Hindu. and Pers. : تتن tutun. Mod. Pers. (cigarette tobacco, from Syria).

Toll, to fly at the, vide View.

Tombisseur, Fr., [the second hawk cast off at a heron, the first being called 'housse-pié'; 'vide' Teneur and note].

Tone, (of bells), vide Bells.

Tongue, to (when feeding), buchkār denā, Panj. بيكار دينا and buch buch kardan, Ind. Pers. MS.: [an Indian falconer 'tongues' or makes a kissing sound with the lips when feeding a newly caught hawk with seeled eyes, and the

hawk quickly learns to lower the head and feed, on hearing the sound].

Touchwood, \bar{qu} , T.; and \bar{qav} (in Baghdad).

Tower, to, vide Ring-up.

Toye, (whim trick).

Train, subs., vide Tail and Balai.

- Train, to, رسيدن rasīdan, intr., and رسانيدن rasānīdan, tr., Mod. Pers., (to train a hawk); مرفان کردن sawghān kardan, Mod. Pers. (to train a horse for a race); افتري اغترام azrā Ar. MS. (to train wild animals); افتری adabba., Ar. MS. (ditto).
- Train-bound, باولي غور or باولي غور bāfolī-band or bāfolī-khur, adj., Hindu., and باولي شناس bāfolī shinās, adj., Ind. Pers. MS., (said of a cunning hawk that will only fly at bagged birds; of one that is ruined by having been given too many 'trains').
- Trained, چرخ شفاس charkh shīnās, adj., Ind. Pers. MS. and Mod. Pers., (said of a grey-hound trained for the flight at gazelle): قوش شفاس qūsh-shinās, Mod. Pers. (ditto).
- Trap, کونچیا kurkī, Panj., and کینچیا kainchiyā, Hindu. (a. gin): ناه tala, Mod. Pers. : مصیده misyadah, Ar. (any trap): vide Gin.

Apparently "to tower" also meant to wait on in a circle at a height.

Treading, vide Cawking.

Trip, [a Trippe (flock) of haaris].

Truant, گريز guriz- $p\bar{a}$, adj., Mod. Pers., ("truant"; said of a hawk that is alway getting lost).

Truss, [Fr. trousser, to clutch the quarry in the air instead of striking it to the ground.—Harting. Trussing is when a hawk raiseth a fowl aloft and so descendeth down with it to the ground.—Latham]. Vide Bind.

Trusty, اصين amin, Mod. Pers., (quiet, trusty; of a dog).

Tube, نائزة $n\bar{a}^iiza$, Ind. Pers. MS. and نلي $nalk\bar{\imath}$, Panj. (lit. a reed or pipe, generally the shank-bone of a crane, used to administer water to a hawk after purging).

Tubercle, (of nostril), د کمه or د کمه tukma or dugma or dukma, T. and Mod. Pers. (lit., button).

Turtle, vide Duell and Flight.

Turumti, vide Merlin.

Turning-tail ----.

Tweezers, vide Pincers.

Tyrrit, vide Swivel.

U

Uneven, ماهور $m\bar{a}h\bar{u}r$, Mod. Pers. (uneven ground, difficult to gallop over).

Unkindness, [An unkyndenes of Rauenes.—Boke of St. Albans, p. 81].

Unmanned, (not accustomed to man), vide infra.

Unreclaimed, (wild; untrained) جنگلي janglī, Hindu. and Panj.; waḥshī, Hindu. and Pers.

Unseel, to, (the eyes), انكهه كهولنا āṅkh kholnā, Hindu.; مشك كافور ديكر آنكهه كهولنا مشك كافور ديكر آنكهه كهولنا مشك كافور ديكر آنكهه كهولنا بالكه كافور ديكر آنكه المستعمل المستعمل

Unstrike the hood, [apparently the same as strike q. v.].

Unsummed, (with incomplete plumage; the opposite of summed q.v.), پر باقي هين \bar{q} $par b\bar{a}q\bar{i} hai\dot{n}$, or پر باقي هين $par b\bar{a}q\bar{i} hai\dot{n}$, Hindu.: پر کچي هين $par kachche hai\dot{n}$ (ditto).

Up wind, بالا باد الله باد ال

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Urchin, (hedgehog), vide Hedgehog.

Urines, و گزو du-gaza, Hindu. and Panj., (a small hawk-catching net suspended between two light upright bamboos something after the manner of a tennis-net; a live bait is pegged down in the centre, on the far side of a wild sitting hawk); دو گزهٔ قرقی گیری du-gaza-yi, qirqī-gīrī, Mod. Pers. (a 'do-gaza' for catching sparrow-hawks): vide Net.

V

- Varvels, (small flat rings, with owner's name engraved, attached to jesses): Her chhallā, Hindu. (ordinary rings are used).
- Vent, مفرق sufrah, Ar.; مفرق sufrah, Ar.; مفرق sufra Hindu. and Pers. MS.: مفرق maq'ad, Ar., and Mod. Pers. : مفرق mazraq, Ar. MS. (of birds only).
- Verds, [A greenish colour; applied to the feet, etc., of hawks; vide Harting's Hints on Hawks, p. 128, 2nd Ed.].
- Vertigo, سرگشتن sar-gashtan (vide Qawānīn" ' ṣ-Ṣayyad and Bert I, p. 85).
- View, to fly to the; [A Goshawke or a tercell that shall flee to the vew. to the toll or to the beke. in this maner she is taught ye must fynde a fowle in the Reuer or in a pitte preueli. and then fete youre hawke a grete space of. uppon a mooll hill or on the grounde. and crepe softeli towarde the fowle: from youre hawke streght way and when ye come almost ther as the fowle lyeth. looke backewarde towarde the hawke. and with youre hande or with youre tabur styke: becke youre hawke to come to you. and when she is on wyng. and comyth low bi the grounde. and is almost at you. then symte your tabur. and cry huff. huff. huff and make the fowle to spring. and with that noyse the fowle will rise and the hawke will nym it.—

 Boke of St. Albans, p. 48].

^{1 &}quot;That is to say she flieth to the vew or to the beke, or to the toll."

W

- Wagtail, معرف sa'uu, Pers. (possibly in Turki this means a sparrow): کهنجن khanjan, in Bengal (the Large Pied Wagtail): كهنجن dhobin, Hindi, "washerwoman" (the White-faced Wagtail); معولا or معولا mamolā or Shaykh Mamolā in Derajat (one of the two previous species, probably the last): چوک chūk in the Derajat (the Grey and Yellow Wagtail).
- Wait on, or Hang on, پرواز کرنا parwāz karnā, Panj.; بالا گرد کردن bālā-gard kardan, Ind. Pers. MS.: ایستاده کردن īstāda kardan, Ind. Pers. MS.
- Waiting on, پردازي parwāzī, adj., Panj., and Ind. Pers. MS.: دوري dawrī, adj., Ind. Pers. MS.:
- Walk (flock), [walk of Snytis i.e., snipes].
- Warbile, Warbel, and Warble (to make the wings meet over the back), قينجي رکيے بيڏينا qainchī rakhe baithnā (to return the wings to the normal position after manteling and warbeling; vide Mantel).
- Warbler, تسک tisk, Mod. Pers., (a small bird, the quarry for a shrike): برادر بلبل and برادر بلبل tarnusk and barādar-i bulbul, Mod. Pers. (a warbler, possibly the same as tisk): موردنا podnā, Hindi. (a Reed-Warbler): کور گیج korkuch, in Kashmir (a Reed-Warbler).
- Warning, جوک chamak, f., and محه dama, m., Panj. (the warning cry given by birds on the appearance of a hawk).
- Wart, مرم masā, Hindi, and أليك ṣālīl, Ar.: مرم and وزكيك zakīl ('vide' Qawānīnu'ṣ-Ṣayyād, p. xxviii).
- Wash, آب گردانِده آب تازی الداختن آ ābgardānīda āb-i tāza andākhtan, Ind. Pers. MS. (to wash meat or grain in many changes of water):
- Washed or wetted meat, العابة إبدارة 'ma-e ābdāra, Ind. Pers. MS.
- Watch; [A wache of Nyghtingalis].
- Watching, بيهاري jagānā, tr. Hindu. (to keep awake): بيهاري be-dārī, subs., Ind. Pers. MS.
- Water-bird مفكشو Ind. Pers. MS. (some species of water-bird that is a quarry for hawks).

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Water-rail, مین مین توزی man-man-tori (in Chach Hazara).

Weather, to, باهد باهد $b\bar{a}hir$ $b\bar{a}nidhn\bar{a}$, Hindu. (to tie outside): دم آفتاب نشستن bar-i $\bar{a}ft\bar{a}b$ nishastan, intr. Mod. Pers. bar-i $\bar{a}ft\bar{a}b$ nishastan, intr. Mod. Pers. bar-i aftab bar-i aftab aftab

Weaver-bird, بيا bayā, Hindu.

Web (of feather), vide Shaft.

Weevil, گهن ghun, Hindī: vide Ant.

White, كافروي kāfūrī, Mod. Pers. and Ind. MSS. (lit. "camphor-coloured," i.e., white, a term applied to a certain white varieties of goshawk, etc.; لازقي lāziqī Mod. Pers. and Ind. MSS. ("white"; derived from كل رزقي gul-irāziqī a species of jasmine, the bel phūl of the Hindus; a term similar to kāfūrī).

White-ant, vide Ant.

White-hawk, [apparently] a hawk after the first moult, when she is no longer a Red-hawk or a Sore-hawk; vide Latham, intermewed].

Widgeon, مورچه morcha (in Chach Hazara).

Wild, محرائي ṣaḥrā'ī and دشتي dashtī, Mod. Pers.: vide also Flighty.

Wind, vide Up-wind.

Wind, sink the, [To skim near the ground to a certain distance in order to catch the wind and rise up-wind with it; vide Corballis' Forty-Five Years of Sport, pp. 4 and 5].

Wind, to cheat the, (to fly low to the ground to escape the force of the wind by taking advantage of cover).

Wing, سُرتَهي $surath\bar{\imath}$, Panj. ; كُنْد $kund\bar{a}$, Panj. ; بازو $b\bar{a}z\bar{u}$, Hind., Pers. ; بازو par, Hindu. and Pers. (also = feather) : بال $b\bar{a}l$, Pers. (also = flight-feather) : قولنا $dain\bar{a}$, in Behar).

Wing-tied, vide Flight.

Wisp, (of snipe = walk); vide Snipe.

Wood-cock, مُرِغ زَبُوك *murgh-i zīrak*, Mod. Pers. (*lit.* "the cunning bird"; a Shiraz name for the Wood-cock): من دواز نام nuk-darāz,

¹ In early English plays a wood-cock is a simpleton.

Mod. Pers. (lit. ''long-bill''; a vague term); يلوه or يلوه yalva, or yalva-qūshī, T.: 'vide' Fall.

Wood-pecker, اندوه $d\bar{a}r$ - $k\bar{u}b$, Mod. Pers. : گندوه kandara, Ind. Pers. MS.

Work, to, vide Fly.

Worms, کرمه جونکي kirma-jonkī, vulg., Hindu and Ind. MS. (worms in the intestines).

Wren, vide Herd.

Wrestle, دو چار دو لشمه شدن dūchār u du-lashma shudan, Mod. Pers. (to have a rough and tumble, as hawk and hubara on ground): vide also Clutch and Bind.

V

Yarak (in hunting condition; of short-winged hawks). [Yarak is a term much used by English falconers in England. Corballis in his Forty-Five Years of Sport (pp. 4 and 5), published 1891, states that the bird was introduced by the "late Mr. Barker." It is probably the Turkish word يرق yaraq, which means simply "ready."]

Yellow-eyed, vide Hawk.

Young, vide Sore-hawk.



31. Note on a Palæolithic Implement made of Manganese-Ore.

By L. Leigh Fermor, D.Sc., A.R.S.M., F.G.S., Assistant Superintendent, Geological Survey of India.

(With Plate No. XXXI.)

Although I do not profess to be familiar with the literature of chipped-stone implements, or to be, in any way, an authority on the subject, yet I think that the palæolithic implement referred to on page 713 of my Memoir on the Manganese-ore Deposits of India, is of such interest on account of the material of which it is composed, that it is worthy of description.

It was picked up by Mr. C. E. Low of the Central Provinces Commission on the surface of the ground near Budbuda in the Balaghat district, Central Provinces, and presented by

him to the Geological Survey of India (22.151).

The chief interest of the specimen lies in the material out of which it has been fashioned, viz., manganese-ore. The actual mineral character of the specimen is revealed by a fracture of much younger date than the patina on the specimen. This fracture is the cause of the big bay in the middle of the left side of the specimen as shown in Fig. 1 of Plate XXXI. This fracture shows that the implement has been made from a piece of the fine-grained manganese-ore composed of an intimate mixture of braunite and psilomelane so characteristic of the manganese-ore deposits of the Central Provinces. It is the type of ore of which a photomicrograph is given on Plate I, facing page 54 of the Memoir already cited. The specific gravity of the specimen is 4.430; this agrees with the composition mentioned above.

The specimen, which is illustrated by the two figures on Plate XXXI, is 3.4 inches long. It is of palæolithic type, and seems to belong to the division of the river-drift implements designated by Sir John Evans as the 'sharp-rimmed implements.'

Its general shape can be seen from the illustration,² and, perhaps, is best described as ovate-lanceolate.

The implement is not the same on the two faces: one face

1 "The Ancient Stone Implements, Weapons, and Ornaments of Great Britain." 2nd edition (revised): p. 646 (1897).

² For the preparation of the process block, each figure of the implement was cut out along its boundary from the print and mounted; and, consequently, the edges, as represented in the plate, are not quite as angular as is really the case.

—that shown in Fig. 1—has been fashioned by chipping, as can be seen from the figure. But since it was chipped, the whole surface has become semi-polished, owing, probably, to the corrosive action of surface waters rounding by solution the sharp edges between the original subconchoidal fractures.

The specimen shows, however, three fractures that are probably of very recent age; they might almost have been made by the finder before he realised the character of the specimen. One of these (A) is at the tip, and is the cause of the light-grey area on the left side of the tip, as seen in Fig. 1; and the other two are on the left side of the implement, as viewed in Fig. 1, one of the fractures (B) forming the bay already referred to, and the other fracture (C) being situated below the one just mentioned.

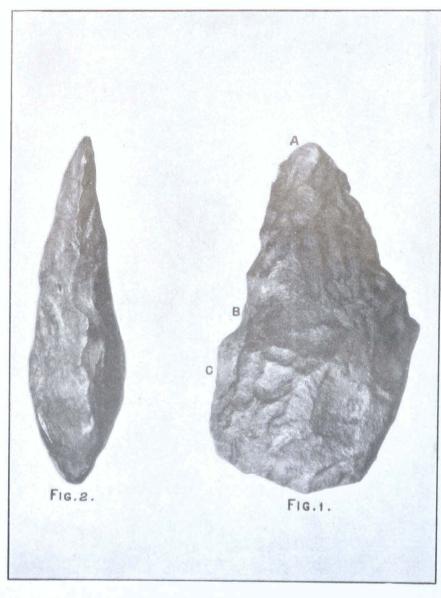
The reverse side of the implement, which I have not figured, seems very much rougher: its shape may, perhaps, be partly due to chipping, but it seems almost possible that it is an original surface; in this case, the implement must have been chipped from one of the boulders of manganese-ore so common in the talus deposits lying at the foot of many of the bedded

manganese-ore deposits of the Central Provinces.

On referring to the illustration, it will be seen that the specimen, as seen in Fig. 1, is not symmetrical: a portion at the lower right-hand corner is missing. I cannot be certain, from the character of the fracture here, whether this fracture is a portion of the original surface of the boulder from which, I have supposed, the specimen was prepared, or whether it is a fracture made during the course of the preparation of the implement, or shortly subsequent. It cannot, in any case, be a recent fracture, for it shows as much patina as the presumed outer surface of the boulder.

From Fig. 2 it will be seen that the butt end of the implement has also been trimmed to an edge, so that the implement comes under the section of sharp-rimmed implements, as noticed above. On comparing my implement with those figured by Sir John Evans in the book already mentioned, I find that it is most like that shown in Fig. 475 from Boscombe near Bournemouth. The similarity does not lie merely in the imperfection of both specimens at the lower right-hand corner, but also in the shape, as seen in front view, on edge, and in cross section. One point of difference, however, should be noticed in this comparison, viz., that the Boscombe specimen is twice as long as my specimen, although the figures are the same size.

Although palæolithic implements have been found made of many rocks and minerals in different parts of the world, yet I am not aware that an implement made of manganese-ore has ever previously been described. In any given area the ancient inhabitants seemed to have chosen as fine-grained a rock as



A PALÆOLITHIC IMPLEMENT OF MANGANESE-ORE NATURAL SIZE.

could be obtained for the fashioning of their implements of stone, and in India fine-grained quartzites, trap-rocks, and various forms of agate and chalcedony seemed to be the favourite materials: and some of these, viz., agate and chalcedony. are to be obtained in the very area where the implement here described was found, not in situ, of course, but in the form of pebbles in rivers draining down from the Satpura Hills, which are composed of the Deccan Trap basalts. But the material used for the implement here described has, also, a very fine-grained texture, and manganese-ore of this character tends to break. when hand specimens of it are prepared, with a conchoidal fracture. It is not unlikely also that the high specific gravity of the material may have imparted special value to an implement fashioned therefrom as compared with an implement made of a lighter stone. Up till the present, this is the only specimen made of manganese-ore that has been found, but I hope that district officers working in the districts of Nagpur. Chhindwara, Bhandara, and Balaghat in the Central Provinces, where ore of this type is found, may, in the future, discover other specimens of manganese-ore implements once they know of their existence. Although I know of no other record of an implement made of manganese-ore, yet Mr. V. Ball has recorded the receipt from Mr. W. G. Olpherts of an implement made of magnetic iron-ore and found somewhere in the Narbada valley.

¹ Pro. As. Soc. Beng., 1881, p. 120.

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32. Chemical Examination of Aurvedic Metallic Preparations.

PART I.—"SHATA-PUTA LAUHA AND SHAHASHRA-PUTA LAUHA" (IRON ROASTED A HUNDRED AND A THOUSAND TIMES).

By Punchanan Neogy, M.A., Professor, Rajshahi College, and Birendra Bhusan Adhikary, M.A.

The Aurvedic system of medicine has enjoined from a very early age the use of metallic preparations. The method of preparation in many cases, however, has now become out of date and in some cases appears distinctly faulty according to modern scientific ideas. It has appeared to us a very interesting study to examine chemically these preparations, to identify them, and wherever possible to suggest more improved and modern methods of preparation. In this field Dr. P. C. Rây has done some valuable pioneering work by analysing some metallic preparations and incorporating the results in his History of Hindu Chemistry, Part I. Many salts other than those examined by Rây have yet to be analysed, and the present investigation is meant to be the first of a series of its kind.

The principal compounds of iron used by our Aurvedic physicians are "Shata-puta" and "Shahashra-puta" lauha (iron roasted a hundred and a thousand times). From their methods of preparation we suspected them to be oxides of iron, which, however, are not much used by allopathic physicians. In order to study the degree of oxidation in the various "putas" we attempted to collect samples from one "puta" to thousand "putas," but we have been successful in getting only a few intermediate "putas."

The method of purification (মাধন) and roasting is given in detail in Rasendra-shar-Shangraha.

Method of Preparation as given in Rasendra-shar-Shangraha.

Rasendra-shär-Shangraha first mentions many different varieties of iron. "The Krouncha iron is twice better than ordinary iron, the Kalinga iron eight times better than Krouncha, the Bhadra iron again hundred times better than Kalinga, the Bajra iron a thousand times better than Bhadra, the Pandi iron a hundred times better than Bajra, the Niranga iron ten times better than Pandi, while Kanta iron is a

thousand crore times better than Niranga." So Kanta iron is the best kind of iron for medical purposes, and should be taken. For a description of Kanta iron, vide Dr. P. C. Rây's History of Hindu Chemistry, Vol. I, page 60.] When the proper kind of iron is selected, it is first finely powdered and then purified (मोधिन) by macerating it in a decoction of the "three myrobalans "(चित्रज्ञा). The iron is then again immersed in the same decoction and dried in the sun. This process is to be repeated This is called '' bhänu-päka-bidhi '' (भान पाक विधि). seven times. The iron is next boiled in decoctions of various substances depending on the nature of the disease for which it is to be used. This process is called "sthäli-päka-bidhi" (खाली पाक विधि). The iron thus treated is now washed in clear water and roasted inside two earthenware concave dishes with their mouths placed on each other and luted with mud. This pair of dishes is then put in a pit of suitable dimensions dug in the earth and heated by means of burning cow-dung cakes. This process is called " puta-päka-bidhi " (पुढ पाक विधि). The iron is thus to be roasted ten, hundred or even thousand times, and it is believed that the greater the number of "putas" iron has been subjected to, its medicinal efficacy increases in a corresponding degree. The alternate maceration and heating make the powder very light, and, in fact, the test prescribed by Rasendra-shär-Shangraha by means of which the proper number of putas is to be judged is the extreme lightness of the powder. "The iron is to be roasted until, being finely powdered and thrown on to water, it will swim on the water like a duck on account of its lightness." 3

> धामान्याद्विगुणं कीचं कालिकोष्टगुणन्ततः। कर्नेः प्रतगुणं भदं भदादचं सष्ट्यधा ॥ वचात् प्रतगुणं पान्ति निरकंदप्रभिगुणेः। ततः कोटि सष्ट्येवी कान्त लोहं महागुणं॥

In another place we have got "। किहाइश्रगणं मुण्डं मुण्डामीर्च सताधिकं नीचात्स्वगणं कान्तं etc.," from which also we learn that Kanta iron is the best kind of iron to be used.

9 For a description of a roasting pit see Rây's History, page 70.

3 दशादिशतपर्यंन्तं गरे पुटविधिर्मतः श्वतादिस्त सङ्खान्तः पुटो देगो रसायने । वाजीकमीयि विज्ञेयः दशादिशतपद्यकः॥ तावदेव पुटेख्वीष्टं यावजूर्योक्ततं जले विस्तरक्षे लघत्वेन समुत्तरति ष्टंसवत्॥ Methods of Preparation by Modern Aurvedic Physicians.

As most Aurvedic physicians prepare their own medicines, the methods of preparing the same medicine vary considerably. So far as we have been able to collect information, there are three different methods of preparing "lauhas."

(1) Some physicians procure the best kind of iron, heat it in a blacksmith's forge and take the rust formed on the sur-

face of the iron.

(2) Others keep steel immersed in cow's urine for years

together and take the rust collected on the surface.

(3) While some are reported to prepare their "lauhas' by repeatedly heating powdered ferrous sulphate (रोराक्य). Of course the method given in Rasendra-shär-Shangraha is followed by many orthodox physicians. In the methods Nos. (1) and (2) the rusts obtained are purified in the usual way and then formed into balls with cow's urine or a decoction of the "three myrobalans." dried in the sun and calcined in the pit by means of burning cow-dung cakes in the usual way. The balling, powdering and calcining in an enclosed space are repeated ten, hundred or thousand times.

Experimental.

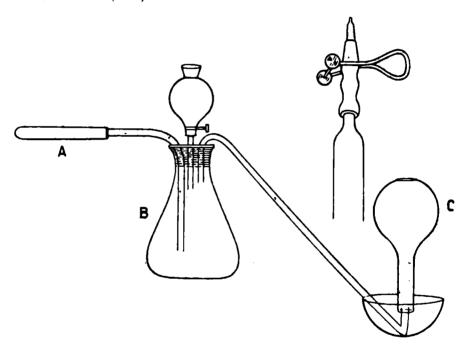
We collected "lauhas" which have undergone different number of "putas." The colour of these samples varied from greyish black and grey to rouge red. It was observed that one "puta lauha" was greatly attracted by a magnet, "lauha" which has been calcined ten times was attracted to a less degree, while samples of seventy-eight "puta lauha" were very slightly attracted. As regards iron which has been calcined hundred or thousand times, it was not in the least attracted by a magnet. The magnetic character of the samples which have undergone a smaller number of "putas" suggested to us the possibility of the presence of free iron in them. The oxides of iron, both ferrous and ferric, were also present. As we were not acquainted with any method by means of which free iron could be quantitatively determined in presence of ferrous and ferric oxides, we tried the following method which was found to be fairly satisfactory:—

Method of estimating Free Iron in the presence of Ferrous and Ferric Salts.

The quantity of iron was determined from the quantity of hydrogen evolved when acted upon by dilute sulphuric acid in an atmosphere of carbon dioxide. The total ferrous iron due to the solution of the iron in sulphuric acid and the quantity of ferrous salt present is determined by titration with

bichromate solution. The difference between the combined ferrous iron and free iron gives the quantity of ferrous iron already present. The ferric iron is then easily estimated by precipitating the total iron with ammonia and subtracting the ferrous and free iron from the total iron thus found.

In order to test how far the hydrogen method of estimating iron is successful quantitatively we carried on some blank experiments using the apparatus sketched below. The carbon dioxide was obtained by heating sodium bicarbonate in the hard glass tube A. The Erlenmeyer flask contains the weighed quantity of pure iron wire and the tap-funnel contains the dilute acid (1:4).



The hydrogen was collected in a 250 c.c. volumetric measuring flask with a long neck over strong caustic potash contained in a basin. In order to test whether all the air has been driven out by carbon dioxide, a long tube with a stop-cock at the upper end was used and the caustic potash was sucked into the tube with the help of a piece of rubber tubing. When no more bubbles collected in the tube, the measuring flask filled with caustic potash solution was substituted for the tube. The acid was then dropped in and the hydrogen evolved is driven out by the carbon dioxide and collected in the flask so long as any bubbles come out. The flask was next transferred to a deep pneumatic trough and the volume of water ascer-

tained after adjusting water level. The capacity of the flask was measured once for all by filling it with water. The difference between the two volumes of course gives the volume of hydrogen. The following are the results of three blank experiments:—

				1
Wt. of iron wire taken.	Vol. of H. at N.T.P.	Wt. of H. calculated.	Wt. of iron calculated.	Error.
· 44 85	178·2 c.c.	.016038	· 449 0	+ .0005
4560	181 6 c.c.	.016344	·4576	+ .0016
·2327	92.8 c.c.	.008352	·2 3 38	+.0011
	i			

Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis.

Qualitative analysis showed the presence of a small quantity of soluble salt mostly potassium phosphate, siliceous matter and iron. There was no carbon (as we expected), nor any aluminium. The results of quantitative examination are given below. The "one-puta," "ten-puta" and "seventy-eight puta" "lauhas" are the products of heating the same sample of iron. The "hundred-puta" and "thousand-puta" "lauhas," both marked (A), are again the oxidation products of another sample of iron. Lastly, the "thousand-puta" "lauha" marked (B) is a different preparation.

'' One-puta lau	ha.''	"Ten-puta lauha	ı.''	
$Fe = (5 \text{ c.c. } \hat{H} \text{ only})$	= .012		= nil.	
FeO	= 68.1	FeO	$= 23\cdot1$	
$\mathbf{Fe}_{\mathbf{z}}\mathbf{O}_{\mathbf{s}}$	= 20.4	Fe, O ₃	= 40.0	
Siliceous matter	= 10.1	Siliceous matter	= 32.1	
Soluble salt (most pot	•	Soluble salt	= 4.6	
phos.)	= 1.3			
•				
	99.912	}	99.8	
" Seventy-eight-pute	lauha."	'' Hundred-puta lauha.'' (A)		
Fe	= nil.	Fe	= nil.	
FeO	$=$ $9 \cdot 5$	FeO	= nil.	
$\mathbf{Fe}_{2}\mathbf{O}_{2}$	= 51.2	Fe ₂ O ₃	= 83.9	
Siliceous matter	= 34.1	~ .	= 12.7	
Soluble salt	≕ 5·4	Soluble salt of which		
		$\mathbf{P}_{\xi}\mathbf{O}_{\xi} = 9$	= 3.7	
	100.2		100.3	

"Thousand-puta lauha."			"Thousand-puta lauha."				
	$(\tilde{\mathbf{A}})$.				$(\tilde{\mathbf{B}})$		
Fe		=	nil.	${f Fe}$		=	nil.
FeO		=	nil.	${f FeO}$		=	nil.
$\mathbf{Fe_2O_3}$		=	78.1	$\mathbf{Fe_2O_3}$		=	84·6
Siliceous mat	ter	=	17.9	Siliceous n		=	11.3
Soluble salt		=	4·1	Soluble sal	t of which		
				$P_2O_5 =$	1.2.	=	3.8
					_		
]	100				99.7

Discussion of Results.

From the above it is clear that the magnetic properties of the samples of iron which have undergone fewer number of "putas" are not due to free iron, which is present in minute quantities in the "one-puta" "lauha," but to ferroso-ferric oxides, the ferrous and ferric oxides being present in them in varying proportions. As the number of "putas" increases, the amount of ferrous oxide diminishes, and at the hundred "putas" and above, the iron is wholly present in the form of ferric oxide. Hence "hundred-puta" and "thousand puta" "lauhas" are not attracted by the magnet.

2. Siliceous matter is present in very large proportions varying from 10·1 to as much as 34·1 per cent. This impurity most probably comes from the unglazed earthenware pots that

are used for roasting.

3. "Shata-puta" and "shahasra-puta" lauhas" have almost identical compositions. Both are impure ferric oxide, the percentage of which varies from 78·1 to 84·6. Both are non-magnetic and "swim like a duck" on water. On account of the very large number of "putas," in the course of which it undergoes maceration, powdering and roasting for a thousand times, the "shahasra-puta" lauha" is lighter and finer than "shata-puta." The time taken to prepare these lauhas is very long indeed. If one "puta" be finished in one day, the preparation of "shata-puta" takes more than three months and that of "shahasra-puta" about three years. As the roasting is carried on in closed vessels the oxidation proceeds

¹ Cf. Roscoe and Schorlemmer's Treatise on Chemistry, Vol. II. Part 2, "Magnetic oxide of iron'':—"When iron is heated to redness in the air, it becomes coated with an iron scale. This is a mixture or a compound of the monoxide and sesquioxide in varying proportions. The inner layer which is blackened grey, porous, brittle and attracted by the magnet, has the composition 6FeO Fe₂O₃ and is not magnetic. The outer layer contains a large quantity of ferric oxide, is of a reddish colour and is more strongly attracted by the magnet than the inner portion."

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very slowly. If, however, open vessels be employed in future,

the time may be greatly curtailed.

4. The test of "swimming on water like a duck" is a crucial one with the Aurvedie physicians for "lauhas." We have seen that precipitated ferric oxide of the laboratory does not "swim like a duck." It is probable that Aurvedie "lauhas" being very light and porous are easily assimilated in the body while ordinary ferric oxide being not so light and porous is not easily taken up and hence not used by Allopathic doctors.

Before concluding we have great pleasure in thanking Kabiraj Baroda Kanta Chakrabarty of Rajshahi for placing at our disposal his knowledge of Aurveda.

33. Ladvags rGyalrabs.

The Chronicles of Ladakh, according to Schlagintweit's MS.

Translated by A. H. Francke.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

I am presenting to the public an English translation of the first two chapters and the last page of the third chapter of Schlagintweit's 'Die Könige von Tibet.' This translation into English was not made from the German rendering by Schlagintweit. In many cases I had to abandon Schlagintweit's translation altogether and translate afresh from the Tibetan text which Schlagintweit appended to his 'Die Könige von Tibet.'

As is stated by the early Tibetan writers themselves, they made use of several historical books which were then current in Ladakh. The following titles are mentioned:—

- (1) aJigsrten gdagspa (in the genealogy of the Sakyas);
- (2) rGyalrabs spunpo gsum khug blonpoi rgyal mthsan;

(3) gSangba or 'aBru bdus;

(4) Dangpo dbang byed rimpai dgu byung.

Of these works, the last mentioned is still known in Ladakh, where it is called $Rim\ dgu$. This work may possibly come to light again.

It is very probable that some of the early historians of Ladakh or Tibet took Indian Vamsāvalīs as their model. Vamsavalī of Chamba, for instance, as published by Dr. J. Ph. Vogel, in his 'Antiquities of Chamba State,' bears a strong resemblance to the older portions of the Ladvags rgyalrabs. Both productions begin with an introductory hymn in which the book is called a necklace. This necklace is represented as being wound round the neck of the deity or saint to whom the book is dedicated. Then, both books contain a long list of names of mythological beings, the supposed supernatural ancestors of the race of kings, and in a third part, the names of the actual human kings are given. The Indian Vamsavalīs. even if they contained nothing but names, were written in metre, and so it also was probably with the Tibetan production. A last remnant of this Tibetan metrical Vamsavalī we have in Schlagintweit's folios 13b and 14a, where there are ten lines of metrical verse which contain only names in line 1-6, and a few notes on that group of kings in line 7-10; and again in folio 9a, where a Buddhist legend is told in the same metre. word rgyal mthsan may be translated by 'royal names,' the historical book mentioned under No. (2) may have been such a Tibetan Vamsāvalī.

In addition to the Indian Vamsavalis, Tibetan historiography was also influenced in very early times by Chinese historiographers. I think that Rockhill is quite right when he compares the seven Tibetan Khri (throne) kings with the twelve celestial sovereigns of the Chinese Sanhwang; the six Tibetan Legs with the eleven terrestrial sovereigns of the Chinese: and the eight Tibetan Lde with the nine human sovereigns of the Chinese. Possibly, the Tibetans were not at once furnished with sufficient names to satisfy a Chinese historian. they had to manufacture new names, or classes of names, and insert them in their lists. This may account for more than one beginning in the rGyalrabs, as we have it at present. we find two kings of the name of Spu rayal. Of the palace of Phyi dbang stag rtse, which was stated in the chronicles to have been in existence during the reign of the first king, we hear again ten or eleven generations later that it was then built as the first palace of the country. Then, although the country is described as having been in a high state of civilisation under its first king, a first introduction of civilisation is attributed also to several of his successors. From the Chinese, the Tibetans probably learnt writing history in prose.

But a really intelligent and pragmatic form of prose writing was not acquired before the 15th century, when quite a new way of recording facts made its appearance. This last and best form of chronicling was probably learnt from the Mohamedan

writers of the period.

The man who compiled the story of the kings of Yarlung, as we find it in the rGyalrabs, did not only derive his information from chronicles in prose or verse, but also made use of the folklore of his time, and thereby added a new charm to his chapter of the history. Thus, we find an old proverb on folio 11a, and popular ditties on folios 14a and b, and 19b. The first song on folio 9a is probably a verse from Buddhist literature which had become popular, whilst the second song once formed part of the ancient metrical Vamsavali, with which it has the metre in common, as stated above. It is interesting that also in Dr. K. Marx's BMS., an ancient popular song is found which it was the historian's endeavor to turn into prose. My attention was drawn to this interesting fact in the following way: I told my Tibetan assistant, Phunthsogs of Khalatse, to read through the third chapter of Schlagintweit's Tibetan text of the chronicles. to see if he could find poetical parts in it. He read it and said that he had not found anything, because the old song of Ali Mir, which was contained in K. Marx's rGyalrbas, was omitted in Schlagintweit's copy. He said that he had often heard people sing a song of Ali Mir. When I examined Marx's text, I could see at once that seven lines of the old song could be easily restored. by making only very slight alterations in the text. It then runs as follows :-

Khasang ngayis rmilamdu: mThsonas sengge nargyis mchongs rGyal Khatunla thimpar mthong De dang dus mthsungs bumo 'adi Semscan dang ni ldanpar gyur 'aDila bu zhig ngespar skye Mingla sengge rnam rgyal thogs.

Then also, in Schlagintweit's third chapter, in the tale of the battle of Basgo, we find a little song of four lines included, as follows (with two corrections by myself):—

> rGyalpo babsgor bzhugs shing Khachul dmag dang beas Sogpo rnamsla brgyabpas Sog'abros thabssu song.

The influence of prose productions of folklore (Kesarsaga in particular) on the writing of history, is of course very distinct in the early parts of the chronicle. Let me mention only the description of the seven heroes in fol. 7b, which at once calls to mind the seven Agus of the Kesarsaga. But also passages like the description of *Lha dbang rnam rgyal's* three sons, who lived as late as the sixteenth century, look as if they had just been copied from the Kesarsaga.

Let me now review the Ladvags rgyalrabs, the chronicles of Ladakh, and register what has been published or translated. It consists of ten parts, some of which have headings in Tibetan, whilst others have not. Schlagintweit's MS. contains some of its parts in full, whilst others receive valuable contributions from it. Only one part is not represented in it.

- 1. Introductory Hymn. It is found in SMS. (Schlagintweit's MS.).
- 2. Cosmology and Cosmogony. This chapter is omitted in SMS. K. Marx mentions it as occurring in AMS. The first seven or eight lines of inscription No. 67 (translated in Ind. Ant., vols. xxxv, xxxvi, in my article 'Archæology in W. Tibet), seem to be taken from this cosmology. They run as follows:—
- "The spheres [are these]: In the middle of all that grew into order, is the mountain Ri dbang lhunpo (Sumeru), the measure of whose glory is 400,000 geographical miles. The outlying and close-lying principal continents are surrounded by all the mountains. The four continents are in the east, south, west, [and] north; and there are eight islands. According to their order, the continents are: $Zla\ gam$ ('New moon'; name of the continent in the east which is supposed to be of the shape of the new moon, and its inhabitants to have faces of the same shape); $Zur\ gsum$ ('Three points,' 'triangular'; name of the continent in the south (India), the inhabitants of which have triangular faces, as men actually have); $Gru\ bzhi$

3. The Genealogy of the Sakyas. It is found in K. Marx's AMS, and in Schlagintweit's text (SMS). It is interesting that several of the mythological names contained in it are found also in inscriptions of Ladakh and in folklore. This shows how deeply rooted is the belief of the people that the kings of Ladakh

are descended from the Sakya race.

4. The Tibetan Kings of Leh and Lhasa down to Langdarma, the Apostate. This chapter is entitled in Tibetan 'History of the First Spread of Buddhism.' It is found in K. Marx's AMS and CMS, as well as in SMS. The same times we find described in Central Tibetan and Mongolian historical books, and in Chinese works. The latter were translated by S. W. Bushell, (JRAS, 1880). A most successful attempt to reconcile the Chinese with the Tibetan accounts was made by Herbert Müller in 'Zeitschrift für vergleichende Rechtskunde,' Bd. xx. My chronology is based on the Chinese chronicles.

5. Langdarma's Persecution of Buddhism. This chapter is entitled in Tibetan 'The Submerging of Buddha's Religion.' It is found in K. Marx's AMS and CMS, as well as in SMS. The same times are described in Central Tibetan, Mongolian, and Chinese historical works. Even Alberūni speaks of Longdherman,

Langdarma.

6. The Kings of the First West Tibetan Dynasty. This chapter is called in Tibetan 'The Story of the Later Spread of Buddha's Religion.' It is found in K. Marx's AMS and CMS, and in SMS. The first part of this chapter was translated by myself for the first time into English, after the text of SMS. As the rest of the chapter was translated in an excellent manner by K. Marx, I shall simply review the chapter by giving names of kings, dates, and notes of interest. In the same way will

he treated the following chapters:-

7. The Kings of the Second Dynasty down to Sengge rnam rgyal. This is probably the biography of Sengge rnam rgyal, compiled by his son bDe ldan rnam rgyal, as stated in SMS. No oriental would begin a biography with the birth of his hero. The hero's history is given at the end of a long narrative of his ancestors. K. Marx's AMS and SMS are probably such biographies of Sengge rnam rgyal furnished with the most elaborate ground work. SMS contains a few interesting additions to the history of Sengge rnam rgyal which are not found in K. Marx's 'Three Documents.'

8. The Last Independent Kings of Ladakh. This chapter

which is not furnished with a Tibetan title, is found in K. Marx's BMS and CMS. SMS contains a few interesting additions to the text, as published in K. Marx's 'Three Documents.' K. Marx's Tibetan text being lost, I am now making efforts to recover it. And I hope that the text of CMS at least will again come to light.

9. The History of the Dogra War. Its Tibetan title is 'History of the Indian War.' It is found in K. Marx's CMS. and SMS contains only an interesting note on it. The Tibetan text as well as the greater part of the English translation by my wife were published in K. Marx's 'Three Documents.' It was written by Munshi dPal rayas, the present chronicler of Ladakh.

10. Ladakh after the Dogra War. This chapter which was written by Munshi dPal rgyas has not yet been published. am now making efforts to have it copied. SMS contains a single

line referring to these times.

My thanks are due to Dr. J. Hutchison, of the Scotch Mission, for assisting me to find the correct English rendering of Tibetan phrases, and to my Ladakhi assistant, Phunthsogs of Khalatse. for helping me to ascertain the correct interpretation of many obscure passages.

TRANSLATION.

PART I.—INTRODUCTORY HYMN.

With the iron hook of the wonderfully sweet and [all] Fol. 1a. knowing youth Gesar,

And by the power of suckling at the heart of mother Ridvags migcan (Mrigākshī), [who is] religion itself,

This clear mirror of religion reflecting scenes [of people] as if moving to and fro in a dance, [has become] a reality

It has become a neck ornament of the naked priest Zurphud lngapa (Pañcasikha).

PART II.—COSMOLOGY.

Omitted in SMS.

PART III.—THE GENEALOGY OF THE SAKYAS.

Drawing near through the blessing-pronouncing musical Fol. 2b. sound of the stringed tamburin, the nectar of immeasurable wisdom, the immeasurable fountain Zamatog, the treasure house of spiritual secrets, the king of astonishing things, the [symbol] dPalbeu with which this Kalpa is adorned, the Candrakanta stone in the middle of a floating rosary of a thousand [stones], the circle of power, became evident and rose like the moon.

A book on history or geography is generally called a mirror. s a well-known deity of the Prebuddhist religion of Tibet.

Fol. 3a.

As there was powerful prayer girded with might like a wave, and an eminent power of spotless truth, there arose like a white lotus Buramshingpa (Ikshvāku), the conqueror who continually beats throughout the three worlds the great drum of the queen of songs of praise. He is the root of the fulfilled blessings of immeasurable value which accumulated through the good works of the gods and [other] creatures [who had received] his precious teaching.

This arose and increased, and as the upwards striving accomplisher was dependent on a great king who ruled the area of the wide earth, our teacher (Buddha) looked out for a clan, a country, a time, a family, and a woman, these five, and allowed himself to be born as Zas gtsang's (Suddhodana's) son. Let

me first relate a little of his family.

The people of India lived in an undying state, with a life of immeasurable length, with abundant [gratification] of their nine desires, and they had power, alas! over infinite accomplishments. At that time, there was a nectar which took away the consciousness of exertion, there was nutriment in the earth, fertility in the ground, and abundance of rice which grew without ploughing.

Then the accomplishments which belonged to [the state] of the gods were exchanged for other activities; the rice which grew without ploughing, disappeared entirely, [the harvest] depended on the worker, and pains had to be taken over agriculture. There arose mutual quarrelling and fault-finding, and king Mangpos bkurba (Mahāsammata) who decided judgment in a just way, and before whom all bowed in reverence, became the famous one of old.

Then [there reigned] successively: 'Od mdzes (Rocha); dGeba (Kalyāna); dGe mchog (Varakalyāna); and gSo sbyong 'aphags (Utposhaddha). And now, to speak of the five classes of kings: The [five] sons of gSo sbyong 'aphags, the wheel-turning kings, were according to a presage born in this way: On the crown of [gSo sbyong 'aphags'] head there formed a swelling, and when it broke, [out came] Ngalalasnu (Māndhātar); then there arose a swelling on his right thigh, and out of it came mDzespa (Chāru); there arose a swelling on his left thigh, and out of it came Nye mdzes (Upachāru); there formed a swelling on his right foot, and out of it came mDzes ldan (Chārumant); and there arose a swelling on his left foot, and out of it came Nye mdzes ldan (Upachārumant). These five are called the five kings who turned the wheel [of religion].

The last four reigned in one of the four continents. They are the kings who turned the gold, silver, copper, and iron

Fol. 3b.

Fol. 4a.

¹ The name *mDzes ldan* is used as an epithet of the Ladakhi king 'aJam dbyangs rnam rgyal. See my article 'Ten ancient historical songs from W. Tibet,' Ind. Ant., 1909.

wheels [of religion]. From these kings till Zas atsana (Suddhodana), it is said, there descended 1,215,174 kings in succession. or 834.534 according to the [book] 'a Jigs rten gdagspa (Wisdom of the World). These two [different] ways of stating [the number] are the most extraordinary [statement] made by those who tell the history of the times of degeneration. As the glorious youth (Gesar) was so busy with drawing souls upwards, he did Fol. 4b. not tell them clearly; and when later on the learned who wished to write down the tale, examined him, he scoffed at them.

To the family of that same teacher (Zas qtsang) belong Nyimai gnyen (Sūryavamsa) and Buramshinapa (Ikshvāku) who is called Shakya. One hundred generations after [Buramshingpa], there arose king rNabacan (Karnika) in the country of Gru 'adzin (Potala). He had two sons, Goutama and Bharadhvadza. When Goutama, the elder one, saw that government was carried on in a religious as well as an irreligious (mixed) way, he thought: "It will be like that also, when I undertake the government." Then he was sorry and became a mendicant under priest mDog nag (Krishnavarna). The vounger one, Bharadhvadza, [therefore] reigned. At that time, there lived in that country a harlot called 'a Groba bzangmo (Sattyabhadrā). She and a cunning youth called Padmai rtsa log (Mrināla) indulged in sensual pleasure. As she had also immoral inter-Fol. 5a. course at the same time with another [man, a] merchant, Padmai rtsa log became angry and cut off bZangmo's head. Then he placed the blood-stained sword [and bZangmo's head] at the door of Goutama's cavern. The executioners who pursued [the murderer, saw that there was a blood-stained sword and the head of bZangmo there. Thus, the punishment for that [crime] was inflicted on Goutama, and he was impaled. The hermit mDognag knew all this, and went to Goutama. He said: "Boy, what have you done that you [must] suffer this?" Goutama answered: "Master, there is no fault in me! By the truth of my word that there is no fault in me, may the teacher's Fol. 5b. [black face] be turned into a golden face!" At once the black coloured hermit became golden and was henceforth called hermit aSer mdoqcan.

Then the hermit saw that Goutama's line of religious kings (Dharmarājas) would become extinct and said to Goutama: "For the sake of your family you must leave a seed." Goutama answered: "As I am tormented with misery, I cannot rear a family!" Then the teacher produced a pleasant coolness by overshadowing clouds, and when Goutama was in a pleasant state, he produced two drops of semen virile mixed with blood. They were placed on two leaves of sugarcane (Buram shing. Ikshvāku) and ripened through the heat of the sun and the moisture of the moon, and two boys were produced. They received the names Buramshingpa (Ikshvāku) and Nyimai Fol. 6a. anuen (Sūrvavaniśa).

Nyimai gnyen became a mendicant, and Buramshingpa reigned. The descendants of Buramshingpa became famous and increased.

One hundred generations after him, there arose king 'aPhags skyespo (Virūdhaka). His elder spouse bore him four sons, and the younger one four daughters. At a later (another) time, both wives having died, he married the daughter of a foreign king who said: "The sons whom you already have, must not reign. If my daughter should have a son, he must reign!" As he had said this, the ministers held a consultation, [as follows]: "We do not know if his daughter will have a son or not. If a son should be born, we do not know if he will live or not. If he should live, we must place him on the throne." As the result of this consultation, he married the princess.

She bore him a son called $rGyal\ srid\ dg\bar{a}\ (\tilde{R}ashtrananda)$. At that time, the ministers thought as follows: "If we place the elder brother on the throne, we go beyond our former promise; if we place $rGyal\ srid\ dg\bar{a}$ [on the throne], we have to take heed to the elder brothers. We must turn out the elder brothers by some device!"—thus thinking, a crafty one from among the ministers pronounced some calumny [against them] and turned them out.

They went to the banks of the river bSkal ldan shing rta (Bhāgirathā), built a hut in a forest, not very distant from the place of the hermit qSer skya (Kapila), and lived there. When they had attained to adolescence, they became pale and thin, and when the hermit saw this, he asked them [about it]. They said: "We have become like this, because we are tortured by passion (or: by the highest virtue)." He said: "If you are so ill, you must avoid the sister with whom you have both parents in common, but amuse yourself with the sister whose mother is in truth the sister of your own mother!" They asked him: "Great hermit, is it right to do this?" He answered: royalty which has renounced the throne, it is right to do this!" They took the words of the hermit as their rule, and did according to it. Many boys and girls were born, and when their father heard of it, he said: "Could the young people do such a thing?" Or in Indian language: Shākya (could they?). This is the origin of the Shākyas.

Fifty-three thousand generations of them originated at

Grong mkhyer gser skya (Kapilavastu).

Then king Shing rta bcupa (Dasaratha) arose. At the end of 25 generations after him, a king called gZhu brtan (Dhanvadurya) came up. He had two sons, Sengge 'agram (Simhahanu) and Sengge sgra (Simhanāda). Sengge 'agram became famous

Fol. 6b.

Fol. 7a.

It is interesting that the name Buramshingpa is found in many stone inscriptions of Ladakh. There the kings of Ladakh are asserted to be of his family. See Inscr. Nos. 65, 71, 79, 117.

as a skilful archer. He is the greatest of all archers of 'a Dzambu gling (Jambudvīpa). Sengge 'agram had four sons: Zas Fol 7b. gtsang (Suddhodana); Zas dkar (Suklodana); Brebo zas (Dronodana); and bDud rtsi zas (Amritodana).

Zas gtsang was of good form, beautiful, pretty to look at, of great strength, a hero, steadfast, clever, conspicuous for wisdom, cheerful, and of great courage. He was not lazy, and did not pursue evil passions. He was a Dharmarājā full of religion, assiduous to reign according to religion.

This king married the two daughters of king Legspar rabs bsad (Suprabuddha), sGyu 'aphrulma (Māyā), and sGyu 'aphrul chenpo (Mahāmāyā), and each of them had 500 maid-servants.

At a later time, king Sengge 'agram died, and Zas gtsang reigned. At that time, all men increased in riches, diseases of man and beast ceased, and endued with perfection, he protected them all like children.

At that time, the holy son of the gods, Tog dkarpo (S'veta-Fol. 8a. ketu), looked out for the tribe, the country, the time, the family, and the mother, and entered the womb of king Zas gtsang's wife, sGyu 'aphrul chenpo. After he had remained in it for twelve months, he was born from the right armpit of his mother, without being defiled by the impurity of the womb. [This happened] on the eighth day of the little spring month, when the stars were favourable. He was distinguished by the thirty-two marks of a great man, and was decorated with eighty physical perfections.

On that occasion, various miracles of happiness happened: In four great countries four princes were born. At Magata, gZugscan snyingpo (Bimbisāra), the son of Padma chenpo (Mahāpadma); at Kosala, gSal rgyal (Prasenajīt),² the son of Thsangs sbyin (Brahmadatta); at Badpala (Kauśambhī), Sharba (Udayana), the son of dMag brgyapa, (Satanīka); at 'aPhags rgyal Fol. 8b. (Ujjayinī), Tumbu rabsnang, (Pradyōta), the son of Mu khrud mthā yas (Anantanemi). And besides them, 500 [sons] of the upper classes. Together with Grags 'adzinma (Yaśodharā), 800 girls, and together with mDunpa (Chandakā), 500 maidservants; 10,000 male and 10,000 female foals, and 10,000 elephants (or oxen) were born, 500 banana (?) gardens, and 500 treasures came into existence. In the centre, (Gayā), the Bodhi tree [began to] grow.

The son received the name of *Don thamscad grubpa* (Sarva-siddhārtha). Then the prince grew up and distinguished himself in reading (letters), arithmetic, and the five great branches of

² King gSal rayal was the father of gNya Khri bteanpo, the first king of Tibet, according to a statement in the following chapter.

¹ Zas gisang is called an ancestor of the Ladakhi kings in inscriptions No. 38 (time of *Lha dbang rnam rgyal*) and No. 64 (time of *bDe ldan rnam rgyal*).

science. As regards strength and dexterity, he was superior to *Lha sbyin* (Devadatta) and all other illustrious men, and was called [*Thubpa*], (the mighty one). Then the son was asked to marry a lady, and the youth replied:

(Verses).

Fol. 9a.

"My highest wisdom is the understanding of desire; [Desire] is the root of strife, anger, suffering, and misery; It is like the poisonous leaf of the 'aJigs byed tree (Bhayańkara).

It is like fire and like the edge of the sword."

In this way, he enumerated many sins of the household and added: "But, if I could find a girl like this, I should marry her!" Thus saying, he wrote down in a letter the qualities of a woman, gave it [to the king], and the king had several [copies] published and gave the following directions:—

(Verses).

"Who among the daughters of kings and Brahmans, Of the nobility and of citizens,
Has the qualities [enumerated] here,
That girl must be found!
She will be the proper bride
Of my flesh and blood (son and kind).
In such beautiful qualities and virtue
His heart will rejoice!"

Fol. 9b.

Fol. 10a.

Such a letter he gave to a Brahman with respectful greetings, and the Brahman went to all countries to search [for a bride]. In course of time, he found Sa thsoma (Gopā). He smiled [saying]: "Now I have found [all] the qualities [combined]!" He told the king, and the king said: "I do not believe that this woman is capable of telling great lies. Assemble all the girls [here] on the seventh day! Give the youth all the riches (household utensils?) he wants to have!" Thus he said, and all the girls came. When the giving of household utensils [as presents] was almost finished, Sa thsoma arrived and smiled. She asked: "What have I done amiss, that I am left without household utensils before them all?" Then the youth smiled and gave her rings to the value of 100,000 ounces.

The youth married Sa thsoma. Then he married also Grags 'adzinma together with 10,04,000 ladies. When he was 29 years old, Grags 'adzinma became with child. In that very same year he saw the unbearable misery of birth, old age, [illness]

and death, and became a mendicant.

Then, when he was 35 years old, on the 15th of the month

Saga, (Kumudi), he subdued the devil (Māra). On the morning (or next morning) of the same day and year, he became a perfect

Sangs rgyas (Buddha).

Exactly on the same evening, a boy was born to Grags 'adzinma, and as the moon was [just then] seized by sGra gcan, (Rāhu), the boy received the name of sGra gcan 'adzin (Rāhula). Then king Zas gtsang said: "It is [now] six years since Shākya thubpa became a mendicant. This son of Grags 'adzinma is not a son of Shākya thubpa!" Thus saying, he blamed Grags 'adzinma, and she cried. Then he placed the boy on a stone in a pond, Fol. 10b. saying: "If he is Shākya thubpa's son, may the [stone] swim on the water! If he is not Shākya thubpa's son, may the stone sink!" The stone remained above the depth of the pond, like a leaf of a tree. When king Zas gtsang saw this, he entered the water with his clothes on, took [the boy] on his lap, and lovingly caressed him. He also became a mendicant, and the royal line came to an end.

Altogether, from Mangpos bkurba to sGra gcan 'adzin, there are 10,66,511 kings, or bCom ldan 'adas (Buddha) and sGra gcan 'adzin included, 10,66,513.

Notes on this chapter: Schlagintweit mentions the following

books as treating of the same or similar subjects:—

Csoma, On the Origin of the Sākya Race, J.A.S.B., vol. ii. Csoma, Notices on the Life of Sākya, As. Res., vol. xx.

Fausböll und Weber, Die Päli-Legende von der Entstehung des Säkya-und Koliya-Geschlechtes, Ind. Stud., Bd. v.

Foucaux, rGya cher rolpa (Lalita-vistara).

Schiefner, Eine tibetische Lebensbeschreibung Säkyamuni's, Mém. des sav. étrang. de Pétersb., vol. vi.

Schiefner, Über die Verschlechterungsperioden der Menschheit. Bull. hist. phil. der Petersb. Akademie, Bd. ix.

Turnour, The Mahavamso.

PART IV.—THE KINGS OF LEH AND LHASA DOWN TO LANG DARMA.

The head of the line (lit., lineal king) is sPu rgyal, the king of Tibet. There is not much material [to utilise]. Although Fol. 11a. there are [books called] rGyal spunpo gsum khug blonpoi rgyal mthsan, the gSangba or 'aBru bdus, and many others, yet, if we compare (collect) them, the following two remarkable facts [come to light]:

(Verses).

Well known is the lineage of the gods according to Bonpo ideas;

Mysterious remains the lineage of men according to Buddhist ideas.

Now we will relate concerning the navel of 'aDzambu gling, the centre of the countries, the elevation of the earth, the crooked horn of the snow mountains, the icy Tise (Kailāśa), the root of crystal mchod rtens, the lake Mabana (Mānasarovar) with its shore like a magic circle of turquoises, the precious country of gold mines, the source of the four great rivers, the six divisions of Tibet, the pure place of Lhasa "the high hill": we will relate of all this according to [the book] Danapo dbana byed rimpai dgu byung.

Fol. 11b.

At the time when Tibet was troubled by the twelve little kings, the king of Kosala, aSal rayal (Prasenajīt), who was of bCom ldan 'adas' (Buddha's) family, had five sons. The third (middle one) of them, called Buddha shiri, was born with his eyes turned upwards like those of birds, the [fingers and toes of his hands and feet were connected like those of ducks, and his eyebrows were [blue] like turquoises. Along with him, a host of devils were born. He was shown to Brahman astrologers, and the Brahmans said: "This prince will get a famous name, the height of his body will also be enormous; he will reign before his father is dead!" When they prophesied like that, the father thought in his mind: "He will reign, by killing either me or his brothers! We will turn him out: "The Brahmans answered: "If we send him to the snowy northern region, he will be of benefit to living beings!" As they prophesied thus, they made a throne on the neck of four fast running men who carried him to the northern mountains and wilds, and laid him down on the [mountain?] Lhari gyed mtho, in the middle of Although there are many conflicting statements with regard to this [event], he is certainly a Shākua of Goutama and Manapos bkurba's family.

Fol. 12b.

Fol. 12a.

Some hunters saw him and asked: "Who are you? Tell us, O bTsanpo (majesty), whence you came!" As he did not understand their language, he pointed with his finger to the sky. The hunters told and confirmed this to the people, and many people went there and were shown [the boy]. When the twelve little kings saw him and considered that he was good and highly glorious, they all agreed and said: "We have no superior, we must call him with a little drum!" Thus saying, bTsan khrung and sNums, both, gNyara rtse and gTso, both, and the two Khu steas, these six subjects invited him. Ra sangs darpa and Khyungpo were made governors, Me ngaggi shes gnyen was elected minister. Thus he was appointed king of all black-heads. (Tibetan expression for 'men'). The name of gNya khri (neck throne) was given him. "Great gNya khri btsanpo!" thus he was addressed. The land Yarlung was his precious and holy diadem, and he resided at the castle Phyi dbang stag rtse. Power and justice were his ornaments. He ruled the world according to religion, and his realm was in a happy state.

Fol. 13a.

He had a fourfold bodyguard, and the outside foes were subdued by the 44 governors of rGod ldod. At the four extremities [of his kingdom] he appointed spies (or scouts). The enemies of the four extremities were subdued by the eight Khromkha (governors?) At Rongdo, 22 officials [called] Khabaso filled the barns [with grain]. From the 12 markets, riches were offered [to the king]; wise men decided about rewards for good and bad. By punishing criminals, the source of deceit was stopped. Five wise men brought fame to the country through their writings Fol. 13b. in gold and turquoise; five heroes became an ornament [to the country] through their [subduing] lions and tigers: five quick messengers rode on horses which they changed in their course. The justice of this great [king] was as [glorious] as if the sun rose over glaciers. [In course of time (?)] he built the palace of U[m] bu bla saana.

Theft, deceit [was overcome]; in trade, advantage was not looked for. The whole kingdom flourished, and the government was beneficent. It was grand and excellent in all respects.

His son was Mukhri btsanpo (metrical:)

His son was Dir khri btsanpo.

His son was So khri btsanpo.

His son was Me khri btsanpo.

His son was $gDagskhri\ btsanpo$.

His son was Srib khri btsanpo.

[These] seven are called the seven heavenly thrones. After seven cycles.

The tombs of the seven *Khri* were founded in heaven, Their divine bodies dwindled away like rainbows without any decay.²

As regards his date, the following attempts at fixing it have been made: 313 B.C. according to Ssanang Ssetsen; 250 B.C. according to Csoma de Körös; 50 B.C. according to Schlagintweit and S. Ch. Das; 416 B.C. according to the book *Grub mthā shelgyi melong*; before Buddha, according to the Bonpo chronicles.

Legend of his origin according to the Bonpo chronicles: He is the son of Pāṇdu and Krasnā (Krishnā or Draupadī). In this connection the Mahābhārata tale and many of its names occur in the Bonpo chronicles. (See Laufer, Tibet. Geschichtswerk der Bonpo, Toung Pao, Série ii, vol. ii).

Chinese legends of his origin: According to the Ytoung-tche, he came from a western country and settled at Si-tche-choui. His name was Houi-ty-pou-tsoui-ye. In Parker, Manchu relations with Tibet, we read: a Wutiyana Khan, who fled eastward over the Hindu Kush, founded the Yarlung house. His name was Nyatpo Khan.

The Mongol versions are in close agreement with the Buddhist

Tibetan versions.

¹ King gNya khri btsanpo is mentioned as an ancestor of the Ladakhi kings in the following inscriptions of my collection: Nos. 52, 54, 72, 75, 78, 81, 84, 111, 119. The place-names given in the account of his kingdom all seem to refer to Ladakh: see my article, 'The kingdom of gNya khri btsanpo' written for this journal.

² In Central Tibetan historical works, the names of the queens of

As they had the gods of light for their leaders, they lived many years, and when the sons below were fit to hold the bridle (were fit for ruling), the fathers above went happily to heaven, dwindling away like a rainbow.

The son of Sribs khri btsanpo was Grigum btsanpo.

He had three sons: Sha khri, Nya khri, and Bya khri. Bya Khri received the name of sPu de gung rgyal. He resided at the great castle of Yarlung. In the time of this king, the Bon [religion] of the Yungdrung (svastika) arose.²

these kings are given. Herbert Müller notes that all these kings were named after their mothers. (The Tibetan matriarchate). In line 7 of the above song the 'adi of the Tibetan text is superfluous.

1 A revolution under Gri gum bisanpo is mentioned by S. Ch. Das.

See J.A.S.B., vol. 1, p. 214.

² As regards the Bon religion, its earliest type is certainly nature worship, as represented in the ancient Tibetan inscriptions from Lhasa (8th and 9th century), and in the gLingchos of Ladakh. As regards gLingchos, see my article in Hastings's Dictionary of Religions and Ethics; also, the Ladakhi Prebuddhist Marriage Ritual, Ind. Antiquary, 1901; A Bonpo Hymnal, Ind. Ant., 1901; Kesarsage, Mém. de la Société Finno-ougrienne, No. XV; A Lower Ladakhi version of the Kesarsaga, Bibl. Ind., Nos. 1134, 1150, 1164; The Paladins of the Kesarsaga, J. and PASB., 1906, 1907; and other unedited MSS. from Khalatse, Poo, and Tagmachig.

Places of the cult of the gLingchos see in my article Historische

Dokumente von Khalatse, ZDMG., Bd. LXI.

Illustrative rock-carvings see in my article 'Rock-carvings from Lower Ladakh,' Ind. Ant., vols. xxxi, xxxii, and our finds on the expedition of 1909.

As regards editions of Bonpo literature of the period when it was influenced by Buddhism and Hinduism, the following may be men-

tioned :--

Mdo geer mig and 'aDuspa rinpoche. Extracts by S. Ch. Das, in J.B.T.S., 1893. It contains the history of gShenrabs, of Zhang zhung, the legendary founder of the Bon religion. It is modelled on the Buddha legend. Then it speaks of gShenrabs' journey to China, to assist the emperor Kongtse in saving his castle. This tale is modelled on the tale of Kesar's journey to China.

Then in Appendix II of the same journal we hear of the highest aim of the Bon religion. It is to retain one's personality by seeking the

welfare of all beings.

After that, a number of charms and lists of *Bonpo* deities are given. In these lists the name *khrobo*, which is so common in ancient inscriptions

from Ladakh, is found. The four great khrobo are mentioned.

In J.A.S.B., vol. 1, p. 187 ff., S. Ch. Das gives a translation of the eighth book of *Grub mthā shelyyi melong*, in which are described the different stages of the Bon religion. The fact of its accepting Hindu doctrines at various times is mentioned.

The book gTsangma klu 'abum dKarpo, translated by A. Schiefner. contains gShenrabs' path of delivery from transmigration. It is half

Hinduist, half-Buddhist. See Rockhill, Life of Buddha.

The book Klu 'abum 'aduspai snyingpo, translated by Dr. Laufer in

Mém. de la Société finno-ougrienne, contains a song of exorcism.

B. H. Hodgson published several plates of Bonpo deities in J.R.A.S., 1861. As they look exactly like present-day Buddhist deities, the greater is the importance of my discovery of the ancient Bonpo temple at Lamayuru with frescoes of Bonpo priests and deities in blue and black dress.

Besides, the essence of burnt wood, coal, and the essence of molten leather, glue, came into existence (were found). Ironore, copper-ore, and silver-ore were found.

(Verses).

The three ores were melted with coal, and silver, copper, and iron showed themselves.

Pieces of wood were pierced, and ploughs and yokes were Fol. 14b. made.

Two equal [mDzos] were put into the yoke, and the plains were ploughed into fields.

The water of the lakes was led into irrigation canals, and bridges were built across rivers.

Many such improvements came into existence.

His son was Asho legs, his son was Isho legs, his son was By that king the palace of Phyi dbang stag rtse was built. It is the first of all castles and palaces that were built. His son was Desho legs. During his time, singing and dancing spread. His son was Guru legs. His son was 'aBrong rje legs. His son was Thongsho legs. These are called 'the six good ones of the earth.'

His sons were Zinla zin lde and Lde phrug gnam gzhung btsan, Lde rgyalpo btsan, Se snol lam lde, Se snolpo lde, Lde lam, Lde snolpo, Sprin btsan lde. These are called 'the eight beauties of the earth.'

His son was called *Tho tho ri long btsan*. The father was from above, the mothers were a *Lhamo* (goddess) and a *Klumo* Fol. 15a. (Nāgī). He was from below, as were his subjects, relations and sons who were called the lower issue of *Tho tho rilong btsan* or *Klu rgyal* (Nāga rāja). His son was *Khri btsan*. During his time, roads (?) and bridges [were constructed]. His son was *Khri thog rje thog btsan*.

His son was called *Lha tho thori snyen bshal*. He was an incarnation of the august *Kuntu bzangpo* (Samanta-bhadra). He reigned for 62 years.

The blue dress of the Bonpo priests is mentioned in J.A.S.B., vol. l., p. 198 and p. 211. S. Ch. Das speaks of plates of the Bonpo pantheon in J.B.T.S., 1893, which I cannot find anywhere.

A description of the Bonpo monastery at Shendarding is given in S. ('h. Das, journey to Lhasa; the monastery and the monks can now-adays hardly be distinguished from Buddhist ones.

rGyalrabs bongyi 'abyung gnas, the Bonpo chronicles, printed by S. Ch. Das; extract given by B. Lanfer in Toung Pao, vol. ii, No. 1. As the genealogical roll of Chinggis Khan's family shows, the chronicles were compiled later than 1328 A.D. They contain the Bonpo version of the legends of the origin of the Tibetans, and of their first king. They are of a distinctly Hinduist colouring. The story of the fall of the Bon religion under Khri srong lde bisan is related at some length.

1 The Tibetan text is not quite clear here.

At the time when he dwelt at the great palace of \$\textit{Um bu}\$ rdzangs mkhar which had come into existence of itself, without being built, as an omen of the [future] spread of Buddha's teaching in Tibet, a basket came down from heaven. Accompanied by a ray of light, there came down to the king's palace the book Zamatog (Karaṇḍavyūha sūtra); the Pang kong phyag rgyapa (a book or a symbol); the essence [of religion], the six syllables; a golden mchod rten, a yard high; a Thsindhamani thsathsa (terracotta with Buddha's image); and all the mudrā positions of the fingers.

The priests of the [Bon] religion did not know what it was. They sacrificed to it with beer and turquoise offerings. Blessing resulted from it, and [the king] remained strong, till he was 120 years of age. Thus, during the time of this king,

the beginning of the holy religion took place.1

His son was Khri snyan bzung btsan. During his time the outlying valleys were brought under notice and cleared for fields. The lakes were furnished with gates and drawn into irrigation canals. The glacier-water was collected in ponds, and the water [which had collected] over night [was used] for irrigation in day-time. Such like things were done in his time.

His son was 'aBrong snyan lderu. His son was Stag ri snyan gzigs. During the time of this king mDzos and mules originated from cross-breeding. The prices of riches were determined, and the grass of the hills was plaited in bundles. Such like things were done.

His son was gNam ri srong btsan. During the time of this king, there came from China [the arts] of medicine and divination. The king of gNya zhur and others who dwelt in the west of India, and Grugu, were subdued. In the north, salt was found. A castle called Khri brtsegs 'abum gdugs was built.

His son was Srong bisan sgampo (600—650 A.D.), an incarnation of the Boddhisatva sPyan ras gzigs (Avalokita). During the time of this king, all the kingdoms on the frontier were united under his rule, and every one of the little kings sent presents and letters. Although this king made more sealed documents than can be comprehended, there were no characters in Tibet to send replies to the letters from [various] quarters. And, as [the books of] the famous sanctuary of his ancestor Tho tho ri snyan shal remained a mystery [as they were written] in Indian characters, he thought: "We must translate them into Tibetan writing!" Therefore he sent Thonmi, the son of Anu, with a 'aBre (a measure) of gold, and sixteen fellow-students, to Kashmir,

A few years after the supposed descent of the Buddhist books, several strangers arrived in Tibet to explain them (Bodhimör).

Fol. 15b.

Fol. 16a.

¹ S. Ch. Das states in this journal, Vol. L, that the reign of this king was the most flourishing time of the Bon religion. He also states that this king found a salt mine. But the Ladakh chronicles ascribe this discovery to $gNam\ ri\ srong\ btsan$.

to learn the characters. They learnt the characters from the Brahman Li byin. Pandit Sengge sgra (Simhanāda) taught them. Bringing them into agreement with the Tibetan language, they made 24 gSal byed and 6 Rings, [altogether] 30 [characters].

Besides, they made them to agree with the Nagara characters of Kashmir, and brought them into shape.

Then, when Thonmi arrived in Tibet, he met with the king who was in the garden of his wife Uru. The king said: "Have you learnt the letters and the language? Then you may offer praise to sPyan ras gzigs (Avalokita)!" As he said so, Thonmi Fol. 16b. wrote down the sholoka (śloka): gZhal ras gsalla ngad mdangs gangba bzang (a good and full [offering of] fresh scent to gZhal ras gsal (Avalokita)! and presented it to the king. The king was very pleased and erected the temple of Byingyi khod mar rdo, and before [the image of] sPyan ras gzigs these letters (the śloka) were carved on stone. These are the earliest inscription [in Tibet] and the oldest temple.

Then, the minister Thonmi sambhota brought from Nepal the incarnation of Khro gnyerma (Bhrikutī), the Nepalese spouse Khri btsun. Together with her were brought Jobo mi skyod rdorje (Akshobhya vajra); Byamspa choskyi 'akhorlo (Maitreya dharmacakra); and Jomo sgrolma (Tārā) of sandal-wood. (These are two books, and an idol).

Then, minister *Rigpacan* brought from China the incarnation of *sGrolma* (Tārā), the queen and spouse *Kongjo*. Together with her arrived [the image of] *Jobo rinpoche* (Buddha).

Besides, [the following] worldly inventions were made: Rice-beer, barley-beer; in short, all the necessaries for food; the making of curds from milk; butter and buttermilk from Fol 17a. curds; cheese from buttermilk; pots from clay: water mills; weaving looms; and many clever arts.

Then, at Lhasa, the incomparable temple of Ramoche and others were erected. Palaces were built on the dMarpo ri and on the lCagspho ri, and these two mountains were connected with an iron chain bridge. He built about 900 temples and castles.

In his time, the Indian teacher Kumara, the Nepalese teacher Shilamanju, the Kashmiri teachers Tabuta and Ganuta. the Brahman Li byin, and the Chinese teacher Ha shang mahā dheba were called [to Tibet]. The translators (Lothsaba) Thonmi, Dharma ghosha, and dPalgyi rdorje of Lhalung translated religious books in every possible manner, and arranged them.

During the time of this king, rTsami and Shing mi of the east, bLobo and Zhang zhung of the south, and the Hor kingdoms

The last sentence seems to be a later interpolation. In those days, the Nagari alphabet was not yet in existence.

Fol. 17b.

of the north (Turkistan), and others were brought under subjection, and the customs of the holy religion were introduced into them.

His son was Mangsrong mang btsan (650--679 A.D.).2

His son was Gung btsan. His son was Gung srong 'adu rje (679—705 A.D.). During the time of this king were conquered in the east the rGyalpoi chu (Hoangho); in the south, Shing khun of Nepal; in the north, Krakrag darchen of Turkestan; in the west, Chunrings of [b] Lobo; Nanggong on the Balti-road.

l Notes on this king. Srong bisan syampo's two queens, the white and the green Tārā, remind us of the Kesarsaga, Kesar's white wife is 'aBruguma, and his green wife is gYui dKon mchogmo (see my article on gLingchos in Hastings's Dictionary of Religions). The Ladakhi tale of minister Rigpacan of Shargola in Ladakh, who was sent to fetch the princess from China, is similar to the tale of minister Gar (see S. Ch. Das' article in JASB., 1881). Both versions remind us of the Kesarsaga.

Introduction of writing. The characters were formed after the Indian Lanthsa (Bodhimör). The dbu med alphabet was formed after the Indian Vartula (Togbarlova). This is all phantastical. The Indian script which is most closely related to the Tibetan, is the Gupta of the fourth and fifth centuries. (See my article 'The kingdom of gNya khribtsanpo' in this journal).

Literature. Works by Thonmi sambhota: bStan 'agyur mdo, vol. exxiii, Sku gzugs kyi mthsan nyid, by Anui bu; vol. exxiv, sGrai bstan bcos sumcupa, a grammar; Lung du stonpa stagskyi 'ajugpa, by Thonmi Anu (a grammar).

Thormi sambhota's grammar is the same as the one which is printed in the Darjeeling School series. It is evident that this grammar was written in very ancient days, for it treats of the drag, a final suffix which has long disappeared even from the classical language. It treats also of the Tibetan system of tones, and is therefore more than a mere repetition of Indian grammars. (See my article in ZDMG., vol. lvii).

Buston says that the Chinese Kechana were the guides of the Tibetans in the commencement of Buddhism. But there are very few translations by Chinese Buddhists in the encyclopædias.

Srong bisan sgampo is the reputed author of the book Mani bkā 'abum, which contains a glorification of Avalokita, and his own history. Wassilieff says with regard to it that it is undoubtedly a modern book. He also wrote a book on horse breeding (Bodhimör); perhaps the one which is still circulated in Ladakh.

His lawbook. S. Ch. Das gives his 16 moral precepts in his article, J.A.S.B., vol. l. His 'laws' are also found in the Bodhimor. From the Bodhimor we learn that his court of law consisted of four ministers and 100 officials. There were also ministers of inner and outer affairs, the Sain and Berke of the Bodhimor.

Progress of civilisation. The Bodhimör states that silkworms, mulberry trees, barley-beer, watermills, paper, ink, and the calendar, were introduced from China.

² The Chinese chronicles (Thangshu) call him Tsanphu. At first Lutungtsan (Thonmi sambhota) governs the country; later on Thonmi sambhota's son. (Major domus). Then the Thangshu speaks of a war between the Tibetans and the Tukuhun. The latter as well as the Chinese were beaten by the Tibetans. Great extension of the Tibetan empire, beyond the Pamir (Thangshu).

and Shi dkar of the Lowland, in the direction of Lhasa (hither). From rGua (China or India) came: tea, borddha mal (?), clarionets.

long trumpets, telescopic trumpets. etc.

Besides, the seven men of great skill arose [as follows]: Khri bdun yul byin could jump across chasms which were nine 'adom (27 feet) wide ; aDung grags of gSal snang could catch a wild yak by throwing a sling at his feet; rKod btsan of Athon could seize a lion by his mane; Klu gong of Cogro could pierce with his arrow a tree which was two 'adom (18 feet) thick: Ltau bzana of 'a Brom could bring down castles, by leading water [below them]; and a Yaq chung of 'a Gos could twirl round his head a deer's hide filled with gold. [This king] was one of the Fol. 18a.

most powerful among the early kings of Tibet.)

His son was Khri lde btsun (btsug) brtan mes ag thsoms (705-755 A.D.) During the time of this king, the castle of Kha brag dar phu was built at Lhasa; all the lowlands were filled [with buildings]. At Khri rtse brag dmar (possibly Khrigrtse of Ladakh) of aLing bcu ('Ten lands') he built the temples Ga chu shar sgo, Phang thang ka med, Ka chu pan chub, Brag dmar mgrin bzang, and other [temples]. Sudgu sho ka of Brag kha and Dznyana kumara of sNyegs became translators (Lothsaba) and translated the two books gSer 'od dampa (Suvarna-prabhasasūtra) and Las brgyapa (Karmaśataka). Pitsi tsanda shri translated the sMad sbyad, the rTsis (divination) and others, and introduced the ceremonies of religion.2

His son was Khri srong lde btsan (755-797 A.D.), an incarnation of the Bodhisatva 'aJam dpal' (Mañjuśrī). This king invited the teacher (mKhanpo) Bodhisatva from India. Ananta

Notes on this king from the Thangshu. He is called Chin-u-hsilung; but there is no absolute certainty about the identity of the Tibetan and Chinese names. The Major domus retained his authority. In 678, a Chinese army was beaten on the Kukunor by the Tibetans. several Tibetan chiefs took the side of the Chinese, and the Chinese reconquered Turkestan. The Major domus was turned out, and he committed suicide together with 100 of his friends. (The Bodhimör mentions two Major domus during his reign).

Notes. The Thangshu calls him Chi-li-so-tsan. He was married to a Chinese princess called Chincheng (the khyimshang of the Tibetans). The Tibetans had received the towns of Chiu-chü and Kuei-te on the Hoangho as her dowry. Continual wars about those places. Whenever treaties were concluded, a market for bartering horses was mentioned with emphasis.

The great war with the Chinese about the possession of Gilgit. See Stein, Ancient Khotan, Section ii and iii.

Gilgit is now identified with Little Poliu, Baltistan with Great Poliu. The king of Kashmir, Muktapida, assisted the Chinese against the Tibetans, and the Tibetans were aided by the Arabs. The Chinese emperor of the period was Heiiantsung, 713-755 A.D.

The Bodhimör says that the Tibetan king was married to two queens, one from Yarkand, the other one from China. The latter was intended for his son who broke his neck when going to meet her. Therefore the father married her.

Fol. 18b.

of Kashmir became translator and preached on the ten virtues, the 18 regions (or 'elements'), and the 12 causes of existence.

On that account, the gods and demons of Tibet became angry and the hill dMarpo ri was struck by lightning. [the plain] Phangthang was devastated by water, and much illness came to men and animals. Therefore the teacher said: "The gods and demons of Tibet do not like my preaching. To subdue the gods and demons of Tibet, you must invite the teacher Padma byung gnas (Padmasambhava) from Orgyan (Udyāna)." He said: "We three united in prayer before the mchod rten of Buddha 'Od srung' (Kāsyapa)!'' sNa gsal snang and Coro legs sgra were both sent, and invited the teacher. the gods and demons of Tibet were exorcised. And after the model of the Indian temple of Otantrari (Odantapura), the eternal temple of bSam yas was built, although it came into existence of itself (Svavam-bhū). Many Indian pandits and seven critical translators [translated] the sDe snod qsum (Tripitaka). In short, by these three: the king, the dispenser [of a sacrifice), and the priest, the holy religion was made to spread over Tibet, never failing in purity, [in a country] which had been dark. [Several] of the subjects received the dignity of It was made a custom [among the lamas] to carry the pebbles which are below the feet, on the crown of their heads.

Fol. 19a.

At bSam yas he built preaching halls, and at 'aChingbu meditation cells. At the palace of rLung thsugs he founded the towns of Skyidpai byung gnas and Thsangspai byung gnas.

At that time, the teacher Padma [byung gnas] presented to the king the water of life and wisdom; but the ministers who did not like it, said to the king: "It is a maddening drink of the Mons, and poisonous!" As they said so, the king became doubtful about it and did not drink it.

That leprosy might not enter [the country], he exorcised the Nāga kings *Madros* (Anavatapta) and *Zilchen* (Manasvin) [of the Mānasarovar lake]. He put a vajra into the water, whereupon *Zilchen* took the shape of a boy and was appointed to be an assistant to the king. He promised to fulfil every wish of the king. The king honoured the pair of Nāgas highly, and they became his tutelary deities. Then the teacher departed to the south-western country of *rNga yab*, the land of demons (Udyāna).

Fol. 19b.

At that time, all Tibet prospered and was happy, the people increased, the harvests were good, and it was a time without strife. All the provinces on the four frontiers were subdued. China in the east, India in the south, sBalti [stan] and 'aBrushal (Gilgit) in the west, Sai cho odon Kas dkar (Urdum Kashgar) in the north, were brought under his power. Both political

A kind of lama hat is still known by the name of grang rdor. stone crest.

[N.S.]

and religious practices were firmly established. During the time of this king, the Bon religion was suppressed. and the holy religion was made to spread.

(Verses).

Then the regent of the conqueror (Buddha), the holy Zhiba 'athso (Santa-rakshita),

And the superior master of incantations, the ascetic Padma 'abyung,

Kamalashila, the ornament of wisdom,

And Khri srong lde btsan, of surpassing thoughts;

Through these four the sun rose in the dark country of Tibet:

The bright holy religion spread as far as the frontiers; Through these holy men of unchanging kindness All Tibetans will for ever bow before and reverence them.

The [above] ditty was composed.1

His son was Mu khri btsanpo (798-804 A.D.). To carry out to completeness the thoughts of his father, [this king made Fol. 20a. at bSam yas the noble sacrifice of [a copy of] the 'aDulba mngonpa mdo sde gsum (Vinaya, Abhidharma, Sūtra, the Tripitakam). He gave ample food to the clericals. Three times he equalized the rich and hungry. In [some] parts of both countries of rGya (China and India), not all those who had bowed before his father, bowed before him. Although they did not, he

The Balu mkhar inscription of Ladakh seems to be of the time of the same king. See Ind. Ant., vol. xxxiv, p. 203 ff., and ZDMG., Bd. xli, p. 583 ff. Baln mkhar was a custom house in those early

Fall of the Bon religion. It is related in full in chapter 21 of the rGyal rabs bongyi 'abung gnas, translated by B. Laufer, Toung Pao, vol. The trick by which the Buddhists were victorious, see in J.A.S.B.. 1881, p. 223.

Notes on Padmasambhava. His life was translated by E. von Schlagintweit, Abhandl. der K. bairischen Akademie der Wissenschaften. As regards his connection with Lahoul and Mandi (Rewalsir), see my History of Lahoul. For his connection with other parts of Western Tibet, see my Diary of a tour along the Tibetan frontier, 1909.

¹ Notes on this king. From the Thangshu: He is called Se-heilung-lich-tean by the Chinese. War against China. The capital, Singan-fu, was taken by the Tibetans, and a new emperor enthroned. Then the Tibetans had to retreat. When Tai-tsung became emperor of China in 780 A.D., peace was concluded. He sent the Tibetan prisoners home. The Tibetan king did the same with the Chinese prisoners. Great oath of peace. Chinese Tibetan inscription in Lhasa, referring to Brought to light by Waddell, J.R.A.S., October, 1909. Then the Chinese and Tibetans were united against a rebel in Sze-chuan. As the ('hinese had treated the Tibetans like barbarians, there was again war between them, and the Tibetans conquered Turkestan. The Tibetan inscription in 'Stein, Ancient Khotan, Tibetan sgraffiti at Endere, p. 569, may refer to that war.

endured it with patience. He divided the country of Tibet from the countries of rGya (defined the frontier). On the mountains which belonged to Tibet, all the grass grew [better than on the other side].

His son was Sadna legs. This king built the temple of Skar chung rdo dbyings [in the] province of rGya.² He invited the Pandita Kama [la] shila and others [to Tibet]. Kumara of sNyegs became translator and translated many religious books which had not yet been [translated].

His sons were: gTsangma, Ralpacan, gLang darma (by the first wife), and Lha rje and Lhun grub by an inferior queen. These five were born. The first son, gTsangma, loved religion. He entered the order [of lamas], admonished men to [adopt] religion, and wrote a book (Sastra). Darma loved sin and was unworthy to rule. Ralpacan (804—816 A.D.), the middle one, reigned. He built the town of Ushang rdo, and erected the temple of rGya phibs gyu sngon can ('Having a Chinese roof of turquoise colour').

Although during the times of his ancestors many religious books from rGya (China or India), Li (Kunawar or Turkestan), Zahor (Mandi), Kache (Kashmir) and other countries had been translated, there were many conflicting interpretations. He said: "It is difficult to learn religion!" and invited the Indian Panditas $Dzina\ mitra$, $Shrilentra\ bodhi$, $Dhana\ shila$, and others [to Tibet]. The two Tibetan translators [called] $bK\bar{a}\ cog$ and the priest $Yeshes\ sde$, examined everything and gave it sanction.

Finally, he made the weights, measures, etc., to coincide with those of India and appointed seven households of his

subjects to wait always on each lama.

The king [used to] sit in the middle and had silk streamers tied to the ends of his locks on the right and left. Then he made the clericals sit there and had the excellent ones on his right and left [hand side], and [himself] in the middle, all sitting together.²

A king Muni bisanpo, who reigned for one year only, is stated to have preceded this king: see Bodhimör, and S. Ch. Das. The Bodhimör says that he married a younger wife of his father and was therefore poisoned by his mother. S. Ch. Das tells of his communistic experiments which in the rGyalrabs are attributed to his successor.

Fol. 21a.

Mukhri bisanpo. His name was not known to the Chinese. Apparently during his reign Harun al Rashid (786—859) sent embassies to the emperor of China, to induce him to make war against the Tibetans. But the latter succeeded in winning him over to their plans. In 800 A.D., Arabic armies are mentioned under Tihetan command. Then Alamun concluded a treaty with the Tibetans, to guard his eastern frontier.

This is possibly the district of the village of rGya in Ladakh.

³ As we know from the Spiti Gazetteer, the head-dress of the rNyingmapa monks consisted originally of streamers of silk. Ralpacan apparently had the ends of their streamers tied to his locks, to share in their excellence.

During the time of this king were conquered the mountains of Pholonshan, which look like a curtain of white silk, and which touch the frontiers of China. There a stone pillar was set up with an inscription on which was carved: "Downwards from here did I reign!" In the south, bLo[bo] and Mon, India, Li (Kunawar), Zahor (Mandi), and [the countries] upwards from the lake of the Ganga with its surface like a bowl of iron, were subdued; in the west 'aBrushal (Gilgit) on the Persian frontier, and others, were conquered; and in the north, all the provinces of Hor (Turkestan) were subdued. He reigned over three or two [princes] of 'aDzambu gling in the south (India), and everywhere in the friendly [province] of dBus be erected 108 temples. This is the first spreading of the teaching.

PART V. LANGDARMA'S PERSECUTION OF BUDDHISM.

Then, during the lifetime of the ruler Darma dbyig dur btsan (816—842 A.D.), four heretic Brahmans were unable to Fol. 21b. tolerate either the many panditas who had been invited to Tibet by the ruler Ralpacan, or the offerings of golden writ (books), nor the spread of Buddha's teaching over Tibet. To submerge the religious teaching, they prayed to be reborn in the bodies of four demons of which there were plenty (?) in Tibet. Then they precipitated themselves [from a rock] and achieved their end. The ruler Darma dbyig dur btsan, Cogro legs sgra, Dabs (dbus?) dore stags snya, and 'aBal 'akhor zhes legspa, these four, entered the demons Thugs yid phung 'agong nagpo, gNam rdeu dKarpo, Sa rdeu nagpo, and Byang rong.

They dethroned the monks. As they did not succeed in throwing the [image] of the god Shākya mune into the water, they buried it in the earth. The [book] Byams pa choskyi 'akhorlo was buried in the sand. The doors of bSam yas and 'aPhrul snang [monasteries] in Lhasa were closed with walls, and plaster was laid [over them]. A letter was written that the monks should drink beer. The distinctive mark of the monks Fol. 22a. was not kept up. Some were turned out; some fled; the remaining ones were sent a-hunting with a hunting drum, bow, arrows, and dogs; and some were made butchers. Religious ceremonies were not [again] introduced, and his subjects were forbidden under penalty to resent it. The [religious] customs were thoroughly destroyed. They disappeared from the

l Notes on this king. The great treaty with the Chinese was carved on a piller at Lhasa. Translation from the Chinese by Bushell, see J.R.A.S., 1880. My translation from the Tibetan text in Epigraphia Indica, 1910. In the Chinese inscription he is called The-chili-tsan. According to the Thangshu, he was always ill, and the government was in the hands of his ministers. According to S. Ch. Das, J.A.S.B., 1881, under him a first history of Tibet was written. He is mentioned as a model king in the rGyal rabs under Thee dbang rnam rgyal I.

frontiers of mNgāris. At that time a mountain of rGya (India or China) which was under Tibetan rule, collapsed. And the great river rMa chu skyad (Hoangho), which flows from Tibet to China, flowed upwards and backwards for three days. Many bad omens of this kind appeared. Then, in course of time, dPalgyi rdorje of Lhalung, who was meditating at the old sprinkled [mountain of] Lhari, heard of it and conceived a very deep feeling of pity for the king (bTsanpo).—Rumours of murder. That is the tale of the submerging of Buddha's religion.

PART VI. THE KINGS OF THE FIRST WEST TIBETAN DYNASTY.

SMS: The story of the later spread of Buddhism is as follows: 'Odsrung (c. 842-870 A.D.) was gLangdarma's son. He asked dPalayi rdorje of Lhalung [to perform] the highest sacrifice to the Medicine Buddhas, and prayed. The whole empire felt the blessing of the Medicine Buddhas. In harmony with the kindness of his ancestors he established firmly the religious ceremonies and the religious buildings. He protected mNgaris according to religion. Besides, when rTsad rab gsal, Yoge 'abyung, dGeba rab gsal, and sBarab, altogether ten [priests] had arrived. Buddha's teaching began to spread [again]. Then also, temples were erected like the stars of heaven.

His son was Lde dpal 'akhor btsan (c. 870—900 A.D.). During the time of this king, the temple of Upper mNgaris, and others, [altogether] eight temples were erected. Scriptures like the aBum and others were copied in great numbers. He swore an

oath to build up religion (or temples).3

His sons were Skyid lde nyima mgon and bKrashis brtsegs dpal, the two. Skyid lde nyima mgon (c. 900 – 930 A.D.), when on his way to Upper mNgāris,—Tibet being in a state of revolution, -accompanied by a hundred horsemen under the leadership of

Fol. 23a.

Fol. 22b.

Notes on this king. He is the Tamo of the Thangshu. The latter says: Tamo was fond of wine, a lover of field sports, and devoted to women; and besides, cruel, tyrannical, and ungracious.

According to S. Ch. Das (J.A.S.B., 1881, p. 230) he uttered the following words when dying: "Why was I not killed three years back that I might not have committed so much sin and mischief; or three years hence, to enable me to root out Buddhism from the country.

He figures in the devil-dances of the lamas as the enemy of religion. The Ladakhi kings who are descended from him wear their hair in a peculiar fashion handed down from his time. (See my History of Western Tibet.)

The earliest version of the legend of the image which cannot be moved out of its position, is connected with the story of Langdarma's persecution of Lamaism.

² More notes on this king are found in S. Ch. Das' Contributions on

Tibet (J.A.S.B., 1881) and in rGyalrabs gsalbai melong.

3 More notes on this king are found in S. Ch. Das' Contributions on Tibet (J.A.S.B., 1881) and in rGyalrabs gealbai melong.

dPal ma zug gar, Khyung dpal ldan grub, and the two Aka badzra of Me nyag, happened to be obliged to eat fish and eggs. [The servant] brought [the food] wrapped in a napkin. From this it came to be a custom with the kings of Tibet to use the [so-called] giant's napkin (also explained as 'napkin of eight folds'). He built Khar dmar of Rala in the horse year, rTse tho raya ri in the sheep year. He caused many villages and hamlets (towns) to be built throughout the broad valleys of Dam and Lag (or Damlag). Maryul he left undisturbed.

As regards the rest of this chapter, K. Marx's translation of it in J.A.S.B., Vol. LX, pp. 114-123, should be consulted. In the following I give a list of royal names with notes on them.

Lhachen dpalgui mgon, c. 930-960 A.D. He received Ladakh proper. His brother bKrashis mgon became vassal-king of Guge and Purang, bKrashis mgon probably died without issue, and his kingdom was inherited by the descendants of his younger brother Lde bisug mgon. The names of Lde bisug mgon's descendants are found in Schlagintweit's tables, in S. Ch. Das' Contributions on Tibet, and in dPag beam bion bzang.

aGro mgon and Chos mgon, c. 960-990 A.D Nothing known

beyond the names.

Lhachen gragspa lde, c. 990-1029 A.D. S.M.S. spells bLachen

gragspa lde. Perhaps he was a lama.

Lhachen byang chub sems dpā, c. 1020—1050 A.D. S.M.S. spells bLachen. He was very probably a lama, like the contemporary kings of Guge. He is mentioned in the Tabo inscription together with Rinchen bzangpo, Atisa, and king Byang chub 'od of Guge. He erected the Tabo and Alchi monasteries, and probably several others. His portrait is found in the Alchi monastery together with an inscription by himself. There are also frescoes of the sports of his times, notably hawk-hunting. He probably came to grief in the Turkoman gold mine wars; compare the history of Yeshes 'od of Guge. His name as a prince is found in an ancient document excavated at Kyelang,

Lhachen rgyalpo, c. 1050—1080. His portrait (probably) as a young

man is found at Alchi where he is represented together with his father. S.M.S. spells his name bLachen, etc. He was probably a lama. He is mentioned in the Mahatmya of the Likir monastery which in its present

edition, however, dates from the 18th century.

I.hachen utpala, c. 1080-1110 A.D. His conquest of Kulu is not confirmed by the chronicles of Kulu; but the Rajatarangini of Kashmir is rather in favour of the statement. It says in a somewhat obscure passage that Zainu-l-abidin in 1428 A.D. found Kulu occupied by Tibetans. After the battle of Basgo, 1647 A.D., the treaty with Kulu was apparently exchanged for a trade contract. (See my History of Lahoul. written for the Ind. Ant.)

Lhachen naglug, c. 1110-1140 A.D. For notes on his connection

A song of king Nyima mgon is found in my article 'Ten ancient

historical songs from W. Tibet,' Ind Ant., 1909.

The names of the officers as given in K. Marx's A.M.S. are different from those given here,—A.M.S. reads rTse sho raya ri instead of rTse tho raya ri.

¹ The following inscriptions from Ladakh are probably of his time, although they do not contain his name. The Sheh inscriptions; the Alchi mkhar gog inscriptions (see my article 'Archæology in Western Tibet,' Ind. Ant., Vols. XXXV, XXXVI); and inscriptions at Bya in Zangskar, discovered by Rev. G. Hettasch of Kyelang.

with Khalatse, see in my History of Western Tibet. The last vassal kings of Khalatse were apparently rGya zhin and Shirima (Srīmān).

Lhachen dge bhe and dGe 'abum, c. 1140-1170. A.D. S.M.S. spells

blachen. Nothing known beyond the names.

Lhachen jo ldor, c. 1170-1200 A.D. Nothing known beyond the name.

bKrashis mgon, c. 1170-1200 A.D. Nothing known beyond the name. But if Lha rgyal, whose name is found only in S.M.S., has to be omitted, all that is mentioned under Lha rayal would refer to his reign.

Lha rgyal, c. 1230—1260 A.D. I think I had better give up the idea of identifying him with Lhachen kundga rnam rggal of the Daru inscription, as I did before. See Ind. Ant., Vols. XXXV, XXXVI, Archæology in Western Tibet.

Lhachen jo dpal, c. 1260—1290 A.D. A song in honour of king

Jo dpal is found in Ind. Ant., 1909, 'Ten ancient historical songs.'

Lhachen dngos grub, c. 1290—1320 A.D. He is mentioned in the Mahatmya of Likir as having come to the throne seven generations after Lhachen rayalpo. Introduction of the bKā 'aggur which had just then been completed by Buston. The Mongols received the bKa agyur in 1310 A.D. If we can trust the Kashmir chronicles, he was killed by the Kalamanyas, people of Kharmang.

Lhachen rgyalbu rinchen, c. 1320-1350 A.D. See my article 'References to the Bhottas in the Rājātaranginī,' Ind. Ant. 1908. He became the first Mohamedan king of Kashmir. The Persian 'History of Azmi' tells of his conversion to Mohamedanism, of the erection of Bulbul Lankar in Srinagar by him, and of his erection of a mosque.

The Persian 'History of Malvi Haidar Mailik' contains a translation of a lost inscription by Rainchana in his mosque. According to it,

he was only half Mohamedan.

The Ladakhi 'Song of the Bodro Masjid' speaks of the great saint Bulbul. A song entitled 'Prince Rinchen's deparature 'is found in my article 'Ten ancient historical songs,' Ind. Ant., 1909.

Lhachen shesrab, 1350—1380 A.D. See my History of W. T. His

name is omitted in S.M.S.

Lhachen Khri gtsug lde, c. 1380—1400 A.D. Notes in my History of W. T.

Lhachen grags 'abum lde, c. 1400—1440 A.D. For his rock inscription at Mulbe, see Indian Ant., Vol. XXXV, p. 72. For the invasion of Zeinu-l-abidin of Kashmir, see my article 'References to the Bhottas in the Rajatarangini,' Ind. Ant., 1909. S.M.S. spells his name gLa chen.

bLo gros mchog ldan, c. 1440-1470 A.D. For invasions of Kashmir kings, see my article in the Ind. Ant., 1909. His name is found in the

Tarikh-i-Rashidi, probably with reference to his descendants.

PART VII. THE EARLY KINGS OF THE SECOND DYNASTY OF WESTERN TIBET.

A translation of this chapter will be found in K. Marx's Three Documents (J.A.S.B., Vol. LX, pp. 123-135). In the following, names and notes only are given.

Lhachen gragepa 'abum, c. 1400—1440 A.D. A seal attributed to this king is still in the possession of the ex-kings of Ladakh. He was probably against bTsongkhapa and his reformation. Inscriptions of the time of the reformation are found in the desert between Bashahr and Spiti, and one at Khalatse. See my article 'Historische Dokumente von Khalatse, Z.D.M.G., Vol. LXI, p. 583.

Lhachen bhara, c. 1440-1470 A.D. Nothing known beyond the

name.

Lhachen bhagan, c. 1470-1500 A.D. During his reign the invasion

of the Kashmir King Hasan Khan probably took place. It ended in the defeat of the Kashmiris. Being the founder of the rNam rgyal dynasty, he possibly accepted the name Lhachen kun dga rnam rgyal which is found in the Daru inscription. A certain Baghan is mentioned as a Chui (Jo) of the provinces of Tibet in the Tarikh-i-Rashidi. Bhagan

was possibly still alive in 1532 A.D.

Lha dbang rnam rgyal and bKrashis rnam rgyal, c. 1500—1532 A.D. An inscription mentioning Lha dbang rnam rayal was found at Tingmogang. See my collection of Historical Inscriptions, No. 38. An inscription and a portrait of bKrashis rnam rayal exist in the mGon khang temple at Leh. Another inscription of bKrashis is found in the qSum rtsag temple at Alchi which he renovated. Ladakhi Songs, No. V, refers to this renovation. The pedestal of his flag-staff is still in existence at Phyi dbang. He was apparently a great politician. He instigated the Turkomans to fight all his disobedient vassal-chiefs, one after another; compare the Tarikh-i-Rashidi, but he was possibly killed by the Turkomans in 1532 A.D. A Balti or Nubra chief of those times is called Bahram in the Tarikh-i-Rashidi. He is probably the Bagram Mir of the Nubra inscription (No. 41 of my collection). The Turkomans call bKrashis rnam rgyal— Tashikun, which corresponds to bKrashis maon.

Thee dbang rnam rgyat, c. 1532-1560 A.D. He built the Byamspa monastery at Basgo where there is his portrait, together with those of his two brothers. His conquest of Kuluis confirmed by the chronicles of Lahoul. For the song of old Bumbha, his minister, see Indian Ant., 1909,

'Ten ancient historical songs,' No. VI.

rNam rgyal mgonpo, c. 1560 A.D., seems to have reigned for a short time, according to the Domkhar inscription, No. 103 of my collection.

aJam dbyangs rnam rgyal, c. 1560-1590 A.D. For a song on his alliance with Theering malig of Chigtan see my article 'Ten ancient historical songs,' No. VIII, Ind. Ant., 1909. In this song he is called mDzes Idan rnam rgyal. For Ali Mir Sher Khan's position in Balti history, see my remarks on song No. V of my collection 'Ten ancient historical songs from W. Tibet,' Ind. Ant., 1909. Ali Mir Sher Khan is probably the Balti king who was placed on the throne of all Baltistan by the Moghul emperor; compare Bernier's travels. The history of Baltistan from 1550 -1839 A.D., is found in Vigne's travels. Vigne took down Raja Ahmed Shah's account. For an inscription referring to 'aJam dbyang's marriage to a Balti princess, see my article 'Rock inscriptions at Mulbe,' Ind. Ant., Vol. XXXV. The so-called 'Song of Ali Mir' is found only in K. Marx's B.M.S. not in S.M.S.

Sengge rnam rgyal, c. 1590-1620 A.D. The accounts of the reign of this king, as they are found in K. Marx's A.M.S., and in S.M.S., agree on the whole, but S.M.S. contains the following additions:

SMS: Then also, he built a sKu gdung (kind of stūpa) six stories high furnished with copper and gilt wheels [on the top], and had a $bK\bar{a}$ 'agyur [copied] in gold, silver, and copper. At Leh he erected three manthang (Mendong, mani walls), and Fol. 30b. one in Zangs mkhar, with altogether 100 millions of mani stones. As a scent offering he erected the images of the golden chain of the dKar brayud lamas, and the great Thub [pa] (Buddha) at Shel (Sheh). He caused the precious teaching of Buddha to rise like the sun over all men.

Notes on the above passage from SMS. In K. Marx's BMS the great Buddha and the great stupa, both at Sheh, are stated to have been erected by bDe ldan rnam rgyal. Their construction was possibly begun under bDe ldan's father, Sengge rnam rgyal. The dkar brgyud lamas are the nine 'church fathers' of the 'aBrugpa sect of Tibet. In inscription No. 128, their names are given as follows: 1 rDo rje 'achang, 2 Tili (Telopa), 3 Naro, 4 Marpa, 5 Mila, 6 rGampo, 7 Tharsabpa, 8 gNas phugpa, 9 dPal ldan 'abrugpa. The images of several, if not all,

of them can be seen at the Lamayuru monastery.

General notes on this king: The image of Maitreya which he erected at Basgo is to be found at the Seljang monastery where there is also the ancient royal library. According to the chronicles, he introduced all the great deities of Hindustan. It was probably during his reign that 'the Ladakh people imbibed faith in the doctrine of Guru Nanak,' as stated in the Dzamling gyeshes (JASB., vol. lvi, p. 192). Even nowa-days, the Golden Temple at Amritsar is a Ladakhi place of pilgrimage. King Sengge's orders regarding the dress of his subjects are found in my MS. collection of proverbs from rGya. A picture of the royal household of his times is found at Nyoma in Ladakh. An inscription from Hemis, which gives an account of Sengge rnam rgyal's erection of the Hemis monastery, is reproduced in Schlagintweit's Buddhism in Tibet. His defeat at Shiri dkarmo is mentioned by Mongol writers as having taken place in 1619, see Köppen II, p. 146. The history of Sengge rnam rgyal's stepbrother, Ngag abang rnam rgyal, is found in my history of Lahoul, written for the Ind. Ant. Ngag dbang's name is also connected with the Ladakhi monasteries of Stagsna and Ngod.

PART VIII. THE LAST INDEPENDENT KINGS OF LADARH.

In the following a translation of the Tibetan text, as it is contained in SMS, will be given. With this ought to be compared K. Marx's translation from a fuller text. See JASB, vol. lxiii, pp. 94—106. A few notes of general interest will be attached to my translation from SMS.

SMS: His son bDe ldan rnam rgyal (c. 1620—1640 A.D.) lived like him according to the ten virtues during his youth. He protected his subjects according to religion. He wrote a biography of his father in accordance with his [father's] character. He showed unceasing kindness to others, and his courage was as great as that of four heroes combined.

Notes: What is called a biography of Sengge rnam [rgyal, was probably a history of Ladakh which ended with the reign of king Sengge, like K. Marx's AMS. Also SMS was such a biography, to which were added a few brief notes on the succeeding kings. That king 'a-lig med rnam rgyal actually did not possess a better text of the history of his country from 1620—1856 A.D., becomes evident from the following incident: When ex-king bSod nams rnam rgyal, on a recent visit to Khalatse, discovered that the Tingdzinpa family was in possession of a rGyalrabs which contained full descriptions of the reigns of the last independent kings, he carried away all these later chapters, returning only the first part of the history to the family.

For king bDe ldan's war with the Turkomans, see my notes on it in my article 'Ten ancient historical songs,' song No. V, Ind. Ant., 1909.

During bDe ldan's reign, the Jesuit Andrada's Mission to Guge took place. It was ended by the king making his brother Indra Bodhi rnam rgyal king of Guge. Two inscriptions, evidently referring to the last vassal king of Guge, Khri bkrashis gragspa lde, and to Andrada's Mission, were discovered on my Spiti journey last year. In Duka's Life of Csoma de Körös' we read the following: 'A work by a Romish Missionary on Tibet, the Speculum veritatis, dated 1678, was discovered in an obscure spot of Kunawar in the beginning of the 19th century. Dr. Gerard believed it to be connected with Andrada. It was sent to Csoma.' King bDe dan's third brother, bDe mchog rnam rgyal, was made vassal king of

Spiti and Zangskar. His name is found on inscriptions in Zangskar. See Mr. Howell's collection.

bDe legs rnam rgyal (c. 1640—1680 A.D.).

SMS: His son was bDe legs rnam rgyal. When he began to reign, the Mongol $dG\bar{a}$ ldan thsang, who had eyes like a bird, overran the country with an army.

(Verses).

The king resided at Bab sgo And beat the Mongols With the assistance of an army from Kashmir, And the Mongols fled.

Again the kingdom flourished as before and partook of the holy glory of beautiful virtue.

Notes: The battle of Basgo is also mentioned in Moorcroft's Travels, vol. i, p. 336. A document with Aurangzib's seal was discovered at Lamayuru by Moorcroft. It testifies to the dependence of the Ladakhis on the Mughal emperors after the battle. Inscriptions mentioning Mi pham mgon as regent of Ladakh after the battle of Basgo have been found at Nyurla and rGya. After the battle, a treaty was concluded between the Tibetans and the Bashahr State. Several documents of this treaty have come to light recently. A frescoe representing the treaty is to be found in a garden house of the Raja's palace at Rampur.

SMS: His son was Nyima rnam rgyal (c. 1680—1720). He erected also, through the prayers of the brave-minded religious kings (Bodhisatvas?), all kinds of religious buildings and statues, according to the religious merit of all beings.

Notes: The Jesuit Desideri visited Leh in 1715 A.D. He calls the king Nima namgial, and testifies to the absolute independence of the Ladakh empire. The Latin Bible, found in Ladakh by Moorcroft, was probably left there by Desideri. It came from the Papal Press and was dated 1598 A.D. For a legal document and inscriptions of this king, see my article 'Archæology in W. Tibet,' Ind Ant., vols. xxxv, xxxvi.

SMS: His son was bDeskyong rnam rgyal (c. 1720—1740 Fol. 31a. A.D.).

Notes: For a song on little prince bDe skyong, see Lad. Songs, No. xvi, 'The girl of Sheh.' According to an inscription at Alchi, he restored the outer court of the rNampar snang mdzad temple at Alchi.

SMS: His son was Phun theogs [rnam rgyal] (c. 1740—1760 A.D.).

Notes: He ordered a rock sculpture of Buddha to be carved in the Mang rgyu valley. The inscription below the sculpture is found in my Second Coll. of Hist. Inscr., No. 113.

SMS: His sons were The dbang rnam rgyal (c. 1760—1780 A.D.) and Mi'ajigs the brtan rnam rgyal, the two. The elder son reigned in Ladakh, and the younger in Zangskhar.

Notes: As regards the second son, there is no mention of him in K. Marx's 'Three Documents.' According to inscriptions, Thee dbang

restored the Likir monastery after a fire; and the restoration of the Mang rgyu monastery was apparently also carried out during his reign.

SMS: The dbang rnam rgyal had two sons. As the life of the first son (The brtan rnam rgyal, c. 1780—1790 A.D.) was not firm (he died soon), the younger one, The dpal mi a'gyur dongrub rnam rgyal [reigned],—(c. 1790 1841).

Notes: As regards Thee brian, his reign was compared favourably with that of his younger brother in the seditious placard at Leh in Moorcroft's time. A song treating of his playing polo in the Murtse garden at Leh has not yet been published. As regards Thee dpal's reign, the country was visited by Moorcroft during that time, 1820—1822. Moorcroft mentions a war between Ladakh and Baltistan, vol. I, p. 336. He was asked to interfere. A Tibetan document referring to this war was published by myself in my article: Historische Documente von Khalatse, ZDMG, vol. lxi. A tender of allegiance from the Ladakhis to the British Government was communicated by Moorcroft, but not accepted by the East India Company. A letter from the Czar of Russia to the King of Ladakh was shown to Moorcroft. Trebeck witnessed a war between Kulu and Ladakh, see Moorcroft, vol. i, p. 456, vol. ii, pp. 63, 64. As regards the army of Rastanpas which I explained as an army from Lower Ladakh, Dr. Hutchison points out to me that it was in reality the army of Ratanu of Padar. I also made a mistake when I treated Rabstan rnam rgyal and mChog sprul rnam rgyal as two different princes. They seem to be different names of the same person. Rabstan probably received the name mChog sprul when he was found out to be an incarnation of Bilva rdorie.

PART IX.—THE HISTORY OF THE DOGRA WARS.

SMS: During the time of his (The dpal's) son mChoggi sprul sku, the army of the Sing (Dogras) tampered with his minister (Ngos grub bstan 'adzin), and robbed the king of his dominions.

Notes on SMS: As we know from Thee brtan's account of the Dogra war, prince mChog sprul was made regent of Ladakh a short time before Zorawar overran the country. It is interesting to see that in the mind of the writer of SMS it was the faithlessness of the minister that

brought on the ruin of the Ladakhi kingdom.

General Notes: An interesting song on 'minister Ngos grub betan adzin in prison' is among my collection of historical folklore. A Sanskrit inscription in the Chigtan monastery evidently refers to the Dogra war. It speaks of an army and the crossing of a river on inflated skins. Rayim Khan of Chigtan, the hero of the 'Polo Song,' Ladakhi Songs, No. III, is probably identical with Rayim Khan of Chigtan, of whose tragic fate we hear in the history of the Dogra wars. The raja of Baltistan, Ahmed Khan, who was taken to Lhasa as a prisoner, evidently returned to Kashmir State territory. His grave is shown in Kishtawar. A portrait of Ahmed Khan is found in Vigne's Travels. In Sherring's 'Western Tibet' is reproduced a photo called 'Zorawar's grave,' taken near Taklakar. As Dr. Longstaff points out, the ruin at Taklakar looks far too old to be Zorawar's grave. He connects the ruin with Haidar's Tibetan campaign in 1532 A.D. According to the most recent edition of K. Marx's CMS, Zorawar was actually accompanied by his wife on his Tibetan campaign. A full account of the Dogra wars, 1834—1842 A.D., is found in my 'History of Western Tibet.'

PART X.-LADAKH AFTER THE DOGRA WARS.

SMS: His $(mChog \ sprul's)$ son a'Jigsmed choskyi sengge mi 'agyur kun $dg\bar{a}$ rnam rgyal is this one (the present ex-king).

Notes: This last sentence means that the ex-king of Ladakh, who was alive in Schlagintweit's time, was in possession of the long name 'aJigsmed, etc. It was he who as a boy of seven years, reigned at Leh for six weeks, after Zorawar's death. It was he who in 1856 refused to let Schlagintweit have a copy of the rGyalrabs, until valuable presents had been made to him. If I am not mistaken, 'aJigsmed is the father of the present ex-king bSod nams rnam rgyal.

34. Discovery of Abhisamayalamkara by Maitreyanatha.

By Mahāmahopādhyāya Haraprasāda Shāstrī.

Rājā Rājendra Lāla Mittra edited the Asta Sāhasrikā Praiñâpāramitā from six manuscripts. I have also examined a score of manuscripts of this work, ancient and modern, some of them written during the reigns of the Pala kings of Bengal. In all of them twenty-one verses precede the prose and we, all of us, thought that the twenty-one verses are a part and parcel of the work, but in 1907 when in Nepala I got a very dilapidated old manuscript on palm-leaf of this work in which the prose is preceded by हतिरियं राज्य भइस्य। This for the first time opened my eyes to the fact that the Prajñāpāramitās are all in prose, the verses are different works. But I wondered what Rāhula Bhadra's Kṛti could be. All previous leaves of this manuscript were gone, and so I began to look more carefully and found four letters preceding the statement " क्रिकार राज्यसम्बद्ध "। These letters are "सनिह सा"। And I found in R. Mittra's edition, those to be the last letters of the twentieth verse. the first twenty verses in Rajendra Lāla Mittra's edition are a work by Rāhula Bhadra in praise of P. P. The twenty-first verse is a mere ' पाल्यित ' and can be composed by any one but the author.

This encouraged me to examine the manuscripts of other recensions of Prajñāpāramitā, and I took up the Pañcavinsatisāhasrikā Prajňāpāramitā, which, in Rajendra Lal's and Bendall's descriptions, begin with verses. The verses continue for many pages, and there are colophons indicating chapters. That increased my wonder. It cannot be a hymn like that of Rāhula Bahadra, and I continued turning over the pages, till I came to the last colophon of the versified portion. इति वीमैनेयनाथविरचिते चभिसमयालक्षारणास्त्रे प्रक्रापारमिनौपरेची चहसोऽधायः। Then the prose began एवं मया अतमेकचिन समये भगवान etc. "अभिग्नयालकार" which was Evidently the versified work was designed for interpreting Prajñāpāramitā, and it was by Maitreyanatha. I turned over the leaves, and when I came to the last leaf I found a statement to the effect that 25,000 Prajñapāramitā is a recast according to the teaching of Abhisamayālamkara, and, according to the numbers of the chapters of that work, was divided into eight chapters. Of what recension of the Prajñāpāramitā it is a recast cannot be positively stated; but in all probability it is the Aṣṭaṣāhasrikā recension in thirty-two chapters or parīvartas which has been recast. I have not compared the two recensions, and that I leave to future explorers.

Referring to Nanjio's catalogue of the Chinese Tripitaka. I find that the Pancavinsatisāhasrikā Prajnāpāramitā was twice translated into Chinese between 265 and 316 A.D., and in both these cases, Nanjio notes "with the first chapter on." The book is in eight chapters. What does Nanjio mean by that state-If it means anything it means that the translation Maitreyanātha's work. The next translation by included Kumārājīva was made some time before Huientsang's translation between A.D. 384 and 417. But in the description of that translation, the statement "with the first chapter on" does not appear. Kumārājīva was an Indian Pandita. He knew where to commence a translation of Prajñāpāramitā, while his predecessors, being Chinese, translated the work from the manuscript placed before them, which had Maitreyanātha's work added to it.

The antiquity of the translation shows the antiquity of the work. The Prajñāpāramitās are written in the form of a dialogue between Buddha and his followers. They begin in the traditional form:— एवं मया जुतमेकिश्चन् समये भगवन् etc. But they are really the works of Nāgārjuna. It is said that he had recovered them from the nether world. In some Prajñāpāramitā manuscripts it is written at the end नागाइज नेन पातासाइब्रा, as if they were lost to this world and Nāgārjuna recovered them.

Nāgārjuna is said to have flourished 50 years after Kanişka's great council, that is, about the middle of the second century A.D. Maitreyanātha, therefore, must have flourished between 150 and 265 A.D.

My friend Mr. Yamakami tells me that many scholars in China and Japan consider Maitreyanātha to be a hypothetical person, like Avalokitešvara and others, and not a historical person; and that he was brought to being by Asañga in the beginning of the fifth century, and that the works attributed to him are really the works of Asañga. This is clearly disproved by the existence of this work and of its translation into Chinese, at least 100 years before Asañga. The statements made in Sadajiro Sigiura's book entitled Hindu Logic also disprove this theory. For, he says that Nāgārjuna believed in four pramāṇas, namely—(1) Prtyakṣa, (2) Anúmāna, (3) Upamāna, and (4) Sabda. Maitreyanātha discarded Upamāna, and Dinnāga discarded Sabda, leaving only two pramāṇas in the later Buddhist philosophy. This statement shows that Maitreyanātha was a historical personage.

[N.S.]

In Nanjio's catalogue, ten works are attributed to Maitrevanātha. The fact that Pancavinsatisāhasrikā was so early translated into Chinese, coupled with the fact that it was so often translated, shows the popularity of the school founded by Maitrevanātha in China. In India, too, his doctrines seem to have been very popular, as even so late as the reign of Dharmapala in Bengal the Astasāhasrikā Praiñāpāramitā was commented upon by Haribhadra in the light of the teachings of Maitreva, and the commentary is entitled Abhisamavalamkara valoka. In the second or the third century Astasāhasrikā was recast according to the teachings of Maitreva; but in the ninth century a commentary was written for the same purpose. the commentary it is stated that the division in chapters of the original is preserved in the commentary, implying that the commentary is intended to replace the Pañcavinsati Sāhasrikā.

In noticing the manuscript of Pañcavinsatisāhasrikā. Dr. R. Mittra could not find that another work was embodied in it. Professor Bendall noticed that there was another work. But he thinks it is an introductory work. He didn't grasp that it was according to this small treatise that P. P. has been recast.

But he did not grasp why the strange colophon is given there. So the Abhisamayalamkara eluded the research of two such eminent scholars for nearly 30 years.

The word Abhisamaya is the same as Abhidharma. The Hinayanists used the latter word, while the Mahayanists used The word 'alamkāra' in Buddhist literature meant the former. So Abhisamayalamkara means the exposition of exposition. philosophy.

35. The Kotwalipārā Spurious Grant of Samācāra Deva.

By RAKHAL DAS BANERJI, with a Prefatory Note by Mr. H. E. STAPLETON, B.A., Inspector of Schools, Dacca.

NOTE.

The principal feature of the bil country lying in the S. W. of Faridpur district is the finely preserved fortification of Kotwalipārā, the mud walls of which are each about 2 miles long and 20 to 30 feet high. Early in 1908, in the course of a tour of inspection in Bakargani and Southern Faridpur, I had the opportunity of visiting the locality in company with an Assistant Settlement Officer, Babu Kālipada Maitra, and as the result of my request that he should look out for coins, and copper plates similar to the one described in the Journ. Asiatic Soc. Bengal for 1896, pp. 6-15, by Babu Nagendranath Basu, that is alleged to have come from the village of Piñjuri close to and outside the south-west corner of the fortification, Kalipada Babu forwarded to me later, in 1908, the rubbings of two Gupta coins, and the copper-plate that forms the subject of Babu Rakhaldas Banerji's note. A cast of one Gupta coin now in my possession, belonging to Skanda Gupta, was exhibited with the copper-plate at the Society's Conversazione last January, and the other coin is dealt with in a recent paper on Eastern Bengal and Assam history (Journ. Asiatic Soc. Bengal, 1909, Contributions 1, p. 142). copper-plate was at first entrusted to Mahāmahopādhyaya Haraprasad Sastri who, with the help of Pandit Nilmani Chakravarti, roughly deciphered it and read the date as being 44 of the Sri Harsha era (= 651 A.D.). He added, however. that, in the opinion of the late Dr. Bloch, the plate was a kuta śāsana, or forgery. Babu Rakhaldas Banerji subsequently undertook to make a more thorough study of the plate, with the result that Dr. Bloch's opinion seems to be confirmed.

The plate is said to have been recently discovered about 9 inches under the surface of the ground by a cultivator while digging his holding at Ghāgrāhāti, a mauzā close to Piñjurī on the Ghāgar River which runs from north to south along the western $p\bar{a}r$ of the fortification. The names of the mauzās in the immediate vicinity bear no relation to the names given at the end of the fortification, but $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north, near the northwest corner of the fort, occur four mauzās, Ferdhara (to the south of the village and thana Ghāgarhāt), Koakha (to the northeast of the same village), Parkunāhāt (within the fort at the

N.-W. angle), and Kujbon (a large mauzā, of which the southern boundary is the northern $p\bar{a}r$). The first two appear to be the modern representatives of $Vidy\bar{a}dhara\ Jogik\bar{a}$ and $Chandra\ Varmma\ Kogaka$ respectively, and indicate that the original deposit-spot of the copper-plate under consideration was, near the place where the old road from Ghāgrāhāt to Gaurnadi (in N.-E. Bakarganj) still passes through the western $p\bar{a}r$.

The plate is interesting as dating from before the time of the Sena Kings, though it is disappointing that no light is thrown on the question as to who was the builder of the $p\bar{a}rs$. The discovery of the Gupta coins in villages lying close to the western $p\bar{a}r$ may be taken, however, as proof that the fortification dates back to at least Gupta times, as, apart from the $p\bar{a}rs$, there is nothing in the surrounding bil country to induce invaders from the N.-E. to visit the place. The history of the locality will form the subject of a later paper.

H. E. S.

The plate was sent to me at Mussoorie by Mr. H. E. Stapleton in September, 1908. It was sent back in November from Lucknow for the Society's Conversazione. The plate was finally handed over to me for publication in July 1909. Mr. Stapleton has recorded the provenance in the prefatory note. The discovery of the copper-plate and the gold coin in the mounds of the outskirts of Kotwalipara is of great interest, as it proves beyond doubt that there was an ancient settlement at this place centuries prior to the Mussalman conquest. Kotwalipārā or Kotālīpādā is at present known as one of the oldest Brahmana colonies in Bengal. Prof. Nilmani Chakravartti wrote to me while I was at Lucknow that the late Dr. Bloch had pronounced the grant to be a forgery. Dr. Bloch himself told me a short time before his death, that he considered the grant to be a forgery. Nothing seems irregular in the script or the date at first. The script belongs to the period when acute-angled characters were beginning to be used in North-Eastern India, and the ancient Gupta alphabet of the Eastern variety was gradually becoming out of date. date also is not irregular, the year 34 of the Harsa era = 640-41 A.D. also suiting the palæography. After prolonged examination I found some of the minor irregularities in the script:-

(1) In all cases, the letter ha, when it occurs singly, is of the form generally to be found in early Gupta inscriptions of the Western variety and shows no acute angle at the bottom. But when it is used in a compound letter it has the form to be found in early Gupta characters of the Eastern variety, which is to be found in the Allahabad Asoka-pillar inscription of Samudra Gupta 1 and the Dhanāidaha grant of Kumāragupta I. In

¹ Fleet's Gupta Inscriptions, p. 1. 2 See ante, vol. v. p. 459.

a previous number of the Journal I have tried to establish that the Eastern variety of the early Gupta alphabet was dying out in the early decades of the fifth century. The Patiākellā grant of Sivarāja 1 and the Bodh-Gayā inscription of Mahānāman 2 prove that the elimination of the Eastern variety of the fourth century alphabet was complete by the end of the sixth century A.D. This conclusion is further borne out by the Mūndeśvarī Inscription of Udayasena 3 and the Ganjām plate of the time of Saśānkarāja. 4 Moreover the ha of the Western variety occurring singly and that of the Eastern variety occurring in compounds (hma in brāhmana in line 11 and line 14), are hardly in keeping with the general tone of the characters of the inscriptions. But I shall have to dilate on this point later on.

- (2) In all cases, the long $\bar{\imath}$ has the form generally to be found in the Eastern variety of the early Gupta alphabet. The most conspicuous case is the $\bar{\imath}$ in $J\bar{\imath}vadatta$ in line 4 and to some extent $\bar{\imath}$ in $Kesav.\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}n$ in line 15. But in a genuine inscription of the Harsa year 34 one expects long $\bar{\imath}$ of the looped form to be found in the Mūṇḍeśvarī Inscription or the Ganjām grant.
- (3) There are two cases of the occurrence of the short in its single form, and in each case it has a different form. The in icchāmy-aham in line 9 consists of two dots, one above the other, and vertical straight line to the proper left. The in icchato in line 14 consists of two dots, placed side by side with a horizontal straight line below them. The usual form of i in inscriptions of the first half of the seventh century is to be found in the two copper-plate grants of Harsavarddhana and the Ganjām plate of the time of Sasānkarāja. This consists of two dots or circles placed side by side and a curved line below them.
- (4) Many of the characters of this inscription exhibit fourth century or early Gupta forms. In the majority of cases the letter ma has the hooked form to be found in the Bhāradi Dih Linga inscription. The bipartite ya looks ill side by side with sa, ja and ha (when it occurs alone), in which no acute angle can be traced.
- (5) La as a subscript letter occurs only once and resembles the hooked la of the Eastern variety. In this inscription la in all other cases resembles the la of the Western variety of the Gupta alphabet.
- (6) Da has two forms when occurring in the same compound nda:—c.f. Suvarnda in line 3 and mandale in line 4 with Vatsakunda in line 7 and Janarddaka-kunda in line 8. In

¹ Ep. Ind., vol. ix, p. 285.

² Fleet's Gupta Inscriptions, p. 274, pl. xlia.

³ Ep. Ind., vol. ix, p. 289. 4 Ibid., vol. vi, p. 143.

the last two cases the compound has the form to be found in all Northern Indian inscriptions from the second to seventh century A.D.

(7) The scribe has made a serious mistake in using some eighth century characters of the Northern variety in the word Parkkati in line 19. The letter pa in the word does not resemble the remaining ones, which are usually rectangular in form, seldom showing an acute angle. In this letter, the righthand vertical and the horizontal straight lines of the letter have merged into a single curve. The earliest occurrence of this form of pa is to be found in inscriptions of the seventh and eighth centuries A.D. But the more important piece of evidence is to be found in the second syllable rkka. This consists of two looped kas and a superscript ra. But even in the Banskhera and Madhuban plates of Harsavarddhana, which are inscribed with characters so cursive and at the same time the execution is so very beautiful that they may be taken to represent the current script of the period, the looped form of ka in the sixth century A.D. are to be found in the Bodh-Gayā Inscription of Mahānāman and the Ganjām plates of the time of S'aśānka.

This form of ka becomes fairly common from the last quarter of the seventh century A.D. and afterwards.

Thus, we find that the characters used in this copperplate inscription were collected from alphabets in use in three different centuries:—

- (1) The alphabet of the third and the first half of the fourth century A.D., c.f. ha in hma and la in sloka. The form of ma shows that it was copied from the early Gupta alphabet of the Eastern variety.
- (2) The alphabet of the last half of the fifth century and the first half of the sixth century A.D. of North-Eastern India. The absence of acute angles in ja. pa, ha and la shows that the alphabet of the period of the Mūṇḍeśvarī inscription was also included.
- (3) The regular alphabet of the sixth century with its profusion of acute angles is also very conspicuous. This alphabet came into general use in North-Eastern India in the earlier part of the seventh century A.D.

Apart from the paleographical evidence, the wording of the inscription itself is sufficient to prove that it is a forgery.

The formula of a regular grant of land as is to be found in majority of copper-plate inscriptions may be divided into three separate parts:—

(1) The first portion may be either in prose or verse and generally gives the genealogy of the king or eulogium on him.

¹ Fleet's Gupta Inscriptions, p. 274, pl. xlia: Epi. Ind., vol. vi, 143.

In shorter grants this portion is written in prose and gives the

titles of the king.

(2) The second portion is invariably written in prose and contains the announcement of the grant to the various officers concerned. This portion also contains the details about the grant, e.g., the particular division, district or sub-division in which the land or village granted was situated.

(3) Some imprecatory verses generally taken from some of the Dharma Sastras are added at the end. In some cases

the date is given after these imprecatory verses.

This grant differs from the majority of copper-plate grants discovered up to date in the following particulars:

(1) The king does not seem to be the donor, or to have consented, or to have sanctioned the grant.

The name of the donor cannot be made out from the

wording of this grant.

(3) The officers concerned in a particular grant are never mentioned by name: at least no such instance has been discovered up to date.

(4) Supratikasvāmī seems to be the agent by whom the various officers mentioned in lines 4 to 8 are informed about the grant. But the very same man is again mentioned in line The construction of this line is ambiguous, but it seems that he is the man to whom the grant was made. For example, compare the statement in lines 9 to 12, where he says, "By your grace I intend to settle for ever in order to spread the sacrificial rites in this world." The wording of this line too is also very ambiguous, and I am not quite sure as to the exactness of the above translation. Such a statement, viz., the expression of the grantee's intention, is very odd in the wording of a copper-plate grant and, so far as I know, has not been met with before. The employment of the recipient of a grant as a Dūtaka is again extremely unusual, and I believe no such case has been met with up to date.

The wording of the copper-plate, as I have already stated, is very ambiguous, and it cannot be made out who is the real donor. It is quite certain that the king mentioned in line 2 is not the donor. The grant may have been made by the officers mentioned on the obverse, but this is not certain. In any case, when a subordinate officer, or a number of officers, or a private personage makes a grant, it is absolutely necessary to obtain the royal sanction to it. Similar cases have already been met with: compare the Kamauli grant of the Singara Chief Vatsa-

rāja of the Vikrama year $1191 = 1134 \text{ A.D.}^{1}$

The contents of lines 12 and 13 are quite unintelligible. Here and there words of Sanskritic origin are to be found

¹ Epi. Ind., vol. iv, p. 131.

mixed up with what seems to be unintelligible gibberish. The scribe's object most probably was to create an impression by using high-sounding words. Dr. Bloch seems to have deciphered these two lines in a different manner, but I do not think he succeeded in interpreting them. We have a mention of a forged grant in the Madhuban grant of Harsavarddhana, in which we find that the king, finding that a Brāhmaṇa named Vāmarathya was enjoying a village named Somakuṇḍaka in the Sravasti bhūkti by holding a forged grant, confiscated the village and granted it to another man in the 25th year of his reign, i.e., 631-32 A.D. The wording of the 10th line of the plate is quite clear.

"Somakundakagramo Brāhmana Vāmarathyena kūtašasanena bhuktaka iti vicārya yatas-tac-chāsanam bhanktvā

tasmādaksipva ca."1

The inscription is incised on a thin plate of copper measuring $8\frac{1}{4}'' \times 4\frac{3}{4}''$. There is a projection to the proper right of the inscription to which the seal was attached. The seal itself has now disappeared revealing a triangular slit, the object of which is inexplicable to me. Round holes are to be found in grants which are incised on two or more plates, and the ring holding together these plates passes through these holes, but these holes are always round, and I do not remember having ever seen or heard of an angular hole in a copper-plate. The average height of the letters are $\frac{3}{8}''$. The record is incised on both sides of the plate, the obverse bearing 12 lines and the reverse 11. The orthography scarcely needs any comment, but the following forms should be noted:—

(1) The Suvarnda in line 3 was most probably meant to be Suvarna.

(2) Vyavahānaścha is most probably equivalent to Vyava-

hārinas-ca.

(3) The word Patacca in line 16 seems to be the Prakrit form of Praticya. The use of this word is another argument against the genuineness of the grant. The language of the grant is incorrect Sanskrit. Another strong argument against the genuineness of the grant is that the scribe wanted to put extra stress on the word Tāmrapatta. It has been used at least thrice, and it seems that the owner of the plate was overanxious to get the plate established as a regular grant; compare line 11 नावपद्गीकृत्य. lines 15—16 प्राक्तावपद्गीकृत्य and line 17 सप्रतीकृत्वामिनः नावपद्गीकृत्य प्रतिपादितः।

Nothing is known at present about Samācāradeva, the king in whose reign the grant purports to have been issued. The date at the end of the grant is 34, and this should be re-

¹ Epi. Ind., vol. vii, p. 158.

ferred to the Harsa era and not to the Gupta era. It must be admitted that a large number of letters of the Eastern variety of the early Gupta alphabets has been used in this grant, but the general tendency of the characters show that the scribe intended to use the acute-angled alphabets of the sixth and sixth century A.D. If this supposition is correct then the date of the grant is the 1st of Kārtika of the Harsa year 34, i.e., 640 A.D. I may note in this connection that the date has been differently read by two different scholars.

Prof. Nilmani Chakravarti of the Presidency College read this date as 44, but this can hardly be the case, as the letter la has always been used to denote the numeral 30. In another grant I have noticed that any other compound formed with

the letter la also denotes the same numeral.

The late Dr. Bloch read the date to be 14, but I believe I have already adduced sufficient proof to establish my reading. In the year 640 Emperor Harsavarddhana of Thanesvara was alive and was in undisputed possession of Northern India from the Panjab to Assam. At this time the existence of an independent monarch, as is indicated by the title Mahārājādhirāja. in Eastern Bengal can hardly be credited unless substantiated by epigraphs. I edit the inscription from the original plate.

TEXT.

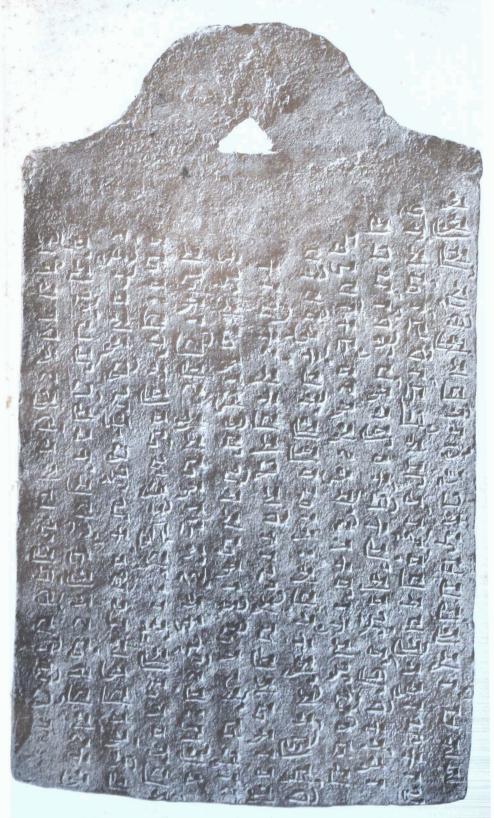
Obverse.

- १। सस्यस्याम्म् थिथाम्मतिर्धे न्या-नज्जव-ययात्यम्बरीष सम-
- २ । ध्रतां महाराजाधिराज श्रीसमाचारदेवे प्रतपत्येतञ्चर्या कर्ल
- १। यगकाराधनोपात्त नव्यावकाण्मिकायां सुवर्णे वाष्ट्याधिस्रतान्त-
- ४। प्र उपरिक जीवरत्तस्तदनुमोदित कवारकमगढुले विषय-
- पति पविचुको यतोस्य खवद्दारतः सुप्रतीकस्वामिना नेप्रष्टाधि-
- ६। करिंगक दामुक प्रमुखमधिकरणिव्वषयमञ्चर वस-
- ७। कुराइ मञ्चतर श्रुचिपालित मञ्चतर विश्वितघोष श्रूरद
- ८। महत्तर प्रियदत्त महत्तर जनाईनकुग्हादय अन्ये च
- ८ । बष्टवः प्रधाना खवष्टा[रि]गास्त विज्ञाप्ता इच्छाम्यहं भवता[ं] प्रसा
- १०। दाचिरो वसम्रखिल भूखाएलक बलि चरु सच प्रवर्त्तायीय
- ११। ब्राह्मसोपया गायच तामपट्टीकृत्य तदहैं [य] चा प्रसाद कच
- १२ । मिति यत धनदस्यर्थनस्पत्तस्य सं यो परितित्वता

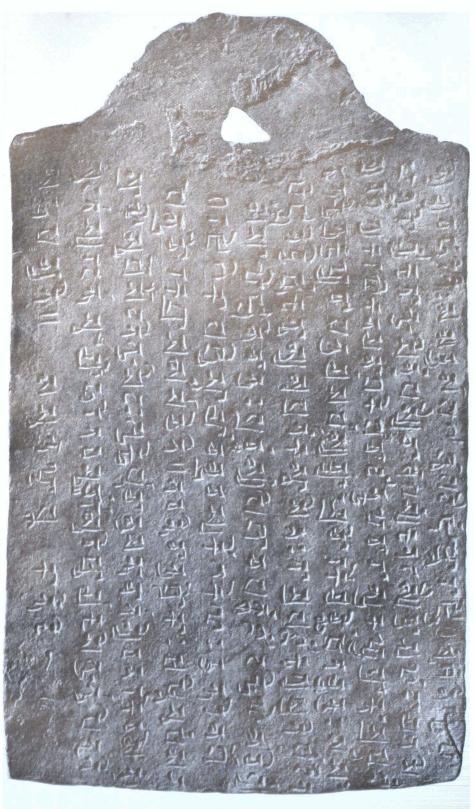
¹ Epi. Ind., vol. ix, p. 288.

Reverse.

- १२ न्य व्यवहारिभिः समन्य (?) सापटी (?) श्वापदी (?) जे (?) छा राची धर्मार्थ निर्मात
- १४ । इन्हतो वा(१)कता भूमिं त्रपस्यैवार्थधर्मा क्षतदसी ब्राह्मणादायतामि
- १५। त्यवध्य करियाक नयनामके प्रवादी न्कुल चारान् प्रकल्य प्राक्तास्त्रपट्टी
- १६ । क्वाय चित्र कुल्य (?) वाषत्रयं मपास्य याष्ट्रचीर कौयच्छि पतच भुःसीमा
- 🏸 🕦 बिङ्गा निर्द्धिं कलास्य सुप्रतीकास्त्रिमनः ताम्पृष्टीकृत्य प्रतिपादित
- १८ । सीमालिङ्गानि चाचः पूर्वस्यां विशाचपर्कट्टी दिल्लाने विद्या-
- १८ । धरजोगिका पश्चिमायां चन्द्रवर्म्मकोगकेनः उत्तरेश गो
- २०। पेन्द्रचोरक ग्रामसीमाचेति ॥ भवन्ति चान्द्र श्लोकाः विश्ववर्ष सप्त
- २१ | स्वाश्य सर्गे मोदित भूमिदः च्यास्तेष्ता चानुमन्ता वा तान्येव नरके वसेत [॥]
- २२ । सदत्ताम्यरदत्ताम्बा यो इरित वस्त्यरां स्वविष्ठाया(') क्रामिभूत्वा पित्रिभ ।
- २३। सह प्रचाति ॥ सम्बत् ३०, ४, कार्ति दि १ ॥



The Kotwalipara grant.—Obverse.



The Kotwalipara grant.—Reverse.

The Marsden MSS. in the British Museum.

By W. R. PHILIPPS and H. BEVERIDGE.

Edited by Rev. H. Hosten, S.J.

The importance of the Marsden MSS. for the history of the Catholic Missions in India will strike anyone who studies Mr. E. D. Maclagan's Jesuit Missions to the Emperor Akbar. In 1896, Mr. E. D. Maclagan published some of the original letters of the Jesuit Missionaries in the Mogul Empire (1580-1605), though it is a matter of some regret that he did not translate them fully. but only in so far as he considered them specially significant from a historical point of view. By way of compensation, we were given to understand that the Marsden MSS. contained much that is of interest for the subsequent period of the Jesuit Missions in North India.

Curiosity prompted us to find out what other documents the Marsden collection contains, and Mr. H. Beveridge was kind enough to send us a short report, which he obligingly allowed us to publish. This was three years ago, and we have lost little in delaying the publication of his note; for, learning the interest we took in the matter, the Right Rev. Bishop A. E. Medlycott now places at our disposal some notes made for him by Mr. W. Rees Philipps in June 1892.

Our share in the present work is therefore quite a modest one, all the honour of it redounding on Mr. W. R. Philipps and Mr. H. Beveridge. As the two writers break ground in different directions, their parts in this memorandum will easily be distinguished.

We begin by examining Mr. W. R. Philipps' report. foot-notes are ours.

* *

1 Cf. Journ. As. Soc. Bengal, 1896, No. 1, pp. 38-115. From notes

recorded by his father, Gen. R. Maclagan.

² E. D. Maclagan published: (a) an original letter of Fr. Jerome Xavier (Agra, Sept. 1604), Brit. Mus. Marsden MSS. 9854, foll. 7-19; (b) a letter of Fr. Emmanuel Pinheiro to Manuel da Veiga, Provincial at Goa (Lahore, Aug. 12, 1605), Brit. Mus. Marsden MSS. 9854; (c) extracts from a letter of Fr. Anthony Botelho, Brit. Mus. Marsden MSS. 9855; (d) a farman of Akbar to the Provincial at Goa (in the Moon of Febr. 1583), Brit. Mus. Marsden MSS. 9854, fol. 5.—None of these documents is noticed by Fr. C. Sommervogel, S.J., in his Biblioth. de la Comp. de Jésus, Bruxelles, O. Schepens, 10 vols., 1890-1909.

The Marsden MSS. consist of 10 folio volumes numbered from 9852 to 9861 in *Catalogue of Additional Manuscripts* (Brit. Mus.), Vol. I (1828—41), Nos. 6666—12,229.

No. 9852 bears as title: Sumario de las cousas que pertencen a la Provincia de la India Oriental y al govierno della, compuesto por el Padre Alexandro Valignano, Visitador della, y dirigido a R. Provincial general Everardo Mercuriano en al año de 1579. Folio.

Summary of the things pertaining to the Province of East India and its government, composed by Fr. Alexander Valignano, its Visitor, and sent to the Rev. Everard Mercurian, Provincial General, in the year 1579.

No. 9853 is:—A Collection of Annual Reports relative to the state of the Portuguese Jesuit Missions in the East Indies; of various dates, from 1601 to 1659. Portuguese. Folio.

Nos. 9854 and 9855 are:—A Collection of Letters and Papers relative to the state of the Portuguese Missions in the East Indies; of various dates, from 1582 to 1693. Portuguese. 2 Vols. Folio.

No. 9856:—" Apologia e resposta feita pello Padre Valentim Carvalho, da companhia de Jesus, provincial nesta provincia de Japão e China, a hum tradado do Padre Fr. Sebastiaõ de S. Pedro, da ordem de S. Francesco, que se intitula Recupilacā das causas porque o Emperador de Japão desteron de seus reinos todos os padres." Folio.

Apology and answer by Father Valentine Carvalho, of the Society of Jesus, Provincial in this Province of Japan and China, to a treatise by Father Fr. Sebastian de S. Pedro, of the Order of St. Francis, entitled: Summary of the reasons why the Emperor of Japan banished all the Fathers from his dominions.²

No. 9857:—" Libro primero del principio y progresso de la Religion Christiana en Jappon, y de la especial providencia de que nuestro Señor usa con aquella nueva Iglesia: compuesto por el Padre Alexandro Valignano, de la compañia de Jesus, en el año 1601." Folio.

Book the first of the beginnings and progress of Christianity in Japan, and of the especial care taken by Our Lord of this

¹ Fr. C. Sommervogel, S.J., mentions among Fr. Valignani's MSS. one with the same title, the year being 1580, and "Provincial general" being replaced by "P. General." (Evora Library, Catal. dos MSS. I, pp. 327-8). Cf. Biblioth. de la C. de J., Vol. VIII, Col. 406, D.

2 Mentioned by Fr. C. Sommervogel, S.J. (Bibl. de la C. de J., Vol. II, Col. 792, A.), as in the British Museum.

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new Church: composed by Fr. Alex. Valignano, of the Society of Jesus, in the year 1601.

No. 9858:—'' Certidaō do Senhor Dom Pedro, Bispo de Japaō, açerca do estado da quella nova igreia, 17 Nov. 1597;—Outra certidaō do Capitaō mor da viagem de Japaō, 1597;—Relaçaō do triste succeso e perda da naō S. Phelipe;—Relaçao da morte de seis religiosos descalços do ordem de S. Francesco e outros 17 Christaōs Japoes que Taicosama mandou crucificar e Nangasaqui;

Relacion de las cosas de Japon, 1597;—Apuntamentos sobre o remedio da Christandad de Jappaõ para se aprezentare ao Señor Visorey;—Tratado que os religiosos de S. Francesco espalharaõ em Goa e em Baçaim no anno de 1598, contra os padres da Comp! de Jesus que andaõ na conversaõ de Jappaõ;—Certidaõ que o Bispo de Jappaõ, Dom Pedro Martinez, passou acerqua da morte dos religiosos e Christaos que foraõ crucificados em Japaõ no anno de 1597;—Apollogia en la qual se responde a diversas calumnias que se escrivieron contra los padres de la Companhia de Jesus de Japon y de la China, hecha por el Padre Alexandro Valignano." Folio.

Memorandum by His Lordship Dom Pedro, Bishop of Japan, concerning the state of that Church, 17 Nov. 1597;— 2. Other memorandum by the Captain-Major concerning the voyage to Japan, 1597; -3. Relation of the sad fortune and loss of the St. Philip:—4. Relation of the death of six Discalced Friars of the Order of St. Francis, and 17 other Japanese Christians whom Taicosama had crucified at Nangasagui; -5. Relation on the affairs of Japan, 1597;—6. Notes concerning the help to be given to the Mission of Japan, to be presented to His Excellency the Viceroy; -7. Tract which the Religious of St. Francis spread at Goa and Baçaim in 1598 against the Fathers of the Society of Jesus who labour for the conversion of Japan: 8. Memorandum sent by Dom Pedro Martinez, Bishop of Japan, concerning the death of the Religious and Christians crucified in Japan, in 1597;—9. Apology by Fr. Alex. Valignano in answer to divers calumnies written against the Fathers of the Society of Jesus in Japan and China.

No. 9859 is:—''A Collection of Annual Reports relative to the state of the Jesuit Missions in Japan; of various dates, from 1585 to 1625.'' Partly Spanish, partly Portuguese.

¹ Id. Cf. Ibid., Vol. VIII, col. 406, A. The second part is in the Ajuda Library, MS. 25/12 from foll. 244 to 420.

² References to Fr. C. Sommervogel, S.J., op. cit., X, Coll. 1545-1549, and Fr. A. Carayon's Biblioth. Historique de la C. de J., Paris, 1864, will show that several of these documents have appeared in print. Nos. 4 and 8 are probably reproduced in No. 4, Col. 655, of C. Sommervogel, op. cit., Vol. V, editions of which appeared at Madrid in 1599 and 1601, at Rome in 1599; No. 9 is B of Col. 406, C. Sommervogel, Vol. V.

No. 9860:—A Collection of miscellaneous Papers and Letters relative to the Portuguese Jesuit Missions in Japan and the East Indies; of various dates, from 1593 to 1686. Partly Spanish, partly Portuguese. Folio.

No. 9861:—''Historia de Ethiopia a alta, ou Abassia, imperio do Abexim, cujo Rey vulgarmente hecha mado [Read: he chamado] Preste Joam; composta pelo Padre Manoel de Almeida da Companhia de Jesus, natural de Viseu.'' Folio.'

Below the above entries are the words:—Presented by William Marsden, Esq.

Mr. P. was anxious to know how Marsden became possessed of these papers, many of which appear to be originals. In many cases they bear the original seals and the addresses, so that one can see exactly how they were originally folded up and fastened, when despatched. He examined carefully A brief Memoir of the Life and Writings of the late William Marsden, D.C.L., F.R.S., &c., &c., written by himself: with notes from his correspondence, London, 1838; but, no reference is found in it to these MSS.

W. Marsden, born in 1754, was appointed writer to the E. I. Co., and landed at Fort Marlborough, Bencoolen, May 30, 1771. He returned to England in 1779, having spent all his time abroad in Sumatra. In 1785, he and his brother, who had also been in the service of the E. I. Co., opened an East India Agency business in London. Ten years later, William was appointed 2nd Secretary to the Admiralty, 1st Secretary in 1804, withdrawing from the service in 1807. In 1823, he joined in founding the Asiatic Society, London. He busied himself much with Indian coins and collecting Oriental Dictionaries and Grammars. On p. 171 of his Memoir, he mentions for the first time his collection of books and Eastern MSS., and adds: "The nature of this collection had already been made known by the publication of my Catalogue in the year 1827." Marsden died in 1836. The year before, he had presented the whole of his collection to King's College, London, where it is still kept apart under the title of 'The Marsden Library.' Why he made an exception in the case of the ten volumes of MSS, now in the British Museum, Mr. P. could not discover, even though he referred the matter to King's College. It may be remarked that they are not entered in his Catalogue of books and MSS, published in 1827. They appear in the

¹ C. Sommervogel, S.J., op. cit., Vol. I, ('oll. 193-194, mentions the MS. as at the British Museum. The work appeared at Coimbra in 1660. Cf. also Father Carayon's notes in Bibl. Histor. de la C. de J., Paris, 1864, No. 990.

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Catalogue of Additions to the British Museum, printed in 1835.

To come to particulars. As Mr. P.'s object was chiefly to find documents bearing on the history of the Syro-Malabar Church in the seventeenth century, he did not examine in detail No. 9852. The documents in it must be mostly Spanish. He only remarks pertinently that R. Provincial general must be a mistake for either R. Preposito general or R. Padre general.

No. 9853 is the volume with which Mr. P. was chiefly concerned. It is a bound volume of about foolscap size. The back is lettered as follows: Reports of the Jesuit Missions in India. 1601—1659 / Mus. Brit. / Presented by W. Marsden, Esq. / 9853 / Plut. CXXXIII, G. / At the beginning of the volume there is a table of contents, in Portuguese, with references to the pagination. This Mr. P. copied faithfully. The pagination requires, however, a word of explanation. There is a double numbering of the leaves or sheets, one in pencil from 1 to 173; another in ink. But, it is to be remarked that, besides foll. 1 to 173, there are a few blank ones which, though they bear old numbers in ink, are not numbered in pencil. Mr. P. went through part of the volume comparing the two paginations. We reproduce here the result of his labour.

Pencil Nos. Old ink Nos. Titles of Documents.

1.	None.	Index dos papeis que estão nesto livro.
		Index to the papers which are in
		this book.2
2 to 12.	423 to 433.	Anua da Vice Pra do Sul de 601.
		[P. 423 in Index.]
		Annual [Letter] of the Vice-Province of
		the South [i.e., Cochin] for 1601.
None.	434 to 436.	Three blank leaves belonging to pre-
		ceding document.
13 to 16	471 to 474.	Anua de Maluco e Amboino de 602.
		[P. 471 in Index.]
		Annual [Letter] of the Moluccas and
		Amboyna for 1602.
17 to 20.	475 to 478.	Algũas cousas de edificao do Pe. Nuno
		Roiz, Pr!, que foy desta Prou! e faleceo

We find that he possessed three rare Persian works of Fr. Jerome Xavier, S.J. Cf. Uri. Bib. Bodl. Cod. Cat., p. 270, and Bibl. Marsdeniana, p. 305. Quoted by Maclagan, Journ. As Soc. Beng. 1896, p. 113

p. 305. Quoted by Maclagan, Journ. As. Soc. Beng., 1896, p. 113.

² We copy below the fuller headings of the documents themselves rather than the entries in the Index on fol. 1.—Notice the gap between 436 and 471, to be partially filled in by foll. 461—470 below. Notice also that the old ink numbering after fol. 482 starts again from 471 and runs on continuously to the end. The volume seems then to contain portions of two collections.

sendo Ror deste Collego de S. P. a 2ª ves [?] em o pro de Marco de 604.

[P. 475 in Index.]

We translate: Some edifying particulars concerning Fathers Nuno Roiz [Rodriguez], who was Provincial of this Province and died on March 1, 1604, while for the second time Rector of this College of St. Paul. 1

None. 479 to 481. Three blank leaves belonging to preceding document.

21. 482.

Last or outside sheet of preceding document.

22 to 31. 461 to 470. Anua do Sul de 602. [P. 461 in Index.]

32 to 35. 471 to 474.

Annual Letter of the South for 1602. Relação da cristandade de S. Thome feita pello R. o Sor D. P. Francisco Roz, da Copa de Jesus, priro Bispo Latino da qtta i Xandade. [P. 471 in Index.] Account of the Christian Community of St. Thomas written by the Lord Bishop Father Francis Roz, of the Society of Jesus, first Latin Bishop of that Christian Community.3

Mr. P. did not go further in his comparison of the pencil and ink numberings. He gives us a copy of the remainder of the Index on fol. 1.

Annua do Sul do anno de 1603.

P. 475.

Annual [Letter] of the South for the year 1603. Annua do Sul de 1604 e 1605.

P. 501.

Relação da Christandade da Serra de 1604.

P. 525.

Account of the Christian Community of the Serra for 1604.

Annua do Sul de 1615.

P. 537.

Born at Evora; entered St. Roch's Novitrate, Lisbon, Jan. 7, 1560; sailed for India with Fr. Valignano and 37 other companions in 1574; was twice Rector of St. Paul's College, Goa, the first time for seven years, the second time for five; went as Procurator to Rome with the Japanese ambassadors in 1583; acted for a time as Socius to the Visitor, Fr. Nich. Pimenta; was five years Provincial of the Province of India; was proposed to the dignity of Bishop of Japan by Fr. Alex. Valignano; died at Gos, March 1, 1604, and was buried on the Gospel side of the principal chapel of St. Paul's Church, in the same grave as the former Provincials, Antonio de Quadros and Ruy Vicente. Cf. A. Franco, S.J., Imagem da Virtude em o Noviciado de Lisboa, Vol. II, pp. 332—36. Franco utilized a necrological notice sent from Goa by Fr. Francis de Sousa.

² Qsta(!) = questa.

³ The heading is not easy to read, the document being much damaged. It looks as if it had been in water. The ink has run. This Relação is dated: 1602. [Mgr. A. E. Medlycott.]

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Annua do Sul de 1619.

Annua de Madure de 1656, the [for athe, ate, till]
1659.

Annual [Letter] of Madura for 1656 to 1659.

Annua do Sul de 1613.

Annua do Sul de 1612.

P. 577.

P. 597.

"It will be seen from this Index what an important collection of papers is contained in this volume. . . . The reason
why I referred to the double numbering of the leaves, in
pencil (a complete series), and in ink (an incomplete series
which corresponds with the Portuguese Index), is that a comparison between the latter series and the Index shows that

1 The documents at foll. 471 [i.e., 32—35 Pencil Nos.] and 525

relate entirely to the Syro-Malabar Christians.

Taking the above materials chronologically, we find in Vol. 9853 the following documents: Annual Letters of the South [Cochin] for 1601, 1602, 1603, 1604, 1605, 1612, 1613, 1615, 1619; an Annual Letter of the Moluccas and Amboyna, 1602; Bishop F. Roz's Relation on the St. Thomas' Christians, 1602; a Relation about the Christians of the Serra, 1604; Fr. Nuno Rodriguez' necrological notice, 1604; Relations about the Madura Mission, 1656—59.

Fr. Aug. Carayon's Biblioth. Historique de la C. de J., Paris, Durand, MDCCCLXIV, pp. 2-5, will show that the Annuae Litterae Soc. Jesu were for many years printed regularly in a variety of places: 1601, 1602 (Antverpiae, 1618); 1603, 1604, 1605 (Duaci, 1618); 1606, 1607, 1608 (Moguntiae, 1618); 1612 (read: 1608, Lugduni, 1618); 1609, 1610, 1611 (Dilingae?); 1612 (Lugduni, 1618); 1613, 1614 (Lugduni, 1619). Then comes a break from 1615 to 1649, when the publication of the Annuals was resumed from 1650 to 1654 only. The editions referred to by Carayon are, of course, extremely scarce nowadays. For the matter contained in them we must turn to the great histories of the Society (cf. Carayon, op. cit., Nos. 3-14), e.g., to de Jouvancy's Historice Soc. Jesu Pars V, Tom. posterior, ab anno. . . 1591 ad 1616. Romae, 1710. Unfortunately, collections of these great histories (1540-1632) are very rare and fetch fabulous prices. We must have recourse, then, to more accessible works for comparison with the contents of the Marsden MSS. Du Jarric's Troisiesme partie de l' Histoire des choses plus memorables advenues tant ez Indes orientales qu' autres pais (1600-1610), Bourdeaus, 1614, into which materials up to 1612 have been embodied, should be found in the greater We must remark, however, that du Jarric merely translates and condenses the Portuguese collection of Fr. Fernand Guerreiro, S.J., the five volumes of which comprise a decade of Indian history, from 1600 to 1609, inclusively. But, where could a complete set of Guerreiro's be found? Its exceptional rarity is seen from the fact that D. Suerez de Figueroa's Spanish translation of the last volume in the series (1607, 1608) is quoted by Harrassowitz, Leipzig, at 960 Mks. (cf. Catal. No. 348, 1908), and that no copy of any of Guerreiro's Relations appeared on the English book-market between 1887 and 1906. Mr. E. D. Maclagan's search for a collection of Guerreiro's Relations revealed the presence at the British Museum of Fr. Antonio Colasso's Spanish translation of the Relação for 1600 and 1601 (Lisbon, 1604), and of the Portuguese Relação for 1602 and 1603 (Lisbon, 1605), at All Souls' College Library, Oxford. A reference to Vol. X of C. Sommervogel's Biblioth. de la C. de J. (sub: Hist. Comp de J., Généralités, and, Missions des Indes Orient.) may help to show what other papers in the Marsden MSS. have appeared in print.

"the collection must have been bound up in its present form while it was still in Portuguese hands."

Mr. P. next analyses carefully the Annual Letter of the South for 1603. It occupies foll. 36—61 (pencil) or 475—501

(ink), i.e., 52 closely written pages.

The letter is headed: Annua da V. Provincia do Malauar da India de 603 oriental pera se ler na provincia de Goa. The non-italicised words seem to have been added by another hand. "The original heading was, I think, Annua da V. Provincia do "Malauar da India oriental, 'Annual Letter of the Vice-Province" of Malabar in the East Indies'. Then, at Goa, someone "added: de 603, which he carelessly inserted before, instead" of after, the word oriental. He added the further endorse-"ment pera se ler na provincia de Goa,! "for perusal in the "Province of Goa." I presume, after being so endorsed, it "was passed round for perusal among the members of the "Society of Jesus in the Province of Goa. It may have been a copy made specially for such perusal, but it looks to me, "from the signature and other indications, to be an original."

"The letter begins:

Muito R⁴. em Xto Padre. Pax Christi.

"Then follow the numbers of the members of the S.J. "labouring at each place in the Vice-Province. Next, the various houses are passed under review. The headings are:

Collegio de Cochin.

Residencia de Santo Andre.

Residencia de Calicuth [i.e., Calicut].

Missão de Todamalâ.

Collegio de Vaipicotta, e suas residencias.

Residencia de Porca.

Residencia de Paliporto.

Collegio de Coulão [i.e., Quilon] e suas residencias.

Collegio de Tuturim [sic; read: Tuticorin] e suas residencias.

Casa de Ceilão [i.e., Ceylon].

Casa de Negapatão.

Collegio de pouvação de S. Thome e sua Residencia de Chandegri.

Residencia de Chandegri. Residencias de Bengala.

Copia de hũa do Padre Andre Boves pa o pe Vice Pruincial [i.e., Copy of a letter from Father Andrew Boves to the Father Vice-Provincial.]

Collegio de Malacca.

Residencias de Malluco e Amboino.

I I am doubtful of the reading. It is not very legible. [W. R. P.]

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· This Annual Letter ends as follows: De Cochim 15 | de "Janeiro de 1604. Then follows the signature, which is "illegible. I can only make out the name Manoel, but not "what precedes or follows. I think, however, that the signa-"ture is + P. Manoel Roz, S.J., which seems to be the signa-"ture of the next document in the volume, viz., the Annual "Letter of the South for 1604 and 1605. It was very likely " written and signed by the same Father.2

"There is an endorsement on the back of the last page " of this letter: Annua da Prou" do Malauar de 1603, and a "further endorsement: Gau. No. 42. A great many of the "documents in this volume (9853) and in volume 9855 are "endorsed in the same way. Sometimes, we have: Gaveta.3

"Though all or nearly all the letters in volume 9855 are "certainly originals, as shewn by the signatures, addresses, "folds and seals, and all or many of them are addressed to the "Provincial S.J. at Goa, between 1648 and 1684,4 it is not "the same in the case of volume 9853. I have seen enough "of it to notice that it consists of Annual Reports or Letters "addressed, in many cases, to the General S.J. at Rome, not "to the Provincial at Goa. One, for instance, is headed " Carta Annua da Provincia de Malauar de anno de 1613 pa " N. R. P. geral Claudio Aqua Viva. Further, though the signa-"tures in many cases appear to show the documents to be "originals, there are not the other proofs, such as folds, seals "and addresses at the back or outside sheet. There are marks " of folding, but from the position of the endorsements, which "I referred to, it seems that the documents were folded up "somewhere, endorsed on the back, and then tied up in bundles." "Moreover, it seems unlikely that Annual Letters or Reports " addressed to the Father General S.J., should have been in Portu-" guese? 5

1 The second figure in the date is not clear.

were kept.

4 The presence of these originals goes far to show that Vol. 9855, at

any rate, came from one of the Jesuit houses in Goa.

Manoel Roiz [Rodriguez]: born at Alemtejo, Diocese of Evora; came to India in 1597; at S. Thome, 1601; Socius to the Vice-Provincial of Cochin. 1602; Professed, 1602: Rector of S. Thome (Sept. 13, 1606); Rector of Cochin, 1607-11; Rector of Malacca, 1611-?; Socius to the Provincial, 1619; Provincial, ?—1623; died at Cochin, on the Sunday in the Octave of Corpus Christi, 1623. Act. 62; Soc. 44. [Fr. L. Besse, S.J.]

**Gaveta = drawer: a reference to the drawers in which the papers

^{5 &}quot;Latin was the official language to be used. If the letter was written in Portuguese, on reaching Rome it had to be translated into Latin or Italian, for the purpose of reading it publicly, and giving it a wider circulation. Italian being the language of the Curia, it was used preferably to Portuguese, wherever it was possible. There was at Tuticorin, for several years, an Italian Father who had taken upon himself the somewhat tedious task of translating into Italian the Portuguese letter of the Madura Mission.... All this accounts for the fact that copies of such

"This is a convenient place for mentioning another point. Some of the earlier documents in Vol. 9853 are Reports of the Vice-Provincial of Malabar. Later ones are from the Provincial of the Province of Malabar."

The special interest which Mr. P. attached to the Annual Letter of Malabar for 1603 lay in the fact that it contains the earliest known account on the Todas of the Nilgiris. His researches in this line have been given unexpected actuality by a recent discussion on priority of publication. In 1907, Fr. L. Besse, S.J., Rector of St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, published in Anthropos (Vienna), pp. 970-5: Un ancien document inédit sur les Todas (two documents). Mr. Herbert Mueller hastened to observe that the two documents had appeared in Mr. W. H. R. Rivers' The Todas, Macmillan, 1906, pp. 719-730.2 Mr. P.'s notes show that Mr. Rivers' document-one of the Marsden MSS.—was utilized at a much earlier date. It was published by Mr. Joaq. Heliod. da Cunha Rivara in O Chronista de Tissuary, Nova Goa, 1868, pp. 135-142.3 da Cunha Rivara tells us in the preface to his edition of the paper how he obtained Here is a translation of part of his preface.

"The document which we produce here is, in its original, among the important collection of Portuguese papers preserved in the Library of the British Museum, where it was copied by the Reverend Whitehouse, an Anglican minister, a man very studious and well informed about the affairs of India, who. after residing some time at Cochin, lived for years at Ootaca-imund, the principal English town on the top of the celebrated mountains and the native country of the Todas. Here in

¹ The Province of the Indies (*Provincia Indiarum*, with head-quarters at Goa) was split into the Province of Goa and the Province of Malabar in 1610. Malabar had become a Vice-Province in 1601. Cf. L. Carrez, S.J., Atlas Geographicus Soc. Jesu, Parisiis, 1900. The latter division, writes Fr. L. Besse, S.J., had been negotiated in Rome by Fr. Alb. Laerzio, who returned to India in 1602.

letters have found their way into the British Museum and other public libraries. I should add that several copies were made at head-quarters, and despatched by two or three different ways, in order that, in those days of long and perilous navigation, at least one copy should reach its destination. Cf. Fr. L. Besse, S.J., Anthropos, Vienna, 1908, pp. 799-800.

Fr. Alb. Laerzio, who returned to India in 1602.

² Cf. Anthropos (Wien), 1908, pp. 294—296, with: Another word about the Todas, by Fr. L. Besse, S.J., ibid., pp. 799-800.—Mr. Rivers' first document on the "Mission of Todramala" (pp. 719-20) was translated from the Portuguese (Add. MSS. 9853, ff. 464—5). The second: "The Mission of Todamala" was translated from Add. MSS. 9853, f. 479 sqg. and occupies 9 pp. of close printin Mr. Rivers' The Todas (pp. 721—730). Fr. Yacomo Fenicio wrote his account on his return to Calicut, and addressed it on Apr. 1, 1603, to the Vice-Provincial "at Calicut." The Annual Letter for 1603 in which it is embodied is dated: Cochin. Jan. 15, 1604.

⁸ From: O anno passado to no comer etc., etc.

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"Ootacamund we had the pleasure of knowing in 1863 the Reverend Whitehouse, who did us the favour of communicating to us the MS. and, at his request, we translated it into English. After he had read the version, he wrote to us the following: The MS. I read with great interest. And from what I know of these hills and the tribes inhabiting them, I should say that the narrative, in all its parts, bears the impress of truth. It is a most interesting document."

"For us the document has yet another quality, which "makes it more interesting, and it is that it proves that the "Portuguese Jesuits were the first who, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, penetrated into the steep mountainous regions, which to-day are the sanitarium and recreation grounds of Southern India, where only in the year 1820 the "English built the first house.

"Finally, it is proper to observe that as the MS. was copied by a foreigner, who was ignorant of the Portuguese language, there are in various places, principally where the original has abbreviations, some gaps and mistakes which it was impossible for us to restore to their true reading."

Subsequently, in 1873, the Rev. Thomas Whitehouse used and commented on da Cunha Rivara's translation in his: Lingerings of Light in a dark land.... London, 1873, pp. 134—44.2 da Cunha Rivara and Whitehouse call the author of the expedition into the Nilgiris and of the letter on the Todas "Fr. Jacome Ferreira," and Mr. P. took considerable pains in trying to decipher the name from the Marsden MSS. It is now agreed that the name should be read "Fenicio." It appears under the form "Fenicio" in du Jarric.

Fr. Jacome Fenicio's letter is copied into the text of the Annual Letter of 1603.³ Mr. P. collated da Cunha Rivara's text—a faulty one in some matters of detail—with the original in the British Museum and sent his corrected copy with notes to the Right Rev. Bishop A. E. Medlycott. The Bishop found in it, however, no materials for his *India and the Apostle Thomas* (London, David Nutt, 1905). Mr. P. also sent the Bishop a complete transcript and a tentative translation of *Relação sobre a Serra feita em* 1604. The document is full of interest. [Marsden MSS. 9853, foll. 525—538 (old numbering) or foll. 86—99 (modern pencil numbering).]

 2 At p. 135 of his work, Mr. Whitehouse refers the document to Marsden MSS. No. 9855 $\,$ Read 9853.

¹ I suppose when he went there with Archbishop Saba, da Cunha Rivara had been appointed in 1862 Portuguese Royal Commissary to carry out with Archbishop Saba the delimitation of the dioceses under the Concordat of 1857.

³ Mr. P. remarks that the document from fol. 475 to 501 is in different handwritings, the writing and the form of the abbreviations changing where the word *Acentadas* begins a new leaf. The signature is in the writing of a third person.

"No. 9855 which extends from 1648 to 1684 ought to be one of general interest. It is chiefly concerned about the Missions of Bengal, or rather Hindústán, the Jesuits at the Court of the Mogol, etc. There are geographical and political descriptions, in particular about the Nepal Mission. It contains also particulars concerning a projected Mission to Kafiristan."

Mr. P. has recently sent us the notes he made in 1892 on the contents of Vol. 9855. He noted that the volume is about foolscap size and that the leaves were numbered in pencil from 1 to 170. It contained some 32 documents, including three Persian ones, for an examination of which we are indebted to Mr. H. Beveridge, as will be seen further on.

1. Summa memorandarum rerum, quae [sic] apud Magni Mogoris regnum vidit, et observauit Pater Antonius Botelho Societatis Jesu Goanæ Provinciæ Præpositus Provincialis, intrà sexennium quò illic Superior vixit, et Missionarius.

A new section begins on the top of leaf 14, entitled "De Christiana apud Mogorem Religione." This ends at the back of leaf 16.—Leaves 1-16 are in Latin; leaves 17-46 in Portuguese. Both seem to be versions of the same. The writing appears the same throughout. Neither date nor signature.

46-51. Is headed, in another hand, apparently:—

Relacao do que aconteceo no Reino do Mogor depois do P: [illegible] de Sousa [illegible] feita por elle na ver [vez ?] de como quem lá estava.[?]

The second paragraph begins: Em quinze de Feuro de 620

varti de Goa.1

Seems incomplete. No date nor signature.

52-76. Heading: Annua da missam do Mogor do anno de 1650.

No signature. Early pages much stained.

77-82. Heading: Carta Annua da missão de Mogol do anno de 1668. Que escreueo o P. Manoel da Valle. No signature.

83-103 (followed by 2 blank leaves).

Carta annua da Missão do Imperio do Grao Mogol do anno de 1670 atè o de 1678 pera o nosso M. R. P. Joam Paulo Oliva Preposito geral da Companhia de Jesus.

One Father Gonsalvus de Sousa was in Mogor in 1620, 1621, 1624. (Catal. of Goa Prov.). He went to Thibet with Fr. A. de Andrada in 1625.

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96-97. Reference to "Cafrastan."

End: Goa 27 de Dezembro de 1678.

De V. P.

Filho em Xpo, e mto umilde seruo

Joseph Freyre.

Endorsement on a large blank page : Carta annua da Missão de Mogol.

Gaveta. No. 34.

In 1894 Father Goldie, S.J., had a MS. copy of this letter, bound in leather, small size, formerly belonging to Mr. H. Tolbort. It was a very neatly written copy.

104-111. Apparently a Tamil document, endorsed on back of 111: Gaveta N. 18.

112.

113—118. Portuguese. Concerning the canonization of St. Francis Xavier. Undated.

119-120. Portuguese. Date: 26 June, 1674. The pencil date "Apr." seems wrong.

121-122. Julho 5 d'75. [Pencil heading: 5 July, 1675.] An original letter in Portuguese addressed apparently to the Provincial "da Provincia de Goa." The seal is still there. In the endorsement there is something about Agra. "Mogor" appears at the end of the address.

123-124. Portuguese. The date at the end is: 29 de febr. de 676. The pencil date at the head: 19 Feb. 1676 seems wrong. Seal still there. This letter is very similar to the preceding one. "Mogor" appears at the end of the address.

125-126. Heading: Apontamentos de hũ caso de edificação succedido na Missão de Mogol, tirados de huã carta do Pe João Leitão, escrita em Agra a 12 de Dezembro de 1677.

The back of 126 is endorsed: Agra, Bengalla, Nacpur, Nepal; also: Apontamentos da Missão de Mogol p" a Carta Annua.

127-128. Pencil heading: 7 Oct. 1678.

Endorsed at the end:— $Treslado\ da\ Carta\ do\ P^c\ Fern\~ao\ de\ Queiros,\ ao\ P^c\ Proual\ de\ S.\ Agust^o\ sobre\ a\ Miss\~ao\ noua\ de\ Bengala.\ Gau.\ [damaged]\ N.\ 34.$

This ought to be interesting. Compare with what Manucci says in *Storia do Mogor* (Vol. II, p. 90) edited by W. Irvine.

129. Endorsed at the end:—Treslado da Carta do P^c [2 or 3 illegible names] de Bengalla p^a (?) o P^c Prov^a!. Gau. N. 34.

¹ Francis Xavier was canonized 12 March 1622.

130-131. Heading:—Regimento p. os Pes Missionarios das Missões de Napál, Pataná e Bengala.

Date at the end: Goa e de Abril 29 de 1680.

Endorsement on back of leaf 131:-Gau. N. 34.

132-134. Begins :— P^e Fernão de Queyros.

P. C.

Ends:—Ugoly 26 de Nouembro 1680.

Marcos Anto Santucci.

In the beginning Fr. Mark Anthony Santucci refers to his arrival from "Napal."

Pencil heading: 20 Mar. 1681.

Begins: Muito meu amado Pre Visitador Pre Antonio de Magalhaens.

Begins by referring to three letters sent by the writer about what had happened at "Nacpur."

Ends: Chapora—Patana 20 Março 1681.

137-138. Pencil heading: 21 Jan. 1682.

139-140. De Busna

Date at the back of leaf 139: Dezbro de 683.

The seal and address at back of 140.

141-142. Date at the end: Busna 17 de Dez (!) de 1683. A letter from Bengal addressed by Ignacio Gomes, S.J., to Father Simão Martins, Prov. S.J. at Goa.

The seal and address at back of 142.

143-144. Pencil date at top: 21 Jan. [Jun. ?] 1682.

145—148. Pencil date at top: 15 Sept. 1682. Appears to be dated from "Patana" and to be about " Nacpur" or "Nagpor."

149-150. Pencil date at top: 26 Jan. 1684.

From "Pattana."—The seal and address are intact.

151-152. A Portuguese translation of a Persian document. The pencil heading is: 20 July 1684.

153-156. Appears to be a Portuguese translation of a letter written by one Xa alandin Mamede [Sháh 'Aláu-d dín Muhammad] from Agra to the Father Superior S.J. It is endorsed: Gau. N. 34 and is followed by the original in Persian characters, which is folded and spotted with gold.

The date endorsed on the back appears to be: 1638.

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157. From Agra, July 16, 1684.

158. A Portuguese translation from the Persian. Date [of translation?]: Agra, 23 July, 1684.

159. A folded document in Persian characters.

160—163. Pencil date at top: 20 Aug. 1684. Written from: Ugoly.

164. Pencil date: 20 Aug. 1684.

Written from : Ugoly.

168. A folded document in Persian characters.

169-170. A letter written from: *Ugoly*. Date: 20 *Dec.* 1684. The seal and address intact.

Mr. P. wrote in 1892 that, as far as he knew, the Marsden MSS. had never been referred to except by Whitehouse and Hough. Whitehouse used only the document about $Todamal\hat{a}$, and Hough, though he mentions the Marsden MSS. on p. 209 of his *History of Christianity in India*, London, 1839, Vol. I, does so in such a way as to show he did not use them, even if he ever saw them.

Before bidding farewell to Mr. Philipps' excellent memorandum, it is interesting to hear under what conditions research work is done at the British Museum. English MSS. of early in the seventeenth century have difficulties for Englishmen, "much more Portuguese MSS. faded and damaged, often badly "written and full of old spellings and abbreviations. "difficulties are somewhat increased by the conditions under "which we work at the British Museum. We are not allowed " to put a MS. flat on the table. It is placed on a book-stand " in front of one, but must not be removed from it. Nor are we " allowed to touch the MS. except to turn over the pages. "Under these circumstances it is difficult sometimes to get the "eye near enough, when the writing is small or bad, or the day " is cloudy, and in the large pages of closely written matter one " often loses one's place, when one cannot keep the hand on the "MS. as a guide. Then again, as in the case of Vol. 9853, the " letters or reports in it were not written with the idea that they " would ever be bound up: consequently, some of the writing "is so close to the binding that it is difficult to open the volume " far enough to read it all."

Mr. H. Beveridge's remarks relate to Nos. 9853—55 of the Marsden MSS. We reproduce them integrally, adding some foot-notes.

The Marsden MSS. are not in the Oriental MSS. Room, but in the General MSS. Room.

The MSS, are not known by the name of Marsden MSS. in the Museum Catalogue, though Marsden's name is printed on the backs of the volumes.

No. 9853 consists entirely of Portuguese documents. In some cases, the ink has become very dim, and only a Portuguese scholar, an expert in the deciphering of old handwritings, could

make anything of them.

No. 9854 begins with the well-known letter from Father Rudolph Aquaviva, which General Maclagan gives in translation at p. 56 sqq. of his paper. It appears also, along with the Portuguese original in Father Goldie's book. It is signed Rodolfi, and is dated "Fattepur". The date I could not make out this time.³ There is something like: 2^a carta. The Father signs himself: D. V. R. servo ē xpo.4

No. 9855 was the most interesting to me of the three volumes. as it contains three Persian documents and also Father Botelho's account in Latin of what he observed during his six years in India.

The first Persian document is a petition from one Shah 'Aláu-d dín Muhammad to the Signor Padre Superior Jíú, 5 and refers to a disturbance at Chaul in connection with an attack on that town by the Deccanis (!) and the plundering of 'Aláu-d din's house. He complains that his house was looted and that property placed in it (by Feringis?) and deposited with him was carried off. He says also that he was warned to fly for his life, and that he came to Agra and was asked by the Portuguese to become surety for the Portuguese prisoners taken at Húgli. one else would become surety for them; so he had several interviews with 'Asaf Jáh, the Khán-Khánán, and procured the release of the prisoners. On this account he asks for favour and the return of his goods. This petition could not have been written earlier than 1633, as it appears from a paper of Mr. W. Irvine that Hugli was taken at the end of September 1632.

The second document is a petition of the Fathers to Aurangzeb to be excused the payment of the jizya or poll-tax. It is headed with the titles of Akbar, Jahángír and Sháh Jahán, in order to show how long the Mission had been connected with

¹ Cf. Francis Goldie, S.J., The First Christian Mission to the Great Mogul. Dublin, Gill, 1897, pp. 97-103, and App. A, pp. 171-178.

² Father Goldie read: Rodolfo, noting that the last o may be merely a stop. Cf. op cit., p. 177.

³ Father Goldie read: Futtepur, oje 27 de zbro 1582, "At Futtepur, to-day, 27 Sept. 1582."

Your Reverence's servant in Christ."

⁵ Mr. W. Irvine suggests that "Jiú" is a dialect form, still current in the United Provinces, for the Hindi honorific "Ji."

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the Mogul Court. It recites the favour with which the Fathers had been treated by His Majesty's predecessors. Both the above documents are very clearly written in Nastaliq.

The third document, the oldest of the three is in Shikasta and harder to read. It refers to a young man's having been wounded by a musket-shot and speaks of the English ships. It is a petition for redress. At the foot is an impression of a private seal with the words Bádsháh Sháh Jahán on it. The name of the owner of the seal is illegible; but, apparently, the seal was made in the first year of Sháh Jahán's reign, 1628.

The Marsden MSS. contain exclusively accounts of the Missions. There is a petition of Joan Leytam, dated 16 July, 1684; another from Father Corsi, dated: Agra, 25 October, 1619; another from Father Santucci.³

The long report by Father Botelho 4 appears both in Latin and Portuguese. It is quoted by Mr. Maclagan (J.A.S.B., 1896) at pp. 93 and 107. In the latter place, a conversation between Father Botelho and 'Adil Shah of Bijapur is reported. but, the reference should be to Add. MSS. 9855, not 9853. The Portuguese, I believe, is the original; the Latin, a translation and abridgment. The Portuguese is almost double the size of the Latin.

I could not find the exact date of Father Botelho's letter: but, it must have been written after Aurangzeb's accession. and so after 1658. At the end of the report he speaks of Father Sebastian de Almeyda being just about to arrive at Goa.⁵

¹ One Father John Leitam, S.J., a Portuguese, sailed from Lisbon to the East in 1670. Cf. A. Franco, S.J., Synopsis Annal, S.J. in Lustiania (1540-1725), Augusta-Vindel, 1726, Appendix. Our catalogues of 1678 (Dec.) and 1681 (Dec.) place him in the Mogul Mission. The next catalogue belongs to 1694

² Francis Corsi came to India in 1599. da Camara Manoel gives his name as: "P. Francisco Corse, Italus Theologus." Cf. Missões dos Jesuitas no Oriente, Lisboa, 1894, p. 154. He must be the "P. Franciscus Locce, Sard." of A. Franco, as only one of the party was called Francis. Corsi is often referred to as a Florentine and appears for the first time in the Mogul Mission-field in 1600. He died at Agra, Aug. 1, 1635. Cf. Maclagan, op. cit., passim. and for his epitaph, Transactions of the Archwol. Soc. of Agra (Jan. to Jun. 1876), Agra, 1876, p. x.

³ Father Mark Anthony Santucci, S.J., died at Agra, Aug. 1, 1689. Franco mentions one "Marcus Antonius, Italus." who came to India in 1668. The two names may safely be identified. The catalogues of 1674 and 1681 (Dec.) place him in Mogor, that of 1678 (Dec.) stations

⁺ His name is not in Franco's list. Father Anthony Botelho came from Goa to Surat at the end of 1647 on his way to Agra, where he was to act as Visitor and Rector of the College. Father Alex, de Rhodes, et Missions du P. Alex. de Rhodes, Lille, Desclée, 1884, pp. 292-3. The Catalogues of the "Mogor" Mission mention Anthony Botelho (Senior) as Visitor (1648, 1649). The next catalogue is of 1653.

⁵ Father Sebastian de Almeida left Lisbon, a first time, in 1665;

a second time in 1668, having been sent to Lisbon as Procurator. H.

At fol. 15v of the Latin, Father Botelho speaks of Father Mathew de Payva as having been greatly respected by the natives for his purity of life. Elsewhere he alludes to writings of Sir Thomas Roe's being preserved in the Library of St. Paul's College at Goa: "Si haec et plura alia legeret quae in annotatis scriptis a Thoma Roeus continentur et servantur in Bibliotheca Collegii D. Pauli Goae vetitos interlibros." I fear this only refers to Purchas' volumes; but, it might hint to some MSS. of Roe which have disappeared.

An interesting point mentioned by Father Botelho is that he saw several statues or figures sculptured at Akbar's tomb at Sikandra, and that among them were the heads of several of the Catholic Pádrís. There is also an account of the Táj Maḥal, but no allusion to European artists having been employed on it.

Here are some of the more interesting passages.

Summa memorandarum rerum quas [sic] apud Magni Mogoris Regnum vidit et observavit Pater Antonius Botelho Societatis Jesu Goanæ Provinciæ Praepositus Provincialis intra sexennium quo illic Superior vixit et Missionarius.

"Juste, ut cupidis Europæ animis morem gererem, rogatu "P. Sebastiani de Almeyda Societatis Jesu in Japoniæ episco-" pum electi, aliqua Magni Mogoris mira in lucem edere statui; "eo tamen pacto, ut solum quae viderim et visa demiratus "fuerim, exponerem. Quippe si vellem, quidquid fama et "annales referunt, scribere, nec meum esset, nec pauca fierent " probae magnitudinis volumina, in Europæ Reguni admira-'tionem; a quibus me promptius expedirem, ni adnotata, "quae, dum memoria erat praesentior, scripsi, non injucun-"da, excidissent. Memoriam tamen iterum cogam ut quaeque "meminerit, exponat. Faxit Deus ut scribendarum rerum "magnitudo fidem quam verissimis precor scriptis, non obs-"curet. Dicam de vario incolarum genere, de civitatum, quas " sum expertus, natura; de Regum, Principumque et moribus, " et amplitudine; ad calcem, postremò, operis de re Christiana " libabo praecipua.

"Ab Aquilone ad Austrum per nongentas circiter leucas protenditur Magni Mogoris Regnum; longitudine quam latitudine majus; tredecim dividit Regna, quorum Regimen propinquius agunt quinquaginta Rajas, purpurati omnes ad

Matthew de Payva was in Mogor, according to our Catalogues of Gos, in 1620, 1621 and 1624. In 1633, he was superior of the Mogor Mission, and was then aged 41. He died the same year, 2nd (?) August.

embarked on April 22, 1668, and reached Goa only on March 30, 1669. (Cf. A. Franco, S.J., Synopsis...op. cit., p. 345). Now, as Father Botelho alludes to his nomination as Bishop of Japan, which nomination had taken place before his second departure from Lisbon, and as, on the other hand, Father Botelho wrote his report at the Bishop's suggestion, 1669 or 1670 is the earliest possible date. From a note by the late Fr. J. B. Van Meurs, S.J., I learn that, while Provincial at Goa, he wrote in 1670: "De moribus et natura regionis Mogoris."

"nutum Mogori haud segniter obtemperantes. Regnum hoc, "uti magnum corpus est, ita multorum alitur sanguine. "Egregie fallitur quisquis Mauros tantum credit Mogoris incolas. "cum major sit Gentilium numerus qui frequenter terras in-"colunt et ignobilioris nominis vicos habitant. "verò minor, penès quos arbitrium civitatum et arcium est. "utpotè qui vi armorum gentem illam suo imperio subdidere. "Soli Reges gentiles, genere Rajaputi (et hoc primum gentis "illius genus) jus retinuere dominandi, quorum quisque terris "imperat, quinque aut sex dierum itinere non peragrandis; " solumque terras Rajà Rannâ inter alios principis reguli, octo "magnis dierum itineribus non percurres. Hic est qui alios in "sceptra evehit et regales capitibus imponit coronas. Terris "dominantur majori ex parte montosis et magnae molis saxis "insitis, inter quas suas urbes, et arces habent. Unde evenit "ut munitione et natura locorum confisi saepe in Mogorem "insurgant, haud ignari, fore, ut nullis equitum copiis exagit-"entur. Idque jurè merito metuens Mogol alacriores quosque "et bellorum cupidos non sine magnis stipendiis in muneribus " praeficit exercituum. Viri sunt admodum strenui et Regiæ "militiae nervus, quodque illi bello non effecerint consequi "desperant Mogoles milites Facile possent, si in unum "coirent in Mogorem, inter se regem creare; quod nunquam " eveniet, sunt enim perquam invidi et aliena bona impatienter "ferentes, nullusque sibi majorem sustinet, nisi quem longe "disparem, et dignitate et potentia suspiciat. Armorum " queis utuntur in bello Rajaputi (hi fere sunt equites) quatuor "sunt genera: Berchî, quod est non longum hastile, in ulnam "et dimidium extentum, Arcus et sagittae, Harpe et sica, "vulgo gemedār, lato in tres digitos ferro. Mos illis est "omnino barbarus, sed magnae virtutis indicium, ut quae " primum rapuere in conflictu arma, cum his, reliquis ferienti-"bus, aut vincant aut pereant; quod si, fortè primo in con-" gressu harpen tenuerint, his armis, aut de vitâ aut de vic-"toria ad extremum praeliantur. Inter pedites funiculati " quoque sclopi b usus est, in pugnando faciles adeo et deliber-"ati, ut vel ipsi Mogori metum incutiant, multaque Rex rudenti silentio dissimulat ne regiam auctoritatem et caput "in belli discrimen cum Rajaputis exponat.

¹ Frequentes (?).

² Barchhí = a long, slender spear, a javelin.

⁸ Scimitar

⁴ Jamdhar or jamdhar = a dagger (lit., death-bearer); a large dagger resembling a kajár, but having a kind of basket-hilt protecting the hand. (Forbes).

⁶ Apparently, a musket or arquebus. Compare the Italian sciopelto and the French escopette. Du Cange has: "tormentum bellicum manualc." The expression armati funiculatis sclopis occurs lower down, on fol. 9v of MS. [H. B.]

"In civitatem Laor | ubi per id temporis Regia erat, in-"gens equitum numerus convenerat, in expeditionem civitatis "Cahandar quae cum Persia partiebatur, profecturus; ad-"eratque inter alios Principes Raja Jai Singh cum suis do-"minatûs equitibus pro Rege arma capturus. Accidit sub "idem tempus, ut vir quidam, gentilibus ritibus abdicatis, "Maurorum sectam amplecteretur, fueritque error hominis "peior priore. In magnos titulos a Rege evectus, uxorem "cogebat, ope Maurorum fultus, ad Mahometis quoque sectam "accedere; ad quod, nullis precibus, nullis artibus induci "potuit, immo sui juris vindicem quaerens, rem omnem ' significavit Regulo Raja Jai Singh, qui, morâ nullâ interpo-"sitâ, quinquaginta dimisit equites qui feminae domum circum-"siderent et asservarent ne, dum res agebatur, aliquam à "Mauris vim de religione pateretur. Ipseque cum omni "equitatu regem adiit allocuturus. Huc adsum, inquit, o "Rex, in oppugnationem accitus civitatis Cahandar, sed, ut "res aguntur, hic tecum, hercule, oppugnatio erit.' Tum "Rex 'se, quid illa verba vellent, haud satis intelligere." "Cui Jai Singh: Quod ille nequissimus sponte suâ et " quaestu ductus, a parentum suorum desciscat fide, quis vetat? "Voluntatis suae arbiter, in quam malit viam deflexerit. "Quod vero tu Cassisesque omnes invitam illius uxorem in-"fames mariti sequi passus adigant b hoc egon's patiar? vel "propriâ ematur vitâ. Jube ergo protinus mulierem "indemnem dimitti." Ut Rex, ira percitum hominem ad-"vertit, metu perculsus et adhuc majestatem simulans, " 'solenne, ait, apud Mauros esse uxores eandem quam mariti "amplexari fidem, se tamen in eo morem gerere, a nemine "cogendam mulierem, quin potius se regem suae voluntatis " propugnatorem habituram." Quandoquidem Raja ille tantum " in ea re gaudium deprehenderet, e Regis praesentia egressus "est Jai Singh de Cassisibus ipsoque de Rege triumphans, " Maurorum nemine mussitante."

Follows a story about a Hindu Rajah's having in the same city had a Muezzin flung down from his minaret for annoying him during his illness by the loudness of his calls to prayer. Next there is an apparently apocryphal story of a Rajah's son having killed an officer in the King's presence. There are also some remarks about eunuchs, and a story of how a eunuch, whom Father Botelho knew, rose to high rank. Hearing this,

¹ Lahore.

² Qandahár.

³ Partiri = to side with (?).

^{*} Not qázi = a Muhammadan judge, but from the Persian kashish, in Arabic quais = a mullá, a Muhammadan doctor or priest. [H. B.] 5 Adigatis (?).

⁶ Ego non (?).

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his father came from Bengal to see him. The son received his father, but ordered him to be severely bastinadoed, and warned him not to treat his other children as he had treated him. Then, returning to more filial feelings, he bestowed on his father a large sum of money and sent him back to Bengal. The eunuch's name was Aghá Khán, and he had charge of Mumtáz Maḥal's tomb.

Speaking of Akbar's tomb, he says:-

"Gemina ad ingressum jacent magna vestibula ex mar-"more ubi mille daedaleae manûs finxere figuras, quas inter "novi ego Patres nostrae societatis qui primi Christianam rem "illius regis tempore condidere."

He also describes a dust-storm, which he calls Andi, and relates how Father Henry Busi, while sleeping on the terrace, was surprised by a hail-storm, of which the stones were so big that he shouted out that he was being stoned by someone.

He gives of Sháh Jahán the following description:

"Hic ego per otium vidi regem: sexaginta oculis monstrobat annos, barba usque ad pectoris deducta medium, formosi "oculi, totusque talem prae se ferens majestatem ut vel "nescienti regem proderet."

He speaks of the personal beauty of Murád Bákhsh, and describes his appearance. There is a long description of Sháh Jahán's leaving Agra in order to establish himself at Delhi, his new capital. Father Botelho witnessed this departure, in company with Father Francis Morando. He then goes on to describe Delhi. He describes the Karnal Canal, and the shady avenue from Delhi to Lahore. The avenue, he says, was constructed by Jahángír.

"Hoc opus sub rege Janguir non imitabili labore effectum, "vel sibi indulgente, nam hoc crebrò peragrabat iter, vel viatoribus, qui hinc et inde frequenter transvehunt commeatus, mercesque. Adde quod in via hâc, leucas duas vix "peragres, quin erectum videas pyramidem, mox aliam atque "aliam paria inter spatia, et puteum scaturientis aquae."

indhi = n storm

For similar pictures near the tomb of Jahángír, cf. Travels in India, by Jean B. Tavernier, Ed. V. Ball, London, Macmillan, 1889, Vol. I. p. 111: "When you reach Agra from the Delhi side, you meet a large Bazaar, close to which there is a garden where the King Jahángír, father of Shuh Jahán, is interred. Over the gate of this garden you see a painting which represents his tomb covered by a black pall, with many torches of white wax, and two Jesuit Fathers at the ends. One is much astonished at seeing that Sháh Jahán, contrary to the practice of the Muhamedans, who hold images in abhorrence, has allowed this painting to remain, and it can only be in consequence of the fact that the King, his father and he himself had learnt from the Jesuits some principles of mathematics and astrology." Manrique noticed (1641) a picture of Our Lady within the portice leading to Akbar's tomb. Cf. Itinerario Oriental, Rome, 1653, p. 350.

Then he describes Qandahár, and says that the king wittily called this city the royal courtesan, because she admitted sometimes the Persian, sometimes the Great Mogul. At the time

the Father was writing, Qandahar belonged to Persia.

Father Botelho describes Dárá Shikoh as being a great friend of the Fathers: "Nobis summa familiaritate conjunctum." Aurangzeb he calls "fervidus juvenis et martialis animi." But he wrongly states that Dárá Shikoh was taken off by poison.

Špeaking of the Catholic College of Agra, he writes: -

"Nostrum Agrense Collegium erexit P. Antonius de Andrade! geminis in altum pergulis in litterae Z speciem. Egoque dum visitatoris munus obirem duo addidi cubicula "aulamque satis amplam quo aliquos in nos benevolos viros sospitio exciperemus, in quod opus Ollandi Anglique septingentos aureos liberaliter erogarunt

"Armenius quoque institor praedives duo supra decem milia aureorum quondam obtulit, queis magnificum extructum fuerat templum, quod funditùs eversum est eâ quâ dicam occasione. Aegre ferebant Cassises, vehementerque angebantur quod plurimi adeo Christiani fluxè in templum convenirent, ingentemque moverunt tumultum prae nimia multitudine; erant enim, ut dixi, IX² ex Bengala captivorum millia, et ad templi ingressum talem excitabant strepitum ut in seditionem aliquando cresceret."

The Mullahs complained, and the King ordered that the Church should be destroyed, and if 'Asaf Khán had not interfered, the Fathers would have been put in chains and expelled. They had to remain in retirement for a time.

Afterwards, a small house was allowed them.3

! The College was built, I believe, in 1621.

² Should it not be IV? Father Francis Corsi, S.J., in a letter from Agra (October 5, 1633) announces that 4,000 prisoners have arrived at Agra from Húgli in July 1633.

Anthony de Andrade: born at Oleyros, Province of Beyra in 1580; entered the Society at Coimbra on Dec. 15, 1596; was sent to Lisbon in 1597; embarked for India in 1600; made his studies at Goa: Rector of the College of Goa; sent as superior to Mogor, where he was from 1621; left Delhi for Thibet [16 May?] 1624, arrived at Tsaparang in Guge, and on his return to Agra dated his first account of Cathay; 8 Nov. 1624. Leaving Agra again for Thibet on June 17, 1625, he reached the first Thibetan city on August 28, 1625. On April 12,1626, Easter-day, the King of Tsaparang himself laid the first stone of a Thurch to be dedicated to Our Lady of Hope. One of de Andrade's letters is dated: Chaparangue, at the Court of the King of Great Thibet, August 15, 1626. On his return to Goa, he became Provincial and Rector for the second time of the College. He died at Goa from poisoning, March 19, 1634.

Father Joseph de Castro writes from Agra (April 16,1637) that, after having been for more than a year banished from their College, they were allowed through 'Asaf Khán to return to their College on the day of the Immaculate Conception [1636?]. Their Church at Lahore

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Father Botelho also expatiates on the virtues of a certain

Mirzá Zú-l Qarnín.1

"Sed quoniam quidquid in Mogore felix habuimus, quidquid "Christiana floruit Religio, quidquid Agrense Collegium habet " vectigalium, totum (si Deum excipis) Mirsæ debetur Zulcarnem, " in fratrem Societatis adoptato, in ejus justis laudationibus juvat "paululum immorari. Hir vir, hic est, Mirza Zulcarnem, "natalibus nobilis, factis illustris, titulo Umbraus, Christiana "fide notissimus, in pace Numa, in bello Alexander. Caesar in "utroque, qui in bello fortis, in pace mitis, in vita justus, for-"titudinis fuit exemplum, mansuetudinis typus, religionis "assertor, cujus venerati sunt Mogores magnitudinem, orbis "famam, et virtutem religio; cui Reges Mogores mille referunt "victorias, mille proceres beneficia, mirum Societas Jesu debet "amorem, quem Mogul habuit ducem strenuum, Fides pro-' pugnatorem, amicum fratremque Societas, quo floruit Martia virtus, crevit Christiana religio, exultavit Societas. Hic vir. "hic est, qui licet in cunis lustrali ablutus lymphâ, Regis "Janguir extitit delicium, peregrina praeditus forma, adeo ut "Rex ipse, quod in Mogoribus rarum, eâdem secum mensâ "deferret puerum; hic est qui duobus supra decem expletis "annis, Regis amorem in iras degenerem sustinuit, pluri-"maque et acerba pertulit flagella, quod Romanam abjicere "Religionem pertinax nollet, in tantum, ut pater Franciscus "Morando gloriosum Christi martyrem appellaret; subtili "juvenis plane ingenio, qui Patria lingua metra pangebat "tantà cum elegantià, ut regem mire recrearet: in remune-

and Agra had been destroyed; but they had now been allowed to erect n new "house" on the site of their former Church at Agra.

condition of the Christian religion, all the revenues possessed by the Agra College, are (after God) due entirely and solely to Mirsa Zulcarnem, whom the Society adopted as one of its brethren, it behoves us to dwell a while in just praise of him." The Mirzá had been granted by the General of the Society the title of founder, which gave him a share in the merits of the Society. "This man, I mean Mirza Zulcarnem, was as noble in birth as he was illustrious by his deeds and renowned for his Christian piety. An Amír in dignity, he was a Numa in peace, an Alexander in war, a Cæsar in both, brave in warfare, meek in peace, upright in his conduct, a model of valour, a pattern of gentleness, a champion of religion; the Moguls honoured him for his greatness, the world for his renown, and religion for his virtues. The Mogul Kings owe him a thousand victories, a thousand nobles thank him for his benefits, while the Society of Jesus returns to him exceeding gratitude."

Zú-l Qarnín, the Mirzá's name, means Alexander; but there is more than a mere play on the name.

² Francis Morando, S.J., a "Bolognese," came to India in 1629. (Franco). He was sent to Thibet in 1631, according to Abbé A. Launay and Padre J. M. D. Aguiar. About 1649, Father J. Maracci said that he was at Agra, where he was copying the works of Father Jerome Xavier. He was a great Persian and Hindústání scholar. Our Catalogues of

1641, 1649, 1653 mention him as one of the Mogor Missioneries.

I "But, as all the success we have had in Mogor, the flourishing

" rando cantores adeo liberalis, ut vel equum, vel elephantem "crebro donaret in praemium, aureae totus conditionis, ad " condonandum injurias facilis : et aliorum flexus adarbitria. Hic "est, qui ad maximos à rege invitatus honores, et ad millionem " annui redditus, si veram abjiceret Religionem, affligi cum popu-"lo Dei maluit, et vitam agere minus divitem, dummodo coeli divitias potiretur, fieretque regni non perituri particeps et "haeres; hic est, qui cujusdam in dignitate constituti Ecclesias-"tici venenata tela in Societatem emissa repulit in authorem. "Mogoresque missionarios a gravi poenæ vulnere liberavit. "Hic denique est qui Patrem Henricum Buseum! immeritis "e vinculis dissolvit, Regemque Christiana libertate sic est " allocutus, ut caput ferro promitteret, si aliquando, quod " Patri impositum fuerat, pro vero haberetur.

"Nupsit vir iste D. Dominæ Helenæ illustri feminæ, tres "accepit ex eâ filios; Mirsam Observam [?], Mirsam Eres [?], "Mirzam Daniel; quos omnes vivus adhuc in magnis vidisset "constitutos honoribus, Mancehedares et Umbraos si Maho-"metis legem amplecterentur, uti Rex firma fide pollicebatur."

So far the Latin. The Portuguese seems to say much more about Zú-l Qarnín. We learn, for instance, that he was an Armenian, that he had three sons and one daughter, and that his wife Helena was buried at Lahore (Fol. 45v). Fol. 44 states that he was for many years in charge of the pargana of Sámbhar. Zú-l Qarnín is referred to by Corvat as in charge of the salt works of Sambhar. Jahangir, too, refers to him and to his skill in Hindí melodies. Cf. Syad Ahmed's edition of Jahángír's Memoirs, p. 324, in the account of the 15th year.

The Cotton MSS. (Brit. Mus.) Vespasianus F. XII, 141 and 143. and Titus B. VII, 118, contain Anthony Machado's letter in Portuguese and English, but I could not read them.³

Mr. H. Beveridge's extracts from Father Botelho's report are of exceptional value for us. We knew already that Mirzá Zú-l

¹ Fr. Henry Busi, an alias for Henry Uwens, came to India in 1647

and was at Agra in 1648. He died at Delhi on April 6, 1667. Cf. W. Irvine. Storia do Mogor, Vol. IV, Index.

The name of the second may be Irij or Irich. This was the name of Faridun slain by his brother Tür. It was also the name of the eldest son of the Khan-Khanan Abdu-r Rahim. Cf. Blochmann, pp. 339, 491. [H. B.]

The letter consists of 2 pp. and was sent by Fr. Anthony Machado, S.J., to Fr. Claudius Aquaviva, the General of the Society in Rome. It is dated: Agra, 7 Apr., 1615 There is also among the Cotton MSS. an English translation of a letter of Fr. Joseph de Castro, S.J., addressed to Claudius Aquaviva and dated Agra, 10 Apr., 1615. (Cf. Cotton MSS. Vespasianus F.7., XII). The original is in codex Titus, 8, VII. Cf. C. Sommervogel, Bibl. de la C. de J., under A. Machado and J. de Castro.

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Qarnín was the founder of the Agra College I and Governor in Bengal, presumably at Patna, between 1627 and 1633.2 We can now identify him as, indeed, a great Christian hero, and we hope that, when we shall have collected all the scattered references to him, much of Father Botelho's high-sounding encomium will be found justified.

The whole account of Mirzá Zú-l Qarnín's confession of the faith, at the age of eleven or twelve, can be read in du Jarric and Guerreiro.³ It is most pathetic and carries us back to the days of the early martyrs.

² From MSS. letters of Fr. J. de Castro, S.J., in the writer's

¹ Cf. S. Noti, S.J., Joseph Tieffentaller, S.J., a forgotten Geographer of India, Bombay, 'Nirnaya-Sagar' Press, 1906, p. 8. His name does not appear in Mesroub J. Seth's History of the Armenians in India, Calcutta, 1895.

⁸ Cf. Troisiesme partie de l' Histoire des choses....advenues ez Indes Orientales.... 1614, pp. 107—111; p. 115. The narrative is found in Fr. Fern. Guerreiro's Relação for 1606 and 1607, Lisboa, MDCIX, Pedro Crasbeeck, pp. 152—155.

37. Yasovijaya Gani (about 1608-1688 A.D.).

By Манаманораднуа́уа Satis Chandra Vidyáвнūṣaṇa, М.А., Рн.D.

Yaśovijaya Gaṇi (mentioned in Peterson's Catalogue, part VI) was a distinguished Jaina author who flourished at Dabhoi in the Baroda State (Guzerat) approximately between 1608-1688 A.D. At about 1626 A.D. he came to Benares where he studied the higher branches of Sanskrit in the disguise of a Brāhmaṇa ascetic. By about 1638 A.D. he confessed that he was a Jaina and was asked at once to leave the Sanskrit academies of the Brāhmaṇas. Going back to Guzerat he wrote more than one hundred works (in Sanskrit and Guzerati) in which he has preserved a detailed criticism on the Logic of Nadia (Bengal) and Mithilā (Behar) as taught in the Benares academies in the 17th century A.D. He died in 1688 A.D.

Yaśovijaya Gani was born in a well-to-do Vaiśya family in Guzerat. He lost his father while he was still a little boy. His mother used every day to go to a Svetāmbara High-priest of

the Tapāgaccha to listen to the hymn called Bhaktāmarastotra. Owing to rain she could not one day go out, but the hymn was recited to her from memory by Yaśovijaya himself. The Highpriest being told of this was pleased to observe that the little boy, whose memory was so sharp, would certainly turn out to be a great man in the future. He immediately received him as his disciple and ordained him to be a Jaina monk. The Highpriest of the Tapāgaccha referred to here was named Nayavijaya, whose genealogy is given below:—

Hiravijaya Sūri
(the well-known Jaina priest of Akbar's time,
born 1526 A.D. and died 1595 A.D.)

Kalyāņa vijayopādhyāya

Lābhavijaya

Nayavijaya

Yaśovijaya.

Having mastered the Jaina Sastras under Nayavijaya,
Visit to Benares in
the disguise of a Brāhmana ascetic.

Yaśovijaya came to study Logic (Nyāya)
at the city of Benares where he lived
for twelve years. It is stated that the
Brāhmana with whom he studied Logic

possessed a valuable philosophical work containing seven hundred verses which was not available with any other person. The book was carefully concealed and was never shown to any man. Once while the Brāhmaṇa had gone abroad, his wife was persuaded to show the book to Yasovijaya who together with Vinayavijaya read it through and committed the same to memory in one night. Next morning he returned the book but reproduced a similar one. The Brahmana came home and was surprised to learn that Yaśovijaya possessed duplicate copy of a work which was so long considered to be his own exclusive property. His suspicion was roused and on inquiry it was found that his pupil was an adherent of the Jaina religion. The Brahmana told Yasovijaya to leave Benares at once as it would not be to his advantage if people were aware that a Jaina monk in the disguise of a Brāhmana ascetic studied the Brāhmanic science. Yasovijaya left the city and at his departure regretted that as a monk he did not possess any wealth to give to his Brahmana teacher. He, however, invited the Brāhmana to go to Guzerat if he ever fell in want. Some years later the Brāhmana visited Guzerat and looked out for "Yasa" which was a pet name for Yasovijaya. At Cambay (Khambhat) he met with his distinguished pupil who received him with honours and introduced him to his numerous pupils and followers. They collected a sum of 36,000 rupees (2,400 pounds) which they gave to the Brahmana as a present. In the Mandharastuti, a work in Guzerati, Yaśovijaya alludes to his visit to Benares as follows:—

"Staying in the academy at Benares, I well acquired a

wide knowledge of Logic (Nyāya)."

On his return to Guzerat Yasovijaya engaged himself to correct the manners of the Jaina priests.

This is evident from the Mandharastuti in which he observes:—

"Agreeably to the good advice of Vijayasimha Sūri, the High-priest, I have adopted this path and have succeeded in saving the priests from utter ruin." 2

Yaśovijaya received the title of Upādhyāya (Assistant Pro-

रिश्वमा काशीमठ नेश्वमी मे भवे ।
स्वाधदर्शन विग्रुल भाव पाया 8 (Mandharastuti).

पाटबस् गुद विजय सिंक घोरि ।
 वाक विक्रिक्षिय मार्ग र अनुसर्यो ।
 येवकी सवि दक्ती कुमति चोरी । (Mandharaetuti).

Academic distinctions.

fessor) from his teacher Navavijava, while the title of Nyāvaviśārada 1 (expert in Logic or Philosophy) was conferred on him by the Panditas at Benares. As an author of a hundred works on philosophy and religion he obtained the much-coveted title

of Nyāyācārvya 2 (Professor of Logic or Philosophy).

Yasovijaya died at Dabhoi in modern Baroda State (in Guzerat) in Samvat 1745 or A.D. 1688.

Dates of birth and He appears to have come to Benares at death. the age of eighteen and did not leave the

city until he was thirty years old. Vijayasimha Sūri at whose suggestion he undertook to reform the Jaina priests was the High-priest of the Tapagaccha from Samvat 1682 to Samvat Yaśovijaya must have engaged himself in the work of reformation some time between these two dates, or roughly in Samvat 1695. At that time he was about thirty years old as he had then just returned from Benares. This places the date of Yasovijaya's birth approximately in Samvat 1665 or A.D. 1608.

Yaśovijava wrote numerous valuable works on Logic such as Nyāyapradīpa, Tarkabhāsā, Nyāyarah-Yaśovijaya's works asya, Nyāyāmrtataranginī, Nyāyakhandon Logic. anakhādya, Nyāyāloka and Astasāhasri-These works treat of miscellaneous topics and do not

strictly belong to the Ancient, Mediæval or Modern school alone. Nevertheless, the last three works, viz., Nyāyakhandanakhādya, Nyāyāloka and Astasāhasrīvivarana bear all the characteristics of Modern Logic. The phraseology used in them resembles that of Gangesa Upadhyaya and Raghunatha Siromani, and in the subtlety of argument their author stands on the same footing with the logicians of Nadia.

The works reflect the greatest credit on Yasovijaya whose range of knowledge in Logic was indeed criticism on very wide. They show that he mastered Logic as taught in the logical treatises of Gangesa Upadh-Benares academies. yāya, Vardhamāna, Paksadhara Miśra

and others of Mithila, and did not neglect to study and

ै पूर्व न्यायविद्यारदल विददं काध्या प्रदर्भ बुधैः न्यायाचार्वपदं ततः जतग्रतग्रह्मस्य यस्यापितम् । श्चित्रधार्थनया नगदिविजयप्राचीसमानां शिकः तस्वं किचिदिरं यद्योविजय इत्याखास्वास्थातवान् । (Jaina Tarkabhāsā).

[।] यस्य न्यायविधारदाव विवदं काध्यां प्रदत्तं बुधैः। (Nyāyakhandanakhādya).

criticise the treatises of Gunananda, Raghudeva and other logicians of Nadia who were, so to speak, his contemporaries. He must have been a man of extraordinary talent, or else he would never have ventured to attack Siromani, the greatest exponent of modern Logic in Nadia. Yaśovijaya frequently refers to Siromani whose inordinate pride he tried to humble down. Once he quotes the satiric remark said to have been well known in Nadia, viz., "Cursed indeed is the province of Bengal, where there is Siromani blind of one eve."1 Yasovijava was confident that his intellect could penetrate the obscurities on the texts of Logic cast by the commentaries of Siromani. So he observes:—"The ocean of Logic is hard to approach owing to the uproar of waves of the argument of Didhitikāra (Siromani): yet, is not the water even of that ocean capable of being drunk by the cloud of genius of intelligent men?" Some of Yasovijava's works on Logic are mentioned below:-

The Nyāyāloka begins 3 with a salutation to Mahāvīra as Paramātman (the Supreme Spirit) and ends 4 with an entreaty that its author may be freed from affection and aversion which are the causes of all sufferings. The work discusses the nature of soul (ātman), emancipation (mukti), inference (anumāna), testimony (āgama) direct knowledge (pratyaksa jñāna), indirect knowledge (paroksa jñāna), validity of external things (vāhyārthasiddhi), inherence (samavāya), negation (abhāva), ether (ākāśa), substance (dravya), etc. The undermentioned philosophers, philosophical treatises and systems are quoted:—

Naiyāyika, ucchrinkhala-naiyāyika (unbridled logicians), Sāmkhya, Cārvāka, Tautātita, Vedāntin, Nyāya, Yauktika

(Khandanakhādya, leaf 43).

- ² न्यायाम्नुधिदीधितिकारयुक्तिकस्त्रोत्तकास्त्रतिगाइः।
 तस्यापि पातुं न पयः समर्थः किं नाम धीमत्प्रतिभाग्नवाइः॥
 (Astasāhasrīvivaraņa, leaf 82).
- प्रग्रम्य परमात्मानं जगदानन्ददायिनम् ।
 न्यायालोकं वितनुते श्रीमान् न्यायविद्यारदः॥ (Nyāyāloka),
- कृत्वा न्यायालोक प्रवचनरागाद यदर्ज्जित प्रस्मम् । तेन सम दःखहेतू रागदेवी विलीयेतास ॥ (Nyāvāloka).

¹ चभाग्यं गौड़देशस्य यत्र कार्यः शिरोमणिः ।

Bauddha, Aupanisada, Digambara, Syādvāda-rahasya, Syādvādaratnākara, Sammatitīkā, Jňānārņava, Bhāsyakāra (Jinabhadra Gaṇi Kṣamāśramaṇa), Bṛhaspati, Dharmakīrti, Ācāryya, Cintāmaṇikṛt, Maṇikṛt, Miśra, Vardhamāna and Pakṣadhara Miśra.

The Nyāyakhandanakhādya is otherwise called Mahāvirastavana. It consists of 108 verses Nyayakhandanacomposed in eulogy of Mahāvīra and at khādya. the same time embodying solution of the deepest problems of Logic. There is an elaborate commentary in prose by the author himself elucidating many intricate points couched in the precise style of modern logicians. The work opens³ with a salutation to Mahāvīra who is called Sambhu and ends with a reference to the author himself. The topics treated in the work are:—Soul (ātman), emancipation (mukti), momentariness (ksanikatva), origination (utpatti), destruction (dhvamsa), syādvāda, kind and individual (jāti and vyakti), space and time (deśa evam kāla), middle term and major term (vyāpya evain vyāpaka), knowledge and external world (vijnānavāda evam vahyārthavāda), etc. The undermentioned philosophers, philosophical treatises and systems are referred to:-

Sāmkhya, Kaṇabhakṣa, Akṣapāda, Naiyāyika, Bauddha, Mādhyamika, Prabhākara, Mīmāmsaka, Bhāṣya, Vārtika, Ṭīkā, Samantabhadra, Gandhahasti Sammati, Miśra, Bhatta, Srīdhara,

1 यद्तां बौद्ध प्रधानेन — चित्तमेव चित्रसंसारो रागादिक्कोग्रवासितम्। तदेव ते र्विनिर्मुक्तं भवान्त इति कथ्यते॥

(Nyāyāloka, leaf 13, printed at Ahmedabad).

े रेक्वारजापरमाप्य कवित्ववित्ववाष्कासुरद्रमुपगङ्गमभङ्गरङ्गम् । सूक्ते विकासिकुसुमैक्तव वीरण्यभोरम्भोजयोखरणयोवितनोमि पूजाम्॥ (Nyāyakhandanakhādya).

प्रबन्धाः प्राचीनाः परिषयमिताः खेलतितरां
नवीना तकां ली स्टूर्टि विदितमेतत् कविकुते ।
स्वती जैनः काग्रीविबुधविजयपाप्तविस्तो
सुदो यक्कृत्वक्तः समयनयमीमां सितज्ञाम ॥

(Nyāyakhandanakhādya).

² The Nyāyakhaṇḍanakhādya has been printed in Bombay.

Udayana, Nārāyana, Nārāyanācārya, Siromani, Dīdhitikāra,

Vardhamāna and Gunānanda.8

The Astasāhasrīvivarana which is a gloss on the Astasāhasrī of Vidyananda opens with an obeis-Astasāhasrīance to Indrabhūti Gautama. The work vivarana. makes reference to the undermentioned philosophers, philosophical treatises and systems: -Vācaspati, Naiyāyika, Mandana Miśra, Prajñākara, Bhātta, Prābhākara, Hemacandra, Vācakacakravartī (Umāsvāti). Vaidānti-pasu, Kusumānjali, Gurumata, Murāribhatta, Murāri Miśra, Gautamīya, Udayanācārya, Bhattācāryya, Jarannaivāyika, Raghudeva 6 Bhattācāryya, Bhūṣānasāra,6 etc.

Yasovijava wrote many other works, Other works οf some of which are mentioned below:--Yaśovijaya.

Original works in Sanskrit:

1. Adhyātmasāra, 2. Adhyātmopanisad, 3. Ādhyātmikamata Khandana (satīka), 4. Adhvātmamata parīksā (satīkā), 5. Nayarahasya, 6. Nayapradīpa, 7. Nayopadeśa (with the Tīkā called Nyāyāmrta-taranginī), 8. Jaina Tarkabhāṣā, 9. Jňānabindu, 9. Mārgaparišuddhi, 10. Upadeša-rahasya

² जाते कि वृत्तिनिगमी ग्रदितः खभावा-कातिं विना न च ततो खबद्वार सिद्धिः। उत्प्रेचितं नन् प्रिरोमशिकागदरे न्तदाकाबोधर हितस्य न कि चिदेव॥

(Nyāyakhandanakhādva, leaf 42).

ः यन्त्रेवं सति तद्मये भावभूत स्थलकालाप्रतिसिद्धाविप प्रागभावस्य च्ताग्रीत्यपि प्रयोजनवदिति ग्राचानन्देनोक्तं कालतया खसमाववारगाय तदसत्। (Nyayakhandanakhadya, leaf 2).

• गेन्द्रमद्यः प्रशिधाय न्यायविद्यार्दयतिर्यक्तीविजयः ।

विषमामञ्जाष्ट्रस्थीमञ्जाष्ट्रस्या विवेचयति ॥ (Astasāhasrīvivarana, MSS. belonging to munis Vijayadharma Sūri and Indravijaya).

⁵ Raghudeva is referred to in leaves 4, 22.

म् सत्त्वेनैव द्वागभद्रो वक्तव्य इत्ययमभिष्राय इति नारायणाचार्यः। (Nvāvakhandanakhādva, leaf 3).

⁶ The Bhūsanasāra is more fully called Vyākaranabhūsanasāra. It is a grammatical treatise by Kaunda Bhatta. This work is referred to in leaves 34, 35, etc.

(saṭīka), 11. Vairāgyakalpalatā, 12. Dvātrimsadvātrimsikā (saṭīkā), 13. Jñānasāra, 14. Devadharma-parīkṣā, 15. Yatilakṣaṇasamuccaya, 16. Gurutattva-nirṇaya (saṭīka), 17. Samācārī, 18. Pratimāsataka (saṭīka) and 19. Bhāsārahasya.

Commentaries in Sanskrit.

20. Sastravārtāsamuccaya-tīkā, 21. Syādvādakalpalatā, 22. Karmaprakṛtiṭīkā, 23. Soḍaśakavṛtti.

Works not available.

24. Adhyātmopadeśa, 25. Syādvādarahasya, 26. Pramāṇarahasya, 27. Siddhāntatarkapariṣkāra, 28. Anekāntamatavyavasthā, 29. Patañjali yogaśāstra caturthapadavṛtti, 30. Ātmakhyāti, 31. Jñānārṇava, 32. Vicārabindu, 33. Trisūtryālokavidhi, 34. Mangalavāda and 35. Sathaprakaraṇa.

Works in Guzerati.

36. Srīpāla rājānā vāsano pāchalo bhāga, 37. Digpaṭa corāsībol, 38. Jambusvāmino rāsa, 39. Dravyaguṇa paryāyano rāsa, 40. Samādhiśataka, 41. Samatāśataka, 42. Tattvārthano tabbo, 42. Jñānasārano tabbo, 43. Jasavilāsa, 44. Samyak-śāstra vicārasāra, etc.

38. Note on the Strength of Sulphuric Acid Solution used in Secondary Cells in India.

By E. P. HARRISON.

A very important factor in the maintenance of a secondary cell is the strength of the dilute acid used to cover the

plates.

The right strength is that which is indicated by experience as giving the best results with the type of cell in question, and is usually made up of 4 parts of acid in 20 parts of water, or 20%. Any serious deviation from this strength is sure to shorten the life of the cell and will probably also reduce its output Manufacturers of secondary cells in Europe while it lasts. almost always send out with the "formed" and dry plates instructions as to the density which the dilute sulphuric acid should possess when poured into the cells before charging, while in addition to this they usually supply some form of hydrometer for testing the density of the solution during the various stages of charging and discharging. It is, in fact, well known that careful attention to the density of the solution in the cell is a matter of the first importance. The present Note is intended to draw attention to the fact that a large number of cells charged in India (and probably also in other countries where the average temperature is 30° C. or more) are now, owing to the comparatively high temperature in this country and the consequent reduction in the density of the correct mixture, being filled with solution which contains too high a proportion of acid.

In places where the temperature is 30° C. or over, the deviation from the correct percentage mixture (which is what really matters) is so considerable as probably to affect seriously

the efficiency of the cell.

Experimental.

In order to determine quantitatively the errors in the percentage mixture which it is believed are usually made by those who fill cells in India, it was necessary to make two sets of measurements:

(1) Of the variation with temperature of the density of

dilute pure sulphuric acid of some fixed strength.

(2) Of the change in density of the dilute acid as the percentage composition changes, keeping the temperature constant.

A specific gravity bottle of 50 cc. capacity was used in both sets of measurements and the temperature of the solution in the bottle was allowed to remain constant for at least 10 minutes in each case, before cooling and weighing. The balance used was capable of giving a much greater accuracy than was actually required.

The acid employed in these tests was a specimen taken from a jar of pure acid recently sent out from England by Messrs. Crompton & Co., for filling a new storage battery.

Method of calculating the density.

Let Δ_{θ} be the density of the solution at θ° C.

Let M_{θ} be the mass of liquid which fills the bottle at θ °C.

Let V_{θ} be the capacity of bottle in cc. at θ C.

Then

$$\Delta_{\theta} = \frac{M_{\theta}}{V_{\mu}}$$

But if 0.000024 be taken as the cubical expansion coefficient of glass, we have,

$$V_{\theta} = V_{15} \{ 1 + .000024 (\theta - .15) \}$$

Now the bottle used contains 50 cc. at 15 C, so that

$$V_{\theta} = 50 + .0012 (\theta - .15)$$

= 49.982 + .0012\theta

Therefore

$$\Delta \theta = \frac{M_{\theta}}{49.982 + .0012}$$

Results.

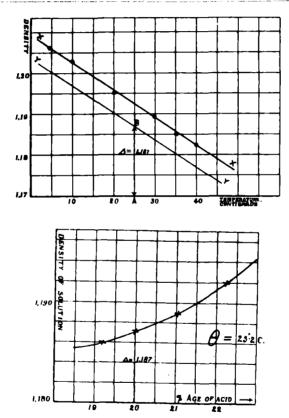
Since the actual numerical values obtained are of little interest in themselves, curves have been constructed which exhibit the results clearly and at the same time allow corrections to be made graphically for any temperature within the range of 0° C. to 40° C.

Figure 1 shows the variation of density with temperature for a 22.2% solution of acid.

Figure 2 shows how the density of an acid solution at 25.2° C. varies with the percentage composition.

Numerical values for the density.

Density.	Temperature.	Density.	% age Composition
1,206	4.5° C.	1,192	22.22
1,203	10° ,,	1,189	21.05
1,195	20° ,,	1,187	20.00
1,182	25·2° ,,	1,186	19.05
1,189	30° ,,	1,850	100.00
1.185	35° .,		
1,182	40° ,,		



A numerical example will probably best explain the method of treating the curves.

The object is to obtain graphically at any temperature that value of the density which corresponds with the correct percentage mixture of acid and water. Taking the correct mixture to be 20%, and assuming the European temperature to be 20%, and the Indian temperature to be 30%.

1st. Read off on curve 2 the density corresponding to a 20% mixture: this is seen to be 1,187, and the temperature

corresponding is 25.2°C.

2nd. Set up on curve 1 at a temperature of 25.2° an ordinate AB of value 1,187. Through B draw a curve (practically a straight line) parallel to the original 22.2% curve XX. This new curve will represent the variation with temperature of the correct 20% mixture. Reading off from the curve YY Fig. 1 the density corresponding to a temperature of 30°C., we obtain 1,183.

Now, in India, with cells at the assumed temperature of 30°C. the practice is to use acid solution of density 1,190.

A density of 1,190 at 30° C. is, however, equivalent to a density of 1,1935 at $25 \cdot 2^{\circ}$ (Fig. 1.), and from Fig. 2 this is seen

to correspond with a composition of 22.8%.

Finally then, a density of 1,190 at 30° corresponds with a composition of 22.8%, whereas the correct mixture on which the welfare of the cell depends should contain 20% of acid: a difference of 3%. Now consider the automatic changes which go on in the density of the solution during the process of charging. The total change in solution-density in Europe due to chemical action is from 1,190 before charging, to 1,220 after charging, which is an increase of about 6% in the solution-strength. Thus by using solution made up to a density of 1,190 in India at 30°C. we are filling the cells with a mixture which is too rich in acid, the error being as much as half the total density change in the cell due to chemical action.

It is clear from the above reasoning that the solution density which ought to be employed for filling secondaries at a temperature of 30°C. (in so far as changes in temperature affect density alone) is about 1,183, a number which is read off

directly from curve YY, Fig. 1.

Further experiments on the output of different cells filled with acid solution of the same density but kept at different temperatures would be interesting. The effect of wrong solution-strength on the *life* of a cell would obviously be more difficult to determine since the life depends on so many factors which it is hard to fix. In conclusion, my thanks are due to Babu Rabati Raman Dutt, M.A., Government Research Scholar of Presidency College, by whom nearly all the actual experimental measurements described in this Note were made.

39. A Preliminary Note on the Use of Storage Cells in Bengal.

By Satish Chandra Mukerjee, M.A., B.Sc.

In connection with our work on "The Electrical State of Nascent Gases" [Journ. Asiat. Soc. Beng. Vol. iii, 1907], Professor Cunningham and I have, for the last five years, been using a battery of small storage cells, supplied by G. Pye & Co. Though we strictly followed the directions given by the Company, we found that the cells were rapidly becoming useless owing to the corrosion of the top parts of the plates (mostly, the positive plates). The average life of an individual cell varied from three months to one year. Many precautions having proved unsuccessful I at last thought of using acid of less concentration than what is recommended for use in England, viz., acid of sp. gr. 1190.

After several trials I found acid of sp. gr. 1150 to give the best results. The cells filled with acid of this specific gravity were charged in November, 1908. As the cells are still in good order, it is too early to state the period of their life under the new conditions; but evidently it is much longer than when

acid of sp. gr. 1190 or 1180 was employed.

The reason of the above experimental result is most probably this. The velocity of chemical reaction of dilute sulphuric acid on metallic lead and lead peroxide, to which the current of the secondary cells is due, increases with temperature and is, therefore, greater at temperatures of 30° to 35°C. which obtain in Bengal! than at temperatures 15° to 20°C. which obtain in England. This greater velocity is injurious to the life of the cells, giving rise to too much lead sulphate at the expense of lead and lead peroxide of the plates. As a matter of fact, the breaking of the plates was preceded by the appearance of a white deposit of lead sulphate at the point of breakage. Thus to bring down the velocity of reaction it is necessary to decrease the concentration of the acid employed.

Professor E. P. Harrison has recently shown that to use acid of the same concentration as in England, viz., 20% acid, we must take acid of sp. gr. 1183 instead of that of sp. gr. 1190. The better results I have obtained with acid of even less concentration is probably due, therefore, partly to a temperature density effect, and partly to the increase in the velocity of chemical reaction with rise in temperature as has been pointed

out above.

Further investigations on this subject are in progress.

It was observed that the breakage of the cells was quicker in summer than in winter.
 Refer to the current number.

40. Mahārāja-Kanika-lekha,

By Mahāmahopādhyāya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, M.A., Ph.D.

Mahārāja-Kanika-lekha is the title of a letter the Sanskrit original of which is now lost but a Tibetan version is embodied in the Tangyur, Mdo, Gi. This version was prepared by the Indian Pandita Vidyākara-prabha and the Tibetan Lama Rinchen-mchog, and was edited by teacher Dpal brtsegs. The original letter was written by a Buddhist monk named Mati-

citra to a king named Kanika.

I have lately brought a copy of the letter from the monastery of Pamiangchi in Sikkim. But our esteemed friend, the well-known Tibetan-Sanskrit scholar Mr. F. W. Thomas, already published the text of the letter with English translation and a learned introduction in the Indian Antiquary for September 1903. So it is hardly necessary here to enter into details of the letter, and I shall content myself with offering only a few observations on Maticitra and Kanika—the two important historical personages mentioned in it.

Maticitra —There are two authors each bearing the name Maticitra mentioned in Tibetan books. The later Maticitra 2 was the spiritual preceptor of King Buddha-pakṣa, while the earlier one was a contemporary of King Candra Gupta. 8 The earlier Maticitra was known under various names 4 such as Ācārya Krsna, Mahāvīra,

may stand for Virya-prabha or Vidyākara-prabha.

Candra Gupta is called in Tibetan 373815 This Candra

Gupta appears to me to be the king of that name who founded the Gupta era in 319 A.D., though he is described in the Pag-sam-jon-zang and by Lama Tārānātha to be a contemporary of Cāṇakya.

Orig. has \$\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1

² Vide Pag-sam-jon-zang, edited by Rai Sarat Chandra Das, C.I.E.,

p. 92, 14. King Buddha-pakea is called in Tibetan 지도자회자 資미지

⁸ Vide Pag-sam-jon-zang, p. 91.

Asvaghosa, Pitrceta, Mātrceta, Durdharsa, Dhārmika and Subhūti. He was, on the supposition of his being the same as Pitrceta, born in a Brāhmaṇa family and was converted to Buddhism by Deva or Ārya Deva, as is evident from the following story!:—

"The King (Candra Gupta) built a monastery called Kusumālankāra, and his brother's son, King Srī-Candra, built a temple of Avalokitesvara as well as 14 chapels in Nalanda and worshipped Ācārya Pitrceta and Upādhyāya Rāhula the junior. Regarding Pitrceta it is said that in a certain eastern city there was a merchant who had given his youngest daughter in marriage to the family of a Brahmana named Sargha-guhva. Her offspring called Krsna was siddha of Mahadeva and by his grace became a great master of the Tirthika lores. gaged in controversies with the Buddhist Panditas in Orissa. Gauda and the Tirhoot provinces, he defeated every one of His victories filled him with an overweening pride. But his mother, who was a Buddhist, told him that the Buddhists in the above countries were only as many as the hair contained in a horse's ear, but that towards Magadha they were as numerous as the hair upon the entire body of the horse. He set out for Magadha but was defeated thrice in three controversies by Ācārya Ārya Deva. He was thereupon converted to Buddhism."

According to the Chinese pilgrim Hwen-thsang² too, Maticitra alias Aśvaghoṣa was a contemporary of Deva or Ārya Deva. Perhaps there is a covert allusion to Ārya Deva in the following lines of Maticitra's letter to Kanika:—

क्ष हिंद ॲव ५ द देंद मार्ड र नशा ॲव ५ द क्ष मार्च द मार्ड र । क्ष हिंद क्षेत्र दक्ष सम्मित्र सम्मित्र । क्ष मार्च देंद्र के सम्मित्र सम्मित्र ।

(Mahārāja-Kanika-lekha, verse 44).

म्मिश्च । (Pag-sam-jon-zang, p. 91).

मिर्ग हों (Pag-sam-jon-zang, p. 91).

Pag-sam jon zang , p. 91.
Watters' on Yuan-Chwang, Vol. II, pp. 101-102.

"O Deva (king), having acquired talents use them really like Deva (a god or Ārya Deva); O Deva (king), having known all faults be really faultless like Deva (a god or Ārya Deva)."

From the above it is evident that Maticitra alias Aśvaghosa was a contemporary of Ārya Deva and Candra Gupta. If we suppose Candra Gupta to be the king of that name who founded the Gupta era in 319 A.D., we cannot resist the conclusion that Maticitra and his patron Kanika lived at the end of the third and beginning of the fourth century A.D.

Kanika—Is stated in the letter to have belonged to the Kuśana family, which though foreign was at the time of the composition of the letter so far Hinduised that it was described as a section of the solar race. So we read:—

ম্বানুম্'র্মমানী ইমানর্মামান।

শুরান্বি'ইনামান্তান্ত্র্রেমানির্নিনীমা।

অবানীমান্বনামাইনামানী মানী।

শার্মানুর্নিনির্নিনীমানার মান্তমানার্মির্নি।

(Mahārāja-Kanika-lekha, verse 49).

"Trained by *Pravrajita* (monks) and born in the race of Kuśāna thou shouldst not defile the creed of the family whose ancestors descended from the noble line of the sun."

Kanika was not the founder of the Kuśāna dynasty. That his ancestors reigned in India and professed Buddhism is evident from the following verse of the letter:—

ਲ਼ੑਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑੑਫ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੵੑੑੑੑੑ੶ਜ਼ੑਜ਼ੑਜ਼੶ਖ਼ੑੑੑੑੑੑ੶ਜ਼ ਫ਼ਸ਼੶ਗ਼ੑੑਫ਼੶ਸ਼੶ਖ਼ੵੑੑੑੑੑਜ਼੶ਜ਼ੑਖ਼ੑੑਜ਼੶ਜ਼ੑਜ਼ੑ੶।

Mr. Thomas reads: KIJK'

ै गुर्ज ्य is evidently the same as गुज्जा Mr. Thomas reads

TA but agrees in interpreting it as TAI

लयः मेश्चर्वेश्यः पुः स्वाप्तः मी। नुशः भूवः द्वेषः यसः सहनः नुः न्वेश्वः ॥

(Mahārāja-Kanika-lekha. verse 46).

'Do thou like thy ancestors rule the earth by righteousness; and do thou advance the religious observances in temples like unto thy ancestors.'

Regarding Kanika we further read:

"Again, at that time there was a king towards the west—Delhi and Palwa —called Kanika, who opened 28 mines of precious metals and worshipped more than 30,000 priests of the Mahāyāna sect. He invited Aśvaghoṣa, who being too old could not go, but sent a letter through his disciple Jñāna-yaśas."

Kanika who was king of Delhi and Palwa must be distinguished from Kaniska who reigned in Jālandhara, though both were descended from the Kuśāna race. It was during the reign of Kaniska that the third 3 Buddhist Council was held in the Kuśāna's monastery at Jālandhara. So we read:—

"Hearing that he held the third Buddhist Council in the Kundalavana Vihāra: the Kāśmīrians tell this story. But the general belief is that there assembled in the monastery of Kuśāna in Jālandhara 500 Arhats above the rank of Srotāpanna and about 5000 ordinary monks. The teachings of Buddha, as prophesied in Kṛki's dream, were arranged. The last council was held. The Tripiṭakas, particularly the Vinaya which was formerly not put in writing, were now codified, and such scriptures as were formerly in writing were now revised."

Kaniska's son too, in his palace called Rgas-Idan, maintained 10,000 monks headed by 100 venerables for 5 years, and helped in the preparation of many volumes of the Buddhist scripture.⁵

Kuśāna—The Kuśāna race to which both Kanika and Kaniska belonged is the same as Kweishwang, a branch of the Yuechi stock. The Kweishwangs were also called Tukhāras or Turuskas, 6 as for instance, Kaniska the

¹ Palwa is the same as l'alhava. Mr. Thomas has Malwa (vide Ind. Ant. for September 1903, p. 348).
2 Pag-sam jon zang, p. 91.

³ According to Lama Tārānātha too, Kanika is different from Kaniska, as is noticed by Mr. Thomas himself. According to the Tibetans there were only two councils up to the time of Asoka.

<sup>Pag sam jon-zang, p. 83.
Pag-sam-jon-zang, p. 83.</sup>

⁶ Beal's Buddhist Records of the Western World, Vol. I, p. 56 n.:

Kuśāna is expressly designated in the Rājatarangini as descended from the Turuska race. The Kuśānas rose in power on the Oxus about 126 B.C., when Tahia was conquered. After subduing the Se or Sakas, the Kuśānas entered India about the middle of the 1st century B.C. Leaving a normal space for the reigns of Kadphises I and II, we may assign their successor Kaniska to the 1st century A.D. The later Kuśanas are said to have reigned up to the 4th century A.D. Kanika was very probably a king of the later Kuśanas, and if we suppose him to be a contemporary of Aśvaghosa and Candra Gupta I, he lived about 319 A.D. This leads us to conclude that the Kuśānas reigned in various parts of Northern India during the first four centuries of Christ, even in some instances contemporaneously with the Guptas. Even supposing that Kanika and Kaniska were the variant forms of the same name, we cannot but admit that there was a king named Kaniska at the end of the 3rd and beginning of the 4th century A.D. This view tallies well with the statement in the Rajatarangini that 12 reigns intervened between Kaniska (or Kanika) and Mihirakula (515 A.D.).2

and Notes on the Indo-Scythians by Sylvain Levi in Ind. Antiq. for November 1903.

¹ Rājatarangiņī, I, 170.

² Watters' on Yuan Chwang, Vol. I, p. 290.

The date of Kaniska I, if we suppose him to be different from Kanika, has not been definitely fixed. The Saka era (78 A.D.), which is generally ascribed to him, was perhaps a mere device for practical reckoning received from the Greeks. Vide Dr. F. J. Fleet's communication on "the Saka Era." J.R.A.S. for July 1910.

41. A Note on "Old Guns in Bengal."

By REV. H. HOSTEN, S.J.

The frequent finds of old guns in Bengal will surprise less, when we remember how large a number the native chiefs had at their disposal.

In a letter of Father Nicolas Trigault, dated Goa, the eve

of Christmas, 1607, we read:

- "It is now time that we should pass on to the kingdom of Pegu, formerly one of the most flourishing, and now so desolated and depopulated, because of an infinity of evils and calamities which it has suffered, that it is but a desert and uninhabited forest. The king of Bengala! was lord of Pegu, who had bestowed the government of it on a certain Portuguese Captain called Philippe Brittus.² He at once built there a fortress and, collecting the remnants of the Pegans roaming, and wandering in the woods, he assembled them in a small town.
- "However, the king began to suspect the Portuguese [Captain] and called him to his Court. He defended himself as best he could, and finally withdrawing with great protestations of obedience to the king (tout à plat de l'obeyssance du roy), he placed the kingdom into the hands of the king of Portugal. And having received help from the viceroy of the Indies, he bravely defended the citadel, and finally, after having with a very few men gained several battles against the king, he destroyed a great naval army which the son of the king had brought to besiege the citadel, and took him prisoner, before he could set foot on land. Great were the spoils then taken: among other things he seized nine hundred pieces of artillery, I say nine hundred again, lest you should think that I am making a mistake in writing.
- "The father ransomed his son with a large sum of money and made peace with the king. But, perfidious as he was, this barbarian, after recovering his son, broke his word at once, and, on that occasion, arming a bigger fleet than before, came with his son to exterminate wholly the Portuguese. But, he met with the same fortune as heretofore, except that he escaped by flight, while his son was once more taken by the

¹ Arakan.

² Filippe de Brito Nicote. Cf. Index of Vol. 2 in Danvers' The Portuguese in India (s. v. Nicote).

³ Of Pegu.

⁴ Of Portugal.

Portuguese. We do not well know yet all the circumstances of that so celebrated victory, considering that it was gained quite recently." (Cf. Abbé C. Dehaisnes, Vie du Père Nicolas Trigault de la Compagnie de Jésus, Tournai, Casterman,

1864, pp. 235-36.)

Father du Jarric, quoting Father Fernão Guerreiro, S.J., who held his information from the Jesuits then in Bengal, writes that in the first engagement, in 1605, a thousand ordnance pieces, big and middling ones, were taken. On the second occasion, in 1607, the King of Arakan armed 75 large galiots, each bearing at least 12 large guns. He disposed in all of 3,500 pieces of artillery, "large and small." But, to make good his escape, after his defeat near Siriam, he was obliged to bury the greater part of his artillery along the coast. (Cf. DU JARRIC, Troisiesme partie de l'Histoire des choses plus memorables Bordeaus, 1614, pp. 870, 874, 884.)

When Chittagong was taken by the Moguls in 1666, 1,223 pieces of cannon, of different calibres, were found in the place.

(Cf. STEWART'S History of Bengal, p. 300.)

42. Catalogue of Inscriptions on Copper-plates in the Collection of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

By RAKHAL DAS BANERJI.

- 1. The Sohgaurā plate.—This plate was discovered by a man while digging for a foundation of a house in the village of Sohgaurā, district Gorakhpur, in the United Provinces. The man gave the plate to his landlord, from whom it was obtained by Dr. W. Hoey, I.C.S. (Retd.) and presented to the Society in 1894. The inscription is of considerable importance, being the oldest Brāhmī record on metal. The Proceedings of the Society for June 1894 contains three notes on this plate, by Messrs. Hoey, V. A. Smith and Hoernle, and a full-size facsimile of the inscription. The late Dr. Georg Bühler published it in 1896 in the Vienna Oriental Journal. He translated the inscription as follows: 2—
- "The order of the great officials of Srāvastī, (issued) from (their camp at) Mānavasitikata:—These two store-houses with three partitions, (which are situated) even in famous Vamsagrāma, require the storage of loads (bhāraka) of Black Panicum, parched grain, cummin-seed and Āmba for (times of) urgent (need). One should not take (anything from the grain stored)."

Dr. J. F. Fleet, the latest writer on the subject, translates it as follows: $^{8}-$

"Notice for all the three great roads for vehicles! At the junction, (named) Manavasi, of the three roads, in actually (the villages) Dasilimata and Usagāma, these two store-houses are prepared for the sheltering of loads of commodities of (i.e., from and to) Tiyavani, Mathulā, and Chamchu, to meet any case

of urgent need, but not for permanent use!"

The inscription is in four lines of Maurya Brāhmī (B.C. 320—230) with a row of symbols at the top. The symbols are, from the left,—(1) A tree inside a railing or in a box. Dr. Fleet takes this to be "the mark of the town Tryavani." (2) A storehouse with a roof on four posts. (3) A javelin or arrow. (4) A stūpa, as the numismatists call it, or a representation of Mount Meru according to Dr. Bühler. Dr. Fleet is, however, of opinion that the arrow, which he understands to be a spoon, and the stūpa are "the arms of Mathurā." (5) The Taurine symbol of numismatics. (6) Bare tree inside a railed enclosure. (7) Another store-house, similar to no. 2.

³ J.R.A.S., 1907, p. 522.

¹ Proc. A.S.B., 1894, pp. 84-88.

² Vienna Oriental Journal, Vol. X, p. 147.

There are four holes near the four corners; and whatever the correct interpretation of the inscription may be, there is no doubt about the fact that it was a notice intended to be hung in a prominent place. The plate measures $2\frac{5}{8}$ by $1\frac{5}{8}$.

- 2. The Sue Vihār inscription of Kaniska.—The inscription was discovered at Sue Vihār which is about sixteen miles from Bahāwalpur. It was found imbedded in the floor of a ruined tower of sunbaked bricks. An account of the tower and the surrounding ruins was published by Mr. E. C. Bayley, C.S.I., in the Society's Journal, who gave his version of the inscription also. It was published by Hoernle in 1881 2 and Bhagwanlal Indraii in 1882.3 It was discovered by the Rev. G. Yeates in 1869 and forwarded by Major Stubbs to Mr. E. C. Bayley, who is supposed to have presented it to the Society. The inscription consists of a single line of Kharosthi incised along the edge of a thin plate of copper. The inscription records the erection of a staff which belonged to a mendicant named Nagadatta, learned in the Samkhya philosophy, the disciple of Damatrata and the disciple of the disciple of Bhava, by an abbess who was the wife of Balanandi and the mother of Balajaya, on the 28th day of the month of Daisios in the 11th year of Kaniska. This is the only dated Kharosthi record in the collection.
- 3. The Taxilu plate.—This inscription is incised on a thin strip of copper which was broken into four pieces at the time of its discovery. Of these four only three have been found in the Society's collection. They were discovered inside a small stupa at a village named Shah Dheri in the Rawalpindi district. According to Cunningham these strips of copper were given to Major Pearse in or about 1855. Nobody knows how or when they came into the possession of the Society. The inscription records the erection of a stupa by a certain . . . metiakha, an inhabitant of Taba . . . , together with his wife, for the worship of his father and mother and for the destruction of sin. The total length of these strips is 8" and the mean breadth \(\frac{3}{4}''. \)'
- 4. The Gorakhpur grant of Jayādityadeva I.—The plate was discovered near the river called the little Gandak in the Gorakhpur district of the United Provinces. It was brought by Mr. John Ahmuty, the then Magistrate of the district, who communicated it to Captain Wilford, by whom it was presented to the Society. The inscription was first edited by H. T. Colebrooke

 $^{^{-1}}$ $J.A.S.B., \, {\rm Vol.} \,$ XXXIX, pt. I, pp. 65-67; see also $J.R.A.S. \, ({\rm N.S.}), \, {\rm Vol.} \,$ IV, pp. 497-99.

² Ind. Ant., Vol. X, pp. 324-31.

Bilbid., Vol. XI, pp.
 English version of Bühler's Indian Paleography. Ind. Ant., Vol. XXXIII, App., p. 28.

⁶ Cunningham, A.S.R., Vol. II, pp. 124-25. 7 Journ. and Proc., A.S.B., Vol. IV, p. 363.

in 1807 in the Asiatic Researches, and was subsequently reprinted in his Miscellaneous Essays.2 The late Dr. Kielhorn edited it from an ink impression supplied to him by Dr. J. F. Fleet.3 The record is incised on one side of a single plate of copper measuring 161" by 121". On the proper right side of the plate is "an oval projection with a raised rim on which is rivetted a disc of the same shape, similarly with a raised rim. which contains a flat button about an inch in diameter: on the countersunk surface of this button there is some emblem which may perhaps be an animal ' The record commemorates the grant of the village of Dummuddumaka to the service of the goddess Durgā, by Madoli the minister of King Javāditva. The prasasti was composed by the Kayastha Nagadatta, and the verses about Nagadatta were composed by his younger brother Vidvādatta. According to the closing verse of the inscription either the pragasti was composed on the grant made at Jivanapalli. The use of such adjectives as Bodhisattva, Sugata, in connection with proper names shows that the persons mentioned in this grant were inclined towards Buddhism. The approximate date of the grant is 9th century A.D. Kielhorn's no. 604.

5. The Gorakhpur grant of Jayadityadeva II.—This plate was made over by Dr. W. Hoey, I.C S., to the Society in 1899. It was discovered by "some men employed to dig kankar at the north-east corner of the large sheet of water covering over thirty acres at the village Gurmha. The inscription was deciphered and published by the late Dr. T. Bloch, Ph.D., then Philological Secretary of the Society.5 The inscription records the grant of the villages of Kumārasandikā together with the pallikās Patrasandā, Šankusandā, Gāddhī and Deulī in the Leddikā visaya and the Daddarandikā mandala by the Parameśvara Parama-bhattāraka-mahārājādhirāja Jayadityadeva II, the son of Dharmmadityadeva and the grandson of Javadityadeva I of the Malayaketu family, to a Kāyastha named Keśava. The document is signed by the minister (Mahāmantrī) Māhaka. and the Mahāsāmanta Grahakunda acted as dūtaka. inscription was written by the Kayastha Valadduka in the Vikrama year ⁶ 927, i.e., 870 A.D. The record is incised on one side of a single plate of copper measuring 123" by 123". "On the top there is a oval projection, upon which we find the representation of a full-blown lotus, the centre of which consists of a raised disc bearing the image of some animal, perhaps a boar, with Srī-Jayadityadevah written below in raised characters."

¹ As. Res., Vol IX, pp. 406-12.

² Colebrooke's Miscellaneous Essays, Vol. II, pp. 247-54.

³ Ind. Ant., Vol. XXI, pp. 169-71.

^{*} J.A.S.B., 19:0, pt. I, p. 88.

* Ep. Ind., Vol. VIII, App. I, p. 4, note 2.

7 J.A.S.B., 1900, pt. 1, p. 90. ⁵ Ibid, pp. 88-92.

- 6. The grant of Vināyakapāladeva.—Nothing is known about the finds of this plate except that it was presented by General J. C. Stacy about the year 1848. Secretary of the Society published Dr. Rajendra Lala Mitra's version of the text in the same year. Later on Dr. F. E. Hall gave his version in 1862.2 In 1864 an eve-copy of the last line was published by Dr. Mitra 3 The plate was fully edited by Dr. J. F. Fleet in 1886. The inscription records the grant of the village of Tikkarikā, in the Pratis hana bhūkti, and attached to the Käsipāra pathaka, in the Vārānasī visava by the Mahārāja Vināvakapāladeva, to the Bhatta Bhullāka, after bathing in the Ganges, on the 9th day of Phalguna of the Vikrama year 988 = 931 A.D.1 The charter was drawn up by the illustrious The inscription is incised on a massive plate of copper and consists of seventeen lines. In the place of the seal a large panel with a raised border is attached to the right of the inscription bearing the genealogy of the Pratihara kings in sixteen lines of raised letters. At the top of these a four-armed erect female figure stands in relief. The plate measures 1' 93" by 1' 53". Kielhorn's no. 544.
- Jhusi grant of Trilocanapaladeva.--This plate was discovered in the village of Jhusi in the Allahabad district of the United Provinces. It was presented to the Society by Mr. R. Brown 5 and was edited by the late Dr. Kielhorn in 1889.6 The inscription records the grant of the village of Lebhundika, in the Asurabhāka visaya, to six thousand Brāhmanas of Pratisthana, after having bathed in the Ganges, on the occasion of the daksināyana-sainkrānti, the fourth day of the dark half of Sravana of the Vikrama year 1084[= 26th June 1027 A.D.]. The record is incised on a single plate of copper measuring 1' 5½" by 1' 2½" with a projection at the top, most probably, intended for the seal. Kielhorn's no. 60.
- 8 and 9. Ashrafpur grants of Devakhadga.—These two copper plates, together with a chaitya of the same metal, were discovered at Ashrafpur, police station Raipur, in the Dacca district, in 1884 or 1885. Inscription No. 8, called by the late Babu Ganga Mohana Laskar "Plate A", was published by Dr. R. L. Mitra in 1885. It was the property of a certain Babu Pratapa Candra Banerji. Inscription No. 9 called "Plate B" was rece ved five years later and was purchased from Babu Tārak Nāth Rāya.8 Both inscriptions have recently been edited by the late Babu Gangā Mohana Laskar."

No. 8. measures 10" by 6.5" and bears eighteen lines of writ-

¹ J.A.S.B., Vol. XVII, pt. I, p. 70, ff.
2 Ibid., Vol. XXXI, p. 1. 5 Ibid.
4 Ind. Ant., Vol. XV, p. 138, ff.
5 Asiatic Researches, Vol. XVII, p. 621. ⁵ Ibid., Vol. XXXIII, p. 321.

Ind. Ant, Vol. XVIII. p. 33.
 Proc. A.S.B., 1885, p. 49.
 Proc. A.S.B., 1890, p. 242, and 1891, pp. 119-20.
 Memoirs A.S.B., Vol. I. p. 85, pl. vii.

ing in acute-angled characters of the 9th or 10th centuries A.D. A circular seal with a beaded rim is attached to the top of the plate bearing the figure of a bull couchant in relief, and below it the name of the king, in raised letters. The plate has suffered very much along the borders and is covered with verdigris. It records the grant of certain villages and portions thereof to a Buddhist monastery under supervision of the spiritual preceptor Sanghamitra by the King Devakhadga in order to secure the longevity of his son Rajaraja-bhatta. mentions the queen (Mahādevī) Prabhāvatī and was written at Javakarmanta-vasaka by Pūradasa in the month of Vaisakha of the regnal year 13. Inscription no. 9 measures 7½" by 6" and records the donation of six patakas and ten dronas of land to the monastery of Sanghamitra. The donor seems to have been Rājarāja-bhatta. The dûtaka was Yajñavarmman and the scribe Püradāsa. Both plates are incised on one side only. Plate no. 9 was sent to Gangā Mohan Babu several years back and has not yet been recovered. Kielhorn's no. 651.

10. The Bhagalpur plate of Nārāyana pāla.—This plate was sent by a certain Mr. Smith of Bhagalpur. A line runs along the edge of the plate and at the top is a massive seal consisting of a raised disc with a row of dots along the circumference and foliage on each side. The disc bears the representation of the wheel of law (dharmacakra) in the centre with a deer couchant on each side. Below the disc is the name of Nārāvanapala in raised letters. The inscription was published by Dr. R. L. Mitra in 1878; a more correct version was published by Dr. E. Hultzsch, then Government Epigraphist in 1886. scription records the grant of the village of Makutikā in the Tīrabhūkti Kaksa visaya to the congregation of Pāsupata teachers at Kalasapota for the adequate worship of the lord Siva by Narāvanapāladeva in the 17th year of his reign. The dūtaka was Gurava, probably the same man mentioned in the Buddal pillar inscription, and the engraver was Manghadasa, an inhabitant of Eastern Bengal (Samatata). The inscription is incised on both sides of a single plate measuring 1'3.5" by 1'. Kielhorn's no. 638.

11. The Amgachi plate of Vigrahapala III.—This plate was discovered by a peasant while digging for earth near his hut for the repair of a road in 1806. He gave it to the police, who sent it to Mr. Pattle, the then magistrate of Dinajpur, by whom it was forwarded to the Society. The discovery was announced by Colebrooke with his reading and translation.4 Dr. Hoernle took it up about eighty years later and published Finally, Dr. Kielhorn gave his version of the the text twice.5

¹ J.A.S.B., Vol. XLVII, 1878, pt. I, p. 384, pl. xxiv-xxv.

Ind. Ant., Vol. XV, p. 304.
 Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 161.
 Asiatick Researches, pp. 434-38.
 Centenery Review of the A.S.B., pt. VI, pp. 210-13 and Ind Ant., Vol. XIV, pp. 162-68.

first twenty lines in 1892. A complete version with a plate would still be welcome The inscription records the grant of some land in the Kotivarsa visaya, and Paundravarddhana bhikti, to a Brāhamana, by Vigrahapāladeva, after a bath in the Ganges, on the occasion of a lunar eclipse, in the 13th year of The record was incised by Sasideva, an artizan of the village of Pośali. The inscription is incised on both sides of a single plate measuring 1'2\frac{1}{2}" by 1'1". At the top of the inscription is a seal similar to that on No. 10 bearing the name of Vigrahapāladeva in raised letters. The inscription is in a bad state of preservation. Kielhorn's no. 643.

12. The Mānahāli grant of Madanapāla.—This plate was found in a park adjoining the village of Manahali in the district of Dinajpur and was forwarded by the late Mr. N. K. Bose, C.S., then magistrate of Dinajpur. The inscription records the grant of the village of Kasthagiri in the Kottivarsa visaya and the Paundravarddhana bhūkti to a Brāhmana named Vatesvarasvāmin as daksinā for having read the Mahābhārata for the benefit of the Queen, by Madanapala in his 15th regnal year. The metrical portion of the grant is very important as it gives a complete list of the Pala kings. The record is incised on both sides of a single plate measuring 1' 33" by 1' 4". The seal is similar to those on Nos. 10 and 11. The dūtaka was the Sāndhivigrahika Bhimadeva, and the scribe was the artisan Tathāgatasara.2

13. A grant of Madanapāla of Kānyakubja.—Nothing is known about the provenance of this inscription. It was edited by Dr. Fitz-Edward Hall in 1858, who believed it to be the property of a certain Major R. R. W. Ellis.3 It was subsequently re-edited by Dr. Kielhorn in 1889.* The inscription records the grant of the village of Ahnāma in the Dhanesaramauā pattalā, to a Sāmavedi Brāhmana named Vāmanasvāmišarmman, by Candradeva, the father of Madanapala, after bathing in the Ganges at the ghatta of Trilocanadeva, at Benares, on the occasion of the Uttarāyana samkrānti. Evidently the grant was issued by Madanapāla immediately after his father's death. The date is Monday, the 3rd of the white half of Magha of the Vikrama year 1154, i.e., 19th January 1097 A.D. The grant was incised by the Karanika-thakkura Sahadeva. The inscription is incised on one side of a plate of copper to which seal is attached by means of a ring which passes through a hole at the top. The plate measures 1' 9" by 1' 2". The devices on the seals of the grants of the Gahadavala kings of Kanauj consists of the figure of Garuda kneeling at the top

Ind. Ant., Vol. XXI, pp. 97-99.
 J.A.S.B., Vol. LX1X, 1900, pt. I, pp. 66-73.

³ J.A.S.B., Vol. XXVII, pp. 220-41. * Ind. Ant., Vol. XVIII, p. 9.

and a conch (śańkha) at the bottom and the name of the king between them. Kielhorn's no. 76.

- 14. Rāhan grant of Govindacandra of Kanauj.—This plate was discovered by a person digging in a field at Rahan. a village in the Etawah district. It was presented to the Society by Mr. F. Growse of Mathura. The inscription was published by Babu Durgaram Basu in 1876 and subsequently by Dr. Kielhorn in 1889.2 The inscription records the grant of a part of the village of Ramaitha in the Sigurodha pattalā to a Brahman named Gunacandra, an emigrant from Bhatakavada by the Rānaka Lavarāpravāha. The Mahārājaputra Govindacandra, evidently acting on behalf of his father, makes it known by means of this grant. The land was granted to Lavarāpravāha after bathing in the Yamunā at the ghatta of the god Muraitha, on the occasion of a solar eclipse on Sunday. the 15th of the black half of Pausa of the Vikrama year 1166. which comes to about 3rd January, 1109 A.D. The grant was written at the request of the Mahattaka Gangeya by Tribhuvanapāla, the son of the thakkura Devānga, and incised by Sunarakkudana, the son of Satehara. The inscription is incised on one side of a single plate measuring 1'73" by 1'1". The seal is missing, only a ring is attached to the top by means of a hook. Kielhorn's no. 83.
- 15. The Varunā grant of Jayacandra.—This plate along with the four following ones (nos. 16-19) were found near the confluence of the Varunā or Varana with the Ganges near Benares in 1823.³ This inscription records the grant of the village of Godanti in the Paścima Ichapana pattalā in the Antarvedī together with the pāṭakas Ghaṇṭiāmauyī and Nītāmauyī to a Kṣatriya named Rāuta Rājyadharavarman after bathing in the Ganges at Benares on Saturday the 10th day of the bright half of Vaṣṣākha of the Vikrama year 1233, i.e., 9th April, 1177 A.D. The donee of this and the following grants are the same, and they were written by the Mahāksapaṭalika, the thakkura Sripati. The inscription is incised on one side of a single plate of copper with seal and ring measuring 1' 8½" by 1' 4". Kielhorn's no. 168.
- 16. Another Varunā grant of Jayacandra.—This inscription records the grant of the village of Kothāravandhuri in the Kosamba pattalā to the Rāuta Rajyadharavarman by Jayacandra on the same date as No. 15.4 The inscription is incised on one side of a single plate of copper with seal and ring measuring 1'9'' by $1'4_{16}'''$. Kielhorn's no. 169
- 17. Another Varuna grant of Jayacandra.—A translation of this inscription was published with some remarks by H.H.

Proc. A.S.B., p. 130.
 Asiatic Researches, Vol. XV.
 Ind. Ant., Vol. XVIII. p. 15.
 Ibid., p. 136.

Wilson in 18.1 It records the grant of the village of Deūpāl together with the pāṭakas of Vavaharādiha, Caṭagelanāpāli, Saravatātaliā and Naugamā, in the Ambuāli paṭtalā on the banks of the Daivāha, by Jayacandra, after bathing in the Ganges at Benares on the occasion of the Uttarāyaṇa saṃkrānti, on Sunday, the 4th of the bright half of Pausha of the Vikrama year 1134, i.e., the 25th December 1177 A.D.² The inscription is incised on one side of a single plate of copper measuring 1'8½" by 1'5¾". Kielhorn's no. 171.

18. Varuṇā grant of Jayacandra, 1136.—This inscription records the grant of the village of Dayadāma in the Dayadāmī pattala by Jayacandra to Rājyadharavarman, when residing at Raṇḍavāi, after bathing in the Ganges on the full moon of Vaisākha, i.e., on Friday, the 15th of the bright half of Vaisakha of the Vikrama year 1136, i.e., 11th April 1180 A.D.³ The inscription is incised on one side of a single plate of copper measuring 1'8" by i' 3\frac{1}{4}". Kielhorn's no. 173.

19. Varunā grant of Jayacandra, 1135.—This inscription records the grant of the village of Soleti in the Jaruttha pattalā by Jayacandra to Rājydharavarman on the same place and date as No. 18.4 The inscription is incised on one side of a plate of copper measuring 1' 6\frac{1}{8}" by 1' 1\frac{1}{4}". Kielhorn's no. 174.

20. Varuṇā grant of Jayacandra, 1136.—This inscription records the grant of the village of Abhetavatu in the Jaruttha pattalā with its five pāṭakas: Maniārī, Gayasada, Vatavaṇa, Asiāma, and Sīrīma by Jayacandra at the same time and place as nos. 18-19 to the same donee. The inscription is incised on a single plate of copper, with ring and seal, measuring 1'53" by 1'3". Kielhorn's no. 175.

21. Orissa plates of Vidyādharabhanjadeva.—Nothing is known as to the provenance of these plates. In 1887 they belonged to Mr. C. T. Metcalfe, Commissioner of the Orissa Division. In the same year the inscription was published by Dr. R. L. Mitra. Subsequently the plates were presented to the Society by the Commissioner of Orissa through Mr. C. L. Griesbach. Dr. Hoernle sent the plates to the late Dr. Kielhorn, and his version was published immediately after his death. They are three substantial copper plates, the edges of which are slightly raised, and of which each measures between 6 1 and 6 1 and

¹ Asiatic Researches, Vol. XV, pp. 447-69.

² Ind. Ant., Vol. XVIII, p. 137. ³ Ibid., p. 139.

^{*} Ibid., p. 140.

* J.A.S.B., Vol. LVI, pt. I, p. 154, ff.

TEp. Ind., Vol. IX, p. 271, ff.

bears in relief on a countersunk surface, in the upper half, a couching lion facing to the proper right, and in the lower half the legend:—

Srī-Vidyādhara.
 bhañjadevasya."¹

The plates had already served for another grant before the present record was incised, like the Buguda grant of Mādhavavarman.² The inscription records the grant of the village of Tuṇḍurāva in the Ramalavva viṣaya by Vidyädhara-bhañjadeva. The grant was sealed by the queen of Trikalinga and the minister Stambhadevabhaṭṭa, brought to the donee's home by the messenger Keśava, written by the Sāndhīvigrahika Khambha and incised by the goldsmith Kumāracandra. The record is incised on one side of the first plate and on both sides

of the other two plates.

22. The Orissa grant of Gayāda-tungadeva.—This plate was found in a glass case in the Library of the Asiatic Society of Bengal labelled "copper plate grant dated Saka 1165 bearing an inscription in Bengali characters." Recently Prof. Nilmani Chakravartti has published it. It is incised on a small but very thick plate of copper with a seal attached to its top. It measures 6" by 5". The inscription records the grant of the village of Toro in the Vendumga visaya and the Yamagarta mandala to a number of Brāhmaṇas, who emigrated from Ahichattra and settled in the village of Kuruvābhata in the Odra visaya by Gayādatungadeva. The seal is elliptical and bears the figure of a bull couchant and below it the name of the king in raised letters.

23. The Mādhāinagar grant of Laksmana Sena.—This copper plate was discovered thirty to thirty-five years before by a peasant named Raghunath Bunia in the village of Madhainagar on the border of the Nimgāchi forest in the Pābnā district of Bengal. It was brought to Pabna by Bābu Durgānātha Tālugdār, where it was translated by Kavirāja Gopichandra Sena and Babu Prasanna Nārāyana Chaudhuri. The last-named gentleman published his account of the discovery in the Aitihāsika Citra, where he incidentally stated that the copper plate will be forwarded to the Asiatic Society of Bengal. In 1904 Babu Umeśa Candra Gupta saw this plate in the house of Mahāmahopādhyāya Haraprasād Sāstrī, in the possession of the late Babu Ganga Mohana Laskar. Subsequent inquiries which I caused to be made of Babu Prasanna Nārāyana Chaudhurī elicited the fact that this copper plate had been sent to the Society, and the Society's receipt for it was still in the Pābnā

¹ Ep. Ind., Vol. IX, p. 272. ² *Ibid.*, Vol. III, p. 41. ³ Journ. and Proc., A.S.B., Vol. V, p. 347, pl. 17 & 18.

⁺ বল্লালমোহ মুক্তার by Pandit Umesa Chandra Gupta, pp. 96-97.

collectorate. In 1907, while I was searching for the Tippera grant, sent to the Society by Mr. McMinn, then one of the Vice-Presidents, which also was issued to Gangā Mohana Babu, I was informed by Mahāmahopādhyāya Hara Prasad Sastri that Babu Gangā Mohana Laskar's father had sent one of the plates to him. On careful examination I find that this was the Madhainagar grant, and I edited it in the Society's Journal. The grant is a very important one for the history of Bengal, and specially for that of the Sena dynasty. The inscription records the gift of the village of Dāpaniyā $p\bar{a}tika$ in the Paundra-Varddhana bhukti to Dāmodaradeva Sarman by Laksmanasena-Deva. The inscription is incised on both sides of a single plate of copper measuring $1'3\frac{1}{2}" \times 12\frac{1}{2}"$. In the place of the seal a tenarmed male figure is attached to the top of the grant by a hook.

24. Spurious bronze plate from Hamirpur.—According to a label on its back in the hand-writing of Mr. V. A. Smith and signed by him, this plate was obtained by him through Pandit Muralidhar from an old Bhar woman living in Chaubepur near Citrakot, who said that she originally came from mauja Siuni in Pargana Jalālpur in the Hamirpur district. The grant was obtained by the Pandit in 1875 and was forwarded to the Society by Mr. Smith. In 1877 Dr. Rajendra Lāla Mitra pronounced it to be a forgery, which verdict was adopted by Mr. Smith. The inscription is in Maurya Brāhmī and records the defeat of the tribe of Bhars by Lodhas in the Vikrama year 1404, i.e., 1447 A.D.³ The date is given in modern Nāgari numerals. The inscription is in nine lines and has been incised on a thin rectangular plate measuring 9¾" by 7½". The two upper corners are clipped.

The following eleven copper plates bear short inscriptions, in very modern Nāgari characters and Hindi language, recording grants of land made by the princelings of Rajputāna and Central India during the period of the dissolution of the Mughal Empire. The dates on these inscriptions cover a period of about sixty-five years (1726—1790), the earliest of them being a grant by the famous freebooter, Rāja Chatrasāla or Chhattarsāl of the modern historians. There are three grants by Raja Gumāna Singh of Kota, three more by Rājā Hindupati Singh of Bundi, single ones of Mahārāja-Kumāras Udota Singh and Kīrti Singh, and Rājā Sikhet Singh of Kumāras Udota Singh and kīrti Singh, and Rājā Sikhet Singh of Kumāras Udota Singh and kīrti Singh,

inscriptions is the Vikrama era.

25. Grant of the Mahārāja-Kumāra Udota Singh.—This inscription records the grant of certain lands to Pandit Saragasura [Svargaśūra] and Giradhāri [Giridhārī], on Monday the 30th of the dark half of Māgha of the year 1783[=1726 A.D.], by the

Journ. and Proc., A.S.B., Vol. V, p.465, pl. 23 & 24.
 Proc. A.S.B., 1877, p. 266.
 J.A.S.B., Vol. XLVI, 1877, pt. I, p. 236.

Mahārāja-Kaumāra-divāna Udotasīmgha [Udyotasimha]. The word mujahim occurs twice and the main inscription ends with the words mukāma Parihara, which might mean that Parihara was the residence of the prince. To the left of the inscription is the "seal" $[ch\bar{a}pa]$, as it is called, on the majority of these inscriptions, which consists of a circle scratched on the plate containing the titles of the prince. In this case the seal contains five lines. It measures 8" by $6\frac{1}{2}$ ".

26. Grant of $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ Chatras $\bar{a}l\bar{a}$.—This inscription records the grant of two hundred bighās of land in mauja Kahaba to Pandit Jagan Dube [Dvivedin], on Monday, the 30th of the dark half of Phāguna [Phālguna] of the year 1784[=1727 A.D.], by Rājā Chatrasāla. The mukāma is Uhobā or Hebā. The main inscription consists of five lines and the "seal," which in this case is to the left of the inscription, of three lines. It

measures $7\frac{1}{8}$ by $5\frac{1}{2}$.

27. Grant of the Mahārāja-Kumāra Kīrtti-Simha.—The inscription records the grant of the village of Pataurā in pragane [pargane] Saihadāka to Tivārī Hiraderāma [Trivedī Hrdayarāma] by the Mahārāja-Kumāra-Kiratisīmghadeva [Kīrttisīmhadeva] in the year 1800. The inscription is incised on a circular plate with a line above the main inscription along the circumference. The main inscription consists of four lines. Below this, two lines run diagonally, after which come six more lines containing the names of two maujās Ekasukā and Jaitapura. The seal consists of six lines. The full titles are:—

1. Srī-jagateśa

2. nareśa-vodh[ā]dit[y]a

3 dinesa-pratāpa Ki

4. ratisimgha divāna

Below the seal and so to the right is an endorsement consisting of six lines, while four shorter endorsements are incised on the left. The diameter of the inscription 13".

28. Grant of $R\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ Hindupati Singh of the year 1816.—The inscription begins with an invocation to $Kamat\bar{a}n\bar{a}tha$ and records the grant of 180 bighās of land to Mahanta Govimdāsa [Govindadāsa] in $mauj\bar{a}$ Aharauli of pargana Gahorā on the 13th of Saona [$Sr\bar{a}vana$] of the year 1814[= 1757 A.D.], by the Rāja Hindupati Simgha. The $muk\bar{a}ma$ was Madh. The seal consists of five lines and there is a single endorsement on the reverse. The plate measures 10'' by $6\frac{1}{2}''$.

29. Grant of Hindupati Singh of the year 1816.—The inscription begins with the name of Siva [paramesvara] and records the grant of fifty-one bighās of land to Pandit Ganasusalala[Ganasukhalāla] by Rājā Hindupati Singh in the year 1816[= 1859 A.D.] The main inscription consists of six lines and the

"seal" of five lines. The $muk\bar{a}ma$ was Kāli $[\dot{m}]$ jara. One corner of the plate is clipped and it measures $9\frac{1}{16}$ " by $8\frac{n}{16}$ ".

30. Grant of Hindupati Singh of the year 1817.—This inscription records the grant of some land to Mahanta [i.e. abbot] Hirā-Lāla in maujā Adhabe, pargana Angāsi, on the 15th of Vaisākha of the year 1817-1760 A.D., by Rājā Hindupati Singh. The main inscription consists of twelve lines and the "seal" of five lines. It is incised by dots on a thin plate of copper measuring

1'13" by 41" and is in a very badly mutilated state.

31. Grant of Hindupati Singh of the year 1827.—The inscription begins with the name of Ganeśa and records the grant of some land in maujā Karauli, pargana Augāsi, to Mahanta Garīvadāsa, on the 14th of the dark half of Caitra of the year 1827[=1770 A.D.], by the Rājā Hindupati Singh. The word mujāhima occurs once and the mukāma is Paṭanā. The main record consists of eight lines and the "seal" of five lines below the word Ganeśa, at the top are the words Sanadhasahī. "The signature to the grant" and to the left the endorsement of Vakasi [bakhshī] Harakisana. There are two more endorsements on the reverse. The plate measures 9" by 9½".

32. Grant of Gumāna Singh of the year 1818.—The in-

32. Grant of Gumāna Singh of the year 1818.—The inscription records the grant of some land in maujā Vāripāri in pargana Doje Gatapehadhetī to Tivārī [Trivedin] Jagidhar on the 11th of the dark half of Agana [Agrahāyana] of the year 1818[=1761 A.D.]. The main inscription and the seal consist of

six lines each and the plate measures 81 by 91".

33. Grant of Gumāna Singh of the year $18\bar{1}8$.—The inscription records the grant of certain land, in maujā Mirajāpur [Mirzāpur] in pargana Sejatā, on the 5th of the bright half of Māha [Māgha] in the year 1818[=1761 A.D.]. The main inscription consists of seven lines and the seal of six lines. The mukāma is Marajāpur [Mirzāpur?]. The reverse bears three endorsements viz., Rāu Savadalasimgha, Bagasī [bakhshī] and Valaju. The plate measures $7\frac{3}{4}$ " by $6\frac{5}{8}$ ".

34. Grant of Gumana Singh of the year 1835.—The inscription records the grant of fifty bighas of land in maujā Loharā to Pandit Harīvamsa duve [divedin], on Monday the 30th of the dark half of Vaisāsa [Vaiśākha] of the year 1835[=1778 A.D.], by Rājā Gumāna Singha. The mukāma was Srīnagara. The main inscription consists of eighty lines and the seal of five lines. The reverse bears three endorsements and the plate

measures $7\frac{1}{2}$ by 5".

35. Grant of Rāja Sikheta Singh of the year 1847.—The inscription begins with the name of Rāmacandra and records the grant of some land, in the village of Burdapai in pargana Gahorā, to Srī-Vaisnodāsa Rāmadāsa on the third of the dark half of Pausa of the year 1847, by Rāja Sikheta Singha. The seal consists of five lines and the main inscription of seven lines. The mukāma was Kali[m]jara. The corners of the plate are round and it measures 9½" by 8½".

43. Triacanthus weberi, sp. nov.

By B. L. CHAUDHURI.

(With Plate XXXII.)

D. V. 22-23; P. 13-14; A. 18-19; C. 13-14.

Height of body slightly greater than the length of head and both contained about 3 times, the distance of cloacal opening from the root of caudal contained $2\frac{1}{2}$ times, and the length of caudal peduncle 4 times in the total length excluding caudal fin. Length of snout is contained $1\frac{1}{3}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ times in the length of head.

Eyes more elliptical than circular, major axis of the ellipse almost coinciding with the direction of the length of the fish, and is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ times of the breadth of the eye. In the young, however, the eye is more round. Length of eye is contained $3-3\frac{1}{2}$ times in the length of head, 2 times in the length of snout and one time in intra-orbital space which consists of two lateral convexities with a shallow fossa in the middle. The distance between the upper edge of the eye and the base of first dorsal spine is almost equal to the length of eye, and the post-orbital part of the head is very much shorter than the length of eye, the former length being contained $2\frac{1}{2}$ times in the latter.

Fins.—The first dorsal spine is twice as long as the second ray of the spinous dorsal and is slightly longer than the ventral spine but shorter than the length of head. The ventral spine is contained nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ times and first dorsal spine about $1\frac{1}{4}$ times in the length of head. Length of base of anal fin is contained $1\frac{1}{2}$ times in length of base of the soft dorsal fin. The pelvis between the ventral spines is moderately broad and posteriorly terminates tapering to a point.

Shape.—Dorsal profile of the head shows two concavities which are separated by the slight convexity in front of the eye. The concavity above the eye is slight; sub-orbital concavity is in the superior side of the snout and is more prominent than in any other species of this genus; this concavity is still greater in the young. The ventral profile of the head shows a convexity anterior to ventral spine which ends in a shallow concavity in front which again merges gradually in the ventral profile of the prolonged portion of the snout. The convexity in the ventral profile of the head just described gives a distin-

guishing shape to the species and makes it appear as it were possessed of a double chin. The upper edge of the occipital crest is always in the same straight line with the snout.

Teeth.—Eight incisors in each jaw, the lower jaw being slightly prominent and prolonged.

Colour.—Upper part of the body glaucous grey with deeper coloured margin and some deeper blotches interspersed in the upper part of the body, lower part being silvery white; there is a blurred blackish spot in front and around the base of the first dorsal spine; the portion of the membrane between the first dorsal and the rest of the rays of the spinous dorsal is immaculate, but the portion of the membrane that is above the level of the second ray of the spinous dorsal and is attached to the upper half of the first dorsal spine is intensely black. The upper half of first dorsal spine itself is also From below the eyes to almost end of the snout (that is, excluding upper lip and premaxillary portion), the front of the snout with its bevelled edges to the extent of onefourth of the length of eye is coloured blackish, which suddenly loses itself in the silvery white colour of the buccal area which is similarly coloured as the lower part of the body. Soft dorsal, pectoral, anal, and caudal fins, ventral spines and lips are all dull white. There is no black spot in front of ventral spine as in Tr. biaculeatus (Bloch).

The principal points in which the new species differs from the rest of the known species belonging to the genus may be more conveniently stated in a tabular form as follows:—

In Tr. brevirostris, Tr. indicus, and Tr. nieuhofi—the snout is straight.

In Tr. strigilifer—the second ray of spinous dorsal is more than half as long as the first.

In Tr. blochi and Tr. biacu- } leatus and all the rest—the second ray is more than half as long as the first.

Length of head in total length excluding caudal—

In Tr. blochi, $3\frac{1}{2}$ — $3\frac{1}{5}$ times. In Tr. biaculeatus, $3\frac{1}{2}$ times. In Tr. brevirostris, $3\frac{1}{2}$ — $3\frac{3}{4}$ times.

In Tr. indicus, $3\frac{1}{4}$ — $3\frac{1}{2}$ times. In Tr. nieuhofi, $3\frac{1}{2}$ — $3\frac{3}{5}$ times. In the new species—the snout is concave.

In the new species—the second ray of spinous dorsal is normally half as long as the first dorsal spine.

In the new species length of head three times in total length excluding caudal. Height of body in the total length excluding caudal—

In Tr. biaculeatus, 2⁴/₅ times.

In Tr. oxycephalus, $2\frac{1}{3}-2\frac{1}{2}$ times.

In Tr. brevirostris, $2\frac{1}{2}-2\frac{3}{4}$ times.

In Tr. indicus, $2\frac{1}{3}$ — $2\frac{2}{3}$ times.

In Tr. nieuhofi, $2\frac{1}{3}$ times.

Length of caudal peduncle in the total length—

In Tr. strigilifer, $4\frac{1}{2}$ —5 times.

In Tr. blochi, $4\frac{1}{2}$ — $5\frac{1}{2}$ times.

In Tr. biaculeatus, $4\frac{1}{2}$ —5 times.

In Tr. oxycephalus, $6\frac{1}{2}$ —7 times.

Length of eye in length of head—

In Tr. biaculeatus, $3\frac{1}{2}$ —4 times.

In Tr. oxycephalus, 3—4 times.

In Tr. brevirostris, $3\frac{1}{2}$ —5 times.

In Tr. indicus, $3\frac{1}{4}$ — $4\frac{1}{4}$ times.

Intra-orbital space—

In Tr. strigilifer, concave without distinct median ridge.

In Tr. biaculeatus, concave with median ridge scarcely distinct.

In Tr. oxycephalus, flat.

In Tr. brevirostris, with distinct ridge with a groove on each side.

The occipital crest-

In Tr. blochi—upper edge of occipital crest forms an angle of about 160 with that of snout.

In Tr. biaculeatus—upper margin of occipital crest forms an angle of 170 with that of the snout.

In Tr. oxycephalus — upper edge of occipital crest is convex.

In the new species
—height of body in
total length excluding
caudal is three times.

In the new species length of caudal peduncle in the total length is four times.

In the new species length of eye in the length of head, $3-3\frac{1}{2}$ times.

In the new species—the intra-orbital space consists of two lateral convexities with a shallow fossa or depression in the middle of the space.

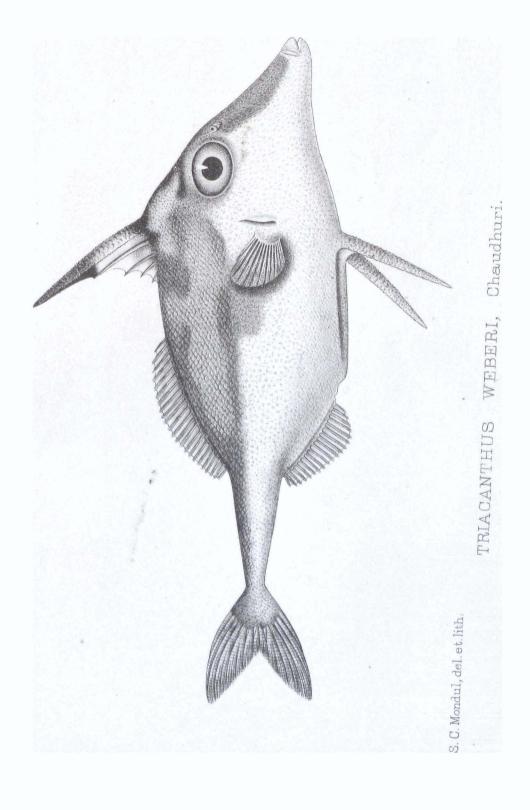
In the new species—the upper edge of the occipital crest is almost in the same straight line as that of the snout.

- In Tr. oxycephalus, Tr. strigilifer, Tr. blochi, and Tr. biaculeatus—the first dorsal spine is longer than the head; and in Tr. indicus the first dorsal I spine is as long as the head.
- In Tr. biaculeatus distance from posterior margin of eve to base of first dorsal spine, $1\frac{3}{5}$ — $1\frac{3}{5}$ times as long as eye length.
- In Tr. brevirostris length of post-orbital part of head equal to or greater than eye diameter.
- In Tr. strigilifer, Tr. blochi and Tr. oxycephalus — the membrane of spinous dorsal is immaculate; in Tr. biaculeatus, the membrane between first two rays of spin- > ous dorsal is blackish; in Tr. brevirostris, Tr. indicus and in Tr. nueihofi, the entire membrane of spinous dorsal blackish.

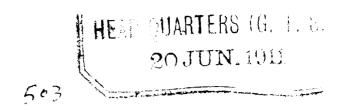
- In the new species—the first dorsal spine shorter than the length of head.
- In the new species—distance from upper posterior margin of eye to base of first dorsal spine is equal to eye length.
- In the new species length of post-orbital part of head is contained 21 times in the eve length.
- In the new species—the portion of the membrane of spinous dorsal which is within the rays of the spinous dorsal and lower half of the first dorsal spine is immaculate but the portion which is above the level of the second dorsal ray and only attached to the upper half of the first dorsal spine is coloured intensely black.

There were altogether 11 specimens collected from the Bay of Bengal by the steam trawler "Golden Crown." One from the mouth of the River Hugli, 4 in the Arakan coast, and 6 off Gopalpur in the Madras coast during 1908-9. Ten of these have been used as types for this description and they are in the collection of the Indian Museum. Their total length including the caudal fin and their numbers in the register of the Museum are given below: F. $\frac{4.07.2}{1.7} = 15$ C.M., F. $\frac{1.07.8}{1.7} = 14.6$ C.M., F. $\frac{3.50.7}{1.7} = 14.3$ C.M., F. $\frac{3.50.7}{1.7} = 13.9$ C.M., F. $\frac{1.07.8}{1.7} = 13.8$ C.M., F. +0.5.8 = 13.2 C.M., F. +0.7.9 = 13.2 C.M., F. +0.8.1 = 12.5and **F**. $\frac{10.81}{10.2} = 10.2$ C.M.

The remaining specimen was submitted to Professor Max Weber for examination, and we are very much indebted to him



for his kindly taking the trouble of comparing that specimen with authentic specimens of Bleeker as well as with the original drawing of Bloch's Triacanthus biaculeatus. The observations and remarks made by Professor Max Weber in his reply have been very helpful in drawing up this description.



44. On the Preparation of Phenyl-Nitro-Methane by the interaction of Mercurous Nitrite and Benzyl Chloride.

By Panchanan Neogi, M.A., Professor of Chemistry, Rajshahi College, and Birendra Bhusan Adhikary, M.A.

The Aliphatic Nitro-Compounds were originally prepared

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The maps illustrating Mr. Ascoli's paper on "The Rivers of the Delta" will be issued in a subsequent number of the Journal.

paper we have prepared Phenyl-Nitro-Methane by the interaction of Mercurous Nitrite on Benzyl Chloride. Experiments are progressing for the preparation of Phenyl-Nitro-Methane by the interaction of the Alkali Salts of Toluene-exo-Sulphonic Acid and Alkali Nitrites.

Experimental.—In order to compare the yields of Phenyl-Nitro-Methane formed by the respective use of Silver and Mercurous Nitrites we have prepared the compound by both the methods.

INTERACTION BETWEEN SILVER NITRITE AND BENZYL CHLORIDE.

70 grams of dry Silver Nitrite were mixed with about 30 grams of white sand and heated with 56 grams of Benzyl Chloride on a water-bath in a flask with an upright spiral condenser. Large quantities of nitrous fumes due to the formation of Nitric Oxide were evolved and a lighted match presented to the exit end of the condenser did not cause the

44. On the Preparation of Phenyl-Nitro-Methane by the interaction of Mercurous Nitrite and Benzyl Chloride.

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The Aliphatic Nitro-Compounds were originally prepared by Victor Meyer (B. 5,399; A. 171, 1; 175, 88) by the interaction of Silver Nitrite on the Alkyl Iodides. Attempts were made to replace Silver Nitrite by means of Lead Nitrite, but without success. Râv has, however, shown that by the interaction of Mercurous Nitrite and Ethyl Iodide both Nitro-Ethane and its Isomer, Ethyl-Nitrite are formed in equal quantities (Annalen, Bd. 316, 253). Rây and Neogi (Proc. Chem. Soc., 1907, 246) have also succeeded in preparing considerable quantities of many Aliphatic Nitro-Compounds by using Mercurous Nitrite in the place of the Silver Compound. Ray and Neogi (Trans. Chem. Soc., 1906, 1900) have also prepared Aliphatic Nitro-Compounds by the interaction of the Alkali Salts of Ethyl Sulphuric Acid and the Alkali Nitrites. Phenyl-Nitro-Methane. the aromatic analogue of Nitro-Methane, was prepared by Gabriel (1885) by the interaction of Silver Nitrite on Benzyl Chloride. Gabriel and Kopp (B. 18, 1254; 19, 1145) have also prepared the same compound by the action of acids upon the Di-Sodio-Derivative of Nitro-Benzylidine phthalide. In this paper we have prepared Phenyl-Nitro-Methane by the interaction of Mercurous Nitrite on Benzyl Chloride. Experiments are progressing for the preparation of Phenyl-Nitro-Methane by the interaction of the Alkali Salts of Toluene-exo-Sulphonic Acid and Alkali Nitrites.

Experimental.—In order to compare the yields of Phenyl-Nitro-Methane formed by the respective use of Silver and Mercurous Nitrites we have prepared the compound by both the methods.

Interaction between Silver Nitrite and Benzyl Chloride.

70 grams of dry Silver Nitrite were mixed with about 30 grams of white sand and heated with 56 grams of Benzyl Chloride on a water-bath in a flask with an upright spiral condenser. Large quantities of nitrous fumes due to the formation of Nitric Oxide were evolved and a lighted match presented to the exit end of the condenser did not cause the

ensuing gas to catch fire. The reaction was vigorous and after some time the evolution of nitrous fumes ceased. The contents of the flask were next stirred and heated gently in an open flame. The resulting Phenyl-Nitro-Methane with excess of unchanged Benzyl Chloride was distilled in vacuo. The liquid thus obtained was then fractionally re-distilled under reduced pressure. The results of one typical operation with the substances taken in the proportions noted above are given below. The fraction (120°—160°) gives very readily the characteristic test of Nitro-Compounds of solidifying en masse on the addition of alcoholic caustic soda on account of the formation of the sodium compound.

Pressure 20 m.m. liquid boiling

below 100° ... 11·3 grams. ,, between 100°—120° ... 5·9 grams. ,, 120°—155° ... 3·2 grams.

The liquid boiling between 120° to 155° is practically pure Phenyl-Nitro-Methane, which was found by Gabriel to boil at 160° at 35 m.m. and at 216° at atmospheric pressure with decomposition, that boiling between $100^\circ-120^\circ$ also gives the test of Nitro-Compounds but to a less extent. The fraction below 100° consists mainly of unchanged Benzyl Chloride.

Interaction between Mercurous Nitrite and Benzyl Chloride.

Mercurous Nitrite was prepared on the large scale according to Râv's method (Annalen, II. 649, 1898; Annalen, II. 452,1901), using Nitric Acid diluted in the ratio of 1 to 3. We have found that the same acid may be used two or three times for the preparation of two or three crops of the yellow crystals of the compound. When used for the fourth time, the acid being very weak, the yellow crystals were largely mixed with large colourless crystals of Mercurous Nitrate. 75 grams of dry Mercurous Nitrite mixed with about 25 grams of clean white sand were taken in the apparatus described above and 36 grams of Benzyl Chloride added. No heat was at first developed, which was also the case with Silver Nitrite. When, however, the flask was heated on a water-bath, very violent reaction took place with a copious evolution of nitrous fumes. The contents of the flask were next submitted to vacuum distillation and the liquid thus obtained was fractionally redistilled as described

¹ It was found that pure Benzyl Chloride boils at about 100° at 20 m.m. and that Nitro-Benzene which resembles Phenyl-Nitro-Methane in odour but does not give the sodium salt test boils at about 110° C. under the same pressure.

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under Silver Nitrite. In the case of Mercurous Nitrite, the reaction is much more vigorous than in the case of Silver Nitrite.

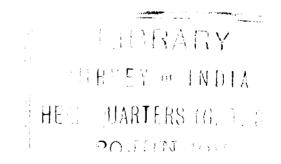
Pressure 20 m.m. liquid boiling

below 100° ... 5·2 grams.

,, between 100°—120° ... 3 grams.

,, 129°—155° ... 9·6 grams.

From the above results it is seen that the yield of Phenyl-Nitro-Methane is much greater with Mercurous Nitrite than in the case of Silver Nitrite, while in the case of pure Aliphatic Nitro-Compounds the yield is much less. It is also to be noted here that the reaction of Mercurous Nitrite with Alkyl Iodides is much slower than with the Silver Compound, while with Benzyl Chloride the reverse is the case.





45. Materia Medica Animalium Indica.

By DAVID HOOPER.

Workers on Indian Materia Medica have paid more attention to drugs of vegetable origin than those of the animal kingdom. One reason for this neglect is because drugs of the latter class form a small proportion of those in general use. The present paper is an attempt to bring these materials together in a classified form, to state their properties as far as they are known, and to give their composition where this has been ascertained. The following works among others have been consulted in compiling the list, and notes from correspondence in the Office of the Reporter on Economic Products, Indian Museum, have been utilised:—

Ainslie's Materia Indica, 1826. Irvine's Topography of Ajmeer, 1841. Honigberger's Thirty-five Years in the East, 1852. Baden Powell's Punjab Products, 1868. Pharmacopæia of India, 1868. Sakaram Arjun's Bombay Drugs, 1877. U. C. Dutt's Materia Medica of the Hindus, 1900. Khory's Materia Medica of India, 1908. Watt's Dictionary of the Economic Products, 1889-1893, and Commercial Products of India, 1908.

Many substances such as the flesh of animals and charms worn on the person to prevent disease are omitted from the list. Galls produced by insects have not been enumerated as it is considered more appropriate to deal with them as vegetable structures under the name of the trees upon which they are formed. The present list of animal drugs therefore includes, as far as possible, those that are recognized by Hindu and Muhammadan physicians and sold in the bazar. I have to acknowledge the valuable help I have received from Dr. N. Annandale in identifying specimens and for supplying information on many of the products.

PROTOZOA.

NUMMULITES ATACICUS.

These button-like fossils are sold in the drug bazar of Lahore under the name of sangh nadh.

In Baden Powell's "Punjab Products" the following fossils are enumerated:—

Sang-i-khurus, a fossil encrinite (Echinodermata). Sang-i-irmali, a fossil (Echinodermata). Hajr-ul-vahudi, encrinite. Sang-i-shadnaj, a fossil nummulite. Sancha, a nummulite from Mazari hills.

These fossils have no other virtue than what they derive from calcium carbonate, but on the strength of the doctrine of similitudes they are administered on account of their resemblance to the products of disease.

Spongida or Porifera.

Spongia Sponge.

Vern.:—Mua badal, Hind.; Vādatū, Guz.; Abar murdah, Pers.; Isfanj, Arab.

The name seems to be given from the idea that this substance is allied in its nature to the clouds, and hence its pro-

perty of holding water.

The antacid properties of burnt sponge and its tonic and deobstruent qualities have been much extolled. It is given internally in cases of dropsy, dysentery and bowel complaints. Its efficacy is supposed to depend upon the iodine it contains. Sponge consists of an organic body, spongin, and 3 to 4 per cent. of ash.

ACTINOZOA.

Alcyonaria.

CORALLIUM RUBRUM, Lam. .. Red coral.

Vern.:—Mungki sakh, sang-i-marjan, Hind.; Pravala, Mar.; Kya ve khet, Burm.; Bussud, Arab.; Marjan, Pers.; Prabala, birbat, Sans.

Obtained from the Red Sea and Persian Gulf and Arabian Coast.

This coral is digested in lime juice and reduced to powder, or calcined in covered crucibles and then powdered. It is used as a tonic, and to check vomiting and acidity depending on dyspepsia. Dr Honigberger says, the Hakims use it externally for weakness of vision, and internally for spitting of blood, and suppression of urine. Coral consists principally of calcium carbonate, the red kind has been said to contain about 4 per cent. of ferric oxide. My specimens are free from iron and the colouring matter is organic. Baden Powell refers to Kushta sang-i-marjan, from Sirmur, as a pink powder not effervescing with acids.

Tubipora musica, Cham. .. Organ pipe coral.

Vern.:—Mungay-ki-jar.

Composed of a number of bright red tubular cylindrical thecæ united together. It is used in the same manner as red coral. The colouring matter is organic.

ECHINOIDEA.

CIDARIS sp.

Vern.:—Sang-yahudi, Sanj-jahud, Sung deraz, Surkoola, Pathar-ka-ber, Hind.; Dugre bore, Bomb. Jews' stone.

This fossil echinoid consists of the petrified spines of a sea urchin. Extravagant ideas prevail as to the origin of this drug which some suppose to be a petrified fruit. Pathar-kaber, the name it has in Delhi, signifies stones or petrified fruits of Zizyphus jububa. It is described in "Taleef Shereef" under the name of Sungjerahut and is said to be useful in wounds and internally in flatulence and diarrhœa. It is sold in Bombay and the Punjab. Samples in the Indian Museum came from Delhi, Amritsar and Lahore. Mr. G. H. Tipper of the Geological Survey informs me that they come from the Jurassic of the Salt Range, Punjab. They contain 95 per cent. of calcium carbonate.

OLIGOCHÆTA.

Kharatin-khushk. According to Baden Powell's "Punjab Products," this is the name given to earth-worms collected in the rains, dried and sold in Lahore.

HIRUDINEA.

LEECHES.

Jok, jonk, Hind.; Drik, Kashmir; Jala, Guz.; Attai, Tam.; Jelagalu. altalu, jeriku, Tel.; Jigani, Kan.; Atta, Malay; Miyon, minyon, Burm.; Kudallu, pundal, Sing.; Jalukaha, Sans.; Aalag, zalo, Arab.; Zalo, zalok, Pers.

Leeches have long been known and recommended by Sanskrit writers. Those used in Bengal come chiefly from Baraset. The best are said to be obtained from Shekoabad in the United Provinces. Large numbers are caught at Patiala in the Punjab. The species of Indian leeches have not been scientifically determined.

CRUSTACEA.

CRAB.

The carapace shells of crabs are employed medicinally at Lahore under the name of *Kekra* (Baden Powell).

The so-called "crab's eyes," sold in oriental bazars, are the opercula of gasteropod molluscs. (See *Turbo sp.*)

Peneus monodon, Fabr. .. Dried Prawn.

Vern :- Mahi rubian, Hind.

These dried crustaceans of a pinkish colour come from the coast of Sind and are sold in the bazars of the Punjab.

Baden Powell catalogues another animal under the name of *Mahi rubian ka kism*, which comes from the sea coast. He says, "The sample is not a shrimp as the first is, the dried pieces having a grey colour.

ARACHNIDA.

TROMBIDIUM GRANDISSIMUM, Koch.

Vern.:—Birhoti, bhir buti, birbavati, Hind.; Indrabovum, tumble puchi, Tam.; Kirmie aroosl, Arab.; Endra boga crimie, Sans. The Scarlet Mite or Rains' Insect.

This mite has been referred to Bucella carniola (Platt's Dictionary), Mutella antiquensis (Honigberger, Mutella occidentalis (Ainslie), and to species of Tetranychus and Aranea. These insects are of a bright scarlet colour, velvety in appearance. They are found nearly all over India and Burma where the soil is sandy, and are very common at the commencement of the rainy season in July. They are dried and kept for sale in the bazars. The mite and the expressed oil have a great reputation among Muhammadans as an aphrodisiac. The oil is also used as an external application for various complaints. In Bengal it is considered to act as a nervine tonic. In Lahore according to Dr. Honigberger the mites are used against snake bites and in colic of horses.

Dr. E. G. Hill of Allahabad in 1905 examined the oil expressed from the insects and communicated the results to this Society. He found the principal constituents to be myristo-diolein, with small quantities of stearin, cholesterol, colouring matter and butyric acid. It does not possess the properties of a counter-irritant which had been ascribed to it by older writers. (Journ. As. Soc. Beng., 1905, 74.)

INSECTA.

Hemiptera.

Coccus cacti, Linn. The Cochineal Insect.

Vern.:—Kirmaj, kirmdana, Hind.; Karmiz, Per. Cochi neal.

The female insect dried. Used as a colouring agent and as an adjunct to expectorant mixtures. The Hakims consider it destructive to the generative faculty. The supply comes from Bombay; that used in Afghanistan is said to come from Persia and Bokhara.

TACHARDIA LACCA, Kerr. .. The Lac Insect.

Seed lac is officinal at Lahore and is used in enlargement of the liver, dropsy, ulcers and wounds.

HYMENOPTERA.

APIS DORSATA, Fabr. The Hill Bee. The Tree Bee. Apis indica. Fabr. The Flower Bee. APIS FLOREA, Fabr.

The properties of wax and honey are too well known to need description.

An account of the sources, preparation, trade and composition of the Bees' wax of British India will be found in "The Agricultural Ledger," No. 7 of 1904.

The honey of A. florea, as well as that of Melipona sp.,

is reputed in some districts to have medicinal properties.

In Mandalay the comb (Pahtok pani, Burm.) is sold in the bazars at 2 annas a piece. It is mixed with oil and heated until a thick ointment is formed, which is applied to the heads of children.

Dr. Honigberger states that wasp or hornet's nests are recommended as antispasmodic.

LEPIDOPTERA.

BOMBYX FORTUNATUS, Hutton. .. The Silk Moth. and other species.

Vern.:—Abresham, Arab.: Pat, Beng.; Reshm-ki-keri, Duk The cocoons of the silk moth are said to be styptic and tonic.

Burnt, they are given internally in profuse menstruation and chronic diarrhoa.

Under this name in Ajmir white silk cut into small pieces is given as a remedy for impotence (Irvine).

Silk contains two albuminous substances, fibroin and sericin.

COLEOPTERA.

MYLABRIS CICHORII, Fabr. .. The Teleni Fly. and other species.

Vern.:—Telni, telni-makkhi, Hind.; Bad-bo-ki-yirangi, zirangi, Dec.; Pinsttarin-i, Tam.; Blishtering-igelu, Tel.

These beetles are of common occurrence throughout India, especially in Hyderabad, Deccan, and Central India.

This blistering beetle was first brought to notice in 1809 by General Hardwicke (in Asiatic Researches, Vol. V), and has since been recommended by Drs. Adam Burt (1809), W. Hunter, Fleming and George Bidie.

In the rainy season from June to December the beetles are found feeding upon species of Hibiscus, Sida, and plants of the Cucurbitaceæ. They are recommended to be gathered in the

morning or evening and immediately killed by exposing them to steam. They are then thoroughly dried in the sun and kept in bottles to preserve them from moisture. The beetles consisting of several species of Mylabrideæ are collected for commercial purpose at Gwalior, and are used in all the Government Medical Store Depôts as a substitute for Spanish fly (Cantharis vesicatoria).

The natives recognize their anti-hydrophobic properties and employ them in cases of bites of mad dogs. As a blistering agent they are not well recognized, the cauterium actuale

or burning with a hot iron being preferred.

The Telini fly yields a larger quantity of cantharidin than Spanish blistering fly. Mylabris beetles have been found to contain from 0.73 to 1.92 per cent. of cantharidin, while the average yield of active principle in commercial cantharides is 0.6 per cent. Eldred and Bartholomew in 1908 found 1.24 and 1.36 per cent. of cantharidin in Chinese blistering flies. The ash varies from 3.8 to 5 per cent.

LARINUS MACULATUS, Falderm. .. The Cocoon.

Vern.:—Schakar tigal, tréhala, tricala, Pers.; Sakar-eltighal, shakarti-fál, Hind.

The cocoons are formed by this curculionid beetle on a species of *Echinops*. The cocoons are ovoid or globular in form, about $name{1}{2}$ inch in length, their inner surface is composed of a smooth, hard, dusky layer, external to which is a thick rough tuberculated coating of greyish-white colour and earthy appearance. Some of the cocoons have attached to them the remains of the tomentose stalk or spiny leaf of the plant. The drug is brittle and sweetish to the taste. Dr. Honigberger state: that these insect nests were imported into Lahore from the Peninsula. The cocoons are figured in Hanbury's "Science Papers," p. 161, and in Honigberger's "Thirty-five years in the East."

The saccharine principle was examined by Berthelot (Compt. Rendus, 28 Juin 1858, 1276) and named by him trehalose, a body possessing distinctive properties which separate it from other sugars. By means of a ferment, trehalase, obtained from cultivation of Aspergillus niger, P. Harang has obtained from 23 to 30 per cent. of trehalose from the

cocoons. (J. Pharm. Chim., 1906, 23,471.)

MOLLUSCA.

MELEAGRINA MARGARITIFERA, Lam. Pearl Oyster.
Unio marginalis, Lam. Freshwater Pearl Mussel.

Vern.:—Mukta, Sans.: Mootie, Hind.; Moothoo, Tam.; Juhur. lulu, Arab.: Mirwareed, Pers.

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Pearls have been used in medicine from a very ancient period and are mentioned in Sanskrit literature by Susruta. They are purified for use by boiling with the leaves of certain plants, calcining them in covered crucibles and reducing to powder. The powder is esteemed in urinary diseases and consumption, and is said to increase the strength, nutrition and energy of weak patients. Arabian physicians suppose pow-

dered pearls to have virtues in weak eyes.

The only value possessed by the gem is doubtless that of an antacid, a property for which it was used in former times in European medicine. The supply of pearls for this purpose, no doubt, came from India. Linschoten wrote in the sixteenth century of seed pearls: "They are sold by the ounce, and used by Potticaries and by Physitions, and to that end many of them are carried into Portingall and Venice, and are very good and cheap." Irvine records that small seed pearls, called Motibuka, were brought from Bombay and prescribed in Ajmir for impotency. They cost Rs. 7 per tola in 1841.

PLACENTA ORBICULARIS (PLACUNA PLACENTA, Linn.) Window Oyster.

The pearls from this species besides being used to some extent for ornamental purposes, are supposed to possess invigorating properties and are used as a medicine. In South India the lime prepared from these shells is used by the rich in mixing with pán-supari.

Avicula sp.

Vern. :-Kha-ya-kama, Burm.

The shells from Tavoy and Mergui are sold in Moulmein. Price, 15 annas each. A paste is made of the shell and water in conjunction with other articles and is given for diabetes.

Ostrea sp. Oyster.

Vern.: -Sipi, Hind.; Kalu, Guz.; Teram, Malay.

These shells are sold in Mandalay under the same name as that of the Avicula. They come from Moulmein. They contain about 90 per cent. of calcium carbonate.

Unio spp. . . Freshwater Mussels.

Vern.: - Yauk-thwa, Burm.

The shells of two of these species are sold in Mandalay. In combination with other drugs they are said to be useful for coughs. Concha fluviatilis mentioned by Dr. Honigberger is probably of this genus. It is said to be used by the hakims at Lahore as a medicine. The shell with the common people serves for a spoon out of which they take their medicine.

CYPRAEA MONETA, Linn.

Vern.:—Cowri, sipi, Hind.; Codi, Guz.; Beya, Beng.; Kywepek, Burm.; Sadaf, wuda, Arab.; Khar mahra, Pers.; Varatika beya, Sans.

A species of Cypræa is collected on the sea shore, and the shells are sold in Mandalay as a remedy for venereal diseases.

FASCIOLARIA spp. The Operculum.

Vern.:—Nakh, Sita-nuk, Hind.; Nakhla, Mar.; Nakhun, Pers. and Punj.; Az/ar-ut-tib, Arab.; Unguis odoratus, Unguis dæmoni, Lat.; Onyx, Greek; Schecheleth, Heb.; Scented nails, Eng.

The operculum of Fasciolaria trapezium and other species of tulip shells and perhaps of other Muricidæ is a perfume and medicine of very ancient use. It is now recognized as the origin of onychia, one of the ingredients of the sacred incense of the tabernacle (Exodus xxx. 34). It was the Blatta Bizantia of Eastern Europe, and was quoted by Dioscorides as Onyx "quod in India nardiferis paludibus invenitur." and described their properties. Avicenna in his Canon describes several varieties of Azfar-ut-tib. Linneus ascribed the origin to Strombus lentiginosus. Rumphius enumerates ten kinds of odoriferous onyx which serve as the basis of the principal perfumes of the Indian Islands (Herb. Amb., 11, C. 17). The perfume is developed by heating. The nails are powdered and mixed with oil and fried, and the mixture is applied to the body or head as a cosmetic. In medicine the operculum is prescribed by Hakims in epilepsy and hysteria.

Azfar ut-tib as sold in the bazars is a thick horny dark-brown, claw-like, ovate opercule, one inch broad by $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long, on its outer face are many concentric lines surrounding a sub-apical nucleus, in the inner face the concentric lines are finer with a broad smooth glossy swelling along its outer margin. Chamra nuk is the bazar name for the operculum with a part of the flesh of the mollusc attached. The opercula are very albuminous and contain about two per cent. of ash; they evolve pyrrhol when submitted to destructive distillation.

The drug is imported into Bombay from Aden and Zanzibar and is valued at one rupee per pound.

PTEROCERAS LAMBIS, Linn. .. Spider Claw.

Vern.:-Khaya-thin, Burm.

These shells obtained from Mergui and Tavoy are sold in Moulmein. They are given in the form of a paste mixed with other articles in diabetes.

TURBINELLA RAPA, Lam. .. The Conch shell. Vern.:—Shankha, shenkham, Sans.; Sukk, Duk.; Sankha, Guz. and Tam.

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In Patna the shavings of conch shells are sold as medicine under the name of *Sunk-choorum*. They are considered antacid and alterative.

Conch shell lime (Sankha bhasma) is a favourite caustic in Hindu medicine: it is prepared from the refuse shells left by the bangle-makers of Dacca.

Fusus sp.

Vern.: -Khayu-thin, Burm.

This is sold in Mandalay under the same vernacular name as the conch shell. It is brought from Moulmein.

Turbo sp. The Operculum.

Vern.:—Navi sankha, Beng.; Chesm sirtan, Pers.

Ainslie informs us that the Persians employ crab's eyes or crab's stones as an absorbent. They were procured in abundance from Astracan. In Calcutta they are used as a charm for rheumatism and other complaints. The stones are white with brown patches, weighing less than one gramme each. The inner surface is plane with a spiral groove in the centre, the outer surface is convex. They contain calcium carbonate.

Sepia sp. .. Indian Cuttle Fish.

Vern.:—Samundar jug, samundr-phen, samudra/ena, Hind.; Dirya-ka-kuff, Dec.; Keddelnuray, Tam.; Samudrapu-nurugu, Tal; Ka/-i-daria (the foam of the water), Pers.; Cuttle fish bone, Eng.

The internal calcareous skeleton of the cuttle fish is frequently used in medicine. It is the Os sepiæ of old pharmacopeias. The fine scrapings of the bone boiled in oil are dropped into the ear in ear-ache and otorrhæa. Sometimes the powder is placed in the ear, lime juice being added to produce effervescence which relieves the pain. It is usually brought by returned pilgrims from Mecca and hence is looked upon as a very important medicine. In Burma a species of Sepia is called Ye-jiet or "Water-hen." Sepia bone is considered refrigerant, absorbent and ant-acid. In Ajmir it is used in eye ointments.

The Indian cuttle fish bone has the following composition: calcium carbonate 88.7, calcium sulphate 76, organic matter and water 9.3, iron oxide and alumina 46, magnesia and alkalis 1.7, silica 1, phosphoric acid 02.

PISCES.

The oil from the livers of certain fish is palatable and has a similar composition to that of cod-liver oil, and has been recommended as a substitute. Some of the oils were prepared

in the Indian Museum in 1909 and submitted to analysis. The liver of the white Sting Ray (Trygon microps) for instance weighed 89½ pounds. It was composed of 71.6 parts of oil, 17.7 parts of water and 10.7 parts of hepatic tissue. The oil deposited an amount of white fat, chiefly palmitin, at the cold weather temperature, and possessed a not unpleasant odour and a yellowish colour. The following constants were obtained: Specific gravity at 50°C. 0.914; melting point 22°; acid value 0.98; saponification value 194.0; iodine value 124.7; Reichert-Meissl 0.26; Fatty acids per cent 93.2, melting at 37.5°, neutralisation value 203.4. The oil contained a cholesterol affording a rose-red colour with sulphuric acid.

The spiney tails of a species of Trygon (Nga-leit-kyant, Burm.) are brought from Mergui and Tavoy to Moulmein and sold for medicine at 8 as. for 2 ticals. A paste of these is given to patients suffering from urinal disorders and diabetes.

Otoliths or bones from the head of certain fish are sold in the bazars as an aphrodisiac. They are small, hard, whitishgrey, oval shaped, shell-like bodies, consisting of calcium carbonate. The vernacular name is Sang-i-sarmahi or Sung-surmaiye (white surmaiye). They are sold at Delhi, Patna and Ajmir at 8 as. per tola.

The bile (pitta) of the rohitaka or Rohu fish (Cyprinus Rohita or Labeo rohita, Day) is used in medicine by the Hindus and is considered laxative.

CHELONIA.

CHELONE sp. Turtle.

Vern.: - Kachra, Hind.; Kachbo, Guz.

Mr. Hughes Buller has drawn attention to the peculiar use of the turtle shell in medicine. The people of the Mekran coast have the habit of tying a piece of the shell 4 by 2 inches to any animal having a stoppage of urine.

The oil of turtles is nutritive and demulcent.

In Assam turtles' eggs are eaten and used medicinally.

OPHIDIA.

The author of the Ulfaz Udwiyeh quotes the medicinal qualities of the flesh and skin of various snakes. The cast-off coat or slough under the names of Exuvia serpentis and Spolium serpentis was formerly used as a ligature in intermittent fevers. The skins are still sold in the bazars as a remedy for epilepsy.

LACERTILIA.

Scincus mitranus, Anders. The dried lizard. (Syn. S. arenarius, Murray.)

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Vern.:—Reg mahi, reg-mae, Hind.; Sarado, kakida, Bomb.

Honigberger, Baden Powell and Sakharam Arjun refer this "sand fish" to Lacerta scincus, Linn., but this species is peculiar to Egypt and Algeria, and does not extend beyond the shores of the Red Sea. S. mitranus occurs only in the sandy region of Sind. The lizard is eviscerated and dried and in this state is sold in the bazars of Northern India. It is beaten into a paste and administered with spices. It has a reputation as a nervine stimulant, tonic and aphrodisiac.

An oil is sometimes prepared from this and other lizards, and used by Muhammadans as an aphrodisiac. Irvine speaks of Sanda, a kind of lizard which is distilled and the oily product used in Aimir.

MABUIA CARINATA, Boulenger.

According to the Dictionary of Economic Products this lizard, the common Indian skink, is used medicinally.

MAMMALIA.

SIRENIA.

HALICORE INDICUS, Desm. .. The Dugong.

This species is distributed throughout the Indian Ocean, on the west of Ceylon, and in the Eastern Archipelago. From 6 to 14 gallons of oil is yielded by each animal. The oil which is free from odour is highly valued in medicine and cookery. It is said to be an admirable substitute for cod-liver oil.

CETACEA.

PHYSETER MACROCEPHALUS, Linn. .. The Sperm Whale.

Vern.:—Abr-i-amber, Arab.; Sahabula, Pers.; Ambana, Guz.; Ambergris. Eng.

A morbid excretion found in the intestine of the whale, found in the sea and on the coasts of India, Africa and Brazil. A single piece has been known to weigh 750 lbs. It was introduced into medicine by the Arabs, and is prescribed for its stimulant and antispasmodic properties. It is mostly used in perfumery. It contains about 85 per cent. of ambrein, balsamic extractive and a minute quantity of ash.

PLATANISTA GANGETICA, Gray & Harder. . . Gangetic Dolphin.

Vern.: -Sus, susa, Hind.; Susuk, sishuk, Beng.; Sisumar, Sans.; Bhulan, sunsar, Sind.; Hiho, scho, Ass.; Huh, Sylhet.

This dolphin is common in the tidal waters of the Indus, Ganges and Brahmaputra. The flesh is eaten by particular castes and the oil has a great reputation as an embrocation.

The oil has the following constants:—Specific gravity at 15°.921; Acid value 21.36; saponification value 198.8; iodine value 106.9; Reichert-Meissl value .71; Fatty acids per cent. 94; melting at 25.5°; neutralisation value 205; iodine value 116.5. The solid fats consist chiefly of palmitin; no spermaceti is present.

UNGULATA.

The Rhinoceros.

RHINOCEROS UNICORNIS, Linn. ...

Linschoten devotes a chapter to the value of the various parts of this animal. He says: "Their horns in India are much esteemed and used against all venime, poyson, and many other diseases: likewise his teeth, claws, flesh, skin and blood, and his very dung and water and all, whatsoever is about him, is much esteemed in India, and used for the curing of many diseases and sicknesses, which is very good and most true, as I myself have found." In Taleef Shereef (translated by Playfair, 1833) rhinoceros flesh and smoke from the horn are highly praised. The horn, assumed to be that of the unicorn, had virtues ascribed to it in Europe up to the seventeenth century.

The urine from the animal preserved in the Zoological Gardens, Calcutta, is in great demand to the present day as a tonic for the treatment of enlarged spleen. It was analysed by Col. L. A. Waddell in 1893 (*Indian Medical Gazette*. May), who found it to be alkaline in reaction to have phosphates in abundance.

The dried blood of the Rhinoceros (R. sondaicus) is used in Moulmein as an important medicine under the name of Kyan thwe. The blood is dried in the gut of the bowel and resembles black pudding. The price is one rupee per tical or one rupee in weight. It is valued by Burmans and Chinese. In the Mandalay drug shops a substance similar to congealed blood is sold as a substitute for the more costly rhinoceros blood. Its origin could not be ascertained.

Bos indica The Cow.

Vern.:—Gao-lochan, Hind.; Korashanum, Tam.; Hejr-ul-bucker, Arab.; Gowzerch, Pers.; Gorochana, Sans. The biliary calculus of the cow or ox.

These secretions are found in the gall bladder of cows and oxen in India. They are of the size of a large marble and of a bright yellow colour. They are considered valuable in certain indispositions of young children, accompanied with acidity and deficiency of bile; they are besides reckoned cordial and alexipharmic, and useful in abortion and diseases supposed to be caused by evil spirits.

The bile (Safra, Hind., Pitta, Sans.) of the buffalo, wild bear, goat, peacock and rohitaka fish (Cyprina Rohita) is used under the designation of pancha pitta or five biles. According to Dr. Honigberger it is considered laxative.

Dr. Aitchison says that in Afghanistan the dung of sheep and goats is converted by destructive distillation into a tar or pitch called sia-roghan which is used to protect the sores on

cattle from flies.

BEZOAR STONE.

Vern.:—Padzahr, Pers.; Bazahr, Arab.; Vishik kulloo, Tam.

This substance appears to have been first used as a medicine by the Arabians, Avenzoar gives a wonderful account of it; and Ragis in his Continens describes it fully, and extols its good qualities as a sudorific and alexipharmic. In India it is still supposed to possess sovereign virtues as an external application in cases of snake bite or scorpion stings. Linschoten devotes a chapter to the description of "Bezar stones and other stones good against poyson," and he quotes De Orta's account of the origin of this biliary concretion. He says: "The Bezar stone commeth out of Persia from the land or Province called Carassone (Khorasan), and also out of other places in India: they grow within the maw of a sheepe or goat. about a little straw, that lyeth in the middle of the maw: the stone is very slicke and smooth without, of a darke greene colour." Similar stones are obtained from the cow, goat, wild boar, antelope, porcupine and camel. That obtained from the camel is the cheapest, but that from the Persian wild goat (Capra ægagrus) is considered the most efficacious.

Two specimens are shown in the Indian Museum. The larger one, about the size of a small hen's egg, is dark green in colour and made up of concentric layers surrounding a central straw. The substance of the stone is almost entirely soluble in spirit. The smaller one from a Persian goat is dark brown in colour cylindrical, one inch long by one-third of an inch in diameter.

CAMELUS Camel

Mai-sutr-arabi is the name given by Irvine ("Topography of Ajmere") to the blood which has congealed in the body of a young camel. The camel after being overfed is driven about violently, and then killed, when the blood is extracted. It is brought from Bombay to Delhi and costs three rupees a tola. It is administered in cases of impotence.

Ainslie says the rennet of the camel, which the Persian term puneer maych-shooter, is placed amongst their aphrodisiacs.

Dr. Honigberger calls the substance Camelinum coagulum, and says it is highly esteemed by Arabian doctors.

Baden Powell says Maya shutr arabi is the rennet from the stomach of the camel. The genuine article is brought from Arabia and sells at Rs. 8 for 4 oz.

I have not met with this article in Calcutta.

CERVUS DUVAUCELI, Cuv. .. The Barasingha.

Vern.:—Mrigasringa, Sans.; Sambaracinga, Mar., Hartshorn.

The antlers of the bara-singha stag, incinerated in closed vessels, is used in painful affections of the heart, pleurodynia, sciatica and lumbago. Powdered in water or rubbed on a stone in conjunction with other ingredients it is used as an application in headache and rheumatic pain. It is given in doses of about twenty grains in clarified butter. It is officinal in Lahore, the supply being received from Kashmir (Honigberger). In Bombay transverse sections of the horn of Sambar (C. unicolor) are sold as a medicine under the name of Sambar singh.

Hartshorn contains 57.5 per cent. of ash consisting chiefly of calcium phosphate.

Moschus moschiferus, Linn. .. The Musk Deer.

Vern.: - Kastura, Hind.; Mushka, mriganabhi, Sans. The Pod.

Musk is the unctuous grain found in the pod or abdominal gland of the animal. The Bharaprakasa describes three varieties of musk: Kamrupa, the best; Nepala, of intermediate quality; and Kashmiri, inferior. Modern trade recognises three kinds: 1. Russian, 2. Assamese, 3. Chinese or Tonquinese.

India receives her supply of musk from Tibet, Nepal,

Sikkim, Bhutan, and the Naga and Mishmi hills.

Musk is used as a stimulant, antispasmodic and expectorant in low fevers, chronic cough or general debility. Its chief use, however, is in perfumery. The price of Tibetan musk is about Rs. 40 per ounce and that of Bhutan Rs. 32. In 1841 it sold in Ajmir at Rs. 12 per tola (Irvine).

CARNIVORA.

URSUS TORQUATUS, Wagner Himalayan bear.

Vern. :- Barlu-ke-cherbee, Hind. The Fat.

Bears' grease is appreciated for its medicinal properties and is an article of commerce in Northern India. It is prepared in Kangra, Mussocrie and Kumaon by heating the fatty tissue, as in rendering lard from the leaf of a pig, and straining while hot through a cloth. It is an emollient in rheumatism, and is used as a heating application to wounds, bruises and sores.

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The fat has been examined by the author (Journ. Asiatic Society Bengal, Vol. IV, No. 2, 1908, 33). It has a yellowish white colour, a rancid odour, and a soft granular and pasty consistence at 21°. The following constants were obtained from two samples: Specific gravity at 50°0.9013, .9007; melting point 37°5, 34.5°; acid value 13.8, 33.19; saponification value 203.8, 204.25; iodine value 52.77, 62.8; Reichert-Meissl value .93, .86; fatty acids per cent. 94.78, 93.81; melting point 42°, 40°; neutralization value 205.6, 207.3; iodine value 57.2, 62.9. The fat consists chiefly of olein and palmitin with a small quantity of stearin.

VIVERRA ZIBETHA, Linn. Civet Cat.

Vern.:—The animal: Khattas, Hind.; Pullreghu puney, Tam.; The pouch Ladana, Beng. and Hind.; Pullughu shuttam, Tam.; Zabad, Arab.; Gandhamayara, Sans.

The Civet cat is found throughout India from Assam to Malabar, and in Burma, Nepal and Arabia. The glandular receptacle contains an unctuous, odorous secretion used as a substitute for musk and castoreum. In Travancore there was once an establishment maintained at the expense of Government in which these animals were kept and reared for the sake of their secretion.

Civet is chiefly employed in perfumery and in scenting medicinal oils; it is also considered to possess anodyne and anti-spasmodic properties.

RODENTIA.

Castor fiber, Linn. Beaver.

Vern.:—Janda-bidastar, Hind.; Ghenda, Sans. Castoreum.

Castoreum is a fatty substance secreted by peculiar glands of this animal, and used as a therapeutic agent. It is obtained from North America and Siberia. It is reported to be sold in the Indian bazars under the above vernacular names, but I have never met with the article. Col. Phillott in "Baz-nama-yi Nasiri" speaks of it under the Persian or Arabic name of bachagan, or, more correctly, ash-i-bachagan, so called from the fact that it is a medicine given to infants.

CHEIROPTERA.

Hipposiderus, sp. Bat.

Vern.:—Tai-klawa, Malay; $Kam\ yaft$, Baluch. The dung or guano.

Masson in his "Journey to Kalat" (1843) speaks of bats' dung being held in high repute for its properties in ailments of

the eye. Mr. Hughes Buller says that it is used in Baluchistan, taken in the form of a draught for gonorrhœa.

MUMMY.

Vern.:—Mumiai, silajit, Hind.; Silajatu, Sans.; Khalmolt, mashana churro, Baluch.; Arkuljibbal, mumiyai, Pers.; Osteocolla, Lat.; Rock sweat, Eng.

This is one of the most remarkable of all Hindu medicines. There is still some obscurity surrounding its origin. It is apparently not derived from the vegetable kingdom. Although it exudes from rocks it cannot be claimed as a mineral product. Its peculiar unctuous and nitrogenous nature and its long association with Egyptian mummies locate it therefore among the animal materia medica. Mummy was a medicine of great repute in Europe during the Middle Ages, and was no doubt a preparation made from embalmed bodies although often subject to adulteration. The mumiai obtained as a secretion from the mummy mountain in Persia and described by Chardin. Kaempfer Ouseley, Le Brun and other old travellers appears to be the same substance as the black variety of silajit obtained at the present time from the Himalayas and so much appreciated in medicine. The occurrence and composition of silajit were described by the writer in a paper read before this Society in 1903 (Journ. Asiat. Soc. Beng., Vol. LXXII, pt. II, No. 3, 99-104). From further samples chemically examined and fuller information on its origin and distribution it must be admitted that while it is an interesting relic of primitive medicine it has little claim to possess any valuable therapeutic properties.

46. Note on a Shrine in the Koh Si Hah, Talé Sap, Lower Siam.

By N. Annandale, D.Sc., F.A.S.B.

The Koh Si Hah are a group of five rocky islands of limestone that rise from the shallow waters of the Talé Sap ("Great Lake"), a lagoon on the east coast of the northern part of the Malay Peninsula that closely resembles the Chilka Lake in Orissa and Ganjam in many respects.

The photograph here reproduced was taken in the chief of these islands in 1899 while I was a member of the Skeat Expedition, and is, I think, worth publishing as an illustration of the primitive religion of the people of those parts.

The people are probably of mixed Siamese. Chinese and Malay descent and obtain their living, at any rate for a part of the year, by collecting the edible nests of a swift (Callocalia innominata) which breeds in large numbers in the caves that honeycomb the islands. The nest-collectors live themselves in the smaller caves, in which they erect platforms of bamboo whereon to sit and sleep. Their occupation is a hazardous one, for the approach to many of the bird-caves is dangerous and there are vawning cavities to be avoided. is, moreover, pursued under very strict regulation, the right to collect the nests being leased out to a Chinaman for a considerable sum every year. The inhabitants of the islands are his servants or hirelings, but judging from their offerings at the little shrines in their village, if it can be called a village, they have some interest in the take.

The shrine figured was the larger of two situated in natural cavities in the rock above a platform of stone or bricks that had been built near the landing place. The other shrine contained as an object of worship a stone naturally of conical shape. Offerings of edible nests, most of them dirty, contaminated with feathers and of little value, but a few clean and of the pale yellow colour that delights the Chinese epicure, were made before this shrine. It was approached by several little steps, which were for ornament or for the use of the spirits only, for it was situated only a few feet above the ground. The larger shrine was in a cliff at right angles to that in which the smaller one had been constructed and was situated rather higher above the platform. It had been formed, so far as it was otherwise than of natural formation, by placing a rough wooden frame of oblong shape at the entrance to the cavity. To this frame were attached, in the Chinese fashion, oblong pieces of

paper on which squares of gold-leaf had been stamped and longer pieces of paper on which pseudo-Chinese characters were printed. I say pseudo-Chinese characters advisedly, for although they were doubtless copied directly or indirectly from some Chinese prayer, they had become so degenerate in the process that they could no longer be recognised as characters at all. Advertisements from tins of canned fruit and other like commercial products were fixed up with the squares of gold-leaf and the sham Chinese prayers.

The object of worship in this shrine consisted of an upright figure carved in wood and gilt. It had probably been intended by the sculptor for an image of Buddha, but a wooden sword had been inserted in one hand, and it was recognized by the people of the islands as representing the guardian spirit of the caves. The figure stood on a rhinoceros skull, and round it was piled a most heterogeneous collection of natural curiosities, rude clay images of cattle, vases containing incense sticks and Buddhist reliquiaries. The natural objects included crocodiles' skulls, sharks' jaws, sawfishes' "saws' and stones of peculiar natural shape, especially pieces of stalagtite or stalagmite that had assumed a vague resemblance to the human form.

The shrine is interesting as illustrating the bastard Buddhism, or rather the animism disguised under a thin veneer of Buddhism, that prevails among the more primitive population of Lower Siam. The advertisements offered at it have perhaps peculiar interest as illustrating the belief that a spirit cannot distinguish between the real and the ideal. The man who offered the covering of a tin of canned lichis, offered, in virtue of the pictures on the paper, not only the fruit in its glorified presentiment, but also the factory in which it had been prepared.



47. List of Jesuit Missionaries in "Mogor" (1580-1803).

By REV. H. HOSTEN, S.J.

This list contains the names of the Jesuit Missionaries in North India as found in the Catalogues of the Province of Goa preserved among our Archives in Europe. It was kindly forwarded to the writer by the late Fr. J. B. Van Meurs, S.J., and cannot but render great service in all questions connected with the history of our North India Missions. Many of our Catalogues having been lost in troublous times, our list is not exhaustive, nor is it our intention, at present, to fill in the many gaps or to discuss the moot-points involved. This is a task from which other occupations may keep us for long debarred.

Let it be borne in mind that our Catalogues are not always an infallible guide. They represent the missionary personnel at a given period, a status with which stress of circumstances might interfere even before it came into operation, or soon after. Such as it is, this list will work as a ready means of checking numerous historical data.

Fr. J. B. Van Meurs' notes do not go back to the very origin of the "Mogor" Mission, but only to 1593. It is well known that the first Mission to Akbar (1580—83) consisted of Bl. Rudolph Aquaviva, Fr. Anthony Monserrat and Fr. Francis Henriquez. The second (1590-91) was composed of Frs. Christopher de Vega, Edward Leitão, and a Companion, perhaps Fr. Francis Cabral, "not yet in priest's orders." The third Mission, according to our Catalogues, would date from 1593; but Mr. E. D. Maclagan (Journ. As. Soc. Bengal, 1896, p. 64) shows that it left Goa only on December 3, 1594.

We have refrained from interfering with the orthography of the proper names in the original. We simply insert in [] the more likely forms. As for the biographical data inserted here and there, they are mostly from the pen of Fr. Van Meurs and supplement or modify what we wrote in Jesuit Missionaries in Northern India and Inscriptions on their Tombs, Agra (1580—1803), Catholic Orphan Press, Portuguese Church Street, Calcutta, 1907.

* *

1593.—They are three in the Mission, Father [Jerome] Xavier, Father [Emmanuel] Pinheyro [Pinheiro] and Brother [Benedict] Goes, who is in charge of the house.

- "Fr. Jerome Xavier: born at Buro, in the Diocese of Pampeluna, was Rector of the College of Bassein and Cochin during 8 years; Superior of the Professed House, Goa, 2 years; Master of Novices, 1 year; professed, Jan. 15, 1584; died at Goa, June 27, 1617. In 1605, he is said to have been 12 years Superior of the Mission and to be in the 56th year of his age, and the 37th of his religious life."
- "Fr. Emmanuel Pinheiro: born in 1544 at Pontadelgado in the Island of St. Michael; entered the Society, March 6, 1573; took the simple vows, June 15 [13?], 1598; was in the Mogor Mission from '1594.'"
- "Bro. Benedict de Goes: born in the Island of St. Michael; took his last vows, June 13, 1598; was in the Mission from '1593'; died 'in insula Cathayo', Apr. 11, 1607. In Dec. 1599, he was in the 37th year of his age and the 11th of his religious life." He joined the Order in India.

1594, '95, '96, '97, '98, '99.—The same.

1600.—At Agra: Fathers J. Xavier, Sebastian Barreto and Bro. B. Goes.

At Lahore: Fathers E. Pinheiro and [Francis] Corci [Corsi].

- Fr. Sebastian Barreto: born at Aveiro, in the Diocese of Coimbra, in 1567; entered the Novitiate in 1584; went to India and laboured in the Missions of the Province of Goa; was Rector of the College of Diu, and died at Goa in 1625. To these details given by Sotwel, Fr. de Backer substitutes the following:—"born in 1587 and died at the age of 41." Barbosa, on the other hand, states that he was born in 1585 at S. João do Loure. Cf. SOMMERVOGEL. Bibl. de la C. de J.—Fr. Van Meurs writes that he was born in 1566 at Aveiro in the Diocese of Coimbra, had entered the Society in 1584; was Superior of Diu in 1605, and made his profession on Feb. 5, 1606.
- "Fr. Francis Corsi: an Italian; came to Goa in 1599; was in the Mission [of Mogor] from 1599; professed in 1612; died in Mogor, Aug. 1, 1635." He is the Padre Ātash, the Florentine, mentioned by Bernier. (f. W. IRVINE, Storia do Mogor, I, 161; IV, 421, and J.A.S.B., 1910, pp. 453, 458.

1601, '02, '03, '04.—Nothing is changed.

1605.—Fathers J. Xavier, [Anthony] Machado, E. Pinheiro, F. Corci, and Bro. B. Goes.

¹ The '' '' contain notes from first-rate sources by Fr. J. B. Van Meurs, S.J.

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- "Fr. Anthony Machado: born at Serpa, in the Diocese of Evora; professed, Jan. 17, 1595; Professor of Philosophy, 3 years; Superior at Chaul, 1 year; at Bassein, 2 years. In 1614, he was 53 years old, of which he had spent 36 in the Society." Cf. J.A.S.B., 1910, p. 459.

1606, '07.—Nothing is changed.

1608.—[This Catalogue seems to be missing.]

1609.—Fathers J. Xavier, A. Machado, F. Corci, E. Pinheiro.

1610.—At Agra: Fathers J. Xavier and F. Corci.

At Lahore: Fathers A. Machado and [Joseph] Castro [de Castro].

"Fr. Manoel Pinheiro is gone to Goa with the ambassador

of the King of Mogor."

- "By order of the King of Mogor, Fr. Manoel Pinheiro was sent to the Portuguese Viceroy at Goa, in company with the ambassador to undertake and transact some business. Arriving in Cambay and finding circumstances changed, he left the Mogor ambassador, went to Goa, and returned with ample powers to make either war or peace. The ambassador, on receiving orders from his master, returned to the Court, and entrusted the whole matter to Fr. Manoel. Pinheiro returned to Goa, transacted the affair and came back to the Mission."
- "Fr. Joseph de Castro: of Turin. born in 1577; entered the Society in 1596; professed of three vows in 1612; died in Mogor on December 25, '1648.'" Cf. W. IRVINE, Storia do Mogor by Manucci, Vols. I, 161; IV, 424, sub Costa da, J. Manucci calls him by mistake Joseph da Costa. This name applies to another missionary, who came much later. Cf. also J.A.S.B., 1910, pp. 458, 460. The date of his death must be 1646, the Annual Letter of Mogor for May 1648—Aug. 1649 stating that he was disinterred in 1648, more than a year after his burial, and found incorrupt. In Febr. 1648, Fr. Christopher da Costa conveyed the remains from Lahore to Agra, where they were honourably buried "in the Cemetery of our defunct Fathers."
- 1611.—Fathers J. Xavier, E. Pinheiro, J. Castro, A. Machado, F. Corci, and Nicolas Cautero.
- "Fr. Nicolas Cautero, born at Cea in 1580; entered the Society in 1601."
- 1612.—Fathers J. Xavier, E. Pinheiro, A. Macchado, F. Corci, J. Castro.

1613,—As above.

- 1416.—Father John "de Sena", a Frenchman, is added to the number.
- "In the 3rd Catalogue we read:—'They are scattered in various stations, and will await patiently the opportunity of preaching. No one comes to be enlightened, nay, those who appeared to be enlightened (I speak of the King's relatives) have rejected the light and have returned to their vomit, at the King's order. Because of a ship seized by the Portuguese, Ours are molested. They lived at the King's expense; now, they live on alms."
- Fr. John "de Sena."—Cf. The Voyage of François Pyrard de Laval, by A. Gray, in 2 Vols. (3 pts.), London, Hakluyt Society, 1888, Vol. II, pp. 36, 270, 281, 282. At p. 36, Pyrard, who knew him at Goa, writes his name Jan de Seine and describes him as a Lorrainer from Nancy; at p. 270, his name is spelt Jan de Cenes, and he is a Lorrainer of Verdun. Fr. Van Meurs writes:—Mojaensis; born in 1574; entered in 1596; was a Missionary in Salcete. A. Franco, S.J., mentions one Fr. John Sene as leaving Lisbon for the East in 1602; da Camara Manoel fixes his departure in 1598 and calls him "P. João Sena"; both describe him as an Italian.
- 1015.—Father E. Pinheyro, broken down with age, is gone to Goa, where he is Confessor in the Professed House.
- 1616.—Fathers A. Macchado, F. Corci, J. Castro, J. [de] Sena. 1617.—Catalogue missing.
- 1618.—Fathers A. Macchado, Superior; F. Corci, J. de Crasto. 1619.—Catalogue missing.
- 1620.—Fathers Francis Corci (professed of 4 vows); Joseph de Castro (professed of 3 vows); Matthew de Paiveta [elsewhere: Payva], preacher; Gonsalvus de Souza, preacher.
- "Father Matthew de Payva: of Lisbon; born in 1592; entered the Society in 1603[?]; made his profession on May 3, 1626." Cf. J.A.S.B., 1910, p. 454.
- "Father Gonsalvus de Souza: "Matuzinus"; born in 1588; entered in 1604; in the Mission since one year." Professed in 1623. (f. J.A.S.B., 1910, p. 448.
- 1621.—At Agra: Fathers Gonsalvus de Souza, and Matthew de Payveta [also: de Payva].

Father Francis Corci, in the King's suite.

Father Anthony de Andrada, Visitor and Superior of the whole Mission.

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Father Joseph de Crasto, at Sambar [Sámbhar]; Father Didacus Rodericus [Rodriguez], at Amadabad [Ahmadabad].

"Fr. Anthony de Andrade: born at Olivios in 1581; entered in 1597; made his profession on October 14, 1612." Cf. J.A.S.B., 1910, p. 458.

1624. January.—Brother Manoel Marques is added to the Agra personnel.—From another source: Father A. de Andrada; at Agra: Fathers M. de Payva and J. de Castro; at Sambar: Father G. de Souza; in the King's suite: Father F. Corci.

Brother Manuel Marques: Pietro della Valle mentions him, though not by name, as passing through Surat in the March of 1623. Cf. De' Viaggi di Pietro della Valle, Roma, MDCLXIII, Vol. III, p. 85. (Lettera da Surat, de' 22. di Marzo 1623, XVII, XVIII.) Brother Manuel accompanied Fr. de Andrade to Thibet in 1624.

"In a letter from Mogor (Aug. 15, 1627) to Fr. Claudius Francis Septalio of Como, Upper Italy, Father J. de Castro speaks of Jahángír's intimate friendship with two of the Fathers, whom he always keeps in his Court."

No Catalogues are at hand for the period between January 1624 and 1641. A batch of old unpublished letters from Mogor will help us to bridge the gap. From a letter of Father J. de Castro, dated 20 Nov. 1631, Bengal, we learn that he is in the service of Mirza Zú-l Qarnín, at a place 250 miles away from Agra, and 300 miles from Hugli. This I take to be Patna. Writing from 'Mogul' [Patna?], on 8 Aug. 1632, he states that Father Francis Morando is with him, pending his departure for Thibet. On 28 Aug. 1632, he writes once more from Bengal [Patna?], and notes that there are five Fathers in Thibet, and two others in Agra who are intended for Thibet. His next two letters are from Agra, 24 Nov. 1632 and 6 Febr. 1633: in the latter he speaks again of five Fathers in Thibet. So does Father Francis Corsi in a letter from Agra, 5 Oct. 1633, adding that they are in two or three different places. There is another letter from Father de Castro dated Agra, 8 October 1633, and one of Father Morando, 15 Oct. 1633, Agra, dealing like that of Father Corsi (Agra, 5 Oct. 1633) with the arrival at Agra in July of 4,000 Portuguese prisoners from Hugli.

From some other source, Father J. B. Van Meurs sent

the following extract:

"In 1633, the following are in the Mogor Mission: Father Matthew de Payva: from Lisbon; aged 41; has been 28 years in the Society; professed of 4 vows on 3 May, 1626; has been

already 11 years a missionary. Rector of Agra and Superior of the whole Mission.

"Father Francis Corsi: a Florentine; aged 58; 40 years of Society, professed of 4 vows on 1 Jan., 1612; has spent 32 years in this Mission.

"Father Joseph de Castro: from Turin; aged 55; 36

years of Society; professed of 3 vows on 10 Jan., 1612.

"These are the chief ones. There are, besides, 4 Fathers in Thibet: "Juniores Patres manent in hac Missione: 4 Patres."

Father de Castro writes from Agra, 16 April 1637, that there ought to be four priests at Agra, because one always accompanies Mirza Zú-l Qarnín. In 1636 and 1637 they have been only three at Agra: Francis Morando, John d' Oliveira and himself. In June 1636, Father Anthony Pereira came from Goa on his way to the new Residence of Xirinagar [Srinagar in Garhwál]. Father Alano dos Angios [Alain de la Bauchère] went with him, but died at Srinagar shortly after his arrival. Father Stanislas Malpica arrived at Agra in Jan. 1637, and went to Srinagar.

Father de Castro's next letter (Agra, 29 Oct. 1637) states that Stanislas Malpica and Anthony Pereira are at Srinagar, the former being Superior.

1641.—Fathers Joseph de Crasto, Rector: John de Oliveira, and Francis Morandus [Morando].

Fray Sebastian Manrique, the Augustinian Friar, arrived at Agra on December 24, 1640, and met there Fathers "Anthony" de Oliveira, and Matthew "de la Cruz." In Lahore, he found Father Joseph de Castro. Cf. Itinerario Oriental del P. Maestro Manrique, Roma, 1653, Ch. 58 and 63. Our Roman Archivist tells me that the Catalogue of 1641 (Sept.) places at Agra only Fr. John Oliveira, and that the name of Fr. Matthew de la Cruz is not traceable in the Catalogues of Goa.

1648. – Fathers Anthony Botelho (senior), Visitor and Superior; Francis Morandus, Paimensis; Anthony Chesque [Ceschi], of Trent; Henricus Busaeus [Busi].

Father Anthony Botelho: "During his Provincialate in 1670 he wrote 'De Moribus et Natura regionis Mogorensis." Cf. J.A.S.B., 1910, p. 453 sqq.

Father Anthony Ceschi di Santa Croce: Cf. W. IRVINE, Storia do Mogor, I, 223, 381, 381 n. 1; IV. 427. Fr. Ceschi died on June 28, 1656, in the arms of Fr. Anthony de Rego, S.J.

Father Henry Busi: his real name, as we had occasion to point out to Mr. W. Irvine, was Henry Uwens. Cf. W. IRVINE,

Storia do Mogor, Index, sub Buseo.—On this identification, we have prepared a special paper.—Fr. Busi wrote three times the Annual Letter at the beginning of his stay in Mogor.

1649.—The same.

- 1653.—Fathers Henry Busaeus, Rector (in another paper he is given the title of Superior); Anthony Chesque, Francis Morando, Dominic Dias, Algarbiensis [of Algarve].
- 1655.—Fathers Henry Busaeus, Rector (elsewhere: Superior);
 Dominic Dias, Procurator; Anthony Chesque (Chesques);
 Henry Roth, Dilinganus [of Dilingen];
 Father Stanislas Malpica is in the Station of Xiranagar [Srinagar in Garhwál].
- Fr. Henry Roth: Cf. what we wrote on him in Catholic Herald, Calcutta, 1907, pp. 171—2. He wrote three times the Annual Letters. Cf. W. IRVINE, Storia do Mogor, Vol. IV, Index, sub Roth.
- Fr. Stanislas Malpica: born in 1600, at Cantazarro (Naples); entered the Society in May 29, 1623; Doctor of Theology and of Civil and Canon Law; Professor of Moral Theology; Prefect of Studies at Goa; Superior of the Professed House of Goa (1646); Provincial of Goa in 1662 and 1664; Rector of the College of Rachol in 1667: Rector of the New College of St. Paul's in 1673; died before 1676. He had left Lisbon for India in 1635, in company with the illustrious Martyr, Marcellus Mastrilli, and became a professed of 4 vows on February 2, 1646. In December 1653, he is said to be 52 years old, of which h had spent 30 in the Society.' Cf. W. IRVINE, Storia do Mogor 1, 223; 223. n. 1; 381; 381 n. 1; IV. 423.
- 1656.—Fathers Peter Jusarte (Juzarte, Zuzarte), Rector; Henry Busaeus; Anthony Cesques (Chesques); Henry Roth; Francis de Souza, Lamecensis; Stanislas Malpiqua (Malpica).
- "Fr. Peter Juzarte: born in 1616 (elsewhere: 1617) at Loures, in the Diocese of Lisbon; entered in 1632 (elsewhere: 1634); professed on September 8, 1652, at Goa; taught Humaniora for 3 years in Portugal and 1 year at Goa; Professor of Philosophy, 3 years; of Moral Theology, 3 years; of Speculative Theology, 3 years; Rector of the Seminary of Santa Fe, Goa; Visitor of Mogor and Rector of the College of Agra; Superior at Damaun and Macao; in 1663, he was elected to proceed to Rome as Procurator of the Japanese Province, and, in 1667, he was making preparations for that journey. In 1667, he is said

- to be in the 49th year of his life, the 35th of religious life, and the 15th of his profession." He died at Lisbon in 1688. Cf. W. IRVINE, Storia do Mogor, I. 223; 1V. 424.
- "Fr. Francis de Souza died in Mogor on December 2 (sic), 1657."
- 1659. January.—Fathers Peter Jusarte, Rector; Henry Busaeus (Busaeo); Henry Roth; Stanislas Malpica.
- 1659. November.—Fathers Henry Roth; Henry Busaeus (Buzaeo); Stanislas Malpica.
- 1660. November.—Fathers Henry Roth, Rector; Henry Busæus; Emmanuel Verri (elsewhere: Veira), of Lisbon.
- 1662. September.—Fathers Henry Busaeus, Vice-Rector; Henry Roth.
- 1646. September.—Fathers Henry Busaeus, Rector; Peter a [de] Mattos, of Lisbon.
- "Fr. Roth, who had been 10 years in the Mission, went to examine into the possibility of establishing a Mission in Nepal; but, on the death of Fr. Peter de Mattos (September 10 [sic], 1664), he returned to Agra, where he died in 1668."
- 1674.—Fathers Anthony de Magalhães, Rector; Gregory Roiz [Rodriguez], Visitor; Mark Anthony Santuchi [Santucci].
- "Fr. Gregory Rodriguez: born at Villa da Ponte di Barca (Portugal) in 1616; entered the Society in 1630; became professed on June 4, 1656; taught Grammar, after which he became a Missionary in Cafraria, Mozambique, Tana, Agra; lastly, Superior of the Professed House, Goa, in 1679; there he died on June 6, 1682, while Provincial."
- "Fr. Mark Anthony Santucci: born at Lucca (?) on March 22, 1638; entered at Rome, April 22, 1656; taught Humaniora for four years; was Professor in Collegio Interamnensi of the Roman Province; his studies finished, he went to India in 1668; was professed of 4 vows at Agra, August 15, 1675; in 1673, he is said to be 33 years old, having spent 17 in the Society; in 1677, acts as Procurator to the College of Agra, "in the North" [i.e., Salsette of Bombay]; in 1679, gone to found a 'new' Mission in Bengal; is Superior of the Patna Mission in 1689, 'still hale and hearty." He died on August 1, 1689. Cf. W. IRVINE, Storia do Mogor, Index, sub Padre Santus, and J.A.S.B., 1910, p. 450, 453.

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- 1678. December.—Fathers Anthony de Magalhaes, Rector and Visitor; Martin de Souza, Rector by order of the Visitor; Joseph da Costa; Mark Anthony Santuchi, at Patna; John Leitão.
 - Fr. John Leitão: Cf. J.A.S.B., 1910, pp. 449, 453.
- 1681. December.—Fathers Anthony de Magalhães (senior), Rector and Visitor; Mark Anthony Santucchi; John Leitão; Joseph da Costa.
- 1694.—Fathers Anthony Pereyra, Rector (from March 1, 1694); Joseph de Payva, Confessor and Consultor; Anthony de Magalhães, Missionary at Dely [Delhi].
- 1695.—Fathers Anthony Pereyra, Rector; Joseph de Payva, Father [i.e., in charge] of the [native] Christians; Anthony de Magalhães, Missionary at Dilhi.
- 1697. October.—Fathers Anthony de Magalhães, Rector (from November 20, 1695); Joseph de Payva.
- 1698. November.—Fathers Joseph de Payva, Vice-Rector; Anthony de Magalhães, Missionary at Deli.
- 1700. November 11.—Fathers Anthony Rodriguez, Rector; Joseph de Payva, Procurator; Anthony de Magalhães, Missionary at Deli.
- 1705. November.—Fathers Joseph de Payva, Rector ad April 1705 [1706?] designatus; John d'Abreu (whose Rectorship expires in April 1706): John Monteyro, missus ad Thibetanam Missionem investigandam, "sent to report on the Thibetan Mission."
- "Fr. John d'Abreu: born at Odivellas in 1669; admitted into the Society at Goa in 1684; made his profession on February 2, 1702; taught Grammar 2 years; was twice Vice-Rector of the Seminary of Bassein; parochus Aquilonaris, i.e., Parishpriest to the North of Goa; Rector of the Agra College, next a Missionary (operarius) at Agra; Vicar of Salsette; Rector of Chaul in 1719; died before 1722.—His three years' Rectorate expiring in April 1706, he must have been Rector at Agra during 1704 and 1705. His successor was Fr. Joseph de Payva; but Fr. de Payva must have left shortly after, since Fr. Emmanuel Monteyro was Vice-Rector in September 1706, and Fr. John de Abreu was again Vice-Rector in January 1708." The true reason of Fr. Joseph de Payva's short Rectorate is that, as Fr. Van Meurs discovered later, he died in 1706, on August 20 [Fr. J.B.V.M]; on August 7, says his epitaph at Agra. Cf. W. IRVINE, Storia do Mogor, IV. 143 n. 1; IV. **229**.

- 1706. September.—Fathers Emmanuel Monteyro, Vice-Rector; John d'Abreu, his companion.
- 1708. January.—Fathers John d'Abreu, Vice-Rector; Simon Monteiro, Procurator; Francis Nogueira.
- 1710. January 2.—Fathers Emmanuel Durão, Vice-Rector (from June 1, 1708); Emmanuel Freire; Joseph Anthony Martinelli; Francis Borgia Koch; John d'Abreu; Emmanuel Cardoso.
- 1716. December.—Fathers Melchior dos Reys, Rector; Francis Ribeiro, his companion; Emmanuel Durão, at Deli.
- 1718. December.—Fathers Alvarus de Albuquerque, Rector (since March 1718); Emmanuel Freyre; Emmanuel Durão, at Deli; Hippolytus Desiderii [Desideri].
- 1719. November.—Fathers Alvarus d'Albuquerque, Rector; Emmanuel Freire, Operarius; Emmanuel Durão, at Deli.
- 1724. December.—Fathers Emmanuel de Figueredo, Rector; Alvarus d'Albuquerque; Hippolytus Desiderii [Desideri], at Deli.
- 1727. November.—Fathers Valentine Govea, Rector; Anthony de Fonseca; Emmanuel de Figueredo, at Deli.
- 1728. December.—Fathers Valentine de Govea, Rector; Anthony a [de] Fonseca, at Deli.
- 1731. November.—Fathers Emmanuel de Figueredo, Visitor; Emmanuel Sardinha, Vice-Rector; Matthew Rodriguez, at Deli.
- 1735. January.—Fathers Matthew Rodriguez, Rector; Francis Xaverius [Xavier]; Francis da Cruz.
- 1740. December.—Fathers Matthew Rodriguez, Rector; Francis Xaverius; Francis da Cruz; Anthony Gablsperger [Gabelsperger]; Andrew Strobl.
- 1752. December.—Fathers Andrew Strobl; Joseph Tieffenthaler [Tieffentaller]; Francis Xaverius.
- 1756. December.—Fathers Andrew Strobl; Joseph Tieffenthaler.

Concerning the last three Jesuits in the Mogul Empire, Fr. S. Noti, S.J., Bombay, communicates to us the following passage from his MS. Life of Tieffentaller (German): "From a letter of Fr. Joseph, O.C., Prefect of the Mission of Patna, dated January 3, 1778, and addressed to the Cardinal Prefect of Propaganda (Archiv. della Propag. Ind. Orient. e Cina (1776-78), Scritt. refer. nei Congr. 35, p. 1031), we obtain the following particulars on the three ex-Jesuits in the Mogul Empire: 'I received last year Your Excellency's letter of March 1776, in which Your Excellency charged me with appointing as Vicar of Chandernagore the ex-Jesuit Gavez [read: Garret]. Last December I received a letter from Fr. Wendel, also an ex-Jesuit,

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residing in the wide dominions of the Nawab [of Oudh] to the W. of Patna, in which he communicated to me that, during the last rainy season, he believed himself near death. He feels better now, but thinks that his days are numbered.'

"In another letter from Patna, dated July 15, 1778, and written to Fr. Gregorio, O.D.C., the then Prefect of the Mission, Fr. Charles, O.C., says among other things: 'Fr. Wendel has had fever during five days. He had lost all consciousness. Now he neither talks sensibly again, nor does he wander, as he did before.'

"Another of them [of the ex-Jesuits], Fr. Tieffentaller, a broken-down old man (vecchio cadente), is at present in Agra, where there is also a Church and a numerous Christian community. I have not neglected to recommend many times to the watchful zeal of the Sacred Congregation the needs of the numerous Christians scattered over so many lands, and to remind them that they will soon have no Father left to minister to them the consolations of Religion."

The subsequent history of Fr. Tieffentaller and Fr. Wendel is known well enough. We are able to trace some of Fr. Garret's later movements in Adrien Launay's Histoire des Missions de l' Inde, Tome I, Paris, 1898. In a Memoir of Fr. Vernet (May 13, 1777) he is mentioned as residing at Chandernagore with Fr. Possevin (Vicar), Fr. Garofalo, and Bro. Broquet, who teaches piloting (p. 61). In 1778, the Prefect Apostolic, Fr. Sebastian de Nevers, O.C., urged the three ex-Jesuit Priests to join the Foreign Missions of Paris. All three quitted Chandernagore, leaving it to the care of the Capuchin Fathers. The little ship that was bearing them to Pondichery was driven on to the coast of Ceylon, whence they wrote (Dec. 20, 1778) to Mgr. Bigot that they were at Trincomali. One of the three, Fr. Possevin, was 76 years old and infirm. "the other two could still work, Deo juvante." Possevin preferred to remain at San Thome: the other two arrived at Pondichery in April 1779 and joined the Foreign Missions (pp. 75-78). Fr. Garret laboured at first at Pondichery (1788, Cf. pp. 113, 160, 161). In 1807. he was involved in difficulties at Karikal, owing to some of his Christians wishing, in spite of the opposition of the Hindus, to have a theatrical representation (pp. 189-90). died [at Pondichery?] on December 2, 1817, aged 75 years and some days. "His zeal, his union with God, all his virtues and the care with which he had long prepared himself for death," wrote Mgr. Hébert, "give us every reason to hope that his death, though sudden, was not unprovided for '' (p. 441).

I understand that he could not speak at all. He recovered, however.

We subjoin an alphabetical Index of the "Mogor" Missionaries, with the years during which our Catalogues testify to their sojourn in the Mogul Empire.

Abreu de, John, 1704, '05, '06, '08, '10. Albuquerque de, Alvarus, 1718, '19, '24. Andrade de, Anthony, 1621, '24. Anonymous, 1591-92. Aquaviva d', Rudolph Bl., 1580-83. Barreto, Sebastian, 1600-04. Botelho, Anthony (senior), 1648, '49. Busi, Henry. Ct. Uwens. Cardoso, Manuel, 1710. Castro de, Joseph, 1610-16, '18, '20, '21, '24, '33, '41. Cautero, Nicolas, 1611. Ceschi di Santa Croce, Anthony, 1648, '49, '53, '55, '56. Corsi, Francis, 1600-07, '09, '16, '18, '20, '21, '24, '33. Costa da, Joseph, 1678, '81. Cruz da, Francis, 1735, '40. Desideri, Hippolytus, 1718, '24. Dias, Dominic, 1653, '55. Durão, Manuel, 1710, '16, '18, '19. Figueiredo de, Manuel, 1724, '27, '31. Fonseca da, Anthony, 1727, '28. Freyre, Manuel, 1710, '18, '19. Gabelsperger, Anthony, 1740. Goes de, Brother Benedict, 1593-1607. Govea de, Valentine, 1727, '28. Henriquez, Francis, 1580-81. Juzarte, Peter. Cf. Zuzarte. Koch, Francis Borgia, 1710. Leitão, Edward, 1590-91. Leitão, John, 1678, '81. Machado, Anthony, 1605-07, 1609-16, '18. Magalhães de, Anthony (senior), 1674, '78, '81, '94, '95, '97, '98, 1**70**0. Malpica, Stanislas, 1655, '56, '59. Marques, Brother Manuel, 1624. Martinelli, Joseph Anthony, 1710. Mattos de, Peter, 1664. Monserrat, Anthony, 1580-82. Monteyro, John, 1705. Monteyro, Manuel, 1706. Monteyro, Simon, 1708.

Morando, Francis, 1641, '48, '49, '53.

Payva de, Matthew, 1620, '21, '24, '33.

Payva de, Joseph, 1694, '95, '97, '98, 1700, '05.

Nogueira, Francis, 1708. Oliveira de, John, 1641. Pereyra, Anthony, 1694, '95.

Pinheiro, Manuel, 1593 1607, '09, '10 (?), '11-14.

Reys dos, Melchior, 1716.

Ribeiro, Francis, 1716.

Rodriguez, Anthony, 1700.

Rodriguez, Didacus, 1621.

Rodriguez, Gregory, 1674.

Rodriguez, Matthew, 1731, '35, '40.

Roth, Henry, 1655, '56, '59, '60, '62.

Santucci, Mark Anthony, 1674, '78, '81.

Sardinha Manuel, 1731.

Sena de, John, 1614, '15, '16.

Souza de, Francis, 1656.

Souza de, Gonsalvus, 1620, '21, '24.

Souza de, Martin, 1678.

Strobl, Andrew, 1740, '52, '56.

Tieffentaller, Joseph, 1752, '56.

Uwens, Henry (alias Busi), 1648, '49, '53, '55, '56, '59, '60, '62, '64.

Vega de, Christopher, 1590-91.

Verri [Vieira?], Manuel, 1660.

Xavier, Francis, 1735, '40, '42.

Xavier, Jerome, 1593-1607, '09-'15.

Zuzarte, Peter, 1656, '59.

If we add Alain de la Bauchère (died in Garhwál. 1636?), Anthony Pereira (in Garhwal, 1636, 1637), Matthew da Cruz, mentioned by Manrique under the year 1640. Christopher da Costa (1648) and Anthony de Rego (1656), our list gives a total of 71 names of Jesuit Missionaries in Mogor between 1580 and 1756. Adding to it another 10 mentioned in our Jesuit Missionaries in Northern India, which help us to fill in the gaps in the above Catalogues, we have a total of 81 for the period 1580-1803. The additional names are: Barros de. Thomas (cf. Jesuit Miss. in N. I., pp. 17, 24); Boudier, Claude (p. 38); Cabral, Francis [?] (p. 13); Garet, — (p. 40); Grueber, John (p. 32); Lanfranki, Francis (pp. 3, 24); Orville d', Albert (pp. 3, 32); Pons, John Francis (p. 38); Silva da, Joseph (p. 36); Wendel, Francis Xavier (pp. 4, 41). Were we in possession of the complete series of our Catalogues, the total number of Jesuit Missionaries in Mogor should we believe rise to over a hundred. We have not taken into account Andrew Boves and Ignatius Fialho, who laboured in Bengal exclusively, nor do we include the names of some 13 others who. together with another 10 mentioned above, are known to have attempted the evangelization of Thibet (cf. our brochure. pp. 14, 17, 19, 23).

Thanks to the labours of Father A. Franco, S.J., Synopsis Annalium S.J. in Lusitania ab anno 1540 ad annum

1725 (Augustae-Vindel., 1726, Appendix), we can determine the year of departure from Lisbon of many of the Mogor Missionaries. In the case of some, the identification is certain; in the case of others, it must remain tentative. We place in brackets Franco's spelling. "Fr." indicates that the Missionary was a priest at the time of departure.

- Fr. Andrade de, [Andrada], Anthony, Lusitanus, 1600.
- Fr. Aquaviva d', Rudolph, Italus, 1578.
- Fr. Barreto [Barretto], Sebastian, Lus., 1599. Castro de, Joseph, Lus., (sic), 1602.
- Fr. Ceschi, Anthony, appears in Franco as "P. Joannes Chespue, Germ., 1645."
- Fr. Corsi, Francis, is Franco's "P. Franciscus Locce, Sard., 1599." Compare with J. P. A. DA CAMARA MANOEL, Missões dos Jesuitas no Oriente, Lisboa, 1894, p. 155, where, under 1599, his name is "P. Fr. Corse, Italus Theologo." Fr. Van Meurs notes, however, above that Fr. Corsi came to Goa in 1595.

 [Lus., 1717." Cruz da, Francis, quoted by Franco as "Francis Crus.
- Fr Desideri [Desiderio], Hippolytus, Ital., 1713.
- Fr Dias, Dominic, Lus., 1647.

Figueiredo de [Figueiredo] Manoel, Lus., 1690.

- Fr. Koch, Francis Borgia, appears in Franco as "P. Franciscus Borgia, Germ., 1709."
- Fr. Lanfranki [Lanfranque], Francis, (a Portuguese?), 1632.
- Fr. Leitão [Leitam], John, Lus., 1670. Machado, Anthony, Lus., 1586.
- Fr. Magalhães de [Magalhans], Anthony, Lus., 1665. Another of the same name, also a Portuguese and not yet a priest, is mentioned by Franco under 1696.
- Fr. Malpica, Stanislas, Ital., 1635.
- Fr. Monserrat [Monserrate], Anthony, Valent., 1574.
- Fr. Morando, Francis, Ital., 1629.

 Pereira, Anthony, Lus., 1673. Another Portuguese Jesuit of the same name, a priest, appears under 1680. (Franco.)
- Fr. Pinheiro, Manoel, Lus., 1591. Reys dos (Reys), Melchior, Lus., 1699.
- Fr. Ribeiro, Francis, Lus., 1657.
- Fr. Rodriguez, Didacus, Lus., 1607. Rodriguez, Matthew, Lus., 1717.
- Fr. Santucci, Mark Anthony, appears in Franco as "P. Marcus Antonius, Italus, 1668."
- Fr. Sardinha, Manoel, Lus., 1720.
- Fr. Sena de [Sene], John, Ital., (sic), 1602. de Camara Manoel's list also describes him as an Italian. Cf. op. cit., p. 155. Silva de, Joseph, Lus., 1673.
 - Souza de [Sousa], Francis, Lus., 1647.
 - Souza de [Sousa], Gonzalvus, Lus., 1611.

Fr. Vega de (Viega), Christophorus, Castellanus, 1583.

Xavier, Francis. Three Portuguese Jesuits of this name, none of them in Priest's Orders, appear in Franco under the years 1712, 1717 and 1723.

Fr. Xavier, Jerome, Navarr., 1581.

Fr. Zuzarte, Peter, Lus., 1645.

Fr. A. Huonder, S.J., states in Deutsche Jesuitenmissionäre des 17 und 18 Jahrhunderts (Freiburg, 1899, p. 179) that Fr. Francis Wendel entered the Novitiate at Florence at the age of 21 years (1751), and was in the College of Diu in 1656.

Barros de, Thomas, entered at Goa in 1610; Boudier, Claude, came to India about 1718; Cabral, Francis, entered at Goa in 1554. (Cf. C. Sommervogel, S.J., Bibl. de la C. de J.)

Gabelsperger, Anthony, left for India in 1736; Strobl, Andrew, in 1736, Roth, Henry, in 1650. (Cf. A. Huonder, op. cit.); Tieffentaller, Joseph, arrived in India in 1743. (Cf. S. Noti, S.J., Joseph Tieffentaller, Bombay, 1906, p. 4.)

Finally Orville d', Albert, and Grueber, John, arrived in China in 1659. (Cf. Catal. Patrum ac Fratrum S.J. qui.. in Sinis adlaboraverunt, Chang-Hai, 1892), and W. IRVINE, Storia do Mogor, IV. Index, sub Dorville and Grueber.)

In Jesuit Missionaries in North India (1907), we gave copious directions towards the bibliography of the Mogor Missions, and notes on the biography of many of the Missionaries. (Cf. ibid., p. 42). Since then has appeared the 10th volume of Fr. C. Sommervogel's Bibliothèque de la Compagnie de Jésus, a volume of Indices, which will be found very handy for the bibliography of the subject. See, in particular, under "Histoire de la C. de J., and Missions de l' Inde." Valuable information is to be found in the Marsden MSS. of the British Museum. On these, we have published a special memorandum (Cf. J.A.S.B., 1910, No. 8, pp. 437-461.)

Finally, besides Fr. Anthony Monserrat's Latin Account of the First Jesuit Mission to Akbar, the original of which was discovered in Calcutta by the Rev. W. K. Firminger in 1907, we have before us a short list of unknown original letters preserved in our Archives in Europe. This list was drawn up by Fr. Van Meurs up to 1642 only; but, if we add to it what the Hon'ble E. D. Maclagan, I.C.S., has published for the years 1580—1605 (cf. J.A.S.B., 1896, pp. 38-113), and consider that, from 1642 up to the suppression of the Society, we are equally well supplied with unpublished documents, it will be seen what wealth of hidden lore awaits the scholar and historian of the future.

Letters of Fr. Jerome Xavier.

A letter of 1595 (Sept.), missing; another of Sept. 8, 1596;

Lahore, Aug. 1, 1598; *ibid.*, Aug. 13, 1598; *ibid.*, Aug. 26, 1598; Agra, Oct. 21, 1603; Lahore, Sept. 24, 1607; *ibid.*, Dec. 18, 1607; *ibid.*, Dec. 21, 1607; Fremona [Abyssinia?], July 30, 1608; Agra, Sept. 4, 1610; *ibid.*, Sept. 20, 1611; *ibid.*, Sept. 25, 1613; *ibid.*, Sept. 25, 1613.—I have some difficulty in accounting for Fr. Jerome Xavier's journey to Ethiopia in 1608.

Letters of Fr. Manoel Pinheiro.

Lahore, Sept. 9, 1602; *ibid.*, Sept. 18, 1603; Sept. 27, 1607; a letter from the king of Portugal, Lisbon, Jan. 31, 1612, thanking him for his kind offices while acting as ambassador from the Emperor of Mogor to the Viceroy of India; Annual Letter, dated Dec. 24, 1613.

Letters of Fr. Francis Corsi.

Agra, Aug. 10, 1604; Lahore, June 18, 1607; from the Emperor's Court and Camp, Oct. 18, 1616; Fathepur, Apr. 3, 1619; Quaximi [Kashmír], Sept. 28, 1620; Sambar, Sept. 17, 1624; Dinduana, Oct. 15, 1626; Agra, Oct. 5, 1633.

Letters of Fr. Joseph de Castro.

From the kingdom of Cahil [Kábul], Aug. 24, 1626, and July 26, 1627; from the kingdom of Casimir [Kashmír], Aug. 15, 1627; from the kingdom of Begela [Bengal], Nov. 24 [20?], 1631, and Aug. 28, 1632; Mogol, Aug. 8, 1632; Agra, Nov. 24, 1632; Agra, Febr. 6, 1633; Agra, Sept. 17, 1633; Agra, Oct. 8, 1633; as Superior of the Mission, he wrote on Apr. 16, 1637, and Oct. 29, 1637; Agra, Aug. 20, 1638; ibid., Sept. 1, 1640; ibid., Oct. 3, 1640; ibid., Aug. 15, 1641; ibid., Aug. 25, 1641; ibid., Jan. 1, 1642.

Letter of Fr. Francis Morando, Agra, Oct. 15, 1633.

48. The Rivers of the Delta.

By F. D. Ascoli.

Almost a century and a half have elapsed since Major Rennell commenced his survey of the rivers of Eastern Bengal, and in so young a country, where the century yields to the decade as the measure of antiquity, it is not unnatural to suppose that nature should afford some striking examples of change due to fluvial action. I do not mean to imply that within this space of time the wider laws of potamology can be proved by actual evidence of change,—changes due to the natural raising of the levels of the banks and the beds of rivers and to diminution in the slope of the deltaic lands. I would in fact hazard the suggestion that such changes, which I would describe as the strategy of river action, are not of paramount importance in so young an area; it is the tactics of river action —the changes due to the natural oscillation of rivers and the tendencies which cause them to cut their banks and depart from their original courses, which alone can be traced out in so short a period—the smaller and more intricate changes which largely condition the execution of the wider laws. It is these less general laws which are seen at work in the actual delta, laws which appear to supersede the wider principles. Granted that the slope of the delta is gradually diminishing owing to the large deposits at the mouth of the Meghna, the change is nevertheless so small that its effect is incalculable in the stretch of river from Goalundo to the sea. Granted again that in the older lands of the actual delta, e.g., the south of the Dacca district and the Palang thana of Faridpur, the river banks are considerably higher than the interior, still the changes are due to the actual cutting of these high banks: the high bank is not a permanent feature. It may be admitted that there are instances of the raising of a river's bed, as in the S. Dacca rivers, e.g., the Issamutty; but one is compelled to acknowlege that these changes are due to external causes, that the rivers in question are dying rivers which can point to no new course to compensate for the loss or shrinkage of the old. The two main factors of change are the cutting bank of the river and the formation of new chars, not throughout the bed of the river, but in some specific place. There are three means by which these changes may be followed out:-

- (a) Local Information.—This requires very careful sifting owing to the tendency to exaggeration and mythologization—if I may use the word.
 - (b) Old Maps and Papers.—This is a mine of much value

but its working is very difficult; while showing the actual facts of change, it is seldom that it even hints at the cause.

(c) Actual Observation of the Locality.—This method sounds simple, and indeed it does not require much practice for the eve to distinguish between old land and new: but the path has its thorns. If one could merely behold and say: "Here is a low-lying hollow; it is clearly the old bed of a river," the work would be easy. In the area under observation, south and east of the Garai and Chandina rivers, conditions are very The passenger from Calcutta to Goalundo may observe the banks of the latter river, well-set and high, with no trace of cutting at all; were the river to dry up even by raising its bed, he would have little difficulty in tracing its course. He may behold the Garai, its eastern bank high and consolidated, its western bank lowlying new land-all that remains of the river's attempt to open out its course as noted by Mr. Fergusson and Sir William Hunter: but the eastern bank will still be sufficient to locate the old course of the stream when the present railway bridge can give place to an embankment. Let the observer travel further east, along the Padma, the Kirtinassa and the eastern series of rivers in Faridpur. most cases he will find a high bank and a low; but the high bank is cutting fast: as it recedes the low bank throws out its tentacles, and as this low bank advances, its elevation increases, leaving no trace, beyond the newness of the land that a river ever flowed over the spot. The result is that in an area like the Sibchar thana of Faridpur, where practically the whole of the land is char land, mere observation will only lead one to the general conclusion that the whole of the area has formed the course of some river at some time or other. In the most favourable circumstances where a small stream remains, hight Mara Padma (Dead Padma), one is merely brought to the negative conclusion that this was certainly not the actual original course of the river but that it is the actual position to which the dving river ultimately cut its course. In fact in many parts of the area, the old river courses (i.e., the present char land) are considerably higher than the old "asli" land. Further difficulties arise where a river (as is frequently the case) opens out its course by cutting both banks. It will thus be understood that in this area we have not to deal with the deserted beds of rivers, nor again with the self-raised beds of rivers which have spilled over into the adjoining lower lands to find a new course; in our area the process is a continual state of cutting supplemented by a corresponding process of accretion which effectually hides the actual workings of the river; and to discover the real course of the changes, our local observation must be tempered by the use of old maps and documents, supplemented by the core of truth to be found in local traditions.

On this basis I venture to point out some of the important changes which have occurred in the courses of the Ganges and Brahmaputra since the date of Major Rennell's survey, more especially in the Rájnagar area; while pointing out the sequence of changes due to the oscillation of the rivers, I shall endeavour to point out their mutual connection and to show that a synoptical view of the river action of the last century and a half will show the connection of cause and effect; and the cause of the great changes will be found far away to the north in the River Teesta.

When Major Rennell surveyed the Delta, he found the Brahmaputra flowing into the Meghna, north of Dacca, a course which (there is evidence in the Ain-i-Akbari to show) was the main channel of the Brahmaputra in the 16th century. Within 50 years of this survey the main stream of the Brahmaputra was flowing west of Dacca down the old Jenai River, forming a junction with the Ganges near Jaffierganj; the combined streams deserted the old course of the Ganges between Panchar and Nulluah of Rennell's maps and joined the Meghna not far south of the big "pagoda" of Rájabári, about 45 miles in a straight line north of the junction of the Ganges and Meghna as surveyed by Rennell. The course of the river, roughly 120 miles long from near Nullua to Mehendiganj, was forsaken in favour of a course from Nullua to Chiddypur (Chandipur), approximately 20 miles in length, the direction of the stream changing from S.S.E. to almost due E. There is only one other change of importance to which I would call attention at present, viz., the formation of an entirely new river, the Navabhangani, through the isthmus at Serámpur in Rennell's maps (latitude 23°), joining the Meghna with the old course of the Ganges, a river which now forms part of the main steamer route from Calcutta to Cachar and Assam viâ Barisál. This stream, which at present has an average breadth of over 1 a mile, worked its way through from the Meghna into the old Padma, some years previously to 1800. Now these great changes, which appear to be merely the arbitrary workings of a young and violent river, are, I think, attributable entirely to one cause.—a cause the importance of which has been recognized, but the effects of which have never been adequately observed.

It has been admitted by more than one authority that the change in the course of the Brahmaputra was due to the fact that, owing to an abnormal flood in the year 1787, the River Teesta changed its allegiance from the Ganges to the Brahmaputra, which found a fresh outlet through the Jenai, the present main stream of the Brahmaputra (or Jamuna, as it is here called). This abnormal flood was felt far to the south down the Meghna and the Ganges, and the evidence afforded by old correspondence of the period, leads one to the inference

that the Teesta's flood waters were divided between the old Brahmaputra and the Meghna on the one hand, and the Jenai and the Ganges below Goalundo on the other hand. The correspondence of those years, which still exists, proves conclusively that the rayages of the flood were particularly felt in the Pergannahs (or fiscal divisions) of Rájnagar, Idilpur and Now the Idilpur and Srirámpur Pergannahs Srirámpur. form the areathrough which the Navabhangani River worked its way from the Meghna to the old Ganges or Padma; and the evidence to prove that this change was due to the flood of 1787 is almost incontravertible. The old course of the Brahmaputra and the Meghna (its continuation) was violently affected by the flood. Mohanpur, which Rennell surveyed in 1764 on the east bank of the Meghna, somewhat to the north of Chándpur, was left in 1793, as old correspondence proves, on the west bank of that river, which was swinging violently in its course (it may be added, the river has now resumed its former course). In 1787, the year of the great flood, a block of 10 square miles of the Tipperah bank of the Meghna was reported as having been washed away, while on the Faridpur or Western bank, the correspondence of the period teems with references to the diluvion and inundation of the Idilpur and Srirámpur Pergannahs, commencing from the year 1787; the river in fact was cutting so violently that the Collector of Dacca expressed his fear, in a letter to the Board of Revenue, that the whole of these pergannahs would be swept away. The correspondence moreover actually locates the area, where the destruction was most widespread; and the mouzahs thus located form the very spot where the Nayabhangani River was flowing, 7 years later at the utmost, with its destructive stream, across the Isthmus of Srirámpur, connecting the Meghna with the Ganges at or near Monerpour (now called Char Manpura). From the north of Dacca to the south of the present district of Faridpur, the damage caused by the flood can be traced distinctly and the evidence to prove the formation of the Navabhangani River from the date of the flood is so strong, as to substantiate the hypothesis that the Teesta River was directly responsible for this remarkable change.

Now the third pergannah in which the flood of 1787 was so severely felt, viz., Rájnagar, an area untouched by the River Meghna, lies mainly in the angle formed by Rennell's Calliganga River, at its meeting with the Ganges; and it was by the opening up of this Calliganga River, that the Ganges had by the year 1818 found for itself a new exit into the Meghna. The new stream was called the Kirtinassa (the Destroyer of Glories). That the consummation of this change required a period of 30 years from the date that the Teesta and Brahmaputra commenced sending the bulk of their water down the Jenai River to meet the Ganges at Jaffierganj above Rájnagar,

is not a matter of surprise.1 It is true that the flood of 1787 was sudden and severe: it spread its ravages even so far south as Rennell's Baugebary (Bansgari); but it is equally certain that the Brahmaputra acquiesced in its new course down the Jenai slowly, almost imperceptibly. Even so late as 1840, the old river to the north of Dacca was still known as the main stream of the Brahmaputra. Changes in the lower deltaic plains do not show themselves by sudden outbursts, but by a process whereby the river shifts by cutting its own banks or by gradually entering into and opening out the banks of some smaller stream. The period of 30 years is not surprising. At the same time the swing of a river within the area of its oscillation appears to be so confined (the example of the Ganges before its junction with the Jamuna will be noticed later) that one feels practically compelled to search for some external cause to account for a change of such a nature as is seen in the Rájnagar area; that the change is still in actual progress may be accounted for by the magnitude of the change; the progress of the changes will be recounted below.

A more detailed analysis of the evidence would, I aver, definitely prove that these two enormous changes, the formation of two entirely new rivers, are due solely to the convulsion caused by the change in the course of the River Teesta. It is here that the battle of the rivers was renewed, and it is here that the fight is being maintained even at the present date. The Brahmaputra, disturbed by the irruption of the River Teesta, was unable to hold its own against the Meghna at the point of junction north of Dacca; driven into the Ganges, it has renewed its attack with the aid of that river through the Kirtinassa.

It may be urged that I have neglected the changes that have occurred at the present junction of the Ganges and Brahmaputra Rivers. One hears of a Goalundo that now lies some miles from the situation of the place that at present bears that name; during the period of flood one sees the place actually changing before one's eyes beneath the swirl of the current of the united streams; chars in mid-stream form and disappear with a tantalizing fickleness; the location of the deep water channel causes the marine surveyor many an anxious moment. One remembers that in 1838 the Ganges was

¹ The year 1818 (i.e. 1225 B.S.) is the date assigned by local tradition: since writing the above, I have found amongst the correspondence of the Board of Revenue a letter written in March 1794, dealing with thana boundaries. In this the Naya Nadi Rathkhola (the real name of the Calliganga) or Kirtinassa is mentioned. There is no doubt as regards the identification, and the name Kirtinassa implies that the river had already attained a considerable size. This takes us within 7 years of the big flood, though it is clear from the size of the original stream as late as 1840, that the change was not by any means consummated by 1794.

fordable at several places above the junction, its waters finding a fresh outlet through the River Garai. It must be granted that when two big rivers meet, their junction must present a continuous series of changes; but in the present instance the changes are strictly local and temporary; the main swing of the river has not been materially affected; the fears expressed by Ferguson have not been realized; the Garai, so far from having assumed the greatness prophesied, is now a sluggish stream, only navigable in the rains: the Chandina is not only fordable, but dry in places; the Ganges still flows on despite the Brahmaputra, in fact at the point of junction the stream of the Ganges occupies practically the identical bed through which it flowed when Rennell surveyed it. There have been changes, great and destructive, but only such as one would expect from the natural disturbance where two great rivers blend into one; there has been no radical departure from its course, such as is seen further to the south and east. The place of battle has been transferred to the Rájnagar area, where the old fight between the Meghna and the Brahmaputra has been resumed, and, despite the additional attack of the Ganges, the Meghna is again proving victorious. It is over this area that one is able to discern and trace out the radical changes due to the great convulsion; and it is this change of the battle field from the old junction of the Brahmaputra and Meghna to the Rájnagar area that lends conviction to the view that the cause which terminated the former fray is identical with the cause which has reopened the battle on a fiercer scale in a new area.

In dealing with the changes in the course of the Ganges in greater detail, I may be excused perhaps if I confine myself in the main to the scenes of the most importance in order to show the changes which are relevant to the arguments which have been advanced; the other changes could be shown more clearly and more shortly by a comparative map. The important areas are the junction of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, the

Rájnagar area and the Navabhangani River.

Omitting the area from Rennell's Comercally to Moddapur, where the channel has certainly shifted northward at the Moddapur bend to the extent of over two miles, the long W.E. reach, and the subsequent N.S. reach may be treated jointly, as forming the area most liable to be affected by the junction of the two streams. The majority of the places shown by Rennell in his map can still be traced, e.g., Bailgutchy, Ragánauthpur, Calkapour, Bowanypour, Maldo, Notypour,

Rennell shows two channels in the E.W. reach at the junction. I only deal with the more southerly channel. The N. channel is now quite dry: it is impossible to say which was the deep water channel in 1764. It may be that at times the N. channel has been the important one, but at any rate the S. channel is the survivor, and must demand our attention.

Bettury and Panchsurya, though many of them are merely reformations in situ; this naturally prevents a visual comparison with complete accuracy, but it may be assumed that their position is approximately the same; the local cultivator has a genius for identifying a lost site. To explain this reach, I attach a rough sketch map to show the course which the river has taken. This map shows the line of Rennell's map (roughly plotted), the line of the river 1787-8, the line in 1858. and the present river bank, together with the limit to which the river has cut, so far as can be judged, within this period. It will be observed in the easterly reach that after a short period of cutting soon after Rennell's survey, the whole river had shifted N. by 1858 except at the actual junction with the Jamuna where the course lay slightly to the South; subsequently the river has shifted further north throughout the reach, with the result that the present junction of the rivers is practically identical with the junction as surveyed by Rennell; Maldaha (Maldo) and Char Natibpur (Notypour) have both reformed in original site; rounding the bend, it may be noticed that between 1763 and 1787-8 (the line of which can be plotted accurately from an interesting old rubokari) the W. bank had cut to the extent of about 1 mile; this line curiously happens to correspond with the limit of river action; from that date, the tendency of the river has been to move in an easterly direction, the present W. bank being in places as much as 4 miles from the bank of 1787-8; it may be added that this bank is at present cutting, but it is difficult to say whether this process is more than temporary. The E. bank has cut in a corresponding manner; Rennell's Jamalpur, Allachypour, Soalto have all disappeared; the river bed has opened out to the breadth of 31 miles, a large part of which is occupied by Coronation Char. a low-lying mass of sand, the predecessor of which may be noticed in Rennell's map. Such are the facts; it remains for us to draw the inferences. It is not improbable that in the Easterly reach, the limit of river action was reached soon after Rennell's survey; it is a definite fact that in the southerly reach, the limit was arrived at by 1787-8. This date happens to correspond with the date of the big change in the River Teesta. i.e., the date at which the Brahmaputra probably commenced sending its waters down the Jenai: from this date we find that the river began to move away from its Faridpur bank (i.e., the S. and W. bank), except at its actual junction; in other words the general tendency of the river since 1787 has been to deposit its silt on the Faridpur bank, the tendency having

I These two villages partly exist on the North or Pabna bank of the river, but this would not affect the argument, as a variation of a mere half mile in a river course is not a discrepancy of much importance in the rapidly changing deltaic lands.

changed immediately after the irruption of the Teesta.¹ The point of junction of the two rivers, however, remains identical. The facts prove that in this area the changes that have occurred are no radical changes but merely the outcome of a continuous altered tendency to cut in one direction, while what may be termed a big settling pool has formed opposite Goalundo, a not unnatural result of the union of the rivers.²

This north-easterly tendency of the river, the innovation introduced by the River Teesta, is not peculiar to this locality; the tendency is clearly seen the whole length of the Padma as far as the Rájnagar area, and it is quite apparent that the enormous changes which have occurred there, are the direct result, the final expression of this tendency; the changes at the junction are merely ancillary to the Rájnagar changes—a means to an end.

The proof of this argument is the lie of the river from the Goalundo reach as far as the Noorpour and Nulluah of Rennell's Map XVI. Throughout the whole of this stretch the river has shifted N. E.; of the places marked by Rennell on the N. E. bank not one remains. Noorpour has vanished leaving no trace behind it; Nurilapour is now represented by a new formation Char Nurullapur, one of the few accretions on the N.E. bank in this stretch. East of Nurilapour in Rennell's map, at the junction of two roads, will be found the name Mynehaut; this place (Moinat ⁸) has recently sunk beneath the Padma's waters; the extent of the cutting can thus be realized. Panchar which Rennell evidently intended to plot on the S. W. bank is now some 5 miles from the main stream; and a strip of char land along the whole of this S. W. bank, at least 3/5 miles in breadth shows clearly the old southern course of the river.

I would not assert so much that the actual cutting has been continuous, as that the tendency has remained operative. In 1858, for example, the Padma had divided into two branches south of Goalundo, the S. branch flowing by Faridpur, a bed which is now completely dry in the cold weather 4; efforts of the

It is a curious fact that north of the junction the Jamuna has displayed the opposite tendency and has deposited its silt on the East bank; it appears that below the junction the Ganges has been able to maintain its own tendency against that of the Jamuna.

² The floods of the present year (1910) appear to bely the above paragraph. The river has cut violently along the Faridpur bank, and has tended to resume its course of 1858 hard by Faridpur (see below). I would add, however, that the river has also been cutting away the opposite bank, the result being an enlargement of the settling-pool. The violent cutting on the Faridpur bank is doubtless largely due to the abnormal flood of the Brahmaputra, before the Ganges had risen.

⁸ It is claimed that this place has reformed in situ on the South-West or Faridpur bank; this however requires careful proof.

^{*} See previous footnote; the coming cold weather may see a change; this would not, however, prove an altered 'tendency' in the river.

river to break south have continually been checked by this

counteracting north-eastward tendency.

It is not unnatural to suppose that this tendency should incline the river to break away from its original course whereever the first vulnerable point offered itself, and it is obvious that this inclination would assert itself in the strongest degree where the old course commenced to curve away to the south; both these conditions happened in 1787 to exist at the same place, namely, at the point where Rennell's Callyganga River flowed east from the Padma to join the Meghna at Chiddypour. where the north-eastward tendency would incline the river to force its way into the smaller stream (see Map XVII of the Bengal Atlas). It does not appear from his journal that Rennell actually surveyed this stream; he has at least omitted an important town of the name of Serripur (Sripur), a town mentioned by Jao De Barros (1553), Nicholas Pimenta (1599), Pierre du Jarric (1610). Ralph Fitch and others as a town of much importance and which certainly had not disappeared in Rennell's day. He has also given the river a wrong name. Calliganga was the name of the stream flowing from Ganganagar 1 through Luricool and Mulfatgani to Chiddypour. Be that as it may, the main stream of the Padma was flowing through Rennell's Calliganga by the year 1818. The change was clearly a gradual one; there is no local tradition, as is so commonly the case even when unwarranted by the facts, of a sudden irruption of the river, and even so late as 1840 a large mass of water was still finding its way through the old course by Ganganagar, which still retained the name Ganges or Padma as against the Kirtinassa of the new stream. The new course was in origin a widening of Rennell's so-called Callyganga River. The interesting aspect of the struggle now commences, for the Kirtinassa was the weapon with which the Brahmaputra armed its ally the Ganges against the Meghna. The river had broken entirely new ground; Rennell's Callyganga, the real name of which was the Nava Nadi Rathkhola, had but a few years previously been a sacred road, and for 200 years at least before that date, no river had crossed the isthmus. The struggle which ensued must be described briefly.

The current of the Kirtinassa was exceedingly strong, perhaps due to a difference in the level of the Ganges and Meghna Rivers; the Meghna, at least, appears to have been taken at a temporary disadvantage; the big char, Pommanarra, shown

¹ The Kaliganga Mahál near Ganganagar still marks the site of this old and forgotten river.

² New river of the car path. In former days it is said that the sacred car was drawn along this road in the Sripur Ráthjátra (Car festival). It is said that the weight of the car hollowed out the path and this formed a khal by the influx of water from the Ganges to the Meghna.

by Rennell S.E. of Rájabári, was swept away and the Meghna was forced to deposit what silt it held, on the islands to the north, forming a large peninsula, while the Kirtinassa proceeded to cut away the W. bank of the Meghna. But the new river was an unstable adversary, and in the violence of its swing about the year 1830 Rennell's Mulfatgani was swept away, the river bank lying a mile to the South. By 1840, however, the Meghna had begun to assert itself, and the north-eastward tendency of the Ganges was clearly seen in a northern shift of the course of the new river, which at the same time was compelled to deposit a large amount of silt to the south down the West bank of the Meghna in the shape of an extensive reach of So great was the deposit, that the Kirtinassa, its mouth practically blocked up, attempted to find for itself a fresh outlet. From Noorpour it swept south again in its old bed by Pánchar almost to Badrasun; there the north-eastward tendency again asserted itself and its oscillation sent it back to Khagootia which it carried away with its pagoda at the junction with the original Kirtinassa, opening up in addition a small stream north of Ráinagar to Mulfatganj. By this date (1858-1860) the chars which the Meghna had forced the new river to deposit at its junction down the western bank had assumed very large proportions. The attempt of the Padma to find a new outlet had failed; the new channel commenced to silt up rapidly and the original channel of the Kirtinassa resumed its former importance. The Meghna, however, was still insistent, and the Kirtinassa was again defeated in the effort to keep open its mouth. In 1869 it strove for a fresh outlet with remarkable success down the new channel just to the north of Rájnagar. Such was the force of the new attack which concentrated again at Chiddypour that the history of the original irruption of the Kirtinassa was repeated, and the new stream carried away in its course the chars, which it had been compelled to deposit on the W. bank of the Meghna. In 1871 Rájnagar with all its glories was swept away; but the southward cutting of the stream did not augur well for ultimate success; in 1880-1 Luricool and Jopsha vanished with their buildings and page-Between 1873-1883, the old main channel of the Padma (Kirtinassa), about two miles in breadth, was often fordable. But its force was spent; the north-eastward tendency again asserted itself, and in ten years' time the new stream had given place again to the original channel | and the Padma was depositing its silt more extensively than before down the Meghna chars.

The battle appears to be based on a recurring principle; the Padma strives to maintain its north-eastward tendency;

I do not mean that the original channel was in identically the same position. After each rebuff, it appears to have shifted slightly to the N.E.

the Meghna refuses and compels the Padma to silt up its mouth; the Padma breaks away to the south, until arrested by its natural tendency; it clears its mouth and then proceeds again on the N.E. tack; then the Meghna in its turn comes to the fore and the process is repeated with a considerable amount of destruction in the battle area. The fight has been fought twice and it is not unlikely that a similar recurrence will be seen within a short time; but prophecy over so short a period with regard to so complicated a force, the intensity of which depends largely on two varying and independent factors, the floods of the Brahmaputra and Ganges, is a difficult task.

Suffice it to say that at present a transition stage appears to have been reached in the third encounter; the Padma has striven to move its stream further to the north right up to the base of the great Rájabári pagoda; but neither has the Meghna Near Lohujang (Tarpasha) steamer station the Padma has been compelled to carry its main channel from the northern to the southern bank, by the formation of an extensive char on the Dacca bank stretching from Lohujang with one short break to the Meghna. The Padma is cutting hard again for an exit to the south in the Rájnagar area; but at present the channel rebounds to the N. bank at the break in the char at the Rájabári Moth, but a short distance from the junction of the rivers, where the chars on the north bank again appear. The junction of the rivers during the flood is a memorable sight as the brown waters of the Padma meet the clearer resisting water of the Meghna; for some miles the waters remain distinct without mingling, and it is along this line that a long spit of char land is forming as a bar to the passage of the Padma. When this bar is complete, it is difficult to see what is to prevent the Padma from carrying Rájnagár away once more and repeating the process of which it has already enjoyed a double experience.

Leaving the Rájnagár area and following Rennell in his journey southward from Pánchar, we find but little trace of the old main stream until Takya is reached. Ganganagar island still exists as Rennell saw it, a solitary patch which has survived in the area of the great struggle, while all the surrounding lands have disappeared and reformed. A narrow khal, the Mara Padma (Dead Padma), lying west of a larger and newer river. is all that remains of the once mighty stream. Near Diggarypara the old course is completely dry, but traces of a course, earlier than that shown by Rennell, can be seen for a distance of some 25 miles; in fact in one place the broken bank of a very old tank shows the exact limit of the river action. Near Bhadrachap and Rannysar (which are, by the way, misplaced by Rennell) the old course of the east branch of the river appears again in the shape of a narrow khal, passing round Nagerpara where the old bed may be easily distinguished, as far as Char Manpura (Monnerpour). South of Char Manpura the old eastern branch can be traced in a series of char mouzahs but is completely dried up; the west channel viâ Gournadi still exists in a somewhat abated form slightly west of its original course, but it now carries the waters of the Kumar (Coomar) and Ariel Khan rivers. The network of rivers shown by Rennell between the E. and W. channels have now completely changed, and are filled with the waters of the Meghna which has broken through the isthmus of Srirámpur in the shape of the Nayabhangani River and of the Ariel Khan, a young and problematical river flowing from above Pánchar and meeting the old course of the Padma near Takya.

As regards the Nayabhangani it is unnecessary to add to what has already been said. This extraordinary new river has kept alive the lower courses of the old Padma but at present it is showing a strong tendency to silt up. This tendency appears to be due to the success of the Meghna in damming back the Padma some 25 miles to the north at Rájabári and compelling it to deposit its silt along the west bank of the Meghna. So extensive are the chars thus formed that they have thrust the mouth of the Nayabhangani so far south as to make it appear to be a feeder of, rather than a dependent on, the Meghna.

To enter into a detailed description of the changes that have occurred between Rennell's Panchar, Habibganj and Tockya would be an Augean task. Even within the last few years the usurping river, the Ariel Khan, which now holds the field, has changed its course completely over a long reach, moving 5 miles to the east; of the 250 square miles in this area, not twenty can claim continuous existence since Rennell's day, the changes in the area are as rapid as they are extraordinary. Madaripur which 50 years ago lay on Rennell's Comar River is now washed, and is in imminent danger of being washed away by the Ariel Khan. It would require a Delphic oracle to prophesy the future.

Of the more southerly reaches of the river, the branch to Sewtalury (Jhalakati) has practically maintained its old course; it is however interesting to note that the opening up of the Kirtinassa in 1818 resulted in the stretch of river below Gournadi almost drying up, until opened out again by the Ariel Khan. Further south the volume of water which flows into the Meghna, approximately through the mouths surveyed by Rennell as the mouths of the Ganges, is still immense; but the water is that of the Nayabanghani and the new and vigorous stream of the Ariel Khan—a stream the effect of which in the near future it is difficult to estimate.

Rennell's Journal does not deal with the area lying further south, and it would be out of place to attempt to describe the extraordinary changes which have taken place in the series of

massive chars shown in Rennell's maps. It will suffice to say that they have become consolidated into the immense island of Bhola, a subdivision of the Bákarganj district; the changes afford a valuable object lesson of the method by which this backward part of the delta is being developed, and its land face being brought into line with the more westerly consolidated portions.

Conclusion.

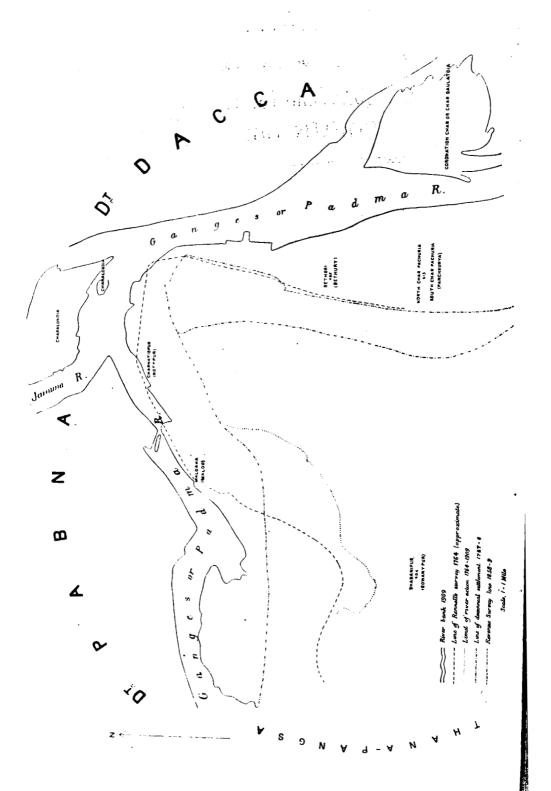
These notes deal with a small aspect of the geography of the delta, but it is none the less an aspect of some importance which has not suffered in the past from an exuberance of investigation. I have attempted to describe the influences which have led to the most important changes and to show that what may appear to be a mere arbitrary change is in reality one of a series of direct, perhaps natural, effects of a single cause. The absence of a really modern map will doubtless render the task of following these changes somewhat difficult; the maps at present available are the result of a survey some 50 years old, and until the maps of the present survey are published those maps can only show the changes in progress and not the result achieved; I attempt to supply the deficiency in some degree by rough sketch maps.

The object of this paper is not merely academic; it attempts to show that a certain definite order obtains in an area. the nature of which appears at first sight to be one of chaotic change; that a definite tendency has been operative for a period of over 120 years, that this tendency has been accompanied by a systematic, if complicated, method of change. Granted (and I admit that it is a big hypothesis) that no such convulsion occurs again among the hill rivers as the change in the course of the river Teesta, I see no reason to suppose that the system and tendencies above described will suffer any material alteration. Considering the interest that is at present being shown in the waterways of this area and the attempts that are being made to open out channels as a means of communication, I feel that this paper may possess some practical value. An appreciation of these principles might at least have prevented the ineffectual attempt to open out what is known as the Naria channel between Rájabári and Madaripur and would have shown the greater possibilities of the Maynakata | Khal and Kristanagar

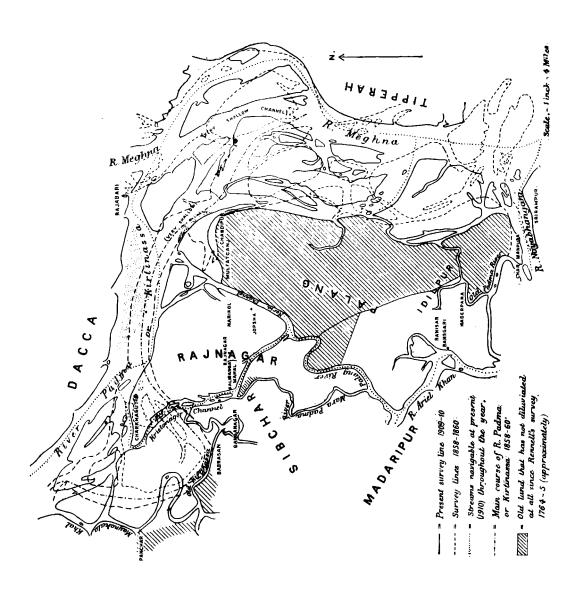
The Maynakata Khal (vid Panchar) is roughly the bed of the Ganges as surveyed by Rennell, and through which the Kirtinassa came again when it first broke south. The Kristanagar channel is the remnant of the second attempt to break south. The Naria channel (which is now almost dry) is the place where the Kirtinassa after breaking S. was driven back by the Meghna; it has enjoyed a continuous process of silting up ever since its formation—obviously owing to the damming influence of the Meghna.

channels where work is now proceeding, either of which may form the main stream of the Kirtinassa, if it again proceeds to break south.

Finally I would close this descriptive paper by a question of potamological theory. Do not the changes described above militate against the theory of the rivers of the lower delta building up ridges on which to run until they finally drop over the edge and commence to raise for themselves a fresh ridge and so on ad infinitum? It is a fact of some note that in the area under discussion, the oldest lands which the rivers must have deposited several centuries ago, are considerably lower than many of the new char lands which have been formed by the gradual recession of a river; and it is a fact still more worthy of note that none of the great changes described can by the widest stretch of the imagination be ascribed to this ridge theory. The theory does not afford a satisfactory explanation of the method by which the mouth of the Meghna is being filled up, nor of the formation of the new lands and rivers in the remainder of the area.



CHANGES IN THE RIVERS OF THE DELTA.



49. NUMISMATIC SUPPLEMENT, No. XIV.

Note.—The numeration of the article below is continued from p. 245 of the "Journal and Proceedings" for 1910.

82. Some rare Indo-Greek and Scythian Coins.

In the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal for the years 1897 and 1898, Mr. Vincent Smith published an interesting series of papers on some coins of ancient and mediæval India, entitled 'Numismatic Notes and Novelties.' I have written the following brief notes on similar lines, descriptive of a few coins which have come into my hands during the last four years. The references are all to Volume I of the new 'Catalogue of the Coins in the Indian Museum, Calcutta,' by Mr. Vincent Smith. The British Museum Catalogue is that of the coins of the Greek and Scythic Kings of Bactria and India.

1. Archebios.

Silver, round. Weight, 35 grains. Size, .75 inches.

Obverse.—Bust of king r., diad. Legend, ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΔΙΚΑΙΟΥ ΝΙΚΗΦΟΡΟΥ, below ΑΡΧΕΒΙΟΥ.

Reverse.—Zeus standing, facing, holding sceptre in l. and hurling thunderbolt with r. hand; mon., l. Pl. VII, 16; r similar to Pl. VII, 28. Kharosthi legend, maharajasa dhramikasa jayadharasa, below Arkhebiyasa.

This hemidrachm of Archebios is a variety of the common type as illustrated at B. M. Cat., Pl. IX, 2. The bust is different, and apparently depicts the king as a man of more mature age than he appears on the usual variety. On the reverse are two monograms similar to those on coin B. M. Cat., Pl. IX, 5.

2.

Copper, square. Weight, 123. Size, .85.

Obverse.—Bust of Zeus r., diad.; sceptre on shoulder. Legend on three sides as on 1.

Reverse.—The caps of the Dioscuroi, and two palms. Mon. below, similar to Pl. VII, 67. Legend on three sides as on 1.

This has been published in the B. M. Cat., Pl. XXXI, 5, but is a rare type. The monogram of this specimen is different.

3. APOLLODOTOS.

Copper, square. Weight, 145. Size, '8.

Obverse.—Apollo facing undraped but shod, holding arrow in r. and bow in l. hand. Legend on three sides $\mathsf{BA}\Sigma \land \mathsf{E}\Omega\Sigma$ $\mathsf{A}\square \circ \land \circ \mathsf{T}\circ \mathsf{Y}$ $\mathsf{E}\Omega \mathsf{THP}\circ \mathsf{E}$.

Reverse.—Tripod of peculiar form on stand, in square of dots; mon. N. Kh. legend on three sides, r. maharajasa, top Apaladatasa, l. tratarasa.

This is a rare variety of a very common type of the copper coinage of Apollodotos. Not only is the tripod strikingly different in shape from that usually occurring, but the attitude of Apollo is distinct. The issue has been recognized as a separate variety by Cunningham in his 'Coins of Alexander's Successors in the East,' and he says that all the specimens of this variety are of inferior execution, which I think is open to question. He only knew of one weight, the chalkons, and the specimens in the British and Indian Museums are of this weight. The coin now published is a dichalkon. I also possess a lepton.

4. Zorlos.

Copper, round. Weight, 230. Size, .85.

Obverse.—Apollo r., clad in chlamys and boots; holds in both hands an arrow; quiver at his back. Legend, $BA\Sigma I \wedge E\Omega\Sigma \Sigma\Omega THPo\Sigma$, $Z\Omega I \wedge oY$ below.

Reverse.—Tripod; l. Kh. figure 4; r. figure 1. Kh. legend, maharajasa tratarasa, below Jhoïlasa.

This is a thick and dumpy coin. It is similar in type to the coins of Apollodotos illustrated at Pl. IV, 7, and bears the same relation to the usual variety with the small elephant in the l. field of the obverse, that this coin of Apollodotos bears to the common Apollodotos medallion of the same type depicted at Pl. IV, 6.

5. MENANDER.

Silver, round. Weight, 35. Size, 6.

Obverse.—Bust of king l., helmeted, thrusting with javelin. Legend, $BA\Sigma I \wedge E\Omega\Sigma \Sigma\Omega THPo\Sigma$, below MENAN ΔPoY .

Reverse.—Pallas 1., holding aegis in 1., and hurling thunderbolt with r. hand; mon. Pl. VII, 86. Kh. legend, maharajasa tratarasa, below Menadrasa.

A very rare variety of the common type in which the king is depicted as diademed and hurling the javelin. It is not described in the existing Brit. Mus. Cat., but is illustrated

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in the 'Ariana Antiqua' and in Cunningham's 'Coins of Alexander's Successors in the East.' As both these works are difficult of access, I illustrate a specimen in my possession.

6.

Copper, square. Weight, 60. Size, 6.

Obverse.—Helmeted bust l. Legend, l. $BA\Sigma \cap E\Omega\Sigma$, top $\Sigma\Omega \cap Po\Sigma$, r. $MENAN\Delta PoY$.

Reverse.—Niké r., holding palm and wreath; mon. illegible. Kh. legend, top tratarasa, l. Menadrasa.

The only specimen of this common type of Menander's copper coinage known to me in which the bust is turned to the left, instead of to the right.

7. Dionysios.

Copper, round. Weight, 260. Size, 1.1.

Obverse.—Apollo to r., clad in chlamys and boots; holds arrow in both hands, quiver at back. Legend on three sides, l. $BA\Sigma IAE\Omega\Sigma$, top $\Sigma\Omega THPo\Sigma$, r. $\Delta IoNY\Sigma IoY$.

Reverse.—Tripod; r. trident, l. Kh. letter ji. Kh. legend, r. maharajasa, top tratarasa, l. Dianisiyasa.

A round copper coin of Dionysios is a novelty. It is a counterpart of a well-known copper coin of Apollodotos, as might have been expected, since all the known types of the issues of Dionysios are taken from those of Apollodotos.

8. PHILOXENOS.

Copper, square. Weight, 110. Size, .75.

Obverse.—Deity standing facing with r. hand resting on hip, and cornucopiae in l.; mon. to l. Legend, l., and top illegible but presumably $BA\Sigma I \wedge E\Omega\Sigma \wedge NIKHToY$. To r. apparently $H \wedge E\Xi \wedge oY$ or $\Phi I \wedge E\Xi \wedge oY$.

Reverse.—Humped bull standing r.; below Gr. letter Z. Kh. legend, r. maharajasa, top apadihatasa, l. probably Philasinasa.

When I first acquired this coin, which is obviously genuine, I thought that I had found a specimen of a new Indo-Greek king. The coin is of passable workmanship, and the figure of the deity on the obverse is quite distinct from that found on the usual copper coins of Philoxenos. On the latter she is shown as standing l. with r. hand advanced. Here she is facing with her r. hand on her hip. Also the style of the design is quite distinct. Although the name of the king is almost

certainly Philasinasa on the Kharosthi side, it is not ΦΙΛοΞΕΝοΥ on the Greek side. In support of the possibility of its being some other name, perhaps new, I may instance the copper coin exhibiting the joint names of Lysias and Antialkidas—Br. Mus. Cat., Pl. XXXI, 2. But the probabilities are that an ignorant engraver blundered the name ΦΙΛοΞΕΝοΥ. Still the coin is a new and interesting one.

9. HIPPOSTRATOS.

Copper; round. Weight 240. Size, 1.

Obverse.—Conventional design of Apollo standing r. holding arrow in both hands, and clad in chlamys and boots. Legend gone but probably $BASIAE\OmegaSSIMPOS$, below INDOSTPATOY. The first five letters of the name are just visible.

Reverse.—Tripod; mon. r. Kh. letter m; mon. l. Plate VII, 110. Kh. legend maharajasa tratarasa, below (Hipathratasa).

Round copper coins of Hippostratos are very rare, and have so far never been figured. Dr. White King had two, see White King Sale Cat., Part I, No. 161, and supplement to Parts I and II, No. 4549. Of No. 161 it is remarked in the Catalogue that till the time of its publication, such round pieces were unknown. Yet they are mentioned by Cunningham in his 'Coins of Alexander's Successors': see coins of Hippostratos the Great, No. 5a.

10. ARTEMIDOROS.

Copper, square. Weight, 20. Size 45.

Obverse.—Artemis l. wearing short chiton and holding out bow. Greek legend worn and illegible.

Reverse.—Humped bull standing to right. Kh. legend r. maharajasa, top apadihatasa, left probably Artemi

This small coin is a novelty. In weight and size it corresponds with the hemi-lepton of Menander, B. M. Cat., Pl. XII, 7.

11. STRATO.

Billon, round. Weight, 45. Size, 6.

Obverse.—Diademed bust to r. surrounded by barbarous Greek inscription.

Reverse.—Pallas to l. with aegis, hurling thunderbolt. Mon. r. Plate VII, 142; l. Kh. letter. Kh. legend maharajasa tratarasa, below Stratasa.

Professor Rapson has seen this coin and describes it as a

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new variety of Strato. It belongs to the types attributed to Strato II. This coin and another like it were found by me in the Ambala District of the Punjab.

12. Telephos.

Copper, rectangular. Weight, 120. Size, 85.

In No. III of his paper 'Numismatic Notes and Novelties' (Journal A. S. B. for 1898), Mr. Vincent Smith published a copper coin of Telephos, the description of which was as follows:—

Obverse.—Zeus (or king) seated l. on throne with back; his r. hand advanced; in his l. sceptre.

Greek legend, $BA\Sigma I \wedge E \Omega\Sigma$ (l.), EYEPFETOY (top), TH $\wedge E \Phi o Y$ (r.).

Reverse.—Figure to r., seated in crouching attitude, with r. arm extended; l. arm not visible.

Kharosthi legend, Maharajasa (r), Kalinakrama (top), sa Téliphasa (damaged, on left).

Mr. Vincent Smith remarked: 'The coinage of Telephos is of extreme rarity, and has heretofore been known in silver only. The Elliot hemidrachm in the Bodleian Cabinet was considered unique until Von Sallet identified two duplicates of it among the unnamed coins of the Guthrie collection at Berlin.'

The copper coin of Telephos now described was sent to me four years ago. The obverse is the same as that of the coin described by Mr. Vincent Smith, but the reverse is new.

Reverse.—Soldier (?) walking to r., wearing short cloak which floats behind his shoulders. His right arm is extended, and over his left shoulder he is carrying a spear or long staff. On his head is a Phrygian cap. To r. is the monogram peculiar to the coinage of Telephos, and to the biga type of the silver issues of Maues. Below the monogram is a peculiar object, possibly a stone or an altar. Kh. legend on three sides, r. maharajasa, top, Kalonakráma, l. sa Téliphasa.

The reverse design is unique, but resembles that of the unpublished hemidrachm of Strato I and Agathokleia in the British Museum.

Every letter of the Kharosthi word corresponding to EYE PFETOY is distinct. The first character is ka, and the second is l, but the short vertical stroke only extends below the horizontal line of the l, converting the character into lo. The third character is a hook turned to the right, and according to Mr. Vincent Smith is either the cerebral, or the dental n. The fourth letter appears to be clearly kr, but there is a dot below and to the left of the character.

13. HERMAEOS.

Silver, round. Weight, 150. Size 1.

Obverse.—Bust of king l., diad. Legend, $BA\Sigma I \wedge E\Omega\Sigma$ $\Sigma\Omega THPo\Sigma$, below EPMAIOY.

Reverse.—Throned Zeus l. radiate, with r. hand advanced, sceptre in l. Mon. Pl. VII, 72. Kh. legend, maharajasa tratarasa, below Haramayasa.

The didrachms of Hermaeos are well known, but I illustrate this specimen as it is in fine condition, and exhibits an

unusual monogram.

14. Azes.

Copper, square. Weight, 50. Size .75.

Obverse.—Male figure striding to 1., chlamys flying behind; holds club in r., and trident in 1. hand. Legend on three sides $BA\Sigma I \wedge E\Omega\Sigma$ $BA\Sigma I \wedge E\Omega N$ METALOY AZOY.

Reverse.—Female figure to r., peplum flying; holds out long fillet or garland; mon. Pl. V, 10. Kh. legend on three sides, maharajasa rajarajasa mahatasa Ayasa.

This is a rare variety of the copper coinage of Azes, and has not been figured before. It is identical with B. M. Cat., p. 89, No. 185.

15.

Copper, rectangular. Weight, 70. Size, $\cdot 8 \times \cdot 5$.

Obverse.—King on horseback r. carrying whip and bow; mon. r. similar to Pl. X, 18. Legend on three sides

IAEWB.....METAAOY AZOY.

Reverse.—Zeus standing 1., holding Nike bearing wreath and palm in extended right hand, and long sceptre in 1. hand; mon. Pl. X, 3, 1.; Kh. letter sm and another character r. Kh. legend on three sides maharajasa mahatasa Ayasa.

A square copper coin of Azes bearing the presentiment of the standing Zeus Nikephoros, so common on this king's silver

coinage, is a novelty. I know of no other specimen.

16. AZES AND AZILISES.

Copper, rectangular. Weight, 165. Size $1 \times .75$.

Obverse.—Herakles standing facing; holds in l. hand club and lion's skin; and with r. crowns himself; mon. l. Pl. VII, 72. Legend on three sides, $BA\Sigma IAE\Omega\Sigma$ (BAXIAEQN METAAOY) AZIAIX (OY).

Reverse.—Horse walking r.; mon. r. illegible. Kh. legend on three sides (maharajasa rajarajasa mahatasa) Ayasa.

This type of copper coin is neither new nor extremely rare, but the fact that it bears the joint names of Azes and Azilises has not been previously recognized. Professor Rapson, who has seen the specimen now described, agrees that the type should be ascribed to Azes and Azilises jointly. The B. M. Collection contains four examples of this type, two of which has been attributed to Azes—Pl. XIX, 11—and two to Azilises—Pl. XXI, 5. But there is no vestige of the name on the obverse of Pl. XIX, 11, while on Pl. XXI, 5, the name on the Greek side is Azilises, while it is assumed that the corresponding name on the reverse is Ayilishasa. But only the first two characters are visible, and these are not Ayi, but Aya, i.e., the first two syllables of Ayasa.

Silver coins of Azes and Azilises jointly are known—see B. M. Cat., Pl. XX, 3, and Pl. XXXII, 9. See also Cunningham's 'Coins of the Indo-Scythians, Sakas and Kushans.'

17. GONDOPHARRES.

Copper, round. Weight, 65. Size 6.

Obverse.—Conventional presentiment of Apollo standing r. holding arrow in both hands, and clad in chlamys and boots; design in area surrounded by raised beading; no legend.

Reverse.—Area filled by Gondopharrian symbol \(\mathbf{x} \). Kh. legend extant but rubbed and illegible.

This interesting coin was brought to me from Mathura. An Apolline type of the issues of Gondopharres is a novelty. With regard to the reverse design, compare coin B. M. Cat., Pl. XXII, 12.

18. GONDOPHARRES AND ASPAVARMA.

Copper, round. Weight, 150. Size 8.

Obverse.—The king on horseback to left holding whip. In front of the horse is the Gondopharrian symbol **2** and **7**. The Greek legend is corrupt and illegible, resembling that on the coins ascribed to Azes II—Plate IX, 6, or on those of Gondopharres with inscription Sasasa.

Reverse.—Zeus, naked to the waist, standing r., with r. hand raised, and long sceptre in l.; to right symbols Kh. letter a, \downarrow , and monogram, Plate X, 11; to left mark Plate X, 33, and symbol \ni . Kh. inscription reading from the bottom up towards the left from the outside of the coin—Aspavarmasa (putrasa) Indravarma strategasa; then returning to the bottom and reading up towards the right from the inside of the coin—Jayatasa tratarasa.

This coin is No. 274 in the first part of the White King Catalogue. It is there described as unpublished, and it is pointed

out that the coin possibly shows that Aspa Varma was connected with Gondopharres, and Wema Kadphises, as well as with Azes.

The usual variety of Azes and Aspa Varma copper coin is illustrated at B. M. Cat., Plate XX, 2, and it will be seen at a glance that the present coin is very different from it. The king on horseback is to the left, and in front of him is the symbol of Gondopharres. On the ordinary Aspa Varma coins the name Azes on the obverse can be plainly read, but the Greek inscription on the specimen now discussed is quite barbarous and illegible. The name Azes cannot be read either on the coin illustrated in the White King Catalogue, or on any of the three specimens in my possession.

The figure of Jupiter on the reverse is identical with that on the coin of Gondopharres illustrated at Plate IX, 9. It seems invidious to call the mark Plate X, 33, the symbol of Wema Kadphises. A symbol with at least an equal claim to that title would appear to be Plate VII, 154. The mark Plate X, 33, or a modification of it, is found on the coins ascribed by Mr. Vincent Smith to Azes II (Plate IX, 6); on those of Azes II and Aspa Varma (Plate IX, 7); of Gondopharres (Plate IX, 9); of Zeionises; and of Wema Kadphises.

The arrangement of the Kharosthi inscription on the reverse is peculiar. Then in addition to the words on the ordinary Aspavarma coins, there is the term tratarasa. I have filled in the word putrasa on the analogy of the usual Aspavarma inscription, but am not sure of it as there is a gap in the same place in all my three specimens, and the White King coin at this place is indistinct.

The marks on the coin are almost identical with those on the coin of Gondopharres, Plate IX, 9, already referred to. Instead of Kh. pra is Kh. a. The other symbols are the same. So are the obverse and reverse designs and their positions. It seems to me that the coin provides strong evidence to show that Aspavarma was the governor or satrap of Gondopharres as well as of Azes. This is consistent with Mr. Vincent Smith's view that Azes II was succeeded by Gondopharres.

19. KADPHISES II.

Gold, round. Weight, 245. Size 1.

Obverse.—Within square frame bust of king to l. wearing diadem; r. hand grasps thunderbolt or twig, l. hand rests on bottom edge of frame; his coat buttons at the neck. Above and below dotted circle, and over top edge of frame is mon. Pl. VII, 154. To r. and l. legend BACINEYC OOHMO KAAPICHC.

Reverse.—Siva standing front, head r.; holds trident in r.





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hand, round body and over l. shoulder necklace; body radiate; flames arising from head. He is leaning with his left arm on the hump of a bull standing behind him to r.; to left symbol Pl. VII, 152. Kh. legend, maharajasa rajadirajasa sarvaloga isvarasa mahisvarasa himakapisasa tratara.

This is a new type of double stater of Wema Kadphises, and is a superb specimen. The obverse resembles that of the coin B. M. Cat., Pl. XXV, 10, while the reverse is the same as that of the double staters in the British Museum, except that Siva is facing right instead of left. The coin has been purchased for the Indian Museum.

20. HUVISHKA.

Copper, round. Weight, 240. Size 1.

Obverse.—King seated to front cross-legged on clouds, head r.; l. hand raised. Greek legend illegible.

Reverse.—Wind-god running l., his hair loose; both arms raised; tor. $OA \triangle O$.

The presentment of Oado, the wind-god, is common on the copper coins of Kanishka, but very rare on those of Huvishka. In his 'Coins of the Indo-Scythians, Sakas and Kushans' Cunningham published copper Oada coins of Huvishka, but with the elephant-rider obverse only, and remarked 'Very rare; only two specimens.' The coin now described is No. 444 of the first part of the White King Catalogue, but has not been previously figured.

21. Indo-Parthian.

Copper, round. Weight, 110. Size 85.

Obverse.—Bust of the king to 1., wearing tiara. Kh. (?) legend.

Reverse.—Winged Nike facing, holds wreath. Kh. legend.

This is a new Indo-Parthian coin, but I cannot read the fragmentary inscriptions.

DALHOUSIE:

R. B. WHITEHEAD.

3rd June, 1910.

83. Some Rare Coins of the Pathán Sultáns of Dehli.

The following seven coins of the Dehli Sultans are, to the best of my knowledge, so far unpublished, with the exception of that of Shamsu-d-Din Maḥmúd Shah, but this does not appear to have been adequately described. All but the gold coin were found by me in the Dehli bazar within the last two years. The gold coin came from Rāwalpindi.

I. Ghiyásu-d-Dín Balban.

Copper.

Weight—30 grs. Size--:6. Mint-Fakhrábád.

Obverse.	Reverse.
In double circle.	In circle.
عدل	بفغر
غياتي	اباد

The only mint of Balban published by Thomas was Dehli. Subsequently silver coins of Lakhnautí mint became known, and specimens are in the Indian Museum. Then in the first Numismatic Supplement to the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Mr. Nelson Wright published a rupee and a copper coin of Balban struck at Sultánpúr. The copper coin was an 'adli of the usual type, but on the reverse it bore the words العضرت دهلي instead of سلطان يو

The 'adli now published adds a fourth to the three known mints of Balban. It is not a good specimen, but the inscription Ba Fakhrábád appears to be quite clear. Fakhrábád was presumably some place in or near the province of Bengal.

II. Shamsu-d-Din Mahmud Shah.

Billon.

Weight-50 grs. Size--:65. Date-718.

Obverse.	Reverse.
السلطان الأ	ابو المظفو
عظم شمس الد	محمود شالا
نیا و الدین	السلطان ١٨٧

This remarkable coin was picked out of a large number of silvery billon coins of the Dehli Sultáns covering the period from Mu'izzu-d-Dín Kaiqubád to Muhammad Tughlaq. It is of a common Dehli type, but the king's name is new. I could find no reference to Shamsu-d Din Mahmud in any of the usual standard works and catalogues, but ultimately I found a paragraph in Mr. C. J. Rodgers, "Coin Collecting in Northern India," which I proceed to quote verbatim.

"During the reign of Mubarak Shah a coin was struck bearing the name of Shamsu-d-Din Mahmud Shah. We do not know who he was. In the second year of his reign the Emperor went a tour in the Dekkan. He took a cousin with him and left Dehli in the hands of one of his creatures. When returning, he suddenly ordered his cousin to be executed, and when he arrived in Dehli the same fate was measured out to the man who had been left as governor of that city. It is surmised that the cousin and the governor were plotting for the throne. The coin was evidently struck in Dehli. The king probably saw it, and as it bore on it the year of his absence, he imagined that either the governor, or his cousin, or both, were plotting against him. No mention is made of Shamsu-d-Dín Maḥmúd in history. His name and date are found only on one known coin. If more coins could be obtained, we might get to know more about him."

In the Introduction to his "Catalogue of the Coins in the Government Museum, Lahore," Mr. C. J. Rodgers gives a list of the Dehli Sultans which includes Shamsu-d-Dín Maḥmúd. The date of his accession is given as 718 A.H., and it is stated, that only one billon coin is known.

These two references are all the information I have been able to find. I cannot ascertain whether the coin was ever described, and to whom it belonged, or now belongs. If it was the property of Mr. Rodgers, he probably disposed of it to the British Museum, yet it is not published in his Supplements.

Possibly the present notice will stimulate further enquiry, but Shamsu-d-Dín Mahmúd can have been nothing more than the figure head of an obscure palace conspiracy.

III. Muḥammad-bin-Tughlaq.

Gold.

Weight—170 grs. Mint—Tughlaqpúr alias Tirhut. Size—85. Year—735.

Obverse.

In circle, Kalima.

Marginal inscription within outer circle.

ضرب هذه السكه اقليم تغلق پور عوف ترهت في سنه خمس و ثلثين و سبعمايه Reverse.

In centre of coin المجاهد في الله الله محمد بين تغلق محمد بين تغلق On four sides names of the four imāms; all within outer circle.

This mohar is in fine condition. It is a gold coin of Tughlaqpúr alias Tirhut mint, and as such is a novelty. Previously the only known coins of Muhammad Tughlaq struck at

this mint were forced currency issues of the design common to it and to Dehli, Dár-ul-Islám, Lakhnautí, Daulatábád, Satgāon, and Darra Dáhár or Dhár. The date of the coin now published is 735, while the only date so far known to exist on the forced currency issue of Tirhut mint is 731.

IV.

Billon.

Weight - 50 grs. Size--6. Date-734.

Obverse. Reverse.

In circle. In double circle.

الراجي محمد بن محمد الله الراجي تغلق سفه الله الكريم الكر

This is a variety of a common billon type of the issues of Muḥammad Tughlaq, in which the date is always expressed in words. In one respect the coin is a freak because the word (year) when used on the coinage of the Dehli Sultáns, is invariably followed by the date in words. Otherwise it is a normal, well-executed specimen. Two of this variety were found in the same lot from which I got the coin of Shamsu-d-Dín Maḥmúd.

V.

Billon.

Weight—52 grs.

Size—·7.

Obverse.
In circle
معهد بن
تغلق شاق

Reverse. In circle. المجاهد في سبيل الله

Like the preceding coin, this is a variety of a common billon type of Muḥammad Tughlaq's coinage. Instead of the date in figures appear the words ... The coin is thin, and the lettering is distinct in style.

VI. Fíroz Shāh with Zafar.

Billon.

Weight—75 grs. Size—'5.
Mint—Dehli.

Obverse. Reverse. In circle. دار الملک فیر سلطانی طفر سلطانی دهلی

VII. Muḥammad bin Firoz.

Billon.

Obverse.	Reverse.
In circle.	In circle.
سلط_از	دار الملک
ويروز شاه	رهلي
محدد شالا	· V98

The last two coins are novelties as they are both of Dáru-l-Mulk Dehli. The first of the two belongs to the dateless varieties, and is a dumpy piece of poor workmanship; the second is well executed and in fine condition.

Lahore: R. B. Whitehead, C.S. 1st April, 1910.

84. Some Coins from the Limboi Treasury.

In June last (1909) it was my good fortune to spend six delightful days at Limbdi, the capital of the State of that name in the Province of Kāthīāwād. Mr. Jhaverbhai Nāthābhai Amin, the capable and trusted diwan, had suggested to His Highness the Thakor Sahib that a hoard of coins which long had been lying untouched in the State Treasury should be examined, and it was on this welcome errand that I visited the place. Every facility was afforded me for the inspection of the coins, each one of which passed through my hands. Numbering some 6,500, they were all, with the exception of a few Native State coins, either rupees or half-rupees of the Mughal Emperors of India. The Great Mughals, Akbar, Jahangir, and Shah Jahan were but poorly represented, the large majority of the coins ranging from Aurangzeb to Muhammad Shah. The Thakor Sahib very kindly presented me fifty that were new to my collection. A description of these will perhaps be of interest, the more so as several of them have till now remained unedited.

Aurangzēb.

Of the rupees of Aurangzeb's reign four in the hoard issued from mints hitherto unregistered, but on two of these the mint-names still defy decipherment. One of the new mints is Jinjī, جنجي (Fig. 1, Obv. and Rev.). The obverse of this Jinjī rupee displays the ordinary چو بدر صفير legend, while the Hijrī year 1109 appear in the gāf of اورند زيب. The reverse reads quite distinctly—

مانوس میمذت سله ۱۲۱ جلوس ضرب جذجی

Eighty miles south-west of Madras, "the fortress of Jinjī occupies seven adjacent hills, on each of which stands a fort bearing a distinct name", Elliot (Dowson), VII, 348. In his "History of the Mahrattas" Grant Duff tells at some length the story of the siege of Jinjī. It appears that in 1693 the place was invested by the Mughal troops under the prince Kām Bakhsh, but so languidly were operations conducted that not till January, 1698, was the fortress carried by escalade. The Jinjī rupee must have issued from the mint but a few months after this success, for the year of its issue, 1109 H., closed on July 9th, 1698.

Another new mint that now falls to be registered is Maḥmūdbandar, المحود بندر (Figs. 2 and 3, Rev. only). Two duplicate rupees, each dated 51-1119, mutually help to reveal the mint-name, one containing its earlier letters Maḥmūdbanand the other its later letters....ūdbandar. Where this Mahmūdbandar was situated is unknown to me.

Yet two other rupees, one dated 30-1098 and the other 4x-1109, are of the ordinary type, but in each case I have failed to read the mint recorded. In the hope that some coin-collector may be able to suggest the correct reading of these names, the two Reverses are shown in Figs. 4 and 5.

Of Aurangzēb's Mailāpūr rupees one was described fourteen years ago in King and Vost's article entitled "Novelties in Mughal Coins." A rupee from this rare mint is also in Mr. Burn's cabinet. At Limbdī two specimens came to light, on one of which the mint-name is entered as Mahīlāpūr with an 'h', and on the other as simple Mailāpūr, without the

l My cabinet has long held an Aurangzeb rupee of the regnal year 4x that was struck at Islambandar. This "bandar" too baffles me.

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'h', ميلا پور (Figs. 6 and 7, Rev. only). ''Mylapore'' lies on the left bank of the river Adyar, and forms with St. Thomé the southern suburb of the present town of Madras.

Other rare Aurangzeb rupees were two from the mints at

Zafarpūr and Dāru-l-mulk Kābul.

A'zam Shāh.

It was an especial pleasure to light upon an Aḥmadābād A'zam Shāh in mint condition. The only other specimen known to me is in the British Museum, No. 850.

Shāh 'Ālam I.

Shāh 'Ālam I was represented by rupees from the following mints, all of them rare for that Emperor's reign: Ajmēr, Aḥmadnagar, Akbarnagar, Purbandar, Chīnāpattan, Sholāpūr, and both Dāru-l-jihād and Farkhunda bunyād Ḥaidarābād. Of two Ajmēr rupees, each of the first regnal year, one, probably the earlier issued, bears the mint epithet Dāru l-Khair, but the other Mustaqirru-l-Khilāfat. This latter title is also present on the rupee No. 866 in the British Museum, which coin, however, differs from the Limbdī rupee in the arrangement both of the Obverse and of the Reverse legends. Evidently then during Shāh 'Ālam's first year three several dies were designed and used in the Ajmēr mint.

Jahāndār.

The Jahāndār rupees included a very early Arkāt (1-1124)² and a good specimen from the exceedingly rare mint Bahādurgarh. This latter displays the صاحب قران bait, but a second rupee, already long in my possession, of the same Emperor and mint, bears the ابر الفتي distich (Figs. 8 and 9, Obv. and Rev.).

The situation of Bahādurgarh is not known for certain. It was somewhere in the Deccan, and "perhaps the place was on the Mān river", E.D., VII, 383, note 2.

l Having these two coins in hand for reference, I have no hesitation in affirming that the muhr and rupee, Nos. 860, 874, in the British Museum catalogue, there attributed to Sholāpūr (with 'short o'), really issued from the Mailāpūr mint. On coins Sholāpūr is written fully (acriptio plena) with a wāw present in the first syllable, thus not شولا پور but

² In his "Old Coins in the Bahāwalpūr State Toshakhāna," Mr. Whitehead mentions a rupee struck at the Arkāt mint still earlier by two years. He says, "If my reading is correct, the Arkāt coin of Shāh 'Alam Bahādur I is new. It is dated 1122 (jahūs 4)."

Farrukh-siyar.

Of Farrukh-siyar's reign one rupee I am inclined to assign, though somewhat doubtfully, to the new mint Gulshanābād (Fig. 10, Obv. and Rev.). It displays the normal legends, but on this specimen the mint-name itself is not very clear. The fort of Gulshanābād, in Baglānā near Junīr, is mentioned in the history of the operations conducted by the Imperial forces against the Marāṭhās in the early years of the twelfth century after the Hijra (E.D., VII, 337, 345); but I have not succeeded in discovering what connexion the Emperor Farrukh-siyar may have had with this place.

Another rupee of this reign issued from the mint of A'zamnagar (Fig. 11, Rev. only). The lowest line of the Reverse contains several incomplete letters, which may perhaps have served to indicate that the mint's full name was A'zamnagar Gokulgarh. The specimen in the British Museum, numbered 936, seems to be without this supplemental line.

Fig. 12, Rev. only, represents a puzzling rupee. Though its mint-name has not yet been deciphered, enough of its letters are present to render probable the inference that this coin issued from some town hitherto unregistered in any mint-list.

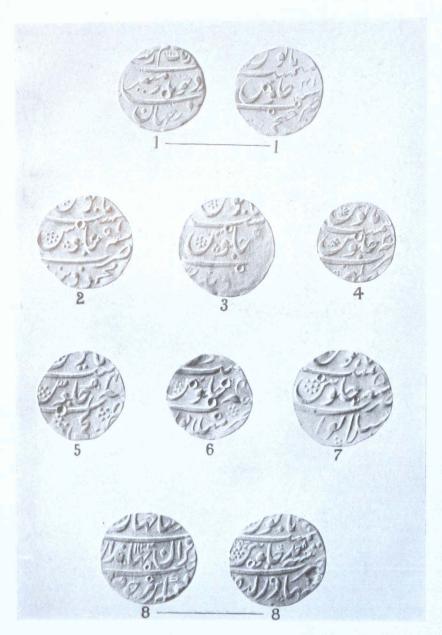
Other noteworthy rupees of Farrukh-siyar were those from Dāru-l-Khair Ajmēr, Dāru-l-Fath Ujjain, Islāmābād, Bankāpūr, Chīnāpattan, and Mustaqirru-l-mulk 'Azīmābād. The Bankāpūr rupee (Fig. 13, Obv. and Rev.), dated 7-1130, differs in the arrangement of its Obverse legend from King and Vost's No. 32.

Rafī'u-l-Darajāt.

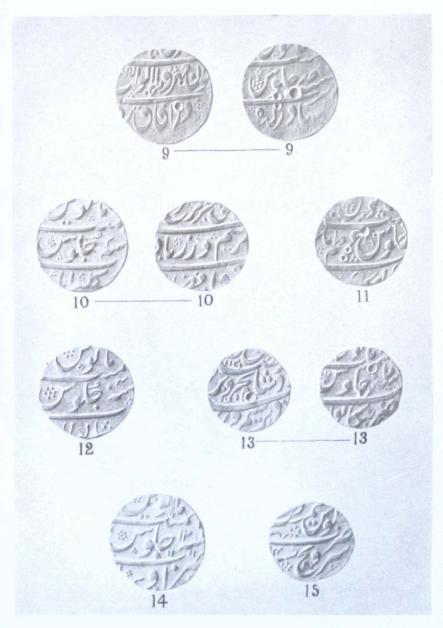
Of Rafi'u-l-Darajāt's short reign rupees bearing this Emperor's distinctive couplet were in evidence from the Dāru-l-Fath Ujjain, Aḥmadābād, and Lakhnau mints. There was also a Multān rupee bearing, as indeed seems to be usual in the case of this mint, not the couplet but the simpler legend that is present too on the Multán muhr. The Aḥmadābād rupee, a broad specimen and in perfect condition, is the first one I have seen without the Zīnatu-l-bilād epithet. Just the plain name Aḥmadābād is entered at the bottom of the Reverse. It would be interesting now to discover gold pieces of this simpler type, corresponding to the well-known Zīnatu-l-bilād muhrs.

Shāh Jahān II.

Shāh Jahān II's rare mints at Burhānpūr, 'Azīmābād, and Korā were represented by their rupees. Also a rupee from Dāru-l-Khair Ajmēr was found, which, though wanting the Hijri year, may be confidently assigned to this Emperor rather than to Shāh Jahān III.



SOME COINS FROM THE LIMBDI TREASURY.



SOME COINS FROM THE LIMBDI TREASURY.

Muhammad Shāh.

Two noteworthy coins of Muhammad Shāh were from the Ausā and Sironj mints (Figs. 14, 15, Rev. only). Unfortunately neither of the two shows the Hijrī year, but on the Ausā rupee the regnal year is 12, and on the Sironj 4 (or possibly x4). Also of this reign were two Machhlīpattan rupees, dated 2—1132 and 8—1139, of the type already described in Numismatic Supplement VIII, 592, and XII, 383.

The Plate illustrating this article exhibits the following

rupees :-

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: Jinjī: 41—1109: Obv. and Rev.
No. 1. Aurangzēb
                       : Mahmūdban[dar]: 51-1119: Rev.
          , ,
 , ,
                       : [Mahm]udbandar: 51-1119: Rev.
    3.
          ,,
                       : Mint unknown: 30-1098: Rev.
    4.
                       : Mint unknown: 4x—1109: Rev.
    5.
                       : Mahīlāpūr : R. Y. 4x: Rev.
    6.
          ,,
 ٠,
                       : Mailapur: 5x—1118: Rev.
    7.
                       : Bahādurgarh : 1—1124 : Obv. and
    8. Jahandar
                       : Bahādurgarh : R. Y. 1 : Obv. and
    9.
                         ? Gulshanābād: R. Y. 2: Obv. and
    10. Farrukh-siyar
                       : A'zamnagar : No date : Rev.
    11.
    12.
                       : Mint unknown: R. Y. 4; Rev.
   13.
                       : Bankāpūr: 7-1130: Obv. and Rev.
    14. Muhammad Shāh: Ausā: R. Y. 12; Rev.
                       : Sironi : R. Y. 4: Rev.
    15.
    Ahmadābād:
                                       GEO. P. TAYLOR.
   9th May, 1910.
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85. A Postscript to the Article on "Some Coins from the Limbdi Treasury."

Note.—May Maḥmūd Bandar be Porto Novo on the Coromandel Coast? Only yesterday I had the good fortune here in Bombay to pick up a copy of that rare book Alexander Hamilton's "New Account of the East Indies" (1727), and turning over its pages I lit upon the following relevant passage:—

"The next Place of Commerce is Porto Novo, so called by the Portugueze, when the Sea-coasts of India belonged to them; but when Aurangzeb subdued Golcondah, and the Portugueze affairs declined, the Mogul set a Fouzdaar in it, and gave it the Name of Mahomet Bander. The Europeans generally call it by its first Name and the Natives by the last " (I, 350).

It is, of course, quite true that Mahomet and Mahmud are different names, and that thus this "Mahomet Bander" is not necessarily to be identified with the mint-town Mahmud Bandar. But it would be surprising if the distinction between the two names had been observed by Hamilton, a rough, plain-spoken "Captain", who by his own telling was at Madras officially declared "a rank Pirate". He disavows any claim to exact "We Britains, who either go voluntarily or are scholarship. sent to Neptune's Schools in our Youth, to learn Politeness and Eloquence, very rarely meet with Apollo's bright Sons or Disciples to instruct us in the knowledge of Languages." He openly admits that what he has recorded in his book "came posting through a weak and treacherous Memory with little Elegancy." It thus may well be that on occasion his memory played him false, and that from this cause he has handed down in a form slightly altered a name that originally read Mahmud Bandar.

BOMBAY:

GEO P. TAYLOR.

21st May, 1910.

86. On the Symbol 'Sāhib Qirān.'

It is well known that the 'alāmat Sāhib Qirān is present as a royal title on many of the coins of the Mughal Emperors of India, and it may be helpful to have on record just when and where and by whom this title was used. But first a word as to its meaning. The term قران, qirān, indicates in the astrology of Persia a conjunction of two or more planets. Now not all conjunctions are held to be auspicious, for while some planets, such as Venus and Jupiter, are supposed to shed a beneficent influence, others, such as Mars and Saturn, are deemed to exert a malignant power. A pair of planets, each of good omen, is expressed in Arabic by the dual سعديس, sa'dain, but if the two import bad luck the term employed is nahsain. Hence the full form قران صعدين means definitely an auspicious conjunction, but قران نحسين a conjunction as definitely inauspicious. It would seem, however, that on, when used absolutely can carry with it سمدس understood, and accordingly it admits of interpretation as a conjunction presaging happiness.1 By consequence the title Sahib Qiran comes to

l As is well known, "the horned moon with one bright star" is at the present day the felicitous emblem of the "Öthmānlī Sultāns of

mean 'Lord of the (happy) conjunction,' whence arose the derivative meanings, 'a favourite of Fortune,' 'a great Emperor,' 'a Kaisar,' 'an Augustus.'

Tamerlane is said to have been the first monarch to have borne this title, but the epithet has not been found on his coins. The late M. Ed. Drouin in his paper on "Les Symboles astrologiques sur les monnaies de la Perse' mentions that Timūr in his desire to foster the prosperity of his capital city Samargand invited thither astrologers and other men of learning. During his reign (A.H. 771-807) a remarkable planetary conjunction took place, and the astrologers, availing themselves of the occasion, fashioned as an adulatory tribute to their imperial patron the title Sāhib Qirān. Inasmuch as the celestial phenomenon then observed recurs but once in thirty years, they foretold that Timur's reign would last for at least that period of time, and as a matter of fact it did cover the thirty-five years from 1369 till 1404. The title thus assigned to Timur seems to have become for a while a term distinctive of that Emperor. The Tūzuk-i-Jahāngīrī expressly states:

"In these Memoirs whenever Sahib Qirani is written it

" refers to Amir Timur Gurgan." 8

In the Preface to the Persian translation of the Mulfuzāti-Timūrī the translator, Abū Tālib Husainī, says:

"I saw in the library of Ja'far, Governor of Yaman, "a book in the Turki language, dictated by His Majesty "who now dwells in Paradise, Sāhib Qirāni."2

In Jahangir's time the Royal Signet of the Great Mughal bore, inscribed in the topmost of its nine circles, the words:

None of Timur's successors on the throne of Samarqand bore the title of Sāhib Qirān, but in that later Empire of the Great Mughals, founded in Hindustan by Babar, sixth in descent from Timur, the coins of no less than nine of the Emperors (or Claimants to the throne) exhibit the title either

Turkey. Its origin dates so far back as B.C. 339. In that year Philip of Macedon, while besieging Byzantium, attempted in the early night hours an escalade of the city; but it is said a sudden silver gleam flashing from the western sky revealed the advancing enemy, and thus Byzantium was saved. In commemoration of the Divine aid so wonderfully vouchsafed, it was forthwith decreed that the city's badge should be a crescent, its light reinforced by a star, and that both star and crescent should be graven on the city's coins. This emblem was adopted by the Turks after Constantinople fell to Muhammad II in 1453, and since then it has come to be popularly regarded as the distinctive symbol of Islām. To the Muhammadans of India, however, it is a foreign ensign, in no way associated with their religion.

The Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri, translated by Rogers and Beveridge,

² The Mulfūzāt Timūri, translated by Stewart, page 1.

unchanged or in a slightly varied form. The nine Emperors are—

Shāh Jahān I, Shāh Shujā', Murād Bakhsh, Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur I, Jahāndār, Farrukh-siyar, Muḥammad Shāh, Shāh 'Ālam II, and Akbar II;

and the variant titles are the following four:

Ṣāḥib Qirāni, Ṣāḥib Qirān Thānī, Thānī Ṣāḥib Qirān, and Thālith Sāhib Qirān.

Sāḥib Qirān, صاحب قران.

The simple term Ṣāḥib Qirān is present, unaltered, on the coins of Murād Bakhsh and Jahāndār.

(a) Murad Bakhsh caused rupees of two different types to be struck at Sūrat in A.H. 1068. Of the rarer type the legend on the Obverse reads:—

Muḥammad Murād, the victorious King, the Second Alexander,

Took the heritage from (Shāh) Jahān, Lord of the Conjunction.

(b) Jahāndār approved two distichs for his coins, of which the one given below contains his title Ṣāḥib Qirān.

This legend, with occasional slight variation, is present on both muhrs and rupees struck at Khujista Bunyād, and on the rupees that issued from Etāwā, Dāru-l-Fatḥ Ujjain, Dāru-s-Sarūr Burhānpūr, Barēlī, Sūrat, Dāru-l-Khilāfat Shāhjahānābād, and Lakhnau.

[Nādir Shāh is not included among the Emperors of India, but it may here be noted that, during his sanguinary invasion of the country in A.H. 1152, he caused coins to be struck in his name at Déhlī and Aḥmadābād, on which he too is styled Ṣāḥib Qirān. They bear the legend:

هست سلطان بر سلاطین جهان شاه شاهان نادر صاحب قرن]

II. Ṣāḥib Qirānī, صاحب قراني.

The title 'Lord of Conjunction' with the mere change of قراني to the adjectival قراني occurs on the coins of Shāh 'Ālam I and Shāh 'Ālam II.

(a) Mr. Whitehead in his report on the "Old Coins in the Bahāwalpūr State Toshakhānā" (Num. Supp. XI, p. 333) mentions three muhrs of Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur I from the mint Mustaqirru-l-Khilāfat Akbarābād bearing the following inscription:—

Instead of the first two words مبارک سکه Mr. Rodgers would read بزر زه سکه.

The same epithet Ṣāḥib Qirānī also occurs on the Akbarābād rupee, No. 3, on page 220 in the Lāhor Museum Catalogue, which, as Mr. Whitehead points out, has been there erroneously attributed to Ālamgīr II. It is, one may confidently affirm, a coin of Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur I.

(b) On both muhrs and rupees of Shāh 'Ālam II from Aḥmadnagar-Farrukhābād and Dāru-l-Khilāfat Shāhjahānābād, and on that Emperor's rupees from Mustaqiru-l-Khilāfat Akbarābād, Barēlī Qat', Muzaffargarh, and (perhaps) Jodhpūr, we meet with the following legend:

سكه ماهب قواني زد زقائيد اله حامي دين محدد شالا عالم بادشالا

صاحب قران ثاني ,Şāḥib Qirān thānī

This title, 'the Second Lord of Conjunction,' was adopted by the four Emperors, Shāh Jahān I, Shāh Shujā', Muḥammad Shāh, and Akbar II.

l Shāh Jahān I was the first of the Mughal Emperors to have the title Ṣāḥib Qirān thānī entered on his coins, but M. Ed. Drouin has adduced interesting evidence which goes to prove that the title was as a matter of fact borne by Ṣhāh Jahān's father Jahāngīr.

[&]quot;Les poètes persans contemporains qui étaient à la cour de ce "sultan (Djehan Gîr,) et célébrèrent son avenement en 1605, disent "bien qu'il monta sur le trône au moment où avait lieu la seconde con-"jonction (ce qui est faux astronomiquement), mais Djehan Gîr n'a "jamais pris ce titre sur ses monnaies ni dans ses protocoles. Je dois

(a) From the very first year of his reign Shāh Jahān I introduced this epithet on his coins, and it is to be seen on nearly all the muhrs, rupees, and nithārs that were issued prior to his death. The area of the Reverse of the famous 200-muhr piece exhibits the legend which, with variations as to the arrangement of its constituent words, continued throughout this Emperor's reign to be the normal legend for his coins in gold and silver.

(b) The two rupees of Shāh Shujā', Nos. 690 and 691 in the British Museum Catalogue, very probably bear in their margin the epithet Ṣāhib Qirān thānī. The Catalogue itself gives the words as the reading of the right margin of the Reverse of No. 690; and in Num. Supp. VI, pp. 265, 266, Mr. Burn has shown reason for rejecting, as to No. 691, the extremely doubtful rendering "Jal ūnābād," which Mr. Lane-Poole had ventured to suggest, and for accepting in its stead the reading Ṣāhib Qirān thānī.

(c) On the coins of Muhammad Shāh stood the severely simple legend

but it would seem that some two years after this Emperor's accession the words ماحب قران ثاني were inserted after مبارك on the coins, both gold and silver, that issued from the Shāhjahānābād mint, a change which was maintained till the close of the reign. The legend as thus altered reads—

(d) Akbar II's Shāhjahānābād muhrs and rupees bear a legend identical with the one last recorded, save

Les Symboles astrologiques sur les monnaies de la Perse (Gazette

belge de Numismatique, Bruxelles, 1901).

[&]quot;cependant mentionner ce fait que, en 1896, il a été présenté au cabi"net de France (qui n'en a pas fait l'acquisition) un rubis rapporté du
"Turkestan, et sur lequel était gravée une inscription que j'ai cru
"pouvoir lire de la manière suivante: Djehân Gir shâh Akbar shâh
"shhè-qirân tsâni, 1019, ce qui prouverait, si la pierre est authen"tique, que ce souverain aurait pris, avant son fils Shâh Djehân, le
"titre de deuxième maître de la conjonction."

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only that the name Akbar is added after Muhammad. They thus read—

سکه مبارک صاحب قران دانی محمد اکبر شاه بادشاه غازی

IV. Thānī Ṣāḥib Qirān, ثاني صاحب قران.

This variant form, in which $\ddot{\psi}$ comes first instead of last, appears on two gold coins of Shāh Jahān I, both of them from the Shāhjahānābād mint. One of these is the 200-muhr piece, on which in the left margin of the Reverse the Emperor is styled

The other is the beautiful muhr, No. 568 of the British Museum Catalogue, dated 30—1066, which in the margin surrounding the circular area of the Reverse bears the distich

V. Thalith Sahib Qiran, وثالث صاحب قران

I have seen but a single coin exhibiting this epithet, a Tatta rupee of Farrukh-siyar, dated 1—1125. It is one of the treasures in the cabinet of my kind friend Mr. Framji Jamaspji Thanawala.

The ordinary legend on Farrukh-siyar's coins proclaims the Emperor's title of بادشاء بحر و بر Bādshāh of sea and land,' but on this Tatta rupee he is styled instead نالث صاحب قران 'the Third Lord of Conjunction.' The whole legend reads—

Note.—In several of the Native States of Rājpūtānā their rulers have at one time or another issued coins more or less closely resembling those of the contemporary Mughal Emperors. Of these Native State coins the following exhibit the Emperor's name associated with the title Ṣāḥib Qirān thānī:—

Muhammad Shāh rupees from the mint at Jaisalmer; Shāh 'Alam II rupees from Būndī, Bikāner, and Qaraulī; and Akbar II rupees from Būndī, Bharatpūr, Dholpūr, and Sawāi-Jaipūr.

GEO. P. TAYLOR.

AHMADĀBĀD: 10th June, 1910.

P.S.—Through the kindness of Mr. R. B. Whitehead, I.C.S., I am able to add a reference to another coin on which the title Ṣāḥib Qirān Thanī is ascribed to the then regnant Emperor. Shāh Jahān II issued from the Tatta mint a coin bearing a couplet which Mr. Whitehead reads as follows:—

The Second "Lord of the Conjunction," Shāh Jahān, Struck coin in gold with security and tranquillity.

G. P. T.

87. MOGHAL MINT TOWNS-FIROZNAGAR.

In the list upon page 174 of his "Manual," Dr. O. Codrington places a mark of interrogation against the name of Firoznagar. I find that it is the new name by which 'Alamgīr Aurangzeb disguised Rāechor (Nizām's Territories), as he did so many other places. In the M'āṣir-i-'Ālamgīrī (Bibl. Ind.), p. 332, line 2 from foot, we have an entry headed "Capture of Rāechor," which states that on the 26th Ṣafar [1101 H. Dec. 29, 1689 N.S.], 33rd year, the Bakhshī-ul-mulk, Rūḥullah Khān, took the fort of Rāechor, which received the name of Fīroznagar. In 1117 H. (1706), year 50, Chīn Qilich Khān, Bahādur, was appointed faujdār of Fīroznagar vice Yūsuf Khān; ibid., p. 513.

WILLIAM IRVINE.

88. The Qandahār Rupee of Muhammad Shāh.

Dr. G. P. Taylor of Ahmadabad writes:—"Just a couple of days after reading your description of a rupee, doubtfully assigned by you'to the Qandahār mint, and dated the 30th regnal year of Muḥammad Shāh (N.S. 13: 240), Mr. Qadri, the Oriental Translator to the Bombay Government, very kindly gave me a rupee—normal type—of the same Emperor, on which the mint-name Qandahār is quite clearly written. Its date is the 27th regnal year. It would thus appear that in the 27th and the 30th years of the reign of Muḥammad Shāh (A.H. 1157-1159; A.D. 1744-1746), and presumably from the 27th till the 30th year, coins were issuing from Qandahār in the name of the Dehli Emperor. How is this fact to be explained, if throughout that period the city was under Persian rule? There is another Qandahār, a taluq of Nānder District in the

¹ Numismatic Supplement XIII, J.A.S.B., Vol. VI, No. 4, 1910, p. 240, article 78.

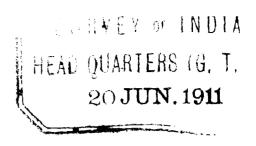
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Haidarābād State (Imp. Gaz. XIV, 377). Can this be the true home of these coins?"

The suggestion that the coin described by me may have issued from the South Indian Qandahar was made to me by Mr. R. Burn before I wrote my note, but as I could only find Qandahār given as the name of a taluq. I thought the probability of that source doubtful. Dr. Taylor's rupee of the 27th year of Muhammad, however, is against the theory I put forward in my note, and I have since had the opportunity of reading Major J. S. King's "History of the Bahmani Dynasty," on pp. 8 and 122 of which are references to the "Fort of Kandhar'' and "the town of Kandhar and its dependencies." In the map attached to this history the town of "Kandhar" is located on the Manada River, longitude 77°, latitude 19°. Qandahār was evidently a place of some importance on the border between the Ahmadnagar and Bidar principalities, and I am disposed to agree that the rupees of Muhammad Shah of the Qandahar mint more probably issued from the Qandahār of the Dakhan and not from the Qandahār of Afghānistān.

H. NELSON WRIGHT.

l Since writing the above Dr. Taylor has written: "In Rogers and Beveridge's Translation of the Tūzuk-i-Jahāngīrī, page 179, occurs a reference to Qandahār as a fort in the Dakhan, and a footnote adds Sixty miles north of Bidar, Elliot VI. 70."



583

50. The Poet Maili of Herat (ميلي هروى). By H. Beveridge.

The life of this poet is but little known, and there are several mistakes and discrepancies in the accounts of him which occur in various Persian anthologies and in catalogues of Persian manuscripts. Mailī is only a takhallaş or pen-name, and there were two poets who adopted the sobriquet, besides a third who called himself Māīlī and was a native of Kāshān and is mentioned in the Ātishkada (Bombay lithograph, p. 252). The Herat Mailī was by far the most celebrated of the two Mailīs. According to some authorities he was a native of Mashhad, and is buried there, but he was brought up in Herat, and is generally known as Mailī Haravī. The other was a native of Ḥiṣār Shādman in Transoxiana, a town which is also known as Ḥiṣār Kuhistānī. He was chiefly a composer of riddles, and only two lines of his verses were known to the anthologists.

The best account of Maili of Herat is that given in the anthology called the Khulasatu-l-Asha'ār u Zabdau-l-Afkār. a title which was englished by Dr. Sprenger as the "Butter of Poems and the Cream of Conceits." It was composed by Tagiu-d-din of Kāshān between 985 and 1016 A. H. (1577-1608) and is one of the oldest and most valuable of all the anthologies. There are only fragments of it in the British Museum (see Rieu III. 1046b, and Supplement No. 105), and the best copy in this country seems to be that in the India Office and entered in Dr. Ethé's Catalogue under the numbers 667 and 668. No. 667 is a modern copy, in three volumes, of the abridged second edition of the anthology and formerly belonged to John Leyden. But No. 668 is a very valuable and apparently unique copy of the Supplement or Khātima of the first edition, and was made as early as 993 A.H. (1585), which was the year in which Taqī completed the original. See Ethe's Catalogue No. 668, where Fitzedward Hall, the eminent American Sanskritist and former

¹ There is a good account of the anthology in Bland's paper in the R.A.S.J. IX, O. S., p. 126. I presume that his copy is now in the Rylands Library, Manchester.

Librarian to the India Office, is, in imitation of Dr. Sprenger. oddly described as "Mr. Hall of Benares." The volume is rightly described by Dr. Sprenger as a splendid folio of 622 pages of 24 lines each. There are some differences in the accounts of Maili given in the Supplement p. 260 et seq., and in the second edition, p. 1233b et seq., owing to Taqi's having afterwards obtained some additional information. Though the Supplement was finished eight years after the first edition of the anthology, it is earlier than the second edition, which Tagi was working at in 997 (1589) and apparently down to 1016 A.H. (1607-08). According to the Supplement, Maili, whose real name was Mīrzā Qulī, was a native of Herat, but according to the second edition, he was born in Mashhad, though some persons said that his father was a native of Herat and had afterwards lived in Mashhad. Both accounts state that Maili left Herat for Sabzawar and attached himself to Sultan Ibrāhīm Mīrzā, who was the son of Bahrām Mīrzā and a grandson of Shāh Ismāīl. Mailī in some way displeased his patron and so resigned and came to Qazwin. There too he could not stay, and went off to Gilan to Khan Ahmad Mirza, the ruler thereof. But he and Mir Jahangir, who was Khan Ahmad's prime minister, could not agree and so Maili had to leave Gilan. This must have happened not later than 974 (1566-67) for Khan Ahmad was dispossessed and imprisoned by Shah Tahmasp in that year (Maasiru-l-Umarā I. 558). The Supplement of Taqī contains, among many other verses of Maili's, a satire by him upon Mir Jahangir. From Gilan Maili went back to his native country of Khurasan, but he did not find residence there congenial to him and so departed to India where Akbar was reigning. According to Dr. Sprenger's Catalogue, p. 43, which is the foundation of the remarks in other Catalogues, Taqi says that Maili died on the road. But Tagi does not say so. What he says is that Maili "had not settled in that country (hinoz darān diyār rahl-i-igāmat niyandākhta) when Death, the Summoner, rolled up the carpet of his life." This is not inconsistent with Badayuni's statement that Maili was for years in the service of Naurang Khan, one of Akbar's officers, and which statement is corroborated by the fact that his diwan contains an ode to Akbar and two to Naurang Khān (Rieu, Persian Cat. II, 666b). Taqī's Supplement also, p. 264a, contains a panegyric by Maili on Akbar, and it is not likely that this would be written until Maili had arrived in India. Taqi does not give the date of Maili's departure for India, but the Nafaīsu-l-Maasir, an early authority, says, Sprenger 54, he went there in 979 (1571-72). As according to Tagl, and Khūshgo, Maili did not die till 984 (1576-77), this would allow of his having resided in India for five years. Both of these anthologists give the chronogram of his death, and Taqī, p. 1234b, gives the whole verse, which he says was made by Mir Tārīkh (?) of Mashhad. The chronogram, which is also quoted in Pertsch's Catalogue, is

"Alas, Mailī left the world when young"

which yields 984.

Rieu has been hampered in his account of Maili (Cat. II. 666) by his only knowing Taqi's account through Sprenger's Catalogue. He says that Maili went to India after Sultan Ibrāhīm's death, but, as a fact, Sultan Ibrāhīm survived Maili, not dving till the end of 985 (1578). This appears from the 'Alam Ārāi, lithograph, p. 150, and from the very full and interesting account of Sultan Ibrāhīm, who was also a poet, and used the takhallas of Jahi (ruined?), given in Taqi's Supplement, p. 174b, under the 5th Asal, which gives the notices of the poets of Qazwin. The date of his death given there is Zī-l-haiiā 985 (February 1578). It is clear too that Sultan Ibrāhīm could not have died earlier than 984, for he was put to death by his cousin Shah Isma'il II after his accession to the throne, and this did not happen till after the death of his father Shah Tahmasp. which occurred in Safr 984 (May 1576). Sultan Ibrāhīm was strangled by the bow-string, and eleven other princes were put to death at the same time. His widow, Gohar Sultan, who was Isma'ıl II's sister, did not long survive him, dving, savs Taqı, in the beginning of 986 (1578).

The other Maili, that is, the Maili of Hisar Shadman, is not mentioned by Taqi, a circumstance which perhaps indicates that he flourished subsequently to 993. He is mentioned by 'Alī Qulī Dāghistāni, Riyāzu-sh-Sha'arā B.M. MS. Add. 16,729, p. 436a, and by Lutt 'Alī in the Atishkada, p. 345 of Bombay lithograph and 340 of Calcutta lithograph. Both speak of him as a clever composer of riddles, but acknowledge that they only know two lines of his poetry, which they quote. Badavuni and Abul Fazl, Blochmann 577, only speak of the Maili of Abul Fazl evidently knew little about him, and his remark that he lived in the society of gay people seems merely an inference from his having the takhallas of Maili, i.e., sociable. Maili of Herat was a Turk by origin and he is called Maili Turk in the list in the Atishkada. See also Calcutta lithograph of Ātishkada, p. 34, five lines from foot. His name was Mīrzā Quli or Mirzā Muhammad Quli (Bankipore Library Catalogue II, 169), and it occurred to me that he might be the Muhammad Quli Moghal who was a servant of Akbar and of Naurang Khān, and was employed by the latter to continue Payinda Hasan Ghaznavi's translation of Babur's Memoirs. See Rieu's Catalogue II, 799b, and the correction at p. 1094b of vol. iii. But Muhammad

I There is a curious resemblance between the two lines that they quote, and two lines of Mailī of Herat in Badayūni l.c., 330, nine and eight lines from foot.

Quli was a native of Hisar Shadman and he translated the second part of the Memoirs in or after 994 (1586), that is, ten years after the death of Maili of Herat, as given by Tagi and others. It seems impossible then to identify him with the more celebrated of the two Mailis. It is possible, however, that he is the Mailī of Hīsār Shādman. It is singular that none of the anthologists give this Maili's real name. They all speak of him only by his pen-name. Muhammad Quli may have been a son or other relative of Maili of Herat, and may, therefore, have assumed his pen-name. Or he may have done so merely because his real name closely resembled the real name of Maili of Herat. That Maili was of Turkish origin and is called Maili Türk in the Atashkada, Bombay lithograph, p. 25. That Muhammad Quli knew Turki we know from his translating the Memoirs, and we may conjecture that Maili of Hisar also knew Turki, from the place of his birth. If Maili of Hisar was a poet. though an undistinguished one, so also was probably Muhammad Qulī, for the preface to his translation shows that he was a master of poetic diction. Another point of resemblance between Mirzā Qulī Mailī of Herat and Muhammad Quli Moghal. if not between him and Maili of Hisar, is that both were patronised by Akbar, and in the service of his officer Naurang Khan. According to Badayuni, Maili of Herat was eventually poisoned by Naurang Khān, but this is not mentioned by Tagi, and is a doubtful story. If it is true, it probably took place early in Naurang Khan's career, for Maili is said to have died in Malwa, and Naurang left that country for Gujarat and died there.

Though Mailī of Herat's poetry is spoken of in high terms by Badayuni III, 329, and by Lutt 'Ali, the author of the Atishkada, it does not seem to be much read nowadays. parently, he was a vain, amatory poet, and also a trencherparasite. But he died young, and perhaps before he had attained his full strength. The most copious extracts from his poems are those given in the Supplement to Taqī of Kāshān's anthology. Badayūni has also one or two long extracts, and the Atishkada (see Bland's notice, p. 357 of R.A.S.J. VII O.S.) quotes 160 lines. The author of the Bankipore Catalogue II, 170, quotes Tagi Auhadi as saving that he possessed a collection of Maili's odes, etc., containing 2.500 verses, and that he had also seen an equally large number of amatory poems. But Taqi of Kāshān seems to reduce the number to 1,500. There is a copy of Maili's Divan in the British Museum, Rieu II, 666, but it is in such bad Shikast that I could make little or nothing The odes in praise of Akbar and Naurang Khān are written on the margins of the MS., and the one in praise of Naurang Khān is on pp. 13 and 13b. The Bankipore copy is a modern one. Badayūni, III. 330 quotes a couplet where Maili uses a striking image in speaking of himself as a despairing lover. He is, he

says, the half-dead prey that the hunter takes pity on and quickly puts out of pain. This may remind us of Enid who, when struck by Earl Doorm,

Sent forth a sudden sharp and bitter cry As of a wild thing taken in the trap Which sees the trapper coming thro' the wood.

There is also a copy of Mailī of Herat's Diwan in Berlin. It is described in Pertsch's Catalogue.

51. A Lisu Jew's Harp from Yunnan.

By J. Coggin Brown.

Bamboo Jew's harps are known to have a wide range among various tribes of Eastern Asia. According to H. Balfour they are found as far north as the Ainu of Yezo, and eastwards through the Malayan Archipelago to the Pacific, where they occur in many of the island groups. The same writer refers to their use in Northern India, and has also described a series of six Jew's harps collected in the Siamese Malay States and Perak by Dr. Annandale and Mr. Herbert C. Robinson.

The Rev. A. Willifer Young has traced the distribution of the Jew's harp in various parts of the world and has described six different specimens of this primitive musical instrument made in bamboo by the Lakher and Chin. Naga. Mikir, Garo. Kachin and Assamese tribes of Assam and Burma. Mr. Young was not able to prove the existence of the instrument in Lower Bengal, Behar and Chota Nagpur, and was informed on good authority that it is not used in Burma to the south of Mandalay.

Reference is also made in the same paper to the use of a form of Jew's harp in Tibet and Nepal; amongst the Lepchas, on the authority of Sir Joseph Hooker; in Mongolia, China and Tibet on the authority of W. W. Rockhill; and in Tibet, Burma, Siam and Japan as well as in the islands of the seas from Borneo to Fiji, Samoa and the Philippines, on the authority of the late Dr. Carrington Bolton.2

I have recently found that a bamboo Jew's harp of peculiar construction is a favourite musical instrument of the Lisu tribes of Yunnan and the Burma-China frontier. It may be mentioned here that the Lisu tribes are found in the basin of the Upper Salween between Lat. 25° 30′ and Lat. 27° 30′, where they exist in a savage state. They spread in numbers as far east as the right bank of the Mekong, and are found in small communities far beyond this line. Westwards, they reach into the valley of the Nmai-Hka, the eastern branch of the Irrawaddy. The more peaceful clans who have come into contact with Chinese civilization are found along the northern parts of the Burma-China frontier. There are also numbers of isolated village communities of the same people in the Northern Shan States, in the Kachin Hills east of the Irrawaddy, and in other places.8

Asiatic Soc. Bengal, vol. iv, No. 4, pp. 233-237.

^{1 &}quot;Report on a Collection of Musical Instruments from the Siamese Malay States and Perak'' by Henry Balfour, M.A., F.Z.S. "Fasciculi Malayenses.' Anthropology, Part II (a), pp. 6-7.

'The Jew's Harp in Assam,' by A. Willifer Young.

³ For a detailed account of the Lisu tribes see "Lisu Tribes of the

The Jew's harp described here and figured in the annexed plate, was obtained from the Hua-Lisu of the Ku-vung-kai area. in the Teng-yueh district, Yunnan, but the same type of harp is prevalent among the other branches of the tribe. It consists of three separate harps of different tone cut from single pieces of hard bamboo. These are 11.2 cms. long, each one being made up of—

(a) a solid piece 4.5 cms. long.

(b) the part containing the vibrating tongue, which is cut away so as to form a broad V-shaped section, and which is 1.6 cms, long.

(c) the part containing the movable central piece which carries the vibrating tongue and which is 3.5 cms. long. This part is cut away for more than half its thickness for a length of 2.2 cms.

(d) the solid piece which connects the vibrating tongue and movable central bar, with the projecting spur by means of which the vibrations are set up. This is '4 cms, long.

(e) the projecting spur 1.2 cms. long.

The width of the instrument is 55 cms, and its thickness ·15 cms. The projecting spur is rounded off so as to facilitate movement with the fingers. The central movable bar is approximately 2 cms. wide and projects slightly into the Vshaped section carrying the vibrating tongue, where it is cut away to the thickness of the tongue. The latter is not more than '05 cms. in width or thickness. Owing to its fragility, the instrument is invariably carried in a case made from a thin piece of bamboo, closed at one end, and furnished with a small pad of cloth by which the other end can be shut. This bamboo case also contains a hole through which is passed a string for hanging it from the coat or round the neck. Neither the harp nor case bear any trace of ornamentation.

In comparison with the Jew's harps from Assam and Burma described by the Rev. A. Willifer Young, which are usually crudely made and roughly finished, the Lisu instrument is smaller, and of far more delicate workmanship, demanding considerable skill in the use of the knife for its manufacture. It approaches more in shape and size those forms collected by Dr. Annandale in the Siamese Malay States.

In playing, the three harps are held in position in one vertical plane, between the thumb and first finger of the left hand, or between the first and second fingers. The mouth being opened, the harps are gripped lightly by the lips and the vibrating tongues are made to give out sound singly, or in

Burma-China frontier," by Archibald Rose, F.R.G.S., and J. Coggin Brown, Mems. Asiatic Soc. Bengal, vol. 3, No. 4 (in the press).

harmony by the movement of the fingers of the right hand over the projecting spurs. By breathing out or in, and by movements of the cheeks which cause an alteration in the shape of the resonant cavity of the mouth, a variety of different notes can be produced, and, as a rule, the result is a pleasing and tuneful measure.

The instrument is carried and played by both girls and young men, and it is by no means uncommon to see them sitting over the fires after nightfall and playing for hours at a time. The instrument is used by the youths for serenading as amongst the Chin, Naga, Kachin and other tribes. It also takes its place in the Lisu orchestra with other native musical

instruments.

The late Prince Henri d'Orleans who met with the black Lisu of the Upper Salween in the course of his journey from Tonking to Assam writes as follows regarding the use of the

Jew's harp by this section of the tribe.

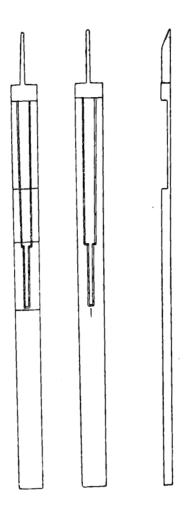
"One of these Lissous produced a curious musical instrument formed of three small palettes of bamboo with stops. By applying the stops to his teeth and making them vibrate in turn with his finger, his open mouth acting as a sounding board, he drew from them a soft and plaintive tone, so low that one had to be quite close to hear it. The instrument is of Loutse origin, and the Lissous will sit for hours amusing themselves with it."

"Our hosts at Lameti consented to perform a dance for our benefit, and a threshing floor having been turned into a ball-room, the orchestra tuned up. It consisted of four musicians,—a flageolet a violin with two strings, a guitar with four, and an instrument of slender bamboo strips made to vibrate on the teeth. This last was played by an old woman who was also mistress of the ceremonies. The air, though not very varied, was soft and rhythmic." ²

Henri d'Orleans inhabit the part of the Salween valley between about Lat. 27° 30′ and 28° 30′. The term "Lu-tzu" is the name given to them by the Chinese and means "people of the Salween River." Very little is known about this tribe, though Davies from a study of their language has recently classified them with the Moso and Hsifan tribes, in the Hsi-fan group of the Tibeto-Burman family in his scheme for the classification of the Sinitic languages of Yunnan. There is evidently considerable similarity between the Jew's harp used by the black Lisu of the Salween and the one here described.

¹ Prince Henri d'Orleans. "From Tonkin to India by the sources of the Irawadi", English translation 1898, pp. 191-192.
2 loc. cit., pp. 191-197.

⁸ H. R. Davies. "Yunnan, the link between India and the Yangtze," p. 337.



△.⊿
A Lissu Jew's Harp.

52. Reactions in presence of Nickel: (a) Inability of nitrogen and hydrogen to combine in presence of iron and nickel. (b) Reduction of the oxides of nitrogen, sulphur and phosphorous in presence of nickel.

By Panchanan Neogi, M.A., Professor of Chemistry, Rajshahi College, and Birendra Bhusan Adhicary, M.A.

The interesting problem of combining nitrogen and hydrogen directly to form ammonia has long been attracting the atten-Donkin (Proc. Roy. Soc. 21, 281) has succeeded tion of chemists. in obtaining traces of ammonia by passing electric sparks or silent discharge through a mixture of nitrogen and hydrogen in the proportion of 1: 3. This has been further studied by Morren (Compt. Rend. 48, 432), Perrot (Compt. Rend. 49, 204) and Chabrier (Compt. Rend. 75, 484). Johnson (Trans. Chem. Soc. 39, 128) showed that he obtained ammonia at the rate of 0059 grams per hour by passing over spongy platinum at a low red heat a mixture of hydrogen and nitrogen, the latter being prepared from ammonium nitrite and freed from nitric oxide by passing it through ferrous sulphate solution. L. Wright (Trans. Chem. Soc. 39, 257) pointed out that ferrous sulphate is unable to absorb all the nitric oxide evolved along with nitrogen, that the ammonia obtained by Johnson was due to the reduction of nitric oxide and not to the combination of nitrogen and hydrogen. In fact Wright (loc. cit., p. 131) himself admitted that he did not get ammonia by using nitrogen prepared from air or the same gas obtained from ammonium nitrite and purified from the accompanying nitric oxide after passing the gas over red hot copper. Ramsay and Young (Trans. Chem. Soc. 45, 93) have remarked that they obtained small quantities of ammonia by passing a mixture of hydrogen and nitrogen over red hot iron filings. The details of their experiment and the method of purification of nitrogen and iron are not given in the paper, but their experiment has been embodied in Ramsay's System of Inorganic Chemistry. As reduced nickel has now been largely employed as a catalytic reducing agent in organic chemistry since Sabatier and Seuderens' time, we thought that nitrogen and hydrogen might combine in presence of nickel to a much greater extent than in the presence of iron. We therefore repeated Ramsay and Young's experiment, taking every possible precaution to remove nitric oxide, and found that nitrogen and hydrogen do not combine in presence of iron free from carbon. We also found that the two gases do not combine in presence of nickel also.

EXPERIMENTAL.

Preparation of Nitrogen free from Nitric Oxide.

Nitrogen as ordinarily prepared by heating a mixture of ammonium chloride and sodium nitrite contains a good deal of nitric oxide which is not wholly removed by ferrous sulphate, as pointed out by Wright. In fact even when four or five wash bottles of the solution are employed, the solution in the last bottle still gives the characteristic black colour. Gibbs (Ber., 10, 1387) recommended the addition of potassium bichromate to oxidise the nitric oxide to nitric acid, but we have seen potassium bichromate fails to destroy all the nitric oxide evolved. Wright (loc. cit.) recommended the use of alkaline sulphites which convert nitric oxide to nitrous oxide. method is extremely tedious, and moreover the presence of nitrous oxide in nitrogen is not desirable. The best method of removing the last traces of nitric oxide is to pass the nitrogen over red hot copper. The nitrogen is prepared in the usual way and collected in a gas-holder after removing the greater part of the nitric oxide by means of ferrous sulphate. The gas is then dried and passed through a combustion tube filled with bright copper turnings, and heated in a combustion furnace. The tube is connected with Muencke's wash-bottle containing ferrous sulphate solution, which now shows no coloration, and the nitrogen thus freed from nitric oxide is collected in a second gas-holder. The gas thus obtained, even when passed for five or six hours through ferrous sulphate, does not in the least affect its colour. Of course nitrogen free from nitric oxide may be prepared from air, but as the complete removal of all oxygen from large quantities of air requires long time and many tubes filled with copper, the method described above seems to be the best and easiest for the purpose of preparing large quantities of nitrogen absolutely free from nitric oxide.

Nitrogen and Hydrogen in presence of Iron.

The nitrogen was then mixed with pure hydrogen in a gasholder in the proportion of one to three, also in the proportion of one to six. Powdered iron (Merck) was taken in a combustion tube and heated in a tube heater. By means of a T-tube the tube containing iron was joined to the wash-bottle connected with the gas-holder and also to the wash-bottle connected with a hydrogen Kipp. The gases were finally passed before entering the tube containing iron through strong sulphuric acid in order to arrest any adventitious ammonia, and also through water as Ramsay and Young used moist gases. The other end of the tube is connected with a delivery tube which dips in a Nessler's solution.

The air was expelled from the entire apparatus by means of hydrogen while the tube was not heated. The hydrogen was stopped and the mixture of hydrogen and nitrogen was then slowly admitted to replace hydrogen. The tube was then heated to dull red heat. After some time the Nessler's solution was found to be clouded with a whitish precipitate and a strong tarry smell was perceived. We are not sure it this whitish precipitate led Ramsay and Young who used iron filings to think that ammonia was being formed. The tarry smell suggested to us the possibility of the formation of hydro-carbons by the combination of hydrogen with traces of carbon contained in the iron. order to establish this, fresh experiments were started in which the tube containing the iron was strongly heated in the current of hydrogen as long as the tarry smell was perceived and the whitish precipitate was formed in the Nessler's solution. When the smell was no longer perceived, the mixture of nitrogen and hydrogen was passed for about four hours. The Nessler's solution remained unchanged, there was no smell of ammonia, and red litmus paper was unaffected. The following variations of the experiment were tried with the following results:-

(i) Pure iron wire was used in the place of reduced iron, the same tarry smell and precipitate when heated in a current of hydrogen. No ammonia.

(ii) Pure ferric oxide was reduced by hydrogen. No

tarry smell. No ammonia.

(iii) The gases were dried by omitting the wash-bottle

containing water. Still no ammonia.

(iv) The temperature was varied from dull red heat to bright red heat using a combustion furnace, no ammonia. Ramsay and Young heated the tube red hot, though ammonia begins to decompose at 500°.

Nitrogen and Hydrogen in the presence of Nickel.

The experiments were repeated, using nickel obtained by the reduction of nickel oxide in hydrogen, nickel wire and nickel obtained by electrolysis. There was no sign of the formation of ammonia.

Reduction of Nitric Oxide in presence of Nickel.

Sabatier and Sanderens showed that marsh gas is formed by the reduction of carbon monoxide and dioxide in presence of nickel reduced by means of hydrogen. We have here studied if the oxides of nitrogen, sulphur and phosphorous are also reduced in presence of reduced nickel.

Nitric oxide has been reduced to ammonia by means of hydrogen in presence of such porous substances as spongy

platinum, ferric oxide and the like. In the case of nickel. Sabatier and Sanderens (Compt. Rend. 14, 1429) have shown that when nitric oxide is passed over reduced nickel, nickel oxide (NiO) is formed. We have found that when a mixture of nitric oxide and hydrogen in the proportion of one to three (or better one to four) is passed over heated reduced nickel, almost the whole of the nitric oxide is converted into ammonia. scarcely any nitric oxide coming out unreduced. The reaction commences at about 300°C, and when once the reaction starts the temperature may be lowered to 120° when the reduction continues. At about 300 the reduction is very rapid and very considerable quantities of ammonia are formed. Blank experiments were performed by passing nitric oxide over heated nickel after driving out all the air by means of carbon dioxide and again cooling in a current of the same gas in order to avoid It was found that no nitride, nitrite or nitrate of nickel was formed. Thus it is seen that the reduction of nitric oxide takes place directly and nickel acts as a catalytic agent.

Reduction of Sulphur Dioxide in presence of Nickel.

When a dry mixture of the two gases was passed over heated nickel, sulphuretted hydrogen was evolved. The reaction took place at a dull red heat. The reduction does not seem to take place directly. Geitner (Annalen, 139, 354) has already shown that aqueous sulphurous acid is decomposed by Ni at about 200° with production of Ni₃S₄. By passing dry sulphur dioxide over reduced or electrolytic nickel for six hours even at the ordinary temperature a little nickel sulphide was formed, and when a weighed quantity of such nickel was heated in a Sprengel pump, very small quantities of occluded sulphur dioxide were collected. It seems that sulphuretted hydrogen is formed partly by the reduction of nickel sulphide formed (blank experiments showed that precipitated nickel sulphide is readily reduced by hydrogen when heated, though it has been stated in Watt's Dictionary of Chemistry, vol. iii, "nicke! monosulphide ", that it is not decomposed by hydrogen) and partly by the reduction of the occluded sulphur dioxide.

Reduction of Phosphorous Pentoxide in presence of Nickel.

Phosphorous pentoxide was first heated in a current of oxygen for several hours in order to oxidise any free phosphorous contained in it. When hydrogen was passed over phosphorous pentoxide heated in a tube-heater, no phosphuretted hydrogen was formed. When, however, the pentoxide was mixed with reduced nickel (the pentoxide was introduced in the tube directly from the bottle in order to prevent moisture) and the mixture heated below dull red heat in a current of hydrogen,

the characteristic vortex rings of phosphuretted hydrogen were observed in abundance. Silver nitrate solution was immediately turned black. The gas did not take fire spontaneously on account of its dilution with a large excess of hydrogen. A washbottle containing water should be placed between the exit end of the tube containing the mixture and the delivery tube leading to the pneumatic trough in order to arrest the vapours of subliming phosphorous pentoxide. The reduction of the pentoxide seems to be indirect. Blank experiments were performed in which P₀O₅ and metallic nickel were heated below dull red heat in a current of carbon dioxide. A portion of the P.O. sublimed and the remaining mass was found to consist of unchanged nickel mixed with glassy particles of fused P.O. nickel phosphide and a little phosphate (details will appear in a separate paper). As phosphates are not reduced by hydrogen (Fresenius, Zeit. für anal. Chem. 8, 203; Herapath, Pharm. Journ. and Trans. 7, 57), the reduction of P₀O₂ in presence of nickel seems to be effected by the reduction of the phosphide formed as an intermediate compound.

53. Notes on the History of the District of Hughli or the Ancient Rága.

By NUNDOLAL DEY.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL HISTORY OF THE DISTRICT OF HUGHLI.

The town of Hughli, the former headquarters from which the district has derived its name, has got no history beyond the Portuguese settlement in 1537. In fact, it is supposed to have been founded by the Portuguese. It was called by them Porto Piqueno or the Little Port, evidently by way of contradistinction to the Royal Port of Satgaon. According to Faria de Souza, the English translation of whose History of the Portuguese was published in 1695, the name of the town was Golin. Hughes and Parker in their Letters, dated December 1620, state the name of the place to be Golivr or Gollin.2 But De Laët whose India Vera was published in 1631, calls it Ugeli, and the native historians of the 16th century mention it by the name of "Hugli." According to some the name of Hughli is derived from hoglá reeds or the elephant grass (Typha elephantina) with which the place was overgrown, and that Golin is a corruption of Hugli. But it is quite possible that Porto Piqueno was also called Golin or Golá by the Portuguese on account of the granaries (or golds) it contained for the sale of grains, and by the natives it was called Hugli on account of the hoglá jungle with which the place was covered. Hence, it is quite clear that before the Portuguese settlement it had not a distinguished name, but the homely one of Hughli on account of its physical features.

Chinsura, the present headquarters of the district, has likewise got no history beyond the Dutch settlement, which according to Tieffenthaler took place in 1625 and according to Mr. Walter Hamilton in 1656, though it appears that the first sanad granted to the Dutch by the Emperor Shah Jehan

5 East India Gazetteer, voce Chinsura.

¹ De Laët: Topography of the Mogul Empire, p. 63, by Sir Roper Lethbridge.

<sup>Stewart's History of Bengal, p. 274, note.
Topography of the Mogul Empire, p. 63.</sup>

⁴ Tieffenthaler says, "when the Dutch settled at Chinsura in 1625, they were followed by the Armenians." According to Orme, however, the Dutch settled in Bengal in 1625 (History of Hindoostan, vol. ii, Bk. vi, p. 8). Mr. W. Hamilton says that the Dutch in 1625 were permitted to build factory at the town of Hughli (East India Gazetteer).

is dated 1638. The name of Chinsura, called Chuchurá by the inhabitants, is derived from that of a weed called Chirchirá or Chichirá (Achyranthes aspera) with which the place abounded. In fact, the place is called "Chichira, an Hollandish settlement and town" in the Sëir Mutaqherin. There is also a local tradition of the name being derived from Chau-churá or four pinnacles at the four corners of the town. But the latter must be a mythical derivation from the name of the place, as from the existence of the pinnacles, if there were any, it must be presumed that the place had a name before the pinnacles were constructed.

In 1676 the French under Monsieur Deslandes settled at Chandernagore, and in that year the Danes also settled at Serampur which was called Frederiksnagar, and there is no tradition even that these places were of any importance before

the Europeans came to settle in them.

These towns, which are the principal towns in the district of Hughli, had no habitation or name before the 16th century of the Christian era, and this fact is confirmed by the Chandi, which was written by Mukundarám Chakravarti, otherwise called Kavikankan, in Saka 1499 corresponding to 1577 A.D. This work describes two voyages made by Dhanapati Sadágar and his son Srimanta Sadágar from Burdwan to Ceylon. Though the poet mentions the names of towns and villages situated on both banks of the river Ganges, as Saptagráma, Hálisahar, Triveni, Garifá (Gouripur), Gondalpárá, Máhes, Nimai-Tirtha's Ghát (in Baidyabáti), Calcutta and other places, yet he does not name at all Hughli, Chinsurá, Chandernagore, Serampur and other famous places on the right bank of the river Hughli. is, therefore, abundantly clear that these places in the latter half of the sixteenth century did not exist at all, or even if some of them did exist, they had not risen into importance, but were merely insignificant villages which did not even attract the attention of the poet.

The town of Hughli rose into importance after the Portuguese fort, the remnant of which may still be seen in the two low broken walls jutting into the river just opposite the gate of the present jail, had been besieged and blown up by the Moguls during the reign of the Emperor Shah Jehan and the town was declared to be the royal port in 1632 in the place of Sátgáon, which had begun to decline as an emporium of commerce on account of the diversion of the course of the Ganges which formerly flowed through the Saraswati. The diversion of the river was to the east in a direct line through the present bed of the Hughli, whereas the old course down the Saraswati was in a

¹ Toynbee's Sketch of Administration of the Hooghly District, p. 2.

² Seir Mutaquerin by Seid Gholam Hossein Khan (1902), vol. ii, p. 225.

curved form from Triveni to Sankrel near Howra. The Mogul fort was built that very year on the site of the present Imambara and the old court-houses when Hughli was declared to be a royal port. The condition of Serampur and Chandernagore may be ascertained from the writings of Captain Alexander Hamilton, who speaking about the Danes of Serampur in 1723 says. "The poverty of the Danes has made them desert it. after having robbed the Mogul's subjects of some of their shipping. to keep themselves from starving." About the French in that year he says that their "chief business" was to hear mass in their pretty little church. It is well known that it was not till after the arrival of Dupleix as Intendant or Director-General of Chandernagore in 1730 that over two thousand brick houses were built there, and before that it had always been regarded as a settlement of very minor importance. All these circumstances prove that these towns have no history beyond the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. At the time of the Mahomedans the district of Hughli comprised portions of Sarkars Sátgáon, Mandáran, Salimabad and Sarifabad.

The district of Hughli appertained to the ancient country The history of the Hughli district, therefore, is the history of the ancient country of Sumha, to which it appertained. The modern province of Bengal at the time of the Mahábhárat comprised the countries of Anga, Banga, Kalinga, Pundra, Sumha, Támraliptá, Prágjyotish and Magadha.² It appears from the Vishnu Purán that Bali, a descendant of Yayati of the Lunar dynasty, had five sons, Anga, Banga, Kalinga, Sumha and Pundra, after whom five kingdoms were named.3 It is related in the Mahábhárat that Sumha was conquered by Pándu, the father of Yudishthira, and his brothers.4 According to Nilakantha, the celebrated commentator of the Mahábhárat, who often quotes from the earlier commentator Ariuna Misra. Sumha is the same as Ráda (pronounced Rára): and Ráda is the Láta or Lála of the Buddhists and Láda of the Jainas. Ráda is the western part of Bengal which lies to the west of the Ganges.6 A portion of the district of Murshidabad is now its northern boundary, and in the south it comprises a large portion of the district of Midnapur, including Tamluk.7 Like other kingdoms of India, however, the boundaries of Sumha varied at different periods. Sometimes it was an independent kingdom and it extended its limits by

¹ J. J. Cotton's Chandernagore.

² Mahábhárat Bhishma Parva, ch. 9; Sabhá Parva, ch. 29; Adi Parva, ch. 113.

Vishnu Purán, part iv, ch. 18. Mahábhárat, Adi Parva, ch. 113.

b 电影话气管:—see Nilakantha's commentary on v. 25, ch. 30, Sabhá Parva of the Mahábhárat.

⁶ Tabakat i-Nasiri: Major Raverty's Translation, pp. 584, 585.

⁷ Prof. Wilson's Introduction to the Mackenzie Collections, chaps. 138, 139.

its conquests. At other times it was conquered by a more powerful neighbour, and its area was reduced to a short compass. It was finally absorbed in the kingdom of Bengal.

Sumha was an independent kingdom at the time of the Mahábhárat, and we have already stated that its modern name is Ráda. It appears from the Jaina works Acháranga Sutra and Kalpa Sutra that at the time of Mahavira or Varddhamána, the real founder of the Jaina religion, who was born in the 6th century B.C. and who died at a great age in 467 B.C. Ráda or Láda extended much beyond its present northern limit, including a large portion of Anga, and it consisted of two divisions called Bajjabhumi and Subbhabhumi. Professor Jacobi is of opinion that of the two divisions. Subbhahhumi was the country of the Sumhas, and he has also identified the Sumhas with the Rádas. Subbhabhumi appears to have been the southern part of Ráda, as Bajjabhumi included some portions of Anga. Mahávira wandered more than twelve years in Bajjabhumi and Subbhabhumi in Láda before he attained the Kevalaship and taught the Nigranthi doctrines, though according to Dr. Hoernle his peregrinations did not extend beyond the south of Raimahal before he became a Jina.2 Dr. Rühler. however, states that he travelled all over Ráda after he attained the Jinahood.⁸ There is a consensus of opinion among all the antiquarians that Nigrantha Jnátiputra or Nigantha Nátaputta of the Buddhist works, who was the contemporary of Buddha, and Mahávira—the twenty fourth Tirthankara of the Jainas, who belonged to the Nata clan of the Kshatriyas of Kollaga, a suburb of Vaisali (Besarh)—were identical persons. Buddha was born in 557 B.C., and he died in 477 B.C. Hence at the time of Buddha, that is, in the 6th century B.C., Sumha or Ráda appears to have been an independent kingdom, and that its northern boundary extended much beyond the northern boundary of what is now known as Ráda. In the south also at that period Sumha included Támralipta or Tamluk, which was an independent kingdom at the time of the Mahábhárat. The port of Tamralipta was then called the port of Surama. The two merchants, Tapussa and Bhallika, who gave honey and other articles of food to Buddha just after he attained Buddhahood, came from Oukkalaba (Rangoon) 5 through the port of Surama.

² Prof. Wilson's Hindu Religions-Life of Mahávira; Dr. Hærnle's Jainism and Buddhism.

¹ Prof. Jacobi's Acháranga Sutra, Bk. I, ch. 8, sec. 3; Dr. Bühler's Indian Sect of the James.

⁸ Indian Sect of the Jainas.
4 Mahávagga, vi. 31; Dr. Hærnle's Uvasagadasáo; Jainism and Buddhism; Dr. Bühler's Indian Sect of the Jainas; Jaina-sutras (S.B E, vol. xxii).

⁶ Other Buddhist works have Ukkala (see Gogerly's Ceylon Buddhism, vol. i, p. 63), which according to Dr. Kern is the same as Utkala or Orisea (Manual of Indian Buddhism, p. 22).

which has been identified with Támralipta, 1 at that time the port of the country of Surama (called "Soowama" by Bigandet) 2—a different form of Sumha. In the 6th century B.C., therefore, Sumha extended as far as the sea to the south.

In the 5th century B.C. we find Sumha formed a part of the kingdom of Banga. The story of Suppa Devi related in the Mahawanso bears out the statement. Briefly stated, the story is to the effect that a king of Banga had a daughter named Suppa Devi by his queen who was the daughter of the king of Kalinga. The princess eloped with a caravan chief. who was proceeding to Magadha, and in the wilderness of Lála (Ráda) she was carried away by a lion, with whom she lived, and had a son and a daughter named Sinhabáhu and Sinhasivali respectively. When the children grew up, they and their mother returned to Banga, where Suppa Devi married Anuro. who was the son of her maternal uncle and general of the king of Banga. On the death of Suppa Devi's father, her husband Anuro was chosen as his successor, and Sinhabáhu and Sinhasivali went back to the wilderness of Lála, cleared the jungle and founded a city which they called Sinhapura. Sinhabáhu married his sister, and got by her thirty-two children, the eldest of whom was Bijaya who, being expelled from the kingdom, landed at Lanká (Ceylon) on the day of Buddha's nirvána, colonised it, and became its first sovereign.3 In the Rajávali, which is also a history of Ceylon, it is mentioned that Suppa Devi's cousin, who is called Anuro in the Mahawanso, and who became king of Banga, caused the city of Sinhapura to be founded in Láda or Ráda, and gave it to Sinhabáhu.4 Dipawanso gives the story stripped of its fabulous character. It says: 'The daughter of a king of Wango, having formed a connection with a certain Siho, who found his livelihood in a wilderness, gave birth to two children. These two children named Sihabahu and Sewali were of prepossessing appearance. The mother was named Susimá and the father was called The word "Sahwayo" of the text, which means "named" or "called", is significant. The Dipawanso does not regard Siho as a lion, but as the name of a human being.6

The whole story of Suppa Devi shows that Láda or Lála was not only a part of the kingdom of Banga, but that it also retained the ancient name of Sumha as is apparent from the name of Suppa Devi, which is merely a corruption of Sumha Devi. After the death of Sinhabáhu, his son Sumitta became

4 Upham's Rájávali, pt. i.

¹ Buddhadeva, p. 143, note, by Dr. Satischandra Vidyábhusana.

Bigandet's Life of Gautama, vol. i, p. 109.
 Turnour's Maháwanso, chaps. vi, vii.

⁵ " माता च सुसिमानामा पिता च सिरसङ्घयो "।

⁶ Turnour's Pali Buddhistical Annals: J.A.S.B., 1838, p. 932, note.

king of Sinhapura: he was the father of Pánduvásadeva who succeeded Bijaya on the throne of Sinhala.

The town of Sinhapura mentioned in the Mahawanso is evidently the present village of Singur, which is a station on the Tarakeswar Branch of the East Indian Railway and ten miles from Tárakeswara in the district of Hughli. Singur is situated in Ráda, and the tradition of its foundation accords well with the story in the Maháwanso, though it has come down to us in a garbled form. It is stated that at the time of the Magadha Rájá (king), three brothers came to that part of the country where Singur is now situated, but it is not mentioned from which country they came. These three brothers belonged to the Kshatriva caste and their surname was Sinha. That part of the country was at the time a wilderness. One of the brothers cleared the jungle and founded a settlement which he named Sinhapura (pronounced Singhapura) according to his own surname of Sinha. The other two brothers went away to seek their fortune elsewhere. According to the tradition Bábubheri is a very ancient spot at Singur containing the remains of some ancient buildings and an earthen mound now overgrown with jungle. From time to time Jaina and Buddhist statues have been exhumed from the earth, and some of them still exist in the village. Traditionally Singur in ancient time was of considerable size, having comprised some ten villages. It was a very flourishing commercial town when the Saraswati used to flow by its eastern side. The old bed of the river is still visible, though a large portion of it has now been converted into culturable lands. It should only be remarked that the three brothers of the tradition evidently refer to Suppa Devi and her two children. General Cunningham, however, supposes that Sinhapura, the capital of Sinhabáhu, the father of Bijaya, is the town of that name situated 115 miles to the west of Ganjam and was the capital of Kalinga. But he has been led to make this conjecture as the town is situated on the river Lalgla and Suppa Devi's mother was a princess of Kalinga, whereas Sinhapura of the Maháwanso was situated in the country of Lála ("Lála-rátthe") or Láda which is another form of Ráda, the letters r and l being interchangeable. It should also be borne in mind that the princess Suppa Devi was carried away by the lion at Lála while she was proceeding from Banga to Magadha (modern Bihar), and therefore Lála must have been situated between Banga and Magadha, and not in Kalinga. The identification of Lála or Láta, the

² Turnour's Maháwanso, ch. vi.

[!] General Cunningham's Ancient Geography of India, p. 518.

³ Upham's Mahávansi, vi: Rájaratnácari, ii: Rájávali, pt. i, have got Láda instead of Lála. Mr. Upham in his note to the word says: "Properly Ráda, a country near Gauda-desa": Sacred Books of Ceylon.

native country of Bijaya, with Guzerat by some writers cannot at all be correct.

From the 4th century B.C. to the 5th century A.D., that is from the time of Chandragupta's accession to the throne of Magadha in 321 B.C., to the end of the imperial Gupta dynasty in 480 A.D., Sumha appears to have formed a part of the Magadha empire.1 The Puráns, most of which were composed between the 2nd century B.C. to the 5th century A.D., very rarely mention the name of Sumha. The Vishnu and the Bhágavat Puráns 2 mention it incidentally; the Brahma, the Matsva. 3 and the Kalki 4 Puráns, however, include it in the list of countries which appear to have been independent, though it cannot be precisely ascertained if it was actually independent or In some of them the name of Sumha is mentioned as Sumbha or Saumbha, as Subba (-bhumi), Surama (-bandara) and Suppa (-devi) were the vicarious forms of the same name during the mediæval period. During this period if Sumha ever attained independence, it must have been of a very short duration. The Raghuvansa 5 mentions it as an independent country. Fa Hian, who visited India in the 4th century A.D., went from the kingdom of Champá (Anga) to the kingdom of Támralipta: he does not mention the name of Sumha at all.6

In the 6th century A.D. we find Sumha mentioned again as an independent country. It is mentioned in the Brihatsaihitá among the kingdoms which appear to be independent by Baráhamihira who died in 587 A.D. Dandi, who flourished also in the 6th century A.D., mentions the town of Dámalipta. modern Tamluk, as being situated in Sumha, but at the time of Fa Hian Tamralipta or Tamluk had been an independent kingdom. Hence the inference is that in the 6th century Sumha extended its southern boundary to the sea.

But after the 6th century A.D., the name of Sumha disappears altogether as the name of a country. The only works of any note in which the name of Sumha appears after the 6th century are the Harshacharita by Bána and the Payanaduta by Dhoyi, one of the Pancha-ratnas or five gems of the court of Lakshmana Sena of Gauda. 10 Henceforth it was exclusively known by the name of Rádá or Ráda, a form of which was Most of the Tantras were composed between the 6th Rádaka. and 12th centuries of the Christian era. Some of them, as the

¹ Dr. Bhandarkar's Peep into the Early History of India. ² Vishnu Purán, pt. iv. ch. 18; Bhágavat Purán, ch. 9.

⁵ Raghuvansa, iv, 35. ⁶ Beal's Travels of Fa Hian, ch. xxxvii.
⁷ Brihatsanhité, chs. 14, 16. ⁸ Hema Koshe

⁸ सञ्जाब दामिल्राइक्स नगरसा ! Dasakumáracharita. Uttara Khanda, ch. vi.

¹⁰ Harshacharita, ch. vi; Pavanduta, v. 27.

Yogini Tantra. mention the name of Ráda. The allegorical play called the Prabodhachandrodaya, composed by Krishna Misra in the court of Kirttivarman of Bundelkhand (1049— 1100), mentions the name of Ráda, and it is also mentioned in the Jyotishatattwa of Raghunandana. It appears from the travels of Hiuen Tsiang and I-tsing that the kingdom of Támralipta existed in the 7th century A.D., and according to some authority most part of the southern portion of the district of Hughli was included in the kingdom of Támralipta. This shows that in the 7th century Támralipta recovered its independence and even conquered a portion of ancient Sumha. Hiuen Tsiang had gone to Tamralipta from the kingdom of Samatata or East Bengal: he does not mention the name of Sumha or Ráda.³ It appears from his itinerary and other contemporaneous writings that about the middle of the 7th century A.D., Harshavarddhana or Siláditya II of Kányakubja conquered the eastern part of India, and there cannot be the slightest doubt that he subjugated at least the northern portion of Ráda by the conquest of Kajughira or Kájeri⁵ which was a part of Anga and appertained to the ancient Bajjabhumi, one of the two divisions of Láda. He was the last paramount monarch of Northern India before the Mahomedan conquest. But before Ráda or any portion of it was conquered by Harshavarddhana, it appears to have formed a part of the kingdom of Karnasuvarna. Hiuen Tsiang mentions the name of Karnasuvarna for the first time in the 7th century. Its king was the notorious Sasánka who treacherously murdered Rajyavarddhana, the elder brother of Harshavarddhana. In the Harshacharita, however, Karnasuvarna is mentioned as Gaura,9

It appears from the Káriká of Devivara Ghataka that Ráda formed a part of the kingdom of Gaura at the time of Adisura. This monarch has been identified with Jayanta 10 king of Gaura whose daughter Kalyánadevi was married by Jayapida, king of Kasmir, in the middle of the eighth century

Beal's Buddhist Records of the Western World, vol. ii, p. 200.

4 Harshacharita by Bána Bhatta.

7 Buddhist Records of the Western World, vol. i, Bk. v.

⁸ Harshecharita, ch. vi.

¹ Yogini Tantra, Purva Khanda, ch. 11, v. 64. ² Prabodhachandrodaya-nátaka, Acts ii and iv.

⁵ Buddhist Records of the Western World, vol. i, p. 215, note; vol. ii, pp. 193, 198.

⁶ Dr. Waddell's Discovery of the Exact Site of Asoka's Classic Capital of Pátaliputra, p. 29.

^१ चम्बद्रकुसस्थात चादिग्रहो स्पेश्वरः राष्ट्र गौरवर्ग्याचा बहुदेशी तथैवच ॥ रतेषां अपतिस्वेत सम्बंधमीकरो यथा।

¹⁰ Biswakosha, voce Kulina,

A.D.¹ But this identification appears to be doubtful, and in the absence of authentic corroboration it cannot be accepted as the basis of an historical conclusion.

During the first half of the 9th century, while Bhu-sura was reigning in Gaura after the death of his father Adi-sura, the country was invaded by Dharma-pála, king of Magadha. Gaura was conquered, and Bhu-sura was obliged to take refuge in Ráda, Ráda, though it formed a part of the kingdom of Gaura was never under the sway of the Pála kings of Magadha. It formed an independent kingdom under the Sura kings, the descendants of Adi-sura, from Bhu-sura to Rana-sura, or Anu-sura as he was called, for a period of over two hundred years from a portion of the 9th century to the latter part of the 11th century A.D.2 Bhu-sura's son, Kshiti-sura, gave fiftvsix villages to the sons and descendants of the five Bráhmans who had been invited to the court of Adi-sura. No event of any importance occurred during the reigns of his two successors Avani-sura and Dharani sura. Dharani-sura's successor Dharásura, a son of Kshiti-sura, divided the Bráhmans of the fiftysix villages into three classes, called Mukhya-kulinas, Gaunakulinas and Srotriyas. We know very little of his successors Barendra-sura, Pradyumna-sura, and others. Towards the close of the 11th century Ráda and Gaura again formed a single kingdom under Vijava-sena, the father of Ballála-sena of the Sena dynasty. He conquered Gaura, and perhaps Ráda also along with it. But it has been supposed that he might have acquired the throne of Ráda by inheritance, as his mother Yasodevi was evidently the daughter of Rana-sura, the last king, who seems to have died without leaving any male issue. That Rada was an independent kingdom in the 10th century receives an unexpected confirmation from the Khajuraho inscription, which records that Dhanga Deva, the Chandratreya (or Chandella) king of Jejabhukti (Bundelkhand), "was so powerful that the rulers of Kosala, Kratha, Sinhala (Ceylon) and Kuntala humbly listened to his commands (v. 45), and so successful in his wars that the wives of the kings of Kánchi, Andhra, Ráda and Anga lingered in his prisons (v. 46)." Though the language of the inscription appears to be hyperbolical, yet there can be no doubt that Rada was an independent country at the time of Dhanga Deva who reigned from 950 to 999 A.D., that is in

¹ Dr. Stein's Rájatarangini, vol i.

² Bansibadana Vidyératna Ghatak's Rádiya-kulavivarana; Mahimachandra Majumdar's Gaure Bráhmana; P. Banerji's Bángálár Purávritta.

⁸ Deopara Stone inscription of Vijaya-sena, v. 20: Epigraphia Indica, vol. i, p. 306; and see also Mr. Venis's remark in vol. ii, p. 350.

⁶ Ep. Ind., vol. i, pp. 312, 313; Bángálár Purávritta, pp. 243, 244. ⁶ Khajuraho Inscription No. IV, Ep. Ind., vol. i, pp. 138, 145, v. 46: it is the revised edition of an inscription "found near Chhatarpur" transcribed in J.A.S.B., vol. viii (1839), p. 173.

the 10th century of the Christian era. The Tirumalaya stone inscription also mentions that Rájendra Chola (I) defeated Ranasura, king of Dakshina Ráḍa, and Mahipála, king of Magadha and Uttara-Ráḍa. This event must have taken place shortly after he ascended the throne of the Chola kingdom in 1012 A.D. It confirms also that Dakshina-Ráḍa was an independent country during the first quarter of the 11th century. We also hear of the names of the kings of Bengal while the kings of the Sura dynasty reigned over Dakshina-Ráḍa, as for instance, the Tirumalaya inscription records the name of Govinda-chandra as king of Banga while Rana-sura reigned in the latter country.

The Prabodhachandrodaya-nátaka, which was written by Krishna Misra in the second half of the 11th century A.D., mentions that "Rádá" was in the kingdom of Gaura. and in Rádá there was a town by the name of Bhurisreshthika. The special mention of this place in the country of Ráda as the birth-place of "Pride" indicates that it was the principal town, and in all probability it was the capital of the Sura kings from the time of Avani-sura at least, if not earlier, when the kingdom was confined only to Dakshina or Southern Ráda by the invasion and conquest of Deva-pala in the latter half of the 9th century. It appears further from the same play that Dakshina-Ráda had already acquired a celebrity in the 11th century, denoting thereby that the country had been divided into Dakshina (Southern) and Uttara (Northern) Ráda long before the work was composed.² The river Ajaya formed the boundary between these two divisions. The town of Bhurisreshthika, which is a pleonastic form of Bhurisreshtha, is the modern village of Bhurset or Bhursut in the Arámbágh subdivision of the district of Hughli. Though now an insignificant village, yet its importance at some period of its history can at once be inferred from the fact of its conferring a name to an entire Parganá, which is still called Parganá Bhursut and is situated partly in the district of Hughli and partly in the district of Burdwan.

There is much difference of opinion as to the precise date when Ballála-sena ascended the throne of Gaura, but there can be no doubt that he was reigning in Bengal during the first half of the 12th century of the Christian era. He constituted Ráda into a province of the kingdom of Bengal, and it

गौड़ंराष्ट्रमन्तमं निवपमा तवापि राटा ततो भूरिश्रेष्टिकनामधाम परमं तथोत्रमो नः पिता॥

¹ Prabodhachandrodaya-nátaka, Act ii, p. 28-

Act iv of the same work describes Rádá as a country: "ৰাজ

² Ibid., Act ii, pp. 25, 29.

⁸ Gopála Bhatta's Ballála-charitam, v. 7, published by Harischandra Kaviratna : बहाजेन दि बहाज राडवारेण्यामंडि ।

continued to be so till it was conquered at the close of the 12th century by Mahammad-i-Sheran, a general under Bakhtiyar Khiliji, who afterwards became king of Bengal on the death of the latter.

Notwithstanding that Ráda formed a part of Bengal since its conquest by Bijava-sena, it appears that a portion of the district of Hughli to the west of the Saraswati, though it appertained to Ráda, was conquered by the Gangávansa kings of Orissa and formed a part of their dominion. The Rev. J. Long "The banks of the Saraswati at Triveni formed the ancient boundary of the kingdom of Orissa, extending as far west as Bishenpur in the time of the Gangávansa princes from the 10th to the 14th century A.D." 2 But Churang or Sarang Deo, otherwise called Chora Gangá, the founder of the Gangávansa dynasty, did not conquer Orissa till 1131 A.D., and we find that during the reign of his son Gangeswara Deo. who ascended the throne in 1151 A.D., the dominion of Orissa extended "from the Ganges to the Godavari," and it should be borne in mind that the Ganges in the middle of the 12th century flowed through the Saraswati. There cannot be any doubt that the Gangávansa kings of Orissa, from the time of Gangeswar Deo, retained possession of the western portion of the district of Hugli to the west of the Saraswati, and therefore it was that Ananga Bhim Deo assumed the proud title of "Gaureswara'' or sovereign of Gaura in his coin and seal, which title was retained even by the titular Rájás of Khurda.4 With regard to Telinga Mukunda Deo, the last independent sovereign of Orissa, who reigned from 1550 to 1558, it has been said "he founded a ghat and temple at the sacred spot called Triveni, on the Hooghly, north of the town of that name, which formed the extreme verge of his dominions." 5 Hence it is clear that the Ganges formed the ancient boundary of the dominion of the Gangávansa kings between the middle of the 12th century to the middle of the 16th century, instead of from the 10th to the 14th century A.D. as stated by the Rev. J. Long. Though no doubt Triveni formed the extreme verge of Mukunda Deo's dominion, yet it appears that this limit varied during the reign of one king at least, namely, Prataparudra Deo, the contemporary of Chaitanya Deva, who ascended the throne in 1503 and died in 1524. It appears from the Chaitanya-charitámrita 6 that during his reign the river Mantreswar in the district of 24-Parganás was the northern boundary of the kingdom of Orissa. It should be observed that the part of the district of Hughli to the west of the Ganges is the best

¹ Tabakat-i-Nasiri, translated by Major Raverty.

The Banks of the Bhágirathi: Cal. Rev., vol. vi, p. 402.
 Stirling's Orissa (1904), p. 71; As. Res., vol. xv, p. 164.
 Stirling's Orissa, p. 73.
 Ibid., p. 83.

⁶ Madhyama Khanda, ch. 16.

part of the district, as it contains the towns of Hughli. Chinsura. Serampur and other towns along the right bank of the river, though between the 12th and 16th centuries some of these towns were not in existence, and others did not acquire sufficient celebrity. The entire district therefore did not fully and finally come under the Mahommedan rule till Triveni was annexed to Bengal by Akbar in the middle of the 16th century. notwithstanding that Saptagrama had been conquered by Zaffar Khan in the 14th century and Triveni formed a part of Saptagráma. The king of Örissa or Kalinga in Pliny's time was a powerful monarch: he could bring into the field 100,000 foot. Was not the district of Hughli at least the region of the "Gangarides-Calinga" of Pliny? subject requires investigation, as the Macco-Calingæ and the Gangarides-Calingæ are mentioned as separate people from the Calingæ. Macco-Calingæ were evidently the people of Majjho or Madhya-Kalinga or Orissa, and Gangarides-Calingæ (or the Gangá-Rádis) appear to have been a powerful nation who lived on the north of Orissa in a tract which according to Megasthenes was bounded on the east by the Ganges or rather the Saraswati, whereas Calingæ were the people of Kalinga proper.

The district of Hughli, which before its separation as a magisterial charge in 1795,2 was included in the district of Burdwan; and along with Burdwan, Birbhum, Bankura, Midnapur and Howra, it has always formed a part of Ráda. Its history, therefore, is essentially the history of Ráda or West Bengal,

which was anciently called Sumha.

CHAPTER II.

ANCIENT PLACES IN THE DISTRICT OF HUGHLI.

We have already stated that Singur is the ancient Sinhapura, the birth-place of Bijaya, and that it was founded in the 5th century B.C. In the mediæval period it was the captial of Sumha, which was governed by Sinhabáhu's son Sumitta and his descendants, and Bhurisreshtha or modern Bhursut was its last capital.

It is Pandit Raghunandana of Nadia who has invested

Pandua.

Páṇduá with the dignified name of

Pradyumnanagara. In his Práyaschitta-tattwa he places Dakshina-Prayága or Triveni to the

¹ The Banks of the Bhágirathi. ² Regulation xxxvi of 1795.

⁸ 'मदाभारते--

^{&#}x27;प्रदेखनगराद् वास्ये सरस्रत्याक्षयोत्तरे । तद्दचिणप्रयामक् महातोधम्मामता ॥

south of Pradyumnanagara, which is identified with Pánduá. and he cites the Mahabharat as his authority; but notwithstanding all our attempt, we could not find any mention either of Pradyumnanagara or of Triveni in that work. It is related in the Maháwanso that Pándu Sákya, son of Buddha's uncle, Amitodana, for fear of falling into the hand of Virudhaba, the parricide usurper of the throne of Kosala, fled from the Sákva kingdom and retired beyond the Ganges where he founded a " settlement " called Morapura and ruled over it." He allied himself with Pánduvásadeva of Sinhapura or modern Singur, who succeeded his uncle Bijava on the throne of Sinhala (Cevlon), by giving him his daughter Bhaddakachchana in marriage. Local tradition regarding the conquest of Pánduá by the Mahomedans confirms the fact that it was the capital of Rájá Pándu. The legend runs to the effect that a Mahomedan officer of the court of the Rájá of Pánduá whose name was Pándu, celebrated the birth of his son with festivities by slaughtering a cow privately. But the atrocious deed was discovered on the next morning by the Hindus of the town. They rose to a man to revenge the insult to their religion, and killed his new-born son. The Mahomedan escaped to the court of the Emperor Firuz Tuglak (1351-88) at Delhi, who sent his nephew, Shah Sufi, with a large army. Pánduá was besieged. Pándu Rájá had a powerful ally in the Rájá of Máhnád, which is four miles to the south of Pánduá. They held out for a long time till the water of the Jiánch-kundu, a tank which possessed the virtue of healing the wounded and reviving the dead, was defiled by a steak of beef thrown into it by the Mahomedans. That tank is now called Jiban Kundu. The Hindus were reduced to extremity for want of water, and they were routed with dreadful slaughter. A minaret was built by the Mahomedans in imitation of the Kutab Minar of Old Delhi as a tower of victory.2 It will be observed that the name of the king

चाला तवाचयं पुर्णं प्रयाग द्व सच्छाते।

दक्षिणप्रयागस उमान्नवेषी सप्तपामाक्यदक्षिणदेशे विवेषीतिकाते ."

See the Gangámáhátmya of the Práyaschitta-tattwam, p. 100, by

Raghunandana Bhattáchárva.

¹ Turnour's Mahawanso, ch. viii. Though Turnour's Mahawanso does not mention the name of the "settlement." yet we find from Upham's Mahawansi that the city which Pandu Sakya founded was called Morapura. I have it to the antiquarians to decide whether Morapura is not a dialectic variation, or corruption of Marapura, and as such whether it can not be connected with Pradyumna-nagara, as both the names mean the "Town of the God of Love." We have precedence in the Mahabharat and the Purans for the use of synonyms in respect of the names of towns.

² Early Bengali Literature and Newspapers by the Rev. J. Long (Cal. Rev., vol. xiii, p. 128); Dr. Blochmann's Places of Historical Interest in the District of Hughli, in J.A.S.B., 1870.

of Pánduá was Pándu Rájá. Either he was a descendant of Pándu Sákya or that was the patronymic of the dynasty derived from him. Panduá was not only the seat of a Hindu Rájá, but it was a strongly fortified place and was surrounded by a wall and trench, five miles in circumference: the traces of the ancient fortification are still found at different places. There can be no doubt, therefore, that Pánduá is a very ancient town in the district of Hughli.

In connection with Pánduá we have mentioned the name of Máhnád, which is four miles to the south of Pánduá. It was conquered by the Mahomedans along with Pandua in the middle of the 14th century. The word Máhnád is a corruption of Mahánáda which means a great noise, and the local tradition about the name of the place is that once upon a time a Dakshinávartta sankha, or a conch-shell with its windings to the right, fell in the village, and made a great noise when the wind passed through its orifice. The gods heard the noise: they came and assembled here for the purpose of consulting together as to how they might divert the course, or rather the sanctity of the Ganges. They established the Mahádeva Jateswara, and sanctified a tank called Basishtha-Gangá. They named the place as Mahánáda on account of the tremendous noise that issued from the conch-shell. There is a temple at Máhnád, which is curiously shaped, and is not like an ordinary temple: its style is like that of the temples of Bhuvaneswara in Orissa. The temple now contains a phallic image of Siva, called Jateswaranáth, like the other shrines of this place. The Basishtha-Gangá is said to be the Jianch-kundu or Jiban-kundu of the Pánduá tradition. Around the temple are the Samádhis (graves) of the Buddhist Sramanas (priests) who lived here during the Buddhist period. The resident priest is a Buddhist, who, however, has no concern with the worship in the temple, which is conducted by a Brah-The famous fair (Jat) is held in the courtyard of the temple of Jateswaranáth every year at the time of the Sivachaturdasi in honour of Dharma Thákura, whose worship is regarded as the only vestige we have got of Buddhism in Bengal. It is therefore quite evident that the temple was appropriated by the Brahmins after the expulsion of Buddhism and devoted to the worship of Siva. The Samadhis or graves of the Buddhist priests around the temple indicate that there was a Buddhist monastic establishment or Sangha at this place.

The temple of Jateswara evidently appertained to the fort and palace of the Rájás, the vestiges of which still exist and are called the fort of Rájá Chandraketu. There is also a tank close by, which is called Chandra Dighi. One or two

¹ Mahámahopádhyáya Haraprasád Sástri's Discovery of Living Buddhism in Bengal, p. 26.

gold coins said to be of Asoka's time were discovered, when the foundations of the present Mission buildings were excavated. It seems very probable that both Máhnád and Pánduá were situated within the aforesaid circumvallation of five miles as parts of the same kingdom instead of being the capitals of two independent countries as the tradition about Pánduá would make out. The fact that the Jainas of Calcutta take much interest in this temple and have repaired it at a great cost, indicates that at one time it was a Jaina temple. It is very likely that at the time of the Mahomedan conquest the Brahminical religion prevailed at Pánduá and Máhnád, as the statues of Surya and Vishnu discovered at Pánduá and the phallic images of Siva in the Buddhist religion had to give way to the Brahminical faith.

One of the most ancient places in the district of Hughli is Triveni, which is situated eight miles Triveni. to the east of Máhnád and at a short distance from the town of Hughli. Its ancient name was Dakshina-Prayága. Raghunandana while quoting the authority of the Mahábhárat about it in his Práyaschittatattwa explains Dakshina Pravága to be the same as "Mukta-veni celebrated as Triveni in the southern country called Saptagráma." Triveni is called Mukta-veni in contradistinction to Yukta-veni or Allahabad, where the three rivers—Gangá, Jamuná, and Saraswati-unite and flow together, and at Triveni they separate and flow in different directions. The Saraswati leaves the Ganges at Triveni Ghát and, flowing southward, joins the Ganges again at Sánkrel. The Jamuná flows to the east by the side of Kánchrápárá and ultimately falls into the Ichámati near Tibi, which is six miles from Govardángá. The eastern portion of the river is known by the name of Bágerkhál. In a portion of its course it forms the boundary between the districts of Nadia and the 24-Parganas. It was a navigable river before, but its connection with the Hughli having silted up. it has now ceased to be so. The name of Triveni is mentioned in the Brihat-Dharma Purán.2 Pliny, who flourished in the first century of the Christian era, mentions it as a great commercial centre. He says that ships assembling near the Godávari sailed by a particular route to Triveni. These ships were evidently bound for Sátgáon down the Saraswati, which is two miles from Triveni. Ptolemy, the celebrated geographer who lived in the middle of the second century of the Christian era, also notices Triveni. Triveni is also alluded to in the Pavanaduta, composed in the 12th century A.D.3 It is therefore evident

¹ Saptagráma, by Babu Rakhal Das Bandopádhyáya, in the Sáhitya Parishat-Patriká, vol. xv, p. 29.

² Brihat-Dharma Purán Purva Khanda, ch. 6.

³ Pavanaduta, v. 33.

that at a very remote period Triveni was celebrated as a sistertown to Prayaga or Allahabad in point of sanctity, though afterwards it became a quarter of Saptagrama, as it has been described in some works of the 16th century. It was celebrated as a place of Sanskrit learning, being one of the four samájes, the other three being Nadiyá, Sántipura, and Guptipárá. The celebrated Jagannáth Tarkapanchánana, the compiler of the digest of Hindu laws and Sanskrit tutor to Sir William Jones, was a native of this place. The Triveni Ghát and temple, as mentioned before, were constructed by Mukunda Deo, the last independent sovereign of Orissa, in the 16th century. But as a sacred place its importance centres in the temple of the Sapta Rishis, who are said to have resided at Saptagráma, and it has already been stated that Triveni was included in that town. The temple of the Rishis does not at present exist: it was situated near the Triveni-Ghat. It was transformed with some alterations into the tomb of Zaffar Khan Ghazi, the conqueror of Saptagráma, popularly known as Darab Khan, whose celebrated hymn to Gangá (the river Ganges) is still extant.³ The figures of Buddha in meditation engraved in a slab of stone affixed to the base of a pillar in a neighbouring mosque and a broken statue of Páraswanátha, the twenty-third Tirthankara of the Jainas, which may be found within the enclosure containing the tomb of Zaffar Khan. indicate that the Brahminical Triveni had passed through the usual stages of Jainism and Buddhism.

Though Triveni formed a quarter or suburb of Saptagráma, now called Sátgáon, and though its name appears in some of the ancient Purans, yet the name of Saptagráma itself does not appear in any of them. The reason, however, is not far to seek. The sanctity of Triveni in the eyes of the philosophic and religious Hindus was of far greater importance than the prosperity and opulence of Saptagráma as an emporium of commerce, and hence they did not deign even to mention it in their ancient Sanskrit works. We therefore do not know when and by whom the town was founded It is related that the seven sons of Priyavanta, king of Kányakubja, whose names were Agnidhra, Ramanaka, Bhapistu, Swarabána, Baráta, Sabana and Dyuti-

¹ See Saptagráma (Sáhitya-Parishat-Patriká, vol. xv, pp. 35, 36): Chaitanya-Bhágava.

Sáhitya-Parishat-Patriká, vol. xv:—Saptagráma; J.A.S.B., 1909
 —Saptagráma or Satgánw. by Babu Rakhal Das Bandopádhyáya.

षुर्ध्न मुनिकम्ये तारयेः पुष्कवन्तं स तरित निजपुर्वोस्तव विके सदक्तम् । यद् च मितिवदोनं तारयेः पापिनं साम् । तद्पि तव सदक्तं तकादकां मदकाम् ॥

manta, resided at Básudevapura, Bánsberia (Bansabáti), Krishnapura, Nityánandapura, Sibpura, Sambachora and Baladgháti, on the bank of the Saraswati, and these seven villages were collectively called Saptagráma. Whether these villages were included in Saptagrama or not, there can be no doubt that the town was of immense size and was situated on the east bank of the river Saraswati, through which once flowed the main stream of the Ganges. Large vessels sailed up to Saptagráma till the middle of the 16th century so long as the river did not get silted up, and it was known to the Romans under the name of Ganges Regia. The Periplus of the Erythræan Sea, which was written in the first or second century of the Christian era, evidently mentions it under the name of Gángé. It says: "There is on it [the Ganges] a mart called after it, Gángé, through which nasses a considerable traffic, consisting of betel, the Gangetic spikenard, pearl and the finest of all muslins—those called the Gangetic. According to Ptolemy Gángé was the capital of the Gangarides or the Gangá-Rádis. Saptagráma was a roval city, where the kings of the country resided.4 It was visited by Nitvánanda, the great disciple and companion of Chaitanyadeva, about the middle of the 16th century. 5 In 1570 it was visited by Fredericke, who states: "In the port of Sátgáon every year they lade 30 or 35 ships, great and small, with rice, cloth of bombast of divers sort, lacca, great abundance of sugar, pepper, oil zerzeline and other sorts of merchandise." Kavikankana, who wrote the Chandi in 1577 A.D., describes it as a very opulent town, to which merchants from all parts of India and also from Cevlon used to come with their merchandise. says: "But the Saptagrama merchants never go out of their town. They command the wealth of the world, as also such comforts at home as are procurable in Paradise. Their place is a holy seat of pilgrimage, incomparable in sanctity. It is called Saptagráma, because it was under the rule of its seven patron Rishis." It was conquered by the Mahomedans under Zaffar Khan in the 14th century A.D.: he came with Shah Sufi, the conqueror of Pánduá, and is said to have been the governor of Saptagrama for fifteen years after its conquest. It became a royal

¹ Asiatic Researches, vol. v; Rennell's Memoir of the Map of Hindoostan.

Wilford: Asiatic Researches, vol. v, p. 278.
 McCrindle's Commerce and Navigation of the Erythræan Sea,

⁴ As. Res., vol. v; The Grand Trunk Road-its Localities, by the Rev. J. Long: C.R., vol. xxi, p. 181.

⁵ Chaitanya-Bhágavata. 6 C.R., 1891, p. 374.

⁷ S. P. Patrika, vol. xv, p. 23-Saptagrama; J.A.S.B., 1909-Saptagráma or Satgánw, by Babu Rakhal Das Bandopádhyáya. For the life of Zaffar Khan see J.A.S B., vol. xv (1847), p. 393—An Account of the Temple of Triveni near Hughli by D. Money. It is difficult to reconcile the statement in the Kursinámá (J.A.S.B., xv, 395) that Zaffar

port at the time of the Moguls, and during the reign of Akbar 12,00,000 dams or 30,000 rupees were realised from this port and other neighbouring markets.\(^1\) The Mahomedan Subedar resided at this place, and the ruins of the old fort, which was his residence, still exist. Sátgáon has been described by travellers as "a great and noble city" and "a fair citie," but it is now an insignificant village, being a cluster of few huts. The extensive ruins, overgrown with dense jungle and once the abode of tigers and bears, are the only remains that we have to attest to its former greatness. These ruins have been described by Dr. Blochmann, but they almost all belong to the Mahomedan period.\(^2\) Sátgáon sank into ruin, as stated before, when Hughli was made a royal port in 1632, and all the public officers were withdrawn: the silting up of the river at that place also contributed to its decline.

It will be observed that in all these ancient places there is evidence to show the prevalence of Buddhism or Jainaism in some period of their history. The temple of Tárakeswara, the most renowned shrine of Siva worship in the district of Hughli, appears to have been originally a Budhist temple now transformed into a dome-topped Hindu temple with an outward covering and coating of bricks and plaster like that of Bargá Bhimá at Tamluk, which was originally a Buddhist temple where Devi is now worshipped. The Mahá-Lingeswara Tantra mentions Tárakes wara as one of the "hundred names of Siva," and places his shrine in Ráda. There can be no doubt therefore that the shrine existed at the time when the book was composed, though we are not aware of the precise time of its composition. It is, however, certain that it was not visited by Chaitanya, as there is no mention of it either in the Chaitanya-charitámrita or Chaitanya-bhágavata. Hence we may safely infer that at the time of Chaitanva it did not exist at all, or that it did not acquire sufficient importance as a place of pilgrimage. There is also a Jaina temple in Chinsura at Jugipárá lane which is much resorted to by the Jainas of Calcutta: it is a very old temple and belongs to the Digambara sect. It is therefore clear that Buddhism and Jainaism prevailed at one time in that portion of the district of Hughli which lies between the rivers Dámudá and the Ganges, if not in the whole of the district itself; and it appears also that Buddhism was supplanted by Siva worship.

Khan Ghazi came to Bengal accompanied by his nephew Shah Sufi with the Higira year 698 (1298 A.D.), the date of Zaffar Khan's conquest as mentioned in an inscription at Triveni (J.A.S.B., 1909, p. 248), bearing in mind the fact that Shah Sufi was sent to Bengal by the Emperor Firuz Tuglak.

Gladwin's Ayin Akbari, pt. ii, p. 472.
 J.A.S.B., vol. xxxix (1870), p. 280.

CHAPTER III.

SOME CELEBRATED EVENTS.

Of some of the events in the history of Bengal the district of Hughli may justly be proud, as they all occurred in the former and present headquarters of the district.

- The first Printing Press in Bengal was set up at Hughli, the former headquarters of the district, in 1778, and Halhed's Bengali Grammar was the first book that was printed. Halhed was so proficient in colloquial Bengali that he was known to pass as a Bengali in assemblies of Hindus disguised in a native dress. He was also an accomplished Sanskrit scholar: he published the Code of Gentoo Laws which was compiled at Benares by some Brahmins at the instance of Warren Hastings. Sir Charles Wilkins, who rightly deserves the title of Caxton of Bengal and who was called the "Nestor of Sanskrit studies," prepared the types for this grammar with his own hand, and he taught one Panchánan, a blacksmith, in type cutting, and all knowledge of type cutting was derived from him.1
- The Pánkhá, the sine qua non of our comfort during (2)the summer season, was first invented by a Dutch governor at Chinsura, the present headquarters of the district, in the "Dutch barrack" as it is called, at the close of the 17th century. A newspaper which was in front of him on the table was blown up by the wind to a beam overhead and it commenced oscillating: this first suggested to him the idea of a Pánkhá.2
- The first grant-in-aid which was made by Government for the promotion of Vernacular education in Bengal. was allowed in support of Mr. May's schools around Chinsura in 1814 during the administration of the Marquis of Hastings at the monthly rate of Rs. 600.3
- The oldest Christian Church in Bengal was constructed at Bandel in 1597 by a Portuguese named Villalobos: it is about a mile to the north of Hughli.
- The first serious quarrel between the Moguls and the Europeans took place at Hughli in 1632 when the Portuguese were defeated and their fort was blown up; and the first action between the English and the Moguls in Bengal was fought at Hughli in 1686 which resulted in their obtaining an easy victory over the latter.

¹ C. R., vol. xiii, p. 24; vol. vi,—"Sir William Jones," by the Rev. T. Smith.

² Toynbee's Sketch of the Administration of the Hughli District, p. 10; Janmabhumi, 1298 B.S.

8 Handbook of Bengal Missions, p. 484 (1848), by the Rev. J.

Long.

(6) The town of Hughli was the first settlement of the English in Bengal where they traded in 1640, in which year they built their factory at this place.¹

¹ Orme's History of Hindoostan, vol. ii, pp. 8, 9.

54. Contributions to the History and Ethnology of North-Eastern India—II.

By H. E. STAPLETON, Indian Educational Service.

THE COINAGE OF ASSAM IN ITS RELATION TO THE HISTORY OF ASSAM AS GIVEN IN THE "BURANJIS."

At the end of December 1906, three coolies who were hoeing in the Daflating Tea Garden, in the Jorhāt Sub-Division of Sibsāgar District, came upon a large number of old coins. The Deputy Commissioner investigated the matter under the provisions of the Treasure Trove Act and ultimately 928 coins—mostly minted by Assamese Kings—were recovered. On their being forwarded to Shillong for report, the coins were classified as follows:—

East India Company's Coins—Rupees, 15; ½-Rupees, 1. Mughul Rupees—13.

Assamese Coins.

King.		Rupees.	1-Rupees.	1-Rupees
Rudra Simha		18	2	
Siva Simha		5	1	
Siva Simha and Phulesvarī	!	6		
Siva Simha and Pramathesvarī		6	2	
Siva Simha and Ambikā		12	1	
Siva Simha and Sarvesvarī		4	3	
Prematta Simha		. 9	8	2
Rāješvara Simba		25	32	
Lakshmi Simha		16	97	٠
Jaurinātha Simha		79	516	
Bharatha Simha			2	
Sarvānanda Simha		1	3	
Kamaleévara Simha			6	
Chandra Kānta Simha		2	9	
Brajanātha Simha		2	26	٠
Jogeśvara Simha			4	••
TOTAL		185	712	

The Local Government, recognising the importance of the find, requested that an account of it should be included in a paper dealing with all Assamese coins from the time of Rudra Simha to the end of Assamese rule, and steps were accordingly

taken to collate the information that could be derived from the principal local collections. These are as follows:—

(a) The Shillong Cabinet of 176 specimens including a selection from the coins of the Daflating find (referred to sub-

sequently as [S. C.]).

(b) The Indian Museum Cabinet with 117 coins, recently described by Mr. Vincent Smith (Catalogue of the Coins of the Indian Museum, Calcutta, Vol. 1, Part III, pp. 294—307) [I. M. C.].

(c) Collection of 260 coins belonging to Mr. A. W. Botham, C.S., late Deputy Commissioner, Sibsāgar, who kindly forwarded for my inspection 62 selected specimens which he

believed were undescribed [B].

(d) My own collection of about 130 specimens [H. E. S.].

In addition to the above, (e) Mr. Gait, in the course of his researches on Assamese history, opened at Sibsāgar a register of Assamese coins in which 242 coins are described. These include most of the Āhōm coins in the British Museum as well as some of the Assamese coins in the Shillong collection. An abstract of the information contained in the register is given in tabular form on page 3 of his Report on the Progress of Historical Research in Assam.

Small collections of 17 and 38 Assamese coins respectively are also in the possession of Lieut.-Col. Gurdon, I.A., Commissioner of the Assam Valley, and Mr. R. Burn, C.S., Deputy Commissioner, Gonda, U.P. Mr. Burn's collection formerly

belonged to Dr. White King.

From the first and third of these, the coins figuring in Plates XXVI and XXVII had been selected and forwarded to the Survey Office at Calcutta for reproduction when I learnt that a catalogue of the 300 Assamese coins in the British Museum had already been prepared for publication by Mr. J. Allan of the Department of Coins and Medals of that institution. From the advance proof of his paper for the Numismatic Chronicle that Mr. Allan was good enough to supply me with, it was evident that a detailed catalogue of Assamese coins would be superfluous, but, on the other hand, sufficient materials were now available to render possible a discussion of the bearings of Assamese coin inscriptions on the statements made in the Buranjis, the indigenous histories of Assam that Mr. Gait has utilised in the preparation of his History of Assam.

So far as is at present known, regular annual coinage in Assam only commenced with the accession of Rudra Simha in 1696 A.D., while the last date found on an Assam coin is 1743 Sāka (= 1821 A.D.). For this period of 125 years more than 750 selected coins are either catalogued or have passed through

my hands, and the resulting average of 6 per annum appears sufficient to justify comment on the few instances of years of which no coins have hitherto come to light. In addition to these 750 coins (which, with half a dozen exceptions, are in Bengali script, the language being Sanskrit) Mr. H. A. Grueber, Keeper of Coins and Medals at the British Museum, kindly placed at my disposal casts of the unique British Museum collection of 28 Assamese coins in the Āhōm language and script, most of which belong to the predecessors of Rudra Simha. The object of the present paper is to utilise these materials in checking the statements of the Buranjis regarding Assamese history, to supply any further information that may be derived from a study of the coins, and incidentally to summarise our knowledge of Assamese numismatics.

PRE-AHOM COINS IN ASSAM.

Although we might expect from the intimate relations between Harsha Sīlāditya and the vassal King of Kāmrūp in the time of Hiuen Tsiang (645 A.D.) that coins modelled on those of Harsha would be found in Assam, no such tokens have hitherto come to light, and the only information from numismatic sources that has reached us for the long period until Süklenmün initiated an Ahom coinage in 1543, is derived from one or two finds of Musalman coins, the chief being that made at Gauhati in 1880 (cf. Hoernle in Journ. Asiatic Soc. Bengal. 1881, p. 53). As noted in the first paper of this series (Journ. Asiatic Soc. Bengal, 1910, p. 150) the Gauhati find may be regarded as a relic of the invasion of Kamrup by Tughril Khan, the insurgent Governor of Bengal who styled himself Sultan Mughisu-d-Din Yuzbak. The coins range in date from those of Sultan Altamsh (614 A.H.) to those of Mughisu-d-Din Yuzbak himself, minted at Lakhnauti in Ramazan. 653 A.H., and the occurrence in the find of a coin of the previous insurgent Governor Ghivāsu-d-Dīn 'Iwaz Ibnu-l-Husain dated the 2nd Jumāda, 621 Å.H., suggests that Tughril Khān's disastrous expedition into Kamrup may have been prompted by his predecessor's excursion up the Brahmaputra in 624 A.H. (=1226 A.D.), when he is said to have advanced as far as Sükāphā, the first Āhōm King in the Assam Valley, had crossed the Patkoi Range just two years before Ghiyāsu-d-Dīn 'Iwaz's invasion, and Tughril Khān's expedition was exactly contemporary with the founding of Charaideo. the first capital of the Ahom Kings. At some unknown date prior to the invasion of the Ahoms, the old Hindu kingdom of Kamrup had been overwhelmed by an invasion of a race of Tibeto-Burmans, known as Bodos, who finally established a capital on their western frontier at Kāmatāpur, not far from

the present Kuch Bihār. The ruling section of the tribe in the west called themselves Khens, while those who settled in the Brahmaputra Valley proper from Tezpur to west of Gauhati were known as Kachārîs (lowlanders). In the extreme east of the valley, the country round Sadiya, which still retained the old Hindu name of Vidarbha, was in possession of another tribe of the same stock called Chutiyas who appear to have descended from the Hills at a later date than the original Bodos. In addition to these, the Ahoms found in Darrang and Nowgong a confederation of petty chieftains known as the Bara Bhuiyas, who seem in the first instance to have been established by the King of Kāmatāpur as "Wardens of the Marches" to hold back the Chutivas (Gait, op. cit., p. 38), but who afterwards warred indiscriminately on Kachārīs and Chutivās alike. On the whole it is probable that the "Rāī of Kāmrūd" who defeated Mughigud-Dîn was a Kachārī Rājā of Prāgjyōtishpur (Gauhati); but at the same time it has to be recollected that the story of the origin of the Bāra Bhuiyas indicates that the King of Kāmatāpur was either actual ruler or suzerain of the Brahmaputra Valley up to the Chutiyā frontier—a fact moreover which explains why the Ahoms came into conflict with the rulers of Kamatapur so soon after their arrival from Upper Burmah.

After 1257 A.D., according to Gunabhiram Barua, the Musalman invasions of the Brahmaputra Valley ceased until the time of the "Great Vizier" in 1527 A.D. (vide previous paper, p. 161), but the existence of the coin of Sikandar Shāh dated Chāwalistān 'urf 'Arsah Kāmrū, 759 A.H. (1357 A.D.: cf. Indian Museum Catalogue - Bengal coins-No. 38), as well as the discovery in 1892 in Kamrūp proper of 30 coins of various 14th century Bengal Kings (Journ, Asiatic Soc. Bengal, Proc., April 1893, pp. 90 and 91) seem to indicate that Muhammadan influence continued to be exercised over some portions of the old kingdom of Kamrup even to the end of the 14th century. The reported expedition of the Emperor Muhammad Ibn Tughlug of Dilhi into "Assam" about 1337 A.D. may also be recalled in this connexion (Blochmann, Koch Bihar and Asam, Journ. Asiatic Soc. Bengal, 1872, p. 79, quoting from the 'Alamgirnāmah), and a recent find has proved that Muhammad Ibn Tughluq's coins minted at Sunārgānw in 733 and 734 A.H. (1333 A.D.) after the death of Ghiyasu-d-Din Bahadur were current in what is now western Mymensingh. Mr Gait suggests on page 61 of his *History* that the portion of Mymensingh east and north of the old Brahmaputra was only incorporated in Kamrup at the time of Da'ud's defeat by Akbar's soldiers in 1575 A.D., but geographical considerations alone would lead us to believe that it always formed a part of Kāmrūp. That this was actually the case is proved by the statement of the Yōgini

¹ Assam Buranji, p. 73, Calcutta 1897 edition.

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Tantra (quoted on pp. 51 and 52 of Mr. Gait's Report on Historical Research) that the southernmost point of Kāmrūp was the confluence of the Brahmaputra and Lākhyā rivers, i.e., Egāro Sindhu, the spot where 'Isā Khān afterwards erected a fort and where his final struggle with Mān Singh took place (cf. Journ. Asiatic Soc. Bengal, 1909, p. 372). Raids from the west and south banks, across the Brahmaputra, would easily account for the occurrence of such a coin as Sikandar Shāh's, without any invasion of the country north of the Garo or Khasia Hills being implied, while it is also probable from the fact that a large portion of south-eastern Mymensingh is called after Ḥusain Shāh, that this was the ''Kāmrū'' Ḥusain Shāh boasts on his coins to have conquered.

COINS IN AHOM SCRIPT.

In the first paper of this series it was shown how the Assam coinage was modelled on coins issued by the sons of Husain Shāh of Bengal—either Nasrat Shāh or more probably Ghiyāşud-Din Mahmud. The first Ahom monarch to issue coins was Süklenmün, whose coins all date from the 15th year of the 17th taosinā, or cycle of 60 years current among the Ahoms, equivalent to 1543 A.D., and the cause of the introduction of a metallic coinage in place of the cowries previously in use was undoubtedly the fact that, through the exertions of Süklenmün's father Sühunmün (whose reign began in 1497), the Ahom power, from a petty state, had suddenly expanded into a provincial kingdom roughly co-terminous with that of the ancient Hindu Kings of Kamrup. In 1523, the Chutiyas had been finally crushed and their country annexed; in 1536, the Kachāris were similarly treated; while between these dates, as has already been detailed in the previous paper, two invasions by the Muhammadan rulers of Eastern Bengal were successfully met and the authority of the Ahom King exercised as far as the Karatoya river, i.e., over most of the territory that 40 years before had comprised the Kingdom of Kāmatāpur. It is true that this boundary was not long maintained, but henceforward, with only a brief interval when the Koch dominions served as

¹ The Bāra Bhuiyas of Eastern Bengal, of whom 'Isā Khān was the chief, were obviously a local imitation, proximate or remote, of the Bāra Bhuiyas of Assam previously referred to. Another set of Bāra Bhuiyas are also mentioned among the Kochs (Gait, Hist., p. 46), and as 'Isā Khān made himself lord of Eastern Mymensingh by conquering the Kochs who then held it, it is possible that he was the first to introduce the nomenclature into Eastern Bengal. From the circumstances of the time the Bāra Bhuiyas of Bengal soon disappeared, but if an inference may be drawn from the Bengali proverb "বার হাতের হাল ভাল হয় বা" the system, during its short existence, did not specially commend itself to the people over whom 'Isā Khān and his fellow Bhuiyas ruled.

a buffer state, the western and southern border line of Assam formed the North-Eastern frontier of Muhammadan India. The first coin minted in Assam raises a question as to the accuracy of the Buranjis. The striking of new coinage was, in later years, the invariable accompaniment of installation, and except in the case of Gadadhara's coins no evidence exists to show that coins in Ahom script were ever struck, except to mark this occasion. Either therefore the Buraniis are wrong in stating that Sühunmün was assassinated in 1539, or his son does not appear to have been formally installed on the Singarighar at Charaideo until four years later. It is of course possible that Süklenmün did not begin to strike coins until after he had been on the throne for some time, but if this was done in the first instance, it is not clear why the system of an annual coinage was limited to the coins in Bengali script that began to be issued at a much later date.

The numismatic record for the period between Süklenmün's coronation and Gadādhara's accession in 1681 is very incomplete, but besides the Āhōm coins a system of annual coinage was introduced at some date prior to 1648. This will be dealt with in the next section. The only fairly large collection of Āhōm coins is that belonging to the British Museum, and the few other coins that exist are probably all duplicates of those at London. Āhōm coins of the following Kings are known:—

- 1. Süklenmün, 15th year of 17th $taosin\bar{a} = 1543$ A.D.
- 2. Süñâtphā (Udayāditya), 21st year of 19th $taos\bar{i}n\bar{a}=$ 1669.

3. Sühun, 27th year = 1675.

4. Süpātphā (Gadādhara), 33rd year = 1681. The comparatively large number of varieties of Süpātphā's coins, differing in the presence or absence, and position, of the ornamental Simha, the bird, and the "rising sun," rather point to the issue of fresh coins at intervals throughout his reign with the main inscription and date unaltered.

5. Pramatta Simha (Süneñphā), 36th year of 20th

 $taosin\bar{a}=1744.$

6 Rājeśvara (Süremphā), 43rd year = 1751.

All Ahom coins have practically the same inscription.

Sü-fiât-phā-'The handsome tiger of heaven (phā).'

Sü-hun- 'The great tiger.'

¹ Gait, op. cit., p. 232; vide also Marsden, Numismata Orientalia, p. 797, for an account of the minting of coins at the installation of Rājā Rām Ganga Māṇikya of Tippera in 1821.

² The meanings of the $\bar{\Lambda}$ hōm names of these Kings are as follows:— Süklenmün-Sü, tiger; k(l)en, splendid; $m\ddot{u}n$, country—'The splendid tiger of the country.'

Sü-pāt phā—' The club(-like) tiger of heaven.' Sü nen-phā—' The brave tiger of heaven.'

Sü rem-phā-'The tiger from the border (rem) of heaven.'

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Obverse.

Chao, the God, [King's name], Pin, became, $Kh\ddot{u}\dot{n}$, King, $L\bar{a}kn\bar{i}$, in the year, [year of cycle].¹

Reverse.

Kao, I, Boi, prayer, [Deity's name, generally with prefixed appellation, $Ph\bar{a}$, heavenly], $H\bar{e}$ -u, offer, $Ch\bar{u}$, in the name.

Only three deities are mentioned on Ahom coins-

- 1. On those of Süklenmün. TĀRĀ (tā, eye; rā, evil) the Evil-eyed One, that is to say, not the gentle Buddhist goddess, Tārā, but a Shān goddess who was first incorporated into Hinduism as the Tantric Tārā, the War-Goddess, and then transformed as an amśa of Durgā into Kāmākhya, the Goddess of Desire. According to the Yōginī Tantra (Report, p. 52) this goddess was worshipped at Nīlāchala Hill near Gauhati from the time of Naraka, the legendary hero of Assam, who is said to have been born of the Earth by Vishnu in the form of a pig (the third incarnation), and who was the father of King Bhagadatta whose deeds are recounted in the Mahābharata..
 - 2. Süñâtphā and Sühun $\stackrel{\cdot}{\cdot}$ $\begin{array}{c} \text{PH$\bar{\text{A}}$-T\bar{\text{U}}$-$CHI$\dot{\text{N}}$,} & \text{literally,} & \text{the} \\ \text{highest being of heaven '}, i.e., & \text{The} \\ \text{Supreme God.} \end{array}$

In the case of Süñâtphā's coin the additional suffix $Ph(r)\hat{a}\hat{n}\ hum$, 'the most glorious', also appears. This Shān god was identified with either Siva or Vishnu, according as the Hindu priest happened to be a Sākta or Vaisnava.

3. Gadādhara, Pramatta, and Rāješvara

Lendân literally means "the Sole (lord of) Thunder", and hence was identified with Indra by the Brahmins attached to the Āhōm court.

It is obvious from the small number of known Āhōm coins that much work still remains to be done when a fortunate find will place us in possession of more of these interesting coins. In the meantime, to facilitate subsequent work by numismatists, I have embodied the results of a careful study of the casts

l In Süklenmün's coins $Ph\bar{a}$ (heavenly) is inserted as an additional appellation before the King's name, and Chao (God or King) takes the place of $Kh\bar{u}n$. The third line of the obverse of Süñâtphā's coin reads Chao Chāṃ $P\bar{i}$, $P\bar{i}$ being another $\bar{A}h\bar{o}m$ word for 'year' and Chāṃ a copula which may be translated by 'and this was'. There are two misprints in Mr. Allan's transcription of this line.

 $^{^{2}}$ For a full account of the Ahom theology, pp. 68—71 of Mr. Gait's *History* may be consulted.

of the 28 Āhōm coins in the British Museum in Plate XXV, which was drawn up with the assistance of Srījut Golāp Chandra Barua, the translator of the Assam Buranjis. Mr. Allan informs me that the unique gold muhur reproduced at the bottom of the plate was bought from a London dealer in 1882. Of the remaining coins, 19 were bought in 1878 from Dr. Foster—presumably the resident of Nazira near Garhgānw, or some relation of his, who is referred to in the notes of Dr. Blochmann's paper on Kuch Bihār and Assam, to which reference has already been made. The gold coin of Süklenmün came from the India Office Collection. One of the gold coins of Süñâtphā was bequeathed by Sir C. W. Trevelyan in 1878, while the silver coin of Süneñphā (Pramatta) was given to the Museum in 1818 by Miss Banks.

In addition to the 8 Āhōm coins in the Indian Museum Collection described by Mr. Vincent Smith (Indian Museum Catalogue, I, p. 298), Mr. Botham also possesses 8 coins—a muhur and rupee of Süklenmün; 5 rupees of Gadhādhara (Süpātphā), 4 of which are duplicates of those in the Indian Museum; and the fairly common rupee of Pramatta. A few other specimens of Āhōm coins are also found in the local Cabinets already mentioned.

Assamese Coins in Bengali Script prior to the time of Rudha Simha.

Only three such coins are known. Two of them belong to Süsenphā (more commonly referred to as Pratāpa Simha from his successful warfare against the Muhammadans), and the third to Chakradhvaja or Süpunmün. The former differ markedly from all coins in Ahom character in being minted in a year far removed from the date of the King's installation; in fact they were struck shortly before Süsenphä's death, after a long reign of at least 43 years. The inscriptions, which will be found on pp. 313 and 314 of Mr. Allan's paper, appear to afford evidence of greater progress of Vaishnavism in Assam than would be gathered from the Buranjis. The invocations to Hari Hara and Hari Harendra (Vishnu and Siva) on the reverse of the coins are in marked contrast to the coin legends of most of the subsequent kings of Assam in which veneration for Hara Gauri (Siva and Durgā) is usually expressed, and were it not that the title had already been used by Sühunmün, we might even be justified in concluding from the fact that Süsenphā styles himself simply "Surga Nārāyan Deva" (Vishnu) instead of giving his actual name, that he became a Vaishnava shortly before his death. The Buraniis record on the other hand that he encouraged the worship of Siva and persecuted the Mahā-

l Süsenphā means 'The beautiful tiger of heaven ' and Süpunmün 'The tiger of the open country.'

purushiās (a sect of Vaishnavas), but Mr. Gait notes that once in a fit of anger at the death of his son he also persecuted the Brahmins. As Messrs. Vincent Smith and Allan point out, the date of Pratāpa Simha's coins, 1570 Sāka (=1648 A.D.) is decisive in establishing that for some unknown reason the Buranii dates for the first half of the 17th century cannot be always trusted. The Assamese historian Kāśīnātha was almost certainly right in maintaining that Pratapa Simha died in 1649 A.D. (and not in 1641), but on the other hand the Buraniis are probably correct in stating that Süsenphā came to the throne in 1603, as from the Jaintia Buranji we learn that he married his daughter to Dhan Manik, Raja of Jaintia, in 1528 Sāka (=1606 A.D.). How long the two Kings, nicknamed Bhaga Rājā and Nariyā Rājā, who in turn successively followed Pratapa Simha, reigned, and when Jayadhvaja came to the throne, cannot, in the absence of inscriptions, be determined with any certainty. If, however, as seems probable, Mr. Gait is correct in his reading of the inscription on Jayadhvaja's cannon found at False Point (Report, pp. 10 and 29), Jayadhvaja was on the throne in 1658, and there is no difficulty in agreeing with Kāśīnātha in assigning his installation to the year 1654, the two previous Kings being allotted reigns of 3 and 2 years respectively. As the coin of the next King, Chakradhvaja, shows. Javadhvaja must have died soon after the withdrawal of Mīr Jumlā's troops from Assam in 1663. Cannon inscriptions bearing Chakradhvaja's name and dates 1589 and 1590 Saka (=1667 and 1668 A.D.) are known (Report, p 29) and as his successor, Süñâtphā (Udayāditya), struck Āhōm coins in 1669 A.D., the duration of Chakradhvaja's reign could not have exceeded 6 years. A cannon at Gauhati, cast in Udayāditya's reign, is dated 1594 $S\bar{a}ka$ (=1672 A.D.), and, according to the Buraniis, he was poisoned in 1673 by Ramadhyaia who succeeded to the throne. No coins of Rāmadhvaja are known, but there is an Ahōm coin of his successor Sühun, bearing a date equivalent to 1675.

The coin of Chakradhvaja dated 1585 Sāka, which was evidently minted in the year of his installation, exhibits, like those of Pratāpa Simha, Vaishnava influence both in the King's name and the invocation on the obverse to Sīva and Rāma (Sīva and Vishnu). This coin will be found reproduced as Fig. 14 of Plate XXIII, Contributions I, as well as in Plate XXIII of Mr. Allan's paper. The absence of coins of Jayadhvaja Simha, who was King of Assam when Mīr Jumlā invaded the country, is probably due to the seizure of his Garhgānw Treasury by the Muhammadans and the necessity of paying a monetary indemnity (nominally Rs. 3,00,000) besides a dowry of 2,000 gold muhurs and 12,000 silver coins for the Assamese girl who

married Prince Muhammad 'Azam in 1668 (Report, p. 17; and Blochmann, Koch Bihar and Asam, Journ. Asiatic Soc. of Bengal 1872, p. 98). The Fathiyah-i-'Ibriyah states that when Garhgānw was entered by Mir Jumlā in March 1662 A.D. nearly 3 lakhs of rupees in gold and silver were discovered in the Treasury. In the absence of coins, or definite statements in the Buranjis, little can be said regarding the progress of Vaishnavism in Javadhvaja's reign, but the statement of the Fathiyah-i-'Ibriyah is interesting as throwing some light on the current religion of Assam. "He (the King) professes to be a Hindu, but as he believes himself to be one of the great emanations of the Deity, he worships no idols. The inhabitants (of Assam) profess no religion whatever." (Blochmann, op. cit., p. 80.) In other words we gather that Hinduism in either of its forms had made little headway and that the Assamese as a nation were still Animists. Javadhvaja had, however, as spiritual guide, a Brahmin who lived at Diwalganw (idem, p. 74), and the title Svarga Nārāyan is not found on his cannon, so that he was perhaps a Saivite. Subsequently this title reappears on the cannon of Chakradhvaja, Udavāditva and Gadādhara (Report, p. 29). In the last-named case the cannon was one of those captured from the Muhammadans in 1682, i.e., the year following the King's accession, and hence probably before the persecution of the Vaishnavas recommenced. Mr. Gait records gifts to Vaishnava shrines even as late as 1685 and 1686 $(id\epsilon m, pp. 6 \text{ and } 13).$

In addition to Assamese coins of Jayadhvaja's time, we may also anticipate the discovery of Muhammadan coins of 1072 and 1073 A.H., minted at Garhgānw. Khāfī Khān states that Mīr Jumlā forbade the circulation of "Nārāyaṇī" rupees in Assam, as he had minted money with Aurangzīb's name on it, and the minting of rupees and pice is also mentioned by the author of the Fathiyah-i-'Ibriyah (Blochmann, idem, pp. 99 and

85).

THE COINS OF ASSAM FROM THE ACCESSION OF RUDRA SINHA TO THE CLOSE OF ASSAMESE RULE.

From the death of Udayāditya in 1673 to the accession of Süpātphā or Gadādhara Simha in 1681, chaos reigned in Assam, and in the short period of 8 years there were no less than 6 Kings on the throne. None of their coins in Bengali script are known, nor indeed, with the exception of Sühun's coin, any in Ahōm characters either; and when a strong King in the person of Gadādhara Simha established himself on the throne, he does not appear to have minted any but Āhōm coins. It was only with the accession of his son, Rudra Simha, in 1696 A.D. ($S\bar{a}ka$ 1618) that annual coinage in Bengali script began, and henceforward, with very few exceptions, the type of the coin-

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age remained unaltered until the break-up of Assamese rule. To enable the relation of Rudra Simha to the remaining Sovereigns of Assam to be clearly understood, the pedigree on the following page, which is compiled chiefly from Mr. Gait's History, may be found useful. The dates (usually quoted in the Saka era to facilitate reference to the coins struck by these Kings) are based upon a comparison of all available coin dates with the duration of each King's reign, as given by Mr. Gait.

From the year of Rudra Simha's installation. Assamese coins began to be produced of a standard that few subsequent issues could even be said to rival. The explanation of this probably lies in the fact that his father Gadadhara Simha (and presumably also himself), during the troublous years before the former's accession to the throne, had taken refuge in Muhammadan territory and both of them subsequently introduced artisans from Kuch Bihār and Bengal to improve the standard of civilisation in Assam. Amongst the workmen introduced by Rudra Simha must have been die-cutters and mechanics from some Muhammadan mint, as it is impossible to believe that the coins that were issued throughout his reign were the unaided work of indigenous craftsmen. In addition to ordinary rupees, muhurs with the same inscription were struck. and there was also an issue of half and quarter rupees. inscriptions of the three varieties of coins are as follows:-

Rupees.

Obverse.

(1) Srī Srī mat

- (2) Svarga deva Rudra
- (3) Simhasya Sā

(4) ke (Date)

'Simha' facing Right.

" (Coin) of His Heavenly Majesty, Rudra Simha of surpassing beauty, (struck) in Sāka (date)"

Reverse.

- (1) Srī Srī Ha (2) ra Gaurī pa-
- (3) d āmbuja madhu
- (4) karasya
- "A bee on the lotus feet of Hara and Gauri ''

Half Rupees.

- (1) Srī Srī
- (2) Rudra Si
- (3) mhasya
- " (Coin) of Rudra Simha "
- (1) Srī Srī
- (2) Siva pada
- (3) parasya
- "Devoted to the feet of Siva"

Quarter Rupees.

(1) Srī Srī

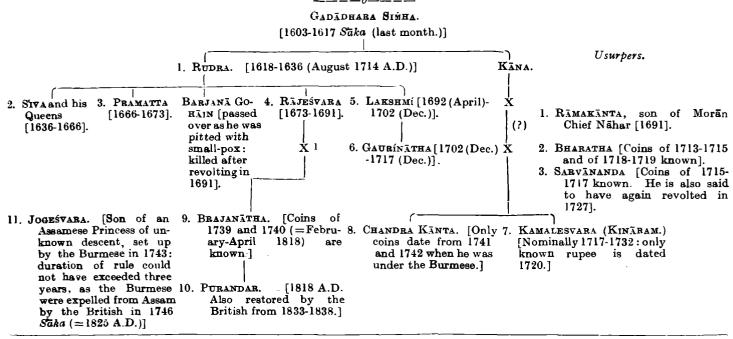
(1) $S'\bar{a}ke$

(2) Rudra Simha

(3) Nripasya

- (2) (Date)
- "(Coin) of King Rudra Simha" "(Struck) in Saka (date)"

THE RULERS OF ASSAM FROM GADADHARA SIMHA TO THE PERMANENT ADVENT OF THE BRITISH.



¹ Mr. Gait in his *History* states that Brajanātha was the great-grandson of Rājeśvara, while Prinsep in his *Useful Tubles* declares Purandar to have been Rājeśvara's great-grandson. The latter appears more probable from consideration of the dates.

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The only available specimens of a quarter-rupee are two of the year 1619, 1 but one other specimen passed through Mr. Gait's hands and is recorded by him to be dated 1616 (Report, p. 3). The coin could not be found when enquiries were recently made for it, and as no other coin of the same date is known, the reading was in all probability a mistaken one for 1618. If the Bengali symbol for 8 is viewed from a different angle, it can be easily taken for the Bengali 6, and the mistake probably occurred from the character being written with a slight inclination from

the vertical, thus 6 8. Mr. Gait states on p. 163 of his History that Gadādhara died in February 1696 A.D., while the Sāka year 1618 began on March 25th of that year. There is, therefore, no reason for thinking that Rudra Simha was installed in any other year except that found on the earliest rupee, viz., 1618.

Undated half-rupees are fairly common, while rupees of every year of Rudra Simha's reign exist. Only single specimens, however, of rupees minted in the years 1619, 1628 and 1629 are known, and, as may be seen from the following cut, the 1619 coin is peculiar in recording an old name of the early Ahōm kingdom and in having an inscription differing to some extent from the ordinary inscription on Assamese coins.





Silver Rupee,-Weight 172.3 grains. Size-97".

Obverse.

- (1) Sri Srimat
- (2) Saumāreśvara (e)
- (3) d()va Rudra Simha
- (4) sya Sāke 1619
 - ('Simha' chasing a deer)

Reverse.

- (1) Srī Srī Hara
- (2) Gaurī padaju-
- (3) gala kamala
- (4) madhukar

^{1 [}B. M.] and [B].

² Cunningham, Indian Eras, p. 193.

³ For reproduction of one belonging to the Daflating find, vide Plate XXVI. Fig. 1.

^{4 [}B], [H. E. S.] and [B] respectively.

"(Coin) of His Majesty (deva) "A Rudra Simha of surpassing beauty, Lord of Saumāra, (struck) in S'āka 1619"

"A bee on the lotus of the twin feet of Hara and Gauri"

Saumāra 1 was the former name for the country round Sibsāgar, and the title of Saumāreswara is found in the inscriptions on cannon belonging to Rudra Simha's father, Gadādhara, as well as on one cast in 1594 Sāka during the reign of Udayāditva.²

An explanation of the dearth of coins of 1628 and 1629 is found in the fact recorded in the Buranjis, that an expedition against the Kachāris started in December, 1706 A.D. Rudra Simha left Rangpur for Rahā on the Kalang, south-west of Nowgong, where he remained until, apparently, February, 1708, when the captured Kacharī and Jaintia Kings were brought before him and both kingdoms annexed. An interesting fact recorded by Mr. Gait in connexion with this campaign 3 is that the booty included 12,000 pieces of silver minted by Muhammadan, Ahom, Koch and Jaintia Kings. The absence of any mention of Kachārī coins seems to show that until at least the beginning of the 18th century A.D. the Kachārī Kings did not mint coins of their own. The only specimen of Rudra Simha's gold coinage appears to be the muhur in Mr. Botham's Cabinet, dated 1620. This differs from the rupees in having the dra of Rudra at the beginning of the third line of the obverse, while the 'Simha' faces left instead of right as in the rupees. A reproduction of this coin will be found as Fig. I, Plate XXVII.

No Āhōm coins of Rudra Simha under his Āhōm name Sükh(r)ânphā, 'the terrible tiger of Heaven,' have yet come to light.

SIVA SIMHA.

The coins of Siva Simha, Rudra Simha's eldest son, constitute the most interesting series of Assamese coins, owing to the fact that he permitted the names of his various wives to appear on the coinage. The succession of coins issued during Siva Simha's reign will be understood from the following Table, which gives the dates of all known rupees. Rupees either of Siva Simha alone, or jointly with one of his wives, exist for every

¹ The old kingdom of Kāmrūp is said in the Yōginī Tantra to have been divided into a number of Pithas, or sacred divisions, each dedicated to Siva and Bhagavati (Durgā). Saumāra, which was one of the more recent additions to these (perhaps dating from Āhōm times), signifies the country of "Him who holds the Moon (on his forehead)," i.e., Siva.

² (lait, Report, Appendix I, p. 29. ⁸ History, p. 173.

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year. Where letters indicating some Cabinet occur in the Table after a date, only a single specimen of the coin mentioned is known.

Siva Simha alone.	Siva Simha and Phulesvarī.	Siva Simha and Prama- thesvari.	S'iva Simha and Ambikā.	Siva Simha and Sarveśvarī.
1637				
638				
1639		1	[
1640 [B] 1641				
642			t l	
1643				
1644	!			
645	1040			
646	1646		• • •	• •
• •	1647 1648	• •		• •
• •	1649	1649 (and 1-Re.	•	••
	1010	with 4 on		
		reverse)	!	
650 (referred	1650 (Muhur	1650	• • •	• •
to by Mr.	in posses-			
Allan : Cabinet	sion of Muhammad			
not men-	Hazari of			
tioned)	English			
,	Bazar,			
	Maldah)			
• •	••	1651 (both		• •
		ordinary;		
		and square Re. in Per-	:	
:		sian script	: !	
	•	minted at	1	
		Garhgānw	İ	
		R.Y. 15)		
••	• •	1652 1653		• •
654 & R.Y.18	• •	1093	1654 &R.Y 19	• •
.,			1655 ,, ,, 19	• •
.,				
••		••	1656 ,, ,, 20	
• •	• •		1656 ,, ,, 21	• •
••	• •	••	1657 ,, ,, 21	• •
• •	• •	••	1658 ,, ,, 22	• •
		::	1658 ,, ,, 23	••
				• •
••			1659 ,, ,, 24	
		,	[B; and 1-Re.	• •
16 59 R.Y . 24.		!	B.M.C.]	

Siva Simha alone.	Siva Simha and Phulesvarī.	Sîva Simha and Prama- thesvarī.	Siva Simha and Ambikā.	Siva Simha and Sarvesvari.
••	••	••	• •	
1660 & R.Y.25.	• •	• •		
[B.M.C.]	••	••	• •	1661&R.Y.25
••		• •		1661 ,, ,, 26
	• •			
	••	• •	• •	1662,, ,, 27 [B]
••	• •	••	••	1663 ,, ,, 27
••	• •	• •	• •	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
••	••	• •	••	
• •	• •		• •	1664,.,, 29
	••	• •	• •	1665 ,. ,. 29
• •	• •	• •	• •	1665 ,, ., 30
	• •	••		1665 ,, ,, 30
• •	••	••		1666 ,, ,, 31

[Pramatta Simha's Āhōm coins are dated the 36th year of cycle= Sāka 1666; but his ordinary coins start with 1667.]

From this Table the following deductions can be made:-

(a) Although no coin of 1636 is known, the regnal years on the later coins of Siva Simha indicate that he dated his accession from 1636. Mr. Gait also states that Rudra Simha died in August 1714 A.D., whereas the $S\bar{a}ka$ year 1637 did not commence till March 25th, 1715. We may, therefore, expect that Ahom coins of Siva Simha in his Ahom name of Sütanpha, 'the peerless tiger of Heaven,' will ultimately be discovered, with date corresponding to $S\bar{a}ka$ 1636.

(b) Mr. Gait, on the authority of the Buranjis, states that in consequence of a prediction of the astrologers in 1722 A.D. that his rule would soon come to an end, Siva Simha "declared his chief queen Phuleśvari, who was also known as Pramatheśvari, to be Bar Rājā, Chief King...and caused coins to be struck

jointly in her name and his."

The reason assigned cannot be regarded as altogether satisfactory for, as Messrs. Vincent Smith and Allan point out, Siva Simha coined in his own name subsequent to 1722. The impression derived from a study of the coins is that Siva Simha's action in permitting Phuleśvarī to mint coins in 1646 Sāka was chiefly due to pressure brought to bear on him by a strong-minded woman. A half-coin of Siva Simha and Pramatheśvarī is in the possession of Mr. Botham (vide Fig. 2, Plate XXVII) in which the inscription on the obverse ends with a distinct 4. This appears to indicate that in 1649 Pramatheśvarī was asserting her right to place her own regnal year on the coins. The next year Siva Simha is again found minting in his own name.

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The only explanation seems to be that a quarrel had taken place between husband and wife in consequence of the previous year's incident and that Siva Simha, to assert his marital authority, had reverted to coinage in his own name. In the following year, 1651, a compromise seems to have been arrived at, for from this year date the square coins in Persian script minted at Garhganw, in which the regnal year of the King (15) duly appears, but the coins have the curious legend Ba hukm Begam Pramathesvari Shāh, i.e., they were struck in the name of Siva Simha but "by order of Queen Pramathesvari." next and following year, however, the coins again appear in the name of Pramathesvari "Chief queen (mahishi) of King Siva Simha'' and the regnal year is omitted. The non-existence of coins of Siva Simha and Pramathesvarī after 1653 confirm the statements of the Buranjis that she died in that year. Buraniis then narrate that the King married Phulesvari's sister Deopadī and made her Bar Rājā, with the name Ambikā. Before, however, Ambikā was installed, Sivā Simha again issued coins in his own name—this time with the addition of the regnal year-and regnal years continued to appear on the coins until the end of Siva Simha's reign. Ambika's coins end in 1659 -R.Y. 24 (=1737 A.D.), so that this date, and not 1663, must be taken as the date of Ambika's death. Coins of Siva Simha in his own name again re-appear for about a year, but in 1661 (R.Y. 25) he married Enādarī ('Nobody's darling'), who was re-named Sarveśvari, and she appears to have survived him. Ambikā and Sarveśvarī on their coins simply style themselves "the much beloved (udvallabha) of King Siva Simha."

(c) In the absence of the Buranjis, the conclusion might reasonably have been drawn that Phulesvari and Pramathesvari were different people, and it is evident from the coins that Phulesvarī did not cease altogether to use her old name until at least two years after she adopted the name Pramathesvari. On the other hand the further story of the Buranjis that the lady was a fanatical advocate of Sakta Hinduism and forcibly converted several Gosains to Saktism, is supported by the change in name. Phuleśvarī is another name for Ratī, the wife of Kāma, the Hindu Cupid, while Pramathesvarī is a synonym of Durgā. A devotee of the goddess Durgā who happened to be married to a King called Siva who arrogated to himself the title of God (Svarga deva), would naturally be inclined to change her name to one of the names of Durga. Her example in this respect was followed by her successors, whose names on their coins are also synonyms of Durgā. A reproduction of Phulesvari's rupees of 1649 will be found as Fig. 2, Plate XXVI of this paper, and the obverse of a rupee of the same year with legend

¹ Vide Indian Museum Catalogue, I, p. 301; and Allan, Num. Chron., Ser. IV, Vol. IX. Plate XXIV, Fig. 1.

Siva Simha and Pramathesvarī is given by Mr. Allan as Fig. 15. Plate XXIII, of his paper. On Plate XXVI will also be found a reproduction of a half-coin of Sarvesvari, dated R.Y. 29. Of Mr. Botham's coins the following, reproduced on Plate XXVII, may be referred to. The curious quarter-coin with apparently regnal year 4 on the reverse struck in the name of Pramathesvari as consort of Siva Simha; the rupee of Siva Simha alone dated 1654 and R.Y. 18; a half rupee of Ambikā dated R.Y. 19 (the latter may be compared with the similar coin of her successor. from the Daflating find already referred to); and the last rupee of Siva Simha's reign, dated 1666 and R.Y. 31, that was issued by Sarvesvari. It may also be noted in connexion with Siva Simha's coins that he began by following his father in using the old form of শ, 'গ,' on his coins. The more modern form as already employed on the coins of Pratapa and Chakradhvaja re-appeared, however, as soon as Phulesvari began to strike coins, and thenceforward the old form is no longer found. The square coin of 1651 seems to have been modelled on the coins of Manipur, as Prinsep (Useful Tables, p. 274) mentions square coins of the Manipur King Charairongba, dating apparently from 1634 S'āka.

The fullest account of the coinage of Siva Simha and his Queens will be found in Mr. Allan's paper. In addition to the usual coins, quarter-muhurs are also found. The inscriptions follow in the main those of Rudra Simha, but in the Queens' coins, owing to the necessity of referring to two people, the phraseology is somewhat different. The quarter-coins of the Queens are either undated or give only the current regnal year of the King.

PRAMATTA SIMHA.

The coinage of this King needs no special reference. His Sanskrit coinage starts with rupees of 1667, of which the reverse reads Srī Srī Hara Gaurī charaṇa kamala madhukarasya. This means the same as the inscription on the older coins. From the coin in Āhōm script already referred to, he appears, however, to have been installed immediately after Siva Simha's death in 1666. Half-muluurs occur for the first time, but there is no reason to suppose that they were not also minted by his immediate predecessor. The muluur of 1669 in Mr. Botham's Cabinet is struck from the same die as the rupees of that year. Pramatta's last coins are dated 1673.

RAJESVARA SIMHA.

The coinage of this King is interesting for the variety that it displays. At his accession in 1673 he struck money in Ahôm

¹ Cf. Fig. 10, Sīva Simha's rupee dated 1644, with Fig. 14—Phuleśvari's rupee dated 1646—Plate XXIII of Mr. Allan's paper, Num. Chron.,

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script, as is shown by the unique gold muhur reproduced in Plate XXV. This was followed up in the next year by a square rupee in Persian characters minted at Rangpur, in addition to ordinary coins. In 1675 came an octagonal rupee in Nagri script with an invocation to Mahesvari (Durga) on the obverse. From 1678 dates the square quarter-muhur in the Cabinet of Mr. Botham, which marks a new departure in coins with Assamese script, and, in the same collector's Cabinet is also found an eighth-muhur which seems to be dated on the obverse either R.Y. 4 or R.Y. 7. Rājeśvara's zeal for new types of coinage was not even vet satisfied, as in 1785 we find him issuing from Rangpur an octagonal rupee in Persian script, the inscription being identical, save as regards date, with the square rupee of Another peculiarity of the reign is the appearance of a sixteenth of a muhur and a sixtieth of a rupee, both undated, with Srī Rājeśvara on the obverse and Simha Nripasya on the reverse. The last known coin of Rajesvara is dated 1690, but Mr. Gait (History, p. 182) reports an expedition against the Jaintias which seems to have happened in the following year just before Rājeśvara's death.

[Rāma Kānta—usurper.]

LAKSHMĪ SIMHA.

On the death of Rajesvara disputes arose as to the succession, one party being in favour of Rajesvara's eldest son, and another supporting the claims of Lakshmi Simha, the last of the sons of Rudra Simha. Doubts were cast on the legitimacy of the latter, and although he was selected, an insult offered by his minister, the Bar Barua, to the Moāmariā (Vaishnava) Gosāin caused an immediate insurrection. Lakshmi was captured and imprisoned, and, according to the Buranjis, a usurper called Rāma Kānta was placed on the throne. This man is said to have minted coins for some months ($S\bar{a}ka$, 1691), but none of them have vet been recorded. The royalists ultimately succeeded in ejecting the Vaishnavas, and rescuing Lakshmi just as he was about to be executed. Rāgha, the Vaishnava general, was assassinated in the beginning of 1692, and soon after Rāma Kānta and the Moāmariā Gosāin were captured and tortured to death. Simha was then installed as King. In corroboration of this story, we find no coin of Lakshmi Simha of the year 1691, the full coinage commencing in the following year, and it is curious to note that in spite of the savage persecution of the Moamarias

Ser. IV, Vol. IX; vide also this paper, Plate XXVI, Figs. 1 and 2 and Plate XXVII, Figs. 1 and 3.

1 Allan, Plate XXIV, Fig. 11.
2 Vide I.M.C., Plate XXIX, Fig. 6.
3 Vide for the former, Allan, Plate XXIV, Fig. 13.

that followed Rāgha's death, Lakshmī Simha appears to have attempted to conciliate them in the first year of his reign by minting, in addition to the ordinary rupees with Hara Gaurī on the reverse, a rupee with Hari Hara (Vishnu and Sîva), of which a specimen is in the possession of Mr. Botham. In 1692 he also issued a square quarter-muhur in imitation of the quarter-muhurs of his brother Rājeśvara. For the rest of his reign, the coinage is ordinary. The reverse of the rupees has a slightly fuller inscription than those of his predecessors, and reads Srī Srī Hara Gaurī charaṇāravinda makaranda madhukarasya ("A bee on the nectar of the lotus feet of Hara Gaurī "); and Narendra (King) occurs as a synonym of Nripa on the obverse of his halfmuhurs and half-rupees. The last coins known of this King are quarter-rupees minted in the year 1702.

Lakshmī Simha's Āhōm name was Süñĕ-uphā ('the Colossal Tiger of Heaven'), but he does not appear to have struck any Āhōm coins.

GAURĪNĀTHA SIMHA.

The son of Lakshmi Simha ascended the throne after assuming the Āhōm name Sühitpanphā ('the Gladsome Tiger of the Wide Heaven'), but no specimen of his Āhōm coinage has yet come to light. The first known Sanskrit coin dates from the year 1703, but from the regnal years on his later coinage, it is certain that he came to the throne in 1702. Mr. Gait also mentions that Lakshmī Simha died in December, 1702. The following tables show how well the coinage of this period illustrates the history of Gaurīnātha's troubled reign. The dates are those found on rupees, except where otherwise stated.

¹ Vide Plate XXVII, Fig. 10: cf. Plate XXVI, Fig. 4, for the ordinary rupee of that year.

2 Vide Allan, Plate XXIV, Fig. 17.

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Coin dates of Gaurinātha as well as those of Rebels against his authority.

3 [B.M.C.; and Re. B.] 4 [B.M.C.] 5.	1715 (in Mr. Burn's Cabinet).
	Ro. B.] 4 [B.M.C.] 5 3.

Coinage of Gaurinātha in the Daflating find.

Year.	Rupees.	Half-Rupees.	
1703	1	,,	
1705	3	,	
1706	2	4 (R, Y, 5)	
1707	7	14 (B.Y. 6)	
1708	13	10 (R.Y. 7)	
1709	6	9 (R.Y. 8)	
1710	··	9 (R.Y. 9)?	
1716	46	6 (A =Disai)?	
(=1794 A.D.)		1 19	
171 7	1	16 (R.Y. 16)	
R.Y. 1	(3; included	34	
	in 1716)		
Undated		414	
TOTAL	79	516	

The persecution of the Moāmariās that was initiated after an attack on the King in 1704 ultimately led in 1708 to a serious revolt, and the Buranjis state that Gaurīnātha fled from Rangpur, the capital, to Gauhati, leaving the Burhā Gohāin behind at Jorhāt to cope with the rebels. Fighting went on for several years, and in 1713 Bharatha Simha, the leader of the Moāmariās at Rangpur, showed by his action in establishing a mint that he regarded Gaurīnātha as no longer on the throne. It would appear moreover from the great rarity of the coins of the intervening years that Gaurīnātha, practically speaking, issued no coins for the entire period from 1710 to 1716, when he was reinstated at Rangpur by the British.

The minting of coins by Bharatha may also supply another reason, beyond that given by Mr. Gait, for the action of Gaurinātha in appealing to the British in 1714. At the end of 1792 A.D. $(=S\bar{a}ka\ 1714)$ Captain Welsh, who had been deputed with six companies of sepoys to help Gaurinatha, met the King fleeing from Gauhati, which had been raided by some Moamaria Doms, and shortly afterwards Gauhati was re-occupied. Here Captain Welsh remained for more than a year, busy with the pacification of Lower Assam, while in Eastern Assam, as the coins show, Bharatha continued to reign. Sarvananda also appears to have begun to strike coins at this time. In January, 1794 (Sāka 1715), an advance was made against the Moāmariās. Jorhat, where the Burha Gohain had maintained himself ever since Gaurinātha's flight in 1708, was reached in the middle of February and Rangpur entered on the 18th of March. Shortly afterwards a Durbar of re-installation was held. Mr. Gait appears to consider that the Durbar took place in March, but as the coins that were presumably struck on this occasion bear the date 1716 and R.Y. 1, while the Saka year 1716 does not commence until April 1st. 1794 A.D.¹, either the Durbar was held after April 1st, or the coins were slightly post-dated. consequence of imperative orders from the new Governor-General, the British troops three months later were withdrawn from Assam, whereupon the Moamarias again compelled Gaurinatha to forsake Rangpur. Presumably these were the followers of Sarvananda, as, from the disappearance of his coins, Bharatha Simha would seem to have been crushed in Captain Welsh's final operations against the Moāmariās. Mr. Botham has pointed out to me that a corroboration of Gaurinatha's capital having then become Jorhat is found in the A = मि (Di) for Disas, the Assamese name for Jorhat that occurs at the bottom of the Another curious obverse of certain other coins of this year. variety of the coins bearing the date 1716, is one in the possession of Mr. Botham with the Bengali number 44 (68) at the bottom

¹ Cunningham, Indian Eras. p. 196.

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of the reverse. Mr. Botham suggests that this may refer to Gaurinatha's age at the time, and the probability of the suggestion is evident from the following argument derived from the Buranii dates. Lakshmi Simha was the youngest son of Rudra Simha who died in 1636. Hence Lakshmi when he died in 1702 must have been at least 66. He is not likely to have had a son before he was 15 or 16, so that Gaurinātha, his eldest son, was probably not born till 1652. If Gaurinatha happened to have been born in this year, his age in 1716 would have been 64. which is a sufficiently close approximation to 68 for us to assume that Mr. Botham's supposition is correct. It follows from this that Gaurinatha was born in 1648, while the age of Lakshmi Simha (67) at the time of his death would appear to have been understated by Mr. Gait. Gaurinatha evidently ceased to acknowledge his indebtedness to the British as soon as they left the country and the half-coins of the following year clearly bear Rupees of 1717, like the later ones of 1716, have no regnal year number.

With regard to the muhur of 1718, noted by Mr. Allan as being in some other Cabinet than that of the British Museum, it is, indeed, possible that this coin is a posthumous one struck by the Burhā Gohāin while he was arranging for the accession of Kināram (Kamaleśvara); but as Gaurīnātha is stated to have died on December 19th, 1795, while the Sāka year 1718 only began on April 9th, 1796, it is hardly likely that Gaurīnātha's death could have been concealed for nearly 4 months. In this case, therefore, 1716 should probably be read for 1718, just as with the first quarter-rupee of Rudra Sinha there was confusion between 1616 and 1618.

In addition to the coins already catalogued by Messrs. Vincent Smith and Allan with obverse reading Srī Srī Hara Gaurī charaṇāravinda (or kamala) makaranda madhukarasya. Gaurīnātha introduced various changes in the inscription on the reverse of his coins in the year 1706. The chief one is a complete reversion to the inscriptions found on Rudra Simha's rupee.

Obverse.

 (1) Srī Srī mat sva
 (1) Srī Srī Ha

 (2) rga deva Srī Gau
 (2) ra Gaurī pa

 (3) rīnātha Siṁhasya
 (3) d ambuja madhu

 (4) Sāke 1706
 (4) karasya

 (5) 5
 ('Siṁha' facing Right.)

[S. C. and B.]

Reverse.

The Daflating find also placed the Shillong Cabinet in possession of a unique series of half-rupees, many with Regnal

¹ History, p. 188. There is also contradiction between the statement made on this page and that found at the top of p. 184.

Years, and others with marks which are apparently mint marks. These marks include γ , \forall , \bigcirc , \forall , \bigcirc , \downarrow , and Maltese crosses of various sizes, mostly at the bottom of the obverse. Coins of Regnal Years 1 (at bottom of reverse, and also at bottom of both obverse and reverse), 5, 6 (one at bottom of obverse, and the other at bottom of reverse), 7, 8, 9, and 16 occur. A reproduction of a curious half-coin with regnal year 9 at the bottom of the obverse and γ at the bottom of the reverse is given as Fig. 5, of Plate XXVI; and six half-rupees were also found at Daflating with β ('Disai') at the bottom of the obverse, which presumably date from either 1716 or 1717.

One-thirty-second muhurs and ু-rupees also appear for the first time among the coins of Gaurīnātha, and in certain cases Gaurī is misspelt (গৌরি instead of গৌরা). A similar mistake also occurs in the half-rupee of Jogeśvara (vide Plate XXVI, Fig. 13), as well as in that of Lakshmī Simha (ব্যক্ষা instead of ব্যক্ষা).

Coins of Bharatha, Sarvānanda and Kamaleśvara (Kināram).

The coins of the two usurpers, Bharatha Simha at Rangpur and Sarvananda Simha at Bengmara, are characterised by the introduction in both cases, on the reverse, of Krishna instead of Hara Gauri, while Bharatha Simha on the obverse of his coins claims to be of the lineage of Bhagadatta, the famous King of Pragjyotishpur. All of Bharatha Simha's rupees are stated by Mr Allan to bear the same inscription, but in the case of Sarvananda, coins are found with a different one to that given by Mr. Allan on p. 327 of his paper. Specimens of both types are reproduced as Figs. 6 and 7 of Plate XXVI, and it will be seen that the Shillong coin of 1716 differs from the coin of 1717 by reading Nripasya for Narendrasya, while the three last lines of the reverse read (2) charana kamala, (3) makaranda ma, (4) dhukarasya instead of (2) padapadmadvanda, (3) makarandabrinda, (4) madhukarasya. Three different half-rupees of Sarvananda also occurred in the Daflating find and are now in the Shillong Cabinet. They will be found reproduced in Figs. 8, 9 and 10 of Plate XXVI at the end of this paper. The conclusion of the inscription on the obverse reads either Narendrasya or Nripasya, while the three variations in the reverse are Sri Sri Krishna pada parāyanasya, Srī Srī Krishna madhukarasya and Srī Srī Krishna charana madhukarasya.

The coins of Bharatha Simha of 1718 and 1719 prove his identity with the "Bharathi Rājā" mentioned by Mr. Gait as having broken into revolt immediately after the announcement of Gaurīnātha's death, and he appears to have taken the place

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of Sarvānanda as leader of the Moāmariās, as no coins of Sarvānanda are known subsequent to 1717. Bharatha's insurrection probably accounts for the non-existence of any coins of Kamaleśvara, Gaurinatha's successor, before 1720, and the minting of coins in this year raises a question as to whether the date of Bharatha's death (1721) is correctly given by the Marsden (Numismata Orientalia, p. 777) states that Kamalesvara, who is said to have been an illegitimate descendant of Kana, the second son of Gadadhara, was never properly installed, and although he survived until 1732 it is curious that the only coins known that bear his name are those dated 1720. From Mr. Gait's account of his reign there seem to have been constant rebellions, and in 1727 at the invitation of the Moran Moamarias, who had again revolted under Sarvananda Simha, detachments of the Burmese for the first time were brought into the country to fight against the adherents of the Burha Gohain.

CHANDRA KANTA, BRAJANATHA, PURANDAR AND JOGESVARA.

According to the Buraniis, the Burhā Gohāin placed Chandra Kanta, the youthful brother of Kamalesvara, on the throne when the latter died, but none of his coins are known except those of 1741 and 1742. Five years after Chandra Kānta's nominal accession, one Badan Chandra, a Bar Phukan whom the Burhā Gohāin wished to dism ss, fled first to Calcutta and then to Burma, where in 1738 Sāka he induced the Burmese King to send an army against the Burha Gohain, on the pretence that the Burha Gohain had usurped all the authority of the Assam King. The Burmese army of invasion twice defeated the Assamese armies, but left the country in the following year on payment of an indemnity. On their departure, the Assamese ministers quarrelled amongst themselves, and the son of the old Burha Gohain, who had died in the year of the Burmese invasion. proclaimed Brajanatha, a grandson or great-grandson of Rajésvara Simha, to be King, in Sāka 1739 (February 1818). "Brajanatha at once caused coins to be struck in his own name, but it was now remembered that he was ineligible for the throne as he had suffered mutilation, and his son Purandar Simha was, therefore. made King instead of him. Chandra Kanta was seized and his right ear was slit in order to disqualify him from again sitting on the throne" (Gait). Intelligence of these events quickly reached Burma, and on the arrival of a fresh Burmese army, about a year later (February 1819, or the end of 1740 Sākā), Purandar Simha fled to Gauhati and Chandra Kanta was again placed on the throne by the Burmese. He remained a nominal

¹ For reproduction of this coin, vide Plate XXVII, Fig. 11, postea.

King for about two years, during which time he struck coins dated 1741 and 1742 $S\overline{a}ka$, but at last, "anxious about his own safety, in April, 1821, he fled first to Gauhati and then to British territory." Finding that they could not induce him to come back, the Burmese placed another prince of unknown descent called Jogesvara on the throne.

The coins of Brajanatha show that Mr. Vincent Smith's statement that he only ruled in February, 1818, is not correct. for coins of both 1739 and 1740 exist. As the Saka year 1740 did not begin until 7th April, 1818, it seems probable that he was actually on the throne for about three months. The Daflating find included a half-coin belonging to him with apparently the mint mark () on it.2 This appears to indicate that Brajanatha minted at Rangpur. In addition to Chandra Kanta's gold muhur of 1741, given by Mr. Allan, rupees of 1742 are also in the Cabinets of Col. Gurdon and Mr. Botham, while Mr. Botham also possesses a quarter-rupee of 1742. No rupees are known of Jogesvara, the prince whom the Burmese placed on the throne when Chandra Kanta took refuge with the British at the beginning of 1743 Saka, and who, according to Prinsep, was "raised by the Assamese wife of an Ava monarch"; but Mr. Botham has a quarter-rupee struck in that year. Undated half-coins also occur, and one of those from the Daflating find is reproduced as Fig. 13. Plate XXVI. During Jogesvara's nominal reign the Burmese appear also to have experimented in coinage of their own (vide the rupees with a pig on the reverse, which were described in the previous paper of this series. Journ. Asiatic Soc., Bengal, 1910, p. 164).

Both Chandra Kānta and Purandar Simha continued independently their struggles with the Burmese until the British intervened in 1824 A.D. (1746 Sāka). The British campaign resulted in 1826 in the annexation of Lower Assam, and for eight years Upper Assam was also administered by the British. The whole of Upper Assam, except Sadiya and Matak, was then handed back to Purandar Simha. It continued in his possession, with Jorhāt as the capital, until October 1838, when "his administration having proved a failure in all respects, he was deposed and pensioned." No coins of this ruler are known to exist, either for his short reign before the Burmese invasion, or after he was temporarily re-instated by the British.

¹ Cunningham, op. cit., p. 187.

² Vide Plate XXVI, Fig. 11, postea.

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APPENDIX.

PLATE XXVI.

Coins of the Daffating Find.

1. Rudra Sinha—Half-Rupee—Size ·65". Weight—87·2 grains.

Obverse.

Reverse.

Srī Srī Rudra Si mhasya Srī Srī Siva pada parasya

No ornamentation or date.

Another specimen in the Daflating find had a half flower to the right of the Srī on obverse, and a dot to the right of the Srī on reverse as in the B. M. specimen.

2. SIVA SIMHA AND PHULESVARI-Rupee-88".

Weight—170.5 grains.

Srī Srī Siva Simha Nripa Mahi shī Srī Phulesva rī devyāh Srī Srī Hara Gaurī pada pa rayaṇayāḥ Sāke 1649 ('Simha' R.)

3. S'IVA SINHA AND SARVESVARI.—Half-Rupee—'72".

Weight-85.2 grains.

Srī Srī Si va Simha Na resvara Udvalla bha Srī Sarvve śvarī devīnāṃ

4. Lakshmi Simha—Rupee—'86". Weight—175.0 grains.

Srī Srī Svarga deva Srī Lakshmī Simha Nripasya Sāke 1692 ('Simha' R.)

Srī Srī Hara Gaurī charaṇāra vinda makarānda madhukarasya

5. GAURINĀTHA—Half-Rupee—:65". Weight—87:2 grains.

Srī Srī Gau rīnātha Si mha Nripasya 9 Srī Srī Ha ra Gaurī pa da parasya 646 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [December, 1910.

6. SARVĀNANDA—Rupee—95". Weight—178.4 grains.

Obverse.

Srī Srī Svarga deva Srī Sarvvāna nda Simha Nripasya Sāke 1716 ('Simha' L.) Reverse.

Srī Srī Krishna charaṇa kamala makaranda ma dhukarasya

7. SARVĀNANDA—Rupee—'95". Weight—175.2 grains.

Srī Srī Svarga deva Sarvvananda Simha Narendrasya Sāke 1717 ('Si mha' L.)

"(Coin) of His Heavenly Majesty King Sarvānanda Simha, (struck) in Sāka 1717" Srī Srī Krishna pada padmadvanda makaranda vrinda madhukarasya

"A bee on the abounding nectar of the twin lotus feet of Srī Krishna"

8. Sarvānanda—Half-Rupee—'70". Weight—86:3 grains.

Srī Srī Sarvvā nanda Simha Na rendrasya Srī Srī Kri shna pada pa rayaṇasya

9. SARVĀNANDA—Half-Rupee—:65". Weight—81.8 grains.

Srī Srī Sa rvvānanda Si mha Nripasya Srī Srī Krishna madhu karasya

10. Sarvānanda—Half-Rupee—·67". Weight—88·2 grains.
As on No. 9. Srī Srī Kri
shna charana ma
dhukarasya

11. Brajanātha—Half-Rupee—:64". Weight—84:1 grains.

Srī Srī Bra janātha Si mha Nripasya Srī Srī Rā
dhā Krishna pa
da parasya
Ra 1 (? Rangpur, R Y. 1)

12. CHANDRA KANTA—Rupee—'85". Weight—174.8 grains.

Srī Srī Svarga deva Srī Chandra Kā nta Simha Narendrasya Sāke 1741 ('Simha' L) Srī Srī Hara Gaurī charanāra vinda makaranda madhukarasya Vol. VI, No. 11.] History & Ethnology of N.-E. India—II. 647 [N.S.]

13. Jogesvara—Half-Rupee—64". Weight—87.4 grains.

Obverse.

Reverse.

Srī Srī Jo gesvara Si mha Nripasya Srī Srī Ha ra Gaurī pa da parasya

In other specimens the Gauri is spelt correctly (গৌরী instead of গৌরি).

PLATE XVIII.

Coins in the Cabinet of Mr. A. W. Botham, C.S.

1. Rudra Simha—Muhur—77". Weight—174.1 grains.

Srī Srī mat Svarga deva Ru dra Simhasya S āke 1620 ('Simha' L) Srī Srī Ha ra Gaurī pa dambuja madhu karasya

2. Siva Sinha and Pramathesvari—Quarter-Rupee—. 55".

Weight-44.0 grains.

Srī Si va Simha Nripa Jāyā S'rī Pramathe \$varasya (?) 4

3. SIVA SINHA—Rupee—'9". Weight—174.6 grains.

Srī Srī ma t Svarga deva Si va Simha Nripasya Sāke 1654 18 Srī Srī Hara Gaurī pada mbuja madhu karasya ('Simha' R.)

4. SIVA SIMHA and AMBIKA—Half-Rupee—: 67".

Weight-86.9 grains.

Srī Srī Si va Simha Na resvara Udvalla bha Srī madambi kā devinām 19. 5. SIVA SIMHA and SARVESVARI-Rupee-98".

Weight-168.3 grains.

Obverse.

Srī Srī Siva Simha Nripa udva llabha Srī Sarvve śvarī devīnām 13 Reverse.

Srī Srī Hara Gaurī pada parāyaṇāṇaṃ Sāke 1666 ('Simha' L)

6. Rājeśvara—Quarter-Muhur—53".

Weight---45.7 grains (ringed).

Srī Srī Rā jeśvara Si mha Nripasya S'āke 1678

- 7. Rājmsvara—Quarter-Muhur, Sq.—·50". Weight—41·4 grs. [Inscription identical with that of octagonal Quarter-Muhur.]
 - 8. Rajesvara—Eighth-Muhur—42". Weight—20.6 grains.

Srī Srī Rā jesvara Simha Nripasya

- 9. Rājeśvara—Eighth-Muhur, Sq.—·34". Weight—21·5 grains.
 [Inscription as on octagonal Eighth Muhur, but trace of Regnal year 4 or 7 at bottom of obverse.]
- 10. LARSHMI SIMHA—Rupee of 1692—·85". Weight—174.6 grs.

The same as the other rupees of 1692 (cf. Plate XXVI, Fig. 4)

Srī Srī Ha
ri Hara parama
pada padma pa
rayanasya
"Devoted to the excellent
lotus feet of Hari Hara
(Vishnu and Sīva)

11. KAMALESVARA - Rupee - '9". Weight-174.4 grains.

Srī Srī Svarga deva Srī Kamaleśva ra Simha Narendrasya Sāke 1720 (' Simha' L) Srī Srī Hara Gaurī charaṇa ka mala makaranda madhukarasya

Consonants.		Vowels.		Forms of Syllables found on the Ahom Coins in the British Museum Cabinet.				
No.	Character.	Sound.	No.	Character.	Sound.	Vowel No.	Character.	Sound.
I	m	kā	1	m (c)	(ā)	1	พิที , ปลั่	lāk ; pāt ;
II	72	kbā	2	mi	ā		から;わび:	sān; kāp;
III	0,0	gā	3	mi	ā		hon; Ho".	kāt; chām.
IV	W	ghā	4	m	i (sometimes e	2	Ø1:, €:.	tā; rā.
V	6	nā (ngā)		Ð	as in "met").	3	w, w.	phā.
VI	10	chā	5	m	ī	4	05,05.	pin;
VII	W	jā, ña	6	m	u		Het; not	chin; len;
VIII	w	jbā	7	mic	ū		RY.	neñ.
IX	W	ñā	8	2 m (b)	e (as in "met")	5	x;60,60	nī; nī;
X	01	tā -	9	2 m	ē .		७; भीटः	pī; sīńā.
IX	00	thā	10	2/m2	o (as in "off")	6	れぞ; 治;	huir; hum;
XII	5	dā	11	My 5	ō (as in "moon")		म्युद् ;	khun;
XIII	db	dhā	12	Mão.	ü (c)		मार्किम्पूर्ण.	khut.
XIV	ភ	nā	13	The	ai	8	ФА	rem.
XV	v	pā	14	Mer	ao	12	अव ; निं;	üs; tü;
XVI	10	phā	15	m (d)	ě-u		المرة الموة	chü;
XVII	0,0	bā, wā	16	₩ō (e)	i-u		ष्ट्;	mün;
XVIII	20	bhā	17	769	â (as in "all")		प्रः प्त.	k(l)ein: p(l)ek.
XIX	77 0	mā, (final	18	16	oi (as in "boil")	13	\$;3	rai.
XX	6	m). rā		[~	Sātkār, or mark	14	too; mono	chao; kao.
11	279				of final conso- nant = Bengali	15	r; x.	hĕ-u; kĕ-u.
XXI	10	lā	- 1		hasanta and Sanskrit virāma.	17	र्इंद्र एक्ट्रं	dân; ph(r)ân.
XXII	Y	sa			It is omitted in the coins of		woon.	ñât.
XXIII	η	hā			Pramatta and Rājesvara.]	18	2	boi.

(a) "Is used like the alif of Hindostani, merely as a fulcrum for carrying the other vowels when they are initial" (Grierson). The inherent vowel sound in Āhōm being \bar{a} , vowels have only to be indicated when a consonant has a different vowel sound than \bar{a} . (b) In combination, the prefix of this vowel is omitted. (c) In combination, if the suffix be omitted, this vowel sometimes stands for le as in "lend". (d) Only found in open syllables. (e) In combination the suffix is dropped.

The consonant and vowel columns give the forms of the letters as found in the Ahom Buranjis.

ĀHŌM MUHUR OF RĀJESVARA SIMHA (SÜREMPHA).

(CABINET OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM-UNIQUE).

OBVERSE.

(1) Chao, the God, sü, tiger,

(2) rem, border, phā, heaven, pin, became, (3) khūn, King, lāknī, year, (4) Raisīnā.

"The God, Süremphā (the tiger from the border of heaven), became King in the year Raisinā" (43rd of the 20th taosinā, or cycle of 60 years counting from 568 A.D. = 1751 A.D.).





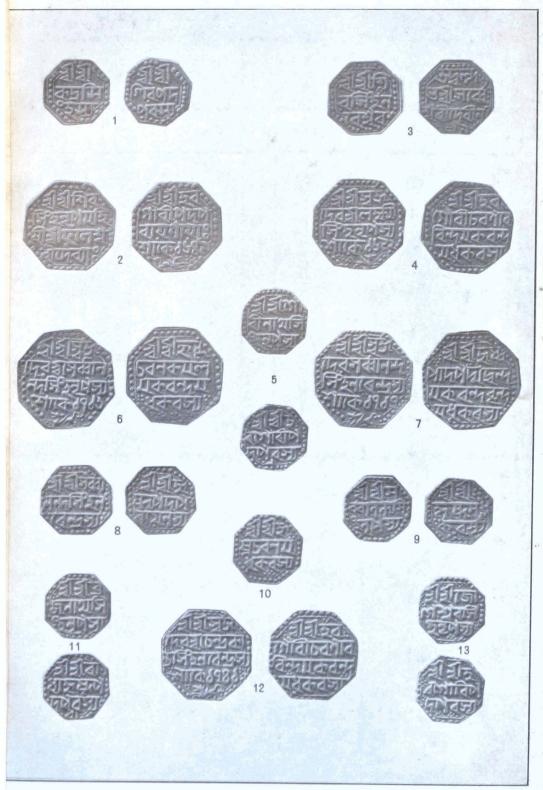
REVERSE.

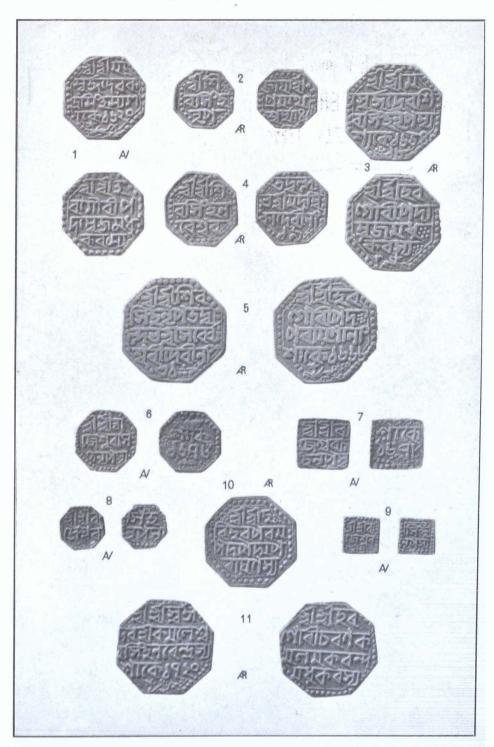
(1) Kao, I, boi. prayer,

(2) phā, heaven, Lendâ

(3) n, he-u, offer, chu, name.

"I offer prayer in the name of the heavenly Lendân" (i.e., Indra).





55. Note on a Caste of Fish-dealers in Bengal not recognized in the Census of 1901.

By B. L. CHAUDHURI.

In December of 1906, when touring in places remote from railway communication, I found that in the eastern parts of the Jessore District the custom of salting or rather pickling ilis (hilsa) in brine, was very much resorted toowing mainly to the want of adequate local demand for the fish in a fresh condition. In going into the details of different processes of salting, I came to learn the following rather curious fact. All along the banks of the river Madhumati, it appears that Malas and Tiars (the so-called Raibansi Tiars) who are the actual catchers of ilis (hilsa), and immediate holders of the Fisheries, do not salt or pickle fish, and are precluded by caste rules from pickling of fish as a profession. appeared also that there was a quite distinct caste of Antvaja Hindus, who carried on the pickling and the selling of pickled fish. These people are designated Karáls, and in their manners, habits, and religious observances are totally different from the fishermen, i.e., the Málas and Tiars. Karáls have separate Brahmins from Málas and Tiars, and they observe suddhis on the 12th day, whereas Malas and Tiars keep 30 days. Karáls do not drink water touched by Tiars or Málas, nor would the Málas and Tiars drink water touched by the Karáls. It was ascertained that, though not numerous in any one place, they (the Karáls) are found well scattered in the river districts of the two Provinces of Bengal, viz,—Jessore, Khulna, Barisal, and Faridpur. As we knew nothing about the existence of such a caste before, the latest census tabulation for the district of Jessore was at once scrutinized—but no mention of this interesting people could be found. The fact was noticed in para 40 (page 11) of Mr. K. G. Gupta's Preliminary Report on Bengal Fishery Enquiry (dated 20th February, 1907). It has been subsequently confirmed, I am glad to say, in Mr. De's "Report on the Fisheries of Eastern Bengal and Assam " (para. 65 (i), page 36) of 1910.

My excuse for bringing this matter before the Society is to draw the attention of the members to the fact that this may not possibly be the only instance of a well established local caste escaping the notice altogether of our census officers and compilers of caste lists in Bengal. It may not be altogether out of place to mention here that when Sir Herbert Risley's "Tribes and Castes of Bengal" first came out, a good many people were

surprised to discover that a very widely distributed and well recognized and at the same time highly interesting tribe called *Hajangs*, who are found in the North-eastern districts of Bengal

among many others, was not noticed.

The position and the history of the development of castes like the Karál, which is undoubtedly not of very ancient origin. carry in themselves elements and evidence of many more interesting facts than do those of the well established castes. As the real key to the system and formation of castes can only be found by closely studying these comparatively recently formed castes with all the history of transition they possess, they are of really very great importance to the ethnologists. The omissions of these castes, therefore, from census enumerations or caste lists are matters of very great regret to ethno-The reason why time and again such lapses are noticed in our census enumeration is, Iventure to think, due to the defective system of census operations that exists in India. The most important work in these operations falls ultimately on a class of men who very imperfectly realize the importance of any such detail, and moreover consider the work itself as a perfect nuisance, as it interferes with their legitimate work and calling. Nor is there any provision to encourage any conspicuously good and intelligent work shown by any of them. To enumerators, therefore, who are the masters of entries under the column of caste schedule, it will continue to be regarded as a thankless task. Undoubtedly this is the time when our members can render some good service to ethnology by interesting themselves in the work of the present census. which is to be completed by March next. Some years ago the Society organized an Ethnographical Bureau, but I am afraid most of our members have forgotten all about it as we do not hear anything of it nowadays. I hope this short note will attract the notice of some of our members, and that some of them may help the census officers during the present tabulation to attain a better standard of ethnographical data than otherwise they would be able to reach.

56. NUMISMATIC SUPPLEMENT No. XV.

Note.—The numeration of the article below is continued from p. 581 of the "Journal and Proceedings" for 1910.

89. Notes on Some Mughal Coins.

The following notes are to a certain extent supplementary to my paper "Old Coins in the Bahāwalpūr State Toshakhānā," published in the eleventh Numismatic Supplement to the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. I have also included notices of new and interesting coins obtained from other sources. Where the weight and size are not given, the coins are rupees of the usual dimensions. Where there are no indications to the contrary, the specimens described are in my own collection.

Kāmrān.

No. 1. A. Weight, 70; size, 1

Mint, Lāhor.

Date, 946 A.H.

Obverse.

In wavy square, the Kalima.

Reverse.
In wavy circle

Margins.

امير الموصيين Top المير الموصيين Right المير الموهنيين عمر عبدالله Left

هما يون محمد غازي ١٣٩ ٣عان Margin. السلطان الأعظم المكوم

السلطان الأعظم ال ... ضرب لأهور خلد الله ...

The reverse is counterstruck with a quatrefoil in which is:—هدل کامران بادشاه غازي. Otherwise the coin is identical with I. M. Cat., Vol. III, No. 18.

AKBAR.

No. 2. Æ. Weight, 310; size, 8. Mint, Narnol. Date, 50 Ilāhī; month Khūrdād.

> Obverse. Reverse. تذكه اكبر شاهي ٠٥ الني ضرب نار نول نیم خور داد

This is an $il\bar{a}h\bar{i}$ $d\bar{a}m$ of Narnol mint, and as such appears to be a novelty.

No. 3. Æ. Weight, 315; size, ·8. Mint, Sambhal. Date, -; month Ardibihisht.

> Obverse. Reverse. تذكه اكب شاهر ... الع ضرب سنبل نيم ىہشت اردي

Coin No. 3610 in the Third Part of the White King Catalogue is a dam of Sambhal mint, but as far as I know the coin has not been previously described.

Shāh Jahān.

Æ. Weight, 310; size, 8. Mint, Shābjahānābād. Date, 24 R. ?.

> Reverse. Obverse. دارالخلافه (بادشاہ غازے) شاہ جہاں صاحب قوان ثائے ... اباد عر ...

Copper coins of Shah Jahan of mint Shahjahanabad are new. This specimen was found in Dehli, but is unfortunately in poor condition. It is probably of regnal date 24.

No. 5. Weight, 30; size, 45. Mint, Shāhjahānābād. Date, -.

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[N.S.]			
()}	D		

 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 ابا د
 ابا د

 حال الخلافة
 عامل الخلافة

I ascribe this small, dateless, copper coin of Shāhjahānā-bād mint to Shāh Jahān because of its style, and because it is akin in weight and size to the small copper coins of this emperor struck at Dehli mint. It was found in Dehli.

AURANGZEB.

No. 6. Al. Weight, 170; size, 85.

Mint, Nusratābād.

Date, 1114 A.H.: 46 R.

Obverse. Reverse.
مانوس سکه زد در جهان چو مهور مایر
میمنت شاه اورنگزیب عالم گیر ۱۱۱۶
سنه ۱ م جلوس ۱ (باد)
ضرب

A gold coin of Aurangzeb struck at Nuṣratābād is a novelty.

No. 7. . R.

Mint, Ahmadābād Date, 1069 A.H.; 1 R.

 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 As on No. 6, but
 احمد اباد

 ضرب
 instead of بدر مایر

 میمذت مانوس
 امیر مانوس

 جلوس سفة احد
 ۱۰۹۹

No. 8 A.

Mint, Khambayat. Date, 1070 A.H.: 1 R.

Obverse.

As on No. 7; date 1.v.

Reverse.

كهذبايت

مماذوس ضو

میمذت جلوس سنه احد

No. 9. AR.

Mint, Multan. Date, 1069 A.H.; 1 R.

Obverse.

ابو المظفر محى الدين محمد ١٠٩٩ اورنگ زیب بهادر عالم گیر بادشای عازی

Reverse.

دار الأمان ملتان ضرب میمذت مانوس

جلوس سنع احد

Government Collection, Lahore.

I publish the above three rupees of Aurangzeb as specimens of the Ahmadābād, Khambāyat, and Multān mints, struck in regnal year one. The Khambāyat rupee is similar to

the mohur described in the Bahāwalpūr paper.

The Multan coin is in the Government Cabinet, Lahore, the catalogue of which was compiled by Mr. Rodgers and published by the Baptist Mission Press, Calcutta, in the year 1891. As this catalogue does not appear to have been consulted by Mr. Burn when he wrote his paper "The Mints of the Mughal Emperors," I will give particulars of one or two other interesting coins in the Cabinet which do not appear to have been previously described.

No. 10. A.

Mint, A'zamnagar. Date . - A.H.; 50 R.

Obverse.

As on No. 7; no date.

Reverse.

مانوس میمذت جلوس ۵۰ اعظم ال(گر) غون

There is a rupee of Farrukh Siyar of A'zamnagar mint in the British Museum-B. M. Cat. No. 936. This coin carries the mint back to the fiftieth year of Aurangzeb's reign for silver: a copper coin was in the White King Cabinet.

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No. 11. A.

Mint, Bankāpūr. Date, 1113 A.H.; 44 R.

The Bankāpūr mint is only represented in Mr. Burn's Tables by rupees of Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur, and Farrukh Siyar.

No. 12. A.

Mint, Imtiyazgarh. Date, — A.H.; 43 R.

Obverse.

As on No. 7; dateless.

Reverse.
مانوس
میدنت
میدنت
جلوس عمر
ضوب

In his Introduction to I. M. Cat., Vol. III, Mr. Nelson Wright says: "The earliest appearance of Imtiyazgarh as a Mughal mint is on a dateless coin of Aurangzeb (Lahore Museum Catalogue)." This specimen is of regnal year forty-three.

No. 13, A.

Mint, Kurpā. Date, — A.H.; 37 R.

Obverse.

As on No. 7; dateles...

Reverse. مانوس میمنت سفه ۳۷ جلوس ضرب

Kurpā is a new Mughal mint, and is the old name of Cuddapah in the Madras Presidency. The district was conquered by Aurangzeb about the year A.H. 1100.

I am indebted to Dr. Taylor for the reading of this mint. The coin was found in Pathankot, as was No. 10.

No. 14. AR.

Mint, Daru-l-Jihād. Date, 1114 A.H.; 46 R.

Obverse. Reverse.
As on No. 7; date ميمنت ميمنت دار الجهاد عانوس به ۲۰۰۰ دار الحب

Supplementary Collection, Lahore Museum.

In a paper entitled "On some rare Muhammadan Coins" (J.A.S.B., 1895), Colonel Vost published and illustrated a mohur of Aurangzeb struck at a mint read by him as Daru-l-Jihād Tatta. This coin is a facsimile of the mohur, and shows that what was read as Tatta is really the first part of the letter sin of manus. However, the style of the coin is distinct from that of the Haidarābād mintage, but its mint if different has yet to be determined.

No. 15. R.

Mint, Peshāwar.

Date, ...

Obverse. Reverse. As on No. 7; date extant مانوس but rendered illegible by a shroff mark. جلوس جلوس مربيشاور

The earliest coins of Peshāwar mint recorded in Mr. Burn's Tables are gold and silver issues of Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur. This rupee carries the mint back into the reign of Aurangzeb. Unfortunately the regnal year is illegible, while the hijri date has been bored out. The units figure is three.

No. 16. A. Weight, 50; size, 6.

Mint, Ahmadnagar.

Date, 1118 A.H.; --- R.

 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 مانوس
 غازي شالا

 ميبنت
 عالم وليرباد

 سنة × ه جلوس
 نستار

 ضرب
 مانام

 احمد نگر

An Ahmadnagar niṣār of Aurangzeb is a novelty.

A'zam Shāh.

No. 17. AR.

Mint, Khujista Bunyād. Date, 1119 A.H.; 1 R.

The British Museum contains a mohur of A'zam Shāh struck at Khujista Bunyād, and there was also one in the White King Cabinet—Catalogue, Part III, No. 3951. A rupee is a novelty.

SHAH 'ĀLAM BAHADUR.

The Rodgers Cabinet in the Lahore Museum contains two coins struck by Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur using his princely name of Mu'azzam Shāh. The first is a rupee struck at 'Tatta in regnal year one, and bears the following couplet:—

The second is a rupee, the only certain words on the obverse of which, according to Mr. Rodgers, are:—

..... شالا غاز معظم صاحب قوانی He described the coin as being unique, but in poor condition, and could not read the mint. The date is regnal year one—see the Rodgers' Catalogue of the Coins of the Mughal

Emperors in the Lahore Museum, p. 197, No. 5.

I have seen this specimen, and read the mint as Murshidābād. Subsequently Dr. Taylor informed me that he had this coin, probably of Murshidābād mint, so I think the mint may be put down with certainty as Murshidābād. The following coin is of similar type. It is so badly rubbed as to be almost illegible, but fortunately there is enough to make certain that the mint is 'Azīmābād.

No. 18.

Obverse.	Reverse.
	سذه
	احد
شاہ عار	مانوس
معظـــــم	مدمذت
قرانی	آباه جلوس
صاَحب	ع ظدِ_ م
	* /*****

The reverse is exactly similar to that of the 'Azīmābād rupees of Aurangzeb's fiftieth and fifty-first years --I. M. Cat., Pl. XII, No. 1252.

I cannot make even a suggestion as to what the couplet is because both top and bottom lines are illegible on this specimen, and on that of Murshidābād mint just referred to.

In my paper on the Bahāwalpūr coins I described mohurs having the following inscriptions:—

Obverse.		Reverse.
عالم گيو ثاني		جلوس مانوس
1119		ميملت
شاو	*	مستقر الخلافه
قرانی بهادر		سنهٔ احد
صاحب		ضوب
*****		اكبرآبان

I went on to say, 'They are coins of Sāḥib Qirān Bahādur 'Ālamgīr Ṣānī, struck at Mustaqirru-l-Khilāfat Akbarābād in 1119 (julūs 1), and resemble silver coin No. 3 on page 220 of C. J. Rodgers' Catalogue of 'The Coins of the Mughal Emperors of India in the Lahore Museum.' It would appear that this

rupee was erroneously attributed by Mr. Rodgers to 'Ālamgīr II, and is a coin of Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur I.'

Since writing the above I have seen this silver coin in the Lahore Museum, and find that it is exactly similar in type to the gold coins, and bears the same dates. I figure it here:—

No. 19. A.

Rodgers' Cabinet, Lahore Museum.

Mr. Rodgers guessed the bottom line of the obverse as being probably غزرزد, and suggested the couplet:—

It does not read convincingly, but will have to stand till specimens are discovered containing the bottom line intact. I should prefer

This rare variety cannot have been in circulation long, and rupees of the usual type struck at Mustaqirru-l-Khilāfat Akbarābād are known of year 1119, regnal year one.

To sum up, at the commencement of Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur's reign, four places at least—Tatta, Murshidābād, 'Azīmābād (Patna), and Akbarābād (Āgra)—struck coin exhibiting unique legends, the first three in the name of Mu'azzam Shāh, and the fourth in the name of his father 'Ālamgīr. These varieties were quickly superseded by the ordinary types, which endured throughout the remainder of the reign.

No. 20. Al. Weight, 168; size, '85.

Mint, Firozgarh.

Date, 1122 A.H.; 3 R.

Obverse.	Reverse.
بادشالا عاز	مانوس
<u> </u>	ميمنت
Her	سنه ۳ جلوس
عالم بہادر	ضرب
ــــ	فيبروز گتره
سکه مبار	

Supplementary Collection, Lahore Museum.

No. 21. A.

Mint, Firozgarh.
Date, 1123 A.H.; 5 R.

Obverse.

Reverse.

As on No. 20; date 1123.

As on No. 20; date 5.

These are gold and silver coins of Fīrozgarh, which is a new Mughal mint, probably in Southern India. Mr. Burn's Tables contain silver coins of Shāh 'Alam Bahādur and Muhammad Shāh struck at Fīroznagar mint, but the name is unmistakably Fīrozgarh on the specimens now described.

No. 22. Al. Weight, 165; size, ·8.

Mint, Toragal.

Date, — A.H.; 4 R.

Obverse.	Reverse.
باد مازی	حانوس
شالا	ميملت
شاہ عالم بہادر	سقه عرجلوس
	ضرب
	ذور کل

Rodgers' Cabinet, Lahore Museum.

This mint was identified with Nūrkal or Nūrgal by Dr. Taylor, and is a Southern India Mint, the chief town of a sarkār of that name in the province of Bījāpūr. Another reading Toragal has been suggested—see N.S. VII, Paper 50—and is probably the correct version. This coin and the following one show that Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur minted gold and silver at Toragal. Coins of Aurangzeb, Kām Bakhsh, and Farrukh Siyar have already been published.

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No. 23. AR.

Mint, Toragal.
Date, — A.H.; 4 R.

Obverse.

Reverse.

As on No. 22; dateless.

As on No. 22; date 4.

No. 24. AR.

Mint, Muḥammadābād. Date, 1121 A.H.; 3 R.

Obverse.

Reverse.

As on No. 22; date 1121.

محمد اباد ضرب سدّه م مانوس میمنت جلوس

Government Collection, Lahore Museum.

In the Bahāwalpūr paper I mentioned a mohur of Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur struck at Muḥammadābād mint. I presume that this place is the same as the Muḥammadābād of the unique mohur of Aurangzeb in the Lahore Museum, but do not know if it has been identified. Banāras was not called Muḥammadābād till the time of Muhammad Shāh.

This rupee differs in its dates and the arrangement of its inscriptions from the mohur, which is dated regnal year one, and is illustrated at Plate II, No. 24A.

No. 25. Æ. Weight, 330; size, 8. Mint, Shāhjahānābād. Date, — .

 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 بهادر
 مرب

 ضوب
 شاه عالم

I publish this copper coin with diffidence, but 1 think that it may be described with fair certainty as a $d\bar{a}m$ of Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur I struck at Dehli (Shāhjahānābād). Two specimens of this coin were discovered at Dehli in a find consisting entirely of Mughal copper coins.

JAHANDAR SHAH.

No. 26. Æ.

> Mint, Bhakhar. Date, 1124 A.H.; 1 R.

.rse. مانوس میمنت مند احد جلوس ضوب بهکهر ۲ Obverse. بادشاه جهان قران جهاندار ۱۱۲۴ حــــب ال سکھ مد جو صا

A Bhakhar rupee of Jahandar Shah is a novelty.

FARRUKH SIYAR.

No. 27. Æ.

> Mint, 'Alamgirpur. Date, — A.H.; 2 R.

> > Obverse.

The usual couplet of Farrukh Siyar.

Reverse.

مانوس

جلوس سنه ۲ ضوب عالم گیر پور

Supplementary Collection, Lahore Museum.

No. 28. Æ.

> Mint, Sa'dnagar. Date, — A.H.; 5 R.

Obverse.

As on No. 27;

dateless.

Reverse.

مانوس

سذه ٔ ه جلــوس ضــــرب سعد نگـــر

Supplementary Collection, Lahore Museum.

Sa dnagar is a new Mughal mint. I am indebted to Dr. Taylor for the following information. In Manucci's 'Storia do Mogor' translated by W. Irvine, Vol. II, page 311, note 1, Vol. VI, No. 11.] Numismatic Supplement. [N.S.]

it is stated that 'Sambhā Jī hid in Kab Kalish's house and was caught there. The capture was reported to Aurangzeb at Akloj (renamed Sa'dnagar).' Akloj, or Aklaj, is a town some 55 miles to the N.-W. of Sholāpūr.

No. 29. Æ. Weight, 210; size, '8.

Mint, Akbarābād.

Date, — A.H.; 3 R.

Obverse. Reverse. اكبواباد ت فوخ فوب شاهر

I read this as a copper coin of Farrukh Siyar struck at Akbarābād in regnal year three. It was found at Dehli in the same lot as coins Nos. 4, 5 and 25 of this paper, and copper coins of Salīmābād and Salīmābād-Ajmīr published previously.

The mint name on the reverse is very similar in style to that of coin No. 8, described and illustrated in Mr. C. J. Rodgers' paper 'Rare Mughal Coins' (Journal A.S.B. for 1896), as a coin probably struck by Shāh Jahān at Āgra or Akbarābād. This common peculiarity makes it quite possible that that coin was one of Shāh Jahān II. It was described as unique.

RAFI'U-D-DARJĀT.

No. 30. A. Weight, 170; size, 1.

Mint, Akbarābād.

Date, 1131 A.H.; 1 R.

Obverse.

Reverse.

In double circle containing one of dots one of dots one of dots one of dots

مستقر الخلافه اكبراباد المحالية العرب مرب المحرو بر المحالية المحرو بر المحرو
This is a gold coin of Akbarābād. It differs from other couplet coins of Rafi'u-d-darjāt that I have seen in being a large, flat coin easily containing the entire legends and the ornamentation around them.

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No. 31. AR.

Mint, Kābul Date, — A.H.; 1 R.

Obverse.

As on No. 30; dateless.

Reverse.

حلوس

مصفت

مانوس دارالملك

ضوب

كابل سذه احد

A silver coin of Kābul mint is new.

No. 32. A.

Mint, Khujista Bunyād. Date, 1131 A.H.; 1 R.

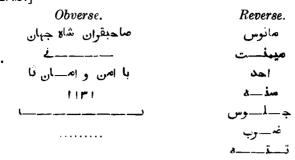
Government Collection, Lahore Museum.

This is silver coin No. 4 of Rafi'u-d-darjāt on p. 84 of C. J. Rodgers' 'Catalogue of the Coins in the Government Museum, Lahore.' It is strange that the variation from the usual couplet, in place of perfect the variation from the usual couplet, and it has remained for Mr. Allan to publish a Khujista Bunyād mohur with the couplet, nineteen years later—see Numismatic Supplement XIII. The mohurs of this mint, published by me in the Bahāwalpūr paper, exhibited the usual couplet.

Shāh Jahān II.

No. 33. AR.

Mint, Tatta.
Date, 1131 A.H.; 1 R.



This interesting coin can be nothing but a couplet coin of Shāh Jahān II, and as such is quite a novelty. The mint is Tatta, and there is a Tatta rupee of Shāh Jahān II of the ordinary type in the Lahore Museum.

The couplet is probably something like this:—

MUHAMMAD SHĀH.

In my Bahāwalpūr paper I mentioned half mohurs of Muhammad Shāh struck at Shāhjahānābād and Sind mints.

The legends of the first are identical with those on the usual type of gold and silver coin struck at Dehli during this reign. The Sind coin is different, and I give a revised reading below.

Obverse. Reverse.

In circle In double circle with one of dots between حب الزمان صاحب قران الإامر صاحب قران ما عالم صاح

In spite of the redundant alif, the reverse inscription is probably intended to be 'Zarb ul amr ṣāḥib uz zamān,' that is, 'struck by order of the lord of the age.' All these Sind half mohurs bore regnal date twelve, and I saw no trace of the hijri year on any of them.

No. 35. A. Weight, 170; size, ·8.

Mint, Aurangābād.

Date, 115 × A.H.; 8 R.

 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 او رنگ اباد
 محمد شاو بادشاو غازے

 د______
 ماحب قران ثاغ

 فم
 سکه مبارک

 ماذ_____
 میدنت

 سنه ۸ حلوس
 مدونت

Supplementary Collection, Lahore Museum.

In the Bahāwalpūr paper I mentioned the interesting discovery of a mohur of Muḥammad Shāh of Aurangābād mint, in spite of the fact that from 1100 A.H. the town is known on its coins solely by its honorific epithet 'Khujista Bunyād.' The reason for the existence of this unique specimen is that an old die of Aurangzeb was used for the reverse side, and in fact the reverse is absolutely identical with that of coin I. M. Cat., Vol. III, No. 1246. The hijri and regnal years of the specimen now described do not agree.

At Bahāwalpūr I found a rupee, the obverse of which had been struck from a die of Shāh 'Ālam Bahādur, and the reverse of Shāhjahānābād mint, was plainly of Shāh 'Ālam II.

No. 36. A.

Mint, 'Alamgirpūr.

Date, — A.H.; 30 R.

 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 هانوس
 معمد شاه

 میداست
 بادشاه غاز

 سام گیروں
 محمد مبار

 غالم گیروں
 برسور

An 'Alamgirpur rupee of Muhammad Shah is new.

No. 37. R.

Mint, Chinapatan.

Date, — A.H.; 8 R.

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 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 As on No. 36;
 مانوس

 میدنست
 میدنست

 محلسوس
 میدنست

 محسسی
 میدنست

 محسسی
 میدنست

 محسسی
 میدنست

 میدنست
 میدنست

Star above jīm of julūs.

This specimen is identical with coin No. 2516 in I. M. Cat., Vol. III, but here the mint is undoubtedly Chīnāpatan, and the regnal date eight makes the reign certain.

No. 38. At.

Mint, Derajāt. Date, 1160 A.H.; 30 R.

Obverse.

As on No. 36;
date 1160.

In Bahāwalpūr I found several rupees of Muḥammad Shāh struck at Derajāt, but all were of the same dates, 30 R. and 1160 A. H.

No. 39. A.

Mint, Sironj. Date, — A.H.; 6 R.

Obverse.

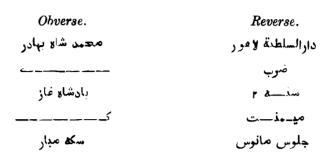
As on No. 36;
dateless.

Reverse.
مانوس
ميبنست
جلوس
ضرب
ضروني و سده

This is a rupee of Sironi mint, regnal year six.

No. 40. R.

Mint, Lāhor. Date, — A.H.; 2 R.



This specimen was sent to me from Rawalpindi. Although it was of good workmanship and in excellent condition, I could not but regard it as a freak because of the unique combination Muḥammad Shāh Bahādur. But I subsequently found two more like it at Bahāwalpūr, so presume that it must be regarded as a definite type of Muḥammad Shāh's coinage. There is no trace of a hijri date on any of the three specimens, and though on the reverse of two the date is clear, it is difficult to read. It may be two, four, twenty-two, or twenty-four. I am inclined to read it as two, and to consider what looks like a tens figure, to be a peculiarly shaped ornament.

AHMAD SHAH BAHADUR.

No. 41. A.

Mint, Bhakhar. Date, 1162 A.H.; 1 R.

Obverse.	Reverse.
نحدد شاو	ماذوس
	ميمنست
بادشاء عاز	احد
	سنھ جلوس
سکھ معار ۱۱۹۲	ضــــوب
	بهكهو

No. 42. A. Mint, Dera.

Date, 1162 A.H.; 2 R

Obverse.

As on No. 41; date 1162.

. Reverse مانوس میر_منت مفه ۲ جلوس ضرب دسه

No. 43. A.

Mint, Derajāt.
Date, 1161 A.H.; 1 R.

Obverse.

As on No. 41; date 1161. Reverse.

مانوس میمنست

اهد سده جلوس مد

ويرجات

The above are three coins of Ahmad Shāh struck at Bhakhar, Dera, and Derajāt mints respectively. No. 41 was published in my Bahāwalpūr paper as being a coin of Muḥammad Shāh of Bhakhar mint, but I now find that the name is unmistakably Aḥmad Shāh, and Bhakhar coins of Muḥammad still remain to be found. The remarkable thing about these three coins is the absence of the usual title Bahādur after Aḥmad Shāh.

Coin No. 45 is a Dera rupee of Aḥmad Shāh Bahādur, dated 1162 A. H.; 2 R, and coin No. 46 is a rupee of the same emperor struck at Derajāt in 1161 A. H.; 1 R. Their dates are the same as those of Nos. 42 and 43, respectively, and it is strange that rupees were struck in the same places in the same years, some of Aḥmad Shāh, and some of Aḥmad Shāh Bahādur. Can the above three coins be issues of Aḥmad Shāh Durrāni? They are of poor workmanship, but are Mughal, and not Durrāni in type and style.

Three other Dera rupees of this type bear dates 1163 A.H., 2 R. — A.H., 3 R. and — A.H., 5 R.

Another coin, the present attribution of which appears to me doubtful, is the following rupee.

No. 44. A.

Mint, Kashmir. Date, 1166 A.H.; 6 R. Obverse. Reverse.

هانوس سکه زد بر زر بفضل اله
عیمنت شاه عالم پذاه احمد شاه ۱۱۹۹
سنه جلوس
ضرب

This is a counterpart of coin No. 1 on p. 167 of Part II of the Rodgers' Collection Catalogue (Lahore Museum), but that coin is dated 1162 A.H., 2 R. Mr. Rodgers attributed it to Ahmad Shāh Durrāni, and described it as unique. I found two duplicates in Bahāwalpūr.

I do not know the exact state of politics in Kashmīr in the years 1162 and 1166 A.H., but from the internal evidence of the coins themselves I think their attribution to the Mughal Aḥmad Shāh is more probable for the following two reasons. In the first place the coin is distinctly Mughal in style. Then again the couplet appears on rupees of Aḥmad Shāh struck at Imtiyāzgarh where the Durrāni certainly never penetrated, and could have had no influence. The Imtiyāzgarh coin is No. 4082 in the Third Part of the White King Catalogue, and No. 2104 in Vol. III of the I. M. Catalogue, and is illustrated in both works.

Kashmīr rupees of Ahmad Shāh Durrāni, bearing his usual couplet, are not uncommon. Silver coins were struck at Kashmīr by 'Ālamgīr II. the successor of Ahmad Shāh Bahādur.

No. 45. .R.

Mint, Dera.

Date, 1162 A.H.; 2 R.

Obverse.	Reverse.
زحمد شاه بهادر	مانوس
·	صيمذنت
Ifar	r
بادشاھ غا ز	سله جلوس
	ضوب
سکه مبار	ديوة

No. 46. AR.

Mint, Derajāt.

Date 1161 A.H.; 1 R.

[N.S.]

Obverse.

As on No. 45;

date, 1161.

احد

سده جلوس

ضرب

I published a Derajāt mohur of Ahmad Shāh Bahādur in the Bahāwalpūr paper.

No. 47. A.

Mint, Sīkākul. Date. — A.H.; 2 R.

 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 ١١٦+
 سياله ميدت

 ميدت
 احيد شاه

 الحيد شاه
 الحيد شاه

 ميدار بادشاه غاز
 الحيد ميدار

 ميدا کل
 اسیکا کل

 سیکا کل
 سیکا کل

Supplementary Collection, Lahore Museum.

This is a rupee of Ahmad Shāh Bahādur struck at Sīkākul mint in the second year of his reign. The obverse of this specimen is strikingly different from that of the usual type. I published this Mughal mint in the Bahāwalpur paper, the coin being a mohur of Farrukh Siyar.

Dr. Taylor has referred me to p. 379 of Malleson's 'French in India,' showing that at the time this coin was struck there seems to have been a good deal of political activity in the districts near Chicacole.

'ALAMOTR II.

No. 48. .R.

Mint, Akbarābād. Date, 1168 A.H.; 1 R.



This is the only rupee of 'Alamgir II I know of bearing this type of obverse.

No. 49. A.

Mint, Bikānir. Date, 1167 A.H.; 1 R.

I published this Baldat Bikānir rupee in my Bahāwalpūr paper, but did not describe it. Out of a large number of Baldat-i-Safa' coins, only one showed that the name was really Baldat Bikānir. 'Baldat-i-Safa' is written thus large sale. The unique coin added a slant stroke to the loop, two more letters at the end, and two dots thus out.

No. 50. A.

Mint, Dera. Date, 1173 A.H.; 7 R.

Obverse.	Reverse.
عالمكير	ما <i>نوس</i>
۳۷۱)	ميهذت
بادشاه غاز	سذه ۷ جلوس
	ضوب
مسكة صبار	ديرة

Vol. VI, No. 11.] Numismatic Supplement. [N.S.]

This is a rupee of 'Alamgir II struck at Dera. The hijri date is reversed, but the coin is obviously dated 1173 A.H.; 7 R.

No. 51. A.

Mint, Multan.

Date. 1172 A.H.: 7 R.

 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 مانوس
 عالم گير

 ١١٧٢
 ميمندت

 دارالامان
 بادشاء غار

 غلوس ۷ سائه
 مسکه مدار

 ضرب
 مملتان

Flower above sīn of julūs.

This coin is a single specimen showing that 'Alamgir II struck coins at Multan in 1172 A.H. as well as 1173 A.H.—see the Bahāwalpūr paper. There I wrote that these Multan coins of 'Alamgir II bear a mint mark on the reverse. But this is only the sprig or flower characteristic of the Multan issues from the time of Aurangzeb downwards.

No. 52. AR.

Mint, Mumbai. Date, — A.H.; 2 R.

Obverse.

As on No. 51; date 116x.

Reverse.

مانوس

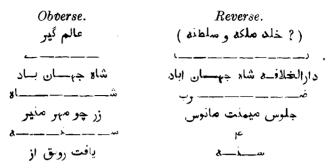
ميماست

سدہ م جلوس ضرب مینے

This is a Mumbai rupee of 'Alamgir II. It is of the imperial type, and not of the fashion struck by the Hon. E. I. Co.

No. 53. A.

Mint, Shāhjahānābād. Date, — A H.; 4 R.



Supplementary Collection, Lahore Museum.

This is a revised reading of a rupee of 'Ālamgīr II published in the Bahāwalpūr paper as bearing a new couplet. On further consideration I read the couplet as:—

The reverse is similar to that of coin I. M. Cat., Vol. III, No. 2186.

Shāh 'Ālam II.

No. 54. R.

Mint, Gohad. Date, 1190 A.H.; 18 R.

Obverse.	Reverse.
دين محمد عالم باد	ما نوس
119.	ميمذت
شاع	جلوس
فضل اله حامي	سذ ۶ ۸ یا
ايه	
سکه زه بر هفت کشو ر	ضوب
	گوهد

he حامي Aboveof حامي the خامي

Gohad is a mint that does not appear in Mr. Burn's Tables, but is mentioned in the list of mints of the Ellis Collection—Numismatic Supplement III. The rupee is well executed, and perfectly legible.

No. 55. AR.

Mint, Isma'ilgarh.
Date, 1203 A.H.; 31 R.

Obverse. Reverse.
As on No. 54, but different (گری) معیل (گری) معیل (شری) معیل (گری) معیل (شری) معیل (شری) معیل معیل (شری) معیلت مانوس منافع اسم میمنت مانوس منافع اسم م

This is a rupee of Isma'ilgarh mint. The coin is legible and of good workmanship.

Copper coin No. 50 on p. 249 of Mr. Rodgers' Catalogue of the Mughal Coins in the Lahore Museum, is undoubtedly of Isma'ilgarh mint.

MUHAMMAD AKBAR II.

No. 56. A. Mint, Gohad. Date, 1251 A. H.; 30 R.

 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 مانوس
 محمد اکبر شالا بادشالا غاز

 ۱۲۵۱
 میمنت

 سفه م جلویس
 صاحب قران ثا

 ضرب
 سکه مبارک

 گوهد
 سکه مبارک

. جارس of صاحب pistol over the ج of جارس.

See also No. 54. Gohad rupees of Shāh 'Ālam II, and of Muḥammad Akbar II, are mentioned by Mr Burn in his list of the rarer coins in the Ellis cabinet—Numismatic Supplement III, Paper IV—but neither has been described before. Both are of good and legible workmanship.

No. 57. A.

Mint, Dholpūr . . . rāj Gohad. Date, 1225 A.H.; 4 R.

Obverse. As on No. 56. Umbrella over ب of صاحب Reverse. مانوس میدنت جلوس عرسده ضــــرب راج گوهــد. دهولهور طعممه

e Pistol over second half of word دهوليور.

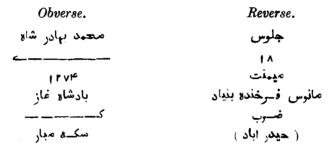
A Dholpūr rupee of Muḥammad Akbar II was also included in Mr. Burn's list just mentioned. For the word following Dholpūr, Dr. Taylor suggests ملمنجة, a Turkish word meaning pistol, but my specimen, which is quite clear, does not hear out this reading.

BAHADUR SHAH II.

No. 58. Æ. Weight, 170; size, ·8.

Mint, Ḥaidarābād.

Date, 1274 A.H.; 18 R.



This is a copper coin of Bahādur Shāh II of Haidarābād mint. The White King Collection contained a gold coin,—Catalogue, Part III, No. 4203,—and a silver coin of the same dates and similar inscriptions as this copper coin, was published by Mr. Longworth Dames in his paper 'Some Coins of the Mughal Emperors,' Numismatic Chronicle, Vol. II, pp. 275-309.

I only publish this coin because the mint has been recognized by Mr. Burn in his Tables as one of Bahādur Shāh II. On the other hand the power of this emperor was entirely bounded by the walls of Fort Dehli, and the coins struck elsewhere in his name are not even of the type of those struck in Shāhjahānābād, that is, they are not of the imperial type. I should prefer to see only the Shāhjahānābād coins recognized as being imperial issues, while those struck at other mints designated as what they really are, the issues of independent States.

Since writing the above I have come across the following rare coins, on which I add brief notes. The mohurs and rupees are of the usual weight and size.

SHĀH JAHĀN.

No. 59. A'; Allahābād mint; date 1052 A.H., 15 R. Square areas type as illustrated in I.M. Catalogue, Vol. III, Plate X, No. 918, only name of mint in bottom margin.





Plates XLI-XLV to illustrate Mr. R. B. Whitehead's paper on "Notes on some Mughal Coins," published in the Numismatic Supplement No. XV, Journ., As. Soc. Bengal, Vol. VI, N.S., No. 11.

Plate XLVI to illustrate Mr. R. B. Whitehead's paper on 'Dāms of Akbar struck at Jaunpūr and Ajmīr Mints' and 'Some rare Pathān Coins,' published in the Numismatic Supplement No. XV, Journ., As. Soc. Bengal, Vol. VI, N.S., No. 11.

176A

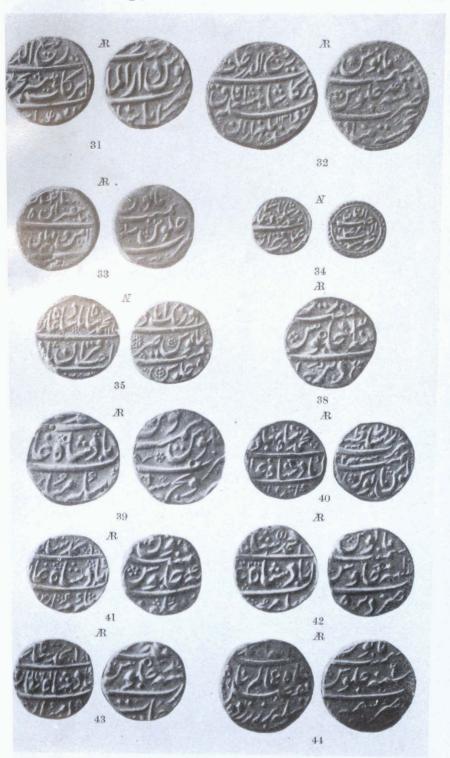


' Notes on some Mughal Coins.' (Numismatic Supplement XV).



' Notes on some Mughal Coins.' (Numismatic Supplement XV).



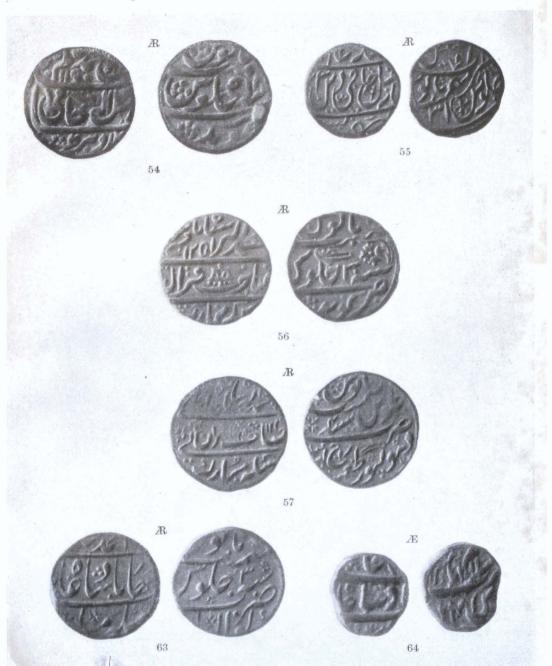


' Notes on some Mughal Coins.' (Numismatic Supplement XV).



' Notes on some Mughal Coins.' (Numismatic Supplement XV).

Journ. As. Soc. Beng., Vol. VI.



' Notes on some Mughal Coins.' (Numismatic Supplement XV).

No. 60. A; Gulkanda mint; dateless. Type as in I.M. Catalogue, Vol. III. Plate X, No. 947.

No. 61. A; Kābul mint; date 1040 A.H. Type as in I.M. Catalogue, Vol. III. Plate X, No. 910.

SHĀH JAHĀN II.

No. 62. AI; Burhānpūr mint. Ordinary type and dates.

AHMAD SHAH BAHADUR.

No. 63. A.

Mint,—Gwāliār.
Date,—A.H.; 3 R.

SHAH 'ĀLAM II.

No. 64. Æ. Weight, 80; size, ·7.

Mint,—Islāmābād Mathurā.

Date,—A.H.; 24 R.

 Obverse.
 Reverse.

 اسلام اباد مقهرا
 شاء عالم

 صوب
 باد شاء غاز

 جاوس ع۱۲
 جاوس ع۱۲

Sword over sin of julus.

Mr. Burn mentions a copper coin of Shāh 'Ālam II of Islāmābād Mathurā mint as one of the rare coins in the Ellis Cabinet,—N.S. III,—but it has so far not been described. A rupee is contained in Mr. Burn's Tables, and a muhar has just been acquired by Mr. Nelson Wright.

The ordinary Islāmābād silver and copper coins of Shāh 'Alam II are not uncommon.

R. B. WHITEHEAD, I.C.S.

90. -On some Copper Coins of the 'Ādil Shāhī Dynasty of Bījāpūr.

In the month of August last (1910) Mr. Henry Cousens. M.R.A.S., then Superintendent of the Archæological Survey of India. Western Circle, forwarded to me 249 copper coins. sent him from Bijāpūr, the well-known capital of the District of that name in the Southern Division of the Bombay Presidency. Though with an occasional good specimen amongst them, most of the coins were in poor condition, battered and Seven of them were square, all the others being round. From this material, sufficient indeed in quantity, but of inferior quality. Mr. Cousens set himself a task of reconstruction. Skilfully piecing together a bit from one coin and a bit from another, he was able finally to build up both the Obverses and the Reverses of nine different types of coin. As I now write. photographs of the coins thus reconstructed, and the copper coins themselves, lie before me, and a comparison of both reveals how remarkably true to the originals are these reconstructions. Not a stroke nor a dot is lacking, and the proportions and shapes of the letters have been reproduced with an almost absolute fidelity. Thus the accompanying Plate of these reconstructed coins may confidently be accepted as exhibiting facsimile representations of the original dies.

I have said that the coins came from Bijapur, and the question at once suggests itself. Are these then coins of a distinctive Bijapur currency? On this point the coins themselves are tantalizingly reticent, giving no clue as to the affinities of the kings who caused them to be struck. Not one records the place of mintage, and with eight exceptions they are dateless. They do, however, give the name (though never the father's name) of the regnant king, and hence we learn that the 249 coins were struck during the reigns of just five kings, an 'Alī, an Ibrāhīm, a Muhammad, a second 'Alī and a Sikandar. But, when the names are written in this order, anyone familiar with the history of Bijapur will at once see that these are the very names of the last five kings of the 'Adil Shahī This fact of itself affords strong presumptive evidence in favour of the attribution of the coins to that dynasty. Confirmatory evidence is supplied by the dates on the eight dated coins. Six are of the reign of Ibrahim, and the years recorded are 1022 and (perhaps) 1024, 1025, years thus that fall within the reign of Ibrāhīm II of Bījāpūr (A.H. 988—1037). Two other coins, struck in the name of the Sultan Sikandar, are dated A.H. 1086, 1087, and Sikandar of Bijāpūr reigned from A.H. 1083 to 1097. Then, too, the inscription on one of the types (No. IX) bears associated with the king's name 'All the title 'Adil Shah, a title distinctive of the dynasty that held sway in Bijāpūr from A.H. 895 till

1097. Lastly, my esteemed friend, Mr. Framji Jamaspji Thanawala of Bombay, was so good as to send me for inspection from his own collection twenty-five coins, and from that of Mr. Kavasji Edalji Kotwal seven, all of the same kind as those sent by Mr. Cousens, and the "find-spot" of these additional thirty-two specimens was Sholapur, a town distant from Bijapur just fifty-eight miles, and intimately connected with the history of that city. For these cumulative reasons one may with perfect confidence assign all the 281 copper coins 1 to the last five 'Adil Shāhī rulers. So far as I am aware, no coins of this dynasty have hitherto been published, and a Bijapūr currency, prior to Aurangzeb's annexation of the kingdom, has not been registered in any book on Numismatics. But, having regard to the pomp and splendour of the 'Adil Shahs, a glory attested by the noble monuments and graceful memorials that still remain in the city of Bijapur, 'the Palmyra of the Dakhan,' it is well nigh incredible that these proud monarchs. during the two centuries of their independence, should have been content to use an alien currency. More than once, indeed. had the conjecture been hazarded that they did strike coins of their own, and to-day some of these coins of theirs we hold in our hand.

The only reference I have yet found to any actual Bijāpūr currency is in Beale's 'Oriental Biographical Dictionary,' where that writer states, with reference to Muhammad 'Adil Shah. "He was the last king of Bijāpūr who struck coins in his "own name." This article will demonstrate that both 'Ali II and Sikandar, the two successors of Muhammad, did issue coins, though not indeed so freely as their three predecessors. still, while mistaken in respect of this detail. Beale was correct in his implication that the 'Adil Shahs had a special currency of their own. As yet we are in a position to report of their copper coins only, but a State marked by such magnificence and grandeur would surely not have restricted its currency to the baser metal. We venture therefore to express the hope that, if still further search be made, it will some day be rewarded by the welcome discovery of Bijāpūr coins in both silver and gold.

As preliminary to an account of the various types of the copper coins, it may be well to enter here a List and a Genealogical Table of the kings of the 'Ādil Ṣhāhī Dynasty of Bījāpūr.

Chronological List of the 'Adil Shāhī Kings of Bījāpūr.

- 1. Yūsaf 'Ādil Shāh reigned A H. 895—916 (A.D. 1489—1510).
- 2. Isma'il ,, A.H. 916-941 (A.D. 1510-1534).

¹ From Mr. Cousens 249, from Mr. Thanawala 25, and from Mr. Kotwal 7: Total 281.

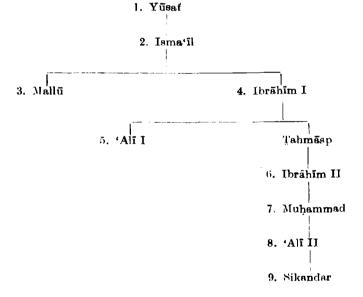
- 3. Mallū 'Ādil Shāh reigned A.H. 941 [7 mos.] (A.D. 1534—1535).
 4. Ibrāhīm I , A.H. 941—965 (A.D. 1535—1557).
 5. 'Alī I , A.H. 965—988 (A.D. 1557—1580).
 6. Ibrāhīm II , A.H. 988—1037 (A.D. 1580—1627).
 7. Muhammad A.H. 1037—1067 (A.D. 1635—1656).
- 7. Muhammad ,, A.H. 1037—1067 (A.D. 1627—1656). 8. 'Ali II , A.H. 1067—1083 (A.D. 1656—1672).

9. Sikandar ,, A.H. 1083-1097 (A.D. 1672-1686).

The last king, Sikandar, deposed by Aurangzeb in A.H. 1097, died three years later.

It may be noted that the entire period of the rule of the dynasty was a little more than 200 lunar years, or from A.H. 895 to 1097, and a little less than 200 solar years, or from A.D. 1489—1686.

Genealogical Tree of the 'Adil Shāhī kings of Bījāpūr.



This table shows that Ibrāhīm I was a brother of Mallū, and Ibrāhīm II a nephew of 'Alī I, and that with these two exceptions each king was a son of his immediate predecessor on the throne.

Controversy still gathers round the question as to the parentage of Yūsaf, the founder of the dynasty, but, whence-soever sprung, he rose to influence at the court of Sultān Muḥammad Shāh III of the Bahmanī dynasty of Kulbarga, who, when appointing him Governor of the Bijāpūr District, conferred on him the title of 'Ādil Khān. On this Sultān's death internal dissensions hastened the disintegration of the Bahmanī kingdom. "Yūsaf 'Ādil Khān, collecting around

"him a strong force of Turks and Mughals, and feeling himself "pretty secure, began by degrees to sever his connexion with the capital; and, finally, in A.D. 1489 he openly declared his "independence by ordering the Khutba to be read in the "mosques in his own name."

Of the first four kings of this Dynasty no coins have as yet been discovered, but of course it by no means follows that no coins were struck by them. The coins hitherto found are of ten several types, nine of which Mr. Cousens has "reconstructed." The one additional type is represented by only five specimens, and these of a coarse and clumsy make. The ten types range over the last five reigns. Two should in all probability be attributed to 'Alī I, three to Ibrāhīm II, three to Muḥammad, one to 'Alī II and one to Sikandar. Of each type we now proceed to give a detailed description.

TYPE I.

Number of specimens 5 (Cousens).

1. Reign: 'Alī I: A.H. 965—988.

2. Diameter: (a) 8; 75; (b) 65 inch.

3. Weight: (a) 186, 182, 174, 157 grains.
(b) 117 grains.

ملي ابن ابي طالب علي ابن ابي طالب arranged thus :—

على ابن على ابي

On the smallest of the five coins the zii is written zii. and on the lowest line.

Reverse: باللغ الغالب arranged thus :— اللغ است است إلغالب

TYPE II (Plate XXXIX, Figure 1).

Number of specimens 27: (a) 10 (Cousens); 2 (Thanawala). (b) 5 (Cousens); 1 (Thanawala).

(c) 9 (Cousens).

¹ Cousens: Guide to Bîjāpūr, 2nd Edn., p. 115.

Reign: 'Ali I: A.H. 965-988. 1.

Diameter: (a) .75; (b) .7; (c) .55 inch; also of one square coin the side measures 5 inch.

Weight: (a) 177; (b) 110; (c) 52 grains; and of the 3. square coin 58 grains.

Obverse:

على ابن ابي طالب

arranged as in Fig. 1.

Reverse:

اسد الله الغالب

arranged as in Fig. 1.

'Alī I, as a convinced Shī'a (his father was a Sunnī), would delight to associate himself in every possible way with 'Alī the fourth, or, as Shī'as maintain, the first rightful Khalīfa. Now this 'Alī Khalīfa was a son of Abū Tālib, and hence the king 'Alī, by striking on his coins the words 'Alī son of Abī (= Abū) Tālib, was suggesting at least his oneness with the revered Khalifa.

On the Reverse of this 'Alī's coins he is styled Asad Allah, 'the Lion of God.' It is noteworthy, in this connexion, that a noble bearing the title Asad Khān was married to a sister of the king. He was "one of the greatest men in Bijapur story, "and since his death, for some reason or other, he is still "remembered and treated as a wall or saint."

Type III (Plate XXXIX, Figure 2).

Number of specimens 46: (a) 18 (Cousens); 4 (Thanawala).

(b) 22 (Cousens). (c) 2 (Cousens).

Reign: Ibrāhīm II: A.H. 988-1037. 1.

Diameter: (a) .75; (b) .65; (c) .55 inch. Weight: (a) 172 grs. (average of 22 specimens).

(b) 115 grs. (average of 22 specimens).

(c) 60 grs. (average of 2 specimens).

Obverse:

ابواهيم ثلأ اثلى

arranged as in Fig. 2.

Reverse:

غلام على مرتض

arranged as in Fig. 2.

A slight variant of this Type is preserved to us in a single coin. Its distinguishing feature is a four-petalled cruciform

¹ Cousens: op. ctt., p. 135. See also Briggs's Ferishts: III, 101, 102

[N.S.]

flower, markedly in evidence at the middle of both the Obverse and the Reverse. The long strokes of the lam and alit of on the Reverse are not upright, but inclined, so as to form nearly a right angle, thus Ni, and the flower ornament comes just above their point of intersection. The exact arrangement of the words on the Obverse cannot be clearly determined from the solitary specimen to hand, but certainly the arrangement here differs considerably from that of Type III.

Type IV (Plate XXXIX, Figure 3).

Number of specimens 50: (a) 12 (Cousens); 1 (Thanawala).

(b) 17 (Cousens); I (Thanawala).

(c) 19 (Cousens).

Reign: Ibrāhīm II: A.H. 988-1037. l.

Diameter: (a) .75; (b) .7; (c) .55 inch.

3. Weight: (a) 174 grs. (average of 13).

(b) 123 grs. (average of 18).

(c) 73 grs. (average of 19).

ابراهيم فلأ افلي Obverse:

arranged as in Fig. 3.

غالم على موتض Reverse:

arranged as in Fig. 3.

Type V (Plate XXXIX, Figure 4).

Number of specimens 6: (a) 2 (Cousens); 1 (Thanawala). (b) 2 (Cousens); 1 (Thanawala).

1. Reign: Ibrāhīm II: A.H. 988—1037.

2. All the 6 specimens are square; length of side: (a) 65; (b) 6 inch.

3. Weight: (a) 183 grs. (average of 3).

(b) 120 grs. (average of 3).

ابراهیم دال ادلی Obverse:

arranged as in Fig. 4.

غالم ملى مرتض ١٠٢٢ Reverse:

arranged as in Fig. 4.

After many attempts to decipher them, the last two words on the Obverse of Types III, IV, and V still remain doubtful. They may possibly read أَنَى bilā athnī, 'without a second,'

'the unique,' but certainly the penultimate letter seems on every specimen to be not $n\bar{u}n$, but $l\bar{a}m$.

The Reverse legend is غلام علي صرنفي. Murtaḍā, 'the Chosen,' is a title frequently applied to 'Alī, the Khalīfa, and Ibrāhīm II, himself a Shī'a, might thus gladly style himself 'Slave of 'Alī the Chosen.'

All these six coins are dated. On the three heavier the year is 1022, 102 [? 4], 102 [? 4], and on the three lighter 1022, 102 [? 5], and xxxx.

TYPE VI (Plate XXXIX, Figure 5).

Number of specimens 70: (a) 1 (Thanawala).

- (b) 54 (Cousens); 3 (Thanawala).
- (c) 11 (Cousens); 1 (Thanawala).
- 1. Reign: Muhammad: A.H. 1037-1067.
- 2. Diameter: (a) .85 (Thanawala); (b) .8; (c) .7 inch.
- 3. Weight: (a) 267 grs. (Thanawala).
 - (b) 179 grs. (average of 57).
 - (c) 117 grs. (average of 12).

Obverse and Reverse legends together make the following couplet, arranged as in Fig. 5:—

The world from these two Muhammads received beauty and dignity;

The first is Muḥammad the Apostle, the second Muḥammad Shāh.

One of the queens of Muhammad Shāh was named Tāj Jahān Begam, and possibly there may be a veiled allusion to this lady in the distich inscribed on the king's coin. The lines would then bear this interpretation:—

The world (Jahān) received beauty and dignity from Muḥammad the Apostle, the queen (Tāj Jahān) from Muḥammad Shāh.

Or can the statement that Muhammad Shāh conferred beauty and dignity on the world find its explanation in the marvellous tomb that this Sultān began to build soon after his accession to the throne? Dwarfing every other edifice in Bijāpūr, the Gol Gumbadh covers a larger area than any other dome in the world. Second to it, but longo intervallo, comes the Pantheon at Rome.

Probably, however, we had better not seek too exact a justification of the distich on these coins, and just be content

to regard it as a felicitous sample of the florid verses that the Persian court-poets have always been willing to supply for the gratification of their royal patrons.

Type VII (Plate XXXIX, Figure 6).

Number of specimens 16: (a) 10 (Cousens); (b) 6 (Cousens).

- 1. Reign: Muhammad: A.H. 1037-1067.
- 2. Diameter: (a) .75; (b) .65 inch.
- 3. Weight: (a) 173 grs. (average of 10).
 (b) 115 grs. (average of 6).

Obverse and Reverse together furnish the same couplet as on Type VI, but arranged as in Fig. 6.

Type VIII (Plate XXXIX, Figure 7).

Number of specimens 27: (a) 9 (Cousens); 2 (Kotwal).

- (b) 13 (Cousens); 1 (Kotwal).
- (c) 1 (Cousens).
- (d) 1 (Cousens).
- 1. Reign: Muhammad: A.H. 1037-1067.
- 2. Diameter: (a) .75; (b) .65; (c) .5; (d) .5 inch.
- 3. Weight: (a) 174 grs. (average of 11).
 - (b) 118 grs. (average of 14).
 - (c) 66 grs.
 - (d) 56 grs.

Obverse and Reverse together furnish the same couplet as on Type VI, but arranged as in Fig. 7.

This Type is distinguished by an outlined leaf, enclosing nine dots, set in the middle of both the Obverse and the Reverse.

Type IX (Plate XXXIX, Figure 8).

Number of specimens 18: (a) 8 (Cousens); 5 (Thanawala); 3 (Kotwal).

- (b) 1 (Cousens).
- (c) 1 (Cousens).
- 1. Reign: 'Ali II: A.H. 1067—1083.
- 2. Diameter: (a) .75; (b) .6; (c) .55 inch.
- 3. Weight: (a) 179 grs. (average of 16).
 - (b) 116 grs.
 - (c) 58 grs.

arranged as in Fig. 8.

Reverse:

غلام حيدر صفدر

arranged as in Fig. 8.

The word wis on the Obverse is a conjectural, though probable, reading. Above it comes on some specimens what seems to be a date, perhaps 1.74, but only the two middle figures are quite clear. The year 1068 Hijri was the second regnal year of 'Alī II.

Haidar, 'the Lion,' is one of the many honourable epithets bestowed on that 'Alī whom the Shī'as revere so profoundly. Thus by the Reverse legend, 'Slave of Haidar, the Rankbreaker,' 'Alī II, the Shī'a king, proclaimed his fealty to 'Alī

the Khalifa.

TYPE X (Plate XXXIX, Figure 9).

Number of specimens 16: (a) 5 (Cousens); 4 (Thanawala); 1 (Kotwal).

(b) 3 (Cousens).

(c) 3 (Cousens).

1. Reign: Sikandar: A.H. 1083-1097.

2. Diameter: (a) .75; (b) .65; (c) .6 inch.

3. Weight: (a) 178 grs. (average of 10).

(b) 117 grs. (average of 3).

(c) 58 grs. (average of 3).

Obverse:

سفه ۱۰۸۹ سلطان سكفدر قادري

arranged as in Fig. 9.

Reverse:

خسرو گیڌي ستان arranged as in Fig. 9.1

On another specimen the date recorded on the Obverse is .av.

The title on the Reverse, "Khusrau (Chosroes), the Conqueror of the World," is also present on some of Nādir Shāh's Persian coins, and on some of the Durrānī king Maḥmūd Shāh.

From the foregoing description it is clear that the Bijāpūr copper currency consisted for the most part of coins of three denominations, weighing, respectively, about 60, 120, and 180 grains. Evidently, however, some of the coins that were

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I The first two letters of the word were not decipherable on the coins from which Mr. Cousens made his "reconstruction." Both these letters are, however, distinctly seen on the specimen that Mr. Kotwal kindly sent me for inspection.



COPPER COINS OF BIJAPUR.

issued did not fall within this range of weight. Of these a notable example is Mr. Thanawala's beautiful specimen struck in the reign of Muhammad Shāh and weighing 267 grains. Too few coins are yet known to warrant a detailed statement as to the metrology of the Bījāpūr coinage, but for the present the 100-ratī weight (or about 180 grains) may be held to have been the standard for the normal heavy coin. The normal light coin was only one-third as heavy; and the intermediate coin was in weight the arithmetic mean of the other two.

GEO. P. TAYLOR.

AHMADĀBĀD: 20th October, 1910.

91.—On the Bijāpūr Lārī or Larin.

That silver coins of a type similar to the copper were current in the territories of the 'Ādil Shāhī monarchs seems every way probable, but no specimens are as yet forthcoming. A silver currency of quite a different, and indeed of foreign, pattern was, however, in existence, the curious Larin currency, which, originating in the district of Lār at the head of the Persian Gulf, and thence deriving its name, was adopted by the kings of Bījāpūr, and, in a somewhat variant, the fish-hook, form, by the kings of Kandy in Ceylon. Describing this coin Pietro della Valle (1614—1626) writes:—

"The lari is a piece of money that I will exhibit in "Italy, most eccentric in form, for it is nothing but a "little rod of silver, of a fixed weight, and bent double "unequally. On the bend it is marked with some "small stamp or other. It is called Lari, because it was "the peculiar money of the Princes of Lar, invented by "them when they were separated from the kingdom of "Persia."

Jean Baptiste Tavernier indicates the district in which, at his time (1640-1667), this currency obtained.

"The Larins are one of the ancient coins of Asia; and "though at this day they are only current in Arabia and "at Balsara, nevertheless, from Bragdatt to the Island "of Ceylan, they traffick altogether with the Larin, and "all along the Persian Golf." 2

As the territory of the monarchs of Bijāpūr embraced a large portion of the Konkan littoral, it was probably with a

Quoted in Yule and Burnell's "Hobson-Jobson," s.v. Larin.
 Tavernier: Travels in India: Made English by J. P., 1678, pages
 2.

view to meeting the local demand for this strange coast-money that they caused larins to be struck in their own names. That these 'Ādil Shāhī larins were at any time current over the whole extent of the 'Ādil Shāhī dominions is very doubtful. Their circulation was, one may well believe, restricted to a narrow tract of country bordering the sea.

The larin being merely a piece of silver wire, or slender rod, doubled on its middle, affords but a scanty surface for receiving an inscription. Hence many letters on the coins are incomplete. However, by collating several specimens it has become possible to decipher the "some small stamp or other." One prong of the coin seems to read-

سلطان على عادل شالا

ضرب الارى دانگے سنه and the other

The Sultan 'Alī 'Ādil Shāh struck the lārī coin, year.....

One cannot be quite certain, however, that either فرب or is a correct rendering of the original. In favour of the combination لاري دائل it may be remarked that the early wr ter (A.D. 1525) of the Lembranças das Cousas da India mentions that 60 reis equal in value 1 tanga larin.

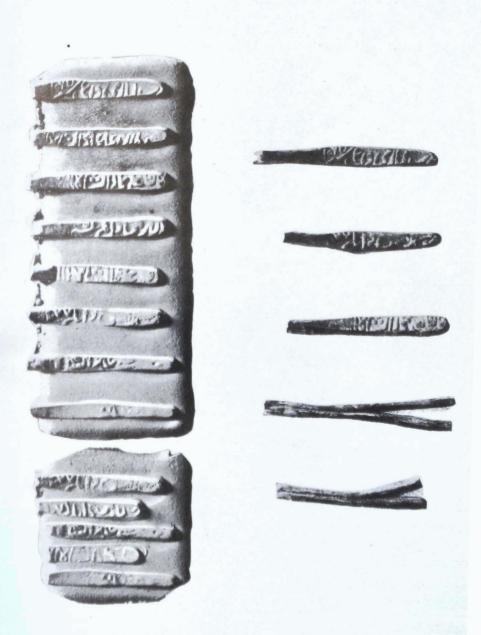
Some specimens bearing the above legend are dated 1071 and some 1077, which goes to prove that this 'Alī 'Ādil Ṣhāh was 'Alī II (A H. 1067—1083).

As other coins, so larins too bore different legends at different periods. One in my possession has thus far defied decipherment, but the words ابرالعظفر شاء stand out quite clearly on one prong, and (perhaps) on the other: so just possibly --for this specimen is dateless—this 'Alī may be 'Alī I (A.H 965—988), one of whose titles was Abu'l Muzaffar. Can it be that both the silver larins of Bījāpūr and its copper currency were first issued under the auspices of this king?

Mr. Cousens has taken some admirable photographs of larins, sent him from Ratnagiri, from which Plate XL has been prepared. It exhibits the actual larins, and also their inscriptions, the latter attached to a plaster background. The sixth, seventh, and eighth inscriptions of the upper portion recur as the first, third, and fifth, respectively, of the lower portion. Unfortunately I am not able to give details as to the weight of each of the coins there represented, but the lengths shown are, I understand, the same as those of the originals. Of the only

¹ Voyage of Pyrard de Laval: Hakluyt Society's Edn., I, 232, note 2.

Journ., As. Soc. Beng., Vol. VI.



LARI OR LARIM.

two specimens in my cabinet, one measures in its double length 3.75 inches and weighs 74 grains: the other, though measuring only 1.75 inch, is so much thicker that it weighs 78 grains. Mr. Thanawala kindly informs me that the average weight of four larins in his possession is 71 grains.

GEO. P. TAYLOR.

92.—On the Bijāpūr Mughal Rupee of A.H. 1091.

It was in the year 1097 H., the 30th regnal year of Aurangzeb, that the Bijapur garrison capitulated to the Emperor, and the erstwhile kingdom of the 'Adil Shahs became but a Province of the Mughal Empire. The coins thereafter struck at Bijāpūr in the name of Aurangzeb, especially those of the years 1098 and (one issue of) 1116, were remarkable for the beauty of their lettering and for their exquisite workmanship. Also on these coins the mint-name appears in association with the proud title Dar al Zafar. But how is one to account for the fact that Mughal rupees bearing the name of Aurangzeb and purporting to have issued from Bijāpūr were struck so early as the Hijri year 1091, the 24th regnal year—that is to say, six years before the capture of the mint-town? One such rupee is No. 763 of the British Museum Catalogue, and a second is in my own cabinet. Both these specimens, however. are of very ordinary make, without any claim to distinction as trophies of the engraver's art. The mint-name too is entered on them as plain Bijāpūr with no ennobling title. Under what circumstances, then, can these earlier rupees have been uttered?

Now, though Bijāpūr finally surrendered to the Mughals in A.H. 10.7, it had previously often undergone siege at their hands. One of these occasions was in the year 1090, when Dilawar Khan with his Imperial troops closely invested the city. The sister of Sikandar 'Adil Shah, in the hope of saving her brother and country, had already devoted herself and gone down to the Mughal camp to be the bride of Sultan Mu'azzam. the second son of Aurangzeb. But even this sacrifice proved of no avail. The siege was still pressed sore, and in his despair the Bijāpūr regent, Mas'ūd Khān, applied to Sivājī for aid. The latter at once made a diversion by a vigorous attack on the Mughal possessions in the Dakhan. But the Mughal general, Dilāwar Khān, was not now to be drawn aside from the capture of Bijapur, and so closely did he beset the city that Mas'ud Khan was under the painful necessity of making further supplication to the Marathas. When at last these did come, and, hovering round the investing army, succeeded in cutting off its supplies, then only did Dilawar Khan raise the siege and retreat by rapid marches westwards. There can be little doubt that it was while this siege was proceeding and

capitulation seemed imminent that the powerful Mughal faction in the city, thinking to anticipate an inevitable surrender, caused the 1091 Hijrī rupces to be struck in the name of the Emperor Aurangzēb. Or just possibly they may have been issued from some mint accompanying the Imperial forces in the field. Certainly no sufficient proof has come down to us that the Mughal assailants did actually capture the city in the year 1091; but no less certainly that year witnessed the circulation of Bījāpūr coins of Aurangzēb.

GEO. P. TAYLOR.

93.—On the half-muhr No. 172 of the British Museum Catalogue.

Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole, in his Catalogue of the Mughal Coins in the British Museum, has suggested that the very interesting gold piece No. 172, depicting a crowned archer followed by a woman veiled, may have been struck in order to commemorate the submission to Akbar of Ibrāhīm II, king of Bijāpūr, and the subsequent marriage of Ibrāhim's daughter to Akbar's third son, the Sultan Daniyal Mirza. This interpretation of the coin rests, however, on very slender foundation. The late M. Ed. Drouin, in an article contributed in 1902 to the Revue Numismatique, describes, and gives a vignette of, a half-muhr closely resembling this one in the British Museum, save that the specimen in the Cabinet de France bears on its Obverse the legend, in Devanāgarī characters, रामस्य, Rāmasatya, 'the Truth of Rāma.' | Arguing mainly from this new feature of the coin, M. Drouin arrives at the following conclusion:-

"Notre médaille représente donc, suivant moi, le "prince Rāma, reconnaissable à sa couronne, avec l'arc "et les flèches célestes, suivi de Sītā, la fille de Djanaka, "roi de Mithila, 'la belle Mithilène,' comme l'appelle le "poète, tous deux partant pour l'exil; il ne manque "que Lakshmaṇa."

If this explanation, so consonant with the legend on the coin, wins, as it well may, our acceptance, we must then surely relegate to the same class with it the sister coin, No. 172 of the British Museum. That either of the two stands in any special relation to the 'Ādil Shāhs of Bījāpūr is very improbable.

GEO. P. TAYLOR.

¹ Compare the mention, on other Mughal coins, of the Khalifas and their virtues, e.g., بصدق ابى بكر, 'By the Truth of Abfi Bakr.'

94.— 'Dams of Akbar struck at Jaunpur and Ajmir Mints' and 'Some rare Pathan Coins.'

Two papers entitled 'Dāms of Akbar struck at Jaunpūr and Ajmīr Mints' and 'Some rare Paṭhān Coins' appeared in Numismatic Supplements Nos. XIII and XIV, respectively. Since their publication I have made casts of the coins described, and a plate has been prepared which is published with the present paper. A reference is invited to the papers themselves, but for convenience I append an abbreviated list of the coins.

DAMS OF AKBAR STRUCK AT JAUNPUR AND AJMIR MINTS.

No. 1. New type of Jaunpur $d\bar{a}m$, dateless.

No. 2. Dām of Salīmābād Ajmīr, dated 982 A.H.

No. 3. Dam of Salimābād, dated 1008 A.H.

SOME RARE PATHĀN COINS.

No. 1. Copper coin of Ghiyāsu-d-dīn Balban struck at Fakhrābād.

No. 2. Billon coin of Shamsu-d-dīn Maḥmūd Shāh of Dehli, dated 718 A.H.

In the list of 'Books on the Coins of Northern India' at the end of C. J. Rodgers' 'Coin Collecting in Northern India' is the following—(57) Coins of Shams-ud-din Mahmud Shah. 1 cut, C. J. Rodgers. I have not seen this pamphlet, but the paragraph I quoted in my paper 'Some Rare Pathān Coins' from 'Coin Collecting in Northern India,' was written after it, and obviously recapitulates the information contained in it.

No. 3. Mohur of Muhammad Tughlaq struck at Tughlaq-

pūr alias Tirhut, date 735 A.H.

No. 4. New variety of a common billon coin of Muhammad Tughlaq, date 734 A.H.

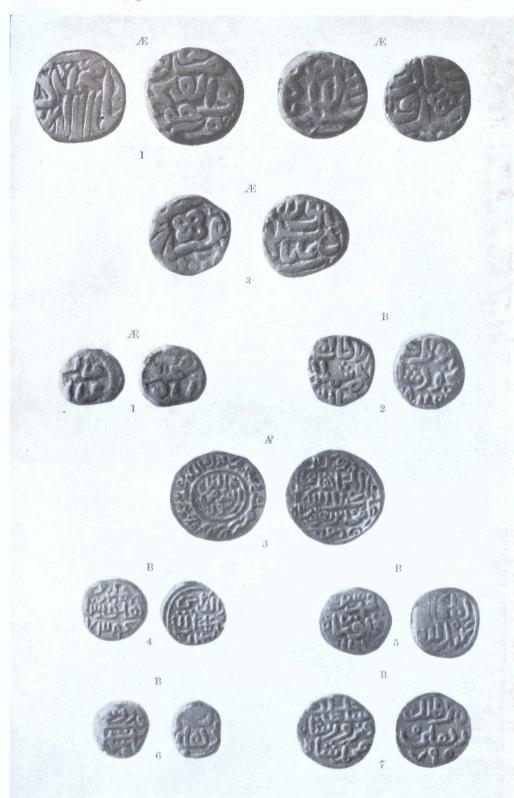
No. 5. Ditto.

No. 6. Coin of Fîroz Shāh Tughlaq with his son Zafar, of mint Dāru-l-Mulk Dehli.

No. 7. Coin of Firoz Shāh Tughlaq with his son Muḥammad Shāh, of mint Dāru-l-Mulk Dehli, date 790 A.H.

and the second second second

R. B. WHITEHEAD, I.C.S.



'Dāms of Akbar struck at Jaunpūr and Ajmer Mints '
(Numismatic Supplement XIII), and
'Some Rare Paṭhān Coins' (Numismatic Supplement XIV).

SURVEY OF IND Jatu Gosten, I.C.S. 12 FEB. 1912

INTRODUCTION

The language spoken by the Robtak Jats is called by themselves Játú. One and the same language, with dialectical differences, almost imperceptible from village to village, is spoken throughout the Bángar or highlands lying between the Khádir of the Jamná on the east and the Hissar Hariáná tract The language is variously known in different on the west. parts as Bángarú, Játú or Hariání. In Hariáná it is called. appropriately enough, Deswálí or Desárí. In Delhi it is sometimes styled Chamarwá from the fact that the Chamárs who also speak it are numerous; but in Rohtak at least they speak it ungrammatically. The language is in reality a dialect of Western Hindí, modified on the one hand by the disturbing influences of Panjábí in the north and on the other by the Ahírwátí dialect of Gurgaon in the south which is classed in Dr. Grierson's Linguistic Survey as a form of the Mewati dialect of Rájasthání. In Rohtak itself there is little of the former influence, but the moment the town of Jhajjar is passed, we find the Jats of the south affected by Ahirwati. into which their speech rapidly merges. The distinguishing mark of the change, which at once arrests attention, is the substitution of o for final a. If an Ahir of Jhajjar or his Jat neighbour wishes to say that there has been a fine crop of bulrush millet, he will say "baro achho bajro huo." With this dialect the following pages have nothing to do, though it is probable that some words have crept into the glossary which are not spoken in the north of the district. It is extraordinary how local are particular words, even particular forms of Had I had the leisure I would have collected all the words in one particular village, but I have been obliged to compile them as I marched hither and thither through the district. The grammatical notes have in fact been recorded at Sampla.

English officers who serve in Rohtak generally find the dialect difficult to understand and tiresome to acquire. Probably the bulk of Indian officers do so too, and certainly the Muhammadans who do not belong to the neighbourhood do so. The reason of this lies in the neglect of Sanskrit and Hindi

¹ Dr. Grierson has been good enough to supply me with a MS. copy of his grammatical notes on the Bangarú of Karnál and Patiálá (Nirwáná) which will appear in vol. ix (1) of the Linguistic Survey. It is remarkable how much more the speech of this tract is affected by Panjábí forms than that of Rohtak.

that is nowadays so prevalent. We are nurtured on the persianised Urdu of the munshi, and the language of the Higher Standard Hindustani is the polished language of Delhi city. Nothing is more useless for an understanding of the thought and wants of the villagers. At the present moment there is but one officer in the Panjab Commission who has passed the higher standard in Sanskrit and but three who have satisfied the same test in Hindi, and not one of those three is a member of the Indian Civil Service. I have often regretted for my own sake the absence of a compulsory test in Hindi.

The object of the present notes is an attempt to simplify the work of the Englishmen who will serve in Rohtak in the future. It has perplexed me considerably to know how best to do this. One method that suggested itself was to record only such words as were to be found in no standard dictionary or were omitted from a given standard dictionary such as that of Platts. Even the latter of these alternatives seemed open to considerable inconvenience, and doubts again arose how slight a modification of form would entitle a word to inclusion in the Another course was to make a frank revelation of the extent of my own ignorance and to record only such words as were new to myself. It would be a bold assumption however-and, I trust, a groundless one-to suppose that all future officers would be as ignorant of Hindi as I was when I came to the district: it seemed on the other hand conceivable that a few might be even more stupendously ignorant. Ultimately I have attempted to include all the words in common use in Rohtak which so far as I knew were not in common use among educated Indians; it will be found that almost all are Hindi, but there are a few which are corruptions of Persian, or of English. The Hindi words are either 'tatsamas' borrowed direct from Sanskrit or 'tadbhavas' which have come into the language through Prakrit.

Not all the words however are in common use, for I have tried, whenever quoting a proverb or verse, to include every strange word in it, and there are some which are hardly known outside the quotation. On the other hand there are doubtless many instances of omission of words in common use. These I hope will be supplied by some future district officer. They must be written from the speech, proverbs or songs of the

people, for the language has no literature.

I have divided my notes into three parts. The first is grammatical and assumes on the part of the reader a knowledge of Hindustani grammar. I have thought it unnecessary to repeat forms that are identical with the latter. The second is the Játú-English glossary, and here I have followed Mr. O'Brien's original model in his "Glossary of the Multani Language," interpolating proverbs and riddles in illustration of the words. Of the utility of the third part, or EnglishJátú, I am more doubtful, but I have compiled it chiefly to aid in the identification of a word whose meaning, but not its exact form, has been grasped on first hearing. I am indebted for much assistance to Munshi Diwan Chand, Settlement Kanungo, without the aid of whose quick ear I should have been at a loss to render the spoken language correctly.

July 20, 1910.

E. JOSEPH.

PART I.

GRAMMATICAL NOTES.

§ 1. Notation and pronunciation.

The alphabet employed is the ordinary Nágrí, and the system of transliteration employed is in almost every case that which is adopted in every Hindi grammar or dictionary. The only points calling for remark are that 'n' is used both for and w: that the nasalized vowel which is symbolized in Hindi by the addition of a dot over the vowel affected is written by me as n: that the ng of the English word sing is represented by se and transliterated by ng; that w is transliterated by sh; that w has not been employed.

I have not attempted to try and express the sound of the language by taking any further liberties with the alphabet. Minute variations in the value of different letters between Játú and Urdu can only be acquired by first-hand acquaintance.

The most marked characteristic of the speech is its broadness. Almost every initial a becomes \acute{a} ; achh \acute{a} becomes \acute{a} chh \acute{a} ; it is almost more than this, for the language is spoken with a drawl and \acute{a} achh \acute{a} more nearly represents the sound. The same characteristic is often observed in non-initial 'a' sounds; eg., "to-morrow" is not kal but nearer to are kál, as I have written it; yet it is not quite that, that being the sound of the words that mean 'time' or 'death' and 'famine.'

Similarly jamná, 'to be born,' becomes simi jámná; chalná, 'to go,' becomes sitti chálná, etc.

Even other vowels than 'a' undergo this change, e.g., píchhe, 'behind,' is in Játú पाचे páchhe. Similar changes in the direction of broad speech may be seen in the use of an súdhá = 'simple,' for sídhá and wan—úthná = 'to get up,' for uthná.

Another change that is sometimes observed is that of r

into l as wer khalá, 'standing,' for khará.

A. DECLENSION OF THE SUBSTANTIVE.

I. Suffixee.

§ 2. The termination of the agent case is \$\frac{3}{2}\$ ne as in Urdu, and of the genitive \$\pi i k\hat{a}\$, declining as in Urdu.

The termination of the dative case is not को ko but न ne. The termination of the ablative is ते te or के धोरे ने ke dhore te: 'in,' as in Urdu, is में men: 'on' is पे pe, not par as in Urdu. The accusative takes the form either of the nominative or of the dative.

Note (1). The fact that accusative and agent case may both end in a ne gives rise to considerable confusion. Both the subject and the object of the verb may have the same termination in the same sentence, e.g.:

मन्ने सास्वि ने मार्थी

Manne sáhib ne máryá.

I beat the Sahib.

Ordinarily the difficulty is avoided by using the nominative form of the accusative when the verb is transitive and of such a tense as to require its subject to be in the agent case, and the dative form of the accusative when the verb is intransitive or of such a tense of a transitive verb that it has its subject in the nominative case; for example,

में साहित ने मार्था

Main sáhib ne máryá

or

बोरा साहित ने पकड़्या

Chhorá sáhib ne pakaryá

कक्के पोकीस पाकड़ के ने जबी

Manne polís pákar ke le gayí.

or

बीर ने पोसीस से बबी

The Police took the boy off.

Chhore ne polis le gayí.

The ambiguity and its solution is well seen in the following sentence:—

ने में सांप ने न मार्ता तो में सांप ने चा खिया शोंता je main sánp ne ná mártá to main sánp ne khá liyá hontá.

If I had not killed the snake, the snake would have bitten me.

(2) Dhore is the equivalent of the Urdu pas, e.g.,

पोरं के धोरे

chhore ke dhore

मेर धोरे

With me.

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In the true ablative, with the sense of 'from', there is no difference between mere te, and mere dhore te liyá. When the sense of the ablative is 'by', dhore te will not be used, e.g., I cannot do it is mere te náhín ho sake.

(3) There are certain peculiar uses of the genitive:

(a) With the verb 'marna' in the sense of 'to strike' the object of the verb is put in the form of the masculine inflected genitive, for example—

H के इस होरे (होरी) के मार्था Manne is chhore (chhorí) ke máryá म के इस के लाडी मारी Manne is ke láthí márí म के इस के ह्याइ मार्था Manne is ke thapar máryá I hit this boy (or girl).
(b) The same form of the genitive is used where in Urdu us ke pas is used; for example, the answer to the question "Have you seen my horse?" or "my mare?" is respectively

मन्ने दच पाची के देखा। Manne is pálí ke dekhyá or भन्ने दच पाची के देखी Manne is pálí ke dekhí

- (c) In the phrase इस के घर की कौन जाने. Is ke ghar ki kaun jáne, referring to God, = "Who knows the secrets of His house?"—the invariable reply to a question regarding the likelihood of rain, etc.—it is probable that some word as बात bát is understood.
- (d) दव के---Ib ke = this year, पुर के---Pur ke = Last year. Here साज ---Sál is understood.
- (4) In the dative of direction, the suffix is often omitted, e.g., নাম নিয়া gám giyá = He has gone to the village. জনসা বিষয় Calcutta giyá = He has gone to Calcutta.

11. Inflexion of the Noun Proper.

- § 3. The departures from Urdu here are-
- (a) In masculine and feminine nouns the oblique plural terminates in $\P \dagger$ án instead of in $\hat{\P} \dagger$ on.
- (b) In feminine nouns the nominative form of the plural is the same as that of the singular and is not inflected.

E xamples.

		•	
Masculine.	chhorá, boy.	bulad, bullock.	bábú, father.
Vocative	रे होंगे	ऐ रेबुखद	रे बाबू
singular.	e chhore.	ere bulad.	e bábú.
Oblique	ब ोरे	बुलद	वाषू
singular.	chhore.	bulad.	bábú.
Nominative	को रे	<u> वृक्तद</u>	ं बा बू
plural.	chhore.	bulad.	b áb ú.
Vocative	ए कोंगी	रे रेब्स्टी	
plural.	e chhoryo.	ere bulado.	
Oblique	कोरां	^{ब्} लद†	वाब्द्यां
plural.	chho rá n.	buladán.	bábúán.
Feminine.	chhorí, girl.	bír, woman.	bahú, wife.
Vocative	र सोरी		
singular.	e chhorí.		
Oblique	चौरी	बीर, bír.	बक्क bahú.
singular.	chho rí.	4	·
Nominative	बोरी	बौर, bír.	बक्क. bahú.
plural.	chhorí.		
V ocative	रे कीयो	• •	•••
plural.	e chhoryo.		
Oblique	कोर्या	बीरां. bírán,	बह्नच†, bahúán.
plural.	chhoryán.		1

Notes.

(1) In one word there appears to be a pure locative case.

षरां जा-gharán já = go home.

This termination does not appear to occur in any other word.

(2) The vocative plural of bábú does not exist, as no one man can call more than one father; nor are vocatives used in bir woman or bahú wife: more polite forms of address are employed.

B. DECLENSION OF THE PRONOUNS.

§ 4. The Personal Pronouns.

These differ considerably from Urdu, and will be given in full. The use of the alternative forms of the accusative has already been explained.

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It should here be noticed that the personal pronouns afford the only instance of the apparent omission of ? ne in the agent case. Probably in the singular it is absorbed in the final letter of main I; in the case of the 2nd person singular and of the plural of both pronouns it survives in the final letter of the inflected form of the agent case.

1st Person.

	Singular.	Plural.					
Nom.	मैं, main = I.	इस ham = we.					
Acc.	मैं-मन्ने, main, manne = me.	इम-इमनेham, hamne = us.					
Agent	मैं-मन्ने, main, manne = I.	इसां इसने— hamán, ham ne					
_		= we.					
Gen.	मेरा—merá = my (declin-	न्हारा—mhárá = our (declin-					
	ing as in Urdu).	ing as in Urdu).					
Dat.	मन्नेmanne = to me.	इसने—ham ne=to us.					
Abl.	मेरे ते—mere te.	म्हारे ते—mháre te.					
	्मेरे धोरे ते—mere from	न्हारे भोरे ते—mháre dhore te. from or by us.					
	dhore te.	dhore te. us.					
	मने —matte.	इस ते—ham te.					
2nd Person.							
	Singular.	Plural.					
Nom.	ਰੂ ਰੂੰ. tu-tun = thou.	तुम, tum¹=vou.					
Voc.	•	तुम. tum = ye.					
Acc.	ត្រូក្នុកិញ្ញ tu-tun-tanne	तुम or तुम्ने tum, tumne ≕					
	– thee.	you.					
Agent	ने नके, tain, tanne =	तुमां or तुम्ने. tumán, tumne					
	thou.	= you.					
Gen.	तेरा, terá = thy (declin-	चारा. thárá = your (declin					
	ing as in Urdu).	ing as in Urdu).					
Dat.	तन्ने, tanne, to thee.	तुन्ने. tum ne=to you.					
Abl.	वैरे ते, tere te.	धारे ते. tháre te. धारे भोरे ते. tháre or by dhore te.					
	तिर भोर ते. tere from or by thee.	चारे भोरे ते. thare from					
	dhore te. thee,	dhore te. you.					
	नने, tatte.	तुम ते. tum te.					

¹ The pronunciation of turn all through is almost nearer tam than tum.

§ 5. Demonstrative Pronouns.

The most marked difference between the demonstrative pronouns in Játú and in Urdu is that in the former there is a distinct form for the feminine singular nominative.

योड. Yoh = this, he, she, it.

Singular.

Plural

Nom. चोड-voh. mas. = he or वि-ve = they or these. this.

> যাৰ—yáh, fem. = she or this.

Acc. a. As nominative.

ये--ve. b. दीने—ín ne. दन ने—in ne.

Agent. इस ने—is ne.

द्व ने—in ne.

दीने--ín ne. दस का—is ká.

दन का—in ká.

Gen. रों का-iù ká.

: **इन नै**—in ne.

दीं ने—in ne. Dat. Abl.

इन ते—in te.

दीं ते—in te.

रं! भोरे ते—in dhore te. इन भोरे वे—in dhore te.

The order of that, he, she, it.

Singular.

Plural.

Nom. चोड oh, mas. = he or that. वि—we: they or those. बाइ, wah, fem. = she or that

Acc. a. As nominative.

ਰੇ—we.

b. **जस ने**—us ne.

ं खन ने—un ne.

Agent. उम ने—us ne.

जन ने---un ne.

चम का-us ká. Gen.

जन का-un ká.

Dat. खस ने—us ne.

खन ने-un ne. खन ते-un te

् **जस ते**—us te. Abl. ें **चम भो**रे ते—us dhore te.

जम भोर ते---un dhore te.

§ 6. The Relative Pronoun.

31. Jo = who, which, what, he who, etc.

Singular.

Plural.

Nom. जो-io.

जो--io.

Singular.

Plural.

Acc. a. जो—jo.

b. जिन्म ने—iis ne. जी ने—jín ne.

a. 新一io.

b. जिस जिस ने—jis jis ne.

cases.

্রেরী or জিৰ—jín or jis; বিজয় জিয়—jis jis, the suffixes the suffixes throughout as in the demonstrative pronouns.

throughout as before.

Notes (1). In the singular jin is the more characteristic form, but the form of the plural shows that jis is also good Játú.

- (2) In the plural instead of the distributive form jis jis. jin is sometimes heard, but this appears to be an exotic form introduced from Urdu.
 - § 7. The Correlative Pronoun.

चो द Oh is preferred to सो so.

Note.—In the adverbial construction जिंब jib (then) is the i nvariable correlative of for jib (when).

§ 8. The Interrogative Pronouns.

The singular exactly follows the declension of jo, the relative pronoun; the oblique cases being either at kin or fare kis. The plural also follows the same rule with this difference that की की kin kin is used as well as किए किए kis kis.

₹ Ke, what.

Nominative &—ke.

Accusative के—ke.

Genitive का का-kyán ká.

§ 9. The Indefinite Pronouns.

कोई Koi = some, someone, any.

The accusative is either कोई koi or किस्ते ने. kisse ne. The oblique cases are fath kisse with the usual suffixes.

Note (1). In the agent case where a negative follows the suffix ? ne, the latter is almost assimilated with the pronoun as

किस्तान करा $\frac{l}{l}$ No one said it. Kissán ná kahá.

(2) For the Urdu kisi ná kisi, Játú employs fata a fata = kisse te kisse, or still more emphatically किसे वे किसे को = kisse te kisse ho

(3) The plural exists in the nominative koi only.

sw kuchh, 'something,' 'anything.'

This presents no differences, but बाबा न wasta na is far commoner and more idiomatic than kuchh nahín.

C. Adverbs.

§ 10. So far as syntax is concerned, adverbs call for no remark. But their form is in many cases very different in Játú; e.g.,—

to-morrow or yes	terday		कास		kál.
yes			हरूबे		hambe.
at the side, near			भोरे		dhore.
behind, after			पाचे		páchhe.
till, until			स्ग		lug.
now			् इक		ib.
then (correlative			জিৰ		jib.
$\mathbf{when} - (\mathbf{relative})$. 5	• •	(जन	• •	jio.
when?			कद		kad.
where ?			कड़ े		kare.
	(किस		kit.
	ļ		कड़े		kare.
whither? .	. 1		कि मोड ़		kitoŗ.
	ί		कींघे		kíńghe
	(પ ર		are.
here .)		पा ड़े		áre.
	(र्त		it.
	,		द् त		it.
hither .	· · · · · ·				
	(र्दे घे	• •	inghe.
there	(٠.	ভন	• •	uţ.
there .	· (क ड़े		úŗe.
	(बीम		aun.
thither .	}				
	Ĺ	• •	ও ন	• •	ut.
thus, so		• •	न्यूं	• •	nyúú
ъ	701 T7	,	4 41 TZ . 1		

D.—The Verb—Active Voice.

§ 11. The Infinitive.

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The uninflected infinitive ends, as in Urdu, with an ná, e.g.—

भाष बोखा थाया से . Sách bolná áchhá se.

The inflected infinitive is formed by dropping the final letter of the termination, and adding, when euphony demands it, a short 'a' before the now final n, e.g.,—

Piwan ke láik.

Piwan jog.

Fit to drink.

Fit to eat.

मरनचाला. Maranálá. About to die.

ऐंड जाचनचाला. Eh já'análá = Eh, you on the road.

§ 12. The Future Participle.

The future participle is formed by adding the termination ala to the inflected infinitive, e.g.,—

कर्ना, karná = To do.

कर्मभारा. karnálá = About to do.

मर्ना, ma rná = To die.

मरनपासा, maranálá = About to die.

§ 13. The Present Participle is as in Urdu. The Verb আলা Aná—to come—has, however, a curious form in আলো Amtá. আন্ব—Amte is equivalent to the Urdu áte áte; and আৰু শী—Amte hí = immediately on arrival.

§ 14. The Conjunctive Participle is as in Urdu.

§ 15. The Past Participle.

In forming the past participle, there is interpolated between the root and the final a of the termination a sound almost amounting to ĭ, but not quite so distinct. It may be represented by v. y.

Examples.

$In {\it finitive}.$				Past Participle.				
मर्ना		marná		to die		मर्चा		marya.
मार्का		márná		to kill, b	oe a t	मार्था		máryá.
फेट्टा		phetná		to meet		फेड्या		phety á .
मीचा		símná		to sew		चौम्बा		sím yá .
गा≒ा		gádná		to bury	. .	गाइवा		gádyá.
कर्ना		karná		to do		कर्चा		kary á .
हान्त्रा		thánná		to deter	mine	ठान्या		thányá.

There are, of course, some irregular formations as-

Infinitive.				Past Participle.				
पोना		honá		to be		ক্ল ৰা		hú á.
देगा		dená		to give		दिया		diyá.
सेना		lená		to take		िच्च		liyá.
नाना		jáná		to go		मिया		gi yá.

§ 16. The Imperative.

The singular imperative is, as in Urdu, the plain root of the Verb, e.g., wit—már = beat!

The plural imperative either takes the Urdu form मारी máro, or the Urdu precative form with a slight difference of intonation as मांगो, máryo. The difference in use between these appears to be two-fold.

The precative form is more distant, and future; the imperative form more immediate. The imperative form again would be used to a junior or to a low-caste person, while to a senior the precative form may be used, even of immediate action.

The Urdu precative form in—'iye,' e.g., kariye, is not used in Játú.

§ 17. The Aorist Tense.

This differs from Urdu in the form of the first person plural, which ends in **\(\pi\)** an, e.g.,—

Sing	ular.			Plural.	
में करूं		main karún	• •	चम करां	 ham karán.
तु करे		tu kare		तुम करो	 tum karo.
चीच करे		oh kare		वे करें	 we kareń.

Note (1). These terminations correspond exactly to those of the Auxiliary Verb, which is conjugated below.

- (2) In the Verb जाना, jáná the first person singular is जां, ján as well as जाजं, jánn.
 - § 18. The Auxiliary Verb.

Present.

Singular.			Plural.	
में इदं		maiń sú ń	 रम गां	 ham sán.
द्व चे		tu se	 तुम प ो	tum so.
चोच से		oh se	 वे सें	 we sen.

Past.

Same as Urdu, with the exception that the feminine plural is often with as singular, and not with thin.

§ 19. The Indefinite Present Tense.

This tense never takes the Urdu form, which is compounded of the imperfect participle and the present Auxiliary Verb, e.g., main kartá hún.

The only exception to this rule appears to occur in the negative phrase में नदीं जाना, main nahín jántá, which is probably an introduction from Urdu.

The present tense is either—

(a) The aorist alone.

(b) The agrist compounded with the present auxiliary.

Thus 'I am doing it' is मैं कई द्धं main karún sún or मैं कई main karún; "We are going" is इस चढ़ां भा, ham chalán sán or इस चढ़ां ham chalán, just as in Urdu 'I am going' is main játá hún or main játá. This tense has the indefinite value of the Urdu main játá hún = 'I am going.'

§ 20. The Definite Present Tense.

To avoid the possible futurity of the above tense, and to indicate that the action is at the moment of speech in course of fulfilment the compound tense formed from the root of the verb, combined with the past participle of रचना rahná, and the present auxiliary verb, is employed.

Singular.

Plural.

में कर रिचा स्तं, main kar rihá sún इम कर रिचे सी. ham kar rihe sán तु कर रिचा से, tu kar rihá se. तुम कर रिचे सो. tum kar rihe so. बोच कर रिचे से. we kar rihe sen.

= I (etc.) am actually doing it now.

Note.—If the auxiliary is omitted, the present significance is changed to a perfect, e.g., where it for oh a riha means not 'he is coming,' but 'he has come.'

§ 21. The Future.

The future is formed, as in Urdu, by the addition of the declinable suffix गा gá to the aorist. It follows that the first person plural is करांगे karánge, and not करांगे, karenge.

§ 22. The Past Imperfect.

Just as the indefinite present is compounded of the auxiliary present and the aorist, and not as in Urdu of the auxiliary present and the imperfect participle, so the past imperfect is compounded of the auxiliary past and the aorist,

and not as in Urdu of the auxiliary past and the imperfect participle, e.g.,—

Singular.

Plural.

मैं करं था .. main karún thá .. चम करों थे .. ham karán the.
तुकरे था .. tu kare thá .. तुम करों थे .. tum karo the.
चोड़ करे था .. oh kare thá .. वेकरें थे .. we karen the.

= I (etc.) was doing it.

§ 23. The Past Unfulfilled Conditional.

The structure of this tense is the most curious in the language. It is formed by adding \$\frac{1}{3}\$ hai for every person to the ordinary agrist.

In the correlative part of the sentence it is optional to omit the termination $\frac{3}{8}$ hai, e.g.,—

1st Singular. ने मैं नं करूं है तो मैं मर्क (है)

je main nyún karún hai to main marún (hai).

2nd Singular. जे तुन्यूं कर है ती तुनर (कै)

je tu nyún kare hai to tu mare (hai).

3rd Singular. जे सोच न्यूं करे है तो सोच मरे (है)

je oh nyúň kare hai to oh mare (hai).

1st Plural. जे इस न्यूं करां है तो इस मरा (है)

je ham nyúň karáň hai to ham maráň (hai).

2nd Plural. ने तुम न्यूं करो है ती तुम मरों (है)

je tum nyún karo hai to tum maro (hai).

3rd Plural. ने वे न्यूं करें है तो वे मरें (है)

je we nyún karen hai to we maren (hai).

= If I (etc.) had done so, I should have died.

Notes.

(1) The fact that the auxiliary verb is sin not shun and its 3rd person see not hai, and the fact that this termination is not conjugated, suggest at once that it has nothing to do with the auxiliary verb.

(2) The same tense exists in Multání. See O'Brien's glossary of the Multání language, page vii, where the termination is given as há and Mr. O'Brien thought the tense was peculiar to Multání. He believed há to be the substantive verb, though page v shows it is not.

(3) Dr. Grierson, to whose notice I brought the existence of this tense, suggests that it is probably really an old future, something of the nature of—

Singular.		Plural
'' Mārihañ	•	māreh a ĩ.
'' Mārihai	•	mārehõ.
'' Mārihai		mārehaī.

"This tense has gone through various changes of meaning (just as the old present has become the present conditional in Hindi), and in Kashmírí is actually a past conditional. The hañ, hai, etc., is a termination, not the verb substantive, the h representing an old s or sh. Thus Sanskrit māri- shyāmi, Prakrit mārissāmi, mārihāmi, modern mārihañ." Cf. O'Brien, op. cit., pp. v and vi, on the Multání future.

(4) The ordinary Urdu form of the past conditional is

also in use, for example,—

ने चाज थोड़ा पानो न होंता तो तोड़ चढ़च जाता je áj thorá pání ná hontá to tor charh játá = If such a little water were not running to-day it would flow up (on to the fields).

If the áj were omitted, the sense might equally be 'If such a little water had not been running, it would have flown up (on to the fields).

§ 24. The Future Conditional.

Future conditionals are expressed as in Urdu—

(a) by the use of the aorist, when a general assertion is made, e.g.,—

जे पहरा पज जाय तो समे की चास हो जाय. je pachhwá chal jáe to same kí ás ho jáe. If the west wind blows, there is hope of a good year;

(b) by the use of the future, when the future nature of the contingency has to be emphasized, e.g.,—

जी तुकाड जीमा तो मैं मारूंगा, je tu kát legá to maiú márúngá.

If you cut it, I shall beat you.

There is, however, another form. If, in the first example above, it is desired not to express a general truth, but to indicate the fact that if only the west wind would begin to blow now, there is still hope of a good year, the hai will be added to the first part of the sentence as in the past conditional, e.g.,—

जै पहरा चल जाय है तो सने की चास दो जाय. je pachhwá chal jáe hai to same kí ás ho jáe.

In this tense, however, the termination is apparently added

only to the 3rd person singular.

§ 25. The other tenses of the active voice accord with those in use in ordinary Urdu. The following idiomatic uses of tenses already discussed may be conveniently noted here.

(1) Uses of the Past Participle.

This is sometimes used when Urdu would employ the inflected infinitive, e.g.,—

मरे पाके, mare páchhe = After death.

जस ने गरे ने के सास हर. us ne gaye ne kai sál húe = how many years is it since he went?

(2) A contingent future is formed by repeating the aorist

with a negative, e.g., -

मैं करूं किंच न करूं, main karún kih ná karún = I may do it

perhaps; perhaps not.

(3) The verb জীলা lená, added to the root of an intransitive verb itself becomes intransitive, and gives the meaning of completed action, e.g.,—

हो लिया, ho liyá = it is finished.

चा ज़िया, á liyá = he has come.

(4) The verb रखना rakhná is idiomatically used as an intensive where Urdu employs dená; e.g., 'to present a petition' is arzí de-rakhná; 'to sow cotton' is bárí bo-rakhná; bhej rakhná, to send; khol rakhná, to open.

(5) The past tense of the verb হলা rahná is used in the common phrase খাই হিছা 'oh rihá' as 'there it is,' "voila."

- (6) An inversion of the common form of the past tense is most idiomatic; e.g., "ছাত নিয়া মা oh giyá mar' for 'oh mar giyá' 'he died.' The phrase is very vivid but not used for special emphasis.
- (7) In the imperative it is common to combine both negatives, i.e., the prohibitive सन with the negative जा "मन जा चिलयो mat ná chaliyo," "don't you go."
- (8) The past tense of the verb "बैडना baithná to sit'' is used idiomatically for 'failed,' 'ceased' 'gave up,' e.g., a man whose sight is failing will say of his eyes "देखन ते बैड रिडे से' dekhan te baith rihe sen.'' Of a tree which is dying it will be said " इच होचन ते बैड रिडा से rúkh hoan te baith rihá se,'' 'the tree is ceasing to be, drying up.''

The Passive Voice.

§ 26. The passive voice is formed exactly as in Urdu, subject to the modifications of form already dealt with, e.g.,—

"I am being beaten" is not main márá játá hún, but में मार्था आ कं सं, main máryá jaún sún.

The best rule for the use of the passive is, however, to avoid it wherever possible, e.g., instead of saying "the tree was blown down by the wind" the Ját will either say 'the wind blew the tree down, 'or more probably 'the tree fell down from the wind.' Ordinarily the passive is little used, except in such phrases as के मार्ग मिया, main máryá gíyá.

PART II.

Játú-English Glossary.

ষ্ম

चंग. ang, n.m., body, limb.

चंगी. angi, n.f., breast covering or bodice worn by married women, "angi gail peti, mán gail beti" a girl favours her mother as her bodice fits her bust.

अंगुड़ी. angúthí, n.f., finger ring with jewel or other ornament.

चकर सकर. akar makar, n.m., tricks, hanky-panky.

चकीयां, $akiy\acute{a}\dot{n}$, plural of $\acute{a}k$, n.m., calotropis procera.

चाता, agetá, adj., early, precocious.

খবৰ, achraj, n.m., a ewonder, a remarkable or unusual occurrence.

चभा, ajhá, n.m., goat.

" Golá sohbat, ajhá dhan dúmán dhedán piyár.

"Gore khetí boe ke cháron shakhs khowár,"

A slave for friend, a goat for wealth, Dúms and such for love—A field sown near the village site, all four men are wretched.

雪新. ajhán, n.f., she-goat.

चडकगा. atakná, v.a., to forbid.

चडकल घडकल. aṭkal saṭkal, adv., approximately.

भइमा arangá, n.m., (1) weeds; (2) a collection of things lying together as patwari's papers, zamindar's tools, clothes or utensils.

चहंग बहंग. arang barang, n.m., miscellaneous, useless articles, "paraphernalia."

चहांस. aráns. n.f., (1) difficulty, complication; (2) obstacle; (3) insistence, aráns men áyá, got into a hole; aráns láná, to insist.

बहारा, aráhá, n.m., a grass preserve in the middle of cultivated fields.

बड़े. are, adv., here. Cf. áre.

चड्क. ark, self-sown, run wild.

चडना. arna. v.n., to adjoin.

पहान पहान, arsan parsan, n.m., miscellaneous articles of small value as arangá (q.v.).

**e 'because there was no crop'—sometimes the meaning is lack of relations. The word seems to be a corruption from anhot, which is from an privative and hona, and so

means want, poverty: the particular sense can be judged from the context.

चची, aní, n.f., point.

"Sel ki ani, hal ki ani, súi ki ani, kalm ki ani, "phale karm se."

The spear's point, the plough's, the needle's, the pen's prosper by fate, i.e., success in these professions depends on fate.

- spinning wheel; (2) a similar band round the base of the plough clamping the phálí and panihárí (q.v.).
- बन्दारी, atkádshí, n.f., eleventh day of either half of the lunar month.
 - "Sáwan badí atkádshí gan garje ádhí rút,
 - " Píyá tún já so Málve, ham ján sán Gujrát."
 - "If the clouds thunder at midnight on the eleventh of the dark half of Sawan, my husband you go to Málwá, I'm off to Gujrát."

A sure sign of famine.

अधकारण, adhkáran, n.f., half-sharer (of a woman).

चथकारी, adhkárí, n.m., half-sharer (of a man).

খাৰ, adhl, adj., clear, distinctive, used with pahchán.

चनाड़ी, anárí, adj., stupid, dense.

चनैक, anek, adj., many, too many.

चनेरा, angherá, adj., uninvited, unowned, having no particular business, loafing, angherá áyá, came unasked, angherá bachhá, a waif.

चन, ant, n.m., end, aim.

" Roti ant, roti panth,

" Rotiyán ne gáwen sant."

Bread is man's aim, Bread his path.

The saints (fakirs) hymn bread.

चन्नर, antar, n.m., difference. The root idea of the word is space.

ৰন্ধা, antká, adj., too much, excessive.

"Ghaná ná antká bolná, ghaní ná antkí chup:

" Ghaná ná antká barsná, ná ghaní antkí dhup."

"Nor speech nor silence to excess."

"Nor rain nor sunshine to excess."

Moderation in all things.

चकर. ambar, n.m., sky.

चला, चलः alá, ala, n.m., a small species of mimosa.

■, alu, n.m. & f., owl.

भनेष, alekh, adj., invisible—an attribute of God.

बन: ala, n.m., a very small fly that damages wheat.

चस्का, alkat, n.f., aloofness, abhorrence; a-khainchná to feel abhorrence, keep oneself aloof.

चलभेड़ा, aljherá, n.m., disagreement, dispute.

wara albat, conj., however, at least.

चल्वाद, albád, n.f., obstinacy.

चलवादी, albádí, adj., headstrong, obstinate—of men or animals.

चनेर. aver, n.m., delay.

चहा, ashtá, adj., headstrong, obstinate—of men or animals.

चर्मी ashtmin, n.f., as áthen, q.v.

चर्तल, astal, n.m., a Bairagi monastery.

श्रवताई, asratái, n.m., as úsrat, q.v.

चह. ah, interj., a noise made to turn bullocks in plough or cart to the right.

श्रा

चांकल, ánkal, n.m., a bull.

ৰাৰ. ánkh, n.m., a letter (of the alphabet), e.g., Do ánkh kádná = To write a short letter.

चाम, áng, n.f., grazing fees (taken by proprietors of the village from non-owners).

चांगल, áṅgal, n.f., finger.

चांच, ánch, n.f., fire.

भांड, ánt, n.f., 1. Knot.

2. Difficulty.

3. Custom, agreement.

बांडी. ántí, n.f., knot (poetical form of ánt, q.v.). बांडना, ántná, v.a., to fill up (a tank or well, etc.).

" Bráhman ho ke ánte johr,

" Bányá ho ke kare maror,

"Zamíndár ho ke le kor:

" Tínon ká áyá, tháp le, or."

If a Brahman fills up a tank, Or a Baniva practises pride,

Or a Zamindar takes a bribe;

The end of all three, mark you, has come.

খাছ, $\dot{\alpha}\dot{n}\dot{q}\dot{u}$, n.m., fine, strong bullock; also of an entire bull used for ploughing, not covering (used generally with buld, q.v.).

चाक, ák, n.m., calotropis procera—pl. akíyán.

चाबड़, ákar, adj., uneven, up and down, of ground.

चाचनी, ákhlí, n.f., 1. Difficulty.

- 2. Holes or ruts in a road.
- भामम. ágam, n.m., 1. A shallow trench dug to carry water from village or jungle to fields; ágam ká pání = the water which it carries.
 - 2. Approach, futurity.

चामम्भी. ágam budhí, n.f., wisdom.

- " Agam budhí baníyá,
- " Pachham budhí ját."

Forethought the Baniya's, and afterthought the Jat's.

चाचा, áchhá, adj., good ; all words are lengthened like this.

चार्ड, áthen, n.f., the 8th day of either half of the lunar month.

- चाड न चाड. áth ná sáth, adj., nought, useless. Cf. 'at sixes and sevens.'
 - " Kheti us ki, áp kare.
 - " Adhí us kí dekhan jáe.
 - " Aye gaye ko púchhe bát
 - " Ús kí khetí áth ná sáth."

His are the fruits of farming, who works himself.

He gets half who goes to see.

He who enquires of the passers-by

Nought of the fruits gets he.

- चाड. ád, n.f., 1. Prevention, obstacle.
 - 2. Barrier.
 - 3. Line—of Sarson, etc., sown up and down the wheat crop.
- चाचा. áḍá, adj., 1. Curved, crooked.

n.m., 2. Reclining on side with legs drawn up.

" Rár karo to bolo ádá.

" Krit karo to rakho gádá."

Would you quarrel? Speak crooked. Go in for business? Keep a cart.

चाइ. árú, adj., obstinate, quarrelsome.

પાપ. dn, n.f., anything avoided or foresworn, e.g., $d\acute{a}r\acute{a}$ $k\acute{i}$ $\acute{a}n$ se = wine is foresworn.

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चायम, átham, n.m., the west.

चामन. áthman, n.m., same as átham, q.v.

चाचना áthamná, adj., western.

चाथवां. áthamnán, adv., westwards.

चादर. ádar, n.m., respect, honor, deference.

- " Bhát, bhatiárí beswá,
- "Tínon ját ko-ját,
- " Iye ká ádar karen,
- "Chalte púchhen ná bát."

The bard, the baker, the strumpet,

All three castes are low;

They honour the new comer,

And ask not when he goes.

चाधम चाध. ádham ádh, adv., half and half, equally.

- " Hal báwen, kúá dáen, gárí ádham ádh."
- "Left in the plough, right at the well, and half and half in the cart."

The meaning is that in the plough the left bullock has most work, as the turns are made to the right, vice versâ in the well: the cart goes straight. As a matter of fact, the well and plough generally work alike.

चाभी दलं, ádhí dhalen, n.f., a time of day, about 12 to 2 P.M.

चानंद, ánand, n.m., ease, pleasure, tranquillity, peace, comfort.

Trif. áryá, n.m., a vegetable, not unlike a small cucumber.

चाड, ál, n.f., 1. Moisture, damp.

2. Mischief, folly.

TIT. álá, n.m., a hole, niche in a wall.

चाइकम. álkas, n.m., laziness.

- " Alkas nind mard ne khowe.
- " Bir ne khowe hánsi.
- " Taká biáj múl ne khowe.
- "Chor ne khowe khánsí."

Laziness and sleep betray a man, and giggling a woman.

(Craving for) interest betrays the principal—and coughing the thief.

বারা, álná, n.m., a bird's nest.

TIT, állá; adj., moist, damp.

चार, ús, n.f., hope.

- " Harí khetí gabhan dhínán.
- " Munh par jáwe jib kí ás."

Green crops, a cow in calf!

When you taste, it's time to hope.

- "Don't count your chickens before they are hatched."
- খাৰত, ásany, n.f., strength, endeavour, courage; himmat of Urdu.
- चारन. ásan, n.m., a fakir's residence or a Pandit's seat or mat.
- चारीज. ásauj, n.m., the 7th month of the year, Sept. to Oct.
- चादन, ásrat, n.m., a brahmin, other than one's family parchit, employed to do petty services such as cooking, etc., or engaged in a village where one is temporarily residing. The word is Sanskrit and primarily means "dependent."
- चाचनाई, ásratái, n.m., same as ásrat, q.v.
- TITI. ásrá, n.m., 1. Help, e.g., málik ke ásre te, by God's help.
 2. Power, Kál par gayá. Koi ásrá nahín rihá.
 Famine has fallen; there is no power left in me.

दु

- inchh, n.f., the Baniya's account against the Zamindar of moneys paid as revenue, &c.
- इक्टोड़े. ikthaure, adj. pl., collected together, assembled.

रन, it, adv., here, hither.

रा. ib, adv., now; ib ke sál, or more commonly ib ke, this year.

যেখাল, ilhán, n.m., anything useless to attempt, or beyond one's capacity or position.

इस्ती. istrí, n.f., woman; wife.

" Kis ká thákur páltí, kis ká mitr kalál.

"Kis kí beswá istrí, kis ká baniyá yár."

Whose foundling is the thákur, whose friend the kalál? Whose wife is the strumpet, whose boon companion the Baniya?



रेंचे. inghe, adv., hither.

indhi, n.f., a pad used in carrying water-pots on the head. "Dabbi awe, dabbi jawe."

"Squashed it comes, and squashed it goes" -- coming and going, to and from the well, the pot rests on the pad.

देधन, indhan, n.m., fire-wood, fuel.

" Sánj sakále kí bádlí, do pajhre kí panhyár.

"Khátan ho ke índhan ko chálí, tínon nahín padár."

Morning's and evening's clouds, the woman who fetches water at noontime.

The carpenter's wife who goes out for wood; there's no depending on any of them.

₹ ikh. n.m., sugar-cane.

रेकी, irkhá, n f., enmity.

" Kanchan tajná saihj sai, par tiriá ká neh,

" Mán, barái, írkhá, Tulsí durlabh yeh."

It's easy to give up (love of) gold; but to give up the love of a woman, pride, show and enmity—Tulsi, this is hard.

ख

च्चारा. ughárá, adj., naked, bare.

" Tin ughárí sab dhakin, kar le nár bichár.

" Is gáhá ne khol ke jib jáyye panhár."

Three naked, all the rest covered: think it out,

Solve this riddle, then go and fetch your water. Answer—rafters in a roof.

ভাৰ, ujar, n.m., or n.f., a deserted village—adj., deserted.

" Ujar dekhke gújar kúde dhál dekhke bairágí.

"Khír dekhke báhman kúde, tínon ho jáen rází."

The Gujar jumps (for joy) when he sees a deserted village, the Bairagi when he sees a shield, the Brahman when he sees rice-milk; then all three are happy.

(The Gujar is a thief, the Bairagi often plays with a shield, and the Brahman is fond of good food.)

चनार. ujár, n.m., 1. A spot exposed to injury, e.g., merí kyárí bandarán ki ujár men sai = my field gets overrun by monkeys.

- 2. Jungle, deserted land.
- " Gújar se ujar bhalí, ujar se bhalí ujár.
- " Jahán dekhíye Gújar, wahán díjíe már."
- A deserted village is better than the Gujar, better a howling desert; when you see a Gujar, kill him on the spot.
- (It is better to live quite alone than in the company of such thieves as Gujars are.)

चक्रमना, uksná, v.n., 1. To rise.

- 2. To be stirred, to be moved. (Of emotions).
- বৰৰ, ukhal, n.m., the wooden or stone mortar in which grain is crushed.
- जबती, ukhli, n.f., a stone or wooden mortar smaller than ukhal, q.v.
- चगाइ, ugár, n.m., a cattle yard, as gher, q.v.

चगम, ugam, n.m., the east.

चयान, ugman, n.m., same as ugam, q.v.

च्याना, ugmaná, adj., eastern.

- उपानां, ugmanán, adv., eastwards, preceded by te q.v.,—to the east of.
 - " Tîn bulad, ghar men do chakî.
 - " Ugmanán khet, Hákim kí bákí."

Three bullocks, two corn mills in the house.

A field in the east—and the Government's revenue will be in arrears.

i.e., why have an extra bullock and an extra mill, which mean waste?

If your field is in the east, coming and going the sun will be against you.

चगाची, ugáhí, n.f., money collected, especially the Government revenue.

जगरना, ugáhná, v.a., to collect (money, etc.).

जना. ujlá, adj., bright.

ज्या. udná, v.n., to fly away.

"Thothe pachhore, ud ud já."

If you winnow hollow (gram), it will all fly away. (Waste labour, like 'ploughing the sands.')

जन, ut, adv., thither.

चनर, utar, n.m., answer.

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चनना-चनर जाना, utarná, utar jáná, v.n., to die.

जनम, uttam, adj., exalted.

चच. utr, n.m., north.

चना. utrá, adj., northern.

चवाई, utráí, adj., or n.f., north wind.

चनांचा, utránhá, adj., northern.

खदांदां, utránhán, adv., northwards.

चरेष, udes, n.f., a form of salutation to kanphárás, q.v.

ਰਬ. udh, n.f., noise, uproar, bickering.

चधन. udham, n.f., same as udh, q.v.

उध्या, udhalná, v.n., to elope.

ভন্নৰ, unman, n.m., cloud.

चन्नान सन्तान. unmán sunmán, adv., approximately.

ভपंत, upang, adj., footless, crippled, lame; so depending upon others.

जपद्मा, upajná, v.n., to spring up, germinate, grow.

जपाचो, upáo, n.m., remedy.

जपदेश. updesh, n.m., exhortation.

" Auron ke updesh par, sabhí gurú bharpúr.

" Apne apne mukh par, sabhí ke dhúl."

In exhorting others all men are full-blown saints.

But every man has dust upon his own face.

i.e., all men can see the mote in their brothers' eyes, but not the beam in their own.

বিষাৰন. upráhan, n.m., high barren land, whose rain water is drained into a tank or less commonly into cultivated lands; johar ká upráhan, the catchment area of a tank.

जफर्नी, upharná, v.n., to overflow.

বদাৰ, uphán, n.m., an overflowing, ebullition (as of milk, when it boils up).

जकार्ना. uphárná, v.a., to make, to overflow.

चभार्ना, ubhárná, v.a., 1. To steal.

- 2. To instigate.
- 3. To seduce.

उदा, umrá, n.m., land that has borne an unirrigated spring crop, especially gram.

- " Khetî kare to umre kare.
- '' Náh to ghar men parke mare.''

Would you farm? Farm in 'umrá.'

If not you may lie down at home and die.

(Umrá soil is in the most workable and productive state.)

seimi. ulákná, v.a, to cross, transgress.

उसीचना. ulíchhná, v.a., to bale, to pour out.

" Pání badh gayá náo men, aur ghar men badh gayá dám.

"Donon háth ulíchhiye, yeh siáná kám."

Water poured in the boat, and money was stored in the house.

Bale it out with both hands, this is wisest.

चन्त्रा. ulgá, adj., unemployed, at leisure—(urdu alag).

चर्गाम. ulgás, n.f., leisure.

चलना. uljhná, v.n., to be entangled (in difficulties), to quarrel.

one's proper position or ability; contrariness.

ভাইনী, ushṭandi, n.m., contrary, one who acts beyond his position or station.

জ

कक चुक, úk chúk, n.f., forgetfulness, mistake.

जनना. úkná, v.n., to fail, to miss the opportunity or mark.

जब úg, n.f., collection, subscription.

कडना. úthná, v.n., to get up.

• ire, adv., there, thither.

জন. it, n.m., childless man, it jana, to die childless, sometimes used abusively, as worthless, good for nothing, senseless.

" Bárí kí men bárí bowen,

" Páh kas kí men bowen ínkh,

" Ut gaye jab jániye,

Jab máne prái sikh.

Sow cotton where cotton has been, Sow cane in a far-off field, Know a man's a fool,

When he follows another's advice.

कत न पूत. út na pút, n.m., a childless man.

चनी न पूजी. útní na pútní, n.f., (1) a childless woman; (2) a term of abuse among women.

चधलना. údhalná, v.n., to elope, leave home—of a woman; udhalná is also used.

जपका. úplá, n.m., dried cowdung cake—the fuel of the country.

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जन्मा úbná, v.n., to spring forth, be produced, grow.

" Sáwan lagtí ekádshí garbhe úbe bhán.

"Ghar ghar baten bhadayí gáwen manglá char."

If on the eleventh (dark half) of Sawan the sun springs out from the womb (of the sky), songs of joy will be heard (lit. distributed) in every house; they will sing hymns of congratulation.

Ų

एकन्या. ekanyá, n.m., an orhná, q.v., worked on one hem only.

एकम, ekam, n.f., first day of either half of the month.

रक्षा. ekalpá, adj., alone.

एकादधी. ekádshí, n.f., same as a'kádshí, q.v.

रका eklá, adj., alone.

Û

ऐडा, airá, adj., obstinate, headstrong.

ग्रेा

- wi with o, o, a noise made to call horses up from watering.
- भोग, og, n.m., a wooden wedge fixing the hál, q.v., into the hal, q.v.
- चोगला, ogalná, v.n., to wither (almost always of gram owing to bad soil, drought or white-ants).
- चोचा, ochhá, adj., small.
 - " Bail bisáwan chale, kanth, bhúre ke mat dekhiyo dant.
 - '' Ochhe gode baingan khurá jhúngá lío kaise kanth.''
 - When you go to buy cattle, my husband, don't look at the teeth of the dun: small knees, hooves like an egg plant, and down-curving horns—however you may, buy such a one.
- The of, n.f., shade, screen, e.g., ns kikar ki of men sai i.e., hidden by that kikar tree.

The joint of interest of a well on which the beam supporting the wheel is fixed.

चोटझा. oļṛá, n.m., 1. Same as oṭá, q.v.

2. A screening wall (round cattle-yard, etc).

মাহনা. $otn\acute{a}$, v.a., to be responsible for, undertake. To admit e.g., je $t\acute{u}$ apná $kas\acute{u}r$ of le= if you admit your fault.

. Ij ghar men kám se, merá áre ká kám tú ot le = I am busy at home to-day, you undertake my work here.

Gend uchhálún sún, oteo = I am throwing the ball; you catch it.

Merí láthí ot = Take (the blow of) my stick.

चोइ. or, n.f., 1. Direction.

2. Boundary, edge.

चोड्डना, orhná, n.m., woman's head-covering.

चोडना, odhná, n.m., same as orhná, q.v.

चोदा. odá, n.m., boundary pillar between villages.

चोपारक, opáhaj, adj., crippled.

चोत्रा, obrá, n.m., a recess or cupboard in a room for storing grain, etc.

चोनी, obrí, n.f., a smaller obrá, q.v.

चोरी, ori, n.f., the grain dues given to menials at sowing time.

चोर्ना. orná, n.m., l. A seed drill, made of bamboo, and attached to the plough.

2. The droppings of cattle, picked up in the jungle.

ৰাজ, ol, n.f., circuit.

মীভান্দা. olálwá, n.m., a log of wood, to prop a cart from behind, when standing.

चोषारा, osárá, n.m., a thatched roof.

আলা. osná, v.a., to pound (flour only).

খাৰা osrá, n.m., turn—(on a roster).

चोदस्मा. ohlná, n.m., a taunt.

" Jis ghar bará ná mániye, dhorí pariá ná ghás.

"Sás bahú ke ohlne, ujar ho jáe bás."

Where none heed the elders, there's no grass before the cattle.

Where mother and daughter-in-law taunt each other, the home goes to ruin.

(A house divided against itself cannot stand).

त्री

चौकन सौकन, aukan saukan, n.f.

- 1. Relation of two living wives to each other.
- 2. Flashes of lightning in opposite directions.

भौड बर, aud bar, adv., late—tardily.

चौद्या. aurá, n.m., udder of cow or other animal.

बोहो, auri, n.f., smaller aurá, q.v.

चौन. aun, adv., thither, in that direction.

चौला. aulá, adj., 1. Perverse, obstinate.

2. Left (opposite to right).

भोजा मौजा. aulá saulá, adj., in different directions, uneven.

चौ नात. aulí bát, n.f.. ill-speaking, abuse, flippancy.

श्रीमक. ausak, n.m., pain, disease, sickness.

क

कंचन. kanchan, n.m., wealth, gold.

कंडन, kanthan, n.m., throat.

कंष, kanth, n.m., husband.

कंपा, kanthá, n.m., husband, as kanth, q.v.

ककेर्जा. kakerlá, adj., hard, containing kankar nodules.

कचोझा, kacholá, n.m., metal cup.

कचोड़ो, kacholí, n.f., a bowl with a hole in the bottom used as a water clock. It is set in a jhákrá, q.v.

कच कच. kach kach, n.f., chattering.

कच्ची, kachri, n.f., a small wild gourd.

कडाको, katáo. n.m., silver work on the armhole of angí, q.v.

कटिया katiyá, n.f.. buffalo heifer.

कडोइ. kaiír. n.m., a swarm of creeping locusts.

कटेच्या. kaṭchṛá, n.m., a small sitting place common to two or three families.

कडोरा. katorá, n.m., a metal cup.

कडन. kathan, adj., hard, distressing, cruel.

" Khodan páran zamín sahe, kátan sahe ban rá.

"Kathan bachan sádhú sahe, aur pe sahe ná já."

The land will bear to be dug and split, the wood to be cut.

The fakir will bear a hard word: nought else bears these things.

(The word $r\acute{a}$ in the above is not satisfactorily explained).

www. kar, n.f., back.

कड़ा, kará, n.m., an anklet, worn by men on right leg only.

करो. kari, n.f., plain anklets.

कहे, kare, adv., where ? whither ?

कड्यू karkú, n.m., the block, to which the rope of a well is fastened.

कडवान. karwán, n.f., bitterness.

कढोनी, kadhauní, n.f., milk-pan (for boiling milk).

" Máinsán men kaun gayá, dúndí, már kadhauní múndí."

Who went out with the buffaloes, the idiot? Turn down the milking pail.

(Don't expect success from fools: the idiot will have let the calves get the milk.)

aur, kaná, n.m., the axle tree of well-wheel.

कारताना, kantáná, v.n., to shrink from, wince, flinch.

an, kanyá, n.m., poetical form of kaní, q.v.

बत्यां, katúryá, n.m., a puppy.

कबी. katni, n.f., a small basket in which women keep their cotton for spinning.

कद. kad, adv., when?

कदावड. kadáwat, n.f., enmity.

कनागत. kanágat, n.m., the first fortnight of Asoj in which Hindus feed the Brahmans in remembrance of their deceased kinsmen, and on the date corresponding to that of the month in which they died.

कनी, kaní, n.f., single grain (of any cereal).

men or boys only.

none mexicana. k—pasarmá = the solanum xanthocarpum.

बन्ध, kans, n.m., gold.

कम्बुषा, kansuá, n.m., an insect which damages sugar-cane.

कपना, kapattá, adj., quarrelsome. fem.—kapattí, a shrew.

" Nauláí ná kari dopatti, kyá chugegi kapatti."

Not hoed (the cotton) when two leaves high! What will the shrew pick?

(Cotton picking is largely done by old women. The crop needs constant weeding and hoeing).

कपुत्र, kapút, n.m., an unworthy son.

e.g., kapút betá mará bhalá, an unworthy son is better dead.

कर, kab, n.m., a poet.

कमेर, kamer, n.f., earning, ability to work.

कमेरा, kamerá, n.m., a labourer.

कमेरी, kameri, n.f., a workwoman, female labourer.

" Bál kamerí menh kasán, yeh khetí ke ján binán."

Wind the worker, rain the farmer: these are the life and soul of farming.

क्यांक, kammáú, adj., able to labour, one who earns, bread winner.

कवी, kamrí, n.f., the vest or shirt worn by zamindars.

कहाना, kamláná, v.n., to fade.

" Tágá tútiá phir jure, phúl tút kamláe.

" Man ká tútiá ná jure, pás pás ke jáe."

A broken thread can be joined, but a broken flower fades. There's no mending broken hearts, even though they live together.

चार, kyár, n.m., a largish field.

चारी, kyárí, n.f., a small field.

चारी भर, kyárí bhar, n.m., heavy rain, a field full.

करंक, karank, n.m., bone.

करंग, karang, n.m., or n.f., bone, as karank, q.v.

" Kark, makar, do bhainrí, baithí eke bár.

" Anáj ke kothe ríten, karangán kí bár."

When the two sisters cancer and capricorn sit in one house,

The corn bins are empty, and bones will serve for fences. (A sure sign of severe famine).

करंजा, karanjá, n.m., a batten in a mud roof, of cotton stalks, (bansatí), etc.

करक, karak, n.f., pneumonia.

कराची, karáo, n.m., remarriage of a widow.

कराज, karál, adj., badly finished, ill-made.

" Kálar khet, karál hal, lamtangá bailán.

"Kátar gáe, kátar nár, sab par gaye gailán"

A hard field, an ill-made plough, long-legged cattle. A barren cow, a barren wife, all befell together.

(Misfortunes never come singly).

करों नी. karauntí, n.f., an alligator, or crocodile.

करह. karr, n.f., pluck, sticking to it.

करहा. karrá, adj., severe, stiff.

e.g.—of land,—of soil,—of a sentence,—of an officer, etc.

कर्नी, karní, n.f., fate, fated business.

"Karní kare to kyaun dare, kar ke kyaun pachhtáe.

" Per boe bambúl ke, ám kahán te kháe."

If you do your fated work, why fear? When done, why regret?

If you sow a *babul* tree, how can you eat mangoes? (As you sow, so shall you reap).

कर्म दीन. karm hin, n.m., a luckless man (hin is a diminutive or privative particle).

कर्डा, karhá, n.m., camel.

कर्देशा. karhelá, n.m., camel, as karhá.

"Kesar bhará karhelá, pút sapútí jo, "Menh to barsá bhalá, honí ho so ho."

A camel laden with saffron; a wife with a child worthy of her—rain fallen well—let well alone.

("God's in his heaven, all's right with the world.")

www. kal. n.m., a fool.

कलडरी. kalatri, adj., anything relative to Land Revenue Department, e.g., kalatri dám is the fixed land revenue.

The word is derived from the English "Collector."

कहा. kalá, n.f., trouble, worry.

Ek halá aur sau kalá.

A single plough, a hundred troubles.

कज्ञाना. kaláná, v.a., to winnow.

कका बाको. kalá bází, n.f., diving into water head first.

कस्पिताः kalpúchhiyá, n.m., chikárá, gazelle.

क्षा बार. kalle war, n.f., the first watch of the day.

कलंकी. kalwanti, adj. f., good, well-bred, thrifty, modest. all that a house-wife should be.

कल्हारा, kalhárá, adj., contentious, quarrelsome, fem., kalhárí. a shrew. a termagant.

" Bánt binaule bhúrí kháe, hal chalán landá jáe.

"Chal mere lande ek halái, tere liye nau man dál dalái.

" Tere ghar kalhárí nár, níre bhus, batáwe dál.

"Yeh dam gaje kisi aur ne de, nau man bech ke dúsrá kyon ná le.

(Says the ox). "The white buffalo eats fodder and oil-seed, the short-tailed ox goes ever to the plough."

(Says the farmer). "Come my short-tail, one ploughing, I've split nine maunds of chick-pea for you."

(Says the ox). "Nay you've a shrew of a wife at home—feeds
me on straw and calls it chick-pea: try
your blarney-tricks with some other: why
not sell your nine maunds and buy another

कवेरा, kaverá, n.m., poet.

" Mintar ká dhoká hoyá, nátí ghar kí jo.

" Karz ne náteá banyá, din hethe kí bát.

"Khet men ho ná kanyá, kahen girdhar kaverá,

"Karm kí lágí ántí, ghále sonan háth, kans kí ho jáe mátí.

A friend turned traitor, the wife of one's home refused her obedience, the baniya refused an advance, not a single grain in the field. These are marks of evil days, says Girdhar the poet, the luck's gone away: touch gold with your hand, and the gold turns to earth.

ৰহ. hawr, n.f., a pair of closed square baskets made of twigs, to contain Ganges water.

इस. kas, n.m., bark of kikar (acacia arabica) or nimbar tree (a. leucophloea).

कसाब, kasán, n.m., farmer, peasant, specially a good farmer

" Hal halke, gárí dhalke, kúá máro már.

"Kasán us ne jániye, jo jáne in kí sár."

Lightly with the plough, steadily with the cart.

Quickly with the well.

Count him the husbandman.

Who all their ways can tell.

" Chíná chorí chákrí, hárá kare kasán."

It's the broken farmer who takes to chind, service, or theft.

(Chiná is a cheap and inferior grain, and laborious to grow).

कस्त्रत, kasút, adj., bad, dirty.

" Barhápá áyá lalkárke, bází bahí kasút.

" Yá to paisá gánth ká, yá betá ho sapút."

Old age came bawling

"The game's bad,

" Else there's money in your purse

"Or a dutiful lad."

कस्ता, kasútá, adj., same as kasút, q.v.

करोसा, kasaulá, n.m., a long-handled hoe.

कहा, kassí, n.f., same as phálá, q.v., shovel, spade.

कांग्री, káṅgní, n.f., a massive bracelet, worn below the chúrí, q.v.

कांडो. kántí, n.f., same as kándí, q. v.

कांडो kándí. n.f., chaff of jowár used for fodder.

कांच. káns, n.m., a kind of grass, (saccharum spontaneum).

काका, káká, n.m., father's younger brother.

काको. kákí, n.f., wife of káká, q.v.

कारहा. kákrá, n.m., l. Leather-pad which prevents the spindle of a spinning wheel shifting too much when the thread is spun.

2. Cotton seed, when used for cattle fodder.

काकड़ी, kákṛí, n.f., a vegetable like a cucumber.

काम. kág, n.m., a crow.

काह्या, káglá, n.m., a crow, as kág, q.v.

काइन. káj, n.m., a funeral feast.

काजन, kájal, n.m., antimony—eye-powder.

" Godyán kájal, kamar thal, ghítí men do dant.

"Is gáhá ne khol ke, rotí kháye kanth."

Antimony on the knees, back arched, two teeth in the neck.

Solve me this riddle, my husband, before you eat your food.

The answer is cart; the knees are wheels; the antimony is black grease. The teeth in the neck are the pegs in the voke.

काडड़ káṭaṛ, adj., barren.

काउड़ा, kátrá, n.m., buffalo calf.

काउड़ी. kátrí, n.f., buffalo-heifer, as katiyá, q.v.

काड. káth, n.m., wood.

कादना. kádhná, v.a., 1. To take or draw out.

2. To work (a pattern).

" Kálá báryá, lál kádhyá."

Put in black, pulled out red.

(Said of the ploughshare, in the blacksmith's forge).

कानक. kátak, n.m., the 8th month of the year, Oct. to Nov.

কালী, kátní, n.f., same as katní, q.v.

kányán, n.m., Irregular plural from kán (ear).

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कापड़. kápar, n.m., eloth.

कारर, kábar, n.f., starling (Urdu mainná).

कामज, kámal, n.m., 1. Blanket.

2. Well-finished, good, full (corr. from Persian Kámil).

" Adhe mágh kándhe kámal báh."

'In mid Mágh plough with a blanket on your shoulder.' (It begins to be cold in November).

काम्ची, kámchí, n.f., same as kámrí, q.v.

काम्झा, kámṛá, n.m., a stick or twig used as a whip.

नाइड़ी, kámrí, n.f., same as kámrá, q.v., but smaller.

काची. kámní, n.f., lovely woman.

काच्ची, kámlí, n.f., a light blanket.

कार. kár, adj., sour (land).

कार, kár, n.m., work; kár mukhtyár, an agent.

कारन. káran. n.m., 1. Doing, cause.

Postp. 2. Because of, on account of.

कार वैगार, kár begár, n.m., work of menials of village.

कारा, kárá, adj., as kár, sour, saline.

कार मुख्यार, kár mukhtyár, n.m., an agent or a manager.

काज, kál, n.m., 1. Famine (from Sankrit akál).

2. Time, season, age, death.

- 3. To-morrow; the letter a in this kal is not exactly long. Is more a drawl than a long vowel.
- " Ig lagí bankhand men, dájiá chandan rúkh.
- " Ham to dájen pankh biná, tú kyaun dájiá hans.

" Phal khác, bithá kari, baithe tumrí dál.

" Tum jal jáo, ham ur chalen, jíwenge kai kál."

Fire caught in the forest, and the sandal tree burned. (Said he) "I must burn for lack of wings, but why do you burn. O goose?" (Said the goose) "I've eaten your fruits, left droppings and sat on your boughs. If you burn and I fly away how long should I live?"

काखा. kálá, n.m., the black buck or antelope (short for kálá hirn or mirg, q.v.).

कामन kásan, n.m., metal vessels.

far. ki, conj., or.

किस, kit, adv., whither ?

कितोइ, kitor, adv., which side? whither? where?

किन्यावानी, kinyáwání, adj., steady, straight (rain).

चिन, kim, adj., some.

fan, kimme, adv., sometimes, occasionally.

किसे किसे, kimme kimme, adv., occasionally, rarely.

किसो न, kimme na, adv., nowhere, not at all.

निद्। kirá, n.m., cotton stalk wattlings at the sides of a cart for loading manure, etc.

fam. kibbe, adv., sometimes.

" Do jhotí, kibbe márí, kibbe motí."

"Two buffaloes, now weak now fat."

(Answer: the blacksmith's bellows).

विचारी. kisárí, n.f., a grasshopper that damages gram.

कोंचे. kinghe, adv., whither ?

कोच kich, n.m., mud.

कीड़ नाइ, kír nál. n.f., row of ants (from kír, an insect).

कुंडल, kundal, n.m., circle, ring, halo.

" Chánd to mat kundale aur súraj kundal já. " Keh to Rájá kat maren yá janyal bhar já."

The moon not in a halo, but the sun in a halo! Either there'll be Rajas killed, or the jungle will be full (of water).

त्रवार. kunwár, n.m., Hindi month Asauj – (not used in common speech).

कुक्दो, kukṛi, n.f., 1. Head of makki (maize).

2. The bundle of thread spun from the spindle.

कुत्रम, kukram, n.m., wrong, evil.

秀新. kukrá, n.m., a cock.

" Tín zát zát ne pálen, kyásth, kág, kukrá.

" Tín zát zát ne gálen, nái, báhman, kutrá."

Three kinds cherish their kind, the Kaiasth, the crow and the cock.

Three kinds destroy their kind, the Nai, the Brahman and the dog.

कुडला, kuthlá, n.m., same as kothí, q.v.

कुढको, kuṭhli, n.f., same as kuṭhla, q.v., but smaller.

" Bhádon máwas men paywá dhole.

" Ahirî moth kuthli role."

If the east wind blow on the midday of Bhadon.

There'll be moth in the bin for the Ahir's wife to sift. moth is a pulse (phaseolus aconitiolius).

कुड्नी, kurtí, n.f., a girl's bodice.

कुतान. kután, adj., small poor.

" Ochhí nagrí kutún wásá."
" Karí bír, kyá gharwásá."

A small village is a poor habitation.

Remarried a widow! What kind of home?

star kutrá, n.m., a young dog (older than puppy but not yet full-grown).

कर, kurri, n.f., same as kúri, a dung heap.

कुल kul, n.m., family.

कुन्दन. kulachhan, n.m., misconduct, ill-temper.

Also as adj., misconducted, ill-favoured, ill-omened.

The word is a corruption of ku lakshan; lakshan is a mark, and ko is a prefix meaning bad.

" Bhains kulachhan kátrá, bír kulachhan dhí.

" Samá kulachhan jab jáníye, jab Sáwan barse mí."

Ill-omened's the buffalo with a bull-calf, ill-omened the wife with a daughter. Judge the season ill-omened if it rains in Sawan.

(One would suspect an omission of a negative, as rain is badly needed in Sawan).

जरहा kusal, n.f., happiness.

क्रां, kúngí, n.f., an insect that blights wheat (due to excessive rain).

sign, kúnirá, n.m., 1. A tribe which sells vegetables.

2. Any vegetable-seller.

jąς, kúndγá, n.m., a heap of wheat or barley or gowár ready for threshing.

質爾[. kúkná, v.n., to shout.

Ţ■ kúkh, n.f., hips.

🙀 kúr, n.m., a fool.

कुड़ा. kúrá, n.m., dirt, filth, dung.

हुड़ो, kúrí, n.f., dung-heap.

क्रा, kúḍhá, n.m., 1. Share, part (of a village) or the shares of the crop made at division of produce.

2. A heap of grain, threshed, but not winnowed.

क्रम, kún, n.f., fleece of a sheep.

 \mathbf{g} q, $k\hat{u}p$, n.m., same as $b\hat{u}ng\hat{a}$, q.v.

क. ke, Interrog. pro., what?

केसर kesar, n.f., saffron.

केश, kesá, adj., with hair, hairy.

केचा. késá, adj., such as, used as Urdu jaisá.

केइ. keh, conj., either, or.

बॅडा, kaindá, n.m., 1. Size.

2. Shape.

kair, n.m., direction, e.g., johar kair jáná, to go out for purposes of nature.

कैर, kair, n.m., or n.f., a shrub (capparis aphylla) the karil of the Panjab; irregular pl., kairarián.

" Akián, nímán bájrá, kairarián kopás.

"Jo phale jál to jowár hone kí ás."

There'll be bájrá if there's ák and ním, cotton when there's kair.

If the jál fruits, then there's hope of jowár.

(Either a good season for one is a good season for the other, or land which bears a spontaneous crop of $\acute{a}k$ and $n\acute{i}m$ is good soil for $b\acute{a}jr\acute{a}$, etc.).

कैरइयां, kairarián, plural of kair, q.v.

बंदर, kaihr, n.m., oppression.

" Chalná to sark ká, cháhe pher kyon ná ho.

" Dúdh to mains ká, cháhe ser kyon ná ho.

" Raihná to shahr ká, cháhe kaihr kyon ná ho.

" Basná to bháyon ká, cháhe bair kyon ná ho.

" Kháná to gehún ká, cháhe zaihr kyon ná ho."

A road to walk on, e'en though it wind a bit.

For milk, a buffalo's, e'en though but a quart of it.

A city for living in, though oppression be there.

Brothers to dwell midst, though there's enmity there. And dinner of wheat flour, e'en though poison be in it.

**i) ko, adj., prefix meaning bad e.g., ko-sang = bad company; ko-samá = bad season; ko-nárí = bad woman; ko gáe = bad cow; ko báchhrú, bad calf, etc., etc.

" Base ko-sang, châhe kusal, Tulsí yeh afsos.

" Maihmán ghatí samund kí, Ráwan basiá paros."

Live in bad company and hope for happiness—Tulsi that's a pity!

The sea lost its reputation because Rawan lived near

(The sea was too near Rawan's kingdom and lost its reputation for being impassable.

Evil communications corrupt good manners).

कोखन, kokhan, n.f., belly, abdomen.

कोडा kothá, n.m., a cistern in which water is stored at a well.

कोडो kothi, n.f., a big receptacle for storing grain.

कोड। koḍá, adj., kneeling.

" Baithá máre, kodá pakre."

(One) sitting hammers, (another) kneels and holds. (Answer—the blacksmith's iron on the anvil).

कोड़ kor, n.m., bribe, bribery, corruption.

कोनक, kotak, n.m., wrong, ill-endeavour.

कोण्डी, kothli, n.f., eatables tied up in a cloth and sent as a present to relation, etc.

कोइ. kod, n.m., wrath.

कोर kor, n.m., second watering, the first after sowing.

" Manghsar men ná diyá kor

" Kyá tere baldán le gayá chor."

Not given the second water in Magh! What, had a thief run off with your bullocks? (Wheat must get canal water in Magh).

कोरा, korá, adj., 1. Mere.

2. Unused.

कोर्ची korbá, n.m., a middling season (between kál and sambat), e.g., if there has been fodder, though no grain, it would be called korbá.

कोज़, kolu, n.m., l. Large round clod-crusher drawn by four bullocks.

2. A sugar press.

nicol. kolrí, n.f., a small round clod-crusher drawn by two bullocks.

कोस्डू, kolhú, n.m., same as kolu, q.v.

कोवांक, kowár, n.m., double doors.

" Ránghar gújar do, kuttá billí do.

" Yeh cháron ná hon, to khule kowárán so."

The Ranghar and Gujar a pair, the dog and the cat are another.

When none of the four are about, open doors and sleep (without bother).

(Thieves all).

कोमंग, kosang, n.m., bad society. See ko.

कोसमा, kosamá, n.m., bad times, see under ko.

कोसा. kosná, v.a., to curse.

"Kose te bairí mare, soche te dhan howe.

" Pání men te ghí nikle to bháwen koí biloe."

If your foe died by cursing, if wealth came by thinking of it.

If ghi came from water, any one you please could work the churn.

Cf. 'If ifs and ans were pots and pans,

'There'ld be no work for Mary's hands.'

कोडी. kaudí, n.f., a small shell (kaurí).

को की. kaulí, n.f., 1. The outstretched arms.

2. An armful.

कोस भर्मा. kaulí bharná, v.a., to take into one's arms. To embrace.

कानो krání, n.m., a Christian.

किन. krit, n.f., business (literally, what is done).

नियम, kritrang, v.a., Poet. form for Sansk. krit; done, doing.

ख

wis khand, n.m., tract, or large portion of a country (as in Bandelkhand bankhand).

with khandwa, n.m., turban, used by older persons, in which the cloth is twisted into rolls.

water, khatkhatá, adj., firm (used of a good firm soil).

चडया. khatyá, part., past part. of khatná, to be gained, so earned, spoils.

TT, khadá, n.m., dimple, depression, trench.

चनाची. kharáon, n.m., wooden pattens, such as faqirs often use.

चड्डू. khardú, n.m., fighting, quarrelling.

चड़ा, kharyá, adj., standing, stood (poetical form for Urdu khará).

" Ke liyá áchhá, ke diyá áchhá, ke jaláyá áchhá.

" Ke máryá áchhá, ke paryá áchhá, ke kharyá áchhá."

What's best taken? (God's name).

What's best given? (Charity).

What's best burned? (Oil).

What's best mastered ? (Wrath).

What's best fallen? (Rain).

What's best standing? (A plough).

चन्नो, khandhi, n.f., an instalment.

चदाइत. khabáhat, n.f., labour, effort.

चन्तान, khabtán, n.m., or adj., mad, crazy.

चन्त, khabbat, n.m., or adj., mad, crazy.

খলা. khabbá, adj., left (as opposed to right).

चर. khar, adj., 1. Hard, rough, coarse.

2. Wild (spontaneous growth).

" Khet bigárá khar bathwá, sabhá bigárí kúr.

" Bhagat bigáre lobh ne, kesar ral gayí dhúl."

The wild chenopodium spoils the field.

Fools spoil society.

Avarice spoils the devotee.

And a mixture of dust spoils saffron.

चरा. khará, adj., good, pure, prime.

चरासड kharásat, n.f., enmity.

which khark, n.m., a herd of cattle.

चर्च. kharch, n.m., cesses.

चड़. kharr, n.m., a coarse sheet placed in a cart before loading grain.

चर्ची. kharsá, n.f., the hot-weather season—four months.

াৰা, khalá, adj., erect, standing (the ordinary form khará is also in use).

"Gehún kahe main ghapan ghapír, sab náján ká kahyún pír.

" Dhán kahe main sún dhán, áye gaye ká rákhún mán.

"Je mere máhen par jáe búrá ghí, gábrú kare lapká jhapkí.

"Urd kahe main sab men níká, jul panditán ne merá kardiyá tíká.

" Je mere kar de dehí bare, mánus khá jáen khale khale.
" Aur náj sab boyo mat ná boyo chíná, kháye chinghwá

ho jáye, godyán par jáye híná."

Says wheat, 'I'm (? valuable) of all grains, I'm called the chief'; says rice, 'I'm president, and hold respect of all that come and go: if sugar and ghi are mixed with me, the young men come running for me.' Says mash, I'm the smallest of all, yet the learned unite to mark their forehead with me. If you cook me with curds, men will eat me as they stand. Sow all other grains but don't sow china—if you cat it there's heat in your water and weakness in your knees.'

चनी. khalí, n.f., a heap of grain ready to be threshed.

खन्द्र khasm, n.m., l. Owner. (Urdu حضم, kḥasm).

2. Good farmer.

"Khetí khasmán seti, kuchh agetí kuchh pachhetí nahín to retí kí retí."

Cultivation is with the good farmers; some crop early some late: otherwise it is all as sand.

wisk háng, n.f., a hot, withering wind (blowing after rain and injuring the young crops, chiefly in Sáwan).

चां का khánchchá, n.m., mud, slough.

बांड khánḍ, n.f., a water-course in canal lands, the main distributary leading from a morí.

खाड khágar n.m., a bull.

चाज kháj, n.f., a rash, irritation of the skin.

खाजा khájá, n.m., food, sweets.

www.khát, n.f., bed.

बाह्य khárá, n.m., trouble.

च नो. khátí, n.m., a caste of carpenters (most of the carpenters of the district belong to this caste).

चातोइ. khátor. n.f., wood-store in front of a carpenter's house.

बाद, khád. n.f., manure.

TT. kháp. n.f., 1. Branch, tribe, of a race.

2. Faction, party.

चात्री. khápri, n.f., a small plot or field.

जार, khár, n.m., dried leaves of gram used as fodder.

चान. khál, n.m., l. The runnel of a well.

2. Runnel carrying off water from village.

चिंडाना. khindáná, v.a., to scatter.

चिंदाना. khindáná. v.a.. to send off (a girl to her husband's home).

चिन्हों. khichri. n.f.. a mixture of bájrá and múng or of rice and múng cooked in water.

चित्रका khirak, n.m., single door.

चित्रासी. khilási, n.f., a broad water-course. a government minor distributary.

चिस्रा. khissá. n.m., proverb. story, tale; Urdu qissá.

*14, khis. n.m. the first milk that flows after a calf is born.

चंडना. khundná, v.a., to hinder.

च्रा. khurá, n.m., hoof.

"Ochhí godí, baingan khurá; le áyye kanthá, kadí ná burá."

Small knees, egg-shaped hooves—bring (such bullocks), husband; they are never bad.

स्कीमा. khurkáná, v.a. to reprove.

चूटा khúntá, n.m., Two uprights in which the hub of a spinning wheel is fixed by an iron pivot.

ছব khúd, n.m., furrow.

ख्डवानी, khúdwání, n.f., good rain, a furrow full.

खेदना. khedná, v.a., to drive off, eject.

खेर, kher, n.m., bad cold, influenza.

खेल. khel, n.f., trough at a well, at which cattle water.

चाई khoi, n.f.. crushed cane used for fuel.

खाटा. khotá, adj., bad, rascally, quarrelsome.

खाना khoná. v.a., 1. To spoil (the common Urdu sense is to lose).

2. To pick.

wit, khor, n.f., earthen manger at which cattle feed.

चोरी. khori. n.f.. 1. A scratch.

2. Very light ploughing.

" Mágh ki khorí aur sinh ki jhorí, pake bagair ná já."

Magh's ploughing, and a tiger's-claw wound, never go without maturing.

(The double meaning of pakná, to mature and to fester, is not capable of being rendered in English).

चाला.[kholá, n.f., buffalo or cow past bearing.

कोवा khowá, n.m., an insect that blights jowár and bájrá.

चोबार. khowár, n.m., or adj., base (corruption of Persian خوادِ khwár.)

" Gore khetí bár bin, dúmán setí piyár.

"Hákim setí orhná, tínon bát khowár."

Cultivating land near the village, without a fence,

Close companionship with dúms,

Covering the face before the judge,

All three matters are bad.

चोचा. khosná, v.a., to seize. snatch away, withdraw.

चार, khyás, n.f., remembrance.

ग

अंग्बर, gangwar, n.m., hero.

ist gandá, n.m., a cane (of sugar-cane).

iver: gandsá, n.m., a rough frame put under the plough to take the share off the ground when driving to and from the fields.

ৰঙা gaj, n m., elephant.

" Dhílí kokhan, kamr kas, jis kí píndí lál surang.

" Us ká jáyá gaj charhe, ná to albat charhe torang."

Loose belly, tight back, red complexion—such a woman's child will mount an elephant—if not at least a horse.

गढवाना. gaṭhwáná, v.a., to get mended or cobbled (of leather things).

गरो. gadí, n.f., cup, the lotá of Urdu.

गमा gatá, n.m., battens across the well-yoke.

गद. gad, n.f., thud, bump, gad-desi suddenly, violently

" Harí thí man bharí thí, bábá jí ke bágh men.

" Lataurá sí kharí thí.

'' Ayá thá málí ká, gad desí parí thí''

When green she was lovely in Babaji's garden.

She stood so blooming.

Came the mali's son, down she fell thumpety. (Answer jowar).

भदर. gaddar, adj., half ripe, ripening.

"Kachche phal soháwne, gaddar húe mithán.

· ' We phal kaunse, jo pakke ho karwán.''

Unripe fruits are agreeable, half ripe sweet.
What are those fruits that are bitter when ripe?
(Answer mankind—the three ages of children, grown lads, and old men are depicted).

गद रेकी. gad desí, adv., suddenly, violently.

गभन, gadhal, n.f., dirt, mud (in water).

गण. gan,, n.m., cloud, gathering clouds.

बन्दोसक, gandholak, n.m., the time just after sunset.

बमीना. gaminá, n.m., doing errands, fagging to another village.

मर्जरी. gargari, adj., newly watered, wet.

งษ์. garbh, n.m., 1. Pregnancy.

2. Belly, womb; garbh chhin jáná, to miscarry, to drop a child.

गलंते. galante, v.n., poetical form from galná, q.v.; it is either past tense or imperfect participle.

गल्ना. galná, v.n., lit., to melt, so perish; idiom., to thunder.

" Ap, galante pándíyá, jajmán bhí gále."

The pandit perishing, ruins his client with himself. (The fathers have eaten sour grapes and the children's teeth are set on edge).

गवांड, gawánd n.m., neighbourhood.

 $\pi r. g \acute{a}$, n.f., cow that has calved.

गांड. gánth, n.f., 1. Repairing, cobbling by a chamár.

2. Purse.

3. Knot.

मांड सेंड. gánth seth, n.f., cobbling, mending.

गांडल, gáṇḍal, n.f., young shoots of sarson used for food (human).

गाइर. gándar, n.m., a kind of grass (anatherum muricatum).

गाडा. gádá, n.m., a big cart.

गाडी, gádí, n.f., cart, also train.

गान. gát. n.m., body.

गाता, gátá, n.m., wooden bar, leather covered, making lip to prevent water tilting back into well when charas, q.v., is put down full.

गाद्द, gádar, n.m., a jackal.

"Gádar kí maut áwe, to gám sohín bháje."

When the jackal's to die, he runs towards the village. (Running into the jaws of death).

ग भ्रा, gádhlá, adj., dirty, muddy (of water).

சு தி. gábrú. n.m., a youth.

गाम, gám, n.m., village.

" Gám basáyá báníye, pár pare jab jáníye."

The baniya has founded a village! Say so, when it's finished.

गान्ही, gámrí, n.f., a small village.

गाज, gál. n.f.. an abuse.

गाइना, gálná, v.a., to liquefy, melt, so to destroy.

- गाउ, gáh, n.m., 1. Poetic license for gháo, q.v.
 - 2. An alligator or crocodile.

भाषा, gáhá, n.m., riddle.

- "Bin sísan dant anek bane, bin kanthan gáwe rág sutá.
 "Pán kí nhík ne dúr kare kvá siáhí kí rekh ne man
- " Pán kí phík ne dúr kare, kyá siáhí kí rekh pe man chaltá.
- "Bhaj le alekh Narinjan ne, is gáhe ne khole mánus sutá."

Sans head and teeth too many: sans throat and sings a good song.

Throws away the betel spittings: see how it follows the black line. Praise the invisible God—good man is he who solves this riddle.

(Answer 'a saw').

माचडा. gáhṭá, n.m., threshing by driving four to six bullocks over the crop.

गिलाइ, gitwár, n.m., an enclosure, for stocking fodder, etc.

गिनाजा, gitwárá, n.m., same as gitwár, q.v.

নিযাৰ, giyás, n.m., the 11th day of either half of the lunar month.

गिक girj, n.m., a kind of crane or stork.

गिड़ी. girri, n.f., a small round clod-crusher drawn by two bullocks.

गिर्ड गांड, girr gánth, n.f., a round closed bundle.

गुड़ी, guddi, n.f., small uprights, resting on the pái, q.v., in which the axle-bar of the well-wheel is fixed.

गुद्दो, gudri, n.f., two uprights supporting the spindle of a spinning-wheel.

म्म, gun, n.m., goodness, virtue, kindness.

'' Ját ná jáne gun kareá, chaná ná jáne báh. '' Chandan rúkh katáeke kahán ghisáon gáh.''

The Jat does not appreciate good done him, the gram knows not the plough. When the Jat had the sandal tree cut, how could I salve my wound?

(A pig used to plough for a Jat, and heal the wounds the Jat gave him for taking some gram as guerdon of his labours by recourse to the sandal tree. So the ungrateful Jat cut down the tree—thereby "killing the goose that laid the golden eggs." A Jat requites kindness as little as gram does labour spent on it).

मुक्स आ., gubbharná, v.a., 1. To push or thrust in.

2. To stitch roughly, cobble.

ब्दना gúndná, v.a., 1. To plait, braid.

2. To knead, pound.

int. gúndhná. v.a., same as gúndná, q.v.

" Miţi kahe kumhár te, kyá gúndhe moe.

" Ek din aisá hogá, ham gúndhenge toe."

Says the earth to the potter, why pound me so ?

'The day will come when I'll pound you.'

(The final words in each line are Brij or Purabi and not Jatu).

ग्रंड. gúnh, n.m., human excrement.

ग्रेन. gún, n.f., sack, load, pack, such as donkeys carry.

" Gadhá ná kúdá, kúdí gún."

The ass didn't jump but off jumped the load.

(Used when some busybody puts his spoke into the wheel).

रना, gúná, n.m., the broken straw or stalk of jowár (compare jhorá).

गुम्हो, gúmrí, n.f., pimple, boil, bubo.

मर्नी, gerná, v.a., to put down, throw down, throw away.

ภิส. gehún, n.m., wheat.

"Gehún kháná cháhe thá, sáḍh men kyon ná báhe thá."

Did you want to eat wheat? Then why didn't you plough in $H\acute{a}r$?

गैचल, gaighal, n.m., mud, slough.

गैल. gail, postp., with.

गैलड, gailar, n.m., or n.f., step-child, i.e., woman's child by a previous husband.

गैन्द्रा, gailrá, adj., past, gone before (of time).

गैदना, gaihná, adj., mortgaged.

गैसरे gaihre, n.m., comfortable circumstances, prosperity.

गोजी, gochni, n.f., mixed wheat and gram.

गोबहा. gojrrá, n.m., a mixture of wheat, barley and gram.

मोभा gojh, n.f., pocket in a man's coat.

मोभा, gojhá, n.m., pocket in a boy's chádar.

मोडा. godá, n.m., a knee.

मोहो. gorí, n.f., same as jindrálá, q.v., but dragged by bullocks.

गोद, god, n.m., adoption of a relation as a son (taking into lap).

गोद चाना, god áná, v.n., to be adopted.

गोद बेना, god lená, v.a., to adopt.

तोषा. goná, v.a. 1. To push or thrust in.

2. To stitch roughly, cobble.

मोविदा, gopiyá, n.m., sling used by a crop-watcher.

गोफिया, gofiyá, n.m., as gopiyá, q.v.

कोमाना. gománá, n.m., the foundation of the kúp, q.v., made of cotton-stalks.

कोरा, gorá, n.m., bare ground outside the ábádí where the cattle stand or rest.

" Ránghar ká maláhjá, gúiar pe sián.

" Gore kí khetí, kusal ná ján."

Friendship with a Ranghar, favours done a Gujar. Farming by the village site,—expect no happiness from these.

कोरी. gori, n.f., a handsome woman (fem. of gorá—fair).

भोज, gol, n.m., sending cattle to another village to pasture.

गोला. golá, n.m., 1. The top-leaves of the cane, cut off before stripping.

2. Mud pellets slung by the crop-watcher.

गोलाम golán, n.f., recognition.

गोवाड्. gowár, n.m., same as ugár, q.v.

गोवार. gowár, n.m., villager, yokel.

बोबाज, gowál, n.m., herdsman, cowherd.

क्रोचा. gosá, n.m., dried cow-dung cakes.

बोहर. gohar, n.m., road, same as rástá or gaundá, q.v.

बाहांड. gohánd, n.m., same as gawánd, q.v.

मोच्ची. gohri, n.f., smaller gohar, q.v.

मो र न्या. gohlyá, n.m., the starling (known in the Panjab as tiliar).

मों दा. gaundá, n.m.. road between villages broad enough for several carts.

मोडो. gaundí, n.f., road between villages, broad enough for one cart.

गोड़ो. gaurí, n.f., a cow that has calved (the word is in form diminutive but not always so in usage).

मोन. gaun, n.f., the slope, down which the bullocks go in drawing water from a well.

দ্বাৰ. gyán, n.m., thought, idea, perception.

जानी gyání, adj., wise.

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[N.S.]

"Guání ihirwe quán ne. ban ne ihirwe mor.

"Tiría ihirwe kúh ne, andherá ihirwe chor,"

The wise pines for wisdom.

The peacock for the wood,

The woman for the well.

The thief for the dark.

जारम, qyáras, n.f., same as atkádshí, q.v.

ज्ञाल, gyál, n.m., the sonless dead. Often propitiated as inimical.

ਬ

घटा, ghatá, n.f., cloud.

घटना. ghatná, v.n., to decrease, lessen, be short.

" Dene áyi bunái, ghatiyá batáwe sút."

Pav time for weaving came; says he the thread's short!

घडाना, gharáná, v.a., to get made.

घडका, gharúkná, v.n., to thunder (used of thunder in month of Sáwan only).

चडों ची. gharaunchi, n.f., 1. A stand for propping carts.

2. A stand for holding water-pots.

an insect that blights bájrá.

घन, qhan, n.m., same as qan, q.v.

धना, ghaná, adj., much, many.

चनखरे. ghankhare, adj., much, many, very.

घरमान. ghamsán, n.m., 1. Crowd.

2. Collected produce of a field.

चरीमा, gharráná, v.n., to thunder.

चर्वासा, gharwásá, n.m., house-keeping.

" Karí ránd ká kyá gharwásá."

It's no home with a widow for wife.

चाची, gháo, n.m., sore, wound.

चाड, ghát, adj., less.

चाडा, ghátá, n.m., loss, deficit.

BIH, ghám, n.m., sunshine, sun's heat.

चामड, ghámar, n.f., a heat-stricken cow (from ghám, q.v.).

माजामाजा, ghálámálá, n.m., irresponsibility, saying one and doing another thing, confusion, disorder.

"Ját ját ke sále kar den ghále mále."

All Jats are brothers-in-law, and do as they will.

चादना, ghálná, v.a., 1. To thrust in, put in.

2. To fling down.

3. To send off, send away.

"Ghare men nún ghálná."

Put salt in the pot.

(A form of oath).

" Rahí kunwárí dúmní, sir men ghále tel."

The dum's daughter remained a maiden, though she put oil on her head.

(There's many a slip 'twixt the cup and the lip).

चार इत का वक्त, ghás túk ká waqt, n.m., evening time; the same as díwá bale or rotiyán ká waqt; ghás túk is a familiar phrase for the evening meal.

fuef, ghirri, n.f., round earth-roller, or clod crusher.

चिन्ही, ghilri, n.f., pot for heating ghi.

चिसाना, ghisáná, v.a., to rub. or cause to rub.

बीस ghíns, n.f., same as gandsá, q.v.

चीडी, ghítí, n.f., throat.

इंबर, ghunghat, n.m., 1. Silver fringe to the orhná, q.v., falling over forehead.

2. Veil, idiomatically used in proverb for the beard of the wheat.

" Chane thanakde bádíye, masrí phulán nál.

" Dhán satudde bádíye gehún ghunghat nál."

Cut gram when it's rattling, masri when still there are flowers, rice when softish and wheat when the beard is long.

(The form of this proverb is Panjabi and not Jatu but it is quoted locally).

चंडी, ghúndí, n.f., twisted strand of saní or dob or munj, etc.

घेर. gher, n.m., a cattle-yard.

धर्मी, gherní, n.f., a peg by which the handle (hathlí) of a spinning wheel (charkḥá) is worked.

षोष, ghogh, n.m., hole made by scraping out earth for plastering.

मोड, ghot, n.f., still moist heat.

घाँदना. ghotná, v.a., to grind.

घोडता. ghortá, n.m., a donkey or a very small pony.

घोसी, ghosi, n.m., a cattle-dealing tribe.

ਚ

चंबोला, chanbolá, n.m., a kind of song (love song).

चकारा, chakárá, n.m., gazelle.

चष्क चाना, chanak áná, v.n., to be strained (of a muscle, etc.).

चनाई, chatráí, n.f., 1. Cunningness.

2. Pride.

चरमता, chamgatá, n.m., same as gatá (q.v.) when leathercovered.

चर्चा, charkhá, n.m., spinning wheel.

चर्म ख, charmakh, n.f., pegs of grass or hemp, etc., through each gudṛi (q.v.), on which the spindle of a spinning wheel rides.

चर्च chars, n.f., well-bucket.

चलावा, chaláwá, n.m., marriage (the final ceremony called makláwá in Urdu).

चरानी, chahání, n.f.. cremation-ground.

चाक. chák, n.m., the vessel in which the boiled sugar-cane juice is cooled and consolidated.

चाउा, cháthá, n.m., masonry work in a sugar-press between the vessels in which the juice is boiled and cooked.

चातर, chátar, adj., clever.

" Solá sású, sau bahú, tín khasm, ghar chár.

"Gáhá Rájá Bhoj ká, koí chátar líyo bichár."

Sixteen mothers-in-law,

A hundred wives

Three husbands.

Four houses.

Raia Bhoi's riddle: let some wise man solve it.

(Answer chaupar ("draughts")—16 pieces, 100 squares, 4 dice, etc).

चादर भोज. chádar bhíj, n.m., light rain, enough to wet one's clothes.

चाम, chám, n.m., skin or leather.

"Bhar gayá merá Rám manáyo, á gayá bhái kíli kholde, Rám manáyó.

"Har bhaj le Rám manáyó, á gayá bháí kílí kholde, Rám manáyó."

"Dádú dunyá bawrí, kahe chám ne Rám."

" Púchh maror bald kí kádhe apná kám."

It's full, God keep us all. It's come, loose the pegs, God keep us all. Sing to God, God keep us all. It's come, loose the pegs, God keep us all. Oh Dádú, the world is mad: they call leather God. A man's at work, twisting the tail of an ox.

(The first lines are the song of the well sung by the man at the bucket, the refrain Rám manáyo giving the time to the bullock-driver. Dádú, a great saint, hearing the refrain thought some religious ceremony was in progress, but coming up saw only some farmers and a leather well-bucket and broke out into an angry apostrophe).

चारवा, cháruwá, n.m., a donkey.

चाला. chálá, n.m., 1. Hardship or oppression.

2. Occurrence.

चिजंडी, chiúnțí, n.f., small black ant.

चिंदा, chinghwá, n.m., heat in urine.

चित्रसाम्रा, chitrmáshá, n.m., more commonly chomásá, q.v.

चिनानी, chinárná, v.a., To pile or heap carefully; used

(1) for heaping earth generally;

(2) of binding a turban.

चिना, chintá, n.f., anxiety.

चिमा जामा. chimájáná, v.n., to slip off, run away.

चिरी. chirí, n.f., a bird.

चिम्डी, chirmthi, n.f., a ratti, (liquorice seed) के part of a tolá.

चौच्डा. chíghrá, n.m., same as chúghrá, q.v.

चौज. chij, n.f., thing.

बीरा, chírá, n.m., coloured turban worn by young men.

चंदा बड. chundú wat, adj. or adv., division per stirpes, by wives (veils).

चुज्ञा. chulá, n.m., mouthful.

इंडना, chúntná, v.a., to pick (with sickle) the heads only of a crop.

etc. etc.

चुही. chúrí, n.f., glass bangle.

चूतड़, chútar, n.m., buttock.

"Pahár te áyí girr gánth—eke chútar eke ánkh."

Came a bundle from the hills—one buttock and one eye. (Answer—a jar of ghi).

च्रिया, chútiyá, n.m., a fool (though not used coarsely the origin of the word is obscene.)

" Pair kharáon bowan chaliá, aur suthan paihn naláwe.

"Yeh tínon to asal chútíye, bojh dhare aur gáwe."

Go to sow in pattens, go to weed in trousers, Lift a load and sing—these three are thorough fools.

चन, chún, n.m.. flour.

चेत, chet, n.m., the 1st month of the year—March to April.

चेडा, chebrá, n.m., litter of pigs.

পাৰা, chokhá, adj., very fair, passable, satisfactory; sometimes, good, especially as an interjection.

चोपाइ, chopár, n.f., common meeting house of the village or a subdivision of it.

चोप्द्रो, choprí, adj., buttered, greasy (also choprá).

चोनाचा, chomásá, n.m., the rainy season (4 months).

चोराहा, choráhá, n.m., four cross-roads.

चोलाई, choláí, n.m., amaranth.

খাৰজ, chosang, adj., four pronged (of a pitch fork).

चैं।क, chaunk, n.m., ventilation-hole, generally square, in the centre of a roof.

चैं। chaunsi, n.f., a coarse country cloth used by zamindars.

चौक्स. chaukas, adj., strong, intelligent, firm, careful.

·· Nar nárí ká piár, sajan, tum dil men rakhná.

"Nar ko dená már, nárí ko chaukas rakhná."

If thy wife has a lover, friend, hide it in thy heart.

Kill the lover, and keep thy wife safe.

(A riddle—lock (nar) and key (nárí)—lock the lock and keep the key secret; tálá márná is to lock a lock).

चौच, chauth, n.f., the 4th day of either half of the month.

चोदण, chaudash, n.f., the 14th day of either half of the month.

चौना, chauná, n.m., a herd of cattle when going to graze.

चौपड, chaupat, adj., open all round. desolate, so unguarded, careless.

चौबर, chausar, n.m., fourth ploughing.

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wz, chhai, n.f., the sixth day of either half of the lunar month.

कडा पहर, chhatá paihr, n.m., the sixth watch of the day (Urdu ádhí rát).

करोरा. chhatorá, adj., extravagant, self-indulgent, luxurious.

बड़ा. chhará, n.m., large stick put round to fence a field.

कड़ी, chharí, n.f., smaller chhará (q.v.).

च्चा. chhalá, n.m., a plain finger-ring.

चा, chhá, n.f., same as ráng (q.v.).

কাজ. chháj, n.m., a winnowing fan.

चान, chhán, n.f., a thatch roof.

बावन, chhában. n.m., wattlings of the floor of a cart made of cotton stalks, dhandhain (q.v.), sar (q.v.), etc.

कामा. chhámá, n.m., a piece of red-coloured coarse cloth (chaunsí) worked in crewels, worn at the front part of a woman's orhná (q.v.).

कावा, chháwá, n.m., 1. Building (used on a survey of the accommodation provided).

2. Shade.

femi, chhikná, v.n., to be satisfied, exhausted, satiated.

विस्तृा. chhilrá, n.m., milk following khís (q.v.), for eight or ten days. After this comes ordinary dúdh.

जीका. chhinká, n.m., 1. A large cattle muzzle.

2. A basket or frame suspended from the roof on which milk, etc., is kept.

बीकी, chhínkí, n.f., a small cattle muzzle.

नौदा, chhídá, adj., rare, sparse, few.

"Til chhíde, jaun sanghne, mendak chál jowár.

"Unt pair men bájrá aur dhán pair men chár.

"Chhídí chhídí banshtí ghore hinsen báhar."

(Sow) til sparsely, barley closely, jowár a frog's hop apart. Bájrá at a camel's hoof distance, and rice four times as close. Cotton very sparsely—and there'll be a horse to whinny at your door.

बीपन, chhipan, n.f., female tailor or dye-stamper.

बोपी. chhipi, n.m.. tailor or dye-stamper.

कडपन, chhutpan, n.m., 1. Childishness.

2 Childhood

बटभ्यन, chhutbhayyan, adj., (one) in low position, lowly.

e, chhe, interj., a noise used to make cows and bullocks drink.

चा, chho, n.m., 1. Touch.

2. Anger.

(Chho men áná to get angry.)

"Manghsir jádá rangsir, Poh jáde ká chho."

In Maghair the cold is moderate, in Poh it strikes home.

चोरट, chhorat, n.m., boy, loosely "children."

चोरा, chhorá, n.m., boy.

बोरी, chhorí, n.f., a girl.

कोचना, chholná, v.a., to strip or peel, Urdu chhílná.

चौर. chhaur, n.m., a big stock of púlis (q.v.).

बौरी. chhaurí, n.f., a small stock of púlis (q.v.).

ज

बंगल, jangal, n.m., Panjab country; cf. the Roman use of 'barbarus.'

जंजाल, janjál, n.m., trouble misfortune.

आग. jag, n.m., 1. World.

2. A funeral feast.

" Kágá kis ká dhan hare, koel kis ne de.

" Ek jíbá ke káran, jag apná kar le."

Whose wealth does the crow take? To whom does the koil give ought? Yet one by his tongue makes the whole world his own.

(Showing the benefits of a persuasive tongue).

जडानी, jaṭhání, n.f., elder brother's wife; cf. drání, younger brother's wife.

The two wives hold these relationships to each other whether both husbands are living, or both after karáo (q.v.) are living with the surviving brother.

जनी, jatí. adj., celibate, continent.

" Banyá mít ná beswáň satí, kágá hans ná gadhá jatí."

The baniya's no more a friend than the prostitute an immolated widow.

The crow is as near a goose, the donkey as soon would be continent.

जनावर, janáwar n.m., an animal.

अन्दनी, jandni, n.f., the threads of human hair stretched crisscross from wheel to wheel of a spinning wheel.

जबर, jabar, adj., more.

जमाई, jamáí, n.m., son-in-law.

जनंभर, jalandhar, n.m., a disease due to malarious climate resulting in swelling of the stomach. Dropsy.

जबैदरी, jalaihri, n.f., a halo round the moon.

"Súraj kundal chánd jalaihrí, túte tíbe bhare daihrí."

A ring round the sun, a halo round the moon!

The sand hills are washed away and the hollows filled up.

(A sign of abundant rain).

जनारा, jawárá, n.m., fodder given to bullocks at midday.

जांड. jánd, n.m., a tree, prosopis spicigerá.

जारहा, jákhrá, adj., nearly blind.

जाडा. jádá, n.m., the cold weather, four months.

जान विनान, ján binán, n.f., life and soul, essence.

जाबर, jábar, n.m., rank and deeply grown dúb grass.

जाया, jáyá, partic., born, so son, offspring, e.g., mánjáyá, '' sons of the same mother.''

जाज, júl, n.m., or f., a tree (salvadora oleoides) (a big tree will be masculine and a small one feminine).

জিল্মান্তা, jindrálá, n.m., a drag-rake dragged by men for levelling high land.

जिन, jib, adv., relative—when;

correlative—then;

e.g., jib pání áyegá jib bárí boánge or jib pání áyá, jib ínkh boyá thá.

When the water comes, then we will sow cotton; or—when the water came, we sowed cane.

जिमाना, jimáná, v.a., to entertain at meals.

जीजा, jíjá, n.m., sister's husband.

"Jije ke mál par, sálí lad baulí."

The sister-in-law goes half mad (with pride or envy at) her brother-in-law's wealth.

जोजी, jiji, n.f., sister; used to actual sister or near cousin only. जोब, jib, n.f., tongue (poetical $jib\acute{a}$).

जीजा. jimná, v.n., to be entertained to food.

जीव, jiv, n.m., life.

ज्ञ, judh, n.m., war.

ज्ञाना. julmáná, n.m., cruelty, oppression.

জ্জা, júá, n.m.. 1. The upper wooden bar in the yoke of a well-bullock.

2. The yoke of the plough or cart.

₹, jún, n.f., louse.

 $(J\acute{u}\dot{n})$ is also the name of a tribe of $J\acute{a}ts$).

"Júán kí mis, ghágrí gere."

Throws away a petticoat because of the lice in it! i.e., any excuse is good enough!

সুহ, júr, n.m., yoke of a well.

ज्ञा $j\acute{u}n$, n.m., 1. Twisted strand of cane-tops for binding sheaths of cane.

2. A meal.

3. A life (in the series of transmigrations).

ज्ञम, júm, n.f., louse.

जून, júl, n.m., a cubic measure, 10 by 10 by 1 haths usually, which is the unit when zamindars unite to dig their tank.

जे, je, conj., if.

जेड, jeth, n.m., the 3rd month of the year, May to June.

जेडा, jethá, adj., first born. so best.

"Jeth jethí. sárh hetí, sáwan men boí ná khoí."

Jeth's (cotton) is first and best, Har's late, Sawan's sowing gives no picking.

नेद्रत. jethút. n.m., nephew. son of husband's elder brother.

जेली, jeli, n.f., a (two pronged) pitch-fork.

नेहा, jewrá, n.m., a rope stronger than jewrí (q.v.) made by twisting three ghundís (q.v.) together.

जेही, jewri, n.f., 1. Rope of the country, made by twisting two ghundis (q.v.) together.

2. Survey-chain.

" Alí dekh ke gargari, bahútí dení bo." " Phirtí áyí jewrí, ab kam kis bidh ho."

Seeing the soil moist and soft, he sowed a great deal. Round comes the chain; now how can he make it less? (The proverb refers to a fluctuating system of assessment when the demand is adjusted to the cultivation of each year).

जै, zail. n.f., same as thok (q.v.).

जो, jo, n.f., wife.

জাম, jog, adj.. worth, constructed with the inflected infinitive as '' karan jog.''

जोगम जोग. jogam jog, adj., suitable, agreeable.

"Nadí kináre ghar kare, aur chorí khatyá kháe.

"Jogam jog ná beháe, yeh tínon chál jáen."

If a man builds a house on the banks of a stream, or lives on the spoils of theft; or mates unsuitably—all three will come to grief.

जोषाः jogná n.m., a jogí (mere jogí)

(used in a contemptuous use).

"Ghar ká jogí jogná, báhar gám ke sidh."

A jogi is a mere jogi in his own home but a saint in another village.

"A prophet is not without honour save in his own country."

जोड. jot, n.f., band, yoke, yoke of oxen.

जोड्या, joryá, n.m., the leader pair of bullocks in a cart.

जोन, jot, n.m., leather strap passing from the yoke under the bullock's neck.

জীৱৰ, johar, n.m., a kachchá (unlined) tank.

जोइड़ी, johrí, n.f., a small kachchá tank.

जों, $jau\dot{n}$, n.m., barley (same as jau of Urdu).

"Khare gehún, pare jaun."

(Cut) wheat still upright, and barley when fallen

祈

भाकंत, jhakant, n.f., same as jhakkat (q.v.).

भवन, jhakkat, n.f., labour, assiduity, specially mental labour.

"Jhakkat bidyá, pachchat khetí."

Wisdom by industry, farming by toil.

भड़क, jharak, n.f., noise made by churning milk or simmering milk.

भापमा, jhapakná, v.n., to wink.

কাৰা, jhánkhá,, n.m., large ventilation-hole in the roof of a zamindar's house.

ورھ' '

พารา jhán pná, v.a., to shut.

भाका, jhákrá, n.m., a big earthen water-pot with a wide mouth.

নাড়. jhár, n.m., a shrub (zizyphus nummularia), so called when still growing.

भारू, jhálrá, n.m., a long hanging necklace, made of rupees.

िकरा. jhirá, n.m., 1. Surplus canal water.

2. Dripping water.

भिनी, jhirná, v.n., 1. To pine.

2. To drip.

भीना, jhíná. adj.. thin.

भोमा, jhímá, adv., slowly.

मंड, jhund, n.f., a clump of cotton opening in the pod.

भ्ल्बा. jhulná, v.n., to swing; to blow (of wind).

"Ját kudáyá turá, to woh bhí burá.

" Báhman bándhe chhurá, to woh bhí burá.

"Sáwan jhuliá parwá, to woh bhí burá."

A Jat riding a horse, that's bad.

A Brahman wearing a knife, that's bad too. An east wind blowing in Sawan, and that's bad.

भूजा, jhúngá, n.m., a bullock with horns bent downwards. भूड, jhúnd, n.m., a kind of grass. (Anatherum muricatur भूडी नोड़, jhúndí tor, n.m., one whose rights (as occ

tenant only) are based on his or his ancestor's originally broken up the land.

भेरा jherá. n.m., an unlined well, fallen in.

कांबांचा jhonwansa. n.m., camel thorn (alhagi maurorum).

भोतन षाला. jhokan álá, n.m., stoker at the sugar-press.

भोका, jhoká, n.m., stoker at the sugar-press.

भोजा, jhokná, v.a., to stoke a fire.

भोडा, jhotá, n.m., buffalo of full age whether entire or not.

भोडी. jhotí, n.f., same as jhotrí (q.v.).

দৌহৰা, jhotrá, n.m., buffalo calf of two years or so.

भोटहो, jhotri, n.f., buffalo-heifer of two years or so.

भोड़ा, jhorá, n.m., stalk of múng, moth, urd, or gram, after the pods and leaves are shaken off.

भोरी, jhori. n.f., a wound.

S

zer, tantá, n.m., noise, disturbance, trouble.

डहोरी, ṭaṭiri, n.f., a bird ("the did you do it" of the Anglo-Indian) lapwing.

दस्ना. ṭalná, v.n., to be evaded, eluded, escaped.

"Kál taljá, kalál ná tale."

One may elude death, but not the kalál.

डांग्हो, tánglí, n.f., same as jelí dosang (q.v.).

टोडी, tándí, n.f., a small mud-bracket on a wall.

टाट, tát. n.f., the pod of gram (with the pea intact).

डाइड, táṭas, n.f., the pod of gram after threshing.

डाडा, tátá, n.m., the screen of cotton stalks etc., erected round the sugar-press.

ढाडी सेवा, tátí sewá, n.m., as ásrat (q.v.).

टाड, tád, n.f., armlet, worn only after gáoná or chaláwá (q.v.).

डापू, tápú, n.m., an island.

डावर. tábar, n.m., boy under the age of 15 or so (used in south of the district).

त्राइड्रिक्टी, n.m., a big bell.

जों, jav

" Chhotí thí jib dhotam dhotá, barí húí jib lál.

" Búdhí húí jib náchan lagí bánd gale men tál."

When small it was hidden under the earth (?), when big it was red. When old it began to dance as if it had a bell on its neck.

(Answer-'gram').

डिकोश, tikaurá, nm., a heap of jowár or bájrá, ready for threshing.

ৰী. fi. interj., Eh! girl (used to women in their paternal village only).

#î♥, tind, n.f., fruit of kair (q.v.).

डीडी, ṭiḍi, n.f., full-grown locust.

. बीबा, tíbá, n m., the crest of a sandy hill.

ally tukek, adv.. one moment, usually with "to stop." Literally tuk probably means a piece, a part.

दबदेकी, tuk tuki, n.m., goldsmith (onomatopæie).

दुब. túk, n.m., a piece (of bread especially).

ट्रम्ब, túmb, n.f., ornaments (collectively), jewellery.

टेक, tek, n f., 1. Safety.

2. Prop.

" Chálná bhalá ná kos ká, betí bhalí ná ek.

" Qarzá bhalá ná báp ká. Sáhib rákho tek."

Walking's bad, even a mile; daughter's bad, even one of them. Debt's bad, even one's father's, God save us from them!

रेजा, tekná, v.a., to affix,

mohar tekná-to affix a seal.

ভালা. tokná, n.m., larger tokní (q.v.).

होत्री. tokní, n.f., brass water-pot used also for ghí.

होडा. totá. n.m.. loss, ruin.

"Kúá khetí najá brábar, sárá totá gárí men."

A well, or farming, the gain (and the loss) are quits. All's loss in driving a cart

टोइ. toh. n.f., search.

डोचना, tohná, v.a., to search for.

टौडा, ṭauṭhá, n.m., winter sunshine.

त

डगाई, thagái, n f., cunning, deception.

डप्कना. thanakná, v.n., to rattle, jingle, tinkle.

डर्ना. tharná. v.n., to shiver (with cold).

डाडा, thádá, adj., heavy, thick, fine.

डाडी रौ. thádí rau. n.f., very heavy rain.

हाही. thálí, adj., unemployed, at leisure.

द्वा. thứná, n.m., pretence.

डेकर, thekar, n.m., l. Turn roster.

2. The potsherds by which the roster is determined.

Tal, theká, n.m., the large round canvas sack in which grain is stored in a house.

as, theth, adv., exactly, on the spot.

नेका पीडी, thoká pítí, n.m., carpenter (idiomatic in proverb only —onomatopæic).

a) thoth, n.m., 1. Fool, bad husbandman. adv., 2. Exactly, on the spot.

"Barsenge kátak diwálí, aisá hí thoth aisá hí hálí."

If it rains in kátak and at diwáli, its all one for the good and the bad husbandman.

होसा. tholá, n.m., 1. The minor subdivision of a village.

2. A prick.

3. A peck, of a bird's beak or scratch of a man's finger-nail.

डोबे दार, tholedár, n.m., an elder councillor of the village: there is usually one for each tholá (q.v.).

ड

₹ர, dang, n.m., a pace, step.

इंगोला, dangraulá, n.m., a path for cattle.

हावारा, daṅgwárá, n.m., association of cattle or labour in cultivation; amalgamation of resources.

इंड, dand, n.m., punishment, fine.

"Nání khasm kare, deautá dand bhare."

The grandmother takes another husband, and her daughter's son bears the loss.

"The fathers have eaten sour grapes and the children's teeth are set on edge."

दंडोत, dandot, n.f., a form of salutation to Bairágis.

डडना, dainá, v.n., to stay, stop, halt.

द्रावा, dráwá, n.m., a scare-crow.

डिस्यां. dalhiyán, n.m., a man who works a dál (q.v.).

डरी, dahí, n.f., cross-sticks to support the cart, when standing.

डांबा, dánká, n.m., stalk of gram and other pulses.

डांगर, dángar, n.m., pl., cattle

"Sádhú ki khetí tínán kí ándhí, menh aur dángrán kí."

The spring harvest depends on three things—the duststorm, the rain and the cattle.

डांडना, dántná, v.a., same as dátná (q.v.).

हांडही, dánthlí. n.m., stalk of múng, moth and urd before the pods and leaves are shaken off.

755

vivi, dándá, n.m., big ornamental ear-ring.

डांडो. dándí, n.f., very small nose-ring worn simply to keep the hole open.

डाकर, dåkar, n.f , hard clay soil.

डाक मार्नी, dák márná, v.a., to leap, to jump.

This term is used for leaping feet first into water.

डाटना, dátná, v.a., 1. To stop.

2. To rebuke.

डाःहा, dábrá, n.m., l. A small pond.

2. A small low-lying plot of ground.

हाभ, dábh, n.f., a kind of grass. (Eragrostis cynosuroides).

डामचा, dámchá, n.m., a platform built up to watch the fields and scare birds from.

डाज, dál, n.f., 1. Branch.

2. Bucket lift used to lift the canal water onto a higher level.

हाजा, dálá, n.m., a basket.

डाह्नीया, dálíyá, n m., a man who works a dál (q.v.).

डिको, dikrí, n.f., same as jindrálá (q.v.).

डिगर्ना, digarná, v.n., to go away, go back.

डोमक, dímak, n.f., white-ant.

ыт, dúngá adj., deep.

EH, dúbh, n.f., a kind of grass. (Cynodon dactylon.)

cattle to pass.

हैंदर, daihr, n.m., 1. Flood.

2. Land where floods collect.

"Chet chaná chaugná, je daihr áyá ho."

If the flood comes betimes, the gram's fourfold in Chet.

दोबारा, dongárá n.m., drizzling rain. (Sufficient to plough on.)

होब हेना. dob dená, v.a., 1. To drown, so

2. To spoil.

डोल, dol, n.m., iron-bucket.

डोल, daul, n.f., boundary, ridge, of a field.

डोडी तोड़, daule tor, n.m., heavy rain, enough to break down the field boundary.

हंचर, dhanchar, n.m, bad cold, influenza.

ढंढैन, dhandhain, n.f., aeschynomene indica.

dhandhoi, n.f., the first washings of the cauldron after the cane juice has been boiled (the perquisite of the stoker).

दर, dhab, n.m., friendship, affection.

हबी, dhabí, n.m., a friend.

डचके, dhalke, adv., from dhalná (q.v.). steadily, slowly (cf. dhulke trotting).

दसना, dhalná, v.n., 1. To roll.

2. To decrease, decline.

3. To spill, trickle.

" Parwá jeth ki gáje, din bahattar bháje.

"Parwá sádh kí gale, din pantálís dhale."

If it thunders on the first of Jeth (the clouds) will disappear for 72 days; if it thunders on the first of Har, they will roll away for 45 days.

ढाई, dhái, n.f., cry.

डांक, dhánk, n.f., buffalo or cow past bearing.

हांडा, dhándá, n.m., same as dhándhá (q.v.).

ढांडा, dhándhá, n.m., a bullock past work.

हांदी, dhándhí, n.f., a cow past bearing.

ढाना, dháná, n.m., 1. The superstructure of a well.

2. A small hamlet (usually of tenants' houses) in the middle of an estate.

बाबी, dhání, n.f., same as dháná (q:v.), (hamlet) but smaller.

ढाज. dhál, n.m., 1. Way, habit.

2. Shield.

दिश्चना, dhisalná, v.n., same as kantáná (q.v.), (to shrink).

हो. dhi, n.f. a ridge between fields to hold up the rain.

बोकर dhinkar, n.m., 1. Thorny branches (used for fencing).

2. Heap of jhár (q.v.), cut green for fodder or making a hedge.

हो तोड़, dhi tor, n.m., heavy rain, enough to wash away high ridges.

हे है. dhe re, interj., a noise made to call buffaloes up from watering.

है पहना, dhai parná, v.n., to fall down.

होड़, dhong, n.f., same as thok (q.v.).

होना dhobrá, n.m., a broken earthen or metal vessel.

होर. dhor. n.m., cattle.

"Jeth basáwe kámlí, mágh basáwe dhor.

"Sawan bane ghosí, to shah ke chor."

Buy a blanket in Jeth or cattle in Mágh!

Turn cattle-dealer in Sáwan! Is the man a money-lender or a thief?

दोलगा. dholná, v.n., to blow

ਜ

नंत. tant, n.m., same as gaihre (q.v.), good circumstances; used with v. baithná only.

सका. takná, v.n., to perceive, to consider, to think to oneself.

नगर, tagár, n.m., a heap of earth mixed with water to make plaster or mud mortar.

न न्ना, tajná, v.a., to give up.

ननपा, tattayá, n.m., a kind of hornet.

ลมา. tapná, v.n., to be famous, notorious.

तर्भाना, tarsáná, v.a., to thirst for, tantalize, tease.

नलोडी, taloi, n.f., the bottom wooden bar, parallel to $j\acute{u}\acute{a}$ (q.v.), in the yoke of a well-bullock.

नस्ता. taslá, n.m., a big iron saucepan for cooking sweets, etc.

महेना. tahetá, adj., early (crop).

" Sáwan paihlí dasmín, je rohní ho.

"Tahetá samá nipje, chintá karo ná ko."

If Rohni (one of the lunar mansions) falls on the dark tenth of Sawan, there'll be an early harvest, let no one worry about it.

नाई. tái, n.f., wife of father's elder brother.

नाज, iáú, n.m., father's elder brother.

नाइड, táes, n.f., wife of husband's or wife's father's elder brother.

नार्चा tácsrá, n.m., husband's or wife's father's elder brother.

和歌, tákú, n.m., iron spindle in a charkhá or spinning wheel.

नाकड़ी, tákrí, n.f., weighing scale.

नाम्ही. $t\acute{a}gr\acute{a}$, n.f., silver waist-chain worn by males only. नाहा. $t\acute{a}r\acute{a}$, n.m., chill.

"Hare chane dekhkar, mat ná dil men phúl.

"Tárá pálá par gayá, márá gayá sab phúl."

Don't blossom (into hope) at the sight of green gram. Came cold and frost, and all the flowers died.

("Don't count your chickens before they are hatched").

नात, tát, adj., warm, hot.

सान बजाना, tán bajáná, v.a., to cope with.

साना, táná, v.a., to heat.

नापड़, tápar, n.f., land which is hard from having borne an autumn crop or an irrigated spring crop.

नार. tár, n.f., comfortable circumstances, prosperity.

मारा, tárá, n.m., a star.

नार वैडना, tár báithná, v.n., circumstances to be comfortable.

साल, tál, n m., clapping of the hands, e.g., tál bajáná, to clap the hands.

मादना, táhná, v.a., to drive off, eject.

निवार्च, tigái, n.f., advance made by Government for agricultural objects (corr. of takáví).

तियाँ, tiryá, n.f., wife, woman.

"Ghaná antká barsná, ghaní antkí dhup.

"Ghaná antká bolná, ghaní antkí chup.

"Sáwan antká barsná, Jeth antkí dhup.

" Bhátán antká bolná, tirián antkí chup."

Too much rain, too much heat.

Too much speech, too much silence (are bad except) Much rain in Sáwan is good, and much heat in Jeth, Much speech in bards and much silence in women.

तिवाई, tiwáí, n.f., a small 3-legged stool (Urdu tipáí).

নিৰাৰা, tiwáyá, n.m., the winnowing stool. (Cf Urdu tipáí.) নিৰ, tis, n.f., thirst.

नियाया, tisáyá, adj., thirsty.

"Chálí utrá, hálá búr, kyaun tisáyá jáe sai súr."

The north wind blows, and the chaff flies about: why does the thirsty pig go away?

(Because the north wind means rain and the pig knows that he will thirst no more).

দীজ, tíj, n.f., 1. A girl's festival on the 3rd of Sudi Sáwan (q.v.).

2. The 3rd day of either half of the month.

" Sáwan paihlí panchwín je chamkegí bíj.

"Tún to ghále dámche, main khelungí tíj."

. If it lightens on the dark fifth of Sawan, do you build your stand to watch the crops from: I'll keep my holiday.

नीनर पंचा, titar pankhá, adj., feathery—applied to clouds or any thing that suggests a feather.

मोस, tíl, n.f., a set of woman's clothing, viz., oṛhná, aṅgí and ghágrí.

नी बर, tisar, n.m., third ploughing.

तुकान, tuphán, n.m., lying, untruthfulness.

तुफानन, tuphánan, n.f., a liar or ill-conducted woman.

तुषानी, tuphání, n.m., a liar or ill-conducted man.

तुरङ, turang, n.m., horse.

" Ujlá bhojan, gác dhan, ghar kalwantí nár.

"Chauthe pith turang ki, bahisht nishání chár."

Good food, a cow for wealth, at home a thrifty wife. Fourthly the back of horse—these are the four marks of heaven.

तुरा, turá, n.m., same as turang (q.v.).

तुर्ने. turt, adv., immediately, quickly.

तुड़ा, túrá, n.m., straw of wheat, barley and gochní, etc.

तूना. túná, v.n., to miscarry.

तेड़ा. terá, n.m., a mixed crop of sarson (sown broadcast and not in lines) and wheat; sometimes used of kharif mixtures too.

सेना tainá. v.n., to be heated.

नोड़ा. torá, n.m. scarcity, want.

तोझ. tol, n.f., news, information.

लोश, tosh, n f., the 13th day of either half of the month.

तील. taul, n.f., hurry, haste.

"Toríá hal joríá, urdán chhodí bel.

"Kitní taul kar le sále, pakegá merí gel."

When the toria was sown, the urd had put out its tendrils. (Said the toria to the urd). However much haste you make, you blackguard, I'll ripen with you.

(Toria is a very quick-growing crop. Sálá, brother-inlaw, is here, as usual, used abusively).

नौला. taulá, adj., quick.

मौने. taule, adv., quickly.

स्रोचा, tyaunkhá, n.m., trijunction pillar.

स्वीर, tyaur, n.m. evesight.

ৰাদ্ধ tráf, n.m., a tax levied by the village community on merchants and craftsmen. (Corr. of Urdu Ahtráf probably).

बास, trás, n.m., trouble.

चेड्र. trer, n.f., crack, fissure, in a building or in soil.

य

var. thamná, v.n., to stay, stop, halt.

चन, thal, n.m., mound, hill.

चनी, thali, n.f. high-lying sandy soil, or sand hill.

च्चा, thalsná, v.n., to slip.

चान. thán, n.m., a small shrine to any deity, e.g., mátá ká thán.

चाजा, thá pná, v.a., to settle, to fix.

चाचा. thámná, v.a., to stop.

याज, thál, n.m., a big metal plate.

णाजो, thálí, n.f., a small metal plate.

चावर, tháwar, n.f , Saturday.

चोक, thok, n.f., minor subdivision of a village.

षोषा. thothá, adj., empty, hollow.

"Thothá chaná, báje ghaná."

Empty gram makes much noise (i.e., A jack in office gets above himself).

चाजा. thyńwná, v.n., to be got (as Urdu milná in that sense).

द

द्वन, dakhan, n.m., the south.

द्वन त. dakhanán, adv., southwards.

EXECUTE: $dakhan\acute{a}i$, n.f., southwind or adjectively with $b\acute{a}l =$ south (wind).

द्वनंदा. dakhanánhá, adj., southern.

दशको, dakhshní, adj., southern.

(This form is good Hindi but I have never heard it in the District except in the proverb.)

" Máhí pohí dakhshni, Sáwan kesi lakhshmi."

South wind in Magh and Poh, there'll be wealth like Sawan's.

हाइ।, dagrá, n.m., road, same as gaundá, rástá, etc. (q.v.).

दक्ता, dachhná, n.f., charity in cash, paid to a Brahman after feeding him.

"Akar kar makar kar, khir par shakar kar.

"Itne men chulá leún, dachhná ká fikar kar."

Play what tricks you will, put some sugar on the rice. I'll just drink a sip of water, do you think of a present for me.

(So says the greedy Brahman to the Jat).

द्रभाजा, damgajá, n.m., deception.

द्वाचा, damrakhá, n.m., same as kákrá (q.v.).

दरानी, darání, n.f., husband's younger brother's wife; see note on jathání.

(alyá, n.m., half-ground wheat or jowár or bájrá, cooked in water—a sort of porridge.

द्वाज dalhiz, n.f., same as pauli (q.v.).

इवास, dawát, n.f., a small wooden bracket to hold (díwá) lamp.

दवादसी, dawádsí, n.f., the 12th day of either half of the month.

दवा, dasmin, n.f., the 10th day of either half of the month.

₹₹₹, dahar, n.m., flood or land where floods collect.

द्याना, daháná, n.m., same as khánd (q.v.).

दोनी. dántí, n.f., same as drántí (q.v.).

दाञ्चा. $d\acute{a}jn\acute{a}, {{\rm v.n.}, \atop {\rm v.a.},} \}$ to burn, be burnt.

"Lakri kahe kumhár te, kyá dájegá moe.

" Ek din aisá hogá, ham dájánge toe."

Says the wood to the potter, 'Why do you burn me? The day will come when I'll burn thee.'

(The form of the last word in each line is *Brij* or *Purabi* and not *Jatu*).

दानी, dátí, n.f., same as drántí (q.v.).

दादा. $d\acute{a}d\acute{a}$, n.m., applied respectfully to a Brahman, especially in addressing him, $\epsilon.g.$, the village of Wazirpur is called $D\acute{a}d\acute{a}n$ by the people because of the Brahmans living in it

दाची. dámní, n.f., lightning.

दाक dárú, n.f., 1. Medicine.

2. Wine or spirits.

दादों, dáhon, adv., entirely, altogether, absolutely.

दादना. dáhná, v.a., to burn.

दिन, din, n.m., 1. Sun.

2. Day.

दिन चिपे, din chhipe, n.m., = chauthe paihr.—The 4th watch of the day—evening.

िदन दक्षा, din dhalá or din dhalen, n.m., = tísre paihr.—The 3rd watch of the day—afternoon.

दिन निक्क रैसना, din nikal rahná, n m., = áṭhwán paihr.—The 8th watch of the day—early morn.

दीवा बने, díwá bale, n.m., lamp-lighting or evening time.

दुवाला. dukhálá, adj., in pain.

दुरेडा, durețá, adj., at a distance, far, e.g.. durețá bhái, a distant cousin.

दुर्चभ, durlabh, adj., difficult.

हुचनी. duhni, n.f., any vessel into which an animal is milked, so milking-pail.

चुंदी, dúndí, n.m., a fool, an idiot.

द्रती. dútí, n.f., liar, exaggerator (a term used among women).

 \mathbf{g} dúd, adj., belonging to caste, used in the question, tum kaun dúd so ? = To what caste do you belong?

दूषज. dúdhal, adj., milch, giving much milk.

"Gáe to dúdhal bánkí aur tez bánkí ghoríyán.

" Mard to maror bánká aur liház bánkí goríán."

A cow's glory is her milk (lit. the milch cow is glorious) and a mare's her pace: a man's his pride, and her modesty a woman's.

ym, dúdhyá, adj., milky, applied to clouds when general rain is going on, in contradistinction to the black clouds of a local storm.

दूभर, dúbhar, n.m., discomfort, difficulty.

"Ghoriyán dúbhar bhádwá mainsán dúbhar Jeth.

" Mardán dúbhar písná, bahúán dúbhar pet."

Bhadon means discomfort for the mare, and Jeth for the buffalo; grinding for the man, and pregnancy for the woman.

देचीना, deautá, n.m., daughter's son.

देखन, derút, n.m., son of husband's younger brother.

देसा भरन, desá bharan, n.f., general rain.

देशोला, desaulá, adj., affecting the whole country side, wide-spread.

देही, dehi, n.f., body.

देखल, dehl, n.f., sill, threshold of a door.

देख्डी, dehli, n.f., cross-beam or stone across the mouth of well on which the superstructure is reared.

देह, dainh adj., ten.

दैरम, daihm, n.m., still heat.

दैरणन, daihshat, n.f., fear (used with v., mánná).

दोकन्या, dokanyá, n m., an orhná (q.v.), worked on both hems.

হাজ. doj, n.f., the 2nd day of either half of the month.

दोत्री, dotyi, adj., land successively cultivated in both harvests.

दोनाकी, dotrálí, n.f., a rake.

हापैदरा, dopahrá, n.m., the 2nd watch of the day.

दोसङ, dosang, adj., two pronged (of a pitchfork).

दोषर, dosar, n.m., second ploughing.

दोचा, dohá, n.m., verse.

इंग्लो, drántí, n.f., bill-hook used for stripping sugar-canes and for purposes of reaping.

ध

મંદ્રા.dhandá, n.m., business.

મંપા. dhandhá, n.m., same as dhandá (q.v.).

العجار dharúkná, v.n., to thunder.

খন, dhan, n.m., wealth, property.

"Je tere kanthá dhan ghaná, gárí kar le do.

"Je tere kanthá dhan nahín kálar bárí bo."

If you're very rich, my husband, take and drive your cart. If you're poor, sow cotton in hard soil.

भने, dhani, adj., or n.m., 1. Rich.

2. Owner.

भूती, dhartí, n.f., land, soil.

"Chháwe men sowe, jab lagiyá bisákh.

"Gerdiyá khád, tá ptí thí dhartí.

"Din ne kare rakhwál, rát ne khá jáe harní."

Sleep indoors in Baisakh, mulch the ground when its baking hot, watch your crops by day (and let) the buck eat them by night—(heavens, what a fool!)

भवाना, dhawáná, v.a., to have washed.

भागकी, dhángarlá, n.m., a mixture of múng, másh and moth.

भाक dhák, n.f., fear of, danger from.

भारता, dháglá, n.m., same as dhángarlá (q.v.).

भाइने, dhárí, adj. or n.m., 1. Vigorous, energetic, of man or bullock.

 A robber or dacoit.
 The Lyallpur Colony is known here as Dulá dhárí kí bár.

भामा, dhápná, v.n., to be satisfied.

भी, dhí, n.f., daughter.

भीनां. dhínán, n.f., same as dhínú (q.v.).

"Khetí kar le dhán kí, dhínán rakh le gáe.

"Kapre rakh le kámlí, to bighá ek ná jáe."

In farming go in for rice, in cattle (lit. cow)-keeping for a milch cow—in clothing for a blanket; then you won't lose a single bigha.

भोन, dhínú, n.f., a milch cow.

"Sagá same bacháriye, dhinú Phágan men."

Know a friend in time (of trouble) and a milch cow in *Phagan*.

'Ko-same' is a variant for 'same' and gives the above sense.

भीमा, dhímá, adv., slowly.

ध्मर, dhumar, n.f., fog, mist.

भूरा dhurá, n.m., the axle-tree of a well-wheel.

भूड़ना. dhúrná, v.n., to thunder.

va dhúl, n.f., dust.

"Cheúntí le ande chalí, chiriá naháwe dhúl.

"Shádí kahe Bhádlí, barkhá ho bhar púr."

The ant carries her eggs, the sparrow's taking a dust-bath. Says Shadi, "Eh, Bhadli there'll be rain in plenty."

n. dho, n.m., cunning, deception, fraud.

with dhori, n.f., 1. The wheeler pair of bullocks in a cart.

2. Cattle generally.

3. Used metaphorically for the leader of an enterprise.

nd. dhore, postp., in possession of near (equivalent to Urdu pás).

মীজ, dhaunj, n.m., same as kiļá (q.v.), but netted with barri (q.v.) instead of with cotton stalks.

भोन, dhaun, n.m.. half maund, 20 seers.

भोजा, dhaulá, adj., white.

भोजपोग, dhaulposh, n.m., a native gentleman (a barbarous equivalent of Urdu sufed posh).

धान, dhyán, n.m., thought.

ਜ

नक संज्ञ nang malang, n.m., solitary, alone, a man with no family of his own.

नपो, nagri, adj., belonging to a nagar or small town, townsfolk.

नदादली. naráhli, n.f., the small peg in the halas (q.v.), which admits of the yoke being adjusted backwards and forwards.

मदस, nadhel, n.f., same as naráhlí (q.v.).

नपद, nanad, n.f., husband's sister.

नाष्ट्रत. nandút, n.m., son of husband's sister.

नणाज. nansál, n.f., maternal grandfather's house.

नय. nath, n.f., a large nose ring worn only after marriage.

नदान, nadán, adj., ignorant, foolish (of a child).

नदारद जूडी. nadárad kúdhí, n.f., a deserted house.

नपूना. napútá, adj., childless.

नपोज napoj, adj., weak, feeble (of a man, animal, or soil).

नमस्ते, namaste, interj., a form of salutation among Aryá Smájists.

नमो नाराचण namo náráyan, interj., a form of salutation to Gosáíns.

नरोस. narol, adj., clear, cloudless.

अर्थ. nark, n.m., hell.

" Khar bhojan ajhá dhan, ghar kalhárí nár.

"Chauthe maile kapre, nark nishání chár."

Coarse food, a goat for wealth, at home a shrew for wife; fourthly dirty clothes—four marks of hell.

बस. nal, n.m., hole or lair of a large animal, especially of wolf.

नलीना. nalauná, v.a., to weed, hoe.

नएना, nalná, v.n., to be weeded, be hoed

नांग्सा, nánglá, n.m., the rope joining the júá (q.v.) to the talotí (q.v.) at their extremities in a well-yoke.

नांदनी. nándní, n.f., rope on the well-yoke into which the láo (q.v.) is fixed.

नाके तोड़, náke tor, n.m., same as dau e tor (q.v.).

नाग, nág, adj., 1. (A plough), lighter than ordinary one, for sowing.

2. A big (snake).

नाडना, náṭná, v.n., to deny, refuse, go back on one's word, repudiate.

"Báns charí nátní kahe, hot náto mat ko.

" Main nátí nátní bhayí, náte so nátní ho."

Says the nátní when she's climbed the pole, "If any has ought (to give) let him not refuse. I refused and became a nátní; refuse and become one too."

(A nátní is a female acrobat, and the punning of the original can be faintly reproduced by calling an acrobat a "knotter.")

बाडवा, nátwá, n.m., second calf.

बाइ, nar, n.f., a nerve.

नाइी. nari, n.f., a leather strap joining the yoke to the plough.

नाड़ कर्ना. náṛ karná, v.n., to be proud.

नाणका, nánká, adj., maternal grandfather's.

नामा, námá, n.m., money or coin.

नार nár, n.f., a woman.

नारा. nárá, n.m., a young ox broken to plough, as bahrá (q.v.).

नारी. nárí, adj., same as nág (q.v.), (plough). n.f., a woman.

"Nar par nári khari, nar nári ke háth.

"Nar nárí bhejiá, gayá awáz ke sáth."

Female standing on male, male in female's hand.

The female thrown a male which has gone with a whirr!

(The riddle refers to a girl watching the crops and standing on a platform (dámchá n.m.). In her hand a sling (qopiyá n.m.) with which she slings a mud pellet (golá n.m.) which whistles as it goes).

গৈৰামন, niáman, n.m., a hole dug in the earth for drinking water (the word seems to be peculiar to the south of the district).

निकंद. nikand, adj., clean, thorough, careful (of ploughing).

नियोदा. nigodá, adj., worthless, ill-tempered.

"Tarke kí bádlí, aur ránd kasumbe nahá.

" Main nigodí yún kahún, donon kí burí hál."

Clouds at dawn, and a widow who bathes in saffron! I, poor wretch, so say—'both bode ill!'

निमोड़ा, nigorá, adj., same as nigodá (q.v.).

निगोदा. nigodá, adj., rare for nigodá (q.v.).

नित, nit, adv., constantly, always.

ৰিষাৰী, nindhárí, n.m., one who subscribes at marriage time. See neaundá.

निपड, nipat, adj., very, too (intensive).

निप्जना, nipjná, v.n., to be produced. 'turn out' (of crops).

"Thalí dhaní ne yún kahe tú mainne mat boe.

" Main bighá nipjún náhín, tainne dúngí khoe."

Says the sand hill to its master, "Don't you sow me. "I'll produce nothing to the bigha, but only ruin you."

निफ़ाम, nifrám, adj., at leisure, leisured. •

Dekh paráí choprí kyun tarsáwe jí. Lúkhí súkhí khácke thándá pání pí. Dekh paráí choprí, dhai par bayímán. Do gharí kí be sharmí áth paihr nitrám.

(Says the ascetic)—"Why fret your soul to see another's buttered bread? Eat dry bread and drink cold water."

(Answers the glutton)—"When you see another's buttered bread, covet it (lit fall down), you blackguard. An hour's shame—and you'll be at leisure all the day!

निवेदा, niberá, n.m., decision, settlement.

निमान, nimán, n.m., low-lying ground.

निमाना. nimáná, adj., 1. Low-lying, also of low class. 2. Simpleton.

" Eklá mirg, dújá sál, jhote chariá mile gowál.

"Tín kos lug mil jác teli, to maut nimáne sir par kheli."

If you meet a solitary antelope or next a jackal, or a herdsman riding a male buffalo—or see an oilman within three miles, then, simpleton, death is playing over your head.

निम्महना, nimbaṛná, v.n., to be finished or settled.

লিকা, nimbhná, v.n., to pass, to do, to serve.

निराचा, nirásá, adv., clearly, emphatically, severely.

"Jeth más jo tape nirásá, to jáno barkhá kí ásá."

If Jeth stokes up with a vengeance, then know there is hope of rain.

निकं, nirk,, n.m., hell, as nark (q.v.).

निधंग, nirdhan, adj., penniless.

निर्भना, nirdhaná, n.m., a pauper.

निर्मी नासी, nirnábásí, adj., with empty stomach, hungry; also used adverbially.

निर्प, nirp, n.m., a king, a prince.

निभीन, nirbhág, adj., wretched (a term of abuse).

"Kallar ke khet men, pachh pachh mare gowár.

"Sab se woh nirbhág, jiská biswá kár."

In a hard field the villager dies of his toil. He's the most unfortunate of all whose land is sour.

निभें, nirbhai, adj., fearless.

" Bhái, bhainoi, bhánjá, bhayán aur bhonpál.

" Pánchon bhambe chhor ke, nirbhai karo beopár."

Brother, brother-in-law, nephew, lord and king (lit. the tutelary gods of a village), avoid these five bh's and trade without fear.

(The last two are apparently added for alliterative reasons. Avoid your own relations in trade!)

निर्दा, nirsá, adj., worthless, bad.

विश्वाप. nisá/, n.m., justice (corr. of Urdu insáf).

नौर, nír, n.m., water, particularly in the eye.

"Gújar godá, jánd jar, bar pípat sikhrant.

"Ját háred jab jánye, jab ánkhen nír dhalant."

Know a Gújar beaten when his knees (are on the ground), a jand tree when its roots (are dry), a pipal tree when its top (is dry), and a Jat when tears trickle from his eyes.

नौनौ. nírná, v.a., to water or provide with food.

भूषा. nugrá, adj., ungrateful, an ingrate.

" Nugrá mánas mat milo, aur pápi milo hazár.

"Ek nugre ke sis par, sau pápi ká bár."

Don't meet an ingrate, though you meet a thousand other sinners. One ingrate bears on his head the load of a hundred sinners.

(Ingratitude the worst of crimes).

a, ne, n.f., a wooden block placed on ground for chopping fodder on.

नेदाक. neáú, adj., bad. worthless.

नेचीना. neautá, n.m., 1. Entertainment (of a Brahman). 2. As nyaundá (q v.).

·· Trepan men púnjí gayí, chawan men gayá bíj.

" Pachpan men neautá gayá, chhapan men sab chíz.

"Satáwan ke sál men lagá mahiná Jeth.

" Haize kí bemárí húi chhútá múnh aur pet."

In 1953 (Bikramajit = A.D. 1896) stores ran out, in '54 seed was not left, in '55 there was nothing to contribute to weddings, in '56 went everything, in '57 when the month of Jeth was in came cholera; stomach and mouth retained nought.

(A record of the recent trials of the Rohtak District).

नेषोडा, neautná, v.a., to entertain (especially of a Brahman).

"Kyon andhá neaute, kyon do buláe."

Why entertain a blind man? Why call two?
(If you entertain a blind man you must also entertain his guide!)

नेड्न, nejú, n.f., rope of a drinking well.

नेडम, netham, adv., surely, certainly.

नेपा. nepá, n.m., produce, outturn (of crops).

नेवर, nesang, n.m., a small iron peg in the bottom of the hál (q.v.) which prevents its detachment from the hal (q.v.).

नेस्तर. nestar, adj., sluggish.

नेइ neh, n.m., love.

नेन, nain, n.m., eye.

नेदल. naihj, adj., bad.

मोर्ता. nortá, n.m., as norátrá (q.v.).

नोसा, nolá, n.m., purse (worn round the waist).

नौजा. naukrá, adj., separate (individual, and not joint).

नौहना, naurná, v.n., to run.

नौमों, naumin, n.f., the 9th day of either half of the month.

नौद्धा. nauhrá, n.m., byre, cattle-yard.

न्या, nyá, n.m., justice.

"Bár karí thí khet ne, bár khet ne khá.

"Rájá ho chori kare nyá kaun par já."

Make a fence to a field, and the fence eats it up! Be a Raja and thieve—to whom can one go for justice!

न्यार, nyár, n.m., fodder.

बारा, nyárá, adj., separate.

=, nyún, adv., this way, thus (of direction, manner, etc.).

"Jis ke síng nyún, us ne báhwen kyon."

Why test the ox in the plough if his horns go thus?

"Jis ke sing honge nyún, koi degá kyon,".

Why should any one sell an ox whose horns go so? (In both these cases a downward curve of the horns is indicated—it is highly approved).

penditure (for fuller particulars see Sir D. Ibbetson's Karnal Settlement Report).

चौंना, nyaunná, v.n., to submit to, yield.

" Múrakh se nyaunná bhalá, chátar ke bhale trás.

"Je súraj garmí kare, menh barsan kí ás."

It's well to yield a fool. At the hands of a wise man even trouble is good. If the sun scorches, there is hope of rain coming.

(Out of darkness comes light—and every cloud has a silver lining).

चौनां, nyaurtá, n.m., a feast day in honor of Durga—(9 such days come between the kanágats (q.v.), and the Dusehrá.

प

पंची. pankhí, adj., winged, having wings (pankh).

"Títar pankhí bádlí, bidwáh kájil rekh.

" Yáh barse wáh ghar kare is men mín ná mekh."

Partridge-feathered clouds—a widow streaked with antimony.

The one will rain, the other take a husband—there is no picking holes in this.

van panchak, n.f., 5th day of either half of a month.

" Sháhdev kahe sun Bhádlí, Jeth galiá mat ro.

"Je Sáwan panchak gale, náihj sambat so."

Says Shahdev, "List, Bhadli, Jeth's gone (lit. melted), don't cry. If fifth Sawan goes (without rain) then it'll be a bad year."

पंच, panth, n.m., a path.

पकेषा. pakewá, n.m., a boil or gathering.

पाड़ी बड, pagri bai, adj. or adv., division by brothers (pagris), per capita.

पचंत, pachant, n.f., same as pachchat (q.v.).

quan. pachchat, n.f., hard toil, labour, industry (physical).

ant, pachná, v.n., to toil, labour.

पदम. pachham, n.m., the west.

पद्म वृद्धी, pachham hudhi, n.m., wisdom after the event, so foolishness.

पदायां. pachháyán, adj., western

पदाचे, pachháhen, adv., west or westwards.

पदेता, pachhetá, adj., late, backward, late sown.

पकेला, pachhelá, n.m., a small wedge rammed under the plough to tighten up the share.

पहेंची, pachhelí, n.f., plain silver bangles worn above the glass chúrí (q.v.).

पद्मीड्ना. pachhorná, v.a., to winnow.

पद्दा, pachhwá, n.f., 1. Westwind.

adj., 2. In combination with bál (q.v.).

पढार. paṭár, n.m., a big round basket with lid to contain clothes, etc.

पटारी, patári, n.f., a smaller patár (q.v.).

पढवीचा, patbijná, n.m., butterfly, moth or fire-fly.

पड़ाई. paráí, n.f., malaria.

पहेंत, paret, n.f. land left fallow for cattle to graze on.

पड़काजा, parkálá, n.m., staircase of masonry or mud to the roof.

पड़को. parchhí, n.f., a thatch coping to walls, used where the soil is light to protect them from rain

पड़वा, parwá, n.f., 1. The East.

adj., 2. In combination with bál. The East wind. n.f., 3. The first day of either half of the month.

"Sáwan máh chále parwá, khele pút bulá le má."

If the east wind blows in Sawan and Magh, the children will play, though their mother calls them.

(A sign of an abundant harvest).

पडना, padhná, v.a., to read.

v.n., to be educated (as Urdu parhná).

" Kyásth ká betá padhá bhalá yá mará bhalá."

A Kyásth's child is best lettered or beaten, (i.e., the scrivening caste is no use for anything else).

पिचारी. panihárí, n.f., the strip of wood supporting the share of the plough.

परवड. panghat, n.m., drinking well.

पण्डार, panhár, n f., a woman carrying water for her family.

पण्डारी, panhárí, n.f., a woman paid to carry water for others.

ча. pat, n.f., respect, honour.

पनाल. patál, n.m., as paintál (q.v.) the bowels of the earth—the infernal regions.

" Máh machká Jeth siál sádh parwá bál.
" Saidá kahe Bhádlí, barkhá gayí patál."

Heat in Magh, cold in Jeth, east wind in Har! Says Saida 'Eh, Bhadli, the rain's gone down below.' (All the seasons inverted).

प्रवारा pathwárá n.m., a place reserved to make cow-dung fuel cakes.

पदार padár, adj., stable, constant, lasting (corr. of Persian páedár).

पदौड़ा. padaurá, n.m., an exceedingly fat man.

" Nadíde ne miliá katorá, pání pí pí huá padaurá."

If a glutton find a cup he will drink water till he becomes a pot belly.

पश्काल. pankál, n.m., a famine caused by excessive rain or flooding.

पर par, conj., but.

"Beáhí dagá dede, par báh dagá ná de."

Your wife may fail you, but your ploughing won't (i.e., well ploughed land is sure to give a return).

परम्. paras. n.f., common meeting house of the village or a subdivision of it.

परा, parán, adj. or postp., far, beyond (chiefly in Jhajjar).

परार. parár, n.m., last year but one--antepenultimate; also parár ke sál.

पराज्ञ. parál, n.f., rice-straw.

परिष्मी. parithmí, n.f., the world.

परोचा. parosá, n.m., a portion of food, for one man, a ration or 'commons.' (Term chiefly in use at weddings).

पद्धी parkhná, v.a., to try, prove, test.

पर्धान. pardhán, n.m.. president. chief (corrupted in verse to dhán).

पनी, parní, n.f. or adj., married, wife.

"Chánd ne chhorí harní, mard ne chhorí parní."

The moon's left 'Harni,' and the husband his wife! (Harni is an astronomical sign. The particular event is a sign of a great famine which would drive a man to leave his wife in search of labour).

पर्ली दिन, parlá din, n.m., three days hence.

पर्दाई parhái, n.m., the work of the chamár who provides all the family with shoes as often as wanted.

पर्हान, parhán, n.m., clothes (collectively).

पलक, palak, n.f., eve-lid.

पच्ची. palúryá, n.m., a puppy.

पत्तेज, palej, n.m., a small plot of vegetables.

परीय. palev. n.f., a preliminary watering before sowing.

पद्धा. paltá. n.m., an iron spoon for turning over sweets, etc. while being cooked.

पदना. palná, n.m., a cradle, i.e., basket to carry babies in; at home this basket is suspended from the roof and the baby swung in it.

परवा. palwá, n.m., a ladle for oil.

var pasar, n.f., pasturing buffaloes during the night in the rainy season.

" Waqt bahí ná dhartí, pasar charáí ná shám.

" Ajání vidyá ná lí, tínon bigare kám."

The land not ploughed betimes, the buffalo not pastured at eve, the child not learned wisdom—all three are bad.

पश्रमा. pasarná, v.n., to be outstretched.

पदारा. pasárá, n.m., 1. The place where the carts stand and the canes are laid preparatory to pressing the juice.

2. System of well sinking whereby all one's friends and neighbours help and are paid by feasting only.

परमामां, pasgámán, n.m., an 'outside' village other than one's own.

чы. pahrá, n.m., watch, guard.

чъ. pahrú, watchman.

पह का महा, pahr ká tarká, n m., sátwán pahr, the 7th watch of the day.

पञ्च रात, pahr rát, n.f., pánchwán pahr, the 5th watch of the day.

पदलम चोड, pahlam chot, adv., at the first attempt, first of all.

पांची, pánkhí, n.f., a small water-course in canal lands.

पांसा, pánglá, adj., crippled.

पांचे. pánchen, n.f., the 5th day of either half of the month.

पांडा, páṅḍá, a pandit.

पांड्या. pándyá, n.m., a pandit.

पाइंग, págrí, n.f., a turban used by younger persons.

पांके páchhe, adv., behind, after.

पाचना, páchhlá, adv., latter.

पाट. pát, n.m., l. Horizontal beam for supporting the well-wheel.

2. Cotton thread.

पारको páṭṛi, n.f., 3 strips of wood, forming the base of a charkhá or spinning wheel.

पारनाः páṭná, v.n., to be paid, procured, e.g., máṅg nahiṅ páṭtí = the debt cannot be discharged—beaurá páṭá = news was procured.

पाइ pár, n.m., sowing after one ploughing only.

पाइंडा. párchhá, n.m., the trough of the well, into which the bucket of water is emptied.

पाइना, párná. v.a., to split, tear (Urdu phárná).

पान. pát, n.m., leaf.

पानन, pátan, n.f., shoes.

पानी, pátí, n.f., a strip of iron or leather for strengthening and repairing.

पानी. páttî, n.f., dried leaves of múng, moth or urd.

पाण्ना, páthná, v.a., to pat or knead (cow-dung cakes or lumps of gur or bricks).

पादा. pádrá, adj., straight, plain.

पाना, páná, n.m., the major subdivision of a village.

पाची, pánni, n.f., a kind of grass (used usually for anatherum muricatum and sometimes of saccharum munja).

पाप्ड़ी. páprí, n.f., thin crusts forming on the earth due to heat following slight rain (see ránpar).

पार पड्ना. pár parná, v.n., to come to an end, be finished.

पास. $p\acute{a}l$, n.m., the high banks round a tank formed by excavations

पासा. pálá, n.m., see dhínkar; the leaves of zizyphus nummularia dried and ready to be used for fodder.

पानी, pálí, n.m., cowherd.

- "Pálí khálá pál pe, khalá sukáwe kes.
- " Main pálí bújhdí, ghar gorí kaisí ek.
- " Achhi gori pátli, sappári kaisá rang.
- "Kele kaisá kámrá, mur tur láge ang.
- "Yoh dohá khúb kehá, yoh lágyá mere ang.
- "Ek kálá dohá aur kaho, chalún tumháre sang.
- "Kále kole kair ke, kále baní ke kág.
- "Kále gorí ke kes, jáno baithá básak nág.
- "Yoh bhí dohá khúb kehá, yoh bhí lágyá mere ang.
- "Ek dhaulá dohá aur kaho, tab chalún tumháre sang.
- "Dhaule gáye báchhrú, dhaulí rúí kopás.
- " Dhaule gori ke dant, jáno tárá khilyá ákás."

(Note—the form bújhdí is not Jatu).

The cowherd standing on the dam, Standing dries his hair.

- "I ask you, cowherd.
- "What's the girl for you at home?"
- "Good's the girl that's slim,
- "Coloured like the betel.
- "Straight as a twig of banana
- "And her body bows and sways."
- "You've sung that couplet well,
- "Well has it pleased my fancy.
- "Read me a couplet of black,
- "And I'll go along with you."
- "Black is coal of the kair tree,
- " Black are the crows of the wood,
- "Black are a lass' locks,
- "Like the coils of a huge snake."
- "Well said this couplet too,
- "It too has pleased my fancy.
- "Tell me too a couplet of white,
- "Then will I go along with you."
- "White are cows and their calves,
- "White is cotton too.

"White are a lass' teeth

"Like a star shining in the sky."

(In this Theocritean discourse a girl is supposed to be testing the wits of a cowherd who wants to marry her).

पासेट, pálet, n.f., a cow or buffalo that has failed to be covered at the proper time.

पान्ही, pálṛi, n.f., a basket holding 10 or 12 sers of grain.

पाचनी, páltí, n.m., foundling, adopted child.

पालपुच, pálputr, n.m., a waif, brought up in one's house.

पारकप, $p\acute{a}hkas$, n.m., other village than one's own; cf. the revenue term $p\acute{a}h\acute{i}$ $k\acute{a}sht$ = cultivation by an outsider.

पाइग्राम, páhgám, n.m., as páhkas (q.v.).

पिंडो, pindí, n.f., body.

पिक्वा, pichhwá, n.f. or adj., as pachhwá (q.v.).

पिङ्गा, piriá, n.m., squasher, the man who used to break and squash the canes in the wooden sugar press.

"Kat ke pench lagáe ke, kolhú dene lagí sarkár.

"Lawen zamindar pir len gande, dhore dhore chalen panch ke dhande.

"Piriá kí kismat khotí, miltí nahín chikní rotí."

The Sirkar's began to introduce the machine sugar press. The people get it: they squash the canes; round go the poor old five-bob bullocks.

Ill's the squasher's luck, He gets no buttered bread.

(In the iron press there is no need to break up the canes before pressing and the *piriá* has disappeared).

पिबृदा, $pirw\acute{a}$, n.f., the 1st day of either half of the month, $bad\acute{a}$ or $sud\acute{a}$ (q.v.).

रिका, pitá, n.m., father, used chiefly by Pandits (also in Jhajjar by Jats).

"Mán par dhí, pitá par ghorá, bahut nahin to thorá thorá."

A girl favours her mother and a horse it's sire. It's so a bit if not entirely.

पिपया, pipayá, n.m., a euckoo (hierococcyx varius).

Popularly believed to have a hole in the neck, its only method of drinking being to catch rain drops in the hole. The superstition is based on the fact perhaps that its note, which is very like the koil's but less rising and harsh, is heard in the rains only.

पिथी, pirthí, n.f., world.

पियों. $pirw\acute{a}$, n.f., east wind; also adjectivally in combination with $b\acute{a}l$.

पिका. pillá, n.m., a puppy.

पी. pi, n.m., husband.

पोंड. pind, n.f., a cotton pad bound on the spindle for má? (q.v.), to turn over.

पोड़ा, píndá, n.m., hub in a charkhá or spinning wheel.

पीड. pir, n.f., pain.

पौड़ना. pírná, v.a., to squash (of canes, etc.).

पोदा, pídhá, n.m., a woman's low stool used mostly for spinning.

पौत्रस, pitas, n.f., wife of husband's or wife's father's younger brother.

पौतेखा, pîtesrá or pîtasrá, n.m., husband's or wife's father's younger brother.

पौद्या. píyá, n.m., husband, lover.

पोच, pil, n.f., fruit of the jál (salvadora oleoides).

पीस, pílú, n.f., as píl (q.v.).

पीने बादस, pile bádal, n.m., one hour before sunrise.

पीमास, písál, n.f., husband's house.

पोदर. pihar, n.m., father's house (of a woman).

पौड़ो, píhí, n.f., watering animals, píhí ká kúná, a well for watering cattle at.

gui, pugná, v.n., 1. To succeed.

2. To be afforded.

e.g. 1. Bítí dandá men main abbal pugyá.

i.e. I come out 1st in the game of b.d.

e.g. 2. Ugáhi náhín puge,

i.e. Revenue cannot be afforded; people can't pay up.

उचकार्मा. puchkárná, v.a., to soothe (an animal).

पुनङ, putrang, n.m., as putr, son.

gti, purá, n.f., as parwá (q.v.).

पुर के पास, pur ke súl, or more commonly 'pur ke,' n.m., next or last year.

पुर्क, purkh, n.m., a man.

yeff, purli, n.f., as mání (q.v.).

púi, n.f., picking of cotton crops by menials or labourers not belonging to the family and remunerated by a share of the pickings.

पंजी. púngí, n.f., same as kúngí (q.v.).

पंजी. púnjí, n.f., capital, stock in trade.

पंजदो. $p\acute{u}ijr\acute{i}$, n.f., the twisted end of the $l\acute{a}o$ (q.v.), in which a peg fits and joins it to the $n\acute{a}idn\acute{i}$ (q.v.).

पुड़ा, púrá, n.m., a wheat cake cooked in ghí and sugar, in use at weddings.

पूनी, púni, n.f., cotton, cut in short lengths, ready for spinning.

प्नो. púno, n.f., last day of 2nd or light half of the month.

प्रमाशी. púranmáshí, full moon. The last day of the light (second) half of the month.

पूर्नी, púrná, n.f., as púno (q.v.).

पदाः púlá, n.m., the top leaves of cane or of sar or pánní grass used for thatching, etc.

val, púlí, n.f., a bundle of straw of jowár or bájrá.

 $\mathbf{\hat{q}}$, pe, postp., on, upon.

" Ashrafíon kí lút, aur koelon pe mohr."

Spends his gold like loot, and puts a seal upon his charcoal!

(Penny wise, pound foolish).

पेका, peo, n.m., father.

वैवोदास. peosál, n.f., father's house.

"Sáwan paihlí panchwin je dharúke bál.

" Tain jáyo kanthá Málwe, main jáún peosál."

If there's thunder in the wind on the first fifth of Sáwan, go you, my husband, to Málwá; I'm off to my father's house.

(A sure sign of famine.)

पंच. pench, n.m., a steam factory, especially cotton ginning press.

पेड.ो peti, n.f., bust, chest.

पैडवा. petlá, adj , bulky, fat.

"Khet retlá, bail petlá."

Be my field sandy and my bullock fat.

Ter, pedá, n.m., tree trunk.

Ty. per, n.m., tree trunk, as $ped\acute{a}$ (q.v.).

केंद्र रेगा, pel dená, v.a., 1. To press, urge (a horse or cattle).

2. To press (oil or cane).

ซึซเ. paindá, n.m., large earthen water-pot.

चैत्राच, paintál, n.m., the interior, bowels of the earth.

पैनो, paini, n.f., handle of whip or goad.

" Háth painí bájrá, mendak phudak jowár.

" Aur kir nál bowe moth gowár."

Sow bájrá a goad's length, and jowár a frog's jump apart; moth and gowár like a string of ants.

चैता, painná, adj., sharp, keen (of wind, taste, tongue, knife, etc.)

पैया paiyán, n.m., a wheel.

पैर. pair, n.m., the threshing floor.

पैदंदा, paihndá, n.m., as paindá (q.v.).

पैचंडी, paihndi, n.f., a wooden bracket on a wall to hold two or more pots.

पैका, paihrá, n.m., watch.

· Búdhe karen basáoní, aur jhíná kápar len.

" Woh nar dube jániye, jo sote paihrá den."

Old men who go buying, and wearing fine clothes.

And men who sleep on the watch-

Count them good for naught.

पेदल्डा, paihlṛá, adj., former.

पोना. poná, v.a., to cook.

पोइन, pohan, n.m., a donkey.

पोदो, poho, n.m., the 10th month of the year—December to January.

चें। paunch, n.f., power, capacity, reach (= Urdu pahunch), e.g., meri paunch náhin sai, i.e., not within my reach.

e.g., paur sár rakhná = to steep hemp, etc., in water; retting.

पौन. paun, n.f., wind.

"Paun chale utrá, anáj kháe ná kutrá."

If the north wind blows, even the dogs will not eat up the grain.

(i.e. there will be such plenty that the dogs even will be tired of eating).

पौद्धी, pauli, n.f., the cattle shed and sitting room that forms the entry of a house.

प्राप्ते, prái, adj., other's, foreign.

মীন. prit, n.f., friendship, love (Jats only use the term of third parties and not of themselves).

त्रोती. priti, n.m., a friend (Jats only use the term of third persons and not of themselves).

फ

पंलोब, phanlidún, n.m., extravagance.

प्रसा, pharakná, v.n., to shy, caper (of a horse).

पड़का, pharká, n.m., a kind of grasshopper that damages the young Autumn crops.

पदाना phaláná, pron., so and so, such and such. adj.

फाना डोंकड़ा, phaláná dhínkrá, as phaláná (q.v.).

पानेज. phalej, n.m., as palej (q.v.).

THE phalyar, n.m., chaff of mung, moth, mash and gowar.

पास्त्रा, phalsá, n.m., gate or entrance of a village.

फां भी, phángrí, n.f., the flanges of the wheel of a charkḥá or spinning wheel.

फांस, pháns, n.m., stubble. remaining after the crop is cut.

দাসৰ, phágan, n.m., the 12th month of the year—February to March.

पाचा, phálá, n.m., a cross between a spade and mattock (same as kassí. q.v.).

षा**जो, phálí,** n.f., the share of the plough.

"Alí káth aur súkhe phálí, kátak baldán aur bhádon hálí."

When damp the plough (lit. wood), when dry the share; in Katak the bullocks, in B'hadon the ploughman.

(These are the times when its hardest work for each of the persons or things named).

पीब, phik, n.f., 1. Want, necessity.
2. Spittings.

फडकड, phutkar, n.f., change (of coin).

षद्का phudak, n.f., a hop, jump.

चलका, phulká, n.m., thin cake of wheat bread (same as mandá).

पुक्की, phulsi, n.f., threshing by drawing a heavy weight yoked to a pair of bullocks over the crop.

फेडना, pheiná, v.a., to come across, to meet.

ष्प, phains, n.f., trouble, care.

"Le lená mains, kat jáegí phains."

Buy a buffalo, and your trouble will disappear.

ब

ਕੱਡ, bant, n.m., a twist (of rope, etc.).

बंदर्शक. bandarwál, n.m., mango leaves hung by a string on the door of a house on occasions of rejoicing.

बंदी खाना, bandí kháná, n.m., prison.

" Ránghar bhale kalál ke, kih bandí kháne.

"Kih ghore kí píth, kih dúnge dháne."

The ranghar and the kalal are good when in jail, or on the back of a horse or deep in wealth.

बंधेज, bandhej, n.m., 1. Prohibition, interdiction.

2. Settlement, agreement.

3. Bundle wrapped in cloth.

वकत, bakat, n.m., time (Urdu waqt).

नकल, bakal, n.m., 1. Skin of man.

2. Bark of a tree.

रकास, bakál, n.m., a banyá.

नकाद, bakwád, n.f., hattering, silly talk (as Urdu bak and bak-wás).

adst, bakherá, n.m., 1. Falsehood, ill-faith.

2. Quarrelling, quarrelsomeness.

बहोती, bakherna, v.a., to scatter broadcast (seed, or pice among the poor at a wedding).

नकौरा, bakhaurá, n.m., metal tumbler.

The bagar, n.m., yard, courtyard (Urdu sahan); also close quarters, i.e., a room enclosed by others.

वचन. bachan, n.m., speech, talk.

बचार्नी, bachárná, v.a. or n., to think, discriminate, recognize.

"Kal sajan hat ath nau ánkh samán bachár.

"Dugná, tigná, chaugná, ghatat raihat ek sár."

Know the fool and the wise man are like the figures 8 and 9.

Double, treble, quadruple them respectively; one diminishes, and the other remains constant.

(8 is the fool. $8 \times 2 = 16$, and 1 + 6 = 7; $8 \times 3 = 24$ and 2 + 4 = 6; $8 \times 4 = 32$, and 3 + 2 = 5.

9 is the wise man. $9 \times 2 = 18$ and 1 + 8 = 9; $9 \times 3 = 27$ and 2 + 7 = 9; $9 \times 4 = 36$ and 3 + 6 = 9).

पिया, bachhiyá, n.f., as báchhrí (q v.).

बटेज. batej, n.m., partition, division (of everything).

बहोड़ा, bataurá, n.m., stock of cattle-dung cakes.

"Kaudí ne jore, bataure ne tore."

Counts the cowries, but breaks up a whole stack of fuel.

(Penny wise, pound foolish).

बढले, batle, adj., pl., gathered together, assembled.

बड्यां, batyán, n.f., footpath, track.

बढयो batyau, n.m., traveller, guest.

"Be húi ká dand, putr ká sog.

" Nit uth chalen batyau log.

"Jin kí marín adh bich nár.

"Biná agan yeh jal jáen chár."

A fine for no offence, or mourning for a son, Travellers who rise and march each day, Or he whose wife has died in mid life, These four need no fire to burn with.

वसरा, baderá, adj., the biggest, or oldest, among several.

•31. baddá, adj., big, large, usually in comparison.

बब्दंगी, bardangí, adj., 1. Shameless.

2. Indigent.

बड़ना, barná, v.n., to get in, enter, penetrate.

"Chár khare, chár pare, ek ek men do do bare."

Four uprights, four horizontals: in each one two inserted.

(Answer—a bed).

बद्दा, barwá, n.m., buds of the kair (q.v.).

बड़्डापा, barhápá, n.m., old age.

badhí, n.m., a caste of carpenters (less common in this District than khátí, q.v.).

वणक. banak, n.m., merchant, trader.

बणजा. banaj, money-lending.

trait, bankhand, n.m., a great wood, forest.

बण्ही. banshṭí, n.f., cotton stalk.

बण्डी, banstí, n.f., as banshtí (q.v.).

बनौ. battí, adv., more.

"Do ghar battí mángne, par chalná masal kí chándní."

He'll travel by torchlight though he has to beg from two more houses.

(Spoken of a person who lives beyond his means).

बत्ताना, batláná, v.n., to talk, to converse.

(It does not mean to tell or explain as in Urdu).

" Banyá beswáň ek se, is meň antar náh.

"Dhan wále se hit karen resí resí batláwen.

" Nirdhane ne dekh palak yeh ultí jhánpen."

The baniya and harlot are alike; there's no difference here.

They love the rich man and speak to him sweetly: At the sight of a poor man they close their eyelids.

रबा, bathwá, n.m., a kind of weed, used as a vegetable also (chenopodium album).

नभाक, badháú, adj., surplus, in excess.

बन ban, n.m., forest.

बनदो, banastí, n.f., as banshtí (q.v.), cotton stalk.

बनी, baní, n.f., the wood surrounding the village.

बनजोडा, banjotá, n.m., a client of a moneylender.

बनड़ा, banṛá, n.m., bridegroom.

बनही, banri, n.f., bride.

बम्बी, bambi n.f., the hole of a big snake.

•c. bar, n.f., time, turn, occasion—corruption of bar.

बराइ, barárú, adj., unirrigated, dependent on rainfall (of land, soil).

बरों ब्राबर. baron brábar, adv., equally (an intensive form of brábar).

" Gárí wálá sadá dewálá, bhainswálá ádhe.

"Gáe wálá baron brábar, bakríwálá bádhe."

He who keeps a cart is always bankrupt, and the buffalo-keeper half way to it. The cowherd makes gain balance loss, and the goatherd shows a profit.

वर्षा, barkhá, n.f., rain.

वर्जना, barjná, v.a., to forbid, to caution.

"Kanthá te barje nárí, tú mat bo ínkh kí kyárí.

"Tú bo le bájrá bárí, terí máng utr jáe sárí."

Cautions her husband the woman "don't sow a field of cane. You sow millet and cotton, and all your debt will disappear."

₹ż, bart, n.m., half gelt bullock.

करी, barrá, n.m., 1. Sand met with in sinking a well.

2. Runnel—of a well only.

- att. barri, n.f., 1. Sand met with in sinking a well.
 - 2. A strong rope made by twisting together three strands of jewri (q.v.); used for netting sides of a cart.
- **, barre, n.f., a noise made to turn bullocks in plough or cart to left.
- क्रिवना barsáwná, v.a., to winnow.
- बहारिया, barsaudhiyá, n.m., a farm-servant engaged for the year.
- बहाँडा, barhotá, n.m., as much grass or other fodder as a man can carry on his head.
- ৰৱ. bal, n.m., a twist (of rope, etc.).
- बहो, bali, n.f., two iron rings which join the well-block, and the bouji (q.v.).
- বৰাৰ basákh, n.m.. the 2nd month of the year—April to May.
- बमाबनी, basáwní, n.f., merchandise, trade.
- बसेबा, basebá, n.m., living, abiding, e.g., 'je Sarkár basá rakhe, mhárá basebá hogá' 'if the Government helps us, we can maintain our houses and village.''
 - " Mágh men khet baheá ná, aur ghar men chale kaheá ná.
 - "Ghilrí men ghí tayá ná, úpar sháh saheá ná.
 - "Baso to sahí par basebá kuchh rehá ná."
 - Field not ploughed in Magh and your word not heeded in the house: no ghi heating in the pot: the money-lender not bearing with you—yes, you may live but there's nothing worth living for left.
- att, bahá, v., past., became; a púrab form; the verb is defective.
 - "Lakrí jal koelá bahá, koelá jal bahí rákh.
 - " Main pápan aisí jalí, koelá bahí ná rákh."
 - The wood burned and became charcoal, the charcoal burned and became ash. I poor sinner have burned so there's neither coal nor ashes.
 - (The cry of a disappointed woman).
- **TT**. bahí, v. past., feminine of bahá (q.v.).
- ▼\$. bahú, n.f., wife.
 - " Sás antká bolná, aur bahú antkí chup.
 - 'Bhádon antká barsná, jeth antkí dhúp.''
 - Let the mother-in-law speak freely, and the daughter-in-law be silent. Let rain be heavy in *Bhádon*, and the sun's heat full in *Jeth*.
- बङ्ग्बा, bahúryá, n.f., as bauhuriá (q.v.).

बांका, bánká, adj., 1. Good-looking, foppish, fashionable. 2. Curved, crooked.

"Gáe to síngal bánkí, aur chál bánkí ghorián.

" Mard to múchhal bánká, nainí bánkí gorián."

A cow's glory her horns, and a mare's her paces;

A man's his moustaches, a woman's her eyes.

" Dhaulí táng dhobíná, aur bhúrí múnchh sunár.

" Tín játon ká kyá púchhná—jo bánkí táng kumhár.

White legs, the washerman's wife; brown moustache, the goldsmith.

Bandy legs, the potter: what need to ask their three castes?

बांगा, bángá, adj., curved, crooked.

" Bhínt kyon bángí, bahú kyon nángí."

Why is the wall crooked and the wife naked?

(Because the cotton crop has failed and there is not enough even to make a plumb line).

नांचू bángrú, adj., unirrigated, dependent on rainfall (of land or soil only).

बांक bánjh, n.f., barren.

बांड. bánt, n.f., fodder.

बादी. bándí, n.f., a maid-servant (among the Ránghars like Hagar).

"Sat mat hár eh báwre, sat háre pat já.

" Sat kí bándí lachhmí, phir milegí á."

Don't lose righteousness, O fool: if you lose it respect goes too. Riches are the handmaiden of righteousness and will come again.

बांध báns, n.f., bad smell. stench.

बाबडी, bákrí, n.f., twisted anklet going over instep.

बाह्नो. báklí, n.f., grain cooked with sugar, given to women who come to sing on auspicious occasions.

'' Jaisí terí báklí, waisá mhárá gít.''

Our song will be according to your offering.

बाबदो, bákhrí, n.f., a cow or buffalo going off milk.

बाबड़, bágar, n.m., the dry land of Hissar, Bikanir, etc.

"Kál bágar se upje, burá báhman te ho."

Famine comes from the $B\'{a}gar$ as evil from the Brahman.

बारबी, bágrí, adj., 1. Belonging to Bágar (q.v.).

Unirrigated, dependent on rainfall—of land.

atts. bágrú, adj., belonging to Bágar (q.v.).

बाचना, báchná, v.a., to read.

बाइडा, báchhrá, n.m., a calf (for the first two years of its life).

बाबड़ी, báchhrí, n.f., a heifer (for the first two years of its life).

बाइ báchhrú, n.m., pl., calves of either sex.

"Ko-gáyán ká báchhrú, ko nárián ká pút.

"Kadí ná hosí ujlá, saurián máhn ká sút."

Calves of bad cows, sons of bad women, Cotton of quilts—these three are never good.

नाम, bájú n.m., 1. Jamb, side-posts of doorway.

2. Lintel of doorway.

3. An armlet generally made of rupees strung together.

बाक्चोब. bájú chauk, n.m., as bájú band (q.v.).

ৰাজু ছব্ব, bájú phúl, n.m., an ornamental armlet with one silver boss.

वाज्यंद. bájú band, n.m., an ornamental armlet with big silver bosses.

बाज्बा, bájná, v.n., to be called, named.

बाड. bát, n.m., 1. Weight (for scales).

2. Division.
3. Travel.

बाढ देखना, bát dekhná, to await, expect.

बाइना, bádná, v.a., to reap, to cut.

बाही bárí, cotton plant, cotton.

बाइना, bárná, v.a., to put in, insert.

नाम. bát, n.f., custom (as well as the ordinary Urdu meanings).

बाका, bátá, n.m., same as bátí (q.v.), i.e., stalks, but bigger in size.

नामो. bátí n.f., l. A long bundle of bájrá stalks put in a thatch roof to support the loose stalks thereon.

2. A candle.

3. Talking, discourse.

" Khetí báti chákrí aur ghore ká tang.

"Yeh to kare áp se, chắhe lákh log ho saṅg."

Farming, talking, service, and girthing a horse;
Do these yourself, though a hundred thousand men be with you.

बाध, $b\acute{a}dh$, adj., more.

बाधा, bádhá, n.m., increase, excess, profit.

बाब, bábú, n.m., father.

बार bár, n.m., Sunday.

बारच, báras, n.f., 12th day of either half of the month.

बाज, bál, n.f., 1. Ear of bájrá, wheat or barley.

बालक, bálak, n.m., child.

बाला, bálá, n.m., child.

बाज़ रेस, bálú ret, n.f., sand met with in sinking a well.

बादा, báwrá, adj., as báolá, mad (báorá is also used).

नाम, bás. n.m., dwelling, abode, abiding. In composition seen in the name of many villages as Mánkáwás, Nyábás, etc.

बासक, básak, n.m., a fabulous serpent of Hindu mythology— Básak nág is used for a huge snake.

बामन, básan, n.m., an earthen vessel.

बाब, báh, n.m., as báhn, ploughing.

"Sháh laut jáwe, par báh ná laute."

The moneylender may fail you, but not the furrowed land.

बाइ. báhn, n.m., ploughing.

बाह्मन, báhman, n.m., Brahman.

विश्वाज, biáj, n.m., interest.

विखनी, bikharná, v.n., to be scattered.

विचार, bichár, n.m., thinking.

विज्ञार, bijár, n.m., bull, same as khágar or ánkal (q.v.).

बिडोस, bitol, n.f., assembly.

विडोचा, bitaurá, n.m., stock of cow-dung fuel.

विद्या. bidyá, n.f., knowledge.

विद्वा, bidwá, n.f., a widow.

"Ját, bairágí, nátwá chauthe bidwá nár.

"Ych cháron bhúkhe bhale, dhápe karen bigár."

The Jat, Bairagi, second calf, and fourthly the widow – These four are best hungry: sated they do evil.

fau. bidh, n.f., way, means; kis bidh = how!

विश्वता. bidhakná, v.n., 1. To fear.

2. To shy (of an animal).

বিল, bin, postp., without, as $bin\acute{a}$, often used in composition as 'un' in a non-privative.

"Bin mirchon ke ghote bhang, bín bháyon ke kare jang "Bin paison ke naháwe gang, bhang ná jang ná gang."

Pound hemp without pepper, fight without fellows, Bathe in the Ganges without coppers: it's no hemp, no fight, no Ganges!

"Hamlet without the Prince of Denmark."

बिनौसा, binaulá, n.m. cotton seed.

"Bánt binaule bhúrí kháe, hal chalán landá jáe.

"Chal mere lande ek halái, phir jorún to Rám duhái.

"Eh damgaje kisí aur ne de, kádhí sáre khet kí ek ná kare."

Says the bullock, "The white buffalo eats fodder and cotton seed, while the short-tailed bullock goes to the plough."

Says the farmer, "Come, my short-tailed bullock, one ploughing! Then, by God, I'll not yoke thee again."

Says the bullock, "Give your blarney to some one else. Don't you make one dose of the whole field!"

বিৰক্সত, binkut, n.f., (1) A cow that won't let itself be milked because its calf has died.

(2) A cow going off milk.

बिकं. birchh, n.m., a large full-grown tree.

विज्ञी, birlá, adj., sparse, uneven (of a crop).

बिर्वा, birwá, n.m., a tree.

ৰিল, bil, n.m., hole of small animals. i.e., snake, mouse, etc.

विद्या. bilá, n.m., a male cat.

विज्ञाई. biláí, n.f., a female cat.

विज्ञाचो, biláo, n.m., as bilá (q.v.).

"Turk, ját aur múndchará, bándar bhirr biláo.

"Yeh chheon ná apne, bháwen dúdh katore piláo."

The Mussalman, the Jat, the cut-throat, the monkey, the wasp and the cat: these six will never be your friends though you give them cups full of milk.

विकास biloná. v.a.. to churn.

विलोनी, biloní, n.f.. a churn.

विषर. bisar, n.m., necessity, need.

विश्वाना, bisáná, v.a., to purchase.

"Do Sáwan, do bhádwe, do kátak, do má.

"Dhande dhore bech ke náj bisáwan já."

Two Sawans, two Bhadons, two Kataks, two Maghs! Go sell your cattle and buy grain.

(If the intercalary month fall after any of these it is considered a sure sign of impending famine.)

বিষয়ে, bisál, n.m., recess inside the living room of the house.

विमामन, bisásat, n.f., residence, living.

বিদ্ধা, $bisw\acute{a}$, n.m., a share in the village and so one's landed property—The ownership of a village is often still divided on so many ploughs or the 20 $bisw\acute{a}s$ of a bigha.

बिहेदार. biswedár, n.m., landowner with a share in the common property of the village.

नोटा. bintá, n.m., wooden handle of any implement.

बीज, bíj, n.f., lightning.

"Sáwan paihlí panchwín, bádal ho ná bíj. "Becho gádí baldán nipje kuchh ná chij."

If there be no cloud or lightning on the dark fifth of Sáwan, sell your cart and cattle, nothing will grow. (A sign of famine.)

बोजा bijná, n.m., a hand fan.

बोभ्ना, bijhná, v.n., to be eaten away (of wood).

बोडा. bíṭhá, n.f., droppings of birds.

बोडड, birh, n.m., forest or grass preserve.

नौत्त, bit, n.f., grazing fees taken by a herdsman for looking after another man's cattle.

नोर, bir, n.f., woman (strictly a married woman in her husband's house).

बीर बढ, bir bai, adj. or adv., division per stirpes—by wives.

बीरवानी. bírbání, n.f., as bír (q.v.).

बुदा बादी. bundá bándí, n.f., a few drops of rain, "spitting."

3. bukh, n.f., sand that pours into a well from the spring level.

ुन्ता, $bul\acute{a}$, n.f., calling, summoning.

ज़िला चाला. bulá álá, n.m., one who calls (the dhának or chúrhá whose duty it is to assemble the villagers).

ब्रह. buld, n.m., bullock broken to plough or cart.

"Ghorián ráj, buldán anáj."

A kingdom by horses, Grain by bullocks.

buhárí, n.f., a fine broom or brush usually made of dáb or pánní grass.

العرا, búá, n.f., father's sister.

any other broken straw.

ι τ, búnt, n.m., a single gram-plant.

"Agetá búnt, pachhetí sánthrí."

One plant of early gram (is worth) an armful later.

and, bújní, n.f., ear-studs.

इन्ह्रमा, bújhná, v.a., to ask, enquire.

बुब्ब búmblá, n.m., chaff of bájrá used for litter.

t, búr, n.m., the white powdery bloom which protects the ripening jowár and bájrá.

🍕 T. búrá, n.m., cleaned sugar.

वैद्यारा, beaurá, n.m., knowledge, news.

Equivalent of Urdu khabr; biaurá is also used.

वैभाग bejhar, n.f., a mixture of barley and gram.

वेड़ा, berá, n.m., infantry—rarely army in general.

वैदन bedan, n.f., pain.

"Aisí bedan apní aisí paráí, kyá apní kyá paráí sab eke pír."

Your own pain and another's are all one.

Whether your own or another's count it all the same pain.

रेदो. bedi, n.f., altar, before which bride and bridegroom are married.

वेवस, bebas, adj., out of control (of an animal), perforce, involuntary.

के. bebe, n.f., sister—used loosely to any girl of the village.

at, ber n.m., the small berry of the zizyphus nummularia, eaten as fruit.

बेरा, berá, n.m. as bowárá; sowing.

बैराबा. beráná, adj., outside, hence foreign, somebody else's.

वेब, bel, n.f., chain used to secure cart bullocks at night on road.

ৰকা belan, n.f., 1. An iron pivot in a charkhá or spinning wheel.

- Large round clod-crusher drawn by four bullocks.
- 3. Sugar press.
- 4. Cotton-ginning hand machine.

वेकी. beli, n.m., the leader pair of bullocks in a cart.

वैद्या, belwá, n.m., small metal cup.

वैका, beswá, n.f., prostitute.

"Sabhí ját gopál kí, tín ját be pír.

"Biná garz larze nahín banak beswá hír."

All (other) castes are God's, but three are without mercy—

The Baniya, Prostitute and Ahir, incline nowhere without self-interest.

वैंडा baindá, adj., crooked, bandy.

"Dhílí dhotí bányá, ultí muchh sunár.

"Bainde pair kumhár ke, tínon adhl pahchán."

Loose loin cloth, the Baniya, moustache curled up, the Goldsmith.

Bandy legs the potter-all three are easily recognised.

share).

वैडच baithal, adj., ordinary heavy plough (in contrast to Nág or Nárí).

वैद्या, baiyá, n.m., the weaver bird (plocceus baiya).

बैर bair, n.m., enmity.

"Jidhar jáe pání naihr, udhar jáe bemárí bair."

Where goes the canal water, There go sickness and enmity.

चैरन bairan, n.f. (a woman), enemy.

वैरी, bairí, n.m., enemy.

देहरा baihrá, n.m., a calf of one and a half or two years.

बेहड़ो. baihri, n.f., a heifer of one and a half or two years.

बैदड़का, baihṛká, n.m., calf of 1 year old.

बैदड़को. baihṛki, n.f., heifer of 1 year old.

बैदलां. baihlán, n.f., barren cow or buffalo.

षोभड़ा bojhrá, n.m., shrub, a low tree.

बोदा. bodá, adj., weak, poor, worn out.

बोखा hoyyá, n.m., a small basket to take seed or food to the fields.

बोस, bol, n.m., voice, call, note.

बोस बासा, bol bálá, adj., quiet.

बोवा चावा, bowá kháwá, n.m. (eating what he sows), a tenant at will with no stake in the village beyond his tenancy.

बोनारा bowárá, n.m., sowing.

har, bohni, n.f., a small basket made of twigs or straw to collect jál berries in.

बोजी, boují, n.f., cross iron bars over the mandal (q.v.).

बोहा, baulá, adj., mad, crazy.

बोहा वृद्ध bauli búchh, n.m., idiot (a term of abuse).

नेड्या bauhuriá, n.f., any young wife of the house, e.g. son's or younger brother's.

बौदका. bauhkrá, n.m., same as rarká (q.v.).

बोदब्रा, bauhṛná, v.n., to come quickly, overtake.

짜, brá, n.m., hog.

जाङाना, brájná, v.n., to live.

भिन, brit, n.f., the clientele of a Brahman or a particular client (Urdu jajmán).

बिरसान, brihaspat, n.f., Thursday.

H

भक्ता. bhajná, v.a., to worship. भक्ता. bharwá, n.m., blockhead.

- " Múe chám te chám katáwen, bhaun par sukre sowen,
- "Ghág kahe yih tínon bharwe, údhal jáen aur rowen.
- " Apní garz ne chám katáwen par ghar sukre sowen, "Karkar pichhlí prít piyá kí údhal jáen aur rowen."

Cut skin from a dead skin, sleep squeezed on the earth, elope and weep—says Ghag these three must be blockheads.

Reply, 'Nay one cuts leather for his own needs; they sleep squeezed (only) in another's house—and a woman elopes and weeps for love lately borne to a friend.

भतायी, bhadáyí, n.f., congratulation.

भद्राइ. bhadwár, n.m., land ploughed in bhádon and left fallow for spring crop.

" Sádhú bowe, sárh báh, yeh bhúl jáe, bhadwár."

Would you sow a spring crop, plough in Har. If you fail to do so, at least in Bhadon.

(q.v.) to prevent the mál (q.v.) riding too far right or left; see charkhá or spinning wheel.

भवा, bhambá, n.m., the sound of bh.

भवा bhayyá, n.m., brother.

"Bhái bhalá ná bhayyá, sab se bhalá ropayá."

Nor one brother nor another is any good. Money is best of all.

भरन bharan, n.f., rain.

भर्तार. bhartár, n.m., husband.

"Sagá kosame parkhiye, dhínú mande ghás,

"Tiryá ke gun parkhiye, jab nirdhan ho bhartár."

Prove a friend in time of trouble, and a milch cow when the grass is bad. Prove a woman's virtues when her husband is penniless.

भा, bhá, n.m., rate, price.

भारे बढ, bháí bat, adj. or adv., division per capita, by brothers (pagrís).

भाग्वान bhágwán,, adj., rich, prosperous, fortunate.

भाजी, bhájí, n.f., vegetables (according to Platt's Dictionary, "especially cooked vegetables" from bhájná to fry).

"Andher nagrí to chaupat Rájá."
"Take ser bhájí take ser khájá."

Blind townsfolk and a careless Raja.

Vegetables and sweets alike sell at a copper the quart!

भाष्या bhájná, v.n., to run, come quickly.

भादूबा. bhádúwá, n.m., the 6th month of the year, August to September.

"Phágan badí jo dúj din, bádal ho ná bíj,

"Barse sáwan bhádúwá, khelo sádhon tíj."

If there be be no clouds or lightning on the dark second of Phagan, it will rain in Sawan and Bhadon, you may keep holiday all Har.

(A sign of a plentiful year).

भाज bhán, n.m., sun.

भाषा. bháná, v.n., to be agreeable to, to suit, seem fit.

भाषी. bhábí, n.f., elder brother's wife; the term of address to the bháwaj.

"Híne kí jorú sab kí bhábí, Tháde kí jorú sab kí kákí."

The poor man's wife is sister-in-law to all; and the strong man's is all the world's aunt.

NT bhál, n.f., news, information.

भाषें, bháwen, conj., (1) whether, or, (2) 'if you will,' the aorist of bháná (q.v.).

"Ek háth se tál ná báje, dekh chuko bháwen bajáke,

"Ek or se prit ná láge, dekh chuko bháwen láke,

"Biná búkh bhojan ná bháwe, dekh chuko bháwen kháke, Biná buláe ádar ná howe, dekh chuko bháwen jáke."

You can't clap with one hand; clap and see, and you will. There can't be friendship on one side; try and see; and you will.

Without appetite food does not please; eat and see, and you will.

Without an invitation, there's no honour; go and see, and you will.

fa, bhirr, n.f., wasp.

भिद्रों, bhirrá, n.m., as karkú (q.v.).

भीत, bhínt, n.f.. wall.

"Bhínt men álá, ghar men sálá, kare kuchh ná kuchh chálá."

A niche in the wall, a brother-in-law in the house, they'll make some mischief or other.

भीजा. bhíjná, v.n., to become wet.

"Jyún jyún kámbal bhíje, tyún tyún bhárí ho."

The wetter a blanket gets, the heavier it becomes.

(And so the more you flatter a person the bitterer he becomes, etc.)

भौदा, bhírá, adj., narrow.

भौतर, bhitar, prep. or adv., inside.

🕶, bhúnđá, adj., dirty, bad.

y, bhúr, n.f., sandy soil.

MT, bhúrá, adj., white, straw-coloured, pale (of a buffalo, dog, man, etc.).

"Kálá báhman, bhúrá chamár, ultí múnchh sunár"

"Inká ná koi itbár."

A dark Brahman, a fair Chumar, a Goldsmith with drooping moustache, distrust all three.

heli, n.f., a lump of gur 4 seers—This is the form in which the sugar of the district is turned out.

at. bhaiyan, n.m., 1. The tutelary deity of the village.

2. His shrine.

The sense is occasionally transferred to the founder of a village or some other great man.

भोषास. bhonpál, n.m., as bhaiyán (q.v.), but ordinarily used by low castes and not by Jats.

भोगा, bhcgná, v.a., to undergo, suffer, endure.

भोजन, bhojan, n.m., eating, food.

भी, bhau, n.m., fear.

भेंt, bhaun, n.f., land.

भेर भारे, bhaun bhái, n.m., an outsider who has been given land in the village but has no share in the common property.

भेरा, bhaunrá, n.m., a big black butterfly with semi-transparent wings.

भौन bhaun, n.m., the well-wheel.

भोनी, bhauní, n.f., as bhaun (q.v.), but for a drinking well.

म

मंत्रज्ञ, mangal, adj., auspicious, triumphant.

sigr, mangrá, n.m., a small uneven field.

मंद्र्सा चार, maṅglá chár, n m., hymns of congratulations; see maṅ-gal. Chár is a corruption of achár utterance.

मंबरिय. manghsir, n.m., the 9th month of the year November to December.

संभोद्धो. manjholí, n.f., a small trotting bullock-cart (feminine of adjective manjholá, intermediate, supplé gári).

मंदन mandal, n.m., the iron ring to which the well-bucket is attached.

मंडा. mandá, n.m., wheat bread cakes.

" Nau bár mandá, das bár gandá."

(Plough) nine times for wheat and ten times for cane.

संस्का, mandná, v.n., to stick to, (of work) persevere.

wie, mandh, n.m., a temple of Devi; madh is also used.

मंदा. mandá, adj., 1. Cheap.

2. Bad, below par.

3. Scarce.

मचो makho, n.f., a kiss.

मचका, machká, n.m., still heat.

" Mágh machká jeth siál, sáwan parwá bál " Shádí kahe Bhádlí, túí to kis bidh biáh."

Heat in Mágh, cold in Jeth, east wind in Sáwan. Shadi says, 'Eh, Bhadli what is marriage for a woman who has dropped her child?' मजाना, majáná, v a., to roll (land after irrigating and ploughing) with the clod-breaker.

मड mat, n.m., as math (q.v.).

मडी, matí, n.f., earth.

मडका, matká, n.m., earthen water-pot.

सड, math, n.m., a kanphárá jogí monastery.

महा, mathá, adj., slow, sluggish.

"Kátar gáe, kunar nár, mathá dhorí, thoth gur "Kúá khárí nír, yeh pánchon sen sharír."

A barren cow, an evil wife, a sluggish bullock, a fool for a teacher, and a well of brackish water, these five are bad.

सत. mat, n.f., senses.

"Mat márí ját kí, jab ránghar rakhá hálí "Woh kahe use kám ne, woh dehe usne gálí,"

A Jat's senses have left him when he appoints a

Rajput as his ploughman. He shows him work to do, and the other gives him abuse!

मतीरा, matirá, n.m., a wild water-melon growing in the rains chiefly in sandy soil.

मण, man, n.m., heart.

मन भरा, man bhará, adj., lovely.

मरावा, maráwná, v n., to be beaten.

"Parí maráwe, baithá máre,

"Gharí gharí ke márne men, ángal ángal sarkúwe."

One prostrate is beaten, and one sitting beats.

At each twenty minutes of the beating, they shift a finger further.

Answer-"cloth weaving."

मरोब, maror, n.f., twisting, swaggering, pride.

सर्वी, marwá, n.m., a fragrant herb, not unlike basil, common in Bairagi monasteries; quaere marjoram?

मसापना. maláhjá, n.m., regard, friendship (corruption of Urdu muláhzá).

भक्त, mastak, n.m., forehead.

nassán (with or without addition of te), adv., hardly, with difficult v.

मरोसिम, mahausim, adj., powerful.

बाचीब, máosh, n.f., last day of dark half of lunar month.

सांग, máng, n.f., debt.

"Kálar bo de bárí, terí máng utar jáe sárí."

Sow cotton in hard land and all your debts will disappear.

मांची, mánghí, n.f., milk-pail (as dohní (q.ए.).

मीं जाया, mán jáyá, adj., born of the same mother.

मांकी, mánjhí, n.f., a small frame for carrying the crushed cane to the fire.

माची, máchí, n.f., as mánjhí (q.v.).

माच्ना, máchná, v., to be stirred up, caused, made.

1. Of a slough.

2. Of a noise.

माजा, májrá, n.m., a small village, hamlet. माडो, mátí, n.f., earth.

" Sáthí mátí kapre sání munj aur tát

"Yeh chheon kúte bhale aur sátwán ját."

Rice, clay, cloth, hemp, munj and gram-pods. These six are best pounded—ditto the Ját.

माइा, márá, adj., weak, feeble, indifferent.

मान, mán, n.m., honour.

मानस, mánas, n.m. or f., man, person.

मानी, mání, n.f., a small button or sheath put on the ploughshare to protect it when not in use.

माप्ना, mápná, v.a., to measure.

साज. $m\acute{a}l$, n.f., cotton thread, strengthened with $\acute{a}k$ (q.v.) juice that rotates the iron spindle of the spinning wheel.

मासिक, málik, n.m., 1. Owner.

2. God (if used alone).

" Unche unche daule, dunge dunge kyár

"Barse málik músal dhár, usmen nipje urd jowár."

High ridges, fields lying low

If God send rain in torrents, másh and jowár will grow in that land.

सावस, máwas, n.f., the last day of dark half of the month— Commonly corrupted into máosh or maush.

"Jeth máwas púrná, je kahín bádal ho

"To kanthá barkhá nahín, chalo des dhúndo."

If there's ever a cloud on 15th or 30th of Jeth Then, husband, there'll be no rain, go and search for some other country.

(A sign of famine.)

माप. más, n.m., l. Month.

2. Meat.

माप. máh, n.m., the 11th month of the year, January to February.

"Sau bár báh, baithúngí máh."

(Says the carrot) "Plough a hundred times, but I'll root in Magh."

मादोड, máhoth, n.f., winter rain.

मार्ज, mahn, postp. or adv., jointly or jointly with, included in; less often, inside.

मिडान, mithán, n.m. or n.f., sweetness.

मिन्ती, mitti, n.f., interest (on capital).

निय, mitr, n.m., a friend.

निवड़, mitrang, n.m., poetical form for mitr (q.v.).

"Khatrí putrang, kadí ná mitrang "Jad mitrang, dagá kritrang."

The Khatri's child is never a friend; When he's a friend, he's deceiving you.

विकार, mintar, n.m., a guest, a friend.

चित्रे, mirg, n.m., gazelle or antelope (hiran or chakárá).

fauf, mirdhá, n.m., chainman—This word was used in old times of the land measurer and is now sometimes applied to a jaríbkash. Corruption of Persian mírdeh.

निष. mis, n.f., pretext, pretence

(used with kar lená).

famile, miskot, n.m., council, confabulation (a term introduced from the army; corrupt from mess-kot = mess-house.

min, min, n.f., the sign of the zodiac 'pisces'; mekh is aries—min mekh is straw-splitting, criticizing, picking holes.

₹, minh, n.m., rain, rainfall, a shower.

ৰীতী, mithi (with lená), n.f., a kiss—kissing.

मीन. mit, n.m., a friend.

" Unche daule khet ke jin ke khet nimán" Us ká bairí kyá kare jis ká mít Díwán."

Whose field is low with ridges high,

Whose friend is the Judge.

What can his enemy do?

नुबन, mukat. n.f., release, emancipation, salvation.

मुक्दम, mukaddam, n.m., headman, lambardár.

"Mír mukaddam chaudhrí, patwárí aur kab

" Yeh to jáenge nark men apne karne sab.

"Mahant, maháwat, chaudhrí, kánúgo, sardár

"In kí mukat ná howegí, janam leo sau bár."

The rich man, headman, chaudhri, patwari and poet. These will go to hell, and the rest according to their works.

(Retorts the patwari.) The Abbot, the elephant-driver, the chaudhri, the kanungo and the sirdar, theirs will never be salvation though they are born a hundred times

मुच्दा, mukhrá, n.m., mouth, face.

"Karwi kachri kach kachi, karwe bole bol

"Ham pardesí log sain, hans ke mukhrá khol."

The immature girl is bitter and speaks harshly.

I'm a stranger, open your mouth with a smile.

(So says the bridegroom to his bride when he first meets her in her father's house.)

मुडभेड़, muth bher, n.f., fighting, quarrelling, riot (of a number of persons).

मुख्यान, mundán, n.f., antelope, doe.

मुकी, murkí, n.f., very small earrings worn by men only.

मुचन, musal, n.m., the wooden pestle with which grain is crushed.

मुचकी, musali, n.f., a smaller musal (q.v.).

मुचलभार, musaldhár, n.m., drenching rain, coming down in straight stream.

मुचार, muhár, n.m., see her muhár.

ivi, múndá, adj., hairless, hornless (of cattle).

स्वयम्। múndchará, adj. or n.m.. ingrate (lit., one who cuts the root).

₹₹1, múndá, adj., turned over, upside down.

चंद्रा, múndná, v.a., to fill up, stop (of water leakage, etc.).

बंच का चाज, múnh ká chháj, n.m., same as ghúngha! (q.v.).

चुकान, múkán, n.m., mourning (i.e., going to a relation's village to condole).

ब्रुज, múchhal, adj., moustachiod.

TEVI, múthyá, n.m., the person who feeds the sugar-press with canes.

बुढ múdh, adj., same as baithal (q.v.).

murakh, n.m. or f. adj., foolish, fool.

- "Hírá pariá bazár men, lákh áwen lákh jáwen,
- "Chátar saudá kar gayá, múrakh phir phir jáwen."
- A diamond is lying in the bazar, hundreds of thousands passing by; the wise man has done his shopping and gone while the fools wander round and round.
- यूज múl, n.m., 1. Root, used in the barbarous compound jar-o-múl, i.e., root and stock.
 - 2. Principal (sum).
 - "Pípal káte dhan kare, kanyá bech dhán kháe,
 - "Par nárí te neh kare, jar-o-múl te jáe."

He who cuts a pipal (ficus religiosa) and sells it, or sells his daughter and eats rice, or loves another's wife, they shall perish root and stock.

Tal. múlá, n.m., a ját converted to Islám.

बुनो, múlí, n.f., a játní converted to Islám.

युजना, múlná, adv., not at all.

TI músá, n.m., mouse, rat.

"Andhe múse, thothe dhán."

Blind mice, and hollow rice stalks!

(Said of a fool, i.e., when the Jat goes to the money-lender).

mendhi, n.f., plait of a girl's hair on the forehead (they are undone on the day of her wedding); mendhi kholni is to prostitute.

at, mekh, n.m., Aries, see s.v. min.

मेच, megh, n.m., clouds.

- " Megh jo barse, sambat upje
- "Kheti kare kasán
- " Sab dunyá dhande láe ke
- " An bhale bhagwán "

If the clouds rain, the year will be a good one And the farmer will ply his farming.

All the world doing its business.

It is God who is good!

बेदना meiná, v.a., to settle (a quarrel).

medh, n.f., a solid pole erected in the ground and forming the pivot when bullocks are threshing.

मेसान, messán, n.m., mixture.

मेसा, messá, adj., mixed (bread of mixed grain).

मेस्ट, meha!, n.f., meeting, intercourse, visit, meha! honá is to meet or visit.

में च, mains, n.f., cow-buffalo.

मैज, maij, n.m., flat clod-crusher.

मैइड्ड, maihjad, n.f., a mosque.

मेन्द्रा, maihmán, n.f., good reputation.

मैदवड, maihwath, n.f., winter rain = máhoth.

मोका, moklá, adj., loose, spare, superfluous.

mokh, n.m., a small hole in the roof for smoke to pass; (sometimes, as in Panjab mogh is also used).

मोघुला, moghlá, n.m., a small hole.

मोडियार. motyár, n.f., stiff loam.

मोडा, modá, n.m., 1. A Sadhu.

2. A sect of Sadhus.

"Ledá, modá, ghágrá, khulá kesí nár

"Biná tilak ke báhman, in pathar ke de már."

A Baniya, a Sadhu, a petticoat, a woman with loose hair, a Brahman without a forehead mark, kill them with stones.

मोड़ा, morá, n.m., still heat.

मोइना, morná, v.n. or a., to turn round, to turn back.

मोत्या motyá, n.m., a kind of grass with a long brittle tap root.

मोन्या, monyá, n.m., hero.

मोदर, mohar, n.f., signet ring.

मोरुड, mohnd, n.m., head of a canal or stream, where it takes out from parent stream.

मोइ. maur, n.m., the tinsel crown worn by the bridegroom.

मोहो, mauri, n.f., the tinsel veil worn by the bride.

मौण, maush, n.f., the last day of the dark half of the month.

मोदा, mausá, n.m., husband of mother's sister.

मोची, mausí, n.f., mother's sister.

मोद्या. mauhrá, n.m., the brick front of a masonry house.

माइंग mará, n.m., the top level part of the well slope where the bullocks stand to be yoked.

य

बनव yatan, n.m., effort.

- "Bail basávan chale kanth, búdhe ke mat dekhiyo dant
- "Lákhá liyo lákh yatan kar, lílá láyo karor par
- "Dhaulá pílá dáen báwen jor kar
- "Je lidwe kanthá aisá kaisá to jhúnge le áyo bháwen kaisá."

When you go to buy cattle, my husband, don't look at the old one's teeth. Take a red one, whatever efforts it cost you, and a blue one if it cost a hundred times as great an effort again.

Yoke and try a white or cream one right and left.

If, my man, you bring anything else, do as you please but bring one with horns curved forwards.

₹

रंगचिर, rangsir, adj., moderate.

TTT, randápá, n.m., widowhood, widowed life.

रखवाल, rakhwál, n.f., watch, guard.

रच्ना, rachná, v.n., to be made, formed.

रजा कर के razá kar ke, adv., hardly, scarcely.

লোলা rajálá, adj., mean, degraded. (The clothed jogis are so termed by the naked).

- "Súí satakan sherá re, gaz kainchí rah gayá terá re
- "Das gaz le ke nau gaz detá, ab kaun hawál merá re.
- "Galyán galyán kúktá, sir dhar ke dálá
- "Aise moniye mar gaye, terá chhínpí kaun rajálá.
- "Kún katarní bárá karná, kaun samo tere marne kí
- "Aise aise mard chal gaye, ke gintî tere kûnjre kî.
- "Kar gábhrú ke dátí sondhí, sir múndá jhálá
- "Aisc aise gangwar chal gaye, kaun gadaryá rajálá"

The tailor's wife laments her lord-

- "Oh lion of needling, your yard and scissors alone are
- "Ever you took 10 yards of cloth and returned nine.
- "What are my circumstances now?"

The greengrocer's widow answers-

"Ir lane and alley he used to cry, with his basket on his head. Oh that such braves are dead—what was your mean tailor?

The shepherd's widow retorts—

"Clipping the fleece, making the fence!

"It was no time for you to die.

"Such splendid men have died. Your greengrocer doesn't even count.

The jhinwar's widow replies-

"How well looked the sickle on the lad's back,

"And the basket turned over on his head!

"Such braves have died,

"What was your mean shepherd?"

रङ्का, rarká, n.m., a broom (coarse and constructed of twigs, etc.).

shor is that it does not like the latter look white).

Ta, rabbá, n.m., habit.

रमस ramat, n.f., wandering-pilgrimage (of sádhús, etc.).

रमा राम. ramtá rám, n.m., a wandering sádhú.

रका. $ramn\acute{a}$, v.n., to wander about (especially of a fakir or $s\acute{a}dh\acute{u}$).

रवी, rayí, n.f., churn-staff.

रवैद्या, ravaiyá, n.m., custom, way.

Tta, ráng, n.m., butter-milk (the pakkí lassí of Panjab).

रांचइ, ránghar, n.m., Muhammadan Rajput; (rarely and if so generally contemptuously, of Hindu Rájputs).

"Sau rángharán kí ek mán."

A hundred Ranghars, and one mother to all, i.e., they all back each other up.

vint, rándhná, v.a., to boil vegetables, pulses or anything in water or milk.

"Biná chináre bánde pág, biná nún ke rándhe ság

"Bina kanth ke gáwe rág, pág ná ság ná rág."

Bind a turban without care, cook greens without salt, Sing a song without voice—it's no turban, no greens, no song.

owing to thin crusts forming on the earth by reason of heat following slight rain.

पांच. ráchh pochh, n.m., pl: a collection of the tools or implements of one's trade or profession.

राज, ráj (baithná), n.m., as tár (baithná) (q.v.).

पजी. rájí, adj., happy.

राष्ट्र, rár, n.f., quarrel, fighting.

राना ráná, adj., self-sown, run wild.

राबड़ी, rábrí, n.f., food made of fermented jowár or bájrá.

राम की बाच, rám kí gáye, n.f., the painted grasshopper (poecilo-cera picta).

राम चौना, rám chauná, n.m., a herd of wild cattle bred from animals set free as a vow.

रास. rás, n.f., 1. A heap of winnowed grain.

2. Reins, especially rope with which bullocks are driven.

राश. rásá, n.m., quarrel.

राजा, rástá, n.m., as gaundá (q.v.).

राच. ráh, n.m., way.

" Pán sare, ghorá are chulhe men rotí jale "Kaho is ká kyá ráh."

Betel leaves are withering, the horse is shying,
The bread is burning in the oven—say what is the
remedy for these?

(Answer—turn them over).

राडी, ráhí, n.f., same as batyán (q.v.).

री. ri, interj., hark, oh, see.

" Motiyá jar thothiyá, dúb tale tal já "Ā rí sásar so rahen, káhe ká nalá."

The motiva grass' roots are hollow, the dub's roots gone right down, Come mother-in-law, sleep on: what's the good of weeding?

(Bad husbandry).

रोंड. rind, n.f., need, necessity.

रोत, rít, n.f., custom.

"Básí kúsí santán ne díye, búrá bhát chamárán ne

"Aisí rit merí sású mat ná karíye, le dúbegí sáryán ne."

Giving stale bread to sadhus, sugar and cooked rice to the Chamars. Don't follow such a custom, mother-in-law, you will ruin everything.

रीना. ritá, adj., empty.

रवद्या, rupayyá, n.m., a single rupee attached to a string worn close round the neck by men or boys.

▼■, rúkh, n.m., a tree.

"Ag lagí bankhand men, dájiá chandan rúkh

"Ham to dáje pankh biná, tú kyon dájiá hans."

Fire broke out in the forest, the sandal tree burned. Said it, 'I have no wings and must burn, but why do you burn, O goose?''

(For the rest of the story see s.v. kál).

रूपा, rúpá, n.m., an alloy or base metal from which jewels used commonly to be made.

रुदा, rúsná or rúsjáná, v.n., to be displeased.

₹. re, interj., hark, oh.

"Kahe binolá sun re motí, kyon kartá se chatráí

"Phúlán men sardár phúl, phúlán men se roshnái

"I te tan ko dhaken, láj merí rakhen log logáí

"Kahe moti sun re binolá, kyon kartá se nár

"Take ke sawá ser binolá, bhar kundá dewen lár."

Says the cotton seed, "Hark ye, pearl, why do you "pride yourself? I'm king among flowers, peerless "amongst blossoms. I cover the living body, men "and women de me honour."

Says the pearl, "Hark ye, cotton seed! Why boast "yourself? You are sold at 2½ pounds to the "rupee. They place a manger full of you (before "the cow)."

रेख, rekh, n.f., a line, streak.

kájil rekh = painted with antimony: see proverb s.v. bidwá.

रेड्ड rerhú, n.m., a kind of bullock tonga.

रेन, ren, n.f., night.

रेपट्ना. repainá, v.n., to slip.

रसी resi, adj., happy. (It is suggested that the word is a corruption of raiz).

रैबारन raibáran, n.f., feminine of raibárí (q.v.).

रैबारी, raibárí, n.m., camelman (a tribe).

"Ját, jamái. bhánjá, raibári, sunár

"Kabhi ná howenge apne, salúk karo sau bár."

The Jat, a son-in-law, a sister's son, a raibari and a goldsmith. These will never be your friends though you treat them ever so well.

रोकड़ा, rokrá, n.m., cash.

रोबाजा rokhálá, n.m., crop-watcher.

বৌৰ, rog, n.m., sickness.

"Kunwár karelá chet gur sáwan ság ná khá

"Kaurí kharch giráh kí rog bisáwan já."

Don't eat karela (a sort of vegetable) in Asauj, or molasses in Chet, or greens in Sawan.

It's spending a courie from your purse and buying sickness, if you do.

বৈজ roj, n.m., the nilgáe, antelope.

रोडोबार rotihár, n.f., bread-carrier, carrying bread to the field.

"Sáwan paihlí panchwín, je dharúke bál

"Tú kanthá hal jorio, main terí rotíhár."

If it thunders on the dark 5th of Sawan

Do you, my husband, yoke the plough: I'll bear your food to the fields.

रोडणं का वकत, rotyán ká waqt, n.m., evening meal time, the same time as dívá bale.

रोसी. roli, n.f., rust on wheat.

रोजना. rolná, v a., to smooth, to sift (by rubbing with the hands).

रोस. ros, n.m., displeasure, anger.

रोस्की, roslí, n.f., loam.

रीन. raunjh, n.m., a tree, same as nimbar (acacia leucophlœa).

ल

संघन, langhan, n.m., fasting.

" Hansá to motí chuge, ná langhan hí kar jáe

"Mání parání prít se, kankar chug chug kháe."

The goose eats pearls or else goes hungry.

But out of old admitted friendship, he picks at limestone nodules.

(The goose who lived on pearls was friend of a weaver bird. In his devotion he followed the bird to distant lands where he could get only kankar to eat).

ज्ञाना, lakháná, v.n., to look at, gaze, stare.

ज्ञाना. lakhíná, n.m.. one who owns lakhs.

"Chíná lahú píná, bald mare pachás sáth ká, mánas mare lakhiná."

China drinks blood—a bullock worth 50 or 60 Rs. dies, and a man worth a lakh.

(China is said to be a most difficult grain to grow).

क्रमपत्रो. lakhpati. adj., worth 1,00,000 rupees, so very rich.

wat lakshmi, n.f., wealth (literally the goddess thereof).

समात. lagmát, n.m., relationship.

सहोरा. lataurá, adj., blooming.

सडवीला, ļaḍbaulá, adj., half mad.

सइ. lar, n.m., a twist or strand, s.v. dolar, tilar, double and triple, respectively; used of rope, etc.

चढा ladhá, n m., a cart without side wattles.

सत्ता नचोड़. laitá nachor, n.m., light rain—enough to make you wring your clothes.

अपसी lapsi, n.f., 1. A preparation of gur mixed with bread. 2. Also used for dhandhoi (q.v.).

सदाइ. labár, n.m., liar, exaggerator.

सन्दींक, labdhínk, n.m., a kind of stork.

सदांगा lamtangá, adj., long-legged.

जनकानी lalkárná, v.a., to bawl, to cry out.

चरे. lawe, adv. near, close.

चसो. lassi, n.f., milk mixed with water.

सहोड़ा. lahaurá, adj., younger, junior (of two wives, sons, branches of the family, etc.).

बाह्नो. láo, n.f., well-rope.

स्रोगा, lángá, n.m., as lán (q.v.).

सासा. lákhá, adj., scarlet.

ज्ञाग. lág, n f., 1. Connection.

2. Enmity.

चाज láj, n.f., honor.

"Bhaun bin anáj nahín, kul bin láj nahín."
Sans land, no grain.
Sans family, no honour.

साइ। lárá, adj. (1) gluttonous, well-living; (2) of soil which used to receive irrigation and now not doing so is hard, thirsty.

जाड्डा. ládṛá, n.m., small bundle of fodder, such as a boy can carry.

नान lán, n.m., 1. Cooked vegetables or lentils.

2. Grain given to the menials at the Spring harvest.

साना. láná, v.a., to lay or place (Urdu lagáná).

जान्डा lándá, adj., tail-cropped or docked.

जाबी. lámní, n.f., reaping, harvesting.

चामा lámne, adv., near, close.

जार देना. lár dená, v.e., to put.

हाजा, lálá or sometimes lál, n.m., a term of endearment for a child.

" Sáth din ká tale bachhiyá aur baras din ká úpar

"Ath paihr ká lálá húi, khele chhate úpar."

A sixty days' child below, and a yearling above.

A day-old child playing on the top.

Answer-rice (which ripens in 60 days) cooked in milk (the cow giving milk for a year) with ghi (which takes a day to make) floating on the top.

बाबुड़ा, lálrá, adj., as lárá (q.v.).

बाल्डो, lálrí, n.f., garnet, so reddest of the red.

- "Soná royá dhái de, utlam merí ját
- "Kále mukhi chirmthi, tule mere sáth
- "Lálon men main lálrí, lál merá rang
- "Kálá múnh jab te huá, tulí n'ch ke sang."

The gold cried wailing, "High my caste, but I'm weighed against a black-faced ratti" (liquorice seed). (Says the seed).

"I'm reddest among the red, red my colour is,

"My face was blackened by being weighed against an inferior!"

ज्ञावनी, láwní, n.f., same as lámní (q.v.).

बास्सो, lássí, n.f., as lassí (q.v.).

নাস্থা láhná, v.a., to take off; to clear off (debt).

चित्रड्ना likarná, v.n., to come out (Urdu nikalná).

নিছা, lipti, n.m., an Extra Assistant Commissioner (corruption of Deputy).

साक, lik, n.f., A set of earthen vessels supplied at marriage occasions by kumhárs.

2. Cart track, rut.

"L'ke l'k gá!i chale aur like chale kapút

"Tanon like ná chalen, súr, singh, sapút."

The cart travels in the beaten rut, and so does the ne'er do weel son: three things travel not on the track, hero, lion, and dutiful son.

चौका, $lik\acute{a}$, s.f., as lik (q.v.).

सौरम सोर. liram lir, adv. torn into pieces, in shreds.

चौरा, lirá, n.m., torn cloth.

बना lukná, v.a., to hide, conceal.

चका lukmán, adv., privately, secretly.

ज्य lua, postp., up to.

सादी, lugri, n.f., a girl's head covering.

स्वा, luchá, adj., an evil-doer (particularly in his sexual relations).

च्चा, lulhá, adj., lame.

चंग. lúng, n.m., foliage or twigs of the kíkar, jánd or raunj trees.

चूचा, lúkhá, adj. dry, unseasoned (of food).

" Dekh paráí choprí kyon tarsáwe jí

"Lúkhí súkhí khác ke, thandá pání pí."

Why vex your soul to see another's buttered bread? Eat dry bread, and drink cold water!

चुगाई lúgáí, n.f., woman; the feminine form of log (q.v.).

बेट let, n.f., a small pond in the fields.

बीडा. leḍá, n.m., a banyá (quaere from lálá?).

Fig. laindá, n.m., same as chauná (q.v.) but used when most or all of the animals are buffaloes.

बैद्बर, laihbar, n.m. or f., a messenger or guide (corruption of ráhbar).

जैइबरी, laihbri, n.f., the duty of a laihbar (q.v.).

बैद्धे, laihre, n.m. (with karná) same as gaihre (q.v.).

चो । log, n.m., pl., men in contrast to lúgáí (q.v.).

सोड़ lor. n.f., need, necessity.

सोबां. lobán, n f, a fox.

स्रोभ. lobh, n.m., avarice.

six. laung, n m., intercalary month in the Bikramájít calendar.

व

बार. wár, 1. Turn (on a roster).

2. n.f., Delay, lateness.

बाजा wástá, n.m., concern, trace or particle: see wástá ná.

वास्ता ना. wástá ná, adv., not at all.

विद्या. vidyá, n.f., knowledge.

ग्र

णाइ. sháh, n.m., a banker, moneylender.

" Banyá hákim, Báhman sháh, Ját piyádá, ghazab Khudá."

The Baniya a judge, the Brahman a moneylender, the Jat a process server! The wrath of God.

মিৰীজ shiauj, n.m., any wild bird or animal which damages crops.

चिमान् shimálú, n.m., a shrub (vitex negundo) supposed to do well in villages with a masculine name but not in those with a feminine name; used in fomentations.

णीच shính, n.m., lion.

vec shúdar, n.m., a menial (strictly a Sudrá).

"Bairí, shúdar, bákrá, jatí aur bidhwá nár

"Yeh pánchon mare bhale, chaure karen bigár."

An enemy, a menial, a goat, a celibate, and a widow. These five are better dead, wide the mischief they do.

स

मंग. sang, n.m., company.

संचा saṅghná, adj., dense

मंत. sant, n.m., ascetic, saint.

संतर santar, n.m., 1. A path beside a canal patri or a common pakka road.

2. Piece of land around any platform.

मंत्रकः santal, n.m., as santar (q.v.).

मंदेम. sandes, n.m., a message.

मंदे इ. sandeh, n.m., anxiety.

चकाली. sakálí, s.f.. dawn, early morning, adv., sakále at dawn.

चक्ड़ा, sakṛá, adj., tight, narrow.

भगा sagá, n.m., a friend.

च्या. saglá, adj., all, entire.

चन्न, sajjan, adj. or n.m., a friend, a well-wisher, wise.

सभासा, sajhlá adj., joint.

सदक्त, satakan, n.f., act of sewing (quaere from tánkná?).

शत. sat, n.m., righteousness.

सतुदा. satuddá, adj., soft.

सदा. sadá, adv., always.

समोधर, sanishchar, n.m., Saturday (a form used by more literate persons).

चन्तेच. santokh, n.m., patience, contentment.

चन्द्र, sansar, adj., thousand.

चप्त. sapút, n.m., a worthy son.

चपुत्ता. sapútá, adj., having a worthy son.

"Ek ánkh ká kyá salaukhá, ek sau ká kyá jamá

"Ek pút ká kyá sapútá—"

How can the one-eyed be sharp-sighted? What is a capital of a hundred rupees? How can one have a worthy child, if there be but one?

(i.e., it's no good having but one son even if he is good.)

सबादको. sabádlí, adi., cloudy.

" Parwá chale sabádli, pachhwá chale narol

"Sáhdev kahe Bhádlí barkhá gayí kit or."

If the east wind blow cloudy and the west wind blow clear, says Sahdeo, "Eh Bhadli, where has the rain gone off?"

समा. sabbá, adj., right (as opposed to left).

सभा, sabhá, n.f., society.

सभाषो. sabháo, n.m., temper, nature.

"Man moti aur dúdh ká ek sabháo

" Páte píchhc ná milen lákh karo upáo."

A heart, a pearl, and milk have the same nature.

They'll never mend, once broken, though one tries a hundred remedies.

चमर्जा, samarná, v.n., to be mended, repaired; bál samarná, to be shaved or be cut (of hair).

समर्गना. samarwáná, v.a., to get repaired, or mended.

THE samá, n.m., season, more especially a season of good crops.

सनान. samán, adj., postp., alike, like.

समाना. samáná, v.a., to be held, contained in.

"Chauthe chamke bijlí, pánchwen barse menh

"Sáhdev kahe Bhádlí, naddiyon nír ná samá."

If it lightens on the fourth and rains on the fifth. Says Shadeo, "Hark Bhadli, the stream won't hold the water.

चमाना. samáná, n.m., area, lands of a village.

Hamáre samáne men kuchh nahín upje = 'nothing grows in our lands.'

समार्जा. samárná, v.a., to repair, mend; bál samárná to shave, or cut the har.

समेप. samep, postp., near.

" Nirp, bel, bidyá, tiriá, yeh ná ginen gun zát

"Jo samep inke rahe, usí ke lipte háth."

The Raja, the creeper, knowledge, and woman—these heed not virtue or caste Whatever dwells near them they embrace it!

समो. samo, n.m., time (the form is probably áh'rwátí).

अस्य, samdan, n.f., the relation of two women whose children are married to each other.

बही. samdi, n.m., the relation of two men whose children are married to each other.

चम्बंधन. sambandhan, n.f., as samdan (q.v.).

"Do bálak bin jív, bánjh un kí mátá rí

" Un ká kar diyá biáh, be húi kaun bechári

"Bin Pandit bedí rachí, panch suná ná kán

"Bhain bhain sambandhan húin, koi chátar kariyo giyán."

Two lifeless children, barren their mothers;

See they've married them! What an unnatural thing to think of!

They've spread the altar without a pandit, the old men never heard of such a thing!

Sisters have married their children to each other, let some wise man think it out!

(Answer Two children playing with their dolls.)

बन्दा, sambat, n.m., 1. Year.

2. A season, especially a good one.

बरोर, sarir, n.m., body.

"Mathá dhorí, thoth nar, kúch khárí nír

" Aur ghar kalhárí kámní, cháron dáhen sarír."

Slow bullocks, a fool of a man, a salt-water well, and at home a shrew for wife—the four burn the body.

कं. sark, n.f., scraping, scratching of a pen.

" (Thore ki pharak, dúdh ki jharak, qalm ki sark."

The capering of the horse, the simmering of milk, the scraping of a pen.

(The fortunate man's inheritance.)

चकिव्सा. sarkáwná, v.a., to move.

चर्डा, sartá, n.m., a head of jowár.

पर्देक, sarrak, n.f., high road.

धर्मी. $sarn\acute{a}$, v.n., to be sufficient, e.g., $manne\ sar\ gay \acute{a} = I$ have had enough.

वर्ष, sarp, n.m., snake.

" Báwen bhalá ná dáhne lálá, sarp, sunár

"Kadí ná honge apne sau sau karo piyár."

It's not good (to meet) the Baniya, a snake or a goldsmith left or right. They'll never be your friends though you try a hundred endearments.

चर्चर, sarwar, n.m., pond, tank, lake.

"Hansá to sarwár behá kágá behá dewán

"Já pánde ghar apne, shính kis ká jajmán."

The goose has gone to [lit. become] the lake, and the crow become minister.

Away, pandit, to your home! Whose client is the lion? (A goose once introduced a pandit to a lion, to be his parchit, and the hon gave him alms. Next time the pandit asked for alms the goose his patron had gone and a crow succeeded him, and the lion refused him. Hence the pandit uttered this lament. The moral is, that an officer's reputation depends upon the character of his staff.)

चर्चाई, sarsáí, n.f., l. Greenness, fertility. 2. Abundance, plenty.

महोचा, salaukhá, adj., full-eved, sharp-sighted.

संस्वेता. salwanti, adj., f., good, thrifty woman.

सवासी. sawáli, n.f., sweet biscuits made of flour, ghi and sugar.

परंपर sahansar, adj., thousand (a corruption of Sanskrit saha-srá).

पदानी sahárná, v.a., to pull, draw.

षदज sahj, adj., easy, leisurely, slowly.

शंकल sánkal, n.f., a chain to secure doors of a house.

सांगर sángar, n.m., fruit of jánd (prosopis spicigerá).

संभः sánjh, n.f., evening.

मांडा. sántá, n.m., whip, goad.

चांद्री. sánthrí, n.f., as much fodder as a man can hold in his arms—an armful.

सायल. sánthal, n.f., thigh.

सांपड़ना, sánparná, v.n., to come to an end, to be exhausted.

via sák, n.m., relationship by marriage.

बाख sákh, n.f., crop, harvest.

www. sáng, n.m., good circumstances, prosperity.

पामा. sájhá, n.m., share.

षाभौ, sájhí, n.m., sharer.

"Thoká p'tí, tuk tukí, ghore bandhe báhar,

" Báhman sájhí mat karen, kheti bádhe sár."

The carpenter, the goldsmith, and the potter (lit. he who binds a horse at the door) and the Brahman.

Make them not sharers in cultivation: be content to take rent on the cultivation.

[i.e., these castes make bad cultivators and it is better to take a fixed cash rent from them than to divide the produce (of which there will be little).]

भाडो. sáthí, n.m., red rice (ripening in 60 days, hence the name). "Sáthí pake sáth din, pání mánge rát din." Red rice ripens in 60 days, but needs water night and

बाड, sád, n.m., the 4th month of the year, June to July.

षाइयती. sársátí, n.f. a corruption of sárhe sátí, a period of $7\frac{1}{2}$ years occupied by the revolutions of Saturn—hence: misfortune, calamity.

"Mat dekhyo bhúre ke dant, sársatí chhá jáegí kanth
"Lákhá le le líkh par nílá nau karor, múndá dhaulá
jib líyo paihle líyo jor."

Look not at the dun's teeth, misfortune will overshadow you, husband. Buy a red bullock for a hundred thousand, or a blue for nine hundred times that: don't buy a hornless or white one without yoking it first.

चाड sádh, n.f, a Hindu month, as sád (q.v.).

"Sáḍh Sáwan chale parwá, dal dal kháwen bíj lugáí."

If east wind blow in *Hár* and *Sáwan*, the women folk will grind and eat seeds.

(A sign of famine.)

भाद. sádhú, n.m., 1. Wife's sister's husband.

2. The spring harvest.

सानें. sáten, n.f., the 7th day of either half of the month

सानो. sání, n.f., chopped fodder of bájrá, jowár, cane, etc.

"Awegi jot, kátiye sání

"Jab tú ne bo diyá ínkh merí ná mání."

In comes the yoke—cut fodder: for you sowed cane

and bode not my word.

(The wife girds at her husband: he sowed cane against her advice: there'll be extra feeding of the cattle who have extra work at the press.)

चामन, sáman, n.f., as sáwan (q.v.)

"Sáman lagtí satwín, garje ádhí rát

"Ham to jácnge pí Málwe tum jáyo Gujrát."

If it thunder at midnight on the seventh of the second half of Sawan, I'll go, my husband, to Malwá and do you go to Gujrát.

(A sign of impending famine.)

पास्ता, sámihá, adj., fine, strong, handsome.

सामार्ग, sámbharná, v.a., to clear or tidy up, collect things together.

मार. sár, n.f., way, method, correct management.

चार्नी, sárná, v.a., to be satisfied with—the thing that gives satisfaction is the object of the verb.

सास sál, n.m., l. A jackal.

2. A verandáh.

"Rát ne bole ká lá, din ne bole sál

"Chhor kanthá is des ne, koi jí ne áwe janjál."

If the crow call by night and the jackal by day, My husband, leave this country: some trouble will befall us.

चालत sálút, n.m., wife's brother's son.

पांच पचट. sál palat, adj., rotation of crops; cultivating alternately wet or dry—same as hirtí phirtí (q.v.).

मान्हें sálhe, n.f., wife's brother's wife.

चानन sáwan, n.m., the 5th month of the year July to August.

"Sáwan bhádwe kí dhúp men, jogí ban jáe Ját."

In the heat of Sawan and Bhadon, the Jat turns jogi; *i.e.*, he goes about with next to nothing on.

सावन, sáwnú, n.f., the autumn harvest.

पाप. sás, n.f., mother-in-law.

चास. sású, n.f., as sás (q.v.).

जाबा. sásrá, n.m., father-in-law's home (of a woman).

साहिब, sáhib, n.m., God.

रिचर, sikhar, n.m., height, summit, apex, zenith.

चित्रन sikhrant, n.m., top-most part, apex.

सिंख्या, sinkhyá, n.f., suspicion.

सिंगारः singáhá, n.m., footpath or track between villages.

चिडक sitak, n.f., a drop of water.

सिटक जाना siṭak jáná, v.n., to run away—to go away quickly.

चिडको, sitko, n.f., swift-flowing canal.

चिमल. simal, n.f., the pegs in the yoke, each side of the bullock's head.

चिर्मन, sirsham, n.f., sarson, sarsaf, rape-seed (brassica campestris).

चिन्, sil, n.f., stone slab on which the well-bucket is emptied.

चींगच, singal, adj., with horns, horned.

भोष sikh, n.f., wisdom, advice, teaching.

"S'kh us ne d'j'e, jis ne sikh suhá.

"Bándar ne ke s kh d'jíe, bayyá ká ghar já."

Teach him who cares for teaching.

Why teach the ape? the weaver-bird's house will be

destroyed.

(Once in the rains a monkey took shelter under a tree; a weaver-bird who had her nest there advised the monkey to build one like it. The latter thereupon destroyed the nest to make the bird's condition like his own).

चौषदङ, sikhdar, adj., learning, under training.

चौत. sit, n.f , same as raing (q.v.).

षीन्या, sínyá, n.m., tailor.

"Biná tilak ke pándiyá, biná purkh ke nár

"Bách bhalá ná dách, sínyá, sarp, sunar."

A pandit with no forehead mark, a woman without her man, or a tailor, a snake, or a goldsmith—these are ill, (whether they pass you) to left or right.

चौन. sim, n.f., boundary.

"Gám ganwár, sansar budh, sím uláke pánch

"Jab áwe darbár men, miyán kahe so sánch."

In his village the yokel is a thousand wits, when he crosses the border he's five. When he gets to the court its 'Oh yes, Sir, it just as you say, Sir.''

चौर sír, n.m., 1. Share.

2. Sharer.

षोस sil, adj., cold.

"Káká ji, bhayá jí, Dilpat Ráe buláwen sen

"Tát ghar te áye sen, s l ghar ne jáwen sen

"Milná ho to milo, Sámbar ká sang máhn sen."

Uncle, brother, Dilpat Rai is calling you.

He comes from the hot house and is going to the cold! If you'ld meet him, meet him now; company from Sámbar is with him too.

(The good wife sends a child to call the family to dinner. Dilpat Rai is the lentils [dál], which are taken out of the oven and put in the plate. Company from Sámbhar is, of course, salt.)

बोसक, sílak, n.f., cold.

चीला. silá, adj., cold.

षोष. *शंड*, n.m., 1. Moon.

2. Head.

[&]quot; Bars húá das, kányán pariá ras.

[&]quot; Bars húá bís, mastak chariá sís.

- "Bars húá t's, lágan lág' síkh.
- "Bars húá chálí, gárhí bát ukárí.
- "Bars húá pachás, phúl gai kapás.
- " Bars húá sáth, háth men lyá láth.
- "Bars húá sattar, jabbe gayá nestar.
- "Bars húá assí, nar húá khassí.
- " Bars húá nawe, díb gayá jabbe.
- "Bars húá sau, gharán dar ná báhar bhau."

Ten years old, and discrimination comes to the ear.

Twenty years old, and the forehead rises on the head.

Thirty years old, and wisdom begins to settle.

Forty years old, and a man expounds hard matters.

Fifty years old, and his hair grows white as cotton.

Si ty years old, and he takes a s ick in his hand.

Seventy years old, and he's become sluggish.

Eighty years old, and a man's become an eunuch.

Ninety years old, and he's done and down.

A hundred years old, and none fears him at home or abroad.

(The ten ages of man.)

सुकड्ना, sukaṛná, v.n., 1. To shrink.

2. To be squeezed.

सकर. sukkar, n.m., Friday.

सक्तरी, sukkarwárí, adj., Friday's.

"Suk! arwári bádli, rahe san'chhar chháe

"Kahe Sháhdeo sun Bhádl, biná bars ná jáe."

Friday's clouds, and Saturday remains overcast! Says Shahdeo, "Hark Bhadli, it'll not go without raining."

तुच्चारो. sukhbásí, n.m. and f., a settler in the village, who owns no land or share of the estate.

खबड़. sughar, adj., neat, pretty, accomplished, good, thrifty (of a wife).

- "Soná, resham, sughar nár, túten juren sau bár
- "Murakh, ghará kumhár ká, mile ná dúje bár."

Gold, silk, and a thrifty wife—if they break a hundred times they'll mend again. A fool, and a potter's pot will not unite a second time.

सता. sutá, adj., good.

च्यन suthan, n.f., female's trousers.

चना suthrá, adj., nice, clean, pretty, fine.

Tut, sudhán, postp., 1. With, used as Urdu samet. adv., 2. Early

सकेन. su/et, adj., a corruption of su/ed—white.

सरज suraj, n.m. and f., sun.

सरी, surí, n.f., sow.

सदा, susrá, n.m., father-in-law.

चाड़, susrár, n.m., father-in-law's home (of a man).

दुराना, suháná, v.n., to please, be agreeable.

au. súá, adj., 1. Intelligent, wise, sensible.
n.m., 2. A small stack of sheeves in a field.

संदो. súndí, n.f., an insect that infests and damages gram.

स्त, sút, adj., pretty, good, convenient, e.g. sút báith gayá=it was convenient so.

सभा súdhá, adj, simple, upright, well-behaved.

खना súná, adj., empty.

- "Sís bin súní ren, giyán bin hirdá súná
- "Kul súna bin putr, pát bin birwá súná
- " Gaj súná bin dant, hans bin ságar súná " Ghatá súní bin dámní, kahe Girdhar sunre Gunní,
- "Ghar súná bin kámní."

The night is empty without a moon, and the heart empty without perception. A family is empty without a son, and empty a tree without leaves. An elephant is empty without tusks, and empty a lake without the goose. Empty a cloud without lightning; says Girdhar, "Hark 'ee Gunní, a house is empty without a wife."

et. súr, n.m., herd.

द्धनः súl, n.f., long thorn of kikar or raunj trees.

स्पा. súsá, n.m., hare.

"Turte súsá máryá, turte kádhyá más

"Jinán súsá máryá, mare hoe chhe mús."

Quickly he killed the hare, and quickly took off the flesh. He who killed the hare was six months dead himself.

(A hare got caught in the bones of a corpse and so died.)

मेती. seti, postp., with.

" Bále kí mán bauli aur baulá kisán

"Age kí jánen náhín, karne setí dhiyán."

The child's mother is a fool, and so is the farmer.

They reck nothing of the future: their thoughts are with the act of the moment.

वैष. sedh, n.f., disease, illness.

बेख. sel. n.f., spear.

मैसम saihm, adv., uselessly, aimlessly.

चोचाचाई soásáí, n.f., keeping guard at night.

सोका soká, n.m., drought, drying up.

"Karm hin kheti kare, bail mare yá soká pare."

If the luckless man take to farming, his bullock will die or drought befall him.

चोग sog, n.m., mourning.

सोपन. sonan, n.m. (inflected); gold, it is a Púrabí form for sone men or sone ko.

सोधो, sodhí, n.f., intelligence, sense, wisdom.

सोफेन. sofet, adj., as sufet (q.v.).

"Kálí bhalí ná sofet, donon rákho eke khet."

Neither the black is good nor the white one—slay both in one field.

(From a story of Rajah Bhoj and his two wives.)

सोमार, somár, n.m., Monday.

सोस्हा. solhrá, n.m., straw of barley (chiefly) when in bulk and not crushed.

सोदाग. sohág, n.m., married life.

" Chalná hai, raihná náhín, chalná biswe bís

"Aise saihj sohág par kyon gundáwe sís."

We have to go, and cannot stay—we have to go—four rood to the acre—

For so short a married life, why plait the head? (Make no great preparation for a short life—Live quietly and piously.)

भोडागा, sohágá, n.m., a flat clod-crusher, same as maij (q.v.).

सोदाय्ना. soháwná, adj., agreeable.

मोहीं. sohin, adv. or postp., in front of-towards.

सोइं, sohn, n.f., an oath.

मोड़, saur, n m., quilt.

सौन saun, n.m., omen. Saun chiri, one of the shrikes.

सौपता. saupatí, adj., worth 100 rupees.

मोला. saulá, adj., right (as opposed to left).

खान. syán, n.m., a favour (corruption of ahsán).

चाच. syál, n.m., cold.

खर्ग, swarg, n.m., heaven.

"Gehún puráne, ghí nayá, aur ghar salwantí nár

"Chauthe pith torang ki, swarg nishani char." Old wheat, fresh ghi, and at home a thrifty wife,

Fourth the back of a horse—heaven's four signs.

ह

चंबा, hangá, n.m., strength, effort, force.

દેશે, hange, adv., 1. With difficulty.

2. By compulsion.

इंडोबार, hand war, n.f., about 4 to 6 P.M.

रकार पनी hazúr patí, adj., worth 1,000 rupees, moderately rich.

इसवारा, hadwárá, n.m., place where dead bodies of cattle are skinned and bones left to lie.

इड कोना, har lená, v.a., to rob.

इनकार. hatkár, n.m., food given to Brahmans before feeding oneself at máwas (q.v.) or kanágat (q.v.)

इथा. hathá, n.m., the handle with which the plough is driven.

रचलों, hathli, n.f., the handle of a charkhá or spinning wheel.

इप्बाइ, hathwar, n.f., the spring of the tiger with his claws.

"Bhádon kí bhadwár, sher kí hathwár."

Bhadon's ploughing, and a tiger's spring!

(Scilicet biná pake ná jáe—both will ripen or mature; pakná means to fester, of a wound.)

रुग्ला. hanslá, n.m., a massive necklace worn close round the neck.

इम्बे, hambe, interj., yes.

"Ját kahe sun Játní isí gám men raihná

"Ūnt bilái le gayi, to hambe hambe kaihná."

Says the Jat, "List, wife, we've got to live in this vil.age. (If they say) 'the cat stole your camel' you must say, 'Yes, of course.'"

(So says the Jat who has to live in a Rajput village.)

₹₹, har, n.m., Almighty (a name of Vishnu): cf. Harí.

चन, hal, n.m., the body of the plough to which the share, handle, shaft, etc., are fixed.

रबस. halas, n.f., the main shaft of the plough on which the yoko rides.

चला. halwá, adj., light (of soil or weight).

चवन. halsan, n.f., a prop to raise the share from the ground when a plough is being dragged to the fields.

चनास, $haw\acute{a}l$, n.m., condition, circumstances (corruption of $Ahw\acute{a}l$).

चांच, hánd, n.f., travelling.

चांडी, hándí, n.f., cooking vessel.

"Jis hándí te kháe, us hándí chhed kare."

Split the plate from which you eat!
(Rank ingratitude.)

चांडना, hándná, v.n., to wander about.

रांच , hánsí, n.f., laughter.

ৰাত. hát, n.f., shop.

हान, hán, n.f., 1. Time.

2. Age.

 $Ek h \acute{a}n k \acute{a} = h \acute{a}n i$ (q.v.).

चानी. hání, n.m., contemporary, age-fellow.

हान होमान hán homán, n.m., of equal ages, contemporaries.

चारा, hárá, n.m., oven for heating milk, etc.

মাল, hál. n.f., same as halas (q.v.).

दालन hálan. n.m., earthquake.

हाला, hálá, n.m., Government land revenue.

"Dhaulí parmeshrí, dhaulí jhund khindá

" Hálá malbá láh ke, mainne hans ghará."

"O white goddess, spread open the white cotton-clump.

"Pay the revenue and the village-expenses, and make me a necklace still."

(The girl addresses the cotton-plant as she is picking the crop.)

हाली hálí, n.m., ploughman.

हास्ता hálná, v.n., as Urdu hilná, to shake, move, be agitated.

दित. hit, n.m., love.

सिनों फिर्ना hirtí phirtí, adv., in rotation.

दिदी. hirdá, n.m., heart, mind.

दिसा भाक hissá sárú, adv., according to shares, proportionately.

বীৰ h ns, n.m., a thorny shrub (quaere capparis horrida?).

दीना. h'ná, adj., bereft, destitute, weak.

होयो, h'yo, interj., a noise used to call cows and bullocks up from watering.

दौर, hir, n m., a tribe, Ahir.

± ₺ hun hun, interj., a noise used in driving buffaloes in the jungle.

हेडी. heihi, n.f., disgrace.

देता. hetá, adj., late (of crops).

₹ . her n.m., major subdivision of a village.

रेर सुचार. her muhár, n.m., land or side of a village in which one's business, one's coming or going, lies—intercourse.

रेख मेख, hel mel, n.m.. as her muhár (q.v.).

n ho ho, interj., a noise used to make buffaloes drink.

बोस्बा, hauslá, n.m., wisdom, grace, beauty.

PART III.

English—Jatú.

A

Abdomen, kokhan, n.f.

Abhorrence, alkat, n.f.

Abiding, bás, n.m.; maintenance of a home, basebá, n.m.

Abode, bás, n.m.

Absence of anything, so poverty, destitution, etc., ana't, n.f. See sub voce.

Absolutely, dáhon, adv.

Abundance, sarsáí, n.f.

Abuse, auli bát, n.f.; gál, n.f.

Acacia (a. leucophlea), nímbar, n.m.; raunjh, n.m.

Acceptable, to be, bháná, v.n.

Accomplished (skilful), sughar, adj.

Account. The baniya's account against the zamindar, of money paid for him as revenue, etc. *Inchh*, n.f.; on account of, káran, postp.

Adjoin, to, arná, v.n.

Admit, to, of a fault, etc., otná, v.a.

Adopt, to, god lená, v.a.

Adopted, to be, god áná, v.n.

Adoption, (1) of a relation, as a son, god, n.m., literally the lap; (2) for adoption of a foundling, see s.v. waif.

Advice, sikh, n.f.

Aeschynomene (a. indica), dhandhain, n.f.

Affection. See Love.

Affix, to, tekná, v.a.; mohar tekná, to seal.

Afforded, to be, pugná, v.n.

After, páchhe, adv.

Age, (1) hán, n.f.; (2) of the same age, ek hán ká, hání, n.m.; hán homán, n.m.; (3) time, kál, n.m.; (4) old age, barhápá, n.m.

Agent, kár mukhtyár, n.m.

Agitated, to be, hálná, v.n.

Agreeable, soháwná, adj.; jogam jog, adj.

Agreeable, to be, suháná, v.n.

Agreement, bandhej, n.m.; ant, n.f.—literally a knot, and so anything knotted, fixed.

Ahir, a tribe, Hir, n.m.

Aim, ant, n.m.

Aimlessly, saihm, adv.

Alike, samán, adj.

All, saglá, adj.

Alley, bagar, n.m.

Alloy, an alloy of silver and copper from which jewels used commonly to be made, $r \acute{u} p \acute{a}$, n.m.

Almighty, Har, n.m. (God).

Alone, ekalpá, eklá, adj. See also s.v. Solitary.

Aloofness, alkat, n.f. a-khainchná, to keep aloof, feel abhorrence.

Altar, bedí, n.f. See s v.

Always, sadá, adv.; nit, adv.

Amalgamation. See Combination.

Amaranth, cholái, n.f.

Anger, ros, n.m.; kod, n.m.; chho, n.m.

Angry. See Displeased.

Angry, to become, rúsná, rús jáná, v.n.; chho men áná, v.n.

Animal, janáwar, n.m.

Anklet. See JEWELLERY.

Answer, utar, n.m.

Ant (black), chiúntí, n.f.; (white) dímak, n.f.; row of ants, kir nál, n.f.

Antelope, (1) mirg, kálá mirg, n.m.; kálá (supple hiran or mirg), n.m.; (doe, mundán, n.f.); (2) nilgai antelope, roj, n.m.

Antepenultimate. See s v. Last.

Antimony, as eyepowder, kájal, n.m.

Anxiety, sandeh, n.m.; chintá, n.f.

Apex. See Summit.

Applaud, to, tál bajáná (to clap hands).

Approach, ágam, n.m.

Approximately, unmán, unmán sunmán, adv.; atkal satkal, adv.

Area, the area or lands of a village generally, samáná, n.m.

Aries, mehh, n.m.

Armful, (1) kauli, n.f. (the outstretched arms); (2) an "armful" of fodder, sánthrí, n.f.

Armlet. See JEWELLERY.

Ascetic, sant, n.m.

Ask, to, bújhná, v.a.

Assembled, batle, adj. pl.

Assembly, bitol, n.f.

Assiduity, jhakkat, n.f.

Association See Combination.

Aunt. See s.v. RELATION.

Ausp cious, mangal, adj.

Autumn, the autumn harvest, sáwnú, n.f.

Avarice, lobh, n.m.

Await, to, bát dekhná, v.a.

В

Back, kar, n.m.

Backward. See Late.

Bad, (1) worthless, naihj, adj.; nirsá, adj.; neáú, adj.: (2) nasty, dirty, bhúndá, adj.; kasút, adj.; kasútá, adj.: (3) feeble, weak, mandá, adj.; bodá, adj.: (4) ill-made, karál, adj.: (5) in composition bad is expressed by ko (see s.v.), as kosamá, bad times; kosang, bad society, etc.

Bail, to go, to undertake as a surety, otná, v.n.

Bale, to, ulíchhná, v.a.

Band, jot, n.f., a strip of iron or leather for repairing, pátí, n.f. Bangle. See Jewellery.

Banker, sháh, n.m.

Banyá, bakál, n.m.; ledá, n.m.

Bare, ughárá, adj.

Bark, (1) of tree, bakal, n.m.; (2) specifically of kikar or nimbar (acacia arabica and leucophlœa) kas, n.m.

Barley, jaun, n.m.

Barren, bánjh, n.f.; káṭaṛ, adj.; of cow or buffalo, baihlán, n.f. Barrier, ád, n.f.

Base, khowár, adj.

Basket, (1) generally dálá, n.m.; (2) big round basket with lid to contain clothes etc., patár, n.m.; smaller, patárí, n.f.; (3) small jug-shaped basket to collect jál berries, bohní, n.f.; (4) bird-cage like baskets carried, bángí—like for Ganges water, kawr, n.f.; (5) a small basket hung from the roof to secure eatables etc., chhínká, n.m.; (6) a basket holding 10 or 12 seers of grain, pálrí, n.f.; (7) a small basket for taking seed or food to the fields, boyá, n.m.; (8) a small lidded basket for keeping cotton for spinning, kátní katní, n.f.

Batten, in a mud roof, karanjá, n.m.; in thatch roof, bátí, n.f. See s.vv.

Bawl, to, lalkárná, v.a.

Beaten, to be, maráwná, v.n.

Beauty, hauslá. n.m.

Became, bahá, v.n.; defective.

Because of, karan, postp.

Bed, khát, n.f.

Before, in front of, sohin, adv. or postp.

Behind, páchhe, adv.

Bell (big), tál, n.m.

Belly, kokhan, n.m.

Belt. See Waistband.

Bereft, híná, adj.

Beyond, parán, adv. or postp. (chiefly in Jhajjar).

Bickering, udh, n.f.; udham, n.f.

Big, baddá, adj.

Biggest, among several, baderá, adj.

Billhook, for stripping sugarcane and reaping, dátí, dántí or drántí, n.f.

Bin (1) a receptacle of clay for storing grain, kothi, n.f.: (2) the same but smaller, kuthlá, n.m.; (3) smaller still, kuthli, n.f.

Bind, to, to bind a págrí carefully, chinárná, v.a.

Bird. chiri, n.f.

Bitterness, karwán, n.f.

Blank, unused, korá, adj.

Blanket, kámal, n.m.; lighter, kámlí, n.f.

BLIGHTS, (1) wheat rust, roli, n.f.; (2) an insect that blights wheat when rain is excessive, kúngí, n.f., púngí, n.f.; (3) a very small fly that injures wheat, ala, n.m.; (4) an insect that blights bájrá, ghadhí, n.f.; (5) an insect that injures sugarcane, kansuá, n.m.; (6) rust on jowár and bájrá, khowá, n.m.; (7) grasshopper that damages young millets and gram, pharká, n.m.; (8) an insect that damages young crops, súndí, n.f.

Blindish, nearly blind, jákhrá, adj.

Blockhead, bharwá, n.m.

Bloom, the white powdery bloom which protects the ripening jowár and bájrá, búr, n.m.

Blooming, lataurá, adj.

Blow, to, jhulná, v.n.; dholná, v.n.

Bodice, a girl's bodice, kurtí, n.f.

Body, dehi, n.f.; gát, n.m.; pindí, n.f.; sarír, n.m.; ang, n.m.

Boil, pakewá, n.m.; gúmrí, n.f.

Boil, to, of vegetables, pulses or anything in water or milk, rándhná, v.a.

Bone, karang, karank, n.m.

Boundary, (1) sim, n.f., the circuit of a village's lands; (2) or, n.f., generally; (3) boundary pillar between two villages, odá, n.m.; (4) trijunction boundary pillar, tyaunkhá, n.m.; (5) edge ridge of fields, daul, n.f.

Bowels, of the earth, paintál, n.m.

Boy, (1) generically, chhorá, chhorat, n.m.; (2) boy under 15 or so, tábar (used chiefly in the south of the district).

Bracelet. See JEWELLERY.

Bracket, a small mud bracket on wall, tándí, n.f.; small wooden bracket to hold lamp, dawát, n.f.

Brahman, Báhman, n.m.

Braid, to, gúndná, v.a.

Branch, of a tribe or race, kháp, n.f.; of a tree, dál, n.f.

Bread. See Wheat.

Bread-carrier, rotihár, n.f.

Breast-covering, worn by married women, angí, n.f.

Breeze. See Wind.

Bribe, bribery, kor, n.m.

Bride, bauri, n.f.

Bridegroom, baurá, n.m.

Bright, uilá, adj.

Broom, (1) coarse, made of twigs, etc., rarká, n.m.; bauhkrá, n.m.; (2) fine, made usually of dáb or pání grass, buhárí, n.f.

Brother, bhayyá, n.m; own or full brother by the same mother, mánjáyá, adj. or n.m.

Brother-in-law. See s.v. RELATION.

Brush. See Broom.

Bubo, gúmrí, n.f.

Buck. See Antelope.

Bucket, iron bucket, dol, n.m. See also Well Gear.

Buffalo, (1) calf, kátrá, n.m.; (2) calf of two years or so, jhotrá, n.m.; (3) heifer, katiyá or kátrí, n.f.; (4) heifer of two years or so, jhotrí or jhotí, n.f.; (5) full-grown buffalo, whether entire or not, jhotá, n.m.; (6) full-grown cow that has calved, mains, bhains, n.f.; (7) old cow, past bearing, kholá, n.f. See also s.v. Cow, where many of the words apply equally to buffalo cows.

Building, chháwá, n.m.; the word appears to be used on a survey of the accommodation from inside.

Bull, (1) khágar, ánkal, bijár, n.m.; (2) an ungelt bull used for the plough, but not for breeding, ándú, n.m.

Bulky, petlá, adj.

Bullock, (1) a young bullock broken to the plough, nárá, n.m.;

(2) the full-grown bullock of the plough or cart, buld, n.m.; (3) half gelt bullock, bart, n.m.; (4) old bullock past work, dhándhá, n.m.; (5) bullock with horns bent downwards, jhúngá, n.m. For younger animals, see s.v. Calf.

Bump, gad, n.f.

Bundle, (1) a bundle of stalks of jowár or bájrá, púlí, n.f.; (2) bundle of grass, etc., see s.v. Load; (3) a bundle wrapped in cloth, bandhej, n.m.; (4) a round closed bundle, girr gánth, n.f.; (5) a bundle of eatables taken as a present, kothli, n.f.

Burn, to, dáhná, v.a., dájná, v.n.

Burning ground. See Cremation-ground.

Business, dhandhá, n.m.; dhandá, n.m.; krit, n.f.

Bust (a woman's), peti, n.f.

But, par, conj.

Buttered, chopri, adj.

Butterfly, patbijná, n.m.; a big black butterfly is bhaunrá, see s.v.

Buttermilk, the pakki lassi of the Panjab, ráng, n.m.; chhá, n.f.; sít, n.f.

Buttock, chútar, n.m.

Buy, to, bisáná, v.a.

Byre, nauhrá, n.m. See also s.v. Cattle-shed.

Cadet. See Junior.

Cake, (1) a preparation of gur mixed with bread, lapsi, n.f.;

(2) sweet cakes made of flour, ghi, and sugar, sawáli, n.f.;

(3) wheat cakes cooked in ghi and sugar and eaten at weddings, púrá, n.m.

Calamity, sársatí, n.f. See s.v.

Calf (1) up to one year of age, baihrká, n.m.; (2) of one-and-a-half or two years of age, nárá, n.m., baih á, n.m.; (3) generally for the first two years of its life, báchhrá, n.m.; (4) heifer of $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 years of age, baihrí, n.f.; (5) a second calf with one already at foot, nátwá, n.m.

Call, of an animal, bol, n.m.

CALL, to cattle, etc., (1) driving bullocks or cows in the open, a click with the tongue is made like an English driver's; (2) driving buffaloes in the jungle, hun hun; (3) to turn a bullock in plough or cart to the right, a-a (between the sound of a and á); (4) as the last, to the left, barre; (5) to make cows and buffaloes drink at the tank or well, chhe; (6) similarly to make buffaloes drink, he ho; (7) to call up cows and bullocks from their watering, hí yo; (8) similarly to call up buffaloes. dhe re; (9) similarly to call up horses o-o. Called, to be, bájná, v.n.

Caller, the menial who calls the village folk together, bulá álá,

Calling, summoning, bulá, n.f.

Calotropis, c. procera, ák, n.m.; plural is akíán.

Calves, collectively, of either sex, báchhrú, n.m, pl.

Camel, karhá, n.m.; karhelá, n.m.

Camelman, raibárí, n.m.; raibáran, n.f. (a tribe).

Camelthorn, jhonwánsá, n.m. (alhagi maurorum).

Candle, báti, n.f.

Cane, (1) sugarcane, ikh or inkh, n.m.; (2) a single cane of the same, gandá, n.m.

Capacity. See Power.

Caper, to, pharakná, v.n.

Caper, capparis aphylla, kair, n.m. or f., pl. kairarián; the bud is barwá, n.m., and the fruit, tind, n.f.; c. horrida, hins, n.m.

Capital (in trade), púnjí, n.f.

Care. See Trouble.

Careful, (1) chaukas, adj.; (2) especially of ploughing, nikand, adj.

Careless, chaupat, adj.

Carpenter, khátí, n.m.; to this caste belong the carpenters of most villages in the district: in a few they are badhí, n.m.

Carriage, gádí. n.f.; bullock carriage, manjholí, n.f.; bullock tonga, rerhú, n.m.

Cart, (1) gádí, n f., or bigger, gádá, n.m.; (2) cart without side wattles, ladhá, n.m.; (3) trotting bullock cart, manjholí, n.f.

Cash, rokrá, n.m.

Casteman, dúd, adj. See s.v.

Cat. male, bilá, n.m.; female biláí, n.f.

Catch, to. See s.v., olná, v.a.

Cattle, (1) generally dingar, n.m., pl.; dhor, n.m.; dhori, n.f.; (2) a herd of wild cattle bred from animals set free as a vow, rám chauná, n.m; (3) a herd of domestic cattle going to graze, chauná, n.m.; laindá, n.m.; (4) old cattle, dhándá, n.m.

Cattle-dealer, ghosi, n.m. (a tribe).

Cattle-shed, (1) the baithak that forms the entry of the house, dalhíz, n.f., paulí, n.f.; (2) a separate cattle-shed, nauhrá, n.m.

Cattle-track See s.v. Path.

Cattle-yard, gher, n.m.; ugár (or by metathesis, guár), n.m.

Cause, káran, n.m.

Caution, to, bariná, v.a.

Celibate, jatí, adj.

Censure, to, dántná, v.a.

Certainly. See Surely.

Cesses, kharch, n.m.

Chaff, (1) of múng, moth, másh and gowár, phalyár, n.m.; (2) of jowar—used for fodder, kándí, n.f.; kántí, n.f.; (3) of bajra—used for litter, búmblá, n.m.

Chain, (1) for measuring or surveying, jewri, n.f.; (2) to secure cart bullocks on the road at night, bel, n.f.; (3) to secure

house doors, sánkal, n.f. See also JEWELLERY.

Chain-man, $mirdh\acute{a}$, n.m. This word was used in old times for a measurer, and is now sometimes used for the jaribkash; corruption of the Persian mirdeh.

Change (for money), phutkar, n.f.

Channel. See s.v. Watercourse, and Runnel.

Charity, cash paid to a Brahman after feeding him. dachhná, n.f.

Chattering, bakwád, n.f.; kachkach, n.f.

Cheap, mandá, adj.

Chenopodium, c. album, bathwá, n.m. See s.v.

Chest (of body) peti, n.f.

Chief, pardhán, n.m., in verse corrupted to dhán.

Child, bálá, bálak, n.m., chhorat, n.m.—the latter word is used for children generically also; lál, lálá, n.m. (a term of endearment).

Childhood, chhutpan, n.m.

Childishness, chhutpan, n.m.

Childless, út, útnápút, n.m., the feminine útnínápútní is used among women as a term of abuse; napútá, adj.

Chill, tárá, n.m.

Chopping-block, ne, n.f.

Christian, kráni, n.m.

Churn, to, biloná, v.a.

Churn, biloni, n.f.

Churning, the noise made by churning of milk, iharak, n.f.

Churn staff, rayi, n.f.

Circle, kundal, n.m.

Circuit, ol, n.f.

Circumstances, hawál, n.m., comfortable circumstances, tár, n.f., sáng, n.m., gaihre, n.m., pl., tant, n.m., To be in c.c. tant or gailre baithná, tár baithná, ráj baithná, laihre karná.

Cistern, in which water is stored at the well kothá, n.m.

Clapping (of hands), tál, n.m.

Clay, dákar, n.f.

Clean. (1) suthrá, adj.; (2) of ploughing, nikand, adj.

Clear, narol, adj.

Clearly, nirásá, adv.

Clear off, to (a debt), láhná, v.a.

Clear up, to, to collect things together. tidy up, sámbharná, v.a.

Clever, chátar, adi.

Client, (1) of a moneylender, banjotá, n.m.; (2) of a Brahman, or his clientele generally (Urdu jajmán), brit, n.f.

Clock. See Water-clock.

Close, lámne, adv.: lawe, adv.

Cloth, kápar, n.m.; the coarse country cloth used by zamindars, chaunsí, n.f.

Clothes, (1) parhán, n.m.; (2) a set of women's clothes, tíl, n.f. Cloud, unman, n m.; megh, n.m.; ghatá, n.f.; gathering clouds, gan, ghan, n.m.

Cloudless, narol, adi.

Cloudy, sabádlí, adj.

Coarse, khar, adi.

Cobble, to, gubbharná, v.a.; goná, v.a.; to get cobbled, gathwáná, v.a.

Cobbling, gánth, gánth seth, n.f.

Cock, kukrá, n.m.

Coin, námá, n.m.

Cold, (1) silá, adj., sil, adj.; (2) cold weather, see Winter; (3) a cold, influenza, kher, n.m., dhánchar, n.m.; (4) cold, chilliness, sílak, n.f.; siyál, n.m.

Collect, to, ugáhná, v.a. (of money, etc.).

Collected, ikthaure, adj., pl., batle, adj., pl.

Collection. See Subscription.

Combination, association of cattle or labour in cultivation, dangwárá, n.m.

Come across, to. See Meet.

Come out, to, likarná, v.a. (corruption of nikalná).

Comfort, ánand, n.m.

Comfortable. See s.v. Circumstances.

Common-room, (1) the common building of a village or subdivision of it, paras, pres, n.f. chopár, n.f.; (2) a small sitting-place common to two or three families, katehrá, n.m.

Company, sang, n.m.

Completed, to be. See Finished.

Complication, aráns, n.f.

Compulsion \ See s.v. Force.

Compulsory 5

Conceal, to, lukná, v.a.

Condition, hawál, n.m.

Condolence. See Mourning.

Confabulation, miskot, n m.—a term introduced from the army.

Confusion, ghálá málá, n.m.

Congratulation, bhadáí, n.f. See also Hymn.

Connexion, lág, n.f.

Consider, to, takná, v.n.

Constant, padár, adj.

Constantly nit, adv.

Contained in, to be, samáná, v.n.

Contemporary, age-fellow, hání, n.m.; hán homán, n.m.

Contentment, santokh, n.m.

Contentious, kalhárá, adj.

Continent, jati, adj.

Contrary, one who acts beyond his station, ushtandi, n.m.

Control, beyond control (of an animal), be bas, adj.

Convenient, sút, adj.

Converse, to. See Talk.

Convert, a Jat or Jatni, converted to Islám, Mulá, n.m.; Mulí, n.f.

Cook, to, poná, v.a.

Cooking vessel, hándí, n.f.

Co-operation. See Combination.

Cope with, to, tán bajáná, v.a.

Coping. See Thatch.

Corruption. See Bribery.

Cosharer. See Sharer.

Cotton, (1) cotton plant, $b\acute{a}r\acute{i}$, n.f.; (2) cotton cut in short lengths ready for spinning, $p\acute{u}n\acute{i}$, n.f.; (3) a clump of cotton opening in the pod, $jhun\acute{d}$, n.f.

Cotton seed, binaulá, n.m.; when used for cattle fodder, also called kákrá, n.m.

Cotton stalk, banstí, n.f. See also Stalk.

Cotton thread, pái, n.m.

Council. See Confabulation.

Country side. See Widespread.

Courage, ásang, n f.

Courtyard, bagar, n.m.

Cow, (1) a full-grown cow, one that has calved gá, gaurí, n.f.;

(2) barren cow (or buffalo) baihlán, n.f.; (3) cow that won't let its calf come near it or herself be milked binkut, n.f.;

(4) cow (or buffalo) that has failed to be covered at the proper time pálet, n.f.; (5) cow (or buffalo) going off milk bákhrí, n.f., binkut, n.f.; (6) cow past bearing dhándhí, n.f.;

(7) ditto, of cow or buffalo, kholá, n.f., dhánk, n.f.; (8) milch cow dhínú, n.f.

Cow-dung, (1) dried cakes of c., úplá, n.m., gosá, n.m.; (2) place reserved for making them pathwárá, n.m., (páthná, to knead); (3) stock of them bitaurá, n.m.

Cowherd, pálí. n.m.; gowál, n.m.

Crack, in building or in soil, trer, n.f.

Cradle, basket in which a woman carries her baby to the fields, or swings him from the roof, palná, n.m.

Crazy, baulá, adj.; khabbat, adj. or n.m.; khabtán, adj. or n.m. Cremation-ground, chahání, n.f.

Crest, of a sand hill, tibá, n.m.

Cringe, to, kantáná, v.n.

Crippled, pánglá, opáhaj, upang, adj.

Crocodile, gáh, n.m.; karauntí n.f.

Crooked, bánká, adj.; ádá, adj.; baindá, adj.

Crop, (1) sákh, n.f.; (2) the collected produce of a field, ready for threshing, ghamsán, n.m.

Crop-watcher, rakhálá, n.m.

Cross. See Displeased.

Cross, to, ulákná, v.a.

Crow, kág, n.m.; káglá, n.m.

Crowd, ghamsán, n.m.

Crown, the tinsel crown worn by the bridegroom, maur, n.m.

Cruel, kathan, adj.

Cruelty, julmáná, n.m.

Crust, forming on the ground due to heat following slight rainfall, páprí, n.m.

Cry, dhái, n.f.

Cry out, to lalkárná, v.a.

Cunning, dho, n.m.; thagáí, n.f.

Cunningness, chatrái, n.f.

Cup, of metal, bakhaurá, n.m.; katorá, n.m.; kacholá, n.m., ditto smaller, belwá, n.m.; the lotá is here called gadí, n.f.

Cupboard, a recess in the living room of a house for storing grain etc., bisál, n.m.; obrá, n.m.; ditto, smaller obrí, n.f.

Curse, to, kosná, v.a.

Curved, bánká, adj.; ádá, adj.; baindá, adj.

Custom, bát, n.f.; ánt, n.f.; (see s.v. Agreement) ravaiyá n.m.; rít, n.f.

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D

Dacoit. See Robber.

Damp. See Moist, Moisture.

Dampness. See Moisture.

Danger, danger from, fear of, anything dhák, n.f.

Daughter, dhi, n.f.

Dawn, sakálí, n.f., at dawn sakále.

DAY, 1st day of either half of the month, pirwá, n.f.

,				1
2nd	,,	, ,	• •	doj, n.f.
3rd	,,	, ,	,,	tij, n.f.
4th	,,))	,,	chauth, n.f.
5 th	,,	1.4	,,	pańchak or páńcheń,
				n.f.
6th	,,	,,	,,	chhat, n.f.
7th	,,	,,	, ,	sáten, n.f.
8th	,,	,,	,,	ashimi or athen, n.f.
9th	,,	,,	,,	naumín, n f.
10th	,,	,,	,,	dasmín, n.f.
lith	,,	,,	,,	ekádshí, atkádshí
	,,	**	,,	giyáras or giyás,
				n.f.
12th	,,	,,	,,	bárus. n.f.; dawádshí,
	• •	• •	,,	n.f.
13th	,,	,,	,,	tosh, n.f.
14th			,,	chaudash, n.f.
	,,	,,	,,	onaaaan, H.L.

last day of the dark half of the month, máwas, máosh, maush, n.f.; last day of the light half of the month, púran-máshí, n.f., or púrná, n.f., or púno, n.f.

Death, kál, n.m.

Debt, máng, n.f.

Decay, to. See Eaten away, to be.

Deceit, dho. n.m.; thagáí, n.f.

Deception, damgaje, n.m., pl.

Dec sion, niberá, n.m.

Decline, to (of sun), dhalná, v.n.

Decreuse, to, ghainá, v.n.; dhalná, v.n.

Deep, dungá, adj.

Deference. See Respect.

Degraded, rajálá adj See s.v.

Deficit, gháiá, n.m.

Delay, aver, n.m.; wár, n.f.

Deluge. See s.v. Famine.

Dense, sanghná, adj. See Stupid.

Deny, to, nátná, v.n.

Depression (in the ground, etc.) khadá, n.m.; See also Hollow.

Deputy, an E. A. C. Lipii, n.m.

Deserted, a deserted house nadárad kúdhí, n.f.; of village, ujar, adj.

Desolate, choupat, adj.

Destitute, híná, adj.

Die, to, utr jáná, v.n.

Die-stamper, chhipi, n.m.; chhipan, n.f. (a caste).

Difference, antar, n.m.

Difficult, durlabh, adj.

Difficulty, (1) ánt, n.f.; aráns, n.f.; ákhlí, n.f. (lit. holes or ruts in a road); dúbhar, n.m.; (2) with difficulty, hardly massán, adv., or massán te.

Dimple, khadá, n.m.

Direction, (1) (side) or, n.f.; kair, n.m.; (2) in different directions aulá saulá, adj.

Dirt, kúrá, n.m., of mud in water, gadhal, n.f.

Dirty, kasút, kasútá, adj.; bhúndá, adj.; of muddy water gádhlá, adj.

Disagreement. See Dispute.

Discomfort, dúbhar, n.m.

Discourse, bátí, n f.

Discriminate, to, bachárná, v.a. or n.

Disease, sedh, n.f.; ausak, n.m.

Disgrace, hethi, n.f.

Disorder, ghálá málá, n.m.

Displeased, to be rúsná, rúsjáná, v.n.

Displeasure, ros, n.m.

Dispute, aljherá, n.m.

Distant, duretá, adj., a distant cousin, duretá bhái.

Distinctive, adhl, adj. See s.v.

Distressing, kathan, adj.

Disturbance (noise, etc.), tantá, n.m.

Ditch. See Trench.

Dive, to, dák márná (this is the term for diving feet first).

Diving, kalá bází, n.f. (head first).

Division, (1) of any thing, property, land, etc., batej, n.m.; batwárá, n.m.; (esp. for land) bát, n.f.; (2) division per stripes bír bat, chundá bat, adj. or adv.; (3) division per capita bhái bat, págrí bat, adj. or adv.

Do, to, in sense of to pass, to serve, nimbhná, v.n.

Doing, done, krit, n.f.; kritang. See s.v.

Donkey, cháruwá, n.m.; pohan, n.m.; ghortá, n.m.; (the last word, literally a small pony, is used for donkey also).

Door, a single door, khirak, n.m.; double doors, kowar, n.m.

Drainage, rain water drained from high lands into tank or fields, upráhan ká pání, n.m.; ágam ká pání, n.m.

Draw, to. See Pull, to.

Draw out, to, kádhná, v.a.

Drill, a seed drill, orná, n.m.

Drip, to, jhirná, v.n.

Dripping (of water), jhirá. So the term is used for a surplus supply in any branch of the canal.

Drive off, to, táhná, v.a.; khedná, v.a.

Drought, soká, n.m.

Drop (of water), sitak, n.f.

Droppings, of cattle, picked up in the jungle orná, n.m.; of birds, bíthá, n.m.

Dropsy, jalandhar, n.m.

Drown, dob dená, v.a.

Dry, unsavoured, lúkhá, adj.; so dry bread is lúkhí rotí.

Dry up, to. See Exhausted, to be (of tank).

Dung, kúrá, n.m. See also Dripping and Cow-dung.

Dungheap, kúrí, n.f.; kurrí, n.f.

Dust, dhúl, n.f.

Dwelling, bás, n.m.

 \mathbf{E}

Ear, of $b\acute{a}jr\acute{a}$, wheat or barley, $b\acute{a}l$, n.f. See also Head.

Early, sudhán, adv.; early sown or ripening, agetá, adj.; tahetá, adj.

Earned, khatyá, p.p. See s v.

Earring. See JEWELLERY.

Earth, (1) land, dharti, n.f.; (2) soil, dharti, n.f.; mati, n.f.; (3) the world, prithmi, pirthi, n.f.; (4) bowels of the earth, paintal, n.m.; (5) of animals, see Hole.

Earthquake, hálan, n.m.

Ease, anand, n.m.

East, ugam, ugman, n.m.

Eastern, ugmaná adj.

Eastwards, ugmanán, adv. (preceded by te).

East wind, pirwá, n.f.; purá, n.f.; pirwá bál, n.f.

Easy, sahj, adj.

Eatables, tied up in a cloth and sent as a present to relations etc., kothli, n.f.

Eaten away, to be-of wood, bijhná, v.n.

Eating, bhojan, n.m.

Ebullition, uphán, n.m.

Edge, or, n.f.

Effort, haṅgá, n.m.; yatan, n.m.; khabáhat, n.f.; sinister effort, kotak, n.m.; by an effort with difficulty, haṅge, adv. See also s.v. Difficulty.

Eighth, of a lunar half month, ashtmi, n.f.; áthen, n.f.

Either, keh, conj.

Eject, to, táhná, v.a.; khedná, v.a.

Eld. See Age.

Elder, the elder councillor of a village; (there is generally one for each) tholá, tholedár, n.m.

Eldest, among several, baderá, adj.

Elephant, gaj, n.m.

Eleventh, of a lunar half month, atkádshí, ekádshí, n.f.; giyáras n.f; giyás, n.f.

Elope, to, udhalná, v.n.

Else. See Foreign.

Eluded, to be, talná, v.n.

Emancipation, mukat, n.f.

Embrace, kauli, n.f. (lit. the outstretched arms).

Embrace, to, kaulí bharná, v.a.

Empty, rítá, adj.; thothá, adj.; súná, adj.

End, to, to come to an end, sánparná, v.n.

End (aim), ant, n.m.

Endeavour, ásang, n.f. (Urdu himmat); ill endeavour, kotak, n.m.

Endurance. See Pluck.

Endure, to, bhogná, v a.

Enemy, bairí, n.m.; bairan, n.f.

Energetic. See Vigorous.

Enmity, kharásat. n.f.; írkhá, n.f.; bair, n.m.; kadáwat. n.f.; lág, n.f.

Enquire, to. See Ask.

Entangled, to be (in difficulties), uljhná, v.n.

Enter, to, barná, v.n.

Entertain, to (at meals), jimáná, v.a., esp. of a Brahman, neautná, v.a.

Entertained, to be, $jimn\acute{a}$, $\nabla . n$.

Entertainment, neautá, n.m. (usually of a Brahman).

Entire, saglá, adj.

Entirely, dáhon, adv.

Entry, of village. See Gate.

Equally, baron brábar, adv.; brábar, adv.

Erect, khalá. adj. (the ordinary Urdu khará is also in use).

Errand, doing errands—"fagging" to another village, gamina, n.m.

Eruption. See Rash.

Escaped, to be, talná, v.n.

Essence, ján binán, n.m.

Evaded, to be, talná v.n.f.

Evening, sánjh, n f.

Evil, kukram, n.m.

Evil-liv r. luchá, adj. (especially in sexual relations).

Exactly, theth, adv; thoth, adv.

Exaggerator, labár, n.m., amongst women dútí, n.f., is used.

Exulted, uttam, adj.

Excess, bádhá, n.m.—e.g., a rent may be the revenue with so much bádhá over and above.

Exce sive, hadháú, adj.; antká, adj. adv.

Excrement, human, gunh, n.m.; of birds, bithá, n.m.

Excuse, mis, n.f.

Exhausted, of soil etc., bodá.

Exhausted, to be, (1) fatigued, chhikná, v.n.; kantáná, v.n.; (2) to come to an eud, or of a tank to dry up, sánpuná, v.n.

Exhortation, updesh, n.m.

Expect, to, bát dekhná, v.a.

Exposure, exposure to injury, ujár, n.m.; e.g., my field gets overrun by monkeys, meri kiyári bandaran ke ujár men se.

Extravagance, phanlidún, n.m.

Extravagant, chhatorá, adj.

Eye, nain, n.m.

Eyelid, palak, n.f.

Eyesight, tyaur, n.m

 \mathbf{F}

Face, mukhrá, n.m.

Faction, kháp, n f.

Factory, pench, n.m.

Fade, to, kamláná, v.n.

Fagging. See Errand.

Fail, to miss the mark or opportunity, úkná, v.n.

Fair. See Satisfactory.

Fakir, modá, n.m

Fall down, to, dhai parná, v.n.

Fall in with, to. See Meet.

Fallow, land left fallow for cattle to graze on, paret. n.f.

Falsehood, bakherá, n.m.

Family, kul, n.m.

Famine, kál, n.m.; if due to excess of rain or flooding it is pankál, n.m.

Famous, to be, tapná, v.n.

Fan, bíjná, n.m.

Far, parán, adj. or postp. (chiefly Jhajjar). See also s.v. Distant.

Farmer, kasán, kassán, n.m., esp. of a good farmer; a bad one is thoth, n.m.

Fashionable, bánká, adj.

Fasting, langhan, n.m.

Fat, petlá, adj., an excessively fat man, padaurá, n.m.

Fate, karm, n.m.; karní, n.f.

Father, bábú, n.m.; pitá, n.m., the latter chiefly by pandits, but also in Jhajjar by Jats; peo, n.m. father's home (of a woman) peosál, n.f.

Father-in-law. See s.v. RELATION.

Fatigued, to be, kantáná, v.n.

Favour, sián, n.m.

Fear, daihshat, n.f.; bhau, n.m.; fear of danger from dhák, n.f. Fear, to, of an animal, to be shy; bidhakná, v.n.

Fearless nirbhai, adj.

Feast. See Funeral-feast.

Feast day, in honour of Durgá; nyaurtá, n.m. See s.v.

Feathery, titur pankhá, adj.

Feeble, bodá, adj.; márá, adj. See also Weak.

Feed, to, nírná, v.a. (i.e. to feed animals). See also Entertain. Fence, thorn fence, dhinkar, n.m.; small sticks put round to fence a field, chhari, n.f.; if large, chhara, n.m.; for fence of a sugar press see Screen.

Fertility, sarsái, n.f.

Fester, pakewá, n.m.

Festival, girls' festival on 3 Sudi Sawan, tij, n.f.

Few. See Rare.

Field, kyár, n.m.; smaller, kyárí, n.f., kháprí, n.f.; small and uneven field, mangrá, n.m.; small and lowlying, dáhrá, n.m. Fifteenth, of lunar half month, púrná, n.f.; púranmáshí, n.f.

Fifth, of lunar half month, panchak, n.f.; pánchen, n.f.

Fighting. See Quarrelling—of a number of persons, muthber,

Filial, sapút, n.m.

Fill up, to, to stop a leakage, múndná, v.a., to fill up a tank or well. ántná, v.a.

Filth, kúrá, n.m.

Fine, thádá, adj., a fine young man, bará thádá jawán. Strong, Handsome.

Fine, dand, n.m. Finger, ángal, n.f.

Finished, to be, nimbarná, v.n.; pár parná, v.n.

Fire, ánch, n f.

Firefly, pat bíjná, n.m.

Firewood, indhan, n.m.

Firm, chauk s, adj., of soil, khatkhatá, adj.

First, at the first attempt, or first of all, pahlam chot, adv.

First-born, jethá, adj.

Fissure. See Crack.

Fix. to. See Settle, to.

Fleece, of sheep, $k \hat{u} n$, n.f.

Flesh, más, n.m.

Flinch, to, kantáná, v.n.

Fling down, to, qhálná, v.a.

Flippancy, aulí bát, n.f.

daihr, n.m. Flood.

dahr, n.m. Floodlands, J

Flour, chún, n.m.

Fly away, to, udná, v.n.

Fodder (1) niyar, n.m.; bánt, n.f.; (2) fodder given to bullocks at midday, jawárá, n.m. See also sub v. Straw, Leaves, Grazing, Zizyphus.

Fog. dhumar, n.f.

Foliage, of kikar, jánd or raunjh, lúng, n.m.

Folk, of men. log. n.m. pl.; of women, lugái, n.f., pl.

Folly, ál, n.f.

Food, (1) khájá, n.m.; bhojan, n.m.; (2) the ordinary food of the people of fermented millets, rábrí, n.f.; (3) food given to

Brahman at máwas or kanágat before helping oneself, hatkár n.m.; (4) cooked grain given to women who come on auspicious occasions to sing, báklí, n.f.

Fool, thoth, n.m.; múrakh, n.m. & f.; dúndí, n.m.; kúr, n.m.; chútiyá, n.m. (see s.v.). See also Idiot.

Foolish, nadán, adj.; múrakh, adj.

Foolishness, pachham budhi, n.f.

Foppish, bánká, adj.

Forbid, to, atakná, v.a.; barjná, v.a.

Force, hangá, n.m.; by force, hange, adj.

Forehead, mastak, n.m.

Foreign. See Outsider—another village than one's own, páh gám, n.m.; someone else's, prái, adj.

Forest, (1) ban, n.m.; bankhand, n.m.; (2) small jungle round a village, bani, n.f.; (3) a grass preserve or wood, birh, n.m.

Forgetfulness, $\acute{u}k$ $ch\acute{u}k$, n.f.

Fork. See Pitchfork.

Formed, to be, rachná, v.n.

Former, paihlrá, adj.

Fortunate. See Prosperous.

Foundation, —of the k u p (q.v.) made of cotton stalks, gom ana, n.m.

Foundling, páltí, n.m.

Four cross-roads, choráhá, n.m.

Four pronged, chosang, adj.

Fox, lobán, n.f.

Fraud, dho, n.m.

Friday, sukkar, n.m.; Friday's sukkarwárí, adj.

Friend, (1) a close acquaintance, dhabí, n.m.; mít, n.m.; mitr, n.m.; sagá, n.m., or—used of third parties only, prítí, n.m.; (2) a guest, mintar, n.m.; (3) well-wisher, kindly disposed, sajjan, n.m.

Friendship, dhab, n.m.; maláhjá, n.m. See also Love.

Fringe. See JEWELLERY.

Frontal, masonry front of an adobe house, mauhrá, n.m.

Front of, in, sohin, adv. or postp.

Fuel indhan n.m.; crushed cane stalks used as such at press is khoi, n.f. See also Cowdung.

Funeral feast, jag, n.m.; káj, n.m.

Furrow, khúd, n.m.

Futurity, ágam, n.m.

G

Garnet, lálrí n.f.

Gate, entrance of village, phalsá, n.m.

Gathering. See Festering.

Gaze, to, lakháná, v.n.

Gazelle, chakárá, n.m. (after which a got of Jats is named), mirg, n.m.; kalpúchhiá, n.m.

Gentleman, dhaulposh, n.m. See s.v.

Germinate, to, upajná, v.n.

Get in, to, barná, v.n.

Ginner, cotton-ginning machine, belan, n.m.

Girl, chhori, n.f. eh, girl! Ti (interj.)—this is used to women in their native village only.

Give up, to, tajná, v.a.

Gluttonous, lárá, adj.

Go away, to, digarná, v.n.

Go back, to, see go away.

Goad, sántá, n.m.

Goat, ajhá, n.m., fem. ajhán, n.f.

God, málik, n.m.; sáhib, n.m.

Gold, kanchan, n.m.; kans. n.m.

Good, sút, chokhá, khará (pure, prime), sutá, kámal (used in most senses of paká), adj. As an attribute of a woman salwantí, adj. f.

Good-looking, bánká.

Goodness, gun, n.m.

Got, to be,—as milná in that sense—thyáwná, v n.

Gourd, kachrí, n.f.; see s.v. Kákrí, n.f. and áryá, n.m., are kinds of cucumbers.

Grace, hauslá, n.m.

Grain, a single grain of any cereal, kani, n.f.; or poet. kanyá, n.m.

Grain-dues, grain given to menials at sowing time is ori, n.f., and at spring harvest, $l\acute{a}n$, n.m.

Gram, a single plant of gram, búnt, n.m.

Grandfather, maternal grandfather's house, nansál, n.f.

Grass, main grasses of district are cynodon dactylon, dibh, n.f., called $j\dot{a}bar$, n.m., when rank and deep; eragrostis cynosuroides, $d\dot{a}bh$, n.f.; saccharum spontaneum, $k\dot{a}ns$, n.m.; anatherum muricatum, $jh\dot{u}nd$, n.m.; or $g\dot{a}ndar$, n.m.; saccharum munja, sar, n.m.; cyperus rotundus?, $moty\dot{a}$, n.m.

Grasshopper, kisárí, n.f. attacks gram; pharká, n.m. attacks millets. The painted grasshopper (poecilocera picta) living largely on ák is Rám kí gáye, n.f.

Grazing, (1) grazing buffaloes during the night in rainy season, pasar, n.f.; (2) tending cattle to another village to pasture, gol, n.m.

Grazing fees, (1) taken by owners of village from non-owners, dig, n.f.; (2) taken by herdsmen for looking after another man's cattle, bit, n.f.

Greasy, chopri, adj.

Greens. See Shoots.

Grind, to, ghotná, v.a.

Grow, to, of crops, upajná, v.n.

Guard, pahrá, n.m.; keeping guard at night sentry duty, sońsái, n.f.; crop watching, rakhwál, n.f.; a guard pahrú, n.m. Guest, mintar, n.m.; traveller putting up with one, hateau, n.m. Guide. See Messenger.

Gur, a 4-seer lump of gur, the unit of the sugar press, bheli, n.f.

H

Habit, rabbá, n.m.; dhál, n.m.

Hairless, múndá, adj.

Hairy, kesá, adj.

Half and half, ádham ádh, adv.

Half maund, dhaun, n.m. (20 seers).

Half-sharer. See Sharer.

Halo, kundal, n m., of moon, jalaihrí, n.f.

Halt, to, datná, v.n.; thamná, v.n.; thámná, v.a.

Hamlet, dháná, n.m.—smaller, dhání, n.f. (usually used of tenants' hamlet in the middle of an estate).

Handle, of a goad, paini, n.f.; driving handle of plough, hathá, n.m.; wooden handle of any implement, bintá, n.m.

Handsome. sámthá, adj.; sutá, adj.; sutrá, adj.

Happiness, kusal, n.f.

Happy, resi, adj. See s.v.; rájí.

Hard, khar, adj.; cruel, kathan, adj.; karrá, adj., exactly corresponds to the Urdu sakht in all its senses.

Hardly, massán, adv.; massán te, razá karke.

Hardship chálá, n.m.

Hare, súsá, n.m.

Hark, re, ri, interj.

Harrow, flat clod-crusher is maij, n.m., or sohágá, n.m.; a round clod-crusher is belan, n.m.; girri or ghirri, n.f.; kolu or kohlu, n.m.; smaller, kolri, n.f.

Harrow, to (to put harrow on ground), majáná, v.a.

Harvest, sákh, n.f. See also Autumn and Spring.

Harvesting, láwní, n.f.; lámní, n.f.

Harvest dues spring harvest dues of menials, lán, n.m.; lángá, n.m.

Haste, taul, n.f.

Head, sís, n.m.; head of a branch canal, etc., mohid, n.m.; head of jowár, sartá, n.m., of maize, kukrí, n.f. See also Ear.

Headman, mukuddam, n.m.

Headstrong See Obstinate.

Heap, to. See Pile, to.

Heart, hirdá, n.m.; man, n.m.

Heat, hot weather of 4 months, kharsá, n.m.; still moist heat, ghot, n.f.; still dry heat, machká, n.m.; dahm. n.m.; sun's heat, ghám, n.m.; morá, n.m.

Heat, to, táná, v.a.

Heated, to be, tainá, v.n.

Heat-stricken, of a cow-ghámar, adj. and n.f. Sce s.v.

Heaven, swarg, n.m.

Heavy, thádá, adj.

Heifer, of a year or so, baihrki, n.f.; baihri, n.f.; generally up to 2 years or so, báchhri, n.f.; bachhiyá, n.f.; buffalo heifer, kutiyá, n.f.; kátri, n.f.

Height, sikhar, n.m.; sikharant, n.m.

Held, to be, samáná, v.n. (to be contained in).

Hell, nirk, n.m.

Help, ásrá, n.m., parmeshwar ke ásre te, by God's help.

Herd, chauná, n.m.; laindá, n.m.; khark, n.m.

Herdsman, gowál, n.m.; pálí, n.m.

Here, are or are, adv. it, adv.

Hero, súr, n m.; gangwar, n.m.; monyá, n.m.

Hide, to, lukná, v.a.

Hill, thal. n.m.; sand hill, thali, n.f.; erest of sand hill, tibbá, n.m., tibá, n.m.

Hinder, to, khundná, v.a.

Hip. $k\hat{u}kh$. n.f.

Hither, it, adv., inghe, adv.

Hoe, hand hoe for stubbing grass, etc., khurpá, n.m.; long handed hoe for weeding kasaulá, n.m.

Hoe, to, nalauná, v.a.

Hoed, to be. nalná. v.n.

Hog, bará, n.m.

Hole. (1) of large animals, esp. wolf, nal, n.m.; (2) of small animals as snake, mouse, etc., bil, n.m.; (3) of a big snake, bambi. n.f.; (4) hole made by scraping out earth for plastering, etc., ghogh, n.m.; (5) a small hole, moghlá, n.m.; (6) hole or rut in a road, ákhli, n.f.; (7) hole in a roof, see ventilator.

Hollow, a small lowlying plot of ground, dábrá, n.m.

Hollow, thothá, adj.

Home, (1) locative gharán, e.g., gharán já; (2) woman's father-in-law's home, sásrá. n.m.; (3) man's father-in-law's home, susrár, n.m.; (4) woman's father's home, pihar, n.m.; peosál, n.f.; (5) maternal grandfather's home, nánká, n.m.; nansál. n.f.; (6) husband's house, pisál, n.f.

Honour, láj, n.f.; mán, n.m.; pat, n.f. See also Respect.

Hoof, khurá, n.m.

Hop, phudak, n.f.

Hope, ás, n.f.

Horned. singal, adj.

Hornet, tatayá, n.m.

Hornless, műndá, adj.

Horse, turá, n.m.; turang, n.m

Hot, tát, adj.

Housekeeping, gharwásá, n.m.

Housewife, kalwanti, adj. f., the word describes all that the model housewife should be.

However, albat, adv.

Hub, pindá (of a spinning wheel). See also under WELL GEAR.

Hungry, nirná básí, adj.

Hunt, to. Sec Search, to.

Hurry, taul, n.f.

Hurry, to, bhájná. v.n. (to run, go quickly), bauhrná, v.n. (to overtake).

Hurt . kotak . n.m.

Husband, kanth or kanthá, n.m.; pí, n.m.; píyá, n.m.; bhartár, n.m.; husband's house, písál, n.f.

Husbandman. See Farmer.

Hymn, hymn of congratulation, manglá chár. See s.v.

1

Idea, gyán, n.m.

Idiot, dúndí, n.m., as a term of abuse, baulí búchh, n.m. See also Fool.

If, je, conj.

Ignorant, nadán, adj. (of a child).

III, dukhálá, adj. See also Evil.

Illconducted, tuphání, adj., fem. tuphánan. The word seems primarily to mean liar, lying.

Illfavoured, kulachhan, adj.

Illness ausak, n.m.; sedh. n.f.; rog, n.m.

Immediately, turt, adv. See also First.

Increase bádhá, n.m.

Indifferent, márá, adj. (of quality).

Indigent, bardangi, adj.

Individual. not joint, naukrá, adj.

Indulgent. of self, chhatorá, adj. See also Gluttonous.

Industry, physical, pachchat or pachant. n.f.; mental, jhakkat or jhakant, n.f.

Infantry. berá, n.m.

Influenza, kher. n.m.; dhanchar, n.m.

Information. See News.

Ingrate, múndchará, adj. and n.m. See s.v.

Inheritance. See Division.

Insect. See Blight.

Inside, bhitar, adv. and postp.; máhn, adv. and postp. More often the meaning of the latter word is 'jointly with.'

Insistence aráns, n.f., constructed with láná.

Instalment, khandhi, n.f.

Instigate, to, ubhárná, v.a.

Intelligence, sodhi, n.f. See also News.

Intelligent, chaukas, adj.; súá, adj.

Intercalary (month), laung, n.m.

Intercourse, meht, n.f., land or side of a village in which one's, business or coming and going lies, her muhár, n.m.; hel mel, n.m.

Interdiction, bandhej, n.m.

Interest, biáj, n.m.; mittí, n.f. (of money).

Invisible, alekh, adj., an attribute of God.

Involuntarily. See Perforce.

Irregular. See Uneven.

Irresponsibility, ghálá málá. See s.v.

Irrigation. See Watering.

Irritation, of the skin, $kh\acute{a}j$, n.f.

Island, tápú, n.m.

 \mathbf{J}

Jackal, gádar, n.m.; sál, n.m.

Jamb, bájú, n.m. (of door).

JEWELLERY, *túmb*, n.f., a collective term; specific sorts are as follows:—

Glass bangle, chúrí, n.f. (always put off by a widow).

Plain silver bangle, pachhelí, n.f., this is worn above the chúrí.

Massive bracelet, kángní, n.f., worn below the chúrí.

Armlets (worn on the biceps), bájú band or bájú chauk (this is a massive ornamental article with two or more silver bosses); bájú phúl, n.m. (like the above but with only one boss); tád, n.f. (a deep solid silver armlet with a heavy rim—put on after makláwá); bájú, n.m. (this generally consists of a string of rupees).

Anklets, kari, n.f. (a plain silver anklet); bákri, n.f. (a twisted anklet going over the instep); kará, n.m. (an anklet worn

by men only and on the right leg only).

Eurrings, bújní. n.f. (ear studs); murkí, n.f. (very small earrings worn by men only); dándá, n.m. (big ornamental earrings)

Fingerrings, chhalá, n.m. (a plain finger ring); angúthí. n.f. (for a jewelled or otherwise ornamented ring); mohar, n.f. (signet ring).

Nose rings, dándí, n.f. (a small ring worn only to keep the hole open); nath, n.f. (a large nose-ring worn only after

marriage).

Necklaces, nanslá, n.m. (a massive necklace worn close round the neck); jhálrá, n.m. (a long hanging necklace made of rupees); rupayyá, n.m. (a single rupee attached to a string and worn close round the neck by men and boys—efficacious against disease); kanthí, n.f. (a necklace worn close round the neck by men and boys)

Waist chain, tágrí, n.f. (a silver chain worn by men and boys only).

Silver work on the arm hole of angí, (bodice), katáo, n.m.

Silver fringe, to the dopattá, falling over the forehead: ghunghat, n.m., múnh ká chháj, n.m.

Jingle, to, thanakná, v.n.

Jogi, jogná, n.m. (used in a contemptuous sense—a mere jogí).

Joint, sajhlá, adj.

Jointly Jointly with $m dh \dot{n}$, adv. and postp.

Jump, phudak, n.f.

Jungle, ujár, n.m. (waste); see also Forest.

Junior, lahaurá, adj. (of two wives, sons, branches of a family. etc.)

Justice, nisáj, n.m.; nyá, n.m.

K

Keen. See Sharp.

Kindness, gun n.m.

King, nirp, n.m.

Kiss. makho, n.f. (cp. with dená); míthí, n.f. (cp. with lená).

Knead, to, gúndhná, v.a.; páthná, v.a.; gúndná, v.a.

Knee, godá, n.m.

Kneeling, kodá, adj.

Knot, ánt, n.f., poetically, ántí, n.f.; gánth, n.f.

Knowledge, bidyá or vidyá, n.f.; news, biaurá or beaurá. n.m.; (the khabr of Urdu).

 \mathbf{L}

Labour, khabáhat, n.f.; pachchat or pachant, n.f.; mental, jhakkat or jhakant, n.f.; ability to labour, labouring, kamer, n.f. Labour, to, pachhná, v.n.

Labourer, kamerá, n.m.; kamerí, n.f.; kammáú, n.m.; farm servant engaged by the year, barsaudhíyá, n.m.

Ladle, palwá, n.m. (for oil).

Lair. See Hole.

Lake, sarwar. n m.

Lame, lulhá, adj.; upang, adj.; opáhaj, adj.

Lamp, the small lamp used at shrines or for illumination at Diwali etc., chúghrá or chíghrá, n.m.

LAND, (1) generally, 'soil,' so and so's 'land,' dhartí, n.f.; rarer, bhauñ, n.f.; (2) lands of a village, the village area, samáná, n m.; (3) land successively cultivated in both harvests, dotaí, adj.; (4) soil once irrigated but now hard and thirsty, lárá, lálrá, adj.; (5) loam, rauslí, n.f.; stiff loam, motiár, n.f.; clay, dákar, n.f.; (6) lowlying flooded land, daihrí or dahrí, adj.; (7) light sand, bhúr, bhúd, n.f.; (8) high-lying

sandy land, thalí, n.f.; crest of a sand hill, tibá n.m., tibbá, n.m.; (9) hard land full of limestone nodules. kakerlá or kakrelá, adj.; (10) unirrigated land, brárú, báñgrú, adj.; (11) dry land of Hissar, Bikanir and such liko, bágar, n.m.; bágrí or bágrú, adj.; (12) soil that is soft, having borne an unirrigated rabi crop, especially gram, umrá, n.m.; (13) soil that is hard from having borne a kharif or irrigated rabi crop, tápar, n.f.; (14) soil ploughed in Bhádon and left ready for spring crop, bhadwár, n.m.; (15) bare ground outside ábádí, where cattle stand, etc., gorá, n.m.; (16) bare ground round a tree or platform, santar, santal, n.m.; (17) high ground formed by excavation round a tank, pál, n.m.; (18) high bare ground from which drainage goes into a tank, upráhan, n.f.; (19) saline soil, kalar, kálar, n.m.; shor, n.m.; ran, n.m.

Landowner, (1) with a share in the common property of the village, biswedár, n.m.; (2) an outsider who has been given land in the village, but has no share in the common property, bhaunbháí, n.m.

Lapwing, tatiri, n.f. (the red-wattled lapwing or 'did you do it' of the Anglo-Indian).

Large, baddá, adj.

Last, last year. pur ke, pur ke súl, n.m.; last year but one, prár ke súl. Next but two in either direction, parlá, adj.

Late, and bar. adv.: late sown. backward. hetá, adj.; pachhetá, adj.

Lateness, wár, n.f.

Latter, páchhlá, adj.

Laughter, hánsí, n.f.

Law (in), one's own child's parents-in-law, sambandhi, n.m.; sambandhan, n.f.; this is the relationship which the parents of the husband and wife bear to each other—cf. Mother-in-law, Father-in-law, Relation, etc.

Lay, to, láná, v.a.—this is apparently a local form of lagáná.

Laziness, álkas, n.m.

Leader, the leader pair of bullocks in a cart, beli, n.m.; joryá, n.m. The word dhorí, which is the wheeler pair, is used metaphorically for a leader of men.

Leaf, pát, n.m.; dried leaves of gram used as fodder, khár, n.m.; of múng, moth and urd, páttí, n.f.; top leaves of the cane cut off before stripping, golá, n.m. See also under fodder and zizyphus.

Learner, sikhdar, adj. (e.g. of a bullock learning his work).

Least at, albat, adv.

Leather. chám. n.m.

Left (not right), khabbá, adj.; aulá, adj.

Leisure, ulgás, n.f., at leisure, nifrám, adj.

Leisured, ni/rám, adj

Leisurely, sahj. adj.

Less, ghát, adj.

Letter, ánkh, n.m. (of alphabet).

Level, pádrá, adj.

Liar, tuphání, n m.; labár, n.m.; tuphánan, n.f. Sec also Exaggerator.

Lie down, to, to lie outstretched. pasarná, v.n.

Life, jiv, n.m.; a lite in the series of transmigrations, jin, n.m.; life and soul of anything, jin binin, n.f.

Lift, bucket lift used for getting canal water on to high land, dál, n.f.

Lift-man, the man who works the above, dálíyá, n.m.; dalhíyán, n.m.

Light. halwá, adj. (of soil, or weight).

Lightning, bíj, n.f.; dámní, n.f.; flashes of lightning in opposite directions, aukan saukan, n.f.

Like, samán, postp.

Limb, ang, n.m.

Line, rekh, n.f.; a line of sarson, etc., sown across another crop, dd, n.f.

Lintel, $b\acute{a}j\acute{u}$, n.m.

Lion, shinh, n.m.

Litter, chebrá, n.m. (of pigs).

Live, to, brájná, v.n.

Living, bisásat, n.f.; a living house, bisásat ká ghar; ability to live or maintain oneself in a place, basebá, n.m.

Load, gún, n.f. (e.g., a donkey's load); ládrá, n.m. (a small load of fodder such as a boy can carry); sánthrí, n.f. (as much fodder as a man can hold in his arms); barhotá, n.m. (as much grass or fodder as a man can carry on his head).

Loafing. See Uninvited.

Loam, roslí, rauslí, n.f.; a stiff loam, motyár. n.f.

Loan, a Government agricultural loan, tigái, n.f. (corruption of takáví). [n.m.

Locust, tidi, n.f. (full grown): a swarm of creeping locusts, katir, Long-legged, lamtangá, adj.

Look at, to, lakháná, v.n.

Loose, moklá, adj.

Loss, totá, n.m.; deficit, ghátá, n.m.

Louse, $j \dot{u} m$, n.f.; $j \dot{u} \dot{n}$, n.f. $(j \dot{u} \dot{n})$ is also the name of a tribe of Ja⁺s).

Love, hit, n.m.; dhab, n.m.; neh, n.m.; used of third parties and not of oneself, prit, n.f.

Lovely, manbhará, adj.

Lover, píyá, n.m.

Lovesong, chanbolá, n.m.

Low, nimáná, adj.; low class, of lowly rank, nimáná adj.; chhut bhayan, adj.; lowlying (ground), nimán, adj. and n.m.

Luckless, karm hin, adj. and n.m., hin is a diminutive and privative suffix.

Luxuriance, sarsáí, n.f.

Luxurious, chhatorá, adj.

Lying, tuphán, n.m. (untruthfulness).

Lying. See reclining.

M

Mad, báorá, adj.; of a dog, baulá, adj.; half mad, maddish, ladbaulá, adj. See also crazy.

Made, to be, rachná, v.n.; of mud, of a noise, etc., to be stirred, máchná, v.n.

Made, to get, gharáná, v.a.

Maid-servant, bándí, n.f.

Malaria, parái, n.f.

Man, mánas, n.m. and f. (person), purkh, n.m.

Management, sár, n.f. (correct management).

Manager, kár mukhtyár, n.m. (agent).

Manger, khor, n.f. (earthen manger at which cattle feed).

Mango-leaves, hung by a string across the door of a house on occasions of rejoicing, bandarwál, n.m.

Manure, khád, n.f.

Many, ghane, ghankare, adj. pl.; anek, adj.; too many, anek, adj.

Marjoram. See s.v., marwá, n.m.

Marriage, (1) chaláwá, n.m.; gáoná, n.m. (these represent the final ceremony or makláwá; (2) contributions among the brotherhood for marriage expenditure (see Ibbetson's "Karnal Settlement Report"), nyaundá, n.m.; neautá, n.m.; (3) one who subscribes as above, nindhárí, n.m.

Married, parni, adj. and n.f.

Marvel, achraj, n.m. (an unusual or wonderful event).

Matrimony, sohág, n.m.

Meal, jún, n.m. (a single meal)

Mean, rajálá, adj See s v.

Means, bidh, n.f. (way).

Measure, to, mápná, v a

Meat, más, n.m.

Medicine, dárú, n.f.

Meet, to, phetná, v.n.

Meeting, meht. n.f.

Melon, matirá, n.m. (a kind of wild water-melon growing in the rains, chiefly in sandy ground).

Melt, to, gálná, v.a.

Men. See Folk.

Mend, to. See Repair.

Mendicant, sádhú, n.m.; a wandering fakir, ramtá rám, n.m.

Menial, shúdar, n.m. (=sudrá); menial's dues, i.e., bushels of grain given at the spring harvest, are lángá, n.m.

Merchandise, basáoní, n.f.

Merchant, banak, n.m.

Mere, korá, adj.

Message, sandes, n.m., carrying a message, laihbarí, n.f. See

Messenger.

Messenger, laihbar, n.m. and f. (corruption of ráhbar; the guide who goes from village to village or takes messages); bulá álá, n.m. (the dhának or chúhrá, whose duty it is to assemble the villagers).

Method, sár, n.f. (correct method of managing anything).

Milch cow, dhínán, n.f.; dúdhal, adj.

Milk. (1) milk mixed with water, lassi or lássi, n.f.; (2) the milk that first flows after birth of a calf, khis, n.m.; (3) next following for 8 or 10 days, chhilrá, n.m.; (4) thereafter, dúdh, n.m.

Milk pail, mánghí, n.f.; dúhní. n.f. (any vessel in which an animal is milked).

Milk pan, kadhauní, n.f.

Milky, dúdhyá adj., applied to the clouds of general rain as opposed to the black clouds of a local storm.

Mimosa. alá, ala, n.m. (a small species of m.).

Mind, hirdá, n.m.

Miscarry, to, túná, v.n.; garbh chhin jáná, v.n. (of pregnancy).

Miscellanies, arangá, n.m. See s.v.

Mischief, ál, n.f.

Misconducted, kulachhan, adj. and n.m.

Misfortune. sársatí. See s.v., janjál, n.m.

Miss. to, to miss the mark, or opportunity, úkná, v.n.

Mist, dhumar, n.f.

Mistake, úk chúk, n.f. (the Urdu bhúl).

Mixed, messá, adj.; messí rotí, bread of mixed grain

Mixture, messan. n.m.; a mixture of múng, másh and moth, dháglá or dhángarlá, n.m.; a mixture of wheat and gram. gochní, n.f.; of wheat barley and gram, gojrrá, n.m.; of barley and gram, bejhar, n.f.; of bájrá and múng or of rice and múng cooked in water, khichrí, n.f.; of wheat and sarson sown broadcast and not in lines, terá; the word is sometimes used for kharíf mixtures too.

Moderate, rangsir, adj.

Moist, álá, adj.

Moisture, ál, n.f.

Molasses, a lump of gur, 4 seers in weight, bheli, n.f.

Moment, tuk, n.f.; tuk ek, one moment!

Monastery, (1) of Bairagis, astal, n.m., ásan, n.m.; (2) of Jogis, math, n.m.; mat, n.m.

Monday. Somár, n.m.

Money námá, n.m.; cash, rokrá, n.m.

Moneylender, sháh, n.m.

Moneylending, banaj, n.m.

Month, más, n.m. The 12 months are as follows:-

1. March to April, Chet, n.m.

2. April to May, Basákh, n.m.

3. May to June, Jeth, n.m.

4. June to July, Sad, n.m.; Sadh, n.m.

5. July to August, Sáwan, n.m.; Sáman, n.m.

6. August to September, Bháduvá, n.m.

7. September to October, Asauj, n.m., in verse Kunwar, n.m.

8. October to November, Kátak, n.m.

9. November to December, Manghsir, n.m.

10. December to January, Poho, n.m.

11. January to February, Máh, n.m.

12. February to March. Phágan, n.m.

Moon, sis, n.m.

More, jabar, adj.; battí, adv.; bádh, adj.

Morning. See Dawn.

Mortar, (1) See Plaster, (2) the wooden or stone mortar for pounding gram, ukhal, n.m.; or smaller, ukhli, n.f.

Mortgaged, gaihná, adj.

Mosque, maihjad, n.f.

Moth, paibijná, n.m.

Mother-in-law, sás, n.f.; sású, n.f.

Mound, thal, n.m.

Mourning, sog, n.m.; going to a relative's village to condole, múkán, n.m.

Mouse, músá, n.m.

Moustachio'd, múchhal, adj.

Mouth, mukhrá, n.m.

Mouthful, chulá, n.m.

Move, to, hálná. v.n.; sarkáwná, v.a.; to be moved emotionally. uksná, v.n.

Much, ghaná, adj.; ghankhará, adj.; too much, antká, adj.

Mud, kích, n.m.; khánchchá, n.m.; gaighal, n.m.; mud in water.
gadhal, n.f.

Muddy, gádhlá, adj. (of water).

Muzzle, large, chhinká, n.m.; small, chhinkí, n.f., for cattle.

N

Naked, ughárá, adj.

Named. See Called.

Narrow, bhírá, adj.; sakrá, adj.

Nasty, bhúndá, adj. Nature, sabháo, n.m.

Near, lawe, adv.; lámne, adv.; samep, postp.; dhore, postp.—
the last word is the equivalent of the Urdu pás.

Neat, sughar, adj.

Necessity. See Want.

Necklace. See JEWELLERY.

Need. See Want.

Neighbourhood, gohánd, n.m.; gawánd, n.m.

Nephew. See RELATION.

Nerve, nár, n.f. (a nerve).

Nest, (1) of birds, álná, n.m.; (2) of burrowing animals, see Hole.

New. See Unused.

News, bhál, n.f.; tol, n.f.; beaurá, n.m. (= Urdu khabr).

Next, next year, pur ká sál, n.m., or more commonly pur ke, adv.; next year but one, prár ká sál, n.m.

Nice, suthrá, adj.

Niche, álá, n.m.

Niece. See RELATION.

Night, ren, n.f.

Noise, udh, n.f.; udham, n.f.; ṭaṅṭá, n.m.

North, utr, n.m.

Northern, utrá, adj.; utránhá, adj.

Northwards, utránhán, adv.

Nose-ring. See JEWELLERY.

Not, at all, wástá ná, adv.; múl ná, adv.; kimme ná, (lit. nowhere), adv.

Note (of a bird, etc.), bol, n.m.

Notorious, to be, tapná, v.n.

Now, ib, adv.

Nowhere, kimme ná, adv.

0

Oath, sohn, n.f.

Obstacle, ád, n.f.; difficulty, aráns, n.f.

Obstinacy, albád, n.f.

Obstinate, airá, adj.; albádí, adj.; ashtá, adj.; aulá, adj.; árú, adj.

Occasion, bar, n.f. (so many 'occasions').

Occasionally, razá karke, adv. (See Hardly: the term means hardly ever, very rarely); kimme, kimme kimme, adv.

Occurrence, chálá, n.m.

Offspring, jáyá, partic. m.

Oh, re, ri, interj.

Omen, saun, n.m.; sugan, n.m.; omen bird (a shrike), saun chiri, n. f.

On, pe, postp.

Oppression, kaihr, n.m.; chálá, n.m.; julmáná, n.m.

Or, keh, ki, conj.

Ornaments. See JEWELLERY.

Other's, prái, adj.

Outsider, beráná, adj.; outside village, not one's own, pás gámán, n.m.; a man belonging to such, páh kas, n.m.

Outturn nepá, n.m. (of crops).

Oven, hárá, n.m. (for heating milk, etc.)

Overflow, uphán, n.m. (e.g., of milk, boiling up).

Overflow, to, upharná, v.n.; to cause to overflow, uphárná, v.a.

Overtake to, bauhrná, v.n.

Owl, alu. n.m. or f.

Owner, dhaní, n.m.; khasm, n.m.

 \mathbf{P}

Pace, dang, n.m. (a pace).

Pack, gún, n.f. (an animal's).

Pad indhi, n.f. (used by women to support the water-pot on the head).

Paid. to be, páiná, v.n.; ugáhí náhín páií, the revenue was not paid.

Pail. See Milk-pail.

Pain, bedan, n.f.; pír, n.f.; ausak, n.m.; in pain, sick, dukhálá, adj.

Pale, bhúrá, adj. (straw-coloured).

Pandit, pándá, n.m.; pándyá, n.m.; a Brahman other than one's own parohit, employed to do petty services, is ásrat, asratái or tátí sewá, n.m.

Paraphernalia arsan parsan, n.m.; ráchh pochh, n.m., pl.; arangá n.m.; arang barang, n.m. The general meaning of all these terms is that of a collection of miscellaneous properties—generally of small value.

Parent, parent of a worthy son-sapútá, adj.

Part. See Share.

Particle, wástá n.m.; not a particle, wástá ná.

Partition, batej. n.m. (division of anything): of land, batwárá, n.m.

Pass, ulákná, v.a.; to do, to serve, nimbhná, v.n.

Passable. See Satisfactory.

Past, gailrá, adj.

Pasture, aráhá, n.m. (a grass preserve in the middle of cultivated fields).

Pat. See Knead.

Paternal. paternal home, peosál, n.f.

Path, panth, n.m., footpath or track, ráhí, n.f.; batyán, n.f.; footpath between two villages, singáhá, n.m.; path beside a canal patrí or a pakká road, santar or santal, n.m.; path for cattle, dangraulá, n.m.

Patience, santokh, n.m.

Pattens, kharáon, n.m.

Pauper, nirdhaná, n.m.

Peace, ánand n.m.

Peasant, kasán, n.m.

Peck, tholá, n.m. (of a bird's beak, etc.).

Peel, to. See Strip.

Peg. See s. Plough.

Pellet, golá, n.m. (the mud pellet slung by the crop-watcher).

Penetrate, to, barná, v.n.

Penniless, nirdhan, adj.

Penultimate. See Next and Last.

Perceive, to, takná, v.n. (mental).

Perception, gyán, n.m.

Perforce, bebas, adv.; hange, adv.

Persevere, to, mandná, v.n.

Persist, to. See Stick to.

Persistence. See Insistence.

Person, mánas, n.m. and f.

Perverse, aulá, adj. See also Obstinate.

Pestle, with which grain is crushed, musal, n.m.; or smaller musli, nf.

Phenomenon, achraj, n.m. (an unusual occurrence).

Pick, to, khoná, v.a.; of the heads only of a crop, with a sickle, chúníná, v.a.

Picking. See Reaping.

Piece, $t \hat{u} k$, n.m. (especially of a piece of bread).

Pile, to, to heap carefully, chinárná, v.a. (of earth, a pagrí, etc.).

Pilgrimage, ramat, n.f. (of a fakir's wanderings).

Pillar. See Boundary pillar.

Pimple, gúmrí, n.f.

Pine, to, jhirná, v.n.

Piscis, min, s.f., see s.v.

Pitchfork, jeli, n.f., two-pronged j. dosang or j. alone; four-pronged j. chosang, tángli, n.f.

Place, to, láná, v.a. (the Urdu lagáná); lár dená, v.a.

Plain, pádrá, adj. (straight, level, etc.).

Plait (of a girl's hair on the forehead), mendhi, n.f.

Plait, to, gundná, v.a., gundhná, v.a.

Plaster, a heap of earth mixed with water to make mud plaster, tayár, n.m.

Plate, thál, n.m. (a big metal plate); smaller, thálí, n.f.

Platform, from which to scare birds, dámchá, n.m. (the Urdu machán).

Please, to, suháná, v.n., bháná, v.n.; if you please, bháwe or bháwen.

Pleasure, ánand, n.m.

Plenty. Sec abundance.

Plot (of ground). See Field.

PLOUGH, a lighter plough for sowing, nág (hal) or nárí (hal), adj.; in contradistinction to the ordinary heavy baithal (hal) or múdh (hal).

The parts of the plough are as follows:-

The main shaft on which the yoke rides, halas, n.f., or hál, n.f.; the driving handle, hathá, n.m.; the share, phálí, n.f.;

the body to which handle, share, shaft, etc., are fixed, hal, n.m.; the voke, júá, n.m.; strip of wood supporting the share, panihárí, n.f.; wedge rammed under the plough to tighten the share, pachhelá, n.m.: iron band clamping share and supporting wood, andi, n.f.; wooden wedge fixing the halas into the hal, og, n.m.; small peg in halas admitting of adjustment of the voke, naráhlí, n.f.; nadhel, n.f.; small iron peg in bottom of halas which prevents detachment from hal, nesang, n.m.; leather strap joining voke to plough, nárí, n.f.; leather strap passing from voke beneath the bullock's neck, jot, n.m.; pegs in yoke each side of bullock's neck, simal n.f.: sheath or button put on point of share when not in use, purli, n.f.; máni, n.f.; plough rest to support it when driven to the fields, halsan, n.f.; ghíns, n.f.; gandsá, n.m.; bamboo reed drill, orná, n.m.

Plough, ploughed land, báhn, n.m.

Ploughing, báh, n.m.; báhn, n.m.; a light ploughing, khorí, n.f.; second ploughing, dosar, n.m.; third, tisar, n.m.; fourth, chausar, n.m.

Ploughman, hálí, n.m.

Plough-rest Ploughshare See s. Plough.

Pluck, karr, n.f. ("sticking to it").

Plug, to, múndná, v.a. (of a leakage).

Pneumonia, karak, n.f.

Pocket, in a man's coat, gojh, n.f.; in a boy's chádar, gojhá, n.m.

Pod, of gram, with the pea intact, tát, n.f.; ditto, after threshing, tátas, n.f.

Poet, kab, n.m.; kaverá, n.m.

Point, ani, n.f.

Pole, the pole round which the bullocks rotate in threshing. medh, n.f.

Pond, (1) a big village pond, johar, n.m.; (2) smaller, johri, n.f.; (3) a small pond in the jungle, dábrá, n.m., let, n.f.; (4) poetically, sarwar, n.m.

Ponv, ghortá, n.m. (a small pony).

Poor, in quality, bodá, adj; kután, adj. See penniless, etc. Porridge, half-ground wheat, jowár or bájrá, cooked in water, dalvá n.m.

Possession of, in, dhore, postp. (the Urdu pás).

Pot, (1) a large brass pot for water or ghi, tokná, n.m.; smaller, tokní, n.f.; (2) pot for melting ghi, ghilri, n.f.; (3) see also Waterpot, Vessels; (4) a set of earthen pots supplied by kumhárs at marriage, lik, n.f.

Potsherds, thekar, n.m.; by these a roster is determined, so, thekarálá chaukídár, the man whose turn it is to keep

guard.

Pound, to, gúndhná, gúndná, v a.; of flour, osná, v.a.

Pour out, to, ulichhná, v.a.

Power, paunch n.f. (capacity)—merí paunch náhín sai—it is beyond my reach; ásrá, n.m. (power to help) see s.v.

Powerful, mahausim, adj.

Precocious, agetá, adj.

President, pardhán, n.m. (corrupted to dhán in verse).

Press, for sugarcane, cotton, etc., belan n.m.

Press, to, pel dená, v.a. (to press oil, cane, etc.; to urge an animal.

Pretence Pretext mis, n.f.; thúná, n m.

Pretty, sút, adj.; suthrá, adj.; sughar, adj.

Prevention, ád, n.f.

Previous. See Former.

Price, bhá, n.m.

Prick, tholá, n.m. (of anything sharp).

Pride, chatráí, n.f.; maror, n.f.

Prine, khará, adj.

Prince, nirp, n.m.

Principal, mil, n.m. (of money).

Prison, bandí kháná, n m.

Privately, lukmán, adv.

Procured, to be, páiná, va.; beaurá náhín páitá, news cannot be got.

Produce, nepá, n.m. (of crops).

Produced, to be. nipajná, v.n.

Profit, bádhá, n.m. See note on Excess.

Prohibition, bandhej, n.m.

Prong. See Pitchfork.

Prop., !ek. n.f.; cross-sticks supporting front of cart, dahi, n.f.; log of wood supporting it behind, oldlwa, n.m.; prop. to lift the wheel for repairs, gharaunchi, n.f.

Property, dhan, n.m.; land, one's share in a village, biswá, n.m.

Proportionately, hissá sárú, adv.

Prosopis. P. spicigera, jánd, n.m; its fru t, sángar, n.m.

Prosperity, rujnás, n.f. See also Circumstances.

Prosperous, bhágwán, adj.

Prostitute, beswá, n.f.

Proud, to be, nár karná.

Proverb, khissá, n m. (Urdu kissá).

Pull, to, sahárná, v.a.

Punishment, dand, n.m.

Puppy, palúriá, n.m.; katúriá, n.m.; pillá, n.m.; rather older, kutrá, n.m.

Purchase, to See Buy, to.

Pure, khará, adj.

Purse, gánth, n.f.; worn round the waist, nolá, n.m.

Push in, to, goná, v a.; gubbharná, v.a. Put, to, lár dená, v.a. Put down, to, gerná, v.a. Put in, to, ghálná, v.a.; bárná, v.a.

Q

Quarrel, to, uljhná, v.a.

Quarrel, a, rár, n.f.; rásá, n.m.

Quarrelling, bakherá, n.m.; khardú, n.m.;—of a number of persons, muthbher, n.f.

Quarrelsome, kalhárá, adj.; kapattá, adj.; khotá, adj.; árú, adj. Quick. taulá. adj.

Quickly, turt, adv.; taule, adv.

Quiet, bolbálá, adj.

Quilt, saur, n.m.

 \mathbf{R}

Rag. See Shred.

Rain, (1) generic, barkhá, nf.; bharan, nf.; mính, nm.; (2) steady straight rain, kinyá wání, adj. f. (sc. bharká); (3) a few drops, bándá bándí, nf; (4) light rain, enough to wet the clothes, chádar bhíj, n.m., or to wring the clothes, lattá nachor, n.m.; (3) drizzling rain, enough to plough on, dongrá. n m; (6) gool rain, a furrow full, khúd wání, nf.; (7) heavy rain, a field full, kiyárí bhar, n m.; (8) heavy rain, enough to obliterate the field boundaries, daule tor, n m., náke tor, n.m.; (9) heavy enough to wash away higher ridges, dhí tor, n m.; (10) any heavy rain, thádí rau, nf.; (11) drenching rain, coming down in a straight stream, músaldhár, n.m.; (12) general ra n, throughout the countryside, desá bharan, nf; (13) the rains, the four rainy months; chomásá, n.m., chitr máshá, n.m.; (14) winter rains máho h, nf., mathwath, nf.

Rainfall, minh, n.m.

Rajput, Ránghar, n.m.,—the term is rarely applied to Hindus, but is the common name for the Muhammadan Rajput of the district.

Rake, dotrálí, n f; a drag rake for levelling high land, pulled by bullocks, gorí, n.f.; similar but pulled by men, jindrálá, n.m., dikrí, n.f.

Rapeseed, sirsham, n.f.

Rare, chhidá, adj (sparse, few).

Rarely See Occasionally.

Rascally, khotá, adj

Rash skin irritation, kháj, n.f.

Rat, músá, n m.

Rate (price), bhá, n.m.

Rateably, hissá sárú, adv.

Ration, parosá, n m. (the term is used chiefly in weddings—one man's ration or commons).

Ratti, ninety-sixth part of a tola, chirmthi, n.f.

Rattle, to, thanakná, v.n.

Reach. See Power.

Read, to, padhná, v.a.: báchná, v.a.

Reap, to, bádná, v.a. See also Pick.

Reaping, láwní, n.f.; lámní, n.f.; reaping of cotton crops by menials who take a share of the pickings as wages, púi, n.f.

Rebuke, to, dániná, v.a.; dáiná, v.a

Recess. See Cupboard.

Reclining, ádá, adj. (on side, with legs drawn up).

Recognise, to, bachárná, v.a.

Recognition, golán, n f.

Reed, pánní, n.f. (usually of anatherum muricatum, sometimes of saccharum munja).

Refuse, to, nátná, v.n.

Regard, maláhjá, n.m. (Urdu maláhazá).

RELATION. A. Common terms used by either man or woman. father, bábú, pitá, n.m.; mother's sister (elder or younger) mausi, n.f.; mother's sister's husband, mausa, n.m.; father's sister, búá, n.f; father's sister's husband, phuphá, n.m.; father's elder brother, táú, n.m.; father's elder brother's wife, tái, n.f.; father's younger brother, káká, n.m.; father's younger brother's wife, kákí, n.f.; husband's or wife's father's elder brother, tácsrá, n.m.; father-in-law's elder brother's wife, táes, nf.; father-in-law's younger brother, pitasrá, n.m.; father-in-law's younger brother's wife, pitas, n.f.; father-in-law, susrá, n.m.; mother-in-law, sás, sású, n.f.; sister's husband, jíjá, n.m.; sister, jíjí, bebe, n.f. See s.v.; elder brother's wife, bháwaj, or bhábí, n.f., -always addressed as bhábí! younger brother's or son's wife, or any other young wife of the family, bahúríá, n f.; daughter's son, deautá, n.m.; daughter's daughter, deautí, n.f.; son-in-law, jamái, n m.; step-child, gailar, n.m. or f.

B. A man's relations by marriage.

wife's brother's wife, $s\acute{a}lhe$, n.f.; wife's brother's son, $s\acute{a}l\acute{u}t$, n.m.; wi e's sister's husband, $s\acute{a}dh\acute{u}$, n.m.

C. A woman's relations by marriage.

husband's elder brother's wife, jathání, n.f.; husband's younger brother's wife, darání, n.f. (note—two wives hold these relationships to each other whether both husbands are living, or both wives are (after karáo, q.v.) living with the surviving brother); son of husband's elder brother, jethút, n.m.; son of husband's younger brother, derút, n.m.; husband's sister, nanad, n.f.; son of husband's sister, nandút, n.m.

D. Miscellaneous.

relationship of two living wives to each other, aukan saukan, n.f; relation of two men whose children are married to each other, samdi, n.m.; ditto of two women, samdan, n.f.

Relationship, (1) by blood, lagmát, n.m.; (2) by marriage, sák, n.m.

Release, mukat, n.f.

Remarriage, karáo, kráo, n.m. (of a woman).

Remedy, upáo, n.m.

Remembrance, khyás, n.f.

Repair, to, samárná, v.a.; to get repaired, samarwáná, v.a.; of leather things, gathwáná, v.a.

Repaired, to be, samarná, v.n.

Reprove, to, khurkáná, v.a.

Repudiate, nátná, v.n. (to repudiate a promise, go back on one's word).

Reputation, maihmán, n.f. (good).

Residence. See Living.

Respect, pat. n.f.; ádar, n.m.; mán, n.m.

Rest. See Stand, a.

Ret, to. See Steep, to.

Revenue, (1) the Govt. revenue, ugáhí, n.f.; hálá, n.m.; (2) the amount settled on anyone as his share, baith, n f.; (3) anything relating to the land revenue department, kalatrí, adj. (English 'Collector').

Rice, sáthí (red rice).

Rich, one who owns lakhs, lakhiná, adj. See also Wealthy.

Rick. See Stack.

Riddle, gáhá. n.m.

Ridge, (1) ridge between fields to mark the boundary and give access, daul. n.f.; (2) high ridge between fields to hold up rain water, dhi, n.f.

Right, saulá, sabbá, adj. (not left).

Righteousness, sat, n.m.

Ring, circle, kundal, n.m. See also JEWELLERY.

Riot, muthbher, n.f.

Ripening, half-ripe; gaddar, adj.

Rise, to, uksná, v.n.

Road, (1) between villages, broad enough for a cart, gohrí, n.f., gaundí, n.f.; (2) ditto, broad enough for several carts, dagrá, n.m., gohar, n.m., rástá, n.m., gaundá, n.m.; (3) high road, sarrak, n.f.; (4) see Path.

Rob, to har lená, v.a.

Robber, dhárí, n.m.—The Lyallpur colony is here known as Dulá dhárí ká bár.

Role, to, dhalná, v.n.

Roll, to, rolná, v.a., see also Harrow.

Root, múl, n.m., 'root and stock' jar-o-múl.

Rope, (1) twisted strands of saní, dáb, munj, etc., ghúndí, n.f.; (2) the rope of the country, made by twisting two ghúndí's together, jeaurí or jewrí, n.f.; (3) stronger rope, of three ghúndí's, jeaurá, n.m.; (4) strong rope made by twisting three jeaurí's together and used for netting sides and floor of a cart, barrí, n.f.; (5) well rope, láo, n.f. See Well Gear.

Roster. See Potsherd and Turn.

Rotation, rotation of crops, cultivating alternately wet and dry, sál palat, adj.; hirtí phirtí, n.f.; in rotation, hirtí phirtí, adv.

Rough, khar, adj.

Rub, to, ghisáná, v.a.

Rubbish. See Paraphernalia.

Ruin, totá, n.m.

Run, to, naurná, v.n.; bhájná, v.n.; to hurry go quickly, bhájná, silak jáná, v.n.; to run away, slip off, chimá jáná, v.n.; to overtake, bauhrná, v.n.

Runnel, (1) of a well, barrá, n.m., khál, n.m.; (2) to earry off water from the village, khál, n.m.; (3) to earry water from the waste to the fields, ágam, n.m.; (4) for canal runnels, see Watercourse.

Rush. See Reed.

Rust, on wheat roli, n.f. See Blight.

Rut, lik. n.f.: liká, n.f.; ákhli, n.f.

S

Sack, (1) as carried by donkeys, etc., $g\acute{u}n$, n.f.; (2) the large round canvas sack in which grain is stored in a house, theká n.m.

Safety, tek, n.f.

Saffron, kesar, n.f.

Saint, sant, n m.

Saline, a patch of saline soil in a field, ran, n.m. This is distinct from 'shor' for it does not look white. See also Sour.

Salutation, (1) amongst common folk, $R\acute{a}m\ R\acute{a}m!$ (2) amongst Arya Samajists, Namaste! (3) to Brahmans, $D\acute{a}d\acute{a}!$ (4) to Gosains, $Namo\ N\acute{a}r\acute{a}yan!$ (5) to Bairagis, $Da\acute{n}dot!$ (6) to Jogis, Udes!

Salvador 1, S. oleoides, $j\acute{a}l$, n m. or f. (m. if large, and f. if small). Its fruit is $p\acute{i}l$, n.f. or $p\acute{i}l\acute{u}$, n.f. pl., S. persica is $kharj\acute{a}l$.

Salvation, mukat, n f.

Sand, (1) sandy soil, bhúd, bhúr, n m.; (2) sand hill, thali, n.f., $tib\acute{a}$, n.m.; (3) sand encountered in sinking a well, $b\acute{a}l\acute{u}$ ret, n.m., $barr\acute{a}$, n.m., $barr\acute{a}$, n.f.; (4) sand that rises in a well from spring level, bukh, n.f.

Satiated, to be, chhikná, v.n.

Satisfactory, chokhá, adj.

Satisfied. to be, chhikná, v.a., dhápná, v.n.; to be satisfied with anything (who. is the object of the verb), sárná, v.a.

Saturday, Tháwar, n.f.; Saníshchar, n.m. (a form of the common word used by more literate persons)

Saucepan, a big iron one for cooking sweets, etc., taslá, n.m.

Scales, tákrí, n.f. (for weighing).

Scarce, chhídá, adj.; mandá. adj.

Scarcely See Hardly.

Scarcity, torá, n.m.

Scarecrow, daráwá, n.m.

Scarlet, lákhá, adj.

Scatter, to, khindáná, v.a.—to scatter broadcast, as seed, or largess at a wedding, bakherná, v.a.

Scattered, to be, bikharná, v.n.

Scattered. See Directions (different).

Scraping, sark, n.f. (of a pen, e.g.).

Scratch, khori, n.f.

Scratching. See Scraping.

Screen, (1) of wattled cotton stalks round a sugar press, tátá, n.m.; (2) screening wall round a cattle-yard, otrá, n.m.; (3) see also Shade.

Search, toh, n.f.

Search for, to, tohná, v.a.

Season, $k\acute{a}l$, n.m.; sambat, n.m.; a famine season, famine, $k\acute{a}l$, n.m. (corr. from $ak\acute{a}l$); a good season, $sam\acute{a}$, n.m., sambat, n.m.; a middling season (e.g. when the yield of fodder is good though grain is poor) $korb\acute{a}$, n.m. The year is divided into three seasons; of four cold months, $j\acute{a}l\acute{a}$, n.m.; of four hot months, $khars\acute{a}$, n.m.: of four rainy months, $chom\acute{a}s\acute{a}$, n.m., $chitrm\acute{a}sh\acute{a}$, n.m.

Secretly, lukmán, adv.

Seduce, to, ubhárná, v.a.

See! re, ri, interj.

Selfsown, ráná, adj.; ark, adj.

Send, to, khindáná, v.a. (of a girl to her husband's house), ghálná (to send, send away).

Sense. See Intelligence—one's senses, mat, n.f.

Sensible, súá, adj.

Sentry. See Guard.

Separate, nyárá, adj.; individual, not joint, naukrá. adj.

Serve, to, to pass, do, nimbhná, v.n.

Service, kár begár, n.m (the work of menials).

Settle, to, thápná, v.a. (to fix a price, a date, etc.); metná, v.a. (to compose a quarrel).

Settled, to be, nimbarná, v.n. (of quarrel, etc.).

Settlement, bandhej, n.m. See also Decision.

Settler, a settler in a village who owns no land or share of the estate, sukhbásí, n.m.

Severe, karrá, adj. (all senses of Urdu sakht). See also Hard.

Sewing, satakan, n.f.

Shade, chhawa, n.m., ot, n.f.—it is hidden by that acacia, = 'us kikar ki ot men sai.'

Shake, to, hálná, v n.

Shameless, bardangi, adj.

Shape, kaindá, n.m.

Share, sír, n m.; sájhá, n.m.—a share in a village (which was originally divided on 20 biswáhs) and so one's property, biswá, n.m.; part of a village, or of the crop made at division of produce, kúdhá, n.m.; of a plough, see s.v.

Sharer, sájhí, n.m.; jí ká sájhí, n.m. (a labourer who divides the crop as his guerdon), sír, n.m.; half sharer, adhkárí, n.m.; adhkáran, n.f.

Sharp, painná, adj. (of wind, taste, tongue, knife, etc.), sharp-sighted, salaukhá, adj.

Shave, to, bál samárná, v.a.; to be shaved, bál samarná, v.n.; to get oneself shaved, bál samarwáná, v.a.

Shaven, múndá, adj.

Shawl, woman's head covering, orhná or odhná, n.m.; a small girl's is lugri, n.f. The piece of red cloth worked in crewels, which often ornaments the front of the orhná, is chhámá, n.m.; a shawl worked at one end is ekanyá, and at both ends dokanyá, n.m. For the silver ornamentation, see s. Jewellery.

Sheath, of a ploughshare, see s.v.

Shed. See Cattle-shed.

Sheet, a coarse sheet placed in a cart before loading grain, kharr, n.m.

Shelf, a wooden shelf on wall like a gharaunchi, (q.v.) for holding pots, paihndi, n.f.

Shell, kaudí, n.f. (as kaurí).

Sherd. See Potsherd.

Shield, dhál, n.f.

Shirt. See Vest.

Shiver, to, tharná, v.n.

Shoeing, parhái, n.f. (the work of the chamár who provides all the family with shoes when wanted).

Shoes, pátan, n.f.

Shoot, young shoots of sarson used for human food, gándal, n.f.

Shop, hát, n.f.

Shorn. See Shave, Shaven.

Shout, to, kúkná, v.a.; lalkárná, v.n.

Shower, minh, n.m.

Shreds, torn cloth, lirá, n.m.; in shreds, torn to bits, liram lir, adv.

Shrew, kalhárí, n.f.; kapattí, n.f. See Quarrelsome.

Shrine, to any deity, thán, n.m., e.g., mátá ká thán; the shrine of the tutelary deity of a village is bhaiyán, n.m.—and of a Mussalman one sayad, n.m. (corruption from shahid).

Shrink, to, dhisalná, v.n., kantáná, v.n.; of cloth, etc., sukarná, v.n.

Shrub, bojhrá, n.m.

Shut, to, ihánpná, v.a.

Shy, to, pharakná, v.n. See also Fear, to.

Sick. See Ill.

Sickness. See Illness.

Sidepost (of doorway), $b\acute{a}\jmath\acute{u}$, n.m.

Sift, to, rolná, v.a. (by rubbing with the hands).

Sight. See Evesight.

Sill, dehl, n.f.

Simmering, jharak, n.m. (noise made by simmering milk).

Simple, súdhá, adi.

Simpleton, nimáná n.m.

Sister, (1) of actual sister or near cousin, jiji, n.f.; (2) of any unmarried girl of the village, bebe, n.f.

Sister-in-law. See RELATION.

Sister-in-law's husband. See RELATION.

Size, kaindá, n.m.

Skin, chám, n.m., of man, also, bakal, n.m.

Skinning-ground, hadwárá, n.m. (animals are skinned here and the bones left to bleach).

Sky, ambar, n.m.

Skylight, chaunk, n m. See also Ventilator.

Sling, gopiyá, n.m. gofiá, n.m. (used by crop-watcher).

Slip, to, repatná, v.n.; thalsná, v.n.

Slip off, to, chimá jáná, v.n. (to give the slip).

Slough khánchchá, n.m.; gaighal, n.m.

Slow. mathá, adj.; sahj, adj.

Slowly, dhalke, adv. See s.v.; dhímá, adv.; jhímá, adv. Sluggish, mathá, adj.; nestar, adj.

Small, ochhá, adj.; kután, adj.

Smell, báns, n.f. (bad smell).

Smooth, to, rolná, v.a.

Snake, nág, n.f.; sarp, n.m.; big snake, básak, n.m. Sec s.v.

Snatch, to, khosná, v.a.

So. See Thus.

So and so, fláná, adj. and pron.; fláná dhínkrá, adj. and pron.

Soak, to. See Steep, to.

Society, sabhá, n.f.

Soft, satuddá, adj.

Soil. See Earth. Land.

Solitary, nang malang, n.m. (of a man who has no family of his own).

Some, kim, adj.

Sometimes, kimme, adv.; kibbe, adv.

Son, putrang, n.m. (poetical).

Son-in-law. See RELATION.

Sonless. See Childless. The sonless dead, often propitiated as inimical, gyál, n.m.

Soothe, to, puchkárná, v.a. (to soothe, coax an animal).

Sour, kárá kár, adj. (of soil).

South, dakhan, n.m.

Southern, dakhnánhá, adj.; dakhshní, adj. See s.v.

Southwards, dakhnán, adv.

Sow, surí, n.f.

Sowing, berá, n.m.; bowárá, n.m.; sowing after one ploughing only, pár, n.m.

Spade, phálá, n.m., kassí, n.f. (a cross between a spade and a mattock).

Spare, moklá, adj. (superfluous).

Sparse, birlá, adj.; chhídá, adj. See Rare.

Spear, sel, n.f.

Speech, bachan, n.m.

Spill, to, dhalná, v.n.

SPINNING WHEEL, charkhá, n.m. Its principal parts are as follows: the flanges of the wheels, phángri, n.f.; the handle, hathli, n.f.; the three strips of wood forming the base. pátri, n.f.; the two uprights in which the hub is fixed by an iron pivot khúntá, n.m.; the hub, píndá, n m.; threads of human hair stretched criss-cross from wheel to wheel, jandni, n.f.; the iron spindle, taku, n.m.; the two uprights, supporting the spindle, qudri, n.f.; cotton thread strengthened with ak juice that rotates the spindle, mal, n.f.: two thin upright sticks between the gudris to prevent the mál riding too far to right or left, bhanung, n.f.; pegs of grass or hemp through each gudri on which the spindle rides, charmakh, n.f.; a cotton pad bound on the spindle to ease friction on the mál, pínd, n.f.; leather pad which prevents the spindle shifting too far when the thread is spun, kákrá. n.m. or damrakhá, n.m; peg by which the handle is worked. gherni, n.f.; iron pivot, belan, n f.; iron bands, or clamps, round the hub, andi n.f.

Spirit, dárú, n.f. (potable).

Spitting, phik, n.f.

Split, to, párná, v.a.

Spoil, to, dob dená, v.a.; khoná, v.a.

Spoils, khatyá, past part. See s.v.

Spoon, palta, n.m. (of iron, for turning the sweets in the sauce-pan).

Spot, 'on the spot.' See Exactly.

Spring, (1) spring harvest sádhú, n.f.; (2) spring of a tiger, etc., with claws, hathwár, n.f.

Spring forth, to, úbná, v.n.

Squash, to, pírná (of cane), v.a.

Squasher, piríá, n.m. (see above).

Squeezed, to be, sukarná, v.n.

Stable, padár, adj.

Stack, (1) a small stack of millet sheaves, chhauri, n.f.; (2) a large stack or rick of ditto, chhaur, n.m.; (3) small circular stack of any straw that is beaten fine in the threshing, búngá, n.m. kúp, n.m.; (4) small stack of sheaves standing in the fields, súá, n.m.

Staircase, of masonry or mud, to the roof, parkálá, n.m.

Stalk () of gowár, gúná, n.m.; (2) of múng, moth, urd, etc., before the pods and leaves are shaken off, dánthlí, n.m.; (3) of gram and often of other pulse, dánká, n.m.; (4) as (2) and (3), after pods and leaves are shaken off, jhorá, n.m.; (5) of cotton, banshí, banasií, banshí, n.f.

Stand, for propping cart wheels, holding water-pots, etc., ghar-aunchi. n.f. See also under Plough and Prop.

Standing, khalá, adj. (the ordinary khará is also in use), poet., kharyá, adj.

Star, tárá, n.m.

Stare, to. See Gaze, to.

Starling (1) tiliar of Panjab, gohlyá. n.m.; (2) myainá of Panjab, kábar, n.f.

Stay, to. See Halt and Hinder.

Steadily, dhalke, adv. See s.v.

Steal, to, ubhárná, v.a.

Steep, to, of hemp, etc., paur sár rakhná, v.a.

Steeping, of hemp and other fibres, paur, n.m.

Stench, báns, n.f.

Step. See Pace.

Step-child, gailar, n.m. or f. (a woman's child by previous husband).

Stick. See Twig.

Stick to, to, mandná, v.n. (of work).

Sticking to it, karr, n.m.

Stiff. See Hard.

Stile, dewá, n.m. across a ditch, allowing men but not cattle to pass).

Stirred, to be, uksná, v.n. (emotionally); to be stirred up, of a noise, of mind, etc., máchná, v.n.

Stock, púnjí, n.f. (stock-in-trade).

Stoke, to, jhokná, v.a.

Stoker, jhoká, n.m.; jhokanálá, n.m.

Stood. See Standing.

Stool (1) a woman's low stool, chiefly used for spinning, pidhá, n m.: (2) a small three legged stool (tipái) tiwái, n.f.; (3) the winnower's stool, tiwáyá, n m.

Stop, to, thamná, v.n.; dátná, v.a.; dántná, v.a.; thámná. v.a.

See also Halt, Hinder.

Stop up, to. See Plug, to.

Stork, labdhírk. n.m.; girj, n.m.

Story, khissá. n.m. (Urdu kissá).

Straight, pádrá, adj.

Strained, to be, chanak áná, v.n. (of a muscle).

Strand. See Twist.

Strap, of leather, passing from yoke under bullock's neck, jot, n.m.; ditto, joining yoke to plough, nárí, n.f.

Straw (1) chopped straw for fodder, $s\acute{a}n\acute{i}$, n.f.; (2) rice straw, $par\acute{a}l$, n.f.; (3) barley straw, $solhr\acute{a}$, n.m. (usually in bulk and not when crushed); (4) of wheat, barley, $gochn\acute{i}$, etc.. crushed, $t\acute{u}r\acute{a}$, n.m.; (5) broken straw of $gow\acute{a}r$, $g\acute{u}n\acute{a}$, n.m.

Streak, rekh, n.f.

Strength, ásang, n.f. (Urdu himmat—endeavour, courage); force hangá, n.m.

Strict. See Hard.

Strip. See Band.

Strip, to, chholná v.a.

Strong, chaukas, adj.; fine, sámthá, adj.; powerful, thádá, adj. Stubble, pháns, n.m. (after crop is cut).

Stupid, anárí, adj.

Subdivision, of village—(1) major; usually, páná, n.m. and in Rohtak, Mehm, etc., her, n.m.; (2) minor; usually tholá, n.m., and less commonly, thok, n.f., dhong, n.f., zail, n.f.

Submit, to, nyaunná, v.n. Subscriber. See s. Marriage.

Subscription, úq, n.f., uqáhí, n.f. See also Marriage.

Succeed to, pugná v.n. See s.v.

Such and such. See So and so.

Such as, kesá, adj.

Suddenly, gaddesi, adv.

Suffer, to, bhogná, v.a.

Suffice, to, samáná, v.n.

Sugar, búrá, n.m. (cleaned).

Sugar Press, kolu, kolhú, n.m.; the actual machine is belan, n.m.; the screen of wattled cotton stalks is tátá, n.m.; the ground where the carts stand and the canes are laid is pasárá, n.m.; the cauldrons are karáhá, n.m.; the vessel in which the juice is collected, kínd, n.f.; the vessel in which the molasses are cooled is chák, n.m.; the masonry work between the karáhá and chák is cháthá, n.m.; the crushed cane used for fuel is khoí, n.f.; the frame on which it is carried is mánjhí or máchí, n.f.; the man who feeds the press is múthiyá, n.m.; the stoker is jhoká, or jhokanálá; the first washings of the cauldron after the juice has been boiled (the perquisite of the stoker) are dhandhoí, n.f.

Suit, to, bháná, v.n.

Suitable, jogamjog adj.

Summit, sikhar, n.m.; sikharant, n.m.

Summoning, See Calling.

Sun din, n.m.; bhán, n.m. (súraj, n.m. or f. is also used).

Sunday, bár, n.m.

Sunshine, ghám, n.m.; winter sunshine, tauthá, n.m.

Superfluous. See Spare.

Surely, netham, adv.

Surety. See Bail.

Surplus, bádhá, n.m.; badháú, adj.

Survey, to. See Gaze, to; Measure, to.

Surveyor. See Chainman.

Suspicion, sinkhyá, n.f.

Swaggering, maror, n.f.

Sweetness, mithán, n.m. or f.

Sweets, khájá, n.m.

Swift a swift canal, sitko, n.f.

Switch. See Twig.

\mathbf{T}

Taboo, anything avoided or foresworn, án, n.f.; dárú kí án sai = wine is foresworn.

Tail docked, lándá, adj. (t-docked, cropped, or short; tailless). Tailor, sínyá, n.m. By caste, chhípí, n.m., chhípan, n.f. (the caste are also die stampers).

Take off, to, láhná, v.a.

Take out, to, kádhná, v.a.

Tale. See Story.

Talk, bachan, n.m.

Talk, to, batláná, v.n. (not, as in Urdu, to tell or explain).

Talking, bátí, n.f.

Tank. See Pond. Tantalise, to, larsáná, v.a.

Tardily, audbar, adv.

Taunt, ohlná, n.m.

Tax trál, n.m. (a tax levied by the village community on merchants and craftsmen living in the village, and so distinct from the common kúdhí kamíní, though levied in the same way), quære corruption of ahtráj?

Teaching, sikh, n.f.

Tear, to, párná, v.a.

Tease, to, tarsáná, v.a.

Teat. See Udder.

Temper, sabháo, n.m.

Temple, mandh or madh, n.m. (of Devi). See also Shrine.

Ten, dainh, adj.

Tenant, (1) one whose rights as occupancy tenants are based on clearance of the jungle, jhúndí tor, n.m.; (2) tenant at will with no stake in the village beyond his tenancy, bowó kháná, n.m.

Termagant, kalhárí, n.f.

Test, to, parkhná, v.a.

Thatch, (1) a thatched roof, chhán, n.f., osárá, n.m.; (2) a thatch coping to walls used where the soil is light and the walls liable to damage from rain, parchhí, n.f.; (3) thatching grass (top leaves of cane, sar, or pání grass) púlá, n.m.

Then, $ji\bar{b}$ (corr. adv.).

There, ut, adv., úre, adv.

Thick, thádá, adj.

Thigh, sánthal, n.f.

Thin, jhíná, adj.

Thing, chij, n f.

Think, to, bachárná, v.a. or n.; to think to oneself, takná, v.n.

Thinking. bichár, n.m.

Thirst, tis, n.f.

Thirsty, tisáyá, adj.

Thither, aun, adv., ut, adv.

Thong, nárí, n.f. (of leather).

Thorn, sál, n.f. (long thorn of kíkar, or raunj), a thorn plant, kandáí, n.f.; argemone mexicana, kandáí satyánásan; solanum xanthocarpun, kandáí pasarmá. Sce also Camelthorn.

Thorough, nikand, adj. (of ploughing, etc.).

Thought, dhyán, n.m.; gyán, n.m.; khyás, n.f.

Thousand, sansar or sahansar, adj. See s.v.

Thread, cotton thread, pát, n.m.; the bundle of thread spun from the spindle, kukri, n.f.

Three, three days hence, parle din, n.m.

Threshing, (1) a heap of wheat, barley, or gowár ready for threshing, kúndrá, n m; (2) ditto of gram, khalí, n.f.; (3) ditto of bájrá or jowár, ikaurá, n.m.; (4) a heap of grain threshed, but not winnowed, kúdhá, n.m.; (5) a heap of grain threshed and winnowed, rás, n.f.; (6) threshing by drawing a heavy weight yoked to a pair of bullocks over the crop, phulsí, n.f.; (7) ditto with two or three pairs of bullocks, gáhtá, n.m.; (1) threshing floor, pair, n.m.; (9) pole round which bullocks go, medh, n.f.

Threshold (of doorway), dehl, n.f.

Thrifty, salwanti, adj. f., sughr, adj.

Throat, kanthan, n.m.; ghiti, n.f.

Throw away, to } gerná, v.a.

Thrust in, to, goná, v.a., ghálná, v.a., gubbharná, v.a.

Thud, gad, n.f.

Thunder, galná, v.n., gharráná, v.n., dhúrná, v.n., dharúkná. v.n.—in Sáwan only, gharúkná, v.n.

Thursday, brihaspat, n.f.

Thus, nyún, adv. (of anything indicated, this way, so, etc.).

Tidy up, to See Clear up.

Tight, sakrá, adj.

Till, lug, postp.

Time, kál, n.m., samá, n.m. (see s.v.), hán, n.f. bakat, n.m. See also Occasion. Time is calculated as follows:—

lst watch (of 3 hours each) kallewár, n.f.; 2nd dopahrá, n.m.; 3rd din dhalen n.m., din dhalá, n.m., tísrá pahr, n.m.; 4th din chhip gayá—chauthá pahr, n.m.; 5th pahr rát, n.f., pánchwán pahr, n.m.; 6th ádhí rát, n.f., chhatá pahr, n.m.; 7th pahr ká tarká, n.m., sátwán pahr, n.m.; 8th din nikal rahná, áthwán pahr, n.m. About 12 to 2 A.M. is ádhí dhalen; one hour before sunrise, píle bádal, n.m.; about 4 to 6 P.M., handíwár, n.f.; just after sunset, gandholak, n.m.; lamplighting or evening meal time, dívá bale, n.m., rotiyán ká bakat, n.m., ghás túk ká bakat, n.m.

Tinkle, to, thanakná, v.n.

Together, kthaure, adj. pl.

Toil. See Labour.

Toil, to, pachhná, v.n.

Tongue, jib, n.f., poet, jibá.

Too, nipat, adv. and adj.

Tools, a collection of tools, etc., miscellaneous articles taken together, ráchh pochh, n.m. pl.

Top. See Summit.

Torn. See Shreds.

Touch. chho n.m.

Towards, sohin, postp.

Townsfolk, nagri, adj.

Trace, wástá. n.m., not a trace, wás á ná.

Track, lik, n.f., liká, n.f. See Path.

Tract, khand, n.m.

Trade, banak, n m., basáoní, n.f.

Tra n, gádi, n.f.

Training. See Learning.

Tranquillity, ánand, n.m.

Travel, bát, n.f.

Traveller. bajeau, n.m.

Travelling, hánd, n.f.

Tree, birwá, n.m.; rúkh, n.m., a large full-grown tree, birchh, n.m.

Trench, khadá, n.m., a shallow trench to carry water from jungle to fields, ágam, n.m.

Trickle, dhalná, v.n.

Tricks, akar makar. n.m.

Triumphant, mangal, adj.

Trouble, kalá, n.f., trás, n.m., janjál, n.m., phains, n.f., khárá, n.m., making trouble, tantá, n.m.

Trough, of well, into which the bucket is emptied, párchhá, n.m.; that at which the cattle water, khel, n.f.

Trousers, suthan, n.f. (a woman's).

Trunk, ped, pedá, n.m. (of tree).

Try, to. parkhná, v.a. (to test).

Tumbler, bakhaurá, n.m. (of metal).

Turban, (1) of younger persons, págrí, n.f.; (2) coloured one used by young 'bloods,' chírá, n.m.; (3) twisted one of older persons, khandwá, n.m.

Turn, bár. n.f.; vár, n.m.; osrá, n.m.; thekar. n.m. See 'pot-

sherds,' 'rotation.'

Turn round, to $morn\acute{a}$, v.n. and a.

Turned over, múndá, adj.

Twig. (1) large, used as whip, kámrá n.m.; (2) smaller ditto, kámrí, n.f., kámchí, n.f.; (3) twig of kíkar, jánd and raunj, lúng, n.m.

Twist, (1) a single twist in rope-making, lar, n.m., so dolar, tilar of double, and triple twist; (2) a twist of rope, bant, n.m., bal, n.m.; (3) a twisted strand of sani, dáb or munj is ghundí, n.f.; (4) see also Whisp.

Twisting, maror, n.f.

Two-pronged, dosang, adj.

Tyranny. See Oppression.

U

Udder, of cow or similar animal, aurá n.m.; of smaller animals, aurí, n.f.

Uncle, See RELATION.

Undergo, to, bhogná, v.a.

Undertake, to, oiná, v.a.

Unemployed, thálí, adj.; ulgá, adj. (Urdu alag).

Uneven, aulá saulá adj., ákar, adj.—of a crop birlá, adj.

Unfilial, kapút, n.m. See s.v.

Unfortunate, nigorá or nigodá or nigodá, adj.

Ungrateful, nugrá, adj. Unguarded, chaupat, adj.

Uninhabited, nadárad kúdhí, n.f. (a deserted house).

Uninvited, angherá—angherá áyá=he came unasked, angherá bachhá=a waif.

Unirrigated. See LAND.

Unnecessary, ushtand, n.m. (unnecessary activity, etc.).

Unrestrained, bebas, adj. (usually of animal beyond control).

Unsavoured lúkhá, adj. (e.g., dry bread, lúkhí roti): cf.

Unseasoned, J Urdu rúkhá.

Until. See Till.

Untruthfulness. See Lying.

Unused, korá, adj. (of blank, unused paper).

Unworthy, of a son, kapút, n.m.

Upon, pe, postp.

Uppish, ushtandí, n.m.

Upright, súdhá, adj.

Uproar. See Noise.

Upside down, múndá, adj.

Up to, lug, postp. (of time and place).

Urge, to. See Press, to.

Urine, heat in urine, chinghwá, n.m.

Useless, neáú, adj.; nirsá, adj.; áth ná sáth, adj. See Bad; anything useless or beyond one's capacity, ilhán, n.f.

Uselessly, saihm, adv.

v

Vegetable, (1) a small plot of vegetables, palej or phalej, n.m.; (2) cooked vegetables or lentils, lán, n.m.; (3) vegetables generally, bhájí, n.f.; (4) vegetable selling tribe, and vegetable sellers generally, kúnjrá, n.m.

Veil, (1) woman's head-covering, orhná, n.m. See under Shawl; (2) fringe or ornament covering the forehead, ghunghat, n.m.; (3) tinsel veil worn by the bride, maurí, n.f.

Ventilator, (1) large ventilators in the roof of zamindárs' houses, jhánkhá, n.m., chaunk, n.m.; (2) small hole in the roof for smoke to escape, mokh, n.m. (sometimes, as in Panjah, mogh).

Verandah, sál, n.f.

Verse, dohá, n.m.

Very, uspat, adj. and adv.; ghankhare, adj. pl.

Vessel, (1) earthen vessel, básan, n.m.; (2) metal vessel, kásan, n.m.; (3) broken vessels of either kind, dhobrá, n.m.; (4) a set of earthen vessels supplied by the potter at a wedding, lik, n.f.

Vest, the vest or shirt worn by zamindars, kamri, n.f.

Vicinity. See Neighbourhood.

Vigorous, dhárí, adj.

Village, gám, n.m.; a small village, gámrí, n.f., májrá, n.m. See also Hamlet; an outside village other than one's own, pas-yámán, n.m.

Villager. gowar, n.m.

Violently, gaddesi, adv.

Virtue, gun, n.m.

Visit. meht, n.f.

Vitex v. negundo, shimálú, n.m. (the banná of the Panjab: used in fomentations and poultices, and popularly supposed to thrive in villages with masculine names, and not in those of a feminine form).

Voice, bol, n.m.

W

Wage-earner. See Labourer.

Waif, pálputr, n.m. (a waif brought up in one's own home) angherá bachhá, n.m.

Waistband, tágrí, n.f. (a silver chain usually worn by boys and lads).

Wall, bhínt, n.f.

Wander, to, hándná, v.n., ramná, v.n.

Wandering, ramat, n.f. (of Fakirs).

Want, phik, n.f.; lor, n.f.; rind, n.f.; bisar, n.m.; scarcity, torá, n.m. See also Absence.

War, judh, n.m.

Warm, tát, adj.

Washed, to have dhawáná, v.a.

Wasp, bhirr, n.f.

Watch, pahrá, n.m., keeping guard at night, soásáí, n.f.; crop watching, rakhwál, n.f.; a watch of the day or night. See TIME.

Watchman, pahrú, n.m.

Water, nir, n.m. (especially in the eyes).

Water, to, nírná, v.a. (of animals).

Water-carrier (1) a woman carrying for her own house, panhar, n.f.; (2) paid to carry for others, panhari, n.f.

Water-clock, a bowl with a hole in the bottom, kacholi, n.f., which is set in a jhákrá, n.m.

Watercourse, a broad watercourse, foremost minor distributary, but smaller than rájbáhá. khilásí, n.f.; (2) the main distributary beyond the outlet or mori, khánd, n.f., daháná, n.m.; (3) a small distributary in the fields, pánkhi. n.f. The above terms apply to canal irrigation. For wells see Runnel.

Watering, (1) preliminary watering before sowing, paleo, n.f.; (2) first watering after sowing, kor, n.m.; (3) next, dúsrá pání, tísrá pání, and so on.

Waterpot, (1) ordinary earthen waterpot is $matk\acute{a}$, n.m.; (2) ditto big, with a wide mouth, $jh\acute{a}kr\acute{a}$, n.m.; (3) any large earthen waterpot, $patnd\acute{a}$, n.m. See also Vessel, and Pot.

Wattle. See Screen.

Wattlings, (1) cotton stalk wattling at side of cart for loading manure, etc., kirá, n.m.; (2) rope (barrí) wattling at sides of cart, dhaunj, n.m.; (3) wattling in floor of cart, of dhadhain, sar, etc., chhában, n.m.

Way (custom, means), bidh, n.f.; ravaiyá, n.m.; dhál, n.m.; the right method, sár, n.f. See also Habit.

Weak, híná, adj.; napoj, adj. (feeble); poor in quality, bodá adj.; márá, adj.

Wealth, kanchan, n.m., lakhshmí, n.f. (see s.v.), dhan, n.m.

Wealthy. bhágwán, adj., dhaní, adj. Gradations may be expressed by saupatí hazárpatí, lákhpatí, adj.—worth a hundred, a thousand or a lakh.

Weather. See Season.

Weaver-bird, baiyá, n.m. (ploceeus baiyá).

Wedge. See PLOUGH.

Weed, to, nalauná, v.a.

Weeded, to be, nalná, v.a.

Weeds, arangá, n.m.

Weights, bát, n.m. (for scales).

Well. (1) drinking well, panghat, n.m.; (2) for watering cattle, pîhî ká kúná; (3) an unlined well, fallen in, jherá, n.m.; (4) a shallow hole, dug in the ground for drinking, niáman, n.m. (the word seems to belong to the south of the district); (5) generally, kúá or kúná, n.m.; (6) the principal parts of a well are (a) collective name for superstructure of a well, dháná, n.m.—consisting of (b) stone slab on which the well bucket is emptied sil. n.f : (c) cross beam or stone across the mouth of well on which the superstructure is raised, dehli, n.f.; (d) two uprights at each end of above, on which the beam supporting the wheel is fixed, otá, n.m., otrá, n.m.; (e) horizontal beam on above, pát, n.m.; (f) two small uprights resting on above in which the axle tree of well wheel is fixed, guddi. n.f.; (q) the well wheel, bhaun, n.m. (of a drinking well, bhauni, n.f.) and (h) the axle tree of the wheel, dhurá, n.m., kaná, n.m.; (i) the yoke, collectively, júr, n.m., consisting of (i) upper wooden bar, júá, n.m.; (k) lower wooden bar parallel to above, taloti, n.f.; (l) ropes joining these two at extremities, nánglá n.m.; (m) battens across the júá and talotí, gatá, n.m., or covered with leather, chamgatá, n.m., and (n) rope on the júá into which the láo is fixed, nándní, n.f.; (o) the well rope, láo, n.f. or in drinking well, nejú, n.f.; (p) the twisted end of the láo into which a peg fits and joins it to the $n\acute{a}n\acute{d}n\acute{i}$, $p\acute{u}n\acute{j}r\acute{i}$, n.f.; (q) the block to which the láo is fastened, karkú, n.m., bhirrá, n.m.; (r) two iron rings which join the block and the next following item, bali, n.f.; (s) cross iron bars over the ring of the bucket, bouji, n.f.; (t) the iron ring to which the bucket is attached, mandal, n.m.; (u) the well bucket. chars, n.f.; (v) a wooden bar, leather covered, making a lip to prevent the water tilting back into the well when the bucket is put down full, gátá, n.m.; (w) the slope down which the bullocks pull, gaun, n.f., at the top of which, mará, n.m., they are voked.

Note.—These terms are liable to variation in different parts of the district, and are markedly different among the ahir-

vátí speaking people of the kachchá well tract.

Well-behaved, súdhá, adj.

Well-finished, kámal, adj. (Urdu pakká).

Well-living, lárá, adj.

Well-sinking, a system of, under which one's friends and neighbours contribute their labour in return for feasting, pasárá, n.m.

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Well-wisher, sajjan, n.m.

West, pachham, n.m.; átham, n.m.; áthman, n.m.

Western, áthamaná, adj.; pachháyán, adj.

Westwards, áthmanán, adj.; pachháhen, adj.

Wet. See Moist, Moisture-newly watered, gargarí, adj.

Wet, to become, bhíjná, v.n.

What? ke, pron.

Wheat, $geh\hat{u}\dot{n}$, n.m., cake of wheat bread, $phulk\acute{a}$, n.m.; $ma\dot{n}d\acute{a}$, n.m.; wheat-rust, $rol\acute{i}$, n.f.

Wheel, paiyán, n.m.

Wheeler, dhori, n.f. (of wheeler pair of bullocks in a cart).

When, interrogative, kad, adv.; relative, jib, adv.

Where? kare, (interrog.), adv.

Whether, bháwe, bháwen, conj.

Whip. See Goad.

Whisp, a twist of several cane tops used to bind a sheaf of canes, jun, n.m.

White, dhaulá, adj.; sufet, adj.; pale, or straw-coloured, bhúrá, adj.

Whither? kit, adv.; kare, adv.; kitor, adv.; kinghe, adv.

Whole, saglá, adj.

Widespread, desaulá, adj. (affecting the whole country side).

Widow, bidwá, n.f.

Widowhood, randápá, n.m.

Wife, jo, n.f.; parni, n.f.; tirya, n.f.; kamni, n.f.; bahu, n.f.—any young wife of the house as son's or younger brother's, bauhuria, n.f. See also Woman.

Wild, khar, adj., e.g. khar jál. See also Selfsown.

Wince, to, kantáná, v.n.

Wind. (1) generic, bál, n.f., paun, n.f.; (2) west wind, pichhwá or pachhwá (sc. bál); (3) east wind, pirwá (sc. bál); (4) south wind, dakhnáí (sc. bál); (5) north wind, utráí (sc. bál). The above four can be used substantively or adjectively with bál; (6) a hot withering wind blowing after rain and injuring the young crops, especially in Sáwan, kháng n.f.; (7) the hot wind of summer, lû, n.f.

Wine, dárú, n.f.

Winged, pankhi, adj.

Wink, to, jhapakná, v.n.

Winnow, to, barsáuná, v.a.; pachhorná, v.a.; kaláná, v.a.

Winnowing basket, chháj, n.m.

Winter, jadá, n.m. (the four cold months).

Winter-rains, máhoth, n.f., maihwath, n.f.

Wisdom, síkh, n.f.; sodhí, n.f.; hauslá, n.m.; ágam budhí, n.f.

Wise, gyání, adj.; saijan, adj.; súá, adj.; sughar, adj.

With, gail, postp.; seti, postp., sudhán (= Urdu samet) postp.

Without, bin, postp.

Withdraw, to, khosná, v.a.

Wither, to, ogalná, v.n. (especially of gram crop).

Woman, nár, nárí, istrí, tiriá, tiryá, n.f.; lúgáí, n.f. (fem. of log.); bír or bírbání, n.f. (strictly of a married woman in her husband's village); a lovely woman, gorí, n.f.; kámní, n.f.; women, see Folk.

Womb, garbh, n.m.

Wonder. See Marvel.

Wood, káth, n.m.; store of wood in front of a carpenter's house, khátor, n.f.; a copse, baní, n.f.; a forest, ban, n.m.; bankhand, n.m.

Work, to. See Labour; to work a pattern, kádhná, v.a.

Work, kár, n.m.; unpaid work, kár begár, n.m. See Labour, Toil.

Working, kamer, n.f. (ability to work).

Workman, kammáú, n.m.; kamerá, n.m.; kamerí, n.f.

World, pirthí or prithmí, n.f., jag, n.m.

Worn out, bodá, adj.

Worship, to, bhajná, v.a.

Worth, jog, adj. constructed with the inflected infinitive, karan $jog = karne\ l\'{a}ik$.

Worthless, nirsá, adj.; neáú, adj.; út, adj. (as a term of abuse) nigorá, nigodá, or rarely nigodá, adj.

Wrothy, a worthy son, sapút, n.m.

Wound, gháo, n.m.; jhorí, n.f.

Wrath. See Anger.

Wretch,) nigorá, nigodá or rarely nigodá, adj.; nirbhág, Wretched,) adj.

Wrong a, kotak, n.m.; kukram, n.m.

Wroth. See Displeased.

Y

Yard, bagar, n.m. (the sahan of Urdu) see s.v.; Cattle-yard, gher, n.m., ugár, n.m.; guár, n.m.; enclosure for stocking fodder etc., gitwár, n.m., gitwárá, n.m.

Year, this year, ibke sál or more commonly ibke; next or last year, pur ke sál or pur ke, next or last but one, prár ke sál or prár ke.

Yes, hambe, interj.

Yield, to, nyaunná, v.n.

Yoke, of plough or cart, júá, n.m., jot, n.f., a yoke of oxen, jot, n.f., well yoke, júr, n.m.

Yokel, gowár, n.m.

Younger. See Junior.

Youth, a, gábrú, n.m.

 \mathbf{Z}

Zenith, sikhar, n.m., sikharant, n.m.

Zizyphus, Z- nummularia, jhár, n.m., a heap of it cut for fodder or hedge making, and still green is dhínkar, n.m.; its leaves aried and ready for use as fodder and pálá, n.m., its ber is ber, n.h.

h.... (b. 1, %)

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A COLLECTION OF POEMS BY THE EMPEROR BABUR.

INTRODUCTION.

The precious little manuscript from which the accompanying plates were photographed belongs to the Library of

His Highness the Nawab of Rampur.

Outside Rampur, where it is naturally regarded as one of the show pieces of the Nawab's Library, this little book has never become famous, in spite of the great interest which scholars have evinced in the Emperor Babur, ever since the translation and publication of his Memoirs. Locally the manuscript was, I found, regarded as the autograph of the Emperor throughout, and this the colophon would at first sight lead one to believe. For myself, however, I am convinced that the main text in its very neat naskh hand, is the work of a scribe, and that we have Babur's own writing only in the occasional marginal corrections and in the fragment of a rubâ'î written transversely across the last page.

حرولا باير درشنيه ه اربيع الأخر سنة ه ۳۰ The colophon says which would ordinarily mean Babur wrote this (with his own hand): but the endorsement of Shah Jahan distinctly says that he guarantees the genuineness of this rubâ'î and this signature. In the process of binding the original book has been much cut down, and it would appear that we have in this manner lost two lines of the cubâ'î and Babur's signature. Had the whole manuscript been in Babur's writing Shah Jahan would not have made such a specific statement with regard to the rubâ'î. Apart from all other considerations this little manuscript at least offers us absolutely genuine specimens of the writing of two of the most famous "Great Moguls." What adds a special interest to the contents of this manuscript is the fact that it has preserved for us a poetical work by Babur, which was hitherto considered to be irretrievably lost. Not only is this work known to us by name, but the exact circumstances under which it was composed are described in minute detail by Babur himself in his Memoirs. I refer to the Risâla-i-Wâli-

¹ I take this opportunity of thanking His Highness both for his gracious permission to publish these poems, and also for the great kindness I received at his hands on the occasion of two visits I paid to Rampur to examine the very valuable Arabic and Persian collections in the Nawab's Library.

² The poem was completed on Saturday, the 8th of Rabi II. thus, this fair copy was finished one month and seven days after the comple-

diyya, which occupies the first 14 pages (Plates I—XIII) of this little manuscript. The passage in the Memoirs relating to the composition in A.H. 935 (A. D. 1528) of this poem occurs on pp. 448, 449 of Ilminski's Turki Text; fol. 346 a and b of Mrs. Beveridge's Facsimile; pp. 357 to 359 of Pavet de Courteille's French translation, and pp. 388, 389 Leyden and Erskine's English translation.

I herewith give the original Turki text for which I have followed the Facsimile taking assistance from Ilminski:—

آدینه کونی آئی نودک بیگرمه اوچیدا حوارتی ا بدنیم دا ظاهر بولدی انداق کیم جمعه نمازینی صبحه ته تشویش بهله او تادیم - نماز پیشین احتیاطی نی کیلیب کتابخانه بیر زمان دین سونک مشقت بیله اوتادیم ایندینی و بکشنیه کونی از راق تترادیم - « سه شنیه کیچهسی صفر آی ایندینی و بکشنیه کونی از راق تترادیم - « سه شنیه کیچهسی صفر آی نیدگ بیکرمی بتی سیدا حضرت خوجه عبد الله نینگ والدیه رساله سینی نظم قیلماق خاطریه هم کیچهتی - حضرت نینگ روحی غه التجا قیلیب کونکلومگا کیچوردوم کیم اگر بو منظور اول حضرت نینگ مقبولی بولور خود نیچوک کیم صاحب قصیدهٔ برده نینگ قصیده سی مقبول توشوب اوزی اقلیج مرضی دین خلاص بولدی مین داغی بو عارضه دین قوتولوب نظمیم نینگ قبولیغه دلیلی بواغوسیدور - اوشیو نیت و بیاه رمل ه مسدس مخبون عروض قبولیغه دلیلی بواغوسیدور - اوشیو نیت و بیاه رمل ه مسدس مخبون عروض وضرب گاه انترگاه مخبون محذوق وزنیده کیم مولانا عبد الرحمن جامی نینگ

tion of the original draft. During this interval Babur seems to have been in Dolpore.

has come out badly in the Facsimile.

² The Facsimile seems to read with indini is undoubtedly correct, pace P. de C. who quotes the word in his foot-note and says he does not think it a possible word. It is indeed wanting from his Dictionary. But the word is common enough and means two days after: just as criesi means the next day.

Radloff says indini means "übermorgen, nach drei Tagen."
P. de C. must here have consulted the Persian translation, as otherwise he could not have given the correct meaning of a word which according to him was meaningless.

³ Titramaq—to shake. Persian الرزيدي.

the facsimile reads اینت int., which is not a word at all as far as I am aware. Ilminski's نبت is probably correct. There is, however, a word ant = an oath, which would at any rate not make nonsense here.

⁵ These few technical terms of prosody have caused much confusion to editors and translators alike. It is unnecessary for me to explain the meaning of these terms, but I may at least explain the construction of the sentence as I understand it. "Six-footed remet, in which the first

اوشال کهچه اون اوچ بیت ایتیلدی التزام یوسونلوق کوندا اون بیت بتن کمواق ایتیلهاس ایدی - غالبا بیر کون ترک بولدی - اوتکان پیل و هر محمل موحداق عارضه کیم بولدی افلی بیر آی قیرق کونگا تارتثی - تنگری عنایتی بیله حضرت نینگ همتی دین پنجشنبه کونی آی نیدگ ییگرمه تو قوزیدا اندئی افسوده بولدی اوزگا بو عارضه دین خلاص بولدم - شنبه کونی ربیع الایل آی بیدگ سکزندا رساله سوز لاری نینگ نظم قیلماغ اختتامی غه بیتی بیر ککون ایلیک ایکی بیت ایتیلدی ه

A.H. 935-A.D. 1528.

"On Friday, the 23rd of this month (i.e., Safar), a fever became evident in my body: so much so that I was able only with great inconvenience to perform my prayers in the mosque. The observance of the mid-day prayer, I, having withdrawn to my library, was able to keep only after some delay, and then with great difficulty. On the third day, Sunday, I shivered somewhat less, and on Tuesday night, the 27th of Safar the idea came into my head of making a versified translation of the Risâla-i-Wâlidiyya of His Reverence Khwâja 'Abdullah.' Fleeing for refuge to the spirit of His Reverence, I assured my heart that if this act of homage were acceptable to His Reverence my escape from my malady would be a proof that my poem had found acceptance, just as the writer of the Qaṣâda-i-Burda was cured of paralysis.

With this intent I began to write my versified risala, in that variety of [the metre called] remel b which Maulana 'Abdur

Rahman Jâmi employed in his Subha.6

On that very night thirteen verses were composed. It was a self-imposed condition that not less than ten complete verses should be written every day. Only on one day did I fail. In the preceding year, whenever I had been similarly attacked, the malady had lasted at least a month or forty days. By the Favour of Heaven, and by the intercession of

¹ The usual confusion between bir and har.

8 Khwaja Nasir-ud-Din 'Ubaydullah, better known as Khwaja Ahrar, was born in 806 A.H. and died in 896 A.H.

⁵ See note on p. ii above.

hemistich (the 'arûd) is makhbûn, while the second hemistich (the darb) is sometimes abtar and sometimes makhbûn mahdhûf.

² Ilminski is right in reading bir at any rate in the last case where har gives nonsense. See note 1 on p. iv below.

⁴ For an account of this miracle see Nicholson's Literary History of the Arabs, pp. 326, 327.

⁶ Subhat-ul-Abrdr, or the Rosary of the Pious, one of the seven poems composing the famous Haft Aurany of Jami.

His Reverence, on Thursday, the 29th of the month (of Safar), I was released from this other attack. On Saturday, the 8th of Rabî'-ul-Awwal, I completed the versification of the contents of the risâla. On one day I had composed as many as 52 verses."

Of the remaining poems and fragments contained in this little manuscript some, as I have indicated in the foot-notes to the text, are already known to us from the Memoirs. The rest are, I believe, otherwise unknown.

I will not here discuss the matter and manner of these poems, as I hope on a future occasion to publish an English translation of the contents of this little book: I cannot, however, refrain from calling attention now to what is perhaps the most curious verse in the collection, namely, that which occurs on Plate XVII, p. 20 of the text. Here we have the uncommon combination of Turki and Urdu in one and the same line. "Macaronic" verses in which Persian and Urdu were mixed were common enough at one time, and indeed gave rise to the name "Rekhta" by which early Urdu poetry is known.

This verse may be transcribed as follows, adopting modern spelling for the Urdu:—

Mujhko na hua kucch havas-i-mung o moti Faqr ahliga bas bolghusi pâni o roți.

I have no desire for coral or pearls
For faqirs (poor people) water and bread is enough.

THE SPELLING OF BABUR'S NAME.

I think some word of justification is due from me for reverting to the spelling Babur, which though it was employed by many of the earlier European scholars such as Berezine, Ilminski and Teufel, has been entirely ousted by the spelling Babar. How this preference has been given to the latter form must remain a mystery. There can, however, in my view be no two opinions in the matter. In the first place, all the Turki-speaking men I have consulted (whether from Bokhara or from Kashghar) always pronounced the final ur quite distinctly—and I think that alone sufficient evidence in support of the form Babur. But there is not wanting evidence of a docu-

² D'Herbelot gives "Babur ou Babor."

Ilminski reads a "every," and this is evidently the roading wrongly adopted by the Persian Translator, and followed by Leydon who says: "I had composed every day on an average fifty-two couplets." In spite of Ilminski, Pavet de Courteille gives, and as the facts show quite correctly, "en un seul jour j'avais composé cinquante-deux distiques." The poem contains 243 vorses and was completed in eleven or twelve days. If on one day he composed 52 and on the first day 13, and was idle one day, the remainder 178 must have been written at an average of about 19 verses a day.

mentary nature. I am indebted to my learned friend Mr. Ellis, Assistant Librarian in the India Office, for two very valuable references in support of my contention.

- (1) In Flügel's Catalogue of the Arabic, Persian and Turkish MSS. in the K.-K. Hofbibliothek in Vienna, Vol. II, p. 115, some verses by Babur are noticed on the spare leaves at the end of a MS. Flügel names their author as "Bâbûr Pâdischâh," as if he had found written بابوز. At the request of Mr. Ellis, Professor Geyer very kindly looked up the original MS. and reported that this surmise was correct.
- (2) Mr. Ellis writes: "I have in my possession a very prettily written MS. of a treatise on the Astrolabe, entitled پنجاه باب سلطاني, by Rukn b. Sharf-ud-Dîn-al-Ḥusayni 'l-Āmuli, which is dedicated to مغيث السلطنة والدنيا و الدين ابوالقاسم

The king's name is distinctly vocalized by the original scribe. The author composed his treatise in Herât during A.H. 860 I do not think that the MS. can be very much later than the date of composition."

(3) To my friend Mr. H. Beveridge I am indebted for a reference to a line in Babur's poem called published by Ilminski from Prof. Berezine's MS. (Kazan 1857), page 229, line 6, where Babur is made to rhyme with dur (is)

او شبولار کیم بارین دیدی بابر ، بیلکاسین کیم مفصل ایماندور

- (4) In his article "The Emperor Babar in the Habib us Siyar" published in the Asiatic Quarterly Review for January and April 1906, Mr. Beveridge writes:—
- "It has been remarked by Dr. Rieu that the proper pronunciation of this name is Babûr. This is corroborated by a distich at Vol. II, p. 291, line 7, of the Habib." The little poem in which the distich occurs will be found on p. 291 of Vol. III (part 3) of the Bombay Lithograph.
 - سلاطینی که کشور میکشایند ، زاخوان کوی دولت میرایند نباشد از خلاف ظلم کیشان ، بیک مغوال دایم حال ایشان بهانند بیک نبضت گهی ملکی ستانند ، گهی درکار خود حیران بهانند ثمر لوشند کاهی در ثهمور قند ، زمانی دی ترار باینده نی قند

I Dr. Geyer says in his letter: "Was die Schreibung des Names beërifft, so halte ich Båbur für unzweifelhaft richtig."

چنین باشد در اول حال ایشان * بود رافت و خیز اقبال ایشان ولی یابند آخر سرفررازی * چون سلطان جهان خاقان غازی ظهیر الدین معمد پادشاهی * گه مانندش نه بوده دین پناهی خدیو کامران پرترو در * ملا و ملک ملت شاه بابر

Finally, Mr. Stanley Lane Poole in his Introduction to "The Coins of the Shahs of Persia," p. xxv, says:—

"According to Dr. Rieu the right pronunciation as shown by the couplet of the prince's own composition, was Babur."

I have been unable to find any discussion of the question in Dr. Rieu's Catalogues, and therefore I conclude that Mr. Poole received his information verbally. Curiously enough Dr. Rieu, for some reason which has never been explained, spells the Emperor's name Babar, but the name of Mirza Abul Qasim, the son of Mirza Baisangher, Babur.

Thus we see that there is overwhelming evidence in support of the spelling Babur.

CALCUTTA, September, 1910. E. Denison Ross.



Divān-i-Babur Pādishāh.

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

Plate 1a.

حق تعالی غد دبین حمد و سپاس کنهی غد بیتماس انینگ وهم و قیاس خالق وقاهر و سبعان وعظيم زازق وقادر و رحمن و رحيم اولی دور کسم بدایت انسکا یوق آخری دور کسم نهایت انسکا یوق

Plate 1b.

اوخشاماس هبهج نيمه گا كيشيگا

یوقنورور ہیسے شہریکی ایشیسگا احتیاجی کیشیگا بوقتور انیفگ یار و یاور ایشیگا بوقت و رور انینگ ارتما یدور هم بولما یدور کم بار ایدی بار دورور و بولغوسی همم

Plate 2a.

تیا انبنگ حمدیدا قاصر دور بیا بیا انبنگ حمدیدا قاصر دور تیال

حضوت رسول نعتى صلى الله عليه وسلم

غم و دردینگ منگا شادي و خوشي جملــ له خلق عم رهبر سين سين عمر كوب قيدها ويول اوزون راق مینی مقصودقه بیتک ورگای اول چاری قبل دردیغه درمسان بیسوله

يا **حبي**ب ءــو**بي قــوشــي** چر نے نینگ گردشی میلینگ بولے ، باری خلق اولدی طفیلینگ بوله ا انبيا خيلي غه سرور سين سين مین بسی کاهــل و یول اسرو یواق مین گهراه قه کورسات بر یول قويمه بابوني بوحومكان بيصولة

> رساله نظمى نينك سببي حضوت خواجه عبيد الله دين ایشیت اول سر خدد اگه دین

¹ Totalling birla = on your account.

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خواجهالر خواجه سي اول خواجه عبيد د خدادم و چاکوي شبلې و [جنيد]

Plate 2b. حــالت و مرتبه سي ظــاهـــو دور

وصف و تعسويفيدا تيسل قاصر دور اتاسى قيلغان اوچون تكليفيي قيلدى آنيذك آتيغه تاليفيي طالب ایال تیلی کا مذکرور دورور والديده بيلده مشكور دورور هـ سـوز اندا كه انكا مين بيتسام یتی کونگل_ونگا انی نظرم ایتـام تاكم بولغساى مذسكا هوشيهسارليفي اويق ولوق كوگل ومده بيددارليغي بذه بونظهم أوقوسها هوطهالب كرونكلى نينك رغبتى بولغهاي غالب رغديت ايلاب انكا فيضى ييتسده تيرود ليك كونگلي دين كنينك كيتسده فیضی دین مذکا بیتیشکای اثری بيخبر كونكلرومه بولفاي خبري ينه او قــوء ـ وچي الارغــه اول آن صبيط قيلماققه ايدى نظهم اسان بو دیسگانلار منسکا بولسدی تقسویب صونی نظهم ایتیهم و بودیهم ترتیب باقهاغیال سوزالاگوچی نینگ اوزیگا اوزیدی قوی نظر ایتکیدل سوزیگا سوز منینگ ایوماس الار نینگ دور بیا ميني بيلكيا مترجام حاصال

رساله شروعي

Plate 3a.

خـواجـــة معــوم اسـوار اله ديدي اول مونى كيـم قال اللّـه

وَمَا خَلَقْتُ الْجِنَ وَالْانْسَ الاّ ليعبدونَ

معرفت باطنينگ اعمالي دور مونگا ناطـق دورور اول ځيـل تيلي قاید را تبعیدت قور و بسس قايسي ايشالأردلا كيراك سوزمة باق فعلى ظااهو غه تعلق دور بيسل خواجه نینگ بیل بو دورور اقوالی

ظاهر و باطنینگ اعمالیغد بیا بوعیدادی متناول دور قیدل ىيىك بو صوفيد، نينگ اقوالى دور منفقق دور باری تحقیق ایلی معسوفت ہی تبعیت بولمساس بیال نبی غده تبعیت قیلهاق قولى تيلكا منعلق بيلكيك بولدى باطن عنه تعلق حسالى

Plate 3b.

قايسي سـوز دور كــه ايرور نالايــق 3 ديماگيل اني و قيلگيل لاحول احتراز ايت يراق ايتكيل اوزدين تیلید_گا بو نیهه نی مذکور ایت كــونگلـــونگا باعـث نورانيــت امسر معسروق که بویوردی خددا هونی ینگلیسغ که میسو بولسه جد و جهد ایلاگاسین کیم اول آن بولغاى اول لحظه معبر سفكا تيل بيلسگاسين مونى كسلام بارى

بیال که قولیدا نیدور پی رولیق بولسه كر شرع خالاني هر قول [عيبت] و يالغان و موذي سوزدين هر یوسسان قولنسی اوزدین دور ایت بولغای اقوال و کاهمینگ بو صفت مثــل قرآن و احـادیث و دعــا [نهی] قیل هونی که منکو بولسه بيل كن اوقوردا دعا و قبرآن هونه كونگلسونگدا ايسسه اندين بيسل اكسو امى ايسانك اولدم قسارى

¹ Sic. in MS. but the metre requires 1).

² The imperial poet has apparently suggested an amendment of this mina. ديمه هو سوز که ايرور دالايق

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بیال که حق بیراه تکلم قیالاسین ظاهرینگ شرع ایله کراسته قیال هرنی مقدار که ترک ایستانک اگر هم سوزي ايركانيني چون بيلاسين تبعيت ني دورور فعلددا بيل تسرك قيلما ادب و سنتالار

Plate 4a.

یتفید اندین که ایماسدور اول یول چون همیشه مونی ورزش قیلدانگ نفسیدگا بولغوسی بی شك و [گمان] جذب ایتار نفس بقدر نسبت جذب ایتار اوتنی کوروبسین مومونی آنچه چاغلیق بو ترقی غه بیتار فرست توتقای انی حی متعال دوست توتقای انی حی متعال اول زمان ایستاگانیکا یتاکی اول زمان ایستاگانیکا بیتا اول خبیبی غده دورور ای عابد اول حبیبی غده دورور ای عابد بیدل که اول دور بو محبت سببی محض فضل و کرم جباری

هرني كيسم شرع خالانى دورور اول هر سور ايتسانگ و هر ايش قيلسانگ نسبتى نفسى نبسي برله اول آن صفت نفسى دين اوشبو فرصت انگا اوخشار اكه فقيله توتوني صفتى دين نيچه كيم جذب ايتار قيل قياس اوشهو گاسين اوزگالارين تبعيات چو ييتيشسه بكهال اوزيني معرم اسوار ايتكاى في الحقيقة بو سيووكلول عايد في الحقيقة بو سيووكلول عايد حاصل اولدي انگا چون وصف نبي حاصل که باردور بو ديگانالار باري بلكه هر رتبه دا يخشى باققيال

Plate 4b.

نظر لطف بيله گرايوسه في الحقيقة اوزيني سيودي و بس قيلدي كوزگودا تجليي انداق بو تجلي الحمال

³ کوزگلــوک کوزگوسینــي گر سیوسه بهلگاسین کیم بو تیمور حبي ایماس صفت و ذات بیلــه حضـــوت حق قایسي کوزگو که ایدي بی عش و غل

¹ okhshamaq = to resemble.

² Küzgülük küzgüsini ger sé-üse. Nazar-i-lutf bila ger é-üse.

If the user of a mirror loves the mirror, and hastens towards it with affectionate glances, know that this is not from love of the [polished] iron, but in truth from self-love alone.

روشن و اکه ایدی بر مرآت کیلدی بوخلعت انینگ بوییغه خوب ییتکوسی به و خلعت انینگ بوییغه خوب بوله ای دین اول حین بوله اعامی بی تبعیت بیته ای آل قایدا دور مین سنگا ایقای یاد آل قاله اعامی هیچ تعلق جزحق قاله اعامی هیچ تعلق جزحق بار بو حبّ منقطع اولماققه جهت استگا لیکن مونی بیلمای کیراک

چون محمد ته علیده الصلوب نوریدین اندا تجلی ایدی کروب امتی ی فلادا نجلی ایدی کروب امتی کی رولیه ی دین رقب هٔ عه مونی بیلگیدل بیشک تبعیدت انگا بر حسب کروات انداق که کونگرولدا مطلق گر محبت سنگا بولهاس بو صفت کوچه حب موهبتی دور بی شک بوظهر و ریه ه شروایط حاصل بوظهر و ریه ه شروایط حاصل

Plate 5a.

تینگسری بیراه متعلسق بولور اول خوالا و ناخوالا بولور کونگلسونگا بیل سفسگا دایم بو یوسونلسوق تور دل کورگوچی دور کورگوچی دور ایش ایتگوچی دور انسگا واندیس و آنسی بیلگیسل انسگا واندیس و آنسی بیلگیسل بار مذساجات ته حق بیسرله مدام بیل مذسولا انی حوف و اون ا دین بیلگسیس بیوله کونگلونگ تولغوسی دور بیلسگاسیس بو سوز ارا فرقسی بار دوست نینگ یادی نی توتباغلیق دا منتج فوط محبست بیسل دوست

غيردين منقطع اولفاچ بو كونگرول بسو زمان أشبر تعليق حاصل تينگري مونداق ياراتيب تور بيلگيل متكليم دور و ايشيتگرچي دور ايشيتهاق بيرله ايشيتهاك كورماك ايتياق بيرله و ايشيتهال كورماك بيلگاسين ذكر حقيقي اول حيرن بيلگاسين ذكر حقيقي اول حيرن جوهر دل بيله ايدر بولغرسي دور همگري دل ايله ايدر بولغرسي دور دوست ترتماغليسي دور دوست ترتماغليسي دور ايله ايدر ايله اي دوست ترتماغليسي دور ايله اي دانا دوست ترتماغليسي دور ايله اي دانا دوست ترتماغليسي دار دوست در اول كه ترتقايي همگيئ دل دوست

¹ iin = voice, sound.

⁹ The original copy had بولغای this has been changed by the royal author to توثقای

Plate 5b.

عاشق اولدور که انگا بار بو صفحت المحلال يول المدور عمل هستدي معلوم بول بولغوسي موندا يتيشكاچ معدوم عيدين مدكور بولور ذاكر بيل ميديل مجدال بولور اوشبو فوصت بيل مجرد المدي بوسر بول آگه اوزگالار هستاليغيدا ني وجود آشكار اولدي بوسر بول آگه بو مراتب قم ييتار حين اول حين بو مراتب قم ييتار حين اول حين بو مين اول حين عمل دست ديرگاي بو سعادت سنگا پات همنشين ليق بو جماعت بيله قيل غيدو دين باغذي بيدراسته دور

سین قولاق توت که مونگا عشق دورات موندین اول بیرگا ترقی قیلـــور اول بیرگا ترقی قیلـــور اول بیرگا ترقی قیلـــور اول بیر حقیقی مونی بیلگیــل موهوم بیـل که بو بیــردا دورور بو مشکــل کارسه اوز هستالیغیــن چون نابود کورسه اوز هستالیغیــن چون نابود بــو زمان هالـــگ اللا وَجهَــه لهــ نولدی معلـوم که تبعیــت تیــن بولدی مین راست اطاعت بیله قیل برم ایلــه ظاهری آراسةــه دور

Plate 6a.

هر نفس نی دم آگر بیلگیدا زن و فرزند بیلکه شهر و مدن خاطر اولام باریسیدین قوتولور اندا بر نیوم تعقال قیلیبان بو یوسونلوق که دیکومدور سنگا یول بیراق ایتکیل کونگلونگدین مطلبق موندا بیتکاندا ایشیب بو دور راه باری ایل ساجد و مسجود اول دور مونی کونگلونگ ارا قیلغای سین فکر

دم آخر که چیقسار سینسدین بیل مال و نقدینسه و باری ایل و کون خاطرینگسدین باریسی محو بولور هر نفس نی دم آخر بیسلیبان ذکر مذکورگا بسولفیسل مشفسول نفی دا هرنی که بار دور جزحی نفسی دین سونگسوا که بار الا الله سیل که محبوب ایلا معبسود اولدور هر قاچان کیم سین اگر دیسانگ دگر

 $^{^{2}}$ oila = thus.

موني ترک ایلاماگای سین مطلبق حیف غفلت ته اوتار انشری وقت قیمةی در نی ایتورکان ینگلیت و بود کیشیگا کیسواک انداق احوال

یسوققسورور هیسیم الله الآحسق مونگا مشغول لوق ایتکیل باری وقت غافل اولغاندا کیواک بولسه بو شق در اید ورکان گه بولور اندا نی حال

Plate 6b.

متاثر لیغی غه بولدی دلیدل ینه بیر مرتبه غه ییتکای سیس بورناغی احال ایلا بولغای مشغول ترک قیلماغنسین شون قیلماغنسین باری باری ایشگا غالب شمگی دلینگ اول وقت تمام کونگلی قابل اوزی مقبول اولغای تابسه کونگلونگا سینینگ اغیار کیتار بو اویونگدین سینینگ اغیار کیتار غیر اخلاس ایله قولل وق قالماس اول تعلق که بورونراق ایدی سست اول تعلق که بورونراق ایدی سست ازی ساغینغرسی نی کورسه کوزونگ بولهای غیر تعلی غیر تعلی قیرسه کوزونگ

کیسمگا بو حال که بولسه بی قیسل هر قاچان صونی مدام ایتکای سین توک قیلسانگ سین اگر لیک کونگول سین بوچاغلیق بیله بس قیلماغاسین نگا بیتسار که بولور ای طالب ترا قیلمای مونی قیلسانگ بدوام حق تعالی بیلسه مشغول اولغای بو بولور اندا که حبّ مرولا غیر دین کونگلونگ اویدن خالی ایتار بو زمان بولغوسی حق بیوله درست بولغوسی انینگ ایله پارچه سوزونگ بولغوسی انینگ ایله پارچه سوزونگ

Plate 7a.

اول اول یاد نینگ اتیدی دیکیدل قیدل و قبلغیدل بوصفت نی پیشه بسولسور آسان بارا بارا ششکسل بار طریقسی مونگا مین ایتسای بیل کیم نینگ اتی ایکانیسن اندیشده بولها بیر لعظه بو ایشتیسن غافل

burnaghi = former, first—can also be read burunghi.
One poet says:

Burunghi haligha qilmang nazāra ani Tangrim 'aziz itsa nachāra.

yaratti from yaratmaq = to create.

الم يون

قالغاي اول نفس حديد ـ ي ييريدا حاصل اولغای سذگا تا لذت دل مفقطع بولغای و بو قالفای و بس بو محل بولغای و اول مقبرای هیچ نیمه حبی غه بوله اس مایل بو مناجات و تكلهم ييري بدل سوز انیدگ بیوله کوز انیدگ ساریغه بولغای اول وقت حضروری حاصل کوز و کونگلیگا سروری بد سرگای الدين ايشيد كاي الكا عرض ايتكاي

بولغالي اول نوع اتيذكي ديريدا موند اق اولغاچ موني ترک ايلاماگيل تا کونگ ولدین باری لدات و هوس همگرے ول انیدگ مشغرلی بولور انداق که تکلسف بیلسه دل قیلشد بو موتد نی حق حاصل کونگول اندا و اور اندنگ ساریغه انگا بورتبه دا بی غیبت بیسل كونگلسي كوزي ارا نوري بيسرگاي حق دین انداق قولاق و نیل بیتکای

Plate 7b.

تایماغای معنوی ایش سنگا خلل بالے مالک آثار 1 انہوق قسم رو رواش جه رواس اولمساس يانه 2 اوشدو ينكليغ متعلسق ايسه بيسل انصالی تایار اول بی مانسع تینگری لطفی ریله تاپقای بو وصول كونگلگى گە يويقە 3 حجابى حاصل بشويت حجبي قالماس اول أن بو محل روح قه بولغــــای واقع عاشق و شیفت ه ایلای دیسه لار

ظاهری شغل و ایشیدگدین بو محل ظاهري خلــــق قه باطن حق قه آشنا ایم ساری تاش بیسسگانه معنى دا هو كيشكا تينبُسويكا دل وهي اصلي ساري بولف ــاچ راجع گرچه جان تن ارا ایرکاندا کوگـول لیک بولغای مشویت تد_ن بدل منقطع بولسه بدن دين چون جان اتصالی دا ایرور بی مانع منسلا بيسر كيشينسي بيسركا اكو

¹ I think must be supplied here.

These lines remind one of the Qoranic verse: رجال لا تلهيهم تجارة و لا بيع عن ذكر الله

² This may be rendered in Persian as follows:-- از طرف الدون با حق آشفا ست. و الر بهرون بهگانه ، ایفچنین سلوک خوب دیگر بار نمیشود

⁸ Yopqa = very fine in texture.

بار فلان شهر ده بیر خوب بیگیت کوري مخمور اوزي مست رسوزي مل کیسم که کسورسه اني دیوانه دورور بو یوسونلوق دی طویقی نی ایشیت خطی سنبل قدی سوو و یوزی گل حسن ایله خلق ارا افسانه دورور

Plate 8a.

عاشق اولغان کیشی لذت نی تاپار تاپق الله اوزای دور انگا مایل اوزای بولدی مجبول انی سدوماکگا بشر نی یوسونلوق ا انگا بولغای مونی بیل کیم که یول بیلماسه کونگلی سودور گیرا غیری بی کونگرولدین دور ایت بولو روسین مونی ترک ایلاماگیل میسال دین حاصل اولور لذت لار میسل لذات نی تاپقانچه بولور میسال لذات نی تاپقانچه بولور بو کشش بیرله بو کوشش قانی « دوست دوست تونقای همکیی دل انی ورست اورونولغای سنگا محبوب انی هم

عشقیدا باردور انید که ادت لار کیم که ایشیدسه دو یذکلی فی سوزنی اداری بیسر نیم و یذکلی فی سوزنی اداری بیسه اگر لیک بیلماس بو سیوگل وی حاصل بیل که بو ایشت ه طریق ه بودور ایت مونداق ایتسانگ سنگا میلی حاصل بر دوام اولسه سنگا میلی حاصل نیچه لذی ایسه میل انچه بولور نیچه لذی ایسه میل انچه بولور قویمای ایلدین مونی قیلسانگ تکرار خوالا ناخوالا توتارسی مینی قیلسانگ تکرار موندا یبتسانگ تورور اول ایل دیگانی موندا یبتسانگ تورور اول ایل دیگانی قالماس اندیش فی اولدم

Plate 8b.

سذسگا سلطسان محدست بارا اوزي رنگي دا بارين ظاهر ايتيسب ايكي ايسك آتى بو دم ايويلفساى آتى مشفسول لوغي ايرميسش اول

قیلترورور اوشبو معدل استیدلا طرفینی ایدی معبوب و معدب وهدت صرفذری ظاهر قیلفدای سنگا معلوم چو بولدی بو یول

يرسونلوق which Babur corrected to سيونلوق, which Babur corrected to

² Saudur for Sautur from Sautmaq = to become cold.

 $i q \bar{a} n i = \text{where } ?$

Journal of the Asiatic Society of Rengal. [Extra No.

افضلی لا الله الا الله الا الله وزن تغیری فرورت بولدی ا نفی و اثبات تین ایتکیل سین فکر انتها انتهای مرور کسونیست بولدی حق نفسی و غیر انباتی بی رفع نقاب غیر نفسی و حق اثباتی دور اول فکرگا اولدور مفهره مرورگا اولدور مفهره امسلی شی باری دین کوته ایتسار

بودور اذکار ایچیددا ای آگاه مونده مهسوای بو صورت بولدی بیلگا سیدن بولدی مرکب بو ذکر کونگلونگا بیل بولادور پرده صفت منتقدش بولسه کونگدول مرأتی جذب تابهاس کیشی بی رفع حجاب پرده دفعی غه نیدور بیلگیل بول بودور انداق که قیلیب سین معلوم مبتدی شغل چاغی بیل که نیتار

Plate 9a.

مظهر اوشب و کمالات اولغای بوصفت نی ادگا قایدی انداق صحبتیدین متاثر بول ول ول فوق ایله بارچه غه معلوم دورور یا نشاط اهلی بیلی اولات ورسه تابقوسیدور انگا حالت تعبیر یاراتقیب تور کوگلونگلدا مونداق ممکن ایرماس ایدی بو کسب کمال همذشین لییق قیلور اول اول هنگام بولغوسی باطنی اول باطن دین میل چه منقطع اولغای سنگا دل میل چه منقطع اولغای سنگا دل میل چه منقطع اولماعلیق بار

بو كيشسي صاحب حالات اولفساى تينگري كونگولفي ياراتقسي انداق همنشين هر كيم ايله بولسه كونگول و اوشه اوشه و ورسه اوشه و الله قورسه غم و شادي انگا قيلفساي تاثيسر غم و شادي انگا قيلفساي تاثيس نو قبسول اولمسه ايردي اول حال كيسم كه بو طايفسه بيسرله بدوام بيلگاسين كيسم متاثر اول حيس بيلگاسين كيسم متاثر اول حيس انقطاعينگ چه ينسه ميسل ارتار اول كوب ينه بيري داعي كوب

¹ The poet here apologises for changing his metre, his excuse being the introduction of the phrase $U \cap V$

a Corrected by the royal author from ايلي of the scribe.

Plate 9b.

كيم اني عاجر ايرور تيل ديرگا قالماعاي هير تعليق اندا حق قه بولغاي متروجه بو كيشي بلكه بيدر لعظه دا از فومت ته جمع قيلغاي كونگلي ني باريدين حققه بولغاي متروجه بو كيشي ليك مشكل ديدي لار انگا تبات غير دين بولسه مجرد باطن تينگري انساندا ياراتقي دو قبول غير چون قالهاسا اول قالغاي و بس گر ضعيف اولسه موني توتسون ياد فيض دين انگا حضروري بولهاس وين انگا حضروري بولهاس بولغروس انگا شعرور اول فوصت بولغاس بولغرو اول فوصت

تا كيشي يبتك وسي دور بريد و بو دورور حال مونكا يبتك كاندا بارى اوزلوكي بيله بودور ايشي كيشي بولغاي الكا بو صحبت ته بارى دين منقطع اولغاي باطن مونكا يبتكاندا بو كيشي نينگ ايشي اوشبو جذبه كه بولور خلق قه پات اوشبو جذبه كه بولور خلق قه پات بولغوسي دورانكا حق بيرله وصول بولغوسي دورانكا حق بيرله وصول ايك هر كيشيكا كيم استعداد ليك هر كيشيكا كيم استعداد ليك هر كيشيكا كيم استعداد وصل دين انگا شعوري بولماس

Plate 10 a.

قیلماغای سین عملینگ نی ضایع ایل و تیل بیسرله صددگار لیغ ایت که تسوجسه انگا بار حسق ساری ایسلادی سیسوماکی اوچون ظاهر کیتتی حق جانبی غه صبح ایلا شام زهی اول کیسم متذبسه بولغسای بولهسای ه کوزگو نی سود اوتروسی ت

آنچه نقصان سنسگا بولفاي واقع ينه مؤمن ايشيسدا يارليسغ ايت خاصه اول كيشيكا بيسوماك ياري نيسكا كيسم بو كيشسي لارني قادر حق تعسالي سيسوار آني كه عدام لحظه لحظه مستوجسه بولغساي چون انينگ كونگلي ايرور كوزگوسي

ځۍ لان - زيراکه - چونکه = nega kim

² ütrüsi here means. روبرو شدن bolmasa küzgü ne sud ütrüsi. اگر آینهٔ حق نبود چه فایده در رفقن رو بروی او

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گه توشار اکل وگهسی شرب ساری کونگلی کوزگوسی غبساری دور بیل حق شهودیدین اوشسانچه بو یرار ایشسالرین قبلسه کفسایت یکسر بولغسوسی دور بو اگر تاپسه وقسوم قبلمیش اولغای یهتسار اوشبو شوفی

بشریت جهةسی دین نظروی نظر انجیه که بو ساری دور بیسل کونگلیدا بولسه نی مقددار غبسار تینگری توفیق بیریب کیدم که اگر بورناغی احالیفه کونگلیگا رجوع بس انینگ کونگلی نی بو حق طرفی

Plate 10b.

بو دورور شرطسه که اول شکسر ایلار اوزنی کورمسکا اراده بیلگیسل متخلسق ایسه دیسر پیشبسربولماغای آئینگ ایله دوزخ ایشی باطنیهه متعلسق ایسهی حال مثل و نفس و دل و سر غیسر بولار نفس و دل و سر غیسر بولار کیسراک اول ایشسی متسابع بیلسه بیلماگونچه که نی ایشته دور بیل کیشی بیلماس مونی سین کونگلونگا ال هسر کیستی قیلسه بودور انگا شمر بهسری و رافسوسی بیلگیسل ای یار بولفوسی بیلگیسل ای یار نفس حظیسدا خلافیس توتشیل

سسم کافی غه بو دولدی مظهر سر

زیگا کیم شکری بولور موندا دلیسل

بیل که بیر خلصق الهی غه بشر

کونگلی نی جمع ایتار اوت تین بو کیشی

حالی پی رولیغی نی کونگلرونگا ال

باطنیعه کوب انیذگ موتبه بار

مر بیریدا انگا حق جلّ جللل

ثبعیست انگا دولهاس حاصل

معنوی موتبه سینسی بکهال

ظاهریغه تبعیست نی قدر

بو کسالاتی دین اول اول مصدار

تبعیست نی دورور نفسی غه بیسل

Plate 11a.

الـــــــزام ایــلــه « دوام صحبــت بیــل الارنی بو شعــورونگفــه سبــب گر تبات ایستسا_{ر ای}سانگ اول فوصت ساخلاعای سیسن او ایل البدا ادب

بورباغی MS. reads wrongly

² Read aila, imperative of ailamak. The Misra' is however defective: a word of the measure fā'il is wanting between dawam and subbat.

بی ادب لیسق روش و راهیس اونوت اوشبو ایل کونگلیدین اول توشکوسی دور بورناغي حال انگا قالماس اول حين اول كونگول لاردين ايدىي كونگلونگا ال فيض يبتماككا جهست رابطه بيل سوز ایشیقور ایسانگ اوشمونچه بیقار گر ملے دور قرا دورانگا ورق

ظاهر و باطن ادب مدرعي تنوي بیر ادب نی کیشے گو توك قیلــور کیم پیراق توشده بو ایل کونگلی دین نیگا کیم فایض انینگ کونگلیگا حال کونگلی نینگ رابطه سین واسطه بیل <u>-</u> رأبطه قالمساسم أول حال كيقسار بی عنسایات حسق و خاص حسق ا

رساله خاتمه سي

اختتمامي عه ييتيشتي بو كالم للّه العمسد سوز ايتيلسدي تمام Plate 11b

عامل ایلگا او زینی معمسول ایت بیل توکاتکاندا بو سوز بی کم و بیش ییسل توقوز یوز ایدی اوتوز بیسش

قابل ایلیگا سوزینی مقدسول ایت

Plate 12a.

بو سو وومنی ایشیت ای تیل قویقیل سذگا هونی که دیسام سین عرض ایت حالتهـم شرحينـي بير بير ايتكيــل رُوش و طور و سلوی و یاولوم میں مبید ی دا بیان ایلاب میدن درد دل چاره سینی قیلماس ایمیش چاره کیمدین تیلایین دردیم اوچون چاره سيدر ايشيمه تدبير اينكاي قابلیست قانسی و استعداد

خاطريم ساخلار ايسانك كيل قويقيل اهل دل اليدا سرعت بيله بيت مشكليم البددا تقسريو ايذكيسك دیکاسیرن معتقد و معمولوم باردور انداق که عیان ایلاب میسن بيزانيذك بيوله ايش اچيلماس ايميش ئيتايين ني قيلايين درديم اوچون چاره دردیمغه تکبر پیر ایتکای نيلايدس مرشد و نيتساي ارشاد

I This verse bears a striking resemblance to a verse of a later writer called Imam Rabbani Maulavi Badrud-dîn of Sarhind (b. A. H. 971 d.

گر ملک باشد سیالا هستش ورق بي هذايات حق و ځامان حق

Plate 12b.

فیض لار تا سنگا بولهٔ ای واصل نی ایشینگ یخشی نی سوزونگ مقبول نی کونگول کیم هوسیدا چوروگای انی انینگ کنهیای بیلمالئگا بیلیک نی انینگ کنهیای بیلمالئگا بیلیک مینگ سنینگ دیک نی زبون قیلغایدور خوشی و کیفیت و ایچکولولونگ شمیکش ایل بیوله ایچیب مست اولماق می کش ایل بیوله ایچیب مست اولماق می کش ایل قبوت روحی نشاء ایلگا اوزی قانیتیب بیلدوروبان سوزونگ اولماق باری ییرد کاری سوزونگ اولماق باری بیدرد کاری

مستعده بول و قیدل اوزنی قابل سیده نی سعی و اوزونگده نی قبول نی ایاق کیدم طلبیده یوروگای نی ایاق کیدم طلبیده یوروگای نی انینگ ایشیدی قیلماققه ایلیک شهروت و نفس گرفتداری سیدن دور شهروت و نفس قدوی دشمن دور عمد یا اشراعه و حدظ یخداب خوروش لار بیله همدست و اولماق نشاء صبی و صبوحی نشداء تند رخشباک نی میایب بیلدوروبان حکونگ اواماق باری ایلگا جاری انهیدگ ملدک خواسان بولهای اولماق

Plate 13a.

نسل جـوجــي و اروغ چغـــای کیلیب ایلکینگا ني کیم بار هوسینگ سیني دنیا باریدین کیچــورور فهـم قیلـدیم غرضینگنـي بیــو بیــو طلبـي کیــم کیــراک اولـدور نابـود حاصل اولغای مو ایکیـن اوشبو طلب تا کیشــی حق ني طلبـکار اولغــای نیقیه ی کیمیدین صورایین نیقیه ی چاره نی کیمیدین صورایین

قوللوق و خدمتینگ ایتماك بیل وای پارچه ایشگا بولوبان دست رسینگ باری فانسی و باری هیسی تحرور بیلمیشام هونی که قیلدینگ تحریر بو دیماکتیس بو بیلیکتیس نی سود تینگری قیلفای مو ایکین طرفه سبب تینگری توفیقی دی و تیک تورایین نینگری توفیقی دی و تیک تورایین

to be worn out, used up.

i ichkülük = wine drinking, in the second, but not in first misra.

نینگری نبنگ بولماچه تونیقی نبکا کیروای سنگا مونچه پیچش برورماکگا ره تحقیقی بیرونی بیله بارمیش مین نفس بو بویروغی بیله بارمیش مین ایش لاریمنی باریدی خوب ایتکیل

توت قولاق کیم بو دورور تحقیقی ممکن ایرماس بولا الماق هیچ ایش کردگارا مناکا توفید قسی بیسر عمر عقلت بیاه اوتکارمیش میس نفس یاغی سینی مغلوب ایتکیل

Plate 13b.

ایش لاریمنی مینینگ آسان بوتکار جان و کونگلومنی اوزونگ ساری قیل معبوفت بیبرله یاروت کونگلومنی انی اولقورمه بطبالت بیبرله همتیبین بدرقسه و یار ایتکیا تارتیبان انی سنگا ییتکسورگای باری حظ دین مینی آسان اوتکار گوش و هوشومنی سوزونگ ساری قیل عم لاریدگ بیسرله اووت کونگلومنسی قسوله قسوی بدو حالت بیسوله هر کیشیفی انگا غمضوار اینکیسل تاکه دردیفه دوا بیشکسکورگای

غربت ته اول ای هجری میدی پیر قیلیب تور هجران بیلسه غربت مذگا تاثیر قیلیب تور مقدر باریجه قیلسورام سعی وصالیدگ تا تیدگریدی بیلمان که نی تقدیر قیلیب تور تقدیر دور اول یان و بو یان سالغدوچی یوقسه کیدمگا هوس سنبل و نظیر ا قیلیب تدور بو هند ییری حاصلی دین کوب کونگول آلدیم نی سود که بوییر مینی دلگیر قیلیب تور سیندین بوقدر قالدی ییروق اولمادی بابر میندور توییر قیلیب تور

Plate 14a.

باردینگیر انگلاب اورکا رنی و الم کاسل و خسوش هواسینی ساغینیب هنده دین گسوم باردینگیسز اول دم کوردونکینز تایسینگینز ایکین اندا عشرت و عیش بینوله ناز و نعم گرچه کوب رنی ایدی و بیعد غم سیز دین اوتی و اوتی بیز دین هم

ای آلار کیسم بو هدد کشوریدین ا بيئز داغى اولسادوك بعمد الله حظ نفسی مشقبت بدنی

با توك ستيرة مكن اي ميسر بيانه 2 چالاکی و مودانگیی ترک عیسانست گر زرد نیائی و نصیحت نکنی گوش آنجا که عیانست چه حاجت نه بیانست

در هوایی نفس گهسری عمسر ضابع کودی ایم بيش اهل الله از افعال خود شرمذ دهايم یکنظے یا مخلصان خستے دل فرما کہ ما خواجگی را مانده ایم و خواجگی را بنده ایم

Plate 14*b*.

بنده در حلقهٔ اشهاف دگه نارود گرهمه سر حلقه کسی بنده حليقيه بكوش توشوم زان ميان نام من ارحلقه كني

سدى زرفيقان نشدودي رفتي چددي بعدويفان نفاودي رفتي

از تسویسدی نبسود در خاطرها رفتی تو نه ایک هوچه بودی رفتی

¹ See Facsimile of Babur Nāma, p. 330a.

² See Facsimile, p. 298a.

میردی سنگا سند و هند و ملک بسیار ساوق یوزینی کورای دیسانگ غزنی بار

يوز شكــر دي بابركريــم غــفــار ا اي**ــيق ليني** غه گر س**نگا** يوقتور طاقت

ای داد صبا ایاسه خراسانعه کدر میدن دین دیکیا اول یار پریشانغه خبر نیچه سفر اوز کونگلونگ اوچون قیلغای سین ایددی بیزنیدگ اوچون ایلا بویانغه سفر

Plate 15a

خطیم نی کوروب سوزومنی چون بیلگای سین کیلماکته بیرگا بیل کبی بیلگای سین اخلاصینگ نی بیلیب بیپاردیم قاصد رحمت سنگا زنبار که پای کیلگای سین

اسلام اوچون آوارهٔ بازی بسول دوم ² کفسار و هنسود حسوب سازی بسول دوم جسرم ایسلاب ایدیم اوزای شهیده اولماققه المستة للسه که عازی بسول دوم

كوندين بيسوي ق كيسم يار و دياريم يوققور بيسر لحظه و بيسر نفس قسراريسم يوققور كيلسديم بوساري اوز اختيساريسم بيسرله ليسكن باروروسدا اختيساريسم يوققور

¹ See Facsimile, p. 296 a.

² Facsimile, p. 324 b, 325 a, where the second line differs considerably. كفأر و حرب منوز حرسازي بولموم. See also Teufel's article in Z.D.M.G., Vol. 37 (1883), p. 182, foot-note.

⁸ küpdinberi it is long since.

آلودهٔ بوز تومان معساصی بولمساق يوز رني و تومان عداب خاصي بولماق کوب یخشی ایکین اهل خود نینگ قاشیدا كيهم اغوييدان اتانى عاصى بولهاق

Plate 15b.

راحد عم نيست جـه از شست بـدست چون نیست عمل علم چه سودست بدست دستــم بگــرفتــی و ازین خرسدسدم امداد که وارستاه هاوم دست بدست

هر حظ که خلایق اندین ایریلماس ایمیش اول حظ مرو سی و قدریتی بیلماس ایمیش معجدون و سدسط و نوزلا و بوست یکی ۱ بيرجرعه جافير دردى ايشين قيلماس ابميش

ترک مذاعی و شراب ایتیده میسن تفسيم فده خداي او چون عذاب ابتميش مين توبه ایشیک م هنوز آجوق ابردی بو توبه دا بهر نيمه شناب ابتبيش مين

عُم بيوله فسودة ليق هلاك ايني مهني مي بيوله ايميش شادليغ و خرم ليق

مى توكينى قيلغالى ايوور مين غم ليق بار تيرة كونكولكا هر زمان درهم ليق

Plate 16a.

ایل بازچه بشیمان بولور و توبه قیلور مین توبه قیلیب مین و بشیماندورمین

می ترکینی قبلغالی پریشاندور مین : بیلمان قیلور ابشیمنی و حیوان دورمین

I The reading is doubtful. Facsimile, p. 360 b.

سیز لارگا کیشی نی چاره ایلاب بینکای باتر نی داعی بو جمعیدا جمع ایتکای

احباب فراقهنگیز بیله ایل نیتکای جمعیتینگیزنی جمع توتقای تینگری

بی مهر دیسه ایل سینی مین بوتماس ایدیم هرگز دو صفت نی سنگا باوروتهاس ایدیم ناحق اعریب عیالی اونونت ونگ آخر و الله که سیندین بوطمع توتماس ایدیم

هجسوان قفسی دا جان قوشی دم قیلادور عوست بو عز بز عمسونی کسم قیسلادور نی نوع بینای ا فراق و عوبت شرحیسن کیم کوز یاشی نامه نینگ یوزین نم قیلادور

اوت سالدي كونكولكا رئي و بى تاب ليغيم سو قيلدي بو خصته جان نى بى آب ليغيم بو ايكالاسي اگرچه بار صهلك و صعب ليك اولتورادور بانگغه چا بيغهواليغيم

Plate 16b.

کونگلـــومدا اوی و ایکی کوزومدا سو دور مین خسقه نه رحم قیل که حالیـــم بودور نصم کوندوزی و فراق شامــی ینگلیــهٔ تــون کــون مدگانی قرار و نی اویقــو دور

جسمیم دا ایشینمه کوندا محکم بولادور ² کوزدین اوچادور اویقو چو اقشام بولادور

هر ایکالاسی غمیهم بیله صدریم دیک بارغان ساری بو ارتادور اول کهم بولادور

نى يار وفا قبلغـوسي آخـر نى حريف نى حريف نى حيف نى خريف نى خريف يوز حيـف كه ضايع اوتادور عمر عزيز افسوس كه باطل بارادور عمر شـريف

ا ... بیعینیدین نیجه قالفهی میدن اوزومنی نی تیب اول اراغه سالغای میدن بارسام داغی اندا ² میههان کثرنیدین معلوم ایهاس که ییسر تایا الغهای مین

Plate 17 a.

ایل محبقی نی که آرزو قیامیسش مین نی خوش لوغ ایله بو گفت و گو قیامهش مین عشرت بیله عیش نی نی الس قیلفای مهن مین کیم غم و محدت بیله خو قیامیش مین

دولت بيله شاد و شادمان بولغاي سون شوكت بيله مشهور جهان بولغاي سين كونگلونگددا كيدديك دهر اراكام سوروب بو دهر باريچده كاموان بولغاي ايميش 3

جو ما زي ⁴ جو ما مبتلای تو ايم بهندوستان از بسرای نو ايسم

Possibly A superfluous alif has crept in here.

A curious blunder of the Scribe, who has written المحقق instead of سهرس معهدس • The reading is doubtful.

مجکا نه هوا کے هوس مانگ و موتي ۔ فقر اهلیگا بس بولغوسي پاني وروتي

قاون بیرله اوزوم نینگ هجریدا کونگلومدا عم هر سو اقارسو اقار سونینگ فراقیددین کوزومدین هر دم اقارسو

Plate 17b.

بار ارچه باعث یوز شور و یوز گذاه چاغیر چاغیر فراقی هلاف ایتی میدی اه چاغیر

Plate 18a.

نیچه حرمان ارا آسوده لیغیدگ نیچه عمرونکنی قیلر و رسین ضایع اولهاکینگذی اوزونگا کوروب سین اوشبو حالت قه بیلور سین کم بیتار اریترور بارچه گذاهی دین اوزین توبه قیلدیم چاغیر ایچاک دین مجلس آلاتی تمامین اول چرافح ترک ایتیب می نی کونگول نیدوردوم نیچه عصدان بیاه آلوده لیغینگ ا نیچه نفسینگفده بولور سیدن تابع نیت غزو ایلده کهدم یوروب سین کیم که اولمداك اوزیگا جزم ابتدار دور ابتار بارچه مذداهی دین اوزین خوش قیلیب اوزنی بوکیچماکلیک تین القدون و نقدولا صدراحدی و ایاغ حاضر ایلاب باریدسی سیدددوردوم

يكسان كرميذك قاشيدا مدبر مقبل آسان سينينك الينكدا جميع مشكل

Plate 18b.

يا لطف وعنايات انچه قيل كيم كورة اراى يا قهر و غضب ني طاقتيم باريچه قيل

اخلاص و عقیدهٔ تو روشن شده است حالات و طریقه این مبرهن شده است حایل چو نماند زود برخیسز و بیسا

قیدش گرچده زمان منقدل و آتش نور لیکن بوشتا هنده ته کوب دلکشش نور هنگام نشاط و بادهٔ بیغشش تدور می بولماسه معجون داغی بولسه خوش تور

عروض اتمامي دين ايكي اوچ ييل سونگ هندوستان فتحى نينگ سونگفى ييلي سنبل سريغه بارور فرصت ته بير متطول بيت اون التي ركن بيله ايتيليب ايدي دواير مصاريعي نينگ طويقى بيله اوناه و اسداب نينگ تقديم و تاخيريدين وچ بحردا كيم هزچ رجز رمل بولغاى متطول وزن حاصل بولور هزچ بحريدين مكفوق و عروض و ضرب مقصور - بيت :—

Plate 19a.

منگا سیسن لینچه کیسم جور و جفسا بیسرله عذاب ایلا سانگ ای یار جفا جوی پر آزار سقمگار سنگا مین قیلورام قوللوق و هدمت چیسکارام جور و جفا تاکه تیریک میسن ایرورام یار وفادار

مفاعیل ۱۹ قاتله و هزج بحویداغی منطول بیت نینگ مصراع لاری نینگ ولی داغی وتدلارای آخر کیلتو رواسه رجز بحریدین منطوی بولور:

سین بهجده کیدم جور و جفا بیدرله عذاب
ایلاسانگ ای یار جفاجوی بر آزار سقم گار مدگا

مدسن قیلسورام قوللسوق و خدمت چیکارام جور و جفا قاکه تیریك مین ایرورام یار وفادار سدگا ،

مفتعلن ۱۹ قاتله بو رجز بحویداغی منطول بیت نینگ مصراعالاری نینگ ولی داغی سبب لارنی آخر کیلتورولسه رمل بحویدین مخبون بولور *

Plate 19b.

نینچه کیم جورو جفا بیر و اله عذاب ابلاسانگ ای یار جفا جوی پر آزار ستم گار منگا سین قیلورام قوللوق و خدمت چید کارام جورو جفا تاکه تیریک مین ایرورام یاروفادار سنگا میس فعلاتن ۱۲ قاتله *

هندستان جانبی عزیمت قیلغالی ایتیلغان اشعار بو ایردی کیم تحریر قیلدیم و کیچکان وقایع اول دورور کیم تقریر قیلیب تور مین نیچوک کیم بو اوراق ته مسطور دور و اول اجزاده مذکور *

حُرّرة بابر دوشنبه ١٥ ربيع الآخر صنه ١٥٥

PORTION OF A RUBA'I WRITTEN BY BABUR'S OWN HAND.

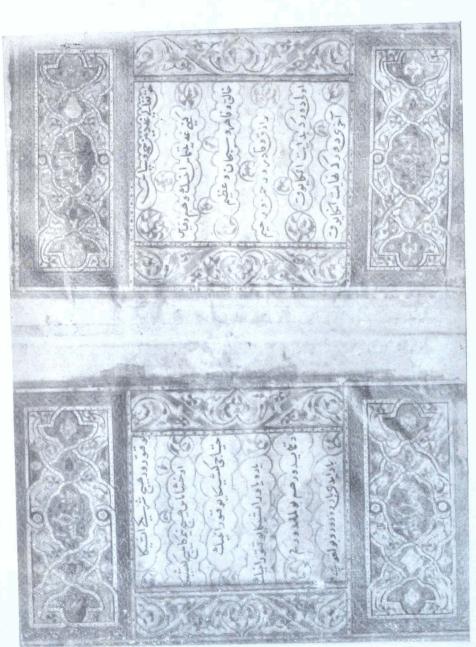
هر وقت که کورگاسین مینید ک موزومدي سوزومدي سوزومدي اوقسوب باد قیلفاسین اوزومدي

ENDORSEMENT IN THE WRITING OF SHAH JAHAN.

اين ربامي تركي و اسم مبارك بتحقيق خط الحضوت فودوس مكاني بابر بادشاه غازي انار الله برهانه است *

حررة شاة جهان بن جهانگهر بادشاه بن اکبر بادشاه بن همایون بادشاه بن بابر بادشاه ه





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Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [Extra No.

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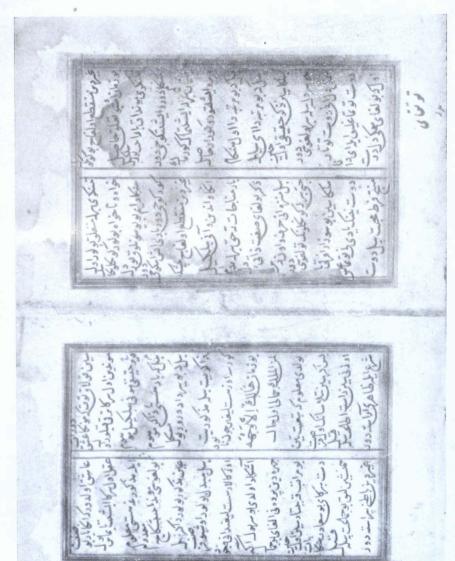


B

Dīvān-i-Babur Pādishāh.



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Dīvān-i-Babur Pādishāh.

Plate V.



Divān-i-Babur Pādishāh.

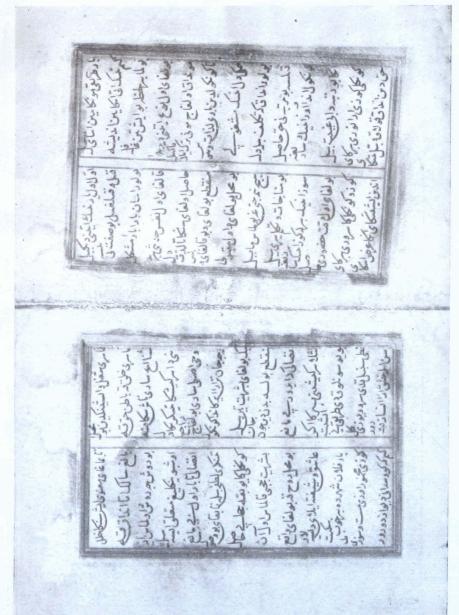


Plate VII

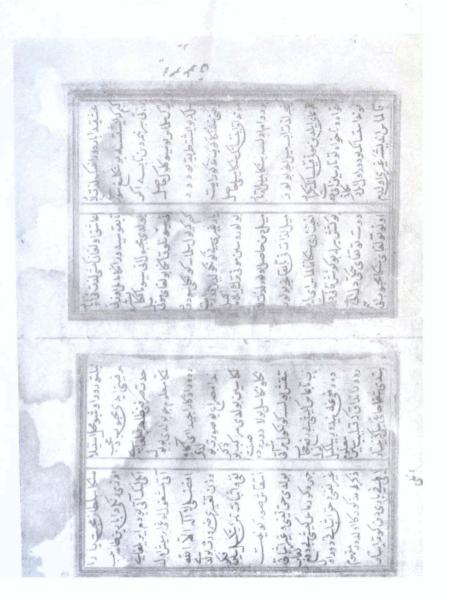




Plate IX

B





A

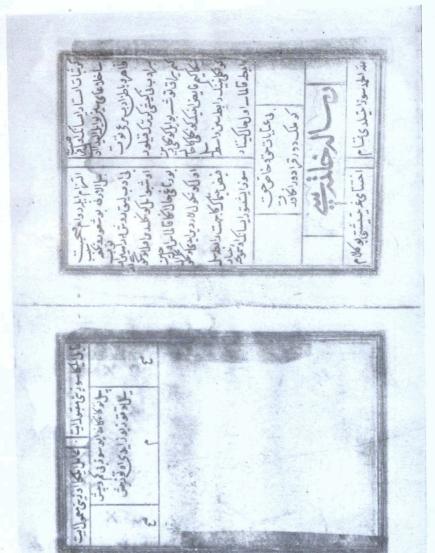


Plate XI.

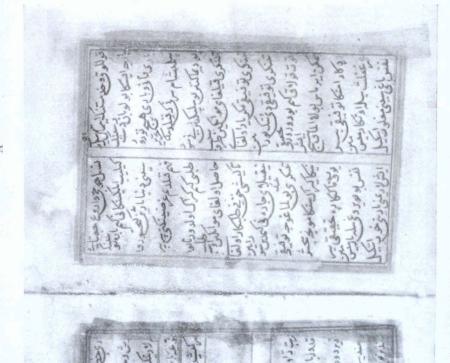
B

Divān-i-Babur Pādishāh.





Plat



Dîvān-i-Babur Pādishāh.



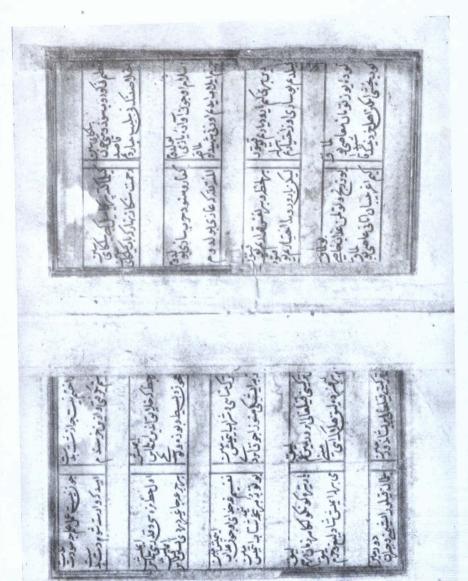


Plate XV.

Dīvān-i-Babur Pādishāh.



Dīvān-i-Babur Pādishāh.

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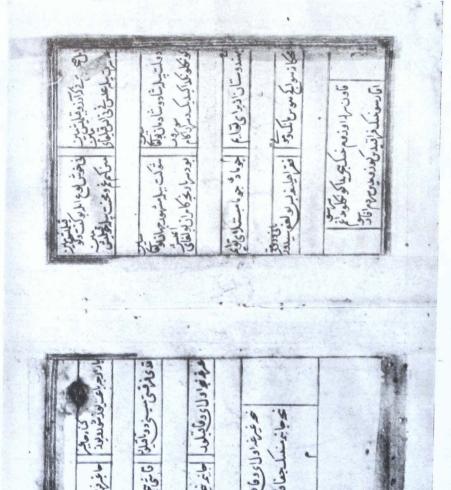


Plate XVII.

2

Dīvān-i-Babur Pādishāh.



Plate XIX

B

Green Boken Drakeler

JANUARY 1910.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 5th January, 1910, at 9-15 p.m.

THE HON'BLE MR. JUSTICE ASUTOSH MUKHOPADHYAYA, M.A., D.L., F.R.S.E., Vice-President, in the chair.

The following members were present:—

Dr. N. Annandale, Babu Rakhal Das Banerji, Mr. J. H. Burkill, Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, Mr. J. A. Chapman, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Mr. F. Doxey, Mr. L. L. Fermor, Rai Matilal Ganguli Bahadur, Mr. D. Hooper, Dr. W. C. Hossack, Mr. T. H. D. LaTouche, Rev. W. R. LeQuesne, Mr. A. H. Lewes, Mr. W. S. Milne, Dr. Girindra Nath Mukhopadhyaya, Mr. W. W. K. Page, Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott, Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Captain, F. H. Stewart, I.M.S., Dr. A. Suhrawardy, Dr. M. W. Travers, Rev. A. W. Young, and others.

Visitors:—Babu Hem Chandra Das-Gupta, Mr. J. Henderson Gray, Mr. G. D. Hope, Miss Morrison, Mrs. E. Denison Ross, and others.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Two hundred and ten presentations were announced.

The Chairman reported that he had received one essay in competition for the Elliott Prize for Scientific Researches for the year 1909.

The General Secretary read the following Minutes of the Special Meeting of the Council held on the 8th December, 1909, nominating Fellows of the Society.

A Special Meeting of the Council of the Asiatic Society of Bengal was held on Wednesday, the 8th December, 1909, at 5-30 P.M.

Present:—The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, M.A., D.L., F.R.S.E.; G. Thibaut, Esq., Ph.D., C.I.E.; Lieut.-Col. F. J. Drury, M.B., I.M.S.; D. Hooper, Esq., F.C.S.; E. D. Ross, Esq., Ph.D.; N. Annandale, Esq., D.Sc., C.M.Z.S.; Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, M.A., Ph.D., M.R.A.S.; Major L. Rogers, M.D., B.Sc., I.M.S.; H. G. Graves, Esq., A.R.S.M.; Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, M.A., B.L.; Dr. E. P. Harrison; Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott.

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Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. [January,

Business.—Nomination of Fellows.

Order.—The following names were selected by ballot for nomination, each obtaining at least a two-thirds majority of the votes of the members of Council present at the meeting. The names are arranged in alphabetical order.

Dr. N. Annandale, D.Sc., C.M.Z.S., F.L.S.; The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, C.S.I., M.A., D.L., D.Sc., F.R.A.S., F.R.S.E.; I. H. Burkill, Esq., M.A., F.L.S.; Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, M.A.; Sir Thomas Holland, K.C.I.E., D.Sc., A.R.C.S., F.G.S., F.R.S.; D. Hooper, Esq., F.C.S.; T. H. D. LaTouche, Esq., B.A., F.G.S.; Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, M.A., B.L.; Lieut.-Col. D. C. Phillott,; Dr. Prafulla Chandra Ray, D.Sc.; Major L. Rogers, M.D., B.S., F.R.C.P., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.; Dr. E. D. Ross, Ph.D.; Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, M.A., Ph.D., M.R.A.S.; Dr. G. Thibaut, Ph.D., C.I.E.; Dr. M. W. Travers, D.Sc., F.R.S.; A. Venis, Esq., M.A.; Dr. G. T. Walker, M.A., F.R.S.

The following four gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

- Mr. J. N. Farquhar, M.A., proposed by Rev. A. W. Young, seconded by Mr. D. Hooper; Mr. David A. David, Merchant, 55, Free School Street, proposed by Mr. M. J. Seth, seconded by Babu Rakhal Das Banerji; Major W. M. Coldstream, R.E., Survey of India, proposed by Mr. T. H. D. LaTouche, seconded by Dr. N. Annandale; Dr. Geoffrey D. Hope, B.Sc., Ph.D., Scientific Officer, Indian Tea Association, proposed by Mr. D. Hooper, seconded by Dr. N. Annandale.
- Dr. E. D. Ross delivered a lecture on Csoma de Körös and Tibetan Buddhism.

The following papers were read :---

- 1. On a probable identity between Clypeaster complanatus. Duncan and Sladen, and Clypeaster duncanensis, Noetling.—By HEM CHANDRA DAS GUPTA. Communicated by MR. VREDENBURG.
 - 2. Fashion in Iron Styles.—By I. H. BURKILL.
- 3. A passage in the Turki text of the Babarnamah.—By H. Beveridge.
- 4. An unpublished Tibetan-Latin vocabulary (with pronunciations marked) by an Italian Capuchin named(Da Fano, written in 1714. (From the collection in the Imperial Library, Calcutta.)

 —By Harinath Dr.

These two papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 12th January, 1910, at 9-30 P.M.

LIEUT.-COLONEL J. T. CALVERT, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. U. N. Brahmachari, G. C. Chatterjee, Dr. B. N. Ghosh, Captain D. M. McCay, I.M.S., Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Dr. G. N. Mukerji, Dr. Indumadhab Mullick, Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitors: - Dr. S. C. Bural, Captain E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

A case of Pityriosis rubra was shown by Lieut.-Colonel J. T. Calvert.

A paper was read on Circulatory Diseases of the circulatory system in India by Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., and the discussion on this subject was concluded.

The following papers were also read:

- 1. Researches on Kala-azar. -By Dr. Upendra Nath Brahmachari.
- 2. The occurrence of an epyzootic of foul septicaemia in Calcutta and prophylactic treatment by a vaccine.—By Dr. G. C. Chatterjee.



FEBRUARY, 1910.

The Annual Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 2nd February, 1910, at 9-15 P.M.

The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, C.S.I., D.L., D.Sc., F.R.S.E., Vice-President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. N. Annandale, Babu Rakhal Das Banerji, Mr. R. C. Banerji, Mr. J. A. Chapman, Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, Babu Nilmani Chakravarti, Dr. W. A. K. Christie, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Mr. D. A. David, Mr. L. L. Fermor, Mr. H. G. Graves, Dr. E. P. Harrison, Mr. D. Hooper, Mr. T. H. D. La Touche, Mr. W. A. Lee, Mr. E. M. Löffler, Mr. W. H. Miles, Dr. Indu Madhab Mallick, Dr. Girindra Nath Mukerjee, Babu Panchanan Mukhopadhyaya, Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, Dr. P. C. Ray, Dr. E. D. Ross, Hon. Mr. Justice S. Sharfuddin, Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, Mr. A. C. Sen, Mr. M. J. Seth, Captain F. H. Stewart, I.M.S.; Mr. E. Vredenburg, Hon. Mr. Justice H. Holmwood.

Visitors:—Babu S. C. Bagchi, Babu Hem Chandra Das-Gupta, Babu Phanindra Lal Gangooly, Mr. R. W. Harrison, Mr. K. Mukerji, Mr. A. Wanen and others.

The Chairman ordered the distribution of voting papers for the election of Officers and Members of Council for 1910, and appointed Captain F. H. Stewart, I.M.S., and Babu Rakhal Das Banerji, to be scrutineers.

The Chairman also appointed Mr. L. L. Fermor and Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri to be scrutineers for the election of the Fellows of the Society.

The Chairman announced that only one essay had been received in competition for the Elliott Prize for Scientific Research for the year 1909, which was sent to the Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, one of the Trustees, for report, and that the result had not yet been received.

The Chairman called upon the Secretary to read the Annual Report.

ANNUAL REPORT FOR 1909.

The Council of the Society has the honour to submit the following report on the state of the Society's affairs during the year ending 31st December, 1909.

Member List.

The number of Ordinary Members at the close of the year was 473. Seventy Ordinary Members were elected during 1909. Out of these, 7 have not yet paid their entrance fees; 1 member withdrew, and 1 died. The number of Ordinary Members, therefore, added to the list was 61, in addition to another 1 elected in 1908, who has paid his entrance fee during the year, making a total of 62 Ordinary Members added to the last list. On the other hand, 20 withdrew, 7 died, 2 were struck off under Rule 38, and 8 under Rule 40.

The following table gives the statistics or the past six years:—

	Paying.			Non-paying.						
YEA	R.	Resident.	Non- Resident.	Foreign.	Total.	Life.	Absent.	Special Non-Sub- scribing.	Total.	Total.
1904		132	130	14	276	21	45	1	67	343
1905		144	133	12	288	20	47	1	68	357
1906		173	147	15	335	20	51	1	72	407
1907	••	174	175	20	369	20	30	1	51	420
1908	••	181	193	17	391	19	38		57	448
1909		183	217	13	413	20	40		60	473

The Ordinary Members whose deaths we lament were—Babu Annadāprasad Bose, Dr. T. Bloch, Mr. A. M. T. Jackson, Babu Jain Vaidya, Babu Mohinīmohan Mitra, Babu Muksudan Dās, Dr. Priyanāth Sen, and Mahārāja Radhakishore Deb, Bahadur.

There were two deaths among Honorary Members, viz.—Professor M. J. DeGœje and Sir George King. The number is now 28.

The number of the Special Honorary Centenary Members remain unchanged since last year.

During the year we have elected Mr. Balkrishna Atmaram Gupte as an Associate Member, the number now standing at 14

One Member, Mahārāja Jagadindranath Roy Bāhādur, compounded for his subscriptions during the year.

Indian Museum.

During the year there has been one vacancy amongst the Trustees. Sir Thomas Holland resigned his office as a Trustee of the Indian Museum on behalf of the Society, and Mr. T. H. D. La Touche, B.A., F.G.S., was appointed. Dr. G. Thibaut acted as a Trustee till October, when Lt.-Col. D. C. Phillott returned to India and resumed his seat. The other Trustees who represent the Society are—the Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, M.A., D.L.; Mr. R. P. Ashton, Lieut.-Col. G. F. A. Harris, M.D., F.R.C.P., I.M.S.

The Government of Bengal forwarded a draft bill to consolidate and amend the law relating to the Indian Museum, with a statement of objects and reasons for criticism, and the Council agreed with its main provisions. They were, however of the opinion that at least two representatives on the Board of Trustees should be appointed by turn instead of one as laid down in the Bill.

Finance

The Accounts of the Society are shown in the appendix under the usual heads. Statement No. 12 contains the Balance Sheet of the Society, and of the different funds administered through it.

The credit balance of the Society at the close of the year was Rs. 1,93,522-13-3, against Rs. 1,89,731-7-0 in the preceding year, which shows an increase in our financial position by about Rs. 3,800. A sum of Rs. 2,000 has been advanced as a loan to the Arabic and Persian MSS. Fund; this added, the closing balance would show an actual increase by about Rs. 5,800.

The Budget 1909 was estimated at the following figures:-

The Budget Estimate of Receipts is exclusive of "Admission Fees," "Compound Subscription" and "Government Allowance" (for Researches in History, Religion, Ethnology and Folklore of Bengal).

The actual receipts for the year, exclusive of these items, have amounted to Rs. 23,487-7-4, or about Rs. 1,350 less than

the estimate; Rs. 2.048 have been received as Admission Fees. Rs. 240 as a Compound Subscription, and Rs. 7,200 as Government Allowance (for Researches in History, Religion, Ethnology and Folklore of Bengal), or about Rs. 8.150 in excess of the estimate. The sum of Rs. 2,300 has been credited to the Permanent Reserve Fund from the Admission Fees and Compound Subscription received during the year, which now stands at Rs. 1.58,000. The Receipts have exceeded the estimate under the heads of "Members' Subscriptions," "Subscriptions for the Society's Journal and Proceedings and Memoirs," "Interest on Investments," "Miscellaneous"; the increases under these heads being Rs. 728-1-7, Rs. 144, Rs. 223, and Rs. 59-5-9, respectively. The Receipts have fallen short of the estimate under the following heads: "Sale of Publication" owing to certain sale proceeds not having been realised during the year, "Government Allowance '' on account of non-receipt of allowance from the Government of Eastern Bengal and Assam, and 125th Anniversary Entertainment Fund" owing to non-realisation of all the voluntary contributions.

In the Budget the expenditure was estimated at Rs. 24.770. distributed under 21 heads. Of this sum, Rs. 310 provided for the "Tibetan Catalogue" was not utilised. The actual expenditure has amounted to Rs. 24.041, or Rs. 729 less than the estimate. The expenditure has exceeded the estimate under the heads of "Stationery," "Journal and Proceedings" and "Memoirs," Petty Repairs," and "125th Anniversary Entertainment Fund." "Stationery" has been higher owing to purchase of stencil papers, ink, etc., for the use of the Medical Section. "Journal and Proceedings" and "Memoirs" have been increased owing to the printing charges of Material for a Flora of the Malayan Peninsula. "Petty Repairs" has been higher owing to whitewashing and painting the room rented to the Automobile Association of Bengal. And 125th Anniversary Entertainment Fund" has been increased owing to bonus given to the Staff of the Society. The other increments are not very large, and are proportionate to the amount of work done during the year.

During 1909 the Council sanctioned the following items of expenditure: "Manuscript Catalogue" (for the Arabic and Persian Section of the Society), Rs. 369-12; "Copper Plate Catalogue," Rs. 175; "Loan" (advanced to Arabic and Persian MSS. Fund, Rs. 2,000; and Sanskrit MSS. Fund, Rs. 1,150), Rs. 3,150; and "Salary" (Researches in History, Religion, Ethnology, and Folklore of Bengal), Rs. 4,200; Total Rs. 7,894-12. The sum of Rs. 11-5-10 was paid for interest on Rs. 5,000 Government Promissory Note purchased during the year. The total expenditure has amounted to

Rs. 31.947-1-10.

The following sums were held at the close of the year on account of the different funds administered by the Society :-

				Rs.	A.	P.
Oriental Pu	blication	Fund No. 1 (less Rs	432			
		Suali, and Rs. 40				
Maulavi A	Abu Musa	Ahmad-al Haque)		4,819	14	8
Do.	Do.	No. 2		5,675	1	0
Do.	Do.	No. 3		2,340	11	6
		Fund		758	4	11
		MSS. Fund (less Rs.	166			
advanced	to Maula	vis)		1,899	1	6
Bardie Chr	onicles M	SS. Fund (less Rs.				
advanced	to Officer	-in-charge)		1,216	2	6
		•	-			-—
		TOTAL RS	3	16,709	4	l
			_			

The Permanent Reserve Fund at the close of the year was Rs. 1,58,000, and the Temporary Reserve Fund at the close of the year Rs. 44,300, against Rs. 1,55,700 and Rs. 41,600,

respectively, of the previous year.

The Permanent Reserve Fund has increased by Rs. 2,300 from the Admission Fees and one Compound Subscription received during the year, and the Temporary Reserve Fund has increased by Rs. 2,700 from the Government Promissory Note purchased during the year. The Trust Fund at the close of the year was Rs. 1,400.

The Budget Estimate of Receipts and Disbursements for the year 1910 has been fixed as follows:—

Receipts .. Rs. 30,697 .. , 28,443 Expenditures

The Budget Estimate of Receipts is about Rs. 3,430 less than the Actuals, and Rs. 5,865 more than the estimate "Members' Subscriptions" are higher owing to the increase in the number of new members. "Subscriptions for the Society's Journal and Proceedings and Memoirs' have been increased owing to a few more subscribers being added to "Interest on Investments" shows an increase owing to the purchase of Government Paper. "Rent" has decreased owing to the realisation in 1909 of the rent for the month of December, 1908. "Government Allowance" is higher owing to the non-receipt of Rs. 1,000 from the Government of Eastern Bengal and Assam. There is a further estimate of the Government Allowance for the Researches in History, Religion, Ethnology, and Folklore of Bengal. "Loan" advanced to the Arabic and Persian MSS. Fund is to be realised from the same in April, 1910. There will be no income from the Anniversary Entertainment Fund, as the account is now closed.

The Budget Estimate of Expenditure is Rs. 3,500 less than the Actuals, and Rs. 3,675 more than the estimate of 1909. "Salaries" have been increased owing to increment allowed to the Staff, and an extra Duftry appointed for 6 months. "Journal and Proceedings and Memoirs" are higher, because all the publications of 1909 have not been issued. "Contingencies" have been increased owing to the winter clothing given to the menials of the Society. "Library Catalogue" is reduced. owing to the prospect of only one part being published. "Paging of Manuscripts," "Building" and "Salary" have been added to the estimate. "Paging of Manuscripts," remuneration for examining the pages, etc., of the Arabic and Persian MSS. presented to the Society by Khan Bahadur Shams-ul-Ulama Nawab Aziz Jung of Hyderabad, Deccan, and "Salary," will be met from the Government Allowance which is awaited. The other items are based upon the actuals of the last year.

Two extraordinary expenditures have been budgetted for during the year 1910, namely, Rs. 1,300 for printing of about 20 plates of the drawings of Gangetic Fish with a synonomy of the species and notes, and Rs. 1,500 for the purchase of standard works as a commencement of the Medical

Reference Library. Total—Rs. 2,800.

The expenditure on the Royal Society's Catalogue (including subscriptions remitted to the Central Bureau, London) has been Rs. 5,399-14-7, while the receipts under this head from subscription received on behalf of the Central Bureau (including a grant of Rs. 1,000 from the Government of India) have been Rs. 6,065-3. A sum of Rs. 4,826-14-10 has been remitted to the Central Bureau, London. And the amount of Rs. 5,129-7-1 is still to be forwarded.

The Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya was appointed to the office of Treasurer in April, 1909, on Mr. Hooper proceeding on furlough for 6 months. Mr. D. Hooper resumed charge in November, 1909.

BUDGET ESTIMATE FOR 1910.

Receipts.

	1909. Estimate.	1909. Actuals.	1910. Estimate.
	Rs.	Rs.	$\mathbf{Rs.}$
Members' Subscriptions	9,500	10,228	9,700
Subscriptions for the Society's Journal and Pro-	·	·	
ceedings and Memoirs	1,560	1,704	1,704
Sale of Publications	2,000	1,393	2,000
Carried over Rs.	13.060	13,325	13,404

	ъ	ъ.	ъ.
75 14 6 1	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Brought forward		13,325	13,404
Interest on Investments		6,993	6,993
Rent of room		650	600
Government Allowances	•	2,00 0	4,00 0
Ditto (for Researches			
in History, Religion			
Ethnology, and Folklor	e		
of Bengal)	• • •	7,200	3,60 0
Miscellaneous .		159	100
125th Anniversary Enter	-		
${f tainment\ Fund}$		360	
125th Anniversary Balance	9		
carried forward from	1		
1908	769		
Loan		1,150	2,000
Admission fees		2,048	
Compound Subscription.		24 0	
•			
TOTAL Rs	24,834	34,125	30,697
Expe	nditure.		
Salaries	. 5,680	5,688	6,350
Commission	F05	55 7	550
Pension	455	420	42 0
Stationery	105	198	150
Light and Fans	057.5	262	260
Municipal Taxes	1 405	1,465	1,465
Posto so	600	596	600
Freight	900	102	300
Contingencies	F 00	463	600
D 1 . ~	1 000	634	1,200
D: 1:	1 000	892	1,000
Journal and Proceeding	. 1,000,7 .e	002	1,000
and Memoirs	7,500	8,134	9,000
Printing Circulars, etc		215	250
Auditor's fee	100	100	100
Datter manadas	100	171	100
Insurance	190	187	188
Library Catalogue	1 500	1,329	1,000
Grain Compensation Al-		1,020	1,000
lowances	30 0	251	30 0
Tibetan Catalogue	310		310
125th Anniversary Enter-		• •	010
tainment Fund	1 00=	1,752	
Repairs	780	625	••
•			$\frac{-}{24,143}$
Carried over Rs.	24,77 0	24,041	24,143

	Rs.	\mathbf{Rs} .	Rs.
Brought forward	24,770	24,041	24,143
Salary (for Researches in		,	,-
History, Religion, Eth-			
nology, and Folklore of			
Bengal)		4,200	3,600
Manuscript Catalogue		370	
Interest on Government			
Paper purchased		11	
Copper Plate Catalogue		175	• •
Loan		3,150	
Paging of Manuscripts	• •		200
Building	• •	• •	500
Total Rs	24,770	31,947	28,443

Extraordinary Expenditure.

		E	stimate. 1909.	Actuals. 1909.	Estimate. 1910.
			$\mathbf{Rs.}$	$\mathbf{Rs.}$	$\mathbf{R}\mathbf{s}.$
"Journal	and Proceeding	gs''			
	Memoirs''	••	• •		1,300
''Books ''	• •				1,500
					
	Total Rs.				2,800

Agencies.

Mr. Bernard Quaritch and Mr. Otto Harrassowitz con-

tinued as the Society's Agents in Europe.

The number of the copies of the Journal and Proceedings and the Memoirs sent to Mr. Quaritch during the year 1909 was 586, valued at £55-8-8, and of the Bibliotheca Indica 399, valued at Rs. 577-10; of these copies, to the value of £14-10-10 and Rs. 48-8 have been sold.

Twenty-five invoices of books purchased, and of publications of various Societies sent in exchange, have been received during the year, the value of the books purchased amounting to £33-16-3.

The number of the copies of the Journal and Proceedings and the Memoirs sent to Mr. Harrassowitz during 1909 was 164, valued at £22-9-6, and of the Bibliotheca Indica 316, valued at Rs. 428-12. The sale proceeds have been £29-12-8 and Rs. 397-3 respectively.

Library.

The total number of volumes and parts of magazines added to the Library during the year was 3,433, of which 354

were purchased, and 3,079 were either presented or received in exchange.

Part II of the Library Catalogue up to the letter L has been published, and the third part to end of the letter R is under revision, and will be published shortly.

A large collection of books and MSS. in the Oriental language was presented by Shams-ul-ulamā Ahmad 'Abdu-l-Aziz, Khān Bāhādur, of Hyderabad, Deccan, to the Society's Library, and a Catalogue of the collection has been prepared and will be published shortly.

A Catalogue of the Copper-plates in the possession of the Society has been prepared, and will be published in the Society's Journal.

Mr. J. H. Elliott has continued as Assistant Secretary throughout the year.

International Catalogue of Scientific Literature.

The work of the Regional Bureau has not been light. The number of index slips sent to London for the Catalogue during the year was 2,527; and the accounts from the initiation of the Bureau have been subjected to a complete scrutiny. Of course, pari passu with the increase of scientific workers in India, the number of index slips annually increases, as the following figures show:—

1907		 	1,189
1908		 	2,147
1909	• • •	 	2,527

To meet the increased work, all labour-saving devices that suggest themselves are adopted.

The scrutiny of the Bureau's accounts was made in order that the books might be compared with those of the Central Bureau.

Accounts up to date will be found in statement No. 13 of the appendix. As there shown the maintenance of the Bureau has cost the Government of India Rs. 6,169-10-7, or approximately Rs. 617 per annum; later years have cost more than the earlier years. The Regional Bureau has distributed 2,177 volumes in India and collected Rs. 34,543-10-3 in subscriptions. The sum of Rs. 991-5-0 is still due on the fourth and sixth annual issues. The Bureau has received and distributed in India volumes to the value of £2,371-0-7, and towards the payment for them has remitted to London £1,963-16-11 at a cost of Rs. 29,414-3-2. When the Bureau shall have collected the sum of Rs. 991-5-0 overdue, it will hold a balance of Rs. 6,120-12-1 from subscriptions, which amount is a little more than will be the cost of the remittance at the present unfavourable rate of exchange of the £407-3-8 due to London.

The Bureau to date has thus a small profit on subscriptions: but this small profit will be turned into a deficit by another vear of an unfavourable rate of exchange, to avoid which the Council of the Society has decided that the discount, in generosity hitherto allowed to the subscribers, must in future go towards the upkeep of the Bureau; and from the seventh annual issue a complete set will cost in India Rs. 270 instead of Rs. 255.

The question of the future of the Catalogue is to come before the International Council in London at an early date: this is a consequence of the unremunerativeness of the whole undertaking.

The following gentlemen assisted the Regional Bureau in

making and checking the index slips:—

Dr. N. Annandale. Mr. I. H. Burkill. Professor E. P. Harrison. Mr. D. Hooper. Mr. H. Maxwell Lefroy. Major L. Rogers. Mr. E. Vredenburg.

Anniversary of the Society.

The Society celebrated its 125th Anniversary on Friday, January 15, 1909. The celebration took the form of an evening reception held, by permission of the Trustees, in the Indian Museum. Many Scientific, Archæological, Philological and Historical exhibits were shown, illustrating the progress and activities of the Society.

In connection with the Anniversary the Council has decided

to publish a History of the Society for the past 25 years.

Fellows of the Society.

At the suggestion of Sir Thomas Holland, K.C.I.E., the Council appointed a Sub-Committee to discuss the question of creating Fellowships as a distinction among ordinary members of the Society. Several meetings of the Sub-Committee were held, and circulars under Rules 64A and 65 framing rules approved by the Council were sent to the members of the Society. These rules were approved of by the general body of members, and at a special meeting of the Council held on the 8th December, 1909, the following gentlemen were nominated by ballot for election as Fellows of the Society, each obtaining at least a two-thirds majority of the votes of the members of the Council present at the meeting.

Dr. N. Annandale, D.Sc., C.M.Z.S., F.L.S.

The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, C.S.I., M.A., D.L., D.Sc., F.R.A.S., F.R.S.E.

I. H. Burkill, Esq., M.A., F.L.S.

Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, M.A.

Sir Thomas Holland, K.C.I.E., D.Sc., A.R.C.S., F.G.S., F.R.S.

D. Hooper, Esq., F.C.S.

T. H. D. LaTouche, Esq., B.A., F.G.S.

Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, M.A., B.L.

Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, 23rd Cavalry, F.F.

Dr. Prafulla Chandra Ray, D.Sc.

Major L. Rogers, M.D., B.S., F.R.C.P., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.

Dr. E. D. Ross, Ph.D.

Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, M.A., Ph.D., M.R.A.S.

Dr. G. Thibaut, Ph.D., C.I.E.

Dr. M. W. Travers, D.Sc., F.R.S.

A. Venis, Esq., M.A.

Dr. G. T. Walker, M.A., F.R.S.

Elliott Prize for Scientific Research.

The subject selected for the Elliott Gold Medal for the year 1909 was "Mathematics", and only one essay has been received in competition. It has been referred to the Trustees for report.

Barclay Memorial Medal.

In connection with the Barclay Memorial Medal, the Council awarded the Medal for 1909 to Lieut.-Colonel David Prain, M.A., M.B., LL.D., F.R.S., I.M.S. (retired), in recognition of his biological researches.

Society's Premises and Property.

At the suggestion of Babu Rākhāl Dās Banerji, the Society lent a Buddhist Chaitya in bronze to the Indian Museum for exhibition with the majority of the Society's Collection.

Messrs. Martin & Co. has submitted definite proposals on the question of building new premises for the Society on its own ground, and the matter is still under consideration of the Council.

Exchange of Publications.

During 1909, the Council accepted two applications for exchange of publications, viz. (1) from the Vijiranana National Library, Bangkok, the Society's Journal and Proceedings and the Memoirs containing papers relating to the Far East for their publications on the old literature on Siam, (2) University of Nebraska, the Society's *Journal* and *Proceedings* and the *Memoirs* for their "Studies."

Publications.

There were published during the year eleven numbers of the *Journal* and *Proceedings* (Vol. IV, Nos. 10-11; Vol. V, Nos. 1-7, Extra No. 1909, and Vol. LXXIV, Part 4) containing 883 pages and 11 plates.

Of Memoirs, two numbers were published (Vol. II,

Nos. 8 and 9) containing 186 pages and 4 plates.

Numismatic Supplement No. 10 has been published in the Journal and Proceedings, Vol. IV, No. 10, under the editorship of the Hon. Mr. H. Nelson Wright.

There were also published Part II of the Society's Library Catalogue, and a separate number containing a Lecture on

Sea Fishing by Dr. Travis Jenkins.

Mr. G. H. Tipper continued as General Secretary and editor of the *Proceedings* until November, from which month Dr. N. Annandale officiated for him. Dr. E. D. Ross left India at the end of January, and Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyābhūsana was appointed to carry on the work of the Philological Secretary and Editor of the Philological Section of the Journal. Mahāmahopādhyāya Satis Chandra Vidyābhūsana carried on the duties till June, when he left Calcutta on deputation. Dr. G. Thibaut acted until Ross' return. Dr. Ross returned in August and resumed charge of his office. The Natural History Section of the Journal was edited by Mr. I. H. Burkill, the Natural History Secretary, and the Anthropological Section of the Journal by Dr. N. Annandale, the Anthropological Secretary, Mahāmahopādhyāya Haraprasad Shastri continued the work of collecting Sanskrit MSS. throughout the year. Mahāmahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri was also appointed officer in charge for the Search of Bardic Chronicles. Mahāmahopādhyāya Satis Chandra Vidyābhūṣaṇa carried on the duties of the Joint Philological Secretary till June, when he left Calcutta, and Dr. Thibaut was appointed to carry on the work. Dr. Thibaut continued till the end of July when Dr. Ross returned and took over charge of the work. Dr. Ross was also in charge of the Search for Arabic and Persian MSS. during January, when he left India and Mr. G. H. Tipper carried on the work. Dr. Ross returned in August and resumed charge of the Search. Major Rogers continued as Medical Secretary throughout the year. The Coin Cabinet was in charge of the Hon. Mr. H. Nelson Wright, who has reported on all Treasure-Trove Coins sent to the Society.

Philology,

In the field of Sanskritic Studies.—Mr. A. C. Sen published a lengthy article on Trita, one of the Hero-Gods of the Rig-veda; in which he tries to remove some of the difficulties which have beset scholars in East and West with regard to the double character and personality of this god. He has taken all the passages in the Rig-veda in which reference is made to Trita, and arranged these passages under groups, according to the various conflicting statements, and offered an interpretation of each. Mr. A. C. Sen tries to prove that Trita was a man, and as such worshipped the gods and performed sacrifices to propitiate them, appointing a clan of the Angiras family as his priests. He is claimed as a kinsman by a Vedic bard named Kutsa. That Trita was a man is further evident from the passages which refer to his distress: for instance, he is spoken of as having once fallen into a well. That Trita fell into a well is a fact of ordinary life, the significance of which is easily understood by those who have had oocasions to travel in the jungle lands of India, where open wells are even now a terror to travellers. While setting forth his own views, Mr. Sen frequently refers to a monograph on Trita by Prof. A. Macdonell, according to whom Trita is the god of the atmosphere, or more precisely, the third form of fire or lightning, and his being thrown into a well symbolises the obscuration of the atmosphere by clouds.

Mr. D. R. Banhardkar of Poona has a long and learned article on the Origin of the Guhilot dynasty of Rajputana; and explains among other things how the Guhilots, who were originally Nâgar Brâhmanas, became Brahmakshatris or Khatris, exchanging their priestly for military pursuits.

Mr. Rakhal Das Banerji contributed two articles, one on the Mathura Inscriptions now in the Indian Museum, and the other

on the history of Saptagrāma or Satgānw.

In the field of Buddhist Research.—Mr. Nundolal Dev contributed a very interesting article on the Vkiramasila Monastery, in which he deals with the foundation and subsequent history of this Vihāra, which was the last Buddhist University in the kingdom of Maghada. From various inferences the writer concludes that the Vihāra cannot have been founded earlier than the middle of the eighth century of the Christian era, and be the ruins at Pātharghātā. Mahāmohopadhyaya H. P. Shastri contributed two important articles connected with Buddhist Literature. The first on a new Manuscript of the Buddha-Carita found in the Divyadeva Collection in the Darbar Library, Nepal, supplies certain lacunæ left in Cowell's edition. The second deals with another Nepalese Manuscript in which the learned Shastri has discovered a hitherto unknown epic by the famous Buddhist author Asvaghośa. Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana also contributed a valuable paper on certain rare Sanskrit works on

Grammar, Lexicography and Prosody which have been recovered from Tibetan sources. He shows that Indian works continued to be translated into Tibetan, not only during the time of Bu-ston in the fourteenth century A.D., but even as late as 1684 $\bar{\rm A}$.D. when the Tibetan version of the Sārasvata Vyākarana and of its commentary was prepared under the auspices of the Dalai Lama Tsaṅṣ-Dwyaṅs-Rgya-Mtsho at Potala.

Mr. Monmohan Chakravarti has contributed no less than three long articles on Archæological subjects to our Journal during the year under review, the most important of which is one on the Temples of Bengal and their general characteristics. The article is copiously illustrated and throws considerable light on a subject which has hitherto only been lightly touched The other articles deal respectively with certain disputed or doubtful events in the History of Bengal during the early Muhammadan period, and the city of Gaur and other ancient sites in Bengal. In an article on "Certain disputed or doubtful events in the History of Bengal, No. 2" Babu Monmohan Chakravarti controverts Major Raverty's assertions that Muhammad-i-Bakht-Yar sacked Bihar and Nudiah in 589 H. and 590 H. respectively. As a fact these events seem to have taken place after 593 H. In his "Notes on Gaur and other old places in Bengal" the same writer discusses a number of important problems connected with the political history of Bengal, especially with that of its five capitals, viz: Lakhnauti, Pāndua, Tānda, Rājmahl and Murshidābād during the Mahomedan rule 1200-1757 A.D.

Mr. William Irvine gave us a final contribution of his most valuable series of notes and observations on the Later Mughals.

"The Malla-Yastikā grant of Nandana" by Babu Paramesvar Dayal is a paper on a copper-plate inscription in Sanskrit discovered in the district of Gya. The inscription which is dated the year "232" (supposed by the writer to be of the Gupta era) records the grant by a chieftain named Nandana, of the village Malla Yastika, to a Brahman named Ravi-Svāmin of the Gargya Gotra and Yajurveda. In his article on the "Mathura Inscriptions in the Indian Museum" Babu Rakhaldas Banerjee reproduces mechanical facsimiles of the inscriptions and discusses their readings and translations as published by Dr. Mitra, Professor Dawson, and Dr. Lüders. The same writer in his paper on Saptagrāma gives a systematic account of the place from the period of its conquest by the Mahomedans to the time of the Portuguese settlement. In a note added to the paper Dr. Bloch edits an Arabic inscription left unnoticed by Dr. Blochmann, who published some time ago, in the Journal of the Society, most of the Arabic and Persian inscription that still exist at Saptagrama.

Only one number of the *Memoirs* was published during the year under review, namely A Polyglot List of Birds in Turki,

Manchu and Chinese.' This is an attempt by Dr. Ross to utilise the resources of the great Dictionary in five languages prepared by the order of the Chinese Emperor K'ien Lung, of which only one copy is known to exist to-day, namely, the Manuscript in the British Museum. Three hundred and sixty bird names occur in this work, and of these upwards of 200 have been approximately identified.

An extra number of the Journal contains a Grammar and Dictionary of the Kanawari, a dialect of the Punjab. A complete structure of the dialect is clearly set forth in the grammar in the course of only 27 pages. The Dictionary, which consists of 138 pages, embodies the principal words in Roman character explained in English together with an occasional discussion of their etymology. The works have been compiled by Pandit Tikaram Joshi, and edited by Mr. H. A. Rose, I.C.S.

Mathematics and the Natural Sciences.

The total number of contributions to the Society's publications under the heading Mathematics and the Natural Sciences is seventeen: of them one is in pure mathematics, one is in mineralogy, two are in chemistry, one in geology, four in zoology, and eight in botany.

The Society published during 1909 Professor Syamdas Mukhopadhyaya's second paper on A General Theory of Oscula-

ting Conics.

On July 7th, 1909, Professor Sommerfeldt exhibited before it at a general meeting a modification of Websky's Geniometer which he had devised. The modification enables crystals to be measured accurately as by a theodolite-geniometer.

Mr. Hooper's paper on Tamarisk manna names the origin of the exudation: and the author shows that the chief sugar in it is not mannite, but a saccharose. Babu Bidhu Bhusan Dutta in a paper on The Constituents of the roots of Arisama concinnum, Schott, and A. speciosum, Mart., points out that these two famine foods contain a considerable amount of nutriment. chiefly starch. Babu Hem Chandra Das-Gupta in a short paper called attention to a fossil shell of the genus Goniomya from the Cretaceous rocks of Southern India, different specifically from any hitherto described. Dr. N. Annandale had exhibited before the Society on Nov. 4, 1908, specimens of the Polyzoon-Pectinatella burmanica, from Puri, Bengal: and a note on this exhibit was published in the Society's Proceedings during 1909. Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, on Feb. 3rd, 1909, called the attention of the Society to the Mosquito-larvæ eating propensity of fish of the genus Haplochilus: and asked for co-operation in making further observations. He states that several species of this genus of small fishes are voracious feeders on the larvæ. Dr. H. Travis Jenkins at a special meeting on Feb. 17th, 1909, brought the

matter of Sea-fishing before the Society: his paper has been published as a pamphlet. Major Wall's valuable Monograph of the Sea Snakes has been issued as Memoir No. 8 of the 2nd volume: it is very completely illustrated.

Of botanic papers there are eight to mention. Babu Nibaran Chandra Bhattacharjee called attention to the wav in which Marsilia quadrifolia only fruits when the water in which it has been growing has receded from it, and left it dry. Mr. H. Martin Leake's paper on Indian cottons, entitled Studies in the Experimental Breeding of Indian Cottons: on buds and branching, is of importance. His object being to breed a race of cotton suitable for cultivation at Cawnpur, with the good lint of the slow maturing cottons, but early, he has been observing the characters in bud development which lead to early or late maturity, in order to recognise such as combine with the desirable quantities in the lint, and how to set to work to breed out what is not required. Mr. E. P. Stebbing has sent to the Society his observations on the Loranthus parasite of the Moru and Ban oaks (Quercus dilatata, Lindl., and Quercus incana, Roxb.): he shows how destructive the parasite is to these oaks in the neighbourhood of Naini Tal and in Kumaon: the parasite's seeds are distributed by birds; they affect more easily a lodgment if the branches of the oaks are moss-covered, and finally with the aid of boring beetles kill the limbs of the trees. In part 4 of vol. lxxiv, Sir George King's Materials for a Flora of the Malayan Peninsula has been continued. The part contains accounts of the orders Gesneraceæ by Mr. H. N. Ridley, and Verbenaceæ by Mr. J. Sykes Gamble: with the index, it runs to 180 pages. Mr. Burkill has diagnosed two varieties of the lemon oil grass— Cymbopogon Martini. Prof. P. Brühl has contributed a long and useful paper on Recent plant immigrants into Bengal: 234 species are named by him: their origin discussed, and the causes of these introduction. America has supplied 54.7% of these immigrants. The origin of two Indian drugs Astukhudus and Mishmi Tita have been discussed by Mr. Burkill.

Anthropology, etc.

Only two papers on anthropological subjects have been published during the year, both in the Journal. Both deal, directly or indirectly, with a subject of great interest to which comparatively little attention has been paid, viz., the exact meaning to be attached to the words translated in English as "soul" by writers on the comparative religion of primitive peoples. The titles of the two papers are:—1. Kathi Kasham. The "Soul-departure" Feast as practised by the Tangkul Nagas, Manipur, Assam: by the Rev. Wm. Pettigrew. 2. The Theory of Souls among the Malays of the Malay Peninsula: by N. Annandale, D.Sc.

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Medical Section.

Meetings of this Section have been held each month, except during the vacation, and the interest and attendance has been well maintained. The first two monthly meetings were devoted to a continuation of the discussion on Tubercular affections in India, which brought out many important facts regarding the prevalence of this very serious disease. Lt.-Col. Pilgrim dealt with the records of the European General Hospital for some years, while Major Mulvaney worked out the incidence in the Bengal jails, illustrating the prevalence in different parts of the province by charts. Drs. Pearse and Chatterjee gave figures regarding tubercle in Calcutta, where an increase in its prevalence appears to have taken place in recent years. The frequency with which it affects a number of members of a household points to its infectiousness and the necessity of the treatment of the early cases in a properly equipped sanitorium. Captain Delany contributed an interesting paper on the sanitorium treatment of phthisis, which clearly brought out the fact that climate plays a part of only secondary importance compared with careful treatment and regulation of every detail of life, which can only be secured in a fully equipped institution under a specially qualified medical After an exhaustive discussion extending over three meetings the following resolution was unanimously carried:

"The Medical Section of the Asiatic Society of Bengal having discussed the subject of tuberculous disease in Bengal, and its wide prevalence, are of the opinion that it is an extremely common cause of great suffering and mortality both among the European and Indian communities, and therefore venture to call the attention of the Government of India and the local Governments to the urgent necessity for providing a properly equipped sanitorium for the treatment of early phthisis, such as has been provided, with most satisfactory results, in nearly all civilised countries."

This resolution has been presented by Sir Thomas Holland, as President of the Society, to the Patron, His Excellency the Viceroy, and will, it is hoped, in due time bear fruit, as the discussion has established the fact that tubercular diseases cause far more suffering and death in India than even cholera and many other dreaded tropical diseases.

Another interesting discussion took place on a paper of Dr. Hossack on plague, in which he vigorously attacked the conclusions of the Bombay Plague Commission. Major Vaughan contributed a valuable paper on Small-pox based on great experience in the isolation wards at the Campbell

Hospital, and it is satisfactory to note that his good work has recently received recognition from the Government. Surgical practice was represented by a paper on Prostatectomy by Lt.-Col. Brown. At the last meeting of the year, a discussion on the prevalence of diseases of the circulatory system was opened by Lt.-Col. Drury, and will be continued at a later meeting. It already promises to make important additions to our knowledge of the subject. In addition to the above-mentioned papers, others of less importance were read, numerous rare and interesting cases and specimens were shown, while a demonstration on the precipitant test for the differentiation of human from other mammalian blood was given by Lt.-Col. Sutherland. Altogether the work of the Medical Section has been maintained at a high level.

Further additions have been made to the numbers of medical men belonging to the Society, a notable feature being the joining of recruits from nearly every province of India, largely on account of the efforts which have been made to found a Reference Medical Library by contributions of sets of Journals by the members themselves. In addition to about 50 Medical Journals, which are being received without cost to the Society, by an arrangement made by the Medical Secretary with the Editor of the Indian Medical Gazette, many valuable sets of back numbers of Medical Journals and other books have been presented by Surgeon-General Bomford, Lt.-Colonel Harris, Lt.-Colonel Crawford, Dr. Bentley, and the Medical Secretary. Unfortunately owing to financial and other difficulties during the three-and-a-half years that the Medical Section has been in existence, only a very small sum has been spent by the Society on the purchase of the medical books, although through the efforts of the medical members several thousand rupees worth have been added to the library. In future any additions of the medical members must depend on recruiting from beyond Calcutta, and such can only be obtained by the foundation of a Medical Reference Library, which is the crying need of the profession in India. In the annual address delivered in February 1909, the President said: "For this substantial addition to our strength (over 100 in the last five years, that is, more nearly one-fourth of the total numbers) we have to be grateful mainly to the medical profession from whom our recent members have been in a large measure recruited, and I trust that this will prove to be a source of constant supply of strength, if we find ourselves in a position, as we hope we may, to provide an adequate medical library for reference and research." It is a matter for congratulation that the Council has now arranged to make a start in this direction by providing a substantial sum in the next two years for the purchase of some standard works of reference on the different branches of medicine.

Bibliotheca Indica.

Of the 25 fasciculi of texts of different dimensions published in the Bibliotheca Indica series during the year under review 15 belong to Brahmanic Sanskrit, 4 to Jaina Sanskrit, 1 to Jaina Prakrit, 1 to Buddhist Sanskrit, 1 to Tibetan, and the remaining 3 to Persian literature. The fasciculi include Mr. Beveridge's translation of the Akbarnama, vol. ii, fasc. vi, Mahāmahopādhyāya Candra Kānta Tarkālankār's revised edition of the Gobhiliya Grihya-sūtra, and Yogaśāstra, fasc. ii, edited by the learned Jaina Sādhu Srī Vijayadharma Sūri. Of the new works sanctioned last year, 6 fasciculi have been published this year, viz.:—

- (1) One fasciculus (216 pages) of Gobbila-parisista edited with a gloss by Mahāmahopādhyāya Candra Kānta Tarkālankāra. It embodies three distinct treatises, called respectively— Snāna-sūtra (a treatise on ablution), Sandhyā-sūtra (a treatise on daily prayers), and Srāddha-kalpa (a treatise on oblations offered to the dead ancestors).
- (2) One fasciculus (192 pages) of Karma-pradīpa (a lamp of rituals) edited by Mahāmahopādhyāya Candra Kānta Tarkālankār. It embodies the text of Kātvāvana together with the commentary of Nārāyanopādhyāya and a gloss by the editor himself.
- (3) One fasciculus (214 pages) of Hāralatā edited by Pandit Kamal Krishna Smrtitirtha. This work, which treats mainly of mourning and rejoicing observances, is said to have been written by Aniruddha Bhatta in the eleventh century A.D.
- (4) One fasciculus (96 pages) of Santinatha-carita, Svetāmbara Jaina work on the life and teachings of Santinatha the 16th Tirthankara, edited by Muni Indra Vijaya. author of the work was Ajitaprabha Sūri, who is said to have lived in Gujarat in 1250 A.D.
- (5) One fasciculus (96 pages) of Parīkṣāmukha-sūtra, a Digambara Jaina treatise on Logic, by Mānikya Nandi (800 A.D.), together with the commentary of Anantavirya (about 1050 A.D.) edited by Mahāmahopādhyāya Satis Chandra Vidvābhūsana.
- (6) One fasciculus (110 pages) of a history of Gujarat in Persian, by Mir Abū Turāb Valī (about 1574 A.D.), edited with introduction and notes by Dr. E. D. Ross.

Coins.

Nine gold, 23 silver and 31 copper coins were presented to the Society in the year under report. They may be classified as follows :--

xxiv QYS	An	nual Repo	rt.	[Februar	y, 19 10.
Gold—					
Kedara	• •				1
Kumara Pala	Deva of	Qanaui			ī
Ganga Dynast					ī
77	• •	••			3
Yadavas of Do	evagiri			••	3
Silver—					
Arakan					1
Gujarat Dynas	et <i>v</i>	•	••	• •	$\dot{\bar{5}}$
Mughal	, v	• •	••	• •	9
Sikh	• •	• •	• •	• •	ì
Native State	• •	• •	• •	• •	6
	mnantr	• •	• •	• •	1
East India Co	трацу	• •	• •	• •	T
Copper—					
Malwa Dynast	v				28
Ancient North	Indian				3
				, ,	

Five of the gold and 16 of the above silver coins were received from the Royal Asiatic Society, Bombay; one gold and 28 copper coins from the Central Provinces Government; one gold and seven silver coins from the Punjab Government, one gold coin from the United Provinces Government, one gold coin from the Mysore State, one silver coin from the Burma Government, and three copper coins from Lt.-Col. Godfrey, C.I.E.

The Numismatic Secretary examined and reported on fifteen cases of treasure trove comprising six gold, 641 silver, 252 bullion and 248 copper coins, or 1147 coins in all. Notices of the rarer coins discovered in the course of these examinations are to be found in the pages of the Numismatic Supplement.

Two issues of the Numismatic Supplement have appeared during the year under report, containing notes of considerable interest to Indian Numismatists. The contributors to the Numismatic Supplement were the Rev. Dr. G. P. Taylor, Lt.-Col. Vost, and Messrs. W. Irvine, H. Beveridge, R. Burn, R. B. Whitehead. Framji Jamasjee Thanawala, and H. Nelson Wright.

Report on the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts.

During the year 1909, Mahāmahopādhyāya Haraprasāda Sāstrī had charge of the operations in search of Sanskrit Manuscripts; and he made several trips to Benares for the acquisition of Sanskrit Manuscripts, his retirement giving him leisure to devote to this business. The success of his endeavour

may be measured by the fact that 1,573 MSS. have been secured for Government.

The majority of manuscripts belong to the families of two well-known Pandits and MS. collectors of Benares. (I) Harikrsna Vyāsa was a Sārasvata Brāhmana of the highest distinction in the Punjab. He came early in his life to Benares, accompanying his aged mother, who wanted to lay her bones in the Holy City. His business was to recite Puranas and the Vedanta. He had numerous Sannyāsis among his pupils. He was an indefatigable collector of MSS., and several distinguished Pandits of Benares used to borrow MSS, from his collection. He became a recognised Pandit of his time and died at the ripe age of 90 in the year 1894 A.D., leaving a collection of about 3,000 MSS. and much house property to his sons, Hṛṣīkesa and Vidvādhara. Vidvādhara sold a part of his share of the paternal collection to the Sanskrit College, Benares, and a part to German and English MS, collectors. Hrsīkeša died in May, 1909, and his share has been secured for the Government of India. Pandita Harikrsna Vyāsa copied manuscripts himself and employed scribes to copy them. He got some manuscripts from the Caitanya Matha. Many he got from Dhundupāni Bhatta, who lived near Kāla-Bhairava, and who collected all the manuscripts of twenty different Pandits. But the majority of his manuscripts came from Mannu Bhūnjā (a seller of fried grain) who used to advance provisions to indigent students and Pandits on the security of their MSS.; and the forfeiture of these manuscripts enabled him to make a large collection. which he sold to Harikrsna. Harikrsna wrote several tracts in Sanskrit and was never slow in expressing his opinion on the current religious and social topics of the day.

(II) Laksmīnārāyana Kavi was a Bhāt Brāhmana from the Punjab. He was a pupil of Pandita Thākura Datta. was at Benares for 58 years. He was a poet, and wrote Sanskrit verses with considerable fluency. He died in 1909, aged 80. His business was to recite Saptasati at the temple of Annapūrnā. He also was a noted Pandita of his time, and collected a large number of manuscripts from various sources. The copy of the Mahābhārata in his collection belonged originally to Sadananda Vyasa, who was the chief expounder of the Purānas at the Vyāsa-Pīthā at Vālujikā-Farās in the city of Benares. During the last quarter of the 18th and the first quarter of the 19th century, Sadānanda Vyāsa was a very popular expounder of the Puranas, and he acquired much wealth in his profession. He had no son, and Laksminārāyanā Kavi got his manuscripts from his widowed daughter. Many of Sadananda's Sanskrit works are to be found in the Benares Sanskrit College Library. Laksminārāyana had a widowed daughter-in-law, who sold his collection of Sanskrit Manuscripts to the Government of India

Besides the copy of the Mahābhārata above referred to, several Samhitās of the Sīva Purāna have been acquired, such as Rudra Samhitā, Bhauma Samhitā, Vāyavīya Samhitā, Koṭirudra Samhitā, and so on. Several nighanṭus, too, have been acquired, such as Rājanighanṭu, Sarvanighanṭānukramanikā, Madana Vinodanighanṭu, Bhāvaprakāsanighanṭu, Nāma-Ratnā-

karanighantu, Gananighantu and Amarakosanighantu.

The Harikrsna-Collection is specially rich in manuscripts of Upanisad literature. Of the Vrhadāranyaka, it contains commentaries by Nīlakantha and by Nityānandāśrama. well-known fact that the Vrhadāranyaka commented upon by Sankarācārva belongs to the Kānvasākhā of the White Yajur-But this collection has vrtti commentaries by Nīlakantha, Dviveda Ganga and by Vasudeva-Brahma Bhagavan on the Vrhadāranyaka of the Mādhvandina-sākhā of the White Yajurveda. There are several Upanisads in this collection, commented upon by Dāmodara Sastrī, a name unknown to The commentary on the Prasna Bhāsya by Nārāyanendra, and Svetāsvataropanisadvivarana by Jñānottama appear to be altogether new. In the Bundle containing Nyāya works, there are many rare and valuable works, of which Nyāya Kautuka and Nyāya-siddhānta-samgraha seem to be unknown to Of the Vedanta works, Vedanta-Pārijāta by Sadānanda with a commentary entitled Vedānta-Pārijāta-Mañjarī by the author himself is not in Aufrecht, but unfortunately the MS. is incomplete. Aufrecht says in Vol. I that the name Vedānta-Vibhāvanā belong to two works, one by Nārāyaṇa Yati, and the other by Nārāyanācārya. But he corrects the statement in Vol. II by saying that the work and the commentary are both by Nārāyanatīrtha. For the statement in the first volume his authority is Keilhorn's list, and for that in the second the catalogue of Ulwar manuscripts. The MS. No. 8562 of our collection says that the text is by Nārāyana Yati, and the commentary is by Nārāyanatīrtha. appear to be one and the same person, as both are disciples of Rāma Govinda and students of Vāsudeva. Of the Pūrvamīmāmsā, there is a manuscript of a new commentary on the Sūtras by Rāmesvara in this collection. Sāmkhya-krama-Dipikā purports to be the instructions imparted by Kapila to a Brāhmana, and according to one manuscript to Āsuri. It is written in the form of the most ancient stage of Sūtra liter-The twenty-five Kaplla Sūtras are imbedded in it. manuscripts were known to Dr. Rājendra Lāla Mittra, a third correctly and beautifully written has been acquired for the Government. In the Samkhya tradition, Kapila comes as the first historical teacher, Asuri the second, Bodhu third, and Pañcašikha fourth. Pañcašikha is mentioned in the Santiparva of the Mahābhārata. Bodhu or Bodhu is known from Chinese But Asuri is not mentioned in the Mahabharata at sources.

all. He seems to have been forgotten when that great work was written. If, as some manuscripts testify, Āsuri is one of the interlocutors in this work, it is really an important discovery. It is throughout written in the Sūtra form, not in the form of comparatively modern Sūtras like Kauṭilya's Arthaṣāstra, Vatsyāyana's Kāmasūtra and even Pānini's Aṣṭādhyāyī, but in the more ancient form of the Sūtras of Vaṣiṣṭha and Gotama. Jaimini Sutrā-kāṣikā is a commentary on astrological Sūtras attributed to Jaimini. The commentator is Malayavarma, a Rājā of Kumāyun.

Abhinava Gupta was a noted Saiva teacher of Kāsmīr. A complete copy of his commentary on the Gītā has been found in the collection acquired from Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇa Kavi. S'atarañja-kutūhala, a work on chess-play, appears to be new in this collection. Sāṃkhya-pradīpa, Vidyāmañjarī, Commentary on Sūryaṣataka by Vālambhaṭṭa Pāyaguṇḍe, Nimvāditya-prastāva, Nimvādityalaghustava and Ratnodyota by Cirañjīva

are new works found in this collection.

Of the eight schools of Sanskrit grammar, the Jinendra School is the least known. Twelve or thirteen years ago, a description of the work appeared in the pages of Indian Antiquary, and a search was at once instituted in Benares, to find if a copy of that work was available. At last a manuscript was traced in one of the richest Jaina-Upāsrayas in that city, and a copy procured for Government. From Nepal came two manuscripts, one of which, Ekallavira-canda-Mahārosanatantra, represents the modern mystic worship of Tantrik Bud-No amount of persuasion would procure the work at dhism. Kathmundu from the Vajrācāryas there. They say that it is their Guhya worship and should not go to profane hands. Fortunately, however, the work has been procured this year. Sārasamgraha by Ratnākara Misra is a Smriti compilation current at Chittagong. It is one of those works by which, on the loss of political power, the Brāhmanas sought to keep up their ascendency in the Hindu society. It is written throughout on a thick bark procurable in Assam and Chittagong only.

Two volumes of the Notices of Sanskrit Manuscripts are in the press, over forty forms of which have been printed off. The volumes could not be completed owing to interruptions on account of tours, both in search of Sanskrit Manuscripts, and of Bardic Chronicles. Harikṛṣṇa-Vyāsa collection of 567 manu-

cripts have been fully catalogued.

Search for Arabic and Persian Manuscripts.

The year under review is the first year of second quinquennial sanction of the Government of India for the Search of Arabic and Persian Manuscripts. The Government of India xxviii

has been pleased to grant a sum of rupees five thousand a year during the quinquennial period.

During the absence of Dr. Ross from India (February-August) Mr. G. H. Tipper, M.A., F.G.S., was in charge of the work, and under his supervision a general list of the manuscripts, on the system of the previous catalogue printed

under the supervision of Dr. Ross, was prepared.

On the return of Dr. Ross, travelling Maulavis were sent in different parts of India such as Benares, Delhi, Lucknow, Lahore and Hyderabad; and some valuable additions have been made to the collection. Special attention was paid to gathering information about private libraries. In Hyderabad the libraries of Nawab Sirtaj Jung, A.D.C. to H.H. the Nizam, and of Mulla Abdul Qayyum, deceased, were visited by Maulavi Hafiz Nazir Ahmad. The former contains 677 manuscripts and 2,957 printed books, out of which about 120 manuscripts are old and in good condition; among the latter are some rare and valuable MSS., particularly the Aurang-namah is of special interest. It is a history (in Persian Poetry) of Shah Jahan, and of the civil wars among his sons till the accession of Aurang Shah better known in history as Aurangzib. was composed in 1072 A.H. and seems to be the autograph copy containing some 7,800 and odd verses: the author appears to be one Haqiri.

The authorities at the request of Dr. Ross kindly permitted a transcription from the original to be made for the Society.

During the year under review, 164 manuscripts were purchased for the total sum of Rs. 3,434, and the collection is representative of almost every branch of literature and science.

Of the recent acquisition the following manuscripts are of interest:—

- 1. At-Tahdib-fit-Tafsîr, a very old copy, dated A.H. 674, comprising the commentary on the latter half of the eighth chapter to the first half of the eleventh chapter of the Quran, by Abu Sa'ad Muhsin bin Karâmat-al-Jashami-al-Baihaqi, who flourished in the fifth century of the Muhammadan era.
- 2. Bahrul Madâhib, a rare and valuable work on theology, by an Indian author 'Abdul Wahhâb al-Qudwâ'î al-Qannauji, better known as Mun'im Khan, composed in A.H. 1125, and dedicated to the king Farrukh Siyar (1124-1131).
- 3. Tuhfatul-Masihâ, an autograph copy of a very useful medical work in Persian. dealing with the properties of simple and compound medicine; ingredients and their chemical solutions; diseases and therapeutics; prescriptions and descriptions of herbs with their medicinal properties, with some very useful prescriptions and specifics due to the author's

association with hermits and ascetics in course of his wanderings through jungles, composed in 1160-1749 by a Christian named Dominic Gregory Yutist (Jesuit) known as Dakhani Beg, son of John Yutist. The author belonged to Aleppo, but came to India and settled at Shahjahanabad, and subsequently at Udaipur under the service of Rana Jagat Singh to whom he dedicated this work.

A list of the drugs and medical ingredients with their equivalents in Portuguese is given at the beginning of the

copy.

- 4. A splendid old copy of the Quran beautifully illuminated at the beginning, once in the possession of the celebrated Abdur Rahim Khan Khanan, the first prime minister of the Emperor Akbar. A note explaining the way of taking omen from the Koran is written in the handwriting of the Khan Khanan on the last folio of the MS. Another note at the beginning is in the handwriting of Muhammad Ṣâliḥ, the well-known author of the Amal-i-Ṣâliḥ, and a distinguished historian of Shah Jahan's time.
- 5. A very old copy (apparently written in the fourteenth century) of the ninth volume of the well-known history, by 'Izzuddin Abul Husain ash-Shaibâni known as Ibn-i-Athir, who died in 630 A.H.
- 6. A rare and unique collection of the ten valuable treatises (all autographs) by the following ten eminent 'Ulamâs of the 10th century A.H., who composed these works at the request of the distinguished Wazir 'Alî Shîr Nawâ'î (dated A.H. 906) for the Qazi of Samarkand, who requested the Wazir to send him specimens of their learning, particularly of the subjects in which each of them was supposed to be a master. The collection consists of Arabic treatises with a Turkish poetical version of the Chihil Hadis of Jami (died 898 A.H.) by the Wazir himself.
 - (a) A treatise in Arabic on theology, by Saifuddin Ahmad Taftâzânî.
 - (b) A treatise in Arabic on the Science of tradition, by Amîr Jamâluddin Ataullah-al-Husaini, died 926 A.H.
 - (c) A treatise in Arabic on the excellence of learning and learned men, by 'Abdul 'Azîz bin Muḥammad bin 'Abdul 'Azîz al-Abhari.
 - (d) A treatise in Arabic on the various readings of the Quran, by Ḥâfiz Nâṣiruddîn Qâri.
 - (e) A treatise in Arabic on Logic, Theology and Science, by Kamaluddin Shirwani, died 905 A.H.
 - (f) A treatise in Arabic on Logic, by Amir 'Aţâullah Maşhhadi', died 913 A.H.
 - (g) A treatise in Arabic on Theology, by 'Osmân.

- (h) A short commentary on a portion (Mabhas-i-Aghlâti-Ḥiss) of Sharh-i-Mawâqif, by Burhânuddin 'Aṭâullah ar-Râzî, died 902 A.H.
- (i) A commentary in Arabic on 'Arba'în-i-Navavi, better known as the Ḥadîṣ of Jibrail, by Faṣiḥuddin Niẓâmi, died 917 A.H.
- (j) A Turkish poetical version of the Chihil Ḥadiş of Jâmi, by 'Ali Shir, died 906 A.H

7. As-Sirât-l-Mustaqîm wa Mukhâlifat-i-Ahl-il-Jahîm, a controversial work against the Christians and the Jews, by Abul 'Abbâs Ahmad bin Abdul Halim bin Abd-al-Salâm bin Taimiyah (died 728 A.H.)—a very rare work, of which the only other known copy is in the Berlin Library.

Other interesting manuscripts will be noted in a later and detailed report. In conclusion, the Officer-in-charge of the Search wishes to express his satisfaction with the valuable work done by Maulavi Ḥafiz Nazîr Aḥmad; the first travelling Maulavi of the Society; Maulavi Ḥasir Razavi, the second travelling Maulavi; and Moulavi Abdul Ḥamid, the resident Maulavi

Search for Bardic Chronicles.

In the annual report for the year 1908 it is stated that "during the year Major Baldock resigned his office and Mahāmāhopādhyāya Sudhākar Dvivedī, of the Benares Sanskrit College, was appointed to supervise and direct this collection of MSS. No further progress has been reported." In fact nothing was done during the year under review, and very little during the four years since the receipt of the Government of India's letter requesting the Asiatic Society to submit a preliminary report on the conservation of Bardic MSS.

The President, Sir Thomas Holland, K.C.I.E., requested Mahámāhopādhyāya Haraprasād Shāstrī to submit a note on the subject. The note was considered in the February Council and Pandit Shāstrī was appointed to take charge of the work. He travelled in Gujrat and Rajputana for two months, from 18th September to 18th November, visiting Jaipore, Jodhpore, and Baroda, interesting chiefs and leading men of Rajputana and Gujrat in the work. At Jaipore the Prime Minister, Nawab Sāhib, permitted the Shāstrī to see all the Thākur Sāhibs The old class Thakur Sahibs, then residing at the city. who took a pride in their Bardic songs, were all grateful to the Government of India for undertaking a conservation of their national history which no single State could do with thoroughness, and promised their entire support. The younger generation of Thakur Sahibs, who did not take much interest in these old-world ballads, were roused to a sense of responsibility in this matter and promised to collect their family songs, and to

make them over to the Shāstrī when he would come again. The Mahārājā of Baroda took a personal interest in the Bardic chronicles, granted the Shāstrī a private interview, and promised to help him in collecting Marhatta and Gujrati ballads in Gujrat and Katiawar. His Devan, Mr. R. C. Dutt, introduced the Shāstrī to leading men in these provinces and promised him every support. It was very little known at the time that Mr. Dutt would so soon be snatched away from his new sphere of activity by the cruel hand of death. Munshi Jagamohanlāl, Private Secretary to the Mahārāja of Ulwar, introduced the Shāstrī to an All-India Conference of literary men, then sitting at Baroda; and Sampat Rāo Gaikwar, the Mahārāja's brother, introduced him to all scholars that take an interest in this branch of National Literature.

At Jodhpore the Darbar under the advice of the enlightened Rão Bahādur Sukdevaprasād, C.I.E., senior member of the Mehakumā Khās, undertook the collection and even the publication of the Bardic songs by their own agency and at their own cost under the expert supervision of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. The Shāstrī was requested to tell them definitely what is to be done, and he submitted a note which they approved, and according to which they issued orders, and appointed men for the collection of Bardic songs throughout their dominions. The Mahārājā himself took a personal interest in the matter, and in a private interview assured the Shāstrī that his government is prepared to do everything to further the object of the Government of India.

The Bardic songs are very little understood outside the provinces of Rajputana and Gujrat. Thakur Sahib Bhur Singji of Malsisar în Sekhāvati, a nobleman thoroughly conversant with this branch of literature, gave the Shāstrī every opportunity of learning and understanding the Bardic songs, presented him with all books necessary for understanding them, and granted him long interviews and introduced him to the best and the most learned bards living at Jaipore. The Shāstrī is grateful to him for all the enlightened trouble he took for him. and records publicly the appreciation of his work. instance, Thakur Šahib Kesari Singji, of Acrol, placed at his disposal the valuable collection of Bardic works belonging to his family and freely allowed him to take copies. Mahāmahopādhyāya Morārdānji, a member of the Mehakumā Khās of Jodhpore, a Carana by caste and himself a bard of superior abilities, regarded as one of the foremost men in Jodhpore, was really delighted to find that the Government of India is taking an interest in what he considered as the property of his own caste. and did everything to make the collection of Bardic collection in Marwar a success. Pandit Rāmnāth Ratnu, a member of Kishenghar Council, who was living with Thakur Sahib of Malsisar, and who has written a history of Rajputana from

| February, 1910.

Bardic sources, gave much valuable assistance and advice and promised to help the Shāstrī at Kishenghar when he would go there. Bārhat Bālābux, of Hanutia, promised to do any amount of editing work for the Asiatic Society. He has devoted his whole life in the collection and elucidation of Bardic history in Rājputānā. Munshi Deviprasād, an officer in the reserved list of the Jodhpur Darbar, was deputed by that Durbar to accompany the Shāstrī wherever he went. The Munshi's family migrated from Delhi to Bhopal, from Bhopal to Aimere, and from Aimere to various States in Raiputana. His accurate and extensive knowledge of history written in Persian, and the keen interest he feels in the antiquities, archæology, and ethnology of Rājputāna was of great service to the Shāstrī. Pandit Tukārām Vāman Sāligrām, with whose assistance Mr. Akworth made his now classic collection of Marhatta ballads, has made another collection of more than 60 such ballads, and is prepared to place his whole collection at the disposal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal under certain conditions. Rām Rām Mūrtanda Bhāmbūrkūr, head clerk to the Private Secretary of the Mahārājā of Gaikwar, has made a very respectable collection of the Marhatta ballads of the Gaikwar family, and is likely to publish them at the cost of the Gaikwar's Government.

The difficulty of the collection of the Bardic chronicles lies in the fact that the greater portion of them are still handed down by the word of the mouth. The written literature is not even a third of the oral. The bards are proverbially bad caligraphists. The little that they have written is illegible to others. It requires to have the services of trained scribes to write these songs in legible Nagri, keeping each word distinct from the other. Copying the songs, therefore, is not only difficult but very costly. But thanks to the interest taken by Malsisar and other noblemen, such scribes can, with a little search, be had in many parts of Rājputānā. Two such scribes have been already employed by the Shāstrī to copy out Suraj-prakāša by Karanīdāna, a classical work on the history of Rajputana written about 200 years ago, and the Bardie chronicles of the family of Acrol in Jaipore, or what is called the Balabhadrot family.

The area which is to be explored for the purposes of the conservation of Bardic chronicles is bounded on the north by Delhi, on the south by the Krisna, on the east by Behar, and on the west by the Indus. There is no knowing that Bardic chronicles do not exist beyond these limits. The meaning of the word Rājput is very vague. If it means anything definite it means any ruling family of high caste. A Rajput cannot subsist without a Carana. The Carana lives with the Rajput, shares all his weals and woes and by his songs keeps him straight, rouses his spirits in moments of depression, and keeps

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him in the path of duty. The Rajput gives him land, villages, horses, camels, shawls, ornaments, and so forth. Great chiefs often grant him Lākh-pasāo, i.e., movable and immovable property worth a lac of rupees, sometimes for one song only. Mahāmahopādhaya Morardānji received such Lakh-pasāos three times. His grandfather Bāṅkidās was granted Lākh-pasāo twice in his life but was three times expelled the country for songs which too severely criticised the reigning princes' actions. In Marwar alone the Cāraṇs enjoy the revenue of nearly 380 villages with an income of over two lacs of rupees.

But the Cāraṇs are not the only people that write verses in Rājputānā. There is a song to the effect that they are clever people and they attach themselves to Rājput alone, while Bhāts write songs for all classes of men. The Bhāts seem to be the older people than Cāraṇs. They are very jealous of the Cāraṇs. While Cāraṇs say that they keep the Rājput straight, the Bhāts say that they lead them astray. The Bhāts had very great influence over the Rājputs during the earlier centuries of the Muhammadan rule. Witness the Prithvirājrāsa written by Cānd Kavi, who was a Bhāt. One of his descendants, Suradās, the contemporary of Akbar, is still regarded as a great poet in Western India. The Bhāts say that they are Brahmins, the Cārans claim a divine descent. They think that they were descended from the celestial songsters, Cārans.

Besides Bhāts and Cārans there are Badoās, the genealogists, who keep the genealogies of all castes; they also write songs in honour of their clients. The Dhulies or drummers, who live by beating drums on all ceremonial occasions, also write historic songs. Bīr Bhān, an old Bardic work, was written by a Dhuli. Sevakas, a class of Sākadvīpī Brāhmanas, who officiate in the religious ceremonies of the Jains, also compose Bardic songs. In some parganas of Marwar these are very influential. It sometimes so happens that Raiputs themsleves are writers, and their compositions are certainly valuable. Mahārājā Mān Sing. of Jodhpur, who led an eventful life during the first quarter of the nineteenth century, was not only a patron of bards, but he was a bard himself. The Brahmins also do compose. compose not only in vernacular but also in Sanskrit. Ajitodaya and Abhayodaya, describing the warlike operations of Ajit Sing and Avaya Sing, Rajas of Marwar in the first half of the eighteenth century, are written by a Brahmin poet, and are, to all intents and purposes, Bardic chronicles.

Not only Hindus but Jains also compose. Among the Bardic chroniclers there are many Jaina Banias. The Jaina monks, too, compose songs. The Rāsas in Gujrat, from which Mr. Forbes drew his materials for the Rāsmālā, and the Dhāds in Rajputana, have been found in Jain Upāšrayas. The Dhāds are not always Bardic, but they often contain Bardic songs. Nearly

300 Dhāds have recently been published by Paṇḍit Rāmkaran of the historical Duptar of Jodhpur.

In the Muhammadan State of Tonk and in Bharatpore there are Mahammadan Bhāts who compose Bardic songs.

In the Marhatta country the Bardie songs or Povādās are composed by a caste called Gandhālis. The great Sivaji immediately after storming the fort of Singhar sent for a Gandhāli and asked him to write a Povādā. Povādā is still extant. It is a long and spirited ballad in which Sivaji is the hero. The Lāunias are generally love songs, but they often celebrate historical incidents. Ānandafandi is a well-known writer of Lāunias. The Kāṭārs sung or recited rapidly like the whirl of a sword are also historical songs among the Marhattas.

From the above it will be plain that these songs are written in Marhatti, Gujrati, Hindi, and in all the various dialects of Rājputāna, but the Rājputs and the Bards of Rājputāna invariably say that their songs are either in Pingal or in Dingal. Pingal is a well-known word. It is the name of the first and most celebrated writer in Sanskrit on Prosody. From his name the art of Prosody has come to be termed Pingal. In Rajputana all songs in religious, amorous, and descriptive subjects are said to be Pingal, and all Bardic historical songs Dingals. It was extremely difficult to understand the difference between the two. Some say the distinction is that of style, others again that the distinction is in versification only, and every one is prepared to support this theory by facts. What is called Dingal by one scholar is called Pingal by another. I was told at Jaipur that the great work entitled Vamšabhāskara composed at Bundi by Barhat Surajmal, recently published from Jodhpur in nine volumes, is composed in the best Dingal, but at Jodhpur it is regarded as Pingal. But it is believed that the explanation of Dingal as given by Mahāmohopādhyāy Morardānji is most reasonable. He says that its substratum is Marubhāsā or Marwari, which is an Ungad bhāsā, unpolished language. He compares it with Dagar, a stone in its natural state, or a lump of earth. It takes words from Sanskrit, various Prakrits, and various vernaculars, but corrupts them in an awful manner to suit the rhyme, rhythm, alliteration, and what is called Varnamaitri or similarity of sounds. The rules of versification are the same in Pingal as in Dingal. The style also is the same. So according to Morardan, it is a language current among the bards based upon Marwari in which Sanskrit, Prakrit, and vernacular words are corrupted to suit the ear. As an instance of the corruption, he says that the word Dagar has been corrupted into Dingal to alliterate with Pingal. Though it is an Ungad bhāsā, unpolished language, it has many kosas or dictionaries. The Hambir Namamālā is learnt by rote by every bard. A copy of the Pingalkosa, a more recent work, has been secured for the Government of India, and a larger kosa work of two Carans,

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father and son, containing 1,000,000 words is to be found at

Jodhpur.

Ît would be a serious omission not to mention the name of Rev. Dr. Macalister of Jaipur who most generously gave, in perpetual loan, the collection he had made of Hindi MSS. to the Society. It contains one very valuable Bardic MS., namely, a collection of Vāts. The historical literature of Rājputānā is classified according to its degree of credibility into (I) Khyats, well known, historical (II) Vāts, known as facts, may be historical or not (III) Danta-katha, legends of uncertain credibility (IV) Gup, story-telling, known to be incredible.

Though it is an Ungad bhāṣā or an unpolished language the gifted Brāhmaṇa of the historical Duftar, Rāmkaran, has prepared a very useful grammar of the Marubhāṣā which forms the

substratum of the Dingal.

The importance of these Bardic chronicles lies in the historical information they afford. Dates are often given, but oftener not given. But they can always be ascertained, and sometimes very accurately, from Persian sources. The historical information shows the Hindu side of the question, and unless the Hindu and the Muhammadan side of every historical problem is carefully weighed, a true history of India cannot be written. For the history of Rājputāna these chronicles very often afford the only reliable information.

But the editing of these songs and these chronicles is a work of great difficulty. Each song should be preceded by the historical incident which gives rise to the song, and should be followed by a literary commentary, as the Dingal is a very difficult language, and as sometimes words, current when the songs were written, have become obsolete or obsolescent. the current language of Rajputana the songs should have two commentaries, the Vatartha and the Aksarartha, i.e., the historical commentary and the word-for-word commentary. The difficulty of making these commentaries is enhanced by the fact that similar and same names are often found in Raiput history. But fortunately Thakur Sahib Bhūrsimgji of Malsisar has set an example how these difficulties are to be overcome. He has published a work entitled Vividhasamgraha containing much Bardic matter with well-ascertained historic incident for each song. It is very useful. It is sure to be a guide to future editors, but it wanted a literary commentary, and he has printed off, and is about to publish, a real Bardic work entitled the Mahārānā Yašahprakāša with both historical and literary commentary in easy Hindi.

The collection of Bardic chronicles, written and oral, and their publication in critical editions is, what is thought of in the present report. Their translation into English would be a ques-

tion of time.

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In view of the interest evinced by the chiefs and the leading families of Rājputāna and Gujrat, it is desirable that the work in search of Bardic chronicles should be continued, and if other states follow the example set by the enlightened Darbar of Jodhpur, the work will be easy and less costly, and the Government of India would earn the gratitude of their Hindu subjects for their endeavour to preserve the historical literature of Western India, as they have done by the conservation of Sanskrit and Persian manuscripts.

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The Report having been read, and some copies having been distributed, the Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, Vice-President, delivered an address.

Annual Address, 1909.

GENTLEMEN,

During the last four years, it has been my privilege to address the Society thrice on the occasion of our annual gatherings. Twelve months ago, when at the end of the second term of my office as President I reviewed the history of the Society during the last quarter of a century, I hoped, in the year following, to listen to a learned and brilliant discourse from my distinguished friend Sir Thomas Holland. The absence of Sir Thomas Holland, however, has deprived us not only of his able guidance but also of what would undoubtedly have proved one of the most striking of our long series of Presidential addresses. one regrets more keenly than Sir Thomas himself his inability to address us this evening, and it is at his special request that I have undertaken to review in brief outline the present position of the Society, and the progress of our work during the past year, and I trust I may claim your indulgence, however imperfect the execution of my task may be.

The first point upon which one naturally feels tempted to dwell on such an occasion, is the steady continuance of our material prosperity. The growth of the numerical strength of the Society, to which I referred on the last occasion, has been maintained with undiminished vigour. In fact, during the last six years the strength of the Society has been increased by nearly forty per cent. We are indebted to the members of the Medical profession, in a considerable measure, for this accession of strength. It is a matter of some satisfaction that the Council has now found it possible to provide a special grant for the formation of a Reference Medical Library, and the sum of Rs. 3,000, sanctioned for this purpose, will be spent in the

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course of the present and the next year. I trust I may be permitted to express the hope that this allotment will be regarded as a practical proof of the desire of the Council to meet the special needs of one of the most important sections of the Society, and I feel no doubt that if a larger number of members is attracted to the Society by the formation of a Reference Library and by reason of the satisfactory arrangements made by our enthusiastic Medical Secretary Dr. Rogers for the supply of medical periodicals, a still more liberal grant would be found possible in future years.

The most important point in connection with the internal administration of the Society during the last year, is the decision about the creation of Fellowships, to be conferred solely in recognition of literary and scientific work. It cannot be denied that a membership of the Asiatic Society does not import any recognition of original work, and as such, has little or no attraction to the modest scholar whose main object is the atdvancement of knowledge. To alter the constitution of the Society so as to restrict admission only to persons distinguished for research, would obviously narrow the field of supply, and might, indeed, in a brief space of time, prove suicidal. On the other hand, if the prestige and reputation of the Society are to be maintained undiminished, the object can be attained only by the enrolment, as members, of distinguished workers in the different branches of historical, philological, and scientific activity. With the formation, however, of important departments of State, devoted to the furtherance of scientific research in special branches, with the simultaneous increase in the number of special societies for the promotion of different branches of knowledge, and with increased facilities for the publication of original researches of any degree of value and importance, it would be idle to expect that any considerable proportion of the vesearch carried on in this country should, as it was a century ago, be communicated for the first time to the learned world through the medium of our publications. The practical monopoly which we then enjoyed in this respect, has long since disappeared, and if we desire still to attract to our ranks the best amongst the original workers in this country, we must be prepared to create a distinction which would be valued as a recognition of merit by people engaged in the task of widening the bounds of knowledge. The fellowships which have now been instituted, and the first appointments to which will be made to-night, will, I trust, prove the means of adding substantially to our strength. The success of the experiment will depend entirely upon the wisdom with which it is conducted. If we never forget, that these fellowships are to be conferred solely in recognition of historical, philological, or scientific work, irrespective of personal considerations of rank and position, if in other words, we always jealously seek in this matter to

maintain the reputation of the Society as a learned body, I am confident that the distinction will be regarded as worthy of attainment by all scientific workers in our ranks.

There is only one other matter relating to the internal management of the Society to which I must make a passing reference before I deal with the work of the year. Our building, now more than a century old, has proved to the members of this generation a costly and burdensome inheritance. We are indebted to Mr. Burkill for the advance which has been made with the scheme of a new building for the Society, which might prove adequate for our growing needs, and might at the same time prove a source of income for the maintenance and expansion of our legitimate work. The land on which our present building stands, received by us as a gift from the Government, is an asset of considerable value, and if it is properly laid out, there can be no question that a profitable building scheme may be developed. In matters, however, where large sums of money are involved, and an unprofitable investment may lead to financial disaster, we must necessarily proceed with caution. I trust, however, that the scheme now in hand will shortly be placed on a thoroughly sound financial basis.

In the course of the last twelve months, we have lost from our ranks two distinguished workers to whose memory a passing tribute is imperatively called for on an occasion like this. By the death of Sir George King, we have lost one of our brilliant members whose writings have considerably enhanced the reputation of the Society. He was not only a devoted worker in the field of Indian Botany, but deliberately chose our publications for the communication of many of his researches to the learned world, and his monumental work on the Flora of the Malayan Peninsula, of which one instalment was published so late as May last, will long be remembered as one of the most notable contributions to our Journal in recent years. Dr. Theodor Bloch, who joined the Society about 13 years ago, and was for some years its Philological Secretary, has been cut away in the prime of life, while in the pursuit of important researches in the field of Indian History and antiquities. He was a scholar of extraordinarily varied attainments, and an examination of his published works proves conclusively how heavy a loss has been caused by his premature death to investigations in the field of Indian Archæology.

I shall now turn for a moment to a brief review of the activities of our members in the different domains of research during the last twelve months. It is a matter for congratulation that the papers contributed are, on the whole, of a high standard of excellence and will tend to maintain the reputation of the Society.

In the field of Sanskrit studies, we had an important paper from Mr. Ambicacharan Sen, of a somewhat controversial

character. Mr. Sen has been engaged in systematically investigating the history of the Hero-Gods of the Rig Veda, and in the present paper which deals with Trita, he has arrived at a conclusion different from that of Professor Macdonell of Oxford. Mr. Sen maintains that this so-called Hero-God was a human being, whereas the learned Oxford Professor regards him as a personification of fire or lightning. The question is obviously of considerable interest from an anthropological point of view, and the grounds of the respective theories deserve a fresh examination and comparison.

In the field of historical research, we had a number of important papers beginning with the Buddhistic period and terminating with comparatively recent times. Mr. Nanda. Lal Dev deals with the monastery at Bikramsila where the last Buddhist University in the Kingdom of Magadh was founded and maintained. He inclines to the conclusion that the University was established about the middle of the eighth century of the Christian era, a view which remains to be supported by independent testimony. Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Sastri and Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusan have also made notable contributions in the field of Buddhistic research. The former has discovered a new manuscript of the Buddha Charita in Nepal which supplies many defects in manuscripts hitherto available. He has also brought to light an unknown epic by the famous Buddhist author Aswaghose. Dr. Satis Chandra has given an account of a large number of Sanskrit works on Grammar, Prosody and Lexicography which have been recovered from Tibet. It is now clear beyond reasonable doubt that the Tibetan Monks continued their task of translation of Sanskrit works quite as late as the end of the seventeenth century, and if we can induce a sufficient number of Sanskrit scholars to undertake the study of Tibetan, we are sure to recover from Tibetan sources valuable Sanskrit works which have long disappeared from this country.

When we come down to more modern times, we have interesting historical questions examined in several papers by well-known members of the Society. Babu Rakhal Das Banerjee traces the history of Saptagram or Satgaon from the time of its conquest by the Mahomedans to the period of the Portuguese Settlement. To this paper is appended a valuable note by Dr. Bloch in which he edits an inscription not included among those deciphered by the late Profesor Blochmann. Rakhal Das Banerjee has also discussed the Mathura inscriptions in the Indian Museum, the true reading and import of which had previously led to some difference of opinion among wellknown scholars. Babu Manomohan Chakravarti, who has for many years past made a special study of problems connected with the early history of Bengal, has given us valuable articles on the temples of Bengal, and has also dealt with several disputed хl

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and doubtful events during the early Mahomedan period, specially problems connected with the five successive capitals of Bengal during Mahomedan Rule. The only other paper in this department which demands prominent mention is the Memoir of Dr. Ross on Birds in Turki, Manchoo and Chinese. Our enthusiastic Philological Secretary also invited the attention of the members of the Society to the life and writings of the Hungarian scholar Csoma de Körös, the value of whose work as that of a pioneer in the field of Tibetan research can never be over-estimated, and we are anxiously awaiting the publication of the unique work on Tibetan vocabulary by the Hungarian scholar which has been undertaken by Dr. Ross and Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhushan.

In the domain of Pure and Applied Science, we have had a number of important papers. Professor Syamadas Mookerjee has continued his researches on the theory of Osculating Conics, which contain the germs of a general theory of great importance and wide application. In the field of Chemistry, we had papers of practical importance from Mr. Hooper and Babu Bidhu Bhusan Dutt, the latter of whom has analysed the constituents of two well-known famine foods. In the field of Zoology, there were valuable notes by Dr. Annandale and Mr. Chowdhuri, while Dr. Travers Jenkins gave us an interesting discourse on Sea-To these must be added the Monograph on Sea snakes by Major Wall, published as a Memoir during the course of the In the department of Botany, we had more than one paper likely to prove to be of great practical importance. these, the most important are the contributions of Mr. Leake on Indian Cottons and of Mr. Stebbing on a peculiar kind of parasites destructive of oaks in the Himalayas. had also interesting notes by Mr. Burkill on varieties of the Lemon oil grass, and on two well-known Indian drugs. To these must be added an elaborate paper by Professor Bruhl in which he examines the subject of recent plant immigrants into Bengal. In the department of Anthropology, there were only two papers. but both of them of very special interest. Dr. Annandale and Mr. Pettigrew have both dealt with the subject of the theory of souls, the former among the Malayas and the latter amongst the people of Manipore in North Eastern India. A comparison of the two papers brings into prominence the fundamentally distinct notions on the subject which prevail amongst people in different grades of civilization, a distinction likely to be obscured, if not overlooked, when notions so widely different are sought to be represented by the same English word.

I feel myself incompetent to review even in the barest outline the work of the Medical Section. But there is one Resolution of that section, which will, I am sure, meet with universal approval from all persons interested in the mitigation of the sufferings of humanity. That Resolution emphasises

the paramount necessity for the establishment of a properly equipped sanitorium for the treatment of phthisis, a mode of treatment which has produced the most beneficial result in other civilized countries. This Resolution was presented by our President to His Excellency the Vicerov who is the Patron of our Society. I trust that, even in these times of financial stress, the complete fulfilment of the object in view will not be unduly delayed. One may, I hope without offence, further venture to maintain the opinion that if the major portion, if not the whole, of the funds raised for the purpose of a Marble Memorial to Her late Majesty the Queen Empress were devoted to the foundation of an institution for the amelioration of suffering humanity, it would be more consonant to the wishes of the people amongst whom the memory of the good Queen will ever be held in loving remembrance as that of the Mother of her beloved subjects.

There are three other departments of activity in which notable work has been accomplished by members of the Society during the last twelve months. The publication of Sanskrit and Arabic Works in the Bibliotheca Indica has made steady progress throughout the year. In the branch of Sanskrit studies the most important publications undoubtedly are the editions of the ancient work on Ritual by Govila which have nearly been completed under the able editorship of Pundit Chandrakanta Tarkalankar who possesses a deep and wide knowledge of the vast literature on the subject. We have also made an important advance in the matter of publication of Jain Works, one of which dealing with the subject of Logic was composed in the eighth century and is being edited by Dr. Satis Chandra, whilst the other dealing with the life and teaching of Santinath, the famous Jain Saint, is being edited by Munindra Bijoy. In the department of Arabic studies, where our members, in recent years, have not indicated the same measure of activity as in the department of Sanskrit studies, we have, I am glad to be able to say, evidence of solid work well advanced or accomplished. The most important is undoubtedly the edition brought out by Dr. Ross of Abu Turab's History of Guzrat. The work appears to have been composed towards the end of the sixteenth century and gives a valuable account of the history of Bahadur Shah, his wars with Humayun and the conquest of Guzrat by Akbar. Other historical works of considerable importance have also been pushed forward during the year. Of these, I need only mention the translations of the Akbarnama and Maasir-ul-Umara by an ex-president of the Society, Mr. Beveridge. The former deals with the history of the reign of Akbar by his great minister Abdul Fazl, and the latter gives the biographies of the great Amirs of the Indian Empire from the beginning of the reign of Akbar to the end of the 17th century. Both the works are valuable as authorities upon the

most brilliant period of Mogul rule in this country, and it is to be trusted, that the completion of these translations will not be further delayed.

The search for Sanskrit, Persian and Arabic manuscripts has been sedulously pursued during the year just brought to a close. It has some time been supposed, even by well-informed people, that as the search for Sanskrit manuscripts has been vigorously carried on now for a quarter of a century, we can only hope in future to come across duplicates of well-known works, and the discovery of unknown treasures can hardly be expected. How erroneous such an opinion is, is amply illustrated by the success which has attended the labours of Pandit Hara Prasad Sastri in this direction. In the course of the last twelve months, the Sastri has been able to secure from Benares two extensive collections of manuscripts formerly owned by two families of well-known pandits and manuscript collectors. It will necessarily take many years before these collections, which have been catalogued, are minutely examined and their contents made available to Sanskrit scholars. sufficient to state on the present occasion that they include a copy of the Mahabharat, portions of the Shivapuran, commentaries on the Upanishads, a new commentary on the Purva Mimansa and a Shaiva commentary on the Bhagabadgita. These and the other manuscripts require careful scrutiny, and it is a matter for regret that amongst the younger generation of Sanskrit scholars, we have not got a sufficient number of trained and enthusiastic workers, ready to devote themselves to the difficult task of appraising the new materials brought to light. It is manifest that the publication of complete editions of these works must take many years, even if funds are ever forthcoming. But it is quite practicable to have full summaries of the contents of the new works, indicating adequately the points of divergence from existing works or commentaries on the same subject, and it would not be much to our credit if work of this description is indefinitely delayed.

The search for Arabic and Persian manuscripts has also been energetically conducted during the year, and a large number of manuscripts, representing almost every branch of literature and science, has been secured, several of which are distinctly interesting from an Indian point of view. Of these, the most notable is a splendid copy of the Koran beautifully illuminated, which originally belonged to the first Prime Minister of the Emperor Akbar, and subsequently passed into the possession of a distinguished historian of the time of Shah Jehan. Here also it is obviously impossible, with the limited funds at our disposal, to hope for the early publication of any considerable portion of the new works brought to light, and what is urgently needed is a full and detailed account

of works hitherto unpublished.

There is only one other topic to which I would briefly invite your attention this evening before I bring my address to a close. For several years past, we have had at our disposal the sum granted by the Government for the search of the Bardic chronicles of the Raiputs. We have hitherto found it impossible to make any satisfactory arrangement even for a preliminary survey of the work to be undertaken. Fortunately. Mahamahopadhyaya Hara Prasad Sastri, on his retirement from the Principalship of the Sanskrit College, found it possible to devote his time to an enquiry into this fascinating subject. and the offer of his services was gladly accepted by the Society. He travelled in Guirat and Raiputana for two months last year. and the information collected by him furnishes a tolerably accurate idea of the nature and extent of the work to be accomplished. It is beyond dispute that many of these chronicles have, from time to time, been reduced to writing, but many more still exist only in the form of ballads and songs in the memory of professional and hereditary Bards, scattered throughout the various Rajput States. What is required, therefore, is not merely to collect manuscripts, more or less accurate, of the chronicles, but to take down and reduce to writing the ballads handed down by word of mouth from generation to generation. Work of this description has been undertaken and accomplished in other civilized countries, notably in England, Scotland, and Denmark. In Denmark, as is well-known the distinguished scholar Grundtvig was enabled to make a collection of ancient popular ballads. fairly complete and representative of the national character, only by means of national help. All Denmark combined to help him in his labours, and schoolmasters and clergymen in retired nooks where tradition longest lingers, actively engaged themselves in taking down ballads from the mouths of the people. If, therefore, we are to undertake a complete collection of the Bardic chronicles of Raiputana, we must have a systematic organisation for reducing to writing the ballads as they are recited by the Bards, and obviously this can be accomplished successfully only with the active cooperation of the Rajput Chiefs themselves. If this work is accomplished, as I trust it may, we shall have collected firsthand materials for a proper appreciation of the history and antiquities of one of the most important and interesting branches of the Indian race. It must not be overlooked, however, that the study of the materials when collected, must prove to be a task not wholly free from linguistic difficulties, as the chronicles, whether reduced to writing or recited from mouth to mouth, are not composed in one uniform dialect. This, however, is a matter which ought not to stand in the way of an early and a systematic effort to collect and preserve the materials which may otherwise disappear, and become irrecoverable before the lapse of many years.

I trust I have said enough to convince people unacquainted with the precise nature of the work in which our members are engaged, that the field for research in Indian history, philology, antiquities and science, is by no means restricted or exhausted. It may be conceded that discoveries of an epochmaking character cannot be made every twelve months, but there is no room for dispute that solid work on an extensive scale is accomplished by our workers from year to year, and in spite of their sustained effort, much remains yet to be accomplished. Investigations into many a recondite problem of Indian history and of the development of different branches of the Indian race have yet to be undertaken and vigorously pushed forward, and scholarly men of the younger generation may rest assured that their labours in these fields will be amply repaid. It is not in the lot of every man to be a Jones or a Prinsep, but that is no reason why a modest scholar should lose heart and abandon a field where so many others before him have worked with profit in the cause of the advancement of knowledge.

The Chairman announced the result of the election of Officers and Members of Council for 1910 as follows:—

President.

T. H. D. La Touche, Esq., B.A. (Cantab), F.G.S.

Vice-Presidents.

The Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, C.S.I., D.L., D.Sc., F.R.S.E.

G. Thibaut, Esq., Ph.D., C.I.E.

Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, M.A.

Lieut.-Colonel F. J. Drury, M.B., I.M.S.

Secretary and Treasurer.

General Secretary: —G. H. Tipper, Esq., M.A., F.G.S. Treasurer: —D. Hooper, Esq., F.C.S.

Additional Secretaries.

Philological Secretary:—E. D. Ross, Esq., Ph.D. Natural History Secretary:—I. H. Burkill, Esq., M.A., F.L.S. Anthropological Secretary:—N. Annandale, Esq., D.Sc., C.M.Z.S., F.L.S.

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Joint Philological Secretary:—Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, M.A., Ph.D., M.R.A.S. Medical Secretary:—Major L. Rogers, M.D., B.S., I.M.S.

Other Members of Council.

H. G. Graves, Esq., A.R.S.M.

Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, M.A., B.L.

The Hon. Abdulla al-Mamun Suhrawardy, Esq., M.A., LL.D.

Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, M.D., F.R.C.S., D.P.H., I.M.S.

The Hon. Mr. Justice H. Holmwood, I.C.S.

E. P. Harrison, Esq., Ph.D.

Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott.

The Chairman also announced that the following gentlemen were elected as Fellows of the Society by a majority of votes:—Dr. N. Annandale, D.Sc., C.M.Z.S., F.L.S.

The Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, C.S.I., M.A., D.L., D.Sc., F.R.A.S., F.R.S.E.

I. H. Burkill, Esq., M.A. F.L.S.

Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, M.A.

Sir Thomas Holland, K.C.I.E., D.Sc., A.R.C.S., F.G.S., F.R.S.

D. Hooper, Esq., F.C.S.

T. H. D. LaTouche, Esq., B.A., F.G.S.

Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, M.A., B.L.

Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott.

Dr. Prafulla Chandra Ray, D.Sc.

Major L. Rogers, M.D., B.S., F.R.C.P., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.

Dr. E. D. Ross, Ph.D.

Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, M.A., Ph.D.. M.R.A.S.

Dr. G. Thibaut, Ph.D., C.I.E.

Dr. M. W. Travers, D.Sc., F.R.S.

A. Venis, Esq., M.A.

Dr. G. T. Walker, M.A., F.R.S.

The Meeting was then resolved into the Ordinary General Meeting.

T. H. D. LaTouche, Esq., B.A., F.G.S., President, in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Twenty-one presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported:-

1. That Lieut.-Colonel W. J. Bytheil, R.E., Lala Lajput Rai, Rev. J. Culshaw, and Babu Jadu Nath Sen had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

2. That Babu Muksoodan Das and Mr. A. M. T. Jackson were dead.

The following five gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

Dr. S. K. Sen, L.R.C.P., L.R.C.S. (Edin.), 115, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta, proposed by Mr. E. Vredenburg, seconded by Dr. N. Annandale; Mr. W. H. Buchan, I.C.S., proposed by Mr. H. G. Graves, seconded by Captain F. H. Stewart, I.M.S.; Sri Ram Paplai, B.A., Extra Judicial Assistant Commissioner, Delhi, proposed by Mir Nasir Ali Khan Bahadur, seconded by Mr. J. P. Thompson; Mr. Manahar Lal, M.A., Minto Professor of Economics, Calcutta University, proposed by Dr. G. Thibaut, seconded by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott; Mr. Thomas Hanson Kingdon, proposed by Mr. W. R. Criper, seconded by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S.

The following papers were read:—

- 1. Some remarks on Mundari Phonology and its treatments in the Records of the Linguistic Survey of India.—By Rev. Mr. C. Mehl. Communicated by the Philological Secretary.
- 2. The Rupee and Indian Prices.—By H. R. PERROTT. Communicated by the General Secretary.

These papers will be published in a subsequent number of the *Journal*.

3. Lisu Tribes of Burma-China Frontier.—By A. Rose and J. Coggin Brown.

This paper will be published in the Memoirs.

4. Note on the strength of sulphuric acid solution used in secondary cells in India.—By E. P. Harrison, Ph.D.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.



The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 9th February, 1910, at 9-30 P.M.

LIEUT.-COLONEL F. P. MAYNARD, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. Adrian Caddy, Lieut.-Colonel C. R. M. Green, I.M.S., Captain R. E. Lloyd, I.M.S., Captain D. McCay, I.M.S., Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Lieut.-Colonel A. H. Nott, I.M.S., Major F. O'Kinealy, I.M.S., Captain H. B. Steen, I.M.S., Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

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Visitors. - Mr. C. N. David, Captain A. E. J. Lister, I.M.S., Major E. A. Newman, I.M.S., Dr. D. Pratt, Dr. Atindranath Sen.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Captain Megaw, I.M.S., showed a case of pneumothorax treated successfully by a new method, and one of stricture of the oesophagus treated by fibrolysin.

Major F. O'Kinealy, I.M.S., gave a demonstration of Direct Laryngotracheoscopy.

The Honorary Medical Secretary announced that the Council had sanctioned the sum of Rs. 3,000 for the purchase of books for the Medical Reference Library.

Lieut.-Colonel Nott, I.M.S., proposed, and Major O'Kinealy. I.M.S., seconded, a vote of thanks to the Council, which was carried unanimously.

MARCH, 1910.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 2nd March, 1910, at 9-15 P.M.

The Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, M.A., D.L., Vice-President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Babu Rakhal Das Banerji, Babu Amrita Lal Bose, Prof. Paul Brühl, Mr. I. H. Burkill, Dr. G. C. Chatterjee, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Mr. J. N. Farquhar, Mr. L. L. Fermor, Mr. H. G. Graves, Hon. Mr. Justice H. Holmwood, Mr. D. Hooper, Dr. W. C. Hossack, Mr. R. D. Mehta, C.I.E., Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, Rev. A. C. Ridsdale, Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, Babu Vanamali Vedantatirtha and Rev. A. W. Young.

Visitors: -Mr. W. Burns and Mr. F. H. Gravely.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Six presentations were announced.

The Chairman announced:--

- 1. That the Elliott Prize for Scientific Research for the year 1909 would not be awarded as the essay received in competition was not of sufficient merit to justify the award of the Prize.
- 2. That the Council has appointed Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott to officiate as General Secretary during the absence of Mr. Tipper.

The Chairman also announced the death of Mahamahopadhyaya Chandra Kanta Tarkalankar, an Honorary Member of the Society, and called upon Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, to read the obituary notice.

Mahamahopadhyaya Chandra Kanta Tarkalankar breathed his last on Wednesday, the 2nd February, 1910.

Sixteen years ago, on March 7th, 1894, he was elected one of our Honorary Members, the highest distinction in the gift of the Society. Among the Bengal Pundits he was the only Oriental Scholar who had been thus honoured, and the Society had sufficient justification for the same, for his position as a scholar and author of numerous original treatises was quite unique.

He was the eldest son of Pundit Radha Kanta Siddhantavagiç of Sherpur Town in the district of Mymensing, who also was a man of profound learning well known in his district. It was one more instance of potential intellectuality in the father having full development in the son.

Chandra Kanta was born at Sherpur in the month of Agrahayan of 1241 B.S. (corresponding to 1835 A.D.). The beloved and revered father was the first teacher, and in the tol of his father Chandra Kanta had received the seeds of learning which bore such excellent fruits in later years. He completed his study of Vyakarana, Alankar and partly of Kavya and Smriti at home, and then proceeded to Vikrampur to study Smriti with Pundit Dina Nath Panchanan of Porapara, a celebrated Smarta of his time. Next his sojourn was to the renowned seat of learning Navadwipa, where he studied Smriti under Pundit Brajanath Vidyaratna, Laksmi Kanta Siromani and Hari Das Bhattacharyya, and Darsan with Madhava Chandra Tarkasiddhanta, Srinandan Tarkabagiç and Kasi Nath Sastri. It was at Navadwip that the title of "Tarkalankar" was bestowed on him.

On his return from Navadwip he opened a tol at Sherpur, and, as the story of his scholarship already spread far and wide. students began to flock to his house, whose number often exceeded fifty. He had not only to satisfy the intellectual craving of such a large number of students in a variety of subjects, but had also to maintain them at his house, according to the custom of the country, at his own expense, from year's end to year's end. It was while busily engaged with the teaching work at Sherpur that his first work Probodha Çataka saw the light, and was soon followed by Satiparinavam (Mahakavya) and Tatvavali (commentary on Philosophy). It was about this time that our Society, appreciating his deep and varied scholarship, found in him a most capable editor for the Bibliotheca Indica, with which he kept up his connection till his death. (It was only in January last that Fasc. 1 of Vol. II of Bhatta Dipika, the commentary on Purva Mimansa, edited by him, came out of the press.) It was while at Sherpur he edited for the Society Grihya Sutras of Gobbila and supplied copious commentaries to that excellent classical work on mediæval Smriti. These notes and commentaries soon made him well known to the European Savants. It was while at Sherpur that his students in Nyaya, Sankhya, Vedanta. Smriti and Kayva topped the list of successful candidates for Government Title Examination and carried off the honour and emoluments year after year; and it was also while at Sherpur that most of his works that were published afterwards were composed and perfected.

In 1882 some of the prominent members of this Society, who were attracted by the deep erudition of Tarkalankar working at a remote placelike Sherpur, approached him through the late Principal Mahesh Chandra Nayaratna, and prevailed on

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him to accept a Professorship in the Government Sanskrit College of Calcutta. Among others, the late Raja Rajendra Lal Mitra, one of our past presidents, Rai Bahadur Krista Das Pal, one of our past Assistant Secretaries, Babu Protap Chandra Ghosha, and Babu Prasad Das Dutt, were mainly instrumental to bring about this. It was in 1883 that Chandra Kanta joined the Sanskrit College as the Professor of Sanskrit Literature and Alankara. Soon after his appearance in Calcutta he was recognized as the leading Pundit of the metropolis and his connection with the Society became more intimate, and "in recognition of his great services in the cause of Sanskrit literature the Council placed his name in the list of distinguished persons who received the Bibliotheca Indica publications free." On the retirement of Madhusudan Smritiratna he was appointed to the chair of Smriti.

In 1887 the title of Mahamahopadhyaya, the highest literary distinction in the gift of the Indian Government, created in commemoration of the Jubilee of Her late Majesty the Empress Victoria, was bestowed on him. It was during the incumbency in the Sanskrit College that his Vaisesika Bhashya, annotated edition of Kusumanjali, Katantrachhandaprakriya, Kala Parasara Madhava among others were published, and each of these works created a sensation among the Oriental Scholars of India and Europe on their appearance. In 1897 he retired from the Sanskrit College, and the Government very gracefully came forward with a grant for the maintenance of his private tol which he had all along kept up with unparalleled devotion and undiminished glory.

On his retirement from the Government service, the learned Vice-Chancellor of the University, from whose searching eyes few men of merit can escape, selected him as the first lecturer to occupy the chair of Vedanta Philosophy endowed by Sri Gopal Bose Mullick for five years, and these lectures were published in book form. From 1901 with failing health he became busy more than ever to see through press all his unpublished works, but the work of the tol and examination work for M.A. and P.R. examinations on behalf of the University continued almost to the very end.

Without making any comment ourselves we shall conclude this short notice by a few extracts from comments of his contemporaries on his works, scholarship and character: it falls to the lot of very few mortals to be so highly appreciated during lifetime as he was.

1. An extract from a letter of Mahesh Chandra Nyayaratna as the Principal, Sanskrit College, to the Director of Public Instruction, under date 28th April, 1894. . . . "He is a most distinguished Sanskrit scholar, the like of whom cannot easily be met with in the country. He is, morever, a most

successful teacher. His private pupils have passed the Sanskrit Title Examinations in various subjects and won the first rank from time to time. He is also a general referee on difficult points connected with Sanskrit Literature. He has written a Bhasya or commentary on the Grihya Sutras (Aphorisms of Gobhila), a work of rare merit, which the Asiatic Society of Bengal have published at their own expense. He has also published various highly meritorious works in Sanskrit and Bengali. He has been a great acquisition to the College, and the vast reputation which he enjoys for learning and erudition has naturally reflected upon it. It may also be mentioned that the private pupils of the Professor have followed him here from Mymensing. The number ranges from 10 to 20, whom he not only teaches, but also supports according to the traditions of the Tola system ''

Extracts from Dr. R. L. Mitra's articles in the Hindu Patriot (1886):--" He knows no assumption of dignity and display of learning. Gentle as a child, shy by nature, and economic in his speech, he can nowhere produce an impression. He has, however, that in him which few of our Pundits can boast of, a thorough mastery over the ancient classics of our native land, and those who know it cannot fail to evince for him every mark of respect. His profession is the discrimination of the higher branches of Sanskrit literature. He owed a tol for many years, and is now employed as a professor in the Sanskrit College of Calcutta; but this occupation never satisfied his mind. His ambition has always been to contribute to the elucidation of Sanskrit learning by writing learned dissertations, and many are the works which have emanated from his prolific pen. Some years ago he published an exegesis of the Gobhiliya Grihya Sutra, which compares well with the best works of its class published by mediæval authors. It displays a thorough knowledge of, and perfect mastery over, the Smriti Literature of the Brahmans. Soon after that work he brought out an epic poem which presented in manuscript would have passed for a fragment of some ancient poet whose writings cast such a halo on Sanskrit Literature. He has just published a book which is likely to put its mark upon the year. It is an exegesis on the aphorisms of Kanada on the Vaicesika or Atomic philosophy our metaphysicians devoted scant attention to it; none taught it in the tols of the country. This is evident from the fact that, though acknowledged to be one of the six leading systems of philosophy, the Vaicesika never had a regular formal Bhasya or commentary, as the other systems have Under \mathbf{these} stances the new work of Professor Chandrakanta Tarkalankara may be looked upon as suppyling a want, and the learning and thorough mastery of the subject which have been brought to

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bear upon it, and the manner in which the task has been accomplished, make the book one of special value to the students of Sanskrit philosophy."

Extracts from Trübner's Record of October, 1890, 3rd Series, Vol. II, No. 2:- however, exceptions; and it is a notable one among these to whom the present notice is intended to draw the attention of Sanskritists and students of Indian philosophy in Europe. Chandrakanta's Sanskrit learning is of the most varied kind. He is also a voluminous writer on a variety of subjects. though the Mahamahopadhyaya is a varied scholar and a voluminous writer, his speciality is Hindu Philosophy, and particularly that system which is known as the Vaicesika of Kana-It is this field in which he has shown himself to be a thinker of great independence, force and originality; and it will be his works in this branch of learning that will henceforth be classed with the standard works of old and secure to his name undving fame. The last remark applies more particularly to his work which bears the name of Bhasya, or Exposition, of the Vaicesika Sutras. The Sutras, or aphorisms, of the Vaicesika system of philosophy, as is well known, are attributed to There are no early commentaries on these aphorisms Kanada. The earliest expository work known is a gloss, called Kiranavali, by Udayana Acarya, -- a gloss not on the Sutras themselves, but on the work called Padartha Dharma Sangraha, generally, though not quite correctly, looked upon as a Vaicesika text-book. It is this gloss of Udayana which is accepted in Bengal as the orthodox and authoritative interpretation of Kanada's aphorisms. The object of the new Bhasya is to show that Udayana and the prevalent school in some essential matters have misinterpreted and unjustifiably amplified the teaching of Kanada, and that Udayana, being an adherent of the Nyaya system, has in fact, for objects of his own, adulterated the pure Vaicesika doctrine. The Bhasya thus claims to set forth, for first time, the doctrines of Kanada in its pure and genuine form. This is the outcome of Professor Chandrakanta's mature thought and close study of the Vaicesika aphorisms. It marks a gradually accomplished revolution in his own views. For he was not always of this mind: he commenced with an unquestioning belief in the orthodox interpretation. It was in this state of mind that he published his Tattvavali, a metrical work in the style of the old Karikas. to which he added copious notes. In this work he fully explains and still upholds with every possible argument the Vaicesika doctrines as hitherto understood and accepted in Bengal. The work, when it appeared, was received with an eagerness unprecedented in the history of recent Sanskrit publications; for it supplied the long-felt desideratum of a good text-book

on the Vaicesika philosophy for beginners as well as more advanced students. Professor Chandrakanta's latest work, the Bhasya, as will be readily understood, met with a different kind of reception, with great joy and praise by some, with much doubt and opposition by others. Whether it will win its way and revolutionize the teaching of the Vaicesika philosophy in Bengal and elsewhere, time only will show. It is on account of this original and, to a certain extent, revolutionary character of his work, that the professor calls it a Bhasya. Among Indian pundits various names are in use for expository works; we have the Bhasya, the Vritti, the Vivritti or Vivarana, the Tika, and so forth. But it is only the compiler of Bhasva, whom the rules of learning permit, after he has explained every word and part of word of his text, to put forth original reflections. Compilers of other kinds of commentaries must confine themselves to the accepted meaning."

4. Extract from Professor Max Müller's letter, dated the 12th July, 1896:— . . . "But it is different with a work like yours. Your Katantrachhandaprakriya is an original work and must have cost you much labour. It will be useful to every Sanskritist, particularly Vedic scholars, not only in India, but in England also. A good deal has been done for Vedic grammar by European scholars, but one likes to have the authority of native scholars, such as Panini, Katyayana and others. Now unfortunately the Chandasa rules have been treated very scantily by Panini. I suppose he thought the Praticakhyas would supply the necessary information. But that is ciksa rather than Vyakarana. I have myself published the Ripraticakhya with a German translation. There was room for work like yours, and I know I shall find it very useful in my studies."

Owing to a remark made by the late Professor Cowell about Vaicesika Bhasya it has become necessary to point out that Chandra Kanta was quite innocent of English or any other European language, nor was he acquainted with modern scientific theories, therefore his strong assertion against "spontaneous generation", his ascribing form or shape to "air", as well as his conclusion about the nature of soul-points in which he differed so much from Udayana-were entirely due to his deep study of Kanada's system and had nothing to do with "modern scientific ideas" as Cowell appeared to have suspected.

The following four gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:-

Capt. E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S., M.B., proposed by Major L. Rogers, seconded by Dr. Hossack; Capt. A. E. J. Lister, M.B., F.R.C.S., I.M.S., proposed by Major L. Rogers, seconded by Capt. H. B. Steen, I.M.S.; Mr. W. Kirkpatrick, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel C. R. M. Green, I.M.S., seconded by Capt. D. McCay, I.M.S.; Capt. J. C. Kunhardt, I.M.S., proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Capt. R. E. Lloyd, I.M.S.

The following papers were read:-

- 1. Notes on the Pollination of Flowers in India. Note No. 7. A few observations made in the Central Provinces and Berar.—By I. H. Burkill.
- 2. Buddhist Legends of Asoka and his Times.—By H. C. NORMAN.

This paper has been published in the Journal for February 1910.

- 3. The Kingdom of gNya khri btsanpo, the first King of Tibet.—By Rev. A. H. Francke.
- 4. An Old-fashioned Urdu Invitation to a Garden Party.—By LIEUT.-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT.

This paper will not be published in the Journal.

5. Pramanas of the Hindu Logic.—By Vansmali Chakravarti.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

6. Extract on Cocking (Murgh-Nāma) from the Sayd Gāh-i Shawkati, an Urdu work on sport written by Nawāb Yār Muhammad Khān of the Rāmpūr State.—Translated by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, Secretary, Board of Examiners, Calcutta.

This paper has been published in the Journal for February 1910.

7. The Katwalipara Spurious Grant of Samacara Deva.—By RAKHAL DAS BANDYOPADHYAYA, with a prefatory note by MR. H. E. STAPLETON, B.A., Inspector of Schools, Dacca.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

8. Note on the Spreading of Croton sparsiflorus, Morung, along the Assam-Bengal Railway.—By I. H. Burkill.

Mr. Burkill remarked as follows:-

"Since the publication of Professor P. Brühl's paper on Croton sparsiflorus (this Journal, 1908, pp. 603-607) wherein he recorded the occurrence of this plant (i) near Calcutta, (ii) at Port Canning, (iii) at Chittagong, (iv) between Chandpur and Akharera on the railway embankment, and (v) on the bank of

the river Titus near Brahmanbaria, I have found the plant in several spots along the Assam-Bengal Railway. It occurs about the sidings at the stations of (vi) Shamshernagar and (vii) Tilagaon in the district of Sylhet: (viii) on the railway embankment rather sparingly at 'mile 296'—a spot where passengers often alight for Haffong, at an altitude of about 1,800 feet above sea-level: (ix) in great adundance about the railway tracks at Lumding junction, and (x) equally in abundance about the railway goods-yard at Gauhati.

The spot where it entered India seems evident enough. As it was some years ago much more abundant at Chittagong than at Hajiganj, and as Hajiganj, Shamshernagar, Tilagaon, Haflong, Lumding, and Gauhati are all connected by railway with the port of Chittagong, it is almost certain that it has travelled to these various stations from Chittagong, the seeds adhering probably to the gunny-wrappings of merchandise. Further, as suggested by Professor Brühl, it may be assumed that the plant came to Calcutta by ship (river-steamer probably) and by ship also to Port Canning; and it is probable that it came to both places from Chittagong, which seems to be its oldest station on Indian soil."

9. The Vikramaditya Samvatsara and the Founding of the Kushan Kingdom.—By Thomas W. Kingsmill.—Communicated by the Philological Secretary.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.



The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 9th March, 1910, at 9-30 P.M.

LIEUT.-COLONEL F. P. MAYNARD, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:

Dr. Arnold Caddy, Major J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., Dr. G. C. Chatterjee, Dr. H. M. Crake, Major E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S., Major W. D. Hayward, I.M.S., Dr. W. C. Hossack, Captain A. E. J. Lister, I.M.S., Dr. Indu Madhab Mallick, Dr. J. E. Panioty, Captain F. H. Stewart, I.M.S., Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitor: - Major E. A. Newman, I.M.S.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Capt. E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S., delivered a lecture on Sleeping Sickness, illustrated by lantern slides.

APRIL, 1910.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 6th April, 1910, at 9-15 p.m.

T. H. D. LATOUCHE, Esq., B.A., F.G.S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. N. Annandale, Babu Nilmani Chakravarti, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Rai Motilal Ganguli, Bahadur, Mr. H. G. Graves, Mr. D. Hooper, Mr. W. A. Lee, Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, Mr. H. E. Stapleton and Mr. E. R. Watson.

Visitors:—Mr. E. Brunetti, Mr. F. H. Gravely and Mr. S. W. Kemp.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed. Fifty-one presentations were announced.

- 1. The President announced the death of Pandit Yogesa Chandra Sastri-Samkhyaratna-Vedatirtha, an Ordinary Member of the Society.
- 2. The General Secretary reported that Mr. H. Wheeler, 1.C.S., had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.
- 3. The General Secretary read the names of the following gentlemen who had been appointed to serve on the various Committees during 1910:—

Finance Committee.

Dr. N. Annandale; Hon. Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya; Mr. I. H. Burkill; Mr. H. C. Graves; Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri; Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S.

Library Committee.

Dr. N. Annandale; Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya; Mr. J. N. Das-Gupta; Mr. H. C. Graves; Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri; Mr. Harinath De; Dr. E. P. Harrison; Mr. H. H. Hayden; Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S.; Major L. Rogers, I.M.S.; Dr. E. D. Ross; Dr. G. Thibaut.

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Philological Committee.

Hon'ble Mr. Abdullah al-Mamun Suhrawardy; Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya; Mr. E. A. Gait; Dr. Girindra Nath Mukhopadhyaya; Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri; Mr. Harinath De; Babu Monmohan Chakravarti; Babu Muralidhar Banerjee; Babu Nogendra Nath Vasu; Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott; Dr. E. D. Ross; Mahamahopadhyaya Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana; Acharya Satyavrata Samasrami; Dr. G. Thibaut; Mr. E. Venis.

The following seventeen gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

Mr. P. S. Patuck, I.C.S., proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Dr. N. Annandale; Mr. Ramakanta Bhattacharyya, B.L., proposed by the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asutosh Mukhopadhyaya, seconded by Maharaia Jagadindra Nath Roy; Mr. Eugen Ludwig, proposed by Mr. E. M. Löffler, seconded by Mr. E. Toth; Lieut. R. F. Francis, 47th Sikhs, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Dr. N. Annandale; Captain T. C. McCombie Young, M.B., I.M.S., proposed by Major L. Rogers, seconded by Major E. Wilkinson, I.M.S.: Dr. A. White Robertson, L.R.C.P. and S., Edin., proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Capt. E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S.; Dr. Garefield Hodder Williams, M.B., B.S. (Lond.), M.R.C.S, L.R.C.P., proposed Major I. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Captain E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S.; Dr. Cecil H. Elmes, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel C. R. M. Green, I.M.S., seconded by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S.; Mr. F. D. Ascoli, I.C.S., proposed by Mr. T. H. D. LaTouche, seconded by Dr. N. Annandale; Prof. Abdullah Abu Sayyid. M.A., proposed by Babu Vanamali Chakravarti, seconded by Babu Muralidhar Banerjee; Capt. B. C. Penton, 25th Punjabis, proposed by Lieut. Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Dr. N. Annandale; Captain F. R. Teesdale, 25th Cavalry, F.F., proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Dr. N. Annandale; Captain F. T. P. Ebden, 73rd Cavalry, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. T. H. D. LaTouche; Mr. E. J. Abraham, I.C.S., proposed by Dr. N. Annandale, seconded by Mr. I. H. Burkill; Captain John Morrison, M.B. (Glasgow). I.M.S., 88th Carnatic Infantry, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Captain E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S. Mr. J. C. R. Johnston, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Mr. I. H. Burkill; Mr. D. E. Grubi, proposed by Dr. E. D. Ross, seconded by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott.

The following papers were read:-

1. Review of our Knowledge of the Oriental Diptera.— By E. Brunetti. Communicated by Dr. Annandale.

This paper has been published in the Journal for March 1910.

- 2 Rasiapaasana.—By S. P. V. RANGANATHASVAMI ARYA-VARAGURN.
- 3. Vocabulary of Technical and Falconry Terms in Urdu, Persian and Arabic.—By LIEUT.-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

- 4. A Discovery of a long Metre in Prabodhachandrodaya.

 —By V. V. Sovani. Communicated by the Philological Secretary.
- 5. A Chemical Examination of the Butter-fat of the Indian Buffalo.—By E. R. Watson, Monohar Gupta, and Satish Chandra Ganguli.
- 6. King Gopi Chandra of Rungpur.—By BISVESWAR BHATTACHARJEE.

This paper has been published in the Journal for March 1910.

- 7. Ladvaga rGyalrabs, the Chronicles of Ladakh, according to Schlagintweit's Manuscripts.—Translated by Rev. A. H. Francke.
- 8. Two Buddhist Stone Images from Malda.—By A. K. MAITRA.
- 9. Chondrodonta Bosei, a new species of fossil Lamellibranch from the Hippurite-bearing beds of Seistan.—By Ernest W. Vredenburg.

These three papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

- 10. Palæontological Notes on the Gangamepteris beds of Khunmu (in Kashmir).—By HEM CHANDRA DAS-GUPTA. Communicated by MR. C. S. MIDDLEMISS.
- 11. Contributions to the History and Ethnology of North-Eastern India, II.—By H. E. STAPLETON.
- 12. Cause of the Dismemberment of the Maurya Empire.— By MAHAMAHOPADHYAYA HARAPRASAD SHASTRI.

This paper will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

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The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 13th April, 1910, at 9-30 P.M.

LIEUT.-COLONEL D. G. CRAWFURD, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:—

Dr. G. C. Chatterjee, Dr. H. Finck, Lieut.-Colonel H. B. Foster, I.M.S., Captain E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S., Dr. A. M. Leake, Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Captain J. Morison, I.M.S., Lieut.-Colonel H. W. Pilgrim, I.M.S., Captain H. B. Steen, I.M.S., Captain C. H. Stevens, I.M.S., Captain F. H. Stewart, I.M.S., Captain A. D. White, I.M.S., Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitors:—Dr. G. C. Maitra, Dr. S. N. Mookerjee, Major B. C. Oldham, I.M.S., and Dr. S. N. Roy.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Twenty-four presentations were announced.

A case of very marked cyanosiis in a child due to extensive deficiency of the auricular septum was shown by Major L. Rogers for Lieut.-Colonel Calvert.

Major C. R. Stevens showed the following cases:-

- 1. A child in whom a large hydronepheosis had been removed by abdominal laparotomy.
- 2. A patient from whom a dentigerous cyst had been removed, which microscopically showed the structure of a cylindroma.
- 3. A patient from whom an extensive sarcoma of the soft patale had been removed.

Lieut.-Colonel Pilgrim showed a case of cyst of the epiglottis.

Captain Megaw showed a specimen of lymphocele of the spermatic cord containing an adult filarial worm.

Dr. G. C. Chatterjee read notes of a case of broncho-pneumonia in a patient of Colonel Calvert's with minute abscesses on the surface of the liver and suppuration of the bronchial lymphatic glands all due to the diprococcus of Friedlander.

The paper of Lieut.-Colonel Nott was postponed until the May meeting.

MAY, 1010.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 4th May, 1910, at 9-15 p.m.

T. H. D. LATOUCHE, Esq., B.A., F.G.S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present :--

Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Dr. C. H. Elmes, Mr. H. H. Hayden, Mr. J. C. R. Johnston, Rev. W. R. LeQuesne, Mr. A. C. Sen, Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri, and Mr. G. H. Tipper.

Visitors:—Rev. J. Bourdot, s.J., Rev. H. Hosten, s.J., Mr. H. K. Mazumder, and Rev. M. Vermeire, s.J.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Forty-four presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Mr. Louis Stuart and Mr. D. H. W. Ritchie had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The President announced:

- 1. That Mr. G. H. Tipper has returned to Calcutta and has taken charge of the duties of General Secretary from Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott.
- 2. That Dr. W. A. K. Christie has been appointed to act as Natural History Secretary and Secretary for the Regional Bureau of the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature, during Mr. I. H. Burkill's absence from India.
- 3. That Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott has been appointed to act as Philological Secretary during Dr. E. D. Ross' absence from Calcutta.

The General Secretary laid on the table the following minutes of a meeting of the members of the Sub-Committee appointed to frame regulations to govern the nomination and election of Fellows among the Ordinary Members held on the 16th March, 1910, for the information of the Monthly General Meeting, under Rule 48 (a).

A Meeting of the members of the Sub-Committee, appointed to frame regulations to govern the nomination and election of Fellows among the Ordinary Members, was held on Wednesday, the 16th March, 1910, at 5-30 p.m.

Present :

The Hon. Mr. Justice H. Holmwood, I.C.S. Major L. Rogers, I.M.S. D. Hooper, Esq., F.C.S. Dr. N. Annandale, F.L.S.

Rusiness-

To frame regulations.

RESOLVED-

Method in which the Fellows shall propose to Council, and Council nominate to Society.

1. Nomination papers to be sent so as to reach each Fellow by the 1st October of the year preceding the election.

2. The nomination papers must be received back duly filled in and signed by each Fellow by the 1st November, and no paper received after this date will be considered.

3. A list of persons proposed, with their qualifications, shall be compiled from the nomination papers and printed and sent out to each Fellow so as to reach him by the end of November.

- 4. The Fellows shall then vote for not more than the number to be elected in the succeeding year by placing a cross against the names of those he wishes to be nominated, and no paper with more than the maximum number of crosses for the year's election will be accepted. These papers must be returned so as to reach the Society's rooms by the end of December.
- 5. The voting papers mentioned in Rule 4 shall be enclosed unsigned in a separate sealed envelope which shall be forwarded in an outer cover with a covering letter signed by the Fellow.
- 6. There shall be a meeting of Fellows in the first week in January at which the voting papers shall be opened and counted as the Chairman directs, and the names of such candidates as receive two-thirds of the votes of the Fellows voting shall be placed before the meeting.

7. If more than the maximum number to be elected have received the qualifying vote of two-thirds, those receiving the highest number of votes shall be proposed for the vacancies.

- 8. In the event there being a tie for the last vacancies, the Fellows present at the meeting shall decide which of the candidates receiving the same number of votes shall be proposed to the Council for nomination to the Society for a Fellowship.
- 9. These nominations shall be laid before the Council at the January Meeting in the fourth week, and the Council shall finally make the nominations.
- 10. The nominations shall be read out to the Members at the Ordinary Annual Meeting in February, and voting papers shall be provided for each member present, who shall record his

vote in the same manner and under the same conditions as for the officers and members of Council of the Society.

Resolved to report to the Council for submission to the next Ordinary General Meeting under Rule 48 (a).

The General Secretary also laid on the table the following Report of the Standard Temperature Committee submitted by Mr. D. Hooper, the Secretary of the Committee:—

At the Meeting of the Asiatic Society of Bengal held in July 1908, Professor P. Brühl read a paper on "Proposals for a Standard Temperature for Tropical Climates." The author pointed out that the normal temperature of 62°F, does not serve the purposes of the chemist and physicist who work in the tropics, and the spread of science will render the choice of one or more higher standard temperatures a matter of necessity. author's observations led to the conclusion that the most convenient standard temperature for Calcutta is 30°C. (86°F.), at least during the period extending from the middle of March to the middle of November. During the remaining part of the year 22°C. (71.6°F.) would be more useful. During the discussion that ensued it was advanced that 25°C. (77°F.) was a suitable temperature for Calcutta. A resolution was finally passed that the question of a standard temperature for India be referred for report to a committee of scientists to be selected by the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

The Council appointed the following to serve on the Committee:—

Dr. Morris Travers, Bangalore, Chairman.

., W. A. K. Christie, Geological Survey.

Professor P. Brühl, Engineering College.

, J. A. Cunningham, Presidency College.

E. P. Harrison,

Mr. D. Hooper, Indian Museum, Secretary.

The Committee met in December and proceeded to discuss the form of note to be sent to chemists and physicists throughout India. It was proposed to circulate Professor Brühl's paper and invite opinions on the proposals. In the covering letter the Committee recommended a change in the standard temperature observed in Europe and suggested 30°C as most suitable for India. Expressions of opinion were called for, and the Committee asked to be supplied with the results of calculations or experiments connected with thermo-constants in India.

Letters were forwarded to 62 scientific workers and 50 replies were received. Analysing the replies it was found that 40 of the 50 were in favour of 30° as a temperature of reference for India. These came from the following towns and

districts: Aligarh, Assam, Bankipur, Benares, Berhampore, Bhagalpur, Bombay, Calcutta, Coimbatore, Cuttack, Dacca, Hazaribagh, Kodaikanal, Lahore, Madras, Meerut, Nilgiris, Poona, Pusa, Rajshahi, Rangoon and Sirsiah

On the other hand five correspondents recommended 25° as a more suitable temperature, one suggested 28°, another 32.5°, and a worker in Madras informed the Committee that he had already adopted 33°. Many valuable observations and suggestions were made by the correspondents, which we have endeavoured to summarise. It is noticed that the most interesting replies are from those who do not favour the immediate adoption of the Committee's proposal: these are from physicists. No chemist records his opinion in favour of the adoption of a lower temperature than 30°.

Professor J. J. Durack of Allahabad objects to 30° being accepted as a standard for inland stations for the following reasons:—

- "1. From an inspection of the tables given in Professor Brühl's paper referring to mean daily and maximum temperatures in different towns in India.
 - 2. These temperatures are taken in open sheds (conditions laid down by the Meteorological Department), which are much hotter than our laboratories.
 - 3. Most of our serious research work must be done during the winter months, and a mean winter temperature would consequently be more convenient than a mean yearly temperature. I would suggest 25° as a more suitable standard than 30°, but as a compromise perhaps 27° would find favour.''

Answers to these objections have been given by more than one correspondent, the general opinion being that the temperature of reference selected should be above rather than below the mean maximum temperature, so that during the day-time it should be necessary to raise the temperature of any instrument rather than to cool it to bring it to the standard. Everybody who has had practical experience of thermostatic work knows how much easier it is to keep the thermostat above than below the room temperature. Mr. J. T. Burnham, Nilgiris, confirms these remarks. He says: "Work is more accurately carried out if the temperature aimed at is slightly above the temperature of the laboratory than below it."

Professor Michie Smith, Kodaikanal, thus gives his experience as a physicist. "More work of an experimental kind is done when the temperature of the laboratory is below than when it is above 30°, and it seems that it is better to have a standard which is above than one which is below the ordinary working

temperature."

Dr. Leather, Pusa, holds similar views. He says: "It is easier to maintain a vessel at a temperature greater than the atmospheric one than below it. It is better to select a temperature near to the laboratory maximum so as to provide principally for hot-weather conditions."

A temperature of 15° is above the mean temperature of England and Central Europe, and if what might be termed a corresponding temperature were fixed for India, that temperature should be above 28°. Since chemists and physicists have sometimes found 15° to be an inconveniently low temperature for a standard in the West, it would seem that 30° would not be found to be an inconveniently high temperature for a standard of reference in India and the Tropics.

Mr. R. Ll. Jones. Madras, advocates 28° as a standard in electrical work. He remarks:—

"It appears to me that 28°C, is the most convenient temperature to adopt as a standard. The reasons why this value is taken are briefly the following:—

"For accurate standardising and high precision work it is necessary to carry out the operations in a constant temperature room. It is also very desirable to secure this constant temperature without artificial means of heating and cooling, if possible. Hence in selecting a standard temperature it is advisable to fix on such a temperature as can be secured with ease and certainty and kept constant with the least amount of help from subsidiary machinery.

"Constant temperature rooms are generally built underground in the middle of a massive block of buildings so that the daily variations in temperature are quite inappreciable. The only variations in temperature in such a room are the seasonal or annual changes. The further down the room is the less will these changes be—at 20 or 30 feet they are very small. The temperature at such depths is in India close to 82°F, or 28°C, according to the best observations. This is also approximately the mean temperature of the sea in the tropics and of India as a whole, I believe. Hence it seems natural to take 28° as the standard temperature as it appears to be the mean temperature of the equatorial belt of the globe. The fluctuations from it in ordinary work will be more evenly distributed on either side of it, and their average magnitude (irrespective of sign) will consequently be less than if any other temperature were taken as standard. The corrections to be applied will hence be smaller and the uncertainty on this account will be reduced.'

These observations are of interest, but we need hardly consider sea water, and our experience is that the majority of laboratories in India are not constructed of massive materials, nor are the usual operations conducted in underground cellars.

As regards tap water supplied to the laboratories its temperature is likely to vary considerably in some localities, while in others it is fairly constant. Professor T. K. Gajjar reports that the water temperature in Bombay fluctuates between 27° and 29°. Mr. A. W. Bishop of Trevandrum states that water from the main is usually nearer 25° than 30°. These facts favour the adoption of the latter figure as a temperature of reference. By means of an electrical resistance thermostatic arrangement the water may be kept constant at 30°. Such an apparatus has been constructed at Sibpur College for use in the calibration of burettes.

Dr. E. G. Hill, Allahabad, informs us that 25°C. is obtainable in his station from November 1st to March 15th, that is during the cold weather. From April to July the average laboratory temperature varies from 30° to 35°, in the rains it is about 30° to 33°, "consequently," he adds, "a standard of 30° would not be very useful to us in Allahabad, and 35° would not be at all too high. For Indian standards I should suggest 0°, 25° and 35°. A thermostat could be nearly always arranged to work at 35°, but it cannot for 30° in the hot weather and rains."

With regard to these proposals the Committee are not in favour of suggesting more than one temperature of reference for India. For this reason they have considered the proposal of 22° as an auxiliary temperature, and for various reasons they do not recommend its adoption. "Standards ought not to be multiplied," writes Rev. E. Francotte, and the object of the Committee is to propose one which is likely to be generally adopted and found practically useful in scientific work.

It will be noticed that Dr. Hill and Professor Durack (both of Allahabad, and therefore representative of an inland station) suggest 35° and 25° respectively. The mean of these two figures is 30°.

Two scientists in Madras, Professor R. Ll. Jones, a physicist, and Professor Erlam Smith, a chemist, advocate 28° and 33° respectively. Here again the mean is about 30°.

Further evidence in support of this temperature is given by Professor V. H. Jackson, Bankipore. He writes: "During the whole of the S. W. monsoon the temperature over the whole of the Ganges Valley is extremely uniform, about 29°, and a variation of one degree in any particular locality is exceptional. The temperature in laboratories corresponds closely to this mean, or during the daytime, in which most observations are made, is slightly higher. This renders Professor Brühl's suggestion of 30° especially suitable."

From a practical point of view Mr. R. L. Jenk's (Kasauli) remark is of considerable importance. "It is clear from records we get from distilleries and bonded warehouses all over the country that 30°C, is a more useful standard temperature than 15°C."

Confirmatory evidence comes from Bombay. Mr. N. Q. F. Moos of the Observatory writes: "Seeing that all daily laboratory work is done during the solar hours, I incline to think that 30° would, on the average, best answer all requirements for the continent of India."

With regard to the important question of standards of length and weight which were legally adopted in 1894, "Indian standard air" being taken at 85°F., the Committee has heard from Colonel S. G. Burrard, Trigonometrical Survey, and Lieut.-Colonel A. Milne, Assay Master, Bombay, to the effect that the change from 85° to 86° would be immaterial. The change, however, would probably have to be notified in the *Gazette*.

The advantages of having in India a temperature that serves the same purpose as 15° serves in Europe have been expressed by many writers. In all laboratories chemists will find a convenience in having flasks, burettes, pipettes and all volumetric appliances, as well as polarimeters, refractometers and the like adjusted to a definite temperature. Specific gravity table of acids, alkalis and alcohol would be more useful in India if determined at the new temperature.

For most physical purposes what is wanted is an accurate knowledge of how the physical coefficients (expansion, electrical conductivity, E.M.F., etc.) vary with the temperature over the whole range of temperature experienced during the working year. It is not a matter of very great importance what temperature is chosen for the normal provided it is higher than the mean annual temperature of the majority of laboratories.

Electrical standards for instance rarely attain their standardised value in this country, and even when the temperature coefficient has been supplied there is still uncertainty due to the fact that the temperature to which the correction is applied is usually outside the range within which the latter has been established.

The proposed temperature will probably be found suitable for appliances constructed for germinating seeds, for this process requires a higher temperature than that found in India in the cold weather. Mr. F. J. Chittenden, in charge of the laboratory of the Royal Horticultural Society's Garden at Ripley, says: "The optimum temperature for germinating most seeds of temperate climates lies about 80°F."

It has been urged that it is difficult and expensive to obtain apparatus on whose calibration one can rely graduated for temperatures not recognised in Europe as normal ones. This is a point the Committee have not overlooked. Were the demand from most tropical countries, including India, a uniform one for apparatus graduated at a definite temperature, there would soon be little more difficulty in obtaining from stock reliable and suitable apparatus than there now is in obtaining articles graduated at 15°. The Engineering College, Sibpur, and the

Krishnath College, Berhampore, have in use complete sets of volumetric apparatus graduated at 30° made by Mueller-Uri of Brunswick. On the representation of one of the Committee the Kaiserlische Aichsamt in Berlin has consented to certify measuring apparatus for a temperature of 30°.

During the enquiry a method of standardising thermometers at the proposed standard temperature has been referred to. It is fortunately possible to obtain a point which has been fixed with great accuracy in the neighbourhood of 90°F. Professor T. W. Richards has described the transition (melting) point of sodium sulphate decallydrate by means of a mercurial thermometer which had been compared with the standard hydrogen thermometer in the Bureau International de Poids et Mesures at Sevres (Zeitschrift für Phys. Chemie, 1903, 43, 465). The temperature on the standard (constant volume) hydrogen scale is 32.383°C. or expressed in Fahrenheit degrees 90.288°. melting point of sodium sulphate can be used for the standardisation of thermometers at 90°F. (32·4°C.). Sodium decahydrate is easily obtained sufficiently pure for the purpose, for traces of chloride or other salts do not affect the melting point.

With regard to the future experimental work which the adoption of a temperature of reference will involve, the following suggestion made by Rev. H. Sierp, Bombay, will be of interest.

"It will ultimately be necessary to get a list of tables prepared on the lines of those of Bornstein, Lunge and similar books. Would it not be possible for the Committee to make arrangements in such a way that a laboratory is completely equipped and put aside for such determinations? The gain for chemistry in India would be enormous. Perhaps it will be possible in future years to develop such an institution into a Central Institute with a similar aim as the Physikalische Reichsanstalt or the new Chemische Reichsanstalt or Charlottenburg." Such an institution may not be established in India in the near future, but educationists will agree that the compilation of temperature tables will provide advanced Indian students with tasks which will not only be congenial but which will constitute admirable means of training them in accurate work."

The object of the present Committee has been in the direction of obtaining the opinion of scientific workers in India on the question of a temperature of reference for this country. While there is almost a unanimous verdict that such a temperature should be recognised authoritatively and the majority are in favour of 30°, which the Committee endorses, it remains to be discussed how this temperature would suit tropical countries in general. Dr. G. T. Walker and Dr. Simpson of the Meteorological Department have given valuable information and suggestions towards choosing a normal tropical temperature. A reference to a temperature chart of the world will show that.

excluding elevated areas with decidedly lower temperatures, the mean annual temperature in Mexico, Central America and tropical South America lies between 22° and 26°; of the West Indies between 23° and 27°; of Egypt between 20° and 28° (Cairo being 21°); of British and German East Africa down to Natal between 22° and 27°; Batavia 26°; and of tropical Australia between 20° and 29°. The only areas outside India where the mean annual temperature is above 28° are in Central Africa, and very small parts of Mexico, Arabia and Australia.

Dr. Simpson prefers the adoption of 25° for tropical countries, considering that the workers in India are few in comparison with those in other countries mentioned above. He also explains that workers in Europe and America often find it convenient to have tables and constants worked out for some higher temperature than 15°, and if the temperature of reference for tropical countries were near the temperature they require, they would no doubt adopt it, but if far removed they would rather take the temperature which is actually most useful to them. He thinks that many more tables would be calculated to 25° than to 30°.

With regard to these remarks it must be borne in mind that the mean annual temperature is in no way an expression of the temperature conditions under which scientific work must be carried out in laboratories. It is proposed to fix a temperature of reference such as will be convenient to workers who are obliged to carry out investigations during the hot months in tropical Hence, although the mean temperature of the countries. West Indies may lie between 23° and 27°, it is probable that temperatures in laboratories in that part of the world will more frequently be above than below 30°. From data furnished by Berghaus Atlas the July isotherms of the Southern United States lie between 26° and 36°, those of Mexico and Cuba are close to 28°. Khartoum has a July isotherm of nearly 36° and a January isotherm of 24°. The January isotherms of Queensland lie between 26° and 30°. The mean daily temperature of all countries coming within the radius of this discussion will probably be well above 25° during a considerable part of the year.

In conclusion we are of opinion that the temperature of reference for India generally might be accepted as 30°. The reasons advanced in the earlier part of this report are that the temperature aimed at should be above the mean air temperature and due allowance should be made for hot weather or maximum conditions. With regard to the tropics, however, we agree with Dr. Walker and believe that the matter is of sufficient importance to receive full discussion and be referred to the Royal Society for submission to the International Association of Academies, for it is only in some such manner that other tropical countries would have an opportunity of expressing their wants.

The following twelve gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members :— $\,$

Mr. S. C. Williams, B.A., proposed by Dr. W. A. K. Christie, seconded by Mr. T. H. D. LaTouche: Mr. S. B. Dhavle, I.C.S., Joint Magistrate, Gulzarbagh, proposed by Lieut,-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Lieut. W. M. Edwards, Royal Garrison Artillery, R. A. Mess, Barian, Murree Hills, proposed by Lieut. Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper: Mr. W. F. Bolton, Colonial Civil Service, United Service Club, Calcutta, proposed by Mr. H. G. Graves, seconded by Captain F. H. Stewart, I.M.S.; Mr. S. Kemp, B.A., Senior Assistant Superintendent, Indian Museum, proposed by Dr. N. Annandale, seconded by Captain F. H. Stewart, I.M.S.; Major Benjamin Curvey Oldham, I.M.S., Civil Surgeon, Alipore, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S.; Major Ernest Alan Robert Newman, M.D., Cantab, I.M.S., Superintendent, Campbell Hospital, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Lieut, Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S.; Major William Wesley Clemesha. M.D., I.M.S., Sanitary Commissioner, Bengal, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Lieut.-Colonel F. P. Maynard, I.M.S.: Captain William Frederick Harvey, M.B., I.M.S., Acting Director, Pasteur Institute, Kasauli, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Captain E. D. W. Grieg, I.M.S.; Captain Robert Markham Carter, I.M.S., Pasteur Institute, Kasauli, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Captain E. D. W. Grieg, I.M.S.; Captain John D. Sandes, B.A., M.B., B.Ch., B.A.O. (Dub. Univ.), L.M. (Rotánda), I.M.S., 3, Loudon Street, Calcutta, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Captain T. F. Owens, I.M.S.; Dr. T. H. Bishop, L.R.C.P., L.R.C.S., D.P.H., proposed by Surgeon-General C. P. Lukis, I.M.S., seconded by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S.

The following papers were read:—

- 1. Discovery of the Abhisamaya lankara Sastra, by Maitreyanatha. By Mahamahopadhyaya Haraprasad Shastri.
- 2. An Examination of Max Müller's theory of the Renaissance of Sanskrit Literature in the Fourth Century A.D., after a lull of Seven Centuries since the rise of Buddhism.—By Манаманорарнуауа Напарпавар Shastri.

These two papers will be published in a subsequent number of the *Journal*.

- 3. "The Fight for the Cows" in the Rigveda.—By A. C. SEN. This paper will not be published in the Journal.
- 4. Who Planned the Taj !—By Rev. H. Hosten, 8.J. Communicated by the Philological Secretary.

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- 5. The Marsden Manuscript in the British Museum.—By W. R. Philipps and H. Beveridge. Edited by Rev. H. Hosten, s.i. Communicated by the Philological Secretary.
- 6. Note of a Visit to Kapala-Muchan.—By Anand Koul. Communicated by the Philological Secretary.

These three papers will be published in a subsequent number of the *Journal*. $--\diamondsuit--$

The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 11th May, 1910, at 9-30 p.m.

LIEUT.-COLONEL A. H. NOTT, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Lieut.-Colonel J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., Dr. C. H. Elmes, Dr. W. C. Hossack. Dr. A. M. Leake, Captain J. W. D. Megaw. I.M.S., Captain J. D. Sandes, I.M.S., Captain H. B. Steen, 1.M.S., Captain D. White, I.M.S., Major L. Rogers, Honorary Secretary.

Visitor:—Dr. Satyaranjan Sen.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Six presentations were announced.

Captain Megaw showed cases of (1) Locomotor ataxy, (2) Syphilitic paraplegia, and (3) Crossed hemiplegia due to a lesion of pons.

Captain A. D. White showed X-ray plates illustrating (1) a rubber drainage tube within a liver abscess cavity, (2) an osteophyte of the under surface of the oscalcis following injury, and (3) of a tumour of the lower jaw. He also exhibited a specimen of a gangrenous twisted Meckel's diverticulum which had produced fatal intestinal obstruction in a child.

Lieut.-Colonel A. H. Nott read a paper on a case of placenta Praevia.

JUNE, 1910.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 1st June, 1910, at 9-15 P.M.

T. H. D. LATOUCHE, Esq., B.A., F.G.S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. N. Annandale, Mr. J. C. Brown, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Mr. G. de P. Cotter, Dr. W. A. K. Christie, Mr. D. E. Grubl, Mr. B. A. Gupte, Mr. K. A. K. Hallowes, Mr. H. H. Hayden, Mr. A. M. Heron, Mr. D. Hooper, Dr. W. C. Hossack, Mr. H. C. Jones, Mr. C. H. Kesteven, Babu Ramakanta Bhattacharjee, Captain J. D. Sandes, I.M.S., Mr. G. H. Tipper, Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, Mr. S. C. Williams.

Visitors:—Mr. and Mrs. C. W. Bebe, Mr. R. H. Godwin and Mr. B. A. Lindsay.

The President moved an expression of condolence in connection with the death of the late King-Emperor Edward the Seventh, and said:—

Before we proceed with the ordinary business of this meeting, I must crave your indulgence in order to allude to an event that has occupied the minds of all civilised people, and more especially of those who inhabit the British Dominions, during the last month, the death of His Gracious Majesty. our late King and Emperor, Edward VII.

In him we have lost one who ever took a deep interest in that growth of scientific and literary knowledge which guides the human race along the peaceful ways of economic and social development; in those subjects, that is to say, to which the activities of a Society such as ours are especially devoted. His Royal Parents saw to it that in his youth he was imbued with a knowledge of the importance of scientific research, and in after life he showed that these lessons had not been lost upon him. He recognised that it was no part of his duties as Prince or King to take a personal share in scientific pursuits, but that he could best promote the welfare of his subjects by making evident his active sympathy with every advancement of human knowledge.

This duty he faithfully performed. Not one of the great discoveries that have made the history of his life-time so memorable passed unheeded or unrecognised by him. But chiefly was his sympathy shown in those developments of

science which lead towards the alleviation, if not the prevention, of human suffering. In these respects King Edward VII is an example for all time to those whose destiny calls them to rule over nations of men; and it is therefore most fitting that this Society, established for the furtherance of those objects in which he showed so deep an interest, should express its sense of the loss that the world has suffered by his death.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Fifty-nine presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Maulavi Sakhawat Hosain had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The following gentleman was balloted for as an Ordinary Member:—

Babu Pramatha Nath Mukerji, M.A., Officiating Chief Superintendent, Finance Department, Government of India, proposed by Dr. B. N. Ghosh, L.M.S., seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper.

Dr. Annandale exhibited a collection of Indian Earwigs and referred to the recent publication of Dr. Burr's volume on the Dermaptera in the "Fauna of British India and Ceylon."

In exhibiting the collection Dr. Annandale said:—

"The publication of a volume on the earwigs by my friend Dr. Malcolm Burr in the 'Fauna of British India and Cevlon' affords an occasion to call the attention of the Society to some peculiarities of these insects and also induces me to make a few remarks on the work of which Mr. Burr's volume forms a part. The present position of the official 'Fauna' of the Indian Empire is in many respects a anomalous one. Written and edited in England by men who have never seen India, the volumes that appear from time to time claim to be authentic monographs, and most of them are valuable contributions to systematic zoology. It is easting no discredit on their authors and editor, however, to say that even a little experience in the flesh of the animals they describe, and a leisurely study of the collections preserved in India, which in many respects are by far the most complete in existence, would vastly improve the work. It is becoming increasingly difficult to send to Europe or America the whole of the rapidly increasing collections of the Indian Museum and other Indian institutions, and it would be a ridiculous situation, even from an official point of view, if, as has been practically the case in some volumes that have been published, the official collections of the

¹ Since this statement was made, the Secretary of State has sanctioned the preparation of two volumes in India.— N. A. 30-vi-10.

Indian Empire were to be ignored in the preparation of the official 'Fauna.' It is most unfortunate that English zoolo-

gists rarely visit India.

Mr. Burr's volume may certainly be described as a valuable contribution to scientific literature; indeed, author and editor have worked together to render it an improvement on any volume that has hitherto appeared in the series. It consists of far more than a mere list of short technical descriptions, including as it does a summary of all that is known both from a systematic and a biological point of view regarding the animals of which it treats. The excellence of the work makes one but regret the more the splendid addition to our knowledge of Indian biological entomology it would have formed, if only its author had had an opportunity of pursuing his investigations in this country. The plates are excellent."

Dr. Annandale then proceeded to describe the peculiarities of the insects exhibited.

The following papers were read:-

- 1. Note sur les sabres hindous. Par M. P. Holstein. Communicated by the General Secretary.
- 2. A Palæolithic Implement of Manganese-ore.—By L. L. Fermor, D.Sc., F.G.S.
- 3. An English-Turki Vocabulary.—By R. F. Azoo. Communicated by LIEUTENANT-COLONEL D. C. PHILLOTT.
 - 4. Rivers of Dacca District.—By F. D. ASCOLI.

These four papers will be printed in a subsequent number of the Journal.

5. Medicinal Lizards.—By D. HOOPER.

The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 8th June, 1910, at 9-30 P.M.

LIEUT-COLONEL F. J. DRURY, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Rai Hera Lal Bose, Rahadur, Lieut.-Col. E. H. Brown, I.M.S., Lieut.-Col. J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., Dr. C. H. Elmes, Captain H. B. Foster, I.M.S., Dr. Birendranath Ghosh, Major E. W. D. Greig, I.M.S., Major W. D. Hayward, I.M.S., Dr. W. C. Hossack, Dr. A. M. Leake, Lieut.-Col. F. P. Maynard, I.M.S., Dr. J. E. Panioty, Lieut.-Col. H. W. Pilgrim, I.M.S., Major J. D. Sandes, I.M.S., Major W. B. Steen, I.M.S.,

Captain F. H. Stewart, I.M.S., Major L. Rogers, Honorary Secretary.

Visitors:—Assistant Surgeon A. A. E. Baptist, and Dr. S. C. Baral.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

A case of Pheumatoid orthritis was shown by Lieut.-Col. Calvert, I.M.S.

A letter suggesting that either a Tropical School of Medicine or a Sanitarium for consumptives would form a fitting memorial in Calcutta in memory of the late King Emperor Edward the Seventh, which was referred to the Medical Section by the General Meeting, was brought up for discussion.

PROPOSED MEMORIAL TO THE LATE KING EMPEROR.

The proposal brought forward at the June Meeting of the Asiatic Society of Bengal that either a Tropical School of Medicine in Calcutta or a Sanitorium for the treatment of Tuberculosis in a suitable climate would form an appropriate memorial to the late King Edward was discussed at the Meeting of the Medical Section on June 8th, having been referred to them by the General Meeting. There was a full attendance, and one or both of the proposals received the support of every speaker, although some favoured one and some the other as the more suitable of the two. The following resolution covering both suggestions was proposed by Lieut. Colonel Pilgrim and adopted by the Meeting with one dissentient:—

"The Medical Section of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, having considered the letter on the subject referred to it by the Ordinary General Meeting of the Society, is of the opinion that in view of the great interest in Sanitoria for consumptives displayed by the Late King Emperor Edward the Seventh, and of the urgency of the provision of such Sanitoria in suitable centres in India, as pointed out by this Section last year. such Sanitoria, of an Imperial character and appealing to all, irrespective of Race or Religion, would be most suitable objects of expenditure of a portion of the funds raised in India to commemorate His Late Majesty. They are further of the opinion that if sufficient funds are available, a grant towards the recently proposed Institution for Research in Tropical Diseases and post-graduate instruction would also be most appropriate."

A paper was read by Lieut.-('olonel H. W. Pilgrim, I.M.S., on the Ipecacuanha Treatment of Acute Hepatitis, and the discussion was adjourned until the next meeting.

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JULY, 1910.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 6th July, 1910, at 9-15 P.M.

T. H. D. LATOUCHE, Esq., B.A., F.G.S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present:—

Dr. N. Annandale, Mr. J. Coggin Brown, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Babu Durgadas Bhatta, Mr. D. E. Grübl, Mr. H. H. Hayden, Mr. A. M. Heron, Mr. D. Hooper, Dr. Indu Madhab Mullick, Mr. S. N. Kemp, Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, Mr. G. H. Tipper and Mr. E. Vredenburgh.

Visitors:—Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., Mr. G. W. V. deRue Philipe, and Rev. M. Vermeire, S.J.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Forty-three presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Mr. H. G. Fitzgerald had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The President announced that Dr. E. D. Ross had returned to Calcutta and has taken charge of the duties of Philological Secretary from Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott.

The General Secretary laid on the table an invitation from the International Hygiene Exhibition to be held at Dresden in 1911.

The proposal to designate Honorary Members as Honorary Fellows of the Society, of which intimation has been given by circular to all Resident Members in accordance with Rule 64A, was brought up for discussion.

Circular under Rule 64A of the Society's Rules.

Since the creation of Fellowships in the Society, the proposal to designate Honorary Members as Honorary Fellows of the Society has been made and accepted by the Council.

The Council feel sure that this proposal will meet with the approval of all members of the Society.

The following changes will have to be made in the Rules of the Society:—

In Rule 2, for "The Society shall consist of members of the three following classes," read "The Society shall consist of Ordinary Members, Honorary Fellows and Associate Members."

In Rules 2(b), 13, 15 and 23, for "Honorary Members" read "Honorary Fellows."

In Rule 61, for "Honorary or Associate Members" read "Honorary Fellows, or Associate Members."

The following five gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members: —

- Mr. A. W. Botham, I.C.S., Barisal, proposed by Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Major G. P. Lenox Conyngham, R.E., Deputy Superintendent, Survey of India, United Service Club, Calcutta, proposed by Captain E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S., seconded by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S.; Babu Srikrishna Mahapatra, Deputy Superintendent of Police, proposed by Babu Rakhal Das Banerji, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Mahomad Aziz Mirza, Honorary Secretary, All-India Muslim League, 9, Banks Road, Lucknow, proposed by Babu Rakhal Das Banerji, seconded by Dr. E. D. Ross and Lieutenant E. W. Malyon, 21st Punjabis, proposed by Lieut.-Col. D. C. l'hillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper.
- Dr. N. Annandale exhibited on behalf of Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri and himself specimens of two species of Sting-ray from the River Ganges. He said that it had been known for nearly ninety years that two species of ray inhabited the waters of the Ganges far above tidal influence. Hamilton-Buchanan's descriptions, however, of these two fish, which he called Raja sancar and Raja fluviatilis in his 'Gangetic Fishes' (1822), were inadequate for their identifications, and it was only recently that Mr. Chaudhuri's investigations had proved what they really were. Raja sancar, as Blyth correctly stated, was specifically identical with the marine species Hypolophus sephen and was found breeding in fresh water, while Raja fluviatilis was a species of Trygon allied to T. marginatus but distinguished by its produced and pointed snout. A full description of this species, a specimen of which had also been taken in the Bay of Bengal by the "Golden Crown," would be published later.

The following papers were read:—

- 1. The Poet Maili of Herat.—By H. Beveridge.
- 2. Inscribed Guns from Assam.—By RAKHAL DAS BANERJI.

These papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

3. Contributions to the History of the Seven Sixteenth Century Cannon recently discovered in the Dacca District.—By Khan Bahadur Sayid Aulad Hosain.

This paper will not be published.

- 4. List of Jesuit Missionaries in "Mogor" (1580-1803).

 —By Rev. H. Hosten, S.J. Communicated by the General Secretary.
- 5. Yasovijaya Gani.—By МАНĀ МАНОРĀДНУАУА DR. SATIS CHANDRA VIDYABHUSANA.

These papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.



The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 13th July, 1910, at 9-30 P.M.

LIEUT.-COLONEL F. P. MAYNARD, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:—

Lieut.-Colonel J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., Dr. H. M. Crake, Dr. C. H. Elmes, Dr. H. Finck, Captain E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S., Dr. W. C. Hossack, Lieut.-Colonel J. Lloyd Jones, I.M.S., Dr. W. W. Kennedy, Captain G. King, I.M.S., Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Lieut.-Colonel A. H. Nott, I.M.S., Dr. J. E. Panioty, Lieut.-Colonel H. W. Pilgrim, I.M.S., Dr. A. W. Robertson, Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitors:—Assistant Surgeon A. A. E. Baptist, Dr. S N. Mukerjee, and Dr. S. K. Sen-Gupta.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Twenty-two presentations were announced.

Clinical cases were shown for Major Stevens of columar called carcinema of the jaw, and of abdominal hydrocele.

Lieut.-Colonel Maynard showed a case of Kaposis disease.

The discussion on Colonel Pilgrim's paper on the Ipecacuanha treatment of Hepatitis was concluded. Lieut. Colonels Drury, Calvert, and Nott, Major L. Rogers, Captains Megaw, Greig, and Dr. White Robertson spoke, and Colonel Pilgrim replied.

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AUGUST, 1910.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 3rd August, 1910, av 9-15 p.m.

T. H. D. LATOUCHE, Esq., B.A., F.G.S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Mr. W. F. Bolton, Mr. A. M. Heron, Mr. D. Hooper, Mr. S. W. Kemp, Dr. Indumadhab Mallick, Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Capt. J. D. Sandes, I.M.S., Mr. G. H. Tipper, Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, and Mr. E. Vredenburg.

Visitors:—Rev. J. Comerford, S.J., Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., and Mr. G. W. Oliver.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Twenty-two presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Mr. H. P. Duval had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The General Secretary also reported that Babu Hanuman Prasad was dead.

The President announced that Dr. E. P. Harrison has been appointed to act as Natural History Secretary during Mr. I. H. Burkill's absence from India.

The General Secretary laid on the table an invitation from the Institut International de Bibliographie, Bruxelles, to take part in the International Congress of Bibliography and Documentation, to be held at Brussels on 25-27 August, 1910.

The Council reported that there were three vacancies in the list of Honorary Members, and two in the list of Associate Members, and the Council, therefore, recommended Acharyya Satyavrata Samasrami, now an Associate Member, for election as an Honorary Member; and Khan Bahadur Shams-ul-Ulama Moulvie Ahmed Abdul Aziz Nayati of Hyderabad, and Mr. L. K. Anantha Krishna Iyer, B.A., L.T., Superintendent of Ethnography, Cochin State, for election as Associate Members at the next meeting.

Acharyaya Satyavrata Samasrami is the recognized leader of Vedic Pandits in Northern India. His contributions to the advancement of Vedic learning have been both numerous

and important, as is indicated by his editions of the Nirukta, Aitareya Brahmana, and Satapatha Brahmana, with commentaries and valuable introductions and notes. His Nirukta-lochanam and Aitareyalochanam indicate a study of Vedic literature with a critical attitude of mind, of which we find little evidence in the ordinary orthodox Pandit. A complete list of his numerous works—more than 75 in number—will be found on pages 30-33 of the pamphlet published by Pandit Devavrata Vidyaratna in 1896.—[ASHUTOSH MOOKERJEE].

Khan Bahadur Shams-ul-Ulama Moulvie Ahmed Abdul Aziz Nayati on account of the contributions to literature, viz., (a) Siak-i-Deccan, (b) Tarikh-ul-Navayat, (c) Mahboob-us-Sier, (d) Atyat-i-Sultani, (e) Falahatul Nakl, (f) Kasht-i-Angoor, (g) Kasht-i-Tarkari, (h) Hayat-ul-Hamam, and (i) Gharaib-ul-Jummal. He has besides published Manuals on the Revenue, Imam and Financial regulations of the Nizam's Government, which have passed through 17 editions.—[D. C. PHILLOTT].

Mr. L. K. Anantha Krishna Iyer, B.A., L.T., Superintendent of Ethnography, Cochin State, is the author of "Cochin Tribes and Castes," an ethnographical work of considerable value.—[G. H. TIPPER].

The following three gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

Lieut. G. M. Routh, R.A., Ferozepore, proposed by Lieut. Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Babu Padamraj, Merchant, 9, Juggo Mohun Mullick's Lane, Calcutta, proposed by Mr. R. D. Mehta, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Captain A. C. Tancock, 31st Punjabis, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper.

The following papers were read:-

- 1. Note on a Miniature Temple.—By RADHA KANTA GHOSE. Communicated by the General Secretary.
- 2. A System of Indian Scientific Vocabulary.—By Manindra Nath Banerjee. Communicated by the General Secretary.

These papers will not be published in the Journal.

- 3. On the preparation of Phenyl-Nitro-Methane by the interaction of Mercurous Nitrite and Benzyl Chloride.—By Panchanan Neogi and Birendra Bhusan Adhikary. Communicated by Dr. P. C. Ray.
- 4. Notes on the History of the District of Hughly or the ancient Rada,—By NUNDOLAL DEY.
 - 5. Materia Medica Animalium Indica.—By D. Hooper.

Old Guns in Bengal.—A note by Rev. H. Hosten, S.J. Communicated by the General Secretary.

These papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.



The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 10th August, 1910, at 9-30 P.M.

LIEUT.-COLONEL F. P. MAYNARD, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:—

Dr. H. M. Crake, Dr. Girindra Nath Mukerjee, Dr. Gopal Chandra Chatterjee, Capt. E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S., Dr. W. C. Hossack, Dr. Indumadhab Mallick, Dr. W. W. Kennedy Capt. R. E. Lloyd, I.M.S., Capt. J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S. Lieut.-Colonel A. H. Nott, I.M.S., Capt. F. F. Owens, I.M.S., Dr. J. E. Panioty, Capt. J. D. Sandes, I.M.S., Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Captain Megaw showed a case of Locomotor atony with optic neuritis.

Captains Greig and Lloyd, I.M.S., gave a demonstration on Pathogenic and non-Pathogenic Amoeba.

SEPTEMBER, 1910.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 7th September, 1910, at 9-15 P.M.

T. H. D. LATOUCHE, Esq., B.A., F.G.S., President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. N. Annandale, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Dr. E. P. Harrison, Mr. A. M. Heron, Mr. J. C. R. Johnston, Mr. H. C. Jones, Dr. Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana, and Mr. E. Vredenburg.

Visitors:—Babu Hem Chandra Das Gupta, Mr. F. H. Gravely, and Rev. H. Hosten, S.J.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Thirty presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Mr. W. B. MacCabe and Pandit Durga Das Bhatta had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

Acharyya Satyavrata Samasrami was balloted for and elected an Honorary Member.

Khan Bahadur Shams-ul-Ulama Moulvie Ahmed Abdul Aziz Nayati and Mr. L K. Anantha Krishna Iyer were balloted for and elected Associate members.

The proposal to designate Honorary Members as Honorary Fellows of the Society, of which intimation had already been given by circular to all members in accordance with Rule 65, was brought up for final disposal.

The majority of members being in favour, the proposal was carried.

The following seven gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

Kumar Sarat Roy, Zamindar, Dayarampur P.O., Rajshahi, proposed by Babu Rakhal Das Banerji, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Mr. E. R. Preston, Officiating Inspector of European Schools, Bengal, United Service Club, Calcutta, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Mr. S. R. Kumar, Rais, Zamindar and Banker, P. O. Thakurdwara, District Moradabad, U.P., proposed by Mr. G. H. Tipper, seconded by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott; Major W. G.

Grey, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Mr. L. P. Watts, proposed by Mr. D. Hooper, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Mr. F. H. Gravely, proposed by Dr. N. Annandale, seconded by Mr. T. H. D. LaTouche; Captain A. Fortescue, R.A.M.C., proposed by Mr. T. H. D. LaTouche, seconded by Dr. N. Annandale.

The President gave a brief description, illustrated with diagrams and lantern slides, of the Lonar Lake, situated in the Berars, near the northern limits of Hyderabad State. The lake basin is a circular depression, a little over a mile in diameter and some 300 feet deep, in the surface of the Deccan trap, the expanse of basaltic rock that covers so wide an area in the central and western portions of the Indian Peninsula. This formation is built up of practically horizontal flows of lava which are supposed to have welled out from fissures in the underlying rocks in early Tertiary times, when the old continent of Gondwana land, of which the Indian Peninsula and South Africa are remnants, was being broken up; for nothing of the nature of a volcanic cone has been discovered. The origin of the Lonar Lake basin has been attributed to a sudden and violent explosion, which is supposed to have blown out the surface layer of trap, leaving the present hollow, but there are serious objections to the acceptance of this theory. If such an explosion had occurred, we would expect to find accumulations of the rocks and scoriæ blown out in the neighbourhood of the hollow, but nothing of the kind exists except a slightly raised rim of loose blocks which may be merely weathered fragments of the solid lava. Moreover, we would expect to find some indication of a deep crater in the centre of the depression, whereas the floor of the basin is practically level, and the water of the lake no more than two feet deep at any point in the dry season.

The theory advanced by the President suggests that a previously existing layer of lava at this spot was raised bodily by the injection of molten rock from below, forming a huge "blister" on the surface; and that before this fresh lava was cooled and consolidated, a fissure opened through which it escaped, and that the crown of the dome then broke down and subsided, forming a circular pan-shaped hollow with a level floor. Some confirmation of this suggestion is afforded by the fact that the lake is surrounded by a series of springs, indicating that the rock beneath is traversed by vertical fissures parallel to the encircling walls.

The lake has no outlet, and the water is strongly impregnated with salts, mainly carbonate of soda, which was formerly in great request for the manufacture of a cheap glass used principally for the making of bangles, but the industry has now been ruined by the superior quality and low price of imported soda ash.

The following papers were read:-

- Triacanthus weberi, sp. nov.—By B. L. CHAUDHURL
- Note on a Shrine in the Koh Si Hah, Talé Sap, Lower Siam.—By Dr. N. Annandale, F.A.S.B.
- 3. A description of a Lisu Jew's harp.—By J. Coggin BROWN.
- 4. JATŪ. Being some Grammatical notes and a glossary of the language of the Rohtak Jats.—By E. JOSEPH, I.C.S. Communicated by the Philological Secretary.

These three papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.

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NOVEMBER, 1910.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 2nd November, 1910, at 9-15 P.M.

MAHAMAHOPADHYAYA HARAPRASAD SHASTRI, M.A., F.A.S.B., Vice-President, in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. N. Annandale, B. De, Esq., Mr. F. H. Gravely, Mr. H. H. Hayden, Mr. A. M. Heron, Mr. D. Hooper, Mahamahopadhyava Satis Chandra Vidyabhusana and Mr. G. H. Tipper.

Visitor: A. B. Gosvami, Esq.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Ninety-three presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Dr. Arnold Caddy, Mr. H. C. Woodman, Mr. H. C. Turner, Major Norman, R. J. Rainier and Babu Gogonendra Nath Tagore had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The Council reported that there was one vacancy in the list of Associate Members, and therefore recommended the Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., for election as an Associate Member at the next Meeting.

The Chairman announced that Mr. I. H. Burkhill had returned to India, and has taken charge of the duties of Natural History Secretary from Prof. E. P. Harrison.

The following gentleman was elected an Ordinary Member during the recess in accordance with Rule 7:—

Mr. Sved Abdus Salek, B.A.

The following gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

Capt. William Ernest McKechnie, M.B., I.M.S., Civil Surgeon, Etawar, United Provinces, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Capt. E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S.; Dr. W. A. Murray, Chief Medical Officer, Assam-Bengal Railway, Chittagong, proposed by Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., seconded by Capt. E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S.; Mr. H. D. Graves Law, I.C.S., Gopalgunj, Saran, proposed by Lieut.-Colonel D. C. Phillott, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Mr. J. E. Friend-

Pereira, Sub-divisional Officer, Goalpara, proposed by Major C. J. R. Milne, I.M.S., seconded by Dr. N. Annandale.

The following papers were read:—

- 1. A dubious passage on the Ilminsky edition of the Babarnama.—By H. Beveridge.
- Re-actions in presence of nickel. (a) Inability of nitrogen and hydrogen to combine in presence of iron and nickel. (b) Reduction of the oxides of nitrogen, sulphur and phosphorous in presence of nickel.—By PANCHANAN NEOGI AND BIRENDRA BHUSAN ADHICARY.

These papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal



The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Wednesday, the 9th November 1910, at 9-30 P.M.

LIEUT.-COL. F. J. DRURY, I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:—

Dr. Adrian Caddy, Lt.-Col. J. T. Calvert, I.M.S., Dr. C. H. Elmes, Dr. H. Finck, Captain E. D. W. Greig, I.M.S., Lt. Col. F. P. Maynard, I.M.S., Captain J. W. D. Megaw, I.M.S., Captain J. G. P. Murray, I.M.S., Lt. Col. A. H. Nott, I.M.S., Captain J. D. Sandes, I.M.S., and Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitors:—Dr. Bijitendra Basu, Dr. Cyril H. Flory, Dr. F. A. Windsor.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

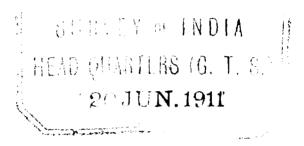
The presentation of 28 volumes of the British Medical Journal by Dr. H. G. Waters and of certain journals by Dr. Kennedy was announced. The Secretary also reported that about one hundred pounds worth of standard medical works selected by the special library committee had been received and could be taken out by members under the library rules.

Lt -Colonel Drury showed two brothers with enlarged thyroids and a cretinoid and myxoedematous condition, respectively, together with coloured drawings of their condition before improvement had taken place under treatment with thyroid extract.

Lt.-Colonel Maynard showed a case of cavernous venous angioma of the orbit.

Captain Megaw showed cases of (1) Pigmentation of the face and hands following the use of quinine. (2) Angioneurotic cedema. (3) Leprosy in an European, who had improved markedly without any special treatment.

Lt.-Colonel Maynard read a paper on—The use of Bismuth paste in the diagnosis and treatment of sinuses.



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DECEMBER, 1910.

The Monthly General Meeting of the Society was held on Wednesday, the 7th December 1910, at 9-15 P.M.

I. H. BURKILL, Esq., M.A., F.L.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:—

Dr. N. Annandale, Babu Rakhal Das Banerji, Mr. B. L. Chaudhuri, Mr. B. De, Mr. H. G. Graves, Mr. F. H. Gravely, Mr. D. Hooper, Mr. S. N. Kemp, Rev. W. R. LeQuesne, Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Mr. G. H. Tipper, Dr. Satischandra Vidyabhusana, Mr. E. Vredenburg.

Visitors:—Babu Ashutosh Dey, Mr. S. L. Agharkar, Babu Bepin Behari Gupta, Mrs. Burkill, Babu Birendrakumar Bose, Miss Graves, Babu Hemchandra Das Gupta, Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., Babu Jitendranath Mukerjee, Babu Joti Pershad, Babu Jyotish Chandra Pal, Rev. J. Mares, S.J., Babu Nanilal Datta, Babu Phanindranath Mukerjee.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Two hundred and eighty presentations were announced.

The General Secretary reported that Capt. R. Foster, I.A., Mr. James H. Hyde and Mr. C. A. C. Streatfield, I.C.S., had expressed a wish to withdraw from the Society.

The General Secretary also reported the death of Dr. Melchior Treub, an Honorary Member, and Mahamahopadhyaya Sudhakara Dvivedi of Benares, an Associate Member of the Society.

Rev. H. Hosten, S.J., was balloted for and elected an Associate member.

The following six gentlemen were balloted for as Ordinary Members:—

The Anagarika H. Dharmapala, General Secretary, Maha Bodhi Society and Editor Maha Bodhi Journal, 96, Beniapukur Lane, proposed by Dr. Satischandra Vidyabhusana, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Dr. W. Chowdry, 15, Wellesley 2nd Lane, proposed by Mr. E. M. Löffler, seconded by Dr. E. D. Ross; Bahu Devendra Kumar Banerjee, Officiating Head Translator to Government of Eastern Bengaland Assam, Dacca, proposed by Dr. Satischandra Vidyabhusana, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Major Frank Needham Windsor, M.B., 1.M.S., Chemical Examiner, Bengal, proposed by Major L. Rogers,

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I.M.S., seconded by Capt. J. D. Sandes, I.M.S.; Babu Radha Krishna, Banker, Chauk, Patna City, proposed by Babu Rakhal Das Banerji, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper; Mr. J. H. Towle, Principal, M. A. O. College, Aligarh, proposed by Dr. E. P. Harrison, seconded by Mr. G. H. Tipper.

Mr. Vredenburg showed some lantern slides of the Mosque of Dera Ghazi and of decorative tile work. He also exhibited a photograph of an egg-case of a water-beetle.

The following papers were read:-

- 1. The Evidence of the Faridpur Grants.—By RAKHAL DAS BANERJI, M.A.
- 2. A Visit to Buhukhatakishvara Bairava's shrine at Chhatabal (Srinagar).—By Anand Koul. Communicated by the Joint Philological Secretary.
- 3. Mundari Phonology and the Linguistic Survey.—By Dr. Sten Konow. Communicated by the Philological Secretary.
- 4. List of Portuguese Jesuit Missionaries in Bengal and Burma (1576-1742).—By Revs. L. Besse, S.J., and H. Hosten, S.J. Communicated by the General Secretary.
- 5. History of Kashmir. (Second paper).—By ANAND KOUL. Communicated by the Joint Philological Secretary.
- 6. Methylamine Nitrite.—By P. C. RAY and JITENDRA NATH RAKSHIT.
- 7. Note on a Caste of Fish-dealers in Bengal not recognized in the Census of 1901.—By B. L. CHAUDHURI.
- 8. On the occurrence of Maestrichtien fossils at Kacch Station (in British Baluchistan).—By HEM CHANDRA DAS GUPTA. Communicated by Mr. VREDENBURG.

These papers will be published in a subsequent number of the Journal.



The Adjourned Meeting of the Medical Section of the Society was held at the Society's rooms on Thursday, the 15th December 1910, at 9-30 P.M.

LIEUT-COLONEL C. R. M. GREEN, M.D., F.R.C.S., I.M.S., in the chair.

The following members were present:-

Dr. C. H. Elmes, Dr. Gopal Chandra Chatterjee, Dr. Indu Madhab Mallick, Capt. A. E. J. Lister, I.M.S., Capt. J. W. D. 1910.]

Megaw, I.M.S., Major J. G. P. Murray, I.M.S., Major L. Rogers, I.M.S., Honorary Secretary.

Visitors: -Dr. B. L. Das and Dr. Taraprasanna Ghosh.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Major J. G. Murray, I.M.S., showed a case of Pseudo-hypertrophic Paralysis in a European boy.

Lieut.-Colonel C. R. M. Green showed: (1) a specimen of spontaneous rupture of the fundus of the uterus at the sixth month.

- (2) A specimen of fibroid of the uterus extending down between the vagina and the rectum.
- (3) One of a multilocular cyst of the left ovary and fibroids of the uterus raising up the pelvic peritoneum.
- Major L. Rogers read a paper on Cirrhosis of the Liver, which was discussed by Lieut-Colonel Green, Drs. Mukerjee and Mallick, Major Murray and Captains Megaw and Lister.

Lieut.-Colonel Calvert's paper was postponed as he was not able to be present.

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