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# ASIATIC RESEARCHES: 

OR,

## TRANSACTIONS

OF THE
SOCIETY INSTITUTED IN BENGAL,

For inquiring into lle
Ifistory and Antiquities:
THE
ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE, UF

> A S I A.

VOLUME THE TENTH.

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## CONTENTS.

1. Remarks on the State of Agriculture in the District ofDinájpur. By W. Carey1
II. An Essay on the Sacred Isles in the West, with other Essays connected with that Work. By Capt. F. Wil- ford ..... 27
III. On the Languages and Literature of the Indo.Chinese Nations. Py J. Leyden, M. D. ..... 158
IV. An Account of Trigononetrical Operations in crossing the Peninsula of India, and connecting Fori St. George with Mangalore. By Capt. William Lambton. Communicated by the Hon. William Petrie, Esq. Governor of Fort St. George ..... 290V. An Account of the Male Plant, which furnishes the Medi-cine generally called Columbo, or Columba Root. ByDoctor Andrêw Berry, Member of the MedicalBoard of Fort St. Gearge385
VI. On Sanscrĭt and Prácrĭt Poetry. By Henry Thomas
Colebrooke, Eso. ..... 389
VII. Remarks upon the Authorities of Mosulnnan Law. By J. H. Harington, Esq. ..... 475
VIII. An Account of Astronomical Observations taken at the Honourable Compran's Observatory, near Fort St. George, in the East Indies, in the years 1806 and 1807. To which are added some Remarks on the Declination of certain Stars and of the Sun, when near the Zenith of that place. By Capt. John Warren, of H. M. 33d Regiment of Foot ..... 518
IX. 'Erauslations of two Letters of Nadir Shah, with In- troductory Observations in a Letter to the President. By Brigadie:-General John Malcolm ..... 526

I TAKE this opportunity to correct two passages in former Essays; one in the IVth Vol. of the Asiatic Researches, p. 382: and the second in the first part of my Essay on the Sacred Isles in the West, p. 302.

In the latter, I said that the famous $\mathrm{Pr}^{\prime} \mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$-purí went no further than El-Catif and Baharein, in his way to Esypt. But I was mistaken; for he even attempted to go up the Tigris, and went even as far as Moc’há.

In the former, I asserted that by the Surya-mucliki-gangá, $\mathrm{Pr}^{\prime} \mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathrm{N}-$ PURí meaut the Volga: but I was equally mistaken; for, from his narrative, he certainly understood the Shàt-al-Arab, or the united stream of the Tigris and Fuphrates.

I seldom saw Priàn-purí, and he hardly condescended to answer my inquiries: hence the information which he communicated, was vague and desultory. I did not advert then to what Mr. Duncan has said on the subject in the Vtli Vol. of the Asiatic Researches.
F. WILFORD.

Benares, Feb. 20th, 1808.

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## TRANSACTIONS

OF THE

## ASIATIC SOCIETY.

## I.

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

BY W. CAREY.

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

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

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

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

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

The people of the district of Diníjpur are, in general, extremely poor, and their farming utensils are therefore proportionably simple and wretched. $\Lambda$ plough drawn by two bullocks, serves to prepare the soil. The plough is compused of four pieces; viz. the Lángal or body of the plough, which is a piece of wood forming two sides of an obtuse-angled triangle, the other side being wanting, with a hole near the obtuse angle to admit a staff of wood or bambon about six feet long, called the Is'. This staff may be called the beam of the plough, and is the part to which the bullocks are yoked, going between them and resting on the yoke by which they are coupled. The ploughshare (Plál) is a flat plate of iron, nearly of a lozenge shape, which is fastened to the under part of the Langal, to prevent its being worn by the soil. The handle is a piece of wood, or bamboo, about two feet long, fastened to the upper extremity of the Lángal, and furnished, at a small distance from its upper end, with a pin about six inches long, called the Mut, to assist the hand in guiding the plough.

The oxen draw double, or side by side, being coupled together with the Juál, or yoke, which passes over the necks of both of them at once. The lower edge, which lies on the necks of the cattle, B 2
is straight. The upper edge has two elevations, one over the neck of each ox, but is cut down at the middle and at each end, so as to remain ahout two inches deep. Four bamboo pins are passed through the yoke, one at each end, and two in the mildle, which, descending on each side the animal's neck, are connected by a cord under its throat. Tiee beam of the plough rests on the middle of the yoke, and is fastened to it by a cord.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The Hemat rice is usually cultivated on the higher and strong lands, a stiff soil being better calculated to B) 4
retain the water after the end of the periodical rains. This rice is usually sown at the end of May, or the beginuing of June, in small beds, as thick as it can possibly grow. The plants come up in three or four days after the seed is sown, till which time the ground is kept barely moist: after the plants appear it should be kept quite moist, but not flooded. : As soon as the rains commence and the earth is well watered, this rice is planted out in beds, (or compartments) each of which is surrounded with a balk, or border, about ten inches high, and a foot wide, to prevent the water from running off.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The Crotalaria, cultivated in the neighbourood of

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

[^3]The sweet potatoe* is planted at different seasons in different parts of Bengal, but in this district it is planted at the beginning of October. The ground is previously ploughed to as great a depth as possible, and then cuttings, taken from a small spot reserved for that purpose, are planted; these cuttings soon take root, and afterwards require no further care, till the roots are fit to be taken up, which begins to be the case at the end of December, and continues till May, during which time the produce is dug up and carried to market as it suits the convenience of the cultivator. Another variety, of a white colour, which has very little sweetness, and a small species of yam, $\dagger$ the root of which is about the size of a goose's egg, are cultivated in the more northern parts of the district. The cuttings of the plants of the conrolvulus, and the small roots of the yam, are planted in April or May, and the produce brought to market in October or November.

Three varieties of the Arum esculentum, (Cachú of the Hindus,) are usually planted in March or April. The cultivation of these roots, occupies a considerable portion of the snil, and the produce is as important as potatoes to the people of England. The offsets from the root are planted in rows, about a foot and a half or two feet asunder, and as the plant increases in size, are earthed up as potatoes are in Europe. The periodical rains being ended, the leaves die away; after which, from November to March, the roots are taken up, and carried to market, as suits the convenience of the cultivator. These roots abound with a farinaceous substance, or rather with
a viscous, starchy substance, and are esteemed very nutritive. The Mán Cachú,* and the $\mathrm{Ol}, \dagger$ are cultivated in small spots. The root of the first of these is often two or three feet long, and nine inches or a foot in diameter. It is necessary to lay this root to dry for two months or more, otherwise it is too acrid to be eaten; after this it is very wholesome, though not very palatable. As all the sorts of Cachú will keep for almost any length of tine, it might be worth attention as an article of provision for sea voyages.

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

- $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$. Campanulatum.
$\dagger$ Arum macrorhizon.

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

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

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

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

The cultivation of timber has hitherto, I believe, been wholly neglected : several sorts might be planted all over this district, and indeed all over Bengal, and would soon furnish a very large share of the timber used in the country. The Sisí, $\ddagger$ the Andaman red-wood, $\#$ the Jaca-tree, $\S$ the Teak, $\mathbb{T}$ the Mahoga-

[^4]ny,*, the Sattin-wood, $\dagger$ the Chakrási, $\ddagger$ the Tuna, $\|$ and the Sirisha,§ should be principally chosen. The planting of these trees single, at the distance of a furlong from each other, would do no injury to the crops of corn, but would, by cooling the atnosphere, rather be advantageous. In many places, spots now unproductive, wonld be improved by clumps or small plantations of timber, under which ginger and and turmeric might be cultivated to great advantage.

In some situations Sál, đ́ Pitsál,** Jaral, $\dagger$ and some other sorts of less note would prosper.

Indeed the improvements that might be made in this country by the planting of timber, can scarcely be calculated. Teak,拉 that most useful wood, is at present brought from the Burman dominions, though it would grow in any part of Bengal, and perhaps in any part of Hindostan. It appears, from the annals of the National Muscum of Natural History, that the French naturalists have begun to turn their attention to the culture of this valuable tree, as an object of national utility. This will be found impracticable in France, but may perhaps be attempted somewhere else. To England, the first commercial country in the world, its importance must be obvious, and the further encouragement |||| of the culture of it in this country, will eventually furnish a supply of excellent timber for ship building and various nther

[^5]important purposes, and obviate all apprehensions of the failure of the market where it is purchased, or of the destruction of the forests which have hitherto supplied it.

Most of the Palms, though useless as timber, deserve the attention of the agriculturist. The Sagotree* would grow in all the high parts, and the Date-tree, $\dagger$ planted close, would greatly improve many spots now wholly unproductive. The juice of this tree is manufactured into sugar, in some parts of Bengal, and is highly valuable for that and other purposes. It is common to let a tree of this kind for two annas a year. Two hundred of these trees might be planted on a Bighá, which lets for a rupee and a half; this would be productive of a large income, after the first eight or ten years.

Few attempts have yet been made to improve orchards. The Mango, and other fruit trees, are often planted so close as to choke each other, and but little regard is paid by the planter to the quality of the fruit. Scarcely any attempt has been made to naturalize foreign fruits; even the Orange tree is almost a stranger to several parts of Bengal, though some late experiments prove that it might be introduced with success. The laudable attempts made by several Europeans excepted, the improving of fruits, by grafting, or by raising improved varieties from seed, has scarcely been attempted. In short, the fruits of Hindostan are not far removed from a state of nature.

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

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

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

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

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

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

## references to the figures.

Plate I .

Fig. 1.-The Plough.
a. The Lángala, or body of the plough.
b. The Is', or beam.
c. The Phála, or share.
d. The share, fixed on the plough.
e. The handle.
$f$. The Moot, or peg, to assist in holding the plough.
Fig. 2.-The Jooal, Beng, or Yoke. (Sans. Yuga.)
a. The under edge, which rests on the neck of the bullock.
b. b. The elevations on the upper part.
c.c.c. c. The pins, by which it is fastened to the neck of the ox.

Fig. 3.-The Maï, or harrow. (Sans. Los'tbhedhaná.) Fig. 4.-The Jánt, slung for raising water.
a. The Jánt.
b. The end, excavated to a point.
c. c. c. The bamboo to which it is slung.
d. The bamboo, loaded at one end, to assist in raising the end $b$ out of the water.
e. A man working it.
$f$. The reservoir, or channel, into which the water is thrown.

Fig. 5.-The Bharuá.
a. Bank, or yoke.
b. b. The Shikya, or string by which the weight is suspended.
c. c. The receptacles, in which the earth or other substance is carried.

Fig. 6.-The Kodáli, or digging-hoe.
Fig. 7.-The Kastya, or sichle.

VolX. Plate 1.


## II.

> An Essay on the Sacred Isles in the West, with other Essays comnected with that Work.

BY CAPTAIN F. WILFORD.

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ESSAY V.
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Origin and Decline of the Christian Religion in India.
I. I'T appears, that long before Christ, a renovation of the universe was expected all over the world, with a Saviour, a King of Peace and Justice. This expectation is frequently mentioned in the Purán'as: the Earth is often complaining that she is ready to sink back into Pátála under the accumulated load of the iniquities of mankind: the Gods also complain of the oppression of the Giants. Vishnu comforts the Earth, his consort, and the Gods, assuring them, that a Saviour would come, to redress their grievances : and put an end to the tyranny of the Daityas, or Demons. That, for this purpose, he would be incarnated in the house of a shepherd, and brought up among shepherds. The followers of Budd'ha unanimously declare, that his incarnation in the womb of a virgin, was foretold several thousand years, though some say one thousand only, before it came to pass.*

A short time before the birth of Christ, not only the Jerws, but the Romans, on the authority of the

[^7]Sibylline books, and the decision of the sacred college of the Etrurian augurs, were all of opinion, that this momentous event was at hand. This was equally the case in the east, and a miraculous star directed the holy men, who were living in anxious expectation, where to find this heavenly child. At that time the Emperor of India, uneasy at these prophecies, which, he conceived, portended his ruin and the loss of his empire, sent emissaries to inquire whether such a child was really born, in order to destroy him: and this happened exactly the 3101st year of the Cali-yuga, which was the first year of the Christian Era. This traditionary account is known all over India; and is equally current among the learned and the ignorant. But the Hindus fancy, that these old prophecies were fulfilled in the person of Crĭshna. What induced the Brámens to adopt this idea, is not so obvious. It is possible, however, that they saw plainly, that if they admitted these prophecies to have been fulfilled about the time of Christ, some material alteration must, of course, have taken place in their religion. The Magi of scripture, who came from the east, where equally expecting this renovation ; and the star served only to guide their steps. This expectation, of a renovation of the world, prevailed also among the Gothic tribes in the north: but after waiting patiently for some time, certain enterprising men set themselves up, for the promised Manu, or new Adam; and were acknowledged as such. According to their traditionary accounts, they were nettled, and puzzled with some strange reports from the east, about the appearance of some $A \operatorname{sir}, A s e^{2}$, Gods, or god-like men; and Gylfe is supposed to have been sent to inquire into the truth of these reports. His embassy is the ground work of the Edda, which concludes with these remarkable words. "The new

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

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

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

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

Palestine. Such women probably never existed: but the prophetical verses, that were attributed to them, were extracted from the sacred records of their respective countries. The fourth eclogue of Virgilis entirely on the subject of this long expected renovation of the world.

The last great age, foretold by sacred rlymes,
In the original it is, forctold by the Cumadn Sibyi.

Renews its finished course ; Saturnian times
Roll round again, and mighty years, begun
From their first orl, in radiant circles run.
The base degenerate iron offspring, (or the Cali-yuga) ends,
A golden progeny (of the Crita, or golden age) from heaven descends:
O chaste LUCINA, speed the mother's pains:
And haste the glorious birth; thy own Apollo reigns!
The lovely boi, with his auspicious face!
The son shall lead the life of gods, and be
By gods and heroes seen, and gods and heroes see.
Another Typhis shall new seas explore,
Another Argo land the chiefs upon the lberian shore:
Another Helen other wars create,
And great Achilles urge the Trojan fate.
O of celestial seed! O foster son of Jove!
See, labouring nature calls thee to sustain
The nodding frame of heaven, and earth, and main :
See to their base restored, earth, seas and air.
These are the very words of Vishnu to the Earth, when complaining to him and begging for redress.

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

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

In the year $119 \mathrm{~B} . \mathrm{C}$. in the time of Marius, such direful prodigies appeared, that the sacred college of Heteuria, on being consulted, declared that the eighth revolution of the world was at an end: and that another, either for the better, or the worse, was going to take place $\dagger$ : and Juvenal, who lived in the first century, declares that he lived in this ninth revolution, which was then going on $\ddagger$ : for the Etruscans reckoned twelve of these revolutions, each of one thousand years, according to some: but according to others, these twelve revolutions constituted what they called the great year.

It may be asked, what prophecies are to be found in the Purinias concerning this Saviour and avenger. I observed before, that the Hindus would have it,

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

When I said, that the Hindus conceived, that the prophecies concerning a Saviour of the world, were fultilled in the person of Cǎ̆shna, I do by no means wish to convey an idea, that he was Christ, from whom he is as distinct a character, and person, as Josiufa; and whose name, with the general outline of his history, existed long before Christ. "Yet the prolix accounts of his life," to use the words of Sir W. Jones, " are filled with narratives of a most extraordinary kind, and most strangely variegated. This incarnate deity of Sanscrit romance, was not only cradled, but educated among shepherds; a tyrant at the time of his birth, ordered all the male infants to be slain. He performed amazing, but ridiculous miracles, and saved multitudes, partly by his miraculous powers, and partly by his arms: and raised the dead, by descending for that purpose into the infernal regions. He was the meekest and best tempered of beings, washed the feet of the Bráhmens,

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

The Hindus, having once fixed the accomplishment of these prophecies to a period greatly anterior to the Christian Era, every thing in their books was either framed, or new modelled accordingly; and particularly in the Puránas, every one of which is greatly posterior to our era: though many legends, and the materials in general, certainly existed before, in some other shape. Yet, as inconsistency and contradiction are the concomitants of falshood and deceit, it may be supposed, that some circumstances and particulars, tending to remove the reil they have attempted to throw over these events, may have
escaped them. This is rery probable; but as I never had the most distant idea of ever investigating this subject, till very lately, I may probably have overlooked many passages of this nature; and I recollect now only two material ones, which I mentioned before. These prophecies, in the Purínas, concerning this Saviour, declare, that he was to appear in the latter end of the third, and in the beginning of the fourth age: which can, by no means, be reconciled to the Christian Era, according to their mode of reckoning. The two passages, alluded to, are to be found in the Padma and Gan'es'a-purárias. In the first, Bali, an antediluvian, and in the fifth generation from the creation, is introduced requesting the God of Gods, or Vishnu, to allow bim to die by his hand, that he might go into his paradise in the White Island. Vishnu told him, it was a favor not easily obtained; that he would, however, grant his request: but, says Vishnu, you cannot come into my paradise now; but you must wait, till I become incarnate in the slape of a boar, in order to make the world undergo a total renovation, to establish, and secure it upon a most firm and permanent footing: and you must wait a whole Yuga, till this takes place, and then you will accompany me into my paradise. A whole Yuga, or Mahá-yuga, consists of $4,320,000$ divine, or more probably 4,320 natural years.* -These, reckoned from the fifth antediluvian generation, will fall in, very nearly, with the beginning of the Christian Era, according to the Septuagint, and Josephus's computation. As to the

[^10]number of yedrs, they are written 5,000 in round numbers in the Gan'es'a-purinia: and, as these 5,000 years are not said to be divine ones, we have a right to suppose, that they were meant originally for natural years. Ganes'a, who is identified with Vishinu, and has also an inferior paradise in the $W$ hite Island, and another in the Euxine or Icshu Sea, thus says to a King of Cas'i or Benares, anl antediluvian, and who, like Bali, wished much to be admitted into his elysium: "you cannot now enter my paradise in the $W$ hite Island; you must wait 5,000 years," when, it seems, it was to be opened. "But in the mean time, you may reside in my other paradise in the Euxine Sea." In the same manner Achilles, with Castor and Pollux, and I believe Cadaius, Pereus, \&c. after residing a long time in the White Island in the Icshu Sea, were ultimately translated into the the original White Island in the White Sea.

The White Island in the Eurine or Icshu Sea, has much affinity with the Limbus Patrum, or paradise of departed ancestors, who waited there for the coming of Christ, who was to open the celestial, and real paradise, for their reception.

Divines in India declare, that the surest proof of the divine mission of an Avatára is his coming being foretold: that prophecies concerning a Saviour are often repeated in them, some very plain, and others rather obscure : that they are, in short, one of the fundamental supports of their religion and creed. That Crishna is considered as the first, in dignity and principal incarnation; and that the others are greatly inferior to this, and merely introduced to bring on the grand system of regeneration. In his time, the divine oracles were committed to writing, with a

D 3
more complete and perfect system of moral duties, and religious worship: and a race of Brahmens more pure, more enlightened, was introduced into India. Crishna is the last Avatára, or manifestation of the deity, but one; which, according to their sacred books and ours, will appear a little before the general dissolution of the world.

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

The chief of them is obriously the same with the serpent Afatho-Demon, the Demi-urgos, Opifex, and artist of the Egyptians, Greeks, Ginostics, Basilidians, \&c. These sectaries asserted, that the serpent was the father, and author of all arts and sciences: and this serpent, they said, was the Christ, who was thus the son of a carpenter and artist; and at the same time an incarnation of the great serpent, exactly like 'Sa'liva'hana, the 'Saca, or mighty and glorious King. 'Sa'liva'hana was the son, or rather an incarnation of the great serpent; and his mother was also of that tribe, and incarnate in the house of a pot-maker. She conceived at the age of one year and a half, the great serpent gently gliding over her, whilst she was asleep in her cradle.

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

[^11]mankind; and, in a scriptural sense, this serpent was the type of the Saviour of the world.

The pot-maker used to make figures of clay of all sorts, to amuse his grandson, who soon learned to imitate them; but he endued them with life. His mother carried him one day to a place full of serpents, telling him "go and play with them; they are your relations:" the child went and played with them, without fear, and without receiving the least injury. These two particulars are never omitted by the narrators.

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

[^12]his head, which he flung into the middle of the city of Ujjayini, though at an immense distance. In the mean time Vicriamáditya's army fell back toward Ujjayini, pursued by 'Sa'liva'hana's forces, and in their way crossed the Narmadá. There the army of 'Sa'liva'hana, consisting of soldiers of mere clay, was sudclenly dissolved, and disappeared in the waters of the river. After this, we hear no more of 'Sa'liva'hana, except that he disappeared in the 79th year of the Christian Era, which is the first of his period. His name is not even mentioned in the lists, either of the Emperors of India, or of the Kings of Ujjain. Immediately after the death of Vicramáditya, his wife was delivered of a son, whom they wanted to crown Emperor of India, in the same manner as if 'Sa'liva'hana had never existed: but, being: a posthumous child, he could not succeed to the empire; he was, however, perfectly eligible to the throne of the kingdom of Málara; and was of course immediately crowned at Ujjain.

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

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

There was a King at that time called Vicramamitra, the seventeenth from Chandragupta, according to the Bhágavat, Brahmán'da, Váyu and VishmuPurán'as;* and Vicramamitra or Vicramitra; as it is erronenusly spelt, is synonymous with Vicramáditya or Wicramarca; and that Vicramamitra was intencled for Vicramaditya, by the compilers of the Purán'as, admits of no doubt, for they say, that his father was Ghosha-raja, who was the same with Gandharupa, as we have seen before.

* Sections on Futurity.

S Sa'liva'hana is considered under three different points of view, according to the three different objects and purposes of his mission; and accordingly he is said to be either an incarnation of Brahma', of 'Siva, or of Vishnu. He is sometimes considered as conjointly possessing these three powers, and he is then said to be Tri-Vicrama.

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

In consequence of this destruction, a regeneration takes place, as attested in the legends of the good Mandayyeh called Sulastha, or he who was crucified. Sa'liva'hana is then said to be an incarnation of Brahmá: and this is the general opinion of thein habitants of the Dekhin, according to A. Roger, and others.

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

Thus we see, that 'Sa'miva'hana goes through the Thimurtri; and when these three energies are considered as united in him, he is then Vi-Sama--Sila-Tri Vicrama King of Pratishtúna, called also Sailcyádhára, or simply Saileyam, in a derivative form.

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

Bet-al-Kaddes, and Bet-al-Moladdes of the Musselmans.
'Saileya-D'ha'ra' another name for it, is mentioned in the beginning of the Jyotirvidabharana an astronomical treatise, in which the author, giving an account of the six 'Sacas, says that 'Sa'liva'hana would appear at Saileya-d'hárá, or the city firmly seated upon a rock, which compound alludes to the city of Sion, whose foundations are upon the holy hills, " the city of our God, even upon his holy hill:" 'Saileyam would be a very appropriate name, for it is also, in a derivative form from 'Saila, and is really the same with 'Saileya-'dhará: and the whole is not improbably borrowed from the Arabic Dâr-al-Sálam, or Dar-es-Sálem, the house of peace, and the name of the celestial Jerusalem, in allusion to the Hebreze name of the terrestrial one. "The Sanscrit names of this city of the King of 'Saileyam, or 'Sálem imply its being a most holy place, and consecrated apart, and that it is firmly seated upon a stony hill.

I mentioned, in the preceding essay, that 'SA'LIva'hana was also called Samudra-Pa'la, that is to say, fostered by, or the son of, the ocean. This implies, that either he, or his disciples, came by sea; and this notion has a strong resemblance with a passage from the second book of Esdras, in which Chelst is represented, as ascending from the sea, firmly seated upon a rock. This christian romance is of great antiquity, for it is mentioned by Ireneus, Clemens of Alexandria and Tertullian, who considered it as a book of some antiquity, and almost canonical.

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

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

The time of his birth is thus ascertained from the Cumáríca-čharida, a section of the Scanda-purána,* in which we read, Tatah trishu sahas réshu s'até chápyadhicéshu cha; 'SACA námáa blavishyas'cha yótidáridra háraca. "When three thousand and one hundred years of the Cáli-yuga are elapsed, then 'Saca'. will appear and remove wretchedness and misery from the world." But it is necessary to observe here, that this is the first year of his reign, and that it has nothing to do with the first of his era. In the same manner, the author of that section says, that the first year of Vicrama'ditya's reign answered to the 3021 of the Cali-yuga, which date is equally unconnected with the first year of his era. In the appendix to the Agni-puran'a, we find that 'Sa'liva'hana began his reign 312 years after the death of Cha'inacya, and Chandragupta, which places it also in the first year of our era. It is remarkable however, that in the appendix to the Agni-purán'a, and the copy from it in the Ayin-Acberi, the years are computed, or reckoned, from the first of 'Sa'liva'hana's reign, answering to the first of Christ, but not from the first of the former's era.
'Sa'liva'hana died in the year of our era 79, and he lived eighty-four years. According to the $V_{1-}$ crama-charitra, he was in the fifth year of his age, when he manifested himself to the world, and

* Paragraph 42.
defeated Vicramáditya. This places his manifes tation in the first of the Christian Era, when Chilist was also in his fifth year and in the latter end uf it, for he was really born four years before the beginning of uur era.

This places, also, the accomplislment of the old prophecies, Vicrama'ditya's inquiries after this divine child, born of a virgin, exactly in the first year of our era. For. a thousand years before that event, the goddess C'alí had foretold him, that he would reign, or rather his posterity, according to several learned commentators in the Dekhin, as mentioned by Major Mackenzie, till a divine child, born of a virgin, should put an end, both to his life and kingdom, or to his dynasty, nearly in the same words of JAcos* forctelling to Juvah, that the sceptre should not depart from him, or his Dynasty, until Shiloh came, 'Sa'liva'hana or King 'Sa'La.

As to his character, it is declared in the Cumáricáachanda, as we have seen before, that he would come for the purpose of removing wretchedness, and misery, from the world.

In the appendix to the Agni-purana, it is declared that in the holy and consecrated city of Pratishtánu, firmly seated upon a rock, called Sailcya-dhárá or 'Saileyam, through the mercy of 'Siva, would appear Sa'liva'hana, great and mighty, the spirit of righteousness and justice, whose words would be truth itself, free from spite and envy; and whose empire would extend all over the world (or in other words, that the

[^13]peopie would be gathered unto him) the conveyor of souls to places of eternal bliss. On account of this benerolent disposition, he is compared in the Vansávali to Dhanaxjaya or Arjuena, whose character is so well delineated in the inscription on a pillar at Budidal. He did not exult over the ignorant and ill favoured: he neither rainly accepted adulation, nor uttered honey words, and was the wonder of all good men. His wonderful equanimity on all occasions, and with regard to every one, of whatever rank in life, and whatever might be their natural faculties, and mental dispositions, are implied by the epithet of $V_{1-S a m a-S i l a ~ b e s t o w e d ~ u p o n ~ h i m . ~}^{\text {- }}$

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

> In the copies of the Vansiarali, current through E
the western parts of India, he is constantly called SA-MUDRA-PA'LA ; because either he, or some of his disciples, came by sea; and he is of course the same with the Mfléclihávatára, or incarnation of the deity among foreign tribes, mentioned in several astronomical tracts; and he is mentioned, in that character, in the section erroneously attributed to the Bharishya. There he is declared to be Ru'made's'a'dhi-pati-'Sace's'wara, the lord and master of the empire of Rome; and the author of the sacred period current through that vast empire; and which, according to the appendix to the Agmi-purána, began to prevail over that of Vicramáditya in the year 676 of our era. We have seen before, that he was born for the purpose of removing misery from the world, and to check the power of the demons; and, at the earnest intreaties of the subaltern deities on earth, and all good men, who were groaning under their tyranny, 'Siva comforted them, and assured them, that after a certain time, be would be incarnated in the character of $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{I}}-\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{Ama}} \mathrm{S}^{-S_{1 L A}}$, with the title of TríVicrama, or with the triple energy.

The occasion of his being borm, is declared also in the Vríhát-cut'há. The gods, being vexed by the wicked, went to Maha'-Déva, and said, "you and Vishne, have destroyed the Asuras or Demons, but they are born again as Mllechihas, who constantly vex us and the Bráhmens. They will not allow sacrifices to be performed, but destroy the implements and holy utensils: they cren carry away the daughters of the Munis." Maha'-de'va promised relief, and caused one of his forms, or emanations, called Ma'lyava'sa, to be incarnated, saying to him, "go and destroy the wicked: all the world
will submit to thy power, as well as good and wicked spirits." Then Manade'va appeared to the father, informing him, that his wife would conceive, and the fruit of her womb be an incarnation of the deity: and he directed that his name should be Vicrama. When his mother had conceived, she became resplendent like the morning sun; and this resplendence answers to the Nír of the Muselmans, from which Issa proceeded. Immediately all the heavenly spirits came down to bow to her, and worship her. When the child was born, the celestial music was heard, and a shower of flowers took place. The high priest, who was childless, obtained also a son, as well as the prime minister.

In the legends relating to 'Sa'mba'mana; it is in general asserted, that his mother being found with child, her character suffered so much, that her two brothers, through shame, left their native country.

In the present legend, 'Sa'liva'hana, under the name of $V_{\text {l-Sama-Sila }}$ with the triple energy, is represented as the son of a King, and as residing at Pratisht'ana, the consecrated city, or 'Saileyam. We are then informed, that young Vi-Sama-Sila made a surprising progress in learning, and soon surpassed his teachers. His father then resigned the kingdom to him, and Sama-Sila became king of heaven, earth and hell; all spirits, good and bad, obeyed his orders; his resplendence was like that of the sun, and his fame reached the White Island in the White Sea. The scene is then transferred to Ujjain, where he appears like Vicramáditya: then follows a minute account of his words; but even then, there is E. 2
no mention made of his wars with Sa'liva'hana, for a very obvious reason, though in the latter part the story is somewhat misrepresented.

Let us now consider Sama-Sila or Sa'la-va'haNa, an incarnation of the great Tacshaca, in the humble cottage of a pot-maker in the skirts of Saileyam, or the consecrated çity, as related above.*

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

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

- Page 39.
$\dagger^{\circ}$ As. Res. vol. ix. p. 128.
geon Sandhi-matr, for such was the name of his prime minister. But his enemies were not satisfied, and they informed the King, that Sarasva'tí, divine zoisdom, or collectively those endued with divine knowledge, had declared that he would be a King. Jaya-Indra, called Chandra in the Ayín-Acberi, ordered him immediately to be crucified. There he remained, till his flesh dropped off, or was torn off by wild beasts. A certain holy man happened to pass by, and reading his destiny in the Brahmánda, or in his scull, immediately resolved to bring him to life again. For this purpose he performed the prijá, and after the usual ceremonies and invocations, he rung the bell, and was surrounded by a fiery meteor, which announced the presence of the Yoginis, or forms of De'ví. Then, arming himself with a scimitar, as usual on such appearances, he went to the forest, where the prime minister hung upon the cross. He was immediately surrounded by Yoginis, one of whom, the Pluani-canyá I mentioned before, arranged the bones together, and Sandhi-mati stood upon his legs. The King, hearing of this, went to the forest, when all the Yoginis disappeared: this resurrection of ${ }^{\text {S }}$ andhi-mati took place in Mu-ni-puri, or the city of holy contemplators. He then ascended the throne, and, on account of his transcendent virtues, was called 'Aryya-Ra'ja, or the good King.

The author gives us then an account of his excellencies, and of his worth; and informs us that he was a servant and favourite of Mahádéva. The ways of the supreme being, says he, are wonderful, and truly pass all understanding and belief; yet there are similar instances recorded of odd, such as in the E 3
case of Paricshita, \&c.* The difference between the tivo eras of Vicrama'ditya and 'Saliva'hana, is made here to be 145 years, according to the computation used all over the Dekhin: for in the northern parts of India, they reckon enly 135.

King 'Aryya is the same with the Pra-Aryyasira of the followers of Gautana in Siam, and other countries to the eastward of it. This signifies the mighty and venerable Sire, or chicf of the Aryyas or Christians: and with him Buddira waged war, as well as with his disciple Pra-Swana, thus called because he loudly preached against the doctrine of Budd'ha. The 'Aryya-Raja is also the same with De'va-Twash'ta' or De'va-Ta't, who was crucified by order of Buddha. King Aryya was succeded in the throne by Gópáditya, the grandson of king Yudhishithira, the immediate predecessor of Pretápa'ditya, who brought Vicramáditya from distant regions to C'as'mir, and made him King of that country. Preta'pa'ditya, and Vicrama'dItya are epithets synonymous, or very nearly so.

Many learned Hindus, for several centuries past, conceive that the eldest Vicrama'ditya was far from being contemporay with 'Sa'liva'hana; and of course conclude, that he is not the famous 'SACADWishi or 'Saca'ri, that is to say the enemy of 'Sa'liva'hana; and consequently they suppose, that 'SaCA'RI must have been the epithet of some more morlern Vicramajditya. This notion is countenanced certainly in several of the lists, which I have produced; and the author of the Rája-Tarangin" ac-

[^14]knowledges, that it was the opinion of many; and though he does not countenance it, shews plainly, that in his time it was by mo means a new idea.* The compiler of the $V^{\prime}$ ansiticali seems willing to adopt it, when he says that many learned men reject the whole, as altogether fabulous, and unwarrantable. Their reason, I am told is, that 'Saca is the Mle'chha'vatára, who did not appear, or rather whose period was not known in India, till about 1200 years ago. In conformity to this idea, in the section attributed to the Bharishya-Purán'a, 'Saca is declared to be the lord and master of Rome, which is to be taken in a spiritual sense: and in the Agmi-purána, the introduction of his period into India is made to correspond with the year $6 ; 6$ of Christ.

This Mléclihávatúra, or incarnation of the deity among foreign tribes, is peculiarly noticed in the Rómaca-Siddhánta, an astronomical treatise, according to the system of the Rómacas, or Romans, called Romaicoi ( $\mathrm{P} \omega \mu \mathrm{zr} \mathrm{x}_{0}$ ) by the Greeks. This treatise is said to be very voluminous, and is so scarce, that I have not been able to procure it; and I beliere it is not to be found at Benares. This deficiency I have been able to supply from the Súryirun'a-samiúda, the Sidd'hánta-Rája, and the Sírya-Sidd'hánta. The sun, having been appointed by Brahmá, to be the eye witness of all transactions in this world, and to regulate the hours and time, refused to obey, and withdrew into the desert, to perform tapasya, in order to be reunited to the Supreme Being. In consequence of this refusal, he was cursed by Puru'hu'ta, or Indra, and Viranchi, or Brahaí: In the Sírya-Siddhín-

[^15]$t a$, it is said, that MAyA, the chief engincer of the Daityas, and the son of 'Twasitra', made tapasya in honour of the sun, in order to obtain astronomical knowledge; the sun appeared to him, and said, "I know the rectitude of thy heart, and I am much pleased with thy tapasya. I shall therefore impart unto thee the doctrine of Time, and of the revolutions of the planets. But as no body can bear my refulgence, and as it is not in my power to stop ny course, for a single moment (for this reason 20 back to thy own puri, town, or place of abode, and there I shall impart unto thee knowledge, in the town of Rómaca, where I shall become the Mléch'ha'vata'ra, through the curse of Brahma). This form of mine, here present, will teach thee every thing:" then the sun, having directed this new form to teach him, disappeared, and Mara bowed himself to the ground before this emanation.

The slóca between the two brackets is not found in general in the copies of the Súrya-siddhanta; yet without it there seems to be something wanting: but whether an interpolation or not, its purport is established in the following astronomical treatises. In the beginning of the Siddhanta-Raja, the author says, from history (Itihása) I know, that Bни's-cara-Su'rya became a Romaca, through the curse of Puru'hu'ta and Viranchi. He became a Yarana in Rómaca-pattana, and in the garb and countenance of a Rómaca, he composed a most complete treatise on astronomy.

In the beyinning of the Siryáruna-sam̌áda, the sun is introduced, saying, "I gave the Rómaca-Sidd"hanta to Rómaca, whilst living among the Yazanas, in consequence of Brahma"s curse. Rómaca taught
it Rumack-nagaré in the town of Rome, for he dwelt among the Mléchihas in consequence of that curse;" Rómaca-puri' is the town of ? ?ome in the $\tilde{\text { a }}$ est. "Then," says Arunca, "how came you to assume the countenance of a Mécliha in the west, in a land of unrighteousness." "Brahaia' cursed me," answered the sun, " and said be thou born in the west, in Rómacapura, and of the Mfleckhas, who are ignorant of the Védas of the Yajna, or of the proper mode of performing sacrifices, Carma, religious rites and discipline; who have rejected sarwatharma, all religious duties, are dushita, inclined to evil, nástica, heretics; and who (the Romains) are a Yačana tribe guilty of every sort of uncleanliness. Thus, in that shape, I taught them astronomy."
 of the deity among foreign tribes, Ruma-dr's's-pati the lord of the country or empire of Romm, or Rome, (because his doctrine, institutes, and laws preäail through it;) Rómacr-nagaré, said to reside in Rome its metropolis, (because he is revered and worshipped there ruith anusual magnificence; ' 'Saces'wara the lord of a sacred period, (or as I think it should be understood, after. whom it is denominated,) is obviously Jesus Christ; at least it appears so to me. From his being a 'Saces'wara, the Hindus suppose him also to be a great astronomer. In the Sírya-Siddhánta, he is repeatedly called 'Sri-Su'rya'sasa, or the blessed Su'rya'nsa; he is also styled Rómaca-Avatara, or simply Rómaca. In consequence of this, 'Sa'liva'hana is considered all over India as a great astronomer, or as a prince remarkably fond of astronomy. $\dagger$

* Inferior incarnations are denominated Avantara.
+ See also Mr. Gentil's Voyage, p. 214 and 238.

Various are the opinions abont Sa'liva'hana: in general it is believed, that he did not die, but was translated to heaven, being a 'Saca; after having retired, for many years, into the desert, to give himself up to heavenly contemplation.

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

I have thus arranged and brought together all the information I could procure, concerning 'SA'LivA'hana, under that name, or any of his well known titles, and as King of Pratishtána: for 'Sa'liva'hana and that holy city are intimately related to each other, and cannot be separated. Yet we find 'Saliva'hana sometimes leaving Pratishitána, and going to reside at lljjain, after the defeat of Vicramáditya; as in the legends relating to him, under the names of Vi-Sama-Sila, and Dhananjaya. It is nearly the same with Vicramaditya, whose history is equally connected with Ujijhán, or Ujjayini ; I mean the real one, for there were several of them.

There are many other legends, concerning a certain holy man, who seems to be meant for 'Siliva'haNa; but as the application is not so obvious, they will be inserted in a distinct place by themselves.

The followers of Budd'ha and Jina, as well as the followers of Braima', claim 'Sa'liva'hana as their own; and in the Calpa-sutra-Calicá, 'Sa'liva'hana, as his name is generally written, is said to be a form of Jina, with the title of 'Sa'baca-pati, or 'Sra'ba-ca-pati. The followers of Gautama, the BodhiStoata in Siam, and the Burman Empire, called him Déva-Tat, which is a corruption from Déva-Tash'ta' or Déva-Twasht'a', the divine artist, or 'Tacshaca: and that it is so, is asserted from the Buddhacharitra in my possession, wherein he is called Vis'vacarma. They say, thas he was a collateral form, or the brother of BUDD'AA, and they are fully persuaded, that he is the same with Cinerstr. Their being made contemporaries, shews that through this whole romance, there is an obvious allusion to the wars and fends between their followers in subsequent ages.

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

In many parts of the Peninsula, Christians are called, and considered, as followers of Buddina ; and their divine legislator, whom they confound with the apostle of Indiu, is declared to be a form of BuDdina, both by the followers of Brahma', and those of Jina : and the information I had received on that subject, is confirmed by F. Paulino. $\dagger$

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

- Diod. Sic. p. 660 and 67s.
+ Systema Brahmanicum, p. 161.
ready to die in his place; and in that of all those who claimed his protection. The King ordered, that the holy man should suffer immediate death, upon a Sula or "Suli, which means a stake, either one for empaling, or a gibbet, or cross. Crucifixion being unknown to the Hindus, they of course, have no name for it: and Sula or 'Suli, originally a stake, signifies also a gibbet, or the cross; exactly like Stauros in Greek. It is so even in the Persian language; and so it was among the Romans, according to Seneca; ; crucifixion signified both empaling and extending the arms upon a cross bar; for these two modes of punishment were equally in use among them: a circumstance very little known.

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

* Senecia de Consol. ad Marcium, p. c. 20.
disappeared, and went to heaven. The Manicheans, who spread their errors at a very early period, not only in the northern parts of India, but also in the Peninsula, always represented Christ crucified upon a tree, among its foliage and flowers. Though this legend is not applied to 'Sa'li-va'han, or 'Sa'la-va'han, as it is pronounced in the Deklinn; yet, when the good Peishé-car Bráhmen was stretched upon the Sula or Suli, he was really Sulli-víhana, or cross borne : and when the Sula was changed into a 'S'ála or tree, he was certainly 'Sála-váhan, or 'Sali-cáhan, he was exalted, or borne upon the tree. Though the punishment of the cross be unknown to the Hindus, yet the followers of Budn'ha have some knowledge of it, when they represent Deva-Tat, crucified by order of Budd'ha upon an instrument somewhat resembling a cross, according to the account of several travellers to Siam, and other countries.

We read in Sanscrit lexicons, that 'Sa'liva'han was also called Ha'la a plough: it should be Hála-vaihana, or in composition, Hálh-vailana; he who was borne, or crucified upon a plough. The old Indian plough had originally the shape of the letter Y, like the old Latian Furca, or bifurcated stump of a tree. To one branch the plough-share was fixed; and the other branch served as a handle. In the statues of Vishne, and Bala-ra'ma, the plough in their hands is represented nearly in that manner; and, from that circumstance, Bala-rama is called also $H_{A}{ }^{\prime}$ la, and $\mathrm{Ha}^{\prime}$ li, or he with the plough.

The legend of the good Pcishó-car Bráhnen, is found in Major Mackenzie's historical sketches of the aucient kings of IVarangola, otherwise I should
not have presumed to insert it here. It is interwoven with the history of the first Kings of that country, and of course the compilers by no means entertained an idea, that it was anterior to the Christian Era.

As I was mentioning this traditionary legend to some learned Pandits, they informed me, that the same, or one at least very much like it, was to be found in the Mahá-Bhárata, the Sahyádri-c’handa a section of the Scanda-purinia, and in the Bhaggavata also. I produced the books, and they pointed out. the respective pages immediately. I read the whole, and found it illustrated with circumstances of a most extraordinary nature.

In the Bhágarata, and its commentary, this legend is only alluded to. In the Mahá-Bhárata there is a short account of the transaction; but in the Sahyaddrichandia the legend is drawn to a very great length,* and the principal features, and circumstances in these legends, which in reality are but one, are the following.

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

- Bhágavata; Section 1. p. 13. Mahá-Bhárata; Section 1.
ingly; and among them a thief, who being pursued by the officers of justice, claimed his protection, which he readily granted, and was really crucified in his room. He then ascended into heaven, and took the thief along with him.

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

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

There are two singular circumstances in these legends: the first is that it was decreed, that the iron should pierce the body of Mandiavyait as well as that of Caǐshna, because hoth were accursed, though guiltless. The second is, that neither Crĭshna nor Mandiaryar died, the first in consequence of his wound, nor the second after being crucified; and both are represented as contemporaries.

The Christian sectaries in the first ages, and Muhamed himself with the Muslemans to this day, highly reprobated the idea of Christ dying upon the cross, and even considered it almost a blasphemy. Crĭshna, though guiltless, was involved in the general curse denounced against his whole tribe, by which all the Yadus were doomed to be pierced with iron, and to die. Neither Crĭshna nor Mandavyah could die; but they were to be brought, as near as possible, to the point of death, that the words of the Muni should not be done away. Besides, Yama, as King of death, has a claim upon every individual, and with regard to some exalted characters, he must be satisfied, and a compromise must take place. But another difficulty arises; Yama cannot condemn a man to die, wirhout some reason; it would be unjust in him, who is also King of justice. All incarnations of the deity, however dignified and exalted, such as that of Crĭshna, which is considered as the first in rank, and the most perfect of all ; all
manifestations of the deity, I say, on becoming flesh, are more or less subjected to the infirmities, and even the weakness of human nature, being certainly involved, in some measure, in the gloom of máyä, or worldly illusion. In this case, Yama is always sure to find some taint of negative guilt, in consequence of which he can at least bring them to death's door: and it was found that Mand'ayrah, in his infancy, had destroyed a feeble and innocent insect, by piercing him either with a needle or with a blade of grass. This fatal needle was the only thing that Christ ever possessed in this world; yet, however insignificant in itself, it was certainly a worldly implement, and it prevented his admission into heaven, according to Musclmans in India; neither will he ever be admitted till after his second manifestation, at the end of the world. Others say, that he was admitted into the fourth only, instead of the highest heaven, on that account.

We read in the Mahú-Bháratí, that there was a most holy and pious Bráhmen called Mandiayain, who was making tapasya with his arms uplifted, absorbed in holy contemplation. Some loptras, lifters or thieves, placed themselves near him, with their stolen goods, thinking to be safe; but the King of that place, who was in pursuit of them, ordered them to be crucified, and as the holy man gave no answer, he was numbered among them, and crucified with the rest. In the night-time, all the Rishis, hearing of his misfortune, flocked from all quarters, in the shape of birds, to comfort him. In the mean time the thieves died on the cross; but the holy man remained meditating, without uttering a word, with his arms uplifted. The King hearing this, immediately saw that Mand'vyau was a Rishi, and hastened
to take him down from the cross; and then falling at his feet, humbly begged his forgiveness. Immediately the Ri̛shi descended into hell, and asked the King of death, and of justice, how he could allow him to be crucified, as he was guiltless. Yama answered, that in his infancy he had pierced an innocent insect with a blade of grass. The Rishi said, that at that age he could not incur guilt of any kind, and of course drove him out of the infernal kingdom; and willed, that he should be born of the womb of a woman of the Sudra tribe. This was effected in the house of Vichitravírya, who was dead; but Dwaipa'yana, or Vya'sa, raised seed to him, through his wife and a handmaid. Yama was born of the latter under the name of Vidu'ra, and remained on earth 100 years, during which the government of the infernal regions was committed to Aryamá, according to the Bhágacata. In the Sahyádri-c'hand'a, we have a most prolix account of this momentous event, which I shall give in abstract.

[^16]was, from that time, surnamed Sulustiha, or the crossborne.


#### Abstract

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


> - All the gods, with 'Siva and Brahma, went to Visind the prescrver, who resides on the northern shores of the White Sea, that is to say, in the sacred isles in the west. Vishnu was very much embarrassed, as he did not wish to reverse the decrees of either of two such exalted characters. After some consideration, he said to the gods, "Anasu'ya', the wife of Atri, is most virtuous and faithful; go to her, and prevail upon her to go and speak to the wife of the thief, when they will together come to some arrangement." Anasu'ra' consented, and after having discussed the matter with her, every thing was
settled. In her character of a virtuous and faithful wife, she ordered that the husband should live; and Gun'avatí, the thief's wife, ordered the sun to rise. Still it was necessary to satisfy the holy Mand'avyan, whose words could not be done away. They agreed, that in future all married women, when it is dark, or night, should remain as in a state of widowhood, taking off their nuptial dress and ornaments. The benerolent Mand’ayyah was easily pacified, the sun rose as usual, darkness was dispelled; the holy man, who had remained all the while absorbed in contemplation, with his arms uplifted, clescended from the cross; the leper, at the foot of it, was cured of his disease, lived to a good old age, and obtained eternal bliss; and the two virtuous and faithful wives were crowned with honor and glory, The air was filled with numberless choirs of celestial minstrels, singing heavenly strains, and the whole concluded with a shower of flowers from on high. In the mean time, the animated beings had all perished; and Brahma' was directed to proceed immediately to a new creation, and a general renovation of the world took place.
II. Christianity certainly had made a great progress in the Peminsula, even at a very early period. The venerable Pantenus of Ale.andria visited Indiu, about the year 189, and there found Christiuns, who had a copy of the Gospel of St. Matthew in Hebrew, which he carried to Alexandria, where it existed in the time of Jerome. Frumentius, the Apostle of Abyssinia, who had resided a long time in India, and spoke the language remarkably well, preached the Gospel in the southern parts, where he had great influence, and was highly respected, having been for many years prime minister, and reger ${ }^{+}$of one
of the Kings, during his minority. There he converted many Hindus, and built many churches, and then went to Abyssinia. He came to India with his brother Adesius, along with their paternal uncle, a native of Tyre, who was a Christian, and a very learned man. He travelled into the interior parts of India as a philosopher, and having satisfied his curiosity, he re-embarked on his way back with his two nephews; but, happening to put into a certain harbour, in order to get a supply of water, they were, at their landing, suddenly attacked by the natives. Many perished, and the rest were carried into captivity. Among the former was the uncle; but his two nephews were presented to the King, who took particular notice of them, and they were afterward raised by him to the first dignities of the state. They obtained leave to revisit their native country, when Frumentius was ordained a bishop, and in that character went back to India. At the council of Nice, in the year 395, the Primate of India was present, and subscribed his name. In the year following, Fhumentius was consecrated Primate of India, by Athanasius, at Aleazandria. He resided in the Peninsula, and the Christians there had always a bishop, called the Primate of India. The Christian religion made also some progress in the north of India. Museus, bishop of Aduli, on the Abyssinian shores, visited the northern parts of India in the latter end of the fourth century, in company with the famous Palladius, a Goth from Galatia. When they arrived on the borders of India, they were both disgusted with the climate. Palladius went back, but Museus proceeded to the lesser Bochara; where, it seems, he was more successful. Yet there was at Sirhind, or Serinda, a seminary for Christians, in the sixth century: for, in
the year 636, two Monks, who had long resided there, returned to their native country; and being at Constantinople, the Eimperor Justinian sent for them, to inquire into the nature and origin of silk, and he prevailed upon them to go back to Sirhind, in order to bring from thence the eggs of the real silk butterfly.

Theophilus, the famous Arian bishop,* was a native of Divus, now Diu in Gujrít; and, as he was remarkably black, he was simamed the Blackamoor. His Hindu name was probably Deo-pa'f, perfectly synonymous with Theophilus in Greek. He flourished in the times of the great Constantine, and of his sons; and he had been sent to Constantinople with others as hostages. From this circumstance it appears, that the inhabitants of Gujrät, who have been always famous as pirates, had ill used the Roman traders. There was a great trade carried on at that time to India, by the Romans; and there was an annual fair held at Batné, for the vent of Indian and C'hinese commodities, and there was a great concourse of merchants, many of whom were settled there. It was situated at some distance from the eastern bank of the Euphrates, and nearly in the same latitude with Antioch. He was very young when he was sent to Constantinople, where he studied, became a Christion, and embraced a monastic life. He was afterwards ordained a bishop, and sent to Arabia by Constantius, in order to promote the interests of the Christian religion. He met with great opposition from the Jews,

[^17]who were very numerous in that country; but succeeded at last, and built three churches, for the benefit chiefly of the Roman traders. One was at Taphar or Tapharon, now Dafar, and the metropolis of that country; the second was at Aden, near the straits of Babelmandel, and the third near the entrance of the Persian Gulf. From thence he went by sea to Diu, his native country, visited several parts of India, comforting the Christians, introducing wholesome regulations, and spreading the errors of Arius. He thence returned to Antioch, according to Suidas, where he lived a long time, highly respected. He accompanied afterwards Constrantius Gainus into Germany, as far as Petavium, now Pettaze in Stiria, in the year 354.

Marutha, a Hindu, and a bishop of Suphara, now Sufferdam, assisted at the Synod of Sides, in Pamphylia, in the year 383. He was afterward translated to the bishoprick of Meyaferkin, on the borders of Mesopotamia, when Yezdejned I., King of Persia, charmed with his piety, was very near becoming a Christian; and Chrysostom speaks highly in favour* of our bishop. According to the Notitia of Nilus Doxopatrius, the Greek Patriarch of Antioch, ordained a certain Ramogyris Metropolitan of India; and, from his name, there is every reason to believe that he was also a native of India, where the appellation of RA'MA-GIR is by no means uncommon. Cosmas Indico-pleustes, who visited India about the year 522, says, that there were churches and priests, with the whole liturgy, in Ceylon: also on

[^18]the Malabar Const, and in the north west of India. In these countries, says he, there are a vast number of churches.

The Mission of St. Thomas to India, with the surprising progress of the Christian religion, are facts, in my humble opinion, sufficiently authenticated. Jerone, who died in the year 420, speaks of the Mission of St. Thomas to India, as a fact universally acknowledged in his time: but I must refer the sceptic reader to the works of Fabricius, and Assemannif, unfortunately not to be procured in this country. But the learned history of the Anglo-Saxons by Mir. Turner will abundantly make up for this deficiency, in his dissertation on the embassy of the bishop of Shireburn, sent by the great Alfred, to the tomb of St. Thomas in Iudia. That the holy Apostle suffered martyrlom in India, is sufficiently proved: but, at the same time, it is certain also, that his body was afterwards carried back, and deposited at Edessa, as attested by Rufinus, who went to Syria in the year 371, and remained there twenty-five years. The place, however, where he was first entombed; became a famous place of pilgrimage, where probably, they kept some particles of his borly, cither true or false: but the chief relic was his blood; which had impregnated the spot, where he sufficred martyrdom. This earth was carried, in small quantities, all over the Peninsula; and, being drunk with water, proved most efficacious, in all sorts of diseases, and complaints. His tomb at Edessa was probably destroyed, during the wars of the Emperors of the west with the Persiuns ; or afterwards by the Muselmans.

In the sixth century, Gregory of Tours, the father of Erench history, became acquainted with a
respectable man, called Theodorus, who had visited the tomb of St. Thomas in India. In the ninth century, Sighela bishop of Shireburn was sent there also by Alfrfd, in consequence of a vow. Now, these two clergymen were too orthodox to worship the tombs and relics of an heretic, a Nestorian of the name of Thomas, as has been supposed by many; and they were too near the time, in which he lived, to have been imposed upon. The two Muselmans, who visited that place soon after Sighelm, mertion the church of Thomas, on the Coast of Coromandel, as well as Marco Polo about the year 1292, long before the Portugueze had found their way to india. M. Polo says, that Christians and Muselmans were very numerous in the Peninsula.

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

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

Marco Polo has given us the meaning of the word Avária, it is very easy to reascend to its pure and original form, which is Av-'Aryya in Sanscrit ; and, as he says, that the Christians there were highly respected, being good soldiers, and above all, good and holy men, remarkable for their integrity, they were certainly Av-'Aryyas, or 'Aryyas, as well as their holy Apostle. The word Avariia is derived from the Sanscrit compound Av-Aryya, from two words perfectly synonymous, $A v a$, and Aryya. The first is rendered in lexicons, by 'Sudd'ha, or Pavitra, equally implying holiness, and purity. It is often used in composition, where it enhances the sense. One of the titles of Budd'ha is Ava-Lócita, or Ava-Lócana't'n, the holy sovereign of the world: Ava-róha or A-róнa, well seated. This word is very often pronounced $A_{B A}$, and more particularly so, in the S. W. parts of India: and the same M. Polo mentions in the country of Laé, a race of most pious men called Abraiani and Abraiam in the M.S.S. But the editors thought proper to write that word, Abrajamim; because they conceived that they were Brákmens. But it is much more probable, that it is the same word with Arariäam, or Arariä, which he mentioned before. Ab-Aryya in the objective case, in the singular number, makes $A b-A r y y a m$, and $A b$ 'Aryyán in the plural, in the first case. These Abraiami, says he, have in abhorrence lying, theft, -and cheating. They marry but one wife, and abstain from intoxicating liquors, and flesh. They eat moderately, and their fasts are long, and most severe: otherwise, says he, they are idolaters. He then mentions other idolaters in that country ; but from the context, entirely different from the Ab-Aryyas: who it seems, were only degenerated Christians, who
had in great measure relapsed into the errors of their ancestors, and of their contemporaries.

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

Ptolemy says, that Ariaca belonged to the $S a-$ dinoi, a strange name certainly for a tribe. I suspect however, that it is derived from the Sanscrit Sád'hana, and that the `Aryyns were thus denominated by the native Hindus, in the same manner, that the Portugueze were styled is Bengal, T"hachurs, rulers or lords, and the English all over India are called Sáheblócas, or Sahéb-lógues, and the most apposite Sanscrit expression for the above epithets is Sadhana: the English are often styled by learned Pandits, SádhanaEngriz: and the famous Bhósa is often called Sádhana Bhöja. M. Polo mentions also Abraians on the

[^19]Pearl-Fishery Coast; these were consulted by the fishermen; but, he says that they were bad men, and great sorcerers : and their descendants, to this day, are not much better, According to the acts of St. Thomas, and other notices, the holy $\Lambda$ postle embarked at Aden in Arabia, in his way to India, where he landed at a place called. Halabor, and afterwards Salo-patan, synonymous with 'Sálo-pur, or 'Sála-buram, Hála-buram; and now Cranganor. He was well received by Masdeus, called also Segamus, King of that country, whose son Zuzan he converted, and afterwards ordained him a Deacon. The Apostle, long after, suffered martyrdom, at a place called Calamina, known afterwards by the name of Maliar-pur, or the city of Pea-cocks, from the Sánscrit Meyur-pura; and the same which is called Maliar-pha by Ptolemy. Its present name is St. Thome, called by the Arabs, during the middle ages, Betuma, or Beit-Thoma, the house or church of Тномая.

Masdeus, the name of the King, who kindly received St. Thomas, Zuzan that of his son, and Segamus his own surname, are all Hindí denominations. Musdeus is for Basdeo, the usual pronunciation of Va'su-déva in the spoken dialects. Segaaus is for Sugama, synonymous with Sugat, and shews that he was a follower of Budd'ha: and Sangama, even now, is not an uncommon name in India, particularly in the Peninsula. Zuzan is for Sajana, or Sezan, as written by Father Giorgi. It is the name of the father of Budd'нa, called also Ajana, by the Puránics; and the disciple and successor of Manes, who pretended to be an incarnation of Budd'ha, was called Sisinius.

The place of his martyrdom is called Calamina by Hippolytus, according to Mr. Turner. Calamina is a Tamuli denomination, and literaily signifies earth, and stones, alluding to the nature of the soil. It is synonymous with Mana-para, which signifies the same thing, according to F. Bartolemeo, a missionary acquainted with both the Sunscrit and Tamuli languages: but I by no means conceive them to be the same place. Cálá or C'álu in Tamuli signifies a stone, or Callou in French, and Mína earth. Thus, point Calymere, the true name of which is Calli-mèdu, signifies the stony hill. There were two bishops of the name of Hippolytus, one of whom resided in Arabia, and they were contemporaries. The latter probably wrote the treatise concerning the peregrinations of the Apostles, and died, A. D. 230.* Dorotheus, another bishop, bom in the year 254, wrote also on the same subject; and some fragments of his work are to be found at the end of the Chronicon Paschale. There he asserts, that St. Thonas died at Calamita (Cálá-mèdu, which is synonymous with Calamina, or nearly so.

Some Manicheans, at a very enrly period, went to the Malubar Coust: for, according to La Croze, in his history of Christianism in India, the Christians of that country said, that, before they had submitted to the jurisdiction of the Cathalicos, or Nestorian P'atriarch, and of couse, before the arrival of Mar-Thoné, there came into their country a certain Mandacavassar, who preached a new doctrine, seduced the people by his prestiges, and introduced his errors. La Croze did not understand the mean-

* Series Patrum, p. 6\%.
ing of the word Mannacavassar; but suspected that he was a Manichean. He was called, by the people of the Delhim, Mani-Cavissar, which signifies the bard, the prophet Mani. Cavissar is derived from the Sanscrit Cavi, poetry, songs, and Is'zara, lord, chief: Cavis'ar, for Cavyes'wara, signifies the lord of the song, or the chief bard, and is used in that sense in the Peninsula, according to Major Mackenzie.

The two Mfuselman travellers in the ninth century, and the Nubian Geographer, probably on their authority, declare, that there were many Christians, Manicheans, Jetes, and Musclmans in Ceylon: and that the King encouraged their public meetings, and that the learned Hindus of that country used to frequent them; and that the King liept secretaries to write down their respective histories, and the expositions of their doctrines and lates. These two travellers were in Ceylon, at that time; and these meetings, as well as the places at which they were held, are called Charchita by the Puran'ics, and appointed for the purpose of making Charchá, search or investigation, into new dogmas, and opinions, which began to disturb the peace of the country.

The Muhamedans in India acknowledge the carly establishment of the Christians in that country. Ferishta, in his general history of Hindostan, says: "Formerly, before the rise of the religion of Islam, a company of Jetes and Christians came by sea into the country (Malabar) and settled as merchants or Pishcáras. They continued to live there until the rise of the Muselman religion."*

* Asiat. Reg, Miscell. p. 151.
III. The deciine of the Christian religion in India, must be attributed, in a great measure, to the progress, equally rapid and astonishing, of Islamism, in Syria, Persia, Egypt and Arabia. The Christians in these countries, being in a state of distraction, no longer sent pastors to India; as we are informed in a letter written in the seventh century, and still extant, according to Mr. Turver. There we sec the Nestorian Putriarch Jesujabus of Abiabene, reproaching the Metropolitan of Persia, with having shut the doors of the episcopal imposition of hands, before many people of India: that the sacerdotai succession had been interrupted, from the maritime borders of Persia, down to Colon, or Coilan, a space of above 1200 F̌arsangs. This agrees with what is related by Muselmun writers, who say, that in the reigin of the Caliph Abdulmalec, in the latter end of the serenth century, the Christians of India sent to Simon, the Syrian and Jacobite Patriarch of Alexandria, requesting that he would send them a bishop.*

The bulk of the Christians of St. Thomé, according to Mr. Wrede, like the 'Aryyas, consisted of converts from the higher classes; and they were nearly upon the same footing with the Bráhmens, and Nairs or nobles. They were originally much respected by the Hindus, and native princes; and they considered themselves equal in rank with the Bráhmens and Nairs, and clamed the same exemptions and privileges, which were granted to them. Many amongst them, preserve till now the mamers, and mode of life of the Bráhmens, as to personal cleanliness, and abstaining from animal food: and the Roman missiona-

* See D'Herbelot's Biblioth. Orient. v. Hend. u. Sind p. 415.
ries, in general, adopt the same regimen, in order to gaiu credit among them.

These Christians were then very properly denominated Aryyus and Tacshacas, or Peishcára Brihmens. These and their Kings probably introduced the Christian Era into their country: but, in the same manner, that their sanctity, and their power in Incia are forctold in the Puránas, their fall is equally mentioned. When, says the compiler of the VáyuPurán'a, their time is come, the 'Aryyas will pass away, like the rest.

These good 'Aryyas are called S'átreas, Sálavas and Sályas in the Cumáricí-c`handa. These three forms are regular, but the last, according to Mir. Joinvilef, prevails in the Dekhin, and Ceylon; where they are called Sálé, 'Sályas, and Chíllyas, berause, I suppose, they were the followers of 'SA' La. They are called also in that country, 'Saca-Ríjì-cónsas, and Sála-vánsas in the westem parts of India They are now followers of Budn'ha; and in the Peninsula the Christiuns are included in the general denomination of Bauddhists, and their divine legislator is considered as a form of Budd'ha.

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

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

Mr. Jonnvilet, in his account of Ceylon,* mentions the arrival of numerous families of these Pcishecaras, Peish-cirs, into that island ; and declares, that they were all artificers, and handicraftmen, as implied by their name, which is truly of Persian origin; though used all over India, in the northern parts of which, it is gencrally pronounced Peishe-Ráz. According to T. Hyde, the Pársis in India, are all artificers, and those in Kirman deal chiefly in woollens.

There were fomnerly Brahmens in India, says the

[^20]same gentleman, who were handicraftmen, such as weavers, weaving stuffs variegated with gold and silver, and of divers colours. These were called, finm that circumstance, Peish-cári-Bráhmens. But they could not be followers of Brahma'; for the employments of weavers, and dyers, are absolutely incompatible with the sacerdotal class: in extreme distiess a Bráhmen may sell stuff's, but even then, under very peculiar restrictions. They might however have called themselves Bráhmens, at least their priests, without any impropriety; for every priest is really a Bráhmen in his own religion. A few individuals might have become weavers; but then, they would lose their cast, and it is impossible that a numerous body of Bráhmens should follow that profession. It is then much more probable, that they were not, strictly speaking, Bráhmens of Hindu extraction; but the followers of a new religion, introduced by foreigners, the disciples of a Peish-cára, and themnselves Peish-cáras, or at least many of them.

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

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that religion ; and his name was Deveni-patr. All the missionaries to China, were really Tacshacas, or Peish-carra-Bráhmens, in the strictest sense of the word, as well as the pious Moravians: and Paul the Apostle was a Tacshaca, and a Peish-cára-Bráhmen: and, by the account of Mr. Wrede in his narrative of the Christians of St. Thomé, they were formerly Peish-cáras: for, says he, they were in fact the only, or at least, the principal merchants in the country, tili the arrival of the Arabs.

The ingenious Mr. Joinville, on the authority of several treatises in the Marad'hi language, the names: of which he nentions, says, that there were even Kings among these Peish-cára-Bráhmens, in the Peninsula, to the mumber thirty-five:* from the context, it appears, that some were in a collateral, and others in a successive line. The names of their kingdoms, or rather their Metropolitan Cities, were Solo-patan; Mahá-patan (now Patan, the Baitana of Ptolemy in the Dekhin, on the banks of the Godáveri, to the southward of Dozeletcebad); Curu (now Cauri, or Coyr): Gadahare (Gaida); Mácanda, (now Mahá-sunda-pilli); and Cas'i. This is confirmed in the Bhâgavat, Váyu, and Brahmándí-purán'as, in which it is declared $\uparrow$ that Aryyú, or 'Laca, and 'Sálava was the name of a dynasty of Kings in India; and who were to be immediately followed by the invasion of numerous swarms of other foreign tribes; and of the dynasty of these Sacas, there were five and twenty Kings, according to the Purún'as in the chapters on futurity.

Solo-patan was a sea-port town, according to Cos**

[^21]mas Indopleustes, about the mildle of the sixth century, on the Pepper or Malabar Coust. There were, says he, five sea-ports famous for trade, Parti, Mangarouth, Salou-patna, Nalo-patana, and Poudu-patana; and all these names are truly Indian. There are several places in the Peminsula, called Parti-guddy, or fort of Parti. Mangarouth seems to be Mangalore, and Nalo-patana, Nali-suram; Salou-patana is called Sooloo-patonow by the people of Ceylon, and had Kings of its own of the Peishe-cáré-Bráhmen tribe, or Christians.

Sálo-patan, otherwise 'Sálo-buram, and 'Sálo-pur, is the same with Hála-bor where St. Thomas landed, and its present name is Cranganore. There he converted 'Sajana son of the King of that country.

We read in the history of the Christians of St. Thomas, that they had Christian Kings of ther own; the first of whom, was called Baliarte', from the Sanscrit Bali-arhat. After several successions, one of these Christian Kings dying without male issue, adopted the King of Diamper for his son, according to the custom of the country, though he was a heathen, and appointed him his successor.

That a society of Peishé-círus, zeeavers, and handi= craftmen, however numerous, should have Kings of their own, is inadmissible; unless they were upon such a footing, as the Christians were formerly in the Peninsula. St. Thomas converted the son of the King of some country on the coast of Malabar ; and the Purán'us declare, that there was a dynasty of -Aryya Kings.

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

The descendants, or followers, of 'Sa'laya'hana are mentioned in the commentary upon the Calpudruma. In religious matters, and particularly in the east, they generally call the followers of any reformer, or legislator, his descendants. In the above commentary 'Sa'lava'hana is declared to be a Juince, meaning, either a follower, or a form of Jina. He is called there also, a Srávaca, or 'Sávaca; that is to say a Peish-cára. In the western parts of India, as in Gurjar'at, they call all tradesmen, banyans, \&c:. 'Sávacas, or 'Sábacas. The famous Calica'cha'rya is supposed to have visited 'Sa'lava'ilana, at Pratishtána in the Dekhin; and, according to the above comimentary, he was born 993 years after the ascension of JinA, or 43 years B. C. He travelled all orer the Peninsula, teaching, and explaining the doctrine of InA; and particularly among the Sábacas. He is supposed to have taught 'SA'LAVA'HANA some peculiar rites, to be observed at the full, and new moon; which, he promised, he would enjoin his descendants, or followers to observe. The posterity of a Sábaca, or Peish-cára, particularly in Irdia, were necessarily Peish-cáras, and 'Sábacas. A patronyınic denomination was also given to them; for they are called 'Sálwas, 'S'álavas, and 'Sálbas in the C'umárica-c’harida, answering to the Arabic expression, of Ashab-al-Sálib,
or Salb, the followers of the cross, or of him, who was crucified. According to A. Roger, there is still in the Dethin a considerable tribe of men called 'S'álavádis, from the Sanscrit 'Súlarádicas, the 'Sálaũas or followers of 'SA'LA.

In the V'ayu-purán'a, they are called 'Sacas, and in that passage, this name is used in the room of 'Aryyá to be found in other Purárias; and it is declared there, that they would appear with the And'hras and Pulindas; the dynasty of the first began in the year 191 after Christ: and it is obvious from the context, that the dynasty of the Sacas, 'Aryyás, or 'Sáluas was contemporary with those of the And'hras, and $P u$ lindas; though we cannot fix precisely the time when it began. By Pulindas, they understand dynasties of Kings from the lowest and vilest classes in India.

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

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more probably from the followers of another 'SA'LAva'hanta, a Manicheam; or Manes himself, as I observed before.

As these Rajaputs call themselves Vais'yas, synonymous with wrúraca or tradesman, it seems, that they originally followed that profession. Prcbably some will say, that if the 'Saca-Rája-Cumáras', had been once Christians, they must of course have iost their cast. This might be the case now: but, I do not believe it was so formerly; and then, the $P u-$ ranras afford us immediate remedy, for in the chapters on futurity, it is declared, that the Kings of Magadlia would raise men of the lowest classes to the ratik of Bráhmens, and other suptrior casts ; exactly lihe Jfroboam, and other Kings of Isr rel. This prophecy was to take place, after the fall of the And'hra dynasty in the seventh century.*

Besides, a whole district, a whole tribe, might embrace another religion, without losing cast; the full exercise of its privileges being always confined to themselves. For we must not think, that persons of the same cast, will communicate one with another all over India, and eat together, or of food dressed by arother. The communication is confined to a few families in their neighbourhood, whom they know to be strict observers of the rules relative to their cast. The rest of the tribe are in a great measure outcasts to them. This almost incredible adherence to the punctilio of casts, was in a great measure owing probably to the rapid increase of the religion of Budd'ha, then afterwards of that of Christ, and

[^22]Muhamed, and of the heresy of Manes, in the N. W. parts of India, and also on the coast of Mulizar, and Ceylon. Among the Christians in the Peninsula, be they Protestants, Roman Catholics, or Nestorians, there are Bráhmens, who are nearly upon the same footing with the other Bráhmens: and, when acquainied with them, such civilities, as are usual amons well bred people, are never omitted. The Christian Bráhmens most rigorously abstain from beef, and animal food, though they say they can eat of it. The greatest part of the Bráhmens in Persia, Turam, and near Baku, eat beef, but never of the flesh of the cow, like many of the Egyptians of old. There are several of these Bráhmens settled at Benares; and they are acknowledged as such, though not much respected, being nịck-named $l^{\prime}$ éda brashitas, or breakers of the Vedas; for a Bráhmen riay be a heretic without losing his cast, which is not so much connected with his creed as might be supposed. In short, the Hindus acknowledge themselves, and it appears from their sacred books, that they ate beef formerly; but they took care to inform me, at the same time, that they never ate of the flesh of the cow. It is declared, that there are no Cshettris now, or in other words, that the second class no longer exists. Yet those, who have heen raised to that rank from the lowest classes, are treated as such by every Bráhmen.

We read in the institutes of Menu, that all the C'hasyas, or those who inhabit the snowy mountains, have lost their cast. Yet they must have recovered it; for there are numerous families of Bráhmens in those countries, particularly in Almorah or Cománh, and much respected at Benares, who by no means cousider the bulk of the inhahitants, who are C"hasyas,
as outcasts. They assured me on the contrary, that they considered them as belonging to the second class, and that they are treated as such by every Bráhmen, in despite of Menu and of the Puránicas.

Let us suppose some extensive district in India solely inhabited by Europeans, and that these were entirely willing to conform, in every thing, to the religion of Brahma', and the manners of the Hindus. Their resolution would be highly approved of by every Bráhmen; and they would soon find many to officiate, and pray for them, on their being of course paid for their trouble. Let us add to this, numerous grants of land, villages, honours, privileges, and an entire submission to their will, they would soon treat them as Cshettris, as they do the present Rájputs. It is true, they could neither intermarry, nor eat with the other Hindus, but the four great classes never intermarry, nor eat, but with particular families of the same tribe in their own class. After a few generations, they would say of these Europeans, what they say of the present Rájputs and Máhráttas, that they were not originally Cshettris nor Bráhmens, and are a spurious race. This would not do, it is true, for a single individual, who would find himself insulated, and lost entirely, unless he assumed the character of an anchoret or penitent. I had long conversations with learned Pandits, on the subject, and this was their opinion, and that even they might have Bráhmens of their own, by studying their sacred books, and obtaining the necessary knowledge, which would not be attended with much difficulty. With regard to their ancestors having ate beef, this could be no objection, as there is not a Hindu, whose ancestors, at some remote period, it is true, did not eat beef, and every sort of animal food, except
perhaps a few unclean sorts. Whatever man, say the learned, performs the duties (Carma) of a Cshettri, him you must consider as a C'shettri. But what should put an end to the controversy, at least in my humble opinion, is that the Máhráttas, a numerous and respectable tribe of Bráhmens, and Cshettris, are acknowledged, all over India, to be foreigners from the western parts of Persia, who left their native country not 1200 years ago, as I shall shew in the appendix Even though this alleged origin of the Mihráttas should prove untrue, yet the universal acknowledgment of it is very much in favour of my assertion.

The followers of Bizama', and those of Budn'ha, were by no means indifferent to the progress of foreign creeds. They often ordered conferences to be held, where the principles of these religions were inquired into, the history of their legislators, \&c. This was practised in Ceylon in the ninth century, according to Renaudot's two Museiman travellers; and Bráhmens unanimously acknowledge, that this was their practice formerly, with regard to the Baudl'hists; and that these conferences were called Charchá, or investigation, search, Cherche in French; and that towns appointed for that purpose, were called Charchita-nagari, one of which is mentioned in the Cumáricá-c’harida. "In the year 3291 of the Caliyuga (or 191 after Christ) King 'Sudraca weill reign in the toien of Cha'rehita nagara, and destroy the zorkers of iniquity." This points out a persecution in religious matters, at a very early period. These conferences ended in bloorlshed, and the most cruel and rancorous persecution of the followers of BuDDни, even from the confession of the Brathmens themselyes. They were tied hand and foot, and
thus thrown into rivers, lakes, ponds, and sometimes whole strings of them. Be this as it may, the followers of Budd'ha did not fail to retaliate whenever it was in their power; for Dr. F. Buchanan infurms me, that in the Dekhin the Jainas make their boast of the cruelties that they exercised at different times upon the Bráhmens, and that there are even inscriptions still extant in which they are recorded. This general persecution was begun by a Bráhmen called Cumárilla-Bhattácha'rya, and carried on afterwards by Sancara'cha'rya, who nearly extirpated the whole race. It is difficult to say when this took place; but as there were vast numbers of Baudd'hists in the Peninsula, in the Gangetic Provinces, and Gujarait, in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries, this general proscription could not of course have taken place at these periods. It is very probable that the Christians were occasionally involved in these persecutions, as the Christians of St. Thomas are considered as Baudd'hists in the Dehhin, and either their divine legislator, or his apostle Thomas, is asserted to be a form of Buddiha.

The Hindus, and more particularly the followers of Budd'ha and $\mathrm{J}_{\text {Ina }}$, fancy, that there are hidden mysteries in certain numbers. It was so formerly in the west, anong the heathens, the Jeres, and the Christians. All over the world, the numbers one and three were considered as radical; and their combination was subject to whimsical rules. They are by no means to be added together, for one and three, in a mystical sense, are but one and the same thing. We might suppose, that the square, and cube of three would be sacred numbers; but it is by na means the case. Eight is the mystical number, and
three times eight, or twenty-four, is a sacred number; and being multiplied by three, the product is mystical also, and the number of years of Jina's life. The reason is, that one stands in the centre representing Jina, whe is three and one. Eight forms sprang from this toward the eight comers of the world, and each of these is three and one: but we cannot say, that these eight forms, with the original one in the center, make cither nine, or truenty-seren; for though each collateral form is perfectly distinct from each other, yet it is individually the same with the original one. Sectaries, at an early period entertained accordingly strange notions concerning the number of years that Christ lived concealed, performed the duties of his ministry, and lastly about the length of his life. They conceived that every circumstance relating to so exalted a character, was mysterious. Some insisted that he lived thirty, thirty-three, forty, and others nearly, but not quite fifty years. Stephanus Gobarus has collected many of these idle notions, in the extracts made of his works by Photius.

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

[^23]soner, and empaled alive, with his limbs trussed up, upon a double cross; and in that state hurled into the infernal regions. 'Saman'a-Gautama, however, foretold, that in the end he would really become a god. Buddha, or Gautama is also represented waging war with Pra-'Aria-Seria, for Pra-'Aryya''Sira, the venerable chief, or Sire of the Aryyts or Christians; and another chief of them, called PraSwane, or Pra-Swana, from his loudly preaching against the doctrine of Gautama. Buddeha and Déva-Twashita' are made contemporaries in this romance: but this can be no objection; for it is only in allusion to the wars of their followers in subsequent times. The learned are very well acquainterl, that this mode of writing history once prevailed in the west at a very early periad.

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

In Persia, the era of Yezdegird began in the year 652; that of the Hejra was introduced by Omar in the year 638. Those of Siam with the Burmáhs have an era beginning in the year 638; but as they borrowed every thing relating, either to their religion or their astronomy, from Ceylon, and the Peninsula of India, this period must have originated there. The Japanese consider the ascension of the latter Buddiaa, under the name of Guso-bosatz, as a memorable epocha; and it happened in the year 631, because they say that he lived only fifty-nine
years, and he was born in the year 579. According to the Satrujaya-mahátmya, the translation into heaven of Guso-bosatz or Gaja-Vastshta, that is to say, he who abides in the mortal frame of an elephant, and called in the above treatise 'Ski-hasti-s'ena, a compound nearly of the same import, happened three years, eight months and fifteen days before the time of the Panchmárás, or Murhamed and his four associates; that is to say, he died in November 617. But if we suppose with the Paurianics, that he lived sixty-six years, his ascension will fall in the year 638, according to the computation of the Burmans and Siamese. This Buddia was born in the year 500, and reigned sixty-six years, according to the Cumárici-chanda, in some copies of which we read 62 and 64 ; but he appears to be the same with Gaja-Vasisit'a, both being represented as the last incarnation of Budd'ha; the Japanese having mistaken the era of his manifestation as a god, or his death, for that of his manifestation as a man.

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

The Chiristians of India, in the seventh century, were actuated by the same principles, and chose the supposed year of Christs ascension for the first of their new era. They were at that time in India in the most profound ignorance, through the want of pastors, as we obscrved before; and their religion was a strange medley of the Christian, and of that of Buddina, which prevailed at that time in the Peninsula; insomuch, that M. Poro considered some of the Aryyas, in despite of their virtucs, as idolaters. 'Sali-va'hana, or Déva-Tat, was considered as a brother or relation of Budedia.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Whatever may be our opinion about these five strangers, their names, and their country ; yet from such an acknowledgment, and more particularly so from Hindus, we may rest assured, that there is some truth in it. The Hindus reckon three and twenty famous astronomers, eighteen of whom were natives of India; and the five others, foreigners. These they insist were natives of Arabia: and if so, they were called Yavanácháryas, not because they were of Grecian extraction: but because they were skilled in the learning of the Greeks. Indeed their names, or rather surnames, appear to be Arabic. Hallage, and Cathan are names well known to Arabian writers: and EbN-Dissan is the name of a famous impostor born at Edessus. Of Rómaca or the Mléch'hávatára, I took particular notice before, and Dishan is the name of Omar in several copies of Raghe-na'tha's list; and it was he who first established the era of Muhamed in the year of Christ 658, and for this reason, they supposed him also to be a great astronomer, as well as Rómaca.

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

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

The Hindus, at an early period, were famous for their knowledge of astronomy and astrology. The latter is entirely grounded upon the former; and the accuracy of the decisions, and predictions, depends entirely upon the precision, with which the conjunctions, oppositions, and the various aspects of the heavenly bodies are ascertained. In the first century, Hindu astrologers were in high estimation and repute at Rome, and none but the richest men could afford to H 4
employ them. It appears, from Arrian on the authority of Megasthenes,* that in the time of Alexander, they had almanacks, with predictions concerning the weather, and mpending calamities, such as they have at present, but more particularly so in the Peninsula. Strabo says, that the Bráhmens professed astronomy ; $\dagger$ and he extols, at the same time, the attention they paid to learning. Q. Curtius testifies, that they skilfully observed the motions of the heavenly bodies. $\ddagger$ Eusebics, who lived in the third and the beginning of the fourth century, says that it was a Hindu, who first delineated schemes of the heavens, or the principal constellations. His name was Andubarius, and he was considered as the founder of astronomy in India, and was famous for his skill and wisdom. According to Eusebius, he lived soon after the flood, in the western parts of $I n$ dia; and this fanous astronomer probabiy formed, and delineated the twenty-seven lunar mansions,' which seem to be the exclusive property of the Hindus. The opinion of Eusedius, and the other learned authors whom I have mentioned, was certainly that of the age in which they lived; and Stкabo says, that the notions of the Hindus concerning the universe, and the sphericity of the earth, were the same with those of the Greeks. They had a code of laws in the time of AlexANDER, and they wrote upon a sort of paper; for thus I understand the words in cudoor niav vexegornneivas, upon cloth well beaten. § Strabo takes notice, that in his time some asserted, that the Hindus were acquainted with the use of letters, whilst others denied it. He adduces the above passage from Nearchus in

* Arrian de Indicis.
$\ddagger$ Lib. 8 .
+ Lib. 15.
§ Strabo, lib. 15, p. 717.
proof of the former assertion; but the passage against it from Megasthenes is by no means conclusive; and seems to me, on the contrary, to prove that they were acquainted with the use of letters; for it implies only that they used no writing in their courts of justice in camp, where every thing was settled in a summary way; and it is even so to this day. Besides, says our author, such is the probity of the Hindus, that all the time he was in the camp of SANdrocupros, which consisted of 400,000 men, none but petty thefts were ever brought before these courts, and they (the judges) even could not write. Under such circumstances, neither any code of laws, nor much learning, or any writing, were necessary; common sense and integrity were the only requisites on the part of the judges.*

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

* Strabo, lib. 15.p. 609.

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

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

Polybius \|| informs us, that in the year answering

[^24]to 251 B. C. Metelfus defeated Asincubal in Sicily, killed six and twenty of his elephants, took one hundred and four, and sent them to Rome, with their drivers, who were Hindus. According to the same author, when Hannibal crossed the Rhone 218 years B. C. the drivers of his elephants were also Hindus; and after this period, we find a Hindi word for an elephant introduced into. Italy; for till that time, they called them large oxen. This name was Barrus, or Baro, as it is written by Isidorus,* who says, that it was a Hindu denomination: Baro and Baronem in the objective case, are from the Sanscrit Báran'a and Báranam. From Barrus or Baro, the Latins made barritus, to express a noise like that made by an elephant, and also the verb barrive; and probably the word Ebur is derived from it.

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

- Isidor. de origin.
+ Tit. liv. lib. xxxvirr. C. 14.
$\ddagger$ Bryant's Mythol. Vol. 3d. p. 217.
the Suevi made a present to him of some Hindus, who had been shipwrecked on the German shores. They were merchants, who had ventured thus far from their native country.* In the Vrihat-cathá we read of several Hindu inerchants, who visited the Sacred Isles in the west, and being shipwrecked, they were made slaves; and some of them were so fortunate, as to obtain their liberty, and to revisit their native country. It is declared there, that they went a great part of the way by land, and then embarked at a place called Itanca: $\dagger$ another harbour is mentioned also under the name of Pauta-pur, and this subject I shall resume when I come to treat of the Sucred Isles. Strahlenberg saw a Hindu at Tobolsk, who went from India to that place, through China. Bell saw another Hindu from Madras, on the banks of the Argoné ; and Mr. Duncan, Governor of Bombay, introrluced another to my acquaintance, who had been there also. The distance from the Indus to England is one fourth less than that from Madras to Tobolsk through China $;+$ and the embassadors of Porus travelled as far as Spain 24 years B. C. The constant embassies, sent from. India to the Emperors of Rome and Constantinople, are well known to the learned, even as late as the sixth century; but in the seventh, the growing power of the Muhamedans became an insurmountable obstacle to any further intercourse. Besides, the present state of society, manners and politics in the west, make it impossible for Hindu pilgrims to travel through Eu-

[^25]rope. They would be stopped at every step, and occasionally confined; and instead of alms, they would receive insults only from the lower classes.

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

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

[^26]Hindus, who followed Alexander into Persia, and which we find on the borders of Media, with Eumenes, eight years after the death of the former. It was commanded by the brave Ketrus, probably Ketu, or the fiery meteor of war; and there was certainly little, or no compulsion used by the Greeks, for they took even their wives and families along with them. Keteus died fighting valiantly, and his two wives insisted upon burning themselves with the dead body; but it was found that the eldest was with child, and therefore she was prevented from following her husband. The youngest went triumphantly, and was led by her brother, and other relatives, and servants, to the funcral pile.*

Claudius received also an embassy from a king of Ceylon: and when Trajun was marching amainst the Parthians in the year 103, some princes of India sent cmbassadors to him, requesting him to settle some disputes between them and their neighbours, probably the Parthians. It is remarkable, that during this expedition, Trajax was constatitly supplied with oysters from Great Brituin; and which were preserved fresh, by a particular process, discovered by one of the first cpicures of the age. There were embassadors from Imtia sent to $\Lambda_{\text {ntoninus Prus, }}$ to Diocretian, and Maximian; to Theodosius, Heraciaus, and Justivas; and we read $\dagger$ of two Hindukings, putting themselves under the protection of Diochethan and Mixmman, and their sames were Geviobon and Esateciu. In the year 274, Aurflian took Palmyra, and made Queen Zenobia

* Dionor. Sic. lib. xix. C. 2.
+ Anc. Univ. Hist. vol. xviii. p. 78.
prisoner. There he found a body of Hindus, whom he carried to Rome, to grace his triumph. Damascius, who was contemporary with Justinian, in his life of Isidonus, relates several curious anecdotes of Severus, a Roman, but by birth an African, and who lived in the time of the Emperor Anthemius. Severus was a philosopher of most austere mauners, and great learning; and fond of the society of learned men. After the death of that Emperor in 473, he retired to Alexandria, where he received at his house several Bráhmens from India, and whom he treated with the greatest hospitality and respect. Dates and rice were their food, and water their beverage, and they shewed not the least curiosity, refusing to go and see the most superb fabrics and palaces, with which that famous city was adorned.*

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

[^27]knowledge by Jeres, according to Claudian, who wrote in the fifth century, and who says:

> Jquin, et assuetom sylvis delphina videbo: Jan cochleis homines junctos, et quidquid inane Nutrit Ju DAICIS, quar pingitur IIdia, velis.

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

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

There were at Rome augurs, and diviners from all natious, but mostly from Challede. There were some from Armenia, Egypt, and even a few Jewes, and particularly women from that nation. There were also astrologers, says Jureval, $\dagger$ from Phrygia and India; and none but very rich people employed these, and this was about the middle of the first

[^28]+ Sat. vi. v. 584 and 549 .
century. There were many Hindus at Alewandria, according to Ptolemy, who lived in the beginning of the third century. The inhabitants of Europe, at an early period, did by no means show so much readincss in leaving their native homes to visit distant countries, and particularly India. We are told that Pythagoras and Democritus visited the Hindu sages; but these accounts are delivered in too vague a manner, to deserve any credit.

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

The next European who visited India was the philosopher Pieedon, about 490 years B. C. but it was not an act of his own. He is said to have been an Elean, probably because he was a native of Elea in the lesser $A$ sia. It is recorded of him, that he was taken, and detained by Indians and afterwards sold by them as a slave. It is probable, that he had been

## 114

sold first to some Persian nobleman, sometime after appointed to the government of some district in India, where Phidon was carried away by a party of Hindus. Be this as it may, we find him afterwards at Athens, as a slave again, to a man, who kept women and handsome young men, for the purpose of prostitution. He was redecmed by Alcibiades at the request of Socrates, whose disciple he became. He founded the Eliac school, called Eretrian afterwards, from its having been transferred to Eretria in Eubra, by Menedemus his successor.*

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

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

[^29]say from the year 255 to 126 B. C. Even some of them were in possession of the western parts of the Gangetic provinces: and Demetrius is mentioned as one of them; and according to Sig. Bayer, he never was King of Bactriana or Balle, but of some inland part of India, extending beyond the Ganges, about the year 195 B. C. According to Strabo, his predecessor Menander conquered the countries to the east of the Hypanis, as far as the Jumná." His empire extended from Pattalena, to Zizerus, which I take to be the small, but famous lake called Jid-jer, or the spring of Jid, noticed by Ctesias, under the name of Sid, and a little to the westward of the Jumná and Dilli. $\dagger$

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

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

[^30]From the Malabar Coast they go to Mosambique, where they have agents, who generally reside there seven or eight years; and Strahlenberg takes notice of a merchant from the Malabar Coast, at Astrachan.* From Surat and Guijar'át, they go to Mascat and other trading places in Arabia, where Bráhmens are to be found also, according to Niebuhr. Arrian in his Periplus says, that the inhabitants of the island of Dioscoridis (now Socotora, consisted of Arabs and Hindus, with a few Greeks, settled there on account of the trade to India. The famous Pra'n-puri told me, that when he was at Baharein on the Persian Gulf, he was informed by the Hindus, whom he found settled there, that they used to go formerly to Egypt, where they had houses of agency, but that they had left off going there for about two or three generations.

This shows, that there was between the Greeks, Romans, Carthaginiuns and the Hindus, a constant and reciprocal intercourse (which is by no means the case now) for a period of 1200 years at least: and to which nothing, but the overgrowing power of the Muselmuns, could put a stop. In visiting the sages of Babylonia and Egypt, the Hindus must have heen greatly surprised, and their vanity humbled, when they heard them talk of their remote antiquity: Then, and not before, in my opinion, they resolved not to be behind hand with any of them; and certainly they have succeeded wonderfully. Neither the Greeks and Romans, nor the Turdetani, a Galic nation, though settled in Spain, according to Strabo, carried history, and the begiming of things, beyond
a period of 6000 years, exactly like the Jetus, and Hindus formerly, according to Megastuenes. The Gothic tribes entertained also the same notions, as appears from the cosmogony of Orphets, who was a Goth.*

The Hindus had the system of the Yugas long before; but this was not peculiar to then, for it prevailed all over the west, and Hesrod, who lived between 900 and 1000 years before Cirist, declares that Cali-yuga was just beginning; and the Jainas assert that it began about that time. Though the Yugas are of a very great antiquity all over the world, yet the Hindus did not think of stretching their duration to such an enormous length, till a period comparatively modern; and the Yugas in the west were also the component of their grand Calpa, which consisted equally of 12,000 years, but with this difference, that in the west these were considered as natural years, which is not the case in the east, at least now.

The first time we heard, in the west, of this extravagant system of chronology, was about the middle of the ninth century; when we were informed by Abu-Mazar, a famous astronomer, who lived at the court of Al-Mairun at Ballih, that the Hindus rec: koned from the flood or the beginning of the Caliyuga, to the Hejra, 720,634,442,715 days, or 3725 years.

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

[^31]sily rectified. There is exactly that number of years, from the beginning of the Cali-yuga to the Hejra: but that immense number of days are reckoned from the creation to the Cali-yuga, according to Brammagup'ta's system. Mr. Davis, after reading this passage in my manuscript, kindly undertook to examine it more particularly, and I beg leave to refer to his learned note on the subject, in the appendix at the end of the essay on Vicramáditya and Salivahana,*

Till that time, the extravagant numbers of the Hindus were unknown to the Greeks and Romans, with whom they kept up a constant intercourse. That the Hindus concealed the whole from them, is inadmissible: for it is natural to suppose, that they were equally vain with the rest of mankind. We are well acquainted with the pretensions of the Egyptians and Chaldeans to antiquity: and surely they did not take the trouble of inventing fables to conceal them. On the contrary, Megasihenes, a man of no ordinary ahilities, $\dagger$ who had spent the greatest part of his life in India, in a public character, and was well acquainted with the chronological systems of the Egyptians, Chaldeans and Jezes, made particular inquiries into their history, and declares, according to Clemens of Alexandria, that the Hindus and Jews were the only people, who had a true idea of the creation of the world, and the beginning of things: and we learn from him, that the history of the Hindus did not go back above 5042 years, from the invasion of India by Alexander. Manuscripts differ; some have 5042 , or 6042: others have 5402

* As. Rej. v. 9. p. 242.
+ See Abiatic Researches, vol. 5. p. 290.
years, and three months; for he calculated even the months; but the difference is immaterial in the present case.

This period of the Hindus was adopted afterwards by the Persians, or was common to both: and the latter reckoned, from the creation to the era of M e-lic-shaf, in the year 1079 of Christ, 6,586 years ;* that is, they placed the creation 5507 years before Christ. It appears also from George of Trebizond, that the Persians reckoned, from the flood to the year of Christ 639, ol era of Yezdejird, 3,735 years, ten months, and twenty-three days, conformably to the ideas of Abu-mazar: and this is again the period of the Cali-yuga of the Hindus. From Alexander's entering India, to the same era of Me-LIC-SHAH, there are 1408 years, which deducted from 6,586 , there remains 5178 ; and this I believe was originally the true reading in Megasthenes's account of India. Be this as it may, the difference, relatively speaking, is not very considerable, and is immaterial in the present case.

Christ was the son of a carpenter, and himself a carpenter, or Tacshaca in Sanscrit. The Persians called him a Peishé-cara, handicraftman and tradesman. In the Calpa-druma-Calicá, a treatise of the Jainas, and in my possession, 'Sa'la-va'hana, called by the Hindus a Tacshaca, and said to be also the son of a Tacshaca, Tash'tu, or Trwaslitá, is declared to have been a 'Sr'avaca or 'Sávaca, a tradesman: and in the western parts of India, as in Gurjar'út, all banyans and tradesmen are called S'ároacas. The words of the Calicá are, "Sa'lava'hana N'amía RájááJaina; Parama 'Srávaca-pati. The King called 'Sa'lava'-
hana was a Jaina, and the lord and master of the Si'avacas," or 'Sábacas, as more generally written and pronounced.

Even the name of 'Sa'li-va'han, 'Sa'liban, and 'Sa'lba'n, as he is called in the spoken dialects, seems to be of Persian and Avabic origin, as well as Peisheh--cár, the name of his followers. Salib, or Sulib, signifies a stake, a cross, a gibbet, the Roman Furca; like the Greek ₹ravgos, Sálib or Sálb signifies also crucified, and in the plural form, it becomes Sálub, and Sálbán. Ashab-al-Sálib, means the Christians in Arabic, that is to say, the followers of the crucified. The best Sanscrit expression for this is 'Suliva, Sálava, or Salwa in a derivative form, and these are indifferently pronounced Sálaba, or Salba, and in the plural number 'Sálabán, and Sálban. In the Cumá-ricíc-c'harida, these 'Sálavas, or 'Salbans, are mentioned, in the same page with 'Saca, oi 'Sa'la-va'hana, and as existing at the time this Puraria was written. The copy of that section of the Scanda-puran'a in my possession, was written about 230 years ago in Gurjarát : and the writer or transcriber, well knowing, that 'Sávaca was a title of 'Saca, or 'Sa'liva'hana, wrote first 'Sáraca, instead of 'Saca; but recollecting himself, and finding that there was a redundant syllable in the verse, he drew two small strokes with the pen across the middle syllable, showing, that it was to be left out, and the whole word to be read 'Saca. In the Lucknow copies of this section, no mention is made of Saca, and the whole verse is omitted.

The copies from Chitra-cúta, have the whole verse; but the name of 'Saca is variously written, sometimes Sacra, Sraca, \&c. These readings are obviously erroneous. There were no other copies of that sec-
tion at Benares but those procured from Chitra-cuita, and Lucknow, till I was lately presented with a neat copy 230 years old, from Gujarát, by a Pandit of that country. The Luclinow copies are tolerably accurate; but those from Chitra-cîta are miserably mangled, through the carelessness of transcribers. The passage relating to 'Saca, is in the following words: Tatah trishu sahasréshu sate chápyadhicéslize cha; 'Sacó náma bhavishyas'cha yótidúridra háracah:and whether we read Saca or 'Savaca, it points to the same individual. .

The idea that Sadiva'hana was borne on a tree, cross, or furca, they might have borrowed from the AIanicheans, who represented Christ stretched upon a tree. Váhana, báhana, and váha or báha, are nouns derived from the verb zah, veho, to carry; and used both in an actire and passive sense. Thus Haryaváhana is one of the titles of Agni, or fire. Indra is called Mégha-váhana, or the cloud borne ; Gand-ha-záha is the wind, from its being the vehicle of perfumes. The clouds loaderl with water are called Vári-vóha. Thus Sál-bah, Hál-bah, Sál-báhana, \&c. may signify either he who carries his cross, or who was borne, or exalted upon the cross. Crucifer is one of the titles of Christ, perfectly answering to - Súla-baha.

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

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

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

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

In the Vrilhat-Cathá, 'Saliva'hana is called Nrisinha, or the man-lion, answering to the lion of the tribe of JUDA; and one of the forms of Budd'ha is called Nrĭ-sinha, both by the Pauranics and the Baudd'has. 'Sacti-sinha, or the energetic lion, is also the name of 'Sa'liva'hana in the appendix to the Agni-purán'a. According to the Vrihat-cat'há, Vi-
cramáditya marched from his capital city Pátaliputra, or Pathu, to wage war against Nrï-sinha, King of Pratishthána.
VI. The cross, though not an ohject of worship among the Baudd'has, is a favourite emblem and device with them. It is exactly the cross of the Manicheans, with leases and flowers springing from it, and placed upon a mount Caleary, as among the Roman Catholics. They represent it various ways; but the shaft with the cross bar, and the Calciary remain the same. The tree of life and knowledge, or the Jambu tree, in their maps of the world, is always repiesented in the shape of a Manichean cross, eighty-four Yojanas (answering to the eightyfour years of the life of him who was exalted upon the cross), or 493 miles high, including the three steps of the Caloary.

This cioss, putting forth leaves and flowers, (and fruit also, as I am told) is called the divine tree, the tree of the gods, the tree of life and knowiedge, and productive of whatever is good and desirable, and is placed in the terrestrial Paradise. Agapius, according to Photius,* maintained, that this divitue tree in Paradise, was Christ himself. In their delineations of the heavens, the globe of the earth is filled up with this cross and its Calvary. The divines of Tibet place it to the S. W. of Merre, towards the source of the Ganges. The Municheans always represented Christ crucified upon a tree among the foliage. The Christians of India, and of St. Thomas, though they did not admit of images, still entertained the greatest veneration for the cross. They
placed it on a Calcary, in public places, and at the meeting of cross roads; and it is said, that even the heathen Hindus in these parts paid also great regard to it. I have annexed the drawings of two crosses, from a book entitled the Cshétra-samása, lately given to me by a learned Baudd'ha, who is visiting the holy places in the countries bordering upon the Ganges.* There are various representations of this mystical symbol, which my friend the Jati could not explain to me; but says, that the shaft and the two arms of the cross remain invariably the same, and that the Caloary is sometimes omitted. It becomes then a cross, with four points, sometimes altered into a cross cramponné, as used in heraldry.

In the second figure there are two instruments depicted, the meaning of which my learned friend, the Jati, could not explain. Neither did he know what they were intended to represent; but, says he, they look like two spears: and indeed they look very much like the spear and reed, often represented with the cross. The third figure represents the same tree, but somewhat nearer toits natural shape. When it is represented as a trunk without branches, as in Japan, it is then said to be the seat of the supreme One. When two arms are added, as in our cross, the Trimurtí is said to be seated there. When with five branches, the five Sugats, or grand forms of Budd'ha, are said to reside upon them. Be this as it may, I cannot beliere the resemblance of this cross and Calvary, with the sign of our redemption, to be merely accidental. I have written this account of the progress of the Christian religion in India, with the impartiality of an historian, fully
Vol.X.I'sute 2


[^32]persuaded that our holy religion cannot possibly receive any additional lustre from it.

The word Méch'ha in Sanscrit, does not signify literally a foreigner ; but it is generally understood in that sense by the Pauranics, when announcing, in a prophetical style, the different powers who were to rule over India. Hear now, says the author of the Yishmu-purán'a, hear nowo what will come to pass in these times: powerful Kings among the AryyaMéch'has will appear; they will subvert the reigning religion, spoil and deceire the Prajas, or the people.

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

In the Brahmanda we read, then will come the Aryya-Mlech'has, who will seduce the people; they will be proud, and at the same time distrustful, as if constantly alarmed.

In the V'áyu-purán'a it is declarerl, that generations of King's will rise, and set like the sum. Then will come the 'Aryya-Mléch'has, who will forsake the D'harma, religious creed, Carma icorship, Tirt'ha the places of pilgrimage of their ancestors; they will seduce the people with their new doctrine, and will grow worse and roorse every day. After them Sarva Mlechiha, all soris of forcign and impure tribes will overrum the country.

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

Apostle, even as low as the times of $\mathrm{Mi}^{i}$ Polo in the 13 th century. From Abaryyam, the Pauranics probably made $A$-Brahma, in order to shew their contempt of them, but more particularly in the latter times, when they grew worse and worse; and M. Polo speaks of some of the Abraiam, or Abramiam, nearly in the same terms. Yet in his time the denomination of Avariuam, in Sanscrit Aváryyam, and Abáryyam, was applied to them; and he was told that it signified good and pious men.

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

[^33]
## ESSAY VI.

## PART I.-CHAPRER I.

Of the two Tri-Cu'tád'ri, or Mountains with three Peaks; one in the N. W. and the other in the S. E. Quarters of the Old Continent.
I. TRI-CUT'A'D'RI, the mountain (Adri) with three peaks (Tri-Cüta,) answers to Tpropovpos and $\mathrm{T}_{\text {prowpros }}$ in Greek: for in that language ${ }^{2} \times \mathrm{pov}$ signifies properly a peak, summit, and implicitly a headland, or promontory. Polyenus calls Mount Méru or Meros, Tri--coryphus: it is true, that he bestows improperly that epithet on Mount Méru near Cabul, which is inadmissible. Méru, with its three peaks on the summit, and its seven steps, includes and encompasses really the whole world, according to the notions of the Hindus and other nations, previously to their being acquainted with the globular shape of the earth. I mentioned in the first part, that the Jews were acquainted with the seven stages, Zones or Dwipas of the Hindus; but I have since discovered a curious passage from the Zohar-Manassé on the creation, as cited by Basnage, in his history of the Jewes.* "There are, says the author, "seven earths, whereof one is higher than the other; for the holy-land is situated upon the highest earth, and Mount Moriah (or Mérut) is in the middle of that holyland. This is the hill of God, so often men-

[^34]tioned in the Old Testament, the mount of the congregation, where the mighty King sits in the sides of the north, according to Isamah, and there is the city of our Gon.". The Méru of the Hindus has the name of Sabha, or the congregation, and the gods are scated upon it in the sides of the north. There is the holy city of Brálmáa-puri, where resides Bramara with his court, in the most pure and holy land of Ilívruita.

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

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

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

[^35]tered all over the face of the carth, like those of Osiris and Jupiter Zagfeus. To collect them was the first duty of his descendants and followers, and then to entomb them. Out of filial piety, the remembrance of this mournful search was yearly kept up by a fictitious one, with all possible marks of grief and sorrow, till a priest announced, that the sacred relics were at last found. This is practised to this day by several Tartarian tribes of the religion of BudD'Ha; and the expression of the bones of the son of the spirit of heaven is peculiar to the Chinese, and some tribes in Tartary.

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

This monument is about fifty feet high, of a cylindrical form, with its top shaped like a dome. Similar monuments, but never more than three or four feet high, are often erected by Hindus, upon the spot where a married woman burned herself with her husband. These' monuments are in general called Satí; and the enormous one at Sárnáth is a sort of Satí over the bones of Budd'ha. According to tradition, it was erected over the ashes of those who fell there in battle, in the invasion of the Muslemans. But this is impossible; as this monument is the chief and principal piece of that sacred fabric, which was begun many years before the said invasion. The only part that was finished is the tomb of Budd'ha; all the others, which were intended for the splendor of the place, and the convenience of the royal inhabitants and priests, remaining in an unfinished state. The secret vault, in which these relics are deposited in general, is called the Thácur's Cúti, the room or cell of the Lord; and in the inscription found amongst the ruins above this cell, it is declared that St'mírpála and Vasanta, sons of a King of Gaur, in Bengal, built this C'úti. It follows from hence, that these were the persons who deposited there the Thácur's bones. In the above inscription it is declared, that this happened in the year of Vicramáditya 1039, or of our Lord either 1017 or 1027.*. In the inscription found at Islámabad, $\dagger$ these relics, consisting of a few bones, are said to have been deposited in tivo brass vessels in a Cuiti, or room under ground. In the account of the

> As. Res. v. 5. p. 133.
> + As. Res. v. 2.
discovery of two urns at Sárnátha, it is mentioned that the Cuiti was eighteen cubits, or twentyseven feet, under ground.* There the relics were deposited in an urn, enclosed in a vessel of marble, in the shape, and of the size of the famous Burberini monument. There were a few bones only, with various trinkets, which consisted of pieces of coloured glass, all of them perforated, with thin leaves of gold, and some coarse pearls. These ornaments are by no means a proof that these bones were those of a female. It is more probable, that they formed a chaplet used by devout people, or rosaries and bracelets, with whic! the statues of Budd'ha are generally decorated. The marble vessel, which contained the urn, is more highly finished than that of the Barberini monument. The urn itself is of a more elegant form than that in the above monument. It is in the shape and of the size of a chalice; it has no carved figures, but elegant mouldings, exquisitely finished, and is of green marble. I suspect the whole to be of foreign workmanship; for it is totally different, both in shape and workmanship, from vases in use among the Hindus, either at this day or in former times. Philostratus informs us, that statues, by Grecian artists, were by no means uncommon in the N. W. parts of India. Strabo says also, that altars of Grecian workmanship were often found in the western parts of India; and Arrian, in his Periplus, takes notice of altars and of small temples in the Grecian taste, near Barygaza or Baroach. The practice of thus preserving the bones of BudDHA is of great antiquity; for it is expressly mentioned by Clemens of Alexandria, who says, that

[^36]they were deposited under a pyramid. In the history of China we read, that in the year 335, a bone of Fo was ssent from India to the Emperor of that country, who was highly pleased with this precious relic: though his minister Hanyu made a very spirited remonstrance against this innovation ; and which is to be found in Du Halde's China.

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

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

The steps, stories, and retreats are always omitted in India: but I was told, that it was considered as immaterial. The seven stories, however, are marked by lines. in a delineation of the worldly temple and tomb of BudD'Ha, in a large map of the world, accompanying the Cshétra-samása, a geographical treatise in my possession. This representation of the mountain of GoD struck me forcibly, and was the occasion of further inquiries into this subject. It is of the same shape with the pyramids of Egypt: the base only is a little shorter, with a small flat top, with a chapel in honour of Budd'нa. The sides are smooth, as in the pyramids; but the seven stories are represented by lines, which brings it still nearer to the tower of Babel. The pyramids of Egypt are not all alike: some are in the shape of a cone; one with recesses is mentioned by $\mathrm{De}_{\mathrm{N}}$ Non, who notices also another with a circular base. The square base of this worldly temple is peculiar to the Baudd'hists of Tibet; for in India the Bráhmens, and the Jainas, always give it a circular form. In the representation of it in the Cshétra-samása, it is a square. Though the dimensions are much neglected, yet in all these monuments at Benares, the most modern, and of course the most perfect, are of a conical figure ; the perpendicular section of which, through the center, is an equilateral triangle. There is always a small temple on the summit, except one near Benares, at a place called Camow'y. Such of these monuments as belong to the Baudd'has are called the
temples of BUDD'HA : they might also be called the temples of Bala or Balas, one of the titles of Budd'ha, but little known now, and more particularly so to the vulgar. The word Balas, properly pronounced, sounds exactly like Belos in Greck, and Belus in Latin. May we not then reasonably suppose, that the temple and tomh of Beius at $B a-$ bylon, was precisely a similar monument, and calculated for the very same purpose.

On the summit of it was a chapel, dedicated to Belus, according to Herodotus. Dronorus, the Sicilian, says there were three; but this is immaterial: for Balas is three and one. Besides, the temple of Herodotus probably consisted of three chapels. About the center of the tower, in the middle, was the tomb of Balas, and near it, in the body of the pyramid also, another chapel, exactly as in the great pyramid of Gi*a in Egypt. It is propable, however, that the bones of Belus were not deposited in the ostensible tomb, but were concealed in a secret vault, in some other part of the pyramid or tower. It appears then, that the pyramids were similar fabrics, and intended for the very same purpose. For the Egyptinns, the Phenicians likewise, had their Belus, as well as the Babylomians and Hindus: and this Beles, it is probable, was originally the same through these different countries. In the eastern parts of Bengal, particularly toward the Sunderbunds, there is, almost in every village, a representation of this worldly temple, of earth with steps. The whole is neatly plastered with a whitish clay; and on stated festivals, the statue of some favourite deity is placed on the summit, in a small, but handsome portable temple. Some of these fabrics
are from five to twenty feet high, according to the circumstances and zeal of the villagers. These are considered as a representation of mount Méru; and, in the inscription of Sárnáth, the conical mount, near the sacred repository, is called Méru.

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

The tower of Babel seems then to have been the wordly temple of the spirit of heaven, and the tomb

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of his son, either the first man of the Calpa, of the most ancient king and legislator of the country.

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

His descendants removed to that boly mountain; the wicked offspring of Caln were allowed only to dwell at the foot of it, whilst that of Seth were seated higher up, as far as the top; where they lived in great sanctity and purity of manners, every day worshipping God on the summit of the mountain, and visiting the body of ADAM in his vault, as the means of procuring the divine blessing.* This mountain, in the center of the earth, with seven steps or stories, or mount Méru, was really the mountain of God, the worldly temple of the spirit of heaven, and the tomb of his son. Cointus of Smyrna says, that this holy mountain was depicted upon the shield of Achilles; and that on its summit resided the efficacy or 'Sacti of the world, or of the supreme being, towering to the skies: and he adds, that this most sacred place was very difficult of access.

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

[^37]world. Adam's remains, after the flond, were divided among his posterity, and his scull fell to the share of SHEM, who deposited it in a vault on mount Cateary, near the holy hill of Moriah or Moreh. The inluabitants of Ceylon showed formerly one of his teeth; and they have now one of his tusks: for their last Adam or Budd'ha, was incarnate in the shape of an elephant; and ascended into heaven, from the summit of the peak of Adam. Muselmans, who were settled in the Peninsula, and in that island, at a very early period, concluded, and not without some plausible ground, that this Buddina must have been Adanr: and accordingly, Persian writers grarely inform us, that Anans was banished to Ceylon, and thence translated into heaven, from the summit of the peak, which was denominated after him. ZArades, Zoroades or Zaliat was the name given, by the Chaldeans, to the eldest Zoronstren, claimed equally by the Persians. Some say that Belus taught the Chaldeans astronomy, whilst others insist, that it was Zarades or Zoroaster, whom several learned men consider as the same with Mizraim, the son of Ham. Be this as it may, the eldest Zarades was the son of Oromazes, the spirit of heaven, according to Suidas. Like Adam, he directed that his bones should be carefully preserved: his precepts for a long time were complied with; and his relics, carefully and secretly entombed, like those of Bala or Budd'ha, like the limbs of Osiris, and like those of Bacchus at Delphi, became an object of worship. The eldest Zoroaster, called Zarades, Zoroades and Zarates by the Chaldeans, is probably the same with Belus and the Saurid of Arabian writers: and the Goddess Zaretis was probably his consort. Several learned oriental writers insist that Zoroades, or Zoronster assisted at
the building of the tower of Babel; and that he is the same with Zohac or Nimrod, and that uncler the name of Saurid he built the great pyramid in Egypt. The Parsis in India say, that he was a native of China; but I suppose that they originally meant Bactria, seemingly the native country of the Chinas, according to the Puran'as, and the earliest Persian and Arabian authors, who say that formerly the country about Samarcand was called Chinistan, and its inhabitants Chínas*.
II. The three peaks of Méru are, one of gold, the other of silver, and the third of iron, stone or earth, which is considered as the same. Thus, the iron age is generally called the age of stone or earth in India. In the west, mankind was produced from stones, thrown by Deucalion and Pyrrha behind their backs, in the beginning of the iron age; and from them sprang the present stony or stone-hearted race.

In consequence of this, some powertul princes are declared, in the Purán'as and other books, to have erected three mountains, of gold, silver, and stone; or three pyramids or conical hills, like the three peaks of Méru, though the materials they were built with were only stone or clay. Polymens has given us the names of these three peaks, Menon, Candaské, and Corasibé; which, however distorted and disfigured, may be still traced back to their original standard. For this purpose let us suppose, that a traveller asked a Hindu the names of these three peaks, the Hindu probably answered Mana, Cun't'hác'hya, Cailásópi, or literally in English, Mana,

[^38]Cun'rina' thus called, Caila'sa also. The first peak, it is true, is not known under that name; but it is described as such, and this appears to be its real name. Upon it Brahmá resides, and his seat is called Brahmáapuri, or the town of Brahmá: it is also Mana-puri, the town of Mana, or of his heart, or the delight of his heart, near the famous lake of Mana or Mánasa, the waters of which, proceeding from heaven, are the delight of his heart likewise. They are otherwise said to proceed from his heart, and indeed every thing there is from his heart. The obvious meaning of Mana is mind, (mens,) but it is always rendered here heart, because the mind proceeds from the heart, according to the Hindus, who even are able to trace its track through the body to the head. The radical name of Vai-Cuntha is Cun't'ha, an ideot. The name of Vishnv's mother, in one of his incarnations, during the fifth Mamvantara, was Cun't'ha or the ideot; and as she was very much so, she was called Vi Cun't'ina Vishnu, since that time, is surnamed Var Cun'r'ha: and after him, the peak on which he resides is denominated likewise. In Cailásópi, api signifies also. This Tri-cútádri, or mountain with thrice summits, is declared to be the lord of mountains; and of course the other Tri-coryphean hills, for there are many, are considered as inferior to it. The next in rank is the three-peak-land in the N. W. emphatically called the White island, the island of the Moon, a celestial earth or region, a terrestrial heaven or paradise.

The next to this is the Tri-cuita mountain in the south-east, including the peninsula of Málácá, Sumátrá, and Ceylon. These two Tri-cütúdris are declared to correspond to each other, in their respective quarters, and their Téja, Cirn' ${ }^{\prime} a$, or splendor, are the
constant theme of the Pauránics and other Hindu writers. These two Tri-cútas, or three-peakedislands may probably be the two islands of Cerne, east and west, of the ancients. When speaking in general terms, the Pauránics sometimes place them, one in the east, and the other in the west. But numerous and explicit passages show, that they are situated in the N. W. and S. E. quarters of the old continent. There are however, some few passages, which place them north and south of Méru; and Lancá is now considered as situated on the equator, exactly to the south of Uijayiní, Méru, and opposite to the island of the moon. The last assigned situation was the first I hit upon, on my first acquaintance with the Purárias, and perplexed me very much; as the Pandits, I was acquainted with, insisted that the White island, one of the peaks of the western Tri-cúta, was in the N. W. quarter, that is to say, it occupied the whole space between the N. W. and N. points: and that likewise the eastern Tri-cittädri was between the S. and S. E. points. Unfortunately, they could not then produce the necessary vouchers from their sacred books; but in the mean time, they exhibited the accompanying map of Jambu, in order to illustrate the subject.

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


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

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

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

[^39]of three islands. The eastern Cerne, it is true, was said to be near the eastern shores of Africa. This mistaken notion arose, through the information of the Hindus, who will have it that the dwipa of Lancá really joins the shores of 'Sanc'ha, Zeng, or Africa. The Nubian geographer adopted this idea, as well as Arabian writers in general.

The Gods are represented as travelling from one Tri-ciuta to the other; and the grand depot for souls after death, is at Yama-puri, in the Peninsula of Málàcá ; from which, on certain days fixed for that purpose, they set off together for D'harma-puri in the north west, which they reach after a painful march of twelve months.

These three islands in the south east, are in general called Lancá; and in every one of them is supposed to be a city called a Lancá-puri, and there is actually a place of that name in Sumatia, according to Mr . Marsnen. The walls of these three cities are of the same metal with the soil of their respective islands: of course the walls and palaces of Lancá-puri in the Gold-Island, are of that metal; and of silver in the Silver-Island. In the island of iron, brass, stone, or clay, the walls are of these materials: but more generally they are said to be either of iron or brass. The Gold-Island, or Suraria, is also called MahaLancá and Má-Lancá; from which is probably derived its modern name of Málácá; which is also called Malác'hya in the Dévípuránia.

These islands were well known to the ancients, under the appellations of Chryse, Argyrca, and Taprobané. That of Taprobané, though generally understood of Ceylon, was also extended to the three islands; for

Stephanus of Byzantium says, that Argyrea, the Sileer-Island, or Sumutra, made part of Taprobané, and very properly too: for Taprobané is obviously derived from the Hindi Tápu-Rávana, the island, or islands of RA'vana, who was the lord of them, and whose name, in the spoken dialects, particularly in the Dekhin, is always pronounced Raban. Their Sanscrit names are Canchana or the Gold-Island; Rajata the silver one, and Sinhala is Ceylon. On the latter the epithet of Iron-Island is never bestowed in any book which I have seen: but it is understond as a matter of course: it was called also the brass country by $\mathrm{P}_{\text {tolemy; though strangely misplaced }}$ by him.

From various documents, through different channels, he has introduced twice in his map of that country, this Tri-ciitádri, first, as three islands or Peninsulas, and also as three countries on the mainland, under the names of gold, silver, and brass countries. Mr. Danvilee has prored that the Peninsula of Málácú, with most of the places belonging to it, are turice repeated, and made contiguous by him.

In the Gold-Island, or Mí-Lanca, is the abode of Yama, called Yama-puri, or in the spoken dialects Jam-cote, a place weil known to Arabian and Persian writers. It is also called Lancá-purí, Lancá-nagara, the town of Lancá ; and the straits of Málácáa are called, in the Puránias, Lancá-ctivára, or the gates of Lancta*, as we shall see in the course of this work. Canca is another name of Yama or Pluto; and as the place of his abode is in Málancá, according to the

[^40]Puránas, the Lancá-dwóra or gates of Lancá, the straits of Málácá might be called also with propriety the gates of Canca, Pluto, or Canca-dwára. This denomination is never used now by the Puuranics; but there is no doubt, that it was so formerly; for the Cancador of Ali-Coshgi, and other early Muselman writers, is obviously derived from Canca-dzoára, Canca's door or gate. It is true, that they make a town of it, which they call also more correctly Cancimor for Cancí-núr, which last is acknowledged to be the same with Canca nagara, the town of Canca: and in the Dekhin they always say nur or nuru, instead of nagar. This town is obviously the same, which is called Cocco-nagara or Conco-nagara by Prolemy. The country of Canca is Cancades'a in Sanscrit; hence Muselman writers call it also Gung-diz.

Cancapuri or Canca nagara is then the same with Yama-puri or Jamcote, called also in the Purárias Mahá-Lancí-puri, or Má-Lancá: and it is probably the same with that called Balanca by Ptolemy, and placed by him in Long. $169^{\circ}$ and in $4^{\circ} 40^{\circ}$ Lat. North. It appears, however, that Dfuselman writers understood by it the town of Saba or Zaba: for Yama-puri or Jam-cote is a mythological city and never existed.

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

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

[^41]the direction of the first range of snowy mountains. The Pandits, whom Abul-Fazil consulted, placed Cancador 1265 Yójanas from Lancá, or the peak of Adam, which is in $90^{\circ}$ of longitude, according to them. Yama-puri is accordingly $1205 \frac{5}{6}$ Yojanas from Lancá; some reckon 1942, which will place Yama-puri in long. $178^{\circ} .29^{\prime}$.

The commentator on the Sirrya-Siddhanta, has reduced that distance very much; for he says that Lancú, or the three islands, occupy a space of 30 degrees along the equator; and this will bring their assumed longitude of the eastermmost shores of MíLancíc nearer to its real one.

As Prolemy places Má-Lancía-puri in the same longitude with the Pauranics, he must have used the same data, and which he had probably received from the ITindus whom he conversed with at Alexandria. Má-Lancí being, according to the Pauraniocs, in the center of the Peninsula, it must be of course in about five degrees of Latitude North: and there it is placerl by Abul-Fazil: and in $4020^{\circ}$ by Ptolemy. Má Lancía is called in the Purámás Yamala and Malaya; which last denomination it still retains. It is styled also Cancluma-padde, or with the golden skirts. It may be translated the country of the golden feet, a title assumed by the Eniperors of Ava, and other Kings of that part of the world: and the Malayan. brecze is as famous in the east, as the Saboan in the west, and its capital was also called Saba or Zaba.

In the begiming of the Brahmánda-purán'a, it is declared, that the strong hold of Yama in Tri-cuta, that is to say the Peninsula of Malaca, is 100 Yójanas long, and 30 broad, which is sufficiently accurate.

Ptolemy mentions there a place called Malaioucolon, probably from the Sanscrit Malaya-ciulam, which implies a place on the borders or shores of Malaya: the same is called Maletur by Marcc-Polo; Malaya-tir and Malaya-cîlam are synonymous. Perimula in Prolemy, I suppose to be derived from the Sanscrit Pari-Malaya, which implies the same thing. For it is probable, that they were acquainted only with the tiram, tir or culam of the Peninsula: and Canchana-páda may also signify the foot, skirts of the golden mountain, or Peninsula.

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

That famous island is called now Sumatra, and by former European travellers Symotta. In the same book, and in the Hitépades' $u$, it is called Carpura, or camphire island. In the spoken dialects, that word is pronounced Cápur and C'afur. Marco-Polo gives the name of Fanfur to one of its provinces, probably for Canfur or Campar, as it is now called. A beautiful lake on the island, is mentioned in the Hitópades'a under, the name of Padma'-nilaya, or the abode of Padma'ide'vi.

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

El-Edrissi says that the island of Samandar is near the Ganges. Probably the author of the Periplus confounded it with Sígara island, a name of the same import, at the mouth of the Ganges and called also Oceanis by Diodorus the Sicilian. The context, however of this author, and of more modern geographers, show that it caunot be the same island. Salimasius and others improperly laugh at the idea of an island at sea being called Oceanis. This Oceanis was probably the place of abode of old Samudra, the old man of the sca, often mentioned in romances in the east.

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

The large lake called Megisba, with the metropolis, does not exist in Ceylon, but is probably that extensive lake to the south of Menangcaboo, mentioned by Mr. Marsden in his map of Sumatra, from which several large rivers seem to issue. The harbour of Hippuros or Ipporus in Pulo-Simundu is called Aypoor by Danvilee, and Ippu by Mr. Marsden from the Sanscrit and Hindi $\Upsilon$-pura or $\begin{array}{r} \\ I\end{array}$ pu, and in a derivative from Aipura, the town of the goddess 'I or

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

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

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

[^42]L. 3
posite to this, toward the west, another river flows from the mountains of Indrot-giri, and is called Andrapour or Indrapour from the Sunscrit Indra-pura: and I believe that the town is the same which is called Andra-Simundu by Ptolemy, and foisted into Ceylon by him, on a supposition that it was the same island with Pulo-Simundu; and I believe that this is not the only place in Taprobane, that belongs to Pula-Simundu. The mountains of Indra, or Maghabá in the island of Sumatra, are mentioned in the Troluat-cathá, under the name of Baláhaca, which is synonymous with Mérha, from its summit being capped with clourls: and Indra, who presides over rain, resides above the clouds: hence he is called Me'ghava'hava, Me'ghiba'hana, and in conversation Mégilaba'n, or the cloud borne. The other mountains in Sumatra, mentioned in the Vrïhat-cathá, are Maináca Vrissiabla, and Chacra. Upon these four mountains, as many gods are, in the same book, declared to reside, and to travel occasionally in their self-nioving cars to the White Island in the west, in order to pay their respects to Vishnv, and his consort Abdhitanaya', or the daughter of the Ocean. Néricéla, another name for this island, implies its abounding with cocoa-nut trees, the leaves of which being aggitated by the winds strike against each other, and seem to repeat the words Boc-boc or Vac-vac: or the continual noise which they make is compared by the Hindus to what is called in Hindi Boc-boc or constant chattering. Sumatra is then the island of Boc-boc, Vac-vac or Wacwac of Arabian authors; who sa! that the leaves of these trees striking against each other seem to repeat the word Wac.

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

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

[^43]and learned classes, and at court; the other was current among the lower classes, whose poor and barren dialect had feiver sounds to express. Be this as it may, the elements of their alphabets have an obvious affinity with those of the Sanscrit. The Sanscrit alphabet, after striking off the double letters, and such as are used to express sounds peculiar to that language, has a surprising affinity with the old alphabets used in Europe; and they seem to have been originally the same. This subject I intend to resume hereafter. The Emperors of Sumatra, when endeavouring to introduce civilization into their country, opened an intercourse with India, but more particularly with the kingdom of Magall'ha, and Palibothra; for as Mr. Marsden judiciously observes*, the Mulay language has received no improvement from the dialects of the $P c$ ninsula in India. All the Hindi and Sanscrit words in that language are such as were in use at the court of the Emperors of India, residing in Bahar, and among the better sort of the inhabitants of that country.

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

Jambulussays that this tract of islands, or Lancín, consisted of seven principal ones: and to this day in

[^44]the Peninsula, Lancá is often called Yail-Lancá or the seven Lancias; because it consisted of seven islands. This information I owe to Mr. Duxcan, Governor of Bombay. From Yail-Lancía former travellers made Ylanca.

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

[^45]offspring of a lion.* It is, however, more generally called Lancá in the Putrarras, and is represented there as the country of Rícana, or Rában, the brother of Cutéra; and both were born at the extremities of the world, in the N. W. As he was contemporary with Ra'machandra, if there erer was such a being, he must have lived about. 1800 years before Christ. The wars of Ra'vana in Lancú, and the adjacent countries, are famous all over India, and make an era in the history of Ceylon. Traditionary legends in that island say, that in consequence of this bloody war, the island was depopulated, and remained in that state for 1845 years, being only inhabited by Daityas, or rather sarage tribes. Ceylon was afterwards called Salícia, or Súlazam according to F. Bartholomeo, from the Salleyas, a certain tribe in India, catled also in the Puránias Sáluras. The famous peak of Adams was called Sálnala, or the mountain of Sála. It is mentioned in the commentary on the Súrya-Sidd"hanta; in which it is said, that Mara the offspring of the Sun, by the daughter of the divine Täashta in the west, came from Romaca-nagara, or Rome to the mountain of Sálmala in Lancí, to make tapasya in honour of the sun, in order to obtain astronomical knowledge from him. Another name, for it is Sámánala from Saumya-Nala another son of Triashtá, who built Ra'ma's bridge. Twashtá is the chief engineer of the gods, and his grand-son Maya of the Daityas.

The appellation of 'Salica, or 'Sílice, as it was called by ancient geograghers of the second century, is also a regular derivative form in Sanscrit, from Sáli or Sális: this denomination was unknown to Pliny. According to F. Bartholomeo, and formet

[^46]travellers, Ceylon was called Ilam, and Ilc-mid, Ilanar ; the conntry of Ili, which signifies the earth in general. I'ra-nuct, or Tranaté, another name for it, signifies the three countries, meaning I suppose the three islands of Lancé.

The Hindus reckon the longitude from the meridian of Lancé, passing through the peak of 'Sílmale, the place of worship called Rámeszara, (or dedicated to Iszara, with the title of Rámu), Aでanti or CTijain, Méru, and the mountain of Vutsa in C'uru or Siberia, which last is most probably an imaginary place in that country. The place of Ríme was called Arime by Muselman writers ; and they said that it was under the equator, and exactly half way between the straits of Alevander or Malaca, and those of Hercules or Gades in the west: and they gare the name of Gadir or Gades to these two straits, both leading into two siast Mcditerrancan seas; and through Arima the Hindus, and even some Arabian authors, it is said, make their first meridian to pass. AmCosngi a Rusian astronomer, who lived abcut 350 years ago, says, that in his time some Mindus piaced their first meridi n at C'ancudora, or Jum-cote in the east.* I bitieve that some wif them did so formerly, and this of course occasoncil afterwards some confusion. Their first meridian then passed through the eastern Cerme, and the last through the western one, the several islands of which tract were the original islands of the blessed. When this mode of reckoning was altered, the meridian was placed in the middle of the world, yet it still passed throuh the eastern Cerne; though through a different part of it. This

[^47]induced them also to bring one extremity of the western Cerne under the same meridian, probably for the sake of symmetry, which was certainly a sufficient reason with them. Thus the iron peaks of the two Tri-cuitádris fell in the same meridian, and the northern one might be about Nova-Zembla.

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

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

## III.

On the Languages and Literature of the IndoChinese Nations.

BY J. LEYDEN, M. D.

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

[^48]late rapid acquisitions in Indian languages and literature, have we obtained any important accessions to our information in this quarter; though both political and literary reasons seem to require them.

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

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

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

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

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

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


The learned language. 14 Pali.
I. Malayu.-The Malayu language, so pronounced in the Malaya peninsula, but by Europeans generally denominated Malay, is used by the numerous and enterprising nation of that name, who are termed Khél by the Siamese, and Misú by the Barmas. This language, which from its sweetness, has been termed the Italian, and from its widely extended use, the Hindostant of the Last, though it coincides with the monosyllabic languages in its general construction and analogies, is properly polysyllabic in its form. Having spread itself over a great extent of country, not only in the Malaya peninsula, but far among the eastern isles; and having been propagated by a race more skilled in arms than in letters, it has branched out into almost as many dialects as states, by mixing in different proportions with the native languages of the aboriginal races. This is the circumstance which renders the investigation of the origin and relations of the Malayu language a matter of difficulty, as it becomes necessary to examine the history of the nation, as well as the structure and composition of the language itself. Though used by a nation of comparatively late origin, at least with
respect to the principal features which it at present presents, the history of this nation is still very obscure, rather, it may be presumed, from the want of investigation, than from the want of materials for its illustration. The history of the origin and progress of the Malayi tongue, of course partakes of this obscurity; but notwithstanding the great diversity which occurs in the spoken dialects, in the bazar jargon, or as the Malays term it, the Basa Dagang, of the several Malay states, the Basa Jazi or written language of composition, is nearly the same in all; and the popular, or vernacular languages; are reckoned pure, in proportion as they approximate to the written language.

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

Malayu language is spoken in its greatest purity in the states of Kiddeh or Tama Say, Perak, Salangór, Killung, Johór, Tringgano, Pahang, and as far as Patani, where it meets the Siamese. Among the western Malays in general, it is spoken with more purity than among the more casterly isles, but on the coast of Sumatra, or Pulózo Purichu, it is intermixed with the Batta and other original languages. The Menangkábow race, who seem at an early period to have ruled the whole island of Sumatra, whose chief assumes the name of MAHA' $\mathrm{RA}^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{JA}^{\prime}$ of $\mathrm{R}_{A^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} A^{\prime} s \text {, }}$ and derives his origin from Lánkápura, speak a dialect of Mulcuiu, which differs considerably from that of the peninsula; but which seems, as far as I can judge, to coincirle in many respects with the Jatwa or Javanese language. The race have probably derived their origin from Lankápura in Java. The Malayu dialects of Riyôrw and Linga seem to be mixed with Javanese, as are those of the Malay states on the island of Java. The dialect of Piuntiana and Sambas, is purer than that of Borneo or of Banjur ; but that of Passir, on the east coast of Bormeo, is greatly mixed with the original language of Celebes, or the Búgis. The Malays of Celebes speak a dialect greatly mixed with Biggis, while those of the Moluccas and the more eastern isles have adopted such a multitude of foreign words, that their dialect sometimes seems to be quite a different language. The simplicity of structure which the Malayu language possesses, in common with those of the monosyllabic class, greatly facilitates this adoption of foreign terms; and the practice is so prevalent in the more easterly isles, that the term Basa Timor, or the eastern language, is currently applied to every kind of jargon.

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

The Malay language, according to Marsden, whose opinion has been rather admitted than confirmed by Sir W. Jones, is "a branch or dialect of the widely extended language, prevailing throughout the islands of the Archipelago, to which it gives name, (which may be understood to comprehend the Sunda, Pbilippine, and Mohucca islands) and those of the South Sea; comprehending, between Madagascar on the one hand, and Easter Istand on the other, both incluise, the space of full 200 degrees of longitude. 'This consideration alone," adds that able author, " is sufficient to give it claim to the highest degree of anticuity, and to originality, as far as that term call be applicel. The varions dialects of this speech, thongti they have a wonderful accordance in man! cssential properties, have experienced those chatges whict separation, time, and accident produce; and in respect to the purposes of intercourse, nay be clased into sevelal languages, differing consic.erally fiom each other *." In another paper, publi-he: in the Archocologia, vol. VI. this able author has successfully exhibited a variety of instances of coizcidence, both in sound and signifi-

[^49]cation, between the Maky and sereral of the eastern diulects. By attempting to prove too much, however, I apprehend, that he has failed essentially. He has pointed out a few coincidences, but has left the mass of the lamgage totally maccounted for ; and as the few coinciding worls may all have been derived from a common source, it is perlaps a more natural inference to conclude that they lave all been modified by some general language, than with Sir W. Jones, to determine that the parent of them all has been the Sanscrit. The same author, in his history of Sumatra, seems inclined to think that the Malay language was indigenous in the Malay peninsula, from which it extended itself among the eastern isles, till it became the lingua franca of that part of the globe. The author of the description of Siam, in the modern part of the Universal History, not only assigns a very difierent origin to the language, but accounts in a very different manner for its uncommon extent. Describing Malacea, he observes, "The Malayan tongne is formed out of the languages of the different nations which resort hither, by selecting the choicest words in each. Hence it is reckoned the nost agrecabie and elegant in all the Indies, which quality, joined to its use in trade, causes it to be learned by the remotest eastern people." A language, formed according to this ingenious idea of selection, might probauly be remarkably agreeable and elegant, but it would be still more remarkable, as a new phrenomenon in the history of nations. It would certainly be a very uncommon occurence in the history of mankind, to discover a mationso choice in matters of abstract sound, and so refined in their organs of hearing, as to take the tronble to learn a copious and unknown lanwuge, for he mere abstract pleasure of gratifying this delicate sense or appetite M 4

## 168

for sweet vocalic sounds. Nevertheless, though the author is a little unfortunate in his doctrine of causes, the fact to which he alludes is worthy of attention; for it is not necessary to possess a very minute knowlepdge of the Malayu language, to be ahle to call its originality in question. It may be safely affirmed, that neither the Malay lingua franca of commerce, nor any of the maritime dialects of Malayu existed previous to the era of Mahumaed, in a state similar to that in which they appear at present; and these dialects seem to comprehend all that are usually included under the denomination of the Malayu language.

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

The connection between the Sanscrit and Malayu was first remarked by Sir W. Jones, and Mr. Marsden has confirmed the fact, by about fifteen examples, selected, as he says, with little pains, from a Malay dictionary, which had he been acquainted with the Sanscrit language, he might with very little labour, have extended to fifteen hundred, or perhaps five thousand. Many of the Sanscrit words in the Malayu, as he observes, are such as the progress of civilization must soon have rendered necessary, being frequently expressive of mental feelings, or such modes of thinking as naturally result from the sncial habits of mankind, or from the evils which tend to interrupt them. Many of the names of the common objects of sensation are also of Sanscrit origin; nevertheless, the simplest part of the Malayu language, and that which is most indispensable to its existence
as a distinct tongue, is certainly not derived from the Sanscrit.

With respect to the connection between Arabic and Malayu, Marsden observes, that the latter language abounds with Arabic words, which writers affect to introduce, because this display of literary skill is, at the same time, a proof of their religious knowledge. He adds, that these words are generally legal or metaphysical terms, borrowed from the Koran or its commentaries, that they are never expressive of simple ideas, are rarely used in conversation, and, with few exceptions, scem never to have been thoroughly incorporated into the language. This account of the introduction of Arabic into Malayu is unexceptionably just, excepting with respect to the use of Arabic terms in conversation, which is affected by all Malays who have any pretensions to literature. The number of Aralic vocables too, that have been introduced into Malay compositions, though certainly inferior to those of Sanscrit origin, are considerably more numerous than might be supposed from this statement; or rather, as in Persic and Turki, it is difficult to assign any bounds to their introduction, but the pleasure of the writer. It may also be observed here, that in the Malayu language, Arabic plurals are very commonly used as singulars, as often happens in T'urk', and other dialects which admit of a mixture of Aralic. Marsden has mentioned another peculiarity, in which Arabic vocables, adopted by the Malayu, differ from adopted Sanscrit terms. While the Arubic words retain their peculiar and harsh pronunciation, those of Sanscrit origin are softened down, and assimilated with the rest of the language. This observation must likewise be taken withli many limitations; for numerous words, of Ara-
bic origin, are so completely assimilatel to the Miralayu pronunciation, that they are no ionger capable of beine recugnized, even by a native firab, unicess by atiention to their radicals; the ain and ghain, in particuiar, excepting in religious terms, are very gencraily converted into Alif and C'af, both in wrising and pronunciation. It is certain, however, that Aradic words are naturally untractable, and are apt to have a foreser appearance when assumed into any other language, in spice of all modifications. The Arabic is a language so complete in itself, and so peculiar in its structure, that it is as little capable of coalescing neatly with any other lauguge, as a curved line with a straight one.

Marsnex has likewise hazarded an opinion, that the polish, which the Malayu has derived from Sanscrit or Hinduri, lias been obtained immediately from the natives of Guserat, previous to the debasement of the genuine Hindua' of the northern prorinces, by the mixture of Arabic nouns, and the abuse of verbal auxiliaries. The resort of the people of Ciuzerat to Malacca, he adds, " is particularly noticed by De Barros and other authentic writers; and it is well known that the Ifinder language has been preserved with more purity in that, than in any other maritime province of India." To this, it is sufficient to answer, that the Saiscrit vocables, adopted in Msaluyu and Guzcrúti, are generally preserved purer in the former than in the latter; that the Guzeráti has no pretensions to be considered as a pure dialect of Hinduat, but an the contrary, is one of the very first that was corrupted by a misture of Arabic, and that long prior to the period mentioned by De Barkos. The Bengál language itself, corrupted in pronunciation, as it certainly is, might have
been more safely adopted, as the medium for the introduction of Sanscrit rocables into Malayu. Many Sanscrit words that are in current use in Bengáli, likewise occur in Matayu. with almost the very same pronunciation. Of this it is easy to produce a multitude of instances. The following are such as present themselves spontaneously :

Beng.
Malay.
Tothapi . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . Tatapi. . . . . . . . but, however.
Punah. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . Pún. . . . . . . . . farther, again.
Tıtkalé . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . Tıtkala . . . . . . then.
Bongsh . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . Bangsin . . . . . a raceorfamily.
Kichhu or Kichhi ............ Kichi ........ . a little.
Inggit, a sigral . . . . . . . . . . . . Ingat . . . . . . . notice, nsemory. Barnng, a gift, a thing, a quality. Barang-barang, any thing.

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

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

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

But after assigning the Arabic and Sanscrit vocables to their proper sources, a large proportion of words in the language will still remain unaccounted for; and these words too, expressive of the most simple class of our ideas, and the most remarkable objects in nature. This part of the language, which in comparison of the rest, may be termed native or original, Marsden attributes to what he reckons the original insular language of the South Seas; and this original language, again Sir W. Jo enes pronounces a derivative from the Sanscrit. That it is not Sanscrit, a very slender knowledge of the two languages is sufficient to evince; and if this original part should itself turn out to be derived, as I apprehend, from different'sources, the idea of an origimal insular language will fall to the ground. Now there are a variety of reasons for supposing that this part of the Malayu language, which might be imagined the most. simple and original, is in reality, more corrupted and mixed; than those parts which are confessedly derived from a foreign source. Several of the Malayiz terms, which express the most simple and remarkable objects in nature, appear to be only gross auricular corruptions of true regular terms in the more ancient eastern languages, as Jazwa, Bágis, T"hay, and Barma; and many of the simplest oljects are not distinguished in Malaya by simple words, but by compound metaphorical and significant terms. The omission of the first syllable, in words derived from a foreigi language, whether ancient or modern, is a frequent practice in the Malayı language: thus the Sanscrit Avatara becomes Bitara, and thus rumbillum, the moon, in Javanese, becomes Búlun in Maluyu-and Möputi, which signifies whitc, in Buggis, becomes puti?
in Malayu. Again the metaphorical term mata-hari, which literally signifies the eye of day, is the only native term for the sun: though Chinkerwala, a corruption of the Bali term Chahrateala, has been adopted in the higher dialect, or poetical style, termed the Basa Dalam. The Malay term tuhin which signifies the aged, is used as synonymous with Allaht'aala, which they have adupted from the Arabic. A number of 'I'hay vocables occur in Malayu; but, for the most part, they are neither expressive of our simplest ideas, nor of the most remarkable objects in nature, excepting perhaps liu, the contracterl term of Aku, I, in Malayn, which is the same in T"hay or Siamese. A variety, however, of important words seem to have been adopted from the Barma language, especially in the verbal atexiliaries; and in most of these instances, jt may be observed, that the Malayu pronounciation coincides better with that of Tavay, or Timnau, than with that of the Barmas proper. Thus the substantive verbal auxiliary of the present, adda, seems to be only a modification of the more simple da or dé of the Barma language. The past suda of the Barma syi $d e ́$, the auxiliary of the future jadi of the Barma rade, pronounced yu-dé or ja-dé, máw, will or may, is a modification of the Barma Mi, or minh', and the permissive auxiliary léh of the Barmale. Of the connection of the Malayu with any of the spoken dialects of China, it is more difficult to speak with accuracy, in the present state of our knowledge. Barrow, and some other authors of reputation, are inclined to attribute the origin of the Malay tribes to the nations of China; and that author observes, that many words, in the languages of Sumatra, are similar in sound to Chinese vocables; and that the corresponding words generally express the same idea in both languages. Of the value of this opinion it is not easy to speak in correct terms, for the proper Chinese languages, are
at least ten in number, and the dialects of Sumatra, vary almost as much, on a senall scale, as the dialects of the Chinese; and to jumble torether a mumber of corresponding words in all those dialects, may therefore be no very difficult task. Some coincidences there certainly are, between the Malayu and the Chinese-Mandarin language ; thus in the first personal pronoun, saya and giea, which both signify $I$ in Mabayu, very nearly coincide with the Chinese seaó and ngo, which have the same sirnification; but, on the whole, these coincidences seem neither very numerous nor important.

The Malayw language is extremely well fitted for being a Lingua Franca; or general medium of communication among the eastern isles, by the smoothness and sweetness of its tone, and the simplicity of its structure and construction. Its simple pronouns indicate rank and situation, and are almost as numerous as in Chinese; but the different dialects of the - Malayu vary considerably, both in the use of the promouns and of the verbal auxiliaries. It may also be obseived, that the more mixed and impure any dialect of Malayu is, it is more verbose, more indefinite in its expressions, and more loaded with useless auxiliaries and epithets, which encumber the language, without adding either elegance, force, or dignity. The beauty and elegance of the Malayle is its simplicity; and the purity of its minor dialects may often be ascertained by this criterion alone.

The literature of the Malays, though the language is well adapted for poetry, is not distinguished by many features of originality. A degree of monotony and repetition occurs in ali the compositions of the monosyllabic languages, which has a great tendency

## 176 ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

to damp the ardour of compesition, and extinguish poetical fire. The construction of the Malay is analogous to that of the monosyllabic languages, and there is also considerable similarity in the character of its compositions. The most favourite species of composition among the Malays, is the Pantún, a word which is generally translated song, but which perhaps might with more propriety be rendered simile or prozerb, as it consists of a simile, proverb, or apophthegm versified, and its application. A Pantún is a rhyming quatrain, and is always restricted to four lines; hence it affects a kind of oracular brevity, which is very difficult to be comprehended by Europeans, who can seldnm perceive any connection between the similitude and the application. The $M a-$ lays allege, that the application of the image, maxim, or similitude, is always accurate ; but it may be suspected that if one half of the verse be for the sense, it often happens that the other is only for the rhyme, as in the ancient Welsh triads or triplets, in which there is professedly no connection between the natural image and the moral maxim. These Pantúns the Malays often recite, in alternate contest, for several hours; the preceding Pantím always furnishing the catch-word to that which follows, until one of the parties be silenced or vanquished, or as the Malays express it, be dead, suda mati. Many of these Pantíns bear no inconsiderable resemblances to the Dohras and Kubitás in the ancient Hinduvi and Vruja dialects of Hindostan.

The Sáyer is another species of composition, which is analogous to the Persic Musnevi. Moral poenıs, resembling the Pundnaméhs of the Persians, didactic works, or descriptive compositions and legendary or heroic narratives, are composed in this measure. The

Cheritra or Hikaiat, also denominated Chitra and Kuggazin, from the Javanese, is more generally written in prose, but frequently intermixed with verse, both in the measures of the Sáyer and Pantún. These Cheritras contain the mythological stories current among the Malay tribes, and also fragments of their history, embellished in a poetical manner. The three great sources of all the Malay legends are the Jaoanese, Keling and Arabic languages, but in the compositions of latter date, the characters and incidents are so mixed, that it is not always easy to determine to which of these sources they ought to be referred. There is also one class of stories which the learned Malays term Susupún, I imagine from an ancient dynasty of Javanese princes to whom they relate. Some of these legends also coincide in the general story with those of the Siamese, as the Malay Selimbari with the Siamese Khúnphen; and the Hikaiat Shah Murdan with the Siamese Lin-tông. When characters familiar in Sanscrit mythology are introduced into the Malay legends, their adventures are generally transferred by the Malays to the interior of Java; and even Arabian characters are often represented as performing their adventures in the Malay countries.Many of these narratives exist both in prose and verse, and of several there seem to be two editions; one derived immediately from the Javanese language, and which commonly contains a considerable number of Javanse vocables; the other from the Keling, which often contains a certain proportion of words more immediately derived from the Sanscrit and Telinga.

Of this latter class are probably the narratives termed Hikaiat Pindawa, or Pandu stories, which
seem popular versions, or rather abridgements, of the different parts of the Mahabliárata; some of which, in reality, give the outline of the story, as faithfully as the popular abridgements of it, which I have perused in Mahráta, Tamul or Telinga. I am only acquainted with the following Malay Hi kaiats of this class: Pindawa Lima, the story of the five Pandús; Pindaza Jaya, the victory of the Pandist; Pindawa Berjuddi, the gaming of the Pandús; Pindarea Pinjam balí, the Pandís borrowing a $P a$ lace; Pindawa berjewal kapur, the Pandis selling lime. The Hikiaiat Maha Raja Buma of Purichu Nikassan, or account of the contest between Brahma and Vishnu, professes to be translated from the Keling of the dramatist Mungakarta Niga'ra. The Sal-Sipundia, or history of a Keling Rajai, is probably derived from the same source. The Hikaiat Sri Rama is reckoned a Susipun story, as are the Kusoma Indra or history of Indra, the Balinta Sena, the Sah Kobut, or history of the war with the Apes, the Rajah uilar Ninggawong, the Hikaiat Bida Sari, the Hikaiat Raja Pikermadi or Vicramaditya Cheritra, the Hikaiat Derma Rajah, and the Hikaiat Kalil o Danina or Malay version of the Kalil o Dumna.

The following are Javanese relations, the Hikaiat Cliikhil Wumnungputti Rajah of Kirripín, in the interior of Java, the Hikuiat Jarana Tamasa, or the love of adventures of a chieftain of Minjapahit, in Java, composed by Andika, the Kilána Perbujaya Cheritra, or story of a prince of Kirripin, the Misa Perbujaya Cheritra, the Misa Kiamong Cheritra, or history of a Princess of Daha, in Java, carried off by Tinu'ngu'ng Bapang Chagar Bima, and rescued by

Brtara Kala; the Jaran Kilinang Cheritra; the Ratu Bader Kisna Cheritra; the Panga Witin, or history of Inu Kurtaputti; the Gambar WiraPutra; the Gambar Sri Ratu Anám-Ani Malayu, or history of Gaprbar Sri, Princess of Daha and Raja Anv'm of Malaya; the Naga Bisaru, or history of a Princess of Daha, who was transformed into a suake, and confined in a lake, the Putti Kola Bismo or history of Vishnu, the Kinta-Buhin, or history of a chief of Banjarkulin in Java, the Kilana Jayang. Sittrue, or history, of Radin Jaran Tinangeu, the Angling Dermavi Raja-Cheritra, and the Hikaiat Parang Púting, or history of the hatchet without the hatidle. To the same source are probably to be referred the following, if they are not purely of Malay composition; the Hikaiat Pelandilik Jinaka, or history of the sagacious hogdeer. The Hikaiat Búríng Pinggey, or history of a wonderful bird.The Deva Mandú Cheritra, the Sayer Srí Batin, the Hikaiat Bian and the Hikaiat Rajah Boodảk.

The following are modifications of Arabic narratives, accommodated, however, to the peculiarities of the Malayu manners and customs. The Hikaiat Aniir Humada. The Hikaiat Rajah Kheiber, the chief of the Jeweish tribe of Kheiber in Arabia. The Hikaiat Rajah Hinduk, the Hikaiat Mahummed Hanifah, the Hikaiat Khajeh Maimún, the Hikait Eblis, the Hikaiat Rajah Shah Murdan, the Hikaiat Sultan Ibra-him-ibn-Adhem, the Hikaiat Sekunder Dulkharneini. The Koran is also translated into Malayu in the same paraphrastic manner as into Persic.

There are many Malayu compositions of a historical nature, though they are not so common as the
classes that have been enumerated: such as the $H i-$ kaiat Rajah-bangsu, which I have not seen, but which has been described to me as a genealogical history of the Maluy Rajahs. The Hikaiat Malaka, which relates the founding of that city by a Javanese adventurer, the arrival of the Portuguese and the combats of the Malays, with Albuquerque and the other Portuguese commanders. The Hikaiat Pitra-jaya-Putti, or history of an ancient Rajah of Malacca, the Hikaiat Achi, or history of Achi or Achin in Sumatra and the Hikciut Hung-Tuha, or the adventures of a Malay chief during the reign of the last Rajah of Malacca, and the account of a Malay embassy sent to Mekika and Constantimople, to request assistance against the Portuguese. Such historical narratives are extremely numerous; indeed there is reason to believe that there is one of every state or tribe; and though occasionally embellished by fiction, it is only from them that we can obtain any outline of the Malay history, and of the progress of the nation. The juridical customs or traditions of the Malays have likewise been collected into codes of different antiquity and authority. Among those of the greatest authority are the Undang Undang, and the Addat Malayu. The most ancient of these regulations, however, appear to have been adopted from the Jaranese and Bugis. Particular states have at different periods composed peculiar regulations; as the Addát Kiddeh, which were compiled by Rajah Shai Alum, in An. Heg. 1151.

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

The following specimens of the Malayu Pantún and Sayer will exhibit the measure of the verse and the style of the composition. The first Pantion is a challenge to engage in a poetical contest. The rest exhibit the peculiar inages introduced, and the manner of presenting them in the Pantún.

```
Tuan bulu, saya tumiang
Marileh kita berkiler taji
Tuan sapulu, saya súmbilan
Marileh kita bersindír nyani.
You are a bamboo and I am but a slender twig;
Yet come on, let us sharpen our weapons :
You are as ten, and I ans only as nine;
Yet come, let us contend in ironical versé.
Boah dilama ber pangsu pangsu
Samajuga bijinya merah
Jangan tuan berpilis bangsu
Samajuga daranya merah.
The pomegranate has many partitions,
But the seed is equally red in them all:
Do not give an undue preference to a race of men,
For the blood is equally red in them all.
Boah mamplum deri Patani
Mạasa sabiji de kulum rúsa
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## $18 \%$

ON THE LANGUAGESAND LITEMATURE
Tuan Islam saya Nasrahi,
Sama sama`mananguing dụ́sa.
Of all the Mangoes of Patani
A ripe Qne is but a mouthful to a stag ;
You are a Moslem and I am a Christian,
But we must equally bear our own faults.
Eatang padi jangan de rúrút
Kalu de rúrút rúsa batangnya
Hatí mucia jangan de túrút
b!e: Kalu de túrútrusa badinga.
f. $\quad$ Shal Shat the rice stalk,

If you shake it the stalk fis ruined:
Do not yield to, youthful incliration,
If you yield your person is ruined.
Siri kúning deri Patani
Pinang muda deri Maláka.
Puti kúuing ana'k Nasrani
Itu membawa badin chilaka.
The yellow betel leaf of Patani,
The fresh betel-nut of Malacca,
A white yellow christian dantsely
Bring a person to total ruin.
The following passage of the Sélimbari is given as a specimen of the Sayer verse, in which the Malay romances and moral poems are generally composed. In both measure and style they exhibit considerable resemblance to the ancient Enghish and French romances; there is little variety of pause or accent, and the line consists indifferently of eight or nine syllables, one long syllable being reckoned equivalent to two short.

Tutkala tuan lunkah de natang
Mata mamandang sepúrti bintang
Chahianya limpah gilang gumilang
Teadaléh abang dapat mamandang
Pipinya bagei paü de lalang
Bersambút dangan lehernya jinjang
Paras sepúrti gumbar dan wayang
Barang de makan berbayang bayang
Dahinya bagei sahari búlun
Kinningnya bintúh bagei detillang
Lalu, de ambil jadikan túlun
Mamạki chiuchin permata Sélun
Changgeynya panjang ber kílat kílat
Sepùrti. mutiara suda tericat
Pingganguya ramping terlalu chantík
Leher laksana gumbar delarik.
Mungluarkan kata yang patáh chirdik
Bibirnya bagei patey chicharik
Teada mamáki laku ber saja
Giginya itam bukkus, ber baja
Chartik moillik gilang de Raja
Bersúnting kútum búņga Seraja,
Parasnya elók búkun kapalang
Intahkan jiwa garangan hilang
Kapada mata suda terpandang
Teqdaléh dapat kumbali pulang.
When my mistress looks forth from her window,
Her eye sparkling like a star,
Its brilliant rays glancing and glittering
Her elder brother cannot support its lustre;
Like the red mangoe is the hue of her cheek,
Becoming her tapering nec $\grave{n}$,
Traversèd with shadows whenever she swallows:
Her features like those of a statue or scenic figure,
Her forehead like the new moon in its first day,

Her eye-brows curved, so fair I could devour her,
Long has she been chosen to be iny mistress.
Wearing a ring set with gents of Ceylon,
Her long nails shining like lightning,
Transparent as a string of pearls,
Her waist slender and extremely elegant,
Her neck turned like a polished statue,
Eloquent in the enunciation of her words,
Her parting lips like the crimson red wood
Not by dress, but by herself adorned ;
Black are her teeth stained with baja powder,
Graceful, slender, appearing like a queen,
Her locks adorned with the Seraja flowers,
Her features beautiful with no defect of symmetry,
My soul is often fluttering ready to depart,
Glancing eagerly forth from my eyes,
And quite unable to return to its station.
The character generally used by the Malays, is a modification of the Arabic; and, in addition to the proper Arabic alphabet, the Malayu uses six letters, of which one is the Persic ché, a second the slurred dal, of the Hindostani, two more correspond in power to the Persic and Hindostani pa and ga, but art written of a different form, and the remaining two, nga and nya, are peculiar in form, but correspond to the nasals of the first and second series of the Deva-Nagari alphabet. The Malays of Java, however, often use the Javanese character, to express their own language, as those of Celebes do the Búgis. In the Moluccas, the Latin character has obtained some degree of currency, even among the Malays, and is sometimes used by them to express the Malayu language.

The Malayu language was one of the first cultivated in the east by Europeans. The first attempt to form a grammar or dictionary of it, as far as I know, was
made by David Haex, who published in Malayu and Dutch, a vocabulary with some grammatical observations. At the request of Cardinal Barberini, the Dutch was rendered into Latin, and published with the Propaganda types at Rome, 1631, under the title of "Dictionarium Malaico-Latinum et Latino-Malaicum, operâ et studio Davidis Haex." This is a work of some merit, but seems to have been composed in the Moluccas, and inclines to the Basa Timor, or eastern dialect of the Malayu. The author has given a short list of Tarnata and Portuguese words, that have been adopted into Mulayu, and some useful observations on the phraseology. Professor Thun berg, probably by mistake, mentions this work as published in 1707. It seems to have served among the Dutch, as a basis for similar compilations. The "Malaica Collectanea Vocabularia,". or collection of vocabularies, was printed at Batavia in 1707-8, in 2 vols. 4to. and the "Dictionarium of te Woord ende Spraak bock in de Dutsche en de Maleysche Tale," at the same place in 1708, in 4to. 1 "Maleische Spraak-kunst", or Malay Grammar, was published by George Hendric Werndly, at Amsterdam, in 1726, 8vo. A" Nieuwe Woordenschaft in NederDuitsch, Madeisch en Portugeesch, was also published at Batavia in 8vo. 1780. The English have also contributed their share to the cultivation of this language. Bowrey's Grammar and Dictionary of the Malay lans guage were published at London in 1701, in 4to. after the author had passed nineteen years in trading among the eastern isles. This is a work of great merit and labour, and though the English character only is used, yet the pronunciation and the siguification of words are generally given with great accuracy. Bowrey, however, had the assistance of the two eminent orientalists, Hyde and Marshall, in its composition,
both of whom were excellently skilled, in the language. In 1801 was puhished at London, ${ }^{\text {g }}$ " A Dictionary of the Mulays tongue, to whioh is prefixed, a Grammar of that language, by James Howison, M. D." The author founds his clams on a ter years acquaintance with the Malays, and their language. From the scarcity of Dowrex's work, 1 have not been able to compare it with the publication of Dr. Hownson, but I suspect the additions of, the latter to be neither numerous nor important. One improvement he has attempted, and it is the following. "In giving. the Malay words in the Arabic character," says he, "we have followed the excellent example of Richardson and Gifchrist in their Persian and Hindoostance Dictionaries, and it is, in fact, the chat racter used by the Maloys themselves." But had Dr. Hawison been acquainted with the Malay orthography, he would have perceived that this barbarous mode of converting the English character into the Persic, could be of no possible utility, either to an European, or an Asiatic. The Malayu has an established orthography, like the Arabic, Persic, and Hindostani; and this established orthography of Malay MSS. :he has violated, repeatedly, in every page, not only by spelling the Malay words in: a mode never used among the Malays themselves, but by amitting all their peculiar characters, and by using some Persic characters, as $p a$ and ga, with which the Malays are unacquainted altogether. "A shout Vocabulary, Einglish and Malayo, with grammar rules for the attainment of the Malayo language," was published at Calcutta in 1798. The rules differ little from those which appear in How son s Grammar, prefixed to his Dictionary, and the yocabulary generally coincides with it in the explanation of words, which are not very numerous. Besides these
works which have been printed, many Vocabularies and Dictionaries exist in MSS. in Dutch, English and Portuguese, and of these several are in my possession. Reland, in his " Dissertatio de linguis Insularum Orientalium," mentions a large MS. Dictionary which he had consulied, composed by Leidekier, a. Dutch clergyman in Batricia, from which he has selected a specimen of the language. Several smaller Vocabularies 'ot' Malayu have been published, chiefly by voyagers and travellers, with various degrees of accuracy. Being generally constricted in a very hurried manner, by persons devoid of a radical knowledge of the language, and often, as may be presumed, under the necessity of expressing their questions by a mixture of signs, they generally abound in very ludicrous errors and risible mistakes. Of this kind, many instances might easily be selected from Labillardiere's Malay Vocabulary, nor is that published by Professor Thunberg, in his travels, entirely free from them. Besides they are generally mixed with a variety of lingua fianca, and other eastern words that are never received in correct Malayu.

The sacred scriptures, at an early period, began to be translated into the Malayz language. The gospels of Mattidew and Mark were first published in the Malayu language and Arabic character at Enchusa, in 1629, in 4to. according to the version of Alb. Corn. Ruyl, and accompanied with the Dutch version. A second edition was published at Amsterdam in 1638. The gospels of Luke and John were published at Amsterdam, in 1646, according to the version of Johe Van Hasel and Just. Heurn; in 1648; published ":Psalmi quinquaginta priores, Malaicé et Belgicé." The four gospels were republished, more
correctly, with a version of the Acts of the Apustles, by Just. Heurn, at Amsterdam, in 4to. 1651. Genesis was published in Malay, at Amsterdam, in 1662, according to the version of Dan. Brouwer, and the New Testament, by the same author, in 1668. A second edition of Genesis was published in 1687. The four Evangelists and the Acts of the Apostles were published "in the Malayan tongue," at Orford, in 1677, in 4to. and reprinted in 1704 . Both editions are in the Roman character, and thongh Heurs's version was followed, yet the first edition had the arlvantage of being superintended by the learned Hyde, who has prefixed to it, a dissertation on the dialects of the Malay, and the method to be employed in studying the language. The Psalms, or "Psalterium lingua Malaica et Belgica," was published by Van. Hasel and Heurn at Amsterdam in 1689. The "Psalterium Malaice" was published at Amsterdam in 1735, with musical notes. A complete version of the Bible was published at Amsterdam, in Roman characters, in 1753, and this version was again published in the Arabic character, with the addition of the Malay peculiar letters, at Batavia, in 5 vols. 8 vo. 1758 , under the direction of $\mathrm{J}_{\mathrm{Acob}}$ Mossfil, Governor General of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies. The persons who superintended the edition were Johan. Mauritz Mohr, and Herm., Petrus Van de Werth. A Mulay catechism was also composed by Gustavus William Baron Van Imhorf, and printed at Batavia in 1746. This version of the Bible, is composed in the idiom of Batavia and Malacca, and I have heard it objected, that it is not very intelligible in Sumatra, and other Malay countries; but I regard it as quite impossible to form a Malayu version which would be approved in point of style, in every Malay country at the same time,
for so great is the diversity in point of style between the Juranese-Malayu and the Arabic-Malayu, that even in the same country, those who are proficients in the one, are often scarcely able to understand the other.
II. Jawa. - The Jawa, or Jaranese language, is admitted by the Malays to be that of a more ancient nation than themselves, and at no very distant period seems to have been current through the whole extent of Jacua. The island of Java was formerly subject to a single sovereign, bearing the title of Ratu Agong or Susurunang, of the Susupini race, who generally held his court at Kirripin or Suryakarta. The nation was brave, enterprising and populous, and before the introduction of the Mahummedan religion, about the year A. C. 1400, their power was supreme in the eastern seas, and they extended their conquests to Sumatra, Borneo, aud even as far as the Moluccas. Their voyages often rivalled the celebrated Argonautic expedition in the spirit of adventure. They became known to Europeans only in the decline of their power ; yet it was still so formidable as repeatedly to shake the authority of the Portuguese in Malaca itself; and one of the dependent princes of Jaza was able to fit ont a fleet of thirty large vessels, the admiral of which was so strongly built, as to be reckoned, at that period, cannon-proof. The Jatea language is subdivided into a great number of dialects, all of which may be respectively classed under the heads of Basa-dalam and Basa-liaur, the interior or high language, and the exterior or vulgar language of the coasts. Both of these differ considerably fiom the Malayu, which has adopted a multitude of terms from the Busa-liar Jawa or coast language of Jawa, compared even witli which the Malayulan-
guage appears to be a corrupt derivative. The language of the interior, however, or the Basa-dalam Jawa; has a close and intimate connection with Sanscrit, and expresses the simplest objects and ideas by vocables which seem to differ no farther from the Sanscrit than in the correct pronunciation necessarily produced by the use of a less perfect alphabet. The only Javanese that I have met, who could speak the Basa-dalam Jaza, was not able to write the character; yet I perceived, in forming a short radical vocabulary, that he used many Sanscrit words for common objects, which are not in any dialect of Malayu.

The alphabet of Jatea, is peculiar, and has no resemblance in the order of position to the Deva nagari. The number of characters are twenty, and these are varied by four vowels, e, $i, u$, $o$, but the real number of vocalic sounds is considerably greater. The Javanese character is written from right to left. The alphabet has been exhibited with considerable accuracy by:Le Brun, and also by Reland; and it appears to have attracted the attention of the learned Hyde, as an "Alphabetum Bantamense" was found among'st his Posthumous papers, which had been written for him by the Ambassador of the king of Bantam.

Various ancient inscriptions and monuments are said to exist in the interior of Java, one of which was seen by Thunberg, at Paditúlis, near the blue mountains in the interior of the island, which consisted of eight lines and a half, engraved on a stone pillar, about two feet in breadth. The characters seemed, to him, to be written from right to left, and no person had been able to decypher them.

The dialects of Bugelen and Súndo, in Jaca, are said to be very distinct from the Jarancse proper; and, from the first of them, the language of Súlu is supposed to be derived. This point, however, I have not been able to investigate in a satisfactory manner.

The literature of the Javanese is similar to that of the Malays, to which it seems to have given origin. Their Kuggawins or Cheritras, contain their my thology, and the adventures of their ancient hernes, and exhibit them in a style which has no inconsiderable resemblanee to that of the Hindu Purion'as. The Javanese laws are arranged in codes of considerable antiquity, and celebrated among all the eastern islands.

The Jatell or Javanese language does not appear to have been regularly cultivated by Europeans, though some of the outlines of their mythological stories liave been published in the transactions of the Asiatic Society in Batacia, as well as some vocabularies of the Jawa language. In the Dutch work, entitled "Begin ens roortgang du Oostind Compan." or the rise and progress of the East India company, a comparative view is exhibited of the Javanese and Malayr languages. The MFahummedans have translated the Koran into Jatanese.

The Bali and Madura languages, spoken by the inhabitants of the isles of the same name, appear from the best information I could procure, to be dialects of Javanese. The greater part of the inhabitants profess the ancient religion of their ancestors, resemble the Hindus in their appearance, wear the Hindu marks on their foreliead, and the women burn themselves with their deceased husbands, .according
to the practice of the Hindus. Like the unconverted Javanese, they are peculiarly addicted to the worship of Indra, Surya and Vishnu; but being neither in posseession of their original religious books, nor of the extracts from them which have been adduced in the Transactions of the Batavian Society, I forbear to dilate on this subject at present.
III. Bu'cís. - The Búgis may be reckoned the original language of the island Celebes, in the same manner as the Javanese is that of the island of Java. This ancient, brave, and martial nation, also, became known to the Europeans only in their decline, but there are a variety of circumstances, relative to them, which incline me to regard them as probably more ancient, in the eastern seas, than even the Javancse. -In courage, enterprize, fidelity, and even fair dealing in commerce, they are placed at the head of all the orang timor, or eastern men, even by the testimony of the Malays and Jarancse themselves, and to compare to them, either the Chinese, or the continental Indo-Chinese nations, were to compare an ass, caparisoned in stiff and gilded trappings, to a gencrous courser. The nation, to which the Búgis exhibit the greatest resemblance, is the Japanese, but I have not been able to discover that the same similarity exists between their respective languages, which appears in their natural characters.

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

The Búgis language, on the coasts, is much mixed with the eastern Midayu, and is found pure only in the ancient bools, and in the interior of Celebes. It exhibits strong features of originality in its vocables, but resembles the Malayu and Tägála in its construction. With Malayu, Javanese and Tŭgalú it exhibits many coincidences, butit contains, in its original state, almost no words of Sanscrit origin. With the ancient Tarnata, or Molucca language, it also exhibits some coincidences, but as I have had no favourable opportunity of studying the Bug's, and none at all of examining the Tarnata, with any degree of aceuracy, I cannot pretend to determine the nature of this comection. Com. pared with the Malayz or Javonese, it has certainly more the air of an original than of a derivative tongue.

The Bugis alphabet consists of twenty-two letters, which are varied by the six rocalic sounds $a, u$, $i, e$, o, ung. The form of the character is peculiar; though it appears to belong to the same class as the Batta: and Tăgalá. The power of the characters coincides nearly with that of the Javanese letters, though they differ a little both in number and in the

## 194 ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

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

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

The Búgis la guage has never been regularly cultivated by Europeans, though the Dutch have formed abridgements of some of the historical relations inwhich it abounds. I have formed a short radical vocabulary of both the Búg's and Mungkásar, but cannot consider it as pure and unmixed, being de.
rived from inhabitants of the coast, though some of them were very intelligent, and tinctured with their peculiar learning. From the same source I obtained the following list of the most popular Bug's compositions:

1. Nama Sagúni,
2. Batára Guru,
3. Guru De Sillang,
4. Tojorisúmpa,
5. Lasini Léeléh,
6. Batára Latoh,
7. Oputolaga,
8. Araulangi,
9. Panori Tawgéil,
10. Lajiri-hoi,
11. Jamuri China,
12. Laurupoysi,
13. Rotun Nari-Tatta, Datu Nagima,
14. Lamaputoda-Turipo,
15. Latum Mullurung,
16. Lauhdun-Reö,
17. Lapa Bichara Lari Sindénaré,
18. Gutupatalotopalaguna,
19. Lappang Ngarisang,
20. Opu-Sangmuda,
21. Opula-Maru-Datu-na-Sopéng,
22. Látu-gétána Paju Limpoy,
23. Sawira Gading,
24. Adewata,
25. Rotun Dilíwung,
26. Data Pamúsu,
27. Lanaga Ladúng,
28. Rotun-risosú,
29. Laga-ligo,
30. Tobala Onji,
31. Radaöng Labeh,
32. Lamada Romang,
33. Palawago,
34. Lawaju-Langi,
35. Lamapa-puli,
36. Datu-Mowunléh,
37. Lalúmpang Méga,
38. Lasawúng-Langi,
39. Rotan di Papang,
40. Aji Lédél,
41. Lamapang Aniro,
42. Latan-nari-jivi,
43. Bayapágúli,
44. Latupu Sallau,
45. Latúpúgulla,
46. Latan nari Pulang,
47. Satya-bonga,
48. Lasatúng-pugé,
49. Laga-lego Tokolinghénǵa
50. Latan naroági,
51. Datula-Kila,
52. Lapanadora,
53. Rotan di timang toan lauriú.

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

O 2

The Bugis songs and romances are famous among afl the islands of the East; and, as far as I can judge, from a very limited knowledge of them, equally excel, in force of thought and fluency of versification. The use of rhyme is much less frequent than among the Malays. The melody of the verse depends on the rhythm, and the measure, in the historical poems, has often corisiderabie similarity to some of the species of Sanscrit verse. The following lines are given as a specimen from the " $V$ 'épaléetei," the only Buigis story in my possession.
Narétélangi napapabaja natokúnruna Wépaléteè
Lalo saliwang pasisi aji rito matindro sésimpangi
Rittomapiddang sisulingi matdualua mua kakana
Wemapamaï natijinnuna lalu salíwang rútúpanimpa
Lakunatillum tirrimakulda Wullirijáwa to Sopengi
Jillokasawa kakapamai lúmpuna Chína tujua Sabang
Naranrukië Lajutenío sesumangutnah Passaüngé
Mabaliada wemapamaï richinaruna kuën muă
Megama katu tudangpaliuna linua samanna tuributili
Lolangungé turipasabí ujutanai tádillerlé
Muarinilí aülaün patalutuna lolangungé.
"In the morning twilight, when the day began to dawn, awaked Wépaléteï, and went out of the palace, stepping carefully over those who were sleeping in regular rows, and those who were reposing irregularly, where her elder brothers were sleeping two by two, and along with her went out Pamar, her nurse and attendant. Wullirijaifa of Sopéng, went forth, and having opened the beautifully, formed window, began to express her grief, "O! my elder sister Pamar, point out to me the situation of China (a district in Cclebes) and show me in what direction Sabang lies, where Passuiingé dwells, the brother of Lajú Tenió." Pamar answered, "see how beautifully, the floating clouds rest on the stately trees of

China, as if they had been arranged by art. How beautiful are the lawns, which seem as if the earth had of her own accord accommodated herself to the request of man. How graceful wave the trees, with their foliage to the view, and the golden bamboos which enclose the lawns."
The Bagis songs are very numerons. Some of them are short proverbial maxims versified, and display considerable force of both thought and language, but I have not met with any which exhibit the peculiar character of the Malayu Pantún. They however exhibit many traits of the peculiar manners of the Bugis tribes. In the following specimens, the first alludes to a very common mode of punishiing cowardice in Celebes, the second to the practice of poisoning weapons, and the last is a brief dialogue between a lover, going to battle, and his mistress, who presents him with her betel-box as a parting token.

## Tikkungi talaséí joa maliai

Tapasilasê̈l andraguru maliaii
Corripe militem segnem, castra,
Inno ducem timidum castrato.
Tillu ritumati balubalu rilleléang Ria paserakané lanru tojirru
Túmera ritirilébu dadi aju ta Sangala.
There are three articles exposed to sale
In the clash of combat-the temper of the lance--
The form of the bullet-and the gum of the poison tree of Sungals.
Eja rípalinrúng ajamu marakka silla
Rikoä birítta poli riálapi sía
Raja-Túmpa rikapêku muïnappa rínnawatíng-
-Tilla returona salina lopalopakis
Sapaluna rikko otáko tíndria pauwa
'Timmúnroz̈ parúparúng tíndria kampulajangrang:
O 3

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

Kérimi jangang riwaya bija jangang sundawa
Niamiunıé búngasa tinumbukkéya -
Bukki torija kontasilla púna innukké núrúntu
Tinumbukkéya bára éyapún nisillung.
Where is that courageous cock, that true game-cock, trained to combatFor here is his match, full of youthful spirit, yet unconquered -
Let him then enter the lists with me, if he would be conquered; Hitherto invincible, if I am ever conquered, it will be now-
IV. Bima.-The Bima language is used in the independent state of Bima, which includes the castern part of Sumburwa, and the western part of the island Endé, which was childishly denominated Flores, by the early Portugueze navigators; and, after them, by succeeding voyagers and geographers. If my information is correct, the Bima language extends over the greater part of the island Ende. The Bima language is related in some respects to Búgis and Javanese, and on the coast is mixed with Malayu; but nevertheless it has strong pretensions to originality in its pronouns, verbal auxiliaries, and simple names of
objects. In those instances, in which it exhibits a relation to the Bug's, it seems to be more closely connected with the Mungkásar than the Bugkis proper, and yet, in sentences, the difference is striking, as in the following example. "Where is the house of the Rajah:" Bikey liuassi rumata sangngaji. (Bima) Kéré tujuna embana liérayéng. (Mungk.) 'The sun, in Bima is termed Matu-liro; in Mungkásar, Matulo; in Búg's, Mataso. A man, in Malay, orang, is, in Mungkiísar and Brig's, tuii ; and in Bima, do. The rlialect of Sumbauca, which prevails in the districts of the island of that name, which are not subject to the Sultan of Bima, is of a more mixed character, and though it appears to contain many original vocables, yet the mass of the language seems derived from other sources, as Bima, Javanese and Búgis. Neither the Bima nor Sumbarea have any peculiar character, but use, indifferently, the Bug's or Malayu. I attempted to investigate the relations of both these languages, by forming comparative vocabularies of radical words; but not being able to procure any compositions in either of them, I do not flatter myself with having been able to obtain the purest native terms in every instance.

Specimen of the Bugis, Mungriasar, Bima and Sumbat゙a languages.

| I | $\int_{\text {Bugis. }}$ | Munghásar. | Bima. | Sumbawa. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\{\mathrm{ië}$ | inukké | nahu | úk, haji |
|  | Siyo | iyo | lamada | déya |
| we | ídi | ikaté | ita | kita |
| thou | mu | ikau | angomi | mu |
| you | iko | ikau-ngásing | gomi | kau |
| he | eä neä | yenjo | seä | iya |
| they | eämanúng | yangasing | do édé | jija taünan |
| this | iäé | уeïme | aké | ta |
| that | yero, yetu | anjoreng | eclé | to |

O 4

| who | Bugis. iga, niga | Mungtiésar. inai | Bima. choété | Suzblata <br> saí |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| what | aga | apa | all | komépo |
| where | pegi | kemi | beachi | mépo |
| when | siana | ungapana | buneeei | pidan |
| which | kéga | kerayéng | mabé | sangmépo |
| is | unka | nia | wara | adda |
| will | mélo | eroko | né | roa |
| call | makúléh | kúlégi | vau | bau |
| sun | mataso | matalo | mataliro | matahari |
| moon | ulúng | búlun | wúra | bùlun |
| star | vit6ing, | bintoéng | tara | bintang |
| wind | anging | angi | angi | angin |
| rain | bosi | bosì | ura | újin |
| day | aso | alo | liro | ano |
| night | wunni | bungĭ | aimangadi | anopotang |
| morning | éle | beribasa | aimasidi | anosiop |
| evening | araweng | karvéng | aimumbiyang | anoravi |
| year | taúng | taung | bä | terǒ |
| earth | tana | bútta | dana | bumi |
| water | uwaï | jéné | oi | aik |
| sea | tasi | tamparang | moti | lét |
| river | salók | binanga | nanga | pungbŭrang |
| wave | bomba | bombang | balúmba | omak |
| sand | kasi | kasi | sarei | garsék |
| mountain | búlúk | monchong | doro | olat |
| fire | api | pépé | afi | api |
| stone | batú | batú | watû | batú |
| gold | ulawúng | bulayeng | másanganga | bulayéng |
| silver | saláka | saláka | saláka | saláka |
| salt | păjé | chéla | síya | síra |
| iron | bissi | basi | besi | bosi |
| lead | túmera | túmbéra | tumbinga | tima |
| brass | túmbaga | túmbaga | romba | tomaga |
| white | maputi | kébok | lanta | puti |


|  | Bugis. | Mnngkásar. | Bima. | Sumbawa. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| black | malôtong | leling | meë | písak |
| red | machillah | cja | kala | méra |
| yellow | maüni | kuni | moncha | kíming |
| green | monchombúloijow | awa | ijow |  |
| blue | magaü | gau | kolúbu | kolau |
| fish | balé | júku | londé | ampa |
| fowl | manu | jangang | janga | ayam |
| bird | manu-manu | jangang-jan- | nasi | piyo |
|  |  | gang |  |  |
| tiger | machang | machang | machan | machan |
| serpent | ula | ulara | sawa | ula |
| sheep | bembé | bembé | béė | badésa |

This specimen of a comparative vocabulary, will convey some idea of the actual state of these languages, and of the actual variety which subsists in the language of conversation, especially on the coasts and maritime districts. Many of the words which occur in one language, are also found in others, though generally with some difference of pronuciation, and sometimes in an oblique sense. Frequently too, besides the terms which I have selected, which are only those of current use, several other words of the same signification might be found within the compass of the language. Thus, instead of anging, wind, in the high Búgis, salarung occurs in this signification; and instead of salália, silver, bulémata occurs in the high Mumg kaísar dialect. In the same manner, the personal pronouns in Búgis terminate their plurals in manung, and in Mungkelsar in ngasing, both of which signify all. Thus, (Bug.) idimamung; (Mung,) ikuttengäsing, we all. (Búg.) ikomamung, (Mung.) ikainngásing, you all. (Búg.) cïmanung, (Mung.) yenjo yang-ngasing, they all. It is worthy of observation, that the Udia language spoken in Orissa, forms the plural of its personal pronouns by the addition of the particle manc,
or manang, like the Bugís. Thus, in Udia, umbhémane, tumbheman', sémané or émané, signify we, ye, they.
V. Barta.-The Batta language, which I regard as the most ancient language of Sumatra, is used by the Batta tribes, who chiefly occupy the centre of that island. The singularity of their manners, and in particular the horrid custom of anthropophagy, practised by a nation in other respects more cirilized than the Malays by whom they are surrounded, has attracted the attention of Europeans from the time of the earliest royagers to our own times, but no very satisfactory account has ever been given of them, as a nation. The best description of them is certainly given by Marsdes, in his history of Simatra, but eren that is very imperfect and superficial, and at variance, in some respects, with the information I received from individuals of the nation. Marsden confines their cannibalism to two cases; that of persons condemned for crimes, and that of prisoners of war; but they themselves declare, that they frequently eat their own relations, when aged and infirm, and that, not so much to gratify their appetite, as to perform a pious ceremony. Thus, when a man becomes infirm and weary of the world, he is said to invite his own children to eat him, in the season when salt and limes are cheapest. He then ascends a tree, round which his friends aud offspring assemble, and as they slake the tree, join in a funeral dirge, the import of which is, "The season is come, the fruit is ripe, and it must descend." The victim descends, and those that are nearest and dearest to him, leprive him of life, and devour his remains in a solemn banquet. This account is certainly more likely to excite incredulity than the account of Marsdens, but it is the account of some of the Battas themselves, as well as that of the Malays in their vicinity. This inhuman custom is not, however, without a precedent in history, for He-
nodotes positively asserts, that the $P$ aday or Padaioi, about 500 years before our ara, were not only addicted to the cating of raw flesh, hut accustomed to kill and eat their relations when they grew old. Now it is curious that Batta or Batay, for the name is written both ways, seems to be the rery word which, in Greek, is rendered Padaioi, the letter $p$ being almost always pronounced $b$ among several of the Indo-Chinese nations, as in the word $P$ ali, which is almost always pronounced Bati. The following is the account which Herodotus gives us of the Paday, or Padaioi. "Another Indian nation, who dwell to the eastward of these, (the Indian Ichthyophagi) are of nomadic habits, and eat raw flesh. They are called Paday, and are said to practise such customs as the following. Whoever of the community, be it man or woman, happens to fall sick, his most familiar friends, if it is a man, kill him: saying; that by his pining in sickness, his flesh will be spoiled for them; and though he deny that he is sick, they do not attend to him, but put him to death, and feast on him. When a woman falls sick, she is treated in like manner by her most intimate female associates. They also sacrifice and feast on him who arrives at old age, aind this is the reason that so few of them ever attain it, for they kill every one who falls sick, before that period." * This account of Heromotus certainly corresponds very minutely with the customs attributed to the Batta race, and renders it probable that this modern nation derive their origin from the ancient Paday or Batay. Neither is it more incredible that the Battas should eat human flesh as a religious ceremony, than that anthropophagy should be practised by the class of mendicants termed Agórah Punt'h, in

[^50]204 ON THE LANGUAGES AN゙D IITERATURE
Bengal, and other parts of Indin, which is a fact that cannot easily be called in question. It is surprizing that this singular custom has receised so little investigation.

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

1. Batta Sebalúngú,
2. Batta Padembanin,
3. Batta Kwalu,
4. Batta Pamay,
5. Batta Tortr,
6. Batta Bila,
7. Batta Kurulaing,
s. Batta Sipagabu,

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

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

The Batta language has been cultivated by writing, fiom the earliest times, and numerous books are said to exist in it. I have only been able, however, to procure the names of the following-

| 1. Siva Marangaja, | 3. Raja Isiri, |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2. Siva-Jarang--Mundopa, | 4. Malamdeva. |

The Batta alphabet is peculiar, both in the form of its characters, and in the order of their arrangement. It consists of nineteen letters, each of which is variable by six vocalic sounds like the Búgis. In the power of the letters, it nearly corresponds with the Bugis and Javanese alphabets, the difference between all these being extremely trifling, consisting solely in

## QO6 ON THE IANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

one of them expressing two cognate sounds by one character, or adding a new character, or the modification of a character, to express a double consonant of frequent recurrence. But the Batta character has another peculiarity; it is written neither from right to left, nor from left to right, nor from top to bottom, but, in a manner directly opposite to that of the Chinese, from the bottom to the top of the line, as the Mericuns are said to have arranged their hieroglyphics. The material for writing is a bamboo, or the branch of a tree, and the instrument for writing the point of a kris, consequently their native forests always furnish them with materials in abundance, and instead of our pages and volumes, they have their bamboos and literary faggots. Marsden has given a tolerably correct Batta alphabet, in his history of Sumatra, but instead of placing the characters in a perpendicular line, he has arranged them horizontally, which conveys an erroneous idea of their natural form. The Battas, sometimes, read their bamboos horizontally instead of perpendicularly, as the Chinese and Japanese do their books, but the Chinese consider the correct mode of reading to be from the top to the bottom of the page, and the Battas from the bottom to the top. The lines at the top of a Chinese page are always regular, and if a line terminates in the middle of the page, the blank space is towarls the bottom; now the Battas sometimes write on growing trees; and in this case, if a blank space occurs, it is towards the top of the division, a circumstance which determines what they consider as the natural position of their characters. The Batta characters, when arranged in their proper position, have considerable analogy to the Bugis and T'ágála. The Lampúng and Räjang characters, coincide in power with those of the Batta, though the ar-
rangement is different, and so far from being considered as original alphabets, they are only regarded, as far as I could learn, by the Battas, as different forms of the same character. Indeed, the greater part of the differences they exhibit in form, may be fairly attributed to the different materials on which they write, and the different manner of writing; while the diversity in the number and arrangement of the letters may be referred to the same causes which have produced a similar variety in the Buigis alphabet.
Vi. Tagala.-The Tagala or rather Tü-Gála or the Gala language is among the Phillipines, what the Malayu is in the Malay islands or the Mindostani in Hindostan proper. A Spanish missionary, who possessed a minute knowledge of this language, has declared, that "The Tăgála possesses the combined ad vantages of the four principal languages in the world. It is mysterious as the Hebrew; it has articles for nouns, both appellative and proper, like the Greek; it is elegant and copious as the Latin; and equal to the Italian, as the language of compliment or business." To examine rigorously the justness of this eulogium, is foreign to my purpose; it is necessary only to state, that it is considered by those who have studied it with most attention, as the radical language, from which the greater part, if not all, the dialects of the Philippines are derived. A missionary, who had resided eighteen years in these islands, and whose account of them has been translated from the Spanish, and printed by Thevenot in the second part of his "Relations de divers Voyages Curieuses. Paris 1664," declares, that though every district has its particular dialect, yet that these have all some rel.tion to each other, such as subsists among the Lombard, Sicilian, and Tuscan dialects. There are six dialects of this kind, in the island of

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

The Tuggala language has been cultivated only by the Spanish missionaries. The Tügala grammar of Fra. Gaspar de San Augustin, which has passed through two editions, was printed in 1703, and again in $178 \%$. In his preface, lie requests those who are desirous of more numerous examples in the language, to have recourse to other grammars, especially to that of Fra. Francisco de San Joseph; who is elsewhere called the Drmosthfnes of the Tuggala language. A confessional, by the same attthor, in Spanish and T'uggüla, was published in 1713; and republished with the second edition of his grammar. In 1697, Pra. Alphonso a St. Anna published his "Eaplicacion de la Doctrina Christiana en lingua lïğála," and, besides these, many other religious compositions, both in prose and verse, have been published by the missionaries.

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

The Tügála character is as difficult to read as it is easy to write. It is written with an iron style on bamboos and palm leaves, and the Spanish missionaries assert, that the ancient mode of writing was from top to bottom, like the Chinese. From the circumstance of their writing with an iron style on bamboos, and from the resemblance of the letters to the Batta character, I should rather imagine that the ancient Tägála mode of writing was from the bottom to the top. The Tügála characters are still used in Comintan, and in general among the Tăgálas who have not embraced christianity; and even by the Christian converts, they are still preferred in epistolary correspondence, though the contrary has been insinuated by some of the missionaries, who alledge that the roman alphabet was eagerly adopted, on account of its being more easily read.

The Tăgála language, with a considerable number of peculiar vocables, and great singularity of idiom, is nevertheless to be considered as a cognate language with Malayu, Búgis and Javanese. Few languages, on a cursory examination, present a greater appearance of originality than the Tügála. Though a multitude of its ternis agree precisely with those of the languages just enumerated, though the more simple idioms are precisely the same, and though the nouns have neither, properly speaking, genders, numbers nor cases, nor the verbs, moods, tenses or persons, yet the idioms are rendered so complex, and the simple terms are so much metamorphosed, by a variety of the most simple artifices, that it becomes quite impossible for a person who understands all the original words in a sentence, either to recognize them individually, or comprehend the meaning of the whole. In illustrating, therefore, the mechanism of
language, few languages are more instructive than the Tagála. The artifices which, it chiefly employs, are the prefixing or postfixing to simple vocables, certain particles, which are again combined, and coalesce with others; and the complete or partial repetition of terms, in this rerluplication, may again be combined with other particles.

The Tagiala forms the plutals of nouns by the word manga, as the Malays by banyálk, both of which signify many, and seem to be the very same word, as the $m$ and, $b$ are often pronounced in such an indistinct manner, in the Indo-Chinese languages, that they seem neither to correspond exactly to our mor cur $b$, but to an intermediate sound. To proper names, the Tägála prefixes the particle si, and ang to appellative nouns. The first of these corresponds to the Malayu sa, and the latter to yang, both of which are frequently used in Malayu in the same manner; but the Tägala combines both these with the particles nya and la, the first of which signifies of it, and the latter to ; and thus they form sina, kana, nina, nang, which (except the last, which is only a different mode of writing the Malayu nyang, of these, zoho, scarcely occur in Malayu. The plural of nouns, in Malayu, is sometimes formed by the repetition of the singular, and sometimes this repetition is not complete, but consists only of the first syllable or syllables. This also occurs in the Tăgála, in which language banal, the Malayu banar, signifies just, true, and turo signifies a man, corresponding with the Búg's tau. A just man, in Tăgála, is therefore, ang banal na tavo, or by the addition of another particle, and altering the position of the words, ang tauong Banal. Now if we substitute the MLalayz word orang, for the Búgis and Tägála term tau or tavo, we may render both these sentences thus; yang orang yang
benar, and yang benarnya orang. In the plural, to signify, just men; the Tügála gives, ang manga t'auong babanal, to which the corresponding - Malayu phrase is, yang banyák orang yang babenar;, or again in Tăgala, ang babanalna manga tavo, to which the corresponding Makayu is, yang babenarnya banyak orang.

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

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

The principal particles employed in modifying the Tägála verbs are also common to the Malayu language. The Tagála particles are na, nag, mag, pag, ungm, $y$, an, in: those which correspond to them in Malayu are na, nyang, meng or mé, pieng, yangmeng, yang, an, ahin. Their significations are radically the same, nor do they differ essentially in their simple application; but in the variety of modes according to which these particles may be combined with the verb. in its simple form, in its reduplicate form, in its semi-reduplicate form, and the variety of transpositions of letters and the changes of one letter for another, euphonice gratia, which all these combinations give occasion to; in all these, the Taggala is infmitely superior to the Malayr, if there is any merit in a superiority which consists in greater intricacy. The changes which occur in $M a-$ tayu are few and obvious, in Tuggula they are digested into an extensive and complex system, in which perfect familiaity with every form that the word can assume, not only by the addition of particles, but by the interchange of letters, is necessary to enable a person to detect the radical, which is of ten more disguised than in the most complex Arabic derivatives. Thus in J'ăgála the root, tolog signifies, to sleep, natalog ako, I slept, natotolog ako, I am sleeping, matalog, sleep, matotolog alio, I will sleep, katolog, pagkatolog and pagliakatolog, sleeping, natotologpa ako, I slept or was sleeping, ang natotolog the sleeper, ang matotolog, the person who is to sleep, nakatolog atio, I had slept: natologan, the having been asleep, natotologan, the being asleep, liatologan and katotologan, the being asleep, or act of sleeping, or the sleeping place: and for the plural nangatologan, nangatotologan, pangatologan, pangatotologan, \&cc. the particles na, ma and pa, becoming nanga, manga and panga, in the plural.This is an instance in which the changes of the radical
word are very obvious; in the following they are less so, buhat to lift ; bungmuhat, bungmubuhat, bumuhat, bubuhat, pagbuhat, nakabuhat, nabuhut, bimuhat, bimubuhat, buhatin, bubuhatin, ragpabuhat, nagpapabutuat, magpabuhat, magpapabuhat, pagpabuhat, pagpapabuhut, pinabuhat, pinababuhat, muhat, namuhat, namumahat, mamulhat, mamumuhat, pinamuhat, pinamamuhat, pamuhatin, pamumuhatin. The addition of a greater number of particles would still produce a considerable number of additional metamorphoses, in which it woald be very difficult to recognize the original radical buhat; but these may suffice to shew the genius of the language; and they will also tend to shew the extreme danger that any etymologist or grammarian incurs, who presumes to treat of one of the eastern languages without a radical knowledge of it, and even, in some degree, of its cognate dialects.

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

With respect to the original literature of the Tägálas, the accounts of the Spanish missionaries are rather discordant. Sometimes they represent them as totally devoid of histories, and books of science; and sometimes they represent them as in possession of many historical poems; not considering that almost the whole body of the eastern history must be gleaned from poetical tradition. It however appears, clearly colough, from their own accounts, that the ansient
religions traditions of the Tügála race, their genealogies, and the feats of their gods and heroes, are carefully preserved in historical poems and songs, which, in their youth, they carefully commit to memory, and are accustomed to recite during labour and long voyages, but particularly at their festivals and solemn lamentations for the dead. These original memorials of the race, the missionaries have, with pious care, attempted to extirpate, and have employed themselves sedulously in composing religious tracts, both in prose and verse, in the Tăgala, with the hope of supplanting the remains of national and pagan antiquity. Many psalms and hymms, and even some of the Greek dramas composed by Dionysius Areopagita, have in this manner been translated into the Tăgála language. Among this brood of Tăgála poets, the names of Fra. Antonio de S. Gregorio, of Fra. Alonso de S. Ana, and of Fra. Pablo Clajn, the translator of Kempis, into Tăgála, are celebrated, but the most illustrious of them all, says the reverend father Gaspar de S. Augustin, is Fra. Pedro de Herrela, the very Horace of the Tägála language, as appears by his book of "Postrimerias." With the original Tägála poetry I am unacquainted, and I beliere no specimen of it has been hitherto published. S. Augustin, in his grammar, treats, indeed, of Tŭgálá poetry, but he piously confines his examples to the works of his ghostly brethren. He observes, that the Tăgálá verse, is regulated by the rhythm of the syllables, aud the similarity of the vowels in the close. This similarity of the terminating vowels does not amount to regular rhyme, for the consonants may be totally different, though the rowels are similar, as in the Spanish rhymes termed Asonantes. Thus laglag and taltal suit and sahuy, silip and bukkir, however imperfect as rhymes, are all that is required in the termi-
nations of Tăgála verse. The Täǵála metres, adds the same author, are rather lyric than heroic, and he adduces specimens of several Latin and Castilian measures, imitated in that language, besides a legitimate sonnet addressed to himself, on publishing his Tüggála grammar by Fra. Joseph de el Valle. The following specimen from the Tägála version of one of the dramas of Dionysius Areopagita, is an imitation of the comic verse of Terence.

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

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

Of the Bisáya language, I have seen some lists of words. It appears to be either mixed with Tŭgála, or derived from the same source; but it is seldom possible to judge of any of the eastern languages from a few straggling specimens, formed in the hurried, inaccurate and incurious manner in which these are generally collected. For this reason, I shall offer no observations on the Pampango language, of which I have also seen specimens; on the Biaju, Tirín, or

Idán languages of Borneo ; nor on the Harafora, or the Papua languages of the eastern isles. The Sútí tongue is a very mixed dialect, but is derived chiefly from the Malayu, Javanese and Tăgála. Forrest, however, is inclined to refer its peculiarities to the Bisíya. The language of Melindenow, or Magindano, which nearly coincides with the Lanin dialect, is also a compound of Malayu, Búg's and Tăgála, with a certain proportion of the ancient Tarnata or Molucea language, which seems to have been an original tongue. The Biaju language is reckoned original, but it has no written character. The Biajús are of two races; the one is settled on Borneo, and are a rude, but warlike and industrious nation, who reckon themselves the original possessors of the island of Borneo. The other is a species of sea-gypsies, or itinerant fishernen, who live in small covered boats, and enjoy a perpetual summer on the eastern ocean, shifting to leeward, from island to island, with the variations of the monsoon. In some of their customs, this singular race resemble the natives of the Maldive islands. The Maldivians annually launch a small bark, loaded with perfumes, guns, flowers and odoriferous wood, and turn it adrift at the mercy of the winds and waves, as an offering to the Spirit of the roinds; and sometimes similar offerings are made to the spirit whom they term the King of the Sea. In like manner the Biajus perform their offering to the god of evil, launching a small bark, loaded with all the sins and misfortunes of the nation, which are imagined to fall on the unhappy crew that may be so unlucky as first to meet with it.

The Tirín or Tedong tribes live chiefly on the north east coast of Borneo, and are reckoned a savage and piratical race, addicted to eating
the flesh of their enemies. With their language I am totally unacquainted, but it is reckoned peculiar. It is very prohable, however, that they are only a tribe of Idin, whom, again, I imagine to be only a race of Haraforas or slfö̈rs, as they are termed by the Dutch, who seem to be the most original race of all the eastern islands, excepting perhaps, the Papuas. The Iddin are sometimes termed Marít; they are certainly the original inhabitants of Borneo, and resemble the Haraforas equally in stature, agility, colour, and manners. The Haraforas are indigenous in almost all the eastern isles, and are sometimes found on the same island with the Papuas or oriental negroes. They are often lighter in colour than the Muhammedan races, and generally excel them in strength and activity. They are universally rude and unlettered, and where they have not been reduced to the state of slaves of the soil, their manners have a general resemblance. In their manners, the most singular feature is, the necessity imposed on every person, of some time in his life, embruing his hands in human blood; and in general among all their tribes, as well as the Idán, no person is permitted to marry till he can shew the skull of a man whom he has slaughtered. They eat the flesh of their enemies, like the Battas, and drink out of their skulls; and the ornaments of their houses are human skulls and teeth, which are, consequently, in great request among them, as formerly in Sumatra, the ancient inhabitants of which are said to have originally had no other money than the skulls of their enemies. The Haraforas are found in all the Moluccas, in Celebes, the Philippines, and Magindano, where they are termed Subano or Mamubo; and the ferocious race mentioned by Marsden, who live inland from Sa manka in Sumatra, and are accustomed to atone ther
own faults by offering the heads of strangers to the chiefs of their villages, are probably of the same description.

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

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

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

Bund'ha, if we consider the dreadful superstitions that they probably supplanted, and the brutal state of savage existence which they exchanged for civil polity and social order. The Vanaras of Himúman are reckoned a tribe of mountaineers, even by many of the Hindis. The barbarous, but brave and active Idan of Borneo, are termed Marut, which is the Sanscrit name of the forty-nine regents of the winds, and companions of Indra. The standard of the Battas is a horse's head with a nlowing mane, which seems to indicate a connection with the Hayagrizas of Sanscrit history. In the present state of our knowledge of these tribes, however, it is not conjecture; but rigid and accurate description that is required; and in the present instance, it is not my object to consider their civil, political, or moral relations, unless as far as these affect the philological investigation of their languages and literature. As the chief utility that results from the examination of some of these ruder dialects, is to enable us to ascertain the limits of languages, more interesting and important, perhaps it may be thought that great minuteness would he misapplied on objects of such secondary importance. It must, however, be recollected, that success in important researches, often depends on the accuracy with which inferior investigations have been conducted; that in commencing an investigation it is not always easy to predict what will ultimately prove of superior, or inferior importance; and that; at all events, it is safer to bestow too much attention, than too little, on what must be the basis of historical investigation. In all such inquiries, I therefore do not hesitate to adopt the sentiment of the learned Le Long, that " Truth is so interesting and satisfactory, when perceived, that no pains should be spared to discover it, even in the smallest matters."
VII. Rusile'ng. - The Rukheng is the first of that singular class of Indo-Chinese languages, which may be properly termed monosyllabic, from the mass of their radical words consisting of monosyllables, like the spoken dialects of China. These monosyllables are subjected to great variety of accent and intonation, in almost every instance : and require an accuracy of pronunciation and a delicacy of ear in speaking and comprehending them, far beyond what is requisite in the languages of Europe, or even in the polysyllabic languages of Asia. The Indo-Chinese languages of the monosyllabic class, borrow a considerable variety of terms from the Pali or Bali, which exists among them, as the language of learning and science; but in adopting these polysyllables, they accommodate them to their peculiar enunciation, by pronouncing every syllable as a distinct word. The Rukheng is the language of the original inhabitants of Arakan, who adhere to the tenets of Budd'ha. Forming in ancient times a part of the empire of Magadha, from which they scem to have derived the name of Mug or Mauga, by which they are gencrally termed by the inhabitants of Bengal; and being from their situation more immediately connected with India; their language is by no means purely monosyllabic, but forms, as it were, the connecting link between the polysyllabic and monosyllabic languages. The Rulihéng race is admitted to be of the same radical stock as the Barmas or Birmans, and is understood to have greatly preceded that nation in civilization. The Barmas, indeed, derive their own origin from the Rukheng, whom they generally denominate Barmá lyí, or the great Barmas, and they consider the Rukheng as the most ancient and original dialect of the Barma language. This idea is certainly correct, and it may be added,
that the Rukheng orthography and pronunciation are neither so refective, nor so much corrupted as the Barma, and that consequently, in tracing the history of the language, the Rukheng is of much greater utility to the philologist. In another respect the languagemay be considered as purer; until their late conquest by the Barmas, the tribes of Rukhéng seen for along period to have retained their independence, while the proper Barma tribes have suffered various revolutions. Hence the Rulchéng retains more of its ancient form, and is less corrupted by foreign: mixtures. The modifications, therefore, which it has received, are chiefly derived from the Pali or Bali, which was cultivated in the country as the learned language, and contained all their sacred books. The Rukhéng has accordingly adopted Balí words and phrases more copiously than the Barma, and has also preserved them in a greater state of oithographical purity. The pronumciation of the Rukheng is perhaps broader and grosser, but more articulate than the Barma; in particular it strongly affects the use of the letter $r$, which the Barmas generally convert into $y$, in their pronunciation. Such, however, is the difference of pronunciation between the two nations, that even in sentences, where the words are nearly the same, they are not easily intelligible to each other.

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

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

The Rulthéng language, in the simplicity of its structure and expression, has great analogy to the Malayu. It has properly no numbers,
cases, nor flections, in its nouns; nor conjugations, moods, tenses, or persons, in its verbs. Many words have a substantive, arljective, or verbal signification, according to their position in a sentence; but in general, the names nt objects, qualities, and actions, are sufficiently distinct from each other. The plurals of nouns are formed by numerals, or words expressive of plurality, as lu, a man; lu-sing-rawh, three men; lú-ưliúng, many men; lí akíng-líng, all men; mimma, a woman; mimma aliung-su, many teomen. Comparisons are made by particles expressive of number or quantity, such as mya, or mrét-té, much; aliré and hlaré, very; prét, less, under; aking, many. Cases are expressed by particles equivalent to the prepositions or postpositions of other languages, or by juxta-position, which has often the force of the genitive in the Ruhhéng language. Thus, a man's hand, may be expressed indifferently by lí-lák, lí-tıma-lak, or lí-chwá-lák.

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

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

| I, zue, | thou, ye, | lise, they, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nga, | kó, | dang, |
| nga-ro, | móng, | yang-su, |
| nga-ro-hma, | nang, | yang-su-ro, |
| kyĕwéng, | awey, | su-ro. |
| akyĕwéng, | mong-hma, |  |
| ak!ěwéng-hma, | mong-ro, |  |
| akyĕwéng-ro, | mong-ro-hma, |  |
| akyěwéng-ro-hma, | nang-ro, |  |
| akyĕwéng-tza-ré, | nang-hma, |  |
| akyeweng tz'hang-ré-ro | nang-ro-hma, |  |
|  | awey-ro, |  |
|  | awey-hma, |  |
|  | awey-ro-hma, |  |

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

The moods and tenses of the verbs are in like manner expressed by means of particles, or significant words, like our auxiliary verbs. Such are si, hi, hi-ré and le-bi, is; bri and lé yáki, is, been; bri-ré and bri-kha-ré, was; miy, will; ra and za-mé, may, can; yaung, let, permit; hi-sua, been. The position of these particles in a sentence, is often, however, an matter of considerable difficulty, and is one of the circumstances in which the clegance of style chiefly consists. The style chiefly affected in Rukhéng composition, is a species of measured prose, regulated by accent and the parallelism of the members of 2
sentence. Rhyme, however, is not required, either in the terminating consonants or vowels, though it frequently occurs from the structure of the language. The general form of this measure seems to be four long syllables, each of which, however, is conversible into two short ones, or may have a short one interpolated before or after it. Thus, the passage adduced by Captain Towers, from the Manu Saingwan, as a specimen of his system of orthography in his "Observations on the Alphabetical System of the Language of Awa and Rac'hain," may be arranged.

| Maha sámăta, | Tain-kha hnaik ch'haun, |
| :--- | :--- |
| Man grí chak-kráwălá, | Khré sō tăchhé, |
| San'khra prain brain, | Shai'ch pá só T'hám-mă-sát, |
| Tain dain pỉ tá, | Cha ga do go, \&ic. |

Sometimes, however, more complicated measures are employed in Rulkéng composition, in imitation o. those which occur in Balí. Many interesting works are represented to exist in the Rulihéng language, but the greater part of them are translations from the Ball'. The "Tillatar Cherita," is said to contain the historical traditions of the Rukheng nation : the " Karik," composed by Avguli-Mala, and the "T"hamma-sat or Dherma Sastra, contain their system of religious observances, and code of laws. The following is a list of the most popular Rukhéng compositions:

1. Raja-búntza,
2. Raja-wongtza,
3. Témi,
4. Némi,
5. Janaka,
6. Suwanna-asyang,
7. Bhuridat,
8. Tzaingdá-gúngına
9. Sada-shyei'ch-chaung,
10. Mahó,
11. Uni-nga-gyaing,
12. So'p-soung-gyeng,
13. Bhuridat-kapyá,
14. Bo-thi-hmain-déi,
15. Wé-faing-dara,
16. Saing-we-ra,
17. Krauk-ché,
18. Nara-cho,
19. Athi'k-bala,
20. Abhi-dam-ma,
21. K'hunci'ch-kyéng,
22. Para-ma-saing-gou'k-kyéng,
23. Maba-Raga-t'ha-kyéng,
24. Sapa-kyéng,
25. Tham-ma-sat-kireiug-khya,
26. T'ham-ma-sat-kra'k-ru,
27. T'ham-ma-sat-Manú,
28. Tham-ma-sat-krudaing,
29. Logasara,
30. Sa-bri-hla,
31. 'Taing-t, haü,
32. Radana-hrwé-khri,
33. Radana-paing-gúng,
34. Rudana-paddaing,
35. Radaua-kweing-khya,
36. Radana-powng-khyowk,
37. Ba-na't-sa,
38. Kraing-ma-tei'ch-p'hak-powng-wat'hu,
39. Nga-tzi-săda-pring-do,
40. Ga'p-p'ha-kyéng,
41. Lakhana-di-ba,
42. Noma-kapya,
43. Nga-chaing-braing,
44. Rama-wut'hú-cha,
45. Bramasara,
46. Bud-cho-wa-da,
47. Péda-sow't,

4s. Mungăla-sow't,
49. Khunei'ch-ra'k,
50. Khunei'ch-ra'k-parei'p,
51. Patha-wi-jéya,
52. Sa-gra-ú-ch'howng,
53. Lé-keweng-u-ch'horng,
54. Sit-t'ha-da-nú,
55. Sat-powng,
56. Sat-yéng,
57. Sat-hněwaing,
58. Sa-hrwé-k'hé,
59. Moé-tó-krang-cha,
60. Gu-waing-podi-mowng-cha
61. Thi-to-padé-sa,

6?. Noma-ko-ga-tha,
63. Tăché-hnei'ch-ra-si,
64. Khowng-gri,
65. Khowng-láp,

O6. Khowng-ngé,
67. Tă-hnaung-gra,
68. Mé-t'haung-gra,
69. Su-mé-t'ha,
70. Rewatta-cha,
71. Aswa-pida,
72. Prowng-bra,
73. Owng-pa-di-cha,
74. Paing-pru-cha,
75. Uga,
76. Mowng-chwa-cha,
77. Cho-ré,

IS Ia't-ré,
79. Lung-di-cha.

From this list, it is evident, that the subjects of some of these works are the adventures of characters well known in Sanscrit my thology, as the Rama Wut hu or history of Rama, the Buddho-wa-du or history of the Aratar Buddin; others of them seem to be
only Rukhéng rersions of well known Sanscrit conlpositions, as the T"hi-to-pa-désa, or Hitopadesa, the Tham-ma-sut-Manu, or Dherma-sastra of Menu. The Suwama-Asyang, is the popular story of Suvurna Springi, or the golden cow, formed by the Bráhmen Sumbukara Misra, and presented to Raja Mukunda Deva Carapati. The Bhuridat is the history of Raja Bhuridatta of Magadha, mentioned in the Maha Bharata, and the Bhuridat-kapya, or Bhuridutta-kavya, is a poem on the same subject. The Raja-buntza is the Rukhéng edition of the Raja$T$ rumsavali, the Raja-Wontgia is a different work on the same subject, and the Pat'ha-wi-jeya seems to be the Prit'thu-vijeya. Of the modifications they have received in the process of translation, I have hitherto had little opportunity of judging, but as far as I have been able to investigate the subject, not only the style, but the incidents and progress of the Sanscrit narration is generally altered, to render them more illustrative of the ascetic doctrines of the Buddhist sect; such as the guilt of killing animals, even accidentally; and the perfection acquired by Rishis in solitary retirement, by means of sublime penance and meditation.

The Rukikeng language has never been cultivated by Europeans; the observations on its alphabetical system by Captain Towers, and the short specimen of its vocables in Dr. Fr. Buchanan's "Comparative Tocabulary of some of the Languages spoken in the Burma Empire," both in the 5th vol. of the Asiatic Researches, being all that has been published concerning it in any European language. The specimen given by Dr. Fr. Buchanan, only varies from the Barma in seren words out of fifty, and these are only varieties of promunciation, excepting " looshee,"
a child, which is also Barma, and mateinay, which seems to be an error, as it does not signify to sit, either in Rukhéng or Barma, but literally "does not stand," the proper Rukhéng term being rat chowk. The words in the vocabulary certainly exist in Rukheng as well as in Barma; but in some instances different words are in more general use, in the former; as ahri, long, instead of shé, and po-mro-naing-grong, beast, instead of taraitzan. The Rulihéng pronunciation, sometimes too, is modified by the Burma, and the letter $r$ is almost always omitted in the specimen, though it is a distinguishing characteristic of the Rulikeng pronunciation. Thus, the Rukheng requires mri-gri, earth, instead of myogyee, in the specimen; kri, great, instead of layee; kiripamó, foot, instead of kiop pamo; kirow' $k$, sir, ingstead of kiouk; kri, a star, instead of kycy, and ni, the sun, instead of nay. These errors, however, are not to be attributed to Dr. Fr. Buchanan, nor detract, in the least, from the merit of his exertions in commencing the investigation; they evidently proceed from the inaccuracy, hurry, and indistinct pronunciation of his Barma assistants, and in his situation were perhaps not to be avoided, unless by attending to the native orthography.

Dr. F. Buchanan has also exhibited comparative specimens of two mixed dialects, spoken in Arakan; the first termed Ruinga, spoken by the Moslems of the country, and consisting of a mixture of Arabic, Hindi, and Rukhéng; the second, termied Rusán, used by the Hindís of Arakan, who adhere to the system of Blahma, and formed by a large proportion of corrupted Sanscrit and Bengali, united to a comparatively small portion of Rulihéng. The dialect of the province of $Y o$, as it is pronounced by the Barmas, and Ró as it is termed by the Rulihéng, is
only a slight variation of the Rukheng, which it approaches much nearer than the Barma. The range of mountains to the north and east of Ruliheng is inhabited by a race termed Kheng, by the Ruthéng and Barma tribes, or as it is written by Dr. Fr. Buchanan, Kiayn; but who term themselves Kolín, and whose language is peculiar, having little or no affinity to either Rukheng or Barma. From the two names, Ró and Khéng, the name of Ruliléng is generally derived; but the national name of the Rukheng race is Ma-rum-ma, which seems to be only a corruption of Maha-l'urma; Vurma being an epithet generally assumed by the tribes of Kshatriya extraction. The inhabitants of the mountains between Rukhéng and Chatigan are termed Sa-mowng-syang by the Rukheng tribes, and are asserted to speak a different language. They are probably only a division of the Kheng or Kolinn. Whether these are the same with the Kukis, who inhabit the high ranges of hills to the N. E. of Chatigan, I have not been able to determine. In the able and curious description of this singular race, given by J. Macrae, Esq. in the seventh volume of the Asiatic Researches, the languages of the Kuki and Mug, or Rukhéng races, are said to be so intimately comected as to be mutually intelligible. That the two adjacent tribes should be mutually able to understand each other, is rery probable; but that their respective languages are commected, in this instance, I apprehend to be very dubious; for in a specimen of above 500 radical terms of the Kuki, which I owe to that gentleman's politeness, I find very few which are similar to the corresponding Rulieng, or that were understood by an intellgent native of Arakan. The subject, howerer, requires further investigation, and there seems to be no person better qualified than Mr. Macmae, for
prosecuting the inquiry, both by his abilities, and his situation.

Viti. Barma.-The Barma language is used by the great and powerful nation of the Barmas. The name of this nation has been written differently, by almost as many authors as have mentioned it, while no person seems to have thought it worth his while to inquire how the Barmas wrote their own name. This they constantly write Barma, though from affecting an indistinct pronunciation, they often term themselves Byamma, Bomma, and Myamma, which are only vocal corruptions of the written name. Amadutius, however, in his preface to the "Alphabetum Barmamam seu Bomamum," with equal ignorance and confidence, denies flatly, that any nation, country, city, or language, exists, which by the natives themselves is denominated Barma. This name, he asserts to have been introduced solely by the ignorance and vicious pronunciation of Europeans, since, says he, by the analogy of the language, the nation is denominated Bomah, the great nation, from bo, the head, a chicf, and mah, a man. This silly vapouring etymology is, however, entirely averse to the established orthography of the Barmas themselves, and only worthy of P. Paulin us, or a modern l'renchman.

The Barma language, like the Rultheng, in its original state appears to be purely monosyllabic, but it has borrowed frecly from the Bulh, and in imitation apparently of that language, it has sometimes formed words of some length, by the coalescing of its original monosyllables. Being completely devoid of every species of flection, whether in nouns, pronouns, or verbs, its construction is extremely simple, and depends almost solely on the principle of juxta-position, like its cognate dialect, the

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

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

The character of the Barma language has a very considerable effect on the style of the compositions it contains. Repetitions of the same turn and expression, are rather affected, than shumned; and a kind of naked strengtle and simplicity of phrase, with short sentences, pregnant with meaning, are the greatest beauties which the language admits of. "The Bomans," says Carpanius, "in their poetry, are more careful of preserving similar terminations, than an equal number of syllables, and use this style, particularly in treating of religious subjects." The fact, however, is, that the similarity of termination is neither sought, nor shunned; but recurs from the genius of the language, very frequently. The

## E34 ON THE LANGUAGLS AND LITERATURE

style of the principal Barma compositions is a species of measured prose, regulated almost solely by the accent, as in the Ruliheng, the different dialects of Chinese, and the other monosyllabic languages. The tone of polished conversation requires an approximation to this style of composition. The rerb is generally placed in the close of the sentence, and the defect of conjuctive particles, to connect the different members of a sentence, renders a considerable degree of repetition absolutely recessary to prevent confusion.

The Barma language has been highly cultivated in composition, and contains numerous works in religion and science. Besides numerous books on astrology, mythology, medicine, and law, in the latter of which the most important is the Dam ma-Sat kyee, or great system of justice, with the Constitutions of the Barma princes. The Barmas are asserted, by Dr. Buchayan, to possess numerous historical works, relative to the different dynasties of their princes, the most celebrated of which is the Maha-raja-IVayngee. "These people," says he, " have also translated histories of the Chinese and Siamese, and of the kingdoms of Kathee, Koshan-pyee, Pagoo, Saymmay and Laynzayn." On the importance of such works, supposing them to be strictly of a historical nature, it is needless to dilate. It appears probable, however, that many of them may resemble the Hindú Cheritrás. The Barmas possess numerous smaller poems and songs, and even natakas, which may probably be derived from Sanscrit tradition, as the adventures of Rama in Lumka, are favourite topics in their dramas. The following are some of the most popular works in the Barma language, and screral of them, I find, exist equally in Rukhéng, Siamese and Malayu.

Some of them are purely mythological, but others are Cheritrais of the historical class.

1. Jina-Mana,
2. Nunda-Jina,
3. Nundaguma,
4. Chundaguma,
5. Narada,
6. Temi,
7. Nemi,
8. D'hammapada,
9. Namagara,
10. Logasara,
11. Longanit'hi,
12. Maho-Sut'ha,
13. Wesundura, or story of Rajah Vesundara,
14. Paramik'han,
15. Chudongk'han,
16. Bungk'han,
17. Kado-k'lan,
18. Chatu Damasara,
19. Sangwara, termed in Siamese, the Sut'hon,
20. Bhuridat,
21. Kinara-pyeu, or account of the celestial Kinara,
22. Malinméng Wut'hu, or history of Rajah Ma!in,
23. Jinaka, or history or Rajah Jinaka, denominated in Siamese Maha-Chinók,
24. Yuwají, termed in Ruk'héng Ruari,
25. Swipri-wéng-khan,
26. To-twék-k'han,
27. Munigungsala,
28. Anusasana,
29. Suan-nashan,
30. Wit'hora,
31. Kagileinga,
32. Sada-syi'ch-chaung,
33. Anaga-atwéng,
34. Ngare-khan or description of Naraka,
35. Attagatt-lénga,
36. Hımát-chew' bón'g.

The Barma language has some variety of pronunciation in the different provinces of that empire. The dialect of the $Y$, situated on the east of the Arakan mountains, has been already noticed. The Tanéngsari, or language of the inhabitants of the Tanaserim district, denoninated Tinnaw by the Siamese, also differs considerably from the common Barma. The Tanéngsari certainly have many peculiarities of expression, and many words in common use among
them, are at present obsolete among the Barmias of Ava, but the majority of them are to be found in the Barma writings, and the Tanéngsári are therefore reckoned to use an obsolete dialect, rather than a peculiar language. I have already mentioned in what respects the Barma and Rukheng are related to each other. The following comparative list of terms will show more particularly the extent of their difference in current use.

|  | Rukhéng. | Barmu. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Manth | khanang | piját |
| back | nau-kúng | naó |
| knee | pa-chhei'ch-tú | du |
| bone | aro | ayo |
| heart | alúng | na-towng |
| seeing | mrang-ré sú | myang-su-ha |
| smell | kaing-ré | chan-jan |
| touch | pait-té | seing-su-ba, thi |
| trouble | ma-ré | khék |
| strength | akri | akyan |
| marriage | maya-ni-chá'p-té | lék-t’hat-gya, |
| life | ahrang | asyang |
| circle | apawk | akwéng |
| storm | mukri | moseik |
| hail | mu-gyowk | mó-si |
| morning | mă-sowk-tha, nyi-ga | mă-neik, |
| evening | nya-ja | nya-né, né-é |
| sea | mreik | péng-lé |
| dust | mré-moh | amóng, myé-monge |
| mud | ta-mai | suin |
| fire | ming | mi |
| length | hré | shi |
| ditch | mroung | kewng |
| gold | hruí | sué |
| silver | muë | ngoé |
| horse | mroung | miyin |
| fowl | krak | kyiuk |
| cock | krak-p'ha | kyiuk-t'hí |
| hen | krak-ma | kyiuk-ma |
| snake | mrui | myewé |
| sail | rowak | yewék |


|  | Pukliéng. | Barma. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bed | salloëng | kadeng |
| taylor | ang-gi-dap | khyowk-sama |
| white | aprú | pyú |
| hard | kjang | má |
| vegetable | haung sei'ch ruakk | heing-ewék |
| first | ayenga ǎkha | $\{$ ayeng-su-ha |
|  | , | Q ayeng-da-ha |
| second | hnei'ch-khu-chowng | hnei'ch-khu-su-hz |
| I | akyeweng-hma | kyewen-noúp |
| we | akyeweng-ro-hma | kjewen-do |
| thou | mong | méng |
| you | mong-ro | méng-do |
| he | yang-su | su |
| they | yang-su-ro | su-do |
| this | dé-ga | di-ha |
| that | t'ho-ga | ho-ha |
| who | ău | bélú |
| what | jàma | baha |
| which | ăsu | bésû, béha |
| if | t'ho-shyang | hléang |
| though | la-la't-hléukk | phye'ch-hleang |
| about | le'khi-gra't-me | pát |
| many | akúng, | apóng |
| perhaps | kaing-ra-bya | kán-hné |
| yes | how't-payak | hou't-ké |
| no | ma-hí | ma-si |
| is | hi | si |
| w33 | bri | pyi |
| has been | hi-yak | si-bi |
| I ought to do it | akyeweng-louk-kowngyak | kewen-noú'p-louk-gowngdé |
| I will do it | akyeweng-ro-hma louk-ra-ré | kewen-nou'p louk-ya-dé |

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

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

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

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

It seems to be quite original, and is said by the Barmas and Siamese to have no affinity with either of their languages. I have met no learned man of the race, nor have had any opportunity of cultivating the language, but I have been informed by a Talapoin that they possess many ancient histories in this language; which is not impossible, as they seem to have attained civilization, at a more early period than the Barmas ; and, though now reduced, to have been formerly a great and potent nation. In the early Portuguese histories they are denominated the $P$ anciálís of Mön ; and they are supposed to have founded the ancient Kalaminham empire, at a very early period. The name Kalaminham, mentioned by the Portugueze, is probably comnected with the Siamese name of the nation, Ming-mon. The Món alphabet, if I can depend on the specimens of the character shown me by a Barman of some learning, is only a slight variety of the Barma-Ball, with which. it corresponds, in the power and arrangement, as well as the form of the characters. I have, howerer, had little opportunity of investigating this sulpject; and, expecting to have visited Pegu, did not avail myself of that opportunity to the fullest extent. The examination of the MÔn character and language, has no peculiar ditticulty, and may be easily accomplished by the first literary inquirer who may visit Peou; and I still indulge the hope that my future inquiries may be attended with success in investigating their relations.
X. Thay. - The Thay language is that which is used by the Siamese, who, in their own tongue, assume this name as their national appellation. By the Barmas, they are denominated Syan, from whence the Portugueze seem to have borrowed their Siam and Siaom, from whom
the other mations of Europe have adopted the term. La Loubere, who visited Siam in 1687-8, as Envoy Extraordinary from the French monarch, has given incomparably the most accurate account, that has ever been exhibited, of this nation, formerly reckoned the most polished of eastern India. He divides them into two races, the Tai and the Tai Yai. The latter nation, he adds, are reckoned savages, though the most ancient. Their name signifies literally the great Tai, and in order to distinguish themselves from this nation, the ruling race, in modern Siam, assume the name of Tái-noë, the little Tai. Dr. Fr. Buchanan, however, on the authority of the information he received in the Barma dominions, divides the Siamese race into many states; and gives a specimen of the vocables of three dialects. This brief vocabulary, with La Loubere's observations on the Siamese language, and "The maxims of the Talapoins," translated out of Siamese by the catholic missionaries, which he has published in his "Historical Relation of the Kingdoni of Siam," constitute all that has been published, respecting the language or literature of this nation; in any European tongue. The result of my own inquiries certainly coincides more directly with La Loubere's information, than with that received, by Dr. Fr. Buchavan. All the intelligent Siamese, whom I have met, and among these, there were Talapoins, both of the Tai and the Tai-yai race, agree in asserting, that the Siamese nation, properly so called, consists of two tribes, the T"hay and the T"háy$j$ hay, for so the names are properly written. Of these the most ancient are the Thay-j"hay, formerly fanous for their learning, and the power of their empire. It is added, that many monuments of this ancient race cxist in the kingdom of Siam; and I was informed, in particular, that in the vicinity of Ligor,
about five days journey from Trang, there are various ancient inscriptions, on stone, among the ruins of a very ancient temple, which are attributed to the Thay-jhay, but which no person among the modern Thay is able to decypher. The T"hay language, or Siamese, as it is written by these two races, does not differ essentially; but the spoken dialect among the Thlayjhay, is much more strongly accented, than among the T'hay proper, or the present ruling race of Siarn. The Thay jhay inhabit the country between the Me-nam and the Me-Kon, or river of Cambodia; but the Thay, for the most part, inhabit on tlis west of the Me-nam, or between that river and the frontiers of the Tinnarr, Mon, and Barma nations. As to the Tai-loong, of whose vocabulary Dr. Buchanan has given a specimen, all the Siamese that I have met, though they admit that a district is denominated by this appellation, unanimously deny, that there is either a race of men, or a dialect of the language, which bears this name. The words themselves, which Dr. Fr. Bucianan adduces, as specimers either of the Tai lonng or the Tai-yay, are pure Thay, whenever they are not auricular corruptions of pronunciation, or words of different meaning; introduced, apparently, by the interpreter's misapprehension of the seuse required to be expressed. Having myself been frequently exposed to similar misapprehensions, and knowing, from experience, the difficulty of avoiding it, especially in languages, in which not only the signification varies, with such delicate shades of pronunciation, as are almost undistinguishable to an European ear, but the train of ideas themselves, is regulated by such a subtile, and as it were hieoroglyphical set of principles, I am far from insinuating any carelessness in Dr. Fr. BuchaSAN, whose comparative vocabulary is the first at-
tempt to classify these languages ; but I am attempting to account for the mistakes, into which be seems to have been inevitably led, by the misapprehension of his interpreters. Thus, moo signifies the hand, in Thay, and paze-moo, which he exhibits as the Tailoong variation, is only Fa-mú, the palm of the hand, in the proper language: Kén, which he writes kayn, signifies the arm, in Thay or Siamese proper, and in the same language, komooee, which he gives as the Tai-yay synonime, signifies the lower part of the arm, from the elbow to the wrist, and moo, the Tailoong synomime, signifies the hand; Tin, signifies the leg, in Siamese; but naung, which he gives as the Tai-nay, signifies the skin; and koteen, the Tai-yay synonime, the joints of the leg; in the same manner langteen, which he gives as the Tai-nay, or common Siamese, for foot, signifies literally the upper part of the foot; and Srateen, the Tai-nay synonime, appears to be a mispronunciation of Fatin, the under part of the foot. Sätt signifies a beast, or animal, and nook, the Tai-yay synonime, is only a mispronunciation of nók, a bird, as are noup and naut, the Tai-nay and Tai yay words, which are given to signify a bird; Pazok signifies the mouth, but tsop, given as the Tai-yay synonime, is a mispronunciation of tsot, to drink; San signifies short, but lot, the Tai-yay synonime, signifies child, and unlot, the Tailoong synonime, one child; yoon signifies to stand, but loot-sook, the Tai-yay synonime mispro. nounced, signifies to rise up; and Peinung, the Tailoong synonime, go sit ; seeza, the head, is not Siamese, but Bali, and the Tay-yay synonime ho and the Tailoong, hoo, are only mispronunciations of the proper T'hay term huă. It may be proper also to observe here, that Dr. Fr. Buchanan has printed Tay-nay irstead of the Tai-noë of La Loublere, which signifies little Siamese; whereas Tay-nay cannot possibly R

## 244 ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

signify little Siamese, but only chief Siamese; the true meaning of nay, being chief or head. It is a term of similar import with nayen, nayer and nayenmar, used in Malabar, as the appellation of the military cast, or naya-ka, in Sanscrit.

The T'hay or Siamese language appears to be in a great measure original ; and is more purely monosyllabic, and more powerfully accented, than any of the Indo-Chinese languages, already mentionerl. It certainly is connected, in some degree, with some of the Chinese dialects; especially the Mandarin or Court language, with which its numerals, as well as some other terms, coincide, but these are not very numerous. It borrows words freely from the Bali, but contracts and disguises more, the terms which it adopts, than either the Rulihéng or the Barma. In its finely modulated intonations of sound, in its expression of the rank of the speaker, by the simple pronouns, which he uses, in the copiousness of the language of civility, and the mode of expressing esteem and adulation, this language resembles the Chinese dialects, with which also, it coincides more nearly in construction than either Barma or Rulihéng. Its construction is simple and inartificial, depending almost solely on the principle of juxta-position. Relative pronouns are not in the language; the nominative regularly precedes the verb, and the verb precedes the case which it governs. When two substantives come together, the last of them is for the most part supposed to be in the genitive. This idiom is consonant to the Malayu, though not to the Barma or Rukihéng, in which, as in English, the first substantive has a possessive signification. Thus, the phrase, "a man's head," is expresserl in Barma and Rulihéng, by lic-lihaung, which is literally man-
head; but, in Siamese, it it is kuü-khon, and in Malaune, lapala orang, both of which are literally headmar A similar difference occurs in the position of the accusarive with an active verb, which case, in Burma and Malayu, generally precedes the verb, as tummuing chá, literally rice eat ; but in Siamese follows it, as kén kítu, literally eat rice, which corresponds to the Malayu, mukan-nasi. The adjective generally follows the substantive, and the adverb the word which it modifies, whether adjective or verb. Whenever the name of an animal, and in general, when that of a species or class, is mentioned, the generic, or more general name of the genus to which it betongs, is repeated witl it, as often happens in the other monosyllabic languages, as well as in Malayn. In the position of the adverbial particle, the Malayu, often differs from the Siamese; as Mana pargi, literally zihere go, but, in Siamese, pai hnéi, go where. The Siamese composition is also, like that of the Barma, a species of measured prose, regulated solely by the accent, and the parallelism of the members of the sentence; but, in the recitative, the Sianese approaches more nearly to the Chinese mode of recitation, and becomes a kind of chaunt, which different Brahméns have assured me is very similar to the mode of chaunting the Samaveda.

The T'hay coincides occasionally, even in simple terms; both with the Barma and Malayu; but these terms bear so small a proportion to the mass of the language, that they seem rather the effect of accident or mixture, than of original comection. The following are some of these coincidences which present themselves spontaneously.

|  | T'hay | Barma |  | T'hay | Malayu |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| river | klong, | kyóng or krong, | I, | ku, | aku, and ku, |
| elephant, | chang, | ch'heng, | this, | ni, | ini, |
| saw, | lŭei, | lúa, | that, | nunn, | inún, |
| finge:, | nyew, | nyo, | lock, | kaché, | kunchi, |
| to, | ka, | ga, | dagger, | krít, | krís, |
| self, | êng, | eng, | open, | bùk, | buka, |
|  |  |  | to, | ka, |  |
|  |  |  | come, | ma, | mari. |

The T'hay or Siamese alplabet, differs considerably in the power of its characters from the Bali; though it not only has a general resemblace to it, in point of form, but also in the arrangement of the character. The vowels, which are twenty in number, are not represented by separate characters, but by the character corresponding to the short alkar, variously accented; excepting the vocalic $r u$ and $l u$, which are only variations of the $r$ and $l$ consonants. The consonants are thirty-seven in number, and are not arranged by the series of five, like the Deva-nagari and Bali, but the first series la, consists of seven letters; the second series, cha, of six; the third series, $t a$ or da, of six; the fourth series, $b a$ or $p a$, of eight; the fifth series, $j a$, of four; and the last series, sa, of six, including the vocalic ahkar, though two of them are not in common use. Each of these letters is varied by sixteen simple accentuations, and by thirty-six complex ones. The letters lea, nga, ta or da, na, ma, ba or pa, are also final consomants. Irence it is easy to perceive the near approximation of the Siamese to the delicacy of the Chinese accentuation; while in other respects, the alphabet is considerably more perfect, than in the Mandarin or Court language of the Chinese, which has neither the same variety of consonants, nor admits so many, in the close of a syllable. The Siamese pronunciation, even of consonants, corresponds very imperfectly to
the European mode: $r$ and $l$ are generally pronounced $n$, in the close of a syllable; $h$ is uften prefised to a consonant, but from the total suspension of voice, in pronouncing syllables which terminate in a consonant, no aspiration can be promounced after them; ma, and ba, tya, aud chyce, are often difficult to be distinguished in pronunciation, as are ya, and ja, kyé and chyé with other combinations. From this circumstance, many combinations of letters are pronounced in a manner somewhat different from that in which they are written.

The first Europerm who attempted the study of Siamese literature, was the ?earned Gervaise, but his lucubrations have never been published. The learned and indefatigable $\mathrm{Ir}_{\text {ro }}$ procured from the Siamese ambassador at Londor, an imperfect copy of the Siamese alphabet, which has been published by Greg. Sharpe, in the "Syntagma Dissertationum," 1767. It is inferior to La Loubere's alphabet in accuracy, though it contains a greater number of compound characters. 'La LOUbere's alphabet contains three forms of the su, corresponding to the Nagari; but the sha and shtha being disused in common pronunciation, are commonly omitted both in the alphabet and in modern MSS.

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

## 248 ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

of short, pithy sentences, of much meaning. Their books of medicine are reckoned of considerable antiquity. Both in science and poetry, those who affect learning and elegance of composition, sprinkle their style copiously with Bali. 'The laws of Siam are celebrated allover the east, and La Loubere has mentioned three works of superior reputation, the Pra-Tam-non, rhe Pra-Tam-Ra, and the Pra-Rija-Kam-manot. Of these, the first is a collection of the institutions of the ancient kings of Siam; the second is the constitutional code of the kingdom, and contains the nam:es, functions, and prerogatives of all the officers; the third, which is about 1.50 years old, contains additional regulations. Of these, the first is the most celebrated and the most deserving the attention of Europeans.

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

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

1. Ráıná-kién,
2. Rádin,
3. Sum-mut-ta-kó-dóm,
4. Wét-jăsun dón,
5. Worawóng,
6. Un-narút,
7. Mahó-sot,
8. Mélăy,
9. Chátri,
10. Chalăwán,
11. P'húm-hóm,
12. Pra-thóm,
13. Su-t'hon,
14. Pok'ha-wád-di,
15. Téng-ón,
16. Lín-t’hóng,
17. Nok-k'hum,
18. P'ha-non-son-păjá,
19. Mak-kali-p'hon,
20. Súm-p'han-sit,
21. Sŭan-na-hong,
22. Prang-t'hong,
23. Nang-síp-song,
24. Ramá,
25. Chumpá-t'hong,
26. Lúk-sŭa-ko,
27. P'hínı-swan,
28. Păja-p'hali,
29. T’hàw-krúng-són,
30. Khun-p'hen,
31. Trei-wóng,
32. Chin-narat,
33. P'howit'hat,
34. Su-t'hin,
35. Hǒi-sang,
36. Sang-sin-chay,
37. Woranút,
38. Chitra-kán,
39. Nang-ut'hay,
40. Mahá-Chinók,
41. Mlék-t'hòng.

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

Srida or Sr'ta. 'This narrative corresponds as far as $I$ have been ahle to learn, with the Sanscrit poem, and almost all its incirlents have been converted into Natakas for representation by the Siamese, in the same manner as the Barmas have employed the incidents of the Yama-méng or Barma-Ramayan. Rádin is the Siamese translation of a Jaranese story. Sum-mut-tr-ko-dom is the history of Somonakodom, abridged from the Bali. The $W$ Wet-jă-sun-don is the history of a Rajah who becomes an ascetic of the forest, being struck with a fit of devotion at the sight of a withered mango-tree, as he was walking in his garden. Worcreóng is the history of an unfortunate Rajah, who fell in love with a lady, and was slain by an enchanted spear which guarded her, one night as he was escalading the window of his mistress. This is also a subject of dramatic representation. Mahó-sót contains the wars of Maha-sot with Chor-ni, and is the same as the Barma MahoSut'ha. L'n-narat, narrates the story of ANirvD'HA, the grand-son of Krishia. Malăy relates the benefits of Malay, the being whose office is to relieve the torments of Naraka. Chalăzín contains the history of a destructive alligator, who falls in love with a princess, whom he carrics off to his recess in the ocean, and the account of her rescue. P'hiom$h 6 m$ is the history of another princess of whom an elephant was enamoured, and her rescue. Prat'hom is a my thological account of the origin of the universe, according to the principles of the Buddhist sect. Nok-khim is the mythoogical account of the celebrated Hamsa. Pokha-wad-di is the history of Bua. gavati. Pha-rión-són-paja, contains the instructions of the sagacious ape P'ha-non. The Mak-kali-p'hon, the adventures of the son of a chief, who possessed a wonderful cow, resembling the Sanscrit Kamadhemu.

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

The T"hay exhibits considerable variety of measures, in composition, and frequently introduces sereral of them in the same work, in the same manner as is frequently done in Brijh, Puinjabi, and Siki/t compositions. The most frequent measure, however, among the T"hay, as among the Rukiheng and Barma, seems to be that denominated rajp, which consists of
four long syllables, but admits occasionally of one or more intercalary short ones: the $J a ́-n i$ which consists of five syllables, the Chó-bang of six, the Pat'hamang of seven, the Jésuntá of eight, are also frequently employed.

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

## description of mait'hila.

Jang mi múung núng
Jay kwàng trăhúng
Chu Mit t’hín lá
Tháw phu suwoi rât
Krop krong para
Song nām malıa
Chinok p'homi
Soin det p'homi
Krong se narát
Pin chá nan ma
Bo mi an arái
Ké rat prachá
Thaw krong para
Pin cháw p'hen din
K'haw màk plá-t'hok
Bomi p'hai rok
Bibiun p'ho min
Pinsúk kă priăm pri
Múung Pra Narin
T'haw krong p'hen din
Súkă sém pră chá

Lok'ha-ma k'hài
Wanit t'hang lài
Chai rŭa pai ma
Bo mi satru
Bibinin prăchá
Prat'het naná
Jom ma thuk míŭng
Chin, Cham, Pram, Láw
Ming-môn, Tin-náw
Map mai nong núŭng
P'hărang phang-ka
Ma kha t’húk múư̆ng
Kkék môn nong núŭng
Ma múŭng ka kai
Kúla P'hrang-sét
Chín Cham Pram-T'het
Chong sakk Naláy
Jipún Chinhó
Aw sin ma k’hái
Ni nún lúă lay
" There was a certain country, powerful and of great extent, termed Mithinla (Maithila). In this country a certain Rajah exercised the sovereign authority, named Maha Chinok, (Janaka), overshadowing his people like the spreading banian tree. For a long series of years, he ruled this country, while none was able to injure it, or subject it to foreign authority. Rice was abundant, and of a cheap price : no disease prevailed, and no discontent against the sovereign, and the inhabitants enjoyed every pleasure, as in the region of Pra-Narayen. The sovereign of the country diffused joy over the face of the land, among
the matives, whe merchants resorted thither in fleets of ships, constantly going and coming; and as there was no disturbance in the land, the inhabitants of every country frequented it; the Chin, (Chinese) the Chám, (the Chinese Tartars) the Pram, (Bralmérs) the Ming-Môn, (Môns of Pegu) the Timnaw, (Barmas of Tenaserim) all of them in innumerable multitudes: also the Franks of Europe came thither to traffic; the Khék, (Malays) the Kúlla, (Chulias) the Phrangset, (French) the Pram-t'hét, (Kelings or Hindús of Kalinga) the Chong-sakk and Na-Lay, (Caffree tribes, with stained skins and tattoed faces), the Jipun, (Jupanese) and the Chinho, (Tonkinese) resorted thither with goods, to buy and sell, constantly in great multitudes."

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

The following specimens of Ruliheng and Barma, will indicate the similarity of style and measure which prevails in all the monosyllabic languages.

The specimen of the Rulihéng, is taken from the Nga-chaing-braing :

## THE BIRTH OF GAUTAMA.

O-lé lé sangkhyé hna
Kaing b'ha ta saing
'Two'k kyíng tsúng bowng
Pri bri syowng-hma
Párá tzú gó
Lo rui towng thi
Alúng sú mrép
Syang. Theik-d'hat ga
Né hmát pro ra
Dowk thi da hnei'ch
Khyaing sa sukha
Tzaing lé sa dé

O tzeng lé bri sô
Dewa nát-tzei'ch
Ahnei'ch mroung kra
Tzaing bri chwa hinz
Sei’ch-tza lé ba
Tará tzu si
Pri kha-ni-wé
Pri gri sa hla
Ka pila huei'ch
Khrei'ch pha Thowk to
Médó boûng hi
Siri maba

Maya waing t'lé
Amri thaing d'hé
Tsŭwé lé ti
O thaing dé tsŭvé bri
Mré gri kreit krak
Aup thak akowng
Lat lat rowng é
$\rho$ thaing dé tsuwé tlaa
Tsé la waing hneik
Paik towng bri tho
Piang é nan hmon
Ahlueng tu pró
Angarang to hneik
Mitso maya
Uyein sa go
Lé la tan di
O lé lát bri so

U yéng t'hé doaug
Ko wat kraug rué
Prajang ron mra
Ni ma hla ni
Gotami hna
Mă pri rat léăt
Lé krang shéat ruwé
Prang thak hnan moang
Ahlueng tu pro
Angarang to hneik
Mi tso maya
Tháing kha ngewéh khak
Káing hléăk lék tsuwé
Amré rat ré
Thowng lu chwa go
Phwa hléang lé i.

When one hundred thousand revolutions of the world were completed, each occupying four Sankhyas, then the devout worshipper obtained the object of earnest desire ; and the sublime Thik D'hat, (Sidd'harT'HA) who is acquainted with the secrets of futurity, obtained supreme felicity, tranquillity devoid of care, and self absorption. After the pure Deva Nat'ha had passed numerous ages in the possession of supreme felicity, meditating on the four laws of truth, when the period of the divine favour was nearly completed; in the excellent and populous region of Kapila, Suk-tó (Sùdd'hódana) became his beloved father, and Sri Maha Maya, his venerable mother, became pregnant of a perfect conception. When this conception took place, the strong earth was agitated upwards and downwards, trembling and shaking. After ten months pregnancy, supporting her swelling womb with her hand, his mother Maya was walking for recreation in a deep forest of Angarang trees, diffusing around an exquisite odour. Walking up and down in a pleasant garden, reciting the divine names on her rosary, and radiating in brilliant beauty, and accompanied by two younger sisters of the same complexion, unable any longer to support the burden of Gorama, (Gautama) she leaned on the shoulders of her two younger sisters. Within a deep forest, in a grove of Angarang trees, which diffused around an exquisite odour; his mother Maya, firmly grasping the branches with her hands, and standing erect on ber feet, brought forth the deity Gotama.

Theik-Dhat or Thík-Diat, is the Barma mode of pronouncing Sidifata, as it is written, which is the Balícorruption of Sidd-hap-tha. According to this amalogy, BUDDHA is pronounced BU'GDA, and Suddho, the contraction of Sùd'hodaxa, Suk-to, and sometimes Sug-do.

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

## DESCRIPTION゙ OF VARANASI.

Baranasi
Pyi gyi pyi hu
Kyú-níy lúbó
He-niy kosi
Năgo k’liaing-gaing
Husún hwún di
Baranasi
Chông ji pyo wa
Tho pyi ma hneik
Dana-ma-mé
Chawng lé sadéng
Meng i tang kỉúinn
Chúinn gyé han lī
Khyiuk suin pyo byo
Hna myo mé hlyéang
Hoy ha hoé chéng ěmé
Wan dúéng p’hyong tan
Makouk yúin di
Ta khúinn ha ga
Hnei'ch kwa maswé
Myew chwé khyéch so
Húlérg kacha
Hloup shya maneyng

Ti di sóng ewé
Hné lóng makyan
Kyéng dan mwé nyek
Myèk sék niba
Peng gà néng t'hek
Haích chek mŭshis
Khan khi sí nyín
P'hyeang bé pyo t'h
Lú abwon hné
Machan kréăng tma
Leik hléo pyew sa
Ché khu haeik chán
Raja t'han dŭéng
Ta éng malhyo
Kyé ju do gyoung
Sépo pyéng gyĕŭ:in
Mret lé thuĭa só
Ku-san hlé dék
Pyiuk la so kha
Ko gwé ya hilien
Hman chua chénģ čeifor
Phyeit pé so la
Néng ngan sa do

Kyan k'heng myé chông
Chéng yé hu-sa
Yé tu khyan p'hyeng
Tóng lé khyéng hina
Pyowk keng ché khyéng
Bowng mi kéng ewé
Mwoi shéang lan-owng
Sín myan chông si
Swé tawng nan pŭéng
Cho yan hlueng ga
Meik myiang ko yo
Sívé khyi kosa

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

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

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

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

Mitréya and Ketumat, occur in a Pauramic list of the Rajas of Benares, descended from Drvodasa, which was pointed out to me by Mr. Colebrooke, of whose notices I have frequently had occasion to avail myself.
XI. K'hôhmén.-The $K^{7} h o f$ mén language is used by a nation of that name, who reside on the Mékon, or river of Kam-bit-chät or Camboja. It has never been cultivated by Europeans, and I have had no opportunity of examining it. The Siamese, from whom I received my information, assured me that it was entirely different from either the T'hay or the Júan, or language of Cochin Chima. The K'hóhmén are reckoned an ancient and learned people; and were formerly subrluce by the T"hay-jhay, or ancient Siamese race. The modern Thay, or Siamese, still denominate the Bali character, Nangsu Khôm, or the K'hôhmén letter, from this nation. They are not, however, supposed to have existed as a polished nation so early as the Latw, but are believed to derive their origin from the warlike race of mountaineers named Khó, the Gueos of the early Portugueze historians, who are still represented as practising their ancient customs, of eating human flesh, and painting and tattooing their bodies. De Barros, however, seems to represent the language of the K'hôhmén as different from that of Camboja, though the Siamese do not distinguish them. "There are two kingdoms," says he, "acljacent to each other, and both of them maritime, which have each a peculiar language; the first is termed Como, and the second Camboja." (Decad. iii. lib. 2. c. 5.)
XII. Law.-The Latw language is used by the inland nation of that name, who are generally termed,
after the Portuguce writers, Láo, and in the plural, Lios, from their consisting of different races. Their language, De Barros observes, is peculiar, and the Siamese assert that it is different from the T'hay. It has never been cultivated by Europeans, very few of whom, besides Alexander De Rhodes, have ever visited the country. According to Kamprer, (History of Japan, p. 26,) the Litw nation do not differ much from the Siamese, either in language or writing, except that they are unable to pronounce the letters $l$ and $r$ : and this opinion I am much inclined to adopt, though I have had no favourable opportunity of investigating the subject. If, however, I may be allowed to judge from the specimens of the Latro language, which I have been able to procure from Siamese and Barmas, it appears to bear the same relation to the Thay or Siamese, that the Ruti'héng does to the Barma. With the T'hay-j'liay it accords more fully than with the Thay proper; and, in adopting Pali terms, it adheres more accurately to the Pali orthography than either of them. The following short list of words and phrases wilk eonvey some idea of the difference which. subsists between the T"hay and the Laize. As the T"hay-jhay approaches the Lazo more nearly than the T"hay, when that dialect uses peculiar terms, I have preferred adducing them, for the sake of comparison. Where the Lazw and the Thay agree in the radical, an apparent diversity is often produced by the conversion of the $l$ and $r$ into $h$ or $d$.

|  | Líw. | T'hay. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cal!, | hông, | ríukk, |
| talk, | fú, | plút, |
| warm, | hôn, | ron, |
| very waruh | hón ała, | for uk, |


| not know, | bo-hu, | mai ru, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Do you see? | châw han ka, | nai hén rú, |
| many, | meng, | mák, |
| sea, | mésămút, | thălé, |
| wave, | fông, | klúx, |
| river, | khôvg, | klóng, |
| number, | ân, | rap, |
| gold, | khǎm, | thôug-kham, theng, |
| lead, | tông, | tăkua, |
| do, | peng, jia, | t'harri, jia, |
| book, | pap, | sabút, |
| matchlock, | senat, | pùn, |
| far off, | kăi, | kiáa, |
| handsome, | lau, | ngám, |
| weary, | it, | nùëy, |
| hated, | chă, | kléit, |
| sing, | so, | khap, |
| grieve, | hái, | rong, |
| give, | hún, | hŭi, |
| approach, | hôt, | thŭng, |
| market, | kat, | tălát, |
| shut, | tút, | pít, |
| flesh, | chin, | nưa, |
| blood, | hùit, | lùit, |
| fight, | hop, | rop, |
| craft, | khilái, | lúang, |
| stand, | hŭn, | jùn, |
| lamp, | kat'hip, | tă-kiang, |
| how is it done? | peng jang húdé, | t'ham jang arai, |
| how many? | táw dai, | taw rái, |
| moon, | p'ha chan, | pra-chan, |
| woman, | mé jing, | pu-jing, |
| man, | pho-chay, | phu-chay, |
| country, | wiyung, | muang, |
| house, | hŭin, | rùin, |
| Who, | phai, | krai, or kai, |
| what, | basande, | arai, |
| go there, | pai-pun, | pai-nún, |
| come here, | mà-phé, | ma-si, |
| fort, | tapp, | k'hái, |
| elder brother, | ay, | pi-pach-zy, |
|  | S 2 |  |

Lázw. T'hay.

| elder sister, | uei, | pi-pu-jing, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mother, | imé, | mé, |
| I, | ku, | k'hà, |
| I (honorific) | kha, | di-chan, |
| we, | hôw, | râu. |

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

Kásyapa, and Sákyasinha. The language of Láro is represented as abounding in books, especially translations from the Bali; and if the antiquity of the nation can be depended on, they must be extremely interesting, from the situation of the comntry between China and the other Indo-Chinese nations. The Láz nation consists, like the Sïamese, of two different races of people, denominated in Siamese, Chóng-mái and Lan-chang, which are said by KøョmFER, to be the names of their chief cities. The first of these are termed, by the Barmas, Yim, and the second, Lain-sain. Dé Barros adds a third tribe, which he denominates Chan-cray. In their general appearance the Láw resemble the Mon.
XIII. Anam. - The Anam language is that of Cochin-China and Tonkin. It is represented by the catholic missionaries to be likewise generally used in Champa and Kau-bang ; but their assertions must be taken with some limitation when they add, Late, Cambója, and Siam. The Anam language, as well as the nation, is often denominated the Juan, by the Malays and Siamese. It has always been more cultivated by the catholic missionaries, than any other of the Indo-Chinese languages, though these fathers may, with some degree of propriety, affect the title of " multiplicis idiomatis propagatores." So early as 1651, the Propaganda Society published at Rome, the "Dictionarium Amamiticum Lusitamum et Latimem," compiled by the jesuit Alexandrir de Rhodes, after twelve years residence in Cochin-China and Tonkin, where he had studied under P. Francisco de Pina, the first who acquired skill and facility in that language. In composing his dictionary, he had also the adrantage of employing the materials col-
lected by P. Gaspar de Amaral and P. Antonio Barbosa, the first of whom had made some progress in preparing an Anum and Portugueze dictionary, and the second in compiling one in Portugueze and Anam. This dictionary is printed wholly in the Latin character, as the author considered the Anam character as too difficult to be useful. It is accompanied by a short grammatical sketch of the Anam. language, entitled "Lingure Anmamiticce sen Tunchinénsis brevis. Declaratio." 'I hough I have never met with a learned Cochin-Chinese, I have seen several persons who could speak the vulgar language by rote, and have paid sufficient attention to it to perceive, that the dictionary of $\mathrm{De}_{\mathrm{e}}$ Rhodes is a work of very great merit, though certainly susceptible both of additions and emendations. A new edition of it, would be a work of great utility, if our relations with Cochin-China should ever become more intimate or important: a circumstance by no means unlikely, from the formidable aspect which that kingdom has lately assumed among the more easterly nations. The prineipal defect of the work is, its representing, very imperfectly, the Anam pronunciation; a defect unfortunately very difficult to be remedied, as the Anam language contains many sounds which correspond very little to those of any European language, and respecting which a grammarian might be tempted to say, with the devout missionary Didacus Collado, when treating of the pronunciation of a Japanese letter, "quando in aliquo vocabulo fuerit, (quod est valde frequens) orare debet discipulus, Deum, ut ci venas promuntiationis aperiat."-(Prolog. in arte Grammat. Japonic. ling. p. 4.) De Rhodes also published at Rome, in 1652, a catechism, for the use of his Anam converts, in Anam and Latin.

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

The Chinese character forms, in reality, an abstract, philosophical language, such as has long been the theme of speculation in Europe, though it is generally regarded as an absurd and impossible reverie. It is not indicative of sounds, but of real objects and ideas; and consequently it is read and understood by at least twenty different nations, who would scarcely understand a word of one another's oral language, and would all use different words to express the same meaning. The only European characters, analogous to the Chinese symbolical written language, are our numeral, algebraical, astronomical, and chemical signs, which are constructed on the same abstract principles. The Chinese, however, sometimes contrive to make these singular characters perform a double office, and express sounds, as well as ideas; as when they write down English names, which another person can pronounce with great accuracy. As far as I have been able to learn, however, this can only be accomplished by persons who use the same spoken language.

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

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

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

| 1. Kông, | 6. Lŭi, |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2. Wáy, | 7. Limm, |
| 3. Nàm, | 8. Khunn, |
| 4. Chéw, | 9. Síw, |
| 5. Séw, | 10. Kunng. |

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

| 11. Hyong-san, | 14. Pún-ngi, |
| :--- | :--- |
| 12. Sun-tukk, |  |
| 13. Nam-hói, | 15. Tông-khún, |
| 16. Fo-khin. |  |

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

The Anam language has neither genders, numbers, nor cases; moods, tenses, nor conjugations ; all these are supplied by the use of particles and the justaposition of words, as in the other monosyliabic languages. The same word has often the signification
of both a noun and a verb, and its particular use, in such a case, is to be determined by the context, and the collocation of words in the sentence. The principles of collocation in sentences are equally simple as in the other monosyllabic languages. The adjective gencrally follows the substantive, as in Malayu, Barma, and T"hay; but when two substantives come together, the last of them is in the oblique case, as in Malayu and T"hay, but contrary to the Bar:ma order of arrangement. Thus, the phrase "the master of the house," is, in the Anam language chía nyà ; lut nyà chiua signifies the house of the master. In Malayu, these two phrases are rendered by tuan ruma, and ruma tuan; and in T"hay, by chàn rün, rím chèn; but the Barma follows a different order, and renders them by in-salihéng, salihéng-in, where in signifies house, and saliheng, master. The substantive verb is often omitted, as being reckoned inherent in adjectives, especially when preceded by the demonstrative pronouns. 'Thus, nuii mày kaw', this mountain high, i. e. is high, the assertion being implied. The nominative prececles the verb, the preposition the word which it presides over, the adverb adheres to the word which it modifies, the relative is wanting altogether, copulative conjunctions are generally omitted, and the peculiar modes of expression in the Anam idiom are chiefly such as result from the manners and habits of the people. The moods and tenses of verbs are formed by s:gnificant particles as in the other monosyllabic languages. As the Anam nation are equally formal and ceremonious as the Chinese, in their phrases of urbanity, and equally accurate in marking, with a minute and tedious precision, the degrees of respect and honour due to every person, in the several relations of stranger, acyuaintance, neighbour, relation, parent, magistrate, and all the several degrees of magistracy
and office; a great deal of the idiom of the language consists in the different modes of expressing the respective relations subsisting between the speaker and the person addressed: hence originates the number of personal pronouns, expressive of these relations, as well as numerous circumlocutory forms of expression; the genius of both the Anam and the Chinese language requiring, that as often as possible, appellative nouns, and names of office, dignity, relationship, or consangrinity, should be substituted instcad of the simple personal pronouns. Thus, a hmsband addressing his wife, and using the pronoun $I$, instead of saying taze, the, or gua, any of which has the signification of the simple pronoun $I$, ought to say anh, which signifies elder brother ; and his wife, on the other hand, ought either to denominate herself toi, handmaid, or éng, younger sister; a woman, in like manner, addressing herself kindly to another, who is either younger in years, or inferior in rank, ought always to denominate herself elder sister ; a husband addressing his wife, in polite terms, ought always to term her younger sister; and, in general, speaking to a young woman, she should use the same expression, but an old woman he ought to term bau or aunt. A lover, addressing his mistress, terms her younger sister, while she, in return, terms him elder brother. A son, addressing his father, ought not even to term him cha, father; but anh, father's elder brother'; chu, father's younger brother, or cau, mother's brother: in a similar mamer, addressing his' mother, he ought not to term her mé, mother; but either cb, father's sister, or di, mother's sister. It is easy to perceive that this minute accuracy of phraseology must have occasioned great trouble to the catholic missionaries in rendering portions of scripture into the Anam language; accordingly we find,

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that they were extremely distressed about the propricty of the terms to be used, whenever God the Father, Jesus Chieist, The Holy Ghost, or the Virgin Mary, were to be introduced as interlocutors, and dismally puzzled whether the Virgin ought to denominate herself, tói, handmaid, or mé, mother, in addressing her son Jesus Christ; as a very trivial change of phraseology, in a language so delicate in its sliades and distinctions, might have given origin to the most dangerous heresy.

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

Borri affirms, that the sacred books of the Anam nation, are termed Sék King, while those relative to civil subjects are denominated Sék Chuze. He adds, that the first treat of the creation of the world, the nature of mind, the different classes of intelligent beings, moral and metaphysical theology; but both these classes of books seem rather to refer to Chinese literature, than to that which is peculliarly Anam; for S'ék signifies oaly book, Chíze is the name applied to the Chinese character, and King is the name of the books first put into the hands of the students of Chinese literature. Numerons Tru-yèil or Cheritras, however, are known to exist in the Anam language, and form the subject of their dramatic representations, in which the Auam nation are not inferior to the Chinese.

The ancient code of Tonkin laws, possessed great celebrity, and was highly venerated previous to the late conquest of that country by the Cochin-Chinese. It is represented, by the missionary Le Roy, as composed in the most elevated style of Chinese, and full of uncommon modes of expression. He also mentions, that it was printed with an Anam translation, composed by an ancient Tonhin Mandarin.

The Anam style is sometimes highly bold and figurative, and attains a degree of animation which is not very common among the Indo-Chinese nations of the continent. If the French version can be depended on, we need only refer, in proof of this, to the manifesto issued by the usurper Quang-tru'vg, in 1790, to quiet the minds of his subjects, alarmed at the reports of the prowess of the French auxiliaries, who aided the first efforts of the present monarch for the recovery of his throne. "Be not so credulous
as to listen to what they say of the Europeans. What superior ability should that race be possessed of? They have all the eyes of green serpents, and we ought only to regard them as floating "corpses, cast on our shores by the seas of the north." (Nourelles des missions Orientales-p.144.)

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

The Quan-tó, an ancient race, as the name signifies, who inhabit Kaubang or the mountainous range which divides the Anam countries fiom China, regard themselves as the original inhabitants of Tomkin and Cochin-China; and consider the Anam as a Chinese colony. The Quan-tó have a peculiar language, and write with a stylc, on the leaves of a plant, termed in Anam, jitia. The Mói and Miong are also mountaincer tribes, who speak languages different from the Anam, but it is hitherto unknown whether they are original races, or only branches of the Quan-tó.

The following comparative vocabulary of the Barma, T"hay, and Anam languages, with the Kong dialect of the C'hinesc, will convey some idea of their mutual relations and differences. A few Rulihéng.
variations are also exhibited in the Barma column with the initial R. prefixed.

| God | Barma. prá yieng | T'hay. pra-cháw | Anam. <br> chúa | Kong-Clinese. sunn, t’bien-chí |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| heaven | nip-ban | sâwan | t'luién | t'hien |
| the earth | kam-ba | pi-p'hop | 'dia | thien-ha |
| earth | mye R. mre | dín | 'dat | ti |
| air | lé | lŏm | pha-jyó | húng |
| water | yé R. ré | nam | nák, nuwok, thuy | sói |
| fire | mí R.. meing | fài | lúwa, hóa | ffôö |
| sun | né | tawàn | nyit, mât-bloei | thai-yong, ngút |
| moon | lă | dùin | nguyit, mâtblang | nguit |
| star | kyi R. kri | dàw | saw, tinh | tin-sung |
| sky | no | sâ | bloei, | mun-thien |
| sea | peng-lé | tă-lé | bét, bién, hăi | hŏë |
| river | k'hyong R. <br> kh'rôn | klong | sû | hó |
| mimal | tareich-chan | săt | thu | chhôk-16i |
| bird | lingek | nók | ching | chbéok-chay |
| fish | ngâ | plâ | ka | ngù |
| plant | apéng | tón | thuw | ch'háw |
| tree | apéng gyi | tón-mái | sang | sú, sut |
| leaf | ayéwék | băí | lá | hyep |
| hill | towng | p'hu-khaw | níi | san |
| plain | 1e-bieng | t'lung | 'dow, nù | phéng |
| stone | kyiowk | hin | 'dá | syŭk, lië |
| gold | swé | t'hòng | wáng | kumm |
| silver | ngwe | ngùn | bak | ngúnn |
| brass | kyé | t'hòng-k'ham | t'haw | t'hong |
| iron | san | lék | thiet, săt | thit |
| tin | khé | tă kóă | thiek | syăk |
| rice | ch'han | ká-ă̌n | gàw, lúa, kǒem | mây |
| egg | ú | khài | tlueng | clı'hônn |
| day | nĕ | wán | ngày | yat |
| night | nya | k'hùn | 'dêm | man |
| evening | nya-né | kham | ban-hom | - ${ }^{\text {à }}$ |
| moruing | manék | cháw | sang-nyay | chew |
| nonth | la | dùin | thang | yuč, ngùit |


| year | Barma. <br> neit | T'hay. pí | Anam. nien, nam, tuë, tuôí | K'ong-Chinese. nin |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| man | lu | khōn | ngúwói | yun |
| man | yowk-kya, | pacháy | паm | nan-yun |
| woman | mim-ma | paning | nıw | nyu-yun |
| father | p'haé | p'hó | cha | liù, fứ |
| mother | maé | mé | mé | nu |
| husband | leng | p'h¢и\% ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | chàs, phu | law k'hung |
| wife | inaja | miya | vwó, the | law-p'ho |
| son | sa. | lot pachay | kon-blai | chí |
| daughter | sa-mi | lok paning | kon-gai | ngúė |
| elder 7 bro- | ako | p'hi-paciay | anh | aliko |
| younger $\}$ ther | nyi | nong pachay | fong | $t$ |
| elder ${ }^{\text {sis- }}$ | umma | pi păjing | chi | amui |
| younger $\}$ ter | nyi-ma | nong-păning | Eng | 1 0 Oi |
| friend | sang-e-gyicn | klí | nghía | pung-yow |
| enemy | yan-su | satrúa | nghéich, thu | tzow-yun |
| head | goring | huă | thù 'dâu | thôw |
| face | hmiek-na | ná | mat, may màt | mín |
| eyc | hmek-chei'ch | tá | nyan, môk, mát kon-mát | ngān |
| nose | nakhaung | tămúk | múi | pi |
| ear | na | hu | tái | ngi |
| mouth | pajat | pâk | khau, mieng, lômieng | $\text { \} how }$ |
| tooth | swa | fan | răng | ngá |
| tongue | sha | lin | luwoi | li |
| hand | lek | mù | tay | sǒw |
| font | khyé | tin | chên | khúok |
| belly | wún | p'hùng, thong | deà, bàw | t'hú |
| back | kjó | lang | kât | püi-hów |
| skin | ajé, saye. R. aré, saré | nang | děa | phi |
| bone | ayo. R. aro | kădúk | kôt, shwang-hót | ka |
| flesh | 2 sa | núă | thit | héwưk |
| blood | swè | lưit | máu tiet | hit |
| milk | no-yé | nâm-nợm | suwa | nín |
| pat | chá | Kin | an | kiĕ |
| drink | sók | kin-mám | ưông | yím |



- -6 ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

| few | Barma. cheich-ch | T'hay. <br> é hit, nit | Anam. <br> bé, dó, nyo | Kong-Chinese. <br> tuk, shaw |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ally, some | tăkhyo | kài kài | ko-ai | yów ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ |
| alove | at'hek | bŏn | tlen | shyang |
| under | .awk | tái, láng | chuéng | ha |
| in | at'he | nay | oei, tlâw | li, in |
| without | pyíeng | nók | vo, chàng-k ngöài | ngoii waí |
| to | ko, go | ké | cho | ni, ù |
| from | ka, ga | té | boei | tzong |
| - this | di-hu | ni | nây | téko |
| that | ho-hu | nun | ey, nò | Loko |
| there | ho hma | tino | ben-nò | nuné |
| here | di hma | tılí | bên-nây | koné |
| before | shyé | na | tluwòk | $\sin$ |
| behind | nawk | t’hi láng | fâu | hôw |

XIV. Pali'-The Pali language among the IndoChimese nations, occupies the same place which Sanscrit bolds among the Hindus, or Arabic among the followers of Islam. Throughout the gieater part of the maritime countries which lie between India and Chima, it is the language of religion, law, literatur'e, and science, and has had an extensive influence in modifying the vernacular languages of these regions. The name of this language, though commonly pronounced Bali, is more generally written Pali; but both forms are occasionally used. As the origin of the word is still very obscure, it is difficult to determine which is the more correct orthography. If, however, we could venture to identify the term with the Báhlika bhasha, which, in the Sahítya Dérpana of Visicanátha, is enmmerated as one of the languages proper to be used by certain characters, in dramatic works, the latter ought to be considered as the more correct. La Loubere, on the authority of D'Herbelot, has stated (Tom. I. p. 422) that the ancient Persic language was termed Pahaleri, (Pahlavi) and that the Persians do not
distinguish in writing between Pahali and Bahali. This conjecture would be confirmed by the identity of the terms Balí and Bádlika bhasha, were it to be established; for nó donbt can be entertained that in Sanscrit gerggraphy, the epithet Báhlika is applied to a northern Indo-Persic region, probably corresponding to Balkh Bámiyan. Among the Indo-Chinese nations, the Ball is frequently denominated Lanlia-basa, or the language of Lanka, and Magata, or,'as it is often pronounced Mungata, a term which seems to correspond with the Sanscrit Magadhi, which, in many of the Vyakaranas, is cummerated as ne of the dialects proper to be used by certain characters introduced in Natakas, or Hindúu dramas. According to Kampper, the Balí in the Khom language, and by the inhabitants of Pegu, was termed "Mac-cata-pasa," or Magad'hi b'hasha, as we may safely venture to render it. P. Paulinus however applies this term inaccurately to the square Bali character, instead of the language (Mus. Borg. p. 1).

This language, notwithstanding its extensive use among so many nations, and the degrce of cultivation which it has received from the different tribes by whom it is employed, has hitherto attracted little attention among Europeans. The indefatigable Køмpfer, in his Amernitates Exotica," has very imperfectly exhibited the Bali alphabet. La Loubere had previously published it more correctly, according to the form employed among the Siamese; his Bali alphabet is repeated in the French Encyclopedia, and Carpanius, in his "Alphabetum Barmaimun," has exhibited the simple letters, according to the square form, employed by the Bármas. La Loubere, in his "Historical Relontion of Siam," has published "The Life of Thevertat," said to be translated from the Balt, with a fragment termed "An Explanation of the Patimouc,
or Text of the Vinac." P. Paulinus a S. Bartholomaed, in his "Museum Borgium," has, in his usual petulant, inaccurate, and desultor:v manner, exhibited some confused notices concerning the Bidagat, the Padi-mauka, the Kammuva, and a "Compendium of the Barma Lazes," composed in the Pali language. Dr. F. Buchanan, in his "Essay on the Religion and Literature of the Barmas," (Asiat. Research. voin vi.) has published a translation of the "Kammua,", esecuted from the Latin version of Vincentio Sanger.mano, which differs considerably from the notices contcerning that work published by P. Paulinus, accolrding to whom, in 1776, an Italian translation of it was made in Pegu, at the instance of cardinal Bonga. Whether any of these versions have been made directly from the Pali, or only through the medium of a Barma or Siamese version, is, at least, very dubious; but the enumeration may suffice to show how far the attention of Europeans has been turned to this language. It would appear, that the learned La Croze, in his epistolary correspondence, has also treated coneerning the relations aud affinities of the Pali, but I have had no opportunity of consulting the collection of his letters. P. Paulinus, in his coarse, acrimonious, and offensive way has also obtruded on the public, some conjectures concerning it, but the publication of his "Vyacarana, seu locupletissima Samscrdamicae linguae Institutio," Romae 1804, has. given a death-blow to his vaunted pretensions to profound oriental learning; and shown, as was previously suspected, that lie was incapable of accurately distinguishing Sanscrit from the vernacular languages of India."*,

[^51]The Bali alphabet seems, in its origin, to be a derivative from the Deva-nagari, though it has not only acquired considerable difference of form, but has also been modified to a certain degree, in the power of the letters, by the monosyllabic pronunciation of the Indo-Chinese nations. It has dropped, in
been, by European writers, in competition with such authorities in Hindûu literature, as Sir W. Jones, or Mr. Colebeooke. In his Museum Borgianum he has mistaken a specimen of Malayu for Bengali; but this is nothing to what occurs in his Sanscrit Grammar. The same blunder had been made before him, by the Editors of the polyglott "Oratis Dominica;" but the following are his own. A numerous class of Sanscrit nouns form the fifth case in AT; in Tamul and Malayálam, however, a case of similar import terminates in AL ; and this case, which belongs to these vernacular languages, but never to Sanscrit, has P. PAuunus uniformly substituted, in his Sanserit Grammar, in the place of the regular Sanscrit flection in ar. This substitution of the letter $l$ for $t$ is not confined to those instances only, in which the analogous fiections of a vernacular language may be supposed to have led to the error; it occurs in numerous instances, in which the Sunscrit and popular dialects coincide ia using the letter $t$, and which must therefore be considered as the blunders of absolute ignorance. 'Thus, in the names of the tenses of the Sanscrit verb, he gives lal for lat, lol for lot, lil for lid, and lul for lûd. A blunder similar to that which occurs in the fifth case of nouns, runs through a variety of the flections of the Sanscrit verb. Thus, he gives abharal for ab'havat, blavadal for b'havatat, blavel for $b^{\prime} h a v u t$, bhuyal for b'huyat, abhul for ab'hut, abhaviszyal for $a b^{\prime} h a v i-$ shyat: but the whole work swarms with similar errors. What should we think of a Latin grammarian who should falsify the ablative case in nouns, and misrepresent the third person singular in verbs? Yet this is nothing more than what has been done by the redoubted P. Paulinus, whom the leamed Sylvestre de Sacy terms "un des ecrivains les plus tranchans et les plus dedaigneux;" and he has not only erred in the particular instances which he has adduced in his Grammar, but he has also laid down rules to justify his errors, as, in his rules for the permutation of the letter $l$ into $t, d, d h, \& c$. All his other works, that have faller into my hands, equally abound in error, arrogance and ignorance. Equally superficial, inaccurate, and virulent in his invective, a critic of his own stamp would be tempted to retort on him his own quotation from Ennius.

Sumia" quam similis turpissima bestia vobis.

## 280 ON THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

common use, some letters entirely, and accented others in a manner similar to the U'dhata, Amudhata, and Sauarita tones, in the system of accentuation used in chaunting Mantrás, and in reciting the Vedas themselves. Thus, it has dropped both the palatal and the celebral sh of the Deva-nagari, as well as the double consonant lish, though the two first are still retained in the more correct alphabets. Instead of pronouncing the first series of letters lia k'ha, ga g'ha, nga, it recites them lia liha kia găha, ngu pronouncing la thrice; first, in its natural tone; secondly, softly accented in treble, as if with the tone úd hata; and thirdly, in a rleep base tone, like the anúdhata of the Samavedá Brahmens; gŭha or ga is only recited once and that slightly accented, while nga suffers no alteration. A similar alteration occurs in the sccond series, cha, and the fifth series, pa. The vowcls are generally presented. in the same order as the Deva-nagari, but by a similar mode of accentuation, eighteen are sometimes employed. The peculiarities of this pronunciation are, however, more closely adhered to by the T'hay or Siamese, than by the Barma and Ruklieng nations, whose languages are neither so powerfully accented, nor so monosyllabic as the I'hay.

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

Lanka or Ceylon; though in that island, Balí compositions, are frequently written in the proper Sing"halu character. Of the character used in Láw, Champa, and Anam, I have had no opportunity of judging. Calipanies, in his "Alphabetum Barmanum," p. 37, asserts, that Ia Loubere, in his "His torical Relation of Siam," has mistaken the Barma and Lárw characters for the Ball; and Sir W. Jones, in his sth anniversary discourse, if I understand him, affirms the same thing, on the authority of a native of Arakan. The fact, however, is, that LA Loubere's a! phabet, though imperfect, as the vowels are omitted, and the powers of several letters inaccurately expressed, is the real Bali alphabet of the Siamese, and that which I have found in use among the Talapoins, both of the Thay and the T'hay-jhay race, however it may differ from the Bali, in use among the Barma and Ruthéng nations. This character, howerer, when correctly written, is not round like the proper Barma character, but formed by a number of minute strokes, placed in an angular position, like the Sing ${ }^{\circ}$ hala Pushpálisha' $\mathfrak{c}$, or flower-character. Indeed, on comparing the two characters, the square Barma-Bali character will be found to approach nearer the proper Barma character, than the Bali of Siam.

The Bali is an ancient dialect of Sanscrit, which sometimes approaches very near the original. When allowance is made for the regular interchange of certain letters, the elision of harsh consonants, and the contraction of similar syllables, all the vocables which occur in its ancient books, seem to be purely Sanscrit. In Cheritús and latter compositions, however, -some words of the popular languages of the country sometimes insinuate themselves, in the same manner

## 289

as Tamul, Teling a, and Canara vocables occasionally occur, in the later Sanscrit compositions of the Dekhin. The Bal', while it retains almost the whole extent of Sanscrit flections, both in nouns and verbs, nevertheless employs this variety rather sparingly in composition, and affects the frequent introduction of the preterite participle, and the use of impersonal verbs. It also uses the cases of nouns in a more indeterminate manner than the Sanscrit, and often confounds the active, nenter, and passive tenses of verbs. Like other derivative dialects, it occasionally uses Sanscrit nouns and particles in an oblique sense ; but notwithstanding all these circumstances, it approaches much nearer the pure Sanscrit, than any other dialect, and exhibits a close affinity to the Prálirit, and the Zerid.

These three dialects, the Prathrit, the Bali, and the Zend, are probably the most ancient derivatives from the Sanscrit. 'The great mass of vocables in all the three, and even the forms of flection, both in verbs and nouns, are derived from the Sanscrit, according to regular laws of elision, contraction, and permutation of letters. Sometimes, in pursuing these analogics, they nearly coincide, sometimes they differ considerably, sometimes one, and sometimes another of them approaches nearest to the original Sanscrit. Their comnection with this parent language was perceived, and pointed out by Sir W. Jones, and has also been been alluded to by P. Paulinus, who derives his information, concerning the Ball, from Carfanius and Mantegatius. The fate of these three languages is also, in some degree, similar. The Prakrit is the language which contains the greater part of the sacred books of the' Jainas; the Bali is equally revered among the followers of BudD'Ha;
white the Zend, or sacred language of ancient Iran, has long enjoyed a similar rank among the Parsis or worshippers of fire, and been the depository of the sacred books of Zoroastris. It is perhaps, however, more accurate to consider all the three, rather as different dialects of the same derivative language, than as different langu:ges; and conformably to this idea, the Ball itseif may be reckoned a dialect of Práhrit. The tem Prährit, both in books, and in common use among the Brahmens, is employed with some degree of latitude. Sometimes the term is confined to a particular dialect, employed by the Jainas, as the language of religion and science, and appropriated to females, and respectable characters of an inferior class, in dramas. Sonetimes it includes all the dialects derived inmediately from the Sanscrit; whether denominated Prákrit, Mágad'hí, Sútraséni, Pais'achí, or Apábhrans'a; and sometimes it is even extended to the Désa-blháshats, or popular tongues of India, as MIahrísht or Muhratta, Canara, Telinga, Udia and Bengali', According to the extended use of the term Prálivit, it may certainly include both Bali and Zend; and if more extensive research should justify the idea derived from an imperfect investigation, I apprehend that the Bali may be identified with the Magad'hí, and the Zend with the Séraséni, of Sanscrit authors.

These three dialects, the Prákrit, Bali, and Zend, have been regularly cuhivated and fixed by composition. The same laws of derivation are applicałle to the formation of all the three; but yet there is often considerable diversity in the forms which particular words assume, as appears from the follow. ing comparative specimen.

| man | Sanscrit. <br> purushah | Prákrit. puriso | Balí. <br> burutsa | Zend. <br> peôorosche |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| woman | strí | trí | it'hi | strée |
| daughter | putrí | puí | butri | pothré |
| wife | b'harya | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { bhariáa } \\ \text { bhaja } \end{array}\right\}$ | p'hiriya |  |
| father | pitá | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { piá } \\ \text { piărón } \end{array}\right\}$ | pita | fedr $\epsilon$ |
| mother | matá |  | matta | maté |
| wind | váyuh | baú | vayo | vato |
| fire | agnih | aggih | ak hi | atéré |
| horse | as'wah | ásó | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { atsa } \\ \text { achia } \end{array}\right\}$ | aspo <br> aspahé |
| hog | s'úkarah | suaró | sukaro | soubaré |
| dog | s'wá, s'wânum sunău |  | sunak'la | sunish. |
| buffalo | mahishah | mahisó | mahiugsa | mesha |
| land | hastah | hattó | - hasti | zesté |
| sun | suryah $\}$ | suró $\}$ | suriya' | houeré |
|  | ravih | rai $\}$ | ravé | recoué |
| tiger | vyagrah | bag'hó | p'hayagho | azra \} |
| tree | vrukshah | rukhú <br> vuch'hais | rukha | orot'hé |
| village | grámam | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { gámanı } \\ \text { gáü } \end{array}\right\}$ | khaman | gueoué |
| the lingum | lingan | linkam | lankan | henghâmé |
| mounitain | parvatah | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { pabbau } \\ \text { paüta } \end{array}\right\}$ | bapato | burezoeté |
| world | prit'hivi | pahaví | pattwé | peété |
| forest | aranyanı | rannam | aranja | heramn |
| he enters | pravishatí | pavishai | pawisi | freescheté |

Sunscrit. Prákrit. Bali. Zend.
they will come Sogamishwantíágamihiï $^{\text {g }}$

| he makes | karoti | karoi <br> atti <br> achi <br> asai |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| asti | karoti | kereté |  |
| seven <br> heaven | saplah <br> swargah | sattó <br> saggí | sapta <br> saggô | | hapté |
| :--- |
| spérézé |

In this specimen, the Prakrit words are selected from the Ilanuruma Vritio of B'hamama, and the Prahritahatéswarah of Virya' Vinó'нa; the Balit are taken at random from the Kumárá-Bap, Chitamnain, and IF tiamain; and the Zeid, from the vocabularies of Aiquetil du Perron, whose orthography, since! have not been able to procure the original Zind, has been preserved, however inaccurate, in preference to conjectural emendation; though I am convinced that an orthography, more conformable to the origimal, would render the comection of Zend, with its cognate dialects, nore apparent.

## Specimen of Bali from the Hatamnán.

Sagge' hámórharupé giri-s'th'lara-gaté chántálikk'hé vimáné dipé rat'hé-cha gamé taruvonagahané géhavat'hamhi k'hétté.

F'hummá chávantu deva: jala-t’hala-visané yakha-gandabba-naga tit'hantám-anitikéyám munivara-vachanam sádavo mé sunantu.

D'hammassa-vanakáló-ayum bhaddanta namótassa-B’hagavató Arhattó s'amina sambuddassa.

Yésantá-santachitta-tisarano-saraná éta-lókantarévá bhummá-bhumıná-cha-riévá guna-gana-gahaní d’háyatá sabbakálam été áyántu dévá varakanakamaé méru-rıjé vasantó.

Simiósuhétan munivaravachanaın sótam maggam sammaggam sabbésú chakku-vàlésú yakhá dévá-cha bramhanó.
Which may be thus restored into Sanscrit, zeithout the radical change of a single word.
Swarge' kámécharúpé giris'ikharagaté chántaríkshé vimáné dipé rashtré grámé ta uvanagahané grihavatihi kshétré.

Bhúmau cháyántu dévá jalast'hala-vishamé yaksha-gandharva-nágás tis'hantám antiképám munivarachanam sád'havis mé s'rinantu.

Dhermas'ravanakálóyum b'hanyantam: namastasyaB'hagavató Arhatónsamyak sambudd'hasma.

Yésantah s'ánta-chitta trisarana s'araná ihalókóttarévá b’humau ab'humaucha, dévá gunaganagrahaná d’hayantah servakálam: été áyántu dévā varakanakamaé mérurājé vasantah.

Santóshahétum munivaravachanam s'rótum agré samagram scrvéshu chakravaléshu yakshá déváscha brámhanalı.

The Devas frequent Swurga, Kamarupa, the mountain tops, and atmosphere, in their cars, and on earth, they visit the Dripas, the fields, cities, recesses of forests, habitations, and sacred places. In inaccessible places, by land or water, the Yakshas, Gand-hervas and Nagas reside, in the vincity of waters. I isten to me, ye devotees, while I recite the words of the Mfunivaras: this is the time for hearing sacred things(the devotees reply) Say on. (the speaker procceds) Reverence to Внаgavata Arhata, the all-comprehending. Those who hear, shall become pure of mind, and Trisara' shall protect them both in this and other worlds: the Dcras, earthly and unearthly, possessed of various qualities, constantly present themselves to their thoughts, and the Deras who reside on Meru, the chief of mountains, of pure gold, frequent them. In the full and perfect hearing of the words of the Munizaras, the Yakshas, Deras, and Bramhanas delight above all else.

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

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

[^52]In addition to the list of Barma compositions, the following names of twelve popular works may be mentioned:

| 1. Wi bado, | 5. Nyáwa, | 9. Namosara Lénga, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2. Wi béng, | 6. Séng-gyó, | 10. Yadana suiu-gyaing, |
| 3. Padi muk, | 7. Wi-miy, | 11. Tong-úchó, |
| 4. Néwi, | 8. Silıo namakara, | 12. Yérlana Rasi. |

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

1. Jainda Mana Bikhu, an account of the female ascetic Jainda Mana.
2. Nunda Jaina, the history of a Dera, also named Anunda.
3. Témi, the religious institutes of Temi.
4. Némi, Another of the ten great religious books of the Budd'hists, which are recited in the following order: 1. Témi; 2. Némi; 3. Janaka ; 4. Sawan Nasyan ; 5. B'huridat ; 6. Maho sot'ha; 7. Samata; 8. Wit'hora; 9. Chanda Gúngma; 10. Wesundara. Besides these, the two following works are of great authority.
The Paréik-gyí, which is the Barma Hatamnún.
Pat'ham, which is the book of their mythology, revealed by MYA Chewa-para.
5. Dhermu pat há, a book on Justice.
6. Namagara, a ritual of prayers.
7. Logasara and Loganithi, Moral treatises.
8. Paramikhan, accomt of Samata and T'hik D'hat.
9. Bongkhan, the adiventures of Nemi.
10. Kado-khan, a religious work on the expiation of crimes.
11. To-twek-khan, the same work as the Rukhéng Nga-chang brang.
12. Anusasana, a small book for children, like the Tamul Atisúdi. and other compositions of Avyar.
13. Attagat-Lénga, the Bídagat.
14. Hmat-chew-Bong, A System of morality.

## IV.

> An Account of the Trigonometrical Operations in crossing the Pexinsula of Ixdia, and connecting Fort St. George with Mangalore.

By CAPT. WLlLiAal LAMBTON.

Communicated by The Honorable William Petrifs, Esq. Governor of Fоrt St. Georcie.

## general account.

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

A full account of this survey being intended for a separate publication at some future period, when more materials will be collected, I have chosen for the subject of the present paper, that part of it which I think will be the most interesting; viz. the triangular operations in comnecting the two seas, and the method by which the difference of longitude has been determined in my progress from east to west: and that it may be better adapted to the general reader, who, perhaps, may have neither time nor inclination to enter into minute detail, I shall previously state, in a concise form, the manner in which these extensive operations have been carried over the great mountains, forming the eastern and western

[^53]ghauts, and through the whole extent from Fort St. George to Mangalore, being a distance of three humdred and sixty two miles and upwards, on the parallel of the mean latitude between these two places.

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

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

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

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

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

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

## 294

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

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

As the situation of the places on the Malabar coast, and their relative positions, with respect to the observatory at Madras, and other places on the coast of Coromandel, constitute a most important part of this survey, I have left mothing undone, in that respect, to give full and entire satisfaction. But the great accuracy required, in these low latitudes, in ascertaining the length of a degree of longiturle, has called forth more than ordinary attention; and I have reason to hope, from the many farourable and concurring circumstances, that my endearours have been rewarded with success. The three stations best situated for determining the length of an are, perpendicular to the meridian, are Yerracondah, Savendroog, and Mullapumabetta; their respective distances from each other being nearly 67 miles; and lying in a direction very nearly east and west, the spheriodical corrections for the angles are trifling. All the other great stations have therefore been used for connecting the meridian lines, their latitudes and longitudes being computed spherically by using the oblique ares, as obtained on the elliptical hypothesis, the perpendicular degrees having been found equal to 60748 fathoms, and the meridional degree 60498 fathoms, in latitude $12^{\circ} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$, which is the latitude of Sarcondroog, as had by referring to the latitude of Doddgoontah, the great station of observation, (Art. S) for fixing the point of departure.

The scale of 60448 fathoms, for the length of the degree perpendicular to the meridian, in lat. $12^{\prime \prime} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$, is considerably dificent from what was formerly obtained from the observations made at Carangrooly
and Carnatighur, and reduced to the same latitude; but this is not to be wondered at, considering under what great disadvantages they were made, and the extreme accuracy required in making them: and it may be further remarked, that Carnatighur is by no means an eligible station, on account of the great mass of mountains on the west, and the low sandy plain to the east, which comes to the foot of the mountain. Such an inequality of matter must doubtless produce a great lateral attraction, and sensibly affect the instrument. The station on Balroyndroog, on the top of the western ghauts, has been laid aside. on a similar account.

The relative positions of Savendroog, Mullapumabetr $t a$, and Yerraconduh, haring been fixed with great accuracy, the connection with the observatory at Mudras is effected, by working back to Carangooly, by means of the oblique arcs, (Art. 15) and then using the northing and easting, and computing spherically, by converting the easting into an are at right angles to the meridian of Carangooly, and passing through the observatory; and also using the co-latitude of the point of intersection of the said are and meridian. From this computation, the latitude of the stone pedestal in the centre of the observatory is had equal $13^{\circ} 43^{\prime \prime} 7^{\prime \prime}$. 'The position of the flag-staff at Mangalore, is deduced from the meridian of Balroyndroog, by using the southing and westing, in a similar manner as at Carcingooly, with respect to the observatory. It is thence found to be in lat. $10^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 38^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. and $34^{\prime} 50^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. from the meridian of Batroyndroog. By summing up the respective difficrences of longitude, we shall have $5^{\circ}-5^{\prime} \varrho 3^{\prime \prime}$ for the longitule of Mangalore west from the observatory; to which add o' $^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ " the easting of the church steeple in

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

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

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

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

## SECTION. I.

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

## I. ANGLES.

## At Hanandamulla.



At Pilloor Hill.


At Kylasgruw:
Referring flag, $\cdots$....Patticondah, $\left.\ldots \ldots 53 \cong 34, \begin{array}{l}33.62\end{array}\right\} 33.81$
Yerracondah ...... $\left.89 \begin{array}{rl}17 & 57.16 \\ 56 . \\ 59.66\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{ll}57.61\end{array}$

At Kylasghur, continued.



## At Patticondah.

Fymandroog …...Yerracondalı.......56 22 19.75 $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { 2s. }\end{array}\right\}$ 20.3;

## At Patticondah, continued.



At Yerracondah.



## At Yerracondal, continued.

| BetweenAnd <br> Referring flag. .... Pole-star's W. elongation $\cdot$ $9^{\prime} 3^{\prime} 5^{\prime \prime} .5$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | 3.75 |
|  | 4. |
|  |  |
|  | 4.25 |

## At Rymandroog.



## At Tirtapully Hill.




At Nundydroog.


## At Bonnairgottah.

| S. end of the Base | . Muntapum Station 38 | 46 | 30.02\} | 31.15 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Muntapum Station | ..Tirtapully Hill . . . 51 |  | 32.28 53.25 |  |
|  |  |  | 53.6 | 54.62 |
|  |  |  | 57.3 |  |
| Tirtapully Hill. . . | . Muntapum Centre . 51 |  | $\left.\begin{array}{r} 566.65 \\ 56.55 \end{array}\right\}$ | 56.91 |
|  |  |  | $\left.\begin{array}{l} 59.55 \\ 54.9 \end{array}\right\}$ | 50.91 |
| Muntapum Centre | . .Savendroog . . . . . 705 |  | $25.06\}$ | 23.91 |
| Savendroog | . Allasoor Hill . ...75 | 50 | 22.25 |  |
|  |  |  | 28.5 | 27.92 |
|  |  |  | 28.$\}$ |  |

At Bonnairgottah, continued.
Betureen
And


At the Mhentapum Centre.


At the Muntapum Station.


At the S. End of the Base.



At Deorabetta.


|  | Tirtapully Hill .. 794052.9 |
| :---: | :---: |

Bonnairgottah .......Tirtapully Hill .. $46 \quad 4415.73$
Aukissgherry … 985420
Tirtapully Hill ...... Ankissgl erry .... 5210 04. 27
II. Measurfment of the Base Line near Bangalore.

This base was executed by Lieut. Warren, of H. M: 33d Regt. then one of my assistants; and was intended as a datunı for extending the triangles to the Mulabar coast : and also as a base of verification to the triangular measurement brought from the base near Madras; and it appeared that, by continuing: the computations the whole distance, and making this base one of the sides of the last triangle, the computation exceeded the measurement only $3 \frac{7}{20}$ inches.

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

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

When the hypothenuse was terminated, a register picket was driven into the ground, opposite to the arrow of the chain, and in such a manner, that when the brass head was fixed thereon, the slide might X 2
be parallel to the chain, and very near it. A piece of wood was contrived to be placed upon the brass head, and fixed by a screw, which pressed against the end of the slider, so that when that slider was moved by its own screw, the wood, thus attached, moved with it, in the direction of the alignement, as nearly as the exe could jurdge. (On the top of this wood was placed a $T$, having also a motion in the same direction with the brass slider, to expedite the operation; and on the top of this $T$, a brass ruler, in length abont six inches, was placed, having a sliding motion at right angles to the other; and in the middle of the projecting end, was a mark from which the plummet was suspended, and by the two motions, at right angles to each other, the plumb line was easily brought to coincide with the arrow terminating the hypotheneuse. A like operation was gone through with the commencement of the next hypothenuse, and the arrow brought to coincide with the same plumb line. Here the distance of each arrow above or below the brass rule was noticed as in the former measurement.

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

Experiments, made for comparing the Chains, prciurus to the Measuremest.


Experaments, made for comparing the Cinasis, after the conclusion of the Measuremant.


Table，containing the Particulars of the Measurement．

| 家 |  | Angles of |  | Petpeudicular． |  | Commence－ ment from the last． |  |  | 空 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\mathrm{E}^{\mathrm{n}} \& \mathrm{D}^{\mathrm{a}}$ |  | ascents． | Descents． | Above mehes | Below inches． |  |  |
|  |  |  | feet | feet | feet |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 600 | $0^{\prime} 16^{\prime} 01^{\prime \prime}$ | ． 00648 |  | 2.7954 | 25． 6 |  | 94.8 |  |
| 2 | 600 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 2 & 17\end{array}$ | ． 00012 | 0.3985 |  | 3． 6 |  | 8 8． 5 |  |
| 3 | 400 | 02256 | ． 00892 |  | 2.6684 |  | 5． 9 | 84.9 |  |
| 4. |  | 05331.5 | ． 03636 |  | 4.6707 |  | 7． 5 | 82.1 |  |
| 5 | 400 | 11315 | ． 09080 |  | 8.5224 |  | 3． 5 | 83．4． |  |
| 6 | 300 | 01643.5 | ． 00354 |  | 1.4595 |  | 5． 8 | 96.6 |  |
| 7 | 900 | $\begin{array}{lllllllllll}0 & 13 & 16.5\end{array}$ | ． 00675 |  | 3.4754 |  | 6． 9 | 81.9 |  |
| 8 | 800 | $0 \quad 3915$ | ． 05208 |  | 9.1337 | 6． 9 |  | 81.8 |  |
| 9 | 300 | 11515 | ． 07188 |  | 6.5663 |  | 4． 7 | 80.2 |  |
| 10 | 300 | 04728.5 | ． 02582 |  | 4.1428 |  | 3． 4 | 88.5 |  |
| 11 | 800 | 05715 | ． 11006 |  | 13.3220 |  | 6． 9 | 82 |  |
| 12 | 300 | $\begin{array}{llll}1 & 3 & 42\end{array}$ | ． 05151 |  | 5.5585 |  | 6． 4 | 86.7 |  |
| 13 | 200 | 04830 | ． 01990 |  | 2.8215 |  | 8． 9 | 74 |  |
| 14 | 600 | 01231.5 | ． 00402 | 2.1860 |  |  | 19． 5 | 83.4 |  |
| 15 | 600 | 0291.15 | ． 02132 |  | 5.0658 |  | 6． 9 | 88.1 |  |
| 16 | 700 | $1 \quad 230$ | ．11564 |  | 12.72 .57 |  | 15．0 | 82.7 |  |
| 17 | 600 | 12634.5 | ． 19026 |  | 15.1086 | 6． 4 |  | 99.8 | $\bigcirc$ |
| 18 | 700 | 12549.5 | ． 21812 |  | 17．4740 |  | 5． 2 | 95.8 |  |
| 19 | 200 | 04535 | ． 01758 |  | 2.6518 | 1． 1 |  | 79.7 | 宊 |
| 20 | 500 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 2610\end{array}$ | ． 01450 |  | 3.8057 |  | 25． 2 | S4．4 | 家 |
| 21 | 200 | 024.59 .5 | ． 00522 | 1.4471 |  | 4． 7 |  | 90.9 | $\pm$ |
| 22 | 200 | 11041 | ． 04228 |  | 4.1119 | 3． 4 |  | 79.1 | － |
| 23 | 300 | Level ．．．． |  |  |  | 3． 5 |  | 77.2 | ® |
| 24 | 600 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 10 & 4.0 .5\end{array}$ | ． 00288 |  | 1.8631 | 46 |  | 82.9 | \＃ |
| 25 | 1100 | 05321 | ． 1584.0 | 18.6697 |  | 15 |  | 80.5 | U |
| 26 | 400 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 57 & 57\end{array}$ | ． 0.5680 | 6.7425 |  |  | 6． 9 | 87.8 | \％ |
| 27 | 500 | 04620 | ． 01550 | 6.7387 |  | 22． 1 |  | 79.2 | （ |
| 28 | 700 | 0.561 .5 | ． 00756 | 3.2630 |  | 2． 9 |  | 79.7 | ล |
| 29 | 500 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 29 & 1.5\end{array}$ | ． 01027 |  | 3.2033 |  | 5 | 80.7 | 8 |
| 30 | 400 | 12400 | ． 11940 |  | 9.7729 |  | 10 | 80.2 |  |
| 31 | 500 | 14243.5 | ． 22320 |  | 14.9385 |  | 4 | 77.1 |  |
| 32 | － 200 | Level ．． |  |  |  | 4． 9 |  | 77.1 |  |
| 33 | 500 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 5 & 41\end{array}$ | ． 00070 |  | 0.8266 | 43． 6 |  | 33.6 |  |
| 34 | 800 | 02533 | ． 023208 | 5.9457 |  | 7． 5 |  | 85.2 |  |
| 35 | 1000 | $\begin{array}{lll}0 & 12 & 1.5\end{array}$ | ．00610 | 3.4979 |  |  | 10． 4 | 75.6 |  |
| 36 | 700 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 37 & 39\end{array}$ | ． 04200 | 7.6662 |  | 8.75 |  | 86.1 |  |
| 37 | 900 | $0 \quad 5216$ | ． 10104 | 13.6828 |  |  |  | 81.1 |  |
| 38 | 500 | 05349 | ． 06130 | 7.8282 |  | 16． 1 |  | 78.2 |  |
| 39 | 1200 | 04044 | ．08424． | 14.2183 |  |  | 8.25 | 81.4 |  |
| 40 | 800 | Level ．．．． |  |  |  | 4． 9 |  | 74.3 |  |
| 4.1 | 200 | 05217 | ． 02312 | 3.0416 |  | 1 |  | 87.1 |  |
| 4.2 | 390 | 114.4 .1 | ． 07080 | 6.5168 |  |  | 3． 3 | 80 |  |
| 43 | 500 | $2{ }^{2} 5151.5$ | ． 33065 | 18.1801 |  | 16 |  | 83.3 |  |
| 44 |  | 2055.5 | ． 08313 | 7.0614 |  |  | 9． 9 | 89.1 |  |
| 45 | 200 | － 4842 | $\|.02008\|$ | 2.8331 |  | 7.5 |  | 93.6 |  |

## Table，containing the Particulars of the Mcasurement， contimued．

|  | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} 5 \\ 0 \end{array}\right\|$ | gles of |  | Perpendicular． |  | Commence． nemb fion the last． |  | $\begin{aligned} \therefore \\ \hdashline \\ 0 \end{aligned}$ | 边 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\mathrm{E}^{\mathrm{n}} \dot{\%}$［ $\mathrm{D}^{\text {n }}$ |  | Ascents． | Descents． | Abore inche． | $\begin{aligned} & \text { belon } \\ & \text { inches } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | feet | feet |  |  |  |  |
| 46 | 300 | $09^{\prime} 27^{\prime \prime}$ | ． 00114 |  | 0.8247 |  | 6.75 | 71.6 |  |
| 47 | 200 | 11046.5 | ． 04239 |  | 4.1172 |  | 8.5 | 81 |  |
| 48 | 500 | 20015 | ． 30587 |  | 17.4860 |  | 8.8 | 88.6 |  |
| 49 |  | 04230 | ． 03056 |  | $4.9+50$ | 15． 2 |  | 89.9 |  |
| 50 | 300 | O 1147 | ． 00177 |  | 1.0283 | 11．9 |  | 82.1 |  |
| 51 | 200 | 01630 | ． 00230 | ． 9599 |  | 13． 9 |  | 80．8 |  |
| 52 | 300 | $2 \quad 827$ | ． 20940 | 11.2067 |  | 11． 7 |  | 89.1 |  |
| 53 | 500 | 11331.5 | ． 11437 | 10.6929 |  |  | 10． 4 | 90.8 |  |
| 54 | 400 | 05143.5 | ． 05428 | 6.0182 |  |  | 5. | 74 |  |
| 55 | 200 | 03231.5 | ． 00896 |  | 1.8922 |  |  | 88.9 |  |
| 56 | 400 | 1389 | ． 16300 |  | 11.4178 |  | 8． 3 | 94.2 |  |
| 57 | 300 | 23358.5 | ． 30057 |  | 13.4323 | 0． 3 |  | 91.2 |  |
| 58 | 200 | 0 54． 24 | ． 02501. |  | 3.1647 | 5． 5 |  | 82.2 |  |
| 59 | 200 | 0323 | ． 00868 | 1.8645 |  | 23． 8 |  | 71.8 |  |
| 60 | 600 | 15815 | ． 55490 | 20.6344 |  | 12． 8 |  | 4. |  |
| 61 | 600 | 15125.5 | ． 31514 | 19.4459 |  |  | 8． 6 | 93.2 |  |
| 62 | 700 | 12627 | ． 22134 | 17.6012 |  |  | 4． 5 | 91.9 | 三 |
| 63 | 500 | $\begin{array}{ll}0 & 3816.5\end{array}$ | ． 03100 | 5.5667 |  |  | 14 | ${ }^{89} 89$ | I |
| 64 | S00 | $0 \quad 614$ | ． 00128 |  | 1.4505 |  | 9． 2 | 79.6 | 三 |
| 65 | 400 | 02727 | ． 01276 |  | 3.1939 | 7． 5 |  | 87.8 | $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{c}$ |
| 66 | 500 | 1134.5 | ． 11300 |  | 10.6275 |  | 6． 2 |  | 毞 |
| 67 | 400 | $\begin{array}{lll}1 & 42 & 4.5\end{array}$ | ． 17630 |  | 11.5752 |  |  | 86.7 | $\frac{2}{2}$ |
| 68 | 500 | 22630 | ． 43395 |  | 21.3011 | 8． 6 |  | 79.5 |  |
| 69 | 200 | 0143 | ． 00167 |  | 0.8174 |  |  | 71.7 | － |
| 70 | 200 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 3616.5\end{array}$ | ． 01113 | 2.1103 |  | 3． 8 |  | 79.1 |  |
| 71 | 300 | 21636 | ． 21381 | 11.9174 |  | 25 |  | 94.9 |  |
| 72 | 200. | 14722 | ． 09752 | 6.2453 |  |  | 2． 3 | 84.3 |  |
| 73 | 400 | 11143.5 | ． 18208 | 8.3450 |  | 21． 2 |  | 72.4 |  |
| 74 | 900 | 04111 | ． 06453 | 10.7815 |  | 4． 9 |  | 87.6 |  |
| 75 | 300 | 03513 | ． 01573 |  | 3.0732 |  | 11 | 76.8 |  |
| 76 | 200 | $\begin{array}{lll}1 & 143\end{array}$ | ． 03222 |  | 3.5903 | 0． 5 |  | 70.8 |  |
| 77 | 300 | 0 624 | ． 00053 | 0.5585 |  | 2.75 |  | 77. |  |
| 78 | 200 | 22345 | ． 17483 | 8.3606 |  |  | 7． 5 | 87 |  |
| 79 | 400 | $\begin{array}{llll}1 & 3 & 28.5\end{array}$ | ． 068820 | 7.3852 |  | 26． 5 |  | 87.8 |  |
| 80 | 800 | 03213 | ． 03312 |  | 7.4971 |  | 22． 1 | 80.2 |  |
| 81 | 700 | 02259 | ． 01568 | 4.6799 |  | 14.37 |  | 70.7 |  |
| S2 | 600 | 04722 | ． 05697 | 8.2668 |  |  |  | 4.6 |  |
| 84 | 400 | － 5935 | ． 06008 | 6.9325 |  | 7.1 |  |  |  |
| 85 | 300 | － 1000 | ． 00126 | 0.8727 |  | 7． 1 |  |  |  |
| Descent from the termination of the？ base to the ground ．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．． |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9800 |  | 6347 |  |  |  |  |  |  |

At the commencoment the old chain exceeded the new me 15.47 divisions of the micrometer $=0.0$ ()619 feet. Therefore $398 \times 100.00619$ feet will be the measure in terms of the new chain - - 39802.4636
At the conclusion the nld chain excceded the new one 17.9 divisions, and had therefore increased $\underset{\sim}{2} 43$ dirisions $=000007$ feet. Hence $3 y s \times \frac{n \cdot n \ldots 0}{\varrho}=0.1930$ feet, is the correction for the wear, which add - - - - $\quad-\quad{ }^{-}+0.1930$
The sum of the derluctions from col. 4 th is 6.63475 feet, which being increased in the ratio of 100 to 10000619 will be 6.63 .51 feet, which subtract -
$-6.6351$
Hence the apparent horizontal distance will be - - - - - . The correction for the expansion and reduced to the standard temperature of $69^{\circ}$ will be
$\frac{\left(83^{\circ} .1-50\right) \times 000 \boldsymbol{H}_{1}^{12}-\left(62^{\circ}-50^{\circ}\right) \times 001237}{12} \times 39796$. 0215 feet, which add . - $\quad$. 3.1006

Hence the corrected measure fi the base for the temperature of $6 \propto^{\prime}$ will be - -39799.2211
To which add the correction for reducing all the hypothenuses to the level of the south end of the base -
39796.0215
$\square$
$+0.0893$
39799.9104

Which being reduced to the level of the sea, will be
39793.7
III. TRIANGLES.

Hunandamulla from Pilloor Hill 110381.9

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. | - |  | 宫 | Angles for Catculation. | Distance in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 45 | Hanandamulla Pilloor Hill $\qquad$ Kylasghur $\qquad$ | $\begin{array}{llll}95^{\circ} & 13 & 33.6 \\ 42 & 59 & 08 \\ 38 & 47 & 22.4\end{array}$ | -1.8 -0.7 -0.6 |  |  | $\begin{array}{ll} 98^{\prime} & 13^{\prime} \\ 421^{\prime \prime} .5 \\ 42 & 59 \\ 38 & 77 \\ 38 & 47 \end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | 1800004 |  | 3".1 | +0. 9 | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | ylasghur from | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Hana } \\ \text { Pilloc } \end{array}\right.$ | ndam <br> Hil | ulla <br> ulla <br> .... |  | $\begin{aligned} & 120135 \\ & 174387.3 \end{aligned}$ |

Hanandamulla from Kylasghur 120128

| 98 131333.6 | -0.8 -0.6 -0.7 |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}98 & 13 & 31.5 \\ 38 & 47 & 21.5 \\ 42 & 59 & 7\end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1800004 |  | 3.1 | +0.9 | 1800000 |

Pilloor Hill from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Hanandamulla ..................... } \\ \text { Kylasghur ........................... }\end{array}\right.$

Kylasghur from Pilloor Hill 174382.3


TRIANGLES-continued.

Kylasghur from Pilloor Hill 174382.3


Kylasghur from Bodeenuulla 135085.8


Kylasghur from Patticondah 194447.5


Triangles, taken up at the Base, and continucd back to Perracondah and Kylasghur..
N. cnd of the Ease from the S. end of the Base 39793.7

S. end of the base from Muntupum Station 47475.03


Mintapum Station from Bonnairgottah 72811.7


Tirtapully Hill from

TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.

Bonnairgottah from Tirtapully Hill 138492.9

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. ${ }^{\text {c\|cen }}$ | \| | 㵄 | Angles for Calculation. | Distance in fert. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 54 | Bonnairgotiah $\qquad$ <br> Tirtapully Hill $\qquad$ <br> Muntapum Centre | $\begin{array}{llrl}510 & 5^{\prime} & 56^{\prime \prime} .91 & -0 " .4 \\ 31 & 25 & 8.96-0.4 \\ 97 & 28 & 55.27 & -1.1\end{array}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}51^{\circ} & 5 & 56^{\prime \prime} .5 \\ 31 & 25 & 9 \\ 97 & 28 & 54.5\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | 1800001.14 | 1". 9 | $-0.76$ | 1800000 |  |
|  | Muntap | pum Centre from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\mathrm{Bo} \\ \mathrm{Ti}\end{array}\right.$ |  | ttah .. <br> Hill . |  | $\begin{array}{r} 72815.6 \\ 108705.1 \end{array}$ |

Muntapum Centre from Bonnairgottah 72815.6


With the sides Muntapum centre from Tirtapully hill 108705.1 feet, and Muntapum centre from Siatendroog $=108661.6$ feet, and the included angle at Muntapum $=167^{\circ} 19^{\prime} \subseteq 9^{\prime \prime} .3$ the side Sazendroog from Tirtapully hill is found $=216038.9$ feet.

Again with the sides Bomairgottah from Tirtapully hill 138499.9 feet, and Bonnairgottah from Satendroog $=107968.7$ feet, and the included angle at Bornairgottah $=121^{\circ} 58^{\prime} 19^{\prime \prime}$ the side Surendroog from Tirtapully lill is found $=216035.8$ feet differing from the above $\frac{2}{10}$ of a foot, and of which the mean is 216038.85 feet.

TRIANGLES－CONTINUED．

Savendroog from Tirtapully Hill 216038．85．

| No． | TRIANGLES． | Obsd．Angles． |  | 或空 | 莒 | Angles for Calculation． | Distance in feet． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 56 | Savendrong ．．． Tirtapully Hill Dcorabetia ．．． | $\begin{array}{ll} 53^{c} & 36^{\prime} \\ 47^{\prime \prime} .5 \\ 46 & 42 \\ \hline 9 & 24.5 \\ 79 & 40 \end{array} 54.9$ | $-1^{\prime \prime} .9$ -1.9 -2.8 |  |  | $\begin{array}{lll}53^{n} & 36^{\prime} & 45^{\prime \prime} .5 \\ 46 & 42 & 22.5 \\ 79 & 40 & 52\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | 1800004.9 |  | 6＇．6 | $-1^{\prime \prime} .7$ | 1800000 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 159828.8 \\ & 176775.8 \end{aligned}$ |
| 57 | Savendroog ．．． Tirtapully Hill Nundydroog．．． | $\begin{array}{lll}37 & 1.4 & \pm 3.15 \\ 70 & 48 & 419 \\ 71 & 26 & 38.55\end{array}$ | -1.9 -2.4 -2.4 |  | － | $\begin{array}{lll}37 & 4.4 & 41.25 \\ 70 & 48 & 42 \\ 71 & 26 & 36.25\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | 18000036 |  |  | $-3.1$ | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | $\text { Nundydroog from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Savendroog . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . } \\ \text { Titapully Hill . . . . . . . . . . . . . } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 215226.3 \\ & 1394998 \end{aligned}$ |
| 58 | Tirtapully ITill from Nundudroow 139499．8． |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\text { Rymandroog from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Tirtapuliy Hill ............. } \\ \text { Nundydrong . . . . . . . . . . . . . } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 122112.3 \\ & 114788.1 \end{aligned}$ |

TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.

Tirtapully Hill from Rymandroog 122112.3.

| No. | TRPANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. | 辰 |  | 苞 | Angles for Calculation. | Uistance feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 39 | Tirtapully Hill <br> Rymandroug <br> Yerracondah | $\left.\begin{array}{ccc} 93^{n} & 5^{\prime} & 51^{\prime \prime} 3 \\ 49 & 22 & 54.58 \\ 37 & 31 & 19.33 \end{array} \right\rvert\,$ |  |  | , | $\begin{array}{rrrr} & 93 & 3^{\prime} & 4 \\ 49 & 22 & 53 \\ 37 & 31 & 18\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | $18000 \quad 5 \quad 21$ |  | 4.2 | $+1^{\prime \prime} .01$ | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | Yerracondah fr | $=\left\{\begin{array}{l} \mathrm{Ti} \\ \mathrm{R} \end{array}\right.$ | tapull <br> nand | Hill <br> oog |  |  |

Tirlapully Hill from Deorahetta 176775.8 .


TRIANGLES-CONTTNUXD.

Tirtapully Hill from Ankissgherry 150322.7.

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. | 年 | \% | 気 | Angles for Calculation. | Distance in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 62 | Tirtapully Hill Aukissgherry Yerracondah | $38^{\circ} 16^{\prime} \quad 9^{\prime \prime} .25$ $695035.4$ |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}38^{\circ} & 16^{\prime} & 8^{\prime \prime} .25 \\ 71 & 53 & 17.5 \\ 69 & 50 & 34.25\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | Yerracondah fro | $\operatorname{om}\left\{\begin{array}{l} \Gamma i \\ A \end{array}\right.$ | tapul <br> kissgh |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 152196.3 \\ & 99177.5 \end{aligned}$ |

Tirtapully Hill from Yerracondah 152196.9.


Rymandroog from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Tirtapully Hill .............. } \\ \text { Yerracondah ................. } \\ 122121.2 \\ 200214.3\end{array}\right.$
The side from Tirtapully hill to Yerracondah is the mean distance found in the triangles Tirtapully hill, Deorabetta, and Yerracondah and Tirtapully hill, Ankissgherry and Yerracondah.

Yerracondah from Rymandroog 200214.3.

| Yerracondah .... Rımandroog Patticondah ..... | $\begin{array}{llll} 78 & 25 & 51.06 \\ 45 & 11 & 51.7 \\ 56 & 22 & 20.37 \end{array}$ | -3.3 $\begin{aligned} & -3 \\ & -2.4 \\ & -2.4\end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}78 & 25 & 47.75 \\ 45 & 11 & 52 \\ 56 & 22 & 20.25\end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $180 \quad 00 \quad 3.13$ |  | 7.9 | -4.77 | 1800000 |



TRIANGLES-Continued.

Yerracondah from Paticondah 170605..9.

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Ohsd. Angles. | 告 |  | 蒿 | Angles for Calculation. | Distauce in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 65 | Yerracondah $\qquad$ Patticondah $\qquad$ <br> Kylasghu: $\qquad$ | $\left\|\begin{array}{rrr} 42^{\prime} & 22^{\prime \prime \prime} .97 \\ 101 & 21 & 48.77 \\ 36 & 15 & 24.6 \end{array}\right\|$ | $\begin{aligned} & -1.4 \\ & -4.8 \\ & -1.5 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{rll}42 & 22^{\prime} & 49 \prime .25 \\ 101 & 21 & 45.75 \\ 36 & 15 & 25\end{array}\right.$ |  |
|  |  | $180 \quad 00 \quad 2.34$ |  | 7".7 | $-5^{\prime \prime} .36$ | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | Kylasghur from | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Yerra } \\ \text { Pattic } \end{array}\right.$ | acond <br> conda |  |  | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} 282820.3 \\ 194445.9 \end{array}\right.$ |

## SECTION II.

Series of triangles direct from the Base near Bangalore, to Mangalore on the Malabar coast.

1V. ANGLES.

## At Dodagoontah Station.





## At Bomanelly Hill.

Hytalloo Flag .............Mullapunnabetta $\left.\begin{array}{lll}175 & 40 & 138 \\ 0.87 \\ 0.75\end{array}\right\}$

At Bomanelly Hill, continued.


$$
\left.\right\}
$$ At Mullapmanabetta, continued.



## At Mullapumabetta, continued.



Daesauneegooda .... Koondoor Hill .. 785910.66
Referring Flag...... Daesauneegooda . . 1503633.6
Koondhully Hill. . 5 ว̄ 3844.68
Daesauneegooda .... Koondhully Hill. . 945748.92
Hannabetta ........ Koondhully Hill. . 453200.65
Hannabetta ........ Daesauneegooda.. 492548.27
Referring Flag...... Koondoor Hill .. 713722.94
Koondhully Hill.. 553844.68
Koondoor Hill .......Koondhully Hill. . 15 58 38.26
Hannabetta ........ . Koondhully Hill. . 453200.65
Hannabetta ........ Koondoor !ill :- 293322.39
Referring Flag...... Koondhully Hill.. 553844.68
Balroyndroog … 963646.3
Koondhully Hill .... Balroyndroog .... $4.058 \quad 1.62$ At Mullapunnabetta, continued.


At Bundhully.


At Cheetkul Hill.


At Mysoor Hill.


At Mysoor Hill, continued.


## At Daesauneegooda.



At Koondoorbetta.


$328 \quad$| ACCOUNT OF TRIGONOMETRICAL |
| :--- |

At Koondoorbetta, continued.

## At Koondhully Hill.



At Hannabetta.
\(\left.\begin{array}{lllll}Daesauneegooda \cdot ··· Koondoorbetta \& \cdot \& 71 \& 32 \& 35 <br>
Koondoorbetta...... Balroyndroog \& \cdots \& 136 \& 19 \& 35 <br>
19.87 <br>

\& \& 14.18\end{array}\right\}\)|  |
| :--- |
| 35 |
| 17.37 |

At Balroyndroog.


## At Balroyndroog, continued.



## At Bullamully.

Koondhully Hill .... Balroyndroog … 574630


| Bul |
| :---: |
|  |  |

Kumnoor Hill....... Bullanaudgooda .. 1604527.31 Goompay Hill.... 791742.17

Goompay Hill...... Kunnoor Hill .... 812745.14 Kuddapoonabetta 89 14. 45.56

Kunnoor Hill .......Kuddapoonabetta 74656.42
Balroyndroog .......Bullanaudgooda .. 805319.19
Bullanaudgooda :... Goompay Hill.... 791742.17 At Bullamully, continued.



## At Meejar Hill.



## V. TRIANGLES.

Bonnairgottah from Savendroog 107968.7

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. | 茄 |  | 苞 | Angles for Calculation. | Distance in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 66 | Bonnairgottah <br> Savendroog............ <br> Dodagoontah Stat". | $\begin{array}{ccc} 83^{\circ} & 00^{\prime} & 6^{\prime} \cdot 17 \\ 61 & -4 & 61 \end{array}$ | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} -0.79 \\ -0.52 \end{array}\right\|$ |  |  | $83^{\prime}$ $20^{\prime}$ $15 \prime \prime$ <br> 35 4 53.8 <br> 61 44 50.8 <br> 1 3 50.8 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | Dodagoontah St | tation f | $\text { from }\{$ |  | gottah......... <br> oog $\qquad$ | $\cdot \begin{gathered} 70556.7 \\ 121933.2 \end{gathered}$ |

## ACCOUNT OF TRIGONOASETRICAL

TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.

Savendroog from Deorabetta 159828.8 .


Savendrong from Nund!udrong 215226.3.


Savendroog from Deorabetta 150828.8.

| Savemirong . . . . . . <br> Derrabelta ....... <br> Allasoor Hill: . . . . . | $\begin{array}{lll} 78 & 57 & 4.7 .5 \\ 47 & 20 & 38.73 \\ 53 & 41 & 39.59 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -2.96 \\ & -1.35 \\ & -1.69 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{lll}78 & 57 & 45.1 \\ 47 & 20 & 37 \\ 53 & 41 & 379 .\end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1800005.82 |  | 5.4 | +0.42 | SO 0000 |

Allasoor IJill from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Savendroog . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . } \\ \text { 1458559.1 } \\ \text { Dcorabetia . . . . . . . . . . . . . . }\end{array} 194662.8\right.$

TRIANGLES-CONTinuEd.

Savendroog from Allasoor Hill 145859.1

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Augles. | 或 | \| | \% | Angles for Calculation. | Distance in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 70 | Savendroog <br> Allasoor Hill <br> Cheetkul Hill | $\begin{array}{rrr} 55^{\prime} & 41^{\prime} & 34^{\prime \prime} .92 \\ 62 & 10 & 43.71 \\ 62 & 7 & 47.87 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -l^{\prime \prime} .3 \\ & -1.4 \\ & -1.4 \end{aligned}$ | 11 |  | $\begin{array}{rrrr}55 & 41 & 32 \prime \prime \\ 62 & 10 & 41.5 \\ 62 & 7 & 45.5\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | 1800006.5 |  | $1{ }^{\prime \prime} .2$ | $+2.3$ | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | heetkul Hill fro | $\operatorname{om}\left\{\begin{array}{l} S \\ A \end{array}\right.$ | endr <br> asoo |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 145924.8 \\ & 136292.3 \end{aligned}$ |

Savendroog from Cheetkul Hill 145904.8


Savendroog from Devaroydroog 167229.25


TRIANGLES－continued．

Suvendroog from Bomanelly IHill 265594.9

| No． | triangles． | －Obsd．Augles． | 它 | 令突 | 品 | Angles for Calculatio ． 1. | Distance |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 73 | Savendroog <br> Bomanelly Hill ．．．． <br> Mullapunnabetta | $\begin{array}{r} 28^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 2^{\prime \prime} .35 \\ 1053041.06 \\ 4541 \quad 25.89 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -2^{\prime \prime} \\ & -7.5 \\ & -1.3 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{rr} 28^{\circ} & 48^{\prime} \\ 105 & 0 \prime \prime 4 \\ 45 & 30 \\ 45 & 41 \end{array} 26.6\right.$ |  |
|  |  | 180009 ． 3 |  | 10＇．8 | －1＂． 5 | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | Mullapumabett |  | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Sar } \\ \text { Bo } \end{array}\right.$ |  | ill | $\begin{aligned} & 357646.2 \\ & 178809.7 \end{aligned}$ |

Savendroog from Bradhully Hill 260072


Savendroog from Mysoor Hill 321385．4


TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.

Savendroog from Mullapunnabetta 357641.2

| No. | Triangles. | Obsd. Angles. | 它 |  | 离 | Angles for Calculation. | Distance in fcet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 76 | Savendroog Station <br> Mullapumabetta <br> Bomanelly Hill. . . | $\left[\begin{array}{rrr} 280 & 4 \mathrm{~S}^{\prime} & 2^{\prime \prime} .35 \\ 45 & 41 & 25.37 \\ 105 & 30 & 41 \end{array}\right.$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} -2^{\prime \prime} \cdot \\ -1.3 \\ -7.5 \end{array}\right.$ |  |  | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{rr} 28^{\circ} & 48^{\prime} \\ 45 & 00^{\prime \prime} .4 \\ 45 & 41 \\ 105 & 30 \\ 10 & 33 \end{array}\right.$ |  |
|  |  | 150008.78 |  | $\therefore 0^{\prime \prime} 8$ | $-2^{\prime \prime} .02$ | 1800000 |  |
|  | Lomanelly Hill from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Savendroog ... } \\ \text { Mullapunuabeta }\end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |  | $178807.7$ |

Sarenelroog from Muliapunnabetta 357641:2


## TRIANGLES-CONTINURD.

TITullapunnabetta from Daesauneegooda 1348499

| No. | triangles. | Obsd. Angles. | 先 |  | 妾 | Angles for Calculation. | Distance in |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 79 | Mullapumabetta <br> Datsatineegooda . <br> Hanuabelta ..... | $\begin{array}{cccc}49^{\prime} & 25^{\prime} & 48^{\prime \prime} .27 \\ 89 & 54 & 6.00 \\ \cdots & \cdot & \cdot\end{array}$ | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} -1^{\prime \prime} .25 \\ -2.37 \end{array}\right\|$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{lll} 49^{\prime} & 25^{\prime} & 47^{\prime \prime} \\ 89 & 54 & 3.6 \\ 40 & 40 & 90.4 \end{array}$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | $1800000^{\circ}$ |  |
|  |  | Hannabetta from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Mullapunnabetta . . . . . . . . . . . . } \\ \text { Dáesauneegooda . . . . . . . . . . }\end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 206922.5 \\ & 157180.4 \end{aligned}$ |

Mullapunnabettä from Hannabeita 206922.5

| 30 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |

Mnllapunnabetta from Duesauneegooda 134849.9

| 78 | 59 | 10.66 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 47 | 3 | 24.93 | -1 | -6 |
| 53 | 57 | 31.17 | -1 | .1 |
| 180 | 0 | 6.76 |  |  |
| $3^{\prime \prime} .5$ |  |  |  |  |\(\left|-\begin{array}{cccc}78 \& 59 \& 9.1 <br>

47 \& 3 \& 22.3 <br>
53 \& 57 \& 28.6 <br>
180 \& 00 \& 00\end{array}\right|\)
'TRIANGIES-CONTINUED.

Daesauneegooda from IIannabetta 157180.4

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. |  |  | 号 | Angles for Calculation. | Dance in eet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S2 | Daesanueegooda Hannabetta ... Koondoor Hill . | $\begin{array}{ll} 42^{c} & 500^{\prime} \\ 71 & 40^{\prime \prime} .37 \\ 71 & 32 \\ 65 & 36 \\ \hline 5 & 45.08 \end{array}$ | -1 -1.9 -1.4 |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}42^{\prime} & 50^{\prime} & 40^{\prime \prime} .4 \\ 71 & 32 & 34.7 \\ 65 & 36 & 44.9\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | $180 \quad 00 \quad 0.45$ |  | $4^{\prime \prime} .1$ | $-3{ }^{\prime \prime} 65$ | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | loor Hill from | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Dacsuuneegooda . . . . . . . . . . . . . } \\ \text { Hannabetta . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |

Hannabetta from Koondoorbetta 117355.7


Mullapunnabetla from Koondoorbetta 1220S1.4


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

TRIANGLES-CONTINURD.

IMullapunnabetta from Daesauneegooda 13.48499

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Obsd. Angles. | 先 |  | 㐌 | Augles for Calculation. | Distance in feel. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 79 | Mullapumabetta .. <br> Daesatneegooda .. <br> Hanuabetta . . . . . | $\begin{array}{ccc}49^{\prime} & 25^{\prime} .48^{\prime \prime} .27 \\ 89 & 54 & 6.00 \\ . & . & .\end{array}$ | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} -1^{\prime \prime} .25 \\ -2.37 \end{array}\right\|$ |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 49^{\prime \prime} 25^{\prime} \\ & 897^{\prime \prime} \\ & 89 \\ & 40 \\ & 40 \end{aligned} 1030.6$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | Hannabetta from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Mullapunnabetta . . . . . . . . . . . } \\ \text { Dacsauneegooda . . . . . . . . . . . }\end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 206922.5 \\ & 1.57180 .4 \end{aligned}$ |

Mullapmanabettaf from Hannabeila 206922.5


Mullapunnabetta from Daesauneegooda 134849.9


TRIANGILS－CONTINUED．

Daesanneegooda from IIannabetta 157180.4

| No． | TRIANGLES． | Obsd．Angles． | － | 戓碞 | 号 | Angles for Calculation． | Dance in eet． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S2 | Daesauueegooda Hannahetta ．．． Koondoor Hill－ | $42^{\prime}$ $50^{\prime}$ $40^{\prime \prime} .37$ <br> 71 32 $34.0 r$ <br> 65 36 45.08 | $\begin{aligned} & -1^{\prime} .2 \\ & -1.5 \\ & -1.4 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{lll}42^{\circ} & 50 & 4.00^{\prime \prime} .4 \\ 71 & 32 & 34.7 \\ 65 & 36 & 44.9\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | $18000 \quad 0.45$ |  | $4^{\prime \prime} .1$ | $-3^{\prime \prime} .65$ | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | door Hill fron | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Dacsa } \\ \text { Hanna } \end{array}\right.$ |  | $\mathrm{da} .$ |  |  |

Hannabetta from Koondoorbetta 117355.7


Mullapunnabet ta from Koondoorbetta 122081.4

| 84 | Mullapumabetta ．－ Koonduorbetta ．． Koondhully Hill | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{rrr} 15 & 58 & 38.26 \\ 143 & 36 & 55.38 \\ 20 & 24 & 30.64 \end{array}\right.$ | +1.07 -4.22 +1.50 |  |  | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{r}15 \\ 15 \\ 143 \\ 20 \\ 20 \\ 24\end{array}\right.$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 1800004.28 |  | 1.65 | ＋2．63 | 18000 |  |
|  |  | $\text { Knondhully from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Mullapunabetta } \\ \text { Koondoorbetta } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 2072.8 \\ & 963.8 \end{aligned}$ |

The side Mullapumabetta from Koondoorbetta is the mean disuce had from the 80th and 81st triangle．

## ACCOUNT OF TRIGONOMETRICAL

TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.

Koondoorbetta from Koondhully Hill 96366.3


Koondoorbetta from Mullapunnabetta 122081.4


Mullapunnabetta from Koondhully Hill 207689.8


TRIANGLES-CONTINUED.

Koondhully Hill from Balroyidtrong 212588.5

| No. | TRIANGLES. | Ohsd. Angles. | 范 |  | $\dot{\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{b}}$ | Angles for Calculation. | Distance in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 88 | Koondhully Hill <br> Balroyndroog......... <br> Bullamully <br> ........... | $\begin{array}{ll} 81^{\circ}{ }^{\circ} 2^{\prime} & \dot{1}^{\prime \prime} .66 \\ 57 & 46 \\ 30.42 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -3.5 \\ & -2.4 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{lllll}41^{\circ} & 01^{\prime} & 23.8 \\ 81 & 12 & 8.8 \\ 57 & 46 & 88\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | Bullamully from | $m\left\{\begin{array}{l} \mathrm{Ko} \\ \mathrm{Ba} \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 248343.2 \\ & 164944.6 \end{aligned}$ |

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

Balroyndroog from Bullamully 164944.6


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

Bullamntly from Ungurgooda is335．5

| No． | TRLANGLES． | Obsd．Angles． | － | 或空 | 号 | Angles for Calculation． | Distance in feet． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 90 | Bullamully <br> Ungargooda Meejar Station． | $\begin{array}{rrr} 0 & 0 & \\ 106^{\circ} & 11^{\prime} & 27^{\prime \prime} .88 \\ 37 & 46 & 8.19 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} -0^{\prime \prime} .7 \\ +0.2 \end{array}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{rrr} 16^{\circ} & 02^{\prime} & 24^{\prime \prime} .8 \\ 126 & 11 & 27 \\ 37 & 46 & 08 \end{array}$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 150000000 |  |
|  |  | jar Station fron | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Bulla } \\ \text { Uuga } \end{array}\right.$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { mully } \\ & \text { argood } \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{r} 104550.2 \\ 35795.8 \end{array}$ |

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


SECTION. III.
Southern series of triangles, commencing from Mullapzonnabetta and Mysoor hill, and continued to the Malabar coast, terminating with the distance from Bullamully to Kumnor station, which is also brought out by the northern series.


| Between | And |
| :---: | :---: |
| Referring flag | . . . . . Soobramanee . . . $59^{n} 05^{\prime \prime} 03^{\prime \prime} .95$ |
|  | 07.5 |
|  | 5.75 |
|  | 6.75 |
|  | 4.75 |
|  | 8 |
| Feferring flag | .... Mysoor Hill ... 375912.58 |
|  | Bettatipoor Hill . . 12263997 |
| Mysuor H | .... . Bettatipoor Hill . 502552.55 |
| Referring flag | ..... Soobramanee .... 59506 |
|  | Bettatipoor Hill . . 122639.97 |
| Eetiatipoor Hil | 1 ... Soobramanee ... 463826.03 |

## At Bettatipoor Hill.




## At Mount Dilli.

| Between | And |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kunduddakamully | . Taddiandamole | $\left.\begin{array}{c} \cdot 60^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 24^{\prime \prime} .75 \\ 31.5 \\ 28 \end{array}\right\}$ | $2 S^{\prime \prime} .08$ |
|  | Munjuimpuddy | $\left.\begin{array}{rrr} \cdots & 17 & 8.25 \\ 9 & .5 \\ & 10.25 \end{array}\right\}$ | 9.33 |

At Kunduddakamully.


Goompay Hill .... . . Annantapoor .... $15 \quad 56 \quad 10.69$
Taddiandamole ....Goompay Hill .. 151 2.27
Annantapoor.....$T$ Taddiandamole $\cdot$. $166 \quad 58 \quad 37.69$
Baekul ........ 374143 . 25
Baekul ............. Taddiandamole .. $155 \quad 1939.06$
Annantapoor ...... Baekul ........ 374143 . 25
Goompay Hill...... Annautapoor .... $15 \quad 56 \quad 10.69$
Baekul............ Goompay ...... $53 \quad 37 \quad 53.94$
Taddiandamole .... Baekul ......... 1551939.06
Baekul . . . . . . . . . . Munjuinpuddy .. 254429.75
Munjuinpuddy ....Taddiandamole .. $12985 \quad 9.31$


## At Bullamully.


VII. 'TRIANGLES.

Mullapumnabetta from Mysoor Hill 209477.5

|  | TRIANGLES. | Oisd. Angles. | 皆 |  | 客 | Augles for Calculation. | Distance in |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mullapunabeita Mysoor Hill .... Bettatipoor Hill |  | $\begin{aligned} & -2^{\prime \prime} .3 \\ & -2.3 \\ & -4.2 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}50 & 2 & 4 & 49.6 \\ 41 & 40 & 20.6 \\ 87 & 53 & 43.8\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | 1800010.71 |  | $8^{\prime} .8$ | +1".91 | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | $\text { Bettatipoor Hill from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Mullapumabetta .............. } \\ \text { Mysoor Hill ................ } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{r} 179291.4 \\ 207867.4 \end{array}$ |

Mullapunnabetta from Bettatipoor Hill 179294.4


| Bettatipoor Hill from Soobramance 170734 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| No． | TRIANGLES． | Obsd．Angles． | \＆゙せ |  | 㦳 | Angles for Calculation． | Distance in feet． |
| 95 | Bettatipoor Hill．．．．．． <br> Soobramanee $\qquad$ <br> Taddiandamole ．．．．． | $\begin{aligned} & 51^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime} \\ & \dot{54} 50 \\ & 50 \\ & \dot{3} \\ & \hline 1.14 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} -1.9 \\ -1.96 \end{array}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{llll}51^{\circ} 37^{\prime} & 50.1 \\ 73 & 31 & 40.7 \\ 54 & 50 & 29.2\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 180000000 |  |
|  |  | $\text { Taddiandamole from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Bettatipoor Hill............... } \\ \text { Soobramance Hill............ } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 200262.3 \\ & 163730.4 \end{aligned}$ |

Soobramanee Hill from Taddiandanole 163730.4


The supplemental chord angle at Taddiandamole，between Kun－ duddakamully and Mornt Dilli，reduced as an observed one，is sub－ tracted from the angle Soobramanee hill and Mount．Dilli，as ob－ served at Taddiandamole，to give the angle Kunddudakamally and Soobramanee hill．The station at Kunduddakamully could not be seen when the angles were taken at Taddiandamole．

T＇uddiandamole from Kunduddakamully 149160.2


The supplemental chord angle at Kundudddicmully, between Mount Ditli and Mrwijeimpuddy, made as an obscrved angle by applying the correction, and subtracted from the observed angle between Arimjuimpuddy and Tudliunduinuie, gives the angle Mount Dilli and Tadliundamole as an observed angle.

TRIANGLES-continued.
Kunduddakiamully from Mount Dilli 132113

| No. | triangles. | Obsd. Angles. | 䘡 |  | 免 | Anyies for Calculation. | Distance |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 98 | Kunduddakamully Mount Dilli Baekul $\qquad$ | $\begin{array}{ll} 86^{\circ} & 01^{\prime} \\ \hline & 12^{\prime \prime} .35 \\ \cdot 5 & \dot{0} \\ 65 & 0 \\ 59 & .04 \end{array}$ | $\left[\begin{array}{l} -1^{11} \\ -0.6 \end{array}\right.$ |  |  | 86 $01^{\prime}$ $11^{\prime \prime} .35$ <br> 28 48 50.21 <br> 65 09 58 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 180000000 |  |
|  |  | $\text { Baekul from }\} \begin{aligned} & \text { Kunduddakamully........................ } \\ & \text { Mount Dilli ............................. } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} 70162 \\ 145223.2 \end{gathered}$ |

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

Kunduddakamully from Baekul 70102


## TRIANGLES-CONXINUED.

Kundidddakamully from Goompay Hill 126145.9


Goompay Hill from Ballanandrooda 59355.8


Goompay Hill from Bullamully 54990.2


The same side Bullamuliy from Kumnoor hill brought out down from the northern series is 71655.7 feet: therefore the mean will be 71657.55 feet. Hence, as the side Bullamully from Kumnoor hill, brought down from the northern series, is the mean, so is the side Meejar hill and Kuddapoonabetfa, hrought down from the northern series, to 59764.6 feet, as derived from the mean of both series.

TRIANGLES-continued.
Mecjar Hill from Kudapoonabetta 59764.6

| No. | triangles. | Ohsu. Angles. |  |  | $\dot{\vdots}$ | Angles for Calculation. | $\left\lvert\, \begin{gathered} \text { Distance in } \\ \text { feet. } \end{gathered}\right.$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Yeejar IHill............ <br> Kudapoonabetta <br> Kooliebogooda | $\begin{array}{lll} 37^{\prime} & 55^{\prime} & 19^{\prime} .94 \\ 58 & 24 & 56.62 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -0.19 \\ & -0.17 \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 37 \circ 5.55^{\prime} 19^{\prime .} 8 \\ & 589450 . .5 \\ & 833943.7 \end{aligned}$ |  |
|  |  | Kooliebo | ooda f |  |  | $\qquad$ <br> Hill $\qquad$ <br> onabetta $\qquad$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} 51224.7 \\ 36956.5 \end{array}\right.$ |

## SECONDARY TRIANGLES.

Kudapoonabetta from Kooliebogooda 36956.5

| No. | Triangles. | Obsd. Angles. | Distances from the intersected Objects in Feet. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Kudapoonabetta | $86^{\prime} 11^{\prime} 32^{\prime \prime}$ | $\}$ Eedgah Station .... $\{$ | 17110.2 |
|  | Kooliebogooda | $25 \quad 2859$ |  | 39680.7 |
|  | Eedgair Station | $68 \quad 1919$ |  |  |

Eedgah Station from Kooliebogooda 39680.7
$\left.\begin{array}{|ll|lll}\text { Eedgah Station } & \cdots & \left.\begin{array}{ll}66 & 09 \\ 43 \\ 14 & 30 \\ 24 \\ \text { Kooliebogooda } & \text {.. } \\ 99 & 19 \\ 53\end{array} \right\rvert\,\end{array}\right\}$ Station on the Beach $\left\{\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{l}10073 \\ 36782.3\end{array}\right.\right.$

Eullcamully from Goompay Hill 54990.2

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

Bullamully from Kumnoor Station 71659.4

| \| Bullamully | 45012 | \} Mangalore . . . . . . . | 91761.4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kunnoor Station.. | 1583757 | \} Mangalore ......... | 21234.9 |
| Mangalore | 163151 |  |  |

Mount Dilli from Kunduddakamully 132113

| \| Mount Dilli - | 1321039 | Commanore ........ | 87563.4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kunduddalamully | 184624 | ¢ Cannanore $\cdot \cdots . . . \cdot\{$ | 201632.7 |
| Cammanore ...... | 290257 |  |  |

Taddiandamole from Mount Dilli 160548.9


Taddiandamole . from Cannanore 157072

| Taddiandamole... | 16 51 05 <br> 98 16 45 <br> 64 52 10 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cannanore ....... |  |  |
| Station in Redoubt | 6 Station in Redoubt $\cdots\left\{\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{r}171686.4 \\ 50294.4\end{array}\right.\right.$ |  |

Taddiandamole from Station in Redoubt 1716S6.4

| Taddiandamole | 2926 | $\}$ Tellicherry ........ $\left\{\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{r}175846.6 \\ 6143.1\end{array}\right.\right.$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Station in Redoubt | 1325233 |  |  |
| Tellicherry .... | 463801 |  |  |

## SECTION IV.

## Latitude of Dodagoontah Station, with the position of its Meridian.

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

OBSERVATIONS AT DODAGOONTAH.
a SERPENTIS.
NEAREST POINT ON THE LIMB $5^{\circ} 55^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$.

| 1805. | \% | Obsd. Zenith Distances. |  | Correct Zenith Distances. | Thermometers. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. |  |  |  |  | Upper. | Lower. |
| July 10. | E. | $5^{\circ} 57^{\prime} 044^{\prime \prime} 49$ | $7^{\prime \prime} .14$ | $5^{\circ} 56^{\prime} 57^{\prime \prime} .35$ | $70^{\circ}$ | $70^{\circ}$ |
| 12. | W. | 55659.38 | 6.93 | 55652.45 | 73 | 73 |
| 15. | E. | 55707.74 | 6.64 | 55701.10 | 79.5 | 79 |
| 18. | W. | 55654.73 | 6.36 | 55648.37 | 78 | 78 |
| 19. | E. | 5579.64 | 6.26 | $5 \quad 57$ | 76 | 76 |
| 24. | W. | 55659.24 | 5.82 | 55653.43 | 79.5 | 79 |
| 26. | E. | 55705.74 | 5.66 | 55700.08 | 75.5 | 75 |
| 27. | W. | 5-56 52.13 | 5.58 | 55646.55 | 79 | 79 |
| 29. | E. | 55659.41 | 5.43 | 55653.98 | 72 | 72 |
| 31. | W. | 55652.73 | 5.28 | 55647.45 | 75.5 | 76 |
| 1806, June 19. | E. | 55616.76 | 19.08 | 55657.68 | 73 | 78 |
| 20. | W. | 55610.88 | 18.95 | 55651.93 | 72 | 72 |
| 22. | W. | 55607.38 | 18.70 | 55648.68 | 76 | 76 |
| 23. | E. | 55613.21 | 18.57 | 55654.64 | 73 | 73 |
|  |  |  |  | Mean | 75.1 | 75.1 |

a HERCULIS.
nearest point on the limb $1^{\circ} 35^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$.

| 1803. | 先 | Obsl. Zenith Distance. |  | Correct Zenith Distance. | Thermometers. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. |  |  |  |  | Upper. | Lower. |
| July 12. | E. | $1^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 19^{\prime} .83$ | $\stackrel{+}{+}$ | $1^{\wedge} 37^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime} .22$ | $68^{\circ}$ | $69^{\circ}$ |
| 16. | E. | 13720.53 | 0.27 | 13720.26 | 72.5 | 73 |
| 19. | W. | 13737.14 | 0.73 | 13736.41 | 75 | 76 |
| 28. | W. | 13735.88 | 2.03 | 13733.85 | 74. | 74 |
| 29. | E. | 13722.55 | 2.16 | 13720.39 | 76 | 76 |
| 31. | E. | 13723.16 | 2.42 | 13720.74 | 69 | 68.5 |
| August 2. | W. | 13735.26 | 2.66 | 13732.60 | 77.5 | 77.5 |
| 7. | E. | 13724.76 | 3.26 | 13721.50 | 71.5 | 72 |
| 8. | W. | 13736.89 | 3.37 | 13733.52 | 71.5 | 71 |
| 9. | E. | 13725.55 | 3.48 | 13722.08 | 71 | 71 |
| 10. | W. | 13736.79 | 3.58 | 13733.21 | 73 | 73 |
| 12. | E. | 13724.56 | 3.78 | 13720.98 | 74 | 74. |
| 14. | W. | 13737.87 | 3.98 | 13733.89 | 74 | 74 |
| 16. | E. | 13727.06 | 4.17 | 13722.89 | 71.5 | 71 |
|  |  |  |  | Mean | 73 | 73.5 |

a OPHIUCHI.
nearest point on the limb 0 o 15 ' S.

| July 12. | E. | 01714.49 | $\stackrel{+}{+}$ | 01714.78 | 69 | 70 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 13. | W. | 01703.10 | 0.46 | 0 17003.36 | 71 | 72 |
| 15. | E. | 01713.54 | 0.77 | 01714.31 | 71 | 71.5 |
| 19. | E. | 01711 :60 | 1.43 | 01713.03 | 75 | 75 |
| 22. | W. | 01659.10 | 1.89 | 01700.99 | 74 | 74. |
| 28. | E. | $0 \cdot 1710.74$ | 2.76 | 01713.50 | 74 | 74 |
| 29. | W. | 01657.63 | 2.89 | 01700.52 | 76.5 | 76 |
| 30. | E. | 01709.24 | 3.02 | 01712.26 | 77 | 77 |
| 31. | W. | 01658.93 | 3.15 | 01702.08 | 69.5 | 69 |
| August | E. | 01708.51 | 4.02 | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 17 & 12.53\end{array}$ | 72 | 72 |
|  | W. | 01657.24 | 4.14 | 01701.38 | 71 | 71 |
|  | E. | 01709.08 | 4.25 | 01713.33 | 71 | 71 |
|  | W. | 01657.76 | 4.36 | 01702.12 | 73 | 73 |
|  | E. | 01707.54 | 4.58 | 01712.12 | 73 | 73 |
|  | W. | 01655.13 | 4.78 | 01659.91 | 74. | 74 |
|  | E. | 0178.74 | 5.07 | 01713.81 | 72.5 | 72.5 |
| Mean. |  |  |  |  | 72.7 | 72.8 |

- AQUILE.

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

| 1805. <br> Month. | \% | Ohserved Zenith Distance. |  | Correct ZenithDistance. | Thermometer. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | Upper. | Lower. |
| July 12. | E. | $\mathfrak{2 0}^{0} 50^{\prime} 55^{\prime \prime} .13$ | + $7 \times 1.96$ | $2^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 03^{\prime \prime} .09$ | $67^{\circ} .5$ | $68^{\circ}$ |
| 13. | iv. | 25042.80 | 8.17 | 25050.97 | 70 | 70 |
| 15. | E. | 25051.50 | 8.57 | 2510.07 | 69 | 70 |
| 16. | W. | 25042.50 | 8.77 | 25051.27 | 70 | 71 |
| 19. | E. | 2 5055.50 | 9.36 | 2514.86 | 74 | 73 |
| 22. | W. | 25037.40 | 9.94 | 25047.34 | 73 | 72.5 |
| 31. | E. | 25050.40 | 11.58 | $251 \quad 1.98$ | 69 | 69 |
| August 7. | W. | 25039.40 | 12.76 | 25052.16 | $7{ }^{1}$ | 70 |
| s. | E. | 25046.13 | 12.92 | 25059.05 | 69. 5 | 70 |
| 9. | W. | 25040.75 | 13.08 | 25053.83 | 70 | 70 |
| 10. | E. | 25049.50 | 13.24 | $\because 51 \quad 2.74$ | 70 | 70 |
| 13. | W. | 2 5038.33 | 13.55 | 25051.88 | 73 | 72 |
| 13. | E. | 25048.63 | 13.70 | $251 \quad 2.33$ | 70 | 70 |
| 17. | W. | 25038.30 | 14.27 | 25052.57 | 72 | 72 |
| 20. | E. | 25049.00 | 14.70 | 25153.70 | 70 | 70 |
| 30. | iw. | 25038.20 | 15.91 | 25054.11 | 72 | 72 |
|  |  |  |  | Mean... | 70.6 | 70.6 |

A'TAIR.
NeArest point on the limb 435 S.

| July 12. | E. | 43755.62 | + 8.49 8 | 4. 3804.11 | 67.5 | 68 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 13. | W. | 4. 3742.39 | 8.68 | 43751.07 | 70 | 70 |
| 15. | E. | 4. 3756.47 | 9.07 | 43805.54 | 69 | 70 |
| 16. | W. | 43743.39 | 9.26 | + 3752.65 | 70 | 71 |
| 19. | E. | 43756.14 | 9.83 | $4.38 \quad 5.97$ | 73 | 72.5 |
| 22. | W. | 43742.01 | 10.41 | 43752.42 | 75 | 73 |
| 29. | E. | 43753.89 | 11.65 | 4385.54 | 74.5 | 74.5 |
| 30. | W. | 43740.39 | 11.82 | 43752.21 | 76 | 76 |
| 31. | E. | 43751.84 | 11.99 | $4.38 \quad 3.83$ | 69 | 69 |
| August 7. | W. | 43740.96 | 13.13 | 4. 3754.09 | 71 | 71 |
| S. | E. | 4 3748.37 | 13.28 | 43801.66 | 69.5 | 70 |
| 9. | W. | 43741.89 | 13.44 | 43755.33 | 70 | 70 |
| 10. | E. | 43748.34 | 13.59 | 4331.33 | 70 | 70 |
| 12. | W. | ${ }^{4} 43739.76$ | 13.89 | 43753.65 | 73 | 72 |
| 13. | E. | 45748.17 | 14.04 | $438 \quad 2.21$ | 70 | 70 |
| 17. | W. | 4 3741.86 | 14.60 | 4 3756.45 | 72 | 72 |
| 20. | E. | 43749.37 | 14.99 | ${ }_{4}{ }_{4} 38 \quad 4.36$ | 70 | 70 |
| 30. | W. | 4 3737.89 | 16.16 | 43754.05 | 72 | 72 |
| Mean. |  |  |  |  | 71.1 | 71.2 |

f AQUILE.
NEAREST POINT ON THE LIMB $7^{\circ} 5^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$.

| $180{ }^{\text {1 }}$. |  | Observed Zenith Distance. |  | Correct Zenith Distance. | Thermometer. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Montl. |  |  |  |  | Upper. | Lower. |
| August 25. | E. | $7{ }^{\circ} 03^{\prime} 38^{\prime \prime} .62$ | $\stackrel{t}{t}$ | $7^{\circ} 4^{\prime} \quad 4^{\prime \prime} .89$ | $76^{\circ}$ | $76^{3}$ |
| 26. | W. | 70329.87 | 26.37 | $7 \quad 3 \quad 56.24$ | 72 | 73 |
| 27. | E. | 70340.87 | 26.47 | $7 \quad 4 \quad 7.34$ | 71 | 71 |
|  |  |  |  | Mean.... | 73 | 73.3 |

## ARCTURUS.

NEAREST POINT ON THE LIMB 710 N.

| 1805. <br> July 11. <br> 13. <br> 16. <br> 22. <br> 26. | $\begin{gathered} \text { W. } \\ \text { E. } \\ \text { E. } \\ \text { W. } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{lll} 7 & 12 & 12.43 \\ 7 & 11 & 58.13 \\ 7 & 12 & 11.36 \\ 7 & 11 & 59.98 \\ 7 & 19 & 13.26 \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} + \\ 7.50 \\ 7.36 \\ 7.16 \\ 6.85 \\ 6.60 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{rrr} 7 & 12 & 19.93 \\ 7 & 12 & 65.49 \\ 7 & 12 & 18.52 \\ 7 & 12 & 6.83 \\ 7 & 12 & 19.95 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 74.5 \\ & 74 \\ & 77 \\ & 80 \\ & 84 \end{aligned}$ | 74.5 <br> 74.5 <br> 77 <br> 79.5 <br> 83 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | \ean.. | 77.9 | 77.7 |

MARKAB.
NEAREST POINT ON THE LIMB 10 N.

, PEGASI.
N゙EAREST POINT ON THE LIMB I 5 N

| August 22. | E. | 1 | 6 | 21.26 | - | 24.04 | 1 | 5 | 57.22 | 68 | 69 |
| ---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 23. | W. | 1 | 6 | 31.63 | 24.42 | 1 | 6 | 07.21 | 70 | 71 |  |
| 27. | E. | 1 | 6 | 23.50 | 24.93 | 1 | 5 | 58.56 | 68 | 69 |  |
| 30. | W. | 1 | 6 | 35.13 | 25.44 | 1 | 6 | 09.69 | 68 | 70 |  |

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

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

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

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

This error in the scale of the micrometer has cloubtless arisen in a great measure from the unequal expansion of the sectorial tube and the frame which carries it, whereby the point of the screw does not coincide with the centre of the steel plate against which it presses, and in consequence causes a greater equation than what would arise simply from the expansion of

$$
\text { A a } 2
$$

the are while the point rested on the centre of the plate. Exclusive of the above correction, I have endeavoured to make some allowance for the variation of temperature from $74^{\circ}$, but I have found it too , trifling to be noticed.

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

ZENITH DISTANCES at Dodagoontah, arranged and finally corrected.
a SERPENTIS.

| 1805. | Left Arc. | 1805. | Right Arc. | Mean. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. |  | Month. |  |  |
| July 10. | $5^{\circ} 56^{\prime} 57^{\prime \prime} .35$ | July 12. | $5^{\circ} 56^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime} .45$ | Mean $\quad . . . .{ }^{\text {a }} 5^{\circ} 56^{\prime} 53^{\prime \prime} .82$ |
| 15. | $\begin{array}{lll}5 & 57 & 1.10\end{array}$ | 18. | 55648.37 | Refraction, \&c... + 5.82 |
| 19. | 5573.38 | 24. | 55653.42 |  |
| 26. | $557 \quad 0.08$ | 27. | 55646.55 | Zenith Distances 55659.61 |
| 29. | $5 \quad 5653.98$ | 31. | 55647.45 | - |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { lis06. } \\ \text { June } \end{array}\right\} 19$ | 55757.68 | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} 1806 \\ J_{\text {une }} \end{array}\right\}\{$ | 55651.93 |  |
| June 23. | 55654.64 | 22. | 55648.68 |  |
| Mcan.... | $5 \quad 5657.67$ | Mean . . . | $5 \quad 5649.97$ |  |

a HERCULIS.

| 1605 | Left Arc. | 1805. | Left Arc. | Muan. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Monih |  | Month. |  |  |  |
| July 19. | $1{ }^{\circ} 3736.41$ | July 12. | $1^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime} .22$ | Mean........ | $1^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 27^{\prime \prime} .52$ |
| 28. | 13733.85 | 16. | 13720.26 | Refraction, \&c. | + 1.47 |
| August 2. | $\begin{array}{ll}1 & 37 \\ 1 & 32.60 \\ 1\end{array}$ | 29. | 113720.39 |  |  |
| 8. | 13733.52 | August $\begin{array}{r}31 . \\ \hline\end{array}$ | 13720.74 | Zenith Distance | 13728.99 |
| 10. | $\begin{array}{lll} 1 & 37 & 33.21 \\ 1 & 37 & 33.89 \end{array}$ | August 7. | 133721.50 13722.08 |  |  |
|  |  | 12. | 13720.98 |  |  |
|  |  | 16. | 13722.89 |  |  |
| Mean.... | 13733.91 | Nean.... | 13721.13 |  |  |

## a OPHIUCHI.

| 19. | 01713.03 | 29. | $017 \quad 0.52$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 28. | 01713.5 | 31. | 0172.08 | Zenith Distance $017 \quad 7.71$ |
| 30. | 01712.26 | August 8. | $017 \quad 1.38$ |  |
| August 7. | $\begin{array}{llllll}0 & 1712.53\end{array}$ | 10. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 17 & 2.12\end{array}$ |  |
| 9. | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 1713.33\end{array}$ | 14. | 01659.91 |  |
| 12. | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 1712.12\end{array}$ |  |  |  |
| 17. | 01713.81 |  |  |  |
| Mean.... | 01713.30 | Mean.... | $017 \quad 1.51$ |  |

- AQUIL F .

| July 12. | 251 | 3.09 | July 13. | 25050.97 | Mean ....... | 250 | 57.0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 15. | 251 | 0.07 | 16. | 25051.27 | Refraction, \&c. |  | 2.78 |
| 19. | 251 | 4.86 | 29. | 25047.34 |  |  |  |
| 31. | 251 | 1.98 | August 7. | 25052.16 | Zenith Distance |  | 59.78 |
| August 8. | 250 | 59.05 | 9. | 25053.83 |  |  |  |
| 10. | 251 | 2.74 | 12. | 25051.88 |  |  |  |
| 13. | 251 | 2.33 | 17. | 25052.57 |  |  |  |
| 20. | 251 | 3.70 | 30. | 25054.11 |  |  |  |
| ean | 251 | 2.23 | Mean | 25051.77 |  |  |  |

ATAIR.

| 1805. | Left Arc. | 1805. | Right Arc. | Mean. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Montl. |  | Month. |  |  |
| July 12. | $438^{\prime} 4^{\prime} .11$ | July 13. | 4. $37^{\prime} 51^{\prime \prime} .07$ | Mean ........4i 37 58".73 |
| 15. | 4385.54 | 16. | 4.3752.65 | Refraction, Sc. +4.61 |
| 19. | 4385.97 | 22. | 43752.42 |  |
| 29. | 4.38 5.54 | 30. | 43752.21 | Zenith Distance 4 38 3.34. |
| 31. | 4383.83 | August 7. | 43754.09 |  |
| August 8. | 4381.66 | 9. | 43755.33 |  |
| 10. | 4381.93 | 12. | 4.3753.65 |  |
| 13. | 4382.21 | 17. | 43756.45 |  |
| 20. | 4.38 4. 36 | 30. | 43754.05 | . |
| Mean.... | 4.38 3.91 | Mean.... | 43753.55 |  |

$\beta$ AQUILE.

| 1806. <br> August 25. 27. <br> Mean $\qquad$ |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 4.89 \\ & 7.34 \end{aligned}$ | 1806. August 26. <br> Mean. $\qquad$ | 7 | 3 | 56.24 | Mean ......... 7 <br> Refraction, \&c... |  | $\begin{aligned} & 1.1 \\ & 7.1 \end{aligned}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 7 | 4 | 6.11 |  | 7 | 3 | 56.24 | Zenith Distance | 7 |  | 8.36 |

## MARKAB.

| $1805 .$ | 1 | 942.98 | $\begin{array}{r} \text { August } 13 . \\ 17 . \\ 29 . \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{lll} 1 & 9 & 28.28 \\ 1 & 9 & 32.07 \\ 1 & 9 & 34.82 \end{array}$ |  | Mean ......... $1 \begin{array}{r}96.57 \\ \text { Refraction, } \\ \text { \&c. }\end{array}+\begin{aligned} & 1.19 \\ & \text { Zenith Distance } \\ & 1\end{aligned} \quad 9 \begin{aligned} & 37.76\end{aligned}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 21. | 1 | 941.58 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23. | 1 | 941.91 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 28. |  | 939.42 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 30. |  | $9 \$ 1.15$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mean |  | 941.41 | Mean |  | 931.73 |  |  |

## PEGASI.

| August 23.$30 .$ | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 6 & 7.21\end{array}$ | $\text { August } 22 .$$27 .$ | 1557.22 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1.69 .69 |  | $1 \quad 558.56$ |
| Mean.... | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 6 & 8.45\end{array}$ | Mean.... | $1 \quad 5 \quad 57.89$ |

## ARC'TURUS.



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

| STARS. | From the beginning of 1805. |  | Latitude. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean Declination. | Correct Z. Distance. |  |
| - Arcturus | $20^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 19^{\prime \prime} .23 \mathrm{~N}$. | $7^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 19^{\prime \prime} . \mathrm{s} 4 \mathrm{~N}$. | $12^{\top} 59^{\prime} 59^{\prime \prime} .39 \mathrm{~N}$ 。 |
| a Serpentis | 7 7 | 55659.64 S. | 59.97 |
| a Herculis | 143730.96 | 13728.99 N. | 61.97 |
| $\propto$ Ophiuchi | 124250.91 | $017 \quad 7.71 \mathrm{~S}$. | 58.62 |
| , Aquila | $\begin{array}{llll}10 & 8 & 58.34\end{array}$ | 25059.78 S. | 58.12 |
| Atair | 82153.53 | 4383.34 S. | 56.87 |
| $\beta$ Aquila | 55552.71 | 748.73 S . | 61.44 |
| Markab | $14 \quad 9 \quad 40.09$ | 1937.76 N. | 62.33 |
| - Pegasi. | $14 \quad 6 \quad 4.7$ | 164.23 N. | 60.47 |
|  |  | Mean. | $12 \quad 5959.91$ |

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

| 1805. |  |  |  | Angle between | Angle between |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. |  |  |  | e Pole-star and Lamp. | Lamp. |
| July 19. | $1{ }^{\circ} 43^{\prime} 58^{\prime \prime} .20$ |  | $1^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 4.2^{\prime \prime} .16$ | $1^{\circ} 31^{\prime} 53^{\prime \prime} .00$ | $0^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime} .16$ |
| 22. | 14357.57 |  | 14641.70 | 13156.25 | $014+5.45$ |
| August 8. | 14354.07 |  | 14638.10 | 1.3151 .25 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 14.46 .85\end{array}$ |
| 12. | 14353.05 | N | 14637.06 | 13148.50 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 14 & 48.56\end{array}$ |
| 17. | 14351.70 | $\bigcirc$ | 14635.67 | 13146.25 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 1449.42\end{array}$ |
| 18. | 14351.44 |  | 14635.40 | 13147.50 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 14 & 47 \\ 0 & 14 & 90\end{array}$ |
| 19. | 14351.16 | - | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 46 & 35.10\end{array}$ | 13145.50 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 14.49 .60\end{array}$ |
| 23. | 14350.04 | 0 | 14633.97 | 13145.50 | 01448.47 |
| 26. | 14349.09 |  | 14632.09 | 13143.50 | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 1449.49\end{array}$ |
| 27 | 14348.82 |  | 14632.73 | 13144.50 | $0 \quad 1448.23$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Angle hetween the N. Pole and Savendroog Station . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . |  |  |  |  | 1034941.37 |

## SECTION $V$.

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

For determining the latitude of Savendroog, we have at Dodagoontah station, the bearing. of Savendroog station with the meridian $76^{\circ} 10^{\prime} 18^{\prime \prime} .63 \mathrm{~S}$. W W ${ }^{1 y}$ and the distance between these two stations $=121933.2$ feet. These will give the westing of Savendroog $=$ 118399.2 feet, and the southing of the point on the meridian of Dodagoontah, where the perpendicular let fall from Sarendroog, will cut the said meridian $=29143.3$ feet, which is equal to an arc of $4^{\prime} 48^{\prime \prime} .88$, and this deducted from the latitude of Dodagoontah gives $12^{\circ} 55^{\prime} 11^{\prime \prime} .03$. The westing will give an are perpendicular to the meridian $19^{\prime} 29^{\prime \prime} .04$, with which, and the co-latitude of the above point, the latitude of Sarendroog will be had $1 \mathscr{Q}^{3} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime} .24$.

Note. The meridional degree is talien at 60498 fathoms, being the computed degree for Latitude $1 \varrho^{\prime \prime} 55^{\prime \prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$, as deduced from the measured degrees for latitude $11^{\prime \prime} 59^{\prime} 55^{\prime \prime}$ and latitude $50^{\circ} 02^{\prime} 30^{\prime}$.

Pole-Star Observations at Savendrong Station, reduced for determining the position of the Mcridian.

| $\frac{180.4}{\text { Month. }}$ | Apparent Polar Distance. | Latioude | Azimuths. | Angle between the Poie-star and Referring Lamp. | Angle between the N . Pole and Referring Latap. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| March 6. | $1^{\circ} 43^{\prime} 57^{\prime \prime} .66$ |  | $1^{\circ} 4639^{\prime \prime} \cdot 72$ | $2^{\prime} 28^{\prime} 56^{\prime \prime} .75$ | $0^{\circ} 42^{\prime} 17^{\prime \prime} .03$ |
| 7. | 14357.94 |  | 14640 | $2 \sim 857.25$ | 04217.25 |
| \&. | 14358.23 |  | 14640.3 | 22854 | 0) 4213.7 |
| 9. | 14358.49 | ${ }^{3}$ | 14640.57 | 22853.5 | 04212.93 |
| 10. | 14.358 .75 | $C$ | 14640.86 | 22857.75 | 0 42 16.89 |
| 13. | 14.359 .62 |  | 14641.73 | 22556 | 04214.27 |
| 14. | 14359.91 | - | 14642.03 | 2 2S 55.75 | 04216.72 |
| 15. | 14400.19 | is | 14642.31 | 22558.75 | 0 ) 4216.44 |
| .16. | 14400.49 |  | 14642.62 | $2 \bigcirc 558.25$ | 04215.69 |
| 21. | $144,00.06$ |  | 14643.11 | 22901.12 | 04218.02 |
| Angle between the North Pole and Refering Lamp . . . . . . . . . . . . Angle between the Referring Lamp and Mullapumabetta ..... . <br> Angle between the North Pole and Mullapumabetta |  |  |  |  | 04215.89 |
|  |  |  |  |  | 904001.16 |
|  |  |  |  |  | 99) $57+5.27 \mathrm{~W}$ |
| Angle between the North Pole and Referving Lamp . . . . . . . . . . . . Angle between the Referring Lamp and Yerracondah .......... |  |  |  |  | 04215.59 E. |
|  |  |  |  |  | 920449.45 |
| Angle belween the North Pole and Yerracondah |  |  |  |  | 924705.34 E |

Pole-Star Observations at Mullapunnabetta Station, reduced for determining the position of the Meridiun.


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

| 04 | Apparent Polar | Latitude | inut | $\left\lvert\, \begin{gathered} \text { Angle } \\ \text { Alic Pole } \end{gathered}\right.$ | etween | Angle between the N . pole and Referring |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ionti. |  |  |  |  |  | Lamp. |
| an. 15. | $1^{\text {® } 43^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime} .81}$ |  | $1^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime} .42$ | 9" |  | $7^{\circ} 16^{\prime} 36^{\prime \prime} .08$ |
| 16. | 14349.82 |  | 14630.43 | 93 |  | 71633.42 |
| 19. | 14349.9 | " | 14630.51 | 93 |  | 71631.49 |
| 20. | 14349.92 |  | 14030.53 | 9 |  | 71632.97 |
| 21. | 14349.95 |  | 14630.56 | 9 |  | 71634.94 |
| 22. | 14350 .022 |  | 14630.63 | 93 |  | 71633.12 |
| 23. | 14350.07 | ¢̈ | 14630.68 |  |  | 71633.32 |
| 26. | 14350.26 |  | 14630.87 | 93 |  | 71634.12 |
| 27. | 14350.35 |  | 14630.96 | 93 |  | 1633 |
| Angle between the North Pole and Referring Lampi. Angle betweeu the Referring Lamp and Savendroog <br> Angle between the North Pole and Savendroog |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{rrr} 7 & 16 \\ 94 & 33 & 14.64 \\ 94 & \text { E. } \end{array}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | s6 5941.33 W |

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

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

The Arc comprehended by the Meridians of Savendroog and Mullapunnabetta.

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


In the spheriodical triangle MSR, the angle MSR $=90^{\circ}-\angle \cdot P S M=0^{\circ} \Omega^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .73$, and the angle SMR $=180^{\circ}-\angle$ PMS $=90^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime} .61$, and these being corrected for the chords, we shall have the angle $\operatorname{MSR}=02^{\prime \prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .73$, and the angle RNS $=90^{\circ} 11^{\circ}$ $15 " .58$ for the chord angles. Whence the angle SRM $=180^{\circ}$ - sums of the above angles, or $89^{\circ} 46^{\circ} 29.69$, and with these and the side or chord MS, the distance given by the triangles, we shall find the chord of the perpendicular $\operatorname{arc} \mathrm{SR}=3576 \pm 4.6$ and the side $\mathrm{MR}=253.64$ feet, and this last may be taken either as a chord or arc indifferently.

Now the spherical excess of the triangle SMR is $0^{\prime \prime} .02$, and the sum of the corrections for the angles MSR and SMR being - $0^{\prime \prime} .03$, the difference between this sum and the said spherical excess is $+0^{\prime \prime} .01$ the correction for the angle MSR, which applied to the chord angle, we get the angle MRS or PRS as an observed angle, equal $89^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 29^{\prime} .68$.

Continue the meridian PS to $t$, and draw Rt parallel to Ss. Then, since the small angle SRt , or its equal RSs, is half the difference beiween the angles

PRS and PSR, that is half the difference betweeri $90^{\circ}$ and the angle PRS as an observed one, we have $\frac{90^{\circ}-\left(899^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 29^{\prime \prime} .68\right)}{2}=6^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime} .16$, the angle RSs. Hence in triangle RSs considered as a plane one, there are given the angles at R and S and the side SR , as formerly found, from which will be had Ss and Rs equal 357649.6 feet and 702.51 feet respectively; as also Ms ( $=$ RS - RM) equal 468.87 feet, which measures the distance between the parallels of S and M. But 468.87 feet as an arc on the meridian is 4 ".6.5, which substracted from the latitude of S gives $19^{\circ} 55^{\prime \prime} 05^{\prime \prime} .59$ for the latitude of M , the station at Mulllapumabetta.

Hence in the triangle SPM there are given the sides SP and MP (the co-latitudes of S and M ) and the angles PSMI, PMS, the observed angles at $S$ and M. Then, as the tangent $77^{\circ} 4^{\prime}, 52^{\prime \prime} .085$ : tangent Oo $0^{\prime} 2^{\prime} .325::$ tangent $89^{\circ} 53^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .83$ : tangent 004 $31 " .26$; which last applied to the half sum of the observed angles, we get $89^{\circ} 53^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .83+4^{\prime} 31^{\prime \prime} .26=$ $89^{\circ} 57^{\prime} 46^{\prime \prime} .09$ and $89^{\prime \prime} .53^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .53-4^{\prime} 31^{\prime \prime} .26=89^{\circ}$ $48^{\prime} 43^{\prime \prime} .57$ for the angles at Savendroog and Mallapunnabctta such as they would have been observed on a sphere. Then proceeding by spherical computation with the sides PS, PM, and the angles PSM and PMS given, the angle SPM, or difference of longitude of $S$ and $M$ will be had equal $1^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 24^{\prime} .44$, from which and the side SP in the right angled spherical triangle PSR the side SR or arc SR perpendicular to the meridian PS at the point $S$ will be had equal $0^{\circ} 58^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime} .71$.

Now the chord of the are $S R$ is had $=357644.6$ feet, half of which will be as the sine of half the arc SR, and from which is got the radius of the same arc, and thence the length of the arc SR is found to be 357650.8 feet. Then as $58^{\prime} 39^{\prime \prime} .71: 957650.8:: 60^{\prime}$ $: 364463.3$ fect, or 60743.8 fathoms, for the measure of the degree at right angles to the meridian of, Savendroog.

## The Arc compreliended by the Meridians of Savendroog and Yerracondah.

Let $S$ and $Y$ be the stations at Savendroog and Ferracondah respectively, and let the latitude of Y be deduced from that of $S$, the angles PSY and PYS having been observed. Let SR be a great circle perpendicular to the meridian SP at S, and St' a parallel of latitude at the same point S. Here the angle $\mathrm{RSY}=\mathrm{PSY}-90^{\circ}=$ $9^{\circ} 47^{\prime \prime} 5^{\prime \prime} .34$, and the angle RYS being the observed angle at $\mathrm{Y}=86^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 41^{\prime \prime} .33$. These angles being corrected for the chords, the supplement to their sum will be the chord angle at R in the spheriodical triangle SRY. Let the chords of SR and YR be computed with the corrected angles, then if the angle at $R$ be augmented by the difference between the sum of the corrections for the other two angles and the spherical excess, it will become $90^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .74$, or such as would have been observed at $R$. Hence $180^{\circ}-$ $\angle S R Y=89^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime} .26$ the angle $t^{\prime} R S$, and by considering the triangle $\mathrm{St}^{\prime} \mathrm{K}$ as a plane one, the small angle tSR is equal $\frac{90-\angle \mathrm{t}^{\prime} R S}{2}=0^{\circ} 6^{\prime} 37^{\prime \prime} .37$. With this angle, and the angle t'RS, and the distance $S R$, as found above, the small side $t R$ is had $=675.86$ feet, which added to $\mathrm{RY}=17067.72$ gives $\mathrm{tY}=$ 17743.58 feet, the distance between the parallels of S and Y . But 17743.58 feet is equal to an are on the meridian of $2^{\prime} 55^{\prime \prime} .98$, and this deducted from the latitude of Savendroog, gives $19^{\circ} 50^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .26$ for the latitude of Yerracondah.

Hence, with the co-latitudes of Satendroog and

Yerracondah, and the observed angles PSY and PYS, we have, the tangent of half the sum of the first, to the tangent of half their difference, as the tangent of half the sum of the second, to tangent of $2^{\circ} 54^{\prime} 25^{\prime \prime} .92$, their half difference: from which we get the greater angle at $S=92^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime} .25$, and the less angle at $Y$ $=86^{\circ} 58^{\prime} 57^{\prime \prime} .41$ thus corrected for computing spherically: and with these and co-latitudes, proceeding as before, the angle SPY will be had $=0^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .83$, and the perpendicular are $=0^{\circ} 57^{\prime} 44^{\prime \prime} .86$. But the chord subtended by this arc is 350824 feet, and therefore the arc itself 350897.7 feet. Then, as 57.74767 : 350827.7 feet $:: 60^{\prime}: 364510.8$ feet, or 60751.8 fathoms, for the length of the degree at right angles to the meridian of Savendroog, as deduced from the distaince betwcen Savendroog and Yerracondah; and the length of the perpendicular degree deduced from the distance between Sarendroog and Mullapumabetta being 60743.8 fathoms, the mean of these two, or 60747.8 fathoms, may be considered as nearly the true measure for latitude $12^{\circ} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$.

If the ratio of the earth's diameters be taken as I $: 1.003125$, and the meridional degree in latitude $11^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 55^{\prime \prime}$ be 60494 fathoms; then, by using these data, the computed meridional degree on the ellipsoid in latitude $12^{\circ} 55^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$ will be $60+98$ fathoms; with which and the above ratio, the computed degree at right angles to the meridian in the same latitude will be had 60558 fathoms, which exceeds the measured one by 110 fathoms nearly; so that we may infer from this, either that the earth is not an ellipsoid, or that this measurement is incorrect.

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

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

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

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

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

## 11. Latitude and longitude of Kylasghur.

Let Y be Yerracondah, K Kylasghar, and P the pole. Then in the spherical triangle PYK there are given $\mathrm{YP}=77^{\circ} 7^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime} .74$, the co-latitude of Yerracondah, $\mathrm{YK}=46^{\prime} 33^{\prime \prime} .5 \mathrm{~J}$, the oblique are as computed on the spheroid; and the angle PYK = $92^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 46^{\prime \prime} .11$, as observed at Yerracondah, to find PK, the co-latitude of Kylasghur which by spherical computation will be had equal $77^{\circ}$ $9^{\prime} 38^{\prime \prime} .7$, and therefore the latitude equal $19^{\circ}$
 $50^{\prime} 21^{\prime \prime} .3$, with which latitude the azimuths being reduced, the pole star observations at Kylasghur will stand as follow:

| 1803. | Apparent Polar Distance. | Latitude | Azimuth | Angle between the Pole-star and Referring Lamp. | Angle between the North Pole and Referring Lamp. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Month. |  |  |  |  |  |
| Dec. 3. 7. 12. 13. | $1^{\circ} 43^{\prime} 54^{\prime \prime} .74$ | $\}$ | $1^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 35^{\prime \prime} .41$ | $3^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 57^{\prime \prime}$ | $1^{\circ} 42^{\prime} 21^{\prime \prime} .59$ |
|  | 14353.82 |  | 14634.51 | 32852.4 | 14217.89 |
|  | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 43 & 52.84\end{array}$ |  | 14633.56 | $\begin{array}{llll}3 & 28 & 55.25\end{array}$ | 14221.69 |
|  | 14352.5 |  | 14633.46 | 32853.5 | 14220.04 |
| Angle between the North Pole and Referring Lamp.............. Angle between the Referring Lamp and Yerracondah <br> Angle between the North Pole and Yerracondah ................ |  |  |  |  | 12220.30 |
|  |  |  |  |  | 891757.607 |
|  |  |  |  |  | 873537.307 |

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

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

The southing of Karnatighur from Kylasghur is 95144 feet, equal to an arc of $15^{\prime} 43^{\prime \prime} .61$ on the meridian of Kylasghur; and the easting is 1093.53 feet, equal to $10^{\prime \prime} .8$ of a great circle at right angles to the said meridian, and passing through Karnatighur. From the nearness of the meridians of these two stations, the former arc may be considered as the difference of latitude, and therefore being subtracted from the latitude of Kylusghur, we have 120 34 $37^{\prime \prime} .69$ for the latitude of Karnatighur. Hence, by using the co-latitude $77^{\circ} 25^{\prime} Q 2^{\prime \prime} .31$, and the small perpendicular arc $10^{\prime} .8$, we shall have the difference of longitude 11\%.06, and the convergency of the meridian of Karnatighur towards that of Kylasghur $2 " .46$ nearly. The former of which being applied to the longitude of Kylasghur, will give $1^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 8^{\prime \prime \prime} .87$ for the longitude of Karnatighur from the meridian of Savendroog, E.

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

The same angle taken at Karnatighur, in 1803 ,
was $92^{\circ} 49^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime} .93$, but as there is reason to doubt the accuracy of that augle, from reasons already given, to which may perhaps be added the want of experience, I shall reject it and adopt the one now brought out for determining

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

The length of the are comprehended by the stations at Karnatighur and Carangooly, as determined by the triangles in 1803, was 291196.9 feet, which, as an oblique arc, according to the present scales, will be equal $47^{\prime} 56^{\prime \prime} .21$.

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

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

As the atmosphere, was so extremely dull when
the polé-star observations were made at Balroyndroog, the angle hetween its meridian and the station at Mullapumabetta, could not be taken, we must therefore depend altogether on computations made with the oblique are, the latitude of Mullapumabetta, and the angle at that station with the N. pole, and the station at Balroyndroog.

Let $M$ and $B$ be the stations at MTullapumnabetta and Balroyndroog respectively, and let P be the pole, then having given PM equal $77^{\circ}$ $4^{\prime} 54^{\prime \prime} .41$, BM the oblique arc equal $52^{\prime} 42^{\prime \prime} .19$, and the observed angle PMBequal $75^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 54^{\prime \prime} 9.5$, we shall óbtain by sphe-
 rical computation the side $B P=76^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 08^{\prime \prime} .4$ the co-latitude, and the angle BPM $5 \mathbb{Z}^{\prime} \times 28^{\prime \prime} .94$ the difference of longitude, which add to the longitude of Savendroog from $C a-$ rangooly hill, and Mullapmanabet'a from Savendroog, there will be $4^{\circ} 29^{\prime} 05^{\prime \prime} 1.5$, the longitude of Balroyndroog from Carangooly hill.

Taking the latitude thus found for computing the azimuths, the pole-star observations at Balroyndroog will stand as foilow:

| 1805 | Apparent Polar |  |  | Angle between | Angle between the N |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Montli. | Appictane | Latitude | Azimuths. | the Pole-star and Referring Lamp. | Pole and Referring Lamp. |
| Feb. 20. | $1^{\circ} 43^{\prime} 34^{\prime \prime} 15$ |  | $1^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 21^{\prime \prime} .05$ | $56^{\prime \prime} 46^{\prime \prime} 48^{\prime \prime} .50$ | $55^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 22^{\prime \prime} .45$ |
| 23. | 14334.82 |  | 14621.73 | 564643.75 | 550022.02 |
| 24. | 14335.06 |  | 14621.98 | 564643.25 | 550021.27 |
| 25. | 14335.33 | $\stackrel{1}{1}$ | 14622.25 | 564643 | 550020.75 |
| 26. | $1 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 43 & 35.57\end{array}$ | $\stackrel{\square}{*}$ | 14622.50 | 564644.5 | 550022 |
| 27. | 14335.50 | \% | 14622.74. | 564644.25 | 550021.51 |
| 28. | 14336.03 |  | 14622.97 | 564643.44 | 550020.44 |
| Augle between the firrth Pole and Referring Lamp ............ |  |  |  |  | 5500.21 .49 N . |

15. Reduction of some principal places on the two coasts in latitude and longitudc.
Balroyndroog and its parallels, and the distances of certain places on the Malabar coast from that Meridian, and from its perpendicular.

| Stations at | Places computed. | Bcarings referred to the Meridian of Balroyndroog. | Dists. | Distances on the |  | ${ }^{13 \text { stances from Balroyn- }}$ droos on the |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Perpendic. | Meridia | Perpendic. | Meridian. |
| Palroyndroog Bullamully | Bullamully ...... | $44^{\circ} 57^{\prime} 26^{\prime \prime}$ S. W. | feet. | 116546 W . | feet. | 116.546 W. | 116722 S . |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Mangalore | $7 \mathrm{~S} 1358 \mathrm{~N} . \mathrm{W}$. | 91762 | 89834, W. | $18714 . \mathrm{N}$. | 206380 W . | 95008 N. |
|  | Goompay Hill | 250829 S. W. | 54990 | 3920 E. 101606 |  | 135989 E | . 166502 S . |
| Goompay ....... | Baeltul ........... <br> Kındudiakamully | 21235 S. E. | 101681 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 355746 S. E. | 126146 | 74080 E. 102102 |  | 65829 W | . 268603 |
| Kunduddakamully | Mount Dilli ...... <br> Taddiandamole | 423 Os S.W. | 132113 | 10102 W | . 131726 | 75931 W | 400329 |
|  |  | - 645519 S. E. | 14.9160 |  | 63223 | 69272 E | 351826 |
| Taddiandamole | Camanore Fellicherry | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{llll} 32 & 45 & 22 & \text { S. W. } \\ 14 & 25 & 51 & \text { S. W. } \end{array}\right.$ | $\left\|\begin{array}{r} 157072 \\ 1575847 \end{array}\right\|$ | $\begin{aligned} & 84956 \mathrm{~W} . \\ & 43773 \mathrm{~W} . \end{aligned}$ | 132094 | 15714 W | 463920 S. |
|  |  |  |  |  | 170311 | 25499 W. | 502137 |

[^54]| ratio | cas | Bearings referred to the Meridian of Carangooly. | Dists. | Distanees on the |  | Distances from Carangooiyon the |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Perpendic | Meridian. | rpendic. | erid |
|  |  |  | feet. | fee | feet. | feet. | feet. |
| Carangocly | Mulla | $17^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 01^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N} . \mathrm{E}$. | 144403 | 44105 E | 137505 N. | 44105 E. | 37505 N. |
|  |  | $241420 \mathrm{~S} . \mathrm{W}$. | 134240 | 55111 W | 122406 S . | 55111 W . | 122406 S. |
|  | Fort St. Gcor | $582757 \mathrm{~N} . \mathrm{E}$ | 113759 | 96960 E . | 5.9497 N. | 141065 E | 197002 N |
|  | Mowbrey's House. - | $\left(\begin{array}{lllll}64 & 16 & 15 & \mathrm{~N} . \\ 0\end{array}\right.$ | 92027 | 82903 E. | 39951 N | 127008 | 77456 N |
| , | Madras Olsservatory | 00018 N. F. | 15914. |  | 15914. N. | 127009 E. | 193370 N. |
| Pernacoil Hill | Mooralan Station | 122028 S. E. | 83352 | 17815 E | S1426 S. | 37296 W. | 203832 S |
| Mooratan Statio | Pendich | $473845 \text { S. E. }$ | 23207 | 17150 E | 15635 | 20146 W . | 219467 S. |
|  | Trivandepora | $174321 \text { S. W. }$ | $87363$ | 26594 W . | $83217 \mathrm{~S}$ | 63890 W. | 287049 S |
| Trivandeporum | Cuddalote | 702302 S . E | 246 | 23214 E | $8273 \mathrm{S}$. | 40676 W | 295322 |

By table the first, Mangalore flag-staff is west from the meridian of Balroyndroog 206380 feet, and south 98008 feet from the station ; and these converted into arcs according to the above scales, will give 33' $58^{\prime \prime}$ and $16^{\prime} 19^{\prime \prime}$ respectively, and the latter arc added to the co-latitude of Balroyndroog (equal 760 $52^{\prime} 8^{\prime \prime} .4$ ) gives $77^{\circ} 08^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}$ for the co-latitude of the point where a perpendicular from Mangalore will cut the meridian of Balroyndroog at right angles. Then as Rad. : Cos. $77^{\circ} 8^{\prime} \mathscr{O}^{\prime \prime}::$ Cos. $33^{\prime} 53^{\prime \prime \prime}$ (the perpendicular) : $77^{\circ} 08^{\prime} 22^{\prime \prime}$, the co-latitude of Mangalore.

And again, as Tan. $33^{\prime} .58^{\prime \prime}$ : Sin. $77^{\circ} 05^{\prime} 20^{\prime \prime}::$ Rad. : Cot. $34^{\circ} 50^{\prime \prime}$, the difference of longitude between Balroyndroog and the flag-staff at Mangalore,

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

| Names of Places. | Latitudes. | Longitudes from Balroyndroog. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mangalore Flag-staff | $12^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 35^{\prime \prime}$ | $0^{\circ} 34^{\prime} 50^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. |
| Baekul Fort S. E. Cavalier | 122332 | 02255 W . |
| Mount Dilli Station | 120141 | 0 1247 W. |
| Cannanore Flag-staff | 115111 | 00238 W . |
| Tellicherry Flag-staff | 114452 | 00417 E. |

By table 2d, the observatory at Madras is 127009 feet east, and 193370 feet north from the station at Carangooly, which converted into arcs give $90^{\prime} 54^{\prime \prime \prime} .45^{\circ}$ and $31^{\prime} 57^{\prime \prime} .78$ respectively ; which being applied to the meridian and its perpendicular, passing through the observatory, and computing spherically, as in the last case, we shall obtain $13^{\circ} 04^{\prime} 8^{\prime \prime} .7$ for the latitude of the observatory, and $21^{\prime} 27^{\prime \prime} .81$ for its longitude east from the meridian of Carangooly. And by pursuing the same method of calculation, we shall have certain places on the Coromandel coast referred to the meridian of Carangooly as follow:

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

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

Difference of longitude between the observatory and
Mangalore, - - - - - - - 5025. 23.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Church in Fort St. George and ditto, } \begin{array}{l}
5 \\
27 \\
\hline
\end{array}{ }^{2} 45 \\
& \text { Pondicherry and Cannanore, } \\
& \text { Cuddalore and Tellicherry } \\
& \text { C } \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
$$

Here it may be proper to notice that in the requisite tables, the difference of longitude between Fort St. George and Mangalore is $5^{\circ} 27^{\prime} 25^{\prime \prime \prime}$, within $20^{\prime \prime}$ of what is here given ; but the difference of longitude between Cuddalore and Tellicherry is $4^{\circ} 8^{\prime} 4 \%^{\prime \prime}$, differing no less than $9^{\prime} 18^{\prime \prime}$ from the triangular measurement.

## APPENDIX.

## CABLE of LAT ITUDES and LONGITUDES of some of the

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

| Names of Places. | Latitude. | Longitude from |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Madras Obser. | Greenwich. |
| Allambaddy Fort | $12^{\circ} 8^{\prime} 35^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $20^{\prime} 25^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. | $77^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 5^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$ 。 |
| * Allasoor H. | 13942 | 2380 | 773830 |
| * Allicoor H. | $\begin{array}{llll}13 & 1618\end{array}$ | 03134 | 794456 |
| Allumparva Fort | 121612 | 0145 | $80 \quad 225$ |
| Amaratoor Fort | $1255 \quad 23$ | 31855 | $76 \quad 5735$ |
| Amboige Dg. | 132337 | 21448 | $78 \quad 142$ |
| Amboor Dg. | 124912 | 1328 | 7844.22 |
| Anchitty Dg. | 123523 | 22145 | $77 \quad 5415$ |
| * Ankisgherry Dg. | 124027 | 2103 | $78 \quad 527$ |
| Annicul Fort P. | 124233 | 23331 | 774259 |
| ARCOT FORT (Nabob's house) ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | 125414 | 0 54 57 | $79 \bigcirc 133$ |
| ARNEE (Monument in the Fort) | 124019 | 05753 | 791832 |
| Atcherawauk H. and P. . . . . . . . | 122414 | 02623 | 79507 |
| Auvulcondah | 13740 | 11154 | 791436 |
| * Baekul Fort | 122332 | 51328 | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 3 & 2\end{array}$ |
| * Bailippee H. | 13397 | 25828 | $7718 \quad 2$ |
| Bailoor Fort P. | $\begin{array}{llll}13 & 9 & 47\end{array}$ | 42342 | 755248 |
| B. Ballapoor Eedga | 131824 | 24313 | 772617 |
| * Balroyn Dg. | 13.751 .6 | 4. 5033 | $75 \quad 2557$ |
| BANGALORE Palace | 125734 | 24045 | 773545 |
| Barcelore Peak | 135123 | 52328 | $7453 \quad 2$ |
| Bellagola (Great statue) | 125115 | 34613 | 763017 |
| Belloor Fort P. .... | 125858 | 33126 | 76454 |
| Benkipoor Fort | 135042 | 43326 | $75 \quad 4.3$ 4 |

## TABLE-continued.



TABLE-continued.

| Names of Places. | Latitude. | Lougitude from |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Madras Obser. | Greenwich. |
| Exnore Tree | $13^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 59^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $0^{\prime \prime} 4^{\prime} 42^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$. | $80^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 12^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$. |
| Erode Fort S.E. Caval | 112027 | 23126 W . | 77454 |
| French Rock's Pillar | 123031 | 33321. | 76436 |
| Gingee Dg. | 121518 | 05119 | 792511 |
| Gopaul Dg. | 122952 | 25731 | 771859 |
| Goodebbuxdah Dg | 134034 | 2333 | 774327 |
| * Goompay H. ... | 124019 | 514.10 | $\begin{array}{lll}75 & 220\end{array}$ |
| Goonicul Fort | $\begin{array}{ll}13 & 183\end{array}$ | 313 34 | $\begin{array}{lll}77 & 2 & 56\end{array}$ |
| Gooriattum P. | 125552 | 12442 | 78 51 <br> 8  |
| Gungangherry Dg | 122554 | 15747 | $78 \quad 1843$ |
| Gurradan Dg. | 132854 | 4. 047 | 761543 |
| : Hallagamulla | $11 \quad 052$ | 24854 | 772736 |
| * Hanandamulla | 12555 | 05114 | 791516 |
| Hassun | $13 \quad 0 \quad 13$ | 4.942 | $76 \quad 648$ |
| Hooly Dg. | 124913 | 3135 | $77 \quad 325$ |
| * Hunnabetta | 1361 | 4. 3112 | 754518 |
| Huxamux Dg | 135541 | 41938 | 755652 |
| Hurroor Fort | $12 \quad 250$ | 1461 | $78 \quad 30 \quad 29$ |
| Hyderghur | 13426 | 51527 | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 1 & 3\end{array}$ |
| Jainkul Dg. | 135435 | 35950 | 761640 |
| Jemalabad Flag Sta | 13134 | 4.5746 | 751844 |
| Karkul Fort | 131234 | 51536 | $75 \quad 054$ |
| * Karnatighur | 123438 | 11031 | $\begin{array}{llll}79 & 5 & 59\end{array}$ |
| Kasragooda Fort | 122936 | 5163 | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 0 & 27\end{array}$ |
| Kaumun Dg. | 141459 | 25844 | 771746 |
| Kaup Battery | 131.324 | 53121 | 74.459 |
| Kistnagherry | 123215 | $2 \quad 29$ | 781421 |
| Koadicondaf Dg. | 134949 | 22824 | 77486 |
| Kongoondy Dg. | 12463 | 14.90 | 782730 |
| Koomlail Fort | 12365 | 5196 | $74 \quad 5724$ |
| Koondapoor Fort | 133810 | 53411 | 74.4219 |
| * Koondhully H. | 123933 | 42921 | 75479 |
| * Koondoor | 125116 | 41819 | 755811 |
| Kopa Dg. | 13323 | 4. 565 | 752025 |
| Kowlae Dg. | 13435 | 5827 | 7588 |
| * Kuddapoonabetta | 125537 | 52229 | 74.541 |
| Kul Dg. . | 133847 | 4. 2056 | 755532 |
| * Kulkolah | 132514 | 2399 | 773721 |
| * Kumbetarenemulla | 113531 | 25857 | 771733 |
| * Kunduddakamully | 122328 | $\begin{array}{llll}5 & 1 & 39\end{array}$ | 771451 |
| * Kunnoor H. | 125155 | $1 \quad 259$ | 791339 |
| * Kypasghur | 125021.3 | 11042 | $79 \quad 54.8$ |
| Mackly Dg. | 132558 | 2454 | 773126 |
| Manranticum P. | 123036 | 04312 | 793318 |
| Madras (Observatory) | $\begin{array}{llll}13 & 4 & 8.7\end{array}$ | 00000 | 801630 |
| * Maillacherry Dg | 1216.6 | 05232 | 792358 |
| Mailcottah H. and P. | 123957 | 3369 | 764021 |
| Maiaraja Dg. | 125334 | 4. 1940 | 755650 |

TABLE-continued.

| Names of Places. | Latitude. | Longitude from |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Mairas Obser. | Greenwich. |
| * Mullapode H... | $12^{\circ} 54^{\prime} 56^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $0^{\prime} 14^{\prime} 1^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. | $80^{\prime} 2^{\prime} 29^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$. |
| Mallavilly Fort (S. W. Cavalier) | 12230 | 31154 | 77 4. 36 |
| MANGALORE Fort (Flag Staff).. | $\begin{array}{lllll}12 & 51 & 38\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}5 & 25 & 23\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 51 & 7\end{array}$ |
| * Mannoor | $13 \quad 0 \quad 39$ | 01851 | 795739 |
| Marakerra (Tree) | 122620 | 4. 3046 | $\begin{array}{lllll}75 & 4.5 & 15\end{array}$ |
| * Maumdoor H. | 124444 | 0 34 59 | 7941131 |
| Medagasiile Dg. Mosque | 134954 | $3 \quad 334$ | 771256 |
| * Meejar Hill | $13 \quad 321$ | 51921 | $7457 \quad 9$ |
| Minchicul Dg | 132747 | $3 \quad 316$ | 771314 |
| Moodabidderry P. | 13 4 24 | 51538 | $\begin{array}{lll}75 & 0 & 52\end{array}$ |
| Mooduwaddie Dg. | 124057 | 24838 | $77 \quad 27 \quad 52$ |
| Moolky Fort | $13 \quad 512$ | \% 2813 | 794817 |
| Monjerab | 12554 | 4. 2951 | 754639 |
| * Moratan | i1 5830 | 0274 | 794848 |
| * Mount Dil | 12141 | $5 \quad 320$ | $\begin{array}{lllll}75 & 13 & 10\end{array}$ |
| Mount St. Thomas' (Flag Staff) | 13020 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 3 & 18\end{array}$ | $80 \quad 1319$ |
| Muddukserail Dg. | 135641 | 2590 | 771730 |
| Mudgherry D. | 133997 | $3 \quad 311$ | 77 13 <br> 19  |
| Muglee H. (Stone) | $13 \quad 959$ | 12522 | 78518 |
| Mullanaig P. | 124443 | 1392 | $78 \quad 3728$ |
| * Mullapunnabet | 12556 | 3.584 | 761826 |
| Mulwaggle Dg. | 131014 | 1526 | $78 \quad 2324$ |
| * Mungot H. | 1.3031 | 088 | $80 \quad 733$ |
| Muntapum N. of Bangalore | 13045 | $2 \mathrm{4}-13$ | $\begin{array}{llll}77 & 36 & 17\end{array}$ |
| * Mylum H. | 12751 | 04755 | 793855 |
| MYSOOR FORT (High Cavalier) | 121821 | 33559 | 764031 |
| * Mysoor H. | 121640.5 | 3350 | 764128 |
| Naggerry Nose | 132250 | $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllll}0 & 39 & 13\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}79 & 37 & 17\end{array}$ |
| Nagmungatem Fo | 124911 | 3301 | 774629 |
| Narrain Dg. | 124245 | 3407 | $\begin{array}{llll}76 & 36 & 23\end{array}$ |
| Narricut Dg. | 13754 | 1358 | $\begin{array}{llll}79 & 12 & 32\end{array}$ |
| * Naudkaunee. | 105557 | ${ }_{2} 9810$ | 773820 |
| Neddigul Dg. (Muntapum) | 14.931 | 31021 | $77 \quad 6 \quad 9$ |
| Negigul Dg. (Pillar) . . . . . . . . . . | 1314.50 | $\begin{array}{llll}3 & 2 & 17\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{lllllll}77 & 14\end{array}$ |
| NUGGUR (BEDNORE) Flag Staff | 134910 | 51327 | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 3 & 3\end{array}$ |
| * Nundy Dg. .... . . . . . | 132212.5 | 234.1 | $77 \quad 2299$ |
| Nunjengode P | 1279 | 33343 | 764247 |
| Odea Dg. | 123655 | 21920 | $77 \quad 5710$ |
| Oosscotta (Eedgah) | 13 4. 21 | 22813 | 774817 |
| Oossoor H. and P. | 124333 | 224.49 | 77.5141 |
| Ootramalloor Fort | 123655 | 02932 | 794658 |
| Ootur Dg. | 125740 | $\begin{array}{llll}3 & 7 & 47\end{array}$ | $77 \quad 843$ |
| Oymunggul Fort | 14.544 | 34315 | 763315 |
| Patticondah P. | 125445 | 11846 | 78.5744 |
| * Patticondah | 131025 | 13623 | $7840 \quad 7$ |
| * Paudree | 131941.3 | 0348 | 794229 |
| * Paughur | $14 \quad 619$ | 25834 | $77 \quad 1756$ |
| * Paulamulla | 114139 | 2310 | 774530 |

TABLE-continued.

| Names of Piaces. | Latitude. | Longitude fiom |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Madras Obser. | Greenwich. |
| Pednalg Dg. | $12^{\circ} 57^{\prime} 33^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $1^{\circ} 38^{\prime} 4^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. | $78^{\prime} 38^{\prime} 26^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$. |
| Percondah Tree | 14 4. 13 | 2402 | 773628 |
| Penvagra Fort | 1274.5 | 22058 | 775532 |
| * Permacoil H. | 121158 | 03045 | 794545 |
| * Perambauk | 12537 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 3\end{array}$ | 801321 |
| * Pilloor H. | 131359 | 65350 | 792240 |
| PONDICHERRY | 115556 | 02448 | 795142 |
| * Ponnassmulla | 12 S 47 | 23627 | $77 \quad 40 \quad 3$ |
| * Poonauk H. | $1310 \quad 2$ | 039 8 | 793722 |
| Poonanallee Flag Staff | $13 \quad 237$ | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 8 & 16\end{array}$ | 80814 |
| Pullicate Flag Staff | $13 \quad 259$ | 0 4. 13 E. | S0 2043 |
| Ramgherry Dg. | 135653 | 4.819 W. | 76811 |
| Ravalnellore Dg | 11580 | 11932 | 785658 |
| Riojees Choultry | 125225 | 02954 | 794636 |
| * Runganelly H. and P | 133955 | 32523 | 76517 |
| * Rungaswamy H. and P: | 1323 | 31656 | 765934 |
| Rungyan Dg.. | 135521 | 41931 | 755659 |
| Rungyan Dg | 135414 | 4.930 | $76 \quad 70$ |
| Ryacottah Flag Staff | 123116 | 21254 | $78 \quad 336$ |
| * Pirman Dg.0 | 132117 | 21437 | $78 \quad 153$ |
| SADRAS Flag Staff | 123134 | $0 \begin{array}{llll}0 & 4 & 59\end{array}$ | $80 \quad 1131$ |
| St. GEORGE (Fr.) Church steeple. | 13445 | 0222 E . | $80 \quad 18 \quad 52$ |
| Sankerry Dg. Bungaloe on the top | 112849 | 22340 W. | 775250 |
| Sattiagul Fort................. | 121438 | 3632 | $76 \quad 958$ |
| Sattimungaluy Fort Bungaloe | 113017 | 3015 | $77 \quad 1615$ |
| Sautghur Building on the top..... | 125749 | 13028 | $\begin{array}{llll}78 & 46 & 2\end{array}$ |
| * Savex Dg. Star. near the Muntapum | 125510.21. | 25740 | $\begin{array}{llll}77 & 18 & 50\end{array}$ |
| Serah Fort Flag Staff . . . . . . . . . | 134.439 | 32029 | 76561 |
| SERINGAPATAM P. | 122529 | 33438 | 764152 |
| Seven Ps. P. on the rock | 123656 | $0 \quad 321$ | $80 \quad 13 \quad 9$ |
| Shà Dg. | 11. 946 | 24458 | 773132 |
| Sheemoga Fort | 135533 | 4.40 25 | 75365 |
| * Shennimulla | 11927 | 23958 | 773632 |
| Shevaguiga G. P. | 13109 | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 1 & 51\end{array}$ | 771439 |
| Sheveram H. Choultry | 124617 | 02245 | 795345 |
| Sholangiur G. P. ... | $13 \quad 5 \quad 20$ | 04949 | 792641 |
| Soobramanee H. old P. (G. Mountain) | 123944 | 4. 3411 | 754219 |
| Soolagherny Dg.. . . . . . . . . . . . . | 12408 | 21357 | $78 \quad 233$ |
| Sooloopgherry 1)g | 12434 | 11259 | $79 \quad 331$ |
| Stree Permatoor | 12587 | 01757 | $79 \quad 58,33$ |
| * Taddiandamole | 12133 | 43852 | 753738 |
| * Tandray | 1385 | 01046 | $80 \quad 544$ |
| Tattacuttoo Dg. . . . . . . . . . . . | 12 2t 5 | 13942 | 783648 |
| TOLLACHERRY Fort (Flag Staff) | 114452 | 44616 | 753014 |
| Telloor H. | 123151 | 0405 | 793625 |
| Tengricotta Fort | 12044 | 15114 | $78 \quad 2516$ |
| * Thittamulla | 112049 | 25349 | 772241 |
| Tiagar ... | 114414 | 11025 | 79 62 |

TABLE-Continued.

| Names of Places. | Latitude. | Longitude from |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Madras Obser. | Greenwich. |
| Timmapoor Dg. | 12, $24^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$. | $1^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 24^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}$. | $79^{\prime} 14^{\prime} 8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$. |
| Tirchunkode H. and P. .................... | 112229 | 22059 | 775531 |
| Tirekeara Fort | 134234 | 42620 | 755010 |
| Terikitchcoonum H. and P. | 123637 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 1117\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}80 & 5 & 13\end{array}$ |
| * Tirtapully H. | 13225 | 22155 | 7754.35 |
| Trinomallee H. | 121430 | 11132 | 79 4. 58 |
|  | 121353 | 11046 | $79 \quad 54$ |
| Ttippasoor Fort N. Face | $13 \quad 836$ | 02222 | 7954.8 |
| * Trivandeporum | 114.445 | 03210 | 794420 |
| Trivilloor P. | $\begin{array}{ll}13 & 8 \\ 37\end{array}$ | 02019 | 795611 |
| Undar Ghaut (Peak) | 132032 | 51045 | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 5 & 45 \\ 78 & 17\end{array}$ |
| Unganamulla Dg......................... | 12384 | 15849 | $\begin{array}{ll}78 & 17 \\ 75 & 4\end{array}$ |
| * Ungargooda ............................... | $\begin{array}{llll}13 & 1 & 13\end{array}$ | 51342 | $\begin{array}{llll}75 & 2 & 48 \\ 79 & 50\end{array}$ |
| * Urrumbaucum H. | 13125 | 02353 | 79 <br> 7 <br> 52 |
| Vaipoor Dg. | 12844 | 12524 | $\begin{array}{ll}78 & 51 \\ 79 & 87\end{array}$ |
| Vandiwash H. and P. | 12327 | 03849 | 793741 |
|  | 123032 | 03847 | 793743 |
| Vaniambaddy | 124019 | 13828 | 78 37 |
| Veer Rajenderpett H. and P. | 121231 | 4. 2847 | 754943 |
| Vellore Dg. ... | 125459 | 1515 | $79 \quad 1045$ |
| VELLORE FORT G. P. | 12559 | 1715 | $\begin{array}{llll}79 & 9 & 15\end{array}$ |
| * Vellengcaud ... | 122041 | 01847 | $\begin{array}{llllll}79 & 57 \\ 7 & 13\end{array}$ |
| Venkettygherry Fo | 1300 | 14550 | 783040 |
| Verabud'r Dg. | 122320 | $\begin{array}{llll}2 & 8 & 4.1\end{array}$ | $78 \quad 749$ |
| Villanoor P. | 11544 | 02935 | 794655 |
| Wallajabad Commands. Officer's ho. | 124756 | 02595 | 79515 |
| Wallajapett Mosque | 125513 | 054.8 | 792222 |
| Wholy Honoor Fort | 13597 | 4. 3422 | 75428 |
| * Womootoor H. | 12455 | 3221. | 765429 |
| * Woorachmulla | 112837 | $23343^{\circ}$ | 774247 |
| * Wooritty H. | 122241 | 0 34. 16 | 794214 |
| Woos Dg. | 121830 | 50948 | 750642 |
| Wurrelcondah H. and P. | 133812 | 22823 | 754807 |
| Wuss Dg. | 134723 | 358. | 761830 |
| Yaelmatoor H. | 111206 | 23012 | 774618 |
| Yaenikul Dg. | 140058 | 32716 | 764914 |
| Yamagherry H. and P. | 124846 | 31219 | $77 \quad 411$ |
| Yeggoondah Dg. | 131641 | 25946 | 771644 |
| Yerracondah (Mysoor) | 125214.26 | ${ }^{1} 5825$ | 781805 |
| Yerracondah (Ceded Districts) ........... | '13 5t 59 | 23605 | 774025 |

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

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

|  |  |  |  | Elevations above t | the Sea. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Stations. | eig |
| S. end of the |  | $\left.\mathrm{T}^{\prime \prime} 46^{\prime} 25^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E} .\right\} \quad \mathrm{l}^{\prime} 21^{\prime \prime}$ |  |  |  |
| Perumbauk | S. end of the Base | $\left.\begin{array}{llll} 1 & 47 & 25 & \mathrm{D} . \end{array}\right\} \mathrm{l}^{\prime} 21^{\prime \prime}$ | $\frac{1}{13}$ | Perumbauk |  |
| Perumbauk | Mullapode . | 00618 E. $\}$ 10 41 |  | Mullapode | 481. |
| Mullapode | Perumbauk .. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 15 & 40 & \mathrm{D} .\end{array}$ |  |  |  |
| Mullapode <br> Carangooly | Carangooly Hill <br> Mullapode ... |  | $\left\|\frac{10}{10}\right\|$ | Carangooly | 434.3 |
| Carangooly | Wooritty H | $1 \begin{aligned} & 0 \\ & 0\end{aligned} 0217 \mathrm{D}$. |  |  |  |
| Wooritty Yill | Carangooly Hill | $\left.\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 10 & 25 & \mathrm{D} .\end{array}\right\}$ | Ti0 | Woority |  |
| Wooritty Hill | Permacoil Hill . | $\begin{array}{ll}0 & 08 \\ 36 & \text { D. } \\ 1\end{array} 1114$ |  | Per |  |
| Permacoil Hill | Wooritty Hill | 00138 D. $\}^{1114}$ |  | Per |  |
| Permacoil H | Maillacherry <br> Permacoil |  | $\frac{10}{10}$ | Maillach | 1140.8 |
| Maillacherry | Karnatighur | - 3442 E.$\}$ |  |  |  |
| Karnatighur. | Maillacherry | O 5703 D .1$\}$ | $\left\|\frac{1}{10}\right\|$ | Karnati | 3204.0 |
| Karnatighur | Kylasghur |  |  |  |  |
| Kylasghur | Karnatighur. | $\left[\begin{array}{llll} 0 & 08 & 36 & \mathrm{E} . \end{array}\right\} 1544$ | $\frac{1}{2}=1$ | Kylasghur | 2766.2 |
| Kylasghur Yerracondah | Yerracondah | $\left.\begin{array}{llll} 0 & 12 & 53 & \text { D. } \\ 0 & 28 & 13 & \text { D. } \end{array}\right\} 46$ |  | Yerrac | 3396.9 |
| Yerracondalt | Savendroog | - $\left.\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 0\end{array} 1751505.\right\}$ |  |  |  |
| Savendroog | Yerracondah | $\left.\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 29 & 50 & \text { D. }\end{array}\right\} 5750$ |  | Savendro | 400 |
| Savendroog | \ullapunnabet | $\left.\begin{array}{llllll}0 & 31 & 10 & \text { D. }\end{array}\right\} 5852$ |  |  | 3406.7 |
| Mullapumabettal | Savendroog . . | 01941 D. $\} 5852$ |  | Mullapunnabetta | 3406 |
| Mullapunnabetta | Koondhully Hill | $\left.\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 00 & 51 & \mathrm{E} . \\ 0 & 30 & 36 & \mathrm{D} \end{array}\right.\right\} 3+14$ |  | Koond |  |
| Koondhully Hill Koondhully Hill | Mullapunnabetta <br> Bulapully | $\left.\begin{array}{llll} 0 & 30 & 36 & \mathrm{D} \\ 1 & 17 & 40 & \mathrm{D} \end{array}\right\}^{34}$ |  | Koont |  |
| Koondhully Hill | Bullamully <br> Koondhully |  |  | Bullamully |  |
| Bullamully .... | Kudapoonabet | 2508 D.$\} 13$ |  |  |  |
| Kudapoonabetta | Bullamully | 14.15 E.$\} 13$ |  | Kulapoonabetta | 18.7 |
| Kudapoonabetta Eedgah Station | Eedgah Sta Kudapooni | $\left.\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 35 & 37 & \mathrm{D} \\ 0 & 33 & 29 & \mathrm{E} \end{array}\right\} \text { 2 } 49$ |  | Eedgah Station | 146.7 |
| Eedgah Station Eedgah Station | Kudapoonabetta Stat. on the Beach | $\left\{\begin{array}{llll} 0 & 33 & 29 & \mathrm{E} . \\ 0 & 58 & 53 & \mathrm{D} . \end{array}\right\}$ |  |  |  |
| Stat.on the Beach | Eedgah Station | [ $05636 \mathrm{E} . \mid\} 139$ |  | Stat.on the Bea |  |
| The station on the beach above the low-water mark by measurement. . . . . |  |  |  |  | 14.0 |
| Difference or crror........ |  |  |  |  | 6 |

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

| Stations at | Stations Obscrved. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Apparent. } \\ & E^{4} \& D^{3} \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & =1 \\ & \ddot{y y} \end{aligned}$ | Elevation above the Sea. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | Station |  |
| Yerracondal |  | $29^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{D}$ |  |  |  |  |
| Patticondah | Yerracondalı | O 3111 D. |  |  | Patticonda |  |
| Patticondah |  | O 4025 D. |  |  |  |  |
| Bodeemulla | Palticnuda | O 18344 E |  |  | Bor | 1646 |
| Yerracoudah | Rymandroc | - 0 0 39 D. |  |  |  |  |
| Rymandroog | Yerracondal | - 2998 D. |  |  |  |  |
| Rymandrong | Nundydroog | 0 1026 E E. |  |  |  |  |
| Nundydroug | Rymandroog |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nundydroog <br> Devaroydroo | Devaroydroo | 030 j6 D. |  |  | Devaroydroog . | 3940.2 |
| Yerracoudal? |  | 169 D |  |  |  |  |
| Tirtapully Hill | Yerracoud | - 639 D |  |  |  | 18 |
| Tirtapully Hill | Bomuaryot | 716 D. |  |  |  |  |
| Bonnairgottah | Tirtapally | 0 13 90 D. |  |  |  | 305 |
| Bonnairgoitah | S. end of the | 02538 D. |  |  |  |  |
| S. end of the Pase | Bonuairgot | 01849 E. |  |  |  | 3023.6 |
| Savendroog | Bundhuly | 01541 D . |  |  |  |  |
| Bundbully |  | 0 2217 |  |  | Bindhmiydrong | +2j- |
| Deorabetta |  | O 17 is E. | S 47 |  |  |  |
| Poniassmulla Ponnassmulla | Deorabet | 4245 D. | 84 |  | Ponnassmulta | 492 S |
| Ponnassmulla Pauiamulla | Paulan | 1146 D |  |  |  |  |
| Paulamulla Paulamulla | Pomnassmi | 131 D. |  |  | Paraldmila .... | 4958 |
| Paulamulla . ${ }_{\text {Woorachmulla }}$ | Woorachm | $3+47 \mathrm{D}$ | 13 18 |  |  |  |
| Woorachmulla Bonnairgottah | Paulamulla | $221:$ E. |  |  | Troorachmulla | 14,2 |
| corabelta |  |  | \} 1135 |  | Deorabet | 40 |
| Woorachmul |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Shennimulla | Woorachn | 1758 D |  |  | Shenmim | iTSS |
| Shemnimulta | N.W. end | 0 48 18 13 D |  |  |  |  |
| N.W.end of theB | Shenni | 04015 E |  |  | . W. end of Base | 1060 |
| Sheunimulla - | Puchap | 1853 D. |  |  |  |  |
| Puchapolliam . ${ }^{\text {N }}$. N.W.end of the B | Shemmimula | $040: 0 \mathrm{E}$ | 957 |  | Pu | 1010. |
| N.W. end of the B S.E. end of the B. | S. E. end of | 0 1626 D |  |  |  | 925.5 |
| S.E. end of the B. Bonnairgottah . | N.W. end Dodagoonl | $\begin{array}{llll} 0 & 12 & 16 & \mathrm{E} \\ 0 & 18 & 10 & \mathrm{D} . \end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |
| Tirtapully Hill.. | -llasoor Hi | 140 D. |  |  |  |  |
| Allasoor Hill | Tirta | $1+38 \mathrm{D}$. | $\} \begin{array}{ll}17 & 16\end{array}$ |  | Alas | 3350 |
| Allasoor Hill | Kulkot | 617 D. | 15 34 |  |  |  |
| Kulkotah | Allasoor Hil | 811 D | $\}^{15} 34$ |  | tulkota | 3:00.6 |
| Kulkotah . . | Yerracondah | 2345 D |  |  |  |  |
| Yerracondah | Kulkutah | 230 D |  |  | I erracondalı | 2 t 8 |
| Yerracondah Bomasundrur | Bomasun | $462 \mathrm{D}$ |  |  | Bomasundrum | 2087 |
| Bomasundrur |  | $\begin{array}{rrr} 36 & 19 & \text { E. } \\ 6 & 9 & \text {. } . \end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |
| Paughur | Yerracon | 1535 D |  |  | Paug | 052.6 |
| Savendroog | CheetLul | 2633 D. | 2 |  | Cheetsul | 3329.5 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

TAMLE-cuNTinuen.

| Stations at | Siations ()bserred. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Apparent } \\ & E^{\square} . \& D^{n} . \end{aligned}$ |  | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} \dot{c} \\ \frac{2}{2} \\ \stackrel{2}{2} \end{array}\right\|$ | Elevations above the Sea. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | Statious. | $\mid \mathrm{Heig}^{\text {hits }}$ |
| Cheethal Hill |  | $34^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{D}$ |  |  |  |  |
| Bailipp | Cliectha] | - 656 EL |  | 31 |  |  |
| Bundhully | Kmmbetare | - 326 E |  |  | mbetarine |  |
| Kunhetarenemulla | Buadlmily | 03623 D. |  |  | mbetarine |  |
| Bundhully | Mysoor Hill | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 29 & 27 \\ 0 & 6 & 1\end{array}$ |  |  | Mysoor II | 34.6.6 |
| Mysoor H | Bundlully | 06613 D. |  |  | Nysoo | \% |
| Mysoor Hil | Bettatiponr | $00011 \mathrm{D} .$ | $\} 3414$ | $\frac{1}{17}$ |  | 9.7 |
| Bettatipoor | Mysoor Hill . . | $030 \quad 4 \mathrm{D}$ | $\}^{34} 14$ | $\overline{17}$ | Betatipoor | 9.7 |
| Mullapumnabetta | Bettatipoor IIill | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 5 & 6 & E \\ 0 & 5 & 58 & D \end{array}\right.$ |  |  | Bettatipoor | 4347.3 |
| Betfatipoor Hill | Mullapunuabetta | 03058 D. | $\int 2937$ | Tif | Betratipoor |  |
| Mullapumabetta | Bomanelly . ... | $01852 \mathrm{D} .$ | $\} 2030$ | $\frac{1}{6}$ | Pomanelly | 142.3 |
| Bomavelly | Mullapuniabelta | $0 \quad 84 \because \mathrm{D} .$ | $152930$ | \% |  |  |
| Bomanelly ... | Dacsauncegooda | () 00606 | $\} \approx 846$ | $\frac{1}{\hat{\partial}}$ | Daesauneegooda | 3804.1 |
| Daesammeegooda | Bomanelly | 025 | $1\} \sim 840$ | $\hat{i} \dot{0}$ | Dacsatmeegooda | 804.1 |
| Daesammeegooda | Hanmabetta . . | $0 \begin{array}{lllll}0 & 13 & 30 & \mathrm{D} .\end{array}$ | $\text { ? } 2.554$ | $\frac{1}{15}$ | Hamabelta | 1.1 |
| Hamabetta | Daesammeegoorla | - 927 D. | [2.3 34 | 15 | Hamabetta | 1.1 |
| Mullapunnabetta |  |  |  |  |  | 4998.9 |
| Balroyudrong | Mullapumabetta | $\begin{array}{llll} 0 & 41 & 16 & \mathrm{D} \end{array}$ | $1\} 5242$ | 27 | Batroyndroog | 4993.9 |
| Bettatipoor . | Taddiandau |  |  |  | Taddiandamole | 5681.8 |
| Taddiandamole | Bettatipoor | 03730 D. | \} 3259 |  | Iadiandanole | 1.8 |
| Taddiandamole | Mount Dill | $156 \quad 5 \mathrm{D}$. | $26 \quad 27$ | 1 | Mount Dil | 804.7 |
| Kunduddakamully | Taddiandamole | $1 \begin{aligned} & 1 \\ & 1\end{aligned}$ | $2+34$ | $\frac{1}{17}$ | Kunduddakamully | 1856.2 |
| Kunduddakamull |  |  |  |  | Baek |  |
| Baekul . . . . . . | Kunduddakamully | 12140 E | $\} 1133$ | 16 | Saek | 6.7 |
| Bullamully | Kumoor Hill .. | 02953 D. |  |  | Kinnnoor |  |
| Kumboor | Betlamully . | 0 $19355 \mathrm{E}$. | \} $11 \begin{array}{ll}11 & \end{array}$ | $\mathrm{T}_{6}$ | Kilminoor | 258.9 |
| Koondlunlly | Soobramance | 22257 E | 432 | $\frac{1}{2}$ | Soobraman | 5583.5 |
| Kooudhully | Koondoor Hi | a 25 49 D |  |  |  |  |
| Koondone I |  | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 11 & 25 & \text { E. }\end{array}$ | \} 1551 |  | K |  |
| Meejar Hill | Kudapoonab | 0 233151 | 952 | $\frac{1}{17}$ | Mee | 51.9 |
| Mecjai Hill | Booggargoo | $0 \begin{array}{llll}0 & 1 & 16 & \mathrm{D}\end{array}$ | $359$ |  |  | 54.9 |
| Booggargooda . . |  | $0 \quad 223 \mathrm{D}$. | $359$ |  | Boogga | J |
| Stat. on the Beech Kooliebogooda.. | Kooliebogooda | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 14 & 39 & \text { E. } \\ 0 & 17 & 5 & \text { d }\end{array}$ | 65 | $\frac{1}{4}$ | Kooliebogooda | 200.5 |
| Kooliebogooda.. | Stat. un the Beacl: | $\begin{array}{lll} 0 & 17 & 55 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 0 |  | Nooliobooda |  |



## V.

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

> BY DOCTOR ANDREW EERRY,

Member of the Medical Bourd of Fort St. Geurge.

## Kalumb of the Africans.

Colomba, or Columbo of the Shops.

1T is spelt Kalumbo by the Portuguese, in whose language the $o$ is mute, and from this the name originated, by which this valuable root is known in Europe. It is a staple export of the Portuyruese from Mozumbique, and from the quantity exported, it is remarkable that the place of its growth, should have been so long unknown or doubtful to the rest of Europe.

It is never cultivated, but grows naturally, and in abundance, in the thick forests, that are said to cover the coast about Oibo, and Mozambique, and inland about 15 or 20 miles. The roots are dug up in the month of March, the dry season ; or when the natives are not employed in agriculture; not the original root, which is perennial, but offsets from its bage, and that of sufficient size, yet not so old as to be full of fibres, which render it unfit for commerce.

This root is in high estimation among all the Africans, even far removed from Mozambique, for the cure of dysentery, which is frequent among them ; for renereals; for all complaints of long standing; in powder for the cure of ulcers, and as a remedy for almost every disorder.

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\text { Vol. X. } \quad \mathrm{Cc}
$$

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

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

This root was cylindrical, somewhat flattened on the opposite sides; about 15 inches in length, a part being broken off; and between 3 and 4 inches in diameter; outwardly the common colour of columbo, but on breaking the surface, which is covered by a thin, tender, brownish pellicle, of a fine yellow.

The root being succulent, and heavy, I planted it horizontally in a large box, filled with garden mould, where, in about a fortnight, it shot out two stems from the end that had been broken off from the parent root, but from not being vigorous, no flowers were then produced; and in about six months, from the time it had been planted, the stems withered down to the ground.
'Гhe root was then carefully taken up, which was not altered in size, or appearance, but from the end opposite to where the stems had shot out several fusitorm roots, or sessile tubers, had grown, as represented in the accompanying drawing, (Fig. 2) These had evidently suffered from confinement in the box; none of
the roots were then separated, and the whole was deposited in a cool room, and covered with a moist sand; where in about two months, the old root began again to throw out several buds from the same end as before. It was now planted in the ground, when one more vigorous shoot, which grew rapidly, soon destroyed the others; and in a month this shoot produced male flowers only, nor after the strictest search, could any other be found on the plant, so that the genus is as yet uncertain.

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

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

## Planta Herbacea.

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

## Masculi Flores.

Racemı axillares, solitarii, comprositi, pilosi, folio breviores. Pedunculipartiales alterni, fioribus sessilibus.
Bractere lanceolatre, ciliata, deciduæ.
Calyx Perianthium hexaphyllum; foliolís æqualibus, tribus exterioribus, tribus interioribus; oblongis, obtusis, glabris.
Corolea hexapetala, minuta, Petala cuneato-oblonga, concava, carnosa, nbtusa, stamina ambientia.
Stamina, Filamenta sex, corolla paulo longiora. Anthere quadrifobe, quadriloculares.
Pistillum nullum.

## EXPLANATION OF THE FIGURES.

Fig. 1. The extremity of the shoot that flowered in 1807, rather smaller than the natural size.
2. The whole root, about one-third of the natural size only.
3. One of the bractex.
4. The underside of one of the flowers.
5. The upperside of the same. These three are magnified.
0. One of the petals more magnified than the last three.
7. The underside of one of the stamina, in the enlarged apex of which the four polliniferous pits are seen.

## VI

## Oin Sanscrít and Prácrit Pobtry.

BY HENRY THOMAS COLEBROOKE, ESR.

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

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

- Vol. I. p. 279. Vol. II. p. 389.
and not devoid of ingenuity : and the prosody of Sanscrït will be found to be richer than that of any other known language, in variations of metre, regulated either by quantity or by number of syllables, both with and without rhyme, and sibject to law' imposing in some instances rigid restrictions, in others allowing ample latitude. I am prompted by these considerations to undertake the explanation of that system, premising a few remarks on the original works in which it is taught, and adding notices of the poems from which examples are selected.

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

[^55]fifth, sixth and seventh exhibit metres of that sort which has been called monoschemastic, or uniform, because the same feet recur invariably in the same places. The eighth and last book serves as an appendix to the whole, and contains rules for computing ali the possible combinations of long and short syllables in verses of any length.

This author cites earlier writers on prosody, whose works appear to have been lost: such as Saitava, Craushtica, Ta'ndin, and other ancient sages, Ya'sca, Ca's'yapa, \&c.

Pingala's text has been interpreted by various commentators; and, among others, by Hela'yud'ha bнат'т'a, author of an excellent gloss entitled Mrita sanjivini ${ }^{\text {* }}$. It is the work on which I have chiefly relied. A more modern commentary, or rather a paraphrase in verse, by Na'ra'yan'a buat'ta ta'ra', under the title of Vritlocti ratna, presents the singularity of being interpreted throughout in a duable sense, by the author himself, in a further gloss entitled Paricshú.

The Agnipurín'a is quoted for a complete system of prosody $\downarrow$, founded apparently on Pingara's aphorisms; but which serves to correct or to supply the text in many places; and which is accordingly used for that purpose by commentators. Original treatises likewise have been composed by various authors $+\underset{+}{+}$ : and among others by the celebrated poet CA'lida'sa. In

* I possess three copies of it ; two of which are apparently ancient : but they have no dates.
$\dagger$ It is stated by the authors, who quote it, (Narayana bhatta and oth. rs,) to be an extract from the Agni purana: but I have not been able $t$ ) verify its place in that Purána.
$\ddagger$ Such are the V̈nibhüshona, Vritta-derpana, Vritta-caumudi, and Fittc-retnúcara, with the Ch'handi-manjuri, Ch'handü-mírtanda, Ch'hand'-múlú. Cli'hand'-niviti, Cn'handö-gooinda, and several tracts under the title of Vritta-mucturvali, besides treatises included in
a short treatise entilled $S^{\prime}$ rutic bód ha, this poet teaches the laws of versification in the very metre to which they relate: and has thus united the example with the precept. The same mode has been also practised by many other writers on prosody; and, in particular, by Pingala's commentator Na'ra'yan'a bhat't'a; and by the -authors of the Vrìtta Retnácara and Vrittla derpan'a.

Ca'lida'sa's S'ruta bód ha exhibits only the most common sorts of metre, and is fumbed on Pingala's Prácrǐt rules of prosody; as has been remarked by one of the commentators* on the Vrïta Retnácara.

The rules, generally cited under the title of Prácrit Pingala, have been explained in a metrical paraphrase, teaching the construction of each species of metre in a stanza of the same measure, and subjoining select examples. This Prácrit paraphrase, entitled Pingala vritti, is quoted under the name of Hammíra $\uparrow$, who is celebrated in more than one passage given as examples of metre: and who probably patronised the author. It has been imitated in a modern Sunscrit treatise on Prácrit prosody entitled Vitua muctávali $\uparrow$; and has been copiously explained in a Sanscrit commentary named Píngala pracása §.
works on other subjects For example Varihamihira's system of 8s'ro !.gv, which contains a chater on prosody.

Tie Vrilta-retuácara Cedara bhatta, with its commentaries by Divacara bhatta, Narayana bhatta and Hari-blascira, bas tieen the most cinsulted for the preeent treatise. The Vriltaderp'ma, which relates chiefly to Práciit prosody, bas been also much employed

* Divacara biatta.

I In the conmentary on the Vititoci ratua.
$\ddagger$ The author Durgadatta was patr niced by the Hindipali princes of Bunielchand. The examples, which like the text are Sunscrit in Pricrit meadure, are in praise of these chiettains.
§ Ly Viswaratha.
आलंटव स्वृृषित: क र कोश्वाय भावानुरज्न व निता सुरतै: श्वायम्। जोटेयचेन बदिनाटमकै: पईेण

 Fig. 6.


Fig:


 गैगैर च्ताधिप:币ूयेगि: ॥







$$
\text { Fig: } 8
$$




$$
\text { rig. } 2 .
$$








Thoug il relative to Piacrït prosody, the sules are applicable, for the moft part, to Sanscrit prosody alfo: since the laws of 'versitication in both languages are nearly the same.

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

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

[^56]said of the Pais'áchí, as a language, (and distinguished from the jargonor gibberish which either dramatick writers, or actors exhibiting their dramas, sometimes put into the mouths of demons); for the grammarians of Prácrit teach the manner of forming the Pais'achi* from the dialect called S'auraséni. ${ }^{+}$That remark may be also extended to Apabhrans'a as a fixed language partaking of Prácrït and Soutraséni, but deducing many terms immediately from the Sanscrit under rules of permutation peeuliar to itself. ${ }_{+}^{+}$

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

Besides these cognate dialects, the dramatick writers introduced other laneuages as spoken by different persons of the drama. Such, according to the enumeration in the Sáhitya derpuria, \| are the Dácshin'átya, of or language used in the south of India; the Drávidi or

[^57]dialect of the southetn extremity of the peninsula; the Avanticí (probably the language of Múlará);* the Ard ha mágad゙hí, dstinguished from Mágad hí properly so called; the Buhlicaibláshá, perhaps the language of Balk in the Transamua) : t the Manharashtri or dialect of the Mathallas; the Prailáa or language employed in the east of Iudia; ${ }_{-}^{+}$the Absirí and Chandáli, which from their names, seem to be dialects used by herdsmen and by persons of the lowest tribes; the Sáncará and Sábari, concerning which nohing satisfactory can be at present suggested; and generally any prorincial dialect.

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

[^58]the various kind of metre to be admissible in the provincial languages, and has quoted examples in those of Máháráshi'ra', Gurjara and Cánsacubja. The last mentioned, which is the same with the old Hindt, as is demonstrated by this specinen of it, mi he furnish very numerous instances; especially the Hinai poetry of Césava da'sa, * who bas studiously eniployed a great variety of metre. Some examples will accordingly be quoted from the inost distinguished Hindi poers. The sacred books of the Sikhs, composed ir a Pergábi dialect, which is undoubtedly derived from the ancient Sáreszata, $\dagger$ abound in specimens of such metre. The language of Michilá, and its kindred tongue, which prevails in Bengal, also supply proof of the aptitude of Sanscrit prosody: and the same is probably true of the other four national languages, *

Pingala's rules of Sanscrit prosody are expressed with singular brevity. The artifice, by which this has been effected, is the use of single letters to denote the feet of the syllables. Thus L. the initial of a word signifying short (la? ${ }^{\prime} / h_{1}$ ), indicates a short syllable. G. for a similar reason, $\S$ intends a long one. The combinations of these two leiters denote the several dissyllables: Ig signifying an iambic; gl a trochæus or choreus; gg a spondee; 11 a pyrrichius. The letters, M.Y.R.S.T.J.Bh. and N, mark all the trisyllabical feet, from three long syllables to as many short. A San-

[^59]scrit verse is generally scaned by these last mentioned feet; with the addition of either a dissyllable or a monosyllable at the close of the verse, if necessary. This may be rendered plain by an example taken from the Greek and Latiu prosody.

Scanned in the Indian manner, a phaleucian verse, instead of a spondee, a dactyl and three trochees, would be measured by a molossus, an anapæst, an amphibrachys and a trochec ; expressed thus, m. s. j. g.1. A sapphic verse would be similarly measured by a cretic, an antibacchius, an amphibrachys and a trochee; written r. t. j. g.l.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

[^60]1. Gan'actihundas or metre regulated byfect (mátrásaná.)

$$
\text { Áryá }_{\prime}^{\prime} \text { or Ga'r"нA'. }
$$

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

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

[^61]the fifth, a dactyl or a spondee. The first verse of the couplet, the second or both, may be constructed according to these rigid rules : hence three varieties of this sort of metre.

The regular $A^{\prime} r y$ consists of alternate long and short verses: but, if the short verse precede the long one, the metre is called Uidgiti. If the couplet consist of two long verses, it is named Gîli; or of two short verses, Upagiti. Another sort of this metre is named A'ryá gati: it is constructed by completing the eighth foot of the regular $A^{\prime} r y^{\prime}{ }^{*}$.

This measure admits therefore of eighty principal variations; deducible from the nine sorts abovementioned: for the pause may be placed at the close of the third foot in either verse of each couplet, in both, or in neither; and either verse, both, or neither, may be constructed according to the strict rules of the Chapala measure ; and the verse may consist of seven and a half, or of eight feet; and may be arranged in couplets consisting of verses alternately long and short, or alternately short and long, or else uniformly long, or uniformly short.

The $A^{\prime} r y^{\prime}$ í metre is very frequently employed by Indian poets; but works of great length in this measure are not common : it is oftener intermixed with verses of other kinds, though instances do occur of its exclusive use : thus the first and fourth cantos, and most part of the 2 d and 3 d , in the poem entitled Nalodaya, and the entire work of Go'verd'hana d, are in the A'rya metre. And so is the brief text of the Sainchya

[^62]philosophy of Cayila, as taught by Is'wairacrish$\mathrm{N}^{\prime} \mathrm{A}^{*}$; and the copious treatise of astronomy by Brahrmegurta $\downarrow$.

The Nalodaya abovementioned, which is ascribed to the celebrated poet $\mathrm{Ca}^{\prime}$ lidn'sa, is a poem in four cantos, comprising 220 couplets or stanzas $\underset{木}{+}$; on the adventures of Nala and Damajantí: a story which is already known to the English reader $\S$. In this singular poem, rhyme and alliteration are combined in the termination of the verses: for the three or four last syllables of each hemistich within the stanza are the same in sound though different in sense. It is a series of puns on a pathetick subject.

Ir is supposed to have been written in emulation of a short poem (of 22 stanzas) similarly constructed but with less repetition of each rhyme; and entitled from the words of the challenge with which it concludes, Glat's carpara.

> [See Plate A. [ig. 1.]


#### Abstract

- Thirstry and touching water to be sipped from the hollow palms of my hands, I swear by the loves of sprightly damsels, that I will carry water in a broken pitcher for any poet by whom I am surpassed in rhymes.'


[^63]However, the epick poem of Ma'g'ira, which will be mentioned more particularly under the next head, contains a specimen of similar alliteration and rhyme; the last fourteen sianzas of the sixth canto, (descriptive of the seasons,) being constructed with like terminations to each half of the stanza. Instances will also be cited from Bha'liavi's poem hereafter noticed.

The following example of a species of the $A^{\prime} r y$ á metre is taken from the preface of the Nuludaya.

$$
A^{\prime} r y a ́ g i t i ~(S ~ f e e t) . ~
$$

> [See Plate A. Fig. 2.]
"The king celebrated under the name of RAmA *, exists, who is conversant with the supreme ways of moral conduct; in whose fanily, exempt from calamity and enriched with the gems of the earth, dependants flourish." 1.5.

The next is taken from Damayanti's lamentation on finding herself deserted by her husband Nala. It is in the same species of metre.
26. Tatra, padé vyálínám,
at'ha vibhrán:an vané cha dévyá, 'línám
tanu-vrindé vyálinám
tatin dad'háné, tayáspadé vyálínam.
27. Véga -balá 'pásitayá,

Vényá, Bhaimí yutá lalápáa 'sitayá.
"Nripa! sa-calápá ’sitayá
hatwá 'rin, bándhaván cilá 'pási tayá.

- 28. Sa cat'ham mána-vanánam,

Nyáyavid! ácharasi sévyamána-vanánám,
D'hrita-síma navánán,
Dáránám tyágam, anupamá! 'navanánám.

* Rama raja, by whose command the poem was composed. So the commentators remark : but it remains uncertain who he was, or where be reigned.

$$
\text { Dd } 2
$$

> I8. Para-critam état twénalı [tu énah] Samarámi, tan na suritó 'si mé tattwéna, Dosha-samétatwêna madúshayé na'tra sambhiamé tat twéna! [trva, ina!]"
[See Plate A. Fig. 3.]
> ${ }^{6}$ Trifn the princess wandered in the forest, an abode of serpents, crowded with trees which resound with the sweet buzz of bees, the resort of flocks of birds. With her dark hair dishevelled through her haste, BHarmí thus lamented:' "Kins! thou slayest foes, but defendest thy kindred, with thy quiver and thy sword. Unrivalled in excellence and consversant with morality, how hast thou practised the desertion of a wife proud but left helpless in a forest; thus renderingr thyself the limit of praise? but I consider this evil to be the act of another ; and do not charge thee with it: I do not blane thee, my husband, as in fault for this terror.' 3. 26-29.

In the passage here cited, some variations in the reading, and greater differences in the interpretation, occur: with which it is, however, unnecessary to detain the reader. After consulting several scholia, the interpretation, which appeared preferable, has been selected. The same mode will be followed in subsequent quotations from other poems.

IJ. Mábractiluadas or metre regulated by quantity.

1. Vaitáli'Ya.

Another sort of metre, regulated by the proportion of matras or syllabick instants, is measured by the time of the syllables exclusively; without noticing, as in the Ganachihandas, the number of feet. It is therefore, denominated Mátrichikandas, and the chief metre of this kind is natned Vaitáliya. It is a tetrastich or strophe of four verses, the first and third containing the time of fourteen short syllables; and the second and
fourth, sixteen. The laws of its construction impose that each verse shall end in a cretic and iambic; or else in a dactyl and spondee ${ }^{*}$; or, by bacchius $\$^{5}$. In regard to the remaining moments, which are six in the odd yerses, and eight in the even verses of the strophe, it must be observed as a general rule, that neither the second and third, nor the fourth and fiftis moments should be combined in the same long syllable; nor, in the scond and fourth verses, should the sixth mifria be combined with the seventh. That general rule however admits of exceptions: and the name of the metre varies accordingly ${ }_{4}$ 。

Although the Taiuiliga regulanly consist of alternate short and long verses, it may be varied by making the stanza consist either of four short or four long verses; admitting at the same time the exception just now hinted §.

The following is an example of a stanza composed in a species of this metre :
*This varicty of the metre is named $A$ patalisa.
$\dagger$ Thus augmented, the measure is called Aupacli'handasica: the whole of the last canto of Magha's epick poem hereafter menntioned is in this metre: and so is the fisst half of the 13 the canto in Bharava's Citatarjuniyge.
$\ddagger$ In the even verses of the strophe, if the 4 th and 5 th moments be combined in one long syllable, contrary to the general rule abovementioned, the metre is named Prachya writti: or, in the odd verses, if the 2 d and 3 d moments be so combined, the metre is denominated Udichala vritti: or the rule may be violated in both instances, at the same time; and the measure then takes ahe name of Privrittaca.
§ A tetrastich, cunsisting of four short verses of the sort called Pravititaca, is naned Charuhasizi: and one comprising four Jong verses of that description is termed Aparantica.

$$
\mathrm{Dd} 3
$$

## Vaita'liya (Pravrituaca).

Idam, Bharata-vansa-bhúbhritám, sruyatám, sruti-manórasáyanam, pavitram, ad’hicam, subhódayam, Vyása-vactra-cathitain, Pravrittacam.

$$
\text { [See Plate A. Fig. } 4 .]
$$

" Listen to this pure, auspicious and pleasing history of the kings of the race of Bharata as uttered from the mouth of Vyasa."

Here, as in most of the examples given by the commentator Hela'yud'ha, and by other writers on prosody, the name of the metre occurs, but with a different acceptation. Where the stanza has the appearance of being a quotation (as in the present instance), it might be conjectured, that the denomination of the measure was originally assumed from the example; and this conjecture would appear probable, wherever the name (as is frequently the case,) has no radical meaning connected with the subject of metre. But, in many instances, the radical interpretation of the word is pertinent and has obviously suggested its application as a term of prosody; and the stanza, which is given as an example, must therefore have been purposely constructed to exhibit the metre by words in which its denomination is included. This is confirmed by the circumstance of some of the words being incompatible with the measure which they designate : and in such cases the author apologizes on that ground for not exhibiting the name in the example.

The Vaitáliya metre has been employed by some of the most eminent poets; for instance, in the epick poem of $\mathrm{MA}^{\prime} \mathbf{G}^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{HA}$, the 16 th canto of which is chiefly in this measure, as the 20th and last canto
is in that species of it which is called Aupactihundasica.

The work here mentioned is an cpick poem, the subject of which is the death of S'ss'upála slain in war by Crishna: it is entitled S'is'upala-ladiha, but is usually cited under the name of its author, whose designation, with praises of his family, appears in the concluding stanzas of the poem. Yet, if tradition may be trusted, $\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime} \mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ нa, though expressly named as the author, was the patron, not the poet. As the subject is heroick, and even the unity of action well preserved, and the style of the composition elevated, this poem is entitled to the name of epick. But the Indian raste for descriptive poetry, and particularly for licentious description, has disfigured even this work. which is otherwise not undeserving of its high reputation. The awo first cantos and the last eight are suitable to the design of the poem. But the intermediate ten, describing the journey of Crisun'a with a train of amorous damsels, from Dwáracia to Indraprastion, is misplaced, and in more than one respect exceptionable.

The argument of the poem is as follows. In the first eanto, Náteda, commissioned by Indra, visits Crishn'a and incites him to war with his cousin, but mortal enemy, S'is'upa'la king of the Chédis. In the second, Crishn'a consults with his uncle and brother, whether war should be immediately commenced, or he should first assist Yud'hisht'hira in completing a solemn sacrifice which had been appointed by him: the result of the consultation is in favour of the latter measure: and accordingly, in the 3d canto, Crishn'A departs for Yud'hisht'hira's capital. In the thirteenth he arrives and is welcomed by the Pa'n'davas. In the following canto, the sacrifice is begun; and, in the next, S'is'upa'la impatient of the divine honours ! aid to Crishn'a setires with his partisans from the
place of sacrifice. A negociation ensues; which is however ineffectual, and both armies prepare for action. This occupies two cantos. In the eighteenth both armies issue to the field of battle, and the conflict commences. The battle continues in the next canto, which describes the discomfiture and slaughter of S'is'upa'la's army. In the last canto, the king, grown desperate, dares Cmishn'a to the combat. They engage, and in the Indian manner fight with supernatural weapons. S'is'upa'la assails his enemy with serpents, which the other destroys by means of gigantic cranes. The king has recourse to igneous arms, which Crishn'a extinguishes by a neptunian weapon. The combat is prolonged with other mıraculous arms, and finally Crishna slays $S^{\prime}{ }_{\text {is'upas }}$ lea with an arrow.

The following example is from 'a speech of S'is'Upa'la's embassador, in reply to a discourse of S'atyaci brother of Crisiln'A, at an interview immediately preceding the battle.

## [See Plate A. Fig. 5.]

"A low man, poor in understanding, does not perceive his own advantage: that he should not comprehend it when shown by others, is surprising. The wife, of themselves, know the approach of danger, or they put trust in others: but a foolish man does not believe information without personal experience. The proposal, which I made to thee, Crishna, was truly for thy benefit: the generous are ready to advise even their enemies bem on their destuction. Peace and war have been offered at the same time by me; judging their respective advantages, thou wilt chouse between them. Yet good advice addressed to those whose understanding is astiay, becomes vain, like the beams of the cold moon directed towards lakes eager for the warm rays of the sun." 10.39-43.

Another passage of the same poem is here subjoined as a specimen of a different species of this metre. It is the opening of the last canto; where $\mathrm{S}^{\prime} 1 \mathrm{~s}$.

UPA'LA, impatient of the discomfiture of his troops and of those of his allies, dares Crishn'a to single combat.

## Aupactih handusica.

[See Plate A. Fig. 6.]

Muc'ham ullasita tri-rec'ham uchchair bhidura-bhrú-yugabhishan'au dad'hánah,
Samitáv iti vicramán amrishyan, gatabhír, áliwata Chédirát Murárim.
' Raising his head, and with a countenance terrible by its forked brow and wrinkled forehead, the king of the Cbedis, impatient of the prowess thus displayed in battle, banished fear, and challenged the foe of $M$ URA to the fight.' 20.1.

A further example of the same metre is the second stanza of the following extract from the Cira'ta'juniya* of Bha'raví. The remaning stanzas exhibit variety of measure, with two instances of singular alliteration.

The subject of that celebrated poem is Arjuna's ohtaining celestial arms from S'iva, Indra and the rest of the gods, to be employed against Duryo'd'HANA. It is by a rigid observance of severe austerities in the first instance, and aftermards by his prowess in a conflict with S'iva (in the disguise of a mountaincer), that Arjuna preyails. This is the whole subject of the poem; which is ranked with the Cumaira and Raghu of Ca'lidi'sa, the Naishadlhija of Sríharsha, and Ma'gha's epick poem, among the six excellent compositions in Sanscrït. The sixth is the Méghadruta also ascribed to Ca'lid'asa; and, on ac.

[^64]count of its excellence, admitted among the great poems (Maha'cavya), notwithstanding its brevity.

## [See Plate A. Fig. 7.]

The stanzas, which contain alliteration, are here copied in Roman characters.
> 18. Itha durad'higamaih

> Cinchid érágamaih Satatam asutaram
> Varn ayantyantaram.
> 19. Amum ativipinam

> Véda disy yípinam
> Purusham iva param
> Padmayónih param.
> 20. Sulabhaih sadà nayavatá 'yavatá

> Nidlhi-guhyacad'hipa-ramaih paramaih
> Amıná d'hanail cshitiblırita'tibhrità
> Samatítya bháti jagatí jagati.

- Then Arjuna, admiring the montain in silentastonishment, was respectfully addressed by his conductor, Cuvera's attendant: for even loquacity is becoming in its season.'
"This mountain with its snowy peaks rending the clondy sky in a thousand places, is, when viewed, able to remove at once the sins of man. An imperceptible something within it, the wise ever demonstrate to exist by proofs difficultly apprehended. But Brammá alone thoroughly knows this vast and inaccessible mountain, as he alone knows the supreme soul. With its lakes overspread by the bloom of lotus, and overshadowed by arbours of creeping plants whose foliage and blossoms are enchanting, the pleasing scenery subdues the hearts of women who maintained their steadiness of mind even in the company of a lover. By this happy and well governed mountain, the earth, filled with gems of easy acquisition and great excellence delightful to the god of riches, seems to surpass both rival worlds *." 5.16-20.

[^65]
## 2. Ma'trá-samaca.

Themetre denominated Mátra'samaca consists of four verses, each of which contains the q!!antity of sixteen short syllables; and in which the last syllable must be a long one; and the ninth syllabick moment must be in general detached from the eighth and tenth, and be exhibited of course by a short syllable; if the twelfth be so likewise, the metre is distinguished by another name ; or if the fifth and eighth remain short, the denomination is again changed. The last sort of metre is varied by deviating from the rule respecting the ninth moment; and another variety exhibits the fifth, eighth, and twelfth moments by short syllables *. These five varicties of the metre called Málrásamaca may be variously combined in the same stanza; and in that case the measure is denominated Padaculaca: a name, which is applied with greater latitude in Pracrit prosody, to denote a tetrastich wherein each verse contains sixteen moments, without any other restriction as to the number and place of the long and short syllables.

A poem inserted in the first volume of Asiatic Researches $\gamma$ is a specimen of the variety, which this sort of metre admits. In a collection of tales entitled Félala panchavins'ati, the author S'ivadA'sa has quoted several stanzas of that poem intermixed with others, in
will be both noticed under a subsequent head. The thind is in an uncommon measure named Chandricá or Cshama'.

- The names of these fonr varieties are 1st, Vána vísica, which exhibits the 9 th and 121 h moments by shorts syllables, and 15 th and 1 Oth by a long one: the rest being optional. $2 d l y$, Chitrí exhibiting the 5 th, 8 th, and 9 th, by short syllab!es, the 15 th and 10 th by a long one, 3dly Upachitrá, the 5 th, 8th short; 9 th and luth long; also 15 th and 16 th long. 4thly, Visloca; 5th, 8th, and 12 th short; 15 th and 16 th lons ; and the rest indeterminate,
$\dagger$ Page 35.
which the measure is still more varied: and I nay here semark, that the introduction of rhyme into Sanscrit verse is not peculiar to this anapæstick metre: JayaDE'V A has adopted it with success in several other sorts of lyrick measure ; and it is frequent in Sanscrit poetry composed in any species of Pracrit metre.


## 3. Gítyányá.

Another species of metre regulated by quantity is. named Gilýrrya. Like the preceding, it is a tetrastich in which each rerse consists of sixteen matras or moments; but all expressed by short syllables. In other words the stanza contains sixty-four syllables distributed into four verses. From the mixture of verses of this description, with others consisting exclusively of long syllables, arises another metre distinguished into two sorts according as the first couplet in the stanza consists of short syllables and the second of long ; or, conversely, the first long, and the second short *. The Gityíry'a may be further varied by making the last syllable of each couplet long, and all the rest short ; at the same time reducing both couplets to twenty-nine moments, or the first only to that measure ; and the second to thirty-one: or the first couplet to thirty, while the second contains thirty two + .

## 4. Pracrit measures.

The foregoing are all comprehended under the general designation of Jali: and besides these, which are

[^66]noticed in treatises on Sanscrit prosody, other kinds, belonging to the class of metre regulated by quantity, are specified by writers on Pracrit prosody. They enumerate no less than forty-two kinds, some of which comprehend many species and varieties. The most remarkable, including some of those already described as belonging to Sanscrit prosody, are the following, of which instances are frequent in Pracrit, and which are also sometimes employed in Sanscrit poetry.

A stanza of four verses, containing alternately thirteen and eleven moments (and scanned $6+4+3$ and and $6+4+1$ ) is named either Dohá *. (S. Dwipatha) or Sorat'tha (S. Saurashira), according as the long verse precedes the short one, or the contrary. This metre. of which no less than twenty three species bear distinct names, (from 48 syllables to 23 long and two short,) is very commonly used in Hindi poetry. As an instance of it, the work of Biha'rila'l may be mentioned, which consists of seven hundred couplets (sat sai) all in this measure. It is a collection of descriptive poetry; of which Crisin'a, sporting with Ra'inha' and the Gopis, is the hero. The following example is from that celebrated author.

> Macarácrita Gópála cé
> Cun'd'ala jhalacata cána.
> D hasyó manó hiya gad'ha samara:
> D"yód"hi lasata nisána.

> [See Plate A. F'ig. 8.]

- The dolphin-shaped ring, which glitters in Go'pa'la's ear, may be taken for the symbol of Cupid suspended at the gate, while the god is lodged in his heart.'

To understand this stanza, it must be remarked, that the symbol of the Indian Cupid is the aquatick animal
natned Macara: (which has in the Hindu Zodiack the place of Capricorn). It is here translated dolphin, without however supposing either the deliverer of Arion, or any species of dolphin (as the term is appropriated in systems of natural history), to be meant.

The Gat'ha or Cratha has been already noticed as a name of the $A^{\prime}$ rya measure in Pracrit prosody. Including under this as a general designation the seven species of it, with all their numerous varieties, it is no uncommon metre in Pracrit poetry. A collection of amatory verses ascrived to the famous monarch $S^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ liva'hana, comprising seven hundred stanzas* and purporting to be a selection from many thousands by the same atithor, is exclusively in metre of this kind. The introductory verse intimates, that
"Seven hundred couplets (gibás) are here selected out of ten millions of elegrat couplets composed by the poet Ha'la'."

Hála is a known title of Sa'liva'hana, and is so explained both here and in a subsequent passage by the scholiast Ganga'd'hara bhat'ta. It is not, however, probable; that he really composed those verses ; and it would be perhaps too much to conjecture, that the true author of them was patronised by that monarch whose existence as an Indian sovereign has been brought in doubt.

The metre called Maharashtra in Pracrit, Marahat $t^{\prime} t^{\prime} a$ ) is a terrastich, of which each verse contains 29 matras, scanned by one foot of 6 and fire of 4 ; with a terminating trochee. It has pauses at the 18 th and 29th matras. This measure is evidently denominated from the country, which gives name to the Marahath nation; as another specics, beforementioned, takes its

[^67]designation from Sulurashtria or Soratika*. The circumstance is remarkable.

Anotirer tetrastich, which it is requisite to notice, is denominated Rola. Each verse cuntains 24 matras: and this species of metre admits twelve varieties, from 24 short syllables to 11 long and two short, bearing distinct names.

The Short'padica (Pr. Chihappiua) is a stanza of six verses : arranged in a tetrastich and couplet; the first termed Cavya, and the second Ullala. In the tetrastich, each verse contains 24 moments (scanned $2+$ five times $4+2$, or else $6+$ four times $4+2$ ) with a pause at the 11 th moment; and each verse of the couplet contains 28 moments, with a pause at the 15 th. The varieties are extremely numerous, according to the number and the places of the long and short syllables. No fewer than forty-five variations of the tetrastich, and seventy-one of the whole stanza, have separate names. They are distinguished by the number of short and long syllables (from 152 short to 70 long and 12 short in the whole stanza, or from 96 short to 44 long and 8 short in the tetrastich). The following example is extracted from the Pingala-vriti.

## Chihatpäa or Shat'padica.

Pind'häu di'd'ha san'n'áha ; báha uppara pac'hc'hara daï, Band'hu samadi, ran'a d'haläu. Sámí Hammí baäna laï, Udurn na'ha; paha bhamäu; c'haga rïu sísa hi jháläu. Pac'hc'hara pac'hchara, 't'hélli pélli, pabbaä appáräu. Haınmíra cajja Jajjalla bhan'a, cóhád alá matu maha jaläu. Sulatána sísa caraticila daỉ, téjji calévara, dia chaläu.

[^68]
## [See Plate A. Fig. 9.7

Jajuala, general of Hammíra's forces, taking the field against the Muhammedan emperor, says vauntingly
"I put on strong ammour, placing barbs on my horse, and taking leave of kinsmen, I hasten to the war. Having received the commands of my master Hammíra, I Hy through the sky; I pursue the road; I flourish my scimitar on the head of the foe. A mid the bustle of horse and foot I scale mountains. In Hammírás cause, Jajuala declares, The fire of wrath burns within me; laying my sword on the head of the Sultan, and abandoning this corporeal frame, I ascend to heaven."

The emperor, whose death was thus vainly promised to Himmírs, by his braggart general, must have been Sulta'n Muhammed Khu'sí, with whom he is stated to have been contemporary; and who reigned from A. D. 1325 to 1351*. Hammíra was sovereign of Sácanblavi, which, with unfeigned deference for the opinion of Captain Wilford on a geographical question, I still think to be Sambher \& : and for this simple reason; that the culinary salt, brought from the lakes of Sa'mbher, is named in Sanscrit, Sa'cambhariya lavana, answering to the Hindi Sa'mbher liiun. It is; however, proper to remark, that maps exhibit a place of the name of Sambhere between $U_{j j}$ jayani and Indor.

The Utcach'ha' is a stanza of six verses, each comprising eleven moments (scanned $4+4+3$ ). It admits eight species from 60 short syllables to 28 long and 10 short.

[^69]Fig. 3.



$$
\text { rie: } 5 .
$$
 Fig.

## 















 न म्मヨपरि रक्षणंक्ष्म नेनिक्त निपरेषपरेषर्भूरियाभ:।




Fig. 2.


बिचिच वोर्यस्यदिवंतनस्पपित्स स जुध़तिपद्धवाला।


The Cundalicit is composed of one stanza of the metre named Dohi, foliowed by another in the meas.re called Rolá. The entire stanza consequently comprises eight verses. In this species of merre, rhyme and alliteration are so appropriate ornaments, that it adnits the repetition of a complete bemistich or even an entire verse : as in the following example extracted from the Pingalu vritha.

## Cun'd'alicá or Cun'd'aliá.

D'hóllá mária D'hilli maha, nuch'hía Méch'ha saríra, Pura Jajiallá mala bara, chalia bıra Hamıíra.
Chalia bira Hammírá, páii bhára mérịi campaï.
Diga masa naha and hára d'húli súrăha raha j'hampaí.
Digamaga naha and'hára ánu. C'hurasánaca ólla
Davali, damafi vipac'hc'ha : máru D'hilli maha d'hóllá,
[See Plate B. Fig, 1.]
'Having made the barbariansfaint at the sound of the drum beaten in the midst of $D$ 'billi and preceried by Jajuala emineat abose ashlets, the hero Hammína advances; and as the hero $H_{A M M i R A}$ advances, the earth trembles under his feet. The cloud of dust, raised hy the march of his multitudes, obscurts the chariot of the surn. Darkness spreads with the march of his muttiudes. The hostage of the Kborasanian are slain; th foe is slaughtered; and the drum is beat in the midst of D'ibilli.'

A stanza of nine verses, composed of one of five with a tetustrich of the metre called Dohá subjoined to it, is denn inated Rud dotha. Here the stanza of trye contains three verses of 15 moments each, with fwo of 12 and il interposed. The distri ution of the feet, together with a restriction as to the lerminating one, varies in each rerse : and a difference in the regulation of the feet gives rise to six varieties which have distinct appellations.

Vol. $\mathbf{X}$.
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'1He Chulushpadicie (Pr. Chazpaia or Chaupái) is a stanza of sixteen verses distributed into four tetrastichs, in which each verse contains 30 noments (scanned seven times $4-2$ ), and terminated by a long syllable. This measure is of very frequent use in the poetry of the modern languages. The Rámáyan'a of Tulas'í DA'SA, in seven cantos, a poem held in great estimation by Hindus of the middle tribes, is composed chiefly in a similar metre under the same name (Chaupái) and containing the same number of verses (16) in the stanza. It alker:ates with the Dohí ; and very rarely gives place in that poem to any other metre.

In this metre the stanza contains the greatest num ber of verses of any admitted into Prácrit prosody. The other measures regulated by quantity are tetrastichs, except the Ghat 't ${ }^{\prime}$ and certain other couplets, noticed at the foot of the page*; sume of which might have been ranked with more propriety under the next head of uniform metre.

One other measure which is placed in this class, but which belongs rather to another, remains to be noticed. It is an irregular stanza of four verses containing alternately 17 and 18 syllables with no regulation of their length or of tie quantity of the verse or stanza. It is termed Gand'ha, or in Pracrit Gand'háma.

The rest of the Prácrit metres may be sought in the sinoptical tables subjoined to this essay.

[^70]The present may he a proper place for noticing a class of poetry, which have been even more cultivated in the Prácrit and provincial languages than in Sanscrit. I allude to the erotick poetry of the Hindzus.

On its general character, I shall briefly observe, that it is free from the grierous defects of the Hindí pocins composed in the stile and metre of Persian verse: but it wants elevation of sentiment and simplicity of diction. The passion, which it pictures, is senstial, but the language refined; with some tenderness in the expression and in the thoughts. Among the most celebrated poems in this class, may be mentioned. the Chaura panchasicá comprising fifty stanzas by Chaura and Amaru s'alaca contąning twice that number by Amaru. The first is supposed to be uttered by the poet Chaura, who, being detecterl in an intrigue with a king's danghter, and condemned to death, triumphs in the recollection of his successful love. The other, which is a collection of unconnected stanzas on amatory topicks, is reputed to be the work of the great SANCARA $A^{\prime} \mathrm{CH}^{\prime} \mathrm{ARYA}$, composed by him in his youth before he devoted himself to the study of theology.

Some of the commentators on this poem have attemoted to explain it in a devout and mystical sense, on the same principle upon which Jay ade'va's lyrick poems are interpreted as bearing a religious meaning. The interpretation, however, is too strained to be admitted; and though JAyADE'va's intention may have been devout, and his meaning spiritual; Amaru, or whoever was the true author of the work bearing this name, is clcarly the love of an earthly mistress.

The most singular compositions in this cla's of poe try, and for which chiefly a notice of it has been here introduced, are those in which the subject is treated

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E \subset 2
$$

with the studied arrangement and formal precision of the schools. I shall instance the Rasamanjari of Bua'nudatta mis'ra in Sanscrit, and the works of Matirama and Sundara in Hindi. Here various descriptions of lovers and mistresses distinguished by temper, age and circumstances, are systematically classed and logically defined. with the seriousness and elabotate precision of scholastick writers. As ridicule was not intended, these poens are not humorous but trifling: and I should not have dwelt on the subject, if their number and the recurrence of them in different languages of India, were not evidence that the national taste is consülted in such compositions.
III. Vara'a vritta; metre regulated by the number of syllables.

The next sort of metre is that, which is measured by the number of syllables: it is denominated Acsharachihandas or Varnid vritta in contradistinction to the preceding kinds which are requlated by quantity; and it may be subdiv ded into three sorts, according as the verses, composing the stanza, are all similar, or the alternate alike, or all dissimilar.

This also is a stanza of four verses (pádus), each containing an equal number of syllables, the length of which is regulated by special rules. The number of syllables varies from twenty-four, to a hundred and four, in each strophe: this is, from six to twenty-six in each verse. There are indeed names in Pracrit prosody for verses from one to five syllables, and instances of Sanscrit verse containing a higher number than above stared, viz. from twenty-seven, to one less than a thousand. But these constitute distinct classes of metre. Between the limits first mentioned, twenty-one kinds receive different appellations appropriated to the numof syllables contained in the stanza.

Eacr kind comprehends a great variety of possible metres according to the different modes in which long and short syllables, as well as pauses, may be distributed: and since the four quarters of each stanza may be either all alike, or only the alternate similar, or all d. fferent, the variety of possible metres is almost infinite. Pingala, however, gives dircctions for computing the number of species, and for finding their places, or that of any single one, in a regular cnumeration of them; or conversely the metre of any species of which the place is assigned: and rules have been given eren for calculating the space which would be requisite for writing down all the various species.

In the fist class, or kind, wherein the werse consists of six syllables, 64 combinations are computed on the 3yllables of each verse; 4096* on those of the half stanza: and $16,757,216$ + on the 24 syllables which constitute the complete stanza of this class. In the last of the twenty-one kinds, $67.103,804$ combinations are computed on 26 syllables within each verse; nearly 4,503,621,000,000,000, on 52 syllables; and more than $20,282.388,000,000,000,000,000000,000,000$, on a hundred and four syllables which form the stanza.

The different sorts, which have been used by poets, are few in comparison with the raft multitude of possible metres. Still they are too numerous to be all described

[^71]at full length. I shall therefore select, as specimens, those sorts of metre, which are most frequently employed, or which require particular notice ; referring for the rest to the subjoined tables is which the various kinds are succinctly exhibited by single letters descriptive of teet scanned in the Indiun and in the Latin mode.

In the best Sanscrit poems, as those of Ca'lida'sa, Bháratí, S'ríharsha, Mágha, \&c. the poet usually adheres to the same, or at least to similar metre, throughout the whole of the canto;* excepting towards the close of it, where the metre is usually changed in the laft two or three stanzas, apparently with the intention of rendering the conclusion more impressive. Sometimes indeed, the inetre is more irregular, being changed several times within the same canto, or even altering with every stanza.

The Rághava pándavìa, by Cavira'ja, $+\mathfrak{r}$ is an instance of a complete poem, every canto of which exhibits variety of metre. This extraordinary poem is composed with studied ambiguity; so that it may, at the option of the reader, be interpreted as relating the history of $\mathrm{RA}_{A^{\prime} \mathrm{ma}}$ and other descendants of $\mathrm{DAS}^{\prime} \mathrm{AR}^{\prime}-$ At`ha, or that of Yud'hishtiniba and other sons of Pa'ndu. The example of this singular style of compositoon had been set by Suband'hu in the story of Váavodatlá and Ba'nabhatta in his unfinished work entitled Cádumbari; as is hinted by Caviza'ja. Both these works, which like the Das'acumara of Davdí, are prose compositions in poetical language,

[^72]and therefore reckoned among poems, do indeed exhibit continual inftances of terms and phrases employed in a double sense : but not, like the Räghava pindaviya, two distinct stories told in the same words.

The following passage will sufficientiy explain the manner in which the poem is composed. The first stanza is of the mixed sort of metre named $U_{p} a j a t i$, which will be immediately described; the second is in one of the measures composing it, termed Upendrarojo

## [See Plate. B. Fig. 2.]

30 Mátul s'riyan sandad’had Indumatyáh
S.lághyah s'aratcála invó'du panctéh, Asau, prajápálanadacsha bhàvád, Ajasya chacsé manasah pramódam.
31. Vichitravíryasya divan gatasya Pituh sa rájyam patipadya bályé, Purim Ayódhyåm, Dbritráshtra bhadrám, Sa Hastısópham suc'ham ad'hyurisa.
"Having the beauty of his mother Indumati, and admirable like the dewy season when it enjoys the beauty of the stars, he (Das'ara'rha) made glad the inind of AJA* by his skill in the protection of the people. Succeeding in youth to the kingdom of his variously valiant father, who departed for heaven, he diwelt happily in the city of Ayod'bya, which was adorned with elephents and upheld the prosperity of his realm."

Otherwise interpreted the same passage signifies
"Havisug the beauty of his mother, and admirable like the dewy season, when it enjoys the beauty of the stars and of the moon, he ( $P_{A^{\prime} n d u}$ ) made giad the heart of the unborn god, by his skill in the protection of creatures. Succeeding in youth to the kingdom of his father Vichitravirya*

[^73]who departed from heaven, he dwelt happily in the peaceful city of íastinápura auspiciously inhabited by Dhritara'SHTRA." 1.50. and si.

To proceed with the subject. In general the different sorts of verse, which are contained in the subjoined synoptical table of uniform metre, ate used singly, ard the stanza is consequently regular: but some of the spocies, differing little from each other, are in ermixed. Thus the Indrazojra, measured by a dactyl between two epitrites (3d and 2d), and the Ubéndravajra, which begins with a diambus, may be mixed in the same stanza. This sort of mixt metre an example of which has been just now exhibited) is denominated Upajati: it of course admits fourteen variations; \%r, with the regular stanzas, sixteen. The relief which it affords from the rigorous laws of the uniform stanza, render it a favourite metre with the best poets. It has been much cmployed by Ca'lida'sa, in whose foem on the birth and marriage of Pa'rvatí, thee chit of the seven cantos, which compose it, are in this metre : as ale eight out of nineteen in his heroick poem on the glory of the race of Raghu.

The last mentioned work, which is entitled Raghu-, r'ans'a, and is among the most admired compositions in the Sanscrit toncue, contains the history of $\mathrm{Ra}_{\mathrm{A}} \mathrm{ma}^{\prime}$ and of his predecessors and successors from Dilípa father of Raghu, to Agnivern'a a slothtul prince who was succeeded by his widow and posthumous son. The first eight cantos relate chiefly to RAGHU, with whose history that of his father Dili'pa and of his son Aja, is nearly coniected. The next eight concern Ra'ma, whose story is in like manner intimately con-

[^74]nected with that of his father Das'aratha and of his sons Cus'a and Lava. The three concluding cantos regard the descendants of Cus'a, from Atit'hi to Agniters's, both of whom are noticed at considerable lenerly: each being the subject of a single canto, in which their characters are stronsly contrasted; while the intermediate princes, to the number of twenty, are crowled into the intervening canto, which is little else than a dry genealogy.

The adventures of Ra'ma are too well known to require any detailed nosice in this place. The poet has selected the cl ief circumstances of his story, and narrates them nearly as they are told in the mythological poems and theogonies; but with far greater poetical embellishments. Indeed the general style of the poems esteemed sacred (not excepting from this censure the Fianay yan'a of VA'Lmíci,) is that, diffuse, and no less deficient in omament than abundant in repetitions; and it is fui th s reason, that examples have been selecterl, for the preent essay, exclusively from the celebrated provihane poems. RA'ma's achievements have been sung by the prophane as frequently as by the sacred poets. His story occupies a considerable place in many of the Pura'rias, and is the sole object of VA'Lmicis poem, and of another entuted Ad hya'man Ra'ma' arin, whicu is ascribe to VYa'sa. A fragment of a Ra'máyania atrmuted to BaUd'ha'yana is current in the southern part of the fridian peninsula; and the great palloophical poem, usually cired under the title of Yoga vasishtha, is a part of a Ra'ma'yan'a, comprising the education of the devout hero. Among prophane poems on the same subject, the Raghurans'a and Bhat'ticiaya, with the Rádg hava tu'rducìya before mentioned, are the moft efteemed in Sanscrit, as the Ra'ma'yaria of Tuladída'sa and Ra'machandrica' of Ce'savada'sa are in Hindi. The minor poets, who have emproyed themselves on the same topick, both
in Sanscrit and in the Pra'crit and provincial dialects, are by far too numerous to be here specified.

The other poem of Caílida'sa abovementioned, though entitled Cumarra sambhava or origin of Cumára (who is son of Pa'rvatí), closes with Pa'rvatís wedding. It has the appearance of being incomplete : and a tradition runs, that it originally consisted of twenty-two books. However, it relates the birth of the goddess as daughter of mount Himálaya; and celebrates the religious austerities by which she gained Sina for her husband; aifter Candarha, or Cupid, had failed in inspiring S'Iva with a passion for her, and had perished (for the time) by the fiery wrath of the god. The personages, not excepting her father, the snowy mountain, are described with human manners and the human form, and with an exact observance of Indian costume.

The following stanza from a poem in mixed language, upon the same subject (the birth of Cuma'ra), is selected as a further example of Upaja'ti metre, and as a specimen of the manner in which Sanscrit and Praicrit are sometimes intermixed. It is quoted for that purpose in the Pingald-vritio.

> [See Plate B. Fig. 3.]

Bảlah Cumárah; sa ch’ha-mun'da-d’hárí. Upáä-hiná hamu écca-nári.
Ahar-n'is'am c'hái visham bhic'hári. Gatir bhavitri hamári.

Dévi', grieving over her infant son Cumára or Scanda, says,
"The child is an infant, but he has six mouths [to be fed]: I am a helpless, solitary female : night and day my mendicaut
husband swallows poison : what resource is there, alas, for me ?"

An instance of the same measure used in the Maralut'tia (Mutha'ru'shtra) language is quoted by the commentator on the Vilta-rema'cara. It appears, however, from the rhymes, that the verse is there subdivided by a pause after the 5 th syllable.

The variety of the $U_{i} a j a^{\prime} t i$ metre is increased by the further mixrure of two sorts of iambic measure na ed V'ans'astha and Indravans'a'. 'The first is composed of a chorianbus between two diambi; in the second, the first dissyllable is a spondee instead of an iambic. Instances of this mixt metre nocur in $V_{A^{\prime}} L^{-}$ mici's Ra'm.yana, * in the Sri-bhulgavata Puránaand in a metapursical and theological drama entitled Prabód'ka Chiandrodaya .

The following example from the drama now mentionerd, exhbits the combination of those four sorts of metre in a single stanza.

Vídyá-prabódhódaya-janma-bhúmir, Váránosí mucti purí niratyayá
A tah culóchch'heda-vid'him vid'hitsur nivastum atréch'hati nityam éva sah.

## [See Plate B. Fig. 4.7

"Várán'asi, the indestructible city of eternal salvation, is the native land of science and intellect : hence, one desirous of observing the precepts by which a continuance of family is cut off, [and final beatitude obtained], is solicitons to dwell there continually."

[^75]Tres same term ( $\left.U_{1} a j a \prime t i\right)$, as descriptive of mixt metre, has been als') applied io the intermixture of two spondaic measures named T'ibormi and Sa'lini: which are very similar, the first having an antipxest, the other a cretic, between a dispondeus and 2d epirritus, with 3 pause at the fourth syllable. Analogons to the first of these are the Rathoddhata', and Swo sota' neasured by an anapæit preceded by two trochees, and followed in the one by twn iambics ; and in the other by an jonic. These and the preceding are te etres in very col.mon use with the best poets: and instances of them, will occur in subsequent extracts chosen for the sake of other measures with which they are joined.

The several sorts or metre above described are, like the two last, also emplored separately : forinstan: e the first cantos of the Naishathiyg of S'rimansha, and Cira'ta'rjuniya of Bha'ratr, as well as that of the episek poem of Ma'gha, are in the iambic measure called Tans'astha; which recurs again in other pats of the same poems : especially in the Ciralta, of which four books out of eighteen are in this measure.

The first of the works just now mentioned is a poem in twenty-two cantos on the marriage of Nala king of Nishadho and Damayantí daughter of Bhima king of Viderbha. It is a favourite poem on a favourite subject : and though confessedly not free from tanlts, is by many esteemed the most beautiful composition in the Sanscrit language. The marriace of Nala and DAmayan'rí, his loss of his kingdom by gaming, throngh the fraudulent devices of Cali disguised in the human, form, his desertion of his wife and his transformation, her distresses, her discovery of lis wife and his transformation, her distresses, her discovery of him, and his restoration to his proper form and to his throne, are related in ancther poem already noticed under the title of Nalodaya : their adventures likewise constitute an
episode of the Alahabharata, * and are the subject of a novel in prose and rerse, by Trivicrama bhatha, entitled Nalachampú $\underset{\text { ir }}{ }$ or Damayanti cath hi. Spirmarsira's poom, though containing much beautiful poetry according to the Indian taste, is very burren of incident. It brings the story no further than the marriage of Nasa and Damaynats, and the description of their mutual affection and happiness which continues notwithstanding the machinations of Cali. The romantick and interesting adventures subsequent to the marriage, as told in the Nalodaya, are here wholly omitted; while the poet, with a degree of licentiousness, which is but too well accommodated to the taste of hiscountryinen, indulges in glowing descriptions of sensual lope.

Tre following example of Vans'astha metre is from the introduction of the Naishadhiya. To render the author's meaning intelligible, it may be necessary to premise, that the mere celebrating of Nala end DaMAYANTí is reckoned sufficient to remove the taint of a sinful age; and is so declared in a passage of the Maha'bha'rata.

## Vans'ust'ha metre.

Pavitram atrátanuté jagad yugé, smritá, rasa-cshálaņajéva yat, cat’há;
Cat’ham na sú mad giram, ávilám api, swasévinim éva, pavitrayishyati.

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\text { [See Plate B. [ig. } 5 .]
$$

"How should a story, which, being remembered, purifies the world in the present age, as it were by an actual abbution,

[^76]fail of purifying my roice, however faulty, when employed on this narration." 3.

In the following passage from Ruatravis Cinaliorjunija, the last stanza is an example of the Mitini wuetre; and the preceding one, of the Pusipilaigriz; which will be noticed further on: all the rest are in the Fans'astila measure. It is the close of a reproachful speech of Draupaní to her eldest hushand Jub’mishr"nllat inciting him to break the con pact with Duryobnan , by "hich the Páabavashadengraged to remain twelre juars in exile.

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\text { [Siee Piate B. Fig. } 0 . \text { ] }
$$

"I do not compretrend this thy prodence: for opinions are indeed varions: but anguish forces itself on my mind, when considering thy extreme distess. Thou, who didst formerly repose on a consly conch, and were wakened wh hanpicious praise ant sons, now slecpest on the ground strewed with pungent grass, and art ronsed from thy slumbers by the dismal howlings of shakals. Thy feed, which, resting on a foonstool adomed with precions stones, were tinged hy the dust of the blossoms in the chaplets wors by prosirate monarchs, now tread the widdemess where the bips of sharp grass are cropped by the teeth of stags. Thy person, 0 king, which formerly samed beanty by feeding on the blessed remnant of the feast given to holy men, now wastes with thy glory, while thon feedest on the frints of the foremt. 'That thon an reduced to this condition by the act of thy enemies, harrows up my soul. To the valiant, whose comage is unsubdued by the foe, misfortune is a trimph. Relinguishing peace, O king, be active and rouse thy energy, for the slaughter of thy foes. Placid saints, not kings, attain perfection, disaming ther enemies by patience. If persons- such as thee, whose honour is their wealith, who are leaders of the brave, smbmit to such insupportable disgrac, then is magnamimity destroyed without resource. If divested of commge, thou deem submission the means of lasting ease, then quit thy bow, the symbol of a sovereion, and becoming a hermit, feed here with oblations the purifying thame. Adherence to the compace is not good for thee, valiant prince, while thy focs compass thy
disgrace: for kings, ambitious of victory, scruple not the use of stratagem in treating with enemies. Thee, who by force of fate and time art not sunk in the deep ocean of calamiiy, dull with diminished splendour, and slow 10 enterprise, may fortnne aydin attend, as thou risest like the sun with the new born day, dispelling hostile gloom." 1. 37.-40.

To return to the enumeration of analogous sorts of metre. A true spondaic metre, naned Vidyunmala, consisting of four spondees, with a pause in the middle of the verse which virtually divides the tetrastich into a stanza of eight, is often mixed, as before observed, with the metre termed Gityarya, containing the same quantity in a greater number of syllables.

Otuer measures also containing the same quantity, but in a greater number of syllables, occur among the species of uniform metre. The subjoined note* exhibits several species, in which the verse is divided by the position of the pauses into two parts equal in quantity, and some of them equal in number of syllables. Further instances are also stated in the notes, of metre containing the same quantity similarly reducible to equal feet $\downarrow^{2}$. Some of the species of metre, which contain a greater number of syllables, are reducible, in conformity to the position of their pauses, to this class ${ }_{1}$.

[^77]Alr these varicties of netre have a great analogy to the Matrasumacia and other spocies before described, which s imilarly contain the quantity of 16 short syllables or 8 long; reducible to four equal feet.

Among the kinds of metre described at the foot of the preceding paragraphs, the Dóct hacer, Totuca and Pramitacshara are the most common. A stanza in the anapæstic measure named Pramitacshara, in which each verse exhibits alliteration at its close, has been already quoted from the fifth canto of the Ciratajunia of $\mathrm{BHA}^{\prime}$. mavi. The specimen of anapretic "Easure Totaca, whiclu will be here cited from the close of the Noloclaya, is a further instance of alliteration introduced ino every stanza of this singular poem.

## Totaca.

Ari-sanl atir asya vanéshu suchím pidam ápadam ápad amá padamá.
Suc'hadar cha yal’haívá janáya Harim yatam áyatamáya tamá yata Má.

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\text { [See Plate B. Fig. } 7 .]
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> "The lackless and despondent croud of his foes found in the forests a calamitous pace of sorrow ; and prosperity was constant to him, who gave happiness to a sincerely affectionate people, as she clings to HaRI, who blesses the gruilele:s." 4. 46.

It has been before said, that, in several surts of metre, the pauses would justify the division of the stanza into a greater number of verses than four and instances have been shown, where either the number of syllables, or the quantity, would be the same in each verse of a stanza of eight, twelve, or even sixtecil short verses. In the following species of metre, the verses of the stanza, subdivided according to the pauses, are unequal.





## Fig. 3.





rig. 5.

Fig. 6.

















The Sárdúlavicrûlita, a very common metre, of which examples occur in the former volumes of Asiatick Researches*, is a tetrastich in which the verse-consists of nineteen syllables divided by the pause into portions of twelve and seven syllables respectively. 'The following instance of this inetre is from the close of the first book of Ma'gha's epick poem; where $\mathrm{Na}^{\prime}$ rfda, having delivered a message from Indra, inciting Crishn'a to war with Sis'upa'la, king of the Chidis, departs, leaving the hero highly incensed against his kinsman and enemy.

## [See Plate C. Fig. 1.]

O'm ityuctavotó'tha sa'rngin'a, iti
Vyo'hritoa va'chan, nablias
Tasminn utpatiré purah sura-munav Indo'h s'riyan vibhroti,

S'atru'n'am anis'am vina's'a pis'unah,
Crudd'hosya Chaidyam prati,
Vyómníva, bhrucuti ch'haléna, vadané
Cétus' chaca' r'a'patam.

- While the divine sige, having delivered this discourse, ascended the sky, bearing on his front the radiance of the moon; the hero, armed with a bow, uttered an expression of assent; and the frown, which fonnd place on his brow wreakfulagainst the prince of the Cbedis, was as a portent in the heavens, foretokening destruction of his foes.' I. 75.

The Munda'cra'nta', which is the metre in which the Még'hachita is compesed, has pauses staddividing each verse of serenteen syllables into three portions, cuntaining four, six, and seven syllables respectively : viz. two sponclees; two pyrrichii and in iambic; a cretic, trochee, and spondce. The Harim' $i$ differs from the preceding in transposing the first and second portions of the verse, and making the third consist of an anaprest between two iambics. An instance of it will be fubsequently exhibited.

The example of the firft mentioned metre, here inserted, is from the Mégha-dúta. This elegant little poem, attributed as before observed to Cálida'sa, and comprising no more than 116 stanzas, supposes a Yacsha or attendant of Cuvéra to have been separated from a beloved wife by an imprecation of the god Cuvéra, who was irritated by the negligence of the attendant in suffering the celeftial garden to be trodden down by Indra's elephant. The distracted demigod, banished from heaven to the earth, where he takes his abode on a hill on which Ra'ma once sojourned, * entreats a passing cloud to convey an affectionate message to his wife.

## Manaácrátá metre.

## [See Plate C. Fig. 2.]

6. Játam vanss é, bhuvana-vidité, pushcárávartacánám, Ja'na'mi twa'm, pracriti-purusan, cámarúpam, Maghónah. Téna' rt'hitwan, twayi, vid'hi-sasad dúraband'hur, gatóham.
Ya'ehna' niógha' varam ad'higúné, nad'hamé labd'haca'ma.
\%. Santapta'na'n twam asi s'aran'an ; tat, payó, priya' ya'h Sandés'am mé hara, d'hanapati-cród'ha-vis léshitasya, Gantavya' té vasatir Alaca' na'ma yacshés wara'n'am. Va'hyódja'na - st'hita - hara-s'iras' - chandrica' - d'hcutaharmya.

[^78]from the crescent on the head of Siva, who seems fixed in the grove without." 6 and 7 .

The Sicharin't, also a common metre, distributes seventeen syllables into portions of six and eleven; an iambic and two spondees in the one, and a tribrachys, anapæst, dactyl, and iambic in the other. This is the metre of the Ananda lahaai, a hymn of which Sancaráchárya is the reputed anthor, and which is addressed to S'iva', the Sucti or energy of Siva or Mahádéva. It comprises a hundred stanzas of orthodox poetry held in great estimation by the devout followers of Sancara: the devotional poetry of the Hindus does not ufually employ metre of so high an order.

Examples of this measure will be shown in a sub. sequent extract from a work of a very different kind: a drama, by Bhavarhu'ti entitled Málati Mád'hava.

The Málimí, consisting of fifteen syllables, places two tribrachys and a spondee in the one subdivided portion of the verse, and a cretic, trochee, and spondee in the other. An instance of it occurs in a former extract from the Cira' $a^{\prime}$ rjumij'a. 'The following example of this metre is from the drama abovementioned. The passage is descriptive of a love-sick maid.

## Málini metre.

## [See Plate C. Fig. 3•]

Parimridita-mrin'álí-mlánam angam ; prarittih Cat'ham api parivára-prárl 'hanábhih criyásu. Calayati cha himáns ór nishcalancasya lacshmim Abhinava-cari-danta-ch ch'héda-cántah capólah.

- Her person is weary like bruised threads of a lotos; scarcely can the earnest intreaties of her attendants incite her to any exertion; her cheek, pale as new wought ivory, emulates the beauty of a spotless moon.' 1.28.

$$
F f 2
$$

The Praharshini, containing thirty syllables; separates a molossus, from two pyrrichii, as many trochees and a spondee. An example of it will be shown in a subsequent extract from Bhavabhu'tis's drama.

The Ruchira', with the same number of syllables, disjoins two iambics, from two pyrrichii, a trochee and cretic. The opening stanza of the Bhallicávya may serve as an instance of this metre. The poem bearing that title, is on the subject of the adventures of $\mathrm{Ra}^{\prime} \mathrm{max}^{\prime}$ : it is comprised in 22 cantos. Being composed purposcly for the practical illustration of grammar, it exhibits a studied variety of diction in which words anomalously inflected are most frequent. The style, however, is neither obscure nor inelegant : and the poem is reckoned among the classical compositions in the Sanscril language. The author was Bhartrinari : not, as might be supposed from the name, the celebrated brother of Vicramáditya: but a grammarian and poet, who was son of S'míd'hara swa'mí, as we are informed by one of his scholiasts Vidyá vinóde.

Ruchira' metre.

## [See Plate C. Fig. 4.]

A bhán nripó, vibud'ha-sac'hah, parantapah, s'rutánwit ó, Das arat ella ityndahritah,
Gunair varam, bhuvana hita-chch'haléna, yam Sanátanah pitaram up gamat swayam.

- He , whom the eternal chose for a father, that he might benefit the wor'd [in a human form,] was a king, a friend of the gods, a discoinfiter of foes, and versed in science : his name was Das'akatha. He was a prince eminent for his virtues.' 1.1.

The Suvadana' distributes twenty, syllables in three portions of the verse: one containing two spondees and a bacchius; the second four short syllables and an
anaprest ; the third a spondee, pyrrichius, and iambic. The Sragd hara' a very common metric, differs from it, only in the third portion of the verse, which contains a trochee, spondee, and bacchius: bui here the number of syllables in every subdivision is equal : viz. seven. In all the other instances above described, the subdivisions of the regular verses were unequal.

The following sorts of metre, which are usually employed, have no pauses but at the close of the verse. The Drata vilambití contains in each verse two anapests préceded by three short syllables and a long one, and followed by a trochee. Instances of this measure have been already cited in an extract from the Cirâtárjuniya. The Sraguini is measured by a trochee, spondee, and iambic repeated ; as the Bhujangaprayata is by a similar repetition of an iambic, trochee, and spondee. Both sorts of metre are of frequent occurrence in classick poems.

The Vasanlatilaca, which consists of a spondee, iambic, tribrachys, dactyl, zrochee, and- spondec, is one of the metres in most general use. It commonly occurs as a change from other metre. But the whole 5th canto of MA'GHA's poem is in this measure. The Chaura panchasica, a short poem before described, is in the same metre, and so is a pathetick elegy on the death of a belored wife which occurs in the Bhamani vilasu a collection of miscellaneous poetry by Jaganna'tha Pandita raja. It begins thus:

## Vasantatilaca.

## [See Plate C. Fig. 5.]

[^79]The following passage from some Hindi poem, is quoted in Na'rayan'a bhat'ta's s commentary on the Vritta Retnacara as a specimen of this metre in the Canyacubja dialect.

## [Sce Plate C. Fig. 6.]

Candarpa-rúpa jaba tén tumba línha, Crishría! Lócópaccíma hama hín, baéu-píra, ch'hórí.
Jau bhél'icain vilaha-píra nasáii mérí. Yain bhénti dúti path'äi, cahi báta, Gópí.*
"Crishna, since thou didft assume the form of Cupid, I have neglected worldly affairs, suffering much anxiety. Relieve by thy presence the pain of separation which I endure. Such was the message, with which the Gopi dispatched her embassadress."

## V. Sloca or Vactra.

The most common Sanscrit metre is the stanza of four verses containing eight syllables each : and denominated from the name of the class, Amushtubli. Scveral species of it have been described. Two very simple kinds of it occur, consisting of iambic, or trochaic feet exclusively $\gamma$. The rest are included in one general designation *. But several analogous species are comprehended under the denomination of Vactra. Here the laws of the metre, leaving only the first and eighth syllables indeterminate, require either a bacchiu

[^80]or an amphibrachys* before the eighth syllable, and forbid an anapaest or tribrachys after the first ; as also in the $2 d$ and 4 th verses of the stanza, an amphimacer. A variety of this metre introduces a tribrachys before the 8 th syllable in the Ist and 3rd verses, and a bacchius in the $2 d$ and 4 th $\dagger$. And another sort ${ }_{+}^{+}$, which admits five varieties, requires the penultimate syllable to be short in the 2d and 4th verses; and introduces before the 8th syllable of the 1st and third verses, a dactyl, anapæst, tribrachys, amphimacer, or molussus.

The metre, which is most in use, is one of the species now described, in which the number of syllables is determinate (viz. 8); but the quantity variable. $\mathrm{CA}^{\prime}$ lida'sa appropriates to this metre the term S'loca fabbreviated from Anushtubl s'loca); and directs, that the fifth syllable of each verse be short ; the sixth, long; and the seventh alternately long and short. The mythological poems under the title of $P_{u r a^{\prime}} n^{\prime} a$, and the metrical treatises on law and other sciences, are almost entircly composed in this easy verse: with a sparing intermixture of other analogous sorts, and with the still rarer introduction of other kinds of metre. The varieties of the Anushtubh S'loca, which most frequently occur, make the 5 th, 6 th, and 7 th syllables of the 1 st and 3 d verses all long or all short; or else the 5th long with 6th and ith short. Thus varied, it is much used by the best poets. Ca'lida'sa has employed it in the 2 d and 6 th cantos of his poem entitled Cumara sambhava; and in the 1 st , 4th, and several others of the Raghuvan'a. The 2d and 19 th cantos of $\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime} \mathrm{G}^{\prime} \mathrm{HA}^{\prime}$ 's poems are in this metre, and so is the 11 th of the Ciralarjuniya.

The examples, here subjoined, are from $\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} h{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ s poem. One passage is part of a speech of Ralara'ma

[^81]to Crishn'a, urging him to the immediate commencement of hostilities against Sisupala: the other is extracted from Udd'hava's reply, dissuading Crishana from instant war, and advising his previous compliance with Yud`hisht'hira's invitation to assist at a solemn sacrifice which the king was on the point of celebrating at Indraprast ha.

## [See Plate C. Fig. 7.]

Balara'ma speaks, 'A proved enemy, and a tried friend, are most to be regarded; for they are known by their actions: others, presumed to be so, from temper or affinity, may be found in the end to be friend or foe. Peace may be maintained with a natural enemy, who confers benefits; not with a presumptive friend, who commits outrages; kindness, or injury, is the proper test of both. The king of the Chedis was offended, O Hari, by thy seizure of Ruchmini: for woman is the chief cause, that the tree of discord takes root. Whilst thon wert engaged in subduing the offspring of the earth, he besieged this city, as darkness encirc'es the skirts of Méru, while the sun is remote. To hint, that he ravished the wife of Yabifre is enough: the narration of crimes is too disgustful. Thus agurieved by thee, and having much injured us, the son of futas ravas is an enemy demonstrated by deeds. The man, who is negligent, while an enraged foe mediates aggressions, sleeps in the wind with fire under hisarm. What forbearing man, who would cheerfully dissemble a slight and single injury, can patienily endure repeated wrongs. At other times, patience becomes a man ; and pudency, a woman : but valour befits the insulted warrior ; a modesty should be laid aside by a woman in the nuptial bed. Whoever lives, (may none so live !) tortured by the pain of insults from his enemy; would that he had never been born, vainly giving his mother anguish. Dust, which, kicked by the foot of the taveller, rives and setties on his head, is less contemptible than the dastard, who is contented under wrongs.' 2. 36-46.

## Udd'hava in reply addressed to Ckishna.

[See Plate. C. Fig. 8.]

*The just King, and his kinsmen, relying on thee for an associate capabie of sumaining the heavient burden, are willing to nudertake the task of a solemn sactifice. Even to enemies who court them, the magnanimous show kindness; as rivers convey to the ocean the rival torents from the mountains. Violence, used against foes by the strong, is at length successfit; bur friends, once offionded, are not easily reconciled even by compliances. Thon thinkest, that the slaughter of the foe will most gratify the inhabitants of heaven: but far better is it to present offerings, which are desired by the deities, who devour oblations. What the virtuous offer, under the name of ambrosia, in flames, who-e tongues are holy prayers was the spiendid ornanent of the ocean churned by the mountain Mandara. The promise made by thee to thy father's venerable sister, to forgive her son a himdred offences, should be strictly observed. Let the intellect of a good man be sharp without wounding; let his acrions be vigorous, but concilatory; let his mind be warm without inflaming: and let lis word, when be speaks, he rigidly maintained. Before the appointed hour, even thon art not able 10 destroy the tyrant, on whom theself conferred that boon; no more than the sun can prematurely close the day, which he himself enlighto ens. 2. 103-110.

## V. Campound metre.

Instances of compound metre have been already exhibited under the designation of Upajati, consisting of two kinds of simple metre variously combined: two of these combinations are repeated under the head of half equal metre wih the contrasted names of $A c^{\circ} h$ yanaci and Vifaritachbanaci. Other species of metre, belonging to this class, are in use among eminent poets: particularly the Push ilugra, and Aparasactra. In the first, both verses are terminated by two trochees and a spondee, and begin with four shoit syllables, one verse interposing a pyrmchius, and the other a dactyl. In the next species. both verses are terminated by three iambics, and begin like the preceding with four short syllables; but one verse interposes a single short syilable, and the other a trochee.

Examples of the first of these mixed measures are very common. One instance has been already exhibited in a quotation from the lst canto of BHA RA'vi's poem of Aruuna and the mountaineer. The whole tenth canto of the same poem, and the seventh of $\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime}$ Gha's death of S'Is'UPA'LA are in this mixt metre. The second is less common: but an instance occurs in the 18 th canto of the Ciru'ta'rjuniya.

The close of the gth canto of Ca'lida'sa's Raghuvans'a, exhibiting a variety of metre, in which two of the species now mentioned are included, is here cited for the sake of these and of other species which have been before described. The subject is Das'pat'ha's hunt, in which he slew the hermit's son : a story well known to the readers of the Rhámáyania.

> [See Plate D. Fig. 1.]

- Thus did the chase, like an artful mistress, allure the king forgetfut of all other business, and leaving to his ministers the burden of the state, whiie his passion grew by indulgence.
- The king, without his retinue, passed the night in some sequestered spot, reposing on a bed of leaves and blossoms, and enlightened by the flame of wild herbs. At dawn, being awakened by the flapping of his elephant's ears in place of the royal drums, he delighted in listening to the sweet and auspicious tones of chirping birds.
- One day, pursuing an antelope, and outstriping his attendants, he arrived, with his horse foaming with fatigue, on the bank of Tamasá a stream frequented by the devout. In its waters a deep sound caused by the filling of a vase, was mistaken by the king for the grumbling of an elephant; and he directed an arrow towards the spot whence the sound proceeded. By this forbidden act, * Das'rat'ha transgressed: for even the wise, when blinded by passion, deviate into the pathless waste. "Ah father!" was the piteous cry which issued : and the king, anxious, sought its cause among the

[^82]PLATED. Pa. 442.


reeds. He found the vase; and, near it, a hermit's son pierced by his arrow; and he stood amazed as if internally wounded. The king, of glorious lineage, who had already alighted from his horse, eagerly inquired the parentage of the youth; who, resting on the vase, with feeble accents said "ك he was the son of a hermit, but no priest." Instructed by him, the king conveged the wounded youth to his blind parents: and to them as they approached their only son, he related his mistaken deed. The unhappy pair, lamenting, conjured the king to draw the arrow from the breast of their wounded son. The youth was dead. The aged hermit ratifying his curse with tears instead of water for a libation, pronounced this imprecation on the king. "In thy extreme age thou shalt reach thy fated time, with grief like mine for a beloved son." While he spoke, as it were a serpent assailingr first and then discharging fatal venom; Causalya"slord, conscious of the first offence, addressed him thus: "Thy curse has fallen like a boon on ine, who have not seen the beauteous countenance of offspring; as fire, fed with fuel, fertilises the soil which it burns." The king then said, "For me, who merciless deserves death at thy hands, what are thy commands?" The holy hermit asked fuel for the funeral pile ; he and his wife resolving to follow their son in death. The king, whoe attendants were now arrived, promptly fulfilled his cnummand, and remained dejected, bearing with him the hermit's curse, a cause of his fumure destruction, as the ocean embraces the devouring fire. Again the king addressed him. "Wise hermit! what shall this shameless criminal, who deserves death from thee, now perform." He desired the funcral flame to be duly lighted: and the king presented the fire for him and his wife and son.

- The chief of the race of Raghu, attended by his army, now returned to his palace, dejected, bearing in his mind the heavy imprecation of the saint, as the ocean holds within itself the fire of destruction.' 9. 74.—89.

This extract exhibits, besides two stanzas of Puspitagrá* and as many of Sundari metre, $\downarrow$ both belonging to the present head, and one, of which an example was promised in this place, + several others

- 75 and 76.
+77 and 79, most properly the last.
$\ddagger$ Szuigatá 78.
which have been before exemplified, * and two which are less common. $\downarrow$

A singular species of variable metre is mentioned by writers on prosody, who describe it as a stanza in which the verses increase in arithmetical progression. In the instance exhibited by them the four verses of the stanza increase regularly from 8 to 20 syllables. Varieties of it are noticed in which the progression is not regular: the short verse exchanging places with the second, third. or fourth. The quantity of the syllables is in general indeterminate: but varieties are stated in which the verse consists of short syliables, either ending, or beginning with a spondee, or both ending and beginning with spondees.

A class of metre, which admits an inordinate length of the verse, is known under the general designation of Danidaca. The verse may consist of any number of syllables from 27 to 099 ; and the specifick name varies accoidingly. ${ }_{\text {t }}$ 'The construction of the metre requires that the fix first syllables be short, and the remainder of the verse be composed of cretick feet; or, instead of the cretick foot, the bacchius. These two kinds of metre are distinguished by different names. A verse consisting of any number of anapests within the limitation abovementioned, is also comprehended under this general designation; as are verses of similar lenyth consisting exclusively of iambick or trochaick feet. They hare their peculiar denominations.

[^83]Examples of these extravagantly long verses are to be found in the works of the poet $V_{\Lambda}^{\prime} \mathbf{N}_{1}$. It is unnecessary to insert any specimen of them in this place ; as an example will occur in a subequent quotation from Bhayabhuti's drama.

That class of metre which is termed half equal, because the alternate verses are alike, comprises various sorts, which appear to be compounded of two simple kinds with an appropriate number of syllables of a determinate quantity.

Another class, in which every verse of the stanza. is different, appear more complex. But, here also, the quantity as well as the number of syllables being regulated, the stanza is in fact composed of four kinds of uniform metre.

The most common metre of this class is that called Udgralii. Here the number of syllables in each verse, as well as their quantily differs; the first verse comprising an anapæst, iambick, tribrachys, and trochee; the second a tribrachys and anapæst with two iambics; the third, a trochee, tribrachys, and two anapæsts*; and the fourth, an anapæst, iambick, and pyrrichius, with three iambicks.

The 12th canto of the Cira'taryuniya is in this metre ; and so is the 15 th canto of Ma'gha's epick poerm. It begins thes:
[See Plate D. F'ig. 2.]
"But the hing of the Cheitis was impatient of the honomrs, which the son of Pándu commanded to be shown in that as-

[^84]sembly to the foe of Mad'bu: for the mind of the proud is envious of the prosperity of others."

Other kinds of metre, in which every verse of the stanza differs in the number and quantity of syllables, are comprehended under the general name of Gálhá; under which also some writers on prosody* include any sort of metre not described by Pingala, or not distinguished by a specific appellation. The same denomination is applicable also to stanzas consisting of any number of verses other than four $\psi^{*}$. An instance of a stanza of six verses has been remarked in the Mahabharata; and another example occurs at the beginning of Mágha's poem*.

## [See Plate D. Fig. 3.]

Dwidhá critátmá, cim ayam divácaró?
Vid'húma róchih, cim ayam hutás'anah?
Gatan tiraschínam anúrn sárat'héh.
Prasidd'han úrddhajwalanam havirbhujah.
Patatyad'hó dháma-visíri sarvatah.
Cim étad? ityáculam ícshitam janailı.
Na'reda desconding from the heavens to visit Crishna, is thus described:
"Is this the sun self parted into two orbs? It is fire shining with light divested of smoke. The motion of the luminary, whose charioteer has no legs, is distinguished by its curvature. The assent of flame is a known property of fire. Then what is this, which descends diffusing light around ?" Thus was the sight contemplated with wonder by the people.' Maig'ba 1. 9.

* Helay yubiha and Na'ráyańa Tará.
$\dagger$ Divácara on the Vritta Retnalara.
$\ddagger$ It is cited by Diva'cara bhatta as an instance of a stanza of six. Yet the scholiasts of the poem omit the two first verses, and read the stanza as a tetrastich: one commentator, however, dues remark, that copies of the poem exhibit the additional verses; and another commentator has joined them with two more verses in a sto parate stanza.


## VI. Prose; and Verse mixed with Prose.

I follow the example of Sunscrit writers on prosody, in proceeding to notice the different species of prose. They discriminate three and even four sorts, under distinct names. 1st. Simple prose, admitting no compound terms. It is denominated Muclaca. This is little used in polished compositions: unless in the familiar dialogue of dramas. It must undoubtedly have been the colloquial style, at the period when Sanscrit was a spoken language. 2d, Prose, in which compound terms are sparingly admitted. It is called Culaca. This and the preceding sort are by some considered as varieties of a single species named Chúrnicá. It is of course a common stile of composition : and, when polished, is the most elegant as it is the chastest. But it does not command the admiration of Hindu readers. 3 d , Prose abounding in compound words. It bears the appellation of Litculica praya. Examples of it exhibit compounds of the most inordinate length: and a single word exceeding a hundred syllables is not unprecedented. This extravagant stile of composition, being suitable to the taste of the Indian learned, is common in the most elaborate works of their favourite authors. 4 th, Prose modulated so as frequently to exhibit portions of verse. It is named Vrittagandihi. It will occur without study, and even against design, in elevated compositions; and may be expected in the works of the best writers.

Some of the most elegant and highly wrought works in proseare reckoned among poems, as already intimated, in like manner as the "Telemache" of Fenelon and "Tod Abels" of Gesner. The most celebrated are the Vasavadalta of Suband'ru, the Das'a Cumára of DAn'di, and the Cadambari of VA'ra.

The first of these is a short romance of which the story is simply this. CANDARPaCe'tu, a young and valiant prince, son of Chintánan'r king of Casumapura*, saw in a dream a beautiful maiden of whom he became desperately enamoured. Impressed with the belief, that a person, such as seen by him in his dream, had a real existence. he resnlves to travel in search of her, and "leparts, attended only by his confidant Macnranda. While reposing under a tree in a forest at the foot of the Vind hy: mountains, where they halted, Macaranda overhears rwo birds conversing, and from their discourse, he learns, that the princess Va'saraDatta', having rejected all the suitors who hid been assembled by the king her father for her to make choice of a busband, had seen Casdappacéte in a dream, in which she had even dreamt his name. Her confidant, Tamálica, sent by her in search of the prince. was arrived in the same forest, and is discovered there by Macaranda. She delivers to the prince a letter from the prircess, and conducts him to the king's palace. He obtains from the princess the avowal of her love; and her confidant, Calatí reveals to the prince the violence of her passion.

The lovers depart together: but, passing through the forest, he loses her in the night. After long and unsuccessful search, in the course of which he reaches the shore of the sea, the prince, grown desperalle through grief, resolves on death. But at the monsent when he was about to cast himself into the sea, he hears a voice from beaven which promises to him the recovery of his mistress and indicates the means. After some time, Candarpackítu finds a marble statute the precise resemblance of $V a^{\prime} s a v a d a t t a ́$. It proves to be her; and she quits her marble form and regains ani-

[^85]mation. She recounts the circumstances under which she was transformed into stone.

Having thus fortunately recovered his beloved princess, the prince proceeds to his city, where they pass many years in uninterrupted happiness.

This story, told in elegant language and intermixed with many flowery descriptions in a poctical style, is the Va'savadattá of Subandifu. There is an allusion, however, in Bhavabhu'tis drama * to another tale of Vásavadatta"s having been promised by her father to the king Sanjaya and giving herself in marriage to Udayana. I am unable to reconcile this contradiction otherwise than by admitting an identity of name and difference of story. But no other traces has been yet found of the story to which Buavabhu'ti has alluded.

In the work above described, as in various compositions of the same kind, the occasional introduction of a stanza, or even several, either in the preface, or in the body of the work, dioes not take them out of the class of prose. But other works exist, in which more frequent introduction of verse makes of these a class apart. It bears the name of Champii: and of this kind is the Nula Champrio of Triviciama before mentioned. This style of composition is not without example in Europear literature. The "Voyage de Bachaumont et de ta Chapele," which is the most known, if not the first instance of it, in French, has found imitators in that and in other languages. The Sanscrit inventor of it bas been equally fortunate: and a numerous list may be collected of works expressly entitled Champi $\uparrow$.

[^86]The Indiun dramas are also instances of the mixture of prose and rerse ; and as already mentioned, they likewise intermixed a variety of dialects. Our own language exhibits too many instances of the first to render it necessary to cite any example in explanation of the transition from verse to prose. In regard to mixture of languages the Italian theatre presents instances quite parallel in the comedies of Angelo Beolco surnamed Ruzanti:* with this difference, however, that the dramas of Ruzanti and his imitators are rustic farces; while the Indian dramatists intermingle various dialects in their serious compositions.

Notwithstanding this defect, which may indeed be easily removed by reading the Prácrit speeches in a Sanscrit version, the theatre of the Himdus is the most pleasing part of their polite literature and the best suited to the European taste. The reason probably is, that authors are restrained more within the bounds of poetic probability, when composing for exhibition betore an audience, than in writing for private perusal or even for public recital.

The Sacuntalic by Ca'lida'sa, which certainly is no unfavorable specimen of the Indian theatre, will sufficiently justify what has been here asserted. I shall conclude this essay with a short extract from Bhayabни'tís unrivalled. drama, entitled Málatimúd'hava; prefixing a concise argument of the play, the fable of which is of pure invention.

- Bhúnivasu, minister of the king of Padmáa ati', and De'vala'ta in the service of the king of Viderbha, had agreed, when their children were yet infants, to cement a long subsisting friendship, by the intermarri-

[^87]age of Málatí daughter of the first with Mád'hava son of the latter. The king having indicated an intention to propose a match, between Bhu'mivasu"s daughter, and his own favourite Nandana, who was both old and ugly, the minister is apprehensive of giving offence to the king by refusing the match; and the two friends concert a plan with an old priestess, who has their confidence, to throw the young people in each other's way, and to connive at a stolen marriage. In pursuance of this scheme, Mád'hava is sent to finish his studies at the city of the Padmaivati' under the care of the old priestess Camandací. By her contrivance, and with the aid of Ma'lati's foster sister Lavangica', the young people meet and become mutually enamoured. It is at this period of the story, immediately after their first interview, that the play opens. The first scene, which is between the old priestess and her female pupil Avalócita, in a very natural manner introduces an intimation of the previous events, and prepares the appearance of other characters, and particularly a former pupil of the same priestess named Saudaiminí, who has now arrived at supernatural power by religious austerities; a circumstance which her successor Avadúcita has learnt from Capaidacun'dala' the female pupil of atremen. dous magician Aghóraghan'fa who frequents the temple of the dreadful groddess near the cemetery of the city.
' The business of the play commences; and $\mathrm{MA}^{\prime}$ d'hava, his companion Macaranda, and servant Calahansa appear upon the scene. Ma'd'avarelates the circumstances of the interview with Málatí, and acknowledges himself deeply smitten. His attendant produces a picture which Ma'latí had drawn of $\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime} \mathrm{D}^{\prime} \mathrm{hava}^{\prime}$, and which had come into his hands from one of her female attendants. In return Ma'dinava delineates the likeness of Ma'lation the same tablet
and writes under it an impassioned stanza. It is re. stored; and being in the sequel brought back to Malatí, their mutual passion, encouraged by their respective confidants, is naturally increased. This incident furnishes inatter for several scenes. Mean time, the king liad made the long expected demand; and the minister has returned an answer that "the king may dispose of his daughter as he pleases." The intelligence reaching the lovers throws them into despair. Another interview in a public garden takes place by the contrivance of Ca'mandací. At this moment, a cry of terror announces that a tremendous tiger has issucd from the the temple of S'iva: an instant after, Nandanas youthful sister Madayanticá is reported to be in imminent danger. Then M'ad'hava's companion, Macaranda, is seen rushing to her rescue. He has $k$.lled the tiger. He is himself wounded. This passes behind the scenes. Madayantica', saved by the valuur of Macaranda, appears on the stage. The gallant youth is brought in insensible. $B_{y}$ the care of the women he revives: and Madayantica of course falls in love with her deliverer. The preparations for Malatís wedding with Nandana are announced. The women are called away. MA'd. hara in despair resolves to sell his living flesh for food to the ghosts and malignant spirits as his only resource to purchase the accomplishment of his wish. He accordingly goes at night to the cementery. Previous to his appearance there, Capa'lacun'd'ala', in a short soliloquy, has hinted the magician's design of offering a human sacrifice at the shrine of the dreadful goddess, and selecting a beautiful woman for the victim. Ma'dinava appears as a vender of human flesh; offering, but in vain, to the ghosts and demons the flesh off his limbs as the purchase of the accomplishment of his wish. He hears a cry of distress and thinks be recognises the voice of $\mathrm{Ma}_{\mathrm{A}} \mathrm{L} \Lambda \mathrm{ti}$. The scene opens, and she is discovered dressed as a
victim, and the magician and sorceress preparing for the sacrifice. They proceed in their dreadful preparatives. Mádinava rushes forward to her rescue : she flies to his arms. Voices are heard as of persons in search of Málatí. Mán’hava, placing her in safety. encounters the magician. They quit the stage fighting. The event of the combat is announced by the sorceress, who vows rengeance against $\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime} \mathrm{D}^{\prime}$ hava for slaying the magician her preceptor.'

The fable of the play would have been perhaps more judicionsiy arranged if this very theatrical situation had been introduced neater to the close of the drama. Bhavabhu'ti has placed it so early as the fifth act. The remaining five (for the play is in ten acts) have less interest.

- Ma'latí who had been stolen by the magician while asleep, being now restored to her friends, the preparations for her wedding with Nandana are continued. By contrimance of the old priestess, who advised that she should put on her wedding dress at a particular temple, Macaianda assumes that dress and is carried in procession, in place of $\mathrm{M} \Lambda^{\prime}$ latí, to the house of Nandana. Disyrusted with the masculine appearance of the pretended bride, and offended by the rude reception given to him, Nandana to have no further communcation with his bride, vows and consigns her to his sister's care. This of course produces an interview between the lovers, in which Macaranda discovers himself to his mistress: and she consents to accompany bim to the place of Ma'latís concealment. The friends accordingly assemble at the garden of the temple: but the sorceress, Capa'lacundala', watches an opportunity, when MA'LATí is unprotected, and carries her off in a flying car. The distress of her lover and friends is well depicted: and, when reduced to despair. Gg 3
being hopeless of recovering her, they are happily relieved by the arrival of Sauda'mini, the former pupil of the priestess. She has rescued Ma'latí from the hands of the sorceress, and now restores her to her despairing lover. The play concludes with a double wedding.'

From this sketch of the story it will be readily perceived, that the subject is not ill suited to the stage: and making allowance for the belief of the Hindus in magick and supernatural powers, attainable by worship of evil, beings as well as of beneficent deities, the story would not even carry the appearance of improbability to an Indian audience. Setting aside this consideration. it is certainly conducted with art; and, notwithstanding some defects in the fable, the intereft upon the whole is not ill preserved. The incidents are striking. The intrigue well managed. As to the style, it is of the highest order of Sanscrit composition: atid the poetry, according to the Indiantaste, is beautiful.

I shald now close this essay with the promised exttact from the play here described. It contains an example, among other kinds of metre, of the Dandacat or long stanza: and is selected more on this account than as a fair specimen of the drama. This disadrantage attends all the quotations of the present essay, To which another may be added: that of a prose translation, which never conveys a just notion of the original terse.

Extract from Míluti' Mád̉hava. Act 5.
M'd'hava conlinues to wander in the cemetery.

[^88][^89]- How rapidly the Pais ácbas flee, quitting their terrifick forms. Alas! the weakness of these beings.'


## He rualks about.

- The road, of this cemetery is involved in darkness. Here is before me " the river that bounds it; and tremendous is the roaring of the stream, breaking away the bank, while its waters are embarrassed among the fragments of skulls, and its shores resound horribly with the howling of shakals and the cry of owls screeching amidst the contignotis woods. *"


## Behind the scentes.

- Ah! unpitying father, the person, whom thou wouldest make the instrument of conciliating the king's mind, now perishes.'

Ma'd'h. listening zeitb anxiety.] "I heard a sound piercing as the eagle's cry; and penetrating my soul as a voice but two well known. Ny heart feels rent within me; my limbs fail ; I can scarcely stand. What means this $\dagger$ ?"
©That pitious sound issued from the temple of Catrailá. Is it not the resort of the wicked? a place for such deeds $\ddagger$ ? Be it what it may; I will look.'

## He walks round.

The siene opens; and discovers Capa'bacun'd'alá and Aghoraghanto, engaged in ivorshipping the idol: and $\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime}$ latí dressed as a riditim.

MA'L.] 'Ah unpitying father!' the person, whom thou wouldest make the instrument of concilliating the king's

- Sardula vicriditu. [See Plate I). Fig. j.]
+ Mandacranta. [See Plate D. Fig. 0.]
$\ddagger$ The Pracrit original of this pas arge, though prose, is too beau* tiful to be omitted.

Há iadada nicarun'a! esó dán'i n'arenda-chittáráhóbaäran’anj aón bibajjaï. Há amba sinéhamaähiaé! tum api hadási debba dubbilatsidéna. Hâ Máladimaä-jívidé, mama callánasátianéceca-suha-sa-äla-bbábáré, bhaävadı! chirassa jánábictási ducc’ban sinéhéna. Há pïa sabi Lavangié ! sivina-ávisura-mètta dansaná aham dè saınbutta,.
mind, now perishes. Ah fond mother! thou two art slain by the evil sport of fate. Als venerable priestess; who lived but tor Malati; whose every effort was for my prosperity ; thou hast been taught by thy fondness, a lasting surrow. Ah gente Lavanciea'! I have been shown to thee but as in a dream $\because$

MA'n'h.] 'Surely it is she. Then I find her living.'
Capatacuspalla' quorshipping the idol Cara'la'.] 'I bow to thee, divine Cha'surida'。
"I revere thy sport, which delights the happy court of Siva, while the globe of the carth, sinking under the weight of thy stamping foot, depresses the shell of the tortoise and shakes one portion of the universe, whence the ocean retires within a deep absys that rivals hell $\dagger$."
"May thy vehement dance contribute to our success and satisfaction; amidst the praise of attendant spirits astonished by the loud laugh issting from thy necklace of heads which ate animated by the immortalizing liquid that drops from the moon in thy crest fracured by the nails of the elephant's hide round thy waist, swinging to the violence of thy gestures: while mountains are overthrown by the jerk of thy arm, terrible for the flashes of empoisoned tlame which issue from the expanded heads of hissings serpents closely entwined. The region of space inean time are contracted, as within a circle marked by a flaming braud, by the rolling of thy head terrifick for the wide flame of thy eye red as raging fire. The stars are scattered by the flag that waves at the extremity of the vast skeleton which thou bearest. And the three-eyed god exults in the close cubrace of Gaviri frightened by the cries of ghosts and spirits triumphant $\ddagger$."

## They both bow before the idol.

- Pintra. [Sem Plate. D. Fig. -.]
+ Sardula vicridia. [See Plate D.Fig. 8.]
*The wriginal stanza is in Oandaca metre ; of the species denominated Prachita and Sinhavicranta. The verse contains 18 feet (2 [ra. 10 C ) or 54 syllables, and the stanza comprises 216 syllables. [Sey Peatr. D. Fig. 9.]

Ma'd'h.] 'Ah!what neglect.
"The timid maild, clad as a victim in clothes and garlands stained with a sanguine die, and exposed to the riew of these wicked and accursed magicians, like a fawn before wolves, is in the jaws of death; unhappy daughter of the happy BHU'rivasu. Alas! that such should be the relentless course of fate "."

Capal.] 'Now, pretty maid, think on him who was thy beloved. Cruel death hastens towards thee $\uparrow . '$

Málatí.] 'Beloved Mad’iaya! remember me when I am gone. That person is not dead, who is cherished in the memory of a lover.'

Capa'l.] 'Ah! enamoured of Ma'd'hava she will become a faithful dove. However that be, no time should be lost.'

Aghora, lifting up the sword.] "Divine Cha'mun'da! accept this viction vowed in prayer and now offered to thee $\ddagger$."

Mád'h. rusbing forzuard raises Malati in bis arms.] ' Wicked magician! thou art slain.'

Capa'l.] 'Avaunt villain. Art thou not so.'
Ma'l] 'Save me, prince!' Sbe embraces Ma'd'hava.
Ma'd'h.] 'Fear nothing. "Thy friend is before thee, who banishing terror in the moment of death has proved his affection by the efforts of despair. Cease thy trembling. This wicked wretch shall soon feel the retribution of his crime on his own head \|."

Aghora.] "Ah! who is he that dares to interrupt us?"
Capa'L.] 'Venerable Sir! he is her lover; he is Ma'd. hava, son of Ca'mandaci's friend, and a vender of human tesh.'

Ma'd'h. in tears.] 'How is this? auspicious maid!'

[^90]M.'L. sighing.] 'I know not; Prince! I was sleeping on the terrace. I awoke here. But how come you in this place?

Ma'd'h. blushing.] "Urged by the eager wish that I may be blessed with thy hand, I came to this abode of death to sell myself to the ghosts. I heard thy weeping. I came hither." *
$M_{A}{ }^{\prime}$.] 'Alas! for my sake wert thou wandering regardless of thyself!'
$\left.\mathrm{MA}_{A^{\prime}} \mathrm{D}^{\prime} \mathrm{H}.\right]$ - Indeed, it is an opportune chance.
"Having happily sared my beloved from the sword of this murderer, like the moon's orb from the mouth of devouring Rabu, how is my mind distracted with doubt, melted with pity, agitated with wonder, inflame.l with anger, and bursting with joy." $\dagger$

Aghor.] 'Ah! thou Brábmen boy!" Like a stag drawn by pity for his doe whom a tiger has scized, thou seized thy own destruction, approaching me engaged in the worship of this place of human sacrifice. Wretch! I will first gratify the great mother of beings with thy blood flowing from a headless trunk."」

MA'D"h.] "Thou worst of sinful wretches! "How couldst thou attempt to deprive the triple world of its rarest gem, and the universe of its greatest excellence, to bereave the people of light, to drive the kindred to desperation, to humble love, to make vision vain, and render the worid a miserable waste!" **

- Vasanta tilaca. [See Plate D. Fig. 14.]
$\dagger$ Sa'rdúla vicridiia. [See Platr 1). Fig. 15.]
$\ddagger$ Sádu'le vicridita. [See Plate D. Fig. 16.]
§ Sucharini. [See Plate. Fig. D. 17.]
** A very uncommon metre named Avitat'ha or Narsut'aca.
[See Plate D. Fig. 18.]
- Ah wicked wretch!" Hast thou dared to lift a weapon against that tender form, which even shrunk from the blow of light blossoms thrown in merry mood by playful damsels. This arm shall light on thy head like the sudden club of Yama."*

Aghór.] 'Strike, villain! Art thou not such ?'
Ma'l. to Mád'h.] 'Be pacified, dear Ma'd’hava! The cruel man is desperate. Abstain from this needless hazard.'

Capa'l. to Aghór.] - Venerable sir, be on your guard. Kill the wretch.'

MA'D'и and Aghór, addressing the women.] "Take courage. The wretch is slain. Was it ever seen that the lion, whose sharp fangs are fitted to lacerate the front of the elephant, was foiled in fight with decr." $\dagger$

## A noise behind the scenes. They listen.

- Ho! ye guards who seek Ma'latí. The venerable and unerring Camanhací encourages Bhórivasu and intructs you to beset the temple of Carata'. She says this strange and horrid deed can proceed from none but Aghóraghant'a: nor can aught else, but a sacrifice to Cara'la', be conjectured.'

Aghór.] 'Now is the moment which calls for courage.'

MA'L.] 'Oh father! Oh venerable mother!'
MA'd'и.] 'Tis resolved. I will place $M_{A^{\prime}}$ Latí in safety with her friends, and slay this wicked sorcerer.

> Capal'.] 'We are surrounded.'

- Iosanta iilaca. [Sec D Plaze. Fig. 19.]

MA'D'H conducts MA'Latí to the other side, and returns towards Aghókaghant'a.

Aghór.] 'Ah wretch! "My sword shall even now cut thee to pieces, ringing against the joints of thy bones, passing instantancous rapidity thy tough muscles, and playing unresisted in thy flesh like moist clay."

They fight. The scene closes.

- Sic'harini. [See Plate D. Fig. 20.]


## SYNOPTICAL TABLES

of

## INDIAN PROSODY.

Feet used in Sanscrit Prosody.
Trisyleabic.
M. - - Molossus. M. T. - © Antibacchius S. Palinbacchius v. Hypobacchius. H.
Y. - - Bacchius. B. J.u-uAmphibrachys $f$. R.- -Creticusf.Am- Scolius. Sc.
phimacer. C.
S. ou-Anapeetus. A. Tr.

## Monosyllabic.

L. o Brevis. Br. G. Longus. L.

## Feet ufed in Pra'crit Prosody.

1. c. One Cálá or Márá Hasta: Anapetus uSara: Brevis $\cup$ Br. A.
2. c. Two Mátrús or Calás. Cbaran'a Dactruus -00

Hárá. Longue L. D.
Supriya: Pyrkhichius s. Vipra: ProceusmatiPeriambus, ○ op. cus o o ○ Pa.
3. c. Three Màtrús or Caláás. Indrásano: 5 , c. Five Mátrás

Talá: Trocheus - 0 T. or Calds.
Druaja: Iambus u-1. Creticus C. Bacchius
Tínidava: Tribrachys $\bigcirc 0 \mathrm{~T}_{\mathrm{r}}$.
Haya: Málrás or Calás. B. Pexon Pex. \&c.

Surơja: 6. c. Six Mátrás or Calás.
Carna: Spondeus - S. Molossus M. \&c.
Payod'bara:Scoliesu-usc.

Metre of the Vidas; regulaticd by the number of syllables.
Seven classes subdivided into eight orders.

## CLASSES.

|  | Gaiyatrí. | Ushnit. | Anushtubh. | Vrihatí. | Pancti. | Trishtublu. | Jagati |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A'rshá, | 24 | 28 | 32 | 36 | 40 | 4.1 | 48 |
| Daivi, | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| $\sim$ A'suri, | 5 | 14 | 13 | 12 | 11 | 10 | 9 |
| ¢ Prájápatyá | a, 8 | 12 | 16 | 20 | 24 | 28 | 32 |
| - Yajush, | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| CSáman, | 12 | 14 | 16 | 18 | 20 | 22 | 2.4 |
| Rich, | 18 | 21 | 24 | 27 | 30 | 33 | 36 |
| - Bráhmi, | $30^{\circ}$ | 42 | 45 | 5.1 | 60 | 66 | 72 |

Distribution of the Syllables in Triplets, Tetrastichs, E®c.

## I. Ga'tatmi.

IV. Vrihati.

1. Tripad, - $5 \times 3=24$ 1. Chutushpád, $-9 \times 4 \times=30$
2. Chatushpad, $-6 \times 4=21 \quad \because \quad-\quad 8 \times 2+10 \times 2=36$
3. Pádanivrit, $-7 \times 3=23$ 3. $-\quad 8 \times 3+12=36$
4. Atipádanivrit, $6+8+7=21$ 1. Pathyı́, $-8+8+12+8=36$
5. Nági, - - $9+9+0=24$ 2. Nyancusarim (Scand'hogriva or
6. Váráhi, - - $0+6+9=24$ Urourihati,) $8+12+8+8=36$
7. Bardhmána, $-(i+7+8=21$ 3. Uparishtallurihati, $8<3+12$
8. Pratisht'há, $-8+7+6=21$ $=36$
9. Dwipádviráj, - $-12+8=21$
10. Purastadurihati, $12+8 \times 5=$
11. Tripádviráj, - $11<3=23$ 3. Maharrihati, (Salorrihati,) 12
II. Usinsih.
12. Tripád, $(12+812)$
13. C.acubh, - $-8: 12+5=28$
14. Pura C'shnilh, 12!814=28
15. Paroshinih, - $8+8+12=28$
16. Chatushrid, 一 $\quad 7 \times 1=28$

## III. Anushtíebr.

1. Chatushpád, $-5 \times 4=32$

2, Tripád, $(8+12 \times 2) \cdot$ viz. 12 t $8+12+$ or $12+12+8 .+12+$ $12=32$.
$>3=36$

## V. Pancti.

1. Chatushp: d, $(12 \times 2+8 \times 2)$.
2. Satah.p. - $12+8+12+$ $8=40$ or $8+12+8+12=40$
3. Astara-p $8+8+12+12=40$
4. Prastara- $p$ 12+12+8+8= 40
5. Vistara $-\beta \cdot 8+12+12+8=$ 40
6. Sanstára-f: $12+8+8+12=$ 40

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 2. 1. Acsharapaneti, } 5 \times 4=20 \\
& \text { 2. Alpasahpancti, } 5 .<2=10 \\
& \text { 3. Padapancti, - } 5 \% 5=25 \\
& \text { 4. }-4+6+5 \times 3=25 \\
& \text { 3. Pat'hyá, }-8 \times 5=40 \\
& \text { 4. Jağati, - - }-8 \times 0=48
\end{aligned}
$$

## VI.Trisutubit.

1 Jyotishmati, $\quad 11+8 \times 4=43$
2. Jagati, - $-12+8 \times 4=44$

Purastádjyotishmati, 11 (12) $+8 \times 3$
Mad'lyá, $8+8+11(12)+8+8$ Uparishtäd, $8+8+8+8+11(12)$

## Deficient and exuberant Metre.

1. Sancumati, $=5+\mathrm{a} \times 3 \mathrm{ex}$. (Gáyatri) $5+6 \times 3=23$.
2. Cacudnati, $=6+a \times 3$
3. Pipilica mad'hyá, $=$ (Tripád) $=$ many + few + many ex. $8+4+8$.
4. Yavamad'hyá, $=$ (Tripád) $=$ few + many + lew ex. $8+10+8$.
5. Niurit, $=a-1$ ex. (Gáyatri) $24-1=23$.
6. Bhurij, $=$ a +1 ex. (Gáyatri) $24+1=25$.
7. Viráj $=$ a-2 ex. (Gáyatri) $8+8+6=22$.
8. Swaráj, $=a+2$ ex. (Gáyatri,) $8+8+10=20^{\circ}$.

1 Gan'uvritta of Panscrit Prosody, and Ma'travritta of Pra'crit Prosody; regulated by quantity.

1. A'ку.i' or Gái'há Pr. Gáhá. $30+27=57 \mathrm{c}$.
Odd verse : $30 \mathrm{c} .=7^{\frac{1}{3} \mathrm{ft}}$. ( $6 \mathrm{th}=$ Sc.or Pro.)
Even verse: $27 \mathrm{c} .=\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathrm{ft}$. $\{6 \mathrm{th}=$ Br).
Fach verse ends in I.
Piuse in lst verse before 7 th ft . if Pr. But if 6th ft. be Pr. then pause ater ist syllable.
Pause in 2 d verse before 5 thft. if Pr .

16 Species: Pathyá: Pause after 3d. ft. $3+4 \frac{1}{2}=7 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{ft}$. \& 12
$+18+12+15=55 \mathrm{c}$.) Fipula: Pause placed otherwise. Hence A'divipula, Antyavipula, and Ub. hayavipula, wih 1st verse, 2d, or both, irrecrularly divided by the pause. Éhapalí 1st f. S. or A. 2d Sc. 3d S. 4th Sc. or D. 6 th Sc. or. (in the short verse, $\mathrm{Br})$. 7 th S. D. A. or Pr. Hence Muc'hachapali, Jug'hanya chapulit and Mahachapala, with 1st, $2 d$ or both verses so constructed, Therefore A'rà +3 Chapalásx Pathyá+3 Vipulís=16 species.

[^91]Variations: A'rýá, 1st verse 10800. 2d verse 6400. Chapali 1 st verse $32,2 \mathrm{~d}$ verne 16.
In Prä́crit prosody, 27 specries:
from $27 \mathrm{~L} .+3 \mathrm{Br} .=30$ syll. to
1 L . and $55 \mathrm{Br} .=56$ syll.
Spee fick varieties. Culind containıng 1 Sc. Culat'há, 2 Sc . Vesyá, many Sc. Raridú, no Sc. Gurvin'i, Sc. 1st, 3d, 5th or $\boldsymbol{7}$ th ft . But this is against rule: which excludes amphibrachys from the odd feet.
2. Ungitr or Vigúu'há Pr. Visa'ha'. $27+30=5$ \% c. viz. $12+$ $15+12+18$.
3. Upagiti Pr. Giahti. $27+$ $27=54 \mathrm{c} . \mathrm{viz} .12+15+12 \mathrm{~F} 15$.
4. Gris or Udgat $t^{\prime} h a^{\prime} \mathrm{Pr}$. $U_{5}-$ ga'ha'. $30+30=00 \mathrm{c} . \mathrm{viz} .12+$ $18+12+18$.
5. A'rya'giti or C"hand'haca Pr. Scand'ha. $32+32=6$. c . 8 ft . complete. $\left(3+5^{\circ}=8 \mathrm{ff}\right.$. and $12+20+12+20=04 \mathrm{c})$.
Species 16 (Pathhya' Rzc.), variations of each verse 10500 .
In Pracrit pros dy, 28 species from 25 L . \& 8 Br . to : L. and $\sigma_{2} \mathrm{Br}$.
6. Ch:zndrisa', Sangiti or Gát'hi-
$n i$ Pr. Gihni $30+32=62 \mathrm{c}$. viz. $12+18+12+20$.
7. Sugiti, or Parigiti Pr. Sinhini $32+30=62$ c. viz. $12+20+12$ $+18$
Also 6. Sumgiti, $32+29=61 \mathrm{c}$. A'ryá ( $7 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{ft}$. ) +L . in both verses.
7. Sugiti, $32+27=59 \mathrm{c}$.
L. in first verse only.
8. Pragiti, $30+29=59 \mathrm{c}$.
+L . in second verse only.
9. Auugiti, $27+32=59 \mathrm{c}$.

Reverse of Sugizi.
10. Manjugiti, $29+30=59 \mathrm{c}$.

Reverse of Pragiti.
11. Visiti, $29+=59 \mathrm{c}$.

U 'agiti +I .. in both verses.
12. Charugiti, $29+32=61 \mathrm{c}$. Reverse of Sangiti.
13. Fillari, $32+30=62 \mathrm{c}$. A'ryagiti-L. in last verse.
14. Laliti, $30+32=62 \mathrm{c}$. -L. in first verse.
16. Pramadǘ, $29+2 \boldsymbol{7}=56 \mathrm{c}$.

Upagiti + L. in first verse.
16. Cuandrici, $27+22=56$ c.

+ L. in last verse.
All these kinds admit 16 species as abuve: viz. Pat'hyá, \&c
II. Ma'tra' vritta or Malia' ithhandas, of Sanscrit Prosody.

1. Vaitailiya, 56 "to 68 c.
2. Vaitaliy,, $14+16+14 t$ $16=60 \mathrm{c}$.
End in C. +1.
Short syllables by pairs !even verses not to begin with 2 Tr).
3. Ap itililica, End in D. \&: S.
4. Aupachhandasica, $10+18$ $+16+18 \doteq 6 \mathrm{Sc}$. End in C. \& B.

Each kind admits 8 varieties of the short verse \& 13 of the long; from 3 long syll. to 6 short beginning the one, and from 4 long syll. to 1 long \& 6 short in the other.
Also the following species under each kind.

1. Dacshinanticx, begin with 1.

## Comprising 2 varieties

 of the odd verses.I. 1. (or Tr.) ; and 4 of the even verses. I. B (or Pa, 2 d or 4th or 5 Br.)
2. Udichya vitta, oda verses begin with I.
3. Práchula vritta, even verses C. or Pe. 4.
4. Pravrittaca, the 2 preceding combined.
5. Aparantivá, $16 \times 4=6.1 \mathrm{c}$. (Prách).
6. Cháruhásini, $14 \times 4=56 \mathrm{c}$. (Udich).
2. Ma'tra' samaca, $16(4 \times 4)$ $x 4=64$ c. End S. or A. Begin S. A. D. or PR.

1. Mítúa sambaca, 2ł. ft. S. A. or D. 3d. ft. A.
2. Vis'loca, 2d Sc. or Pr. 3d. S. or D.
3. Vánavisácú, 2d S. A. or D. 3d Sc. or $\mathrm{PR}_{\mathrm{R}}$.
4. Chitrí, 2 d Sc. or Ph. 3d A. Sc. or PR .
5. Upachitrá, 2d S. A. or D. 3 t S. or D.
C. Dúdáculaca, the above intermixed.
The ist species admits 24 va rieties; the $2 \mathrm{~d}, 32$; \& the 3 next, 48 each. The variations of the last species are very numerous.
6. Gitya ryá or Achalad hiriti, $10+4$ All short syllables.
7. Divicimandaca; or Couplet.
8. Sičhé or Chudí, 32 Br. $+16 \mathrm{~L}$.
2 species: Jyotish 1 st verse 32 Br. 2 d 16 L .
Summyú or Arangricridá ist verse 16 L .2 d 32 Br .
Also 1 S'icha $30+32=$ 62 c.

1 st Verse $28 \mathrm{Br} .+\mathrm{L}$. 2d 30 Br . L. +
2. $C h 2,2 r j a, 32+30=62$ c. ist $30 \mathrm{Br} .+\mathrm{L} .2 \mathrm{~d} 23 \mathrm{Br}$. t-L.
3. Chulica or Atiruchira $29+29$ $=5 S_{\text {c. }} 27$ Br. +L .
Also 3 Chitlica $29+31=60 \mathrm{c}$. 1st $\backslash$ erse $27 \mathrm{Br} \cdot+\mathrm{L}, 2 \mathrm{~d}$ $29 \mathrm{Br} .+\mathrm{L}$.

## III. Matravritta of Pracrit prosody continued frome Table I.

S. Dohe S. Dwipatha, $13+12$ specie; from 12 L to 24 Br . $11+13+11=45 \mathrm{c}$.
3 ft . viz. odd verses $6+4+3$. even verse $6+4+1$.
23 species from $23 \mathrm{~L}+2 \mathrm{Br}$. to 48 Br .
9. Utcach'ha Pr. Uicach'ha, $11 \times 6=66 \mathrm{c}$.
6 verses, 3 ft. each $4+4 \div 3$.
9 species from 66 Br . to 28 L +10 Br .
10. Rola or Lola, $24 \times 4=96 \mathrm{c}$. Pause i i + 13. Usually end in L . Vol., X.
11. Gundha Pr. Gandliara, 17 $+18+17+18=70$ Syll.
12. Chatushpada or Chatushpadica Pr. Chaupaia Chaupaa, $30 \times 4 \times 4=480 c$. 10 verses; $7 \frac{1}{8} \mathrm{ft} .4 \times 7+\mathrm{L}$.
13. Ghatta \& Ghattananda, 31 $\times \because=62$ c. $10+8+13=4 \times 7+$ 3 Er. or $11+7+13=6+3 \times 3$ $+5+4+3+2+2 \mathrm{Br}$.
1.1. Shat puda or Shat'padica Pr. Ch'licipai, $96+50=152$ c.

H 4

Carya $24(1)+13=6+4 \times 4$ 12 Brjot $4=06$ ，Ullala $28(15$ $+13) \times 2=56$ ．Varieties of the Tetrastich 45 from 96 Br． to $41 \mathrm{~L}+8 \mathrm{Br}$ ．Varieties of the whole stanza 71 from 70 I ， ＋ 12 Br ．to 152 Br ．

15．Praijatica Yi．Pajonlia， 16 $\times 4=0.4 \mathrm{c} .4 \mathrm{ft}$ ．Find in Sc．

16．Atiliha At hilla Pr．Ati－ la 16 人4二6゙4c．No Sc．Lndin P．

17．Padaculaca Pr．Crlapad， $16 \times 4=64 \mathrm{c} .6+4 \times 2+2 \mathrm{I}$ ．

18．Radd＇́ stanza of nine $=$ 116 c.
viz． 1 st $=15 \mathrm{c} .=4 \mathrm{ft}$ ．viz． $3+4$
$=4+4$ ．End in Sc．or Pr． $2 \mathrm{~d}=12 \mathrm{c} .=4 \mathrm{ft}$ ．End in Pr． 3d $=15 \mathrm{c}$ ．End in D． 4th＝11c．$=3 \mathrm{ft}$ ．End in Tr． $5 \mathrm{th}=15 \mathrm{c}$ ．End in D． 6th to 9 th $=$ Doha as before． 5 species．

19．Padmavati Pr．Pumma， $32 \times 4=125$ c． 8 ft．no Sc．

20．Cundalica Pr．C＇andulua， stanza of eight $=142 \mathrm{c}$ ．
Doha + Rola or Cavya．
21．Gagan＇angana， $25 / 4=$ 100 c .20 syll．viz． 5 L \＆ 15 Br ． End in I．

22．Dwipadi or Dwipada， 23
$\times 2=56$ c． $6 \frac{2}{2} \mathrm{ft}$ ．viz． $0+4+5$
＋L。
23．C＇lianja， $41 \times 2=$ S＇$^{2} \mathrm{c}$ ．
10 ft ．viz． 1 Pr．+C ．
24．Sic＇la， $28 \times 2=56 \mathrm{c}$ ．
7 ft viz． 6 Pr．+ Sc．See San－ scrit merre．

25．Mala， $45 \times 2=90$ c．
11 ft ．viz． $4 \times 9+c .+\mathrm{S}$ ．
Also 25．Mala $45+27=72$ c．
1 st verse as above， 2 d verse $A$＇rya．
26．Chudicala Pr．Chioliala， 29
$\times 2=53 \mathrm{c}$ ．Half the Doha +5 ．
37．Saurashtra I＇r．Sorati／su， $1+13+11+13=48 \mathrm{c}$ ．
Reverse of the Doha．
28．Hacali， $14 \%=50 \mathrm{c}$ ．
$3 \frac{f}{2}$ ft．viz． $4 \times 3+$ L． 1 syll． 11 or 10 ）．ft．D．

Pr．or A．sometimes S．Not end in P．S．

29．Mad＇hubhava， $8 \times 4=$ 32 c．
2．ft．End in Sc．
30．Abhira， $11 \times 4=44 \mathrm{c}$ ．
$7+$ Sc．or D．$+\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{Sc}$ ．or Sc． $+\mathrm{Tr} .+\mathrm{Sc}$ ．

31．Dan＇dacala， $32 \times 4=128 \mathrm{c}$ ． $4<4+6+2+8$ or $10+8+14$ ． Endin L．

32．Dipaca， $10 \times 4=40$ c． $4+5+\mathrm{Br}$ ．usually end in Sc．）

33．Sinlávaluca Pr．Sinhalao $16 \times 4=64 \mathrm{c}$ ．
4 ft．A．or Pr．but end in A．
34．Plavangama Pr．Paranga－ $m a, 21 \times 4=84 \mathrm{c}$ ．
$6 \times \ddot{3}+1$ ．Begin with L．
35．Lila＇vati， 2.1 or less $\times 4=$ 06 or less． 6 ft ．or less ：not end in $A$ ．

86．Harigita， $28<4=113 \mathrm{c}$.
$5+6+5 \times 3+1$ ．Should begin with Pr．and end in $S$ ．

37．Tribhangi， $32 \times 4=128 \mathrm{c}$ ． 8．ft．No Sc．End in I ．

38．Durmila or Durmilica＇， $32 \times 4=125$ c． $10+5+14$ ．fr． 8 。

39．Hira or lifac：a， $23 \times 4=$ 92．c．
4 ft．viz． $6 \times 3+5 . \mathrm{ft} .6 \mathrm{Br}$ ．or 1
L．with 4 Br ．End in L．
40．Jailad＇hava or Jalaharana＇， $32 \times 1=128 \mathrm{c}$ ．
Pauses $10+8+6+8$ ．ft． $8 \mathrm{Ge}-$ nerally Pr．End in A．

41．Madanagriha or Madana－ liara， $10 \times 4=160 \mathrm{c}$ ．
$10+8+14+8=40$ ．
12．Maha＇rasht＇ra Pr．Mara－ hat＇t＇$a, 29 \times 4=116 \mathrm{c}$ ．
$10+8+11+$ or $6+4 \times 5+1$ 。 +Br ．
Also the following kinds：
43．Ruchira＇， $30 \times 4=120$ c． $7^{\frac{1}{3}} \mathrm{ft}$ ．end in L．

44．Calica＇ $14 \times 4=56 \mathrm{c}$ 。 Pauses $\mathrm{S}+6$ ．

45．Va＇san＇a， $20 \times 4=90 \mathrm{c}$ ． 4 ft ．End in C．Pause before the last．

46．Chaurola， $16+14+16$ $+14=60 \mathrm{c} . \mathrm{ft}$ ．A．or Pr．

47．Jhallana＇， $37 \times 1=148 \mathrm{c}$ ． $7^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathrm{ft} 5 \times 7+\mathrm{L}$ ．Pauses $10+10$ $+10+7$ ．

48．Ashad＇ha， $12+7+12+7$ $=3 \mathrm{Sc}$ ．

49．Ma＇lavi， $16+12+16+$ $12=56 \mathrm{c}$ 。
Long verses 4 ft ．short verse end in $L$ ．

50．Matta＇， $20 \times 4=80 \mathrm{c}$. 5 ft．no Sc．

51．hasamala， $24 \times 4=96 \mathrm{c}$ ． $6 \mathrm{ft}^{\prime}$

52．Avalambaca， $13 \times 4=$ 52 c ．
$3 \mathrm{ft} .4 \times 2+6$ ．End in L．

IV．Metre regulated by number of Syllables．

Vactra， $8 \times 4=32$ syll．
2 ft ．between 2 syll．The species vary in the 2 d ft ．or $3 d$ place．
1．Simple Vactra．
L．or Br．＋M．\＆zc．（except Tr．\＆A．and，in the even verse，C）$+\mathrm{B},+\mathrm{L}$ ．or Br ． Therefore 1st 4th \＆8th syll．either long or short． 5 th shot．6ih \＆ 7 th long． Either 2d or 3 d long．
Variations of the 1 st verse 24 ； of the 2 d 20 ．
2．Pat＇hyá．
1st verse as above；2d with Sc．for 2d ft．Hence 7th syll．short．
3．Viparita pat＇hya．
The preceding transposed．

4．Chapala．
1st verse with Tr．for 2 d ft． Therefore 6th \＆7th syll． short．
5．Vipula．
2 d verse（some say 1st， others all）with 7th syll． short．Therefore 2 dft ．D．Sc． H．or Tr．
5 or 7 species ：Bha－vipula． 1st verse（some say either） with D．for 2 d ft ．Ra－vipu－ la，with C．for 2 dt ．Navi－ pula， 2 d ft ．Tr．Ta－vipula， $2 \mathrm{~d} \mathrm{ft} . \mathrm{H} . \mathrm{Ma}_{\mathrm{-v}} \mathrm{vipuia}$ ， 2 d ft. M．Ya－ripula，sd ft．B．Jti－ vipitla，2d ft．Sc．
No instance occurs with an anaplast for the 2 d ft ．or 3 d place．
V. Aishara chillandas or Varn'a vritta. Metre regzilated by mumber and quanlity.
Regular or uniform metre; the stanza being composed of equal and similar verses. From one to five syllables in the verse, or from forr to twenty in the stanza.
I. Uctá or Uct'ha. 1

$$
\lambda_{4}=4 .
$$

1. Sri, g. =L. 2Mahi, $1 .=\mathrm{Br}$. II. Атyuctá $.2 \times 4=8$.
2. Stri, or Cama, 2 g. $=$ S. 2 .

Rati, or Mahi, l. g. =l. 3 S:ru, g. l. = T. 4. Madhu, Pr. Muhu, 2\%. = P .
III. Madhyá $3 \times 4=12$.

1. Nari, or Tali, $n$. $=$ M. 2 Sas i, Pr. Sasi, y.=B. 3. Priya, Pr. Pia; or Mrigi, $r$. $=$ C. 4. Ramani, or Raman'a, s. $=$ A. 5 . Panchala, or Panchala, $t=\mathrm{H}$. 6. Mrigendra, Pr. Mainda, j. = Sc. 7. Mandara, bh. $=$ D. . Camali, oд Camala, $n=$ Tr.
IV. Pratishi'há $4 x$ $4=16$.
2. Canya, or Tirna, Pr. Tin$n a, m . g .=2$ S. 2. Ghari, or Itarica, $r$. l. $=2$ T. 3. Nagalica; Lagalica, Nagani, or Naganica, Pr. Magania, or Nagani, $j$. $g^{\prime}=2$ I. 4. Sati, n. g. =P.I.
V. Supratisht" $\mathrm{ha}^{\prime} 5$ $\times 4=20$.

1 Pancti, Acsharapancti, or Hansa, bh. 2. g: = 1). S. 2. Sammoha, m. 2 g. $=$ M. S. 3. Haritabandha, or Hari, $2 g . l$. 2 g. or $t .2$ g. =S. B. 4. Priya, 2 1.r. $=$ A. I. 5. Yamaca, Pr. Jamaca, n. 2 l. = P. Tr.

From six to twenty-six syllables in the Verse.

## 1. Gay yatri. $6 \times 4=24$.

1. Tanumad'hya, $t y,=$ SPS. 2. Vidyullecha, or Sesha, Pr. Sesa, 2 m. = 3 S. 3.Sasivadana, or Chauransa, $n y=2$ P S. 4. Vasumati, $t$ s $=$ S PI. 5. Vasita, or Tilaca, Pr. Dilla, $2 s=$ 2 A. 6. Yodba, or Dwiyod'hi, Pr. Vijoha, 2 r. =TS I. 7. Chasarausa, Pr. Chauvansa, $n u=2$ PS. \&, Manthana, or Camavatara, (half of the Saranga), 2 $\Delta=$ SIT. 9. Sanc' kanari or

Somaraji, (half of the Bhujangaprayata), $2 y=1$ TS. 10. Malati, Sumalati, Vasanta, or Caminicanta, $2 j=1 \mathrm{PT}$. 11. Danamaca, $2 n=3 \mathrm{P}$.

## II. Ushnik $7 \times 4=28$.

1. Cumaralatita, $(2+5) j s \varepsilon$ $=1+$ Tr.s. 2. Madalech'a, $\mathrm{ms}_{3}=\mathrm{SD}$ S. 3. Hansamala, $s_{g}=$ ATS. 4. Mad'humati, $2 n g \neq 2 \mathrm{P}$ A. 5. Sumanica. $r g l=2$ TC. 6. Suvasa, $n j l$ $=2$ PD. 7. Carahancha, ifs $l$
$=2$ P Sc．8．Sirsha，Pr．Sisu， $2 m g=2 \mathrm{SM}$ ．
III．Anushtueh $8 \times 4$ $=32$ ．

1．Chitrapada， 2 bh． $2 \mathrm{~g}=2$ D S．2．Vidyunmala，Pr，Bij－ jumala，$(4 \dagger 4 \ddagger) 2 m 2 g=2$ S＋2 S．3．Manavaca，or Ma－ navacrida，$(4+4 \dagger)$ bh．t $l g=$ TI＋T I．4．Hansaruta，$u \ell n$ $2 g=$ S D B．5．Pramanica， Nagaswaropini，or Matallica，$j r$ $l g=4$ I．6．Samanica，or Mal－ lica，$r j g l=4 \mathrm{~T}$ ．7．Vitana， $j t 2 g=2$ ITS．8．Tunga， 2 $\pi 2 g=3$ PS．9．Camalia， $2 l$ $\pi r .=2$ P 2 I．10．Hansapadi， $2 g \mathrm{~ms}=2 \mathrm{ST}$ T．11．Matan－ gi，$m 2 l m=\mathrm{S}$ TIS． 12. Kambha，$n l g m=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{~S}$ ．

IV．Vrihati $9 \times 4=36$ ．
1．Halamuc＇hi，$(3+6), r n s$
$=\mathrm{C}+2$ PI．2．Bhujagasi－ susrita，$(7+2), 2 n m=2 \mathrm{P}$ A + S．3．Bhadrica，$r n r=2$ T A I．4．Mahalacshmi， $3 r=$ I＇S B I．5．Sarangi，or Sarngi． $n y s=2$ P S A．6．Pavitra，Pr． Payitta，mbh．s．$=2$ S PA． 7. Camala， $2 n s=3 \mathrm{PA} .8$. Bimba，$n s y=\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{Tr}$ ．T＇S． 9. Tomara，si〕 $=$ A IPT． 10. Rupamali，$r m=3 \mathrm{SM}$ ，$\quad 11$ ． Manimad＇hya or Maniband＇ha， bh．rs＝D 2 ＇TI．12．Bhu－ jangasangata，$s j r=A 3 I$ ．

## V．Pancti $10 \times 4=40$ ．

1．Sudd＇haviraj，$m$ s $j_{g}=S$ T 3 I．2．Panava，$(5 \div 5), m$ $y g=\mathrm{SD}+\mathrm{AS}$ ．or mnjg＝ $\mathrm{S} D+\mathrm{A}$ I．3．Mayurasarini，$r$ jr $g=4$ TS．4．Matta，（4＋ 6），$m b / 2 .{ }^{5}{ }_{g}=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PS} .5$. Uprast＇hita，$(2+8) t 2 j g=8+$ 2 A I．6．Rucmavati or Champa－ camala $(5+5 \S) . b / h . m \mathrm{~g} g \mathrm{D}$ S + DS．7．Manorama，$n$ rjg：二P

11．8．Sanynnta，P．Sminjuta，s 2 $j g=P 2 T 2$ i．Saravati， 3 bl。 $s=2$ DT I．in．ni hama，$t y$ b／h $g=S$ A SA．11．Anmila－ mati．or Amritagati，$n j n g=\mathrm{P}$ APA．12．Hansi，$(4+6), m$ bh．$m g=2$ S＇「r．S．13．Cha－ rumuchi，$n$ y bh．$g=\mathrm{P}$ ASA． 14．Chandramuc＇hi，t in bh．$g=$ SP2A．

VI．Trishtubh $11 x$ $=14$ ．

1．Indravajrá， 2 t $j 2 g=\mathrm{SI}$ DTS．2．Ui：endravajia，$j t j 2$ $g=2$ IDTS．3．Upajáti，or Ac＇hyánaci，（ 14 species．）The ta゙o foregoing intermixed．4．Dod＇－ haca，Band＇hu or Nilaswarupa， 3 bh． $2 g=3$ DS．5．Salini， $(-1+7+), m 2 i 2 g=2 S+C$ T＇S．6．Vatormi，$(4+7 \dagger), m$ b／2．t $2 \mathrm{~g}=2 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{ATS} .7$. Bhamaravilasita，$(4+7 \dagger)$ ，m b．$n l g=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PA} 8$. IMt＇hod＇dhata，，$r n r l g=2 \mathrm{~T}$ A 2 1．9．Swagata，r $n$ bh． 2 g $=2 \mathrm{~T}$ A P S．10．Vrinta or Vritta，$(4+7 \dagger), 2 n s 2 \xi=3$ PAS．11．Syenica，or Srenica， rjrlg $=4$ T＇C．12．Sumuchi， $\left(5+0{ }_{+}^{+}\right), n 2 j l_{g}=\mathrm{PA}+2 \mathrm{~A}$ ． 13．Bhadrica， $2 n r \lg =2 \mathrm{PA} 2$ 1．14．Maucticamala，Sri，Anu－ cula or Cudmaladanti，$(5+6)$ ， bh． $122 \mathrm{~g}=\mathrm{DS}+2 \mathrm{PS}$ ． 15. Upasthita，$j$ st $2 g=1 \mathrm{Tr}$ ．STS． 16．Upachitra or Viseshica， 3 sl $g=3$ AI．17．Cupurushajanio， ta， $2 n r 2 \mathrm{~g}=2 \mathrm{PA} \mathrm{S} .18$. Anavasita，$n y b h .2 g=2 \mathrm{PS}$ 1）S．19．Mot＇anaca，$t 2 j l g$ ＝S 3 A．20．Malatimala， 3 m $2 g=4 S \mathrm{M} .21$ ．Damanaca， $r n l g=4 \mathrm{P}$ A．22．Madand＇ina， $m s j 2 g=\mathrm{S} 2 \mathrm{I} \mathrm{S}$ ．

VII．Jagatí $12 \times 4=48$ ．
1．Vansas＇tha or Vans＇ast＇ha－ vila，$j t j r=2$ IT 3 I．2．In－ Hlı 3
dravans'a, 2 t $j r=$ SIT 3 I. 3. Upajati, the two foregoing intermixed. 4. Totaca, $4 s=4 \Lambda$. 5. Drutavilambita, $n 2 b h r=$ PI 2 A I. 6. S'triputa or Puta, $(8+4), 2 \pi m y=3 \mathrm{PS}+\mathrm{T}$ S. 7. Jalodd'hatagati, $(6+6)$, jsjs $=1 \mathrm{PI}+$ IPI. S: Tata or Lalita, $2 n m r=3$ P 2 S I. 9. Cusumavichitra, $(6+6)$, $\pi y n y=2 \mathrm{PS}+2 \mathrm{PS} .10$. Chanchala' cshica, Pramudvitavadana, Mandacini, Gauri or Prabha, $(7+5), 2 n 2 r=2 ? A+$ BI. 11. Bhujangaprayata, $4 y$ = I TS i TS. 12. Sragvini or Lacshmid'hara, $4 r=$ TSITS T. 13. Pramitacshara, sj $25=$ A Sc. 2 A. 14. Cantotpada or Jaladharamala, $(4+8), m$ bh. s $m=28+2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{~S}$ or bh. ms s =D S D 2 S. 15. Vais' wadevi, $(5+7), 2 m 2 y=M S+T S$ B. 16. Navamalini, $(8+4)$, $n j b h . y=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{~T}+\mathrm{PS} .17$. Chandravartma, $(4+8 \ddagger), r n$ bh. $s=2 \mathrm{~T}+\mathrm{I} \mathrm{D}$ A. 18. Priyambada, $n$ bh. $j r=\mathrm{P}$ IP3I. 19. Man'mala, $(6+6), t$ ? $t$ ? $=\mathrm{SPS}+\mathrm{SPS}$. 20. Lalita, $t$ bh. $j r=S 1 P 3 \mathrm{I}$. 21. Uijwali, 2 nbh. r. = 3 P'I 2I. 22. MaIati or Varatanu, $(5+7), n 2 j$ $\dot{r}=\mathrm{P} \mathrm{A}+\mathrm{A} 2.1$. 23. Tamarasa or Lalitapada, $n 2 j y=2$ P 2 D S. 24. Lalana, $(5+7)$ bh. $m 2 s$ $=\mathrm{D} \mathrm{S}+\mathrm{D} \mathrm{T}$ l or b/h. $t n \mathrm{~s}=\mathrm{D}$ $\mathrm{S}+2 \mathrm{P}$ A. 25. Drutapada, $n$ $b h . n y=$ P I 3 P S. 26. Vidyad'hara, $(4+8), 4 m=2 \mathrm{~S}+4$ S. 27. Saranga, $4 t=$ SITS I T. 28. Maucticadama, $4 j=1$ PT I P T. 29. Modaca, $4 \mathrm{~b} / \mathrm{h}$. $=4 \mathrm{D} .30$. Taralanayani, $4 n$ $=6 \mathrm{P}$.
VIII. Atijagati, $13 \times$ $4=52$.

1. Praharshini, $(3+10 j m m j$
$r g=\mathrm{M}+2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{TS}$. 2. Ruchira, or Atiruchira, $(4+9), j b h$. s.jg = $2 \mathrm{I}+2 \mathrm{P}$ TC. 3. Mattamayura, or Maya, $(4+9) m$ $t y s g=2$ S + TIDS. 4. Gauri, $2 n 2 r g=3$ PTSB. 5. Manjubhashin'i, Prabod'hita, Sunandini, or Canacaprabha $s j$ j $j g=$ $\mathrm{A} \mathrm{I}+\mathrm{P} 3 \mathrm{I}$. 6. Ch ndrica, Cshama. Utpalini, or Cut'ilagati, $(7+6) 2 n 2 t g=P A+T S$ 1. 7. Calahansa, Chitravati, or Sinhanada, $s . j 2$ s $g=\mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{~T} \mathrm{P}$ DS. 8. Chancharicarali, y $m 2$ $r g=12$ S C TS. 9. Chandralec'ha, $(6+7)$ n 5 ryg $=2$ PI + 2 TM. 10 . Vidyut, ( 6 $+7) n s 2 \operatorname{tg}=2 \mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{SI}$ C. 11. Mrigendramuc'ha, $n 2 j$ $r g=$ PAP 2 TS. 12. Taraca, $4 \mathrm{sg}=3 \mathrm{~A}$ P.S. 13. Calacanda, or Canda $4 y l=\mathrm{B} I T$ S I T'. 14. Pancajavali, or Pancavali, bhe u2jl=D2P2D. 15. Cdandi, $2 \mu 2 \mathrm{sg}=4 \mathrm{PD}$ S. 16. Prabhavati, $(4+9)$ th.s. . $g=S 1+2$ PTC.
IX. Saccart, $14 \times 4$ $=56$.
2. Asambad'ha, $(5+9)$ int $n$ s $2 g=\mathrm{MS}+2$ P A S. 2. Aparajita, $(7+7) 2 n r \operatorname{sig}=$ $2 \mathrm{PA}+1 \mathrm{AI}$ or $\operatorname{cnc} \operatorname{slg}=$ PTAIAI. 3. Praharanacalita, or Calica, $(7+7) 2 n$ bh.nlg二 $2 \mathrm{PA}+2 \mathrm{PA}$. 4. Vasantatilaca, Sinhonnata. Udd'harshin'i, Mad'humad'havi. or Sobhavati, tbl.2.j2g=SIPIPTS. 5. Lola, or Alola, $(7+7) \mathrm{m} s \mathrm{mbh}$. $2 g=$ S D S + S D S. 6. Induvaidana, or Varasundari, b/2, j s $n$ $2 g=$ TPTPTPS. 7. Nadi, $(7+7) 2 n t j 2 g=2 \mathrm{PA}+$ 1) T s. s. lacishmi, in s the $2 g=$ SDSTDS. 9. Supavitra, $(8+6) 4 n 2 g=4 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{P}$ S 10. Madbyacshama, $(4+.10)$ or

Cutila，$(4+6+4)$ nx bh．$n y 2$ $g=2 \mathrm{~S}+3 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{~S}$ ．11．I＇rama－ da，njbh．$j_{g}=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{TPTI}$ ． 12．Manjari， $1.5+0)$ s．is $y l \mathrm{~g}=$ P2TPTS 1．13．Cumari，（S ＋6）$n$ jbh．${ }^{2} 2{ }_{s}=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{TP}$ TS．14．Sucesata，urnrlg＝ P2IP3I．15．TYasánti，$m t n m$ $2 g=2$ SDA 2S．16．Nandi－ muchi，$(7+7) 2 \pi 2 t 2 \mathrm{~g}=3$ P S IT S．17．Clacra，or Cha－ crapata， 4 h． $3 \mathrm{nlg}=\mathrm{T} 5$ P I． 18. Lilopavati， $14+10,4 \mathrm{~m} 2 \mathrm{~g}=$ $2 \mathrm{~S}+5 \mathrm{~S}$ ．19．Nat＇agati， $4 \pi 2$ $g=6 \mathrm{P}+\mathrm{S} . \quad 20$ ．欠ojuvat，b／h．$m$ st $\mathrm{lg}=\mathrm{D}$ S DSTI．

X．Atisaccarí， $15 \times$ $4=60$ ．

1．Chandrávartá，$\left(7+8+8^{+} 4 n s=\right.$ $2 \mathrm{PIr}+$ PTr．A．2．Málá，or Sraj． $(6+9) 4 u s=2 \mathrm{Tr} .+2 \mathrm{Tr}$. A．3．Manigunanicara，$(8+$ 7） $4 \mathrm{~ns}=4 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{P}$ A． 4 ． Máliní，ur Nan＇dímuc＇hí，（S $+7 / 2 \pi m^{2} y=3 \mathrm{PS}+\mathrm{C} \mathrm{\Gamma}$ S．5．Chandralec＇há，$(7+8)$ $m r m 2 y=2 \mathrm{SB}+\mathrm{SIT}$ S． 6．Cámacri’dá，Lilach＇hela，or Sárangicá and Sarangaca， 5 mz 6 S N．7．Prabhadraca，or Sub－ hadraca and Sucesara，$(7+8)$ njbír．jr $=2$ P O＋P 3 I． 8. Elá．$(5+10)$ s j $2 n, y=A$ I +4 I T．9．Upamálini，（ $\mathrm{S}+$万） $2 n t b h . r=3 \mathrm{P} \mathrm{T}+\mathrm{SAI}$ ， 10．Vipinatilaca，$n$ s $n 2 r=2$ PITr．TS I．11．Chitra， 3 m $2 y=3 \mathrm{SMITS}$ ．12．＇un－ aca，or Chamara，（8 L 7 Br ．＝ 23 c．）$=6$ T C．13．Bhramara－ vali， $5 s=5 \mathrm{~A} .14$. Dimahansa， s2jbh．r二A 1 P 2 T 21.15. S arabha，or S＇as icala， $4 n+s=$ 6 P A．16．Nisipala，b／2．is $n r$ ＝D 1 PIP 2 I．17．Utsara，$r n$ 2 b ． $\mathrm{r}=2 \mathrm{~T} 3 \mathrm{~A} .18$ ．Hansa， $(8+7) n 2 j r y=2 \mathrm{PD} 3 \mathrm{~T}$.

XI．Ashti， $16 \times 4=64$ ．
1．Rishabitugujavilasua，or（rat－
 $\left.\mathrm{s}^{\mathrm{s}}=\mathrm{D}\right) 2 \mathrm{~T}+3 \mathrm{P}$ ． 2 ．Van＇． ini，n！ibhojrg＝2P2TP2 İs． 3．Chitra，Chitrasanga，Atısun－ dara or Chanchali．（douine Sa－ manica）rjr．jrl＝8 T．4．Pan－ chachamara，Naracha or Nara－ cha，（double Pramínica），$j r j r$ $j g=s \mathrm{~T} .5$ Daimalita，bh．rn $r n g=\mathrm{D} 2$ 1＇P 2 T A．6．Cha－ gatı，Nila，Lila or Aswagati， 5 bh．$g=4$ D TI．7，Chacita（8 $+8) b \% . s m t n g=\mathrm{DAS}+\mathrm{S} \mathrm{D}$ A．8．Madanalalita，$(4+6+6)$ $m b r a . n m n g=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{SPI}$ ． 9．Pravaralalita，$m$ n s $r$ 行 2 S 2 PITs．10．Garudaruta，nj b／u． jtg＝2 P2 TP＇I＇sI．11．Sái－ las＇ticha，（ 16 on $5+6+5$ ）bh．r $n 2$ bh．$g=\mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{~T} 3 \mathrm{~A}$ or $\mathrm{D} \mathrm{T}+\mathrm{T}$ $\mathrm{P} \mathrm{T}+1 \mathrm{~A} .12$ ．Varayuvati，bh． ry $2 \pi g=\mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{TS} 2 \mathrm{PA} .13$. Brahmerupaca，（double Vidyun－ malu，） $5 \mathrm{~m} q=8 \mathrm{~S}$ ． 14 Achalad－ hrita，or Gityarya， $5 n l=8 \mathrm{P}$ ． 15．Pinanilamba，$(4+5+7) m t$ ， $\mathrm{ms} s=2 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{D}$ S トS DS． 16 ． Tauvanamatta，$(5+11) 6 / .3 \mathrm{~ms}$ $g=D s+3 \mathrm{sD} \mathrm{s}$ ．

XII．Atyashiti，17x $4=6 \mathrm{~s}$ ．

1．Sic＇harin＇i，$(6+11) y m \mathrm{~ms}$ bh． $\mathrm{lg} \mathrm{g}=\mathrm{I} 2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PIDI} 2.$. Prichwi，$(5+9) j$ sjs $\because l g=I$ P21＋Tr．＇T＇s 1．3．Vans＇apa－ trapatita，or Vansapatra，（ $10+$ 7）bh．$n$ nbh．$n l g=\mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{TA}+2$ PA．4．Harin＇,$(6+4+7$ or $4 \vdash \gamma$ ）us $n \mathrm{r} \operatorname{sl} \mathrm{g}=2 \mathrm{PI}+2 \mathrm{~S}$ ＋IAI．5．Mandacranta，$(4+6$
 ＋C T S．6．Nalcut＇aca，or Nardat aca（ $7+10$ ，on dvitat＇ha （17 †），u．jbh．2．jlg＝Tr． $21+$ Tr．TIA．7．Cocilaca，$(7+6$ Hh 4
$+4 \pm$ or $8+5+4 t=\mathrm{Tr} .21+$ P I P＋TI．8．Hari，（6＋4＋7） $2 n m r s l g=3 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{I} \mathrm{AI}$ ． 9．Canta，or Cranta，$(4+6+7) y$
 10．Chitralec＇ha，or Atisayani， $(10+7) 2$ sjbh．j2g＝2A2I + Tr．TS．11．Malad＇hara，or Vanamalad＇hara，nsjsylg＝2 P21Tr．TSI．12．Harini，（4 $+6+7) m b h \cdot n m y l g=2 S+2$ $\mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{SBI}$ ．

XIII．Dhriti， $18 \times 4=$ 82.

1．Cusumitalata vellita，$(5+6$ ＋7）$m t n 3 y=\mathrm{MS}+2 \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{C}$ TS．2．Mahamalica，Naracha， Lata，Vanamala，$(10+8+) 2 n$ $4 r=3$ PTS ITTSI．3．Sud＇－ ha，$(6+6+6)$ y musts $=12 \mathrm{~S}$ +2 PItSPI．4．Harinapluta， $(8+5+5)$ m $2 \mathrm{~s} 2 j b \mathrm{~b} . \mathrm{r}=5 \mathrm{~T} 2 \mathrm{I}$ ＋AI＋AI．5．Aswagati， 5 b\％． $s=5$ D A．6．Chitralec＇ha，（4＋ $7+7) m 2 n 2 t m=\mathrm{ST}+\mathrm{PTr}$ ． S＋ITM．7．Bbramarapada， bh． $13 n m=D 2 \mathrm{~T} 3 \mathrm{PAS} .8$. Sardulalalita，$(12+6) \mathrm{msj}$ sts二与D2TA＋S！1．9．sat－ dula，$(12+6 j$ m sis $r m=S \mathrm{D} 2$ TA＋T2 S．10．Cesara，（417 ＋7）$m b \hbar . n y 2 r=2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PA}$ ＋SIC．11．Nandana，（11＋ 7）$n j 6 h . j 2 r=2$ PTDI +21 C．12．Chitrasala，Chitralec＇ha， $(\therefore+7+7) m$ br．n $3 y=2 S+2$ FA＋CTS．13．Chata， 417 ＋7）$m 3$ ．$n$ ihh．$r=25+2 \mathrm{PA}$ ＋IAJ． 14 Vivud＇hapr：ya，$(8+$ $\left.10{ }^{+}\right) r: 2 j$ bír．$r=2 \mathrm{~T} 2 \mathrm{I}+$ P2T2 1．15．Manjia． 2 m th． m $s$ m＝3 SDSD 2 S． 16 ．Crid－ achandre， $6 y=1$ TPITPITP． 17．Gharchari，rs 2．jh．$r=-\mathrm{TD}$ 1D 2 T2

XIV．Atidheiri，Igy $4=76$ ．

1．Sardulavicricita，or Sardula，
$(12+7) m s j s 2 t g=\mathrm{SD} 2 \mathrm{~T}$ $\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{SIC}$ ．2．Meg＇havisp＇hur－ jita，or Vismitra，$(6+6+7) y$. $n s 2 r g=12 S+2 \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{CTS}$ ． 3．Panchachamara， $2 n=$ alter－ nate $\mathrm{g} l=\mathrm{Tr}$ P 7 I．4．Pushpa－ dama，$(5+7+7) m t n: 2 r g=$ $\mathrm{MS}+2 \mathrm{PA}+\mathrm{CTS}$ ．5．Bimba， $(5+7+7) m$ tns $2 t g=\mathrm{MS}+2$ PA＋HSI．6．Ch＇haya，$(6+6$ +7 or $12+7) y m n$ sha．t $g=1$ $2 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{DSI}$ ．7．Maca－ randica，$(6+6+7) y$ m ns $2 . j g$ $=12 S+2$ PItIAI．8．Sa－ mudratata，$(8+4+7) j$ sj stbh． $g=I \mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{i}+\mathrm{PI}+\mathrm{SIA}$ ．9．Su－ rasa，$(7+7+5) m r b h . n y n g$ $=M T S+2 P A+D 1.10$. Manimanjari，y bh．ny $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{j}} \mathrm{g}=$ ！ S2PA2T2I． 11 Chandra－ mala，or Chandra，$(10+9) 3 n j$ $2 n l=5 \mathrm{P}+\mathrm{D} 3 \mathrm{P}$ ．12．Dha． valanca，or Dhavala， $6 n g=8$ P A．13．Sambhu，$(7+0+6) s t$ $y b h .2 \mathrm{~m} g=\mathrm{ASASS} 3 \mathrm{~S}$ ．

XV．Criti， $20 \times 4=80^{\circ}$
1．Suvadana，$(7+7+6) m r 6 / h^{\circ}$ $n y b h . l g_{g}=2 S \mathrm{~B}+2 \mathrm{PA}+\mathrm{SPI}$ ． 2．Vritto，or Gandaca，$r$ ． $\boldsymbol{r}$ ．$r^{r} j$ gl＝10T．3．Solha，$(6+7+$ 7） $4 m 2 n 2 t 2 g=12 \mathrm{~S}+2 \mathrm{PA}$ + TSB．4．Gitica，or Gita，s $2 j b / 2 \cdot r \operatorname{slg}=\mathrm{AIP} 2 \mathrm{~T} 2 \mathrm{IAI}$ ．

XVI．Pracríti， $21 \times$ $4=84$.

1．Sragdhará，$(7+7+7)^{n t}$ $r$ 立h．$n 3 . y=2$ S B＋ $2 \mathrm{P} \mathrm{A}+$ T S B．2．Salilanidhi，Sarasi， Sidd＇laca，Sasivadana or Dhri－ tasri，n．jóh．今，jr＝2PTD If－2 A 2 I．3．Narendra，bh． $2 n$ 2 ！！二 D 2 T 3 P 2 D ．

XVII．A＇Criti， $22 \times 4$ $=\S 8$ ．

1 Bhacraca，$(10+12)$ bh．rn r 7 rr $g=\mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{~T} \mathrm{~A}+1 \mathrm{Tr} .2 \mathrm{~T} A$ ． 2．Madira，or Lâlita， $76 \%$ g

DTI．3．Hansi，$(8+14) 2 m 2$ g $4 n^{2} \mathrm{~g}=4 \mathrm{~S}+6 \mathrm{P} \mathrm{S}$ ．

XVIII．Vicriti， $23 \times 4$ $=92$ ．

1．As＇walalita，or Adritanaya， $(11+12)$ n．jbh．j b／h．；bh．lg＝ 2 PT1）I＋Tr．T D I． 2. Mattacrida，，or Vajivahana， $18+$ 15） $2 m t 4 n l g=4 \mathrm{~S}+\mathrm{PA} .3$. Sundari，$(7+6+10) 2$ sbh．s $t$ $2 j=\mathrm{APS}+2 \mathrm{PS}+2 \mathrm{D} .4$. Ma lati，or Madamatta， 7 bh． 2 g $=7 \mathrm{D} . \quad 5$. Chitrapada， 7 bh．l三万D I．Mallica， 7 j $\mathrm{lg}=1 \mathrm{P}$ Г IP TIPTIA．

XIX．SANCRITI， $24 \times 4$ $=96$ ．

1．Tanwi，$(5+7+12+12) b h$. t $n$ s 2 bh．$n y=\mathrm{D}$ S＋2 P A＋2

D 2PS．2．Durmila， 8 s $=\mathrm{s}$ A． 3．Cirita， $86 \%=8$ D．4．Jana－ ci， $8 r=T S I T S I T S l I S I$ ． 5．Madha＇vica＇， $7 j_{y}=$ IP＇LIPT IPTIPS．

XX．Aticriti， $25 \times 4$ $=100$ ．

1．Craunchpada，$(5+5+8+$ 7）bh．$m$ s óh． $4 n g=\mathrm{D} \mathrm{S}+\mathrm{D} \mathrm{S}$ $+4 \mathrm{P}+2 \mathrm{PA}$ ．2．S＇ambhu， s $m g=11 \mathrm{SM}$ ．

XXI．UTCRITI $26 \times 4=$ 104.

1．Rhujangavijrimbhita，$(s+$ $11+7) 2 m t 3 \mathrm{mrs} \lg =4 \mathrm{~S}+$ $4 \mathrm{PA}+\mathrm{IA} .2$ ．Apavaha，（9 $+6+6+5) m 0 n s 2 g=S D 2$ $\mathrm{P}+3 \mathrm{P}+3 \mathrm{P}+\mathbf{A} \mathrm{S}$ ．3．Gauri， $8 n 2 g=13 \mathrm{~S}$ 。

## Erom 27 to 909 syllables in the verse．

Dan＇daca， $27 \times 4=108$ to 999 $\times 4=3996$.
1．Chan＇darishtiprayata， $2 n 7$ $r=2$ Tr． 6 C．

2．Pracbita， $2 n$ S \＆ic．r．
325 species from 9 to 333 feet viz．2d Arna， 2 n8 r．3d Arn－ ava， $2 n 9 \mathrm{r} . \quad 4$ th Vyala， 2 ＂ 10 $r$ ．5th Jimuta， $2 n 11 r$ \＆ic．
Or 3．Prachita， Pn $_{7}$ \＆c．$y=2$
＇Ir． 7 \＆c．B．

4．Mattamatangalilacara， $9 \& \mathrm{c}, r$ $=9 \& \mathrm{c} . \mathrm{C}$ ．
5．Sinhavicranta， $2 n 10 \& c . r$ ．
6．Cusumastavaca， 9 \＆c．$s=9$ \＆c．A．
7．Anangasec＇hara，$l_{g} \lg$ \＆ic．$=$ 15 \＆c．I．
S．Asocamanjari，r j \＆c．$=15$ \＆c．T．
Alfo S．．lura， 2 g $8 \pi s=\mathrm{S} 12$ PA．

VI．Half equal Metre；the stanza being composed of equal and similar couplets；but the couplets，of dissimilar verses．

1．Upachitra，（Upajati + Tiz－ marasa）．1st 3 verse 3 slg $=3$ A I．2d 3 bl． $2 g=3 \mathrm{D} \mathrm{S}$ ．

2．Drutamad＇hya，（Dod＇haca + Tamaraic）．1st 3 b／h． $2 g=3 \mathrm{D}$ S．2du2 $y=2 \mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{D}$ S．

3．Veçavati，（Upachitra－pe－ nult Br ．in 1st verse）．1st 3 s g $=\approx A P S . \quad 2 d 3 b h .9 g=2 \mathrm{D}$ ．

4．Bhadraviraj（species of Au－
 2 TS．2dmsj2g＝SD2T ．．

## 474 ON SANSCRIT AND PRACRIT POETRY．

5．Cetumati．1st sJ so A I Tr．S．2d＇biv．r $n 2 g=$ T． 2 I Tr．S．

6．Ac’hyanaci Upajati viz． alternate Indrazajra and Upen－ dravajra；some say，one verse Indrazajra three Upandravajra．） 1 st（and 3d） $2 t j 2^{\prime} g=S I D T S$ ． 2d（and 4th some say 3d）$j t j t$ $2 g=2$ IDTS．
t．Viparitacebyanaci the con－ verse of the preciding．）Ist．jt $j^{2}$ $\mathrm{g}=2 \mathrm{ID}$ T S． $2 \mathrm{l} 2 t j 2 \mathrm{~s}=\mathrm{SI}$ DTS．

8．Harin＇aplutá（Drutavilam－ bita－one syllable） $1 \mathrm{st} 3 \mathrm{~s} / \mathrm{g}=$ 3 AI．2d $n 2 b \% r=$ PI 2 AI．

9．Aparavantra（species of l＇aitályya：or Bhadrica + Maílati）． $15 t 2 n r l g=2 \mathrm{PA} 21.2 \mathrm{~d}$ $n 2 j r=\mathrm{P} 2 \mathrm{~A} 2$ I．

10．Pushpitágrá（species of Aupachihandaric．a）．1st $2 n r y$二 3 P2TS．－2dn2jrg二 2 PD 2 TS．

11．Yavamatí．1st rirj＝ $6 \mathrm{~T} .2 \mathrm{~d} j$ rij $g=5 \mathrm{I}$ i3．

12．S＇ic＇lá．1st $28 \quad \mathrm{~g}=7$ Tr．${ }^{\prime}$ I．

13．Chanjá．1st $30^{\circ} l g=7$ Tr．P． $2 \mathrm{~d} 28 l \mathrm{~g}=7$ Tr．P．2d $28 \mathrm{lg}=7$ Tr． 1.

14．Lal tá．1st $r \operatorname{sl} g=2 \mathrm{~T}$ 2 I． $2 \mathrm{~d} s n . j_{g}=\mathrm{A}$ Tr． 2 I ．

15．Caumudí（Bhadricú + Chanchalácshicu）．1st 2 nrl है $=$ Tr．P3I． $2 \mathrm{~d} 2 n 2 r=3 \mathrm{P}$ TS I ．

16．Manjusaurabha（Málaız + NIanjubbáshini）．1st $n 2 j$ r $=2 \mathrm{PT} 3 \mathrm{I} .2 \mathrm{dsj} \mathrm{s}_{\mathrm{g}}=\mathrm{AI}$ P31．

VII．Uneqzal Metre；the stanzo being composeil of dissimilar verses．

1．Udgala，ist vere s is $l=$ A I Tr．T． $2 \mathrm{~d} \pi s j g=$ Tr．A 2 I．3d bh．$r j \lg =\mathrm{I}$ Ir． 2 A ． 4th sjsjg＝A I P 3 I． 2 varieties：viz．Saurchihaca，3d verse $r u b h . g=\mathrm{T} D 2 \mathrm{~A} . L_{a}$－ lita，3d verse $2 n 2 s=2$ Tr． 2 A ．

2．Upast＇hitaprachupita， 1 st verse m sjbh． $2 g=S \mathrm{D} 2 \mathrm{TDS}$ ． 2dsnjrg＝A2PT心．3d2ns $=\mathrm{P}$ A．4th $3 n, j=5 \mathrm{l}$＇D S ． 2 varicties：viz．Bard＇hmin $n a$ ， 3d verse 2 ns 2 ns $=3$ PA． 3 P A Sudd＇havira＇lrishabha，3d
verse t．jr $=\leqslant .12 \mathrm{I}$.
3．Padachaterefdiha，in creasing in arithmetical juogres， sion from $S$ to 20 syll．viz．1st verse 8 ，2d $12,3 \mathrm{~d} 10$ ， 4 th 20. 6 species：viz．Apida，End in S iest Br．Pratyápida，Begin with S orbegin and end with S．Man－ jari or Colicá， 1 st and 2 d verses transposed $12+s+16+20$ ．
 $+12+8$－20．Amritad｀húró， 1 st and dth trans：osed $20+12$ $+10+s$ ．

## VIII．Supplement，under the denomination of Ga＇tha＇．

1．Stanzas comprising four un－ equal verses，constituting a metre not described by writers on pro－ sody

2．Stanzas comprising more or fewer verses than four；viz．
three，five，six，\＆ic．
3．Any metre not specified by

## Pixgala．

4．Metre not specified by any urite：on prosody．

## VII.

Remarks upon the Authorities of Mosulmar Law*.

BY J.H. HARINGTON, ESQ.
THE basis of Mohummudan law, religious, civil, and criminal, is the Korán; believed to be of divine origin, and to have been revealed by an angel to MoHUMMUD ; who caused it to be written and pablished, from time to time, as occasion required, for the refutation of his opponents, or the instruction and guidance of his followers: though the hundred and fourteen Soowur, or chapters, which compose the Korim, were not digested, in their present form, until after the death of Mohummud: when they were collected by his immediate successor $A$ boo Bukr; and were afterwards, in the 30th year of the Hijrah, transcribed, collated, and promulgated, by order of the Khuleefah Othmánir.

The Korán being thus considered the writzen word of God, its texts, when clear and applicable, and not abrogated by other texts of subsequent revelation, are unquestionable and decisive. But, (as remarked by an eminent historian + ,) "In all religions the life of the founder supplies the silence of written revelation: the sayings of Mahommet were so many lessons of truth;

[^92]his actions so many examples of virtue; and the public and private memorials were preserved by his wives and companions." In fact, the ordinances of the Korán, in civil affairs are few and imperfect; and must have proved altogether inadequate to provide for the various objects of legislation, in a large and civilized community, without the aid of the Soonnut, or rule of conduct, deduced from the oral precepts, actions, and decisions, of the prophet. These were not committed to writing by Mohummud; but were collected after his death, by tradition, from his companions, (the Sahábulh;) their contemporaries, (Tiubiteen, literally, followers;) and successors (Tubâ-iolábiîen;) and the authentic traditions, which have been preserved in numerous compilations of Ahádces, (dicta, factaque; precepts and transactions;) Soomum, (instituta vila, exempla; rules of practice and examples;) orRizuayat, (relationes, reports;) constitute a second authority of Mosulman law; conclusive (if the authenticity and application of the traditions be admitted) in all cases not expressly determined by the wards of the Korán *.

[^93]The schisms and dissentions, however, which took place among the Mohummudans, after the demise of their legislator and fuunder, especially the contest of the succession to the Khilafut, or pontificate, which gave rise to the Shiya, or sectaries of Alee, have occafioned various differences and disagreements, both in reading and interpreting the words of the Koran, and in admitting or rejecting the traditions, which compose the oral law. There appear to be an error, or verbal inac-

[^94] Toorkistín. He is also surnamed Zyreer or Dhureer, from his blindness. His birth was A. H. 209; and his death in 279. His compilation is noticed by DHerbelot, under the title of Giame al Kebir; and is erroneously cited (apparently from D'Herbelot,) in Hamilos's Prelininary Discourse, page 36, as quoted in the Hidá$y a h$ : instead of the Jinua-i-Kubccr, on $f k-h$, or jurisprudence, by laam Mohemmud.
6. Jama-i Nisáee; called also Soomun-i Nisúuec. By Aboo-i abdoo Rahman abmud, of liza, a city of Khorasan. He was born A. H. 215; and died in the year 303. This collection is selected from a former compilation, by the same author, called the Soonun-iKoobra; and mentioned by D'Herbelot, under the title of Sonar Al Kebir.

The four works last mentioned, when cited collectively, bave the designation of Soonun-i-urba, or the four collects of traditions. The fhort notices, which have been gipen, of their compilers, and of the authors of the Sahechyn, are taken chichy from the Mitat-oolsaalum, an esteemed general history composed by Bukhtiyar Khan, if the reign of Aurungzeb. They are confirmed, with many other particulars, in the Miskika, a work of auti:ority on the traditions admitted by the Sooneer; and used, as a class bouk, in Mosulman Colleges, with the Sahceh-i Bokhatee, and Saheih-i Mooslinn. The author, Shyeb Walefopdees, Abuo Abvojllah, Mahmood, who finished his undertaking (to verily and illustrate the traditions conshined in a foriner compialat:on, called the drusabceho' soonnut, by Hosen bix-s musoo-ood, Fusaes) A. H. 737, states that the Mowutta of Malik bin Ans, (the founder of the second orthodox sect, who died A. H. 179) is, by sume rechmed one of the sixth authentic coilections, instead of tive Soontri-i Ibri Majzh. He add's that others are of opinion, the Derumife, compiled by Aboo Morcmmud Abdoollah of Sumherkurd, sumamed Dazumee, who was born A. H. 181, and died in 255 , sbonld be classed as the sixth authentic. But he lias himself giveil his p'uce to the comp lation of Monumud, the granduon of Majaw; and it is commorily placed third in the series, with reference to the supposed order of publication.
curacy, in the observation of the learned, and in general accurate, translator of the Korim, that "t the Sonnites receive the Sonna, or book of traditions of their prophet, as of canonical authority; whereas the Shites reject it as apocryphal, and unworthy of credit*." From this remark it might be inferred, that the Shiyd reject the traditions altogether; whereas they admit many which are not deemed authentic, and are consequently rejected, by the Sơonees. They have also their collections of Ahádees, and Süoman, which they deem genuine and authoritative $\dagger$. The difference between them, and the All-i-Soomnui, or othodox traditionists, who, as remarked by Mr. Hamilton, appea: to have assumed this title of distinction, "in opposition to the innovations of the sectaries $*, "$ lies, as far as respects the traditions, in the different autho-

* Sale's Prelininary Discourse, Section VIII.
$\dagger$ Moulavee Simaj oo'deen Alee (one of the law officers of the courts of Sudr bicewance and Nizamut Adalut, as well as of the Supreme Court, and empluyed by the late Sir W. Jones, to compile the Sheeah part of a Digest of Mosu!man Law, upon contracts and inheritance) states the Kooicob-i urba, or four books of traditions, held autientic by the Shiyg, 10 be the following:

1. Tahzeeb. 2. Istibsar. Both compiled by Aboo Jafur Mohumaun, of Tcos in Khorasan.
2. Jama-i Kufee. By Mohummud bin-i Yakoor. Of $R y$ in Persian Irak.
3. Mun la Yahzoorb ool-fukeeh. By Monummud-bin Alee, of Komm, also in Trak-i Ajum.

The third of these collections, which quotes the compiler of the two first, is said to have been presented 10 Imam Mahdee, who was born A. 11. 255. The author of the fourth compilation is stated in the Mujalisool-Momuncen, to have been contemporary with, and protected by, the Persian King Rokn-oo'doulah, who died, A. H. 306.
$\ddagger$ Preliminary Discourse to his translation of the Hidayah, page 22. His observation, at length, is " the Mussulmans, who assume to themselves rhe distinction of orthodox, are such as maintain the mostobvious interpretation of the Koran, and the obligatory force of the traditions, in opposition to the innovation of the sectaries; whence they are termed Soonis, or traditionists." This, however, is partly open to the same objection, as has been stated to the remark of Mr. Sale.
rities, which are admitted by the two sects for the Ahaarlees, received by them respectively. The Soonees allow traditionary credit to the Sahabak, or companions of their Prophet; especially to the most eminent amongst them, or those who had the longest and most familiar intercourse with Mohumaud ; and to the Khoolfa-i rashidenn, or the four Khuleefahs, who were the immediate successors of the Prophet ; and instructed by him in the principles, and tenets of his religion Also to several intelligent and learned men, who were contemporary with the companions and first Khuleefahs, and who are included in the general description of Tabiieen already mentioned; as well as to others, who succeeded these; (the Taba-i.-tabi-icen; ) and have verified their reports of traditions, by citing the names of the persons, through whom they were successively traced to their genuire source, the inspired Apostle of God *.

The Shiy'a, on the contrary, gave no authority, or credit, to the three first Khuleefuhs, Aвоо Bukr, Omer and Othma'n : nor to any other companions of Mohumaide, excepting such as were partisans of Alee. They extend therr faith and obedience, howcver, to the admission of all traditions of their Pro-

[^95]plet's sayings and actions, which they believe to have been verified by any one of the twelve Imámeeyah; as well as to the precepts and examples of those Imams themselves ; the whole of whom they venerate, as being the lineal descendants (through $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{A}^{\prime} \text { timah), and ac- }}$ cording to their tenets, the rightful successors, of Mohummud ; and the last of whom they believe to be still living, though invisible; it having been predicted of him, that he will return to judge and rule the world; to punish sinners, and those who have departed from the true faith; and to restore and confirm the genuine truths of religion, with piety, justice, and every other virtue *.

When neither the written nor oral law prescribes a rule of decision, the concurrence of the companions of Monummun (Immáar i Sahabah) is received by the Sǒonees, as a third source of legal authority: and if

[^96]this also fail, they allow the validity of reason, restricted by analogy, (kiy'as) in applying, by inference, the general principles of law and justice, to the various transactions and circumstances of the changeful scene of human life: which. as they could not be all foreseen, it was impossible they should be completely and expressly provided for. This is so clearly stated, with the origin of the principal Soonee sects, who agree in matters of faith, (akueed,) but differ on points of practical jurisprudence, ( fik, $h$, ) in a section of the Mohbitusur oo dozerl (compendium of dynasties) of Gregorius Abool Furus, translated (into Latii) by Pocock, in his Specimen Historice Arabum; that the following English version will not, it is persumed, be unacceptable : especially as both the Arabic orignal and Latin translation, are little known in India *.
"OF the sects (Musabib) which differ upon the branches, or derivative parts of the law, concerning rules of jurisprudence, and cases of disquisizion, four are the most celebrated: viz. those of M'alik bin-t Ans; of Mohummud bin-i Idrees, oo ó Shafitee; of Ahmudbin i Hunbul; and of Aboo Huneefah Naómán bin-i Thábit. The fundamental grounds of disquisition ( $!j$ itizad, are also four; the scripture

[^97](kiral;) the traditionary law (Söonnut;) the concurrence of the prophet's comp)anions (ljmaí;) and analogy, or analogical reasoning (kiyas). For, when any legal question arose, respecting what was lawful or unlawful, a reqular investigation took place, in the following manner. First, they searched the book of Almighty God (the Koran ;) and if any clear text were found in it, such was adhered to. But, if not, they sought for a precept, or example, of the Prophet; and abided by it, if applicable, as decisive. If none such were discovered, they inquired for a concurrent opinion of the zahabah; who, being directed in the right way, are not open to suspicion of misleading; and therefore, if their sentiments could be ascertained, on the point in question, they were deemed conclusive. If not, an ultimate resort was had to analogy and reason ; the variety of contingent events being infinite ; whereas the texts of the law are finite. It thus appears certain that the exercise of reason may be proper and necessary in legal disquisition. Imám Da'oon of Isfaham, however, entirely rejected the exercise of reason; whilst, on the contrary, Aboo Huneefah was so much inclined to it, that he frequently preferred it, in manifest cases, to traditions of single authority. But Málik, Shafiîee, and Ien-i Hunbul, had seldom recourse to analogical argument, whether manifest or recondite, when they could apply either a positive rule, or a tradition. This gave rise to therr different opinions and judgment ; which are recorded in books that treat of their disputations; yet neither infidelity, or error, is to be charged against them on this account."

The four principal jurists, and founders of sects, among the sơonces, who are noticed by Aboo'l Furus, have been particularly mentioned in the notes of

Pocock's Specimen, already referred to; in the Bibliotheque of D'Herbelot; and in the preliminary discourse of Sale and Hamilton*. The doctrines of Málik, and Ibn-i Hunbul, are not known to prevail in any part of India. Those of Sha'fîee have a limited prevalence on the sea coast of the peninsula; and are understood to obtain among the Mulays, and other Mosulman inhabitants of the Eastern Islands. But the authority of Aboo Huneefah, and his two disciples, Aboo Yousuf and Imam МонumMUD, is paramount, and exclusively governs judicial

[^98]decisions, in Bangal and Hindoostan, as well as at $\mathrm{Con}^{-}$ siantinople, and other seats of Mohummudan dominion in Turkey and Tartary. It will therefore be sufficient to state the system of Afoo Huneefah, with the illustrations, and amendments of Aboo Yonsuf and Imam Monumaud * ; noticing. after the manner of the Hidayah, any particular opinions of the other orthodox sects, upon points of importance, which may appear to require it.

It has been remarked by Sir W. Jones, in his preface to the Sirajeeyain $\stackrel{\downarrow}{ }$, "that although Aboo

[^99]Hunfefah be the acknowledged head of the prevailing sect, and has given his name to it, yet so great veneration is shown to Aboo Yoosuf, and the lawyer Monummud, that, when they both dissent from their master, the Moosulman judge is at liberty to adopt either of the two decisions, which may seem to him the more consonant to reason and founded on the better authority." This remark corresponds with the received opinion of present lawyers; and is sanctioned, for the most part, by a passage to the following effect in the Hummadeeyah *. "Futszas (law decisions, or opinions) are given primarily, according to the doctrine of Aboo Yoosuf ; next according to $\mathrm{Mn}^{\prime} \mathrm{A}$ u
and successinn to lands, rents, and goods." And it is of particular value to the jurisprudence of British India, as the Hidayah, translated by Mr. Hamilton, does not include the law of inheritance. It has not been ascertained when the author of the original treatise lived. But the Kushf oo' Zunoon, (or dihunom, as pronounced in Arabia) the biblingraphical work of Hajer Khulfah, which fur. nished materials for a considerable part of the Bibliotheque Orientale, (Vid. Galann's preface, p. xiv. Ed. M.DCC.LXXVI.) mentions it, under the title of Furaiyid no Sujawnindec in the following terms; together with the date of the commentary of Syyud Shureep; the substance of which is given by Sir iV. Jones, with that of a recent Persian comment, by Moulavee Moeummud Kasim, who was employed by Mr. Hastings to translate, from the Arabig into Persiari, Loth the Sirajce?ah and the Shurce fiellah. "The Furauit-co' Sujaxiendee, composed by Imam Siraj oo'deen, Mahmood bin-i Abe oo Rubherd, of Sujarulad, is commonly called the Fura, rezi Sirajoy, It is held in high estimation and in general use. Many of the learned have written commentaries upon it, to the number of forty; the best of which is the comment of Syyud oo'Shureef Alee bin-i Mohummud, of Joorjan; finished, Sumbrkund, in the year (of the Hijrah) 104. This conmentary is of the first authority, and universal'y received. Several Scholiasts, of eradition, have civen annotations upon it.

* A collection of legal expositions, by Aboo'l futha, Rokn oo deen ibn-i Husam, Mooftee of Nozon, in the Dukymen and dedica ed to his teacier, Humad oo deen, Ahmud, chief Kazee, of Nuhar auzlah. The time when this work was compiled is notexact y known ; bat, thought of modern date, it is leid in considerable estimution. The court of Nizamut Adalut possess a compiate co.jy, obtained for them, with some other law buoks, by Lord Teigniluuth, from the Nuwab $V$ izeer, in the year 1797.


## I i 3

Monummud next according to Zoofur; and then according to Husun bin-i Ziýad. It is said, that if Aboo Huneffah be of one opision, and his two disciples of another, the Mooftie is at liberty tochuse either; but the preceeding rule must be observed, when the Mcofice is not a scientific jurist ; (and therefore not competent to judge of the oppasite opinions.) This is copied from the koonyah *. In judicial decreees however a preference is siven to the doctrine of Aboo Yoosuf (who was an eminent judge ; for Imam Surukhsee $\downarrow$, has declared it safe to rely upon Aboo Yoosuf in judicial matters; and that the learned have followed him in such cases; though if there be a difference between the two disciples, which ever agrees with Aboo Huneefah must be preferred. The joint opinion of the disciples may also be adopted, though different from that of Аboo Huneefarf, if the difference appear to proceed from a change of human affairs ; (lit. a change of men, and alteration of times ; ) and modern lawyers are agreed, that the docrrine of the two disciples may be taken for adjudication in all matters of civil justice."

It appears, however, that the ancient jurists held the authority of Aboo Huneefah to be absolute, although both his disciples might differ from him. This is stated, without reservation, in a chapter, "on the order of authorities to be observed in practise,"

[^100]forming part of the book entitled Adáb ool kázee, or duties of the kiazee, in the Futáwá-i Aílumseeree, or collection of law cases, compiled by order of the Emperor Aa'lumgeer. The same chapter contains other useful information upon the rules and discretion, under which the Mosulman magistrate is empowered to administer justice ; and as it is not long, a literal translation of it is here introduced ; omitting only a quotation from the Mubsost, which being nearly a repetition of that given from the Budayia, the insertion of both appeared superfluous.
"IT is incumbent upon a kazee (or judge) to give judgment according to the book of God; to know what parts of the divine book are in force, and what have been abrogated; to be able to distinguish between the texts which are clear and positive; and such as are of doubtful meaning, having obtained a different interpretation from the learned. If no rule be found in the book of God, the kazee is to decide according to the traditions from the Prophet. He must therefore be competent to discriminate those in force from such as have been superseded; and the spurious and invalid, from such as are genuine and authoritative. He must be acquainted with those which have obtained successive, notorious, or single, verification; and with the character and credit of the reporters of them. Because some are celebrated for their knowledge of jurisprudence ( fik-ho adalut; ) as the four first khuleefalhs, and the three Abdoollahs, (viz. Abdoollah ibn-i Omur, Abdloolah ibn-t Abba's, and Abdoollah ibN-1 Musôood, three of the more learned of the companions;) whilst others are esteemed on account of their long and familiar intercourse with the Prophet, and their perfect recollection of the traditions; and they are preferred accordingly ; the former as the best authorities on the general principles
of legal science ; the latter for the authenticity of particular traditions. It a case arise to which none of the traditions, derived from the Prophet, may be applicable, let the kizpe determine it according to the concurrent opininn of the Salubah (companions), for their concurrence affords a just and obligatory rule of conduct. If there be a difference ot opinton among the companions, let the kazee compare their respective arguments, and follow those which. on investigation, may appear to hiru preferable; supposing hims ywlified to enter into such a disquisition. He is not authorized to reject the whole of the e nunions, and adopt a judgment of his own, altogether novel. For the companions have agreed upon this point, that although they may differ from each other, it is not lawful to institute new doctrines. at variance with the whole of them. Khusuf * hold, the contrary opmion that when the companions differ, the kazee mady adopt a judgment altonether distınct. as their dissention affords ground for disquisition : but what is aboye stated has the best foundation. When the companions lave agreed upon a point, in which one of their followers (lubiieen) has dissented from them; if the dissenter was not their contemporary, his opposition has no weight: and a judgment given conformably thereto, against the concurrent opinion of the companions, would be invalid : but if he were contemporary with them, and then expounded the law in opposition to their opinions,

[^101]and ther gave sanction to his disquisitions, as in the instances of Shory'a and Shabre ${ }^{*}$, the concurrence of the companions dous not bar the opposite exposition, so demitted. With respect, however, to expositions which have no other authority than part of the Tabiieen, there are two reports of the sentiments of Aboo Huni:-ralt. One, that he did not consider such to be authoritatuve : and this appears to be the true doctrine. The other, contained! in the Nuwadir $\psi$, states, that if s. me of the followers of the companions have given Fulwas in the ir time, and have received from the latter a sunction to their disquisitions; as Shory'a, Husun + and Musrook bin-i Ajdall, their decisions shoald be observed. It is thus written in the Mohict $\delta$.

[^102]$\ddagger$ Vid. Bib. Or. Tit. Hassan al Basri.
If $\Lambda$ learned native of Hunadim, who became a convert to Islam, during the life of Monummud ; and died at Konfah, A. H. 62.
$\$$ There are three works of this title; all of which are quoted in the Futawa-i Aalungteree; but the two others are distinguished by the addition of Durtershee or Bocrhanee. The wo latter will be mentioned in a subsequent note. The Mpleict, here referred to, is supposed to have been written by Moulana Ruzee oo deen of Nysha-
"If the concurrent opinion of the companions be not found in any case, which their followers may have agreed upon, the Kazee must be guided by the latter. Should there be a difference in opinion between the followers, let the Kázee compare their arguments and adopt the judgment he deems preferable. If, however, none of the authorities referred to be forthcoming, and the Kázee be a qualified jurist; (Ahil ool-Ijtihád, literally a person capable of disquisition;) he may consider in his own mind what is consonant to the principles of right and justice ; and applying the result, with a pure intention, to the facts and circumstances of the case, let him pass judgment accordingly. But if he be not a qualified person, let him take a legal opinion from others who are versed in the law, and decide in conformity thereto. He should, in no case, give judgment without knowledge of the law ; and should never be ashamed to ask questions for information and advice. It is further requisite that the Kazee attended to two rules: first, that when the three Imams (A воо Huneefah, Aboo Yoosuf, and Ima'm Mohummud) all agree, he is not at liberty to deviate from their joint opinion, upon his own judgmant. Secondly, when the Imams differ, Abidooliah bin-i Moba'ruk * says, the Kazee's sentence is to be given according to the

[^103]opinion of Aboo Munferfah, because he was one of the inmediate followers, and contemporaries, of the companions, and opposed tiem in the futze as. So it is in the Molreet of Surukhseew.
"If no precedent be found from Aboo Huneefar and his disciples, and the case have been determined by suosequent lawyers, the Kazee is to abide by the judgment of the latter; unless there be a difference in their decisions, in which event the preference is left to his discretion. If not even a modern precedent be forthcoming, the Kazee may exercise his own reason and judgment; provided he be conversant with jurisprudence, and have consulted with sages of the law. In the commentary of Tahaveet; it is stated, that if the Kázee pass sentence on his own judgment, in opposition to the manifest letter of the law (Nuss), such sentence is not valid. But if the sentence be not contrary to the clear letter of the law, and the Kazee, after passing it, should change his opinion, his former judgment is, nevertheless, valid: though his future adjudi-

[^104]cations must be regulated by his recent opinion. This is the doctrine of the two elders (SHy $\mathrm{KHy}^{\prime}$, viz. Aboo Huneefah and Aboo Yonsuf, 1 and Imám Mohummud agrees with them, provided the second opinion of the kazec, in such cases be deemed by others preferable to the first. It is further stated by Tani'vees), that if the ancient jurists have formed different opinions upon any point, and their successors have agreed upon the opinion to be preferred; according to the two elders, this agreement does not remove the effect of the former difference; but Imám МонummUD thinks it is removed thereby. Shy'кн ool Islam Shums ool aímmah Surukhsee, renorts, however, that all the disciples of Aboo Huneefah agree in opinion upon this point, and that a few of the learned only hold the continuance of the original dissent, notwithstanding the subsequent agreement. ${ }^{2}$ If the lawyers of one age concur in any particular doctrine, and a kazee, in after times, differing in opinion from them, with an upright intention, pass an opposite judgment; some hold his so doing to be legal, provided there were an original difference among the learned upon the doctrine in question; whilst others deem it illegal, notwithstanding such original difference; but all agree upon the illegality of the opposite judgment, supposing no difference of opinion to have been at any time entertained upon the subject. In the Frutava-i Itubiyah* it is stated. that if a kaxee take an exposition of the law from a Monftee, and differ in opinion from the latter, he is to pass sentence in the case according to his own judgment; provided he be a person of understanding and knowledge ; and that if the sentence be passed

[^105]against his own opinion, in deference to that of the Mooftee, it is according to the two disciples (Sa'hiby'n, viz. Aboo Yoosuf and Imám Mohummud) invalid: in like manner as in matters of religious preference on presumption it is forbidden to act upon the judgment of others: but Aboo Huneefah holds the sentence to be valid in such cases, as it is the result of legal disquisition. Supposing the kaঞee not to have exercised his own reason on the case, at the time of his giving judg ment according to the opinion of the Mooftee; and that he subsequently forms an opinion, at variance with that of the Mooftee; In'am Mohumaud says, his sentence is liable to abrogation; but Aboo Yoosuraffirms, it is not affected thereby; in the same manner as it would not be affected if the kazee had passed sentence on his own opinion, and had afterwards changed that opinion. The foregoing is copied from the Tatarkiluneeyah\%."
"When there is neither written law, or concurrence of opinions, for the guidance of the kazee, if he be capable of legal disquisition, and have formed a decisive judgment on the case, he should carry such judgment into effect by his sentence, although other scientific lawyers may differ in opinion from him; and should not be governed by their sentiments, in opposition to his own ; for that which, upon deliberate investigation, appears to be right and just, is accepted as such in the sight of God. If howerer the persons, who declare an opinion different from that of the kazee be superior to him in science, and he consequently adopt their judg-

[^106]ment, questioning the grounds of it, from respect to their superior knowledge, Aboo Huneefah admits the legality of his proceeding. Aboo Yoosuf and Im'am Mohummud, on the contrary, do not allow it to be legal, unless he ultimately adopt their opinion as the result of his own judgment. This, at least, is one report : but another says, that the master and his two disciples held, respectively, the reverse of what has been mentioned. If in any case, the kazee be perplexed by opposite proofs, let him reflect upon the case, and determine as he should judge right: or, for the greater certainty, let him consult other able lawyers; and if they differ, after weighing their arguments, let him decide, as appears just. Should they agree with each other, but differ from his own opinion on the case, he is to adhere to the latter until he be convinced it is ill founded. and may give judgment accordingly ; but not precipitately, or until he has duly weighed and examined the whole of the circumstances and evidence. Let him not fear or hesitate to act upon the result of his own judgment, after a full and deliberate examination : but let him beware of a doubtful and conjectural decision, without complete investigation, as such will not be approved in the account of his actions to God ; though, from want of certain information to the contrary, it may pass as a ralid sentence among men. What has been here said supposes the kaizee to be a Moojtahid, or scientific jurist, competent, from his talents and learning, to undertake legal disquisition. If he be not a person so qualified, but possesses a knowledge and full recollection of the points and cases determined by the eminent lawyers of his persuasion, let hi $n$ give judgment according to the tenets of those in whom he confides; and whom he believes it right to follow. Should he not have a perfect recollection of decided law-points, let him act upon expositions of the law, by Moofiees of the orthodox dostrine ; or if
there be only one such Mooftee on the spot, his single exposition may be acted upon, without fear of imputed deficiency. It is thus written in the Budlíyia *."
"The legal meaning of ḷtihácl is the diligent exercise of the mental faculties in search of the thing desired; and the requisite qualification of a Moojtahid, is a discriminative knowledge of what is contained in the book of God, and in the traditions from the Prophet, 'relative to legal rules and ordinances (ahkám.) It is not essential that he should also know the moral preeepts and admonitions included therein. It has been likewise declared that a person, whose general rectitude exceeds his deviations from right, may lawfully practise Ijfihad, or disquisition. But the definition above given is accurate: as stated in the Fosool ool Imadeeyah 中. The most correct account given of a Mojtahid is, that he have a comprehensive knowledge of the divine book, with the different interpretations thereof; a full acquaintance with the traditions, their gradations, texts, and comments; a right understanding, or power

[^107]of just reasoning ; and experience in human affairs and usages. This is quoted from the Kafee *."

Having thus stated the authorities for the Mobummudan law, and the preference to be observed. or discretion allowed, when they differ; it may be proper to add a short notice of the books of jurisprudence which are esteemed by the inuncefeeyoh sect of Soonee lawrers, for practical exposition of the temporil law ; especially such as are extant and govern judicialdecisions in Indur.

Aboo Huneefah himself does not apppear to have left any work upon jurisprudence + . His legal doctrines were recorded and illustrated by his disciples : particularly by Ima' m Mohumaud ; whose most celebrated law tracts, entitled the Jama $i$-susheer, Jamii-i kubeer, Mubsool, Zecadat, and Siyur, have been already noticed, as collectively quoted by the title of Zahir $00^{\circ}$ ruzvayat ${ }_{*}^{*}$. These works are described in the kushff $00^{\circ}$

* A commentary on the Wafer, and written by the same author Imam Abool Burkat, Abdoulla bin-i Ahmud, comm wly called Hariz oo deen, of J゙u uf, who died A. H. 710. He als, wro e the Kunz oo' Dukanik, a work of high authority, and extant in lutia; but eclinsed by its comment the Bust-i-Ra..ik, consposed in the tenth century of the Hijra/l by Zyn nol Aabideen Ifin-i Nuseem, of Egupt. Vid. Tit. Niggim of D'Herbelot, whonaly ears however to have stated the year of his death A. H. 670. instead of 970 ; which is mentioned more than once in the Kushif oo Zuncon.
$\dagger$ Mr. Hamilton mentions three trea ises, en theolegical subjects, as written by Abco Hunfefah: viz. the hlamed. Filk-al--iln, and Moallim. Of these the Monsnet is descr.bed in the K.uh, on Z:?ncon, as a book of trad tions. The work apparently intendid as the second, but misnamed Filk-a!-elm, instead rf Filkulam on theolomy,, is well known in India, by the name $F: k h-i-1 / b l u r$. The third is unknown. D'Herbei. t, who scems to have buen Mr Hamilton's principal authority, mentions the three woiks, under the tit.e of Abou-Harifah.
$\ddagger$ Mr. Hamilton (in his Peliminary Diecourse, p. 36.) has inadvertently stated the Jama-i-kubier tu be a colection of trodit ons, called alsu the Jama-i-saheeh, Yeesoo Muhuminud ein Yesou al

Zunoon as being of the first authority for the opinions of Abou Huneefah and Aboo Yoosur *, as well as of Imám Moiummud. Various commentaries are also stated to have been written upon them during the early age of the Mohummudan era; and several are quoted in the Furtirea-i Aillmgerree, compiled in the reign of Au'rungzer $\boldsymbol{p}$, But ncither the texts, or

Termazi. The apparent origin of this mistake has been pointed out in a former note. He further remarks that the author of the Joma-i-sughieer is uncertain. But independently of numerous other authorities, Imam Mohumbud is expressly cited in the Hidayala as the author of both wortsi, and of the Mubsoot. (See Vol. I. of the tranalation, p. 153.) Mi. Hamlto has been led into another error, by supposing the Mfuhsoot, quoted in the Hidaysh, to have been written by Fuxhiol islan Buzduver; whereas, of the two Mub. sonts cited by the author of the Hiluyd/, one is the composition of lamam Monumate, above nuticed; and the orher was coaposed by Shumis ool aimmah Surukheee, as observed in a preceding note.
*The only work known to have been composed by Azoo Yoosur is an Adub ool Kazee; and the reputation of this has been superceded by the celebrity of Khusaf's tract of the same title, already mentioned. He is said, however, to have furmibued his pupil, lamamoHUMMUD, with notes (amalee) for a considerable part of his compositions; particularly for the Jama-i-sugheer.

+ The priacipal commentatori of the "Jama-i-sugheer" are Shums ool Aimmah Surukhsee; Aboo Bukr Ahmud Razee, commonly. called Jussab, (the plasterer:) Aboo Jafur Ahmud Tahavee; Fukr oo! Islam Alee Bazdavee; Abon Nusur Ahmud ool Itabee of BoKhara; Abooll Lys Nuzar, of Sumarkund; Aboo Nusur Ahmad, lsbeejabee; Husun hio-MíMsoor, of Ouzjund, better known by the appellation of Kazee Khan; Taj-oo' deen Abd oo! Ghufur Kurduree; Zubeer on deen Ahmud Tumurtashee ; and Kazee Musanod, of luzd; and Aboo aced Mootuhur, of the same city; whose commentary is quoied by the title of "Tulizeeb." The seven persons first mentioned have, also written comments on the "Ja-ma-j-kubeer;" besides Kazce Aboo Zyd Abdrollah, of Duboos; Boorhan oo" deen Mahmood, aithor of the "Moheet-i-Boorhanee ;" Boorhan oo' deen Alee, author of the "Hidayah ;" Stiums ool Aimmah Mohummud, called Hulwaee (the confectioner;) lbn-i ubduk Joorjanee ; and Jumal oo' deen Mabmud, of Bobhara, whose cummon designation is Huseeree (the that-maker;) and whose second commentary is otren quoted by the 1 ntme of "Tukreer." The "Tukreer" and "Doorur" are also known comments on the work in gucstion: the former by Abonl dbbas Ahmud; the latter by Nasirou' deen Mohummud, of Damascus.
Vol. X.
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comments, are now known to be in India, except an imperfect copy of the commericement of KA'zEEKIIAN, on the Jianui $i$-sughleer, which was obtained from the library of the Nuwab of $\mathrm{Oudh}_{3}$; and is in the possession of the Niæamut Aldalut. Nor is there a treatise on the Mosulnan law, written during the four first centuries of the Hijrah, at present, in the possession of any person, from whom enquiry could be made upon the subject at Cálcuttu***

The oldest work on jurisprudence in the possession of the law officers of the Nizamut Aclalut, and other learned Mosuluan lawyers, in Calcutta, is the Mokhtusar ool Kudionee, a compendium, or general law-tract, composed by Ima'm Abool Hosén Ahmud, of Kudoor, a quarter of Bughdud, who died A. H. 428. It is often referred to in the Hidiryah, and described in the Kushf o $0^{\circ}$ Zuncon as a book of authority in general use, and held in the highest estimation. It is said to contain twelve thousand cases; and has been illustrated in

[^108]numerous commentaries: among which several are quoted in the Futusciá-i Aitungeerce; but are not now known to be extant in Hinulostan *.

The other books in actual use for expounding the Mohummudan lav are of two descriptions, The first concists of texts and comments, which, in a scientific method. state the elements and principles of the law; establish them by proofs and reasoning; and illustrate the applieation of them by select cases, real or supposed ; such as the Hiláyra, Kiunz on' dukíyah, Triküyah, Nikáyaha and Ashbals o'. Nuzírir, with their respective commentaries. The second description is commonly, but not always, distinguished by the title of Fuluwaí; and is. for the most part, a collection of law cases, arranged under proper heads, with a short recital of facts and circumstances, without arguments, and with authorities only for the cases as guoted; being intended chefly for practical purposes; whereas the elementary

* The titles and authors of the principal commentaries are as fullows. The "Siraji- Wuhbaj," and "Jouhurah-i-nyyirah" (the latter ab idged from the former) by Alooo Bukr bin-i-Alee, commonly called Hudadee (the blackismith). Ahmud bin-i-Mohummod also made an abridzement ., fthe "Siraj-i-W Whaj," which is quoted by the tute of "Bu ar-:-Z.khir." The "Mooltumus ool ikhwan" by Abooll Ma: lee, of Ghuzpa. The "Kifayal," by Shums ool a mmanh Ismaee!, of Bybuk. The "Biyan," by Alohummud bin-irusool of Toukit. "I he "Lohal" by Julal aboo Saeed Mootulhur, of Buzdalı. The "Ynmabee" by Budr ou' deen Mohummud, of Ushbeeleeah. Tue "Khelasut oo' duraeel," by Hosam on' deen Alee, of Mukk. The last mentioned commentary is highly praised, for its utility, in the "Kuth" no' Zunoon," and is stated to have been furiher impruved by the amotations of lbn-i subeeh oo' deen Osman, a native of Tartary. Mí. Hamiltoñ, (in his Prel. Disc. p. 3(i, 37.) has erroneonsly mentimed the commentary of Kudcoree, as quoted in the, "Hidayah," instead of his Mokbtusur." He appears to have made a further mistake in stating the condmentary of Kudooree to be about the "Adub ool Kazee" of A boo Yoosuf, whereas no comment of hat work is noticed in the "Kushifeo" Zunonn;" but Kudnoree is spectied as one of the commentators of the "Adub oul Kazee" of Kinusar, mentioned in a preceding note.

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\mathrm{K} k 2
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works first mentioned are more calculated for study and instrucrion. The Futarea \& Kásee Khan by Fukr oo' DEES HUSUR, of Clispuncl in Eurghúná, who was contemporary with the author of the Hidayalh, and whose collection is esteemed of equal authority with that ceiebrated work, must, in some measure, be excepted from the above remark; as it illustrates many cases by the proofs and reasoning upon which the decision of them is founded *.

The other Tutáreá extant in India, besides those already mentioned in the preceding pages and notes, are the Khusanul col SInoftiven, Futácuá-i-Busásivah, Futía-wá-i-Nukshbundiyah, Mun' hool ghufur, and Ilokhtár ool Futáwá by unlnown authors; the Foosool-i-Istarooshee, by Muhummud bin-i Mahmood, who compiled it in the 625 th year of the Hijraht; the Futarua-i Ibraheemsháhigato, by Sháhab oo deen Ahmud, a native of Hindoostair, who compored it for Soolta'n Irbra'HeEm Sila' , at Joumpoor, in the grh century of the

[^109]Mijrah*; and the Fituráá-i Aitumgeerce, compiled at Dehli, by order of the Emperor Aa'sumgetii) in the 11th year of his reign, corresponding with A. H. 1067.

The Hiluyah is so well known, from the English version of it, made by Mr. Charles Hamllox, and published in the year 1791, that it will be unnecessary to say much of it. The kízee ool koozát, in his catalogue of books already adverted to, describes it in the following terms. "The Hilayak is a commentary upon the Bidayut ool Moobtudee. and both the text and comments were composed by Say'Kh Boorha'a oo deen Alee, son of Aroo Bukr, of IVhurgzeenan, who lived to the age of sixty-two; and, atter employing thirteen years in the composition of the latter work, departed from this world A. H. 5g8. The general arrangement, and division of it, are adopted from the Jama-i-Sugheer of Ima'm Mohumud. It is celebrated amongst the learned for its selection of laiv cases, and connection of them with the proofs and arguments by which they have been determined. Wherefore inevery age it has been esteemed by lawyers ; many of whom have written comments and annotations upon it." It is spoken of in nearly the same language, by the author of the Kushf oo' Zunoon who adds, "it is a rule observed. by the composer of this work to state first the opinions and arguments of the two disciples (Aboo Yoosur and Ima'si Mohummud) ; afterwards the doctrine of the

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great Imám (Aboo Huneefaif); and then to expatiate on the proofs adduced by the latter, in such manner as to refute any opposite reasoning on the part of the disciples. Whenerer he deviates from this rule it may be inferred that he inclines to the opinion of Aboo Yoosuf and Ima'm Mohumaud. It is also his practice to illustrate the cases specified in the Jama-i Sugheer, and by Kuboonee: intending the latter, whenever he uses the expression he has sitil in the book. In praise of the. Hidayah, it has been declared, like the Koran, to have superseled all previous books on the lav: that all persons should remember the rules prescribed in it ; and that it should be followed as a guide through life." This enlorgum on the IHulayate is confirmed in a paper written by Mou'latee Mohummud Ra'shid, one of the Mooftees of the Supreme Court of Judicature and Courts of Siudr Dectantee and Nizine: Alublut, as well as no of the most learned Mosalmans in India; who remarks on the text, and some of the principal comments, to the following effect. "Notext or commentary, now extant, can be compared with the fhlávah as a cligest of approved law cases, illustrated by the proofs and arouments which establish them. It is therefore, with its comments, fit to be the standard of legal decision in the present times. Many commentaries have been written upon it: but four only, the Näharah, Ináyah, Kifayah and Futh ool Fucdeer, are forthcoming in Bingal. The Nihayak was first composed: and has superior credit as being the original from which the others have borrowed. But the author of the Inayoh has merited esteem by his studious analysis; and internetation of the letter and meaning of Hidayah. The kifayah also deserves commendation, from its concise statement of the substance of orher commentaries, as well as from some additions to them. And the Futh ool kudeer is preferable to the whole, as an ample collection of cases,
(rendering it equal in this respect $t$, \& Fatawa) expressed with suitable brevis 5 of language *."

The Fiun: $00^{\circ}$ durwik his been already mentinned, as composed by Ha'fiz 00 Drent, author of the Kafee and Waje. It is a stort gericial treanse of law, used
*The "Nihdyal" was composed by Hosam oo'deen Hosen Ibni Ale", said to nave been a uipil of Boorhan co deen, author of the "Hidayah" The latter baving, from some unknown cause, omitted the law of inheritance, it has been added by the coamentator. But this part of the "Vihayah" does no: appear to have obtained equal collbbrity with the "Fura, e z--sirajee-yah" mentioned in a firmer note. The "Kusat" on' Zunoon" notices two commentaries of the title of "Inayat);" the first of which was commenced by Aboot Abas Ahmud, a Kazee in Egypt, whodied A. H. 710; and was completed in the succeeding century of the Hijrah by Kazee Saeed oo deen, of Dubur. The second, which is that referrel to as extant in India, was composed by Sbykhi Akmul oo' deen Mnhummud, who died A. H. 780 ; I mam on' deen Ameer Katib Bin-i Ameer Omur, who had jreviously written anotber c.mmentary entitled "Ghayutool biyan" after employing himself for twenty-seven years at Cairo, and other places, to render his second work more complete, finished the "Kifayah," at Damascus, in the 747 th gear of the Hijrah. The "Futh ool Kudesr" is stated to have been commenced by its author Kumal o.i' deen Mohummud of Seewas, commonly called lbu-:-Homam, in the 29th year of tie Hijrah ; and to have occupicd a considerable part of the remaining period of his life, which was terminated in 861 . Other commentarie upon the "Hidayah" are mantioned in the "Kushf ou" Zunoon "," but as they are not procurable in India, it will be su fic.ens to notice the "Fuwaed," by Humeed oo cleen Alec, of B khare, who died $4 . \mathrm{H} .667$; and is supposed hy some in lave b on the first commentator ; but his tract, being extremely iniet, $h$ "bea superseded by the subsequent commenis: the "Miarai oo dirayut," by Kuwam oo deen Moinumud, also of Bukhara, who dierd A $H$. 747 ; and who commentary is prowh is the "ralur-geeree:" and the "Odah" ly Kumal ori" deen hiohummud, a'so qu tet: though it is descr:bed as ratner en abstract, $t$ an a commen; $b$ ing a wethodical collectio of the dew caspes contained in t.e" H dayah," without the argumen's stated in pr. of of them. Ti.e " : hayah ool Kifeya',"' by Tajoo' hhurevyit (mur, is aiso men o ed in the "Kusbf oo' Zusoon" as al comsentary on tixc "H dar a;" but the Kazee ool Kcozal, in descrihins an ina ef fest copy of t, belongines to the Nizamut didalut, terins it a "Hache ah," or m rginal ncte book. An incolyt lete copy of the "Kifayan" is ulso atmut the law books of that court.
in Mosulman colleges, as an elementary book of instruction ; but superseded, as a book of reference for leyal exposition, by its commentaries; of which the foilowing are extant in Indiu. The Tubieen ool hutkayik, by Burboo deen Abuo Mohumimid asman of Zyl, who died A. H. 743. His comment is valued by the followers of Aboo IIcneefah, as containing a complete refutation of the opposite doctrine of Shafilee. The Buhr oo ruyik, by the learned Zy' ool Aabideen $I_{b x-1}$ Nljebm of Esypt, left incomplete, at his death, A. H. 970 and unequally finisticd by his brother Simns oo deen Onur, who also wrote a commentary entithed the Noldrifayik, but of inferior merit to that of Zy's ool $\mathrm{Aa}^{\prime}$ bideen; which is held in the utmost estimation: and is spoken of in the kushif on Zumon as equalied only by the Futh onl Kudeer; Ibxi Homa'nis commentary on the Hiluyah. The Ahuthu' $i$ fayic or, as more generally called Atmee by Rudr oo' deen Моиonumud Ay'see, of Dubur in Aratia. This commentary is also esteemed, as contaising an ample collection of law cases: and thouzh surpassed, in this respect, by the Buthr-i raik, it lias the adwantage of having been brousht to a cconciusion by the author; whose erudition obtained him the title of Ulamah, in common with Z'y'n oul Aa'bideen *.

[^111]The test of the Vikityah, composed in the 7 th century of the Hiyrah by Boorma'n oo' Shuneeut Mahmood, son of the first Sudr oo Shucent like that of the Kunz on' Dukinyik, has.been superseded, for legal consultation, by its more extensive commentaries; especiaily by that of the second Sudr oo' Shureent, Oby'd oollah bin-i-Musaood, who died A. H. 750 ; distinguished by the title of Shurk-i. Sikigyan; and combining, with the orivinal treatise, an ample comment in illuffration of it. But both are used in Mosulman Colleges, for instruction in the science of law, preparatory to the stady of the Fibiuydz; upon which the Vikajulh is founded; being, as ita titie at
 Hidicyath;) the Custos, guardian, or preserver, of the reports of cases in the Hudayah. Other commentaries are mentioned in the Kushif oo' Zunoon; but they are not known to be extant in Indía; or quoted as authorities. *

[^112]The Tikayatz was abn'ged from the Tikatah by the scoond Sudr bo Sifureur already mentioned as the principal commentator on the Filamo. It is also called Mokhtusur i Fikajah, and unetl as a bock of instruction, the rules and cases conrained in it heing committed to memory by the student. But itsutility, for legal reference, is superseded by its commentaries; of which there are extant, composed by Aboo's Mukńmim bin-i Abdoollah, A. H. not; by Abdool Alee, Bin- - Mohumaud Bifindee, in the year 937 ; and by Shems oo' delin Míohumaded, of Fhoristan, in 941. The whole of these comments are held in esteem; but the latter, entitled Jama oo rumooz, is the most copious. *

The Asiblaz ó Nuaryir is an elementary treatise, composed in the tenth century of the Hijrah, by Zye oul AA'bideen, already mentioned as the author of the Bubr-i-ajik. It is stated in the iashf on Zunom to consist of seren sections, (denominated fun); the two first of which relate to the general principles and rules of law: and the kiace ool korsat. in describing a copy of it, which belongs to the Nizámut Aidélut, observes, that "although a short tract, it contains legal primipia. from which numerous cases may be deduced; wherefore to able lawyers it is of the utmost advantage." Thirteen commentaries upon it are noticed in the Kuslif on' Zunoon, but none of them are known to be in India.
place, that in noticing, for obvinus reasons, what has appeared upon inquiry to be erroneous or deficient ir the late Ni . I I milton's translation of the "Hidayah," no intention whinver is entcrianed of impeaching the personal inerits or reputation of rhat gentlenan ; who laboured undel a material disadvantinge in not having completed his arduous and laudanle undertaking in lidia.

* Complete copi s of the three commentarics are among the books procured from Lukinow, for the court of Nizanath Adilut.
$\dagger$ Mou'lavee Mohumud liashid possesse4 turn commentaries on the Ashba o Nuza', yir, one of which, called the" Ghumzool Oyoon,

Besides the texts and commentaries abore described, as in actual use for legal expositions, the Mujma oo buliryn, a text book composed by Mozuffer ou' deen Aimud, of Bughdúd, A. H. 690, is also in the possession of a learned Mostlman in Calcutla, * together with one of its commentaries, written by Arsd oo' Luterf Bin-i-Abd nol Azeez; but as no other copy of either the text or comment is known to be forthcoming; they cannot be in general use.

Was uritten by Sy,yid ahmud bin-i-M.humnud Humavee. The author of the other is unknown.

* Moúlavee Kureem oo deen, by whom (in concert with Moúlavee Monmmud Ra'shid) I have been materially assisted in preparing the shors accr,unt given of books on the Nohummudan law; and who bas made for me a complele Persian translation from the Arabic original of the "Kushe (o) Zanoon." He received the "Majmà-oo! buhry'n," and its conmentary, from Shura'iut Miohummud Klian, MeerMoonshee to the Nuwab Viozaffur Jung ; who su, ported a Mudrusah ai Morshilabad, in waich Kureem oo deen was Modurrir or Lecturer.
$t$ In addition to the buoks on jurisprudence, which have been noticed; the following are described in the "Kusbino Zunoon;" but nome of the $n$ are known to be at present in Hindostan. The "Ajnus" and "Akkam," by Abool Abas Ahmud Nitiffe, who died A. H. 415; the "Tujnees o' Muzed" by the acther of the "Hida'palı;" the "Ha'vee ool lluseece" by Mohun liud-bin-iIbruheem, of Huseer, who died A. H. 503 . The " Futawa-i-koobra," by Shalieed H:ssm oo deen Omur, who suffered martyrdom in the 536th year of the Hijrah. The "Kholasut ool futzwa," by Tahir bin-i-Ahmud, of Eokhara, who diad A. H. 542. The Mooltukut," by Nasir oo' deen, Abooi Kasim, of sumurkund; finished A. H. 549. The "Havee 0.01 Koodsee," by Kazee Jural co deen Ahmud of Ghuzna, who lived in the latter part of the 6th century of the Hijrah. A "Tulkhes" (abr"dernent) of the Jama-i-kuleer," by Kumal oo' dee. Mohammud, of Kisilat, who died A. H. 652. The "Mokhtar," and its commentry, the "Ihhtiyar," by Mujd oo deen abdoollah of Mousul, strpiosed to have llouristied in the 7th century of the Higrah. The "Ghoorar ool Ahkam," and its comment, the " Deorur oul hookhan," by Monummud bin-i Furamoorz, commonly cal, d vo illa Khoosre, who dited A. II. S87; and the "Morltuca"." ©bhooi," by Ib:aheem birs iMohummud Chulpee (a Syrian) finished A. H. g'23. Oi these works the three last mentioned only ar: text books. The rema.nder (escepting the abridgnents of Inam Niohummud's great:

Of the books of Futurwá which have leen mentioned, none appear to require further notice, except the Fulúrás-i Aúlumgeeree. Dîr. Hamiltces, by an extraordinary mistake, has stated this work to have been "composed in the Persi:n lamgnage *, by the authority and under the inspection of the Emperor A 'reungze's;" whereas it is well known to have been written in Alvalic, the usual language of Molmmmudan law and science; and to have been translated into Persian, by order of the Bmperor's daughter, the Princess Zer oo'NisA'. Several copies of the Arabic original are in Calcutta; and some imperfect copies of the Persian version; or rather of parts of it + . In the

[^113]catalogue of books appertaining to the Niarmut Adalut (among which is an incomplete copy of the Arabic Fularea-i Alulungecree) the kazee ool koozat describes this work in the following terms:-"It was commenced A. H. 100\%, corresponding with the 11 th year of A'lumgier's reign, Credible persons have related, that when Merrza' Kázim, author of the Auluingeernamuh, had finished, and presented to his Majesty, the history of the first ten years of the reign, it occurred to the King that there were many books of history in the world, and that from the inclination which mankind have to read such books, they are composed without orders from Kings and Nobles; that the foundation of good government is justice; and that this depends upon a knowledge of the ordinances of the law; that although the learned of every age had compiled expositions of the law, yet in some instances the examples were so dispersed that they conld not readily be found, when required; and in others, the cases of less weight were not dintinguished from those adjudged to be authoritative ; whilst some decisions also had been unnecessarily repeated; and others, thongh requisite, had been omited; wherefore it was proper that, in the present reign, a new Futarea should be compiled, to be arranged in the most approved manner ; and to contain the most authoritatwe decis ons of law, including every useful case, which had becn adjudged, without repetition or omission. As soon as the King had formed this design, he ordered Meerza' $\mathrm{K}_{\text {azim }}$ to discontinue writing the Aalumoremaminh ; and not to take in fumbe the sum allotted for it from the royal treasury. He then assembled a number of eminent lawyers from the Pumjau, the envimns of Shahjahan abad, Akbur aboet. Mah-abod, and the Dukhun; and employed them in compiling the work, which was atterwards called the

Futuwa-i Aalumgeeree. In truth no other Futava is equal to it in excellence. It has become celebrated in every city, as well in Arabia as in other countries; and is terined at Mecca the Futarva-i Hind, or Indian expositions. It is esteemed by the learned of every country, and is received as an authority for law decisions in this empire." It is added, that lacks of rupees are said to have been disbursed in stipends to the learned compilers, the purchase of books, and other expences attending the execution of the work.

Tbe Futneva-i Aalumgceree being four times the size of the Hidayah, and containing little more than a recital of law cases, without the arguments and proofs, which are diffusively stated in the Hidayah it must possess an advantage over that work, for practical use, in its greater number of cases and examples. On the other hand, the full illustration of the law, its principles, and the different doctrines promilgated by some of the most eminent expounders of it, which distinguish the Hidayah, as an original composition by a celebrated jurist, who, from his superior knowledge and qua. lifications, was esteemed a Mojtahzod, is also above that of the Futarea- $i$ Aalumgecree; which, however valuable, as the latest and nost comprehensive collection of cases, is held in less comparative estimation, from its being a modern compilation, made by several persons, of different judgment, and unequal ability. Without contrasting their respective merits, however, the one is universally admitted to be a most useful supplement to the other ; and a conversance in both, or an easy means of reference to them in cases of judicial occurrence, must be of essential use towards the due administration of the Mohummudan law, as far as that law is
declared to be the established rule and standard of decision *.

* Mr. Hamiton's trans!ations of the "Hidayah" renders it unnecessury to state the general contents of that work. The "Futaw:-i-Aalumgeeree," consists of 61 books (kitab) in the following order:-1,Taharut, purification. 2, Sulat, prayer. 3, Zukat, alns. 4, Som, fisting. 5, Hujj, pilgrimage. 6, Nikah, marr:age. 7, Ruzáa, fosterage. S, Tulak, divorce. 9. Utak, manumission. 10, Ayman, vows. 11, Hoodood, fixed penalties. 12, Surikih, barceny. 13, Seyur, institutes or regulations concerning infidels, apostates, apostites, and rebe!s. 1.t, Lukeet, foundlings. 13, Lonktah, troves. 16, Ibak, absconding of slaves. 17, Mufkood, missing persoos. 18, Shirkut, partaerahip. 19, Waukf, endowment; or religious and charitable apprapration. 20, Bya, sale. 21, Surf, cxclançe of coin or bullion. 22, Kufalut, bail. 23, liuwalut, transier of debts. 24 , Adub ool Kazee, the duty a Kazee. 25, shahadut, evidence. 26, Roojcoa un Shahadut, retraction of evidence. $2_{i}^{-}$, Vukalut, a cency. 23, Dawa, chaim. 29, Ikrar, acknowlegdment. 30, So H1, composition. 31, Mozarubat, copartnership it stock and labour. 32. Wudee, ut, deposit. 33, Adeeyut, leading whihout return. 3-1, Hibah, gitt. 35, ljarah, hire and farm. 36, Mokatub, covenanted slave. 37, Wnla, connection of emancipator and fieedman; or of patron and client. 38, 1krab, compulsion. 39, Hujr, inhibition and disqualification. 40, Mazoon, licensed slave, and ward. 41, Ghusb, usurpation. 42, Shoolah, rigbr of viciaity. 43, Kismut, partition. 44. Mozaraut, compact of cultivation. 45, Moa,amulut or Mosakat, compact of gardening. 16, Zubayith, animals slain by Zubh, or incision of the inroat. 47, Onzeeyah, sacrifice. 48, Kurahiyut, abomination, disapprobation, or censure. 49, Tuhurre, presumptive preference. 50, Ihya ool muwit, cuituation of waste land. 51 , shirb, right to water. 52, Ushrihab, intoxicating liquors, 53, fyd, game: 54, Rilhn, pledge. 55, Jinayat, oflences against the person. 50 , Wusaya, testamentary bequests. 57 , Mukazir o sijillat, judiciil proceedings and decrees. 58, Shocrout, legal forms. 50, Hiyu, legal devices. Co, Khoonsa, hermaprodite. 61, Fura,eez, rules of inl eritance.

Of the sixty-one books enumerated, fifty-five correspond with sin. ilar tilles in the Hidayah. Two other books in the latter worls. ellitled "Biyut," (the fine of blond), and "Mu, azkil" exaction of the fine of bloud), are inciuded in the "F.Aalungeceree," as chapters of the beok of Jinayat. The book of "Shiri," itl the ": Aalumgeeree," forms a section of the book entitled "lhyaonl muwat" in the "Hidayah." Theremaining five books of the "Futana-iAalumgeeree," viz. those entitled "Tuhurree," "Manaz:

Sijillat," "Shooroot," "Hiyul," and "Fura,eez," are not included in the "Hidayah."
The general division and arrangement of both the "Hidayah," and "A:lumgeerce," appear to have been adopted from the "Jama-i-Suchecr," of Imam Mohummud. The same order is also observed in most other works written by the followers of Aboo Huneefah ; and the author of the "Buhr-oo-rayik," has endeavoured to shew to that it is founded on a principle of successive connection. But his reasoning coos not appear satisfacto:y. It may be useful to add, howerer, that the Mosulman law, in the most extensive sense of the term (Shura, or Decn-i-islamz) comprehends the ordinances of religion, and the duties of men towards his Creator, as well as his rights and obligations towards his fellow creatures. It is therefore stated in the "Bukr-i-rayik," to comprise five principal heads; namely, 1, Iatikadat, articles of faith. 2, Ibadat, acts of worship and piety. 3, Moâamulat, affairs of life, or civil transactions. 4, Muzajir, punishments for the prevention of crimes. 5, Adah, manner, or rules of behaviour. In books of jurisprudence (fik-h) the irst and last hea's are omitted. The other three are included; and the head of "Ibadat," always precedes the "Moâamulat," and "Muzajir," as of superior importance.

## VIII.

An Account of Astronomical Observations taken at the Honolrable Company's Observatory, near Fort St. George in the East Indies, in the Years 1806 and 1807. To zehich are added some Remarks on the Declination of certain Stars and of the Sun, when near the Zenith of thal Place.

BY CAPTAIN JOHN WARREN,

OF H. 3. 33d REGIMENT OF FOOT.

1. Major Lambton having sent his zenith sector to the Madras Observatory in September 1806, I began early in the ensuing month the observations which form the subject of the present paper. As an account of this instrument has already been given to the public, in a paper written by that gentleman, and published in the 8th volume of the Asiatic Researches, I shall only observe here that it came to me in high order, and that I ubserved constantly with it from October 1806 to June 1807 , without perceiving any material change in its powers or mode of performing.
2. In undertaking a series of observations of zenith distances, I had in view to establish permanently the latitude of the Madras Observatory, on which there seemed still to be a doubt of several seconds, and also to verify the declination of several stars near the zenith, when used for obtaining the latitudes of places, disagreed in their results.
3. This laborious and dry enquiry, I am aware can afford but little entertainment to the generality of read-

Vol. X.
L 1

514 ACCOUNT OF ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATIONS
ers. The present paper, therefore, can only claim the advantage of recording good observations, taken in great numbers, and computed with scrupulous attention: and perhaps of affording some data to astronomers in other climates, for further investigation into the effects of refraction.
4. Although the method for correcting zenith distances at any given time, for abbreviation, nutation, and solar equation, is well known to astronomers, yet I do not omit giving a general statement of the manner in which I have applied these various corrections to my observations. Such as belong to Regulus are given in Table I, and may serve as an example for the rest. For the detail of each respective rule I must refer the reader to books of astronomy, for I have nothing new to offer on the principles upon which they are grounded.
5. I have however to observe, that refractions being one of the subjects under consideration, I have computed it separately for every star, according to Dr. Bradley's theory, in which the state of the atmosphere at the time of observation is considered, and without any reference to the tables. The rule may be found demonstrated in Vince's Complete System of Astronomy, Chap. VIII. page 82, and following. I iave reduced it, for a more convenient arrangement, in othe following form:

$$
\text { Corrected Refraction } \mathbb{R}=\frac{\text { Tangt. } \overline{Z-3} r \times \pi \times \frac{\pi}{1} \times 400}{12+350^{\circ}}
$$

The following example will shew the notation.
Example.

The mean observed zenith distance of Regrulus by observation is $0^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .326=Z$.

## TABLE 1.

Shewing the Process of deducing the Latitude from the observed Zenith Distances of Regulus.

|  |  |  |  |  | Apparent Time |  |  |  |  | Total | for |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Days. |  |  |  |  | Transit. |  |  |  | E | Declin. | , | - | Distance. | Distance. |
| Nov. | $4^{5} 29^{\circ} 31^{\prime \prime} 2^{\prime \prime}$ | $8^{5}$ | $8^{3}$ |  |  |  |  | . 866 | . 01 | . 2 | . 2 | E. | $0^{\circ} \quad 9^{\prime} 56^{\prime \prime} .5$ | $9^{\prime} 10$ |
| 28. | 42.9312 | $8 \quad 6 \quad 849$ | $8 \quad 1940$ | 125420.104 | 17490.2 | 32.826 | 6.500 | 1 . 213 | 0.049 | 40.588 | 40.588 | W. | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 9 & 51.8\end{array}$ | 0910.212 |
| 30. | 429313 | $\begin{array}{llllll}8 & 8 & 10 & 8\end{array}$ | 8193 | 125426.010 | $\begin{array}{llll}17 & 32 & 25 & 6\end{array}$ | 32.920 | 6.506 | 1 . 1.449 | 0 .084 | 40.959 | 40.959 | E. | $0 \quad 958.0$ | 0 0 17.041 |
| Dec. 1. | 429313 | $\begin{array}{llllll}8 & 9 & 10 & 51\end{array}$ | $8 \quad 19 \quad 30$ | 125426.963 | $1728 \quad 7.2$ | 32.967 | $6 \quad .510$ | 1.562 | 0.101 | 41.140 | 41.110 | W. | - 951.5 | 0910.360 |
|  | 429313 |  | $\begin{array}{llll}8 & 19 & 21\end{array}$ | 1254.25 .822 | $17 \quad 1509$ | 33.108 | 6.519 | 1 . 020 | 0.154 | 41.701 | 41.701 | W. | 0 $9 \quad 5 \quad 51.25$ | 099.549 |
| 10. | 429313 |  | 8191 | 125425.539 | 16 4\& 56.9 | 33.391 | $6 \quad .539$ | 2.613 | 0 . 264 | 42.507 | 42.807 | W. | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 9 & 51.5\end{array}$ | 098.693 |
| 11. | 429314 | $\begin{array}{lllll}8 & 19 & 19 & 1\end{array}$ | $8 \quad 1855$ | 125425.492 | 16 44 33 | 33 .438 | 6.543 | $2 \quad .721$ | 0.281 | 42.983 | 42.983 | E. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 10 & 2.0\end{array}$ | 0919.017 |
| 12. | 429314 | $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllll}8 & 20 & 19 & 55\end{array}$ | 81515 | 1254.25 .445 | $\begin{array}{llll}16 & 40 & 9.7\end{array}$ | 33.485 | $6 \quad .546$ | 2.832 | $0 \quad 1299$ | 43.122 | 43.122 | W. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 9 & 53.79\end{array}$ | 0910.668 |
| 17. | 4. 29315 | $825 \quad 2143$ | 81839 | 125425.209 | 16 l 18 5.8 | 33.721 | 6.562 | $\begin{array}{ll}3 & .377\end{array}$ | $0 \quad .389$ | 44.049 | 44.049 | E. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 10 & 2\end{array}$ | 0917.951 |
| 18. | 429315 | 8262528 | $\begin{array}{llll}5 & 18 & 36\end{array}$ | 125425.162 | $\begin{array}{llll}16 & 13 & 39.6\end{array}$ | 33.768 | 6 . 565 | 3.480 | 0.406 | 44.219 | 44.219 | W. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 9 & 52.5\end{array}$ | 0 0 98.281 |
| 19. | 429315 | $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllll}8 & 27 & 26 & 27\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}8 & 18 & 32\end{array}$ | 125425.116 | $\begin{array}{llll}16 & 9 & 14.3\end{array}$ | 33 .814 | 6.508 | $3 \quad .583$ | 0.424 | 44.389 | 44.38 .9 | E. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 10 & 3.5\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 9 & 19.111\end{array}$ |
| 21. | 429315 | $\begin{array}{lllll}\mathrm{S} & 29 & 28 & 20\end{array}$ | 8 8 1818 | 125425.021 | $16 \quad 0 \begin{array}{llll}16 & 2 & 2\end{array}$ | 33.909 | $6 \quad .573$ | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & .788\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{ll}0 & .457\end{array}$ | 44.727 | 44.727 | W. | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 9 & 54.0\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 9 & 9.273\end{array}$ |
| 22. | 429315 | $\begin{array}{llll}9 & 0 & 29 & 17\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}8 & 18 & 23\end{array}$ | 12 54.24.974 | 155556.8 | 33.956 | $6 \quad .578$ | $3 \quad .594$ | 0.474 | 44.902 | 44.902 | E. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 10 & 3.0\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 9 & 18.098\end{array}$ |
| 23. | 429316 | $\begin{array}{lllll}9 & 1 & 30 & 13\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}\mathrm{S} & 18 & 20\end{array}$ | 125424.930 | $15 \quad 5131.4$ | 34. 100 | $6 \quad .581$ | $3 \quad .994$ | 0.489 | 45.164 | 45.164 | E. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 10 & 4.0\end{array}$ | 09915.836 |
| 27. | 429316 | 9 9 5 24, | 8186 | 125424.739 | $\begin{array}{llll}15 & 33 & 48.9\end{array}$ | 34.191 | 6.595 | 4.35 S | 0 . 547 | 45.691 | 45.69 i | W. | $0 \quad 956.0$ | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 9 & 10.309\end{array}$ |
| -07Jan.2. | 4. 29317 | 91140 | $\begin{array}{llll}8 & 17 & 49\end{array}$ | 125424.456 | $15 \quad 720.1$ | 34.474 | 6.611 | $4 \quad .981$ | 0.629 | 4. ${ }^{(1) .695}$ | 46.695 | W. | 0 $\quad 956.0$ | $\begin{array}{lll}0 & 9 & 9.305\end{array}$ |
| 3. | 429317 | $91241 \quad 2$ | $\begin{array}{llll}8 & 17 & 45\end{array}$ | 125424.409 | $\begin{array}{llll}15 & 2 & 56.2\end{array}$ | 31.521 | 6.615 | 5.000 | $0 \quad .641$ | 46.777 | 46.777 | E. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 10 & 5.0\end{array}$ | 0918.223 |
| 10. | 429318 |  | $8 \quad 17 \quad 38$ | 125424.079 | 14.32 21.8 | 34.851 | 6.623 | $\begin{array}{ll}5 & .549\end{array}$ | 0.705 | 4 7.728 | 47.728 | E. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 10 & 4.38\end{array}$ | 0916.658 |

## RESULTS.

| 1806-7 | Left Arc. | 1806-7 | Right Arc. | Mean. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nov. 26. | $0^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 16^{\prime \prime} .293$ | 28. | C910.212 | Mean, . . . . $0^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 14{ }^{\prime \prime} .326$ |
| 30. | 0917.041 | Dec. 1. | 0 | * Refraclion, + 0.131 |
| Dec. 11. | 09919.017 | 4. | $\begin{array}{lll}0 & 9 & 9.549\end{array}$ | Micromeler, +0.051 |
| 17. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 9 & 17.951\end{array}$ | 10. | $\begin{array}{lll}0 & 8 & 8.693\end{array}$ | Tube, $\ldots$. $\quad$ - 0.004 |
| 19. | 0919.111 | 12. | 0910.668 |  |
| 29. | 0918.098 | 18 | 098.281 | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 9 & 14 & .504\end{array}$ |
| 2S. | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 9 & 18 \\ 0 & .836\end{array}$ | 21. | 099.273 | Decination, . 125455.930 |
| Jan. 3. | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 9 & 18 & .223\end{array}$ | 27. | $\begin{array}{lll}0 & 9 & 10 \\ 0 & 9 & 309\end{array}$ | Intitude, ... 13 4 13 434 |
| 10. | 0916.652 | Jan. 2. | 0 9 | Latitude, . . . 13 ( 413 .434 |
| Mean, 0919.023 |  |  | $\begin{array}{rrr} 0 & 9 & 9.629 \\ 0 & 9 & 19.023 \end{array}$ | * For Refraction see paragraph 5, in paper. |
|  |  |  | 0914.32 |  |

The refraction due to $45^{\circ}$ altitude, as established by experiments, and very near the level of the sea is $50^{\prime \prime}=\mathrm{R}^{\prime}$.*
The mean altitude of barometer at the time of observing was 30.035 inches $=\alpha$.
The general medium height of Mercury is $29.6=A$.
The mean altitude of thermometer at the time of observation was $71^{\circ}=h$.

## Rule,

Tangt. $Z=0^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .326 \log . \quad 7.4293310$

$$
3 r \equiv 0.402 R^{\prime}=50^{\prime} \log \cdot 1.6089700
$$

$$
\text { 9.1283010 N.N.O. } 134
$$

$$
\mathrm{s} r=0.402
$$

Tangt. Z-3r $=0^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 13^{\prime \prime} .924$ log. 7.4290229 ?

$$
R^{\prime}=50^{\prime} \log \cdot 1.6959700
$$

$$
\frac{a}{A}=\frac{30 \cdot 035}{296} \log \cdot 0.0062636
$$

$$
400 \log .2 .6088254
$$

$$
1.7430849
$$

$$
h+350=421 \text { log. } 2.6232821
$$

Corrected Refract. $R=0.131$ N.N. 9.1188028 J

$$
\begin{gathered}
\alpha=30.035 \log .1 .4775553 \\
A=29.6 \log \cdot 1.4712917 \\
\log \text { of } \frac{\pi}{1} \begin{array}{c}
0.0062636 \\
h 710 \\
h+30=421
\end{array}
\end{gathered}
$$

[^114]516 ACCOUNT OF ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATIONS
which quantity $0^{\prime \prime} .131$ is entered on the IX. column of Table II. and so of the rest.
6. I was at first doubtful respecting the best mode of obtaining a very accurate mean latitude for the Ob servatory, and hesitated between making a selection of a certain set of stars whose declination was determined at Greenwich after the same method, and with the same instruments ; or taking the whole mass of my observations without adverting to the catalogues either English, French, or German, from which I had taken the declinations.
7. Had the whole of the stars given in Table III. been computed when I began writing this paper, I might 'have been induced to think the separate catalogue in Table II, unnecessary. since the two means only differ by $0^{\prime \prime} \cdot 361$. However, I was, at the time, determined by an opinion that the results of a few very accurate operations were always preferable to the mean of a great number of indifferent ones, and chose therefore twelve principal stars (six on each side of the zenith) the declinations of which are given in Dr. Maskelyne's catalogue for January 1802. With these I constructed Table II. to which I particularly wish to call the attention of the reader, as every thing that I shall say hereafrer is grounded on the mean latitude which is derived from it.
8. In this catalogue, the naximum of deviation in the respective latitudes is only $4^{\prime \prime} .551$, and their gradiual decrease as the stars become more southerly indieates that this difference is not solely to be attributed to inaccuracy in the observation; for it is to be observed that the regularity of this decrement (which is scarcely interrupted) cannot altogether be ascribed to

## m 12 Principal Stars.



## TABLE II.

Shewing the Latitude for the Madras Observatory such as derived from 12 Principal Stars.

| I. | II. | III. | IV. | V. | V1. | VII. | VIII. | IX. | X. | XI. | XII. | XIII. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Names and Characters of Stars. |  |  | Interval during: when observed. | Mean Declination from Greenw. Cat. for 1805. | Observed Zen. distances corrected for $A b$ ber. Nut. and Solar Equation. |  |  |  | Corrected Zenith distances. | Latitudes. | Mean by Northern and Southern Stars. | Mean Latitude. |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | Inches. |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Arcturus, .. | 1 | 20 | Feb. 6. Mar. 20. | $20^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .426$ | $7^{\circ} 7^{\prime} 5 \sim^{\prime \prime} .639$ | 29.975 | $75^{\circ}$ | $6^{\prime \prime} .051$ | $7^{\circ} 7^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} 58^{\prime \prime} .690$ | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime} .736$ |  |  |
| Aldebaran, | 1 | 16 | Oct. 30. Dec. 9. | $\begin{array}{lllll}16 & 6 & 23 & .830\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}3 & 2 & 7 & 7\end{array}$ | 29.983 | 77 | 2.557 | $\begin{array}{llll}3 & 2 & 9.905\end{array}$ | 13.829 |  |  |
| \% Leonis, . . . | 2 | 20 | Jan. 2. Feb. 24. | 15 39 48 <br> 1544   | 23531.258 | 30.019 | 74 | 2.197 | 23533.485 | 15.477 |  |  |
| a Herculis, . . | 3 | 16 | Mar. 27. Apr. 24. | 143727.091 | $\begin{array}{lllll}1 & 33 & 10 & .870\end{array}$ | 29.942 | 81 | 1.288 | 13312.158 | 14.933 |  |  |
| a. Pegasi, .... | 2 | 16 | Oct. 25. Nov, 14. | 14.938 .050 | $\begin{array}{llll}1 & 5 & 22.312\end{array}$ | 29.966 | 83 | 0.902 | 15153.214 | 14.836 |  |  |
| $\gamma$ Pegasi, .... | 2 | 12 | Oct. 25. Nov. 14. | $\begin{array}{llll}14 & 6 & 1\end{array} .906$ | 11147.135 | 29.966 | 81 | 0.856 | $1 \quad 147.991$ | 13.915 | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 14^{\prime \prime} .721$ |  |
| Regulus, . | 1 | 18 | Nov. 28. Jan. 12. | 12 54, 5S . 930 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 9 & 14.326\end{array}$ | 30.035 | 71 | 0.131 | $0 \quad 914.504$ | 13413.434 |  | 4 13.654 |
| « Ophiuchi, . . | 2 | 10 | Mar. 15. Apr. 22. | 124250.910 | 02122.362 | 29.993 | 84 | 0.893 | 02122.655 | 13.565 |  |  |
| Attair, .... | 2 | 16 | Apr. 28. Jan. 9. | 82153.530 | 44215.821 | 29.862 | 85 | 3.874 | 4. 4219.695 | 13.225 |  |  |
| $\propto$ Orionis, . | 1 | 20 | Nov. 7. Jan, 15. | 72136.670 | 542 429.526 | 30.035 | 74 | 4.855 | 54234.381 | 11.051 |  |  |
| $\propto$ Serpentis,.. | 2.3 | 12 | Mar. 9. Apr. 9. | $7 \quad 259.390$ | $\begin{array}{lllll}6 & 1 & 8 & .002\end{array}$ | 29.993 | S0 | 5 . 04.4 | $\begin{array}{llll}6 & 1 & 13 & .045\end{array}$ | 12.435 |  |  |
| Procyon, . . | 1.2 | 16 | Nov. 8. Jan. 23. | 5430.010 | $721 \quad 5.522$ | 30.035 | 73 | 6.280 | 72111.802 | 11.812 | 13412.587 |  |

## TABLE IIT.

Shewing the Latitudes for the Madras Observatory such as deduced from 59 Stars near the Zenith by 500 Observations.

| I. | 11. | 111. | IV. | V. | V1. | VII. | VIII. | 1 X | X. | XI. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Names and charac ters of Stars. |  | $\begin{aligned} & \dot{\dot{s}} \\ & \stackrel{3}{c} \\ & \vdots \\ & \dot{\circ} \\ & \dot{Z} \end{aligned}$ | Pcriod during which observed. | Mean Declinations January. 1805. | Corrected Zenith distances minus Refrac. |  | Corrcctell Zeuith Distances. | Latitudes. | Corrected Declinations tor Jan. 180s. |  |
| $\zeta$ Geminorum | 3 | 16 | Feb. 19. March 30. | $20^{\circ} 50^{\prime} 43^{\prime \prime}$ | $7^{\circ} 46^{\prime \prime} 18^{\prime \prime} .373$ | $6^{\prime \prime} .536$ | $7^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 24^{\prime \prime} .909$ | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 18^{\prime \prime} .091$ | $20^{\circ} 50^{\prime} 3 \mathrm{~s}^{\prime \prime} .343$ | -4'.657 |
| $\gamma$ Leonis . . . | 3 | 10 | Dec. 21. Jan. 12. | 204926 | $7 \quad 45 \quad 4.151$ | 6.540 | $\begin{array}{llll}7 & 4.5 & 10.691\end{array}$ | 15.309 | 204924.125 | -1.875 |
| Arcturus | 1. | 20 | Feb. 6. March 20. | $\begin{array}{lllll}20 & 12 & 14.42\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{llll}7 & 7 & 59.639\end{array}$ | 6.051 | $7 \quad 758.690$ | 15.736 | $20 \quad 1212.124$ | -2.296 |
| $\zeta$ Boolis | 3 | 6 | May 10. and 27. | 19556 | 65042.566 | 5.731 | 65048.297 | 17.703 | $1955 \quad 0.731$ | -5.269 |
| $\beta$ Arielis | 3 | 10 | Oci. 28. Nov. 13. | 1951 a | $646 \quad 42.181$ | 5.679 | 6 46 47 | 14.140 | $19511.294^{\circ}$ | -0.706 |
| ${ }^{n}$ Bootis | 3 | 8 | Jan. 24. Feb. 11. | 19 22 58 | 61830.041 | 5.332 | 61835.373 | 22.627 | 192248.907 | -9.093 |
| $\delta^{3}$ Arielis | 4 | 12 | Oct. 28. Nov. 14. | $18 \quad 5850.95$ | $5 \quad 54.32 .869$ | 5.010 | 5 54 37 | 13.071 | 185851.313 | +0.363 |
| - Cancri | 4 | 18 | Nov. 30. April 10. | 155147 | 54720.541 | 4.913 | 54.751 .454 | 15.540 | 185144.885 | -2.112 |
| 5 a Sagitte | 4 | 6 | April 28. May 5. | 17 34, 31 | 4. $30 \quad 11.164$. | 3.720 | 4.3014 .854 | $19.116^{\circ}$ | 173428.318 | -5.682 |
| m Boolis .... | 3.4 | 6 | March 5. and 20. | $17 \quad 1546$ | 41125.581 | 3.506 | 4. 1129.087 | 16.913 | $17 \quad 1542.521$ | -3.479 |
| $\gamma$ Geminorum | 2.3 | 14 | Dec. 2. Feb. 12. | 163318 | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 28 & 59.806\end{array}$ | $3.210^{\circ}$ | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 29 & 3 \\ 3 & .022\end{array}$ | 14.978 | 163316.456 | -1.544 |
| - Leonis .... | 3 | 8 | Dec. 10. Jan. 2. | 162940 | $\begin{array}{lll}3 & 25 & 20.001\end{array}$ | 2.994 | 32528.495 | 11.005 | $\begin{array}{llll}16 & 29 & 42.429\end{array}$ | +2.429 |
| $\gamma$ Serpentis | 3 | 8 | March 12. April 5. | 161835 | $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllll}3 & 14 & 11.183\end{array}$ | 2.705 | $\begin{array}{llllll}3 & 14 & 14.188\end{array}$ | 20.812 | $\begin{array}{llll}16 & 18 & 27.702\end{array}$ | -7.298 |
| Aldebaran | 1 | 20 | Oct. 30. Dec. 9. | $16 \quad 623$ | $\begin{array}{lrrr}3 & 2 & 7.348\end{array}$ | 2.557 | $\begin{array}{lrr}3 & 2 & 9.905\end{array}$ | 13.829 | $\begin{array}{llll}16 & 06 & 23.339\end{array}$ | +0.339 |
| $\beta$ Leonis | 2 | 20 | Jan. 2. Feb. 24. | $\begin{array}{llll}15 & 39 & 45.28\end{array}$ | 23531.228 | 2.197 | $\begin{array}{llll}2 & 35 & 33.485\end{array}$ | 15.077 | $\begin{array}{llll}15 & 39 & 46.919\end{array}$ | +1.639 |
| y Tauri . . | 3 | 12 | Oct. 23. Nov. 13. | $\begin{array}{llll}15 & 8 & 49\end{array}$ | 2434.103 | 1.748 | $2 \begin{array}{lr}2 & 4 \\ 1 & 39.851\end{array}$ | 13.149 | $\begin{array}{llll}15 & 8 & 49.285\end{array}$ | +0.285 |
| * Hercules | 3 | 16 | March 27. April 24. | $14 \begin{array}{lll}14 & 37 & 27.09\end{array}$ | 13310.570 | 1.228 | 13312.158 | 14.933 | 14.3725 .592 | -1.498 |
| a Pegasi | d | 16 | Oci. 25. Nov. 13. | 14.9388 .05 | 15922.312 | 0.902 | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 5 & 23.214\end{array}$ | 14.836 | $\begin{array}{llll}14 & 9 & 36.648 \\ 16 & 6 & 1.04\end{array}$ | -1.402 |
| ${ }^{7}$ Pegasi | 2 | 12 $\times 8$ $\times 8$ | Oct. 25. Nor. 14. | $\begin{array}{llll}14 & 6 & 1.906\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{rrr}1 & 1 & 47.135 \\ 0 & 51 & 01\end{array}$ | 1.857 | $\begin{array}{lrr}1 & 1 & 47 \\ 0 & 51 & 991\end{array}$ | 13.915 | $\begin{array}{lll}16 & 6 & 1.425 \\ 13 & 55 & 36\end{array}$ | -0.175 |
| Del! | +. 5 | 8 | Oct. 24. Nov. 6. | 135536 | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 51 & 21.905\end{array}$ | 0.709 | 05122.614 | 13.386 | $\begin{array}{llll}13 & 55 & 36.018 \\ 13 & 54 & 58\end{array}$ | +0.048 |
| 3 Aquitic | 4.4 | 6 | Jarr 14. Feb. 7. | 13 54 54 <br> 13 35  | 05044.213 | 0.713 | 0 50 0 | 9.076 | 13 54 58.360 <br> 13 35  | +0.048 +4.005 |
| -2 Orionis | 4.5 | 4 | Feb. 19. and 26. | 131148 | $\begin{array}{r}0 \\ 0 \\ \hline\end{array}$ | 0.104 | $\begin{array}{r}0 \\ 0 \\ \hline\end{array}$ | 14.325 | $\begin{array}{lllllllll}13 & 11 & 46.709\end{array}$ | -1.291 |
| Mean Latitude from the whole, |  |  |  |  | $13 \quad 4 \quad 13.293$ | Mean of Star's N. of Zen. $13 \quad 415.482$ |  |  |  |  |



## TABLE IV.

Shewing the Latitudes given by Stars, as observed North or South of the Zenith.

| Name of Places where obscrved. | Names and Number of Stars observed by. | Latitudes by Stars North of the Zenith. | Latitudes by Stars South of the Zenith. | Excess by North of Zenith. | Mean Latitudes. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Coringa, in the Northem Cirears. | By 15 Stars Not th of Zenith, with Sextant ............. <br> 40 Stars South of Zenith. Mr. Topping .......... | $16^{\circ} 4 S^{\prime} 42^{\prime \prime} .5$ | $\left.16^{\circ}+s^{\prime} 35^{\prime \prime} \cdot \quad 7\right\}$ | $6^{\prime \prime} \cdot 8$ | $16^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 39^{\prime \prime}$ |
| Paugher, in the Mysore. | \& Buotis, o Leonis, $\beta$ Leonis ............................. | $14 \quad 620.312$ | $\left.\begin{array}{cccc} \ldots 14 & 6 & 17.919 \end{array}\right\}$ | 2.393 | 14619.165 |
| Paudree, in the Carnatic. | Aldebaran ...... . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . a Orionis, Regulus. Major Lambton | 131949.018 | $\left.\begin{array}{ll} 1319 & 40.370 \end{array}\right\}$ | 8.6.48 | 1319 4.4.69 |
| Observatory, near Fort St. George. | TABLE II. <br> Arcturus, Aldebaran, $\beta$ Lemis, $\alpha$ Herculis, $\alpha$ Pegasi, .. ү Pegasi, Regulus, a Ophiuchi, Atair, a Orionis, a Serpentis, Procyon, <br> TABLE III. <br> By 23 Stars N. of Zenith, with the Zenith Sector......... <br> 29) Stars S. of Zenith . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . <br> TABLE V. <br> By 110 Oservatious of $\odot \mathrm{N}$. of Zenith $\qquad$ <br> 9 Observations of $\odot \mathrm{S}$. of Zenith <br> Obscrations by Mr. Goldingham and Mr. Topping. <br> Arcturus, $\delta$ Arictis, Adeleharan, Markab, $\beta$ Delphini .. <br> Regulus, a Ophinchi, Attair, a Orionis, a Serpentis, Z. S. <br> By 25 Stars, very near the Zenith N...................... <br> 25. Stars South, and very near the Zenith, Circular Inst. <br> By 30 Obscraations of $\odot$ N. of Zerith ................... <br> 26 Observations of $\odot \mathrm{S}$. of Zenith. Zen. Sector <br> By 25 Stars N. of Zenith ................................ <br> 25 Stars S. of Zenith, with Sextant . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | $\left.\begin{array}{ccc}15 & 4 & 14.721 \\ \ldots & \ldots & \ldots\end{array}\right] .$. |  | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \cdot 134 \\ & 4 \cdot \cdot 369 \\ & 2 \cdot 242 \\ & 5 \cdot 09 \\ & 1 \cdot 34 \\ & 1 \cdot 58 \\ & 6 \cdot 17 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{lll}13 & 4 & 13.656\end{array}$ |
| Dculayoonta, near Bangalore, in the Mysore. |  | $\left.\begin{array}{lll} 13 & 0 & 1.04 \\ \cdots & \ldots & . \end{array}\right)$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \cdot 04 \\ & 7 \cdot 63 \end{aligned}$ | 125955.49 |
| Trivandaporam, in the Carnatic. | Aldebaran, Regulus <br> a Orionis | 114450.55 | $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { …....... } \\ 114141.45\end{array}\right\}$ | $9 \cdot 50$ | 114447.78 |

## TABLE V.

Zenith Distances and Latitudes by the Sum, April and Muy, 1807.

| Days on which observed. | Zenith dist. of $\odot$ 's centre. | Corresponding Latitudcs. | Mean of Lat. by Northern and Sonthern Z. distances. | Mean Lat. ${ }^{\text {P }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| April 15. | $3^{\circ} 36^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime}$. S +9 | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} \quad 44^{\prime \prime} .949$ |  |  |
| 16. | 3 $\begin{array}{llll}3 & 15 & 19 & .065\end{array}$ | 4 3.265 |  |  |
| 18. | 23235.999 | $4 \quad 7.619$ |  |  |
| 19. | $\underset{\sim}{2} 1152.124$ | 4.3 .324 |  |  |
| 20. | 1510.725 | 359.525 |  |  |
| 21. | 13026.776 | $4 \quad 1.276$ |  |  |
| 23. | 04945.564 | 359.564 |  |  |
| 24. | 02941.305 | 358.004 |  |  |
| 25. | $\begin{aligned} & 0956.739 \\ & \odot \text { North. } \\ & \\ & \odot \text { N } \end{aligned}$ | 42.339 | $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} z^{\prime \prime} .207$ | $15^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 3^{\prime \prime} .325$ |
| 26. | - 9 99.001 | $4 \quad 3.389$ |  | 1345 |
| 27. | 029 a . 604 | 3.496 |  |  |
| 28. | 04811.508 | 5.692 |  |  |
| 30. | 12553.806 | 4.389 |  |  |
| May 3. | 22039.055 | 2.34 .5 |  |  |
|  | 25554.866 | 0.134 |  |  |
| 8. | 34640.172 | 5.228 |  |  |
| 9. | $4{ }^{4}$ S 5.912 | $5.58 S^{\prime}$ |  |  |
| 11. | 4350.418 | 8.652 |  |  |
| 12. | 45035.340 | 3.560 |  |  |
| 13. | 55 | 6.449 | $\begin{array}{llll}13 & 4 & 4 & 449\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  |  | Diff. 2.242 |  |

VolX. Plate 6.

chance; and it was this consideration which led me to examine whether I could, not discover some law by which it was governed.
9. For this purpose I gathered all the observations which I could collect, and from as many different places in the Peninsula as I could, provided they were obtained in sufficient numbers at each place. These being arranged in the order of the declinations, and the mean results of northern and southern zenith distances being taken separately, I nòticed invariably (though in unequal degrees) a smatl excess in the northern, and defect in the southern sets.
10. An abstract of these deviations is given in Table IV. and the reader will do well to refer to it in order to judge of the consistency of the preceding remark, and of the solidity of what I have further to say on the subject.
11. This exposition being sufficient to shew the tendency of observations taken north of the zenith to give 100 great a latitude, and the contrary of the southern ones, I shall now endeavour to account for this circumstance as follows.
12. Let Z (PlateV1. Fig. 1) be the true zenith of any place. $E D$, and $E d$, the declinations of any two stars, one north, the other south, and nearly at equal distances from the said zenith. By the present experiments, if we use the declination of $D$, the latitude will fall somewhere in $L$ : but if we use the declination of $d$, then it will fall on the opposite side, somewhere in l. Therefore the sum of the zenith distances $D L+l d$, L. 13
will fall short of the differences of declinations $E D$, and $E d$ by the small are $L l$.
13. Let now the zenith be altered into $\zeta$ ( $F_{i g}$ 2) so that $d$ be now north of it, and let $\delta$ be the place of a third star, south of the zenith $\zeta$. Then if we use the declination of $d$ (which before gave us too low a latitude) it will now give it in $\lambda$; and if we use that of $\delta$ it will fall in $\Lambda$ south of the true zenith : so that instead of having $E D-E \delta=$ sum of the four zenith distances, we have it (Fig. 2) $=D L+L l+l d+d \lambda+\lambda \Lambda+\Lambda^{\delta}$. That is, the four observed distances + the small arcs $L l+\lambda \Lambda$. Therefore, if we suppose the declination $E$ $D$ to have been well determined, that of $d$ is too low by the arc $L l$, and that of $\partial$, by $L l \div \lambda \Lambda$.
14. For example; let the true place of Aldebaran be at $x$, and its apparent place (affected by the error in the declination) be at $D$, Regutus at $d$ and $\alpha$ Orionis at ${ }^{\circ}$; then at the observations at Paudree and Tivandaporam we have
$\left.\begin{array}{llllll}D L & 20 & 46^{\prime} & 33^{\prime \prime} .682 & \mathrm{~N} \cdot \\ 7 d & 0 & 24 & 43 & .040 & \mathrm{~S} . \\ l \\ l \lambda & 1 & 10 & 9 & .920 & \mathrm{~N} .\end{array}\right\}$ of the respective zeniths.

Sum, 84431.452
Now the mean declination of Aldebaran being
Equal . . . $16^{\circ} 6^{\prime} 23^{\prime \prime} .73$
And $\alpha$ Orionis $=72136.61$
TVe have $E D-E A 84 A 17.12$
84431.45

Diff. $L l+i_{\Lambda}=$.
and in order to have separately the values of these quantities, we have at Paudree

# Latitude $E L$ by Aldebaran $13019^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime} .018$ E $l$ by Regulus . . . . . . 41 . 340 <br> Difference Ll. . . . . 7 .678 

At Trivandaporam,
Latitude $E \lambda$ by Regulus . $11^{\circ} 44^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime} .329$ $E_{\Lambda}$ by 0 Orionis . . . . . . 41.67

Difference $\lambda$. 1 . . . . . . . . . . . 7 . 879
Hence $L l+{ }^{2} . \Lambda=7^{\prime \prime} .678+7.879=15.557$ as before.
15. It is therefore evident that, taking the declination of Aldebaran to be corrected, and the observation good, then the declination of $\alpha$ Orionis should be increased by $15^{\prime \prime} .557$. Again, if we revert to what I have said higher up (Para. $7^{*}$ ) it may be inferred. that these errors proceed from assigning originaliy too great a difference of polar distance between the extreme stars from which the mean latitude is deduced (as for example betweell Arclurus, and Procyon:) hence the mean latitude, which is derired from both, will fall somewhat too low ; both on account of the excess of this arc, and also of the error of polar distance of $P D$ $-P$ s.
16. It follows from this, that the successive small arcs of declination Dy, $\mu v, v d, d \dot{\delta}$ (Fig.3) will severally be too great, and this seems to be the case with the declinations of the twelve stars registered in Table II.
17. It is true that in the foregoing example, where I have compared the results given by Aldebaran, Regulus and o. Orionis, I have selected an extreme case ; but

> - Sec also iilfa. Pa. 17
> $\operatorname{l.~}_{4}$.

## 520 ACCOUNT OE AStronomical observitions

it is likewise evident, from what appears in Table IV. that were the mean of any number of northern and southern stars, to be taken separately at any two places of different latitudes, and in the order here described, the deviation would tend the same way as in the above exposition ; and this, it may be supposed, by a certain quantity, thrown in from a distant zenith, on account of refraction, which cannot be corrected here for the quantity $P a$, nor done away by that due to the small arcs D $y$ near the zeniths. Also that the latitude of $\zeta$ will fall too low by a certain quantity $(P D-P x) D x+$ $\frac{L l+\lambda \Lambda}{n}$, where $D x$ is the whole error affecting the declination of $D$; and the divisor $n$, will be in some proportion of the error affecting the whole arc $D \delta$ (always in excess) from the extremities of which the mean laritudes of $Z$ and $\zeta$ were deduced.
18. Wrta the mean latitude given in Table II. we can therefore be no otherwise satisfied than from the following consideration, which as far as it affects our latisude seems to reduce the error $D x+\frac{L l+\lambda \Lambda}{n}$ to a mere nothing.
19. Regulus, a star of the first magnitude, no doubt attentively observed from every part of Europe, owing to its being very near the ecliptic, and situated only 9 minutes and 14 seconds from the zenith of the Madras Observatory, gives a latitude differing only from the Inear results in Table II. by $20^{\prime \prime} .22$. This, no doubt, will be admitted to be a strong indication, that its declination, such as laid down in the tables, is very accurate. Regulus may therefore, without inconveniency, be taken as a visible point in the heavens, from which ra lay down the position of the other stars; by this
means the zenith distances applied to it will give results consistent both with the observations at Greenwich, and ar Madras, and thus form a link by which the tivo zeniths may hereafter be connected.
20. For this reason, in computing the X th column in Table III. I have adopted the following process:

> I.


## II.


21. Ir is greatly to be regretted that there are no instruments in the Madras Observatory, wherewith to take accurately great zenith distances ; for corresponding observations of stars near the zenith of Greenwich and of Paris, would have afforded powerful means for correcting, after the same manner, the declinations of all stars in that extensive space of the heavens which divides the two Observatories.

## On the Sun's Declination.

22. Ir is a fact deserving of notice, that the medium of 20 observations of the sun, taken with the zenith

522 ACCOUNT OF ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATIONS
seetor, (Table V.) gives the latitude of the Observatory only $13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 3^{\prime \prime} .328$ which is less by $10^{\prime \prime} .326$ than that brought out by the stars in Table II.
23. The great difficulty of observing the sun, when in the meredian in tropical climates, owing to the great tremor of the atmosphere ar noon time, induced me not to consult it in laying down the latitude of this Observatory.
24. However, on comparing the mean latitude in Table V. with the result of similar observations, formerly taken with the same instrument by Mr. Goldinghant, ( 56 in number) I found that his latitude by the sun, namely, $1304^{\prime} 5^{\prime \prime} .66$, differed only by $2^{\prime \prime} .332$ from mine. There could therefore remain no doubt that the sun gave a lower latitude than the stars; and I was further confirmed in this opinion, on Major Lambton communicating to me his remark, that when observing the sun, in various parts of the Peninsula, his results were likewise in defect.
25. Is order to make a further trial of this, let us compute the exact time when the sun was precisely in the parallel of the Miachas Observatory, and then (taking the difference of longitude between Greenzeich and this place to be well known) determine the sun's declination for that moment, from what it is given in the nautical almanac for two preceding, and two succeeding moons.
26. For this, taking the four zenith distances observed nearest and on each side of the zenith, and interpolating in the usual way *, we have

* The formula of which is $y=a+P x Q x \frac{a-1}{2}+R x^{x-1}$
$x \underline{L}_{2}^{2} \& c$. where $x$ is to be found by resolving the equation.

April 24, $029^{\prime} 41^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{S}=1781+=a$ $25,0 \quad 9 \quad 56 \quad \mathrm{~S}=596+=b$ $26, \quad 0 \quad 9 \quad 39 \mathrm{~N} .=579-=c$ $27, \quad 0 \quad 293 \mathrm{~N} .=1743-=d$

Hence :


Therefore $a=11781 ; P=-1158 ; Q=10 ; \frac{2 P}{2}=Z$
$=-237$. Hence $X=-\frac{z-1}{2} \pm \sqrt{\sqrt{\frac{z-1}{2}}-\frac{2}{2}} a$
$=1.5061$ \% or 1 day $12 \mathrm{~h} 8^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime} .84$. Therefore the sun was exactly in the parallel of the Observatory on the 25 th of April at $12^{\mathrm{b}} 8^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime} 84$ P. M. Madras time, and taking the difference of longitude to be $80^{\circ} 18^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$. which gives in time $5^{\mathrm{h}} 21^{\mathrm{m}} 14^{\mathrm{s}}$, then the sun was in the said parallel on the 25 th of April at $6^{\mathrm{h}} 47^{\mathrm{m}} 38^{\prime \prime}$. Greenwich time.
27. Now by interpolating again for the sun's declination at that instant, we have by the ephemerides

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { April } 24,1203844=45524=a \\
25,1258 \quad 3=46710=b \\
26,1318 \quad 4=47884=c \\
27,133725=49045=d \\
\text { Ilence: }
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
a c c c c \\
45524 ; 46710 ; 47884 ; 40045 \\
1186 ; 1174 ; 1161 \\
-12 ; 10 ; 13 \\
-1 ;
\end{gathered}
$$

## 524 ACCOUNT OF ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATIONS

Therefore $a=45524 ; P=1186 ; Q .=-12$, and $x=$ $\frac{61.557}{48}$; and $y=a+P x+Q x \cdot \frac{x-1}{2}=13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 3^{\prime \prime} \cdot 159$, which differs only from the mean latitude by the sun (Table V.) by 0 " .169 .
28. It is, I own, no easy matter to give a reason for so great a deviation. The difference between this position of the sun when in the parallel of the Observatory, and the latitude of that place as given by the stars, being $10^{\prime \prime} .326$, no error in the difference of longitude assumed between the Greenveich and Madras Observatories can accouut for it. For if we take $y=13^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 13^{\prime \prime} .654$ or $47053^{\prime \prime} .654$ (Table If.) then resolving the equation we
 or 1 day $66^{\mathrm{h}} 50^{\mathrm{m}} 19^{\mathrm{s}} .9$, which gives a difference of 8 minutes and 43 seconds of time for moving through $10^{\prime \prime} .326$ of a degree in declination. So that if we suppose the sun to be in the parallel given by the stars, the interval of time allowed for the difference of longitude between Madrus and Greenzoich must be diminished by that quantity, which is far beyond any uncertainty that may still subsist on that head.
29. Again; as to the time of apparent noon at Madras, the sun's transit was always observed with the fixed trausit instument, whilst I wâs observing it with the zenith sector; and these contemporary observations agreed always to a second of time. There can therefore be but little irregularity to apprehend from this element, and we are compelled, though under equal objections and difficulties, to ascribe the error to the declination either as assigned to the sun in the ephemerides, or to the stars in the catalogue for 1802; and and I believe the former are the most likely to create suspicion.
'30. Where great talents are combined with the most perfect instruments and assiduous practice, the cause can only be ascribed to that important correction on which we are still so yery uncertain : and on this I shall venture an opinion, not altogether unsupported by experiments *; which is, that the declination of the sun being deduced from observations taken at noon, and that of the stars at night time, the effects of refraction at these different periods may possibly vary materially, and what is allowed for zenith distances of the stars, be too much for zenith distances of the sun ; a surmise which explains at once why the sun, in the present instance, gives a lower latitude than the stars. This strongly suggests the expediency of further experiments for ascertaining a point, which, if established, would be highly conductive to important discoveries, in an interesting but imperfectly known branch of natural philosophy.

## JOHN WARREN.

Observatory, near Fort St. \}
George, ift of March, 1808. $\}$

[^115]
## IX.

Translations of two Letters of Nadir Shah, with Introductory Observations in a Letter to the President.

## BY BRIGADIER GENERAL JOHN MALCOLM.

> to henry colebroof, esQ.
> President of the Asiatic Society.

## MY DEAR SIR,

$\mathbf{I}_{\mathrm{N}}$ the course of researches into the history of Persia, my attention was particularly drawn to a collection of letters, and original state papers, of Nadir Shah, published after his decease by his favourite secretary Mírza Mehedí. This collection is held in the highest estimation in Persia, not only from the light it throws upon the history of that nation, but from the stile in which it is written, and which is considered to be the best model for those who desire to attain excellence in this branch of writing.

Ihave the pleasure to transmit, for the consideration of the Asiatic Society, translations of two of these letters which appear to be strongly illustrative of the character of Nadir Shaf, and the history of the period at which they were written, and which may perhaps be deemed on that account not unworthy of a place in the Society's Researches.

The first is addressed to Muhammud Ali Khan, Beglerbeg* of Fars, and must from its tenor have been

[^116]written early in the year 1731, a few monthis previous to the dethronement of Shaf Tamasl" which took place in the month of August of that year. Nadir Shaf published, at the period at which he wrote this letter, a proclamation or manifesto addressed to the inhabitants of Persia, in which, after stating his own successes against the Afghans and the other enemies of his country, and the evils which appeared likely to arise from the shameful peace which had been concluded with the Turks, he announces his intention of marching after the feast of $N a u R_{0} \approx$ (which occurred that year on the $22-d$ of Ramzon or 10 th of March) and of not only obliging tbe Turks to consent to more just terms, but of depriving of dignity and power, and considering as infidels, all those who should oppose his intentions. This manifesto, as well as his letter to the Vieglerleg of Fars, sufficiently prove, that his designs were at that moment more directed against his own sovereign than that of Constantinople.

There is no epoch in the life of Nadir Shah at which he acted with more consummate art and policy, than upon this occasion. The crown of Persia was completely within his grasp. But he appears to have considered it as indispensable to have his right universally acknowledged by his countrymen before he seized it. He had within a period of thirteen years risen from obscurity to unrivalled pre-eminence in the service of his weak monarch; and, by his wonderful valour and conduct, had not only rescued his country from the Afghans, the Turks and the Russiuns, who taking advantage of the decline of the Sofarijagh dynasty and consequent dissentions of the nobles of the empire, had made themselves masters of its richest cities and finest pro-
vinces ; but he had received the military spirit of the Persians, and roused a nation sunk in sloth and luxury, to great-and successful exertion. But neither this success, the imbecility of Shaf Tamasp, nor a reliance upon his own fame and strength, could induce him to take the last step of usurpation, until he had by his arts excited a complete contempt in the minds of his countrymen for their reigning sovereign, and a pride in his glory, that was likely to make his elevation seem more the accomplishment of their wishes than of their ambition. The great ability with which he laboured to effect this object, is admirably shown in his letter to Muhammed Ali Khan. He commences by stating his victories over the Afghans, whom he had not only completely expelled from the empire, but pursued into their own territories. He next exposes the impolitic and humiliating conditions of the treaty which the king had concluded with the Turkish government; and, on the ground of its bringing disgrace on Persia, asserts his right and intention, as the successful champion of the independence of his country; to abrogate the ignominious engagement; and while he flatters the national spirit of the Persians by anticipating success against their ancient rivals the 'Turks, he endeavours to enflame all their bigotry by giving the colour of religion to the cause which he has undertaken; and calls upon them, with the well feigned zeal of an enthusiast, to fight for the preservation and existence of the holy sect of Shiah, a schism which, as appears from his whole life, he always considered to be a heresy, and which it was the first and last object of his reign to eradicate and destroy: and, to make the effect of this letter complete, he concludes it with the usual declaration of all Muhummedan leaders who have made religion the pretext of
war, that he should consider and punish as infidels all those that refused their concurrerce and aid in the sacred cause to which he professed himself devoted.

The second leter is from Delfi, and must have been written immediately after the arrival of Nadia Silah in that city, in the month of February 1738. It con3mences with a clear statement of the causes of his invasion of Hindustan; which is followed by a concise relation of his military operations, and a particular account of the celebrated battle of Karnull, in which he defeated the emperor of India. The account of occurrences before the action, the action itself, the subsequent visit which Nadir received from Muhanmed SHAH, and his resolution to replace that monarch upon the throne of his ancestors, are stated with equal perspicuity and force, and the whole of this letter is written in a less inflated stile than any oriental composition of a similar nature which has fallen under my observation. It records events of almost unparalleled magnitude, and the expression is (as far as I can judge) never more warm than what the subject justifies, and indeed requires.

These letters are perhaps calculated to give the reader a more farourable impression of the character of Nadir Shaf, than any thing before published relating to that great and successful conqueror; who is chiefly known in Europe by the report of his tyanny and cruelties, and above all by the massacre of Delhi, which reached Europectn narrators through the exaggerated statements of the surviving inhabitants of that unfor. runate city. It is far from my intention to trouble you with what the Persian advocates of Nadir Shah state in vindication of his conduct upon that memorable occasion ; nor do I mean to enter in this place into Vol. X .
any inquiry regarding the character and actions of this extraordinary man ; but you will, I am assured, forgive me, if I offer some observations on the manner in which the history of Nadif Shah and of several other Asialic princes of eminence have been given by Euroneau writers.

In describing eastern despots, there has often appeared to me a stronger desire to satisfy the public of the author's attachment to freedom and his abhorrence so tyranny, and despotic power, under every shape, than to give a clear and just view of those characters whose history was the immediate object of his labours. This usage may no cloubt, in some points of view, appear laudable. It may have a tendency to impress those who peruse the work with a still greater love of the first of all human blessings, rational liberty. But others, who look to a volume of Asiatic instory with no other desire but that of obtaining historical truth. and a correct knowledge of the social and political state of the nation that is described, will be disposed to regret that there was any prejudice on the mind of an anthor or translator, that gave him a bias unfavourable to the gratification of their hopes. They will wish, that he had looked upon the political world with more toleration; and though they may not censure his warm admiration of the government of his own country, they will lament the existence of a feeling: which was adverse to an impartial consideration of events illustrative of the general history of the human mind, and which has led him to stamp with general and unqualified reprobation rulers, who, however low their pretentions may be rated, if tried by the standard of countries towards whom that over which they reigned had no one point of affinity, must have stood high in the scale, if measured by that more applicable principle,
which takes as its foundation, the actual state of 1 k e community in which such characters were born, the means which they possessed, and the actions wh ch they achieved; and, on this fair and just ground, pronounces with truth and discernment, on the ight they had, from their qualities and achievements, to that presminence which they attained.

If such an author were to write the histcry of Nadir Shah, he would probably see something more than a mere usurper and tyrant in the man, who, born in a low rank of life, at a period when his country was overrun by foreign invaders, raised himself by the force of his own genius and courage to the highest military rank; attacked, defeated, and cxpelled every enemy from Persia; and afterwards, with the universal consent of his countrymen, scized the sceptre which his valor had saved, and which a weaker hand could not have wielded. Such an historian, after dwelling with pleasure if not enthusiasm, on the carly events of his life, would accompany Nadir with satisfaction in his war upon those barbarous Aforkan tribes, who for a series of years had committed the most horrid ravages in Persia; and thongh it would be impossible to commend the motives that led that monarch to attack the Emperor of Indiu, the extraordinary valour and conduct which he displays in that enterprise, the exercise he gave by it to that military spirit which he had with such difficulty rekindled among his countrymen, and the magnanimity with which he restored the crown (which he had conquered) to the weak representative of the illustrious house of Timur, might, without offence to truth, be stated by such a writer in mitigation of that insatiable desire of glory which prompted the enterprise, and of those excesses by which it was artended.

The actions of Nadir Shah, until the period of his return from India, are a theme of constant praise among his conntrymen. Of the remainder of his life they say, that, though it was not unmarked by great deeds, it was too evident that he had become intoxicated with success, and no longer acted under the guidance of reason ; and all Persian authorities agree, that, after he had in a paroxysm of rage, or rather madness, put out the eyes of his eldest son Reza Kuli Mírza, he became altogether insane. But neither this act of attrocity, nor the other cruelties which Nadir committed towards the close of his regn, have eradicated from the minds of his countrymen the sentiments of veneration which they entertain for his memory, as the deliverer of his country from its numerous, cruel, and insolent enemies.

I must trust to your indulgence to excuse the length of this letter. If the accompanying translations are deemed worthy of being inserted in the transactions of the Asiatic Society, I hope to be able to forward hereafter others of a similar kind.

I am, My Dear Sir,
wrih sincere respect and esteem
Yours faithfully,
JOHN MALCOLM.
31 st Octoker. 1808.

## LETTERI.

> (Written before Nadir Shair ascended the throne,) addressed to Muhammed Alí Khan, Beglerieg of Fars; and giving an account of the conquest of Herap.

WO the highest of the exalted in station, the Chief of the great Nobles Muhammed Ali Khan, these happy tidings be conveyed.

Aided by the bounty of an all powerful Creator, and the happy auspices of the house of HadDer * and the twelve holy Imams (on whom be eternal mercy,) with my crescent formed and all subduing scimitar, which in glory resembles the recent moon, and with my powerful and victorious army, and soldiers of propitious destiny, who are those sent from heavent, I have, under the influence of good fortune, surpassed all others in the capture of fortresses and cities.

AT this happy and auspicious period, the host of Afghans of the tribe of Abdalif, who fled from the edge of the conquering swords of my dragon-like warriors, retired, as a spider within its wet $t$, into the fort of Herat. Their hearts were distracted with fear, and the pillars of patience and fortitude, that had supported their resolution, were cast down. Reduced to

[^117]distress by the complicated evils of famine and of the sword, they implored mercy; and " as clemency is enjoined to the powerful," I permitted them to evacuate the fort; and have sent (with a view to disperse them) sixty thousand of this tribe with their families, who were reduced to great misery, to the city of Khar Shabyar in the province of Khorasan. By the favour and blessing of that omnipotent being, by whom I have been protected, the fort of Herat is in my possession ; and the whole of the tribe of $\Lambda \int_{\mathcal{g}}$ hans, as also of the Ghelyahs* of Candahar, who were in the bounds of alliance with them, have submitted; and have placed upon their necks the collar of obedience.

In the midst of these actions, by which the whole country from Herat to Candahar has been completely subdued, and the disturbers of tranquillity on the ho:ders of Khorasan exemplarily punished, I learn by aletter from Muhammed Keza Khan, who was sent ambassador to the court of Rimm $中$, that he has concluded a vreaty with the king, by which it is agreed that the 'furkish empire shall possess the territory on the other bank of the river Aras; and the Persian, all upon this: but no arrangement appears to have been made for the liberation of the prisoners of the sect of ALí who are confined in the Turkish dominions.

Is is an incontestible truth, that the existence of humble persons, like us, who, from the favour of a divine providence, have obtained rank and preeminence over others, is for no other purpose than that we should be the friends of the sect of Shiomi, that we

[^118]should relieve the distress and dispel the grief of the poor and afflicted; ("for to protect the ruled is the duty of the ruler.") That we should combat the enemies of the weak, and eradicate the distemper of sedition from the body of the state : not deaf deaf to the voice of the helpless and unmindful of those that are prisoners) we should break such sacred engagements, to conciliate the approbation and yield to the power of a proud enemy.

By the great and powerful God, this day is big with ruin to their enemies and with joy to the sect of Shiahs, the discomfiture of the evil-minded is the glory and exaltation of the followers of Alr. When the avenger is at hand the wicked tremble and are appalled. Thior eyes roll wildly like one in the agonies of death. Let the danger pass over, and it is forgotten. They revile and mock with their tongues.

This is a just description of the Turkesh tribe. Why should we listen to more prevarications? Or why confine ourselves to the bank of the Aras *; when it is manifest, that the peace, which has been concluded, is contrary to the will of God and irreconcileable to the wisdom or dignity of imperial greatness.

I have stated to the minister of the exalted prince, that such a peace cannot be permanent, and that I conclude the mission of an ambassador to have been an act of compulsion, as I cannot believe that the prince would, under other circumstances, have consented to such a degradation of his dignity. But at all events, as offerings are continually made in the palaces of the lords of the faithful, and the holy men with broken
hearts are praying to their divine creator for the release of the Musulmanprisoners; it wasmy determination, after receiving leave from the holy prince of regions * Ali Ibn Mausa Reza (on whom be eternal blessings) to march on the second day after the feast of Feter $\downarrow$ towards the disputed quarter, aided by the divine power, and accompanied by an army raging like the troubled ocean.

## VERSES.

! shall overfinw iny banks, and fly like an impatient lover to his mistess;
Tike a torrent, will I rush, with my breast ever on the earth.
Hariz! if thy footsteps desire to gain, by the true path, the holy house,
Carry along with thee the virtue of the exalted of Nejef.
I Have represented also, that I have sent the high in dignity, Mahsum Ali Beg Geraili, ambassador to the court of Rum, and that he is attended by a respectable escort ; and that he is fully acquainted with my wishes and sentiments.

You will no doubt be rejoiced to hear, that, as it was io be hoped from the goodness of God, this peace with the Turks is not likely to endure; and you may rest in expectation of my approach. For, by the blessing of the most high, I will advance immediately, with an army elated with success, skilled in sieges, numerous as emmets, valiant as lions; and combining with the vigor of youth the prudence of age. I will attend on the exalted prince, and then proceed towards the Turkish frontier.

[^119]
## VERSE.

Let the cup-bearer tell our enemy, the worshipper of fire, To cover his head with dust ;
For the water, that had departed, is returned into its channel.
Such of the tribe of Shiahs, as are backward on this great occasion, and are reconciled to this shameful peace, should be expelled from the faithful seat; and for ever counted among its enemies. To slaughter them will be meritorious; to' permit their existence, impious.

[^120][^121]" If an incomparable army were assembled,
or At this moment, when numbers of the Shiahs of Persia
"Are prisoners in the hand of cruel men,
"And, with their lamentable cries uttered morn and eve,
"Have rendered dark and gloomy the azure sky;
"It is acknowledged by the tribe of Shiahs,
"That the king + of Khorasan, the Imam of the age,
"Is not considered by the men of Per ia
"As less honourable, nor of lesser fame, than Mutasim!
"Then, by the mercy and greatness of the creator,
"s Victory is still declared to these soldiers.
" Under the auspices of the most merciful of the world,
"I have taken ample vengeance on the Afglans.
"Aided by the fortune of the lord of Khoo asan,
"I have been revenged on the whole tribe of the Afghans.
"There remains not in this quarter, at this period,
"Aught of that tribe but their nan:e.
"In this war great actions have been fought,
"The Kezel-Gashes became each a sharp pointed thorn.
or From the slaughter that has been made, and tine blood that has been shed,
Our high polished scimitars have received a purplestain.
"I have taken from the worthless foe,
"With my sword, the region from Herat to Candahar $f$
"By the sacred temple of the lord $t$ of Nejef,
"We will turn with vehemence to that quarter :
"We will perform a pilgrimage to that threshold:
"And we will afford protection to our prisoners :
or We will take ample vengeance of the Turks.
"We will punish $\ddagger$ all our foes.
"And in this war, whoever continues inactive,
"Or from baseness remains in pretended ignorance,
"Both his property and his blood are lawful prize.
"He is to be considered out of the pale of the true faith."

## - Alr Mausa Reza, the seventh Inam, buried at Meshed.

* Persians; literally Redheads, a name given to them, from the circumstance of Shab Ismail having directed all true followers of the scct of Shiah to wear red caps.
$\dagger$ All, the son in law of the prophet, whois buried at Nejef.
$\ddagger$ Literally, furbish the garments.

Most Noble Lord, if the statc of the province of Fars will permit, lose not a moment in repairing to the court of the most exalted prince at $I_{s p a h a t h ; ~ a n d ~ r e-~}^{\text {ren }}$ present to him that, as the peace which has been concluded will benefit no person whosoever, and can in no light be fiewed as proper or reputable, it neither meets the approbation of the nobles nor the commonalty of the empire.

But, if you should be prevented from moving to the capital, owing to the dispute with the Arabs not being adjusted, let me be instantly informed. If you are able to quell these troubles, it is well. But, if you require aid, make me acquainted; and a detachment of my victorious army shall march to your support.

KeEP me regularly informed of the news of your quarter.

## L E T TER II.

> From Nadir Shah, to his son Reza Kuli Mírza, giving an account of the conquest of Delhi.

TO the exalted and glorious son of our wishes the valiant Reza Kuli Mírza, who is our vicegerent in Irtun, the seat of our empire; our most beloved, the pre-eminent in royal rank, allied to us in dignity:-be these glorious commands known.

Agreeably to our former communications, after the defeat of Afghan prince, Ashref Alí Merdan Khan was appointedour ambassador to the court of Hindustan for the purpose of rcpresenting to that court,
that as the turbulent Afghans of Cundahar and its neighbouring provinces were to be considered equal enemies to both states, it would be advisable to appoint an army from Hindustan, to occupy the passes and prevent the retreat of the marauders. The emperor Murammed Shah gave a ready assent, and concluded a treaty to the proposed effect. After the return of our ambassador, we sent Muhammed Alí Khan to the court of the Indian emperor to repeat our instances on this subject, and Muhammed Shah confirmed his former engagement.

After our glorious and victorious standards returned to Canduhar, we understood from our conqnering generals employed with a part of our force in the reduction of the Afghans of Kallat and Ghizni, that Muhammed Shan had in no respect finffiled his engagements ; and that no appearance of an Indian army had been scen in that quarter. This intelligence induced us to send with the utmost expedition, Mu゙hammed Khan Turkoman to the court of Delhito remind the Emperor of his promises ; but that sorereign and his ministers, in dereliction of their former engagements, treated the subject with neglect omitted answering our letters, and even put restraint on the person of our ambassador.

IN this situation we were impelled to march againstthe Afghans of Ghizni and Culbul, and after punishing the refractory mountaineers in that quarter, as we considered the neglect and contempt with which Muhammed Shah had behaved, and his condect to our ambassidor irreconcileable with friendship, we marched towards Sháhjehuinábuid.

Of our success in reducing the provinces of Peshawir and taking possession of Lahore, the former seat of empire, our beloved son has already been informed. We marched from that city the last day of Shavall, and on Friday the 10th of Zelkád reached Ambula, forty farfakhs from Sháhjehánábád. We here learnt, that Muhammed Shaf had collected from Hindustinn and the Dec'hin a numerous force, and accompanied by all his nobles, ly an army of three hundred thousand men, three hundred pieces of cannon, three or four hundred elephants, and other equipments in proportion, had marched from Delhi and arrived at Pänipet, a village twenty farsakhs from Ambala. We immediately directed the superfluous and heavy baggage of our conquering army to be left at Ambalu, and advanced to meet the enemy. Muh'ammed Shah also left Pánipet and marched to Curnál, which is twenty-five farsakhs from Delhi.

In the course of our march we detached a force of five or six thousand men in advance, who had orders to observe the appearance, numbers and order of Muifamed Shah's army. This body, when about two farsakiss from Carnall, fell in with the advance of the Hindurstanú army, which amounted to twelve thousand men: these they attacked and totally routed; presenting us with their general and many others, whom they made prisoncrs.

This signal defeat put a stop to Muhammed Shan's further advance. He halted at Carnal and surrounded his army with a trench: he also constructed ramparts and batteries on which he placed his cannon.

We had sent a detachment to march to the east
of Muhammed Shaf's camp and post themselve on the road that led to Delhi : this party received accounts on the night of Tuesday the 15 th, that Saadeit Khan, known by his title of Burhán ul Mulk, and one of the chief nobles of the empire had reached Malabat accompanied by an army of 30,000 men, a train of artillery, and a number of elephants, and intended forcing a junction with Mu h'ammed Shah.

With a view of intercepting this force, we marched our army, two hours before day break, to the east of Carnat, and occupied the road between that village and Panipet. 'This movement, we hoped, would force Muhanimed Shah from his entrenchments. About an hour and a half after day light we had passed Carnul, and gained the east side of the Hindustinit camp, when the advance guard made prisoners some stragglers of Saadet Khan's party, from whose information we learnt, that that general had succeeded in his design of forming a junction with the emperor; in whose camp he had arrived at ten o'clock the preceding night.

On this intelligence we were pleased to order our royal tents to be pitched on the ground which we then occupied, opposite to the camp of Muhammed ShaH, from whom we were distant about one farsakh.

As the junction of Saadet Khan had been the cause of Muhammed Shah's delays, he conceived on that event his appointments to be complete; and, leaving two thirds of his cannon for the protection of his camp, he advanced with a great part of his army, a third of his artillery, and a number of his elephants, at twelve o'clock the same day, half a farsakh in the
direction of our royal army ; and drew up his troops in order of battle. Placing himself in the centre of the advanced lines, he stationed the remainder of his troops in the rear as a support. 'Their numbers were incredible. They occupied, as close as they could be drawn up in depth, from the front line to the entrenched camp, a distance of half a farsakh ; and their front was of equal extent. The ground was every where dark with their numbers, and to judge from appearance, we should suppose they were ten or twelve times more numerous than the army of the Abdal Garilorghly.

We, whose only wishes were for such a day, after appointing guards for our camp and invoking the support of a bouutiful creator, mounted and advanced to give battle.

For two complete hours the battle raged with violence, and a heary fire from cannon and musquetry was kept up. After that, by the aid of the Almighty, our lion-hunting heroes broke the enemy's line, and chaced them from the field of action, dispersing them in every direction.

Safdet Khaf mounted on his state elephant, his Nisha Muhammed Khan and other relations, fell prisoners into our hands. Samsa'm Alí Khan Dauran Amir ul Omra Bahádur, the first minister of the empire, was wounded. One of his sons, with his brother Muzeqer Khan, was slain; and another of his sons. Mir Aa'sh'ue was taken prisoner. He hiuself died the following day of his wounds.

> Was'ili Khan, the commander of the emperor's body guard, Shad'Ae Khan. Amir Kuli Khan, Ali MIumammes Khan, Mir Husea Kian,

Kha'ja Ashref Khan, Ali-yar Khan, A'akil Beg Khãn, Shahd'ad Khan Afghan, Ahmed Ali Khan, Razin Rai Khan, commander of the artillery, as also Shir Khal'u, with about three hundred other nobles and leaders, of whom fifteen were commanders of seven thousand, of four and of three thousand, were slain.

Muhammed Shaif, with Nizam ul Mulk, ruler of the seven provinces of the Dee'hin, and a chief noble of the empire, Kamer ul Din Khan, chief vizier, and some other nobles of less note, protected by a covering party which had been left, made good their retreat within the entrenchments, and escaped the shock of our victorious swords

This action lasted two hours; and for two hours and a half more were our conquering soldiers engaged in pursuit. When one hour of the day remained, the field was entirely cleared of the enemy; and as the entrenchments of their camp were strong, and the fortifications formidable, we would not permit our army to assault it.

An immense treasure, a number of grand elephants, the artillery of the emperor, and great spoils of every description, were the reward of our victory. Upwards of twenty thousand of the enemy were slain on the field of batile, and a much greater number were made prisoners.

Immediately after this action, we surrounded the emperor's camp, and took measures to prevent all communication with the adjacent country, preparing at the same time our cannon and mortars to level with the ground the fortification which had been erected.

As the utmost confusion reigned in the imperial camp, and all discipline was abandoned, the emperor, compelled by irresistible necessity, after the lapse of one day, sent Nizail ul-Mulk, on Thursday the 17 th, to our royal camp; and the day following Muh'ammed Shah himself, attended by his nobles, came to our heaven-like presence, in an afflicted state.

When the emperor was approaching, as we are ourselves of a Turkomam family, and Mur'amimed Shah is a Turkoman, and the lineal descendant of the noble house of Gaurga'n'1; we sent our dear son Nasire Ali Khan beyond the bounds of our camp to meet him. The emperor entered our tents, and delivered over to him the signet of our empire. He remained that day a guest in our royal tent.

Considering our affinity as Turkomans, and also reflecting on the favors and honors that befitted the dignity and majesty of a king of kings ; we bestowed such upon the emperor, and ordered his royal pavilions, his family and his nobles, to be preserved; and we have established him in a manner equal to his great dignity.

At this time, the Emperor with his family and all the lords of Hindustan who marched from camp, are arrived at Delhi : and on Thursday the 2yth of Zilkad, we moved our glorious standard towards that capital.

IT is our royal intention, from the consideration of the high birth of Muhammed Shaf, of his descent from the house of Gaurga's'f, and of his affinity, to us a Turkoman, to fix him on the throne of empire, and to place the crown of royalty upon his head.

$$
\text { Voc. } \mathrm{X} . \quad \mathrm{N} .
$$

Praise be to God, glory to the most high, who ha: granted us the power to perform such action! For thi: great grace which we have received from the Almighty, we must cver remain grateful.

God has made the seven great seas like unto thr vapour of the desart, beneath our glorious and con quering footstepsand those of our faithful and victoriou heroes. He has made, in our victorious mind, the thrones of kings, and the deep ocean of earthly glor: more despicable than the light bubble that floats of the surface of the wave ; and no doubt his extraordinary mercy, which he has now shown, will be evident to al mankind.

As we have taken possession of a great number o cannon, we send 26,000 Moghals of Iran and Turan with a detachment from our own conquering army, anc a body of artillery with some large elephants, whor we have directed to march to Cabul. No doubt ou sons will inform us of the affiuirs of that quarter.

After the arrival of your letter, we will either ordel the detachment which we have sent, to proct.d tc Balkh or to go to LIerat.

We have appointed the high in dignity $\mathrm{Aa}^{\prime}$ shue Khan to march to Bulkh, after the Nau rón, (22d March) which he no doubt will do.

Consider our glorious victory as derived from the bounty of the creator of fortune beyond all calculation. Make copies of this our royal mandate and disperse them over our empire, that the well wishers of our throne may be happy and rejoice, and our secret enemies be dejected, and confounded. Be you con-
stantly employed in adorning and arranging your government ; placing your hopes in the favor of the most high, so that by the blessing of God, all those, whether near or distant, that are not reconciled to our glorious state, and are brooding mischief, may be caught in their own snares; and all real friends, who are under our dominion, may attain their wishes, and prosper under the auspices of our munificent government.

Dated 29th Zilkâd, 1115 Hejira, Shahjehanabad or Dehli.

## DIRECTIONS TO THE BINDER.

| Plate , I. to front | - |  |  |  | Page 26 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| H. - |  |  | - |  | 124 |
| III. | - |  |  |  | 141 |
| -IV. | - |  | - |  | 299 |
| W. | - | - |  | - | 385 |
| A. | - |  | - |  | 393 |
| ${ }_{\text {C }} \mathrm{B}$. | - - | - |  |  | 417 |
| D. | - - | - |  | - | 442 |
| Table 1. | - |  | - |  | 515 |
| II. III. | ad V |  | - |  | 517 517 |

[^122]


[^0]:    * Qu. Is not this the watering with the font mentioned in Scripture, Deut. xi. ver. 10, and may not there be an allusion to the facility with which this water is directed at the will of the husbandman, "in Prov. xxi. ver. 1 ?

[^1]:    - Sinapis dichotoma.
    (Linuin usitatissimum.
    $\ddagger$ S. glauca.

[^2]:    * Lathyrus sativa. + Ervum lens. I Cicer arietinum.

[^3]:    * Solanum Melougena.
    $\pm$ Cucurbila citrullus.
    §. Cucumis pentangulus.
    * Momordica mixta.
    \# Cucurbita alba.

[^4]:    * I have not observed that any of the smaller grains, such as Paspalum, Holcus, \&c. are cultivated in this district: they would undoubtedly prosper in many situations.
    + Particularly H. cannabinus, H. surattensis, and H. strictus.

    Dalbergia Sissoo.
    Artocarpus inteyrifolius.
    \|I Pterocarpus Dalbergius,
    थ Tectona grandis.

[^5]:    * Suietenia Mahugani.
    $\ddagger$ Swietenia Chukrassa.
    $\oint$ Mimosa Seereesa.
    $t$ Sivietenia chloroxylon.
    II Cedrela túna.
    बI. Shorea robusta.
    ** The genus of tree is not yet determined.
    $\dagger$ Lagerstımia flos reginw. $\ddagger$ Tectona grandis.
    HIl The cultivation of Teak has been encouraged by Government.

[^6]:    * Saguerus Rumpliii.
    + Phernix Silvestris.

[^7]:    * See also As. Res. vol. vi. p. 267.

[^8]:    * See Supplement to Tit. Liv. cii. Decad. c. 39.
    + Plutarch in Syllam, p. 456.
    I Juvenal, Satyr. xiii, v. 28.

[^9]:    * Reland de Samarit. p. 15, \&c.

[^10]:    * These are a component part of the great year, or period of 12,000 years, used both in the east, and in the west, and also in Persia. In India they say that these are divine years; but in Etruria and Persia, they insisted, that these were only natural years.

[^11]:    * Cumáríćá-c'banda, p. 155.

[^12]:    * See Asiat. Research. Vol. IX. p. 118, 120.

[^13]:    - Genesis, chap. 4.9. v. 10.

[^14]:    * See Raja Tarangini, and the extract from it in the Ayin Acberi, listory of the Kings of Cashmir.

[^15]:    * SACA'RI Vicramáditya iti sabhramamás'ritaih, anyair atrányathá lec'bivis'amvádi cadarthitans.

    $$
    \mathrm{E} 4
    $$

[^16]:    'Whatever man listens with due attention to this legend, his sins shall be remitted. In the forest of Dandlaca, in the Sahyádri mountains in the Dekhin, on the banks of the river Pranitú, was the hermitage of Mand'ayyah, a most holy Rishi, most benevolent, and no accepter of persons. There he remained, between five fires, entirely taken up with holy contemplation, and inwardly repeating sacred names. A numerous banditti, with the goods they had stolen, being pursued by the King at the head of a strong party, took shelter near the holy man. As soon as the King came, he ordered them all to be crucified immediately; and the holy man was numbered among them, and from his being crucified, he

[^17]:    - Sce Philistorgius, Sozomenes, \&c. \}

[^18]:    * Photii Biblioth. p. 38, \&c.

[^19]:    * Section of the Earth.

[^20]:    * As. İes. тol. vii. p. 433, 443.

[^21]:    4. Aa. Res. vol. vii. p. 448. In the Sections on Futurity.
[^22]:    * See Brahmánoda and Váyu-puránas. Section on Futurity.

[^23]:    * See Basnage's History of the Jews, page 436. Englisis translation.
    $\dagger$ This is noticed also in the As. Res, vol. vi. p. 269 .

[^24]:    - Strabo, p. 98 and 100.
    + Salmas. Exercitat. Plinian. p. 217.
    $\ddagger$ Hesych. under the word Alpha.
    if Polyb. Lib. 1. p. 42. and Lib. 8. p. 200.

[^25]:    * Cornel. Nepos apud Plin. Sueton. Cicero in Vatid. c. 10. Plutarch, \&c.
    + Vrihat-cat'há Lambaca or Section the 5th called also Cha. turdarìcá.
    $\ddagger$ Strahlenberg p. 103. Asiat. Researches vol. vi. 483.

[^26]:    * Strabo. Dio. Plutarch and Nicol. Damascen.

[^27]:    * Photii Biblintheca, p. 1040 and Suidas v. Severus.
    \& Asiat. Researches, vol. v. p. 294.

[^28]:    * Du Fresnoy Chronolog. A. D. 529.

[^29]:    * See Suidas, Hesychius de illustrib; and Laertius.
    $\dagger$ See Peutingerian Tables.

[^30]:    * Strabo, Lib. 11. p. 516.
    + See Maurice's Modern History of Hindoston, vol. 1. p. 95.
    It is called erroneously Bhedar in the Ayin-Acberi, vol. 2. p. 107.
    $\ddagger$ Forster's Travels, vol. 2.
    According to the late Nabob Mehdi-Ali-Khan, a native of Mesched. See Essay on the origin of Mecca, Asiatic Researclies, vol. 5 .

[^31]:    * See Gesner's notes on the fragments of Orpheus, also Fabricius Cod. Pseudepigr.

[^32]:    Ns

[^33]:    * In the Lalita vistára purána, which was brought by Major Knox from Népál, the name of Budd 'ha's kinsman and rịal is De'vadatta (answering to Deodatus). It is probable, that Laloubere's Tevetat is a corruption of the name of De'vadatta. H. Т. С.

[^34]:    * See English Translation, p. 247.

[^35]:    - Isarah, c. 14. v. 18. Psalm 4S, \&ic.

[^36]:    * As. Res. vol. v. p. 151.

    K 2

[^37]:    * Anc. Univ. Hist. vol. I. \&c.

[^38]:    * D'Herbelot's Biblioth. Orient. voce Tarikh and Tabari. Sir W. Ouseley's Translat. of Ebn Haucal in the Appeudix.

[^39]:    * Plate III

[^40]:    - Scanda-purana, section of T'API-C'HAND'A.

[^41]:    - Gan'es'a Purán'a.

[^42]:    * History of Sumatra, p. 9.

[^43]:    * Dr. Leyden. who had been lately engaged in inquiries concerning the tribes inhabiting the islands of the eastern Archipelaso, partly confirms this conjecture by the information, that the mode of writing, practised by one of the tribes in Sumatra (the Battas), is perpendicular: but instead of commencing at the top of the line, the writing begins at the bottom. Marsden's Batta alphabet is siated to be correct, provided the plate be turned in a perpendicular instead of a horizontal direction. H. T. C.
    + History of Sumatio, p. 255.

[^44]:    * As. Res. v. iv. p. 233.
    $\dagger$ Hist. of Sumatra, p. 285, and from Mantri the Portuguese made Mandarix.

[^45]:    * Aristot de Mundo.
    $\dagger$ Hist. of Sumatra, p. 6 p

[^46]:    * As. Res. v. vii, p. 48.

[^47]:    * Abulfedæ Chorasmix, \&c. descriptio int. Geograph. inin. vol, iii. p. 9.

[^48]:    The intercourse of Europeans with the Indo-Chinese nations, though, for the first two centuries after the arrival of the Portuguese in the east, scarcely inferior to that which was carried on with India or China, was not of such a kind as to furnish us with a very accurate or extensive knowledge of their laws, manners or literature; and for more than a century it has been rather declining than increasing. Neither, since our

[^49]:    * Asiat. Researcls. Vol. IV.

[^50]:    * Herodot. Lib. III. s. 99.

[^51]:    * The philological merits or demerits of P. Paulinus form no part of the proper subject of this essay; he is only mentioned here for the purpose of disclaiming his critical authority, when placed, as it has frequently

[^52]:    * In revising the shects of this essay; I perceive that several omissions have occurred from the number and nature of the various materials eniployed, and the difficulty of classirg thein in the proper order of arrangement. The following additions are therefore subjoined.

    To the notices concerning Malay compositions, the following nay be sdded.

    1. Asál agáma Islam, or the principles of the Islam faith.
    2. Idlal agáma Islam, explanation of the Ismalic worship.
    §. Idlak'l fikeh, explanation of the law of Islam.
    3. Mąkóta segála Raja.
    4. Pasiru'l Korán.
    5. Hafid Inam, ul Muniemín.
    \%. Hikaiat Miáraj Nabi Mahummed.
    6. Hikaiat Nabi Mahummed.
    7. Hikaiat Nabi Músa.
    8. Hikaiat Nabi Yúsuf.
    9. Hikaiat deripada kajadiaün Mahummed.
    10. Húkam Islam.
    11. Húkam Khaj.
    12. Húham Kanún.
    13. Elmu Fikeh.
    14. Elmu Falak.
    15. Kítabu'l Faraid.
    16. Kitab ul Allah.
    17. Sijihu'l Huseinu'l Káshefí.
    18. Samar adaínu'l Islam.
    19. Mirat al Míminin.
    20. Mirifat ul Islam, or Punganál agáma Islam.
    21. Permáta marifat Allah.
    22. Reazu'l lehafi.
    23. Rueir parungan.
    24. Núr Mahummed.
    25. Cheritra deripada Suliman.
    26. Cheritra derinada al Omar.
    27. Cheritra Raja Dewa Ahmud.
    28. Cheritra hobat Leila Indara.
    29. Humsah penchurí.
    30. Hikuiat segála Súsuliúnan.
    31. Hikaiat Misa Túmon panji

    Wila Kasúma.
    34. Hikaiat Misa Gomitar.
    35. Hikaiat Jarau Kolina.
    36. Hikaiat Chahaju Langarei.
    37. Silsilitu'l Salátin, or, Penúrunan segála Raja.
    38. Hikaiat Ambon.
    39. Hikaiat Achi.
    40. Hikaiat Bayan.
    41. Hikaiat Bakiyan.
    42. Hikaiat Tana Hitum.
    43. Hikaiat Jowhar Manikam.
    44. Hikaiat Datu perjanga.

    4j. Hikaiat Dewa Raja.
    46. Hikaint Raja Bosman dan Lokman.
    47. Hikaiat Raja Tambik baja.
    45. Hikaiat Raja Suliman.
    49. Hikaiat Rajah ul Ajam o Azbah.
    50. Hikaiat Raja Kirripun.
    51. Hikaiat Raja Kambáyu.
    52. Hikaiat Raja Nila Dat Kawaja.
    53. Hikaiat Runga Rati.
    54. Hikaiat Isma Jatim.
    55. Hikaiat Abdullah ibn ul Omar.

[^53]:    * It may not be amiss to mention here, that some little irregularity had occurred at some of the stations of observation, occasioned no doubt by the plumb-line's leeing drawn out of its vertical pasition; but it is imposisible to say at which of the stations this has happenerl, as at the three where the zenith distances were deemed the most mesceptionable, there is nothing, to appearance, which can be considered contpetent to produce the effect in question. One of these three is in the ceded districts, in latitude $14^{\circ}$ and upwards. Another one is on the table land, near Bangalore, in lat. $18^{\circ}$, and the most southerly one is in the Coimbetoor country, in lat. $11^{\circ}$. The arc, comprised between the stations in $11^{\circ}$ and $13^{\circ}$, gives the measure of the degree 60550 fathoms; and that, comprehended between $11^{\circ}$ and $14^{\circ}$, gives only 60461 fathoms; so that there evidently has existed some cause, for deflecting the plumb-line, at one or both of these northern stations. I have, for the present, taken the mean result of the two cases, reducing them to the stume latitude, $11^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 55^{\prime \prime}$, which is 60494 fathoms. This measure, used wilh all the recent measurements made in England, France, and at the polar circle, will give the meall ellipticily of the earth $\frac{1}{32} 1$ nearly, and therefore the polar, to the equatorial diameter, will be in the ratio of 1 to 1.003125 nearly.

[^54]:    tain places on the Coromandel const from that Meridian, and from its perpendicular.

[^55]:    * Or Sánc' hyc system of philosophy; distinguished from that of Capila.
    + In the subscription to the only copy of this commentary, which I have seen, it is ascribed to Seghanaga; but, in the body of the work, the commentator calls himself Somacara.

[^56]:    - See Plate A. Fig. a.
    † Culluca bhatta (on Menv 2. 19.) says, that Suraiéna is the country of IVathura.
    $\ddagger$ Cleata or Bilzar. But it does not appear, that either this, or the pleceding dialect, is now spoken in the country, from which it takes its name. suecimeas of both are frequent in the Ind ian drama
    §Vararuchi, and his commentator Bhamaha.
    || Hemachandra, who, after fating the fpecial permutations of these dialects as derived from Sanscrit, obicrves in both places, that the reft of the fitinutat:ons are the same with thofe of Pratrit.

[^57]:    - Or language of the Pistichos. [See Plate A. Fig. b.] Bhamaaia on Vararuciif.
    +Varanulbi and Hemachandes. The last mentioned author notices a varration of this dialect under the name nf Chulicápaisáili ; which differs very little from the proper Paisáchi.
    $\ddagger$ It is taught under this name by Hemachandia, among other dia'ects of Pricrit. But the name uoually signifies ungrammatical language.
    § Hemachandra ad fimem.
    $\| \mathrm{Ch} .3$.
    If Some with Vaidarbhi, according to the commentator of the Síhitya derpana. The country of Viderbha is said to be the modern Birar proper.

[^58]:    * Avanti is another name of Ujjayani.
    $\dagger$ Báhlica or Binlica (for the word is spelt varionsly (is a country famous for the breed of horses. Amefa.2.8.45. It appears to be stuated north of India; being mentioned in enumerations of countries, with Turushca, C'hasc, Casmira, sic. (Hemachandra. 4. 25. Tricanda s'esha.2. 1. 9.).
    $\ddagger$ The commentator on the Suriat:ra derpara (Rama Chakana), interprets Prachia, by Gaudiya; meaning, no doubt, the Janguage of Bengal. He was himself a native of this province; and his worts is mondern, being dated Saca 1022 (A. D. 1700.)
    § As. Res. Vill. p. 219.
    II Narayana bhatta in a commentary on the Critta setnacara written in S.mbat 1602 (A. D. 1546.)

[^59]:    - Contemporary with Jeuangir and Shah Jehan.
    + The remaining Saresquata Bralimamas inhabit chisfly the Penjab.
    $\ddagger$ Those of Dravida, Carnataca, Tilinga, and Olra or Uiliya. I omit Gaura. The Brahnianat, bearing this national designation, are fettled in the districts around Dethi: but, unless theirs be the language of Mathura, it is not ealy to assign to them a particular national tongue.
    § Being the initial of guru, long.

[^60]:    - Or by the nasal termed Anuswara, or the aspirate Visarga. By poetical license, a vowel may be short before certain conjuncts (viz. as in Plate A. Fig. c.) This license has been borrowed from Pracrit prosody, by the rules of which a vowel is allowed to be sometimes short before any conjunct, as before the nasal: but instances of this license occur in classical poems with only four conjuncts as above mentioned; and, even there, emendations of the text have been proposed by criticks to render the verse conformable to the general laws of prosody, (See remarks in the Durghatia vritti; Cumara.)
    $\dagger$ This rule of prosody is applicable to any verse of the tetrastichs: but it is considered by writers on rbetorick inelegant to use the privilege in the uneven verses; and they thus restrict the rule to the close of the stanzand of its half, especially in the more rigid species of regular metre.

[^61]:    * If the rule be violated, the metre is named Gurvini ; bnt this is reprobated by writers on prosody.
    $\dagger$ As Res. Vol. Il. p. 390.
    $\ddagger$ Vritta muctavali.

[^62]:    * It may be varied by alternating a long and a short verse, or a short and a long one, or by making both verses long.
    $\dagger$ Consisting of seven hundred (or with the introduction 755). -t.inzas of miscellaneous poetry; and entitled from the number of tanzas Sabta scti.

[^63]:    - Author of the Carica or metrical maxims of this philosophy. Sutrar, or aphorisins in prose, which are ascribed to Capila himself, are extant: but the work of Iswara Crisina is studied as the text of the Sanc'ha (As. lies. Vol. VIII. D. 160.)
    t Entirled Brahmesplauta sidd'hanta: other treatises, bearing the same or at similar title, are wr ris of different authors.
    $\pm$ Chiefly Arsa, with a few anapastic starzas (Totaia), and a still smaller number el iambics and trochaics (Pramani and Samani.)
    § Tramglated by Mr. Kineeersley of Madras, from a tale in the provincial languaçe.

[^64]:    * Arjuna and the mountaineer. Cirata is the name of a tribe of mountaineers considered as barbarians.

[^65]:    * The first and fourth stanzas, in this quotation, are in the Drutavilambita metie, and the fifth in the Pramita cshara'; which

[^66]:    * The mixed metre, in which one couplet of the stanza contains short syllables, and the other long, is termed Sicha or C/iudia: if the first couplet cuntain the short syllables, it is denominated Jlyotish; but is called Sammya, or Anangancrid $a$, when the frist couplet consists of long syllables.
    $\dagger$ This metre, concerning which authorities disagree, is called Chu'dica or Chili.a; or according to the Vritla Ratnalara, Atiruchira.

[^67]:    * From their number, entitled Sat sai.

[^68]:    - The peninsula, between the gulfs of Cambay and Cutch. The name remains, but the boundaries of the province are more restricted than in ancient timcs. It so.11; however, includes the remains of Crishma's city of Dwa'rca'; the celebrated temple of Somana'tha so frequently plundered by the Muhamedans; and the mountain of Girana'ra held sacred by the Jainas no less than by the followers of the Vedu.

[^69]:    - As. Res. Vol. IX. 192.
    $\dagger$ As. Res. Vol. VII. p. 511.

[^70]:    * The Ghattú and Ghattúnunda, consisting of two verses of 31 $n_{2}$ trás each. In the farst spccics the pauses are after the 10 th and 18th matrat: in the uther a'ter the 11 th and 18 th. There is also a s'ight differencein the distribution of the feet ( 7 times $4+3$ short ; and $i+3$ tines $3+5+6+3+3$ short.) The Dquipadicá has in : ace verse 28 mi'tra's $10+$ fivetimes $4+1$ long.) The Sicha c intumng the like number, the C'hamá with 41 matra s to the verse, a cithe La'lui with 15, are couplets; but the feet are stictly regu= lated.

[^71]:    * Viz. 64 unifurm and 4032 balf cqual.
    + Viz. 04 uniform; 4032 half equal: and $16,773,120$ unequal or dissimilar.
    $\ddagger$ A mode of calculating the possible varieties of metre is also taught in the Lile'vati, a treatse of arithmetick and genmetry by Bha'scara. This truly learned astrobomer was alen a poet; and his matiematical works are composed in highly polishel metre. If the reade: figure tos uimfelf Euclid in'alcaick meature, Diophanzus in anaprest, or the 4 lmaget versified with all the varity of Horation metre, he will form in adequate notion of this incongruity.

    $$
    \text { E } e 3
    $$

[^72]:    * Writess on rhet rick (as the author of the Silizitya darpan'a and others) lay it down as a maxim, that the mene and style should in general be un form in each canto: but they adinit occasional deviations $n$ regard to the metre.
    $\dagger$ So the author has called himself.

[^73]:    *Aja was father, and Indumatí mother, of Da'sarat'ha.
    E e4

[^74]:    * Vichitravírya was husband of Pa'ndu's mother.
    + Tb.y have disinct nsmes, which are enumerated in the Ch'Mandimirtion'da, cited by the commentator on the Vrita Retnacara: as Manipraohá Cúntimati, \&ac.

[^75]:    * In a passase of the Sundara Cánda.
    $\dagger$ Book 10th.
    $\ddagger$ Among the perfons of this drama are the paffions and vices (pride, anger, avarice, \&c.) with the virtues, (as pity and patience;) and other abstract notions; some of which constitute very strange perfonifications. Theauthor was Crismáa Pandita.

[^76]:    * From the 53d to the $99 t h$ chapters of the Vanaparva.
    $\dagger$ A composition, in which prose and verse are intermixed, is called Chamṕa.

[^77]:    * Rucmavati or Champacamálí compofed of atternate dactyls and spondees; Mattá measured by three spondees with four short syl!alles before the last; Panaw contaituincr a spondee and dactyl, and an anapæst and sjondee; Bhramaravilazila measured by two spondees, four short syllables and an anapeest ; IItudd'hatagatá composed. of alternate amphibrachys and anapest, and several other species; as Cusuma vichiira, Manigunia nicara, Cudmsla danti, Lalaná, sxc.
    $\dagger$ Dod'hacu compofed of three dactyls and a spondee; Totaca containing four anapasis; Pramilacshara, measured by thiee anapests with an amphibrachys for the second loot; Múli, a species of Chandravarti, and some others.
    $\ddagger$ Thus Mattácridú combines two simple kinds, the Vidyúnnálé and Chandravartii: So Craunchapad'́, is composed of two species beforcmentioned, the Champacamálá and Manigun'a.

[^78]:    "I Knew thee sprung from the celebrated race of diluvian clouds, a minister of INDRA, who dost assume any form at pleasure: to thee I become an humble suitor, being separated by the power of fate from my beloved spouse : a request preferred in vain to the noble is better than successful solicitation to the vile. Thou art the refuge of the inflamed: therefore do thous, O cloud, convey to my beloved a message from me who ain banished by the wrath of the god of riches. Thou must repair to Alaca the abode of the lord of Yacsbas, a palace of which the whitened by the moonbean

[^79]:    - Since fate, alas ! is become adverse, and the gem of kindred is departed towards heaven; to whom, O my soul, wilt thou tell thy grief? and who will appease thy anguish with refreshing words?"

[^80]:    * Short vowe!s, when final, are so faintly sounded, that they are ufually omitted in writing the provincial languages of India in Roman character. But they have been here preserved at the close of words; being necessary, as in Sanscrit, for exhibiting the metre.
    taThe first termed Pramáni, the other Samúni. Considered as a species of uniform metre, the first is also named Nagaswarupini or Aatallicá; and the second is denominated Mallicá. There is also a regular measure which alternates trochees and iambics, and is denominated Munurvacucrida: and another, named Chitrupado, consisting of 1 wo dictyls and a spondee.
    $\ddagger$ Vilanc.

[^81]:    - The metre is named Pathya when an amphibrachys is introduced in the 2 d and ath yerses; some say in the 1st and 3 d .
    + Chapalu.
    $\ddagger$ Vipula.
    Ff4

[^82]:    -The royal and military tribe is prohibited from killing elephants less in battle.

[^83]:    - Vasanta tilaca 81-97 and Upéndravajra 88. Ruchirá 99.
    + Manjubhishini ${ }^{\text {万4 }}$ (P. T. D. 3 I.) and Mattamayira 80 (2 S + T. I. D.S.)
    $\ddagger$ For example. Arza, which comprises 10 feet; Aanava 11; Vy'ala 12; Jimu'ta 13 ; \&̌c.

[^84]:    * Or the third verse may consist of a trochee and dactyl, with two anapests; or of wo inochee, with two anapests: and the metre is denominated, in the firs: instance Sarrablaca; in the second, Lalita.

[^85]:    - Same with Pat'ali pura or Pat'ali putra; the ancient Palibothra, now Patna. As. Res. Vol. IV. P. 11.

[^86]:    * Malati madha'va. Act 2 d .
    $\dagger$ As the Nrisinha Champu, G.inga Champu, Vrindavanna Chrmput s.c.

    Vol. X. $\quad$ Gg

[^87]:    * Walkrr's poem on Italian tragedy.

[^88]:    " Human flesh to be sold: unwounded real flesh from the members of a man. Take it. Take it. *"

[^89]:    * Anushoub/a. [Sce Plate D. Fig. 4.]

[^90]:    - Sardula vicridita. [See Peate D. Fig. 10.]
    $\dagger$ Prahatshini. [Ser Plaie D Fig. 11.]
    $\ddagger$ Praharshini. [See Prate D. Fig 12.]
    \|Harini. [Ste Plate D. Fig 13.]

[^91]:    - Il there be room to dubt whether the metre be reduced from the next above, or raised from the next below, the first verse determines the question; for it is referred to the class to which the first veise or paida belongs. If this do not suffice. the metre is referred to that class, which is sacred to the deity, to whom the prayer is addressed. Should this also be insulficient, other rules of selection have been provided. Sometimes the metre is eked out by cubstituting ilya or uva for correspondent vowels. This in particular, appears to be practised in the Simavedaz

[^92]:    * These remarks are intended to form part an Analysis of the Laws and Regulations, for the civil government of the British territories, under the Presidency of Bengal. This work is designed for the use of the students in the college of Fort William; and the second part, which relates to Criminal Jostice, is introduced by a summary of the Mohummulan law of crimes and punishments, for the purpole of rendering more intelligible the amendments of it enacted by the Regulations w? the G vernor General in Council.
    $\dagger$ V. Sale's Peliminary Discoarse, Section III.
    In chap.L. of the Decline and Fill of the Roman Empire, relative to Arabia.

[^93]:    * The collections of traditions held in the most general estimation, as genuine and authoritative, by the Soonces, or orthodox Iraditionists, are the following; denominated Siháh-i-sitla; or the six authentics.

    1. Saheeh-i-Bokháree. Compiled by Asoo Abdoollah, Mohummud, of Bokhárú. He was born A. H. 19.4; and died in the year 256 ; in the suburbs of Sumarkund. His compilation is said to contain above seven thousand traditions; selected from 500,000 .
    2. Sahech-i-Mooslim. By Aboo'l. Hose'n, Mooskim, of Ny'shípoor. He died A. H. 261; and is also sxid to have compiled his work from 300,000 traditions. This and the preceding coilection, when cited together, are called Saliceny $n$, or the tevo authentics.
    3. Soonsm-i-1.5n-i Májah. By Mohummud-rin-i ruzeed, ben-i Majah: of Kuzeen. (Erronenusly mamed Ben Mohummud, in D'Hbrbelot. Title Sanan Ebn Magiah.) He died at Kuzvenn, in Irák, A, H. 273.
    4. Soomun-i Aboo Diood. By Aboo Da'oon, Soly'ma'n, of Sfjistan. He was born A.H. 202 ; and died at Buirah, in the year 275. His work is stated to consist of 4,800 traditio.s selected from 500,000.
[^94]:    5. Jimm-i Tirmizec. By Aboo Iebsa Mohummun, of Titmiz, in
[^95]:    * The nature of this treatise does not admit of a fuller account of the Soonee tradititions; which are distinguished by some uuthors as Sahicek (anthenticated;) Husun (approved:) Zaieef-o-ghareeh (weak and poor ;) Me,nkur-o-mouzzooa (denied and imposed ) by others, as Moosnud (voucbed or certified;) and $h^{T}$ sorsul, or Moonkuia (detached or divided.) The Moosnud are also subdivided as Murfooa (ascending to the Prophet;) Moukoof (resting with the Sahabak;) and Muktoca (severed or cut short among the Tithieen; ) or by any other classification as Muotawatur (repeated, succ-ssive;) Alush,hoor public, notorious; and Waliid single, partecular.) The Mishikat, referred to in a former nute, hes however bern translated by an officer of the Bengal estallishment, and if it receive sufficient encouragement to repay the heavy expence of printing in Irdia, it wil! be speecitly published.

[^96]:    * The names of the twelve lmams are given by D'Herbelot, under the head of Imam. He has also given a brief statement of the tenets of the Shiya, under the tites of Schiah, Ali, and other titles of his valuable, though (as might be expected in so voluminous and miscellaneous a work) sometimes erronenus and often imperlect compilation. A fuller account of the doctrines, and practice of the Shiy, is contained in the 2 d vol. of Chardin. (Description dela Religion des Persans, in the Amsterdam Edition of his Vayage en Perse published in M.DCC.XI.) But the most authentic information upon the jurisprudence of the Imameeyah sect, (which, not having been established, for the administration of justice, in any part of the Company's territories, needs not to be further noticed in this tract.) will be furnished by the completion of a work, the first volume of which is alieady printed, and entitied - "A Digest of Mohummudan Law, according to the tenets of the Trwelve Imanns; "compiled under the superintendence of the late Sir William " Jones: extended, so as to comprise the whole of the Imameea code " of jurisprudence, in temporal matters; and translated, fom the "" original Arabir, by order of the Supreme Goverament of Bengal; " with Notes, illustrative of the decisions of other sects of Mohum" mudan lawyers, on many leading and important questions. By "Captain John Baillis, Profeffor of the Arabic and Persizn Lan"guages, and of Mohummudden Law, in the College of Fort "William."

[^97]:    * Aboo'l Furus wasa Christian, born at Malathia in Aladulia, or Armenia minor, A C. 1226. But he wrote in Arajiz, and appeass to have Leen well versed in the religion and law, as well as in the history, of Araíia. V. Pocock's Specimen Historice Arabum, coinprising an extract from the dynasties of Aboo's Furuj, which, Gibson observes, "form a classic and origina! work on the Arabian antrquities." Puiblished at Oxford, in 1650 . Als, the complete Latin version of the original work, by Pococ~, published in 1663. Gibbon has added, upon this, however, that "it is more useful for the literary than the civil history of the East." Cap. LI. n. 13.

[^98]:    * Their names, at lengrh, are-1. Abjo Huneefah Naômán bin-i Thabit: or, as pronounced in India, Sabit. 2. Aboo Abdoollah Malik bin-1-axs, or, as otherwise read, Anus. 3. Aboo Aedooleah Mohummud ibn-f-Inrers oo'Shafiée, or a descendant from Shafî. 4. Aboo Abidoollah Ahmud ibn-i Hunbul. The first is commonly called Aboo Hunrefar, meaning the father of Huneerah, and therefore is improperly cited, in the translation of the Hidayah, by the name of Huneefai only; which, inoreover is a cminine appellation, and was the name of the second wife of Alee. (Vide Tit. Hanifah, in the Bib. of D'Herbelot,) He was born at Koofah, about A. H. 80 ; (some say ten, and others twenty-one, years earl:er;) was instructed in the traditions, by Imam Jafur-I Sadik, the sixth Imam ; who, as an authority for the precepts and actions of Montmmud, is esteemed by the Soonees, as well as by the Shiya; (w) the Sheeah Doctor, Aboo Jafur, mentioned in a former note; as erreneotisly stated in Hamilton's Preliminary Difcourse, p. xxiii. Vid. Tit. Giafar in the Bib. Or.) and died in priion, at Baghdud, in the Khilafut of Munsoor, A. H. 150. The fuander of the secund sect is known by his proper name Mafir. He was born at MIudeenah, between the years 90 and 95 of the Hijrah; and died, at the same place, in a state of religions retirenient, during the reign of Haroon oolilusired, A. H. 179. The patronymic, Stafiee, usually distinguishes the third leader: who was born at Gaza or Ascalon, in Palestine; in the hundred and fiftieth year of the Hijrals; and died at Cairo, (where the famous Salaf oo deen, some centuries afterwards, founded a College, in h insur of his memory and doctrines,) A. H. 204. The last chief, Ahmud, is more generally called, from his father, Ibn-i Hunbul. He was born at Bughdad, or according to some at Murv, or Muroo, in Khorasan, A. H. 104, and died at Bughdad, where he attended the lecture of Shafiite, A. H. 241.

[^99]:    * Aboo Yoosuf Yakdor bin i lbraneem ool Koofre, was bo:n at Kofain, A. H. 113; and after finisking his studies under A zooHuмfr.ah, was appo nted Kazeeni Bughda iby the Khalliffah, Hader. He was alierwards, in the reign of Harnon oo Rushebd, made Kazee oo! Koozat, or chief Judge; and retained that high station, (which is said to have been first instituted for him) until his deatl, A. II. 18 -Ab o Abdoollair Mohumaud bin-i Husun oo Shybanee (of the tribe of Shyban) who is usually called Imam Monumad, was Lorn at Wasit in Arabian Irak, A. H. 132. He was a tello:s pupl with $A_{b}$ oo Yoosur, under $A_{\text {boo }}$ Huntefah, and an the death of the latter, continued his sludies unce: the former. He is als:) said to have received instruction froms Malik. He was appointed by Haroon oillusheed to administer jestice in Irak-i Ajum or Peisian Irık, and died at Riv, the former capital of that province, A.H. 179: or, according to the Roizut orvaheen, an esteemed history from the cominencement to the $75 y \mathrm{~h}$ y year of the Hijrah, by Yafinee, A.H. 189. (Seefurthe: pueticulars respecting Aeno Ýonsur and Imam Muhumbud, in Hamilon's Freliminary Discourse). Zoofur bin-i Hoozel, and Hưuy bin-i Ziyad, (the former of whom he!d the appointuient of chief magistrate at Busrah, where he died A. H. 1.58) ware also two distinguished contemporaries, and scholars, of Aboo Huneffah; and are sometimes quoted as authorities for his doctrines; esperially when the two principal difcipies are silent.
    $\dagger$ A work of anthorily upon the Mohummudun law of inheritance, transłated and published, with a commentary, b: Sir W. joces, in the year 1792. This is the only part of the Mosulman Digest, underraken by the venerable julge in 1788 , which ! is various avocations and studes allowed him to complete. He deemed it worthy of being exhibited entire, as containing the "Institutes of Arabian law on the imp rtant title mentioned by the British legislature (in the Statule 21 Gerge III. Chapter LXX) of inheritance

[^100]:    * A law tract often quoted in the Futawa-i Aalnmgeerce, not known to be at present extant; and by whom composed, has not been ascertained.
    † Sifums nol Aimmah, Aboo Bukr Mohummud, native of Surukizs. in Khorasan. The Moheet composed by him will be mentioned in a subsequent note. He also wrote a commentary on the Jama-i Sugheer of Imam Mohummud ; and a comment upon the Kifee ool Hakim, (stated in the Kushf-ocizunoon to have been composed by Hakim-i Shaheed, Mohummud; but no longer extant, which is called Mubsoot-i Sarukhsec, and often quoted in the Hidaych. He died, at the place of his nativity, A. H. 483.

[^101]:    - Imam Aboo Bukr, Ahmud bin-i Omur, surnamed Kihusaf, or the fruer. He compresed the bost celebrated of the w rks known urd-r tre ille o. Ada's onl Kazee, or duties of the Kazec; and is sated, in the Kushf co Zuncon, to lave died A. H. 261. A high enoromium is added upon his compostion; which is said to consist of 120 Chapters, replete with uselul information. Several learned men have written commentaries w, on it, of which the mo : esteemed is that of Imam Omhr Bin-i-Abd-ool-areez, cammunly called Hoosait, the matiyr, A. H. 526 .

[^102]:    * 'The first was Kazee, the scond Mooftee, of Koofah, in the first century of the Hijrah; and they were esteemed two of the most learned men of their age. The former, whose name at length, is Abod Omyyah Shohya bin oul Hiras uol Kindee, held the station of Kazec, at Koofat, for seventy-five years, and died A. H. 78 or 80 ; after rebigning his office the year before his death. The entire name of the latiet is Abo, Omur Aamir bin-i Shurahee oo Shabee. deriving his sumame from the town of Shab, in Arabia. He died A. H. 104.
    t'en different works of this name, (meaning, literally, rare, scarce) are specified in the Kush $/ 2$ oo Zunoon; of which one was composed by fmam Mohummion. the disciple of $\mathrm{Ab}_{\mathrm{b}}$ oo Huneefar ; and it is prohably that bere referrel tos. It is considered to be of less au'hority than his five other works, the Joma-i sugheer, Jama-i kubeer, Mubsiot, Zeeadat, and Siyur, which are well known, and frequently quoted, under the general designation of Zahir oo Ruwayat, the consp cuous rejorts.

[^103]:    poor, who, in the mintes prefixed by Sryun Ahmun-i Huma lee to an old copy of the Hidayah, purchased at Muthlahh, is said to have compiled the opinions of the followers of Aroo Hunebfah, in a regular serics; whereas other compilers had blended them. This Nohect, howeyer, is not extant in India, and is only known by quotations fromit.

    * One of the pupils of Aboo Huneefaiz, surnamed Muroozeb from Muroo, the place of his nativity. He was held in high veneration for his fiety, and his tomb is said to be visited, at Hit, in Arabian Erak, (Vid. Bib. Or. Tit. Abdalluy). He died at the age of 63, A. Li. 180, (Mirat ool-aílum).

[^104]:    - The author of this work, which is extant, and he'd in high estimation, is stated, in the Kushf oo Zunoun, to be Shums vor armzahr, Aboo Bukr Mohummud, of Sturkhs, menti ned in a former note. The Moheet-i Bcorhanee, con posed by Boorfan oo' derenMammood biner Ahmun, is also noticed in the Ku,hf oo Zunnon; but without any other particula s of the aut or. He is mentioned by D'Herbelot, under the tatle of Surakhisi, as having been born at Surukhs; and having gone from hence into Syria, where he superintended a College at alleppo; and died at Damascus, A. H. 571. His Mohcet is known in lidial and an incomplete cony is possessed by the court of Nizimut Adúlut; but it is less esteemed than that of Shumsool Aimmah.
    $\dagger$ Ima'm Aboo Jafur Amun ein-i Mohummud, of Tabá (a town in Upper Ey"pt) is one among t!:e numerous commentators of the Ja-ma-i Sugheer of lmam liohumaud. He also wrote an abridgement of the doctrine of Aboo Huneefah, and his two disciples, intitled Mokhtusur-i Tahavee. Both works are often quoted, as authorities, but are not known to be now extant. He is stated in the Kushf oo Zunoon, to have died A. H. 37. 1.

[^105]:    - The author of this work, Agou Nusr Ahmud bin-i-Mohummud ool Itaber, of Bokhar it, is mentioned in the Kusinf oo Zeroon as having also written a commentary on the Jama-i Sugheer of Jma am Muhummud. He died i. H. 585.

[^106]:    * Vid. Bib. Or. Tatarkian. An imperfect copy of the work referred to, entitled Futazua-iTatarkhaneejah, is in the possession of the court of Nizamut Adalut.

[^107]:    * A commentary on the Tohfut ool Fokaha, of Shykh ola oodeen Mohummud, of Sumurkund, by his puril, Abo, Bukr, bin-1 Musoood, of Kashan, in Persian Irak. The author of the Kushf oo' Zunoon states the death of the latter to have been A. H. 587; and adds the master was so well pleased with the comment of his scholar, that he gave in marriage to the latter his daughter Fatimah, who was also learned in the science of jurispurudence. The entire
     rayia. Both the text and comment are quoted as authorities; but neither is known to be now extant in India.
    + By Abool futh Mohummuis bin-i $A_{b o o b u k r, ~ o f ~ M u r g k e e-~}^{\text {one }}$ nan. He is stated, in the Kushf oo Zunoon, to have composed tue work quoted, A. H. 651, at the College founded by Imad oozMooLK, in the suburbs of Sumurkund. It contains furty sections, on civil transactions (Moamulat) only; and being left incomplete at his death, was finishod by his soll, Jumaf. oo' deen. A copy is among the books of the Niamut Adalut, and it is considered a work of aum thority.

[^108]:    * It does not appear that any work on jurisprudence was publis' ed daring the first century of the Hijrah : or that any was written oa the dicetrines of $\Lambda$ boo Huncefih, during the second century, except the tieatives, which have been noticed, of his two discipies Aboo Yoosul, and Inam Mohumnud. In the third and fourth centuries, besides commentarics on the works of the latter, (which as fundamental auth rities, are denominated Osoul or Original) the fullowing law-tracts ase stated to have been composed ; and are briefly de cribed in the "Kushi oo' Zumon." An "Adub ool Kazec:" and "Nuw dir," by Mohummud bin-i-Sumah, who died A. H. 233. Another ueatise, of the former title, by Ab:o Hazim Abd nol Humeed, who died in 292. Several treaises of the latter title, by Ibn-i-li ostum, LJishan, and orbers. Aliso looks of both titles, and a comprendium of the law, entitled "Mokhtusur-i Tahavee," by boo Jafur Mhmud of Taia in Esypt who died A. H. 371 ; and who scems to be tie author crrmeonsly cited by the name of Atoo Faka, in Mr. Hani ton's Pre. Dis. p. 38. Another compendium, entied "Mukhtusur-i Kurkhere" by Aboo'l Husen Abluollah of Kurkh (a wa.d in the city of Bughdad) who died A. H. 340 , Aud a "Nuwadir," with two otlicr books, entitled "Ouzzon" and "Nuwazil", by Aboo'l Lys Nusur, of Sumurkund.

[^109]:    * A complete and accurate copy of the "Futawa-i Kazee Khan," at rosod io have formenly belonged to the roval library, is a mong the broks of the Nizemut Adalut, obtained from Lukinosu. The authr of the " Aushf oo Zunoon" and the present Kazer ool Knazat, concur in extolling this work, as replete with cases oi common occuritice, and cosicequent'y of particular utility for practica! seference. A digest ("Morutub") of the cases recited in it is aloomentioned in the "Iust ou' Zanoon," as made in the seventh centu y of the Hijrah, by a learned :yrian, named Mohummad bin-i- Monstufaafunder, and entilled "Wuhhajno" Shureent."
    $\dagger$ The courl of Nizaziut Adalut have a complete capy of this compilation, presented to them, with six other luw books purchased at Lakhnow, by the Kuzae oul Kcozat, Mohummud Nujm oo' cieen. It consists of thirty sections, upon "Moamulat" only: like the "Foosool col Imadecyah," heforementioned. The contents of both were arranged and incorporated in a collection, entitled " Jum -ool Foosto:y:4," by Eudr oo deen Mahmood; bitter known by tue nam" of [bni-Kazee-i-Sumawunah, whodied A. H. S23. The author of the "Kushf (on' Zunoon" states this wolk $t$; be in gre. $t$ estimation with the learned, as a civil digest; but though oftcu quoted as an authority, it is not known to be at present in India,

[^110]:    z Jbraheem shah rimped at J unforr (curing the confises of the Limpire of Dehly, consequent to the invasion of Iymoor fur forly years, aid died A. H. S44. The court of Nizumiat Aliahb porsess an entire copy of the work referred to: but it is a misid cullectivit, and bot deemed abiboriratize.

[^111]:    *Anther commentary on the "Kunz co dukayik," entitled "Miathon," is hompin in India. But the ran e of the aution has not been asectianed. 'The "Fozoh" lyy Shikh Yahya, and "Ruaz ool Finkayik" by Kazee Budr oo den Mal, mect, are also" rotuced, with the hames of some ober comentators, in the "Kushi oo' Zurom ;" bet ticy are not crlebated, or quated as as authorities. The court of Aisumut Adalut possiss an iricomplete copy of the "Puhnco' rayik;" en whin the Kaze ool Keozat remarlis (in his cetalogne) that "it comprists a cormpilation of cases, general and jarticnitar; with the usetul result of the author's researches upon a varicty of legal cuestions; and is received as auheritic by the fullowers of Abwo Hluneeiah in every city of Islam.

[^112]:    * Numerous Huswashee, or bonks of annotations, have also been written on the text and commentaries; of which the inost colebrated is the Hashecah of Yonur bin-1 Josyd, commonly called Akkee Chulpee. This work, ent tied Zukbervut ool Opba is in the possession of the court of Nizanut Adalut. Who have also at correct and complete copy of the Shurh-i-Viknyah. It may be useful to add that a Persian translation of the latter has been made by a person named Abd ool Huk Sujawal, of Surhited; who in his preface, states it to have been completed A. H. 1076; during the reign of Aurungzer. A copy of this version is in my possession. The language is not elegant; but it hears the character of accuracy; and with a careful revision, it may deserve publication. In bulk it does not much exceed a fouith of the Persian version of the Hidáyah; made by the former chief fazee, Grolam Y uhya Khan, and his learned assuciates, employed for that purpose under the patronage of Mr. Hastings; a revised edition of whicis, under the superintendence of Moulavee Mohummud Rashid, is now printing, at my suggestion, by order of Government ; and besides facilitating the study of the Aralic text, will tend to expluin and correct the English translation; which, though an the whole deserving of praise, has been found in some parts inaccurate, and in many less intelligible than the Persian veision. It may be proper to add in this

[^113]:    "Jama,") are c llections of cases, of the nature of "l"utawa." A fur:her collection, entitled "Khomanur ool futawa," hy Almud bin-i-Xohummod, is among the books of the Lizamit Adalut, and supposed by the "Kazee ool Ko.rai" to have been compiled towards the end of the 8th century of the Hijrah. Also a Persian compilation, named "Futawa-i-Kurakhanee," the cases incluced in which were collected ly Moolla Siidr oo' deen bin-i Yaliood, and arranged, some years af er his death, by Kura Khan, in the reigu of Sooltan ula oo'dern, The Kaze ool Koozat has likewise fre sented to the Nizamut Adalat a anall Persan book, entitled Mokht. ool Ikhtyar, urititn A. ii. $2 ; 1$, by Ikhtiyar son of Giyazo or deen Musun; contaning, bisides the duties of a kaze abd moltee. legal forms ot various descriptons for practical use.

    * Preliminary Discourse, j). At.
    $\dagger$ Mr. H. Culebrooke posesses a folio volume, containing about half of the entire tranolation, from the commencoment to the book won evidence. I have ako a volume which contains from the bonk on matriage, io that u:on endowments, or religiuns and charitable aplropriations. And, at my tiggestion, the Governor Gereval in Council has been pleased to instruet tre hewident at Dehly to endeavour 10 procure two or more complete cofics of tie. Persian rersion mede by orderof Zeboo Nisa, with a vew t!pmejare a collated transcript, which may be hereafter printed and publisberl. I have likewise a correct P'ersian t!anslation of the book ob "Jon yiat," or offences acainst the ficison, made for nu, a few years since, by Mulayce Saed codecn, (now law officer of the Bure)y churt of circuit) under the.superintendence of his father, the kazee ool Koozat, who has added notes of explanation where they appared requisite. This version will piobubly be pioted and publsired, as it well deserves to le.

[^114]:    * The quantity $R^{\prime}$, which represents the refraction due to 450 a!titude (where Rad. $=1$ ) is give, in Bradley's Tables $=57^{\prime \prime}$. But for obvious reasons I have preierred Le Gentil's quantity, as his experiments at Pondicherry appears to me unexceptionable.

[^115]:    * See Asiatic Researches Volume IX. Article 1st, Page 13, the experiments on terrestrial refraction, where the refraction at night was something more than double what it was in the day-time, owing (it is supposed) to the increased moisture of the atmosphere.

[^116]:    * Governor of Persia prop er.

[^117]:    * Azr. Here the tribe of Shiahs are meant, who are supposed to be under Ali's protection, and in fact part of his family.
    $\dagger$ Sentences marked in italics, are passages firm the Koran, of which I have concisely rendered the meaning.
    $\ddagger$ From the Koran. The passage literally signities " like unto the spider that maketh himself a house." But the weakest of houses surely is the spider's.

[^118]:    * A particular tribe of Afghans.
    $\div$ Constartinople.

[^119]:    * One of the twelve Imams, who died at Meshed in Khorasan, where he is buried
    + Tais feast happens at the conclusion of the month of Ramzan.

[^120]:    " I have heard, that, during the reign of Mutasim,
    "A woman of Ajim was taken by the foc:
    "Her eyes became channels for torrents of blood.
    "She thus complained of her wretched state.
    "Oh Mutasim! why art thou supine? I cail for justice!
    "'Thy subject is a prisoner in the hands of thine enemy,
    "Thou art the flame in the lamp of the country.
    " On thee depends the shame and glory of the nation.

    * Thou art the protector of the poor and ivretched:
    "f All their children are the children of their sovereign!
    " Her masters, astonished at these exclamations,
    " In rage struck her on the face;
    "A And said, " now let your monarch Mutasim,
    " With all the renowned heroes of Pirsia,
    "Collect an innumerable army,
    "And come, if they chose, to thy rescue."
    "This speech soon rcached the great Murasim,
    "Who immediately publisbed throughout Persia,
    "S That all, who pretended to the name of men,
    "Should instantly assemble in arms.
    "When the monarch had completed his mighty preparations.
    "He soo heaped destruction on the heads of his enemies *.
    "To release one prisoner from the hand of the foe,

[^121]:    * This story is related by historians, of Murs'sim, the son of Ha'runal Ra'sbid, and eighth Whalif of the huuse of Abas. D'Herbelot Bibl. Or. 630.

[^122]:    Printed by S. Rousseav, Wood Street, Spa Fields.

