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## ASIATIC RESEARCHES;

OR,<br>TRANSACTIONS<br>©F THE<br>SOCIETY INSTITUTED IN BENGAL,<br>For inquiring into the<br>History and Antiquities,<br>THE<br>ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE.<br>of<br>A S I A.<br>VOLUME THE EIGHTH.

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## Garratt bibicoll Instluts

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Introductory Remarks, intended to have accompanied Captain Mahony's Paper on Ceylon, and the doctrines of Buddha, published in the seventh volume of the Asiatic Researches, but inadvertently omitted in publishing that Volume,529

# TRANSACTIONS 

## OF THE

## ASIATIC SOCIETY.

## I.

Observations respecting the remarkable Effects of Sol-Lunar Influence in the Fevers of India; with the Scheme of an Astronomical Ephemeris for the purposes of Medicine and Meteorology.

BY FRANCIS BALFOUR, ESQ. M. D.*

WHILST the interesting and successful researches of the Asiatic Society are exciting the curiosity and expectation of the learned in every quarter of the world, it is natural for those who are prosecuting discoveries in medicine and meteorology to look towards India, for some information respecting the nature and peculiarities of the climate in which we live. Possessing, as we do, the peculiar advantages of a tropical situation, with a more extensive field, and greater conveniency for making observations than any European nation ever enjoyed before, it is an expecta-

[^0]tion which they have reason to entertain, and which, on that account, and many other considerations, we ought, if possible, to gratify.

One of the most striking and interesting peculiarities of this climate is the wonderful connection that subsists between the paroxysms of fevers, and certain relative positions of the sun and moon; and as it is a peculiarity that leads to new ideas respecting the theory and treatment of the whole class of febrile diseases, and suggests Desiderata for meteorological research; and therefore presents to the physician and philosopher, one of the most important phenomena in nature, I have chosen it for the subject of this paper.

## I. Of the Number and Importance of the Diseases that belong to the Class of Fevers.

As the terms fevers, febrile diseases, or class of fevers, cannot convey to those who have not professionally or regularly applied themselves to the study of medicine, any just or adequate idea of the great extent and magnitude of this subject, I have thought it expedient to take this occasion to observe, for their information, that the class of fevers or febrile diseases comprehends, not only the disorders that always receive the appellation of fevers, but a very great number of others that are never distinguished by this name, although the fever which accompanies them, constitutes the very essence of the disease. Diseases of this description, of which many are far more destructive to the human race than those expressly called fevers, are most of them included in the following catalogue.

The plague, putrid sore-throats, epidemic catarrhs, dysenteries, pleurisies, peripncumonies, cho-

INFLUENCE IN THE FEVERS OF INDIA, \&C. 3 lics, cholera morbus, acute liver, the small-pox, measles, erysipelas, elephantiasis, rheumatism, gout, tooth-achs, ophthalmias, megrims, obstructions of the liver and spleen, diarrhoeas, consumptions, spitting of blood, and hœmorrhoids; many species of hypochondriasis, insanity, epilepsy; tetanus and asthma; the state of teething in children, all local inflammations, external and internal, accompanied with fever of any kind, and all sores and ulcers, especially of the legs in warm climates. In short, all diseases attended with periodical exacerbations of fever, however obscure, \&c. \&c.

With whatever success, therefore, I may have acquitted myself in my researches respecting the class of fevers, it will appear from this explanation, that the object, at least, cannot, with truth, be represented as unimportant and useless. It cannot be unimportant and useless to investigate the nature of a class of diseases, by which the whole of the human race is sorely afflicted; and ultimately three-fourths of mankind are carried to the grave.
II. Of the effects of Sol-Lunar Influence in Fevers, denominated Continued, Remitting, and Intermitting.
A collection of all the observations I have made on this subject would be much too voluminous for a place amongst the researches of the Society. For my present object, it will be sufficient to state, as briefly as possible, the general conclusions that I have been led to draw from a view of the whole; and they are those that follow.

## 1st. Of the Paroxysms of Fevers.

In Bengal there is no room to doubt that the human frame is affected by the influence connect-

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ed with the relative situations of the sun and moon. In certain states of health and vigour, this influence has not power to shew itself by any obvious effects; and in such cases its existence is often not acknowledged. But in certain states of debility and disease it is able to manifest itself by exciting febrile paroxysms: and the propensity or aptitude of the constitution, to be affected with febrile paroxysms in such cases, may be denominated the paroxysmal disposition.

From the great variety that appears in the violence and repetition of paroxysms, in different cases, at the same juncture of time, when the exciting power must act equaliy on all, it must be inferred, that the paroxysmal disposition exists in different cases in various degrees of propensity.

It appears also, from the history of fevers, that there is a disposition in all of them, which gradually increases and advances to a state in which it becomes ripe, or prepared for that remarkable change which terminates in a solution of the fever; and is denominated a crisis. This tendency in fevers may be called the critical disposition; which distinguishes itself in different cases, and at different times by various degrees of maturity.

The constitutions that prevail in different kinds of fever discover obvicus peculiarities with respect to the progress and maturation of the critical disposition. But that which is most important, and most material for the object of the present explanation, is a peculiarity that shews itself in the critical disposition of the common typhus. In cases of this fever, which is that which prevails in crowded citics, and in jails, ships, and hospitals, in all countries at all seasons, and is by far the most com-

INFLUEENCE IN TIIE TEVERS OF INDIA, \&C.
mon, it is well established by experience, that the fever being once commenced, the paroxysms are very rarely disposed to cease in less than four days, and seldoin so soon; and are not in general inclined to continue more than twenty-one.

The laws that regulate the progress and maturation of the critical disposition, in that constitution which prevails in remitting and internitting ferers, which are generally attended with large secretions of bile, and are the endemic fevers of warm climates, have not been as yet ascertained by any precise rules respecting their duration. But it appears to me that, whenever there are free discharges of bile, there is always a greater tendency towards a crisis or solution of the fever, than when there appears but little or none, which is generally the case during the height of the typhus; and until some approach towards a crisis either perfect or imperfect has taken place: and the peculiar paroxysmal, as well as the critical disposition in the typhus, and in remitting and intermitting fevers, giving occasion to forms of different type and duration, may perhaps be connected with different states of the liver peculiar to each.

## ○d. Of the Trpes of Fevers.

## Of Perfect Types.

Febrile paroxysms universally discover a tendency to appear and disappear in coincidence with those positions of the sm and moon that regulate the rising and falling of the tides.

The diurnal and nocturnal increase of sol-lunar power acting on constitutions, in which the profensity of the paroxysmal disposition is complete B 3
and perfect, produces paroxysms every twelve hours in coincidence with the periods of the tides *; and constitutes types, which, on account of this regular coincidence, I have denominated perfect.

## Of Imperfect Types.

The diurnal and nocturnal increase of sol-lunar power acting on constitutions in which the propensity to paroxysm is incomplete or imperfect, has power only to prodece paroxysms in coincidence with every second, third, or fourth period of the tides, or others more remote; constituting types, which, on account of this irregular coincidence, I have called imperfect.

By the discovery of this simple and universal principle, we are abie to unfold the whole mystery of types; and to explain all the diversities that have appeared under the distinctions of continued, remitting, and intermitting fevers. Fevers, hitherto denominated continued fevers, and supposed from the obscurity of their remissions to have none, are all of them to be considered as nothing else than fevers of a perfect type, in which two daily remissions may always be discovered, by attending to the remissions of sol-lunar influence, especially those of the moming; and fevers having paroxysms every twelve hours with obvious remissions, whether denominated continued or remitting fevers, are also eridently fevers of a perfect type.

[^1]INFLUENCE IN THE FEVERS OF INDIA, \&́C. 7
Fevers in which the paroxysms do not succeed each other in twelve hours (and which have been hitherto denominated intermitting fevers when the remissions were complete, and remitting fevers when they were not) all beiong to the class of impesfect types.

For the purpose of illustrating these explanations respecting types, I have constructed Table I.

3d. Of the Durations and Crises of Tevers.
Of the durations and crises of Ferers of a Perfect Type.
Febrile paroxysms shew themselves more frequently during the period of the spring tides than at any other time, and as these advance become more violent and obstinate ; and on the other hand, tend no less invariably to subside and terminate during the neaps.

By the concurrence of the remarkable and sudden remission in the power of sol-lunar inflisence at the commencement of the neaps with critical dispositions in a state of perfect maturity, all the diffierent perfect types, produced in the manner I have explained, are brought to a final termination or perfect crasis; and are thus limited to fevers of different clurations.

The operation of this law is explained in Table II, which exhibiting examples of the different durations of perfect types, with the manner in which they are formed, unfolds at one glance, the dark and once impenetrable secret of crisis; and accounts for all the diversities that may appear in their duration at different times.

B 4

An application of these principles enables us to explain in a similar and consistent manner the formation of crises that have been called imperfect. It is obvious that whenever the remission in the power of sol-lunar influence at the commencement of the neaps acting equally on all, produces in some cases perfect crises, and in others crises that are imperfect, that the latter must be referred to the immature and unprepared state of the critical disposition to concur completely in that event. And although periect crises, owing to the cause which I now mention, do not always take place at such junctures, yet no feier, as far as my experience goes, ever passes the comnoncensent of the neaps without some evident abatenent or remission in the degree of is violence; or withnut exhibiting some evident approaches towards a solution or crisis; and they are approaches such as these, in which the critical disposition concurs only partially and incompletely with the remission of sel-lunar power, that constitute those changes in the state of fevers that have been hitherto denominated imperfect crises.

This explanation respecting the nature of imperfect crisis being premised, I have now to observe, that although Table II, exhibits only such forms of perfect types as terminate by a final and perfect crisis on the commencement of the neaps, it will now be well understood, that all fevers do not terminate finally and completely at this juncture; but that in many cases; the crises being imperyect, the paroxysms continue to return for some time in a more moderate degree, and generally postponing. with the periods of the tides, sulbside, and at last disappear gradually and imperceptibly. The imperfect crises of perfect types, such as these which I have just described, being less distinctly marked

## influence in the fevers of india, \& 9

in their form, I have not attempted to represent them by any diagram.

## Of the Durations and Crises of Ferers of an Imperfect Type.

For the same reason I have not attempted to reduce, to a synopsis or table, the durations and crises of imperfect types ; and because I am perfectly satisfied that the sai:e principles are equally applicable to explain the whole.
III. The preceding Theory ertended to the whole Class of Febrile Diseases.

In prosecuting this analysis, we have obtained the knowledge of three very important principles in the pathology of fevers.

1st. That the paroxysms of fevers are produced by the action of sol-lunar influence.
adly. That there is, however, a certain state of the human constitution, denominated the paroxysmal disposition, required to concur with the exacerbations of sol-Junar power in exciting and reiterating paroxysms, in such a manmer as to form fevers.
edly. That in the course of the disease there takes place in the constitution a certain state, denominated the critical disposition, which tending gradualy to maturity, at length concurs with certain remissions of sol-hnar power in producing a crisis; by which salutary change the tendency to parovysm is diminished or removed, so as to bring fevers to an end after certain intervals of time.

In my explanation of this theory, I have hitherto confined myself as much as possible to examples of the typhus, and of the endemic, remitting, and intermitting bilious fevers of this country; particularly those without local affection; and such therefore as are strictly denominated fevers. I now mean to extend it to every disease that is distinguished by febrile paroxysms, returning in coincidence with the periods of increased sol-lunar power, whether with or without local affection; and as there is no disease of the numerous list detailed at the beginning of this paper, excepting the plague*, catarrhal fevers, and one or two more, in which I have not myself distinctly observed the coincidence of concomitant fever with the exacerbations of sol-lunar influence; the whole of that catalogue, and many others, though not generally distinguished by the appellation of fevers, are to be considered as nothing more than so many different modifications of fever; in which the peculiar constitution of each is variously affected by the action of sol-lunar power, and in such a manner as to produce the great variety of febrile forms that daily appear.

The exacerbation and remission of febrile pasoxysm in coincidence with the rising and falling of sol-lunar power constitutes the general and distinguishing character of fever or febrile disease;

[^2]influence in the fevers of india, \&c. 11 and although the lowest degree of this power acting on paroxysmal dispositions in a high state of propensity, may happen to produce febrile paroxysms at an unusual period, such instances, though apparently exceptions, are no argument against the truth or principles of the general law: but are consistent with it in every respect.

Combining therefore the operation of the principles we have obtained from this analysis, we are enabled to construct a theorem, which serves to explain in a new, but satisfactory manner, the whole class of febrile diseases.

## THEOREM.

The fluctuating force of sol-lunar influence coinciding and co-operating in all its various stages and degrees, with the various modifications of the paroxysmal disposition, excites febrile paroxysms to attack on all the days of the neaps and springs, and supports and reiterates them, according to various types, until the commencement of different neaps ; at which junctures the maturity of the critical disposition huppening to concur with the periodical decline of sol-lunar influence, these paroxysms then subside and come to a termination or crisis: and thus form different successions of paroxysms constituting fever's of various length or. duration.

It has been observed, respecting the various forms of durations, that some are apt to occur more frequently than others. To search for a solution of this question amilst the chaos of the incorrect and mutilated history that has been accumulated on the subject of fevers, would be unsatisfactory and useless. It will be far more profitable to
observe their course with attention in future, when the laws that directs it are explained and understood, and I have no doubt that any physician who will carefully attend to the diurnal and nocturnal returns of the tides, and will constantly hold before him the prevailing tendency of fevers to appear at the commencement, and during the period of the springs; and on the other hand their prevailing tendency to subside and terminate at the commencement and during the period of the neaps; together with the observations that have been made respecting the propensity of the paroxysmal, and the maturity of the critical disposition, will soon obtain more information respecting the phenomena of fevers; and be able to form more just and certain judgments and prognostics respecting every event, thau if he were to study the history of medicine, as it is now written, for a thousand years. In short there is no revolution or clange in the course of fevers that may not be explained by these general principles, in a manner that is consistent with the laws of the human constitution, and those of the great system of revolving bodies, which unite together in producing them.

Before I conclude this article, I must also recommend to every practitioner who wishes to emancipate himself from the beaten track, to attend carefully to the appearance of the urine; for I can assure them, from the experience of many years attentive observation, that there is to be observed, in the fevers of India, a constant and regular fluctuation in the colour and consistence of the urine in fevers. That is to say, regular diurnal and septenary changes in its character, coincident and correspondent with the exacerbations and remissions of sol-lunar influence.

INFLUENCE IN THE FEVERS OF INDIA, \&C. 19
The periodical fluctuation in the state and appearance of eruptions, sores, and ulcers in this country, being always connected with the periodical changes of a concomitant fever, an attention to these will be no less instructive than to those of the urine; and if the periodical changes of each were regularly and accurately delineated and expressed in colours with a pencil, by a judicious and careful observer, they would form a record in medicine and surgery of a new kind; which I have no doubt, would place the whole of this doctrine upon the basis of ocular demonstration, and afford to the most incredulous and inattentive perfect conviction of its truth.
IV. Deviations from the prevailing tendencies of $\mathrm{Fe}-$ vers during the periods of the Springe and Neaps.

Althougl? the general theorem, which I have advanced in the preceding pages, describe the prevailing tendencies of fevers during the springs and neaps, it is necessary to observe, that those tendencies are liable to frequent and remarkable deviations from the various stages that the moon may happen to occupy on her own orbit; by which her distance from the earth may be considerably increased or diminished; and consequently her power.

From observations lately made at the General Hospital at Calcutta by Mr. Janes Howison, Doctor John Campbell, and Doctor John Fullarron, it appeared that the moon during the period of her greatest horizontal parallaxes had sufficient power to suspend, in a very conspicuous manner, the common tendency of the neaps to produce a remission of fever. And when the greatest horizontal parallaxes happen to coincide with the power of sol-lunar influence during the springs, we may
reasonably infer that the power of exciting and supporting paroxysms must then be considerably raised above its usual force.

Besides the deviations that may arise from this cause, it is also reasonable to suppose, that the state of febrile paroxysms must be occasionally affected by every other change or perturbation of the moon's influence; but these are less remarkable, and have not been as yet ascertained by accurate observation.

## V. Of the state of Fevers in India, during the Equinoctial Periods.

I am now come to take notice of the remarkable appearances observed in fevers about the vernal and autumnal equinoxes. On this subject I have received from others very little information; but I have not been inattentive myself to those periods; and can pronounce with confidence, although my observations have not been recorded with regularity, that fevers are apt to occur more frequently, and with greater violence about both of those periods, than during the intervals either of summer or winter.

From these observations I was induced many years ago to advance, that the power of sol-lunar influence was considerably greater during the equinoctial periods than during the intervals either before or after them. It has therefore lately afforded me considerable satisfaction to discover in De La Lande's astronomy, that De La Place has determined, from a very large collection of observations made by De La Lande himself, that the tides at Brest, about the time of the equinoxes, ${ }^{\circ}$

INFLUENCE IN THE FEVERS OF INDIA, \&C. 15
rise at a medium two feet higher than at the time of the solstices*. This discovery is agreeable to the general law of attraction; and it is not to be supposed that the influence of the sun and moon under the tropics, acts with a force inferior to that which produces this difference in the height of the tides on the northern shores of Europe.

How far sol-lunar influence affects the fevers of the higher latitudes of the globe, is a question that does not come within the scope of this enquiry. The annexed table, however, extracted from Dr. Currie, of Liverpool's medical reports on the effects of the water, \&c. page 930 , points so strongly to this subject ; and is so immediately connected with the present article, that I could not resist the temptation of giving it a place ; conceiving that it may become a stronger inducement to observation than any admonition or exhortation that I could offer.

Dr. Currie's table was formed by him to shew the number of typhus fevers admitted into the Liverpool dispensary in the course of seventeen years: and the admissions in that space of time amounted to no less than 48,367 .

The great majority of patients admitted in the months of the spring and autumn, which I have denominated the equinoctial periods, compared with those admitted in the months of summer and winter, which I have called the inter-equinoctial intervals, cannot fail to attract the notice of every observer.

[^3]Without attending to fractions, we obtain from the facts established in this record, the following statement of admissions.

For the mean of the equinoctial period, . . 12,980 For the mean of the inter-equinoctial intervals,

11,232
For the common mean of those periods and
intervals, . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 12,091
For the rise of the equinoctial mean, above
the common mean, . . . . . 889, say $850=\frac{1}{14}$ For the fall of the inter-equinoctial mean,
below the common mean, . . 859 , say $850=\frac{1}{14}$
Those facts, expressed in other terms, amount to these ;

1st. That whilst the temperature of the season in the spring was passing from cold to hot the number of typhus fevers rose about $\frac{1}{14}$ abore the common standard.

2dly. That whilst the temperature of the season in the autumn was passing from hot to cold, the number of typhus fevers rose in like manner about $\frac{1}{14}$ above the common standard.

Sdly. That during the months of summer, when the heat of the season is greatest, the number of typhus fevers fell beneath the common standard about $\frac{1}{14}$;-and

4thly. That during the months of winter, when the heat of the season is least, the number of typhus fevers fell in like manner below the common standard in the same proportion, about $\frac{1}{13}$.

That the number of fevers should increase equally during the transition from cold to hot, as from hot to cold, and under the two opposite extremes of permanent heat and permanent cold, should equally diminish, are facts that are no doubt curious. At present, however, I mean only to suggest, that, if the theory of sol-lunar influence should ever be admitted in Europe, those phenomena, apparently so very repugnant, may all be reconciled and referred to one common cause, without involving the smallest inconsistency or contradiction.

## VI. Testimonies respecting the effects of Sol-Lunar Influence in the Fevers of India.

As it is impossible on this occasion to detail at full length the various observations and arguments from which I have been led to adopt this theory, it is necessary to state, that it has not been taken up rashly; that it is now submitted to this Society after the observation and reflection of thirty years; and that it is confirmed, in its most essential points, by the concurring observations of a large body of respectable gentlemen, whose names are contained in the following list. And it is flattering to me to add, that Lord Teignmouth, who was then Governor General, conceiving that the correspondence of those gentlemen on this subject promised to be publicly useful, ordered my treatise, containing their letters, to be printed and circulated at the expense of government.

Besides establishing unquestionable eridence of the general influence of this law in Bengal, these testimonies serve also to correct a very erroneous notion advanced respecting sol-lunar influence by Doctor Livd, by shewing that its effects in fevers
are no less manifest at the distance of many hundred miles from the highest reach of the tides, than at Calcutta, and other parts of Bengal, to which the tides flow daily. The distances marked in the column, appropriated to that purpose, are very nearly the number of miles in a direct line between the places where the observations were made, and the utmost reach of the tides at the springs. Doctor Lind's theory made me anxious to ascertain these distances with precision; and the Military Surveyor General was so obliging as to direct it to be done at his office.

| CORRESPONDENTS. |  | Stations. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lieutenant L. Hook, | 10 | Ramnagır, | 565 |
| Lieutenant A. Black, | 13 | Sylhet,. | 150 |
| Captain R. Ogle, | 2.4 | Cooch-Beliar, | 270 |
| Major James Pring | 21. | Benares, | 365 |
| Lieutenant Robert Cumming, | 14 | Midnapore | 58 |
| Lieutenant S. S:aclair, | 14 | Dito, | ditto |
| Lieutenant T. Hamilton, | 14 | Dilto, | ditto |
| Captain S. Knowles, | 24 |  |  |
| Mr. William Chambers, |  | Culcutta, |  |
| Major Robert Bruce, | 24 | Cooch-Behar, | 270 |
| Mr. James Ross, Assistunt Surgcón, | 11 | Dimagepore, | 160 |
| Mr. Adam Burt, Assistaut Surgeon, | $1: 3$ |  |  |
| J. G. Henderson, Surgeon, . | 14 |  |  |
| Lieutenant Fredk. Marsden, | 14 | Bencoolen, |  |
| Mr. J. J. Vaumorel, Assistant Surgeon, | 3 |  |  |
| Mr. H. Mair, Head Surgenn, ... | 23 |  |  |
| Captain Bradley, | 24 | Chunar, | 370 |
| Mr. Ch. Desrough, Assistant Surgenn, | 4 |  |  |
| Captain Genrye Wood, ...... | 23 | Ramghar, .... | 240 |
| Mr. James Wilson, Surgeon, | 13 | Moorshedaball, | 53 |
| Colonel ficorge Deare, | 25 | Calcutta, ... |  |
| Captain Richard Grueber, | 23 | Rohilcund, .. | 660 |



| CORRESPONDENTS. |  | Stations. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Doctor G. Boyd, Head Surgeon, | 12 |  |  |
| Doctor James Hare, Assistant Surgeon, | 6 | Calcutta, |  |
| Major Dickson, | 25 | Cooch-Behar, .. | 270 |

The information sent to me by those gentlemen, was all of it received in the space of a few months, in consequence of a circular letter, requesting observations on this subject, and on any side of the question, from those who might be inclined to give it. Several of those gentlemen I had never seen in my life; and with many I had the honor only of a slight acquaintance. Had I continued longer to collect testimonies, I am confident, that not $w i t h s t a n d i n g$ the diffidence and reluctance with which people commit themselves upon a topic of this kind, that I might have obtained in direct proof of sol-lunar influence, a much larger body of evidence than is to be found in any single record in direct proof of the tides of the sea.

The order for printing and circulating my treatise on sol-lunar influence, along with my correspondence on this subject, at the expense of govermment, is contained in the following letter.

## To Doctor FRANCIS BALFOUR.

PUB. Dерт.
Sin,

The Governor General being always disposed to encourage the servants of the Company, in instances of publications that promote science, or are calculated to do a general service, directs
me to inform you, that the expense of your publication, entitled " a Treatise on Sol-lunar Influence," will be defrayed by government.

You will therefore be pleased to circulate copies of this work to the different parts of the country where you think it will be useful; and likewise transmit twenty copies to this office, to be forwarded to the Honorable Court of Directors.

$$
\text { I ain, } S_{i r}, \& \in
$$

## (Sigued) C. SHAKESPEAR, Sub-Secretary.

Calcutta, Council Chamber, the 7 th April, 1794.

To accumulate testimonies of the remarkable effects of sol-lunar influence in India is now almost superfluous. In the western parts of India it is no less generally acknowledged than in Bengal: and I shall conclude this article with an extract from a letter which I received some months ago, from a gentleman high in the medical line at Bombay; and no less so in the opinion of the public. His name lowever I forbear to publish, not having previously asked for his permission.

$$
\text { " Bombay, 6th May, } 1801 .
$$

"The influence of the moon on the human body, " has been observed in this part of India by every "medical practitioner. It is universally acknow" ledged by the doctors of all colours, of all casts, " and of all countries. The people are taught to " believe it in their infancy; and as they grow up, " they acknowledge it from experience. I sup" pose that in the northern latitudes this power of " the moon is far less sensible than in Iadia; and "perhaps less so in Bengal than in our neighbour"hood. We here universally think that the state
" of weakly and diseased bodies, is much influ" enced by the motions of the mon. Many peo"ple know the very day on which their intermit"reats will make their appearance; and every full " and change increases the number of the patients " of every practitioner. It is no argument against " this influence, that diseases appear during every "day of the month. The human body is subject "to alterations from a thousand external circum"stances, and from many affections of the mind. "These lay the foundation of disease at every pe"riod; but they do not overthrow the evidence of "lunar influence: although they are apt to mis" lead with regard to effects that depend on that " alone. That the human body is affected in a re" markable manner by the changes of the moon, I " am perfectly convinced, although I cannot con"s stantly pretend to see the operation of the gene"ral law ; nor to account at all times for its per" turbation; and agree in thinking that an attention "to the power of the moon is highly necessary to " the medical practitioner in India**."
VII. Of Securing and Extending our knowledge of
Sol-Lunar Influence.

As those discoveries regarding the effects of sollunar influence lead unavoidably to new ideas re-

[^4]specting the nature and cure of fevers, it has become an object of real importance : first, to secure the knowledge we have already obtained of this principle; that it may not succumb to any illiberal attempt to suppress or smother it, by representing it as insionificant and useless; or by aseribineg to it, the wild and groundless delusions of astrology: secondly, to render the road to future observation and further discovery more easy and accessible, by removing the almost unsurmountable obstacles that present themselves, in the intricacy and labour of astronomical investigations: and thirdly, to render our knowledge of it so precise and well defined, that it may assume the form and attributes of real science, by furnishing precepts for the purpose of applying it to the improvement of useful arts.

1st. To place this theory on a firm and secure foundation, I shall follory the example of the learned AbBe' ManN, in his observations on the flux and reflux of the atmosphere *: and shall assume it as a principle requiring no further demonstration than what it has already received from astronomy, that the influence of that attraction, which regulates the motions of the planetary system, is continually and without ceasing exerting itself, in a proportionable degrce, on every particle of this globe; and that it cannot be otherwise.

The existence of sol-lunar influence being demonstated by astronomy, its action on the human frame is no longer a matter of doubt; and the only question that we have to consider is, not whether that power does actually exist, but whe-

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ther it manifests itself by the signs of any obvious effect or change in the human constitution.

With respect to this important question, I shall content myself with stating in a very few words, that all the observations I have made myself, together with those that have been communicated by other gentlemen, concur to prove, not merely that sol-lunar influence manifests itself by evident effects upon the human constitution, but that the attacks, exacerbations, remissions, postponings, and relapses, of the paroxysms of fevers, which comprehend the whole of the evidence that is necessary to constitute a complete demonstration, are, in a wonderful manner, coincident in time, and correspondent in degree, with the periodical changes that take place in the power of sol-lunar attraction. To reject, therefore, those accumulated proofs of its actual operation and efficiency, is to violate the principles and rules, by which we infer the existence of a connection or cause, in every question of philosophy, or common occurrence of life.

The proof of regular changes in the atmosphere corresponding with the revolutions of lunar attraction, being now established by the discovery of a regular diurnal, and a septenary flux and reflux in the mercury of the barometer, coincident with the diurnal and septenary revolutions of the same power, the theory of sol-lunar influence in fevers receives from this event all the support that can be derived from a fair analogy: and it may be inferred with reason, that changes such as these in the element in which we breathe and move, are not likely to take place without corresponding perturbations in the human frame.
influence in the fevers of india, \&c. 25
The existence of a diurnal flux and reflux in the mercury of the barometer, is now sufficiently established by the observations of Father Boudies,* at Chandernagore; of Mr. Trail, Mr. Farquhar, and Colonel Peirce, at Calcutta; and those which appear in my treatise, on the barometer, inserted in the fourth volume of the Asiatic Researches; and on the Coast of Coromandel, by the observations of Doctor Roxburgit $\dagger$. On the other side of the globe, they have been observed in South America ${ }_{+}^{+}$, and the IVest Indies $\|$; and also at different places in Europe§.

The proofs of a septenary flux and reflux, in the mercury of the barometcr, is confirmed by the observations of Mr. Toaldo, Father Cotte, and others; but still more pointedly by those lately made in England by Mr. How a rd, to be found in a paper read before the Ashesian Society in London, and published in the seventh volume of the Philosophical Magazine.

Such is the support and security which the doctrine of sol-lunar influence in fevers derives from evidence direct and analogical. From the sublime discoveries of Lavoisier respecting the composition of the atmosphere it receives protection of another kind. In the present imperfect state of our knowledge regarding the component parts of at-

[^6]mospheric air, and the mode of their combination, who will presume to limit or define its connection with sol-lunar influence? Who will be so hardy and so regardless of his orvis reputation as to pronounce, without proof, that this influence has no power to produce any change whatever in the nature of this compounded fluid; in the smallest degree comnected with useful knowledge; or necessary in any respect to be known?
edly. For the purpose of removing the olstacles that arise from the intricacy and labour of astronomical investigations, in which those who are employed in the study and practice of medicine can have no leisure to engage, it will be sufficient to present a plain and simple idea of this power, with the common changes to which it is liable, abstracted from all the complicated circumstances by which those changes are produced: The consirlesation of which, though indispensibly necessary for the nicer purposes of astronomy, are by no means required for those of medicine and metcorology.

It was determined by De La Place ${ }^{*}$, in 1790, that the force of the moon to excite those perturbations that manifest themselves on the surface of our globe, by the elevation of the tides, is three, and that of the sun one. Assuming this as a foundation, we have only to conceire that those two quantities of power, sometimes assisting and sometimes counteracting each other according to the rarying positions in which they are placed, produce the corresponding changes that are observed

[^7]in the paroxysms of fevers; remembering, at the same time, that those are occasionally subject to certain perturbations of inferior consequence, from the attractions of the planets. To conceive this, is all that is required.

Sdly. To render our knowledge of this principle sufficiently perfect, by giving it all the advantages of mumerical precision, without which no physical principle can crer acquire the form and elficiency of science, it is necessary that all the various degrees of increase or decrease that sol-lunar influence is liable to undergo at various hours of the day and night, should be accurately ascertained, and expressed in numbers.

It is to attain this end that I am now led to propose the scheme of an astronomical Ephemeris for the purposes of medicine and meteorology, containing a column for the horal variations of sollunar power both day and night, ascertained and expressed with all the precision that can be obtained.

The perturbing force of the moon being found by De La Place to be three, and that of the sun one; and four, therefore, being the whole or the perturbing power with which they can act upon this globe, we shall obtain by divictiog this sum into forty parts or degrees, a scale sufficiently extensire and minute for expressing all the difierent degrees that can possibly occur.

By means of this Ephemeris, every phenomenon that appears being instantly and easily compared with the existing comesponding degree of sol-hinar power, certain general truths will it length be obtained, respecting its agency and interference in
the different processes of nature, and operations of art. We shall ultimately discover where it assists, where it counteracts, and where it produces no effects at all ; precepts and cautions will thence arise to direct our conduct: and thus assuming the real character and office of science, it will become an instrument of improvement and perfection in the useful occupations of life. In our native country the respectable tradesmer, who are employed in the important national concerns, of supplying our fleets destined for distant royages and warm climates, with wholesome and durable provisions, are ofter unaccountably disappointed in the quality of the different articles which they provide. Perhaps they may discover that all the days of the month are not alike farourable for the important processes of brewing, and baking, and of preserving meat. And perhaps abroad, the manufacturers of indigo, sugar, saltpetre, and opium, may find out hereafter, that the success of their different operations are not altogether unconnected with certain periods of time.

To those who are proficient in astronomy it will readily occur, that the construction of an Ephemeris, such as that which is proposed, is not merely speculative or impracticable. It will occur to them that there is no hour or division of the column appropriated to the variations of sol-lunar power, for which the precise degree or quantum of its force is not either ascertained by astronomical theorems already demonstrated, or readily deducible from such demonstrations. On those gentlemen, whose studies have qualified them, and whose zeal may incline them, from a sense of its utility, to complete the construction of this instrument, I must for the present rest my hopes. My own imperfect knowledge of astronomy, and the precarious state of my health, render me at this time totally unequal to such an exertion.

## CONCLUSIO N.

In concluding this paper, I hope it will not be deemed disrespectful, if to prevent future mistakes, I should take this opportunity of declaring explicitly my own sentiments respecting the result and success of these investigations.
"Having discovered the lazes of febrile pa"roxysms, and having marked their course and " periods in a manner that was never explained or " done before, I conceive that I have been able to "unfold a history and theory of fevers entirely " new; consistent whlth itself in every part, and " with the other appearances of nature; perfectly "conformable to the laws discovered by the im" mortal Newrov; and capable of producing impor" tant improvements in medicine and metcorology."

Should these pretensions prove groundless and visionary, having submitted them to this Society, I shall at least obtain the credit of having sought investigation. If they be fair and just, the harmless vanity of proclaiming them will not obliterate all their merit.

## זXPLANATION OF THE TABLES.

Of all the phenomena that occur in the contemplation of animal nature, it will be readily acknowledged, that the parorysms of fevers are the most interesting to mankind. The history of every age declares the dreadful desolations they have made in every country; and by far the greatest portion of the human race continues to be swept away by this terrible disease.

The cause, however, that produces these remarkable effects, and determines the paroorysms of fecers to appear in different cases in various order and succession, constituting fevers of different types; and that again which determines different types to come to an end after certain intervals of time, forming these into fevers of different durations, are questions which have hitherto defied the research of physicians; and cannot be explained, except by the laws of sol-lunar influence.

## TABLEI.

## Explains the Types of Fevers.

The different types that occur in fevers are formed by febrile paroxysms continuing to return in succession for a certain number of days, at an interval of twelve, twenty-four, and forty-eight hours; or some other larger multiple of twelve hours; and almost invariably in coincidence with the period of the tides. The types of fevers, therefore, are formed by the action of sol-lunar influence producing paroxysms in coincidence with the periods of the tides, at the intervals I have described: and differ from each other, only in so far as their paroxysms return in succession at intervals formed by difficent multiples of twelve hours.

To convey a general idea of this discovery, I have constructed Table I, observing that it applies to explain all the types that I have ever met with in India; and agrees perfectly with the types that are described by other authors. 'The first of these examples, from the perfect coincidence of its paroxrsms with the period of the tides, I have called a perfect type; and a!l the others, from their imperfect coincidence with those periods, imper-

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fect types. But as the paroxysms of the imperfect types, after the commencement of the neaps, are generally disposed to become less distinct in their furm, and therefore not so easily reducible to the figure of a diagram, I have confined my representation of types to the period of the springs; when the paroxysms or fevers happen towards the middlle of the day and night; and are most regular and distinct.

1st. Days are represented by the divisions of the horizontal lines of the table.
odly. The paroxysms of fevers are represented by dots placed above and below these lines.
$3 d l y$. Single dots abore the line represent single paroxysms happening towards the middle part of the day, and are pointed out by the letter $d$ (for diurnal) placed at their begiming on the left.

4thly. Single dots below the line represent single paroxysms happening towards the middle part of the night, and are pointed out by the letter $n$ (for nocturnal) placed at their beginning on the left.

5thly. Two dots in one division, the one above, the other below the line, denote a diumal and nocturnal paroxysm on the same day.

6 thly. The different successions of clots on the different horizontal lines of the table, proceeding from the begiming of the line on the left to its termination on the right, exhibit examples of rarious successions of paroxysms; constituting specimens of different febrile tyjpes that occur daily in the course of nature.

## TABLE II.

## Explains the Durations and Crises of Fevers.

Fevers of all the different types that are produced in the manner clescribed in Table I. are limited to forms of different durations, by the remarkable remission which takes place in the power of sol-lunar influence on the commencement of the neaps; and which brings them at these junctures to a termination, or crisis, whenever the state of the body is sufficiently disposed to concur in that event. This is illustrated by the variations produced in the duration of perfect types as exhibited in this table; which will also serve, without any other diagram, to give an idea of the variations produced in a similar manner in the durations of types that are imperfect.

1st. Days are represented by the divisions of the borizontal lines of this table.
adly. The paroxysms of fevers are represented by dots placed above and below these lines.
$3 d l y$. Single dots above the lines represent single paroxysms happening towards the middle part of the day, and are pointed out by the letter $d$ (for diurnal) placed at their beginning on the left.

4thly. Single dots below the line represent single paroxysms happening towards the middle part of the night, and are pointed out by the letter $n$ (for nocturnal) placed at their beginning on the left.

5thly. Two dots in one division, one above the line, the other below, denote a diurnal and nocturnal paroxysm on the same day.

Gthly. The successions of dots on the different horizontal lines of the table, proceeding from the beginning of the line on the left to their termination on the right, represent the different successions of paroxysms that occur in fevers of a perfect type, (or what are commonly called con-

## influence in the fevers of india, \&c.

tinued fevers, ) which ceasing on the commencement of the neaps, constitute different durations of perfect types; and those will serve also to give an idea of the variety that may be produced in a similar manner in the duration of types that are imperfect; commonly called remitting and intermitting fevers.

7thly. Although single paroxysms will appear from the disposal of the dots in this table to be confined to the neaps, and double paroxysms to the springs, it must however be understood, that this is not always rigidly or invariably true; and they are represented here in this manner, only to denote their general and prevailing tendency and course; which must always be liable to certain deviations, not only from uncommon perturbations in the state of sol-lunar influence itself; but also from the usual and regular action of this influence happening to exert itself upon extraordinary degrees of paroxysmal propensity.

8thly. The daily postponing of the paroxysms cannot be easily represented on a fixed or immoveable diagram of this kind. But the effects which it has of shifting their accessions from night to morning, about the middle of the neaps, is denoted by shifting the single dots, that represent the paroxysms at this time, from the nocturnal to the diurnal side of the line. The postponing of the paroxysms is a phenomenon that has been too little attended to in the history of fevers.

## EXPLANATION of TABLE III.

This is the second Table in Doctor Currie's Medical Reports on the effects of water, \&c. arranged agreeably to the doctrine of sol-lunar influence.

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In order to accommodate it to this idea, the column of the January and February admissions are removed from the left to the right-hand side of the Table; so as to bring all the three months of the winter interval together, and to preserve the natural order in which the admissions followed each other, the whole of these two columns is raised one step higher: so that the January and February admissions of 1781, are brought upon the same line with those of December 1780, and therefore follow them, in this Table, as they really occurred; and so also with all the rest.

By this arrangement the admissions of January and February 1780, are thrown out of their proper place at the top of their respective columns, but are inserted at the bottom; and thus fill up the vacancies that were occasioned by raising the columns in the manner described; and by this means the amount of these columns is preserved the same as in the original Table.

The elevation, however, of the January and $F t$ bruary admissions above the lines in which they stood in the original Table, makes a small alteration in each of the annual amounts; but as that does not alter the sum total, nor affect, in the smallest degree, the present question, it is of no consequence.

Iltus Paroxysms at various intervals, in


## TABLEI.

Illus!ates the Formation of the diflerent Types of Fevers, by the succession of their Paroxysms at various intervals, in coincidence with the Periods of the Tides.



## T A BLE II.

Hhastrates the Furmation of the different Duritions of Fevers by the Ceasing of their Paroxysus, in coincidence with the Commencement of the Neaps.

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Demonst
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| Year． |
| :--- |
| 1780 |
| 1781 |
| 1789 |
| 1788 |
| 1784 |
| 1785 |
| 1756 |
| 1787 |
| 1788 |
| 1789 |
| 1790 |
| 1791 |
| 1792 |
| 1793 |
| 1794 |
| 1795 |
| 1796 |$|.$

## 'TABLE III.

Demonstrates the Periodical Increase and Decrease of Fevers, in coincidence with the Equinoctial Periods and Interequinoctial Intervals, at Liecrpool in Eingland.

Thie Vernal Equinoctial Periool.
 13144

The Winter
Interequinoctial luterval.


## II.

Extract from a Journal, during the late Campaign in Egypt.

## BY CAPTAIN C. B. BURR.

ABOUT three miles to the westward of Ginnie, on the upposite side of the Nile, are situated the ruins of the ancient temple of Isis, now better known to the Arabs by the name of Dendera; being a corruption of Tentyris, which name was once borne by a city, of which the present temple is all that remains to denote its former splendour. That part which still exists, is surrounded by such heaps of rubbish, broken walls, and fragments of an Arab village, long since mouldered on its parent ruins, that little is perceptible in approaching, except five clumsy pillars forming part of a detached temple at some distance from the gate, with which it is in a right line, though now separated by a tank, filled by the inundation of the Nile. These columns are connected at their base by a stone wall in which there appear to have been eight, one at each corner, and one on either side of an entrance in front and rear of the building; which is about forty fect long, and possessing nothing worthy attention.

Beyond this, on the summit, and partly buried in the mound of rubbish, is a gateway much ruined on the side we approached from, but whose internal face is an object of peculiar admiration: its high state of preservation, the excellence of its sculpture, the simplicity of the style, the excellent execution of the figures, chiefly female, the hieroglyphics, and other ornamental parts, excited my surprise beyond what I had expected or thought 1) 2
possible. It is probably rather an advantage to the temple, its being so surrounded with ruins as to be secreted till you approach sufficiently near, to receive a more perfect impression of its beauties. The rubbish, however, with which it is choaked up, confines the sight too much, and almost precludes the possibility of viewing the building with so good an cffect is would arise from a greater choice of situation on the part of the spectator. Passing this gateway, the passage through which is also beautifully sculptured, we reached on the right hand a temple, surrounded by a gallery still entire, though almost buried; the whole ornamented with a variety of figures, surrounded with hiernglyphics, which doubtless explain the meaning of the various objects, some human, others of a less definite nature; the workmanship is in very great preservation, but the gallery so filled as to prevent our standing erect, though the body of this temple, into which we descended, was near thirty feet in height, covered with large slabs of stone. The entrance to this edifice is through a corridore supported on pillars almost buried in the ruins.

The grand temple, retired from the gateway about fifty yards, presents a front of one hundred and forty feet at the base; at least what is now the terreplain: and about sixty feet in height, the rest being invisible. This part is in the most perfect state; the fillet, torus, and almost epery ornamental part, save what the bigotry of the Arabs has induced them to deface, being in excellent preservation. In the centre an cutrance of ninetecn feet leads into a peristyle divided by three rows of columns on either side of twenty-two and a half feet circumference, the front row connected to each other, at their bases, by a wall; which, from a part that has been cleared
away by the Saoans to ascertain the elevation of the building, exceeds ten feet in height; from the top of this to the entablature of the columns, the space is left open; within are nine pillars to the right and left, (tallying in size and design with those in front, that support the roof of the peristyle; which is ornamented in the most beautiful style, with a vast variety of figures, and representations of aquatic scenes. Many groupes of men and beasts are here represented; some perfectly of a terrestrial and familiar nature, others allegorical, amongst which is a fine figure of a bull butting at the new Moon. The dresses, the utensils, canoes, and many of the articles of the domestic œconomy of the ancient Egyptians, are herein represented in the most minute and pleasing manner; and the entire state of these figures, not only in shape, but colouring, conveys the most perfect idea of the habits of the times. A vast resemblance exists in the dresses with those at present. worn in India; the cholie of the women, the moond, and many others, claiming a direct comparison. It has often struck me, and never more forcibly than in contemplating this temple and its sculptures, that there must have existed a much greater affinity in the customs of, and of course a more friendly intercourse amongst, the nations of the East formerly, when they pursued one system of worship, than since the introduction of Christianity and Mahometanism; which, by generating the most rooted and inveterate prejulices, have estranged the affections of mankind from those, whom no political difference could ever have affected. Of this we had an example even amongst the present inhabitants, who, regarding us as infidels, hate us, though we came as friends. Their dislike, however, they found it prudent to conceal; but they were not equally reserved with respect to the Hindoos, whom they often expressed their abhorrence of. This detestation of Paganisin has in-
duced them, and doubtless been their sole motive for taking so much pains, to mutilate every figure of Isis, whose features are chisseled out; and many of the other figures, whose situations were not so clevaterl as to preserve them from the destructive contact of the Arab, have suffered almost perfect annihilation. All beyond it, however, are extremely perfect, and the whole ceiling, with one or two trifling exceptions, is entire; the capitals of the pillars are square, each face having had a representation of Isis's head on it, which, though so roughly handled, the turban has in no instance been destroyed, and the colouring of it, the bandeaus, and other decorations, are still in the greatest perfection. The stone of which the temple is built is a kind of frecstone. As this would not receive either polish or paint, figures and hicroglyphics, with which every part of the peristyle, both internally and externally, is covered, have, in the interior, been plastered over with a fine cement, which has not only received a polish that has stood the test of ages, but has retained the brilliancy of the tints, particularly the blue, in a manner almost incredible. The mystic symbol of the winged Orb, of which reiterated representations decorate the ceiling of the central division of the peristyle, extending entirely across, bears the brightest hues; the same mysterious type adorns the entablature over the entrance, and the interior face of the same part of the gateway ; the walls are covered with various sculptures, representing different parts of the history of Isse, one or two of the principal figures in each, being evirlently the same, though cach compartment into which the wall is divided, represents some separate crent: but above the head of Isis, on cach of the sides of each column, the two central front ones excepted, is the Deity's birth, without variation, all most elegantly cxecuted, and exact counterparts of each
other. The interior length of this peristyle is one hundred and twenty-three feet, and sixty-four deep; the walls, at eirher end, near nine feet thick, decreasing externally as they ascend; the siabs of stone forming the roots, are over the centre colums, twentyfire feet long; about six broad, and extremely thick.

Hence, by a large portal of elegant architecture, we entered the vestibule, the roof of which, considerably lower than that of the peristyie, is supported by six pillars, three on cither side; their decorations much mutilated: the little that is visibie, shews them to be fluted. This room is about half the length and breadth of the onter one, but being nearly filled with rubish, we passed through another large door, into at room of the same length and height, but narrow enough to admit of large slabs reaching across without the intervention of pillars. Apertures are cut in the cciling to admit air and light; and a passage or door, to the right and left, leads to other parts of the temple. Facing the door where we had entered, is another which ied into a third room rather larger, and lighted in like mamer from above; from these there are four doors leading to different parts of the building, to the right and left: and a portal facing that by which we had entered, which led us into a dark recess about thirty feet long, and twenty-five broad, whose roof in like manner consisted of transversal slabs. This probably was the oreat sanctuary, at the further extremity of which was a hole, through which we were enabied to descend into a rault, which, like the rest of the apartments, is nearly filled with earth. We, howerer, ascertainced by our lights, that the floor above was formed of mumerous small slabs of stone cemented to cach other, and destitute of any other support than what they derived from the judicious manner in which they were united. Re-
turning hence, after visiting some rooms to our right, we went through a passage to the left that led to an apartment, where we in vain endeavored to maintain our ground against a host of bats, that finally obliged us to resume the course of this passage, which led by many steps of easy ascent, and mainy windings round their centre, to the summit of the temple; in approaching which it branches off to the right and left, the latter opening to a corridore, within which was a sanctuary, through the floor of which a perforation afforded light to a part of the temple which had not fallen under our observation. On the ceiling of this corridore, which is about twenty feet long, and half that breadth, is a curious female figure sculptured in relievo, represented in a bent, extended posture. The limbs, though disproportioned, are particularly beautiful: it is in the highest preservation, and worthy peculiar attention. By some steps projecting from the rear of the peristyle, we ascended to its summit, whence we commanded a fine view of the country, Ginnie, our camp, and the meanderings of the river; in our rear was a spacious burial ground; beyond an extensive desert. The intervening distance to the Nile was covered with rushes, and a thorny weed which gave the country a verdant appearance, and supplied the place of a luxuriant cultivation. The numerous villages, each shaded by its grove of dates, afforded a fiuint conception of an Indian scene, but the sterility of the neighbouring deserts that bounded the contracted landscape, forbade, the indulgence of the pleasing comparison.

On the slabs are cut the names of several French travellers, who visited the place in 1779, and one of a democrat, dated the year eight.

Leaning over the temple, I discoverctl, on the
fillet, a Greek inscription in a state of great preservation, which I transcribed, and afterwards revised from below; unfortunately the information it conveys is trifling, and the obliteration of a part prevents its being of that utility I had at first anticipated.

Though we had ascended by the stairs, the mound of ruins on one side presented a more ready descent; and industriously profiting of the moment, we lost no time in completing our observations.

The French have been digging round, and within the temple, in different places, to ascertain its dimensions, and we were indebted for our access to many of the rooms, to the pains taken by them to discover their entrances; for which purpose they have removed a great deal of rubbish. The whole exterior of the temple is in perfect prescrvation, except the defacement which many of the figures within reach have suffered. On the south and west faces are some very elegant spouts for carrying off water, issuing from the mouths of couchant lions, decorated with rams-horns. The whole summit of the temple is disfigured by heaps of rubbish, and fragments of walls, as also the mounds which surround it, which probably owe their existence to a colonade, or some range of bitildings with which it was enclosed, and which are now buried. To the southeast, at some hundred yards distance, is a ruined gateway boasting little beauty; it is situated at the foot of the eminence on which the temple is built, and being almost beyond the range of the present ruins, might have belonged to some other edifice. Some wretched Arabs, who employ themselves in digging anoongst the ruins, brought us a few Roman coins, which we purchased.

Though we had been several hours in contem-
plating the beantiful monument before us, yet we lad conccived but an inadequate idea of its varied perfections; so many objects occurred to arrest cur attention. each discovering some peculiar attraction, that it wonld have afforded ample occupation during our remaining stay at Gimie, to have bestowed on each the consideration they merited; a circumstance which greatly damped the anxicty I had before felt to visit Thebes, where such an infinity of matter presents itself to the inquisitive traveller.

Our Indian followers, who had attended us, beheid the scene before them with a degree of admiration bordering on reneration, arising not only from the affinity they traced in sereral of the figures to their own deities, but from their conviction of its being the work of some Rácshas, who they conceived had risited the earth to transmit to an admiring posterity a testimony of supernatural talents.

I shall dismiss this subject by observing, that though the contemplation of these surprising monuments of the genius of the ancient Egyptians creates a high idea of their civilization, and respect for their antiquity and progress in arts, it is obvious they are greatly indebted to a beneficent providence, which by placing them in a temperature, where the frequent and sudden transitions of climate seldom if ever occur, has given to their works a permanence they could never have derived from the combined power and art of man; though it must be allowed, that, notwithstanding the apparent aridity of the atmosphere, owing to the almost perpetual absence of rain, the exhalations* from the circumjacent in-

[^8]undation are so great as to occasion, at one period of the year, a humidity little inferior to that which would procced from actual immersion ; and which in their consequences would equally affect that brilliancy of coloming which has stamped a characteristic pre-eminence on these chef dreutres.

## TO ROBERT HOME, Ese.

Secretary to the Asiatic Society.
SIR,

THE ingenions and learned author of the inquiry into the life and writings of Homer speaks of abstracted mythology, as the result of great search and science: being a comparison of the harmony and discord; the resemblance and dissimilitude, of the powers and parts of the universe, it often consists of their finest proportions and hidden aptitudes, set together and personated by a being acting like a mortal.

It is from this and similar observations of this instructrive writer, and from the history of the Heavens by the Abbe Plucies, that I have been led to investigate the mythology of India; and to apply their mode of reasoning to a system which has generally been considered as a heap of wild and extravagant fable.

In fact we must view the images of Indra in the light of hieroglyphics, and endeavour to develope the allusion: this is the object of the accompanyinge attempts; but I only offer my conjectures; I insist upon no hypothesis.

If these essays should be deemed acceptable by
the Society, it will be an inducement to me to continue the research.

I am, Sir, your obedient Servant, J. D. PATERSON.

Daclia, the sih January, 1803.

## III.

Of the Origin of the Hindu Religion.
BY J. D. PATERSON, ESQ.

THE Hindu religion appears to me to have been originally a reform of existing systems, when the arts and sciences had arrived at a degree of perfection; that it was intended to correct the ferociousness and corruption of the times, and to reduce mankind to an artificial order on a firmer base of polity; that it was the united effort ot a society of sages, who retained the priesthood to themselves, and rendered it hereditary in their familes, by the division of the people into separate casts; that it. was supported by the regal authority, which, while it controlled, it supported in return: that it was promulgated in all its perfection at once as a revelation of high antiquity, to stamp its decrees with greater authority; and that it was founded on pure Deism, of which the Gayatri, translated by Sir WIlfiam Jones, is a striking proof; but to comply with the gross ideas of the multitude, who required a visible object of their devotion, they personified the three great attributes of the deity:

The first founders of the Hinda religion do not appoar to have had the intention of bewildering their followers with metaphysical definitions; their description of the deity. was confined to those attributes which the wonders of the creation so loudly attest: his almighty power to create; his provi-
dence to preserve; and his power to annihilate or change what he has created.

In fact, no idea of the deity can be formed beyond this: it is simple, but it forces conviction upon the mind. This simplicity, however, was destroyed when they attempted to describe these attributes to the eye by hieroglyphics; perhaps letters had not then been invented, in which case they could have no other mode of instruction than by signs and emblematical figures.

In order to impress on the minds of men a sense of their total and absolute dependance ou him, by whom they live, and from whom they have their being, they invented the hieroglyphical figures of Brahma - Vishnu-Síva. As emblematical of Creation-Preservation -Destruction. These are referred to
Matter- And painted them Time.


Brahma had originally five heads, alluding to the five elements; hence in one of the forms given to Si'va, as the Creator, he is likewise represented with five heads. But the introduction of images soon led the mass of mankind to consider these personified attributes as real distinct personages; and as one error brings with it many others in its train, men separated into sects, each selecting one of the triad, the particular object of their devotion, in
preference to, and exclusive of the others : the followers of Vishinu and Si'ya invented new symbols; each to ascribe to their respective divinity the attribute of creation. This contention for pre-eminence ended in the total suppression of the worship of Bramma and the temporary submission of VISHNU to the superiority of $\mathrm{Si}^{\prime} \mathrm{VA}$; but this did not last long; the sects raised crusades against each other; hordes of armed fanatics, under the titles of Samyasis and Vairagis, enlisted themsclves as champions of their respective faith ; the formen devoted their lives in support of the superiority of Si'va, and the latter were no less zealous for the rights of Vishnu: alternate victory and defeat marked the progress of a religious war, which for ages continued to harass the earth, and inflame mankind against each other.

Plutarch has said of the Egyptians, that they had inserted nothing into their worship without a reason, nothing mercly fabulous, nothing superstitious (as many suppose); but their institutions have either a reference to morals, or to something useful in life ; and many of them bear a beautiful resemblance of some facts in history, or some appearance in nature; perhaps in the commencement to lead mankind into superstition was not intended nor foreseen; it is a weed that springs up naturally when religion is blended with mystery, and burdened with perplexing ceremonials. The mass of mankind lost sight of morality in the multiplicity of rites; and as it is easier to practise ceremonies than to subdue the passions, ceremonies gradually become sub)stitutes for real religion, and usurp the place of morality and virtue.

This scems to have been the case with the religions of Egypt and India.

In the course of investigating the ceremonies of the Hindus, and in attempting to develope their meaning, it will be found necessary to compare them with the ceremonies and rites of Egypt: the resemblance is striking; they mutually serve to explain each other; and leave no doubt in my mind of their connexion, or rather identity.

The annihilation of the sect and worship of Brahma, as the Iswara or supreme lord, is allegorically described in the Cás"cichand of the Scanda Puran, where the three powers are mentioned as contending for precedency. Vishive, at last, acknowledges the superiority of Síva; but Brahama, on account of his presumptuous obstinacy and pride, had one of his hearls cut off by Sr'va, and his puja abolished:

The intent of this fable is evidently to magnify the sect of Siva above those of Brahma and Vishnu ; and if, instead of the Dévatís themselves, (who are described as the actors in this allegorical -drama) we substitute the contending sects, the fable will appear not destitute of foundation in historical fact.

## Of the Va'hans, or Vehicles of the Gods.

When the symbolical worship was introduced, the vehicles of the new deities were necessarily allegorical: the Váhans of the three supreme personified attributes were purity, truth, and justice; the first was typified by the Serm, which, clothed with unspotted whiteness, swims amidst the waters, as it were distinct from, and unsullied by them, as the truly pure mind remains untainted amidst the surrounding temptations of the world.

Garu'da and Aru'va are two brothers, the one remarkable for his strength and swiftness, the other (Aru'va) is described as imperfect, and, on account of his defects, destined to act as charioteer to the Sun. Aru'va is the duwn, the morning twilight, which precedes the Sun: Garu'da is perfect light, the dazzling full blaze of day, the type of truth, the celestial I'ahan of Visinvu.

Justice, typified in the sacred bull, is the Váhan of Si'va. 'The Bull, whose body is Paramés'wara, and whose every joint is a virtue; whose three horns are the three Védas; whose tail ends where Adherma, or injustice begins.

Of Osiris, Horus, Typhon, and Brahma, Vishnu, and Si'va.

If we consider the Egyptian Osiris not as a name, but as a title of supremacy, which each sect, as their doctrines became in turn the established religion of the country, applied exclusively to the object of their worship; and if we consider it as the same with the Sanscrit Iswara (the Supreme Lord), it will greatly illustrate the identity of the religions of Fsypt and Hindostan, by a close coincidence of historical fact. The three great attributes of the Deity had in course of time been erected into distinct Deities, and mankind had divided into sects, some attaching thenselves to Brahma, some to Vishinu, and others to Síva. The contention of schismatics from the same stock, is always more inveterate than where the difierence is total, the sect of Brahma clamed exclusive pre-eminence for the object of their choice, as being the creative pozver, the Iswara, or Supreme Lord. The two other sects joined
against the followers of Brahma, and obtained so complete a victory as to abolish totally that worship; the sect of Si'va, being the most powerful, renclered theirs the established religion, and claimed for Si'va, in his turn, the exclusive title of I's'wara. The sect of Vishnu, or Heri, at length emerged from its obscurity, and, in concert with the followers of the Sacti, or female power, destroyed and abolished the sect and worship of Si'va; thus Vishnu, or Heri, became the I's'wara, and his worship the established religion. This seems to have been the case in Egypt; for, if we substitute the name of Osiris for Prahma, Horus for Vishmu or Heri, Typhon for Síva, and Isis for the female principle, the history agrees in all its parts. A proof of the identity of Siva and Typhon is the title of Babon. Mr. Bryant says, that "Ba" bov was thought to have been the same as Tr" phow, by some esteemed a female, and the wife " of that personage." One of the titles of Siva is Bhuban, or rather Bhuvan-I's'wara, the Lord of the Universe; his consort, in this character, is styled Bhuvan-I's'wari', which may have occasioned the uncertainty mentioned by Mr. Bryant, with respect to the sex of that Deity, since Bhuvan (world), or the Universe, is a part of the title of either.

The Sun is one of the forms of Hert, or Vishnu; Osiris and Horus are both supposed to have been the Sun. The Indian expedition of Osiris coincides with the adventures of $\mathrm{Ra}^{\prime} \mathrm{ma}$, one of the incarnations of Visunu.' 'The four months sleep of Horus tallies with the four months sleep of Vishne.

The sacred Bull, the vehicle of Siva, was the emblem of justice, and peculiarly sacred to him amongst the Indiuns; and the living animal itself Vol. VIII.

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was venerated at Mimphis and Thebes, under the names of Apis and Trevis. The Phallos of Osiris was an object of worship, and it is known to be the hieroglyphic of Síva: and lastly, Osiris, like Brahma, is described as a great lawgiver.

If the conjecture I have set out with in this article, be considered with attention, it will account for the mixed character of the Grecian Bacchus.

The word Surá in Sanscrit signifies both wine and true wealth; hence in the first C'hand of the Ramáyan of VA'LMI'c it is expressly said, that the Dévatús, having received the Surú, acquired the title of Suras, and the Daityas that of Asura from not having received it. The Véda is represented as that wine and true weal:h; and the Dévatás as enjoying it in a superior degree, being termed Suras: the prince, or supreme leader of the Suras, became in the Grecian Deity (by a confined translation of the word), the god of wine and drunkards.

Bacchus, or Osiris, was represented by an equilateral triangle; Si'va has the same hieroglyphic: the worship of Bacchus was the same as that which is paid to Síva; it had the same obscenities, the same bloody rites, and the same emblem of the generative power.

In Bacchus may be traced the characteristics of each of the personages in the Indian triad; and this may be accounted for by supposing the Greehs to have been deceived by the title Osimis; they, considering it as the name of an individual, mingled the characters and adventures of all the three in one personage. Bacchus may possibly be derived from a title of Vrihaspati, Va'g-I's'a, the lord of speech, which might be applied to Brahma' as the
husband of Saraswatí, the goddess of speech. The Greeis called him Bromios, as Sir William Jones says, without knowing why; and he was styled by the Romans, Bruma : his feasts were celebrated for several days at the winter solstice; from him they were called Brumalia, and the winter solstice itself Bruma.

The crescent of Si'va may have suggested the horns of Bacereus; and his army of Satyrs, and victories in India, shew the resemblance of this part of his character to Vishnu as Ra'ma, who, with his army of monkies, orerran the peninsula of India.

It was a common practice with the Greeks to disguise their own ignorance of the purport of a foreign word, by supplying a word of a similar sound, but different meaning, in their own language, and inventing a story to agree with it: thus Méru, or the north pole, the supposed abode of the Dévatàs, being considered as the birth-place of the God, gave rise to the fable of Bacchus's second birth from the thigh of Jupiter, because Meros, a Greek word approaching Méru in sound, signifies the thigh in that language. Si'va is described as taking the form of a Sinh, in the battle of Durga and Mahisha'sura; he seizes the monster with his claws and teeth, and overthrows him, while DurGA', with her spear, finishes the conquest by his death. Thus Bacchus, under the same form, is described as destroying the giant Rhecius.

Rhrecum retorsisti Leonis
Unguibus horribilique Mala.
The Hindu sacrifices to Durga' and Ca'aí resemble those of Bacchus. When the stroke is given, which severs the head of the victim from its body, the cymbals strike up, the Sanc'ha or Buccinum is blown, E 2
and the whole assembly, shouting, besmear their faces with the blood; they roll themselves in it, and, dancing like demoniacs, accompany their dances with obscene songs and gestures. The AbbéPluche mentions the same particulars of the assistants in the sacrifices of Bacchus. The winnowing fan, the Mystica vanmus iacchi,
is always used in the rites of $\mathrm{CA}^{\prime} \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{CA}^{\prime} \mathrm{Lr}^{\prime}$, and DURGA'; but the Hindus at present affix no other idea of mystery to it, than its being an appendage to husbandry; they use it as a tray, on which they place, before the image of the Deity, the Sesamum or Til, the Mundir, with its lamp, and all the other articles used in the ceremony. A tray could serve the purpose; but on all solemnities the rituals prescribe exclusively the use of this van or fan, which they call Surp.

## Of Vishnu, us the Creative Power.

The Vaishnavas, in order to appropriate the creative principle to Visinet, make Brahma, whom they acknowledge as the immediate agent of creation, to derive his origin from a Lotos, which sprang out of the navel of Vishinu whilst sleeping upon the vast abyss of primeval waters; thus Vishinu becomes stiperior to Braman, as being the cause, first, of his existence, and secondly, of all created things through his agency. The Argha is a vessel of copper used by the Brahmens in their puja; its shape is intended to represent the universal Mother, but in the centre of it is an oval rising embossed, and by this the Vaishnavas assert, is meant the navel of Vishu, from which all things originally sprang; and by the mystic union of these two principles of production, it is intended to describe them as identically one. The Saivas; however, insist, that this Omphalic rising is meant as the emblem of the

Ling; hence Siva's title of Arghana't'h, and in the Agama, Argha-I's's, both meaning the Lord of the sacred Vessel Argha.

Vishnu is represented, in the tenth Aoatár, as the destroying power, thus ascribing to him the attribute of Si'va.

Vishnu is represented by the Vaishnaras with four arms, and in each hand he bears a symbol. These symbols seem intended to unite the three great attributes in him, and to express his universal supremacy. The Lotos typifies his creative power, (in allusion to the Lotos which sprang from his navel). The Sancha typifies his attributes of preservation, and the mace that of destruction; while the Chucra expresses his universal supremacy, as Chacra-Vartí, or Lord of the Chacra, when applied to a monarch, indicates universal empire; applied to a Pundit, the possessor of the whole circle of Science.

Of Síva, as the Creative Power, and Bhaváni'。


When the personified attributes of the Deity ceased to be considered as mere hieroglyphics; when mankind began to view them in the light of distinct persons, and attaching themselves to the worship of one or of the other exclusively, arranged themselves into sects, the worshippers of SI'va introduced the doctrines of the eternity of matter. In order to reconciie the apparent contradiction of assigning the attribute of creation to the principle of destruction, they asserted, that the dissolution and destruction of bodies was not real, with respect to matter, which was indestructible itself, although its modifications were in a constant succession of mutation; that the power which continually opeiates these changes, must necessarily unite in itself

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the attributes of creation and apparent destruction: that this power, and matter, are two distinct and coexistent principles in nature; the one agent, the other patient; the one male, the other female; and that creation was the effect of the mystic union of these principles.

The hieroglyphic of this union was worshipped under a variety of mames, Bhava and Bhava'vi', Mahade'va and Maha' Ma'yá, \&ic: Thus the attribute of creation was usurped from Brahma, by the followers of $\mathrm{Si}^{\prime} v a$, to adom and charactcrize their favorite Deity.

This seems to have been a popular worship, for a great length of time. Tiwo sects, however, sprang up out of it: the one personified the whole miverse, and the dispensations of providence in the regulation thereof, into a Godless; this sect retained the female symbol only, and denominated themselves Sácta, as worshippers of the Sacti, or female power, exclusively, which they called Pracriti; and which we, from the Latin, term nature.

The other sect insisted, that there was but one, eternal, first cause; that évery thing existing, derised its existence from the sole energy of that first cause (Nirunjen).

In order, therefore, to express their ideas of the absolute independence of this supreme power upon any extra cooperation, they took for their symbol the male en,blem, unconnected with that of the female; a third sect likewise arose, which intended to reconcile the idea of the unity of grodhead with that of the existence of matter and spirit; they, therefore, contended, that the union of those two principles was so mysteriously intimate as to form but one being, which they represented by a figure
half male and half femate, and denominated HaraGauri', and Ardhana'rí Is'wara. It is probable that the idea of obscenity was not originally attached to these symbols: and it is likely, that the inventors themselves might not have foreseen the disorders which this worship would occasion amongst mankind. Profligacy eagerly embraces what flatters its propensities, and ignorance follows blindly wherever example excites: it is, therefore, no wonder that a general corruption of manners should ensue, increasing in proportion as the distance of time involved the original meaning of the symbol in darkness and oblivion. Obscene mirth hecame the principal feature of the popular superstition, and was, even in after times, extended to, and intermingled with, gloomy rites and bloody sacrifices. An heterogeneous mixture, which appears totally irreconcileable, unless by tracing the steps which led to it. It wili appear that the ingrafting of a new symbol, upon the old superstition, occasioned this strange medley. The sect of Vishnu was not wholly free from the propensity of the times to obscene rites; it had been united in interest with that of Síva, in their league against the sect of Brahma, as was expressed by an image, called HarHeri, half Si'va and half Vishnu. This union seems to have continued till the time when an emblem of an abstract idea, having been erected into an object of worship, introduced a revolution in religion, which had a violent and extended effect upon the manners and opinions of mankind.

It was then that a glonmy superstition arose, which spread its baneful influence with rapidity amongst mankind; which degraded the Deity into an implacable tyrant; which filled its votaries with imaginary terrors; which prescribed dreadful rites; and exacted penances, mortifications, and expiatory sacrifices. In short, it was the worship of Ca's
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and CA'li', introduced by the sect of Si'va, which caused a total separation of the sect of Vishnu, and introduced those religious wars which, in distant ages, seem to have distracted mankind; and of which traces are, even at this day, to be found.

With a view to unite the three great attributes of creation, preservation, and destruction in one symbol, the $S^{\prime \prime}$ aivas personified the abstract idea of time ( $\mathrm{CA}^{\prime} \mathrm{L}$ ), which may, figuratively, be said to create, preserve, and destroy. They therefore distinguished artificial time and eternity with peculiar emblems, in which the attribute of destruction, the characteristic of Si'va, evidently predominates. The personified Sacti, or energy of each of these allegorical personages, was decorated with corresponding emblems. The contemplation of the distinctions of day and night; of the light and dark divisions of the month; of the six months night and six months day of the Gods (occasioned by the apparent obliquity of the Sun's path); and lastly, the contrast of the visible creation with eternal night, suggested the idea of painting $\mathrm{C}_{A^{\prime}} \mathrm{L}$ white and $\mathrm{C}_{A^{\prime}} \mathrm{LI}^{\prime}$ black.

To Síva they have given three eyes; probably to denote his view of the three divisions of time, the past, the present, and the future. A crescent on his forehead pourtrays the measure of time by the phases of the Moon. A serpent forms a necklace to denote the measure of time by years. A second necklace, formed of human skuils, marks the lapse and revolution of ages, and the extinction and succession of the generations of mankind. IIe holds a trident in one hand, to shew that the three great attributes are in him assembled and united. In the other hand is a kind of rattle, called 'damaru, shaped like an hour glass: I am inclined to think, it was really, at first, intended as such; since it agrees with the character of the Deity; and a sand
gheri is mentioned, in the Sastra, as one of the modes of measuring time, and of ascertaining the length of a gheri.

In the hieroglyphic of the Mahá Pralaya, (or grand consummation of all things, when time itself shall be no more,) he is represented as trodden under. foot by Maha' Ca'iá, or Eternity.

He is there deprived of his crescent, trident, and necklaces, to shew that his dominion and powers are no more. He is blowing the tremendous horn, which announces the annihilation of all created things.

Maha' Ca'lí, black and dreadful, is encompassed by symbols of destruction: two of her hands seem employed in the work of death: of the other two, one appears pointing downwards, alluding to the universal havoc which surrounds her: while the other, pointing upwards, seems to promise the regeneration of nature, by a new creation.

When the Sun begins his southern declination, the night of the Gods begins: that is, when their supposed abode, Méru, (the north pole) begins to be involved in a night of six months: and, as this period may be considered as a type of Mahúu Pralaya, the worship of Maha' Ca'li' is celebrated at the commencement thereof.

Манa' Ca'ci' is represented without a crescent, (the artificial measure of time, because it is unnecessary to her character as the hieroglyphic of eternity. But the belief of the Hindus in successive destructions and renovations of the Universe, accounts for her wearing a Mund Málá, or necklace of skulls, as emblematical of those revolutions.

Mairn' $\mathrm{Ca}^{\prime} \mathrm{L}$, as represented in the caverns of

Elephanta, had eight arms. In one hand he holds a human figure; in another a sword, or sacrificial axe; in a third he holds a basin of blood; and with a fourth he rings over it the sacrificial bell: two other arms are broken off; but with the two remaining he is drawing behind him a veil, which extinguishes the sun, and involves the whole Universe in one undistinguished ruin. One of the titles of this tremendous Deity is Bharrava, the horrific, but his principal designation is Ca'l Agni Rudra.

If the contemplation of the grand consummation of all created things struck the mind of the initiated Bráhmen with awe; the uninformed mass of people would not be less affected with the dreadful appearance and implacable character of this Deity. To appease and reconcile so tremendous a Being would naturally become an object of the greatest necessity and anxiety; the personified metaphor of all-devouring time, presented to their eyes a divinity delighting in blood and slaughter; the zeal of worshippers encreased in proportion to their terrors. The unenlightened mind dwells with disturbed and anxious attention upon horrors of its own creation; and superstition takes its form and colour from the objects which excite it: hence arose those bloody sites, those consecrated cruelties, and those astonishing penances, which not only obtained in India, but pervaded almost every part of the ancient world. Thus a new superstition was grafted upon the old, as much arlapted, by its vain terrors, to degrade the human mind, as the former had been to corrupt it.

If it was intended to instruct mankind in the hieroglyphic language of former ages, and to shew them hew absolutely necessary it was, to make a sacrifice of their vices and depraved appetites, before they could render theniselves acceptable to the Deity, could any way be nore natural than to typify
those vices by animals whose propensities are analogous to them; and by the allegorical slaughter of them before the altar of the Deity, to denote the sacrifice required. To the uniuformed multitude such an hieroglyphic would seem to prescribe the actual sacrifice of the animal. The emblematical apparatus of $\mathrm{CA}^{\prime} \mathrm{L}$ and $\mathrm{CA}^{\prime} \mathrm{L} \mathbf{1}^{\prime}$ would confirm them in the error; and when once the idea was admitted, that the blood of animals was acceptable to the Deity, fanaticism would soon demand human victims. Humiliation and presents appease earthly princes; but the divinity of fanaticism was supposed to require more costly offerings, and the severest mortifications which inventive zeal could suggest; a false pride, and vain ambition of displaying superior sanctity, excited an emulation amongst the deluded zealots, which steeled the heart against pain, and supported the sufferers under all their self-inflicted torments. This artificial insensibility acquired the reputation of inspired fortitude; and the admiration of ignorant multitudes repaid the fanatic for his voluntary tortures.

Such were the disorders which arose out of the worship of emblematical Deities.

The doctrines of the Saivas seem to have extended themselves over the greatest portion of mankind; they spread amongst remote nations, who were ignorant of the origin and meaning of the rites they adopted: and this ignorance may be considered as the cause of the mixture and confusion of images and ideas which characterised the mythology of the ancient Grech's and Romans.

In fact, foreign mations could only copy the outward signs and ceremonies: they could not be admitted beyond the threshold of the temple: the adytum was impenetrable to them. $\mathrm{CA}^{\prime} \mathrm{L}$ and $\mathrm{CA}^{\prime} \mathrm{II}^{\prime}$
assumed various names: Ca'c became Cronos, Muloch, Saturn, Dis, Pluto, and Typhon; Cáli' became Hecate, Proserpine, and Diana, who was worshipped with bloody sacrifices at Tauris. It was to the barbarians that the Greeks were referred, by their own writers, to learn and understand the names and origin of their Deities.

SI'va, in his character of the Creative Power, became the Zeus Triophthalmos, Jupiter, and Osiris; his consort, Bhava'ni', became Juno, Venus, Cybele, Rhea, the Syrian Goddess, the armed P'allas, Isis, Ceres, and Anna Perenna. This multiplication of Deities arose from the ignorance of foreign nations as to the source of the superstition which they adopted, and the original meaning of the symbols; they supplied their want of information by fables congenial to their own national character and manners: hence arose those contradictions, which made their mythology a labyrinth of confusion.

When the Sairoas intended to ascribe particularly, to the object of their worship, the benefits arising from any operation of nature, they decorated the image with suitable emblems, and assigned to the Deity a corresponding title.

For instance, S'axcara, (which signifies the benefactor,) is a title of one of those forms of Sriva or $\mathrm{Ca}^{\prime} \mathrm{L}$. To him the gratitude of the Saivas attributed the blessings which are derived from the waters of the Ganges, which rolls its fertilizing stream through various countries, bestowing life and happiness on millions of created beings.

They therefore adorned the image of $\mathrm{CA}^{\prime} \mathrm{L}$ with emblems applicable to the mountain whence that stupendous river flows.

As this beneficial stream makes its way from the tops of that mountain through the creepers and underwood, which seem to obstruct its passage to the plains, it is represented to flow from the head of the Deity, through his jat'a, or clotted hair: and as tigers, elephants, and serpents, infest the skirts of the mountains, he is surrounded with serpents, his lower clothing is the skin of the elephant, and he is seated on that of the tiger. He is likewise called Níl-Cantha (blue neck), from the appearance which the clouds assume when arrested in their course by the overtopping summit of the mountain.

He has likewise the title of Giri I's'wara, or lord of mountains; and this union of the attributes of Siva with those of the mountain, is more distinctly pointed out in his marriage with Pa'rvati', a derivative from paruat, a mountain.

As the image of Si'va, in this character, was an object of local veneration, its worship was probably confined to the banks of the Ganges. Had it reached the nations of Europe, he would have been considered as a distinct and separate divinity, and ranked amongst the river Gods. This symbol is admitted by the Vaishnavas: but in order to ascribe this inestimable gift to Vishnu, and to assert his superiority over Síva, they insist that the river first flowed out of Vaicuritha (the heaven of Yishnu), from the feet of Vishnu; that when it had descended upon the mountain Cailús, it was received by Si'va, and placed on his head amongst his plaited locks.

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\text { On JAGAN-N } A^{\prime} T H, \&: C .
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The temple of Jagan-Na'th is a famous resort for pilgrims of all sects, for it is revered by all, it is a converging point where all the contending parties unite in harmony with each other. What is the
secret spring of this concurrence of sentiment in sects, otherwise so irreconcilable to each other? What is intended by a representation, so cxtraordinary, of the Deity of the place: a figure that resembles nothing in the heavens above, or the earth beneath, or in the waters under the earth.

These questions will naturally arise upon a viers of the accompanying drawing, taken from a large picture brought from the temple, in possession of Raja Paras'u Rám.

It is a representation of the Sna'n Jatra, when the images, stripped of their ormaments, are bathed. But it is this unadomed condition of the image that leads to the discovery of the mystery.

The Pranaza, or mystical character which represents the name of the Deity, is thus expressed
30. By making a cypher thereof in this manner, fer filling them up, and giving a bod to the central and connecting part of the cypher, you have


From this cypher, they have made three distinct Idols; probably, to prevent the original allusion from being too obvious to the multitude. SubhaDra"s place is, however, always between the other two, for she represents the connecting participle of the cypher; the propriety of her being so situated is therefore evident; and as the actual comnection


is dissolved, by the separation of the figures into distinct idols, we see the reason of her being represented without arms.

Crishifa, as Paramés'wara, is Jagan-Na'th, or Lord of the Universe; his half brother is Baira'm (a terrestrial appearance of Si'va); and Sushadrá is a form of Devi.

To me it appears a stroke of refined policy, in the first founders of the temple, to present, as an object of worship, the personification of the triliteral word which is held in reverence alike by all sectaries; and to give it a title which each sect might apply to the object of its particular adoration. The intention of the foundation was evidently to render the temple a place of pilgrimage open to all sects, and to draw an immense revenue from the muttifarious resort of devotees. The ornaments and apparel with which they cover the image, conceal the rea! figure from the multitude, and give it an air of mystery : the fascination of mystery is well understood by the Brahmens.

Jagan-Na'th and Bal-Ra'm have both the same form, to shew their identity, and their faces have the respective colours of Visinu and Síva. Considered in this point of view, this temple may be considered as the rallying point for the three great sects. It is upon this principle, that Jagan-N'Th and BAL-RAn appear sometimes with the attributes of Gane's'a, to shew that it is one and the same Deity who is worshipped under so many names and forms.

## On Crishina.

When the Vaishnavas separated themselves from the Saivas, they introduced a new symbol of the Sun, under the name of Crishina, as a contrast to the horrid rites of $\mathrm{CA}^{\prime} \mathrm{LI} \mathrm{I}^{\prime}$, which had so disgusted them.

Crishna, being an incarnation of $V_{\text {ishnu }}$, is depicted with the same characteristic complexion of dark azure, to identify the Deity in the symbol.

The Earth is represented as a Cow, the cow of plenty; and as the planets were considered by the Hindus to be so many habitable Earths, it was natural to describe them by the same hieroglyphic; and as the Sun directs their motions, furnishes them with light, and cherishes them with his genial heat, Crishna, the symbol of the Sun, was pourtrayed as an herdsman, sportive, amorous, and inconstant.

The twelve signs are represented as twelve beautiful Nymphs ; the Sun's apparent passage, from one to the other, is described as the roving of the inconstant Crisinisa. This was probably the groundwork of Jayade'va's elegant poem, the Gíta Góovinda. It is evidently intended by the circular dance exhibited in the Rásíjátrá. On a moveable circle, twelve Crisinnas are placed alternately with twelve Go'pr's, hand in hand, forming a circle; the God is thus multiplied to attach him to each respectively, to denote the Sun's passage through all the signs; and, by the rotary motion of the machine, the revolution of the year is pointed out.

Crishna obtains a victory on the banks of the Ya munáo ver the great serpent C'álíyáa Nága, which had poisoned the air, and destroyed the herds in that region.

This allegory may be explained upon the same principle as the exposition given of the destruction of the serpent Python by the arrows of Apollo. It is the Sun which, by the powerful action of its beans, purifies the air, and disperses the noxious vapours of the atmosphere.

Both in the Padma and Garuda we find the serpent Cáliya, whom Crishina slew in his childhood, among the Deities " worshipped on this " day; as the Pythian snake, according to Clemens, " was adored with Apollo at Delphi."

Perhaps this adventure of Crishina with the Cáliya Nága, may be traced on our sphere, for we find there Serpentarius on the banks of the heavenly Yamumá, the milky way, contending as it were with an enormous serpent, which he grasps with both his hands.

The identity of the Apollo Nomios and Crishina is obrious: both are inventors of the flute; and Crishna is disappointerl by Tulasi in the same manner as Apollo was deluded by Daphiee, each nymph being changed to a tree; hence the Tulasi is sacred to Crishina, as the Laurus was to Apollo.

The story of Na'reda visiting the numerous chambers of Crishna's seraglio, and finding Crishva every where, appears to allude to the universality of the Sun's appearance at the time of the Equinoxes, there being then no part of the Earth where he is not visible in the course of the twenty-four hours.

The Demons, sent to destroy Cbishea, are perhaps no more than the monsters of the sky, which allegorically may be said to attempt in vain to obstruct his progress through the Heavens.

Many of the playful adventures of Crishna's childhood are possibly mere poetical embellishments to complete the picture.

Perhaps the character of Crishya should be regarded in a two-fold light; in one as the symbol of Vol. VIII.
the Sun, in the other as an allegorical representation of the rise and progress of the doctrines of the persecuted Vaisinarous, from the infancy of the sect till its full establishment. Cansa is represented as a S'alva; he appears to have persecuted the sect of Vishnu: but that oppressed sect seems to have multiplied under persecution, till the increase of their power enabled them to overthrow their oppressors; and, finally, to establish the doctrines of Vishnu upon the ruins of Siva.

## Of Ca'ritice'ya, the supposed Mars of India.

He is represented as a warrior with six faces: he is armed with arrows and spears, and he is drawn riding upon a peacock. I suppose this figure to be an emblem of the sun, invented by the worshippers of the Ling, when they first separated into a distinct sect; or, in the hieroglyphical language of the Brahmens, when he was produced from the seed which Mafa'de'va shed upon the Earth, after he had been separated from Bhava'ni', with whom he had been in strict union a thousand years. My supposition, however, contradicts the present received opinions of the Hindus; for they do not consider C'a'rtice'ya as the Sun. But, if we examine the figure, we shall find that it can only be applied to the Sun; and it will be found to agree in all its parts.

The Hindus divide the year into six. Fitus, or seasons, in each of which the Sun appears with a different aspect. There are six stars in the lunar constellation, Criticá; and, as he derives his name from that Nacshatra, those stars are represented as his nurses, one for each month. Probably the symbol was invented either when the Sun was itself in that lumar constellation, or in the month Círstica,
when the Moon was full in Criticá. His arrows and missile weapons represent his rays; the Apollo of the Greeks had also his bow and quiver of arrows. The worship of $\mathrm{Ca}^{\prime}$ 'rticéya takes place on the last day of Cártica, as preparatory to military expeditions, which ought to commence, according to Menu, in the month Agrahíyana, the Sun being more propitious at that period for such undertakings.

The setting Sun seems followed by the host of Heaven; but how can this be expressed in a single hieroglyphical figure? It was done by giving him a peacock for his Váhan, or vehicle, in which the tail of this beautiful bird, studded with ryes, and expanded behind the God, pourtrays the 1 rmment spangled with stars. The Egyptians sometimes represented the Sun in the character of a warrior, and he is said to have been addressed as such in the mysteries. But Ca'rtice'ya is not now considered by the Hindus as the Sun : to account for this, I suppose, that whenever any new sect arose amongst the Hindus in former ages, the leaders invented new symbols, exclusively peculiar to themselves, with a view to render their separation from the parent stock more complete, and to mark their worship with distinguishing characters. This practice would give rise to various and different representations of the same object; and, in course of time, as the heat of religious animosities cooled, these various symbols would come to be considered as separate Divinities, and be all blended in one mass of superstition. Thus the Sun, under the name of Ca'rticéva, bicomes the god of war; and, under the name of Crishina, the shepherd god of Mat'huráand $V$ rindázana. The Sun is now separately worshipped under the names of S'ürya and A'ditya.

## Of Indra, the Emblem of the Visible Heavens.

I am led to believe, that many of the fables, inserted in the Puránas, were invented, either after the real meaning of an hieroglyphic had been lost, to conceal that ignorance, or purposely to mislead the mass of people, and prevent too curious and close an inquiry.

Indra is described, like Argus, covered with eyes; to account for this, the fable relates, that Indra, having seen the beantiful wife of a certain Rishi*, was anxious to be more intimate with her; but the watchful husband prevented the intercourse, by arriving unseasonably for the gorl; the enraged saint uttered an imprecation, and wished that the god might be covered all over with representations of what had been the object of his desires; the curse took immediate effect. The god, full of shame, repented, and, by his entreaties, at last prevailed on the holy man to mitigate the curse, by changing the marks of his shame to as many eyes.

I consider this fable as an instance of the foregoing observation: for Indra is a personification of the atmosphere and visible Heavens; and, of course, the eyes with which he is covered describe the stars. The rain-bow is the bow of Indra. The water-spout is the trunk of his elephant; thunder, lightning, and rain, and every phenomenon of the atmosphere, belong to his department; and, like the Jupiter of the Greelis and Romans, he has his Heaven, a mansion of sensual delights and enjoyment.
Of Jupiter and Europa, and Jupiter and Leda.
The Hindus have eight representations of female figures, which, except in sex, exactly resemble the

[^9]Deity, of which each is a Sacti, or power, with the same attributes and rehicle: Ma'he's'warí is the S'acti of Mahésa, or Si'va; Bra'hmí, or Brayma'ví, of Brahaí; Na'ra'yaní, of Nara'yeta; Aindrí, of Indra; Cauma'rí, of Ca'rticesta; Va'ra'hí, of Vishne, in the V'iráha Avatír; Narasinhí, of Vishou, in the Nurasinha Aeratír; and Apara'jita', a form of Bhava'sí, the female principle: this last may be the aphrodite of the Greeks. It is probable that the representation of Máhe's'ivarí, or a female Síva, riding on a white bull, may hare given rise to the story of Europa's rape: and the representation of $\mathrm{Bra}^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{Hmi}$, or the female Brahma', with the swan, may, in like manner, have occasioned the fable of Jupiter and Leda. These explanations were, perhaps, invented by the Greeks to account for symbols, of the meaning of which they were ignorant.

## ANNA PERENNA.

The Romans themselves were ignorant of the history of this goddess, and the origin of her rites, although she was an object of their veneration and worship. From whence did this ignorance proceed? Was it that the memory of the institution was lust in its remote antiquity? Or was it an adoption of a foreign ritual, without adverting to its origin?

According to some authors, she was the daughter of Belus, and sister of Dido, who fled to Battus; king of the isle of Malta, after the death of her sister, when Hierbas, king of the Getuli, attempted to take Carthage. Not finding herseif safe with Battus, on account of the threats of Hierbas, she fled to Laurfatom in Flaly, where Evens was settled: he met her on the banks of the Numicius, and received her into his palace, F 3
treating her with the respect due to her quality. Lavinia considered her as a rival, and sought her destruction; but Anva being admonished of this in a dream, fled to the river Numicius, whereof she was made a Nymph, as she told those who sought for her, and ordered them to call her in future Anna Perenna, because she should for ever remain under those waters.
> _ placidi sum Nympha Numici:
> Amne perenne latens Anna Perenna vocor. Ovid, Fast. Lib. 3d, Vers. 6 5̌3.

The Albans instituted rejoicings on the banks of the river, with dancing and feasting; and the Romans, in imitation of them, did the same on the banks of the Tiber. The dances and sports were very indecent and lascivious, Ovid has described these festivals, which were celebrated on the 15 th March: they sacrificed to her for long life; amnare et perennare.

It is probable that this legend was a popular tradition, merely local, peculiar to the Romans and Albans; but it was not the sole conjecture, for, according to Ovid, some supposed her to be the Moon, some Themis, and others lo; some imagined she was the daughter of Atlas, and some took her for Amalthea, who nursed Jupiter in his infancy; while others conceived her to be an old woman of Bovilla, who was supposed to have fed the penple of Rome, in very' ancient times, when oppressed by famine, in a miraculous manner, and to have then fled and disappeared in the holy Aventine Mount, and in gratitude for this relief this festival had been instituted by the Romans.

Amidst so many conjectures, perhaps we may at this distance of time discover the mystery at Ber
nares, in Anna Pu'rn'a De'ví, the Hindz Goddess of Abundance, whose name is derived from Anna (food), and Pirría (abundant); let us regularly weigh each coniecture mentioned by Ovid, rejecting only the local story of the deified sister of Dido, and we shall find none that is inapplicable to the Hindu godless. 1st. The Drasta of the Romans was represented with a crescent on her forehead; it was her characteristic mark. The Hindu goddess, as being the consort of $\mathrm{Si}^{\prime} \mathrm{va}$ or Ca' $^{\prime}$, is decorated in like manner; this may account for her being considered as the Moon. 2diy. The attributes of Themis, whether she is considered as Ceres, which was the supposition of Clemens of Alevandria, in his description of her obscene mysteries; or as the goddess of justice, piety, and virtue, as described by Diodorus Siculus, are equally applicable to Anva Pu'rva' De'ví; the conformity of her name and office to the attributes of Ceres is strikingly apparent. But, if Themis is justice, piety, and virtue personified, the character will equaliy suit the consort of the god of justice, Vrisha I's'wara, and the lord of the sacred bull, Dherma Ra'ja'. Sdly. That she was Io, the daughter of Ivachus, under the form of a cow, is a supposition which will not be found inapplicable to Anva Pu'rna' Déti, when it is known that the Earth, symbolized as a cow of plenty, is one of the forms of the Hindu goddess. 4thly. That she was the daughter of Atlas, Maia, who was beloved by Jupiter, is a conjecture for which a foundation may be traced in the Hindu goddess. Might not the name of Maya or Maha Maya (the beloved consort of Síva) have given rise to this conjecture; the Hindu term being applied to signify the mother, the great mother! 5thly. The image of Anna Purna' is represented sitting on a throne, giving food, with a goklen ladle,
to an infant Síva, who stretches out his little hand to receive it. Is not the resemblance particularly striking between this representation and the character of Amalthea, who nursed Jupiter when an infant? Lastly, the tradition of her being the old woman of Borilla, which Ovid himself seems inclined to adopt, is equally applicable to Anna Pu'rna' Deví, who, according to the Purínas, under the form of an old woman, miraculously fed Vya'samuni, and his ten thousand Pupils, when reduced to the extremities of distress and famine by the anger of Síva, because Vya'sa had presumed to prefer Vishine to him.

It may not, therefore, be an unfounded conjecture, that the consort of Siva is the point in which all those opinions meet, and that they were founded on confined and confused traditions of the goddess of abundance.

Description of Anna Pu'rna' Déví, from the Annada' Cripa'.
She is of a ruddy complexion, her robe of various dies, a crescent on her forehead; she gives subsistence; she is bent by the weight of her full breasts; Bhava, or Síva (as a child), is playing before her, with a crescent on his forehead; she looks at him with pleasure, and seated (on a throne) relievns his hunger; all good is united in her; her names are Annadá, Anva Pu'rná Deví, Bhava'ní, and Bhagavatí.

## EXTRACTS.

Sunt quibus hæc luna est, quia mensibus impleat annum:
Pars Thenin, Imachiam parś putat esse bovem.
Invenies, qui te Nymphen Allantida dicant;
Teque Jovi primos, Anua, dedisse cibos.
Hac quoque, quam referam, hostras pervenit adaures
Fana: nee a verâ dissidet illa fide.
Plebs vetus, et nullis etiamnum tuta tribumis,
Fugit; and in sacri vertice montis abit.
Jan quoque, quem secum tulerant, defecerat illos 665
Victus, et humanis usibus apta Ceres.
Orta suburbanis quædam fuit Anna Bovillis
Pauper, sed mundre sednlitatis, anus.
Illa, levi mitrâ canos redimita capillos,
Fingebat tremulá rustica liba manu.
Atque ita per populum fumantia mane solebat
Dividere. Hæc populo copia grata fuit.
Pace domi factâ signum posuere Perennæ,
Quòd sibi defectis illa tulisset opem.

Ovid, Fast. Lib. 3d.

## Of the Four Months Sleep of Horus and Vishnu.

The Abbé Pluche (to whose ingenious work I am so much indebted), mentions two hieroglyphics, one taken from the Isiac table, and the other described upon a Mummy. They both relate to the sleep of Horus.

The one represents a couch, in the form of a lion, with Hores swaddled up and sleeping on it. Beneath the couch are four jars: an Anubis is standing by the side of the couch; and an Isis at the head of it, in the act of awakening Horus.

When Anubis, or the Dog Star, rose heliacally, the Egyptians considered it as a warning to them of the approach of the inundation, during which the operations of husbandry were suspended; this suspension was deemed a period of rest; to express that inaction, Horus was described as swaddled up, unable to use his arms, and sleeping upon this lion-formed couch. AnUB1s is putting him to rest, because the rising of the Dog Star proclaimed that cessation of labour. The four jars denote the four months. When, by the operations of nature, the water has subsided, and the river has been reduced
within its banks, labour is resumed, and Honus is awakened by IsIs, or personified nature.

In the other hieroglyphic, we have the same couch with Horus swaddled up, but in the act of turning himself: there are only three jars under this couch, to denote, that this action of turning himself to sleep, on his other side, takes place at the commencement of the third month. This interpretation I have given, because what follows, respecting the sleep of Vishyu, seems to justify it. Let us therefore tum to the Hindu representation of the four months sleep of Vishinu or Heri.

On the eleventh day of the enlightened half of the lumar month, $A$ sárh, Vishnu begins his repose on the serpent, Sésha. On the same day of the bright half of the lunar month, Bhádra, he turns on his side; and on this day the Hindus celebrate the Jal Yátrú, or the retiring of the waters. On the eleventh day of the bright half of the lunar month, Cárica, he is awakened, and rises from his sleep of four months.

The allusion will be made perfectly clear, when it is known that water is considered as one of the forms of Vishinu.

The water, rising till it covers the winding mazes of the river's course, is personified by Visunu slceping upon the serpent Sisha, whose hundred heads are the numerons channels which discharge the waters into the sea. As long as it continues to rise, he sleeps on one side. When the inundation, having risen to its height, begins to subside, he turns on the other side. When the waters have run off, and the winding banks of the river are completely cleared of the swolu waters of the inundation, he

Cquptian sfieroybyphics.
is said to have arisen from his sleep, being invoked, and awakened with this Mantra, or incantation.
> "The clouds are dispersed, the full moon will ap" pear in perfect brightness, and I come in hope of " acquiring purity, to offer the fresh flowers of the "season; awake from thy long slumber, awake "Lord of all Worlds."

Let us compare the Hindu legend with the Egyptian hieroglyphic, and I think no doubt can remain of the identity of Horus and Vishav, or Heri; and if this position be admitted, we shall find ourselves in possession of the Key to the Egyptian, Grecian, and Roman mythology.

## Of the Durga' Pu'sa'.

The Abbé Pluche mentions an Egyptian hieroglyphic from the Isiac table. Horus, armed with an arrow, is slaying a river horse, or Hippopotamos, which is surrounded with the leaves of the Lotos, and other aquatic plants. He says, "By this mon"ster, which dwells in the Nile, and comes out of " it to lay waste and devour whaterer it meets " with, we can understand nothing but the inun" dation." Horus is the same with Heri or V ishnu. If the Saivas admitted in this country a similar victory over the inundation, they would substitute Síva, or his consort, for the Vaishnava symbol Horus.

The sphinx, an emblem of the Sun's passage through Leo and Virgo, would suggest the idea of decorating Ca'lí, like the armed Pallas, as Virgo, attended by her Siah, or Lion, who is Síva himself in that form; and they ascribe to her a victory over the monster Mafisis A'surra, a giant, with the head of a buffalo: this animal delights in water; and, when he comes out of it, is as destruc-
tive, by laying waste and devouring the harrest, as the Hippopotamos; the latter animal not being a native of IIindostan, it was natural to supply its place with one which had similar characteristics. If the Hindu religion was brought from Egypt into India, the importers of it would see the same phenomenon of the annual rising of the river; but they would observe, that in this country it was accompanied with heary rains, thunder, lightning, and storms of wind, an apparent war of the elements. Hence the buffalo-headed symbol of the inundation was erected into a giant, at the head of a vast army, warring against the Gods: the novelty of these phenomena, to the first comers, would sugrgest to them this poetical personification. The title borne by CA'Lí, in this character, is Durga', or rather Durgati Na's'iní, the remover of difficulties; as she is a form of $\mathrm{CA}^{\prime} \mathrm{L}^{\prime}$, she has the same bloody rites.

The Abbé mentions the Canopus, as a jar or pitcher of water, intended to make the people acquainted with the exact progress and increase of the inundation: he adds, that they used to mark these jars with the figure 1 , or a small cross
to express the increase and swelling of the river. Canob is the Egyptian word, which is rendered Cianopos by the Greeks; the information, which this scems intended to convey, was so particularly necessary to the Egyptians, that it is no wonder it should, in course of time, cease to be considered as a mere sign, and acquire a place amongst the Deities themselves. The word Canob, by the analogy of the Sanscrit language, becomes C'umbh, which signifies a jar or vase: it gives name, in the Hindw Zodiac, to the sign Aquarius. This Cumbh, GHat a, or jar, is the principal olject in the celebration of the Hindu worship. It is considered as almost the


DURGA'S combat with MAHISH-ASURA.

Deity itself. It cannot be dispensed with; while the image of Durga' may be omitted entirely. The Vaishnavas use the sacred jar, which they mark with several crosses in this manner 7 . The Saivas mark the jar with a double triangle, thus one triangle signifies Sív A , uniting in himself the three great attributes: the other triangle is his consort, with the same character and attributes. The worshippers of the Sacti, or female principle, mark the jar with this figure . These marks are called jantra: they are, in fact, hieroglyphic characters; and there is a vast variety of them. The above are only mentioned here, because of their use in this Pijá, and as they distinguish three principal sects of the Hindus.

This coincidence between the Hindu ceremonies and the Egyptian figures, is remarkably striking. They appear to me to explain each other: and we can scarce doubt of the identity, when we consider that this ceremony takes place at the autumal equinox, at which time the season of storms and inundation is over, and they are supposed to have boen subdued, during the Sun's passage through the signs Leo and Virgo.

On the Hu'ti of the Hindus, and the Milaria of the Romavs.
The Romans celebrated the Hilaria at the vernal Equinox, in honour of the Mother of the Gods. It was a festival which was continued for several days, wich great display of pomp and rejoicing: it began the eighth day before the Calencis of Aprit,
or the 25 th of March; the statue of Cybele was carried about in procession, and the attending crowds assumed to themselves whatever rank, chiracter, or dress, their fancy led them to prefer: it was a kind of masquerade, full of mirth and frolic. In fact, it was the Earth, under the name of Cybele, which was worshipped at the commencement of that genial season, when she receives from the Sun those vivyfying rays, which are so adapted to the production of fruits and flowers. Let this ceremony be compared with the Hindu celebration of the Hudla, at the same period of the year. The epithet of Purple is constantly given to the spring by the Roman poets, in allusion to the blossoms, which nature, as it were in sport, scatters over the Earth with such variety and profusion. The Hindus design the same idea in the purple powder (Abir), which they throw about at each other with so much sportive pleasantry: the objects of worship with the Hindus are the Earth and Fire; that genial warmth, which pervades all nature at that period of the year: the licentiousness of the songs and dances, at this season, was intended to express the effects of that warmth on all animated objects.

The Hindus have likewise their masquerading processions, in which Gods and Goddesses, Rajas and Ranis, are represented; and the ceremonies are concluded, by burning the past or deceased year, and welcoming the renovation of nature.

## Of the Va'stu Pu'sa' of the Hindes, and the Vesra of the liomans.

On the last day of $P$ cush, the Hindus make sweetmeats, with Til, or sesamum: it is thercfore called Tiliasancrant. It is the day when landholders worship the Earth and Pire. The sect of Siva sacrifice a sheep to the Earth; and the Vaishnavas offer up
their bloodless oblations to fire. The ceremony is called the Vístu Pújá. Vástu is the habitable Earth. A great Rájá was called Va'stu Purush; the expression is used by a raiat to his zemindar, as a title of the highest respect. I think, that, in the name of the ceremony, and in the objects of worship, may be traced the Goddess Vesta of the Romans: the Goddess of Nature, under whose name they worshipped the Earth and Fire.

## The Fable of Bír Bhadr, invented by the S'aivas to exalt their Opinions and Sect.

This fable, I conceive, is descriptive of an attempt to abolish the worship of the male and female symbols; of the struggles of the contending sects; and (as it is the nature of fanaticism to increase and spread in proportion to the opposition raised against it) of the final establishment and extension of that worship. It seems a story invented by the Saizas, to shew the imbecility of their oponents, and to exalt their own doctrines.

Dacsha celebrated a yajnya, to which he invited all the Dévatís, except his son-in-law, Síva. His consort, the Goddess, being hurt at this exclusion, went into the assembly, and remonstrated, but in vain; she expired with vexation upon the spot. Síva, upon hearing this, throws his Jetá, or plaited hair, wpon the ground, and from that produces BíR BHADR, a furious being, armed with a trident, who immediately attacks, and disperses the whole assembly; puts a stop to the sarrifice; and cuts off the head of Dacsua. Síva took up the body of his deceased consort, and placing it upon his hearl, in a fit of madnes3, danced up and down the Earth, threatening all things with destruction. Tishive, at the request of the other Dévatús, with his Chacre, cut the body of'Satí into fifty one pieces, which Síys,
in his frantic dancing, scattered in different parts of the Earth. Each place where a part fell becaine a place of worship, dedicated to the female Power: and the frenzy of Síva subsiding, he ordained, that the Linga should likewise be worshipped at each of those places; and Dacsha, on condition of cm bracing the doctrine of Síva, was restored to life, dedegraded with the head of a goat instead of his own. I should imagine that the furious Bír Bhadr, produced by Síva, was a vast body of fanatics, raised by the Brahmens of that sect, who might, at that time, have been both popular and powerful; probably this was a sast body of fanatic Sannyasis, interested in the dispute by personal motives, as well as instigated by their Brahmens.

The attempt to abolish the worship failed, and served to establish it firmer, and extend it farther than ever. The Gods themselves are represented as the actors, instead of their votaries; but it may allude to some commotion that really happened. Probably the heads of those sects, which had introduced this symbolic worship, were alarmed at the progress of it, and at the effects produced on the morals of the people: they wished to abolish it when it had taken root too deeply; and as they had introduced it, Síva is described as the son-in-law, and Satí as the daughter of Dacsha.

## On the Veneration paid to Kine.

This superstition appears to me to have arisen from the humanity of the first legislators, to prevent the horrid practices which were prevalent in the ancient world, and which exist to this day in Abyssinia: I mean the savage custom of devouring the flesh of the living animal, tom from it while roaring with anguish, and expiring in protracted agony: To cradicate a practice so detestable, and dreadfully cruel, they might
consider difficult, if not impossible in the then existing state of society, without interwe:ving the preservation of so uscful an animal, with the indispensable duties of religion. They therefore rendered it sacred.

The Bull was made the emblem of Justice, the vehicle of S'rva; and the Cow, a form of Bha'vani, and the emblem of the Earth. A mere civil institute, might have been deemed inadequate to work the intended reform. But an indispensable duty, enforced by all the sacred obligations of relizion, was thought more likely to produce the effect; as haring more hold upon the human mind: especislly when that religion was jromulgated as the inmediate revelation of the Deity.

Mankind naturally rush into contrary extremes under the impulse of religious zeal ; and the animal, which had been the subject of voracious cruelty, became the object of religious veneration and worship.

When these animals were thus exalted, the slaughter of them was considered as a sacrilege: it was a natural consequence. But supersition did not stop there ; the dung came to be considered as pure; the Hindus use it diluted with water, and mixed with earth, to purify their shops and houses : the spot, on which they eat, is plastered with this composition; and the idols are purified by a mixture of the dung, urine, milk, curds, and butter of the animal ; nay, a small quantity of the urine is daily sipped by some : every part of the animal is dedicated to some divinity with appropriate invocations; and what originated in policy, has ended in gross superstition. The horrid repasts of the antient world are frequently alluded to. It is said of Orpheus, Cedibus et victu fredo deterruit : notwithstanding which, the Grecians are reproached by Julius Firmicus with perpetrating these horrid repasts, as part of the ceremony Voz. VIII.
in the Dionysiacs-Vivum lamiant dentibus taurum, crudeles epulas anmuis commemorationibus excitantes -and again-Illic, in orgiis Bacchi, inter ebrias puellas et vinolentos senes, cum Scelerum Pompa procederet, alter nigro amictu teter; alter, ostenso angue terribilis; alier, cruentus ore, dum viva Pecoris membra discerpit. Jul. Firmic. De errore profaarum Religionum. This horrid custom was very antient ; and I suppose, with Mr. Bruce, that the prohibitions in Deuteronomy were particularly levelled at this execrable practice; and this evidence, I think, strongly corroborates my supposition. The Egyptians seem to have extended this policy to sheep and goats: for the ram was worshipped at the vernal equinox, and the goat was worshipped at Memphis.

## REMARKS ON THE FOREGOING ESSAY..

BY H. T. COLEBROOKE, Esq.

Several points, relative to the religious ceremonies of the Hindus, and their mythology, which the preceeding Essay has touched upon, seem to require elucidation, independently of the purpose, for which they have been there mentioned. The following remarks are therefore subjoined, with a view, of adding some information on those subjects.
P. 68. The eight $S^{\prime}$ actis or energies of as many Deities, are also called Mátris or mothers. They are named Bra'mmi, \&c. because they issued from the bodies of Bra'hma and the other gods respectively ${ }^{*}$.

- Raxa mucutason the Ameracosha.

In some places, they are thus enumerated: Bra'hmí, Ma'he's'wari', Aindrí, Va'ra'hí, Vaishinati, Cauma'rí, Cha'mundá, and Charchica'. However, some authorities reduce the number to seven; omiting Cha'mun'da' and Charchicá; but inserting Cauvérí.

Prayers are addressed to the Mátris on various occasions; especially in the Cavachas, or defensive incantations. I shall cite two by way of example; and subioin extracts from the Márcan'déy ya puránia, descriptive of these goddesses.
"May Brahmíni', conferring the benefit of all benedictions, protect me on the east; and $\mathrm{Na}^{\prime} \mathrm{KA}^{\prime} \mathrm{YAN}^{\prime} \mathrm{I}^{\prime}$, on the south-east, for the sake of realising every wish Ma'he's'warí too, on the south, rendering every thing auspicious; СНА'mun'da', on the south-east, discomfiting all enemies; and, on the west, Cauma'mí, armed with her lance and slayer of foes: on the north-west, Apara'jita', the beautenus giver of Victory; on the north, Va'ra'hi', granter of boons; and on the north-east, $\mathrm{NA}^{\prime}$ 'hisinhi', the banisher of terrour. May these mothers, being eight Deities and active powers, defend me."

Another incantation simply enumerates the same eight goddesses; and proceeds thus: " may these and all Mátris guard me with their respective weapons, on all quarters and on every point.

In the Dévi máhâtmya, the assembling of the Mátris to combat the demons is thus described. 'The energy of each god, exactly like him. with the same form, the same decoration, and the same vehicle, came to fight against the demons. The s'acti of Brahma', girt with a white cord and heariny a hollow gourd, arrived on a car yoked with swans: her G 2
title is Brabmání. Máhés'warí came riding on a bull, and bearing trident, with a vast serpent for a ring, and a crescent for a gem. Caumáríbearing a lance in her hand, and riding on a peacock, being Ambicá in the form of Ca'rticesya, canie to make wal on the children of Diti. The S'acti named Vaishn'avi' also arrived, sitting on an eagle, and bearing a conch, a discus, a club, a bow, and a sword, in her several hands. The energy of Harr, who assumed the unrivalled form of the holy boar, likewise came there, assuming the body of Va'ráhi'. Na'masinhi' too arrived there embodied in a form precisely similar to that of Nrisinha, with an erect mane, reaching to the host of stars. Aindrícame, bearing the thunderbol: in her hand, and riding on the king of elephants, and in every respect like lnDRA, with a hundred eyes. Lastly, came the dreadful energy named Chandica', who sprung from the body of $\mathrm{De}^{\prime} \mathrm{VI}$ ', horrible, howling like a hundred shakals : she, surnamed, Apara'sitá, the unconquered goddess, thus addressed Is'A'NA, whose head is encircled with his dusky braided locks.'

The story, which is too long for insertion in this place, closes with these words: 'Thus did the wrathful host of Mátriss slay the demons.'

In the Utiara Calpa of the same Purán'a, the Mátrǐs are thus described, 'Cha'mun'd'a' standing on a corpse, Váráhi sitting on a buffalo, Aindrí mounted on an elephant, Vaishn'avi' borne by an eagle, $\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime} \mathrm{he}^{\prime} \mathrm{s}^{\prime}$ warí riding on a bull, Caumárí conveyed by a peacock, Bra'hmi carried by a swan, and Aparajitá revered by the universe, are all Mátris endowed with every faculty.'

It may be proper to notice, that Cha'mundoa Charchica', and Chan'dicá, are all forms of Pa'rvatí. According to one legend. Cha'-
mun'da' sprung from the frown of Pa'rvati, to slay the demons Chan'da and Mun'da. According to another, the mild portion of Pa'rvatí issued from her side, leaving the wrathful portion, which constitutes Ca'Lí or the black gooddess.

Cauvérí is the energy of Cuvéra; the deformed god of Riches. Na'ra'yaní, mentioned by Mr. Paterson', and also in the prayers or incantations $^{\text {at }}$ above cited, is the same with Vaishn'aví.
P. 69. Anna-pu'rn'a $\mathrm{De}^{\prime}$ ví, or the goddess who fills with food, is the beneficent form of BHAva'ní ; and very similar to Lacshmí or the goddess of abundance, though not the same Deity. She is described, and her worship is inculcated, in some of the Tantras; but not in the Puranias, so far as I can learn, except in the Siva purán'a; and the legends, concerning her, are not numerous. She has a temple at Benares, situated near that of Vis'we's'wara.

In addition to Mr. Paterson's quotations, it may be obserred, that Silius Italicus (Punic. 8, v. 28, 184) makes the nymph, who was worshipped in Italy, to have been Anna, the sister of Dido: and Macrobius says (Sat. 1, c. 12), sacrifices, both publick and private, were offered by the Romans to Anna perenna; ut annare, peremmareque, commode liceat.

Perhaps Anna-púrn'á may bear affinity to Annona. Certainly this term, either in its literal sense, or as a personification (Spence's Polymetis, dial. 10), is nearer to the Sanscrit anna, food; than to its supposed root annus, a year.
P.74. The Jala yátrí, here mentioned; is not universally or generally celebrated; and accordingly it is not noticed in various treatises on the calenda
of Hindu feasts and holidays. The Viskinu d'hermóttara, cited in the Madana raina, does indeed direct, that, on this day (11th Bhádra in the bright fortnight), a jar of water, with certain other specified articies, be given to a priest; and the Bhawishya requires, that Jana'rdana, or Vishinu, be worshipped with appropriate prayers: but the ceremony, to which Mr. Patersonalludes, must be a different one; and, if I am nightly informed, a festival, which bears the designation mentioned by him (Iala yatrá), is celebrated at the temple of Jaganna'tha, and perhaps at some other places.
P. 77. At most festivals, no less than at that of Durga', a jar of water is placed, and consecrated by prayers, invoking the presence of the deity or deities who are on that uccasion worshipped: adding also invocations to Ganga and the other holy rivers. When the celebration of the festival is completed, the holy water, contained in the jar, is employed by the priests to sprinkle or to bathe the person, who commands and defrays the celebration.

Various yantras, or mystical figures and marks, are appropriated to the several Dcities, and to the different titles of each Deity. Such figures are usually delineated on the spot, where a consecrated jar is to be placed. These yantras, which are supposed by superstitious Hindus to possess occult powers, are taught in great detail by the Tantras or A'gama Sástra: but seem to be unknown to the Vílus and Puránas.
P. ヶs. The Holica is said, j̣ some Purána, to have been instituted by the king Ambarísifa (the great grandson of Buagírat'ha), according to instructions from ' $\mathrm{Na}^{\prime} \mathrm{REDA}$, for the purpose of counteracting a female demon named D"HUN'D'ın', whose
practice it was to destroy children.. In its origin, this festival does not seem to have had any connexion with the vernal equinox, nor with the close of the year: but with the close of winter and the beginning of Vasanta, or the Indian spring. However, it now corresponds with the end of the lunar year, and the approach of the equinox.
P. 79. The Tila sancrinti, or day on which the sun passes from Dhanush into the sign Macara, is the festival of the winter solstice. It must have been so fixed, at the period when the Indian calendar for the solar year was reformed, and the origin of the ecliptick was referred to the first degree of Méshu. It derives its name from the ordained use of tila or seed of Indian sesamum, six different ways, in food, ablutions, gifts, and offerings : or, according to a vulgar explanation, it is so called, because thenceforward the days increase at the rate of a tila or grain of sesamum in each day. A similar festival is regulated by the lunar month; and has several times shifted its day. It is kept on the twelfth of the bright half of Mägha, according to the Vishn'u d'hermóttara; and on the eleventh, according to other authorities. Probably it once belonged to the first day of the lunar Mágha.

The Vástu prijí, as an annual ceremony, is peculiar to D'hicici and districts contiguous to that province : but is not practised in the western parts of Bengal; and, so far as I am informed, is altogether unknown in other parts of India. The word Vástu signifies, not the habitable earth in general, but the site of a house or other edifices in particular.

## IV.

EXTRACTS from the تهرi, or
"Essence of Logic," proposed as a small Supplement to Arabic and Persian Grammar; and with a viere to elucidate certain Points connected with Oriental Literature.

By FrANCIS BALFOUR, Esq.

## INTRODUCTION.

ALTHOUGH the works of Aristotle were translated into Arabic many centuries ago, and there be no doubt that the system of logic generally ascribed to him constitutes, at this time, the lugic of all the nations of Asia who possess the Mahommedan faith, yet I do not find that this point has been directly confirmed by translations from the Arabic or Persian into the languages of Europe. At least none that I know of have appeared in India.

The following extracts taken from a Persian translation of the Tehweeb ul Mantik, or Essence of Logic, an Arabic treatise of considerable repute, seem to place this question beyond doubt, by their close coincidence in every point with the system referred to Aristotle.

To the logical system of this wonderful genits, modern philosophers of distinguished eminence, and amongst these, Lord Kaimes, have not hesitated to impute the blanue of retarding the progress of science and improvement in Europe for two thousand years, by holding the reasoning faculty constrained and cramped by the fetters of syllogism.

From some of the extracts contained in this paper, it will appear, 1st. That the mode of reasoning by Induction, illustrated and improved by the great

Lord Verulam, in his Organum Novum; and genesally considered as the cause of the rapid progress of science in later times, was perfectly known to Aristotle, and was distinctly delineated by him, as a method of investigation that leads to certainty or truth *; and 2dly, that Aristotle was likewise perfectly acquainted, not merely with the form of Induction, but with the proper materials to be employed in carrying it on-Facts and Experiments $\downarrow$.

We are therefore led to infer, that all the blame of confining the human mind for so long a time in chains by the forms of syllogism, cannot be fairly imputed to Aristotle; nor all the merit of enlarging it and setting it. free, ascribed to Lord $V_{\mathrm{E}}$ rulam. The vast extent of Aristotle's learning. and knowledge, and the singular strength and penetration of his mind having, naturally, encouraged him to undertake a complete analysis of all its powers, the doctrine of syllogism became, of course, a constituent and necessary part of his comprehensive system. And if succeeding philosophers attracted by its ingenuity and beauty, have deserted the substance in pursuit of the shadow, the pernicious consequences of this delusion, cannot, justly, be referred to him .

* Vide the Section of Induction.
$\dagger$ Vide the Section of the matter of Syllogism.
$\ddagger$ On the 6th of July 1803, when this paper was delivered to the Asiatick Society, I had heard of Dr. Gillies's admirable exposition of the ethics and politics of Aristutle; but had never been fortunate enough to meet with it; or to know any tinng of his sentiments on this question, until the 12 th of November, when the accidental sale of a private library gave me an opportunity of parchasing it. From the perusal of this wonderful book, I have n ,w the satisfaction to discover, that the conjectures, which I bad been led to draw from these scanty materials, are c mpletely confirned by the $o_{1}$ inion of an author, who is probably better qualified thain aily preceding commentator on Aristotle's worlis to dec de on this subject.-Vide Gillies'a Anistoter, Vol. I. page 03. 70́. 78, 79, \&cc.

The discussion of these points, being in some degree curious, and not altogether unconnected with the pursuit of Oriental literature, may not be unacceptable to this Society. But, taken in another view, I couceive that they may become in some respect useful. A scientific analysis of the reasoning faculty, delineating all its powers and operations, and affixing to each an appropriated form of expression, gives, naturally, to those who acquire it, a mode of thinking that is accurate and profound; and establishes amongst the learned a pecnliar style, more precive and enligntened than that which is employed by the multitude in the common transactions of life.

By assisting the Oriental student to attain this degree of improvement, I have flattered myself that these extracts may become useful. This is the motive that first induced me to take the trouble of translating them into English; and they are now submitted to the Society, not as a part of metaphysical learning, but as a more advanced stage of grammar and syntax : and therefore as a Supplement that may contribute to form a more complete system of Arabic and Persiun Philology. Whilst grammar and syntax teach only, generally the various forms of words and sentences, logic, procceding further, may be considered as the art of selecting words and arranging sentences into all the forms that are required, for expressing with precision, the different steps and operations of the reasoning faculty : and therefore as the highest and most important degree of classical improvement.

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In the Name of God, the Compassionate, the Merciful!

## EXTRACTS FROM THE TEHZEEB UL MANTIK.

THE CONTENTS.

Part I. Of Definition.
Sect. I. Of Expression.
II. Of Ideas formed by the Intbllect.
III. Of the Five Universal Idgas called Predicables.
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Part II. Of Demonstration.
Sect. I. Of Piopositions.
II. Of Syllogism.
III. Of Induction,
IV. Of Analogy.
V. Of the division of Syllogiems according to their Mattir.

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## THE PREFACE.

A PREFACE in common language is that which is put first. Technically it is that which is necessary to the explanation of any science with clearness and perspicuity. It has therefore become an established custom with authors, previously to the introduction of their subject, to appropriate the first chapter to this purpose, calling it a Preface. Under this head are comprehended three different articles; 1st, The nature or description of science; 2d, The end or use of the science; 3d, The subject of the science; or those of its essential parts that are to be investigated or considered; such as the human body in medicine, words and sentences in grammar, and definition and demonstration in logic.

Accordingly let it be understood, that knowledge, or images acquired by the mind, is of two kinds; either the simple impression of an object, or the production of an image by reflection, that is, by relation. The first is perception, the second intellection or judgment.

Perception is either the idea of a single object, such as the idea of Zeid ; or of several objects, such as the idea of $\mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{eid}}$ and Omar. Or it may be the idea of an object standing in a relation that is imperfect ; for example, the slave of Zeid; or in a relation that is perfect, in which case it must not be connected with a predicate, but without one, such as the ezreb, (i. e.) beat thru. It may also be in construction with a predicate, provided that it imply no conclusion; as in the idea of conjecture and soubt.

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Intellection or judgment consists in giving assent to some proposition. such as " $\mathrm{Z}_{\text {Eld }}$ is standing," or " $Z_{\text {EID }}$ is not standing."

Each of those. namely, perception and intellection, are necessarily divided into two kinds, viz. Those acquired by intuition without any previous argument or proof, and therefore called intuitive; and those acquired by investigation and reasoning, and therefore called demonstrable. We have therefore established four distinctions, viz. perceptions intuitive, and perceptions demonstrable : or in other words,

1. The known perceptible.
2. The unknown perceptible;
and intellection or truth intuitive, and intellection or truth demonstrable; in other words,
3. The known demonstrable.
4. The unknown demonstrable.

The idea of heat and cold, is an example of the known perceptible.
The idea of angels and genii, is an example of the unknown perceptible.
The proposition that the sun shines, is an example of the known demonstrable; and
The proposition that the world was created, and that there is a Creator, is an example of the unknown demonstrable.

In the language of logicians, examination or inspection is the contemplation of the thing known to obtain a knowledge of the thing unknown; that is to say, the contemplation of the known perceptible, and the known demonstrable to obtain a howledge of the unknown perceptible and unknown demonstrable ; and as mistakes often happen in this investi-

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gation, there is indispensibly required some general rule to preserve the inind from falling into an error in the process of thinking. This rule is logic.

From this discussion, therefore, it appears that the Nature of logic may be defined "A general rule which guards the mind against crrors in thinking."

But in the language of logicians, thinking is an arrangement of certain things known, to obtain a knowlege of things unknown. Consequently the end or use of logic likewise becomes obvious and manifest.

There now remains to be examined, only the subject of logic ; and this is the known perceptible and the known demonstrable, in such a form as to lead to the unknown perceptible and unknown demonstrable. The first of these is called definition; the second demonstration or proof. "The idea of an animal endowed with the faculty of speech," leading to the idea of man, is an example of definition. The proposition, "The world is liable to change, and every thing liable to change is created," leading to the conclusion "that the world was created," exhibits an example of demonstration.

## PaRTI. Of Definition.

Sect. I. Of Expression.
Expression in the technical language of logicians, is the existence of a thing in such general use, that there necessarily or irresistibly arises from the knowledge of that thing the knowledge of another thing. The first they call the Sign, the second the thing signified. If the sign be a word, they call it verbal expression; and if not a word, they call it expression not verbal ; and these two together comprehend six different distinctions; 1. Assigned expression verbal; 2. Assigned expression not verbal;
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3. Natural expression verbal ; 4. Natural expression not verbal; 5. Intellectual expression verbal; 6 . Intellectual expression not verbal. The word Zeid appropriated to an individual, is an example of assigned expression rerbal. The four signs, a line, a knot, a land mark, a signal, are examples of assigned expression not verbal. The exclamation oh ! oh! from a pain in the breast, is an example of natural expression verbal. The quickness of the pulse, indicating fever, is an example of natural expression not verbal. The word Deiz heard from behind a wall, and implying the existence of a speaker, is an example of intellectual expression verbal; and the sign of smoke, implying the existence of fire, is an example of intellectual expression not verbal.

But of all these different modes of expression, we mean, at present, to consider only that of verbal expression assigned, which is of three kinds ; 1. That by conformity ; 2. That by implication; and 3. That by association. Thus a verbal expression assigned, may denote its object by corresponding with the whole of its character; as the word insaun, man, denotes a living being endowed with speech. By expressing a portion of its object, as the word insaun (i. e.) man, implies an animal. By acting without or beyond its object, as the word insaun (i. e.) man, implies a being capable of science, and the art of writing. The first is agreement or conformity, the second implication, the third association.




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But in the case of expression by association, the association must either be intellectual-inferred, as for example, the idea of light associated with one that is blind; or founded on real knowledge, such as the idea of generosity connected with a Prince.

And it is further to be remembered, that conformable expression is necessary to implication and association, whilst these, on the contrary, are not required for conformable expression ; to that whereever implication and association are expressed, there must also exist conformable expression; but where these is conformable expression it does not necessarily follow that these must be also implication or association.

If the terms of the conformable expression consist of parts, and these parts be conformable to portions of the sense, then that term is a compounded word; and the compound is either perfect, giving to the hearer complete satisfaction ; or imperfect. Perfect compounds are of two kinds, viz. predicative, such as "Zeid is standing ;" or insaun, such as ezreb, beat thou. Imperfect compounds are of five kinds, 1st, The composition of relation such as "the slave of Zeid ;" 2nd, The composition of qualification, such as "an excellent man;" 3rd, The composition of confirmation, such as "the man in the house; 4th, The composition of numbers, such as Hemseh Usher; and 5th, The composition of habit, use, custom, such as " Balbec," which originally is the name of a devil or king, and has now become the name of a city.

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But if the terms of conformable expression be not of this description ; that is to say, if portions of the expression be not conformable to portions of the sense, it is then called simple or uncompounded; which is of three kinds; 1st, When the sense is affirmative, ard at the same time expresses in its form one of the three tenses, it then constitutes that part of the speech called a verb. 2. If it do not express time, but meely some object, then it is a noun; and 3. If it express neither time nor any particular object, then it is a particle.

The noun is of several kinds ; 1st. Appellations or proper nanes; 2nd. Generic names; 3rd. Unlimited or ambiguous terms; 4 th. Synonimous terms; 5 th. Technical terms; 6th. Literal terms ; 7th. Metaphorical terms. 1. As a noun may express one or many, it is either singular, or plural. If it express one with an appropriation to a particular individual, then it is a proper name; such as the names Zeid and Omar, \&c. 2. If it express one, without any appropriation to a particular individual, and all the individuals be equal or alike, then it is a generic name, such as a sheep, a goat, \&cc. 3. If it be variable with respect to priority or excellence as the word, nature, or existence with regard to the Creator and his creatures, then it is variable or ambiguous: 4. If the noun is common to many objects, and is appropriated to each of these alike, as the word Aeen which signifies self, gold, fountain, and the eye; then it is synonimous or equivocal ; 5. But if it be not uniformly so, but being first used in one sense, and
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afterwards converted to another, becomes current in its new acceptation, it is then metaphorical, and takes its character from the person who employs it. If the speaker be an illiterate common person, it is called a vulgar phrase; if he be a man of science, it is called a technical term; and if he belong to the law, it is called a law phrase. But if this be not the case, and a word be used indiscriminately in both ways, the first directly applicable to its original object, and the second to that to which it is transferred; such as the word lion, it constitutes, when signifying a fierce animal, the literal or 6 th species of Noun, and when used to denote a hero, the 7 th species, or figurative.

Sect. II. Of Ideas formed by the Intellect.
Be it known that the object of the logicians considered strictly is the thing comprehended by the understanding. Our discussion respecting expression and language was necessary to our design merely because this is the instrument or means by which that is conveyed or understood. Know then that an idea, which in the conception of the understanding, is not, true or applicable to the whole of the individuals of a class, is a particular idea; and that an idea that is applicable to the whole without restriction is an universal idea, even although it should exclude the ex, istence of other constituent parts, for example "an equal to God," or though it should express a being having no existence, such as the Unca; or if there should be found a single being with the mere probability of another, such as the Sun; or with the impossibility of another, such as the Creator; or where
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several individuals are included with a limitation, such as the wisdom of God.

Having ascertained the distinction between universal and particular ideas, then know that there are established, among universal ideas, the four following relations: 1 . The relation of disagreement; 2. The relation of agreement; 3. Relation between the general and particular idea in one way; 4 . The relation of the general and particular idea in no way.

1. The relation of contrariety or disagreement is that in which there is a general repugnance on both sides as between man and stone, which do not reciprocate or correspond in any point ; this relation logicians call contrariety, and the two general ideas with regard to each other contraries.
2. The relation of agreement is that in which there is a perfect reciprocity and agreement, for example " man" and "an animal endowed with specch;" For where there is a man, there also is an animal endowed with speech. This is called the relation of agreement; and the general terms are called corpespondent or reciprocal.
3. In the relation called Amom Chisoos Mutlick, the sense of the general idea is corresponding or reciprocal only in one way; and not in the other; for example " man," " and living animal," where tore is a man there is of course a living animal. But the reverse of this is not necessary. This relation is called Alnom Chisoos Mutlick, and both terms opposed ta each other Amom Chisoos Mullick.
4. And the relation of Amom Chisoos min wo ojeh is that in which there is no reciprocation between the terms in any way ; such as "animal" and "black-
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ness;" For sometimes there i. an animal without blackness, and sometimes blackness without an animal, This is called Amom Chisoos min wojéh, and the terms in relation to each other Amom Chisoos min wojeh.

The result is this, that in the first, the basis of. the universal is disjunction on both sides; In the second, the basis of the universal is conjunction; In the third, the basis of the universal is conjunction on one side, and disjunction on the other; and in the fourth, there is on both sides, in certain points disjunction and certain points conjunction.

Let it also be remembered that sometimes the term $J u z \approx i$ is used for Achuz a portion, that is to say that whatever is ranked under a general idea is called Juzzi. But the first, viz. Achuz, is called a real portion, and the second $J_{u} u z i i z a u f$, that is, a related part. According to this rule, therefore, man with regard to animal is a related part ; and animal is a part with regard to Jism naumi or borly defined; and body defined is a related part with regard to body in general, accordingly whatever is arranged under a general idea may be called $J u \approx \approx i$ izaufi, or a related part.

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Sect. III. Ofthefive Universals called Predicables.

The universals or predicables are altogether of f. e kinds, viz. genus, species, difference, peculiarity, accident. For every universal is reducible to one of two kinds; it is either inherent in the form, or not inherent in the form. If it be inherent in the form, this also is of two kinds. It either includes the whole form or character of the individuals under it ; or it is only a part of the form ; if it include the whole form of the individuals under it, such as, ". Man," which includes the whole form of Zeid, $\mathrm{Omar}_{\mathrm{mar}}$, or Beckar, \&ec, then it is called a species. If it be not the whole form of the individuals, but only a portion, this also is of two kinds. It either comprehends the whole of the different individuals, or it does not ; if it comprehend the whole, like Heywaun, animal, which comprehends man, horse, and goat, varying in their character from each other, then they call it a genus, hut here there is a nice distinction; for "animal" which is in one place a genus, in another way becomes a species. For example, when it is asked what is the nature of man or horse, and it is answered that they are animals, then, in this case, it is a genus: because here the idea of animal with regard to man is only part of his character, and at the same time comprehends man and horse, which vary in their natu c from each other. But when the question is put respecting the nature of horse; goats, and sheep, \&c.
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in this case animal is a species; for the thing understood by animal is not a part of the character, but the whole of the character of horse, goat, and sheep. But if it be a portion of the character in such a manner as not to include the different associates, but to exclude them, then it is a difference, for example, nautik, speaking; which is not the whole, but part of the character of man, which they abstract.

These three are called, zautiout, inherent or essential. Whatever is not essentially inherent in the character or nature, is likewise reducible to two kinds; it is something exclusively appropriated to one object only, or it is not exclusively appropriated to one object only. If it be exclusively or peculiarly appropriated like laughter, which is the peculiar property of man alone, then they call it chouseh, a peculiar property or peculiarity. I It be not peculiarly appropriated, such as the colour yellow and red, then it is called aurizé aun or common accident.

Sect. IV. Of thef different species of Definition.

Let it be remembered, that our object in discussing the subject of ideas was to obtain a knowledge of the known perceptible, in such a manner or form as might lead to a knowledge of the perceptible unknown, and this they call maurif, that is, a definition; and, therefore, since its coustituent parts, which are the five universalideas or predicables, have been just now described, a definition, which in reality consists of those, is of course, already explained.

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The maurraf or the thing defined is that respecting which every circumstance is collected that can tend to give a proper idea of it; take, for example, heiceaun nautik, a speaking animul, as the definition of " in- . sam," that is Mian; and, in defining, the definition must correspond with the thing defined, that is to say, the description with regard to the thing described must stand in the relation of mussawaul multahukuk, real correspondence. It is likewise required that the definition should be more perspicuous, that is, more clear and obvious, and for this reason de-. fining by a term that is more general than the thing defined is not proper; such, for example, as the de-scription of Mas by the term animal. Neither is it admissible to define by a term that is less general ; such as the description of animal by the word Man; because the relation between animal ond man, is that of Amom Chusoose Mutluk, and not that of Mussazeaut or perfect agreement, which is required; nor is it allowable to define by means of a thing equally known, or less known than the thing defined, because it is required that the description should correspond, and be at the same time more clear.

The nature of definition and its requisites being now understood, let it be remembered that definitions may all be referred to four different kinds, viz.

1. Huddi Taun or perfect defnition.
2. Huddi Naukis or imperfect definition.
3. Resimi Thun or perfect indication or designation.
4. Resimi Naukis or imperfect indication or designation.
5. If the definition consist of the nearest genus and the nearest difference, then it is a perfect definition, such as Heireaun Nuutik, the definition of man. 2. If it consist of the remote gemus and the nearest
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difference, or the nearest difference alone, then it is an imperfect definition, such as Jism Naumi Nautik for man, or Nautik alone. 3. If the description consist of the nearest genus, and the property or peculiarity, such as Heiroaun Sauhuk, a creature that laughs, for man, it is a perfect mark or designation. 4. And if it consist of the remote genus and peculiarity, or of the peculiarity alone, then it is an imperfect mark or description, such as Jism Naumi Sauhuk, a piece of laughing substance; or Sauhukie, laughing, only, as a designation of man.

And further, designation by common accident is not conceived to be good ; because the object of definition is the discrimination of the thing defined from. others; and this is not obtained from common accident. Sometimes in the Huddi Nankis and Risimi Naukis, Indication by a more common word or verbal description is admitted. That is the real meaning of a word not being well understood, another word is employed to explain and elucidate; for instance they say Ulrruzfur hooul assad to explain Ruzfur, which also means a lion. And in like manner in verbal description the designation is effected by an expression more common, as for example, when a person who does not know it asks "what is pain" they will say it is a thing common to all; and thus, in the Huddi Noukis and Resimi Nautis, if a more common word be used, it is allowed.

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## Part II. Of Demonstration.

## Sect. I. Of Propositions.

Let it be remembered, that the object of considering truths, is to obtain a knowledge of truth known in such a manner as to lead us to the knowledge of truth wnknown; and this they call syllogism and reasoning : and since a syllogism is composed of propositions, a previous knowledge of these is required of course.

A proposition is a sentence containing either a truth or an untruth; that is to say, in the language of logicians, it is a compound or affirmation coutaining what is true or false; such as Zeid is standijeg, in contradistinction to an expression, such as dirck, which does not convey any assertion. In short, the thing predicated is called a proposition, and if that proposition affirm something of another thing, as in the preceding example, or deny any thing of another thing, as in the example Zard Kazin Naist, Zeid is, not standing," then these are absolute propositions, and the first is called an absolute affirmative, and the second an absolute negative, and the subject of which the affirmation is made, corresponding to mubtidut in grammar is called Mowooey; as Zeid in the sentence Zeid Kauim: and the thing spoken or proposed respecting the Mowooey is called Muhmool: such is Kauim tie is standing, in the sen-

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tence Zeid Kauim, corresponding in the language of syntax to the term Chabber.

That which expresses the connection between the subject and predicate is called Raubit or copula. In grammar they make use of the word Hoo for this annection; and something similar being required for connecting the words "Zeid Kauim" they have, for this purpole, substituled the pronoun Hoo, which is understood without being expressed.

But if the thing predicated be not affirmative or negative of something ascribed to something, as in the preceding: examples, then such a proposition is denominated conditional, as for example, "If the sun shine, then it must be day." The first member of this sentence, "If the sun shine," logicians call Mokuddem, that is, the antecedent; which corresponds to the term " shirt" the condition in syntax, and the second part of the proposition "Then it must be clay," is denominated tauli, that is, the consequent ; which corresponds to the term Chabber in syntax.

This being premised, know that an absolute or categorical proposition admits of various distinctions arising from the nature of the Mowoseh or subject, \&c. \&c.

Sect. II.' Of Sivlogisais.
A syluggism is a sentence composed of propo-

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sitions, and in such a manner, that there necessarily arises from this composition another sentence. Know then that having finished our investigation of propositions on the previous knowledge of which all reasoning or demoustration depends, I shall now consider demonstration:-Demonstration or reasoning is the process of inferring something from the state of one thing to prove the state of another; and this is of thiee kinto, vie. Syllogism, Induction, and Analogy. Syilcgism is that in which an inference is drawn from a general rule or class to a subordinate part or individual belonging to that class; which must of course partake of its general nature or character. This species of argument affords certainty or truth. Take, for example, "The world is changeable, and every thing liable to change was created;" thus they obtain the conclusion that the world did not exist from eternity, that is, was created. Be it then understood, that two sentences combined, from, the nature of which there necessarily arises a third, constizute what is called Keeause or syllogism : and the third sentence thus obtained is called Neteejelt, that is, the conclusion.

The subject and predicate contained in the conclusion of the syllogism described is called the Maddeh, that is, the matter of the conclusion; and the order in which they are placed constitutes what is called Heiyet, that is, the form or figure. If the matter and figure of the conclusion appear in the premises of the syllogisin, then that syllogism is called conditional, because the conditional particle Leikin must be included in it. Take, for example; "whenever the sun shines day must exist;" but the sun shines, which gives the conclusion-"Then day exists," which is materially and formally contained in the preceding syllogism. But if the conclúsion be not materially and formally cxpressed in the premises

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of the syllogism, then it is denominated Ikteranni, that is, simple or categorical : whether it be absolute or conditional.

The subject considered in the conclusion of a simple syllogism is called Asrur, that is, the minor; and the thing predicated of the subject is called Akbar, that is, the major; and the proposition which contains the minor is called Sururi, minor proposition; and the proposition which contains the major, is called $A$ kburi, or major proposition; and the term with which the subject and predicate of the conclusion are both compared is called the middle term or Huddi Osit, or Osit, \&cc. \&cc. \&c.
N. B. From the vatious modes in which the middle term may be placed, there arises a division of syllogism into four different forms or figures, or Ashkoull; which are again subdivided and branched out into a great many subordinates.

## Sect. III. Of Inductron.

Be it known that Induction is the process of collecting particulars for the purpose of establishing a general rule respecting the nature of the whole class.

Argument, or reasoning, is supposed, as we formerly observed, to be of three kinds, Sy,logism, Induction, and Analogy; and syllogism has been just now discussed. Induction is of two kinds, viz. perfect and imperfect.

It is perfect induction when the reneral rule is obtained from an examination of all the parts. For example, all animals are either endowed with speech, or not endowed with speech. But those endowed and those not endowed are both sentient, there fore all animals are sentient. This is an example
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of perfect Induction, which produces certainty.
It is imperfect induction when a number of individuals of a class being overluoked or excluded, a general rule is thus established respecting the whole. For instance, if it should be assumed that all animals move the under jaw in eating, because this is the case with man, horse, goats, and sheep, this would be an example of imperfect induction, which does not afford certainty : because it is possible that some arimals may not move the under jaw in eating, as it is reported of the Tumsukh or Nehung, the crocodile.

Having considered the first two mudes of reasoning, there still remains to be explained Analogy.

## Sect. IV. Of Analogy.

Analogy is the unfolding of an affinity or resemblance between two subordinate parts of the same class, differing in their nature and properties, so as to establish a general law and axiom respecting both; take, for example, the general rule, that "grapes are prohibited because wine is," which conclusion is obtained thus. The cause of the prohibition of wine is intoxication; but intoxication exists also in the grape ; therefore it is proved that the grape likewise is prohibited. The instruments of this process are analysis and selection, \&sc.: \&c.

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## Sect. V. Syllogism divided according to their Matter.

Let it be observed, that as syllogisms have been divided according to their figure or form into absolute and conditional, so are they likewise distinguished according to their matter or constituent parts, into five different classes, viz. the demonstrative, the casuistical, the rhetorical, the poetical, the sophistical.
I. The demonstrative are composed of truths, that is to say, perceptions, the different species of which are six.

1. Intuitive or self-evident truths; to obtain which the bare inspection of the subject and predicate, and the relation in which they stand to each other is sufficient : for example, " a whole is larger than a part."
2. Evidences, obtained by means of sensation which are called Hissiaut if they be external, such as " the sun shines, the fire burns; and Judinaut, if they be internal ; as, for example ${ }_{2}$ " hunger and thirst."
3. Experiences, which are the conclusions formed by the understanding from repeated trials; as, for example, " that Scammony is a Cathartic."
4. Traditions, which are the conclusions which the understanding forms from the reports of a number of people; and which cannot be supposed to be false, such as the mission of the prophet Mahommed, and Jesus Christ.

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5. Conjectures, which are opinions founded on notions respecting quality and motion; and formed by inferring an effect from a supposed principle or cause: such, for example, as "That the light of the moon is derived from the light of the sun."
6. The general properties of matter, that is, such as are obvious without the intervention of any latent intermediate idea, for example, "four is an even number."
$N . B$. In the original here follows the distinction of demonstration or proof into reasoning à priori denominated Berhaun Lemmi, and reasoning à posteriori denominated Berhaun Anni.
II. The casuistical or disputative, which are,

1. Current and prevailing opinions agreeable to the ideas of the multitude, such as "learning is good, and ignorance bad."
2. Malicious insinuations artfully expressed to conceal the motive.
III. The rhetorical, which are composed,
3. Of propositions taken for granted upon some respectable authority, such as that of the prophets and fathers.
4. Of presumptions or suspicions grounded on the frequency of some improper practice ; such as that of a person being a thicf from his going abroad in the night.
IV. The poetical, which are founcled on fiction. Honey, for example, they make a liquid ruby.

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V. The sophistical, are composed,

1. Of vague language without specifying any precise object, such as the vague expression " The person to whom we allude."
2. Quibbles, which, though absolutely false, exhibit some appearance of truth; as if I should say, that "the figure of the horse which is painted on the wall is a horse;" that "every horse neighs;" and, consequently, that "the figure on the wall must also neigh."

## V.

An Account of the Measurement of an Arc on the Meridian on the Coast of Coromandel, amd the Length of a Degree deduced therefrom int the Latitude $12^{\circ} 32^{\prime}$.

## By Brigade Major William Lambton.

IN a former Paper which I had the honour to communicate to the Asiatick Society, I gave a short sketch of an intended plan for establishing a series of connecting points commencing from the Coramandel Coast, and extending across the Peninsula; but that Paper was only meant to convey a gencral idea of the principles on which the work was to be conducted; a more circumstantial and scientific account, it was thought, would be more to the purpose, when I had the means of putting the plan in execution, and detailing the particulars. Since that time I have received a most complete apparatus, which has enabled me to proceed on the scale I originally proposed, and what is here offered is the beginning of that work, being the measurement of an arc on the meridian, from which is deduced the length of a degree for the latitude $12^{\circ} 32^{\prime}$ which is nearly the middle of the arc.

The triangles here mentioned are those only, fro a which the arc is obtained, and the base line, the foundation to the whole, is a measured line near the Sea Coast, an account of which is here subjoined.

## SECTION I. An account of the Base Line.

Some time had been taken up in examining the country best suited for this measurement, and at length a tract was found near St. Thomas's Mount, extremely well adapted for the purpose, being an entire flat, without any impediment for near eight miles, commencing at the race ground, and extending southerly. This being determined on, and the necessary preparations made, it was begun on the 10 th of April, and completed on the 22 nd of May, 1802.

I had expected a small transit instrument from England, for the purpose of fixing objects in the alignement, and for taking elevations and depressions at the same time; but that instrument not having arrived, I thought it unnecessary to wait, particularly as the ground was so free from ascents and descents ; I therefore used the same apparatus as I had formerly done, viz. the transit circular instrument and the levelling telescope fixed on a tripod with an elevating screw in the center. In all horizontal directions, this telescope fully answers the purpose, and as there has been no deviation from the level to exceed $26^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$ excepting in one single chain, and those cases but very few, I feel entirely satisfied as to the accuracy of the whole measurement.

The chain which was made use of is the one I formerly had, and I was fortunate enough to receive another from England, made also by the late Mr. Ramsden, and this having been measured off by the standard in London, when the temperature was $50^{\circ}$ by Fahrenheit's thermometer, it afforded me an advantage of correcting for the effects of expansion, a circumstance in which I was by no means satisfied in the former measurement. In order, therefore, to have a standard at all times to refer to, I have reserved the new chain for that purpose, and used the
old one only as a measuring chain, by which means I can always determine the correction for the wear.

By referring to the annexed table; it will appear that there are only four angles of depression, and two of elevation, taken in the whole length of the base ; the rest are all horizontal measurements, and many of them consist of a great number of feet before it became necessary either to sink or elevate the coffers; when that was done, great care was taken to mark the termination of the preceding measurement ; and for that purpose a small tripod was used in the shape of a $T$, with three iron feet to run into the ground, the straight side of which $T$ was placed in the line. Another small T was made with its top also parallel to the line, and fixed upon the large one so as to slide to the right or left, and upon that again was a long piece of brass made to slide out at right-angles to the top of the $T$; in the middle of this brass a mark was made, which was brought to a plumb line let fall from the arrow, and the height from the brass to the arrow was noted down; when the succeeding chain was laid, which was io commence the new level or hypothenuse, the arrow was then brought, so that a plumb line freely suspended, would coincide with the mark on the brass slider. The height of that chain above the brass was likewise taken, by comparing those two heights the elevation or depression of the new commencement was determined, and those differences noted in the seventh and eigth columns of the table. The diflerences of the two aggregates contained in those columns, when applied to the ascents and descents, will there fore shew how much one extremity of the base is above the other. The height of the chain at the commencement and termination of the whole was of course taken from the ground.

All the other particulars respecting this measurement are nearly the same as that in the Mysore coun.
try, a full account of which has been published in a former volume of the Asiatic Researches. Some little alterations have been made in the coffers; that is, they were all of the same length, and the whole together about ninety-six feet, so as to give room for the pickets with the brass register heads. Their sides continued to the ends, and their depth on each side was the same, for the purpose of being turned every day that they might fall into a curve by their own weight and that of the chain. I also used tripods with elevating screws in the center, for supporting the coffers, making no other use of pickets than for the drawing and weight posts, and for carrying the register heads. The top of each stand on tripod was a thick circular piece of wood fixed firmly to the end of the elevating screw, and a slip of board was fastened across the circular top, screwed into the center, and allowed to turn round. When the ends of two coffers were placed on the top piece, this slip of board was admitted into the under part of each, and prevented their sliding off, a precaution that was very necessary on account of the high winds.

The point of commencement of the base was had by dropping a plummet, from the arrow of the chain suspended by a silken thread. A long but small bamboo picket had been driven into the ground till its top was level with the surface, and the cavity of the bamboo was such as just to receive the plummet, and when the first chain was in the coffers, drawn out by the weight at the opposite end, it was adjusted by the finger screw at the drawing post in such a manner that the plummet might hang suspended over the cavity of the bamboo, while the thread was applied to the arrow. This was done within the observa'ory tent, that the plumb line might hang freely without being disturbed by the wind. The bamboo. picket was preserved with great care during the time I was observing for the latitude, and was then pro-
tected under the frame of the zenith sector. When the tent was removed, a large bamboo flag-staff was erected, whose cavity covered the picket, and in that state it remained until the measurement was completed.

At the termination of the base, being the end of a chain, one of the large hooped pickets was driven into the ground till its top was on a level with the coffers and under the arrow of the chain. The opposite end being adjusted by the finger screw, the arrow at the leading end was nearly the center of the picket. A mark was made, and a smail round headed nail was driven in till it was level with the surface. The chain was again applied, and the arrow cut the center of the nail. The picket had been driven upwards of two and a half feet into very hard clay.

But that those extremities may be preserved, in case they may hereafter be referred to, I erected small masses of hewn stone eight feet square at the bottom and four at the top, the axis of those masses being made to pass through the points of commencement and termination, and in order that this might be correctly done, the following method was used.

I marked ont the foundation of the building, so that the picket might be as nearly in the center of it as possible. The earth was dug about a foot deep, reserving a space round the center untouched. After the foundation was brought to a level with the surface, the first tier of stones was laid, being one foot in height. The inner part was then filled up with stones and mortar, taking particular care at the same time that the center was not touched. The next tier of stones was then laid, which was six feet square and one foot high. This also was filled in with great care, and some cement and bricks put gradually round the picket. After that the last tier was laid which was four feet square and also one foot high.

When these stones were firmly fixed small silken threads were drawn across each other in the diagonals of the square. A plummet (pointed) was then susperded from the point of intersection of those threads, and they were so moved that the point of the plummet coincided with the center of the nail in the picket. The position of these threads being determined, marks were inserted in the stone. The cavity was then filled up, and a square thick stone was fixed in the middle of the mass, having a circular place of about four inches diameter, sunk half an inch deep, and whose center was marked by a point. This point, by moving the stone and again applying the silken threads was brought to coincide with the point of intersection, and then it was firmly fixed and pointed.

Precisely the same kind of building was erected at the beginning of the base, but in place of having a picket in the center, four large hooped ones were driven into the ground, forming a square of about ten feet, the small bamboo picket being intended as the center. Silken threads were then drawn across from the diagonal pickets, and so moved, that the plummet first used, suspended from the point of intersection of the threads, might drop into the cavity of the bamboo. That being adjusted, lines were drawn on the tops of the pickets where the threads had been extended. The building was then erected, and the center both of the second and last tier, was marked by the intersection of those threads when applied to the marks on the pickets.

Such bas been the mode of defining the extremities of the line. The buildings are well built of stone and some brick, and will remain for years, if not injured by acts of violence. They are intended to receive an instrument on the top, and the points are points of reference if it should ever be thought necessary to have recourse to them.

MERIDIAN ON THE COAST OF COROMANDEL. 143.

## EXPANSION of the CHAINS and their COMPARATIVE

## LENGTHS.

As I wished to be satisfied with respect to the expansion of each of the chains, and their comparative lengths, I made a course of experiments for both purposes. I had accordingly the coffers arranged near the ground, that the drawing and weight posts might be driven deep and firmly fixed. Both the chains were then put into the coffers, and the comparisons made as follows:

April 10, at six P. M. the temperature by a mean of five thermometers was $85^{\circ}, 6$.

Three comparisons were made, and the old chain exceeded the new one, nine divisions of the micrometer screw.

April 10, at six A. M. the temperature by a mean of five thermometers was $79^{\circ}$.

Four comparisons were made, and the old chain exceeded the new one nine divisions. Therefore at the commencement, the old chain exceeded the new one in length, nine divisions of the micrometer.

May 23. After the base was completed, the temperature by a mean of five thermometers, was $86^{\circ}$.
By a mean of five comparisons, the old chain exceeded the new one 10,65 divisions.
24. The temperature by a mean of five thermometers was $84^{\circ}$.
And a mean of six comparisons, gave the excess of the old chain above the new one - - 11,08 do.
25. The temperature was $87^{\circ}$.

And a mean of two com-

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\underset{\text { Mean }}{\text { parisons, gave }-\frac{11,00 \text { do. }}{10,86 \text { do. }} . \frac{1}{2}}
$$

Hence it appears, that at the conclusion of the base, the old chain was longer than the new one, 11 divisions of the micrometer very nearly, so that it had increased from being in use 2 divisions, or $\frac{2}{208}$ inches.

These experiments were made with great attention, and when either chain was stretched out by the weight, it was carefully brought into a line in the coffers.

As I had reserved the new chain for a standard, and knowing the temperature at which it had been measured off in Lonilon, I considered it an object to determine its rate of expansion and contraction compared with the thermometers which had been in use in measuring the base, since these were but common ones, and might probably differ from those made use of by General Roy and others, who had determined the expansion of metals by the pyrometer; and I was further induced to do this, from seeing the great variation among them, when the degree of heat becarie above one hundred, which it generally was in the coffers every day before I left off. To avoid those irregularities arising from the expansions being checked by the resistarce from the pressure on the coffers, I chose the times of suarise, and from one to two o'clock, P.M. for making the obserrations. Sunrise in India is generally the coolest time of the twenty-four hours, and the chain had during the night, on account of the uniform state of temperature, full time to frec itself from any resistance. At the hottest part of the day likewise there. is a considerable time when the thermometers are nearly stationary, which will afford time for the resistance in the coffers to be overcome, and it is necessary to pay particular attention to this circumstance, for the chain will be perceived to lengthen often for nearly half an hour after the thermometers are at their highest.

I had made a great many experiments prior to the measurement, but found great irregularity, partly from not attending sufficiently to the above circumstance, and partly from the unsteadiness of the drawing post, notwithstanding it was driven deep into very hard ground, and secured, as I thought, by having large stones pressed close on each side of it. To remedy this latter inconvenience, I had a staple driven into a brick wall, into which the iron was fixed with the adjusting screw for the chain, after which I perceived a perfect coincidence with the arrow and mark on the brass head, except what arose from the trifling expansion and contraction of the iron which held the chain. I then began a new course of experiments on both the chains, and the results were as fol-lows:-

Experiments for determining the expansion of the nere Chain.

| $\frac{1802 .}{\text { Month. }}$ | TIME. |  |  | 言 | Total ex pansion and contraction | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Total } \\ & \text { due to } \\ & 1_{10} \end{aligned}$ | REMARKS. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| June 4. | 2 P.M. | 116,4 |  |  | Inches. <br> 24, | Inches. | Weather clear and windy during the whole of these experiments. |
|  | $\bigcirc$ | 116,4 | 33,4 40,8 | 51 | $\mid, 245157$ | $\begin{array}{r}\text {, } 00734 \\ , 00754 \\ \hline\end{array}$ |  |
|  | 2 P.M. | 123,8 |  | 64 | , 307648 | ,00754 |  |
|  | $\bigcirc$ | 82,5 80 | 41,3 | 64 | ,307048 | ,0074+ |  |
|  | $\bigcirc$ rise. 2 P. M. | 80 119,1 | 39,1 | 60 | ,288420 | ,00737 |  |
|  | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & 2 \\ & \hline \\ & \hline \end{aligned}\right.$ | 119,1 81,4 1 | 37,7 | 57 | ,27399: | ,00727 |  |
|  | $2 \mathrm{P} . \mathrm{M}$. | 121,9 | 40,5 | 63 | ,302841 | ,00747 |  |
|  | $\bigcirc$ rise. |  | 42,2 | 66 | ,317262 | ,00752 |  |

Vol. VIII.
I

Experiments for determining the cxpansion of the old Chain.


It appears from these results, that the expansion due to $1^{0}$ of the thermometer is less than what has been allowed by experiments made in England, but this might arise from the thermometers, as they were such as could be purchased in the shops, and therefore most probably of the best kind. Great care, however, was taken to watch the moment when they stood the highest, and though they varied from one another considerably at that time, yet that variation was gencrally the same in equal temperatures.

The reductions from the hypothenuses to bring them to the horizontal level, were made by numbering the feet from the old chain as they were measured, viz. by calling 32 chains 3200 feet, which would be 3200,115 feet by the new chain; but this would produce no sensible error in the versed sign of a very small angle, and on that account these decimals were not taken into the com-
putation, which was thought less necessary, since the whole deduction did not amount to three inches. Neither was any notice taken of the different heights of the hypothenuses or levels one above another, as that difference was too trifling to affect a length of thirty or forty chains. The base has therefore been considered at the same distance from the center of the earth, before it was reduced to the level of the sea, and the perpendicular height of the south extremity, which I have considered as nearly the general height, has been taken for that purpose. That perpendicular height was obtained by comparing the south with the north extremity, and the height of the latter was determined by observations made at the race-stand and on the sea-beach, where allowance has been made for the terrestrial refraction. The following is the manner in which it has been determined:

On the top of the race-stand, the under part of the flag on the beach was observed to be depressed $9^{\prime} 30^{\prime \prime}$; and at the beach, the top of the race-stand was elevated $7^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime}$. When the instrument was on the platform of the race-stand, the axis of the telescope was on a level with the top of the railing, which was observed from the beach. But at the beach the axis of the telescope was four feet below the part of the flag which harl been observed.

The horizontal distance from the station on the stand to that on the beach is $=19208$ feet. Then as $19908: 4::$ Rad : tan. $43^{\prime \prime}$, which must therefore be added to the observed depression of the flagHence $9^{\prime} 30+43^{\prime \prime}=10^{\prime} 13^{\prime \prime}$ is the depression of the axis of the telescope on the beach, observed from the race-stand.

Now the station on the beach is nearly at right angles to the meridian, therefore, by allowing L 2

60957 fathoms to the degree, 19208 feet will give an arc of 9 ' $9^{\prime \prime}$ very nearly, which is the contained arc. And the difference between the depression and elevation being $2^{\prime} 58^{\prime \prime}$, we have $\frac{8^{\prime} 00^{\prime \prime \prime}-0^{\prime} 58^{\prime \prime}}{g}=5^{\prime \prime}, 5$ for the terrestrial refraction. Hence, since the obscrved elevation of the stand, plus half, the contained arc would give the angle subtended by the perpendicular height of the stand above the telescope at the beach, were there no refraction, we shall have $7^{\prime} 15^{\prime \prime}+\frac{3^{\prime} n^{\prime \prime}}{2}-5^{\prime \prime}, 5=8^{\prime} 44^{\prime \prime}$ for the true angle subtended by the perpendicular height, which being taken as tangent, to the horizontal distance and radius, we have $12: \tan . \mathbb{S}^{\prime} 44^{\prime \prime}:: 19208:$ 48,797 feet the height required. But the axis of the telescope on the beach was determined by levelling down to the water, to be 21,166 feet above the sea. Which, added to the above, give 69,963 feet for the perpendicular height of the top of the stand above the level of the sea.

Now the top of the race-stand was determined by levelling to be 31,25 feet above the north extremity of the base; which taken from the other, leaves 38,713 for the north extremity of the base above the sea, which extremity being, by the table, 22,96 feet above the south extremity, we shall have 15,753 feet from the perpendicular height of the south extremity of the line above the level of the sea; and from this height the length of the base has been reduced.

The angles of elevation and depression were taken by the circular instrument, from a mean of several observations, and the error of collimation was corrected by turning the transit over, and the horizontal plate half-round. But the weather was rather dull during the whole of these operations.

## TABLE.

Containing the particulars of the measurement of a base line near St. Thomas's Mourt, commencing in latitude $19^{\prime \prime}, 00^{\prime}, 29^{\prime \prime}, 59 \mathrm{~N}$. and extending 40006,4418 feet South Westerly, making an angle with the meridian $0^{\circ} 10^{\prime} 36^{\prime \prime}$. The first column contains the number of the hypothenuse, or measured distances. The second the length of each in feet. The third the angles of elevation and depression (which each hypothenuse makes with the horizon). The fourth the quantities to be subtracted from the respective hypothenuse to reduce it to the horizon. The fifth the perpendicular ascents and descents to each hypothenuse, The sixth the commencement in inches of every lypothenuse above or below the termination of the one preceding; and the serenth contains the mean temperature during the respective measurement.


| $\begin{aligned} & \text { = } \\ & \text { © } \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Angles of } \\ & \text { elevations } \\ & \text { and de- } \\ & \text { pressions. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Deducti- } \\ & \text { mos from } \\ & \text { each hy- } \\ & \text { pothen. } \end{aligned}$ | Perpendicular. |  | Commencement from the last. |  |  | REMARKS. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 安 |  |  |  | Ascents. | Descents. | above Inches. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { below } \\ & \text { Inches. } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| 16 |  | ${ }^{0}$ Level. |  |  |  |  | 40, 87 | 105,8 |  |
| 17 | 100 |  |  |  |  |  | 11,75 | 82,2 |  |
| 18 | 200 | do. |  |  |  |  | 14,12 | 83,4 |  |
| 19 | 200 | do. |  |  |  |  | 6,12 | 89,2 |  |
| 20 | 300 | do. |  |  |  |  | 5,25 | 92,9 |  |
| 21 | 700 | do. |  |  |  | 12,25 |  | 87,5 |  |
| 22 | 300 | do. |  |  |  |  | 7,87 | 93,7 |  |
| 23 | 500 | do. |  |  |  |  | 17,5 | 92,8 |  |
| 24 | 900 | do. |  |  |  |  | 10,12 | 91,2 |  |
| 25 | 400 | do. |  |  |  |  | 4,75 | 85,8 |  |
| 26 | 500 | do. |  |  |  |  | 10,62 | 85,8 |  |
| 27 | 300 | do. |  |  |  |  | 11 | 93,5 |  |
| 28 | 400 | do. |  |  |  |  | 12 | 86,8 |  |
| 29 | 1200 | do. |  |  |  |  | 11,37 | 88,9 |  |
| 30 | 600 | do. |  |  |  | 3,5 |  | 86,7 |  |
| 31 | 1700 | do. |  |  |  | 9,37 |  | 90,6 | The 2 chain |
| 32 | 700 | do. |  |  |  | 4 |  | 85,4 |  |
| 33 | 200 | do. |  |  |  | 10,75 |  | 91,3 | Chingle- |
| 34 | 800 | do. |  |  |  | 7,5 |  | 91,5 | pet road. |
| 35 | 400 | do. |  |  |  |  | 12,75 | 94, 8 |  |
| 36 | 2000 | do. |  |  |  |  | 15 | 90 |  |
| 37 | 2100 | do. |  |  |  |  | 6,9 | 91,5 |  |
| 38 | 3200 | 00450 | 00320 | 4,4991 |  | 8,8 |  | 90, 1 |  |
| 39 | 900 | Level. |  |  |  |  | 1,8 | 96,9 |  |
| 40 | 1200 | do. |  |  |  |  | 11,4 | 90,5 |  |
| 41 | s00 | do. |  |  |  |  | 6, | 93,7 |  |
| 42 | 1400 | do. |  |  |  |  | 6,7 | 93,4 |  |
| 43 | 1100 | do. |  |  |  |  | 2,8 | 90,9 |  |
| 44 | 500 | do. |  |  |  |  | 3 | 93,4 |  |
| 45 | 600 | do. |  |  |  | 2 |  | 88,7 |  |
| 46 | 1200 | do. |  |  |  | 10,2 |  | 93,8 |  |
| 47 | 3200 | do. |  |  |  | 7,2 |  | 93,1 |  |
| 48 | 1400 | do. |  |  |  | 7,2 |  | 90,4 |  |
| 49 | 2200 | do. |  |  |  | 5,6 |  | 91,8 |  |
| 50 | 800 | do. |  |  |  | 7,3 |  | 97,3 | 22d Mlay, |
|  | 40000 |  | ,25595 | 9,8053 | 25,190\% | 181,16 | 272,00 | 90,8 |  |

Nouth above the south extremity 20,96 feet in perpendicular eiglt.

At the commencement, the old chain (with which the measurement was made) exceeded the new one by nine divisions of the micrometer, equal to $\frac{0.0+3+53}{1.2}$ feet. Therefore $100+\frac{0.043663}{1-2} \times$ 400 will be the measures in lengths of the new chain, equal . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 40001, 4420

At the conclusion, the old chain exceeded the new one by eleven divisions, consequently it had increased by wear two divisions of the micrometer $=0,000 \mathrm{~S}$ feet. Hence $\frac{2008}{8}$ $\times 400=0,1600$ feet, is the correction for the wear, which add
$+0,1600$
Whence the apparent length of the base, will be 400,016020 lengt hs of the new chain,

40001,6090
The sum of all the corrections in co-
lumn fourth for obtaining the horizontal distances, is 0,2359 . feet, which must therefore be dedicted
$-0,2359$
And this will give the apparent horizontal length of the base, in terms of the new chain 400,013651 lengths, or .

40001,96661
The mean temperature for the whole
base is $90^{\circ}, 8$ and the new chain was measured off when the thermometer stond at $50^{\circ}$ hence to reduce the whole horizontal length to the standard temperature of $60^{\circ}$, the equation will be expressed by. $\frac{(100,8-500) \times 0.0077-(1820-5009) \times 001297}{12} \times$ 400,013661 feet, or 5,1162 feet which must be added, $+5,1169$
Hence the whole horizontal distance corrected for $62^{\circ}$ will be, . . . . . 40006,4823
Which reduced to the level of the sea will be,

Note, the quantity,+ 0074 inches is the expansion of the chain due to $1^{\circ}$ of the thermometer as determined by my own experiments detailed in the annexed memoir. By General Roy's experiments with the pyrometer, it was,+ 00763 inches.

The quantity,+ 01237 inches is the expansion of 100 feet of brass due to $1^{\circ}$ of the thermometer.

By the experiments I made in the Mysore the expansion of the old chain was,+ 00725 inches due to $1^{\circ}$. By these experiments it is,+ 00737 inches, but I give the preference to the latter on account of the chains being fixed to the wall.

The radius of curvature for reducing the base to the level of the sea, is assumed at 3448748 fathoms being the radius to the meridional circle on which one degree is computed to be 60191 in the latitude of $13^{\circ}$ :

Section II.-Obsercations for determining the Angle which the Base Line makes with the Meridian.

At the North end of the base latitude . . . . . . . . . . . $13^{\circ} 0029^{\prime \prime}$, 59 N .
September 24th, on the evening
the polar star when at its greatest Eastern elongation was observed to make an angle North Easterly with the base line produced, . . . . . $1^{\circ} 35^{\prime} 08^{\prime \prime}, ~ 7$
The apparent polar distance of the star at that time was $1^{\circ}$ $44^{\prime} 40^{\prime \prime} 2$ with which and the above latitude, the computed azimuth was, . . . . . . . 14725,7

Therefore the line when produced Northerly will make an angle with the meridian North Easterly, . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 0 12 17, 0
September 26th, on the evening the angle North Easterly with the base line produced was, . . . 135 13, 1
The apparent polar distance on that day was, $1^{0} 44^{\prime} 39^{\prime \prime} 8$ which will give the azinuuth, . . 14725,2
Therefore the angle between the line and meridian will bc, . . . 0 12 12, I
September $30 t h$, on the evening the angle was observed, ........ 1 95 06, 7
The apparent polar distance for that day being $1^{\circ} 44^{\prime} 38^{\prime \prime} 1$ the azimuth will be, . . . . . . . . . 147 23, 5
Hence the angle by this observa-
tion is, . . . . . . . . . . . . . 0 19 16, 8
At the South end of the base-Latitude.

195352,8
Octaber 7th. In the morning, the polar star when at its greatest western elongation, was observed to make an angle N.Westerly with the base line produced. . . 15936,9
The apparent polar distance at
that time was $1^{\circ} 44^{\prime} 35,7$, and this with the above latitude will give the azimuth. . . . . . . . 147 18, 2
Therefore the angle which this line produced, makes with the meridian North Easterly. .... 0 12 18,7
And the mean of these four is . . 0 12 16,15
The last observation was made under the most favourable circumstances, it being just daj light;
the flag-staff at the north extremity of the line was observed inmediately after the star; and the morning being perfectly clear, no unsteadiness or uncertainty arose from the effects of the vapour, which had occasioned the difference between the angles on the 24 th and 26 th.

When the observation was made on the 30 th, a blue light was fixed at the south end of the base.

Section III.-Commencement of the operations from the base. The large theodelite.

After the completion of the base line, there remained nothing of importance to be doue until I receired the large instrument, which arrired in the beginning of September. I had however made an excursiou down the sea coast, as far as Pondicherry, for the purpose of selecting the properest stations for determining the length of a meridional arc. This and the mieasurement of a degree at right-angles to the meridian I considered as the first object of this work: I accordingly lost no time in proceeding to accomplish these desiderata.

The instrument above alluded to was made by Mr. Cafir, and is in most respects the same as that described by General Roy in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1790, with the improvements made afterwards in the microscopes, and in ar. adjustment to the vertical axis, by which the circle can be moved up or let down by means of two capstan screws at the top of the axis. These are mentioned in the Philosophical Transactions for 1795, in the account of the tigonometrical survey. Py sinking the circle on the axis, it is better adapted for travelling, and when the microscopes are once adjusted to minutes and seconds,
on the limb of the instrument, the circle can always be brought back to the proper distance from them. Great attention however is necessary in bringing the axis down, so that the wires in each microscope being fixed at opposite dots on the limb, they may coincide with the same dots when the circle is turned half round, or made to move entirely round, and in a contrary direction to what it had been moved before ; which latter method has been recommended by the maker. This circumstance respecting the axis should be most scrupulously attended to before the adjustment of the micrometers begin, so that when by arranging the lenses in such a manner that ten revolutions of the micrometer may answer to ten minutes on the limb, and therefore one division to one sccond, the circle can always be brought to its proper height, by trying the revolutions of the micrometer.

It has however been found from experience, that unless in cases of very long and troublesome marches, it is not necessary to sink the axis. The carriage being performed altogether by men, there is not that jolting which any other mode of conveyance is subject to, and as I found, that a considerable time was taken up in adjusting the axis before the revolutions of the micrometers could be brought to their intended limits. I therefore laid it aside, unless under the circumstances above mentioned.

The semicircle of the transit telescope is graduated to $10^{\prime}$ of a degree in place of 30 , which was the case with the semicircle described by General Roy, and the mecrometer to the horizontal microscope applied to this semicircle, making one revolution in two minutes, and five revolutions for ten minutes on the limb; and the scale of the micro-
meter being divided into sixty parts, each part is therefore two seconds of the circle.

A number of experiments have been made for determining the error of the semicircle, and to ascertain the place of the fixed wire in the horizontal microscope, so as to divide the error. It has appeared in the event, that the telescope being in its right position, (that is, when the limb and microscope were on the left hand,) and the fixed wire placed at Zero on the semicircle, when the circle or limb of the theodelite was turned $180^{\circ}$ in Azimuth, and the telescope turned orer, the fixed wire was then distant from Zero on the opposite part of the arc by a mean of a great many observations $\Omega^{\prime} 57^{\prime \prime}$, the half of which is therefore the crror. This half was carefully set off from Zero by the moveable micrometer wire, and the fixed one brought to coincide with it. On the right application of this error, there will be $1^{\prime} 28^{\prime \prime}, 5$ to add to the elevations and subtract from the depressions. The observations for determining this quartity were repeated at different times, and under the most favourable circumstances; the adjustments of the whole instrument being frequently examined, and the level applied to the telescope, reversed at most of the observations. For the line of collimation, as these corrections depend on having a wellrefined olject, I fixed a bamboo upwards of a mile distant from the observatory tent, and tied round it several narrow stripes of black silk, one of which was near the horizontal wire when the axis of the telescope intersected the staff after being brought to a level by the bubble. Then the instrument being arljusted, and the telescope directed to the bamboo, being perfectly level, and the wire of the micrometer in the piece brought to the intersection of the cross wires, the angular distance to the
mark on the bamboo was measured by the runs of that micrometer, and the wire brought back to the point of intersection of the other wires. The circle was then turned half round and the telescope reserved or put again into the same Ys. The levelling adjustment was then made, and the angular distance from the intersection of the wires to the black mark again taken, half the difference betweer which and the former was of course the error of collimation. This error was repeatedly reduced till it becane very small, half by the finger screw of the clamp to the semicircle, and half by the adjusting screws to the levelling rods. After that, the remaining error was repeatedly examined and found to be $9^{\prime \prime}, 36$ to be subtracted from the elevations and added to the depressions when the telescope is in the ordinary position, or when the semicircle and microscope are on the left hand; but vice tersa when in the contrary position. These errors of the semicircle and line of collimation being opposite, the result from comparison will be, "That when elevations or depressions are taken with the semicircle, $1^{\prime} 26^{\prime \prime}$ must be added to the former, and subtracted from the latter."

And that when the elevations and depressions are taken by the micrometer in the eye piece $2^{\prime \prime}, 56$ must be dediacted from the elevations and added to the depressions.

The micrometer in the focus of the eye-glass of the transit telescope is the same in all respects as the one mentioned by General Ror, that is to say, the circle or scale is divided into one hundred divisions, and there is a nonius fixed to the upper part of the telescope, which defnes the revolutions of the micrometer as far as ten for the elevations and ten for the depressions. The following experiments
have been made with the same marked bamboo, for ascertaining the value of these divisions, and it has been found that seven revolutions and 61,4 divisions are equal to ten minutes on the limb of the semicircle, so that one division is equal to, 788 of a second.

## TABLE

Of experiments for determining the valuation of the resolutions and divisions on the micrometer in the eye-piece of the telescope.

| Month. | Micromesions. | No. of se-- conds. | Value of 1 Division. | Month. | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { Microme- } \\ & \text { ter Divi- } \\ & \text { sions. } \end{aligned}\right.$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { No. of } \\ & \text { se- } \\ & \text { conds. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Value of } \\ & \text { Divivi- } \\ & \text { sion. } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nov. 26. | d |  |  | Nov. 26. | $\begin{gathered} d \\ 1000 \end{gathered}$ |  |  |
|  | 994,5 | 783,5 | 0,788 |  |  | 780 | 0,780 |
|  | 994 | 787 | 0,782 |  |  | 800 | 0,800 |
|  | 994 | 773 | 0,777 |  |  | 787 | 0,787 |
|  | 1005 |  | 0,783 |  |  | 794 | 0,794 |
|  | 1002 | 794 | 0,794 |  |  | 788 | 0,788 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | 782 | 0,782 |
|  |  | Mean | 0,788 |  |  | 788 | 0,788 |

Hence one second will be equal to 1,269 divisions. One minute . . . . . . . 75,72 ditto. Ten minutes . . . . . 757,2 ditto.

## SECTION IV.

Angles taken with the large theodelite between 27th September 1802, and 13th of April, 1803.
at the north end of the base.
Between And

Observed Anglés.
 Perumbauk hill, . . 0947 58,9
Perumbauk hill, Mount station, . . . 8121 05,2

AT THE SOUTH END OF THE BASE.
Between And Observed Angles.
 Perumbauk hill, . . 11356 47,3
Mount station, ditto, . . . . . . 10237 14,8

## AT THE MOUNT STATION.


Perumbauk hill, . . 8806 38,a
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { South end of } \\ \text { the base, }\end{array}\right\}$ ditto, . . . . . $1035 \quad 12,9$
Perumbauk hill, Mungot station, . . 92 s0 03,6 Matlapode hill, . . . 6330 18,2

## AT PERUMBAUK HILL.


Mount station, . . . 10 SO 16, 8
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { South end of } \\ \text { the base, }\end{array}\right\}$ ditto, . . . . . 664749
42
Mrungot station, ditto, . . . . . S6 55 15,1
Coonoowaucum hill, 5943 12,9
Mullapode hill, . . . 42 52 13,9
Mullapode hill, Coonooштаисиm hill, 165059

AT IIUNGOT STATION.
Pertimbauk hill, Coonoweauccum hill, 8503 47,6 Mullapode hill, . . . 7908 56,4

Mullapode hill, Tandray station, . . 12440 2t, 2
Mannoor station, ditto, . . ... . 75 25 54,8
Mount station, Perumbauki hill, . . 509141,7
Mullapode hill, Mumnoor station, . 4914 29,4

## AT MULLAPODE HILL.

Between
And
Observed Angles.

Perumbauk hill, Coonoozcaucum hill, 13929 07,8
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Coonoowaucum } \\ \text { hill, }\end{array}\right\}$ Mumnoor station, . 8121 03,0

Tandray station, ditto, . . . . . 5253 20,0 Mungot station, . . 2817 36,7

AT MIUNNOOR STATION.


AT TANDRAY STATION.
Mungot station, Murnoor station, . 6018 30,7 Mullapode hill, . . . 2702 00,1
Munnoorstation, ditto, . . . . . - 3316 30,8
Mullapode hill, Urrumbaucum hill, 9400 01,7 Poonauk hill, . . . 8048 38,8

## AT URRUMBAUCUM MILL.

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Mullapode hill, } & \text { Tandray station, ... } 4302 \text { 50 } \\ & \text { Poonauk hill, .... } 11152 \text { 28,9 }\end{array}$

A' POONAUK HILL.
Mullapode hill, Urrumbaucum hill, 3925 15,6 Tandray station, . . 2713 47,4 Maumdoor hill, . . . 4919 0,46

MERIDIAN ON THE COAST OF COROMANDEL. 161

AT POONAUK HILL.
Betzueen And Observed Angles.

AT PAUDREE STATION.
Poonauk hill, Allacoor hill, . . . . 6444 52,1
AT MULLAPODE HILL.
Poonauk hill, Tandray station, .. 71 39 26,3
Urrumbaucım hill, . 2842 12,6
Maumdoor hill, . . . 580219
Tanảray station, Urrumbaucum hill, . 42 57 07,9
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Perumbaucum } \\ \text { hill, }\end{array}\right\}$ Mowbray's house, . 351700
Maumdoor hill, Carrangooly hill, . . 4548 00,5
AT MAUMDOOR HILL.
Mullapode hill, Poonauk hill, . . . . 723840
Carrangooly hill, . . 6950 21,5
Carrangooly hill, Woritty hill, . . . . 4446 21,6
AT CARRANGOOLY HILL.
Mullapode hill, Maumdoor hill, . . 6421 44,1
Maumdoor hill, Woritty hill, . . . . 80 57 28,3
Permacoil hill, ditto, . . . . . . 2533 28,6
Vellungcaud hill,. . . 3640 28,2
AT WORITTY HILL.
Carrangooly hill, Maumdoor hill, .... 5436 13,1
Permacoil hill, . . . 10925 09,4
Permacoil hill, 'Coonum hill, . . .. 1746 10,s Vol. VIII. M
AT PERMACOIL HILL.

Between And Observed Angles.
Woritty hill, Carrangooly hill, . . 4201 25,1
Coonum hill, . . . . 13451 00,6
Coomum hill, 1st flag on red hill, . 53 13 11,6
Vellungcaud hill, Carrangooly hill, . ... 2858 23,4
New station on red hill, 98.29 08,8
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Mooratan sta- } \\ \text { tion, }\end{array}\right\}$ ditto ditto, . . 1557 39,8.
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { Mylum station, ditto ditto, } & 29 & 29 & 41,3\end{array}$
AT VELLUNGCAUD HILL.
Permacoil hill, Carrangooly hill, .. 11421 15,4 New station on red hill, 37 15 17,4

AT THE NEW STATION ON RED HILL.
Permacoil hill, Vellungcaud hill, . . 4415 33,8 Mooratan station, . 9925 04,4,

AT MOORATAN STATION.

Trivandepoorum hill, -64 42 38,5
1 st Coomum hill, 1st flag on red hill, 81,4830
Chengcaud station, . 543315

AT THE FIRST FLAG ON RED HILL.
Coomum hill, Permacoil hill, ... $3854,56,4$ Station near Mooratan, 7626 03,1
at coonum hill.
Permacoil hill, Woritty hill, . . . . 27 22 53,3
1st flag on red hill, . 87 51 .51,8

MERIDIAN ON THE COAST OF COROMANDEL. 163
Between And Observed Angles.
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { 1st flag on red } \\ \text { hill, ... }\end{array}\right\}$ Station near Mooratan, 2145 26,9
Chengcaud sta-
tion; . . .
ditto, . . . . 760209,3
at mylum station.
Permacoil hill, Chengcaud station, . 12925 52,8 Mooratan station, . 7309 50,7 Woritty hill, . . . . 4621 11,4
at chengcaud station.
Permacoil hill, Mylum station, . . 21 04 26,9 Mooratan station, . 5149 03,6
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { Trivandepoo- } \\ \text { rum hill, }\end{array}\right\}$ ditto, .... 660835,2
Coonum hill, . ditto, . . . . 4924 35,75
at the station of observation at trivandepoorum hill.
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { Mooratan sta- } \\ \text { tion, ... }\end{array}\right\}$ Chengcaud station, 490853,9
Referring light $\}$ Polar star, west elon-
near Tripnumbäucum, $\int$ gation,

| Febritary 3, | 112943,25 |  |
| ---: | ---: | :--- |
| 4, |  | 44,9 |
| 5, |  | 44,39 |
| 7, |  | 40,5 |
| 9, |  | 42,2 |
| 10, |  | 39,6 |
| 11, |  | 43,67 | numbaucum, M 2

The angles in general have been taken three and four times, and every time that the object was observed, both microscopes were read off thrice, and two separate field books kept for making out the angles. What are here recorded, are the means taken from the two books. In case a difference in those angles, noticed at the time, left any reason to suspect an error in the instrument, the division between the dots was carefully examined, as well as those to the right and left, and if any error was discovered, allowance was made accordingly.

## SECTION V. Triangles.

North End of the Base from the South End of the - Base 40006,4.

| No. | Stations. | Observed Angles. |  | Error. | Angles for calculation. | Distances in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | North end of the base, <br> South end of the base, <br> Mount station, | $\left\|\begin{array}{ccc}0 & \prime & \prime \prime \\ 91 & 09 & 04,0 \\ 11 & 19 & 32,5 \\ 77 & 31 & 23,0 \\ \hline 179 & 59 & 59,5\end{array}\right\|$ <br> Mount station | 11   <br> ,- 03   <br> ,- 02   <br> ,- 03   <br> .0.   <br> , 05  from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Noor } \\ \text { Sou }\end{array}\right.$ |  | 0 $\prime \prime$ $\prime \prime$ <br> 91 09 04,2 <br> 11 19 32,6 <br> 77 31 23,2 <br> 1800000 <br> of the base, <br> of the base, | $\begin{array}{r} 5046,7 \\ 40965,8 \end{array}$ |
| 2. | North end of the base, South end of the base, Pcrumbaral hill, | $\left\|\begin{array}{ccc}0 & 1 & \prime \prime \\ 9 & 47 & 58,9 \\ 113 & 56 & 47,2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right\|-$ <br> crumbouk hill fr | $\begin{array}{l\|l\|} \hline-, 01 & \\ -, 08 & \\ - & \frac{1}{\prime \prime} \\ \text { from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Nort } \\ \text { Sout } \end{array}\right. \\ \hline, 07 \end{array}$ | $\frac{11}{\text { endo }}$ |  | 43.318 <br> $\$ 18903$ |

MERIDIAN ON THE COAST OF COROMANDEL. $165^{\circ}$
North end of the Base from Perumbauk Hill 4s971, S.

| No. | Stations. | Observed Augles. | Diff. |  | Error. | Angles for calculation. | Distances in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3. | North end of the base, P'crumbauk hill, Mount station, | - ' $"$ | " |  |  | - " |  |
|  |  | S1 2105,2 | -. 03 |  |  | 812100,1 |  |
|  |  | 103216,8 | -,0? |  |  | $10 \begin{array}{lll}10 & 32 & 16,8\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | 8806 3S,2 | -,03 |  |  | SS 0638,1 |  |
|  |  | 1500000,2 | , 08 | ,08 | +,1 | 180 |  |
|  |  | Mount station | from | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Nor } \\ \text { Per }\end{array}\right.$ | rth end | of the base, | $\begin{array}{r} 5046,7 \\ 43495,4 \end{array}$ |

South End of the Base from Mount Station 40965,8.


It appears from examining the above triangles, that there is a difference in the distance from the north end of the base and Monnt station, by the first and second triangles, and also a difference in the distance from the south end of the base to $P_{C}$ rumbauk hill. It may be necessary to notice here, that there was great difficulty in taking all these angles, on account of the very thick vapour which constantly floated near the surface of the frat where the base line runs, almost immediately atter daylight, to very near the time of sun-setting. $\dot{A}]$ the angles, and particularly at the north and south end of the base line, have been repeatedly taken, and the only time when the flag-staft appeared distinctly, -was in the moming of the 7 th of October,
when I observed the polar star at the south end of the base line.

It was discovered, that at Perumbauk hill, there had been an error in reading off the south end of the base, most probably of $10^{\prime \prime}$ from the micrometers, as all the angles which had a reference to that point, exceeded what they ought to have been by ten or twelve seconds. In consequence of this disagreement, I chose to take the supplemental angle in the second and fourth triangles, after the other angles had been corrected. The distance of the north end of the base from Perumbauk, as determined in the second triangle, being taken as a hase in the third triangle, wherein the three angles have been observed to deternine the distance from Pcrumbauli to the Mount, and from the north end of the base to the Mount, it appears that the latter distance comes out within 0,4 of a foot to what had been brought by the first triangle; and that the distance from the south end of the base to $P e$ rumbauk hill, derived from the second and fourth triangles, differ only , 14 of a foot. The distance from the Mount to Perumbauk being that from which all the operations are to commence, I wished to be as particular as possible in determining it, and the results from the third and fourth triangles make it 43495,4 and 43495,5 , differing only onetenth of a foot.
Mount station from Perumbauk Hill 43496,4.


MERIDIAN ON THE COAST OF COROMANDEL. 167
Perumbauk Hill from Mungot station $56 \underset{\sim}{29} 9,1$.


Perumbauk Hill from Mullapode Hill 65205,2.


Mullapode Hill from Coonoowaucum Hill 47088,5.


Mullapode Hill from Mungot station 45109,5.

| No. | Stations. | Observed Angles. | Diff. |  | Error. | Angles for calculation. | Distances in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 9. | Mullapode hill, Mungot station, Munnoor station, | $\begin{array}{ccc}\circ & \prime & \prime \prime \\ 81 & 10 & 56,5 \\ 49 & 14 & 29,4 \\ 49 & 34 & 32,4\end{array}$ | " $\begin{gathered}\text { - } 21 \\ -, 13 \\ -, 14\end{gathered}$ |  |  | $\begin{array}{ccc}\circ & \prime & \prime \prime \\ 81 & 10 & 57,4 \\ 49 & 14 & 29,8 \\ 49 & 34 & 32,8\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | $\underline{179 \quad 59 ~ 58,6}$ | -, 48 | ,48 | -,2 | 180 |  |
|  | Munnoor station from $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Mullapode hill, - - } \\ \text { Mungot hill, }\end{array}\right.$ |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 44944,3 \\ & 58633,6 \end{aligned}$ |
| 10. | Mullapode hill, Mungot station, Tandray station, | ccc\| $\begin{array}{cc}0 & \prime \\ 28 & 17 \\ 36,7 \\ 124 & 40 \\ 24,2 \\ 27 & 02\end{array} 00,1$ | $\prime \prime$ ,+ 04 ,- 6 ,- 1 |  |  | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{ccc}\circ & \prime & \prime \prime \\ 28 & 17 & 36,4 \\ 124 & 40 & 23,6 \\ 27 & 02 & 00\end{array}\right.$ |  |
|  |  | $\begin{array}{lll}180 & 0 & 01\end{array}$ |  | ,42 | $\times, 3$ |  |  |
|  |  | ndray station | from | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}M \\ M\end{array}\right.$ | llapode | hill, - - | $\begin{aligned} & 81731,9 \\ & 47105,3 \end{aligned}$ |

Mullapode Hill from Munnoor station 44944,3.


## Mungot station from Munnoor station 5S633,7.

| No. | Stations. | Observed Ansles. | Diff. |  | Eiror. | Angles for calculation. | Distances in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 12. | Mungot station, Munnoor station, Tandray station, | , | " |  |  | - " |  |
|  |  | 7525 54,8 | -, 3 |  |  | $75 \quad 25$ 54,5 |  |
|  |  | 44 15 34,9 | -,2 |  |  | 441535 |  |
|  |  | 60 is 30,7 | -,2 |  |  | 60 is 30,5 |  |
|  |  | 1800000,4 |  | ,64 | -,2 | 180 |  |
|  |  | ray station | from | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Mu } \\ M u\end{array}\right.$ | ungot hill, <br> innoor | t, - - | $\begin{aligned} & 47105,9 \\ & 65325,4 \end{aligned}$ |

In the quadralateral formed by Mullapode hill, Mungot hill, Mumnoor station, and Tandray station, the side Mullapode and Tandray is common to the tenth and eleventh triangles, the first of which gives it 81731,9 feet, and the latter 81732,7 feet, the mean of which is 81739,3 feet, which becomes the base for extending the triangles westerly. These results appear to be sufficiently correct, since the bases on which the two triangles have been formed, were derived from the different sides of the triangle Permanbruk hill, Mengot hill, and Mullapode hill, viz. one from the side Mullapode hill and Mungot hill, the other from the side Miullapode hill and Perumbauk hill, on which was computed the side Mullapode hill and Coonozacaucum hill, and from that again the side Mullapode hill and Munnoor station, which, howerer, came out the same as when obtained from the distance Mullapode hill and Mungot hill.

It will also appear that in the triangle computed on the base Mungot hill and Mumnoor station, that each of the sides, Mumuor station and Tundray station, and Aungot and Tandray become common to the triangles, Mullapode hill, Mfumoor and Tan-
dray and Mullapode hill, Mungot and Tandray, each to each, and that in the first case, there is a difference of $\frac{3}{10}$ and in the second of $\frac{6}{10}$ of a foot. These circumstances will, I conceive, prove the operations to be sufficiently satisfactory.

Nullapode hill from Tandray station 81732,3.


Poonauk hill from Urrumbaucum hill 90339,4.


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Poonauk hill from Allicoor hill 5863s,4.

| No. | Stations. | Observed Angles. | Diff. |  | Error. | Angles for calculation. | Distanees in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 16. | Poonauk hill, Allicoor hill, Paudree station | $\begin{array}{ccc}\circ & \prime & \prime \prime \\ 23 & 52 & 57,5 \\ 91 & 22 & 13 \\ 64 & 44 & 52,1\end{array}$ | 11 ,- 09 ,- 2 ,- 08 |  |  | $\begin{array}{ccc}0 & \prime & \prime \prime \\ 23 & 52 & 57 \\ 91 & 22 & 13 \\ 64 & 44 & 51\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | $180 \quad 2,6$ |  | , 37 | +2,2 | 180 |  |
|  |  | dree station | from | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Po } \\ \text { All }\end{array}\right.$ | auk oor | 11, - - - | $\begin{aligned} & 64815,7 \\ & 26245,9 \end{aligned}$ |

Mullapode hill. from Urrumbaucum 119444,7.


## Mullaporle hill from Poonauk hill 174555.



Maumdoor hill from Mullapode 138685,5.


Carrangooly hill from Maumdoor hill 110282,4.


Wooritty hill from Carrangooly hill 95282,8.


## MERIDIAN ON THE COAST OF COROMANDEL.

Carrangooly hill from Permocoil hill 134236,4.


Permacoil hill from. Vellungcaud hill 88004,7.


Wooritty hill from Permacoil hill 68041,5.


Permacoil hill from Coonum hill 45150,5 .

| No. | Stations. | Observed Angles. | Diff. |  | Error. | Angles for calculation. | Distances in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 25. | Permacoil hill, Coonum hill, 1st Flag on red hill, | $\left.\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 1 & 11 \\ 53 & 13 & 11,8 \\ 87 & 51 & 51,8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right\rvert\,$ | -, 2 |  |  | .5313 11,5 <br> 8751 51,5 <br> 385457 |  |
|  |  |  |  | ,6 |  | 1800000 |  |
|  |  | on red hill |  | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Per } \\ \mathrm{Coo}\end{array}\right.$ | mum h | hill, - - - | $\begin{aligned} & 71825,3 \\ & 57567,7 \end{aligned}$ |

Permacoil hill from Wooritty hill 68041,5.


Permacoil hill from Mylum station 49184,8.


MERIDIAN ON THE COAST OF COROMANDEL. 175
Coonum hill from first Flag on red hill 57567,7.

| No. | Stations. | Observed Angles. | Ditf- |  | Error. | Angles for calculation. | Distances in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 28. | Coonum hill, 1st Flag on re hill, <br> Mooratanstation | $\begin{array}{ccc}0 & 1 & \prime \prime \\ 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}$ | " |  |  | $\begin{array}{ll}0 & \prime \prime \\ 2145 & 27\end{array}$ |  |
|  |  | $\begin{array}{lll} 76 & 26 & 03,1 \\ 81 & 48 & 30 \end{array}$ | -, 1 |  |  | 76 <br> 26603 <br> 81 |  |
|  |  |  |  | \|0,29 |  | $180 \quad 0 \quad 0$ |  |
|  |  | atan station | from | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Coor } \\ \text { Firs } \end{array}\right.$ | num hil st Flag | on red hill, | $\begin{aligned} & 56538,5 \\ & 21559,1 \end{aligned}$ |

Permacoil Hill from the nere st ation on red hill 76334, 1.


Permacoil hill from Mooratan station 83350,15.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 30. | Permacoil hill, Mooratanstation, Chengcaud station, | 425714,4 | -, 4 |  |  |  | 57 |  |  |
|  |  | $8513 \quad 36$ | --, 6 |  |  | 85 | 13 |  |  |
|  |  | 514904.4 | -, 4 |  |  |  | 49 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 1795954,8 |  | 1,4 | -6,6 | 150 | 00 |  |  |
|  | $\text { Chengccaud station from }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Permacoil hill, } \\ \text { Mooratan } \text { station, } \end{array}-\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{ll} 105668,2 \\ 7254,7 \end{array}\right.\right\}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Coonum hill from Mooratan station 56538,5.


Mooratan station from Chengcaud station 72253,8.


The angles have been taken with much care, and I believe with as much accuracy as the nature of such a process admits of; difficulty, however, very frequently abose from the haziness of the weather, which rendered the objects at the very distant points extremely dull, and occasioned some irregularity in the angles. Whenever that happened, the observations were often repeated, and in case any one, in particular, was different from the other so much as ten seconds, it was rejected till the three angles of the triangle had been observed. If the sum of these angles was near what it
ought to be, no further notice was taken of it; but should the sum of the three angles be nearer the truth by taking it into the account, and that there appeared an irregularity in the other two observed angles, I have made it a rule to take each observed angle as a correct one, and divide the excess or clefect between the other two, and then compute from the given side the other two sides; and after doing the same thing with each of the angles successively, a mean of the sides thus brought out was taken, which, to certain limits, will always be near the truth. I then varied the selection of the observed angles, rejecting such as I had reason to doubt; and by correcting them, and computing the two required sides of the triangle, those which gave the sides nearest to what had been brought out by the other method, were adopted, let the error be what it would. This, however, has rarely happened ; and when it did, great precaution was used; and no angle was rejected without some reason appeared to render it doubtful.

In correcting the observed angles to obtain those made by the chords, I have used the formula given by the Astronomer Royal, in his demonstration of M. De Lambre's problem, which appears in the Philosophical Transactions for 1797. The spherical excess is of course had from the well known method of dividing the area of the triangle in square seconds, by the number of seconds in the are equal to radius, where the number of feet in a second may be had by using the degree as has been commonly applied to the mean sphere, or the mean between the degree on the meridian and its perpendicular. This being of no further use than to check any error that might happen in computing the corrections for the angles.

In converting the sides of the triangles into arcs,
Vor. VIII.
the length of a degree has been computed for every ten degrees from the meridian to its perpendicular on an Ellipsoid, whose diameters were in the ratio of one to 1,0067 , which is derived from taking the degree on the meridian, in latitude $50^{\circ} 41^{\prime}$ to be 60851 , and the degree perpendicular thereto 61189, in the same latitude. These data would give the meridional degree, in latitude $13^{\circ}$, to be 60191, and the degree perpendicular equal 60957, which, however, is not the case; but no sensible error will arrive in making those corrections from taking the arcs a few seconds more or less than the truth.

## SECTION VI.

Reduction of the distances to the meridian of Trivandeporum, for determining the length of the terrestrial arc.
The sides of the great triangles, from which the arc is derived, falling very nearly in the same meridian, and not more than 16363,3 feet west from the meridian of Trivandeporum, the south extremity of the arc, there required no reference to any hypothesis of the earth's figure for getting the exact distance between the parallels, so that the latitude of a point where a great circle falling from the station of observation near Paudree, will cut the meridian of Trivandeporum at right angles, may be determined with sufficient accuracy by computing spherically, and the distances, when reduced to the meridian, (the distance from Tricandeporum to Coomum hill excepted,) may be considered as the chords of arcs on the meridian, and therefore the arcs themselves may be had, by allowing 60494 fathoms to the degree, as had been obtained from the sum of those reduced distances, the sum therefore of all these arcs will make the whole meridional arc, which is a nearer approximation to the truth.

## MERIDIAN ON THE COAST OF COROMANDEL. 179

Seeing that a line drawn from the station of observation at Paudree, to the station at Maumdoor hill, would fall nearly in the direction of the meridian, that distance has been computed, by taking the sides Poonaul hill to Maumdoor hill, and Poonaule hill to Padree, and using the internal angle at Poomauk hill, corrected for the chords. This, however, was scarcely necessary, except for shewing the arrangement of the points.

The following table will shew the arrangement of the sides, and their reduction to the meridian of Tricandeporum.

| Stations at | Stationsreferred to | Bearings referred to the meridian of Trivandeporum. | Distances. | Distances from the parallels of the |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Meridian. | Perpe |
| ivandeporu | Coonum hill, | 53150,3 N.W. | 125129, 1 | 12059, 8 W. | 124547,5 |
| onum hill, | Wooritty hill, | 00318,4 N.W. | 104887,5 | 108,3 W. | 104887,4 |
| soritty lill, | Carrangooly, | 524521,9 | 95282, | 75851,4 E. | 57666,0 N |
|  | Maumdoor, | 15051,2 N.W. | 133481,5 | 4303,5 W. | 133412,5 |
| rmd | Pcudree station, | 10309,7 N. E. | 211512,1 | 3834,4 E. | 211477,5 |

THE NORTHINGS REDUCED TO ARCS.
Tricandeporum to Coomum hill, . . 124548,77
Coomum hill to Wooritty hill, . 104887,47
Wooritty hill to Maumdoor hill, . 133413,15
Maumdoor hill to Paudree station, 211478,57
Length of the terrestrial are, . . . 574327,96
Or fathoms, . . . . . . . . . . . . 9572 1,3266

## SECTION VII.

Obsertations by the Zenith Sector for the latitude of Paudree station, and the station near Trivandeporum; and the length of the celestial arc.
The zenith sector, with which these observations have been taken, was made by Mr. Ramsden, and is the one alluded to by General Rov, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1790, being then unfinished. The radius of the arc is five feet, and the arc itself is of that extent to take in nine degrees on each side of the zenith. It is divided into degrees, and smaller divisions of $20^{\prime}$ each, which are numbered. Each of these last is again subdivided into four, of 5 ' each. The micrometer which moves the telescope and arc, is graduated to seconds, and one revolution moves the arc over $1^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime} 08^{\prime \prime \prime}$, but the scale being large, a small fraction of a second can be easily defined. The construction, and improvements to the zenith sector, are so well known, that a minute description of it here would be unnecessary. It will therefore suffice to say, that as far as so delicate an instrument can be managed in a portable observatory, or travelling tent, which never can offer the advantages of a fixed, well contrived building, I have every reason to be satisfied with it.

The time I commenced obscrving at Paudree station was during the heavy part of the monsoon, which occasioned frequent interruptions: and although I had intended observing by at least threc fixed stars, I only succeeded to my satisfaction in one, which was Aldebaran. With that star I had a fortunate succession for about sixteen nights; some few of those observations being less favourable than the others, were rejected, and the rest, from which the latitude was determined, appear in the following table, arranged in the order in which they were taken.

During the time I was at Trivandeporum, near Cuddalore, the weather was settled and serene, and the nights perfectly clear, so that I had an unlimited choice of stars, but having been successful with Aldebaran, I chose that star for determining the length of the arc.

As I consider the celestial are more likely to be erroneous than any terrestrial measurement, I have thought it necessary to give some account of the manner of observing and of arljusting the instrument, for after two years experience, I have found, that notwithstanding the great powers of the zenith sector, extreme delicacy and attention are requisite to render the observations satisfactory. The following method of adjustment I have always practised. After having brought the vertical axis nearly to its true position by the adjusting screw at the bottom, or so that the wire of the plummet would bisect the same dot when the telescope was moved to the opposite side, or half round on the axis, I then examined whether the dot at the centre of the horizontal axis was bisected, and whether the wire moved in the vertical plane clear of the the axis; for unless it be perfectly free, all the observations will be false. When I had bisected the dot, I either took out the microscope and looked obliquely, or did the same by a magnifying glass, and by that means I could discover the smallest parallax. If it admitted being brought nearer to the axis, it was done; but I found from experience, that it was more eligible to leave the wire at a sensible distance than to bring it very near. Having satisfied myself in this particular, I examined with the microscope again in front, moved the wire freely in the vertical plane, and then bisected the dot. The telescope was then moved, so that the wire was brought over the dot zero on the arc, and the same precaution used with respect to the wire mov-
ing free of the arc; and here, as well as above, I found it best to allow a sensible distance between the wire and the arc.

The microscope by which the upper dot in the horizontal axis is examined, being fixed by the maker, the axis of vision is of course at right angles to the vertical plane, and will meet that plane in the centre of the axis, but the lower microscope is moveable, and requires care to fix it so as to have the wire in the axis of vision, and be free from the effects of parallax, this I have done by moving it along the brass plate in front of the arc, till the wire appeared free from curvature, and then adjusted the dot. In these late observations, I have generally made the final adjustment by the light of a wax taper, for the wind being sometimes high and troublesome, $I$ found there was much irregularity in the observations, until I adopted that methorl. I therefore closed the doors and windows of the observatory tent, so as to have a perfect stillness within. The distance of the wire from the axis and the are is likewise better defined by a taper by noticing the shadow in moving the light to the right and left.

In fixing the instrument for the star, great care was taken to have it placed in the meridian, which was done by a mark at near the distance of a mile, (generally one of my small flag's), the polar star, having been previously observed by the large theodolite for that purpose. The telescope was then moved in the vertical till the wire of the plummet was at the nearest division on either $\lim b$ to the zenith distance of the star, which could always be nearly known. 'The micrometer, having been put to zero, was firmly screwed, and the dot on the limb carefully bisected, the instrument was turned half round; the adjustment examined and correct.
ed, if necessary. That being done, the degrees and minutes, \&c. on the are were noted down, as was also the particular division on the micrometer scale, at which the index stood, and the fractional part of a division in case there were any. In this state every thing remained to within fifteen or twenty minutes of the time the star was to pass, when I repaired to the tent, and again examined whether the wire bisected the dot; if it did not, the instrument was again adjusted to the same dot, and the horizontal axis also examined by the upper microscope, all this being done, the sector was placed in the meridian.

When the star entered the field of view, the micrometer was moved gently till the star was near the horizontal wire, but not bisected till it came near the vertical, that the micrometer might not be turned back, but continue moving in the same direction. This I did to avoid any false motion in the micrometer screw, and I was led to this precaution by the repeated experiments I had made in examining the divisions on the arc, for it sometimes happened after moving the arc over one of the divisions till the wire bisected the next dot; and then turning it back again, that the index of the micrometer was not at the same second, but had passed over it perhaps one, and sometimes two seconds; but by moving over the next five minutes in the same direction, the number of revolutions and seconds were always what they ought to be, to some very small fraction. This anomaly, however, only happened in some situations of the screw, and to avoid any errors arising therefrom, I adopted the above method.

The zenith distance of the star being now had, on one part of the arc or limb, after the same process had been gone through the next night, with regard to the adjustment, the zenith distance was
taken on the other part of the arc, by turning the instrument half round on its vertical axis. The mean of these two was therefore the true observed zenith distance, and half the difference was thie error of collimation. For applying these to the purpose in question, the mean of the zenith distances being corrected for refraction, the declination of the star for each of these nights, was corrected for nutition, aberration, \&c. to the time of observation, ana the mean of the two taken for determining the latitude.

In this manner has the whole series of obscrvations been continued, by turning the sector half round every night, for the purpose of observing on opposite parts of the arc, and each compared with its preceding and succeeding one. In pursuing this method, it was unnecessary to notice the error of collimation for any other purpose than as a test to the regularity of the observations; for until they became uniform, no notice was taken of the zenith distances, concluding that there had been some mismanagement, or some defect in the adjustment.

The following tables contain the observations by the star Aldebaran, for determining the length of the arc.

Obseroations at the station near Paudree.

| Day of the month. | Mean of the zenith distance on each arc. | Mean of the corrected declinations. | Latitude. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | - " " | " | - , |
| Noo. 23d and 24th, | 24632,5 | 1606 20,70 | 131948,20 |
| 24th and 25th, | 24632,46 | $1606 \quad 20,69$ | 131948,23 |
| 25 th and 20 th, | 24631,78 | 160620,68 | 131948,90 |
| 30th and 1st Dec. | 24631,60 | 160620,61 | 131949,01 |
| Dec. 1st and 2d, | 24632,60 | 160620,60 | 131948,0 |
| 2 d and 3d, | 24632,90 | 160620,58 | $\begin{array}{lllll}13 & 19 & 47,68\end{array}$ |
| 12 th and 13th, | 24630,96 | 1606 20,39 | 131949,43 |
| 13th and 14th, | 24628,57 | 160620,36 | $\begin{array}{lllll}13 & 19 & 51,79\end{array}$ |
| Error of col- $\} 27 \mathrm{th}$, lima. applied. $\}^{27 t h}$, | 24629,71 | $1606 \quad 19,64$ | $13 \quad 19 \quad 49,93$ |
| Mean 1319 49,018 |  |  |  |

MERIDIAN ON THE COAST OF COROMANDEL. 185
Observations at the station near Trivandeporum.

| Day of the month. | Mean of the zenith distance on each arc. | Mean of the correct decli nations. | Latitude. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| W.T] | - , " |  | - , " |
| February 10th and 11 th, | $42127,14$. | 160618,00 | 114450,86 |
| 711 th and 13th, | 42124,04 | 1606 17,93 | 114453,59 |
| 13 th and 14th, | 42123,04 | 160617,87 | 114454,83 |
| 14th and 15th, | 42125,10 | 1606 17,83 | 114452,73 |
| 15 th and 16 th, | 42126,73 | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{llll}16 & 06 & 17,79\end{array}\right.$ | 114451,06 |
| 16 th and 17th, | 42125,60 | 160617,75 | $114.452,15$ |
| 24 th and 25th, | 42124,17 | 160617,44 | 1114453,27 |
| 25 th and 26th, | 42125,17 | 160617,40 | 114452,23 |
| 26 th and 27 th, | 42125,04 | 1606 17,37 | 114452,33 |
|  |  | Mean | 114452,59 |

Latitude of the station near Paudree 1319 49,02 Latitude of the station near Tri-
vandeporum. . . . . . . . 1114 52,59

Difference of latitude, nearly. 13456,43
The latitude of a point where a great circle passing through Paudree station, and cutting the meridian of Trivandeporun at right angles, will be $13^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 49^{\prime \prime}, 02-$, from which deduct the latitude of the station at Trivandeporum, equal $11^{\circ} 49^{\prime} 5 Q^{\prime \prime}, 59$, will leave $1^{\circ} 34^{\prime} 56^{\prime \prime}, 43$, or $1^{\circ}, 58933$ nearly; by which divide the number of fathoms in the terrestrial arc $=95791,3266, \& c$. we shall have $1^{\circ}=$ 60494 fathoms, nearly, for the degree in the middle of the are, or latitude $12^{\circ} 39^{\prime}$ nearly.

## APPENDIX.

Since the account of the meridional arc was made out, I have completed the measurement of a degree perpendicular to the meridian in latitude $12^{\circ}$ $39^{\prime}$ nearly, which is derived from a distance of fifty-five miles and upwards, between Carangooly and Curnatighur; two stations nearly east and
west from each other; and the following triangles have been made use of to obtain that distance.

Distance, Carangooly from Permacoil 134236,4.

| No. | Stations. | Observed Angles. | Diff. |  | Error. | Angles for computation. | Distances in feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 33. |  | - ' " |  | " | " | - , " |  |
|  | Carangooly, | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{rrrr}38 & 00 & 53,47 \\ 103 & 08 & 30\end{array}\right.$ | -0,74 |  |  | 350053 | 208418,2 |
|  | Pernacoil, <br> Maillacherry | 1030830,05 | -2, |  |  | 1030827, | 131808,9 |
|  | Droog, $\}$ | 385042,44 | -1,71 |  |  | $38 \quad 5039,5$ |  |
|  |  | 1500005,96 |  | 4,08, | +1,83 | 180 0000,0 |  |

Carangooly from Maillacherry Droog 208418,2.


The distance from Curnatighur to Maillachervy has also been brought out from a northern series of triangles derived from the side of Poonauk hill and Maumdoor hill, of the great triangle Maumdoor, Poonank, and Mullapode hill: the triangles are Poonauk, Maumdoor and Hanandamulla; Hauundamulla, Maumdoor, and Telloor; Telloor, Hanandamulla and Curnatighur; Cirnatighur, Ielloor and Maillacherry Droog. Upon the distance from Curnatighur to Maillacherry as a base, the distance from Curnatighur to Carangooly has been computed, and differs only two feet from that derived from the side Carangooly and Maillacherry Droog: but there was some variation in the angles taken at Poonauk hill, which renders it doubtful, for the present, which to select; I have therefore relied on the single distance given in the thirtyfourth triangle.

Of the Polar Star: Observations at Carangooly and Curnatighur, and the Length of a Degree, perpendicular to the Meridian, deduced therefrom, for the Latitude of $12^{\circ} 32^{\prime}$ nearly.
As the method of determining the difference of longitude of two places, by taking the angle with the meridien and each station reciprocally, requires very greit accuracy, I have thought it necessary to give an account of the observations for that purpose, and to state at the same time, the difficulty of taking them, particularly at Curnatigur, whose great height subjected it to a constant haziness, whereby the blue lights at Carangooly were repeatedly fired without effect, appearing too faint to be seen when the wires of the telescope were illuminated: some nights, however, were favourable, when the whole of the lights were distinctly seen; but the anxiety, which occurs on such occasions, will sometimes cause irregularities in the angles; a few on that account, when the lights expired before the observations were thought sufficiently satisfactory, have been rejected. Those which appear in the following account, are such as I have deemed good, though there is a greater difference among them than I could have wished. But as I had no positive reason for setting them aside, I have accordingly used them; and have endeavoured to lessen the error, by increasing the number of observations, at Ca rangooly, between the polar star, at its greatest western elongation, and the referring lamp at Sallawauk.


Between the Lamp at Sallawauk and the Blue Light at Curnatighur.

| March 30, | $\ldots 84^{\circ}$ | $38^{\prime}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $24^{\prime \prime}, 0$ |  |
| April 4, | $\ldots$ | 23,55 |
|  | $\ldots$ | 19,2 |
|  | $\ldots$ | 20,0 |
|  |  | 22,62 |

Mean . . . . . . $84^{\circ} 38^{\prime} 21^{\prime \prime}, 87$
TABLE. Containing the apparent Polar Distances of the Star, and the apparent Azimuths for the Nights of Observation; and also the Angles between the referring Lamp and the Meridian of Carangooly.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { March } \\ & 1803 . \end{aligned}$ | Apparent Polar dist. | Latitude. | Apparent Azimuth. | $<\text { Star and }$ | $\angle$ Pole and Lamp. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 20 | 14422,32 |  | 14655,32 | 03448,4 | 22143,72 |
| 2 | 14422,62 |  | 14655,63 | 034 52,9 | 22148,53 |
| 22 | 14422,88 |  | 14655,90 | 03452,8 | 22148,70 |
| 23 | 14423,16 |  | 14656,18 | 034 48,8 | 22144,98 |
| 25 | 14423,71 | $\left\{\begin{array}{lll}12^{\circ} & 32 & 12,27\end{array}\right.$ | 14656,72 | 03450,2 | 22146,92 |
| 26 | 14424,01 |  | 14657,05 | 03448,0 | 22145,05 |
| 27 | $1.4424,28$ |  | 14657,33 | 03446,9 | 22144,23 |
| 29 | 14424,82 |  | $\|14657,89\|$ | 03445,4 | 22143,29 |
| Observed angle between the lamp and Curnatighur, - $\quad$Mean |  |  |  |  |  |

Observations at Curnatighur, between the Polar Star, at its greatest eastern Elongation, and the referring Lamp at Maudimungalum.
May 14, in the morning, . . . $82^{\circ} 26^{\prime} 25^{\prime \prime}, 6$
15, . . . .. . . . . . . . 25,2
16, . . . . . . . . . . . 25,6
20, . . . . . . . . . . . . 28,29
21, ........... $\quad 26,1$

Between the referring Light and the Blue Lights at Carangooly.

May 18, . . . . . . $8^{\circ} 35^{\prime} 34^{\prime \prime}, 50$ 36,30<br>40, 10<br>49,0<br>41,25<br>98,20<br>35,57<br>38,40

Mean . . . . . 835 38,26
TABLE. Containing the apparent Polar Distances of the Star, the apparent Azimuths for the Time of Observation, and also the Angles between the referring Lamp and the Meridian of Curnatighur.


If the mean of all the angles be taken, the observed angle at Carangooly, between the meridian and Curnatighur, will be $87^{\circ} 00^{\prime} 07^{\prime \prime}, 54$; and the observed angle at Curnatighur, between that meridian and the station at Carangooly, will be $99^{\circ} 49^{\prime}$ 15",93. In order, therefore, to correct these angles for spherical computation, it will first be necessary to ascertain the distance between the parallels of "Curangooly and Curnatighur, so that the one being known, the other may be obtained.

Let $P C$ and $P G$ be two meridians, and let $C$ and $G$ be the stations at Carangooly and Curnatighur. Let $C$ s be a parallel of latitude at $C$, meeting the meridian of Curnatighur produced, and let $C R$ be a great circle perpendicular to the meridian of Carangooly falling from that place, till it meet $P G$ produced in $R$.

Now GCR is a spheroidical triangle, and the chord of the arc $G C$ is given from the thirtyfourth triangle; and since the angle $P G C$ is known, the angle CGR is known, being equal $180^{\circ}$ minus the observed angle at Curnatighur, or $87^{\circ} 10^{\prime} 44^{\prime \prime}, 07$ - And by the same reasoning the angie $G C R$ will be given, being equal the angle $P C R$ $\left(90^{\circ}\right)$ mimus the observed angle at Ca -
 rangooly, that is $0^{\circ}$ $59^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime}, 46$-Hence, by first considering this as a plane triangle, and taking the angle at $R$, the supplement to the other two, the sides $C R$ and $G R$ may be obtained, and used as arcs for correcting the angles at $C$ and $G$, which will then be $2^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime}, 2$ and $87^{\circ} 10^{\prime} 43^{\prime \prime}, 79$ respectively, which are the angles made by the chords of the arcs $C G$ and $R G$ at $C$ and $G$. Hence the supplement to these ( $89^{\circ} 49^{\prime} 24^{\prime \prime}, 01$ ) will be the angle at $R$ made by the chords of the arcs $R C$ and $R G$. From these data will be had $R C=990897,8$, and $R G=$ 15208,74 feet.

But to find the small space $R$ s on the meridian of Curnatighur, between the perpendicular arc and parallel from Carangooly, let the triangle CRs be taken as a plane one. Then if to the corrected angle $C R \mathrm{~s}\left(89^{\circ} 49^{\prime} 24^{\prime \prime}, 01\right)$ be added the supplement to the spherical excess in the triangle $R C G$ ( $0^{\prime \prime}, 5$ ), we shall have $89^{\circ} 49^{\prime} 24^{\prime \prime}, 51$ for the angle $\mathrm{s} R C$. Draw $R t$ parallel to $\boldsymbol{C}$, meeting the meridian of Carangooly, produced in $t$. Then since the angles $P t R$ and $P_{\mathrm{s}} C$ are equal by construction; and the triangles $s C R, C R t$ considered as plane ones, the angle $C R t$ is equal half the difference of the angles $P C R$ and $P R C$, that is $=$ $\frac{00^{\circ}-\left(80^{\circ} 49^{\circ}-94^{\prime \prime}, 51\right)}{9}=0^{\circ} 5^{\prime} 17^{\prime \prime}, 74$. Hence is given the two angles $C R \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{~s} C R$, and the side $C R$, by which the small side $R$ s is had, equal to 448,02 feet, which, deducted from $G R$, gives $G s=$ 14780,72 feet, equal to an arc of $2^{\prime} 26^{\prime \prime}, 58$ on the meridian, and this is the difference of the latitudes of Carangooly and Curnatighur. Hence if the latitude of *Carangooly be $12^{\circ} 32^{\prime} 19^{\prime \prime}, 27$, that of Curnatighur will be $12^{\circ} 94^{\prime} 33^{\prime \prime}, 85$, and their respective complements will be $17^{\circ} 27^{\prime} 47^{\prime \prime}, 73$ and $77^{\circ} 25^{\prime} 91^{\prime \prime}, 15$. Hence in the triangle $P C G$, on the spheroid, is given the two sides $P G$ and $P C$, the co-latitudes of $G$ and $C$, and the two observed angles $P C G$ and $P G C$.

Then as the tan. $77^{\circ} 96^{\prime} 34^{\prime \prime}, 44$ (half the sum of the sides $P G$ and $P C$ ) to tan. $0^{\circ} 1^{\prime} 19^{\prime \prime}, 29$ (half their difference) so is tan. $8.9^{\circ} 54^{\prime} 41^{\prime \prime}, \frac{1}{3}$ (half the sum of the angles), to tan. $\varrho^{\circ} 56^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}, 93$ (the half

[^10]difference of the angles). Therefore $92^{\circ} 50^{\prime} 51^{\prime \prime}, 96$ and $86^{\circ} 58^{\prime} 31^{\prime \prime}, 5$, will be the angles at Curnatighur and Carangooly, such as would have been observed on a sphere, the latitudes and longitudes being the same. Then by using these angles, with the sides $P C$ aid $P G$, and computing spherically, the angle $C P G$, or difference of longitude, will be $48^{\prime} 47^{\prime \prime}, 75$, with which, and the side $P C$, or co-latitude of Carangooly, in the triangle $P C R$, right angled at $C$, the side $C R$ will be had equal $0^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 37^{\prime \prime}, 45$.

Now the chord of this arc is the distance $C R$, equal 290837,8 feet, and therefore the arc itself is 290841 feet nearly. Hence $47^{\prime} 37^{\prime \prime}, 45$ : 290841 :: $60^{\prime}: 366355,08$ feet, or 61059,2 fathoms mearly, which is the length of the degree perpendicular to the meridian at Carangooly *.
 Cos $P C=77^{\circ} 27^{\prime} 47^{\prime \prime}, 77$; theretore the latitude of Carangooly will be $12^{\circ} 32^{\prime} 12^{\prime \prime}, 23$.

* The ratio of the earth's diameters has been detcrmined, by nising the degree as brought out here, and the one in latitude. $50^{\circ}$ 41', as deduced from the measured arc beiween Greenwich and Puis, which is 60851 fathoms; and these two give the ratio of the polar to the egnatrial dianeters to be $1: 1,003567$, supposing the earth to be an ellipsisil.


## POSTSCRTPT.

Since the above has been written, the triangles derived from the side Manmatoor and Poonauk, and brought down westerly as far as Woritty, have been computed, and it appears that the distance between Maumdoor and Woritty, which is common to both series, exceeds the former by 6,9 feet; so that the mean of the two, equal 133485,0 feet, has been taken for obtaining anew both the meridional and perpendicular ares; the former of which is $574337,0 \pm$ feet, and the latter 290848,5 feet; whence the degree en the meridian will be had 60495 fathoms nearly, and the degree perpendicular to the meridian at Carangooly 61061 fathoms nearly.

The difference of 6,9 feet is more than what I expected, but it has been occasioned by the great difficulty in getting the angles in the great triangle, Maumiloor, Mullapode, and Poonauk. But as it appears that the side Mícllapode and Maumdoor has been in excess, and the side Poonauth and Maumdoor in defect, it must follow that the mean distance of Maumdoor and Woritty, brought out by triangles derived from these two sides, must be very near the truth.

Now this latitude has been made use of to find the latitude of Curnatighur, and the same process has been followed for finding the length of a degree on the perpendicular in the latitude of Carangooly as is here given; and that degree talken, with the easting of the observatory from the meridian of Carangooly to compute the latitude a second time, which came out $12^{\circ} 32^{\prime} 1 \frac{2}{\prime \prime}_{\prime \prime}^{2}, 27$, and is here applied for re-computing the perpendicular degree: but the difference is too trifing to affect the difference of longitude, and therefore the degree comes out the same.

It is scarcely necessary to notice, that the distance of the observatory from the meridian of Trivandepoorum being so trifling, no spheroidal correction has been thought requisite for obtaining the latitude of the point $M I$, and much less for that of $C$.

Vol. VIII.
O


VI.

On the Hindu Systems of Astronomy, and their comection with History in ancient and modern times.
BY J. BENTLEY, ESQ.

IN my last paper on the antiquity of the Surya Siddhánta, published in the sixth volume of the Asiatic Researches, I endeavoured to explain, in as simple a manner as possible, the principles on which the Hindu artificial systems of astronomy are founded. It was my intention to have postponed the present paper until I should procure several valuable works. which, through the assistance of my friends, I am endeavouring to collect from different parts, which would enable me to give a more perfect and satisfactory account of the ancient astronomy and history of India, than I can at present; but having lately, by chance, seen the first number of the Edinburgh Review, wherein the writer has thought proper to attack my last paper, I feel it incumbent on me to come forward as early as possible, to repel his observations, and to shew how little he is acquainted with the matters he pretends to review.

## The Reviewer says-

" Mr. Bentley appears to be a mathematician of " considerable industry and merit. In this disquisi"tion he has supplied some instructive observations " on the principles of the Hindu astronomy, and on "the manner in which their cycles were or might " have been formed; he has also exhibited useful " formulæ, shewing their application in discovering " the actual position of the heavenly bodies.

[^11]"Sárya Siddhánta, involves points of the utmost "importance; no less, indeed, than whether the " whole of the Sanscrit literature shall be consider"ed as the spurious production of a recent age, or " genuine monuments of primeral times. We shall " endeavour to do justice to his formidable attack " on the Indian gymnosophists.
"The Súrya Siddhánta is generally believed to be " the most ancient astronomical treatise the Findus "have; and, according to their notions, was re" ceived by divine revelation 2,164,899 years ago. "But the mean result of calculations, from ten dif"ferent data afforded by that work, and on its " own principles of assuming the position of the " heavenly borlies to have been accurately observed " at the time it was written, gives only 731 for the "date of its composition, or the year of our Lord " 1068. But, independent of all calculations, an " astronomical work, entitled the Bhastotee, was "composed 700 years ago by Sotonund, who, ac" cording to Hindu accounts, was a pupil of VA"ra'ha Mifira. The commentary on this trea" tise declares, that Vaba'ha was the author of the "S'úrya Siddhhánta. Therefore any Hindu work, in " which the name of Vara'ha is mentioned, must " evidently be modern, and this circumstance alone " totally destroys the pretended antiquity of many " of the Purans and other books, which, through "the artifices of the Bráhminical tribe, have been " hitherto deemed the most ancient in existence. "Now all the other astronomical works Mr. Bent" ley has seen, adopt the system in the Súrya "Síddhánta by Vara'ha".

[^12]" A work ascribed to Parasara, a philosopher, " who is supposed to have lived before the Vedás " were arranged in their present form, exhibits a " still more manifest proof of forgery, since one of " the furmulæ it exhibits mentions the æra of SACA, " which began Anno Domini 78."

After giving this outline, which is very defective in many respects, the Reviewer commences his attack as follows:-
" It would be easy to shew, that the circum" stances so forcibly stated, by no means justify "the sweeping inference deduced by our author. "Vara'ha Mihira was never considered as an an"cient writer; and is supposed, by Sir Villiam "Jones, to have flourished A. D. 499. That he " was the author of the Sírya Siddhánta, rests on " the single authority of the commentator of the "Bhaszotee, a work which seems to have been " composed in Siam; though we greatly wish Mr. " Bentley had imitated Sir William Jones, on " such occasions, by inserting the original passage. "But on what authority does our author assume, "that the Calpa, or cycle of Vara'ha, is that of " Vara'ha Mihira, the modern astronomer? We "find the Hindu cycles always distinguished by "the names of different Deities. There is the De" ví Calpa, the Su'rya Calpa; the present is the "Vishnu Calpa, and we entertain no doubt that "the Vara'ha Calpa derived that designation from " the Vara'ha Avatar, or incarnation of Vishnu, " in the form of a Boar, as is the universal opinion " of the natives. Now the name of Vara'ha Mi" hira unquestionably does not occur in the Pu"rans, or in any work pretending to antiquity; " and we have seen in what light we are to consi" der the Varáma Calpa."

That Vara'ha Mimira was the author of the Súrya Siddhánta, does not rest upon the single authority of the commentator on the Bhaswotee, but on several undeniable facts,-it is clearl; shewn by the other works of Vara'ha, which bear his name, one of which, the Jatucílnaza, (Jatokarnovo) is compared with the Sírya Sïddhánta, at page 573, §. 72. Nay, the very circumstance to which the Revicwer himselfalludes above, of Vara'ha being supposed to have flourished A. D. 499, onght to have led him to the same conclusion. For why is Vara'ha supposed to have flourished in A. D. 499? Because he had fixed the vernal equinox to the beginning of Aswini in that year, and settled the rate of precession to be from thence computed at $54^{\prime \prime}$ anmually: Now this is absolutely the case in the Súrya Siddhínta, as well as in all the other works of Vara'ha; and the same system, motions, and positions of the planets, given by that astronomer in those works which bear his name, are likewise the same in the Sírya Siddhánta. But, independent of all these undeniable facts, there is not a Hindu astronomer, who has the smallest pretension to the knowledge of the history of astronomy in India, that does not know that Vara'iba was the real author of the Sarya Siddhánta, and not only of that work, but also of the Brahma Sidähúnta, the Sôma Siddhánta, the Vasishta Siddhánta, and the Paulastya Siddhinta, which are called the five Siddhántas of Varáha Mihira; and in allusion to which, one or more single works have been written under the title of "Pancha Siddhánta," as supposed to contain the essential parts of the five Siddhántas of Vara'ha.

The Hindus, in general, know very little about the time in which $V_{a r a ' h a}$ flourished. Some refer him to the æfa of Vicramaditya, or fifty-six years before Christ, while others, from the cir-
cumstances abovementioned, refer him to A. D. 499, which shew how little they know of the real time he lived in, which was between seven and eight hundred years ago.

With respect to the different systems of astronomy which have been framed from time to time, there are but three now generally known, all of them modern. The first is the Bra'hma Calpa, invented by Bra'hma Gupta, near 1300 years ago; the second, the Padma Calpa, said to have been invented by a person of the name of Sri Dhara Padma, or Srí Dhara Padma Na'bha, between eight and nine hundred years ago; and the third and last, the Vara'ha Calpa, invented by Vara'ha Mihira, between seven and eight hundred years ago. Hence it may be seen, that the different systems bear the names of their inventors, and not of the Deities; for there is no such Deity as Padma, though there is a system of that name; therefore it must be sufficiently obvious to every candid mind, that these real systems of the astronomers, were the basis on which the writers of Hindu romance, or modern Puránas, erected their ideal ones of the Bra'hma Calpa, the Padma Cal$p a$, and the Vara'ha Calpa; the two first of which they fancifully represent as past, and assert that we are now in the third or last. But the truth is, that none of these artificial systems are yet expired (except in the idea of visionaries), nor will be for many millionis of years to come.
The number of years now elapsed of
the first,
$=1972948905$
And there are yet to expire, . 2347051095 The years elapsed of the Calpa of

$$
\text { VARA'HA, } \cdot \ldots . \cdot .=1955884905
$$

And there remain yet to expire, . 2364115095 As to the systems which were in use before the in-
vention of these modern ones, and by which the Hindus regulated their history in ancient times, I shall notice them in their proper place.

I have nothing to do with visionary dreams of antiquity, nor with the ideal systems of the Edinburgh Reviewer, my object is truth. The Edinburgh Reviewer says, there is the Devi Calpa, the Surya. Calpa, and the Vishnu Calpa; yes, and a great many more, which he will find in the Tantrus and other books of the Hindus; as the Ganes'a Calpa, the Pitri Calpa, the Sa'nti Calpa, \&c. But are these astrononomical systems? And if they are, upon what authority does he give them as such? For he does not vouchsafe to inform his readers where he found them. I am afraid the Reviewer has mistaken the sensc of the word Calpa, which he will find to have many meanings. The Hindu astronomers whom I have consulted on the subject, and who certainly are the best judges in matters of this nature, positively deny that there are any such systems as mentioned by the Reviewer; that, on the contrary, they imply nothing more nor less than the particular form of worship directed for each Deity, \&c.* and are to be found, in that sense only, in the Tantras, \&c. Hence the reader may easily see in what light the Deví Calpa, the Su'rya Calpa, and the Vishinu Calpa, of the Reviewer, are to be considered.

No astronomical system can possibly have a name before it is invented: and whether such system is called by the name of its inventor, or whether fancy or caprice may call it by the mame of any Deity, flower, mountain, or any thing else, still this can make no difference whatever with

[^13]respect to the antiquity of the time in which the system was framed. It, therefore, the time in which any system was framed be known, (either from that of the inventor, or from the positions of the planets or other data, given in such system,) then I say, that any book in which the name of that particular system is mentioned, cannot possibly be older than the time the system was framed and obtained its name.

That system which is contained in the Siurya Siddhánta (though originally invented by Vara'ha Mifira), is now most certainly called the Calpa of Vara'ha, or of the Boar; but whether that system obtained its present name from the inventor, or whether fancy has had any share in it since, still this can make no difference, as it can neither encrease nor diminish the antiquity of the system; which, from computations founded on undeniable principles, I have shewn and demonstrated to be only between seven and eight hundred years old; and this I maintain to be true, whether Vara'нa Minira was the inventor of the system or not.

Now since this system, called the Calpa of VAra'ha, or of the Boar, has been framed only between seren and eight hundred years, it follows indubitably that any work in which the Calpa is mentioned, cannot possibly be older than the time of its invention, but may be considerally less.

It was not necessary that the name of Varaiha Mimira should occur in the Puránas, to prove them modern; for, putting Vara'ha and his system altogether out of the question, yet still the names, not only of the princes in whose reigns he lived, but also of several others, down to the last Mahomedan conquest, with the years of each reign, are to be found in some of the Puránias; a nost certain proof, that these works are not the genuine
monuments of primeval times, as imagined by the Reviewer.-The Reviewer again says:-
"The mention of the era of Saca, in a work at"tributed to Para'sara, is only decisive against "the passage; for we are satisfied, no work of " great antiquity can exist in a country where the " art of printing is unknown, free from interpola" tion. The institutes of Timur are now acknow" ledged to be genuine, and written under the di"rection of that conqueror, though they are found " to contain an account of his own death. Some " copyist of the Crisi Parasara was acquainted with " an useful formule which he injurliciously inserted " in what he considered its proper place: did our li" mits permit, we could distinctly prove, from con" siderations unconnected with astronomy, that the " high antiquity attributed to the Hindu records is " founded on evidence of a nature almost conclusive."

It would appear then, if my pandit, or any other Brálmen, should take it into his head to compose a book, and father it on some ancient philosopher, or Rishi, but, from ignorance or inadvertence, he should introduce some modern expressions into it, that, according to the notions of the Reviewer, the words by which the forgery would be detected are to be considered as interpolations only, and the rest of the work genuine, though a downight imposition. It scems the Reviewer is not aware of the diffcrence between the style of the ancients and that of the moderns, by which we can in some measure form an opinion whether a work is forged or not. Neither does he seem to be aware that, if an ancient work is interpolated by some modern copyist, several other copies ought to be found free from the interpolation.

Parasara is supposed to have lived near 3000 years ago, and from that time to the era of Saca
there were about 1300 years, during which a great number of copies of the Crishi Parásara might have been written in different parts of India; yet no copy has been ever yet seen, that does not contain the passages alluded to. But independent of this fact, (which is a strong proof of the whole being a modern forgery) the style of Para'sara, according to Sir William Jones, resembles that of the Vedá, whereas that of the Crishii Parásara has not the most distant similitude ; and, according to the information which I received respecting it, was composed by a pandit, not a great many years ago, at Nuddea. We know to a certainty, that books have been ushered into the world under different titles, as if written by different people, and at different periods immensely distant from each other, though composed by one person only. Of this we have an instance in the five Siddhántus of Vara'ha.

The most candid part of the Hindus, indeed, will acknowledge, that literary forgeries are thus frequently committed; yet, at the same time, they endeavour to palliate it by saying, that men are under the necessity of doing so, in consequence of the depravity of the age we live in, which can relish nothing but what is supposed to bear the stamp or appearance of antiquity: Hence, they say, learned men are sometimes under the necessity of fathering their works on the sages of antiquity, to obtain a due respect and attention to their precepts, which, otherwise, would not be attended to. And with respect to modern names or expressions occurring in such books, they are considered by the generality of the Hindus, rather as indubitable proofs of the gift of prophecy, which they firmly believe their ancient sages possessed, than as marks of forgery or interpolation. Hence every species of literary imposition may be committed without the smallest danger of detection.

With respect to those considerations uncomnected with astronomy, from which the Reviewer says he could distinctly prove, " that the high antiquity " attributed to the Hindu records is founded on evi" dence of a nature almost conclusive," we wish he had stated those weighty considerations, or told us where we might find them; for the astronomers and others now engaged in investigating the antiquities, arts, and sciences of India, are unwilling to take his ipse diwit for it; particularly as he had but the moment before totally destroyed the credibility of those very records he would wish to support, by saying, that " no work of any great antiquity can " exist in a country where the art of printing is un" known, free from interpolation." How is it possible then, that they are to be considered as ancient records, when every line of them may be interpolated? who can pretend to judge of those parts which are genuine, and those which are not? for certainly it is not necessary that a part that is interpolated should have any date or mark amexed to it, by which it might be known; therefore the authenticity of works so interpolated, must be as fully to all intents and purposes destroyed, as if the whole were an actual forgery.

The Reviewer should only judge for himself,for that evidence which he may think is of a nature almost conclusive, may be no evidence at all to others. And I a:n atraid, that unless his gymmosophists find a better advocate in their cause, their pretensions to superior antiquity, to arts, and to sciences, must soon fall to the ground.-Lastly, the Reviewer says,

[^14]" years for the age of the Sturya Siddrainta. Hence " the only legitimate inference that can be deduced, " is either that the heavenly bodies were so inaccu"rately observed by the anthor as to furnish no ba"sis for calculation, or that the observations were " made at a period prodigiously anterior to that as"sumed by Mr. Bevtley. The first alone is admis"s sible, and in that we are disposed to acquiesce."

Lest, however, his readers should not be inclined to admit of such a conciusion, he endeavours to throw a suspicion on the whole thus:
"But when it is recollected how many collations, " researches, and ingenious conjectures have been "requisite to restore Gireek and Roman writers to "their pristine sense, some caquiry would be ne"cessary respecting the manuscript used by Mr. " Bextley, and the certainty of comprehending " his text, which he interprets differently from his " instructors. At present Mr. Bextley is involved " in the following dilemma, tither that the obser" vations of the hearenly bodies contained in the "Súrya Siddhúnta are wholly erroneous, or that they "were not made at the period he conjectures."
The Reviewer had it fully in his power to have ascertained the fact, whether the copy of the Sirima Siddliainta, in my possession, was correct or not, by merely referring to a paper of Mr. Davis, in the second volume of the Asiatic Researches, page 232. He might have calculated the places of the planets from the numbers there exhibited, and compared them with those given by me; which would have shewn him whether I deviated from my instructors or not. If he found that I had committed a material error, or deviated from truth, he would then have been justified in exposing it to the world. On the other hand, if he found that it was right, it would have been equally his duty to have candidly
acknowledged it. For, as Pope very justly says, respecting the moral qualities of a good Critic:
'Tis not enough wit, art, and learning join;
In all you speak, let truth and candour shine.
It is much to be lamented, that the very reverse of this is but too often the case, and that men suffer their judgment to be biassed by their prejudices.

By exhibiting the mean result of ten different operations *, viz. 731 years for the age of the Sírya Siddhánta, the Reviewer conceived he did me more justice than I was entitled to; and therefore, to counteract it, as he thought, instead of giving the whole of the different results, from which his readers would be enabled to form a just opinion, he makes choice of the two extreme results, as differing most from the mean, and concludes from thence, that either the heavenly bodies were so inaccurately observed by the author as to furnish no basis for calculation, or that the observations were made at a period prodigiously anterior to that given by me.

Now, it must be immediately apparent to any man of common sense, that by taking the two extreme results only, no other inference could, consistently with truth, be drawn from thence, but that the work must have been written at some period between these extremes; the mean of which $=\frac{1105+340}{2}=722$ years.

In computations, depending on a number of observations, it is well known that astronomers reject such as are found to differ most from the mean results; for in all cases some of the data, from their

\footnotetext{

* These were the results which the Reviewer ought to have given his readers.

| Moon'sap | JUPITER, |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Moov's node, . . . 580 - | Saturn, | 805 |
| Sun's apogee, .... 1105 | Mars's aphelion, | 641 |
| Venus, ....... 860 | Length of the year, | 736 |
| Mars, ......... 340 |  |  |
| MOON, ....... 759 | Mean age, | 731 |

nature, will be more erroneous, and less to be depended on than others. Had the Edinburgh Reviewer, therefore, adopted this plan, and rejected the extremes, 1105 and 340 , as too incorrect, no fault whatever could be found with him for so doing; for the remaining eight results would still have been more than sufficient to answer the purpose required.

But his views, as may be easily seen, were to endeavour, if possible, to discredit any investigation that should in the smallest degree tend to open the eyes of the public with respect to the true antiquity of Hindu books; and therefore he asserts, that the heavenly bodies must have been so inaccurately observed by the author, as to furnish no basis for calculation, or that the observations were made at a period prodigiously anterior to that assigned by me. Why did he not point out what these errors were, that his readers might judge of the truth or falsehood of his assertions?

But in order to shew the fallacy of the Reviewer's argument, let us endeavour, if possible, to ascertain the quantity of the errors from the ycars only, on which the Reviewer grounds his notions.

The years are obtained by dividing the error in the position of the planet, at a certain instant, by the error in the mean annual motion, which, by its gradual accumulation, is supposed to have caused the error in position. Therefore, suppose we denote the error in position by $x$, and that in the mean annual motion by $y$, and that $\frac{x}{y}=110.5$; it is required from thence, to determine the quantities $x$ and $y$, which the Edinburgh Reviewer would wish to make his readers believe, must be so extraordinarily great as to leave no basis for calculation: I say it is absolutely impossible, nor does the nature of the case admit of such an umjust inference. For
any two quantities whatever, whether large or small, that are in the proportion of $1: 1105$, will give the same quotient. Thus, suppose $x=1105$ minutes, and $y=1$ minute, then, $\frac{1+n x^{\prime}}{1^{\prime}}=1105$. Again, suppose $x=1105$ seconds, and $y=1$ second, then, $\frac{1 n^{\prime \prime \prime}}{1 n^{\prime \prime}}=1105$, as before. Or, suppose $x=291^{\prime \prime}$, and $y=0,2^{\prime \prime}$, then, $\frac{? 0^{\prime \prime}}{0,0^{\prime \prime}}=1005$, as before. Hence it evidently follows, that as 1105 may be deduced from any two quantities, howerer small, that are in the proportion of $1: 1105$, so may 340 trom any other two quantities whatever, small or large, that are in the proportion of $1: 340$. It is, therefore, the heighth of absurdity to pretend to draw any conclusion relative to the supposed qnantity of error from the years exhibited; and if we wish to shew the errors, it must be done by a direct computation, and not by ideal notions or sophistry.

The Reviewer perhaps conceived that all the results should come out exactly the same; if so, it is more than he had a right to expect from the most correct European tables extant. If we examine the second edition of La Lanime's tables, we shall find that one of the data will give us 318 years for the age of it, and another 243 years: but would this be a sufficient ground to assert, that cither the heavenly bodies were so inaccurately observed by the author as to furnish no basis for calculation, or that the observations were made at a period prodigiously anterior to that assigned to La Lande's second edition? The error from which the 243 years arise, only amount to about one minute and half, which may shew the Reviewer, that he is not to assume the quantity of the error from the number of years. There are, perhaps, no astronomical tables in existence, that do not contain errors, but these errors are always less at or near the time the work is written than at any distant period whatever. Therefore, to put this matter out of disputc, I shall exhibit, in the
following table, the errors in the Súrya Siddhánta with regard to the places of the planets, \&c. at different periods, by which may be known by inspection only, the period of time at or near which it was written.

## TABLE

Of the errors in the Sírya Siddhanta, zoith respect to the places of the Planets, §c. at the under-mentioned periods.

| Planets, ¢\%. | B.C. 3102. | A. C. 499. | 1. C. 999. | 1. C. 1499 | A. C. 5099. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\bigcirc{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{\prime}$ | 0 - 11 | 0 | - ' "' |  |
| Moon, | 55234 - | $02014-$ | $00102-$ | $0073.9+$ | $34337+$ |
| - apogee, | $3011125-$ | 4. 52 53- | $12159-$ | $20956+$ | $27 \quad 2728+$ |
| Venus, | $233731+$ | $35606+$ | $11201+$ | $13204-$ | 2113 29- |
| Venus, Mars, | 3243 36- | $33341-$ | $02922+$ | $43: 25+$ | $334290+$ |
| Mars, | $120542+$ | $23242+$ | $1 \begin{array}{lll}1 & 13 & 03 \\ 0 & 21 & 55\end{array}$ | 00627 - | $93927-$ |
| Jupiter, aphel. | 9 47 <br> 17 $00+$ <br> 19  | $13050+$ | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 21 & 55+ \\ 0\end{array}$ | $04700-$ | 9) $0311-$ |
| Jupiter, Saturn, | 17 12 $36-$ <br> 21 25 $4.3+$ <br> 1 15  | 1 48 56 <br> 2 50 $00+$ | $\begin{array}{cccc}0 & 24 & 20 \% \\ 0 & 03 & 33-\end{array}$ | $23836+$ | 18 01 $45+$ <br> 1 36 5 |
| Saturn, Sun's aporee. | $\begin{array}{ccc}21 & 2.5 & 4.3+ \\ 3 & 15 & 53\end{array}$ | $25009+$ | 003 33- | 25405 - | $213657-$ |
| - B. C. Before Christ.-A.C. Aher Christ. |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

By comparing the errors given in the preceding table at the different periods, with each other, it will appear, that they were least between seven and eight hundred years agn; which clearly demonstrates that the Súrya Siddeínta, was written at or near that time. For all astronomical works, whether founded on real or artificial systems, must necessarily give the positions of the planets nearer the truth, at, or about the time in which they were originally framed, than at any other distant perod whatever either before or after.

With respect to the errors in the places of the planets as computed from the siaryu siddriunta, they are not in be attributed to incoricet ubservations; Vol. VIII.
for they principally arise from the nature of the artificial system adopted by the author, which did not admit of a nearer approach to truth; in order to explain which, it is necessary to be observed, that in the Hinduartificial systems, the astronomers fix ous a point of time back as an epoch, at which they assume the planets, \&c. to have been in a line of mean conjunction in the beginning oi Aries in the Findu sphere. But as no period can be found, at which the planets were actually in a line of mean conjunction, it must be obvious, that the motions requisite to give the mean places of the planets when the system is framed, commencing from any such assumed epoch of mean conjunction, must deviate more or less from the truth. For, the mean motions of such of the planets, as were actually passed the position assumed, will come out greater, and those that fell short of it less than the truth, in proportion to the differences between the real and assumed mean places.

Thus:-suppose $n$, to be the number of years expired from the assumed epoch of mean conjunction at the time the system is framed, and let $M$, be the real mean annual motion of a planet derluced from observations or otherwise; then $M \times n$, would be the mean place of the planet at the end of $n$ years from the epoch of assumed mean conjunction, provided the planet was in the position assumed. But if $M \times n$, was found to exceed or fall short of the real mean place of the planet at the end of $n$ years, then, it is evident, that the planet was not in the position assumed at the epoch, and the motion must be encreased or diminished accordingly, so as to make it give the real mean position of the planet ; -for instance, suppose that $M \times n$, fell short of the real position of the planet at the end of $n$ years, by the quantity $d$,-then, $M+\frac{d}{n}$, would be the
mean annual motion required; but if $M \times n$, exceeded the real mean place by the quantity $d$, then $M-\frac{d}{n}$, would be the motion required. Hence, it must be evident, that the mean annual motions deduced on these principles, must be always affected by the differences between the real mean places of the planets, and that assumed at the epoch.

The motions requisite to give the real mean places of the planets being ascertained, the astronomer in the next place assumes, at pleasure, any convenient cycle of years, and assigns the number of revolutions of each planet in that cycle.

In computing the number of revolutions of each planet, in order to avoid fractions, he rejects such as are less than six signs, as of no consequence; and, for the rest, he takes the next greater entire number. Unless he may deem it necessary, in some instances, to encrease or diminish a little the motions; in which case, though the fraction may be under six signs, he may take the next higher number to encrease the motion, or if above six signs, he may reject it, to diminish the motion.

From the revolutions thus obtained, the mean places of the planets in the heavens are determined by the following proportion :-

> As the momber of years in the cycle assumed,
> Is to the recolutions of any planet in that cycle; So is the time expired from the epoch assumed,
> To the planets mean longitude.

These are the principles on which the system given in the Súrya Siddhintu, as far as relates to the planets, is founded, and which I shall now proceed to demonstrate.

$$
\mathrm{P}_{a}
$$

According to the Surrya Siddhanta, the planets are assumed to have been in a line of mean conjunction in the first point of Aries in the Mindus sphere, at the beginning of the Cali Yug; I shall therefore carry back the calculation to that time, in order to shew more clearly, the actual differences between the real mean places of the planets at that period, and that which was assumed, and the consequent effect thereof on the mean annual motions thence deduced.

The rear 4900 of the Cali Yug, ended on the 19 th of April 1799, at forty-five minutes forty-four seconds past nine P. M. on the meridian of Lanka; or fifty-one minutes forty seconds past four, P. M. on the meridian of Paris. The mean places of the planets at that instant of time were, according to the third edition of LA LANDE'S tables, as follow:

European sphere. Hindu sphere.

|  | $s$. | $\circ$ | $\prime$ | $\prime \prime$ | $s$. | $\circ$ | $\prime$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sun; | 0 | 20 | 52 | 28,5 | 0 | 00 | 00 | 00,0 |
| Moon, | 3 | 20 | 55 | 09,3 | 3 | 09 | 09 | 40,8 |
| Venus, | 2 | 24 | 06 | 14,0 | 0 | 03 | 13 | 45,5 |
| Mars, | 3 | 04 | 50 | 40,0 | 0 | 13 | 58 | 11,5 |
| Jupiter, | 1 | 29 | 58 | 02,1 | 1 | 09 | 05 | 33,6 |
| Saturn, | 3 | 24 | 16 | 56,1 | 3 | 03 | 24 | 27,6 |

The length of the Hintlu year, according to the Sírya Siddhánta, is 365 days, 6 hours, 12 minutes, 36 seconds, 33 thirds, 36 fourths, in which time the sun is supposed to make one complete revolu-

[^15]tion in his orbit. The mean motions for which, according to la Lande's tables, are as follow:-

European sphere. Hindu sphere.

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mons, | 134124739,234 | 1341246 |
| Venus, | 1512 22,306 | 7151123 |
|  | 6110517,802 | 61124 |
|  | 1002149, | () 10020 |
|  |  |  |

4900 ITindu years, of the above length, are equal to 1789767 days, 21 hours, 45 minutes, 44 seconds; or 4900 Julian years, 40 days, 21 hours, $45 \mathrm{mi}-$ mutes, it seconds; the mean motion for which, from la Lande's tables, are as follow:-

European sphere. Hindu sphere.

| Sun, | ${ }_{2} 195127,5$ | 0000000 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Moon, | 5214312,3 | 3015644 |
| Vexus, | 3 90) 2137,0 | 10030 |
| Mar | 5155591,0 | 22603 |
| Jupiter, | 3115408,1 | 02202 |
|  |  |  |

which motions being deducted from the mean longitudes at the end of the year 4900 of the C'ali Yug, above determined, we shall have then respective mean positions at the beginning of the Cali Yug, the assumed epoch of mean conjunction, as follow:-

|  | European sphere. | Hindu sphere. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | s. - . | s. - . " |
| Sun, | 10010101 | 0000000 |
| Moon, | 10010657 | 0000556 |
| Venus, | 11034437 | 1024336 |
| Mars, | 9 IS 5519 | 11175418 |
| Jupiter, | 10180354 | 0170253 |
| Satura, | 9100158 | 11090057 |

Whence, it is erident, the planets were not in the position assumed, Now taking the differences between the positions above found in the Hindu sphere, and that which is assumed in the Sírya Siddhánta, noting those which were past the point assumed, with the sign + , and those which fell short of it, with the sign -, we shall have

| Sun, |  | 000000 |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| luon, | $+$ | 000556 | $=$ | + | 356 |
| enus, | + | 324336 | $=$ | + | $117816^{\prime \prime}$ |
| s, | - | 120542 |  | - | 4954 |
| R | + | 170253 |  | + | $61373^{\prime \prime}$ |
| Saturn, |  | 205903 |  |  | 75543 |

Now, since the planets were not in the position assumed, by the above differences, it is evident, that if we wish to calculate the mean places of the heavenly bodies, at the end of any number of years from this assumed epoch, we must take the above differences into the account, by adding those of the Moon, Venus and Jupiter, and sub)tracting those of Mars and Saturn:-Thus, if $m$, be any number of years whatever, then I say,
that the mean places of the planets at the end of $n$ years, in the Hindu sphere, will be as follow:-


Therefore, if we divide these by $n$, we shall have the mean annual motions requisite to give the same positions at the end of $n$ years, as follow:-

Hindu sphere.

Hence, it is apparent, that all Hindu books or tables, which assume a mean conjunction of the planets at the beginning of the Cali Yug, must necessarily give the motions of the Moon, Venus, and Jupiter. greater, and those of Mars and Saturn less, than the Europeans make them.

Let us now put this to the test with respect to the motions in the Suryg Siddhanta. I have alP4.
ready shewn, that the Súrya Siddhánta must have been written between seven and eight hundred years ago; we shall therefore call it the end of the year 4100 of the Cali Yug, or A. D. 999, which will be near enough for our purpose; then $n$, in the above formule, becomes 4100 .

In the year A. D. 999, the corrections requisite to be applied to the Moon, Jupiter, and Saturn's mean places, on account of the inequalities in their respective motions arising from mutual attraction*, were

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { For the Moon, }+8^{\prime} 50^{\prime \prime}=+530^{\prime \prime}, 0 \\
& \text { For Jupiter, }-+1311,7=+791,7 \\
& \text { For Sattirn, }-3148=-1908,0
\end{aligned}
$$

These must be brought now into the formulæ as they could not, from being variable, be included in the mean motions. Hence, the mean motions requisite to give the mean places of the planets in A. D. 999, agreeing with European tables, are as follow:-

Hindu sphere.

which quantities being reduced, and compared with the motions given in the Súrya Siddhanta, we shall have

## From computation. <br> By the Sírya

Siddhínta.


Here we have a most decisive proof of the principles on which the system given in the Sirrya Siddhanta is founded, and consequently of the time at or near which that work was written : for the motions, above deduced from computation, scarcely differ half a second from those given in the Siurya Siddhinta. But these differences, small as they are, do not arise from emors in obseration, but from the revolutions of the planets assigned to the cycle of years assumed by the author of the Súrya Siddhúnta.

In the Sírya Siddhánta, the least cycle in which the planets are assumed to return to a line of mean conjunction in the beginning of Aries, is 1030000 years. Let the motions above found, therefore, be multiplied by this number, and we shall have

Revolutions. s. ©

| Sun, | 1080000000 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Moon, | 14438354006 |
| Venus, | 1755593718 |
| Mars, | 574207109 |
| Jupiter, | $9105+818$ |
| Saturn, | 36042024 |

Now, taking the nearest entire numbers (except for Mars, which in order to increase its motion a little, take the next greater number), and we shall have

From compuration.

By the Súrya
Siddthánta.

The numbers from computation being the same as in the S'úrya Siddhánta, the mean motions and positions of the planets, to be from thence deduced, must necessarily be the same also.

If the numbers above found, be multiplied by 4, we shall have the revolutions of the planets in a Mahá Yug, or 4320000 years: and if the revolutions in a Máha Yug, be multiplied by 1000, we get the revolutions in a Calpa.

The mode of applying the above numbers to practice, must be sufficiently obvious from the manner in which they are determined, as well as from the rule laid down at page 211. I shall, however, ádd here a few examples.

1st. Let it be required to determine the Moon's mean longitude, at the end of the year 4100 of the Cali Yug.-

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\text { The revolutions of the Moon in } \\
\text { he cycle of } 1080000 \text { years . . . }
\end{array}\right\}=14438334
$$

Hence the longitude required, $\}$
$=\frac{1443334+41100}{1080000}=54812.2$. $\}$
29480
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { By la Lande's tables, } \\ \text { Hindu sphere, }\end{array}\right\}$ 2s. $^{s} .9^{\circ} 41^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$
Inequality (see page 216) +852
Difference, the former shor by • $* \begin{array}{lll}2 & 9 & 50 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2\end{array}$ Or thus-
2d. Let it be required to determine the Moon's mean longitude, at the end of the year 4100 of the Cali Yug, reckoning the years from the beginning of the C'alpa of Vara'ha.

The years expired of the Calpa of VAraifa, at the beginning of the Cali Yug, $=1955880000$ Add

4100
Total years expired A. D. 999, . 19555884100 Hence, $\frac{14+933341955834109}{1030000}$
$=26147877686^{10}$ rev. . . $\} 2 s .9^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 00^{\circ}$ the Moon's mean longitude as before.

## Or thus-

Sd. Let it be required to determine the Moon's mean longitude, at the end of the year 4100 of the Cali $\stackrel{Y}{ } u g$, reckoning from the end of the Calpa, as directed in the Graha Yímul.
The years in the whole Calpa, . $=4920000000$
The years elapsed, as above, . $=1955884100$
Therefore to expire in A. D. 999, 2364115900


[^16]which, substracted from twelve?
signs, leave
the longitude as before.
My intention in giving these examples, is to shew, that as the system is entirely artificial, it is immaterial whether we make the calculation from the beginning of the Calpa, the end of the Calpa, or any other period at which a mean conjunction of the planets in the first point of Aries, is assumed in the system; for the result must ultimately come out the same, cither way.

By attending to the principles on which the motions given in the S'argu Siddhanta are founded, it must appear evident, that it could not give the places of the planets sufficiently correct, for any considerable length of time: for, as $m$, the number of years from the epoch of assumed mean conjunction (in the formula, page 215), varies, so must the mean annual motions depending thereon. Therefore those motions which would have given the positions of the planets sufficiently correct, when the Sürya Siddhánta was written, would not answer at present. This fact the Hindu astronomers discovered by some means or other, between two and three hundred years ago; they found, that in order to have the places of the planets sufficiently accurate, it was necessary to subtract three revolutions from those of $V$ 'enus; two from those of Jupiter ; and to add three revolutions to those of Saturn, in 1050000 years.

The works in which these corrections are given, are, the Siddhanta Rahasya, dated in 1513, siaca; Groha 'I'arangimi, dated 1530; Siddhínta MFurari, dated 1531; and several others of modern date now in l:se.

These corrections appear to have been introduced about 245 years ago; therefore let us try how far they will agree with our formula, page 215. Let the time at which they were introduced, be supposed the end of the year 4660 of the Cali Yug, or A. D. 1559. Then substituting 4660 for $i n$ in the formula, we shall have the mean annual motions requisite to give the places of the planets at that time, agreeing with European tables as follow: -

| Sus, | 100000 | 00 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Moon, | 1341946 | $40,613+\frac{35610}{4660}$ |
| Vfines, | 171511 | $23,635+\frac{11.7816^{\prime \prime}}{4660}$ |
| Mars, | 061124 | $19,150-\frac{43.5+0^{\prime \prime}}{4660}$ |
| Jupiter, | 010020 | $50,483+\frac{6,3,3,3^{\prime \prime}}{600}$ |
| Saturn, | $\begin{array}{lllllllllll}0 & 0 & 13\end{array}$ | 09,343- $\frac{1.12 " 1}{1000}$ |

The corrections, on account of the inequalities in the motions of the Moon, Jupiter, and Saturn, being at this period inconsiderable, they are accordingly neglected, as of no consequence : therefore the ahove quantities being reduced and compared with the motions in the modern tables, wo shall have


The agreement between which is sufficiently obvious. Let tue motions above found be now mul-
tiplied by 1080000 , the number of years in the assumed cycle, and we shall have


Now taking the nearest entire numbers (except for Saturn, which, in order to encrease its motion a little, we take the next greater number), and we shall have

From computation. Sun, 1080000 revol. $\begin{array}{lrr}\text { Moon, } & 14438334- & 14438334= \\ \text { Venus, } & 1755591- & 1755591= \\ \text { Mars, } & 574208 \\ \text { Jupirer, } & 91053- & 574208= \\ \text { Saturn, } & 36645- & 91053- \\ & 36645\end{array}$

Having thus, I hope, fully and clearly demonstrated the principles on which the Hindu artificial systems of astronomy are founded, and shewn that, according to these principles, the Síryya Sildhínta must have been written between seven and eight hundred years ago, and at no other period whatever; it must now be obvious to ceery candid mind, that the assertions of the Elinburgh Reviewer are totally unfounded.

The table exhibited in page 209 , will shew how much he must have been mistaken in his motions with regard to the basis of calculation: For if there was no such basis, then the errors, or differences in that table, ought at every period to be the same,
neither encreasing nor diminishing ; the contrary of which most clearly appears; for between seven and eight hundred years ago, the errors were least, and encrease gradually, whether we go back into antiquity, or forward from that period; which demonstrates, beyond the power of contradiction, that the work was written at or about that time.

The formation of the numbers, given in the Sirrya. Siddhanta, will shew likewise, that no other motions could have been given to correspond to the positions of the planets, witle which they must agree. Therefore, I say, it is indispensibly requisite that the Edinburgh Reviewer, if he roes not choose to acknowledge his error with the candour due from a gentleman, should distinctly point out to his readers, and the world at large, that precise period of time, so prodigiously anterior to that given by me, at which the Siurya Siddhanta, in his ideas, gave the positions of the heavenly bodies nearer the truth than between seven and eight hundred years ago. And not only point out the precise time, but also the thein actual mean positions of the planets, \&cc. according to the Sírya Siddhinta, and the best modern European tables. It is by these means only he can convince his readers of his candour, truth, and abilities.

As I have, in the preceding pages, stated fully all that can be necessary respecting the principles of the Hindu artificial systemis of astronomy, the Súrya Siddhánta, and the antiquity of the system it contains, I shall now take leave of the Reviewer, and proceed to other matters of more importance to those who wish to form a true judgment of the real antiquity of the IIndu history; \&ic.

Most of the Eostern nations, and the Hindus in particula., zppear to have emplojed, from time
immemorial, artificial systems, not only in astronomy, but also for chronological purposes. Therefore, to form a just idea of the Hindu history and its antiquity, a knowledge of these systems, and of the various changes that have taken place from time to time, is absolutely necessary.

Two of the most ancient Hindu systems now known, and which in early times were applied to the purposes of chronology, are contained in an astronomical work entitled the Graha Munjari. This work is extremely valuable, as it enables us to fix, with precision, the real periods of Hinduc history, with their respective durations; and to shew from thence the alterations that have since taken place by the introduction of new systems.

The first system mentioned in this work consisted of 2400000 years, which was called the CalpaThis period was divided into Manwantaras and Yugs*, as follow:

| A Satya Yug consisted of | 960 years. |
| :---: | :---: |
| A Trètú, | 720 |
| A Diwápar, | 480 |
| A Cali, . | 240 |
| A Muha Yug, | 2400 |
| 71 Maliá Yugs, with a Satya of, | $\begin{array}{r} 170+00 \\ 960 \end{array}$ |
| A Manzantara, | 171360 |
| 14 Manzantaras, | 2399040 |
| Form the whole Calpa, | 2400000 |

[^17]


The years expired of the above system, at the era of Vicrama'ditya, were 1190627 ; which being reduced into Mantoantaras and Yugs, we shall have
A Satya at the beginning, . . . . . . $=960$ 6 Manwantaras complete, . . . . . . 1028160 67 Mahá Yugs of the 7th Manzuantara, 160800 Thence to the era of Vicrama'ditya, 707
Total years expired, . . . . . . . . . 1190627

Hence it appears that the Cali Yug, of the 67th Mahá Yug, of the 7th Manteantara of this system, ended 707 years before the era of Vicrama'ditya, or 764 years before Christ-Therefore

The Satya Yug, or golden age, began B. C. 3164 The Trétá Yug, or silver age, . . . . 2204 The Dwápar Yug, or brazen age, . . 1484 The Cali Yug, or iron age, . . . . . . 1004 And ended, . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 764 Making in all 2400 years.

During the first period of 960 years, called the golden age, the Hindus have no real history; the whole being fabulous, except what relates to the flood, which is allegorically represented by the fish incarnation.

With the second period, or silver age, the Hindu empire commences, under the Solar and Lunar dynasties; and from Budha, the son of S6ma, the first of the Lunar line, they reckon about fifty reigns down to the end of the Dwápar, Vor. VIII.
which make, at an average, twenty-four years to a reign *.

Towards the close of the fourth period, this system appears to have been laid aside, as the repeating the same names over again, would, in time, cause a confusion in history.

The next system mentioned in the Graha Munjari, consisted of 387600000 years, which was called the term of Brahma"s life. This period is divided and subdivided in the following manner:

A Calpa is called a day of Brahma', which in this system contains, . . . . . . . . . . 5000 years
And his night is of the same length, . 5000
A day and night therefore, . . = 10000
50 of such days and nights make a month,

300000
And 12 such months a year,.$=3600000$
And 107 such years and eight months make the full period
of Brahma"s life, . . . . . $=387600000$
The Calpa, or clay of Brahma', is divided into Manzeantaras and Yugs, in the following manner:

[^18]Years. Months.A Satya contains,
A Trétá, ..... 6
A Dwápar, ..... 0
A Cali, ..... 6
A Mahá Yug, ..... 5 0*
71 Mahá Yugs, ..... 355 years
With a Satya of, ..... a
Make a Manwantara of, ..... 357
14 such Mantuantaras, ..... 4998
Which with a Satya at the beginning, ..... 2
Make a Calpa, or day of Brahma', . . 5000 years

The years expired of this system, at the beginning of the Satya, or golden age of the former system, were,

212560000
Add thence to the Christian era, . . . 3164
Tutal years expired at the Christian era, 219563164
After 193799286 years had been expired of Brahma"s life, he, for the first time, created the Earth, and ordained that, at the end of every Calpa, or 5000 years, it should be destroyed, and again reproduced.
Therefore, from the years elapsed, . 212563164 Take the years at the first creation, $=193799286$ Remain, . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 18763878 The years from the first creation to the Cluistian era-which being divided by 5000 , the quotient will be the number of times the world has been destroyed and created, and the remainder will shew the years expired since the last creation.

[^19]Thus $\frac{18763878}{5000}=3752$ times destroyed and created, and 3878 years from the last creation to the Christian era. -Now since there are 357 years in each Manwantara, we have the date of the commencement of each as follow :

The first Manwantara, . . B. C. 3878 years.
The second, . . . . . . . . - 3521
The third, . . . . . . . . . - 3164
$\qquad$
The fourth, . . . . . . . . . - 2807
The fifth, . . . . . . . . . . - 2450
The sixth, . . . . . . . . . - 2093
The seventh, . . . . . . . . - 1736
The eighth, . . . . . . . . . - 1379
The ninth, . . . . . . . . . - 1099
The tenth, . . . . . . . . . - 665
The eleventh, . . . . . . . . $\quad 308$
The twelfth, . . . . . . . . A. C. 49
The thirteenth, . . . . . . . - 406
The fourteenth, . . . . . . - 763
and ended, . . . . . . . . 1120
Making in all about 5000 years, with the Sandhi of two years.

Having thus exhibited the periods of ancient history, according to both systems, the annexed table will now shew, at one view, the commencement of each period, by which the corresponding times in each system may be more casily seen and understood.

By this table it will appear, that the Satya, or grolden age, as we may call it, of the first system, hegan on the same year that the third Mameantara of the second system did; that is, the year before Christ 3164. And that the ninth Manwantara, of the second system, began the year B. C. 1022, only eighteen years after the commencement of the Cali, or iron age, of the first system.

Hence, from the beginning of the third Manzeantara, down to that of the ninth, includes nearly the same time as the Satya, Trétá, and Dwápar of the first system; and consequently, that the events of history recorded in these periods, if transferred to the former, should be found under those particular Manteantaras which corresponded with the actual times in which they happened, unless purposely destroyed or perverted, in modern times, to prevent a discovery of the change that has been made in the systems.

Therefore, without entering minutely into the Hindu history, let us see how far the periods of the two ancient systems agree, with respect to the same events, which will be the most certain mode of proving the truth of these systems.

The Hindus place the flood in the Satya, or golden age :-on referring to the Manwantaras we find, according to the Márcun'déya purána, that the flood took place in the fourth Manwantara; and that the fourth Menu derived his name, Ta'masa, from the universal darkness which then overspread the earth-therefore the two systems agree in this point.

The next period is the Trétá, or silver age, at or about the commencement of which the Hindu empire began under the Solar and Lunar dynasties. Budha, the son of Sóma, the son of Atri, was the first of the Lunar line, and from him down to the end of the Dwápar, or brazen age, (being 1200 years) there were about fifty reigns. Now by referring to the table, we see that the beginning of the Trétá of the first system, corresponds to the latter part of the fifth Munzvantara of the second; we therefore naturally look into the Puránas under that period, and there find, among
other names of persons who then lived, those of Atri, Sóma, and Budha, which shews the exact agreement between the two systems.

We next come to the sixth Manwantara*, which by the table, began 111 years later than the Tjuétá, or silver age. Among the names we find mentioned in the Puránas in this period, are Bhrĭgu and Dacsha, who appear to have been cotemporary, or nearly so.-For Yayatr, the fourth prince in descent from Budia in the Lumar dynasty, according to the Purimas, was married to DE'viYa'Ni', the grand-daughter of Bhrigu, of whom he begat two sons, Yadu and Turvasu; and of Sarmishtá, the daughtor of Vrĭshaparvan, the grandson of Dacsha, he begat three sons more, viz. Druhya, Anu, and Puru; consequently, Bhrĭgu and Dacsha must have lived about the same period, and that Budнa could have been earlier only by a few years, perhaps one or two generations at most. 'These circumstances, though they may appear to some at first sight as trivial, involve facts of considerable importance in the Hindu history, while, at the same time, they prove the truth of the ancient systems.

Dacsha appears to have been an astronomer, and to have formed the twenty-seven lunar mansions, and other constellations, of which he is allegorically called the Father, as in the following. verse of the Cálicá Purána.

# नेतायाः पयमेयागे ज़ाता दत्बस्य कलसकाः ? <br>  

* Before Christ 2093.

That is-" In the early part of the Trétá Yug, "the daughters of Dacsha were born; of these " daughters he gave twenty-seven to the Moon."

Dacsha, in some respects, bears a strong resemblance to Atlas, who, according to heathen mythology, was the father of the Pleiades and Hyades, the Criticá and Rohini of Dacsha. Atlas is supposed by some to have been the son of Asia, the daughter of Oceanus:-The Puránas make Dacsha the grandson of the daughter of Oceanus.

We next proceed to the 7th Manwantara. Among the names given in the Puránas in this period, we find those of Jamadagni, Bis'wa'mitha, and Bharadwa'ja, men who, according to the Hindu history, lived towards the close of the Trétí Yug; for Jamadogni was the father of Paraśura'ma, and nephew of Bis'wa'mitra. Hence the two systems agree in this point.

The next period we come to is the Dwápar Yug, or brazen age of the first system. This period is rendered famous in the Hindu history, by the war that took place towards the close of it, between the sons of Dhritarasht'ra and those of Pa'ndu.

Among the names of men we find mentioned in Hindu history, as living in this period, are those of Para'sara, Vya's his son, Garga, Ga'lata, Aswattha'man, Causica, Díptima'n, Crĭpa, Rĭshyas'ringa, \&c.

By reference to the table, this period corresponds to the eighth Manwantara of the second system, under which we accordingly look in the Puránas, and find, as might naturally be expected, among
others, the following names, viz. $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{Ya}^{\prime} \text { s, }} \mathrm{Ga}_{\mathrm{A}^{\prime} \text { lava, }}$ Aswattha'man, C'ausica, Díptima'n, Crîpa, and Rishyas'ringa*。

Having thus fully and clearly proved the truth of the ancient systems, it is unnecessary to proceed farther in the way of comparisons; nor indeed could we, as the fourth period ended shortly after.

We shall, therefore, now proceed to some of the observations that have been left us by Para'sara, Garga, and others of the ancients, which will enable us to judge with more certainty of the actual time in which they lived, as well as of the progress then made in the science of astronomy in India.

It appears, from what is stated in the Párásarí San'hitá, relative to the commencement of the six Hindu seasons, that the solstitial colure had passed through the first point of Dhanisht'há, and the middle of Asleshá, while the equinoctial colure cut the tenth degree of Bharani, and $3^{\circ} 20^{\circ}$ of Visác'há.

The same positions of the colures are also given in a little treatise on ancient astronomy, annexed to one of the Védús, in the possesion of Mr. Coleвrooкe, which he obligingly lent me, the sixth verse of which runs thus ;

* In each Mapzwantara, down to the fourteenth, only a few names are given us in the present Puránas, which seem to have been extracted from some larger works, that are not now to be found,


## प्रपद्रोते अविषिादौ सूर्या चाद्र मसादृद्ध? सारीद्रु टक्षिएार्कसु माब सादुएयोः सदा 11

That is-" In the beginning of S'ravisht'ka, the "Sun and Moon ascend towards the North, and " in the middle of Sárpa, or the mansion of the "serpent, the Sun goes towards the South; the "former, always in Mágh, the latter in S'rívana."

About the year A. D. 527, the solstitial colure, according to Brahmá Gupta, cut $U$. A'shárú in $3^{\circ}$ 20, and Punarvasu in the tenth degree, which made a difference in the positions of the colures, of $23^{\circ} 20^{\prime}$, from the time of Para'sara. For, the longitude of the first point of S'ravisht'há in the Hindu Sphere is, . . . . . . = 9 s. $23^{\circ} 20^{\circ}$ And $3^{\circ}-20^{\prime}$ of $U . A^{\prime}$ sháráa, . $\doteq 9 \quad 00 \quad 00$ Difference or precession to A.1). $527=93 \quad 20$ Which at 50 seconds per annum gives 1680 years. Add from A. D. $5 \mu 7$, to this time, $=1977$ Total years since the time of Para'sara 2957 Which make about one hundred and fifty years, before the beginning of the Cali Yug of the first system of the Graha Munjari; or about one hundred and thirty-one years, before the end of the eighth Manzeantara of the second system.

It appears also from the little work above-mentioned, and its commentary wherein Garga is repeatedly quoted, that the Sun and Moon were supposed to return to a line of conjunction in the first point of S'ravishthá, at the instant of the winter solstice at the end of every cycle or Yug of five years. In this periorl the moon was supposed to make sixty-two revolutions to the sun, and sixtyseven to the same fixed star, or the equinox ; for,
it seems, they had no knowledge of the precession of the equinoxes at that time.

The number of mean solar days assigned to this cycle of five years was 1830, and the number of lunar days in the same time 1860. Hence
1st, The solar?
days in a year,.$\}=\frac{183 n}{5}$
2d, The lunar\}
days in a year,.$\}=\frac{1860}{5}$
$=372^{*}$
3d, The moon's
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { mean annual mo- } \\ \text { tion ......... }\end{array}\right\}=-\frac{67}{5}=$
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { 4th, The moon's } \\ \text { daily motion . . }\end{array}\right\}=\frac{67}{1830}=$
days. h. m . sec.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { 5th, The moon's } \\ \text { periodical revol. }\end{array}\right\}=\frac{1830}{67}=27-7-31-20 \frac{40}{67}$
6th, The moon's $\}=$ synodical revol. $\}=\frac{1830}{69}=29 \quad 12 \quad 23 \quad 13 \frac{17}{31}$

It appears also, that the greatest length of the day was thirty-two Dandus, or twelve hours, forty-eight minutes; consequently, the latitude of the place of observation must have been about $13 \frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ North. There is no mention made in this work, nor in that of Para'sara, of the names of

[^20]the days of the week, or of the twelve signs; which seem to have been introduced into the Hindu astronomy at a much later period.

From the above short sketch, the reader will be able to judge of the progress made in astronomy in India near 3000 years ago. He will perceive that the Hindus at that time, possessed nothing that could be called astronomy, no more than other nations. days. hrs. m. sec.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { The Hindus made the lu- } \\ \text { nation then . . . . . . }\end{array}\right\}=29-12-2313 \frac{17}{3}$
The Europeans make it now $29-12-44$-- 3
Difference about . . . . . $2049 \frac{1}{2}$
Which in less than 165 years would produce an error of one lunation *.

After this period, we meet with nothing on astronomy till we come down to Brahmá Gupta, being a space of about 1680 years, which seems to be an entire blank in the Hindu astronomy. 'This astronomer flourished about A. D. 527, and finding that the ancient systems were very imperfect, on account of the shortness of the periods, he framed an entire new system, on a much larger scale, making the Calpa to consist of 4320000000 years. To this cycle or period of years, he assigned the following revolutions of the planets, \&c.

| Planets. |  | Apsides. | Nodes. retro. |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| SUN, | 4320000000 | 480 |  |
| MOON, | 57753300000 | 488105858 | 232311168 |
| Mercury, | 17936998954 | 332 | 511 |
| VENUS, | 7022389492 | 653 | 593 |
| MARS, | 2296828522 | 292 | 267 |
| JUPITER, | 364226455 | 855 | 63 |
| SATURN, | 146567298 | 41 | 584 |

[^21]

He made Sunday* the first day of the Calpa, on which day, at sun rise, the planets, \&c. are assumed to have been on a line of mean conjunction in the first point of Aries in the Hindu sphere. The years expired of this system on the 1st of Vaisac'ha (or Vysakh $)$ this year $=1972948905$. Hence, the mean places of the planets, \&c. may be computed, from the above data, for any instant required.

This is the third and last system, to which the Hindus have transferred their history, and for which purpose, in imitation of the ancients, they divide it into Manzoantaras and Yugs, as follow:

A Satya Yug of, . . . . . . . 1728000 years.
A Trétić of, . . . . . . . . . 1296000 -
A Dzeápar of, . . . . . . . . . 864000 -
A Cali of, . . . . . . . . . . . $432000-$
A MaháYug, . . . . . . . . . $4320000-$
71 Mahú Yugs, . . . . . . 306720000
with a Satya of, . . . . . . 1728000
A Martantara, . . . . . 308448000
-
14 Manzantaras, . . . . . 4318272000 -
with a Satya at beginning of, 1728000 $\qquad$
The modern Calpa, . . . . 4320000000 $\qquad$

[^22]In order to show how the Hindu history, according to the two former systems, had been transferred to this, let 1979948905, the years now expired be reduced into Manzantaras and Yug's, and we shall have

A Satya at the beginning, . . $=1708000$ years.
6 Mamwantaras complete, $=1850688000$
27 Mahá Yugs of the
7 th Manvantara, $\}=116640000$
Satya of the 28th Mahá Yug, 1725000 -
Trétíc of ditto, . . . . . . . . . 1296000
Dzápar of ditto, . . . . . . . 864000 -
Expired of the Cali of ditto, . 4905
Total years expired, . . . . 1979948905.
Hence, it is evident that, we are now in the 4906 th year of the Cali Yug, of the twenty-eighth Mahí Yug, of the seventh Mamzantara of this new system.

Now, if we transfer the names, \&c. in the four ages of the first system of the Graha Munjari, to the Satya, Trétá, Diópar and Cali above-mentioned, and those in the Manwantaras of the second system, to the Mamaiantara of the same name in this; then we shall have the periods of Hindu history, according to modern notions, founded on the system of Brahmá Gupta.

In the first place, by transferring the names, \&ic. in the Dwápar Yug of the first system, to the period of the same name in the new system, Para'sara, Vya's, and others, who lived near three thousand years ago, are thrown back into antiquity about 5000 years; and the same persons who lived in the eighth Manzeantara, of the second system, by the transfer, will appear as yet to come; for we are now only in the seventh of the new. Secondly,

[^23]Budha, the son of Soma, the first of the Lunar line, who began his reign about the beginning of the Trétá of the first system, or 2204 years, B. C. will, by the transfer, be placed at the distance of 2163102 years, before the Christian era;-Thirdly, in the Trétá and Dzápar of the first system, there were (taken together) 1200 years, during which about fifty princes in the Lunar line had reigned in succession, but the Trétía and Dwápar of the new system contain 2160000 years, which divided among fifty, give 43200 years to a reign;-Fourthly, Budha, the son of Sóma, lived towards the close of the fifth Manwantara of the second system, which being transferred to the new, his name will appear at two distinct periods of time, immensely distant from each other, viz. in the fifth Manzeantara, and again in the Trétá Yug, of the twentyeighth Mahá Yug, of the seventh Manzwantara, being an interval, at the least, of 426816000 years; -Fifthly, the mothers of the children of Yaya'ti (see page 230) who lived in the sixth Manwantara of the second system, by being transferred to the sixth Manzanlara in the new, are thrown back several millions of years before their children, and Dacsha and Bhrígu, by the same transfer, are thrown back, from their cotemporaries, many milions of years. Lastly, Swayambiuva, the Adam of the Findus, who, according to the second system, lived 3878 years before Christ, is placed, by the transfer, 1979947101 years before that epoch.-These are a few of the inconsistercies introduced by the adoption of the new system of Brahain Gupta, the rest may be easily conceived.

To reconcile these different absurdities, it was necessary to new model the whole of the Purínas, and to introduce such fictions and prophecies, as scemed best calculated to answer the end in view ; but which after all, only serve to shew, in a more glaring manner, the folly of the attempt.

The enormous length of the periods in the new system, required that the life of man should be proportionably extended, which was accordingly assumed: In order to account for the same Rishis being mentioned in different periods, immensely distant from each other, they are asserted not only to have existed at all times, but to be still living. But as all men were not Rishis, and as there were twenty-seven Mahá Yugs from the beginning of the seventh Manwantara to the commencement of the twenty-eighth Mahá $Y u g=$ 116640000 years, during which there is no shadow of history ; to account for this, they therefore pretend, that at the end of every Mahá Yug, or 4320000 years, the same names, persons, \&cc. again occur, as in the preceding period; so that by having the names, \&cc. for one MahúYug, or set of four ages, we have them for all the rest.

VYa's, and others, as I have already noticed, lived in the eighth Manteantara of the second system of the Graha Murjari, but by the transfer of the names in that Manwountara, and in the ninth, tenth, \&c. to the periods of the same names in the new system, they would appear as yet to come; therefore, to reconcile this, all that was necessary was to convert it into a prophecy, which was accordingly adopted in the modern Puránas; so that those men who in reality are long since past and gone, appear, in these books, as if yet to come ; and as many millions of ages must clapse, by the new system, before the periods of their prophesied existence can arrive, there is no great danger of detecting the falsehood of such prophecy:

It may however be easily conceived, that such a change in the history, by the introduction of a new system, though highly flattering to the vanity of the Hindus in general, in exalting them. at
least nominally, in point of antiquity above all other nations, would naturally be opposed by many, as long as any knowledge remained of the ancient systems, therefore, the suppression of these would becone necessary. Accordingly we find, by a tradition still current among the learned Hindus, that the Mahárístras, (Mharatas) destroyed all the works of the ancient astronomers they could meet with; which, in some measure, may account for the deficiency we have observed in astronomical works, anterior to the time of Brahmá Gupta. But if the Mharatas did actually destroy the works of the ancient astronomers, it may be justly inferred that other works of antiquity, the subjects of which might contradict the new order of things, have also met the same fate.

From the forcgoing view of the artificial systems which have prevailed at different times, and of the various changes that have been made in the Hindu history, dc. the reader will now be able to judge for himself, and form a just opinion of the antiquity of the books of the Hindus, their arts and their sciences.

In the first place, it must be evident, that as the artificial system of Brama' Gupta, now called the Calpa of Branma', and to which the modern Hindus have artfully transferred their history, is not yet 1300 years old, no book whatever, let its name or title be what it will, in which the monstrous periods of that system, or any allusion to them, is found, can possibly be older than the time of its invention*. And secondly, that

[^24]none of the modern Romances, commonly called the Purínas, at least in the form they now stand, are older than 684 years; the time when the fourteenth Manarmara of the second system of the Graha Munjari ended; but that some of them are the compilations of still later times.

We may, perhaps, be told by some person who has suffered his imagination to get the better of his judgment, that the Hindus firmly believe in the prophecies in the Purínas, and that we have no right to doubt their authenticity, or what universal opinion sanctions as true.

With respect to the firm belief or universal opinion of the Hindus, we know too well the Pallacy of it, and that it is not in the smallest degree to be relied on. We know that it is the universal opinion of the Hindus, that Para'sara, Vya's, Garga, and others, lived near 5000 years ago. But we know, to a certainty, from the positions of the colures in the time of Para'sara, \&cc. that such opinion is totally false, and that it arose from the transfer of the names of men living in the Dwípar Yug of the first system of the Grahia Munjari, to the period of the same name in the modern system of Brahmá Gupta; and that a similar transfer of the names in the eighth, ninth, tenth, \&c. Manwantaras of the second system, to the periods of the same name in the new, gave rise to the pretended prophetic effusion in the modern Puránas,\&c. -Moreover, we know, that it is the general opinion of the Hindus, that Vara'ha Mimira not only lived about the year A. 1). 499, but also at the eia of Vicramáditya, or fifty-six years before Christ; which opinion we know to be inconsistent with truth, and contrary to the course of nature. Vara'ha Mihira, in his rule for calculating the precession of the equinoxes, given in his work, entitled the Játacárnaza, says, -

[^25]R

# शाइमेकाद्षि वेदोनं हिः कृता दस्समईई रेत्। <br> लव्र्युं लीनंच तन्चेव ञयनांश कलः स्मृताः ॥ 

That is, "From the year of Saca take 421:"having put the remainder down in two places, " let one of them be divided by ten, and the quo"tient taken from the other, the residue is the " precession in minutes."

Hence many of the Hindus have, erroneously, concluded that Varaja Mhira must have lived in the year 421 of Saca, or A. D. 499. But surely there is not the smallest foundation to draw any. such inference from the passage, for, he might have lived at the present time and given the same rule. In fact, it might, with equal propriety, be pretended that he lived at the beginning of the Cali Yug, because he assumed the planets to have been in a line of mean conjunction in the first point of Aries at that time. Not satisfied, however ${ }_{2}$, with thus stretching a point in favour of the antiquity of their author, they go something farther, and endeavour from the following verse of the Navaratna, which they generally quote, to refer him to the era of Vicramaditya, fifty-six years before Christ, or upwards of 500 years still carlier than the former.

# प्रचन्तार क्षप्तादामइसिंट शंदुरु <br> वेतालमट वटकर्प काखिदासा:। ख्यातो दराहमिहिरोतृपतें समायं गत्नानिवे वरहचि नंव बिक्रमम्च : 

That is, "Dhanvantsri, Cshapanaca, Amarasinima, S'an'cu, Béta'labhatta, Ghatacak-
púra, Ca'lida's, the celebrated Vara'ha Mihira and Bararuchi, were the nine gems in the council of Raja Vicrama."

Upon shewing the above verse to an intelligent pandit, he smiled and said, with a degree of candour I did not expect, that the inference, with respect to time, usually drawn from it, was not just; for that there had been several princes of the name of Vicrama, or Vicramáditya. That, exclusive of the one from whom the epoch is reckoned, there was another in the time of Salvahan; a third who had succeeded Raja Bhosa; and a fourth lineally descended from the latter, now living at a place, called Bhójpoor, beyond Patna:-that, beside these, there were many others, who had sprung up at different periods in the same family, but that the particular prince in whose time Varaifa Mihira, and the others above named, flourished, was the immediate successor of Raja Bhoja. For, that they were first in the council of Rajah Bhoja, and afterwards in that of Vicramáditya his successor. This simple explanation of the pandit, was a complete solution of the mystery on which the pretended antiquity of the works of Varaiha, Amaras'infaa, Cálidas, Bararuchi, \&c. were founded, and which led many into an error that they were written before the Christian era, though in reality little more than seven hundred years old.

Raja Bhoja, according to the Ayeen Akbery, begall his reign about the year 1153 ot Salvahan. This, however, must be incorrect, for it seemis, that according to Hindu accounts, and others, he began his reign about 210 years before the death of R(ja Pithaura, who fell in battle with the Mahomedans, A. H. 588, or A. D. 119 g. And as Raja Bhoja is said to have reigned 100 years, he must consequently have ascended the throne A. D. 982, and died A. D. 1082: which agrees cxactly with the time in R. ${ }^{2}$
which we know Vara'ha Minira must have flourished, according to the positions of the planets, \&cc. given by him in his works, as well as from the date of the Bhásvati, composed in A. D. 1099, by one of his pupils. Raja Bнола, according to the Agni Purána, was succeeded by Raja Vicrama.

Bararuchr, one of the nine above-mentioned, was the author of a popular Work, entitled Sin'hásana dwátrin'suti, relating to Raja Bнола. The names of Ca'lida's, Bararuchi, \&c. are to be met with in the Bhoja Champu, as also in the Bhoja Prabandha, from which last-mentioned work the following passage is taken :-

## तंबीद्यगने छ्हिजा ुुजः । कालिदास ऋस्माक्ं समग् बेदविदां भोजः किम्राप नार्पयति $n$

"The Bráhmens seeing him (i. e. Ca'lida's) said -O Ca'lida's, Bhoja does not give us, who are learned in all the Védus, any thing."

Several other passages might be quoted from the Bhoja Prabanilha, to shew that Ca'lida's, Bararuchi, and a great many other learned men whose names are therein mentioned, lived at the court of Bhoja. The Bhoja Prabandha, is said to have been written by Raja Bullála Séna.

We may now plainly perceive, from the whole of the above facts, the little dependence there is to be placed on what is usually called the universal or general opinion of the Hindus; which when thoroughly sifted and examined to the bottom, proves at last to be founded, principally, in vanity, ignorance, and credulity.

A great deal more might be said, respecting the history and astronomy of the Hindus; but having already extended this paper to a much greater length than $I$ originally intended, I shall now take leave of-the subject.

## VII.

> An Essay on the Sacred Isles in the $\mathrm{W}_{\text {est }}$, with other Essays connected zeith that Work.

BY CAPTAIN F. WILFORD.

## INTRODUCTION.

AT the moment of appearing before the tribunal of the Asiatic Society, and of the public, it would be in vain to attempt to conceal my emotion and anxiety. On the merit of the composition alone, I am conscious their judgment mus; rest; and this conviction agitates me with doubt and apprehension.

I have omitted no endeavour to render this work as free from imperfections as my abilities would allow; but the subject is so novel, and the source of information so remote from the learned in $E u$ rope, that I must confess I feel no small degree of uneasiness on that account. Fortunately for me, the Society, to which I have the honour of presenting my work, will stand between me and the public, for it is in the power of every member, whether conversant with the Sanscritt language or not, to ascertain the genuineness of all the authorities cited by me; the books, from which I have drawn my information, being by no means rare nor difficult to be procured.

The grand outlines and principal features of this essay are also well known to pandits and learned men in India. A few passages, anecdotes, and circumstances may be, perhaps, unknown to many of them : but these are perfectly immaterial ; and, whether allowed to remain or not, neither my foundation nor superstructure can be affected.

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The Sacred Isles in the West, of which Swetadwipa, or the White Island, is the principal, and the most famous, are, in fact, the holy land of the Hindus. There the fundamental and mysterious transactions of the history of their religion, in its rise and progress, took place. The White Island, this holy land in the West, is so intimately connected with their religion and mythology, that they cannot be separated: and, of course, divines in India are necessarily acquainted with it, as distant Muselmans with Arabia.

This I conceive to be a most favourable circumstance; as, in the present case, the learned have little more to do than to ascertain whether the White Island be England, and the Sacred Isles of the Hindus, the British Isles. After having maturely considered the subject, I think they are. My reasons for this opinion are given in the present work, and I submit them with all due deference to the learned, declaring publicly, that I have, to the best of my knowledge, fairly stated the case, and that I have not designedly omitted any passage that might induce a different conclusion. At the same time I desire them to believe, that I do not mean to write dogmatically, even when I seem to make a positive assertion, and that I never entertained an idea that my conviction should preclude the full exercise of their judgment.

Should the learned, after a due investigation of the subject and of the proofs I have adduced in support of my opinion, dissent from it, and assign another situation for the White Island, and the Sacred Isles, I have not the least objection to it: for, admitting my position to be right, I am conscious that Britain cannot receive any additional lustre from it. Indeed I had originally supposed Crete to be meant, and it was not without some
reluctance, that I gave up the first impression, originating from no unspecious reasons, which however yielded to more solid proofs.

The difficulties I have experienced in bringing forward this work, were numerous. Some origimated from the nature of the work itself, and of the sources from which I drew my information, whilst others were of a most perplexing and distressing nature in themselves.

My original design was to have published my essay on the Sacred Isles by itself, and this several years ago, when it was ready for the press. But in that detached state, if I may be allowed the expression, unaccompanied with the geography of the country from which I drew my information respecting them, and uncomected with the general system of geography of the Hindus, it would have appeared to great disadvantage. Beside, it was far from being so complete as it now is; for I have since found many valuable and interesting materials, which have enabled me to form a more adequate idea of the subject.

A fortunate, but at the same time a most distressful discovery contributed to delay its publication. Though I never entertained the least doubt concerning the genuineness of my vonchers (having cursorily collated them with the originals a little before I had completed my essay), yet when I reflected how cautious an anthor oughit to be, and how easily mistakes will take place, I resolved once more to make a general collation of my vouchers with the originals, before my essay went out of my hands. This I conceived was a duty which I owed, not only to the public, but to my own character.

In going on with the collation, I soon perceived, that whenever the word $S^{\prime}$ wetam, or $S^{\prime}$ reeta-druipa, the name of the principal of the Sacred Isles, and also of the whole cluster, was introduced, the writing was somewhat different, and that the paper was of a different colour, as if stained. Surprised at this strange appearance, I held the page to the light, and perceived immediately that there was an erasure, and that some size had been applied. Even the former word was not so much defaced, but that I could sometimes make it out plainly. I was thunderstruck, but felt some consolation, in knowing that still my manuscript was in my own possession. I recollected my essay on Egypt, and instantly referred to the originals which I had quoted in it, my fears were but too soon realized, the same deception, the same erasures appeared to have pervaded them. I shall not trouble the Society with a description of what $I$ felt, and of my distress at this discorery. My first step was to inform my friends of it, either verbally or by letters, that I might secure, at least, the credit of the first disclusure.

When I reflected, that the discovery might have been made by others, either before or after my death, that in one case my situation would have been truly distressful; and that in the other my nane would have passed with infamy to posterity, and increased the calendar of imposture, it brought on such paroxysms as threatened the most serious consequences in my then infirm state of health. I formed at first the resolution to give up entirely my researches and pursuits, and to inform Government and the public of my misfortune. But my friends dissuaded me from taking any hasty step; and advised me to ascertain whether the deception had pervaded the whole of the authorities cited by me, or some parts only. I followed their advice,
and having resumed the collation of my vouchers with unexceptionable manuscripts, I found that the impositions were not so exteusive as I had apprehended.

The nature of my inquiries and pursuits was originally the source of this misfortune. Had they been confined to some particular object, to be found within the limits of a few books, as astronomy, it could never have taken place; but the case was very different. The geography, history, and mythology of the Hindus are blended together, and dispersed through a vast number of voluminous books, in which prevails a most disgusting confusion and verbosity. Besides, the titles of their books have seldom any affinity with the contents; and I have often found most valuable materials in treatises, the professed subject of which was of the most unpromising nature.

Thus when I began to study the Sanscrit language, I was obliged to wade, with difficulty, through ponderous volumes, generally without finding any thing valuable enough to reward me for my trouble. But in the course of conversation, my pandit, and other learned natives, often mentioned most interesting legends, bearing an astonishing affinity with those of the western mythologists.

I consequently directed my pandit to make extracts from all the Purán'as and other books relative to my inquiries, and to arrange them under proper heads. I gave him a proper establishment of assistants and writers, and I requested him to procure another pandit to assist me in my studies; and I obtained, for his further encouragement, a place for him in the college at Benares. At the same time, I amused myself with unfolding to him our ancient mythology, history, and geo-
graphy. This was albsolutely necessary, as a clue to gutle him through so immense an undertaking, and I had full confidence in him. His manners were blunt and rough, and his arguing with me on several religious points with coolness and steadiness, a thing very uncommon among natives, (who on occasions of this kind, are apt to recede, or seen to coincide in opinion,) raised him in my esteem. I affected to consider him as my Guru, or spiritual teacher; and at certain festivals, in return for his discoreries and commmnications, handsome presents were made to him and his family.

The extracts which I thus received from him, I continued to translate, by way of exercise, till, in a few ycars, this collection became very voluminous. At our commencement, I enjoined him to be particularly cautious in his extracts and quotations; and informed him, that if I should, at a future period, determine to publish any thing, the strictest scrutiny would take place in the collation. He secmed to acquiesce fully in this; and we went on, without any suspicion on my part, until Sir William Jones strongly recommended to me to publish some of my discoveries, particularly respecting Egypt. I collected immediately all my vouchers relating to that country, carefully revised my translations, selected the best passages, compared them with all the fragments I could find. among our ancient authors, and framed the whole into an essay. I then informed my pandit that, previously to my sending it to Sir W. Jones, a most scrupulous collation of the vouchers, with the origimal manuscripts from which they were extracted, would take place.

To this, without the least alteration in his countenance, nay, with the greatest cheerfulncss, he assented; and as several months interwened, he
had time to prepare himself; so that when the collation took place, I saw no ground to discredit his extracts, and was satisfied.

I have since learned, that, as the moncy for his establishment passed through his hands, his avaricious disposition led him to embezzle the whole, and to attempt to perform the task alone, which was impracticable. In order to a void the trouble of consulting books, he conceived the idea of framing legends from what he recollected from the Purinias, and from what he had picked up in conversation with me. As he was exceedingly well read in the Pur'arias, and other similar books, in consequence of his situation with a Marhatta chief of the first rank in his younger days, it was an easy task for him; and he studied to introduce as much truth as he conld, to obviate the danger of immediate detection.

Many of the legends were very correct, except in the name of the country, which he generally eltered into that of either Esypt or S'wétam.

His forgeries were of three kinds; in the first there was only a word or two altered; in the second were such legends as had undergone a more material alteration ; and in the third all those which he had written from memory.

With regard to those of the first class, when he found that I was resolved to make a collation of the manuscripts, he began to adulterate and disfigure his own manuscript, mine, and the manuscripts of the college, by erasing the original name of the country, and putting that of Egypt or of S"wétam in its place.

To prevent my detecting those of the second
class, which were not numerous, but of the greatest importance in their nature; and as books in India are not bound as in Europe, and every leaf is loose, he took out one or two leaves, and substituted others with an adulterous legend. In books of some antiquity it is not uncommon to see a few new leaves inserted in the room of others that were wanting,

To conceal his impositions of the third class, which is the most numerous, he had the patience to write two voluminous sections, supposed to belong one to the Scanda Murania, and the other to the Brahmán'da, in which he connected all the legends together, in the usual style of the Puránas. These two sections, the titles of which he borrowed, consist, as he wrote them, of no less than 19,000 Slocas, or lines. The real sections are so very scarce, that they are generally supposed to be lost, and probably are so, unless they are to be found in the library of the Rajah of Jayanaggar. Other impostors have had recourse to the Scan'da, Brahmánida, and Padma-purán'as, a great part of which is not at present to be found; and for that reason, these are called the Puranas of thieves or impostors; though the genuineness of such parts as are in common use has never been questioned. -Some persons attempted, by such means, to deceive the famous Jayasinha, and the late Ticatraya, prime minister of the Nabob of Oude. They were discovered, lost their places and appointments, and were disgraced.

My chief pandit certainly had no idea, in the first instance, that he should be driven to such extremities. I used (as already remarked) to translate the extracts which he made for me, by way of exercise; and never thought, at that time, of comparing them with the originals; first, because

1 had no reason to doubt their authenticity; and secondly; because it would have been soon enough to make the collation when I had determined upon publishing any part of them.

This apparently lulled him into security; but, being afterwards sensible of the danger of his detection, he was induced to attempt the most daring falsification of the originals, in order, if possible, to extricate himself. When discovered, he flew into the most violent paroxysms of rage, calling down the vengeance of heaven, with the most horrid and tremendous imprecations upon himself and his children, if the extracts were not true. He brought ten Bráhmens, not only as compurgators, but also to swear, by what is most sacred in their religion, to the genuineness of these extracts. After giving them a severe reprimand, for this prostitution of their sacerdotal character, I, of course, refused to allow them to proceed.

And here I shall close the recital of what relates personally to a man, whose course of imposition I have deemed incumbent on me to lay before the public. He came to me in distress, but with a fair reputation; he is now in affluence, but with a character infamous for ingratitude, and fraud, and deceit. His voluminous extracts are still of great use to me, because they always contain much truth, and the learned, therefore, have not been misted in their general conclusions from my essay on Egypt; though it would be dangerous for any one to use detached passages, and apply them to any particular purpose. In the course of my present work, I have collected carefully what I could find in India concerning Ethiopia and Esypt.

A few instances of the impositions of my pandit will exemplify his mode of proceeding. The first
is a legend of the greatest importance, and said to be extracted from the Padma. It contains the history of Noail and his three sons, and is written in a masterly style. But unfortunately there is not a word of it to be found in that Puraria. It is, however, mentioned, though in less explicit terms, in many Purinias, and the pandit took particular care in pointing out to me several passages which confirmed, more or less, this interesting legend. Of these I took little notice, as his extract appeared more explicit and satisfactory; and I do not now recollect in what Purán'as, or other books, they are contained. It is acknowledged, that the three sons of Swayambhuva are incarnations of the Trimurti; and they are declared, in general, in the Puránias, to have been created by the Deity to marry the three daughters of the first man, with a view to avoid the defilement of human conception, gestation, and birth.

Dacsha and Brahma' in a human shape; Carddama, or Capila, or Cabil, (the name of Cain among Muselmans,) was S'iva; and the benevolent Ruchi, was Vishnu : one of Ruch's titles is S'arma and S'ama: S'iva is called Ha and Ham in the objective case; and Brahma, or Dacsia, is declared to be Praja'patt, nearly synonymous with Jya'pati.

In the Mahá-Bhárata, section of the Adipurva, there is a much more positive passage. D'harma, or the first man, sprang from the right side of Brahma', which was cut open for that purpose; to him were born three sons, S'ama, Cama, and Harsila.

The rest of the legend, about the intoxication of Noah, is from what my pandit picked up in conversation with mc.

One of the sons of Noani is called Ifa'-pati, synonymous with Jya'pati, the lord of the earth, the same with Praja'patr, or the lord of mankind. Indeed the denomination of Prajápati is originally no more than Japuti, with the upsarga, or indeclinable particle pra, used intensively. Jah is the principle of life in a living being; hence a man is called Pra-já, from his superiority above the rest of the animal creation. Besides, it is very common in India to prefix the particle pra to proper names of holy men, and more particularly so among the Baudd'hists. Thus they say, PraS'wana, the venerable S'wava. Pra-ariyya-sira, the venerable sire of the A'ryyas, Pra-Iswara, \&cc. In the same mamer, Praja'pati signifies the renerable Ja'patr, the chief of the animated creation. This will not seem in the least surprising, when we reflect that the Hindus never admit of any legend, without disfiguring it so as to make it their own. Besides, we see the enmity between Braman and S'ta remaining still in their human shapes; for Carddames'waka killed his brother Dacsila.

It is acknowledged, both by Hindus and the western mythologists, that at every renovation of the world the same events take place, the same heroes re-appear upon the scene; and of course Sama, Cama, Harsha, or Pra-ja'pati, are borin again to every Menu.

Ila, or Ila', called also Id'a', and Ira', was the son of Noah; and Ifri-pati is synonymous with Jya'pati, and implicitly so with Ja'pati. This Ita is called Ilys in the theogony of Orpheus, and Ghilshah in Persian romances, which literally answers to ILa'-pati. He is, perhaps, the same with the eldest Ilus of Iomer.

The next legend is that of Semiramis, which the pandit has most shamefully disfigured. She is well known in India under the name of S'amídeví; and she is the goddess of the element of fire, so inimical to the vegetable kingdom, the Stháwaras, or immoveable beings; and of course to their chief, Vishnu, in the character of the Aswattina tree, which is declared to be the first, the chief of trees, and of course St'háwarpati; or Staurobates.

S'amí, and the Aswatt ha tree, have each two countenances; one is that of a tree of the same name, the other is that of a human being. In this, which is their original character, $\mathrm{Sa}^{\prime} \mathrm{mi}$ is the same with Urvasi, who married Pururava, the grandson of Noah, exactly in the same degree of descent with the founder of Ninive. The same is called also Aila in the Puraías, and Lailanshah by Persian romancer:, Ninus by the Greeks, and in the Tamuli dialect he is called Nilan. Their amours and thenr quarrels, and ultimately their reconciliation, are the subject of a beautiful drama. Her charms certainly effected the conquest of Lailan's heart; they quarrelled, and she disappeared in a most wonderful manner; but LarLaN, with powerful spells, forced her back. Semiramis first conquered Staurobates, but was conquered by him at last.

S'amí and Pururava were changed into two trees, without losing their human countenances, the Samí and the As'wattha; the St'ha'warapati and S'amí-deví remain dallying in the tree of the same name; hence she is really Samí-rama, though that denomination be never used.

Her history is to be found in the Ganess'a, Vishivu, and Bhágarat Puránus, and also in the Mahá Bhárata, but it is incomplete in each
of thenı: and the whole must be brought together and compared with the account given of her in the above Nulaca, or dramatic poem.

It is my intention to resume her history in the course of this work; and, in the mean time, I shall observe, that she was born at Tihotra (or Tri-hotra), to the west of Dehli; acknowledged to be the same place which is now called Tehora or Tehaura, and Tahora in the Peutingerian tables, near the river Sutluj: Tihotra is also supposed to be the same with Tri-garta, a place often mentioned in Hinda books.

That goddess was the daughter of Aurvasa, who presides over the elementary fire, and is mostinimical to the Sthawars, and their lord and pati of course.

The story of the two doves, mentioned in my essay on Semiramis, is unknown to the Patranics; but there are some legends about them in the western parts of India, where they apply them to, or, perhaps, framed them, in consequence of the two doves found by Moh ammed in the Caaba at Mecca; which they claim, with some reason, as a place of worship belonging originally to the Hindus.

The misfortune which befel Mara'-dena is well known : but the discerption of the sacred Linga is represented, in the Puramas, in a different light. It was divided into twelve parts, besides many splinters. These twelve Lingas preside over the twelve months of the year. I was concerned, for a long time, that I could not discover the least restiges of the legends concerning Persevs, Andromada, and Pegasus, nor eren the names of the principal characters : but these I have lately found in the Yantra-rija, and other books, with a most ample account of the thirty-six Decani, so famous Vol. VIII.
in Egyptian astronomy, and called Drescim in Saniscrit.

Perseus is called there Pretas'ra, or the man with the Larva's head, and the same situation is assigned to him in the heavens. Ile is also called S'arla-muc'ina (or having a stony face or head), alluding to the head of Medusi, which turned the beholders into stone. Pegisus is also mentioned there under the name of SAMU'DRA-PACSHI, or the bird of the ocean. He is likewise called Samu'draPADA, because his hindparts and feet are concealed in the ocean. The lesser horse is called Hayagriva: but the legends of all these are still wanting, except the last, which will appear in the course of this work. Andronéds is called Vejara', and is represented with her head shaven, and her hands bound in fetters. Cassiopea is called Lebaná, and Cepheus Nripa or Nrì̈-rupa, and Persiam authors say, he is the same with Car-c'aous. He is slightly mentioned in other Hindu books as a great king. He was the father of the Cephenes, and Cepmisene was their native country ; in Sanscrit Cápis'áyara. Capes'a is Cepheus, apud C'ápis'a is the patronymic appellation of his descendants, called also Sihlucas.

My essays on the chronology of the IFindus and mount Caucasus, are almost entirely free firom the forgeries which I hare stated, because my chief pandit had little to do with them. I recollect only three instances in which he interfered; and in then the legends were, as usual, disfigured by him. 'They are legends respecting Pronetuleus and the Eagle; with some particulars relating to Bámáyan and the Lipari islands. Giarida's den is weil hnown to this day, to pilgrims, and the Hindus of these parts. 'The place is callud Shitr, in Major liexivel's maps,
for Shabar; and it is not far from Bámíyan. There Garída used to devour all the Shabaras who passed by; and, in the Puránias, all savage tribes are thus called. Amongst others were some servants of Maha'-deva whom he deroured: this drew upon him the resentment of that irascible deity, whose servants are called Pramathas: hence, probably, the ground-work of the fable of Prometheus and the Eagle. All the rest is an improvement, from what the Pandit gathered out of our conversations on the subject of ancient mythology. His account of Bámíyan, from the Budd'ha-dharma-charitra must be rejected till its genuineness be ascertained. There is such a book at Benares, but all my endeavours to procure it have been fruitless. In this legend he has certainly adopted admirably the manner, style, and notions of the followers of Budd'ha, and the idiom of the language of their books. I have seen the original legend from which he framed his own, about the islands of Lipari, but it has not the least relation to these islands, and belongs to some place in the mountains to the north of India.

In like manner, many of the legends cited in my essay on Egypt, though they have a striking affinity with those of that country, are not expressly said to belong either to that or to any particular country, being related in gencral terms. In these cases, my Pandit inserted the name of Egypt, and if the name of any other country was mentioned, he erased it, and put that of Egypt in its place. Yet the similarity between these legends, and many more which are quoted in the course of this work, and the authenticity of which may be depended upon, with those of the Egyptians and other mythologists, is so striking, as to erince their original identity: for so near a coincidence, in my humble opinion, could not have been merely accidental.

It evinces also some remote communication, at least, if not some affinity, at an early period, between the nations among which we find these legends equally current.

In the Hindu books we read of some princes who raised mountains of gold, silver, and precious stones; some three; others only one: but whether this be applicable to Egypt does not appear, rather the contrary. It was, however, a practice formerly, and, if restricted to a single pyramid, it was intended for the mountain of God, the holy mount Meru. If three pyramids were constructed, they were intended to represent the three peaks of Mer'm. There is a beautiful pyramid at Sarnáth near Benares, built by a king of Gaur; or Bengal. It is conical, and of earth, with a coating of bricks, and is about seventy feet high. In the inscription found there some years ago, it is declared to be intended as a representation of Meru, which is represented of a conical figure by the Hindus, but like a square pyramid by the followers of Budpin. The tower, or pyramid of Babel, was of a square form, with seven stages or steps, like Meru.

The recession of the sea from the valley of Egypt is no where mentioned: but the same miracle is recorded as performed by several holy men, particularly on the western shores of India. Indeed, whenever the Hindu writers treat of the accession of lands, which were formerly occupied by the sea, they never fail to attribute it to the prayers of some holy personage.

In the course of my correspondence with the venerable Sir Willian Jones, the Institutor and first President of the Asiatic Society, and my pation in Oriental literature, I mentioned the discoreries which I thought I had made, and particularly re-
specting Ethiopia and Egypt. He expressed his surprise; but could not be brought to believe an early, or even any communication whatsoever, between the inhabitants of those countries and the Hindus. As I was just entering upon my studies and literary enquiries at that time, he wrote me candidly, that he was afraid I had been misled by enthusiasm, and cautioned me not to trust to the verbal accounts of the Brathenens; but requested that I would, for his satisfaction, send to him the necessary written documents from the Purinias. I complied with his request most chearfully, and sent him all my vouchers as correct as possible. After perusing them, he wrote to me nearly in the following words, the purport of which I recollece perfectly, but lament that his letter being mislaid, I cannot produce it.
"Having read the numerous passage you adduce " in support of your assertions, in their original lan" guage, in the extracts you have sent me, both " alone and with a pandit, I am fully satisfied that " there existed an early commmication between the "Hindus and the inhabitants of Ethiopicand Eggypt."

He then informed me, that his collection of the Puránias being incomplete, he had not been able to compare all the extracts which I had sent to him concerning Ethiopia and Eeypt; but that he had found several of the most essential, such as the legends about Nairiyt and the Palef, and that he could bear testimony to their general accuracy. Besides, Nairrit, and hìs being appointed guardian of the south-west quarter of the old continent, being well known to leamed pandits, they had pointed out to him several passages in other Puríras and Sanscrit books, relating to Narrair, S'ANc'Ha-DWípa, \&e. so that he was fully convinced S 3
of their genuineness and antiquity; and as for the others of less importance, he did not entertain the least doubt about their being equally genuine. He added, that learned pandits were, besides, well acquainted with the general outlines of most of the other legends I had produced; and concluded by saying, that he intended to make some remarks on my essay on Egypt, in which he would express his conviction in those terms.

In the remarks which Sir Wilifam Jones did afterward subjoin to my essay, and which were published with it in the third volume of the transactions of the Asiatic Society, he could not have intended a stronger public testimonial than that which he had communicated to me privately. But as the terms of one passage, relative to the Sanscrit papers which I transmitted to him, as taken from the $P u$ yan'as, and other books, might be understood to imply a more general collation of my extracts with the original works, than had taken place, or could have been meant, I have thought it incumbent on me to add the preceding explanation of the real circumstances..

I shall ever lament that I was the cause of Sir Wildiam Jones being thus misled like myself. I have shewn that I was exposed to imposition; first, from the nature of my literary pursuits; and, in the second place, from the confidence which I reposed in the integrity of my native assistants, and more particularly my chief pandit. This no longer exists, and of course no similar deception can now take place. If a word, or a passage of importance in any manuscript, bears the least mark of adulteration, it must be given up, unless corroborated by collating it with other books, which are totally free from suspicion.

I have prepared two copies of my rouchers, one for the Asiatic Society, and the other for the Col-
lege of Fort IVilliam. I have already presented one to Mr. Colebrooke; and I take this opportunity to acknowledge the friendly assistance I have always received from that gentleman, and his ready communication of every sort of information that could be of use to me, through the whole course of my literary pursuits, and for which I return, most gratefully, my most sincere and hearty thanks : and I candidly acknowledge, that without his assistance I shouid never have been able to bring to a conclusion, in a manner satisfactory to myself, the present work, which, from its nature, and that of the materials, is attended with difficulties of which few people, unacquainted with the subject, can form any idea.

With regard to the British Isles, I soon found that the grand outlines were perfectly correct; even more so than those of my essay on Egypt and Ethiopia, which countries are very little known to the learned, and of which little is recorded in the Puránias, when compared to their holy land. My pandit had filled up the rest with a vast number of legends of all sorts, but most of them of little importance, and. affording very little light on the subject.

The White Island, in the West, is the holy land of the Hindus. It is of course a sort of fairy land, which, as might be expected from their well known disposition, they have not failed to store with wonderful mountains, places of worship, and holy streams. It would be highly imprudent to attempt to ascertain their present names and situation; though I have occasionally broken through this rule, and may have been seduced, by a strange similarity of names and other circumstances, within the fascinating attraction of conjectural etymology. .

Should the learned reject this, not deeming the presumptive proofs strongy enough, I beg their indulgence in the few cases of this description, which certainly camnot mislead them. It is seldom the lot of authors to write without some enthiusiasm, a portion of which may perhaps be necessary. I have faithfully collected whatever I could find in the Puránas and other Hindu books, relating to this holy land, whether bearing some marks of truth, or obviously fictitious; and I solemnly declare that I have not the desire, either to defend or impugn the notions of the Hindus, as I conceive them, in regard to these Sacred Isles.

It would have been doing injustice to the subject, to have attempted to give an account of these Islands, without the geographical. system of the Hindus, who believe them, and consider them as a terrestrial paradise.

I have, therefore, premised an ample, but still incomplete system of geography, according to the followers of Brahma' and Budd'ha.

I have added an essay on the chronology of the Hindus and the emperors of India; with geographical, mythological, and historical sketches of the intermediate countrics from India to the British Isles, inclusively. It will appear, in the course of this work, that the language of the followers of Brahma', their geographical knowledge, their history and mythology, have extended throngh a range or belt about forty degrees broad, across the old continent, in a South-East and North-West direction, from the Eastern shores of the Maláya peninsula to the Western extremity of the British Isles.

Through this immense range, the same original
religious notions re-appear in various places, under various modifications, as might be expected ; and there is not a greater difference between the tenets aind worship of the IFindus and Greeks, than exists between those of the churches of Rome and Gereca. With regard to the languages, both ancient and modern, through this belt, their radical words, verbs and nouns, with others regularly deduced from them, are in great measure Sienserit. It cannot be expected that their respective grammars should preserve much affinity. It is the fate of every language, when in a state of decay; to lose gradually its cases, moods, and tenses of the second order, and to employ anxiliary verbs, which the Sariscrit uses sparingly, and liy no means through necessity. Thave observed that gradual state of decay in the Sonscrit language, through the dialects in use in the Ziastern parts of India down to the lowest; in which lest, though all the words are Sanscrit more or less corrupted, the grammatical part is poor and deficient, exactly like that of our modern languages in Europe, whilst that of the higher dialects of that country is at least equal to that of the Lutirn language. From such state of degradation no language can recover itself: all the refinements of civilization and leaming will never retrieve the use of a lost case or mood. The improvements consist only in borrowing words from other languages, and in framing new ones occisionally: This is the remark of an eminent modern writer, and experience shows that he is perfectly right. Even the Simscrit alphabet, when stripped of its double letters, and of those peculiar to that language, is the Pelasgic, and every letter is to be found in that, or the other ancient alphahets which obtained fomerly all over Europe, and I am now preparing a short essay on that interesting sulyiect.

The principal object I have in view in this essay is to prove that the Sacred Isles of the Hindus, if not the British Isles, are at least some remote country to the North-west of the old continent: for I cannot conceive that they are altogether Utnpian or imaginary. But a secondary one alsn is to prove that the greatest part of the legends, which formerly obtained all over the Western parts of the world, from India to the British Isles, were originally the same with those found in the mythology of the Hindus. Besides these, they had also in every country local notions and legends, as well as local Deities, and which of course were peculiar to them.

The principal essay on the Sacred Isles in the West will appear, with the permission of the Asiatic Society, in a future volume of their Researches; and it is proposed to publish the series of essays mentioned with that work in the following order.

The Introduction.
Essay 1. On the geographical systems of the Hindus.

- II. Geographical and historical sketches on Ami-Gangam, or the Ciangetic provinces.
$\qquad$ III. Chronology of the kings of Magadha, emperors of India.
- IV. On Vicramáditya and S'alifa'hana, with their respective æras.
- V. The rise, progress, and decline of the Christian religion in India.
_- VI. The Sacred Isles in the West.


## PART. 'IHE FIRST.

## CHAPTER THE FIRST.

## OF THE GEOGRAPHICAL S!YSTEMS OF THE HINDUS.

## Section I.

General Ideas of these Systems.

THE Hindus have no name, either for geography or geometry, but we are not to infer thence, that they have entirely neglected these two sciences. They are certainly pretty well acquainted with geometry, but they consider it, and with some reason, as part of the science of numbers; and neither can our denomination of geometry, which signifies surveying, be considered as a very apposite term. In the time of the famous JayaSinha, Raja of Jayapur, the leamed at his court gave it the name of Cshétra-dersana, or the inspection and knowledge of figures; and a treatise on geometry, composed by his command, is still called by that name. These elements begin with an inquiry into the properties of lines simply combined together, which combination is called acshétra, or informous. They then proceed to the consideration of regular tigures or cshétra, as a triangle, a square, cube, \&c. whilst an angle is called acshétra, or informous.

> The Hindus give various names to geographical tracts, such as Bhírana-Cósa, or treasure of terrestrial mansions; C'shétra-Samása, or combination of countries; Bíúvana-Sagára, or ocean of
mansions or habitable places. Such a geographical treatise is cited by Signor Bayer, under the corrupted appellation of Puzana Saccaram. Another treatise in my possession is called Trailócyadarparia, and was given to me by the late Mr. Reubes burrow, who procured it near Hardaír. Its name signifies the mirror of the three worlds, meaning heaven, earth, and hel!, and answers exactly to the ereatise ascribed to Saint Patrick, and called Disserlutio de Tribus Lot is, or habitaculis. It was written some hundred yedrs ago, and the copy I have is of the year 1718 of Vicrama'ditya. In several Puriaias, there is a section expressly on the subject of geography, and for that reason called Bhícuana-C'ós'a. It is alsu dienominated Bhí-c'han'da, or section of the earth. Except the sections contained in the $P$ raran'as, geographical tracts are in gensal writien in the spoken dialects, and are extromely scerce, as they are discountenanced by the nucerdotal class, as are historical books. This they have often acknowledged to me, saying, they have the Purinias; what do they want more: Besides, as they are witten in the vulgar dialects, they are the works of persons not sufficiently leamed and informed, and very apt, as I am told, in hazard occasionally a few heretical notions. They are not, however, so strict in the Dekhin, and the western parts of India: there, I an credibly informed, they have treatises expressly on the subject both of history and geography.

There are two eengraphical tracts in Sunscrit: the first, called l'icramapratidés'a ryarast há, is attributed to Vicrama'ditya, probably the one of that name, who lived, as we shall see hereafter, in the fifth century, and it is said to consist of eighteen, or twenty thousand slócas or lines: the second, called Munjo--i)ratides' $(-$ ryatast'há, is attri-
buted to king Muxsa, the uncle of the famous Bhója, who lived in the latter end of the tenth century. It is nearly the same with the former, including some amendments and additions. These two geographical treatises cannot but be curious and interesting, but unfortunatel;, they are not to be found in this part of India. They are however pretty common in the Western parts of it, and particularly so in Gurjarát', where they have been seen by several respectable pandits of that country. The Trai-Lócya-darparia, which I mentioned before, is according to the system of the followers of Budd'ha, and is written in an uncouth dialect of the inland parts of India; with a strange mixture of Sauscrit words and phrases.

The Cshétra-Samása is another geographical tract by the Jainas, which I lately procured. It is written in Pracrit, asserted by some to be the sane with the Bäli or Mágad'hi dialect, but probably somewhat different from that used in the Burman empire, Siam and Ceylon. The Báli or ITágud'hi, was the language used at the court of the emperors of India, kings of Magad'ha or Bahar, and called also Bali-putras, because they were descended from the famous Bali, or Nanda; and their kingdom is denominated after them Poli by the Chinese. This last is accompanied by a copious commentary, with several fanciful delineations of the world, and of mount Méru.

With regard to history, the Hindus really have nothing but romances, from which some truths occasionally may be extracted, as well as from their geographical tracts. Those in Sanscrit are the Charitras, or actions of Vicrama'ditya, of king Dióra, and others.

The Vrühat-Cat'há is a collection of historical anecdotes, sometimes very interesting, and consists of 22000 slócas.

In the spoken dialects, there is the romance of Prithu-ráya, containing an account of his wars with Sultan Ginori ; part of it is in my possession. It is exactly in the style of our old romances in Europe, with nearly the same proportion of historical truth.

In several of the Puránas there is an account of the principal events, which were to take place during the Cáli-yug *. These come down as late as the eighth and ninth centuries, except in the $A g n i$ and the Bhavishya Puráas, in which there is an account written, as usual, in a prophetical style, of the principal events, which were to take place, as late as the twelfth century. In the time of Acbar, a supplement was added, down to Huma'run, as is obvious from the lists of the kings of Málzoa in the second volume of the Ayin-Acberi. Since that time another supplement has been added, down to the beginning of the eightcenth century.

It is universally acknowledged, that the court of the kings of Magad'ha, now the province of Bahar, was once, one of the most brilliant that ever existed, and that learning was promoted there, through its various branches. Their vernacular language was cultirated, and many valuable treatises were writtell in it, in order to diffinse knowledge among all classes of men. This, I am informed, was carried so far as to incur the resentment of the whole sacerdotal class, who manimously declared, that

[^26]Mrugad' ha could no longer be considered as a proper country for the twice-born to live in, without losing the fruit of their good works, and greatly impairing their energy in the paths of righteous. ness.

Besides geographical tracts, the Hindus have also maps of the world, both according to the system of the Pauranics, and of the astronomers: the latter are very common. They have also maps of India, and of particular districts, in which latitudes and longitudes are entirely out of question, and they never make use of a scale of equal parts. The sea shores, rivers, and ranges of mountarns, are represented in general by straight lines. The best map of this sort I ever saw, was one of the kingdom of Napál, presented to Mr. Hastings. It was about four feet long, and two and a half broad, of paste board, and the mountains raised about an inch above the surface, with trees painted all round. The roads were represented by a red line, and the rivers with a blue one. The various ranges were very distinct, with the narrow passes through them: in short, it wanted but $a$ scale. The valley of Napál was accurately delineated: but toward the borders of the map, every thing: was crowed, and in confusion.

These works, whether historical or geographical, are most extravagant compositions, in which little regard indeed is paid to truth. King Vicramáditya had four lakhs of boats, carried on carts, for ferrying his numerous armies over lakes and rivers. "In their treatises on geography, they seem to view the globe through a prism, as if adomed with the liveliest colours. Mountains are of solid gold, bright like ten thousand sums; and others are of precious gems. Some of silver, borrow the
mild and dery beams of the moon. There are rivers and seas of liquid amber, clarified butter, milk, curds, and intoxicating liquors. Geographical truth is sacrificed to a symmetrical arrangement of countries, mountains, lakes, and rivers, with which ther are highly delighted. There are two gengraphical systems among the Hindus: the first and most ancient is according to the Purinuas, in which the Earth is considered as a convex surface gradually sloping toward the borders, and surrounded by the ocean. The second and modern system is that adopted by astronomers, and certainly the worst, of the two. The Pauranics considering the Earth as a flat surface, or nearly so, their knowledge does not extend much beyond the old continent, or the superior hemisphere: but astronomers, being acquainted with the globular shape of the Earth, and of course with an inferior hemisphere, were under the necessity of borrowing largely from the superior part in order to fill up the interior one. Thus their astronomical knowledge instead of being of service fo geography, has augmented the confusion, distorted and dislocated every part, every country in the old continent. The Paurańics represent, in general, the Earth as a flat surface; though it appears from the context to be of convex figure, with a gentle slope all round toward the ocean, which is supported by a circular range of mountains, callod Localocas by the IIindus; Caf by Musumums, anid by our ancient mythoiogists Athas; Dyris, Dyrim, from the Sanscrit tir, and tiram, the margin term or border of the world, or the Iarder (Earth's) Thremi in the E'dda Sermadr.

The Jezes and the arcients in general, considered the Earth as a flat surface. This idea was certainly a most natural one, till the study of astro-
nomy had undeceived the learned, who, as usual at these early times, did not impart this discovery to the vulgar.

On the higher parts, and in the center of the Earth, the Hindus place a mountain standing like a column 84000 Yojanas high, 32000 broad at the top, and 16000 at the bottom. It is circular, and in the shape of an inverted cone. This idea prevailed once in the West: for, when Cleanthes asserted that the Earth was in the shape of a cone, this, in my opinion, is to be understood only of this mountain, called Méru, in India*. Anaximenes said that this column was plain, and of stone: exactly like the Méru-pargwette (parvata) of the inhabitants of Ceylon, according to Mr. Jonnville, in the seventh volume of the Asiatic Researches. This mountain, says he, is entirely of stone, 68000 Yojanas high, and 10000 in circumference, and of the same size from the top to the bottom. The divines of Tibet say, it is square, and like an inverted pyramid. Some of the followers of Budd'hat, in India, insist, that it is like a drum, with a swell in the middle like drums in India; and formerly, in the West, Leucrppus had said the same thing; and the Baudd'hists in India give that shape also to islands. This figure is given as an emblem of the reunion of the original powers of nature. Méru is the sacred and primeval Linga: and the Earth beneath is the mysterious Yoni expanded, and open like the Padima or Lotos. The convexity in the centre is the Os Tince, or navel of Vishnu : and they often represent the physiological mysteries of their religion, by the emblem of the Lotos; where the whole flower signifies both the Earth, and the two principles of its fectinda-

[^27]$\dagger$ Trailocya-derpana.
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tion : the germ is both Méru and the Linga: the petals and filaments are the mountains which encircle Méru, and are also the type of the Yóni: the four leaves of the calyx are the four vast regions toward the cardinal points: and the leaves of the plant are the different islands in the ocean rourd Jambu: and the whole floats upon the waters like a boat. The Ifindus do not say, like the Chaldeans, that the Earth has the shape of a boat, which is only the type of it. It is their opinion, I do not know on what authority, that at the time of the flood, the two principles of generation assumed the shape of a boat with its mast, in order to preserve mankind. Enthusiasts among the Hindus see these two principles every where, in the clefts of rocks, commissures of branches, peaks among mountains, \&c. The Earth is typified by a boat; the Argha of the Hindus, the Cymbium of the Egyptians, are also emblems of the Earth, and of the mysterious Yóni. 'The Argha, or Cymbium, signifies a vessel, cup, or rlish, in which fruits and flowers are offered to the Deities, and ought to be in the shape of a boat; though we see many that are oval, circular, or square. Is'wara is called Argha-nát'h'a, (or the lord of the broad-shaped vessel *:) and Osiris, according to Plurarch, was commander of the Argo, and was represented by the Egyptians in a boat, carried on the shoulders of a great many men, who, I think, might be calied, with propriety, Argonauts. The ship, worshipped by the Sueri, according to 'Tacitus, was the Argha, or Argo, and the type of the mysterious Yoni. The Argha, with the Linga of stone, is found all over India as an object of worship. It is strewed with flowers, and water is powed on the Linga. The rim represents Yóni, and the fossa navicularis, and instead of the Lingra,

[^28]I's'wara might be represented standing in the middle, as they used to do in Egypt.
II. The Hindus have peculiar names for the four cardinal points, derived from their respective situation, with regard to a man looking toward the rising sun, which is the most proper time to worship him. The East, from that circumstance, is called Para, and Púrva, or before: the West, Apara, and Pas'chima, or behind. The South, being then to the right, is called Dacshiría, and the North Váma, or the left.

From dacshin'a comes obviously the Greek dexion: the Latin dexter, dexterum is from dacsh-tir, or dacshatiram, towards the right. Paschima is obviously a derivative form, the root of which, pas'cha, is no longer to be found in Sanscrit, unless in other irregular forms, as pashchát ; but it is still in use in the spoken dialects, in which it is pronounced picha, and from pas'cha is derived the Latin post, or behind, and postumus for postimus, answers to pas'chima, or pas'chum, in the spoken dialects. Para is the English word fore: thus we say a fairy from the Persian Peri. It is also pronounced pra, as in pra-pada, the fore-foot, or fore part of the foot, including the Tarsus and Metatarsus; and from it is derived the Latin pree and the Greek pro. From this circumstance there arose a peculiar division of the old continent; the midland countries are called Mad'hyama, or in the middle; those toward the East Para, but more generally Púrva: Para is used oftener as an adjective noun, as Para-Gan'dicá, the Eastern Gan'dica. The countries towards the West are denominated Apara, Apar. Its derivatives are aparam, aparen'a, an adverb; aparica, aparicá, aparicam, masculine, feminine, and neu-
ter*. This division is used in scripture, in which the apellations of Paraaim and Ophir, signify the countries to the East and to the West. These denominations are not deducible from the Hebrew, but only from the Sanscrit language ; and Apar and Apurica are the same with Ophir, Aphar, and Africa. In Hebrete, the word Ophir, without points, is written Aupir; and the learned bishop Low'rı derives Africa from Aupir or Auphir. That country, we are told, was thus called from a certain Aphros, or Apiraus, who was the son of Saturn and the nymph Pifeaura, according to the Paschal chronicle. He was the brother of Prcus and Chiron, and is called Apuar by Cedrevus. Another ancient author, as I have somewhere read, calls him Ophris and Aphra; and says he was a companion of Hercules: and Isidorus adds $\dagger$, that the apellation of $A$ ser was supposed to have been Aper originally. The word Aparica is then synonymous with Ibericas, Iberica, \&c. The Latin word Apricus seems to have been used to denote a westerly situation, as being more favoured with the congenial warmeth of the sun. This ridiculous notion, still prevalent among the country people in many parts of Europe and in $I_{n}$ dia, originated from a supposition, that the Earth was a flat surface. Thus they say, that part of the country is fertile, being under the sum of three; but the other is not so, being under the sun of nine oclock. The word Aparica is not used by the followers of Brahma' to denote the Western parts of the world; but it is constantly so by the Bauddhists. Thus in Ara and in C'eylon. the Western parts of the world are called, by Mr. Jo-

[^29]invillez*, Aprica-Dani, and Aparehgo-Daneh by Captain Mahorr. These denominations are Sanscrit, Aparica-Dhámi the Western mansions, or countries. Dhánt is a place of abode in Sanscrit: in the language of Tibet, it is den, and significs also a countryt; and the word den, in English, claims the same original derivation. The Burmahs, say Amaragoja, which is still a further corruption like Apparehgo. The Eastern parts are called, in ceylon, Püra-weedeseyeh from the Sunscrit Purva-ditha, of Purva-videha, or Videhasya in a derivative form, the country of Purva, or toward the East. In Aca they say Pioppi-videha, but it should be Proppi-videha; for Mr. Buchanan, in his interesting account of the learning and manners of the Burmahs, informs us, that in that country they generally use the letter I for R; thus in the Bengali dialect they say Purob, and Pob for the East. The North is called, by the Sinhalas, Ootooroocooroo-Dewehimneh, according to Captain Mahony, from the Sanscrit Uttara-curu, stili used to signify the Northern parts of the old continent. The same is called Uncheugru by the Burmahs, according to Mr. Buchavan; but in the account of P. Sangermano, lent to me by Captain Rumaine, it is Undeugru, which seens to be but a corruption from Uttara-curu. The Southern parts are called Jambu-dzípa in Ceylon, and Zabuc-dib by the Burmahs. In the Vayil Purúna, the Eastern part of the old continent is equally called Purva-dzipa as in Ceylon and Ava, and the river Orus is called Apara-gandicá, or Western Gan'dicá; whence we may safely conclude, that they said also Aparadzoipa for the West. Apareyam and Apareya are regular derivative forms from Apara; and from them is obviously derived Iberia, the ancient name of

[^30]the Western parts of Europe, including Gaul and Spain. Homer uses, in that sense, the appellations of Hypercia and Apera*; Abera is found in Apollodorus; for thus we must read instead of Abdera, as we shall see hereafter. It is well known to the learned, that, at a very remote period, Europe and Africa were considered but as one of the two grand? divisions of the world; and that the appellation of Africa was even extended to the Western parts of Europe, all along the shores of the Atlantic. Hence the West wind, or Zephyyus, is called the Lybian or African wind; and Homer, if I am not mistaken, makes Zephyrus to blow directly from Lybia, or Africa into Greece.

Instead of para and purva, the word muchia, face, or front, is often used, particularly in the spoken dialects, and some times with the augmentative particle su; and in the dialect of Bengal, sho; thus they say sho much, right in front, due East. Though equally grammatical, yet it is not usual to say, Su-para, Su-purva, Sho-para, or Sho-purva, in that sense. It seems, however, that it was once in use; for in Scripture we have Parcaim and Se-parraim, or Se-pharvaim, the name of a country, the situation of which is by no means well ascertained; yet it is probable, that it was near the mountains of Se-phar, or Sc-para, towards the East, according to Scriptire: and it is not unreasonable to suppose, that Paroaim, Se-pharvaim, with the mountains of Se-phar, belong to the same country, which I take to be India, called by the Copts, Sopheir; and by no means to be confounded with Ophir. India is also called, by Hesychius and Josephus, Su-phir, or Su-pheir; and So-phora by Procopius $\dagger$.

[^31]The Sanscrit appellation of Purvam, for the Eastern countries, is written Parvim in Hebrew without points; but with points it becomes Parvaim, which appears in a plural form. The Septuagint read Pharvaim; and, in that case, in the singular number, it should be Parva or Pharva. In the course of etymological enquiries, I have always found it more convenient to read the Hebrew without points, when the affinity is obviously greater. Thus the word in question is written without points $P-r-v-i-m$, or with the vowel inherent to every consonant, as in Sunscrit, and the common Nágri, Pa-ra-va-i-ma: the only difficulty in Nagri and Hebrew, is to find out, in a word, what consonants are to coalesce. The words Sicphar, and Se-pharvaim, without the points, are to be read Se-para and Se-parvim.

The mountains of Se-phar seem to be that range called Be-pyrrus by Ptolemy, and placed by him to the North of India, answering to the first range, or snowy mountains. This range, in Prolemy, begins at Hardwoir, and instead of Bepyrrius, several authors read Sepyrrus. In Sanscrit, Su-para, and Vi-para or Bi-para, for thus it is generally pronounced, are synonymous, and perfectly grammatical, though perhaps never used; and signify right before, due East. Bi-para significs also Easternmost; and, in its first acceptation, is the same with before in English, which is now synonymous with fore, or afore: yet there is no doubt but that formerly it was otherwise, and that before signified right afore. It is true, that the particles su, and bi like ge, in the dialects from the Gothic, are often used without enhancing the signification of the word they are prefixed to. Thus fore and before, para, su-para, bi-para, and su-mucha, or sho-muctia, in Ben, allee, signify the same thing. Tlle posterity
of Shem, we are told in scripture, dwelt in the country extending from Mesha as thou goest unto Sephar, a mount of the East. This seems to be meant as an explanation of the word Sephar, and at all events implics, that this mountain was a great way to the Eastward. In Europe they called the West Hesperus, and the country toward the West Hesperia. That country is considered by the Puuránics, as the abode of the Gods, or Suralayam, an appellation well known to the learned, and applied by them, in conformity with the Pu'rinias, to the Westernmost part of Europe, or the British Isles. Another denomination for Surálayam, and which might be Sanscrit, is $I^{\prime}$ sá-pura, or $I^{\prime} s^{\prime}$-pura, though probably never used. This was pronounced by the Gothic tribes $A s$-burh, As-byrig, As-purgium: they said also $A s$-gard, which implies the same thing. There Is'a, or Is'wara Vishnu, resides with all the Gods.

The word Is'a was pronounced Asos, Asioi, by the Greeks, As by the Goths; and for puri, or pura, the Goths said burh, byrig, or burgh; the Gireeks pyrgos. The words As-puri, As-burh, Aspurgium, Hesperus, are pronounced by the Persians, Asburj; where burj or burujs, is synonymous with puri, purl, \&.c. In their romances, we see Cuicaus going to the mountain of $A z$-burj, or $A s$-bury, at the foot of which the sun sets, to fight the Divsefid, or white devil, the T'ára-daitya of the Pina$n^{\prime} u s$, and whose abode was on the seventh stage of the world, answering to the seventh zone of the Baudd hists, and the sixth of the Purán'ics; or, in other words, to the White Island. The Goths, it is true, placed $A s$-burlh, or $A s$-gard, in the East; for when they had conquered the Western abode of the Gods, they found none there; and rather than give up this idle notion, they supposed that

As-burh, or $A s$-gard, was in the East. Besides mount Méru is another Surálayam, As-burh, Asgard, and is in the East.

The Jews and the Arabians, to this day, call the South Yaman, Yamin, and Jamin, which imply the right. The Hindus call the South also Yamyu or Jámya, and Yámasya; because Yama (Peuto), called also Yaman, is the guardian of that quarter: and when Pliny* says, that the Hindus called the South Dramasa, it should be Diamasa, from Jamasya, as Diamuna for Jamuná, the river Junonú. We have seen that dexion in Greek, and derter, dewerum in Latin, are derived from the Sanscrit dacshin'a, dacsha-tír, and dacsha-tíram: and it is not improbable, but that sinistcr, sinistrum, simisterium, or the left in Latin, and aristeros, aristeron in Greek, are equally derived from the Sanscrit 'Senis-tir, or 'Senis-titam, and A'rasya-tíram, or A'rus-tíram; that is to say, Saturns quarter, in the same manner that the Hindus say, Yama's quarter, for the South; for Senih, or $\Lambda^{\prime} \mathrm{rah}$, resided in the North: Jupiter gave him that quarter for his residence, and made him guardian of it. Saturn, according to Cicero and Plutarch, was peculiarly worshipped by the nations in the Western parts of Europe, and in the North; though the latter says, that, in process of time, his worship began gradually to decline there. He was born in the left, and perished on the right. The Greeks and Romans considered the South as on the right, and the North on the left. Among them, as well as the Hindus, the right was considered as more honourable, and, of course, in worshipping and performing processions, they turned towartis the right, kecpung the object of their worship on

[^32]the ripht; but the Greeks, says Piny on these occasions, turn to the left : and, among the Greeks and Romans, in their races in the circus, they drove round the Spina, or ridge in the middle, keeping it all the while on their left. The Hindus seem to have always considered the four cardinal points in the same light; but various systems appeared at different times, in other parts of the world. Empedocles, according to Plutarch, maintained, that the summer solstice happened in the right, or North; and the winter solstice in the left, or South. 'This system prevailed once in the West, and of course the West was before, and the East behind, or aparam, uperenia, \&cc. from that time the winter solstice was called by the Latians, Hibernum, which cannot be derived from hyems, winter. This last comes from the Sanscrit hima; and, in a derivative form, haima and haimas, snow; and hyems implies the snowy season: and mount Haimos, or Hamus, in Thrace, signifies the snowy mountain; and as the West was then before, it was called Su-para or Zephyrus, Sc-phar and Sepyrrus, like that famous range of mountains in the East, mentioned by Prolemy, and in the Bible. King JebA, a famous antiquary, was also of opinion, that the North is on the right; and this is confirmed by Achifles Tatius. The Esyptians, says Plutarch, placed the North on the right, and the South on the left. These alterations must have occasioned feuds among augurs and astrolo§ers ; and were, probably either admitted or rejected at different times, according to the power and influence of prevailing factions. This lappened no less than four times in Egypt; and, of course, four times the points wherein the sun rises and sets, were considered in different points of view, and received rlifferent denominations; and well they might say to Herodotes, that the sun
had four times altered the time of its rising and setting. Twice it rose where it rose before; and twice it did set, where it was seen to rise before. All this happened, they said, without the least alteration in the climate of Egypt. These enigmas, or paradoxes; were much admired formerly, and they were not very willing to explain them.

The same thing happened in Europe; for the sun, shocked at the abominable repast of Atreus, turned back, and set where it used to rise before; that is to say, an alteration took place in the application of the denomination of before and behind, right and left, with regard to the four cardinal points; and Atreus is represented as a famous astronomer, who explained the yearly revolution of the Sun, performed in a contrary direction; in gonsequence of which the Sun is said, by the Barul'hists, and also by Brahmens, to rise in the West, and to set in the East: and the famous mountain of Astagira, behind which the Sun disappears, is called also the mountain of the rising Sun, or Udaya-giri, and even Mahodaya. In the extracts from manuscripts, in the library of the king of France, there is one from the golden meadows of the famous Masoudi, who lived in the tenth century. The author says, that in the opinion of some philosophers, the renewal of the world would happen, when the circle of the ruling stars shall be accomplished; then what had been North will be South. But, according to the Indians, says he, the Sun remains 3000 years in each of the twelve signs, and performs his revolution in the heavens in 36,000 years. That, when he passes through the meridional signs, the world will be reversed; North will become South, and South will beeome North: that is to say, as I take it to be, the North will be considered as the right of the world, and the

South as the left. Some Hindus are of opinion, that, at the end of the Calpas, a total renewal of the world will take place, and every thing will be seversed; the gods will become devils, and the devils gods. The giants, they acknowledge, were Pitrua-dévas, or the first gods. The Egyptians, perhaps, entertained the same notions, and the mythologists in the West certainly did.
III. Another division of the world, is into a mainland and islands, which is also that of scripture, in which the isles of the nations, or liehagoim, are ofren mentioned. This division has also been admitted by Musulmans, who call them Jezair-alomam. Commentators understand by them, not only the islands, but also the peninsulas in the Western parts of the old continent; for in Sanscrit, cuipu implies only a country, with waters on both sides; so that, like Jazirah in Arabic, they may signify either islands or peninsulas; dxcipa and jazirah are often used to signify countries bordering upon the sea only. By the isles of nations, the istunds, peninsulas, and maritime countries in the West, and particularly in Europe, are understoorl: it is even so with the Paurianics, who are very little acquainted with the Eastern parts of the old continent, even to a surprising degree, and much less then we could reasonably suppose.

The most remarkable feature of this system is mount Merre in the centre, the Olympus of the Hindus, the place of abode of Brahma', and his Subhá congregation, or court. This mountain made also part of the cosmographical system of the Jeters; for Isainh, making use of such notions as were generally received in his time, introduces Lucreer, in Sazscrit Swarehánu, or light of heaven, boasting that he would exalt his throne
above the stars of God, and would sit on the mount of the congregation, in the sides of the North. Méru has also the name of Sabhá, because the congregation or assembly of the Gods is held there, on its northern side. The hill of God is also frequently alluded to in the psalms, though, in some instances, it seems to imply mount Moriah. Musulmans have admitted this mountain, under the name of Caf, though they confound it, in general, with the mountains of Lócàlóca, which surround the world: but when they say it is the ratced, or pivot of the world, this is to be understood of mount Méru, which the Pauránics descrihe exactly in the shape of a pirot; and even Méru, in Sanscrit, signifies an axis or pieot. According to Anquetil Duperron, the Parsis call this centrical mountain Tireh; and the whole world is equally surrounded by an immense range of mountains. In Ceylon, this surrounding range is called Chacraeartta, according to Captain Mahonr*, which, in Saiscrit, signifies any thing in the shape of a ring or coit. The Burmahs call it Zetkia-ciala, which word is pronouced Sakzell by Mr. Jorn vilee, and said to signify the world in general. In Zethiavála, vála signifies a ring, or any thing in an annular shape, from the Sanscrit válya; and Zethiavíla, or Sakzeell, may be a corruption from S"ácyiavallya, the ring of S'A'cta or Budd'ha, who is supposed to have made it. The Western mythologists supposed the world, and its seas, to be surrounded by a land, or continent, of a circular figure, according to Plutarch, and Sileness's nartative, as related by Elian ; and the pilot of the Argunazts, being near Peuce, or Iceland, was very much atiaid of being driven on its shores $\dagger$.

[^33]There are several divisions of the old continent; the first, and the most ancient, according to the Purán'as, is into seven dw'ípas; the Baudd'hists in India reckon eight of them, this number being a favourite one among them. The followers of Bunn'ни in Tibet, Ceylon, and Ava, have retained the Bráhmenical divisions, and reckon but seven. This division was made by Priyavratta, the eldest son of Swayambhuva, or Adam, in his old age, and previous to his withdrawing into solitude. He had ten sons, and it was his intention to divide the whole Earth between them equally: but three of them renounced the world : their names were Med'ha', Agnibhu, and Mina, or Mitra. In the same manner Neptune divided the Atlantis between his ten sons: one of them had Gades, at the extremity of the Atlantis to his share. The Atlantis was probably the old continent, at the extremity of which is Gades. This island or continent is supported by Vara'ha on one tusk according to the Pauránics: but according to mythologist, in the West, Atlas supported the heavens, though, he is said some times to support the world. The Musulmans say that the Earth is supported on the horns of a bull. This Atlantis was overwhelned with a flood likewise; and it scems that by the Atlantis, we should understand the antediluvian Earth, over which ten princes were born to rule, according to the mythology of the West: but seven of them only sate upon the throne, according to the Pauráricis. The names of these islands are Jambu proper or India, Cus'a, Placsha, S'álmali or 'Salmala, Crauncha or Croun'da 'Saca and Pushicara. These du'ipas, or countries, give their names to so many respective zones round Meru, which is the name the Paurdrics give also to the Poles. If we disregard entirely the diagrams, or fanciful schemes, of the astronomers, and adhere-
to the text of the Puránas, we shall immediately perceive that these seven zones are really our seven climates: for Jambu, or India, is the first, and Pushcara is declared to be at the furthest extremities of the West, and in the same climate with Uttara Curu; which last is expressly said to be the country lying South of the Northern ocean. Pushcar:a is the Thule of Ртоцemi, and the modern Iceland, under the Arctic circle, at least, the sensible one. It is true that the seven climates, in general, were not supposed to extend much beyond the mouth of the Borysthenes: but Ptotemy, and Agathemerus, by dividing each climate into three parts (like the Hindus, who divide the seven zone-like regions of Heaven, Hell, and Earth into three, the begimning, the middie, and the end), thus made twenty-one subordinate climates, extending from the equator to the polar circle. Every climate was denominated from some famous city, country, or island in it; thus we have the zone or climate of Meröre, that of Rhodes, \&c. The dwípas, or climates of the Hindus, gradually increase in breadth, from the equator to the polar circle, from a whimsical notion that they are all equal, as to the superficial contents. The seven zones of the Hindus correspond with the following countries : Jambu is India, Cus'a answers to the countries between the Persian gulf, the Caspian sea, and the Western boundary of India. Placsha includes the lesser Asiu, Armenia, \&cc. 'Salmali is bounded to the West by the Cromian seas; that is to say, the Adriatic and Baltic scas. Crauncha includes Germany; Sacam, the British isles; and Pushcara is Iceland.

The Pauránics, however, consider these seven zones in a very different light, and the text of the Puriaías is equally applicabic to their scheme. By Merre they understand, in geacral, the North pole,
but the context of the Puránas is against this supposition. In these sacred books, Méru is considered solely as a point to the North of India, from which four large rivers issue, and flow toward the four cardinal points of the world: and we frequently read of countries and places said to be to the North of Méru, others are declared to be West, East, South, and North-west from it. This surely can have no reference whatever to the North pole, where the denominations of North, East, and West vanish.

This Méru will appear in the sequel of this work, to be to the North of India, on the clevated plains of Tartary, and in the latitude of forty-five degrees. This point is considered in the Purán'as, as the center of the world as known to the Hindus: there is its zenith or Méru, which is as applicable to a line passing through the centre, zenith, and nadir of a place, as to that passing through the poles. In whatever light we consider Méru, it is always the centre of the world, as delineated by the Pauránicics. Cosmas, surnamed Indopleustes, from his travels into India, in the sixth century, says, that in his time the Brákmens asserted that, if a line was drawn from Chiza to Greece, it would pass through the centre of the world, or through this Méru. The Paurén'ics and astronomers in India, had not then attempted to disfigure their cosmographical system : and did not, at that period, consider Méru as the North pole. Round this point they draw seven zones, and the context of the Purán'as is as farourable to this supposition, as to the former, because these zones equally pass through the above islands. These zones have introduced much confusion, and entirely disfigured their geographical system. They are by no means countenanced in the body of the Purúnas; being
only introduced in a section of some of them called Bhú-c'han'da, or section of the Earth, which seems to be interpolated, and of a more recent date.

The Hindus, and the followers of Budd'Ha, differ considerably about the shape, and situation of the zones. The Pauránics say, that they are so many concentric circles enclosing Jambu, and situated between it and the land which bounds the Universe, and the first climate is that of Méru, included in the dwipa of Jumbu: among the Greeks and Romans, the first climate was that of Meroë. Astronomers having discovered that the Earth is of a globular form, have placed them within the Southern hemisphere, which they fill up entirely. The Baudd'hists of Tibet represent these zones as so many concentric squares between Jambu or India, and mount Méru. The followers of Budd'ha in Ceylon consider them as so many circles, but place them also between Jambur and Méru, considered as the North pole. The Jainas in India have, in grvat measure adopted the Hindu system: but reckon eight dwípus. Dwípa-át'ha-mai haï Jágá sára, the whole world consists of eight dwipas, says the author of the Trailocya-darpan'a. Though the followers of Budd'ha seem to reckon seven dwípas, like the Hindus, they really reckon eight; for Mére is not included among the seven : they say the seven ranges of mountains, or zones round Méru: but the Paurínics consider Méru und! Ja cobu as one of their seven diedifics. Se cu is a favourite and fortunate number among the Hindus: eigh among the Baudd'hists; and nine for ne iy in th West, and in the North If Asia. Berwe a these zones, there are seven seats, or rivers only, according oo some of the followers of Bundra, and some Hinrlus also. There are even sone, who consider these oceans, or rivers, either as one, or only as so many Vol. VIII.
branches springing from one head, and winding seven times round Méru, according to the Pauráutics, or, eight times, according to the Baudd'hists: but according to Servius, the Sty.x went nine times round the Earth. They reckoned, accordingly, nine seas and nine dweipas, or worlds. These nine worlds are noticed in the Eddla-Samudr, and the nine oceans are mentioned by Plutarch, who informs us that a certain Timarchus visited the oracle of Trophonius, where, in a vision, he saw the islands of the departed in the eighth part, or division of the ocean. These islands, according to the Hinchus, and the followers of Jina, are constantly placed in the last sea but one: thus they are in the sixth, according to the Hindus: in the seventh, according to the Jainas: but the Western mythologists placed them in the eighth, because they reckoned nine seas. Nine was held a mystical and sacred number in the Northern parts of the old continent, from China to the extremities of the West. The Cimbri observed the ninth day, month, and year, sacrificing ninety-nine men, as many horses, \&c. The number seven was held to be sacred by the Hebrews, and also by Musulmans to this day, who reckon seven climates, seven seas, seren heavens, and as many hells. According to Rabbis and Musulman authors, the body of ADAns was made of seven handfuls of mould taken from the seven stages of the Earth: and, indeed, the seven zones, or ranges of mountains, are arranged by the Hindus like so many steps, rising gradually one above another, in such manner that Méru looks like an immense pillar or obelisk with a case, either circular or square, and consisting of seven steps, but, according to others, of eight, or even nine. The length, or height, of this obelisk is to its bteadth, as 84 to 16 . The Hindus generally represent mount Méru of a conical figure, and kings

Were formerly fond of raising mounds of earth in that shape, which they venerated like the divine Méru, and the Gods were called down by spells to come and dally upon them. They are called Mérusringgas, or the peaks of Méru. There are four of them either in, or near Benares: the more modern, and, of course, the most perfect, is at a place called Sár-natt'l). It was raised by the son of an Emperor of Gaur, in Bengal, with his brother, in the year of Vicrajádityá, 1083, ansivering to the year of Christ, 1027, as mentioned in an inscription lately found there. This emperor had, it seems, annexed Benares to his dominions, for he is reckoned as one of the kings of Benares, under the name of Budd'ha-sena. This conical hill is about sixty feet high, with a small but handsome octagonal temple on the summit: It is said, in the inscription, that this artificial hill was intended as a representation of the worldly Méru, the hill of God, and the tower of Babel, with its seven steps, or zones, was probably raised with a similar view, and for the same purpose.

I observed before, that the Hindus place Jambu within these seven inclosures, while the heterodox Baudd'hists insist that it is without, and that these seven ranges of mountains, or dwipas, pass between it and Méru. As these zones, ranges, and inclosures are impossible, and, of course, never existed, they are to be rejected: but the countries, and islands, after which they were denominated, and through which they are supposed to pass, probably existed with their surrounding seas. The Nubian geographer is the only author, I believe, who has connected the seven climates with as many seas, or rather bays, and gulfs, as he calls them.
IV. The first, or dze'ipa of Jambu, commonly called India, was formerly an island, as it appears
from the inspection of the country. The British provinces along the Ganges from Hari-dwár, down to the mouth of that river, was formerly an arm of the sea: and, in the same mamer, toward the West, another arm of the sea extended from the mouth of the Indus to Hari-dwar, and there met the other from the East. A delineation of the Northern shores of India could not be attended with much difficulty, as they are, in general, sufficiently obvious. The sea coast may be traced from the Neelgur mountains to Rájamáhl, where it turns suddenly to the West. There the shore is bold, and rises abruptly, forming a promontory, consisting chiefly of large rounded stones, irregularly heaped together, but these irregular heaps may be only the ruins of more regular strata in the mountain. These stones are, in general, of an oval, yet irregular shape, about two feet long, sometimes three. Their superior and inferior surfaces are somewhat flattened, and, in some instances, I thought I perceived, that one was concave and the other convex. I found, also, there some $V$ olcanic nucle $i$ above one foot and a half in diameter: in one that was broken the interior coats were very obvious: the outward surface was remarkable for numerous cracks and fissures, some very deep, and all forming together a variety of irregular figures. This I found at the foot of the hill, near the Sácri-gully pass ; unfortunately, I am not sufficiently acquainted with Natural History to enter upon such a subject; and I shail conclude with observing, that I conceive the cascade of Muti-jirná, near this place, to be the remains of the crater of a Vulcano. This I mentioned with a view to engage the attention of persons better quadified than I am, for such enquir es *.

[^34]From liajiathl, the shore trends towards the West, forming several head-lands; the principal of which are Mongheir, and Chunar. From thence it goes all along the banks of the Jumná to Agra, and to Dellit, where it ends, forming two sinall rocky cminences; and then turns suddenly to the South West; and forming an irregular semi-circle, it trends towards the Indus, which it joins near Backar, at the distance of about four coss from that place, and one from Lohri, or Rohri, where, suddenly turning to the South, it goes towards Ramipoor, sixteen coss from Rohri, and four from Gun. mot on the Indus. This account is from Captain Falvey, who visited that country about the year 1787. From Delli to Backar, in a direct line, there are no mountains, for the hills remain to the South of this line, forming an immense curve. Thus, from the mouth of the Indus to that of the Gunges, round Delhi, it is an inamense flat and level country. The beach of the shores to the North, at the foot of the snowy mountains, and to the South, round the island of India, in ancient times, is covered with pebbles, some of the most beautiful I ever saw. But the greatest part of them are not real pebbles; they are only fragments of stones, marble, and agate, rounded and polished by mutual attrition, produced by the agitation of the waves. It seems as if the waters, which once filled up the Gangetic provinces, had been suddenly turned into earth: for the shores, the rocks, and isiands, rise abruptly from the level; and are every where well defined, and strongly marked; except where the

[^35]surface of the adjacent level has been disturbed by the incroachments of rivers, and torrents from the hills in the rains, or by the industry of man. This I noticed particularly about Birbhoom, and to the South-east of Chunar. What we call the hills in this country, and which appear such, from the immense plains below, are, in reality, the table-land of old India. In the Gangetic provinces no native earth is to be found, and the soil consists of rarious strata of different soits of earths, in tle greatest confusion, the lightest being often found below the heaviest. The deepest excaration, that ever came to my knowledge, was made, some years ago, near Benares, at a place called Comowly, within a furlong, I believe, of the Ganges, by some gentlemen who were erecting some indigo works. They pierced through an amazing thick stratum of stiff earth, without obtaining water. They found then several beds of mould and sand, remarkably thin; then at the depth of about ninetyfive feet, they arrived at an old bed of the Ganges, which consisted of a deep stratum of river sand, with bones of men and quadrupeds. They were supposed to be petrefactions, from their extraordinary weight, though they preserved their original texture. The human bones were entire, but those of quadruperis were broken, and bore evident marks of their having been cut with a sharp instrument. This bed was exactly thirty feet below the present bed of the Ganges. Below this stratum of sand they found another of clay; and below it, some mould: then, at the depth of about one hundred and five feet, they found a bed of fine white sand, such as is found on the sea shore. Under this they found a bed of the same clay and earth as there was above: and they were relieved from their labours, by a copious stream of fresh water. The sight of the sea sand gave me some hope of finding some marine productions, but I was disappointed: which shews
that this bed of sand was merely adventitious, and had been brought down by the river from the shores to the lower parts of its bed; and that the old bottom of the sea was considerably below. The same appearances, with human bones, have been found lately at different places, in digging wells near the Ganges, and generally at the same depth nearly.

To ascertain the quantity of the declivity, both of the country and of the bed of the Ganges, would be useful and entertaining: but I have nothing but conjectures to offer on this subject. When we consider the numerous windings of this river, we may safely conclude, that the declivity cannot be considerable. It is greater from Hurdwír to Allahabad, and through the country of Oude, than any where else. From Allahabad to Sácri-gully, it appears to be trifing; but from the head of the Delta, where the banks are gencrally about thirty feet above the surface of the waters of the river, when at their lowest period, the declivity is uniform down to the sea (where the land is nearly on a level with it), for a space of two hundred and thirty miles: I have often observed, between Allahabad anảRi(ijumaihl, that there was no sensible declivity in the surface of the waters of the river, when at their lowest period, for ten miles, in some places fifteen, and even twenty in others. For since there was no sensible current in the river, when the winds were silent, there could be no declivity. Besides, the river Cosa, which fell into the Ganges formerly opposite Rájamúhl, has altered its course, and joins this river twenty-five miles higher up, which is the distance between Nabob-gunge and its present mouth. If the declivity was very considerable, this could not have happened. In the Western parts of the Gangetic provinces there are two de-
clivities, one from the North and the other from the West, in consequence of which the rivers flow in a compound direction toward the South-east. But as you advance toward the East, the declivity from the West toward the East decreases gradually, and of course the rivers incline more and more toward the South, till the declivity from the West, disappearing entirely, they run directly South into the Gainges. The rivers in Bahar, to the South of the Ganges, run also directly North into the Ganges.

This inland-sea being narrower at the bottom, near Hardwér, was of course sooner filled up; and the table land of old India, about Delhi, is very little above the level of the country. In the time of Bhagiratha, the Gangetic provinces are represented as uninhabitable, except in the upper parts of the country, where Satyavhatta, or Noar, is said to have generally resided. Bhagirat'ha went to Hardwair, and obtained the Ganges, led her to the ocean, tracing, with the wheels of his chariot, two furrows, which were to be the limits of her incroachments. The distance between them is said by some to be four coss, and according to others four Yojanas; and the Ganges has never been known, it is said, to transgress on either side. This legend is of great antiquity, as it is mentioned by Philostratus in his life of Apollonius. The Ganges, says he, once nearly overfluwed all India (the Gangetic provinces); but his son directed its course towards the sea, and thus rendered it highly beneficial to the country. Thus we read in the history of China, that the Hoangho formerly caused great devastations all over the country: but the emperor Yu went in search of its source, from whence he directed its course to the sea. Hercules, at the command of Osiris, brought the Nile from Ethiopia; this Christians.
and Musulmans formerly attributed to Enoch, or Idris.' Bhagiratiha thus brought the Ganges to a place on the shores of the ocean, called GiungáSaigara, where it was made to discharge its waters through seven channels; but, according to others, through one hundred. The first number is mentioned by Mela, and the other by Apuleius,

> Eois regnator aquis in flumina centum, Discurrit, centum valles illi, oraque centum, Oceanique fretis centeno jungitur ammi.

"This king of the Eastern wave runs into a hun"dred streams; with a hundred mouths, through a " hundred channels. hike so many vallies; and joins " the ocean through a hundredfold stream."

The Ganges, advancing toward the ocean, was frightened, and fled back through one hundred channels, according to the Paurán'ics; and through this exercise she goes twice every day.

This happened at a place called Purán'a-Ságara, or old Ságara; for the new Ságara is in the island of that name near the sea, and the old one is near Fultu, close to a place called Mun'da-gachiha, or Moragatcha, in Major Rennee's Atlas. There is an insignificant stream very often dry, which is the true Ganges, which divides its waters into seven small rivulets, some of which are delineated in the Bengal Atlas: from this circumstance, the Ganges is called S"át-muchi-Gangá in the spoken dialects, or with seven mouths. When she is called S'áta-muc'hi, or with one hundred mouths, this implies her numerous channels, through the Sunderbunds. The oid Ságara, probably the Oceanis of Drodorus the Sicilian, is now about fifty miles from the Southern extremity of Sagar island; and
this distance shews the encroachment of the land upon the sea, since the days of Bhagirat'ha, who Iived above two thousand years before Christ, according to the genealogical scale prefixed to my essay on the chronology of the Hindus. The new Sagara was originally on the sea shore, but it is now five or six miles from it, toward the East, and many more toward the North. It is to be wished, that the era of its foundation could be ascertained, as it would enable us to form some idea of the gradual progress of the encroachments of the Delta upon the sea.

There can be no doubt, but that the factitious soil of the Giangetic provinces, and of the Panjab, has been brought down by the alluvions of rivers from the countries to the North of India. The quantity of earth thus breught down must have been very considerable at a very early period; but it is very trifling at present, for these alluvions have left nothing but the bare rocks, with such parcels of ground as were out of their reach, from their being supported and protected by stony ramparts. The country between the ranges to the North of Indica is a table-land, and forms, as it were, so many steps, as mentioned in the Trai-lócya-derpania, and by the Pauran'ics. This circumstance was ascertained by Mr. Samuel Dayts, who went as far as the first range. This was also confirmed to me by natives, with respect to other parts of the country, as far as Cashmir. On these table-lands are also various peaks and mountains; and the beds of the rivers look like so many ravines of an enormous size.
V. By the dzuipa of Jambu, the Pauranics understand, in general, the old continent, but the followers of ludd'na, in Tibet, Ava, and Ceylon,
understand Indiat and many passages from the Purinius, prove that it was originally understood of India only.

The devipa of Jambu, or India, is called also Can'yú-dzeipa, or the island of the virgin or damsel, danghter of king Bharata, the fifth from Swayambuuva, or Aday. Her name was Ila', or the Earth: this was also the name of the daughter of Satyatrata, or Prithu; for though the Earth was his wife, she became also his daughter. The sea surrounding Jambur, is called the Lavanasamudra, or salt sea. It would have been highly imprudent for the Paurinuics to have placed there seas, either of milk or honey.

The second dwipa, is that of Cus'a, thus called either from a sage of that name, or from the grass Cus'a, or Poa, suppose to grow there plentifully. It includes all the comntries from the Indus to the Persian gulf, and the Cecspion sea, which probably the Pauranizes made the limits of that country, or dzaipa, and afterwards supposed to form a watery belt round the zone of Cus'a, under the name of sea of Surá or Irá, or sea of intoxicating liquors. The origin of this denomination may possibly have some affinity with Iran, and the S̈ur or Assur of seripture. It is probable that Sur and Assur were once considered as synonymous; if not, then Siur, or Syria, certainly extended once from the shores of the Mediterranean sea to the gulf of Persia, and even included the greatest part, if not the whole, of Arabia. The divipa of C'us'a is the land of Cush of scripture, at least, part of it. Cus'ha should be pronounced nearly like Cushia, but not quite so forcibly, like the two ss in the English word cession. The third dwipa is Placsha, or the country abounding with fig-trees. It is called

Pulnugshu by the mythologists of Bootan, and inclurded the lesser Asia, Armenia, \&c. The name still remains in Placia, a town in Mysiu, the inhab.tants of which, with those of Scyluce, had a peculiar language, which was the same with that spoken by the Pelasgi of Crestone, or C'rotone, above the Tyrrhenians, in Italy; and by the Pelusgi, who lived on the shores of the Hellespont, according to Herodotus. Thus the denomination of Placshu, or Palangshu, seems to be the same, with Placia, and Pelasgia; and the Pelasgi came originally from the lesser Asia. It is bounded by the sea of Icshu, or juice of the sugar-cane, and which seems to be the Euxine sea: but this will be the subject of a separate article, when it will appear, that the Pauranics have confounded the Ask, or Ash-tree, with the Icshu or sugar-cane, as this tree produces also a sweet juice, famous in the Edda, and called, when boiled, asky, by the old Scythians (according to Hekodotus, who has,. however, strangely misrepresented the tree from which this sweet juice wás procured,) and which was afterwards boiled into a hard substance, like that of the sugar-cane, which is called gur in India. Hence the Icshu sea, is called also in the Purimíus, the sea of Giuda in Sanscrit, and pronounced gur in the spoken dialects.

The fourth ckeipa is S'almali, S'almala, or Salmalica, or the country of the willow*, and of the lord of the willow S'almaksteara, Sulmalices'a, the same with Zamohris, called also, moreं properly, Salmolxis and Zalmolxis. It extended from the Eurine to the shores of the Baltic and Áariatic seas.

[^36]It is surrounded by the sea called Sarpi, Prita, or clarified butter.

The fifth due'pa is called Crauncha, and Craun'da, which included Germany, France, and the Northern parts of Italy. Crauncha is the same with Cronus, confounded wi h Saturn by Western mythologists; and the Baltic and Adriatic seas were, probably, called Cronan, from the daripa of C'raunca. It is surrounded by the Dad"hi-Ságara, or sea of curds.

The sixth croípa is called Sácg, and Sácum, and includes the British isles. It is surrounded by the sea of milk, or the white sea; Cshirábd'hi and Dugd'hábd’hi, Cshíra-Sägara, or Cshíra-Samudrn, Cshîra-Salila, Cshiranid'hi, Cshiráríava. It is called also Amrítábd'hi, or sea of Amritta, synonymous with Amalaci, from which they made Amalchium in the West. It is called, also, Somas'ailádd'hi, or the sea of the mountain of the moon.

The seventh dwipa is Pushicara or Ice-land, surrounded by the Stoáduda, Sioádudaca, Sceddujala, Payod $\%$ i, Toyabdhi, or the sea of fresh water: for it was, also, the opinion of the ancients, that the furthermost ocean was of fresh water: Scythicus Oceamus duldis est, says Pliny.

The Western ocean is, in general, called Maliodabd'hi and Mahárn'ava, or the great sea; and in the Revachan'da, the Cshira-Stimudra is said to come down as low as the parallel of Himaziom, or the snowy monntains, or about thirty degrees of latitude North. Calanus seems to allude to these wonderful seas, when he said to Adexander's messenger, that fomerly there were springs of water, others of milk, honey, wine, and oil; but
that in the present wicked age and degenerated times, they had disappeared. This is also the opinion of many divines in India, who believe, that in Culi-yuga these seas have disappeared, or are turned salt, and bitter, and also, that the white island, is become black, on account of the sins of mankind. Onesicritus, to whom Calenus was speaking, was probably unwilling to give credit to these seas of milk, wine, and honey, but could have no great objection to springs only of the same. One of the seren seas is called Cshaudra-Ságara, or sea of honey, I believe, in the Sidd'hanta-S'iromeni. There is another division of the world into seven dwipas, more complete than the preceding, but its origin is not mentioned. Their names are, Jambu, in the center; to the West, reckoning from North to South, are the dwipas of Varaha Cusa and Wancha; to the East, reckoning from South to North, Yamala, or Malaya, Yama, and Anga. The dreípas of Cus'a and Yama, are acknowledged to be East and West with respect to India. Jambu here appears again in a different light. It includes $I n$ dia, the elevated plains of Tartary, and mount Meru, and extends towards the West to the Caspian sea and the Persian gulf. The followers of Jina, in Indid, represent Jambu nearly in the same light, except that they make it larger, and seem to extend it as far as the shores of the Eurine and Mediterranean seas. Warúha dzoipa being situated in the North West quarter of the old Continent, is Eurone, as will appear more fully in the course of this work. The deripa of Cus'a, according to this new division, includes the lesser Asia, Armenia, Syria, and Arabia. There seems also to be a third droipa of Cus'a near the equator, which includes E'thiopia, \&c. The Paurintics account plausibly for these three different situations assigned to Cus'a, by supposing it owing to the
successive emigrations of the original inhabitants of that country; and the first and second Cus'a they consider but as one and the same.

The third dzoipa is that of $S^{\prime} a n c^{\prime} h a$, or Africa, of which they know but little, and nothing beyond Ethiopia, or rather Abyssinia and Egypt, with the Eastern shores. It retains, in great measure, its Sanscrit name ; an extensive part of that coast being called Lengh, and Lengh-bhar, to this day. But Ptolemy extends it as far as cape Gardafin, to the South of which he places another cape, called Lingis, or Singis extrema. The denomination of S'ancha is obvious also in the names of Singis, Lenghistan, and perhaps Lengitana, Langiro, Lanhaga, Lenighi, and even perhaps Senegal, from the Sunscrit Sanc'hala, in a derivative form; and the Troglodytes are called to this day Shangalas.
$S^{\prime} a n c$ 'ha-dwipa signifies the island of shells, and the natives, according to Strabo, used to wear large collars of them; but, according to the Pauranics, the inhabitants used to live in shells: probably in caverns, hollowed like shells, or compared to shells. The famous demon S'ánc'hasura, lived in 2 shell. When Crishina killed him, he took the shell in which he lived, and which is now become one of Vishnu's insignia. This strange idea was not unknown to the Greeks, who represent young Nerites, who is one of the Cupids, as living in shells, on the shores of the Red sea. Sánc'ha-dwipa is then synonymous with Trogiodytica of the ancients. The Troglodytes, or inhabitants of Cares, are called in scripture Sukim, because they dwelt in Sucas, or dens; but it is probable, that the word Suca, which means a den only in a secondary sense, and signifies also an arbour, a booth, or a tent, was originally taken in the
sense of a cave, from $S^{\prime \prime}$ anc'ha, and afterwards used to imply any fabric to dwell in. Thus the word den is obviously derived from the Sanscrit d'háni, or den, in the language of Tibet, in which it signifies any place, house, or even country to live in. The Sukim, or Sulikiim, were a powerful nation in the time of Rehoboam, for they accompanied Shishac in his expedition against Jerusalem; and we find their descendants, in the third century of the Hejira, crossing Arabia, and invading Irak-Arabi, or the country about Babylon, under their king Saheb-al-Zeng, or the lord of Zeng, who appears as a successor of the famous Sanciha-muc'haNA'GA, a giant in the shape of a snake, with a mouth like a shell, and whose aborle was in a shell: and who had, as usual, two countenances, that of a man, and another of a snake. He was killed by Crǐshna ; but his descendants and subjects, in similar shapes, still remain there. He is called also Pa'ncha-janya. The breath of the Sancihanaga is believed, by the Hindus, to be a fiery poisonous wind, which burns and destroys animals and vegetables, to the distance of a hundred $Y o$ janas round the place of his residence: and by this hypothesis they account for the dreadful effects of the Sámum, or hot envenomed wind, which blows from the mountains of Hubab, through the whole extent of the desert. The sage Agastya, who is supposed to live in the South West, or Abyssinia, put an end to this evil, and even reduced the serpent so much as to carry him about in an earthen vessel. This legend is current in the Western parts of India, but, how far it is countenanced in the Purán'as, I cannot say. The Hindus, in the Western parts of India, are remarkably well acquainted with the superstitious monuments, rites, and legends of the Musulmans in Arabia and Egypt, such as the serpent Heredi, the black stone in the Cauba,
the two pigeons destroyed by Mohammed, and the impression of a foot on a stone there. These, plausibly enough, they claim as their own property, and have traditionary legends, purporting to be grounded on the Paurán'as, though, perhaps, not expressly found there. They say, there was formerly a great intercourse between them and Eoypt, Abyssinia, and Arabia, where there are Hindus and Brálmens, even to this day, as well as all over Persit, and even in Georgia. Fackeers occasionally go there; and certain it is, that the famous Urd'ha-Ba'hu, who travelled to Moscow, and died lately at Benares, attempted to go to Elgypt, but he went no further than El-Catif and Buharein, on the Western shores of the Persian gulf, being deterred from going further. I have made mention of him in my essay on Sami-Ramis, called Samí-Déví by the Hindus. Ptolemy saw many Hindus at Alearandria, and they used to visit the temple of Maha'-Bha'ga'-devi', at Bambyke, or Mubog, in Syria, according to Lucian, as cited by the authors of the ancient universal history.

The mountains in which S'anc'ha'sura lived, are called to this day IIsbab in Arabic, or the mountains of the serpent; and the people of these mountains have, according to the Abyssinian traveller, legendary traditions of a snake, who formerly reigned over them, and conquered the kingdom of Siré. They are famous, with their serpentine tribes, in Oriental tales; and in the Arabian Nights, we read of the miraculous escape of SinBAD from the devouring mouth of that dreadful race, who lived in caves among the mountains. Near that country he was exposed to many dangers from the birds called Rocks, or Simorgs, the Garúdas of the Paurianics, whom Persian romanVol. VIII.
cers represent as living in Madagascar, according to Marco Polo. The serpent 'Sanc'ha-Nag'á is now called Heredi in Egypt. The Musulmans insist, that it is a Shaikh of that name, transformed into a snake; the Christians that it is Asmodeus, mentioned in the book of Tobit, the Ashmugh-div of the Persians. There, in the dwipa of S'anc'ka, is the capital city of Naisrït, or Palli, called Crüshnánganá, being situated on the river Crǐshna, or Crishnánganá, that is, with a black body in a human shape; for rivers have two countenances. Nairrĭt had a famous elephant called Cumuda, with the title of Nairrityadigaja, or the elephant of the South West quarter, or Nairrit. Wonderful stories are related of him; and there is no doubt but some of them are mentioned in the Puran'as, or some other books; but I could not find them. This famous elephant is, however, mentioned in Lexicons, and lived in S'ancha-dwipa, with his tribe of giants in the shape of elephants, or rather with two countenances. The names of several rivers in that country are pure Sanscrit, and oliviously allude to the ancient inhabitants, in the shape of elephants, living and sporting on their banks. Thus the Aistameros is from IIastimán, or Hasti-mati, full of clephants. The Mareb was called Astosalas, from Hasti-sabhá, because their chief held his court there. Astaboras, or Astabaras, was also the name of another river there, from IHasti-varra, or Masli-beira, the country along its banks being full of elephants, whose abode it was.

There the unfortulate Sinbad, according to the author of the Arabian Nights, was once more in the most imminent danger amongst this Elephantine tribe, on his return from Seren-dip, or rather Secrandlah, or Madagascar, called also Raneh, and in the P'arinus, Marina.

In my essay on Egypt, I mentioned the unfortunate affray between the son of Cussin, and some of these elephants, in consequence of which he became a Camapas, or like a dead corpse. I cannot ascertain whether the whole legend be genuine or not: certain it is, that in Lexicons the Carenapás are mentioned as belonging to the train and retinue of Nairrĭt, or Palli, and of course they lived either in Ethiopia or in Egypt.

The ducipa of $S^{\prime \prime}$ anc'ha is supposed, by the Pauránics, to join the island of S'umatra, or of the Moon. This mistaken motion has been adopred by Ptolemy, and after him by Oriental wriers. In the beginning of the Brahmárida-purán'a, Lancá, or the peninsula of Malaya, and Sumatra join the island of S'anc'ha, or Zengh. Samús''hitam, adhering to, is a participial form, answering to con-stitum in Latin, and sun-istamai in Greek. This is understood of the island of Mandara, or Sumatra; for it is positively declared, that Mahá Lancá, or Málacá, and Sumatra, are separated by a strait called Lancí-dwára, or the gates of Lancá. Ptolemy, however, supposed it was the peninsula of Málacá that was thus joined to Africa; and, for this purpose, makes the shores take a most circuitous turn. El Edrissi asserts equally, that the isle of Malai joins, toward the West, to the country of Zengh. The inland, or Mediterranean sea, is called Yamodadlíe, or the sea of Yama; and by Prolemy Hippados, perhaps from the Sanscrit Upabd'hi, which would imply a subordinate or inferior sea. This expression would be perfectly grammatical, but I do not recollect that it is ever used. Hippados may also be derived simply from $A b d h i$, pronounced Apdlhi, or the sea. The tract of islands called Raneh by Arabian writers, and including Madagascar and the surrounding islands, is obviously
the dwipa of Harin't, mentioned in the Bhagavata, along with S'ancha, in the South-West quarter of the old continent. This island being also called in Arabic, the isle of the Moon, has occasioned some confusion Doctor Vincent has thrown much light on this subject, in his learned and elaborate treatise on the Periplus of the Erythrcean sea; by which it appears, that the notions of the Arabs, relating to these seas, are more conformable to the Pu'án'as than Ptolemy's description. The threc dwípas to the Eastward, are Yamala, or Malaya, now the peninsula of Málacá, and the adjacent islands; as for the dzeipa of Yama, its situation is rather obscure; the third is Anga-dwipa, in the North-East, by which they understand China. There is very little about it in the Puránas; and, with regard to the ditipas of Yama and $M a-$ laya, they will be the subject of a particular paragraph.
VI. There is another division of the old continent, extracted chiefly from the Bhágávata, the Bramándá, and Brahmá-Puranas, which represent the world under the emblem of a Nymphaca, or Lotos, floating on the ocean. There the whole plant signifies both the Earth and the two principles of its fecundation. The stalk originates from the navel of Vishnu, sleeping at the bottom of the ocean; and the flower is described as the cradle of Brahma', or mankind. The germ is both Méru and the Linga: the petals and filaments are the mountains which encircle Nieru, and are also the type of the Yoni; the four leaves of the caly.x are the four vast dwipas. or countries, toward the four cardinal points. Kight external leaves, placed two by two, in the intervals, are eight subordinate ditipas or countries.

The four great countries, or Maha-dwipas, are Uttara-curu to the North, Bhadrasva to the East, Jambu to the South, and Cetumala to the West. In the intermediate spaces, in the North-West, are Siearna-prast'ha, or Ireland, and Chardra-s'uclaAvarttana, or Britain. In the North-East are Ramanaca and Mandara; these are unknown, and have been placed there probably for the sake of symmetry. In the South-East, Lancá, the peninsula of Málaca, Sinhála, or Ceylon: in the SouthWest there is Harin'a, the Raneh of Arabian authors, now Madagascar; and Páncha-jainya, or Sanc'ha; as may be seen in the accompanying delineation of the worldly Lotos.

The usual division of the known world is into nine $c^{\prime h} h n^{\prime} d a s$, or portions, exactly of the same size, as to superficial contents, but of very different figures and dimensions. In the center of the old continent, on the highest and most elevated spot, is the division called Iláurattá, or the circle of Ila: to the East is Bhadríssa, and to the Wesi Cetumála, or simply Cetu. Toward the South are three ranges of mountains, and as many to the North; between them are four divisions, two between the three ranges in the South, and as many between these in the North. The names of the ranges, to the South of Ilávoratta, are Himáchala, Mimádráa, or the snowy mountain: to the North of this range is the second, called Ilema-ciut $a$, from its golden peaks; the country, or division, between them, is called Cimpu-rusha, or C'innara-c'lan'da. The third range is called Nishad ha; and the country between this and Hema-c'ut' , is called Harivarsham, or Harichanda.

To the North of Iláoratta are the Nila, or blue mountains: to the North of this range is another,
called Sweta, or the white mountains: the coun. try between these two is called Ramyaca: the third and last range is called Sringa-vinn: and the country between the two last, is Hiran'yamaya, or Hiran'maya. These six ranges extend from sea to sea, and are of different length, according to the latitudes they are in. The length of the two innermost ranges, and of course of the longest, is equal to the breadth of Jambu-dwipa, or 100,000 Yojanas; the length of the two middle ranges, 'Sweta and Hema-ciut'a, is 90,000 Yojanas: the two outermost, Sringa-ván and Himáchala, are 80,000 Yojanas in length. These mountains are 2000 Yojanas broad, and as many high, or about 10,000 miles: we are informed, in the Cálicá-purán'a, that it was so formerly; but that since, the nountains have gradually subsided, and that the highest is not above one Yijuna in height, or less than five miles.

According to the Trai-locya-darpan'a, these ranges do not extend from sea to sea, and occupy little more than the fourth part of the breadth of the old continent, which is, in that treatise, said to be equal to 60,000 Yijanus. The length of the two outermost ranges is declared to be 1202 Yo janas; the two middle ones 8416, and the two innermost 16,832 . This is the more reasonable, as these three ranges, very plain and obvious in the North of India, are soon confused together, and disappear at some distance from it; and as 150,000 Yojanas, in the Trai-locya-durpern'a, are considered as equal to 180 degrees of longitude, the first range will extend East and West, about two and twenty degrees of longitude, which is the utmost breadth of India. The difference between the two other ranges, and the first, is disproportionate and inadmissible; and the proportion given in the Puran'as
of their respective lengths, is more natural, being in the ratios of ten, ninc, and eight. In this manner the three ranges are, in a great measure, confined to the original Jambu, or india.

The country, to the South of the Southermmost range, is called Bhárata, and originally was confined to India; but it is also enlarged, along with Jambu, and is now made to extend from the shores of the Atlantic to those of the Eastem ocean.

In the same manner, the country beyond the Northermmost range, as far as the Frozen ocean, is called Curu, or Airícata, being the native country of the famous elephant of INDRA, called Ariivata, and of his numerous tribe and descendants, whose earicio, or spoils, are to be found in rast. quantities in the Northern parts of the old continent. These nine divisions are said to be perfectly equal in superficial contents, though of different shapes: and the only difficulty in delineating a general map of the world, is to divide the whole surface into nine equal parts, one of which, in the centre, is to be a perfect square, and out of the eight others, every two divisions are to have exactly the same figure and rimensions. The accompanying map of Jumbut, which is very common, is supposed to be drawn on these principles; but whether it be very exact in that respect, I shall not detemine, as I am by no means willing to go through the necessary calculations, which, after all, would prove of no use. In consequence of this arrangement, the first range, or the snowy mountains, lies under the parallel of fifty-two degrees of latitude; the second under that of $65^{\circ} 48^{\prime}$; and Nishadila in $76^{\circ}$. Méru is here supposed to be the North pole. The three other ranges beyond Nére are exactly in the same latitudes,

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\mathrm{X}_{4}
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reckoning from the opposite side of the equator, which circumscribes the Northern hemisphere. But Méru is not the North pole; it is true that it is the Nava, Nobeh, or under the ninetieth degree, not from the equator, but from the horizon; or, in other words, it is the zenith and centre of the known world, or old continent, not including the sea; and this centre, according to the Paurariics, in the time of Cosmas Indoplfustes, in the middle of the sixth century, was said to be exactly between China and Greece. We read constantly in the Puránias of countries, mountains, and rivers, some to the North, others to the East, or to the West of Méru; the country of North Curu, beyond Méru, is repeatedly declared to be to the South of the Northern ocean. All these expressions shew very plainly, that by Méru, the Pauránics did not originally understand the North pole, which they call Sidd hapur, which place, the astronomers say, cannot be under the North pole, berause it is in the track of the sun; for when the sun is there, it is midnight at Laincá and in India; it must be then under the equator. This is very true; but we are to argue, in the present case, according to the received notions of the Paurantics, who formerly considcred the Earth as a flat surface, with an immense convexity in the centre, behind which the sun disappeared gradually, descending so as to graze the surface of the sea at Siddhapura. In the Brahmanda F'urin'a section of the Bhwvana-Cos'a, it is declared, that one-half of the surface (védi) of the earth is on the South of Méru, and the other half on the North. All this is rery plain, if we understand it of the old continent; one half of which is South of the elevated plains of little IBotiara, and the other half to the North of it. Then, tweive or fifteen lines lower, the author of the same Purarina adds, and
these two countries, South and North of Méru, are in the shape of a bow; this is to be understood of their outermost limits or shores.

Another irrefragable proof, that by Méru we are to understand the elevated plains of little Bukhara, are the four great rivers issuing from it, and flowing toward the four cardinal points of the world; three of which are well known to the Hindus. These rivers are the Ganges; the Sittá, flowing toward the East, and now called the Hara-Moren; the Bhadiá to the North, and probably the Jenisea in Siberia; the fouth is the Apara-Gan'dica, or Western Gan'dicá, called more generally Chacshu. It flows toward the West, and its present name, among the natives, toward its source, is Cocsha, and fr om the former is derived its Greeh appellation of O.rus.

Thus the distance of Merru from the equator is reduced from ninety degrees to forty-five; the distance from the equator at Lancí, to Sidd ha-pura, or the North pole, is reduced from one hundred and eighty to ninety degrees; and every distance from North to South, in the Findu maps, must be reduced in the same proportion.

Thus the snowy mountains, to the North of $\mathrm{In}_{n}$ dia, and placed in the map in the latitude of fiftytwo degrees, are brought down lower into twentysix degrees, the half of fifty-two : and they really begin that latitude near Assam; but they are made, most crroneously, to run in a direction East and West. Strabo descants a great dual upon the direction of the mountaths to the North of India*, from Hipparcius and Eratosthentes; and concludes

[^37]by saying, that the obliquity of the direction of these ranges was to be retained in the maps, exactly as it was in the old ones. The whole reductions are thus exhibited in the following table:The North Pole, $90^{\circ}$
$66^{\circ}$ parallel of $66^{\circ}$ or Polar circle,
$128^{\circ}$. . . . . . $64^{\circ}$ first range North of Méru,
$1142^{\prime}$. . . . 571 second ditto, ditto,
104 . . . . . 52 third ditto, ditto,
90 . . . . . . 45 Méru,
76 . . . . . . 38 third range, South of Méru, $65^{\circ} 8^{\prime}$. . . . . $32^{\circ} 34^{\prime}$ second range ditto,
52 . . . . 26 snowy mountains.
Instead of the numbers beyond Méru, their complement to ninety is to be used.

But as Méru, or the centrical point between the sources of the four great rivers, is not in the latitude of forty-five degrees, a further correction must take place. No precision can be expected here; but this contrical poine camot be carried further North than thinty-nine or forty degrees; and the three Northern ranges will fall in the following latitudes.

Méru in $40^{\circ}$, the Nila range in $47^{\circ}$, Sueta in 520, and Sringál-can in $59^{\circ}$.

The summit of Méru is represented as a circular plain, of a vast extent, surrounded by an edge of hills. The whole is called Ilícratta, or the circle of Ilá, and considered as a celestial Earth, or Säargabhimí; and it is thus called to this day, by the people of Tibet, the Chinese, and the Tartars; and, like the Hindus, they have it in the greatest veneration, worshipping its encircling mountains whenever they descry them. According to De, Guigeses, the Chinese call them Tien-chhan, and
the Tartars Kiloman, or the celestial mountains. In Tibet they call them Tangra, or Tangla, according to F. Cassiano and Purán-gir; the latter accompanied the late Lama to China, and gave me an accurate journal of his march from TissooLumbo to Siling, or Sining. Tingri, in the language of the Tartars and Moguls, signifies the heavens; and even Tibet is called Tibet-Tingri, or the heavenly country of Tibet. The name of Tien-c'han is given by the Chinese to the mountains to the North of Hima: to the Southern part of the circle they give the name of Sioue-chan, or snowy mountains. This range, says De Gurgnes, runs along the northern limits of India, toward China, encompassing a large space, enclosed, as it were, within a circle of mountains*. The Southern extremity of this circle is close, according to the present Hindu maps, to the last, or Northern range, called Nishad'ha; and this is actually the case with the mountains of Tangrah, near Lassa, which is in the interval between the second and third range. According to F. Cassiano, the mountains of Tangrah are seen from the summit of Cambálá, several days journey to the Westivard of Lassa. The famous Pura'n-gir left them on the left, in his way from Tissco-Lumbo to China, at the distance of about twelve coss, and rlid not fail to worship them. At the distance of seventy-seven coss from the last place, he reckoned Laissia to be about twenty coss to the right; twenty-three coss beyond that, he was near the mountains of Nimjink Tangra, a portion of that immense circular ridge. In his progress toward the famons temple of LTjuk, or Uzuk, called Souk in the maps, he satw them several times. Close to Nimbink-largra he entered the mountains of Sitrhinh, called Lartion in the maps.

[^38]VII. This sacred mountain, or heaven-like country, made part, it seems, of the sacred cosmography of the ancients. The Jews had some notions of it, and called it the mountain of GoD: they afterwards, with great propricty, gave that name to mount Moriah. The Greeks, had their mount Olympus, inaccessible but to the Gords; and I'divratta, or Ilá-vratta, signifies the circle of Ila, the Earth, which is called also I'lá. Olympus is derived from the Sinnscrit Ilápu, or Ilápus, the holy city of Ila, or IdA: thus it appears, that Olympus and $I d a$ were originally the same. In remembrance of this holy circular space, the Greetis and Romans, when wishing to build a town, marked ont a circle, which the first called Olympus, and the others Mundus, from the Sanscrit Mavida, a circle; they said also urbs orbis, which is a translation of manda, in the language of the Gods, into that of mortals. According to Du Perron, the Parsis are acquainted with such a mountain in the centre of the world; and so are the Musulmans to this day. It was not unknown to our ancestors, the Scythians; for they are introduced by Justin, saying, that their native country was situated on an elevated spot. higher than the rest of the world, and from which rivers flowed in all directions. The Jews atd Grecks soon forgot the original Merre, and gave that name to some favourite mountain in their own country; the first to mount Sion, or Moriakh. The (ircelis had their Olympus, and mount Idú, near which was the city of Ilium, Aileyam in Sanscrit, from Ila, whose inhabitants were Meropes, from Merupa; being of divinc origin, or descended from the rulers of Mérz.

This monntain was even known in Europe to a bate period; for it is mentioned in the Nubian seographer, unter the name of Moregar, from Mert-
giri, or Meru-gir, the mountain of Meru. It is described by him as of an immense height, circular, and enclosing several countries within.

This sacred mountain is called, by divines in $\mathrm{Ti}^{\circ}$ bet, Righiel: hence Sosthenes, as cited by Plutarch*, instead of saying that Dionysius, or Bacchus, was born on mount Mére, or Meros, says, that he was born on mount Argillus, which he places, it is true, either in Egypt or Ethiopic.

In the same author we find another ridiculous story about this mountain, under the name of the bed of Boreas, which he says was one of the highest peaks of mount Caucasus, and from which Jupiter hurled Saturn down into Tartarus. Mount Méru is called, in the Deccan, the mountain, peak, Cít'a of Boreca, or the pole Boureka, by Mr. Bailey, and other French authors. In the Tamuli language, and others in that country, the North is called Vidaca, Vádaburram, or Vádapurram, generally pronounced Varaca, \&c. the North wind Váran'ada, from the root Vada. In Sanscrit, Udac is the North, or Uttara. Tada signifies originally high, great, \&c. and the North is called, in Sanscrit, Uttara, from its being supposed to be the highest point on the surface of the earth. The Greeks thus translated Cát' $a$, the peak of Burraca, Badaag, Badaca, by the bed of Boreas; because Koité, in Greek, signifies a bed. This mude of translation seems to have been much in use among them; for they translated Deo-bin, the forest of the Gods, by Theon-painai, Deorumprence. The Atshami, a powerful tribe in the hills near the Ganges, by Astomi, or people without mouths.

[^39]The Bittigi mountains of Ptolemy, in the Deccan, are in the country of the Badegas, according to European travellers of the serenteenth centurs; and their language is called Badera. The inhabitants of that country are called, in the Tamuli dialleet, Váducin; and by others Vaduca and Vudugus, but generally pronounced Várugás and IFaruğas; though in writing they retain the letter D, which has a peculiar sound between D and R , as in Sanscrit. Nonvus, in his Dionysiacs *, takes particular notice of mount Mérle, and of its circular surface on its summit. "Bacchus," says he, " or "Crĭsina, divided his forces into four armies; " one he sent to the foot of the Northern moun" tain, with a circular summit, and surrounded " with deep vallies shaded with trees; and from " this peak, in Caucasus, issue many rivers, de"riving their waters from Jupiter." This was Jupiter Pluvialis, the Indra of the Hindus, who holds his court on the summit of Méru, which is called the Sexerga, or heaven of Indra. To this mountain Eunemerus gives the name of Olympus, and very properly. It is emphatically called, as we have scen, the circle of Mlá, or Idlu, or Ilávratia; it might be called also Ilápu, or Ilápus, the city of the Earth, or Ilá-pus, from Ila or Ilas, which sounds exactly like Ilos in Greek. Ila was the som of Vaivaswata-Manu, or Noaif, and who, in his old age, resigned the cmpire of the Earth to him; and thus he became Ila-puati, or Jijú-pati, the Lord sovereign of the earth, and Ilus the eldest, in Honrr, lived near mount Olympus and Ida, in the city of Ilium, inhabited by Mefopes.

Ila', Idú, and Irú, in Sunscrit, signify the earth;

[^40]and these three names are to be found in the Greek language: Ilys, or Ilos, signifies mud; Era is the earth; and IDA is the name of the goddess Earth, Illaa mater, both in Greek and the ancient Gothic. Athenagoras, as cited by Rudbeck*, informs us, that, according to Orpheus, water was first, and from it was created Mlys, or Earth, in cun unformed state; Ila', or Ila's, was the son of Mant, or Noah, called also Mitra Varun'a in the Purán'as, or the friendly Varuna, or Neptune. According to Hesychius, Ilaon, a hero, was the son of Poseidon, the God of the sea. Jyć, in Sanscrit, is the Earth; and in Greek, Aia, Gt, or Guiá, which last signifies earth, and also dust. Thus, in Sanscrit, Ila is the earth, and Aileyam is dust and earth also. Aileyam-pus is synonymous with Ilá-pus, and is the famous city of Indra, and of the Gods; a heacenly city, which is really a terrestrial heazen. The followers of Alexander mistook a small mountain, between Cabul and the Indus, for the original Méru. This is called Méru-s'ringa, or the peak of Meru, in the Puraras, and is considered as a splinter of that holy mountain. There are many other hills thus called in India, besides artificial ones; and the Gods are supposed to come and sport there occasionally. The Greeks had likewise several holy mountains, called Olympus and Ida. Euhfamerus calls it Triphylian Olympus, because Jupiter Triphylius, or Síva, with his trident (trisul), resides there, and fixed it on its summit. The Trisul is called Triphala, in the North-West parts of India, from the Sunscrit Tri-phala, which is rendered in Lexicons by Tri-cantaca, or haring three points. The word phala was used in the West in that sense, and the obelisks in the circus were called Phalw. But as

[^41]Tri-philios, in Greck, signifies three tribes or families, Eunemerus thought proper to translate it thus; besides, he found three nations and cities in the legends of India, which he might conceive countenanced his translation. The abode of Urámus was called Cechss, or Coilus, by the Latiuns; and he is the same with Siva, called the God of Cailás, because he resides on Cailísa, one of the three peaks on the summit of Mére.

Mount Mere is said to be of four different colours, toward the four cardinal points; but the Pazrán'ics are by no means unaninous about them; and the scas, through the reflection of the solar beams from each side, are of the same colours. The East, like the Bráhmens, is of a white colour; the South, like the Vaisyas, is yellow; Apara, the West, like the Sudras, is of a brown or dark colour; and the North is red, like the Cshatriyas. But in the Haimaratchandida, Méru is said to be supported, or propped, by four enormous buttresses; that toward the East, is of pure gold; toward the South, of iron; to the Wiest, of silver; and the buttress to the North, of copper. Thus toward the Cast it is yellow, to the South red, white to the West, and of a dark brown to the North. There are several other opinions, which I shall pass over with ohserving, that the Indien ocean is callet Arurioda, or Arunodédhi, or the Red sea, being reddened by the reflection of the solar beams from that side of Mére which is of that colour; and Puiny nearly says the same thing*. I shall pass over the extravagant accounts of this, famous mourtain, represented by some as a cone, by others as an inverted one.- In Ceylon, they say it is in the shape of an immense

[^42]round column: in Tibet this column is said to be square; some of the followers of Jisa compare it to a drum, that is to say, they give it the shipe of a barrel. This idea, howeser extras agant and absurd, prevailed once in the West, as we have seen befure.
VIII. The rivers flowing from $M e ́ v$ are four in number: there are four also in scr p are ; and we read, in the Edda, of four primewar rivers of milk flowing from the teats of the cow Audhumbla. In all these accounts, these rivers are only branches of an original one, called Starargangá, or Mandácini, in the Puránas: in the Fddda all rivers cterive their origin from. that called Hleer gelmer; but in scripture it has no name.

It rises from under the feet of $\mathrm{V}_{\text {ishinu }}$, at the polar star, and, passing through the circle of the moon, it falls upon the summit of Méru, whene it divides into four streams, flowing toward the four cardinal points. According to Genesis, this river went forth, watering the garden of Eden, and of course winding through it; from thence it was parted, and became into four heads. The Paurínics use the same expression, but in a literal sense; and suppose that these four branches pass actually through four rocks, carved into the shape of tour heads of various animals. The Ganges. raming towards the South, passes through a cows head; hence India is called the country of the Cow, its inhabitants are descended, accordine to some, from a cow, whence they are styled Guu-cionsas, they were originally Go-pálas, or simply Pallis, or she pherds. To the West is a horse's head, from which flows the chacsho or orrus: and the inhabitants of the countries bordering on it, are of course As'ras, or Turamgamas, horses or rather horsemen. AcVol. VIII. Y
cording to Scripture the house of Togarmah, or Thorgama, as he is called by Cedrenus and Syncellus, traded in the fairs of Tyre, with horses. Toward the East is the head of an elephant, from which flows the river Sitá: and to the North is a lion's head, from which flows the Bhadrasamá ; hence this country, the same with Siberia, is called the kingdom of the lions: and there was actually a powerful Tartarian tribe called the tribe of the lion.

The Baudd'hists have no rivers on Méru; but place the origin of them in the South-West quarter. The reason of this is, that they place the seven dwipas, or ranges of mountains, with their seas between Méru, and India, or Jambu-dwípa. These seven seas, or rather the river of milk, winding seven times round Meru, is the original river, which re-appears in the South-West, and there parting, becomes into four heads of animals, the same as in the Pur'in'as. But the rivers are very different, being the Ganges, the Sind'hu or Indus, the Pahkiu or Brahmá-putra, which springs from the head of an elephant; and for this reason upper Tibet is called the kingdom of the elephant, though there are no elephants there at present. The other river, toward the North, issues from a lion's head, and is called Sitá: it is the Oxus. These four rivers spring from the roots of the tree Jambu, of a most extravagant size. The Baudd'hists seem to know but of one tree of knowledge, and granting all our wishes. The Pauránics have many, which they call Calparricsha. There is but one in the Mosaical account, and the Musulmans acknowledge but one, which they call Tubu: and our ancestors boasted of the famous Ash-trce Ygdrásil. This river of milk, winding round Méru, is not peculiar to the followers of BUDD'Ha; I re-
member seeing in one of the Puránas, that the heavenly Ganges winds seven times round Méru: that is between that mountain, and the dwipa of Jambu. The Styx, according to mythologists in the West, went nine times round the world; for nine was a farourite number among them: and the ancient Goths reckoned nine worlds, or dwipas. The elevated plains of Méru are perhaps the highest spot, or at least the highest flat in the old continent. Its height toward India, and China, is prodigious: it is not so considerable toward the North, and is still less toward the North-west, where the ascent between the Lithinos-pyrgos or stone-tower, and the station of the merchants trading to China, is by no means very difficult. The Lithinos-pyrgos still exists under the name of Chalsatoon, or the forty columns; and is famous all over these countries. The station of the merchants is still their place of rendezvous to this day, and is called Tuct-Soleiman, or the throne of Solomon. The Lithinos-pyrgos is at the extremity of a small branch jutting out of a range of mountains to the left of the road, or to the North, and projects toward the South, and ends abruptly in the middle of a plain. Its extremity, consisting of a solid rock, has been cut into a regular shape, with two rows, each of twenty columns. The front part is in a very ruinous condition, and the upper row of columns remains suspended from the top: the columns below answering to them, with their entablature, having been destroyed. It is a most wonderful work, and ascribed by the natives to supernatural agents as usual.

At the distance of a day's march toward the East, is Hoshinn, or Oshn, called also Oosh, or Owsh: there begins a chạin of mountains, from which springs a rivulet called Aschon by Strailensepg:

Here I have placed the three ranges of mountains, according to the documents of Hindu astronomers : but not according to their usual delineations: for, according to these, the three ranges should be represented by three concentric half circles, parallel to the meridians of the projection. It is acknowledged, that these ranges are in the direction of as many parallels of latitude. In that case the outermost ranges must be the longest: and this is the opinion of the Jainas, as I observed before, in the sixth paragraph of the first chapter.

No. IV, exhibits the old Continent, projected upon an imaginary circle passing through the North pole, and just grazing the equator in the South. Instead of a circle, it should be an oval, with the longest diameter East and West. But as the tracing of an oval would be attended with some difficulty, the indolent Pauránics have adopted the circle in its room; and seldom use the other. As such a delineation would be useless, I have, of course, omitted it.

The chasm in the North-West, through the mountains surrounding' the world, was made by Crilshna, when he went to see his prototype Vishinu, or the great spirit, the Paramátmá of the world, whose abode is among waters, in the land of darkness. Several heroes have passed since through this chasm, which will be the subject of a particular paragraph hereafter.

No. V, explains the true system of the known world, according to the Puránas, and the Jainas, reconciled with that of the astronomers of India.

Here the Méru of the Pauránics is brought back to its proper place, whilst the Méru of the astro-
nomers remains under the North pole. The zones between Jambu or India, and the Méru of the astronomers, are obviously our seven climates; and the points where the astronomical zones intersect the zones of the Paurinics round their respective centres equally called Méru, shew the true situation of the dwipas or countries, from which these zones, according to the system either of the astronomers or of the Pauriurics, are equally denominated, whether they are reckoned relatively to the North pole, or to a centrical point in the elevated plains of Tartary.

No. VI, is a delineation of the country of Bhárata, in the fullest acceptation of that denomination. Its nine divisions with Curru, or Siberia, and the Northern parts of Europe, making in all ten districts, were all destroyed by a violent storm, and inundation, except one. Thus the ten divisions of the Atlantis were all destroyed by a flood, except one, called Gades, which probably included Spain.

Some also are of opinion, that, out of the seven dwipas, six were likewise overwhelmed by a flood. This circumstance is also noticed in the third volume of the Ayin-Acberi. But I believe that this notion originated with the Puránicas, who, unable to point out these wonderful countries, described in so extravagant a manmer in their sacred books, found that the best way was to swear, that they had disappeared.
miles, which agrees tolerably well with the above account.

Between the ranges to the North and South of Méru, the Pauránics place two other ranges of mountains; one on each side of Méru, and in a North and South direction. The Western range, called Gand'hamádana, does really exist, and answers to the Comcedi mountains of Prolemy, called also Cumuda in the Puránas. But the Eastern range, called Mályatán, and answering to the former, exists but in the imagination of the Pazránics; symmetry certainly required it, and this was enough for them.
IX. In the Váysu Purán'a, we are told, that the water or Ogha of the ocean, coming down from heaven like a stream of Amrïta upon Méru, encircles it, through seven channels, for the space of $84,000 Y^{\prime}$ janas, and then divides into four streams, which, falling from the immense height of Méru, rest themselves in four lakes, from which they spring over the mountains through the air, just brushing the summits. This wild account was not unknown in the West; for this passage is translated, almost verbally, by Pliny and Q. Curtius, in speaking of the Ganges. Cum magno fragore ipsius statim fontis Ganges erumpit, et magnorum montium juga recto alveo stringit, et ubi primum mollss planities contingat, in quodam lacu hospitatur. The words in Italics are from Pliny *, the others from Curtrus $\dagger$.

These four lakes are called Arun'odá in the East; Mánusa in the South; in the West Sitodáa: the fourth, in the North is called Mahá-Bhadrá.

[^43]From Mána-Sarovara, or, according to the vulgar pronunciation, Mánsaraur, the lake of Mána or Mánasa, issues the Ganges. According to Pura'rgir, who accompanied the late Lamia to China, and had seen that lake in his way from Lassa to Ladac, it is called in Tibet, Chu-Mápanh, or the lake of Mápanh. In the Lama's map it is called Mapama: but Puran-gir, a well informed man, assured me that its true name was Mápanh. It was probably written at first Mapam by Portuguese Jesuits, in whose language the letter M, at the end of a word, has a nasal sound, as it had in Latin, and is to be sounded like the letter N at the end of a word in French.

This lake is constantly called Mánsaraur by pilgrims; but there appears, according to the Paurínics, to be another, a great way to the North; this they call Bindu-Sarovara, or the lake formed by the Bindu, or drops of water falling from the hair of Mafa'deva, when he received the holy stream, from on high, on his head, There is certainly some confusion in the Pur'in'as about MánaSarbvara; and we must then acknowledge two lakes of that name: one on the summit of Méru, and the other to the South of it: for the sacred books cannot be reconciled otherwise. In that case Bindu-sarovara, mentioned but seldom, is the same with the Southern Mana-sarovara. The great Mána-sarovara, which proceeded from the heart of Brahmá, is on Méru, and the four great rivers issue from it: but from this Mansaraur,. South of Méru, the Ganges is the only river issuing. It is of course the same with Bindu-saraur, or the lake Mápanh of those of Tibet.

According to Pura'n-gir, this lake is situated on an elevated plain covered with long grass, to the

North of which is a conical hill called Khyem-lung, and dedicated to Maha'-deva; and which is inserted in the map of the Lamas, but without name, and with two roads ending there. It is one of the Snuthern peaks of momit Cantaisch, which rises above the rest to an amazing herght. A small stream, rising behind the subordinate peak of Khyem-lung, is considered by pilgrims as the source of the Ganges. Therc enderi the survey of the Lama marlematicians; and the countries to the South, and South-West, were added afrerwards, from the report of matives. During the rains the lake is said th orerllow, and several streams rush down from the hills. but they soon dry up, even the sacred stream itself not excepted.

According to Pura'n-gir, and other pilgwims from India, this extensive plain is surrounded on all sides by peaks, or conical hills, but very irregular : toward the North they rise gradually, and a little beyond the sugar-loaf hill of Khyem-lung - begins the base of Cantaisch. Toward the East the range of peaks is very low, forming onlv a serrated crest. To the South this crest is much higher than toward the other cardnal points: but, to the North, the mountains beyond the crest are very high. The Southern crest is wery near the banks of the lake. The lake itself forms an irregular oval, approaching to a circle, but the two inlets or smaller lakes to the North are said not to exist. for Pu-ras'-gir's mote was to the North of the lake, and close ta its shore, and he did not see them. Pilgrims are five days in going round the lake, and the place of worship, or Gombah, is to the South. It consists of a few huts, with irregular steps down the banks of the lake. The Ganges issues from it, and during the dry season its stream is hardly five or six inches deep. It does not go through the
lake called Lanken in the maps; it flows to the South East of it, at the distance of two or thrce coss. This lake is called in India the pool of RA'vana: and becanse he is the Lord nt Lencú; his pool is called the dake of Luncít, or Lantien, in the maps.

The lake of ATm-saraur is mentioned he Plist, as I observed betore, and it is probabl! the same that is mentioned hy Cresias, who siys it was eight hundred stadia in circumference. M. Po Lo describes it as to the West of Tícet, but does not mention its name. It is noticed bs P. Moxserrat, who accompaned the linperor Acban in his expedition ti) (abul, in the year 15 si . He calls it Whansaruor. and, from the report of pilgrims, places it in tharty-two degrees of latitude Noms ; and about three hundred and fifty miles to the North-East of Sertind. The first Eurupean who saw it, was P. Avmada, in the year 1604 : and in the years 1715 , and 1710, it was visited by the missionaries $P$. Desiderius, and Emancel Freyer.

The Burmahs call this lake Anrudit, and place four heads of animals to the four cardinal points, from which spring the four great rivers; and thus, in the opinion of the divinces of Tibet and $A \cdot a$, this lake is the real Manr-saraur. From this description one might be induced to suppose this lake to be the crater of a Volcmo, but much larger thian any now existing. Ctrsias says that a liquid matter like oil was swimming on its surface, and was carefully collected by the inhabitants, and M. Polo adds, that pearls iwere found there. The pilgrims I bave consulted knew nothing either of this precious nil or of the pearls. They showed me, however, small pebbles, some like pease, others as hig as a pigcon's egg, which they told me ware found on the shorea
of that lake, and that pilgrims used to take a few of them as relics, to give to their friends: and I was presented accordingly with some. They are in general as transparent as the purest chrystal, and I should sispect them to be pieces of chrystal, broken and rounded by mutual attrition, occasioned by the motion of waters.

To the West of this lake springs the Sita-Cint'há, probably the Sitocatis of Arrian. It is called also the Mlechihá-Gany'í, or impure Ganges: and is supposed, by some, to be the same with the 'Satlaj or Sitlodá in the Painjab: this erroneous idea seems to originate from its being called by pilgrims Sitlodá : but its true name is Sitodá, nearly synonymous with Sita-cánt'há. The famous Jaya-sinha, Rajah of Jaypoor, sent people as far as the Cow's-mouth, and they found that the Sitodáa, after flowing for a considerable space toward the West suddenly turned to the South, came within two miles of the Cow'smouth, and fell into the Ganges about sixteen coss lower.

To the East, or para, is the Arurodla lake, Jite, rally the water or lake of Arun'a or Dawen: and it is called to this day Orin-nor, or the lake of Orin, and from it flows the yellow river, the Sitá of the Purán'as, called also Para-Gandica, or Eastem Gun'dica.

Aparen'a, or to the West, is the Sitodá lako from which issues the Apara-Gan'dicá or Western Gandicáa, called also Chacshu in the Purán'as, Oxus by the Greeks, and Cocshu by the natives. This lake at the source of the Oxus, is noticed in some maps: by the natives it is called Cul or the lake; and by Persian authors Div-sarán; according to Sir W. Jones, in his life of Nadir-Suah; Detar
sara, in Sanscrit, siguifies the lake of the Gods, or the divine lake. According to them it is near the mountains of Andemas from the Sanscrit And ha-Tonmasa, or And'h-Tamas: both words imply darkness; but being joined together, imply it in a superlative degree; and it is the name of one of the divisions of hell. On their summit is the Belur, or dark country of the maps. The Ant'hema mountains are called Sacránthema by Bernard Goez. An intelligent and well informed native of Biducshun, and royal messenger of that country for forty years, under Ahmed and Zeman-Shaf, informed me that SerAnthema is the true name; that sor or sereh signifies in his country, end, limit, or border, and appears to be the name of a place ncar the Anthema mountains, as Ser-Hind, or on the borders of Hind. This lake is said to be three days journey in circumference. The Orus does not spring immediately from it, but at the distance of fifteen miles to the West it emerges from the ground. The Cocsina is the sacred stream which sanctifies the waters of the Oxus; but by no means the main stream, which is more to the North. It is so with regard to the Ganges, the sacred stream of which is called Alacananda, and is but a small river, the source of which is twelve coss to the North-East of Budaricásraina, and, I believe, about 130 miles from Hardtáar: From the lake to the hills to the Eastward is an extensive plain, called Sárágh-Chopazin, or the plains of Chopawn. There are four places there mentioned by Goez, Ciarciunar, or Chár-Chunár the four cedars, like the four cedars, or pines, perhaps, near Cashmir, called Chár-Chunáar also: these four trees no longer exist *. Sarcil was explained to me, by Camber-Aly, the king's messenger, by Sereh-

[^44]cul, or Ser-cul close, or on the borders of the lake: and Serpanil by Ser-pamer. These mountains are called in the Puránas Cumuciu, the Comaedi of Prolemy, and Anjana or Crishna the blac'rimountains. C'amber-All grave me a dieadful accomnt of them from report, for he never saw them, but it a distance.

The fourth lake in the North is called NatióBhacira, which is probably the lake Saisans, from which flows the river Irtiz. As the epithet Tiaha implies a great lake, I am sometimes inclinerl to suppose it to be the same with the lake Baikal; but it is too much out of the way: though I must: confess, that its distance can be no ob,ction with the Pauraticics. Desides, the Baital lake is called to this day Szeeto-siore, or the holy and sacred sea, and the country about it, and all along the Ergone, or Argon, is considered as holy by the IImelus, who occasionally visit this sacred spot. Pell, in his travels, mentions his seeing a Hindu there from Madras. Strableneeng saw another at Tabulsk, who, it scems, had settled there. I have seen two who had visited that country, one was called Arees'zara, whom I mentioned in my essay on mount Caucasus. The four sacred rivers springing from the Man-saroara, according to the divines of Tibet, are the Bramáputra, the Ganges, the Indus, and the Silá. 'The (imenges is the only one that really issues from that lake, or if the three others do, it must be through subterranean channels; and such commmications, whether real or imaginary, are very common in the Puianas. The Situ may be the Sicciú, Silluche, supposed to communicate with the 'Satlaj or 'Satcdara, thus called from its lmmired branches or bellies, through which it is supposed to fall into the sea.

The Indus was supposed formerly to have its source not far from Mín-sarovara, whish P. Monserrat places in thirty-two degrees of latitude North; and the source of the Indus in latitude $30^{\circ} 15^{\prime}$, the difference of longitude between the source and the lake $1^{\circ} 45^{\prime}$.

The difference of longitude between Delhi, and Mensarovara is according to Monserrat $5^{\circ} 9^{\prime}$. This places Múnsarovara in $82^{\circ} 2^{\prime}$ of lougitude, and both its loncitude and latitude are remarkably correct: but what is more surprising, the good father was ignorant that the Ganges issued from it. Abul. Fazil places the source of the Indus nearly in the same latitude with Castmir, but eightecn degrees to the Eastward. The Indus has its source four or five days journey to the North-West of Yircihand, according to Czernichef: it runs thence in a direction South South-East toward Ládac, and within two days journey of it: nay, merchants, who trade from India to C'áshghar, say it can be done in one day. The Indus then turns immediately toward the West, taking an immense sweep romid Cashmir; and the place near Ládac. where it turns suddenly to the Westward, has been mistaken for its source.

X . The followers of Jina in the Trai-locya-derpania represent the old continent, as consisting of two concentric dwipas, of the same superficial extent. They call the whole word Arai, or A'daidwipas, literally the two and half Isiunds. The two first dueipas are Zambu in the centre, and Dhátuci: and they are divided by an intermediate sea. The whole is surrounded by the ocean, in which are many islands, called, in general, Antaca or Anta-inai-dǘpas, or the islands at the anta (end,
or extremity) of the world. The first of them is the White Island, and the last Swayambhuoa-dwipa, called Pushcara in the Purán'as.

Beyond this is the half of Pushcara, the 'Swarn'abhumí of the Purinius, which surrounds the world, as well as the mountain of Mánasottara, called Locáloca by the Paurín'ics. Beyond this circular range is the other half of Pushcara: but as it is out of the world, it is not included in their system of geography.

In the division of the old Continent into nine parts by the Paurínics, Bhárata is erroneously introduced: it should be Nábahi. For Agnid'hra, the son of Priyayrata, the eldest son of Adima, had nine sons; called Naba'hi, Ila'vratta, Cimipurusha, Harivarsha, Cetumála, Bhadra's'va, Raman'aca, Hiran'maya, and Curu. Thus we read in Sanchomiathon that Phos, Phur, or Phlox, answering to Agnidhra, begat sons of vast bulk, whose names were given to the countries they inhabited.

Priyavrata had ten sons, as we have seen before; among whom was Agnidihra. Three withdrew into forests; and the seven remaining were appointed to rule over the seven great divisions of the world, called the seven drwipas. The great grandson of Agnidhra, called Bharata, gave his name to the country South of Himálaya, which, under that denomination, was originally confined to India; but it is now made to extend from sea to sea, along the range of the Snowy mountains. This we are told in general in the Purin'as: but it is by no means the case, as it will appear from the particulars, that Bhárata, forms a semi-circle round

Méru, beginning in the West in fifty-two degrees of latitude, or nearly so: being, as it is declared in the Purán'as, in the shape of a Cow.

To King Bharata, Mahádeva gave eight sons and one daughter, called Ila', or 'umáar', emphatically the Maiden. A new division of the Earth took place according to some; but the general opinion is, that it was only a partial one. Be this as it may, it appears that, out of the ten divisions of the old continent, Bhárata, included nine; Curu, in the North, being excepted and left out.

According to the Prabhása-c'han'da, the names of these nine c'han'das or sections are, reckoning from the East toward the West, Indra-dwipa or G'and'harva-c'han'da, Caseru, Tamrapurn'ah, Gab. hastimán, Cumáricá, (India), Nagá-c'han'da, Saumyn, Varun'a-c'han'da, and Gand'harva-c'han'da again. In the Revá-c'han'da, their names are thus exhibited; Gand'harva, Ca'seru, Tamraparn'i, Gabhastimún, Cumáricáa or India, Nága, Saumya, Varunía, Chan'dra-dwípa.

In the same section we find another variation; Gandlharea, Cáseru, Tamrapatra (erroneonsly for Tamra-purn'ah), Shilastica, Cumáricá (India), Bhá-ga-dưpa (probably for Nága), Saumya, Varun'a and C'han'dra-dwipa. The first and the last divisions are, in general, called Ghand'hareca-c'han'da, being supposed to be the abode of the Gods, with their usual retinue of heavenly musicians. Through the seven remaining divisions, seven rivers are said to flow. They have a common source in the lake from which issues the Gunges. To the East are, the Nalin', flowing through Cas'eru; the P'itvaní, through Tamrapurnáh; Hládiń, through Gabhas-
timún. To the W'est, the Sití or Jnxartes flows through the country of ' Faruna; the Chacshu; throngh Saumya; anil the Sind 'hu, through Nagachanida. Between these, in the middle, is the Genges, which flows through $C^{c}$ manaicir-cihunda or Ináiu.

In the Triyze Purana, the origin of these seven rivers is thus described; North of Cailasa is the Gerra mountain, at the foot of which is the Binchesaroeara, or lake with onklen sand. There went Bhagiratina to fetch the Ganges, called Tripat'hag'a because it goes through three paths, or channels.

There he obtained the Ganges from MAHA'DEVA, which dividing into seven streams or paths, is called, from that circumstance, Saptad'há. The Sitú groes through countries inhabited by the Sirind 'hras, the Cuntalas with long hair, the Chinas, for this is considered as the native country of the Chinese; the Barburas, Yarasas, Diruhas, Tusháras living among snow, Culindas, Ancas, Locacrarus. The siia goes towards the West, and falls into the sea of salt water.

The Chacshu flows through the countrics of the Chinamanus, or Chinamen, Tanganas, S'arac-C'alicas, Sund luras, Tushiuras; Iumpacas, read Lump)acas, Pahias, Daradas, Sacas or Sarons.

The Siml hu gnes through Daradas, Cusmirras, Gand háras or Gumderi, Yaianes or (irceles of Bactria, Fridas, Rhotas, the Rhateces ot the Fiassarics of Dionysius*, 'Sizapauras (liviro in the town of 'Sizmpura, or Sheopoor), Indru'nisas I'adcutis, Visarjayus, Saind'harks, (living on the banks of the

[^45]Sind'hu), Rand'hracíracas, Brahmat'as, Bhirarohacas, 'Suná-muc'has, Urdd'kamanus. The Ganges flows through the Gand'harvas, Cimaras, Yacshas, Rácshasas, Vidyád'haras, Uragas (or large snakes; these are tribes of demons, good and bad, in the hills), Cálapagrámacas, Päradus, Svigan'as, 'Svas'as Cirátas, Pulindas, Curavas in Curu about Tanehs'ar, Sam-Bháratas, Panchálas, Cás'i or Benares, Matsyas, Magad'has (or South Bahar), Brahmottaras, Angas, Bangas, Calingas, Tamraliptas (or Tamlook), Sam-Bhárata or Sammárata, as pronounced in the spoken dialects, signifies a native of India: and I am told, that it is used, though very seldom, in that sense. The Hládin' or Brahmáputra goes through the Nishádas, Rácshasas, Upa-Bangas, (or near Bengal), the Dhivaras (or boatmen), Rishicas, Nilamuc'has, Ceralas, Oshtacarn'as, Cirátas, Cálodarus, Vivarn'as, Cumáras, Swarn'abhúshitas (living near Szearn'a-gam, or Sonargaum, near Dhacca.)

The Pávamí flows through countries inhabited by the Apathas, or whose country is without paths, then through the large lake of Indrad'hyumna, through the C'harpat'has', living near difficult' passes, the Indras'ambupat'has, the Mad'hyanod'hánas, the Numascarras, the Cus'a-právarainas, then falls into that sea, in which is Indra-dwipa, and which joins the sea of salt. The Naliní goes through the Tomaras, remarkable for their quivers, as implied by their name, through the Hansa-márgas, or those living near the paths of the Anseres, or water fowls, that is to say, among marshes; through the $S$ a-hun-hacas, or who seem to repeat incessantly the words hong hang, like the Chinese, then, after forcing its way through many hills, it goes through the Carriapravaranas, or wearing ear-rings, then through the As'va-muchas, horseVol. VIII.
faced, Sicatas, parrot-faced, Parvatamanus or hillmen, and Vidyad'haras, and falls into the Mahodad'hi, or great sea.

The Pázań is probably the river of $P a ́$ or $B h a ́$, and called Pa-chu or water of Pá before it enters China, where it is called Kin-sha-kyang, and Yangtse-kyang. The lake of Indrad'hyumna is probably that, which covered once the province of Yi-quang, and was drained up in great measure by one of the Emperors of China; some extensive lakes in the lower grounds still remain. The epithet of Namascárás is well adopted to the Chinese, from their polite and ceremonious behaviour, with bowing, \&c.

The droipa of Indra, a very large island, appears to be Japan: for it is described as the island of the rising sun, which is the meaning of the words Japan or Gepuen. The Nalini, called Sind'hu, or Burra-Attock by pilgrims from India, is the Hoangho or Cara-Moran. It is called the great Attock, or forbidden river, because strangers are seldom permitted to go beyond it. This forbidden river is noticed by Pliny *, 'though he does not mention its name. It was equally forbidden to those, who came from the West, on the part of the Romans (negotiutores nostri), or to those who came from India. For there were two roads frequented by merchants, according to Proleary, from the metropolis of China; one leading to Bactra, and the Western countries, and the other to Palibothra and India.

The learned in Napal, consider the Brahmúputra to be the Hládiní of their sacred books. There

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\text { * Pbiny 46, C. } 22
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came to Benares, about nine years ago, a most respectable native from that country, called Bhagirat'ha: being very old, he wished to die on the banks of the Ganges, at the holy place of Cas'i. He had been to China, and favoured me with a short account of his journey. There, he says, that the Burrampooter is the same with the Hládini, and that the Hara-moren is the Nalini. This river, says he, is also called, by Hindu pilgrims, the Burrah-attaca, or great Attock, or forbidden river. He had promised to favour me with further -particulars; but soon after, the venerable old man breathed his last on the banks of the Ganges.

The dwipa of Chandra in the West will appear, in the course of this work, from the Pu'án'as, to include the British isles: but as it is considered here as one of the nine grand divisions of the Empire of Bhárata, the Paurán'ics must have comprehended under that appellation a more extensive region altogether, than the British isles, and including the Western parts of Europe, under the name of Liguria, or Lloogyr, which I shall shew hereafter to be synonymous with the country of Chan'dra, or Lumus, emphatically called Urúpr, or the Lord of the Zodiac. The king of the dreípa of Chan'dra being considered as a vassal, was occasionally summoned to appear before his Lord Pa ramount, with all the Kings of the world in India, at least, according to the Revá-ch'arida, a section of the Scanda-purán'a.

## SECTION II.

List of Mountains, Rivers, and Countries, from the Pura' 'as'as, and other Books.

1. IN the Brahmán'da-Puran'a* we have the following list of the mountains, rivers, and countries in the Empire of Bha'rata.

To the East it is bounded by the tribes of CiraEas, or shepherds, living in the hills to the North and North-East of Bengal; to the West, by the Yavanas, or Greeks of Bactriana. The four great tribes live in the middle, and there are seven principal ranges of mountains, or cula parvatas: Mahendra, toward Madras, Mulaya, on the coast of Malabar, Sahya, toward Ponah, Suctimán, Rǐcsha, Vin'dhya (the Bind hills), and Pariyátra.

The inferior mountains are Mandara, Vaihára, Dardura, Coláhala, Sasurasa, Maináca, Védhyuta, Sriparoata, C'utuca, Citt'as'aila, Timgaprast'ha, Crishnágiri, Godh'ana, Hari-paroata, Pushpagiri, Jayanta, Raivátaca, near the Revá, or Narmadá river. In these mountainous countries live the 'Aryya Mlechhas, or foreigners; and all these mountains are in the Deccan.

The principal rivers are Gungta, Sividhu, Sarasrati, Satadre or Satlaj, Chan'drabhaga or Chinab, Yamuna or Jumna, Sarayí or Sarjere, Airavati or Ravy, Vitasta or Bidasta, Vipas'a or Beya, Devica. Cuhu, Gomati, D'hutpápa, Báhudá, Drishadvatiz. Causici or Cosa, Vrititíá, Nirvirá, Gan'daci, Icshu,

[^46]Lohitá: all these flow from Himazat, or the snowy mountains.

Vedasmritt', Vedaratí, Vratraghni, Sind'hu, V'arán's'á, Chan'daná, Sadupíría, Mahi near Cambay, Párú, Charmanuatí Vidis'á, Vetrívalí, or Betzoúc river, Siprá near Ujjain, Avanti: ail these rivers finw from the mountains of Páriyátra. Sona, Narmadá, Sumahádrumá, Mundácini, Dusarriá from Chitracuitá, Tamasá, Pippalá Sion", Caratoyú, Currátyá, Pisáchicá Chilotpalá, Vipása, Jambulá, Válućáhiní, Sinerajá, 'Suctimatr, Matcun'í, Tridivú, Cramá: These are born from the Rǐcsha mountains.

The Tápi Tapti, Payoshn'", Nirvind'hyá, Madrá, Nishad'ha, Ven'avá, Vaitaran'i near Cuttuc, Sinibahu, Cumudvatí, Nipá, Mahá-gaurí, Duřáa, Antahsila; all these spring from the Vind"hya mountains. Godávarí, Bhímaraťhí, Crǐshiná, Venıu, Vanjulá, Tungabhadrá, Suprayogá, Caverí: all these come from the Sahya mountains. Crǐtamálá, Tamraparn'’, Carmajá, Pun'yaláratí, from the Malaya mountains. Trisámá, Rituculyá, Draçhalá, Tridieá, Lángúliní, Vans'ad'hará: 'These proceed from the mountains of Mahendra.

Řshicá, Sucumárí, Mandagá, Mandavíhiniń, Crưpá, Palis'in', from the mountains of Suctimán; all these rivers flow immediately into the ocean. This is not true, for the Sarassoti, Yamunú, Giomat', $\& \cdot c$. fall into the Ganges.

Then follow a list of countries: the names are in the plural, and of course signify the inhabitants of these countries. Curu near T'ahnesar, Panchíla, - Sálva or Sálava, Jangala, Šírasena, the Siurasení of Arrian, Bhadracára, Bod'há, Put'hes'wara, Z 3

Vatsa, Cisrishta, Culya, Cuntala, Cásicos'ala or Benares, Tilinga, Magad'ha, Vrica: these are in Mad'hyades'a or middle of India.

In the North of the Sahya mountains rises the Godáverí: on the banks of the Crishná, are extensive and famous districts: there is the mountain Govadd'hana, made by Indra; through Ra'ma's pleasure it is Saecrga, or heaven. There Bharadwa'sa built a town, with gardens and pools. Váhlica Balk, Vátadhána, Abhíra or Pallis, in Candeish; Cálatoyaca, Aparita, Súdra, Pahwoava, Char= ma-chandaca, probably the Charma of Pliny, Camboja, Cuj or Coj, Roh-Coj or Arachosia, Darada Darde Dawurd, Barbara or Varvara Priyalaucica, Pína, Tushára, or snowy country. Báhyatodara; there live the descendants of Atri and Bharadwa'ja; Prast'hala, Cas'eruca, Lampácast'hánaca, those who live near the sthán of Lampaca or Lamech, now Lamgan; Pídica, Juhídla, Apaga, Alimadra, there live Cirátas, or shepherds; Tomara, Hansamárga, Cás'míra, Tángana, C'húlica, Báhucu in the Vayu Purin'a, 'A'huca, Purn'a-darva.

To the East are the And'hravíca, Sujaraca, Antaragiri within the hills, Báhirgiri without the hills, Plavangava, Angeya Malada, or Málda, Málavarti, Brahmottara, Pravijaya, Bhärgacángeya, Ari'haca, Pragjyotisha, now Gohati, in Assam, Mur'da, Videha the country of the famous Janaca: Tamraliptica or Tamlook, Mâla, the Malli and mount Mallus of Pinvy, toward the Ganges, now Mal-bh:oom in Midnapoor, Magad'ha, or South Bahar, Govind'ha. Toward the South is Pan'dya, the conntry of Pundion, Cerala, Cerala-des'a, Ch rilya or Chola Coromandala, Culya Setuca, Mushica. Cumána, Mahía-Rasht'ras Mahá-rattas, Máhishica, Colinga, Aúhira, or Pallis, Vaishica, A'ta-
vya, living in the middle of thick forests, Vara, Pulinda, Vind'hya-murvica, Vaidarbha or BurraNagpoor, Dan'daca, Paunica, Maunica, As'maca, Bhoga-tard'hana, Nairnica, Cuntala, And'hra, now Teelingana, Udbhída, Nalaca, Alica.

The next are in front of the $I$ ind 'hya mountains: Suryácára, Coluvána, Durga, Cálitaca, Puleya, Surala, Rupasa, Tápasa, these are probably the Tabassi of Ptolemy; for, in the Delian, they pronounce that word Tabasa,) Surasita, Carancura, Násicya, Antara-Narmadá within the Narmadá, Bhánu-Cachỉła, Máheya, Sás'vata.

The following are behind the mountains of Vind'hya: Málàia, Carusha, Mecala along the Narmadá, called also Mecalá, Uttcala, or Orissa, Uttamárána, Des'árania, (the country of Dosarene, in the Periplus and Ptolemir, Bhoja, Cishcind'haca, Tosala, (the Tosale of Prolemy, and Jesual of European travellers,) Cos'ala, Traipura or Tipperah, Vaidica, Tumura, Tupura, Shatasura near Naishad'ha-desá, Anaya, (in the I'ayu Purán'a, Anuya,) Tundicera, V'itihotra, D'hananjaya.

There are also other countries called Nigarhara for Nasarhara, called Nakierhur in the Ayin Acberi, near Cábul, Hansamírga, the Hur'sa, probably the white Humni of Cosmas Indopheustes, in the sixth century, and who inhabited the upper part of the Panjáb. Their chiefs were called Collas, and it is related, that once their army besieging a city, drank up all the water round it; as water is very scarce in that country, it is very possible. Dar-va, Sahanhaca, Trigarta, Mrálara, Cị̛́ta Támasa.
II. In the Vará-sanhita, an astronomical treatise, there is a more complete list. In Mad'hyam, Z 4
middle or inland country, are the following tribes: Bhadra, Arimeda, Man'davya, Salava, Nipa, Udjihína, Méru, Vatsa, Ghosha, Yámuna, Sárasvata, Matsa or Matsya, all these are Mad'hyamica or in the midland Mat'huraca, Apa-Jyotisha, D'harmáranya, Surasena, Gauragriva with white nocks, Uddehica, Paridya, Guídás'vatt'ha, Pánchála, Saceta or Oude and Benares, Canca, Curu, Cálacoti, Cucura, Páriyátra (said to be at the source of the Chumbul), in other Purán'as it is called Páripátra; Naga, Audumbara, Cápisht' ala, Gajáhraya. Toward the East, are the Anjana, Vrishabha, D'hreaja, Padma, Mályavaitgiri, Vyághra-mac'ha or Tygerfaced, Suhma, Cárvat'a, Chán'drapura, Suryacarana, C'hasa, Magad'ha, Sivirgiri, the mountains of the Siviras. (These no longer exist as a nation: their name, in the spoken dialects, is Suir. They are said to have been very powerful once in the Gangetic provinces, as well as the Bhar tribe, who no longer form a body.) The Siciras, or Sibiras, are the Sabiri of Nonnus. Mithila or North Bahar, Samatat'a, Un'dra, Asvavádana or horse-faced, Danturaca, Prácjyotisha, the Lauhitya river, CshirodaSamudra, the sea or lake of milk, Purusháda or Canibals, Udaya-giri, Bhadra, Gaúdaca those of Gaida or Gaur, (the Corygazus of Prolemy,) Paun'dra, Utcala, Cas'i, Mecala, Ambasht'a, (the Ambasta of Arrian,) Ecapadu or single-footed, Tamraliptica or Tamlook, Cos'alaca, called Tos'ala-Cos'alaca in the preceding list, Vardd'hamána, or Burdzean.

In the South-East is Cos'ala, Calinga, Banga, Apa-Banga, Jat'ara, Anga, 'Svalica, Vidarbha, Vatsa, And'hra, Vaidica, Urddhoa-cánt'a, with high necks,) Vrísha, Nálicera or Náricela, Sumatra, according to the Vrihatcat'há, Charma-dwoipa, Vind'hyántaravásina, (living in the interior parts of the Vind'hyan mountains,) Tripura or Tipperah, 'Smas'-
rud'hara, Hema-cî́ta, Vyálagríva, (with necks like snakes, ) Mahágríva, (long necks,) Cishcind'ha, Cántácast'hal', Nishádha--rúsht'ra, Purica, Daśáran'a, Nagnaparvia, 'Sabara, a wild race.

In the South is Lancá, or the peninsula of Malaca, Cálájína, Sauricarn'á, Tálicata, Girinagara, Malaya the Malabár coast, Daradura, Mahendra, Málindra, Méru-Cachiha, Carcota, Tanca, Vanavási, 'Sivica, C"hanicára, Cauncan'a, 'Abhira, 'Acara, Ven'a, Avantaca, Dasapura, Gonardda, C'eralaca, Carn'át'a, Mahút'tavi, Chittra-Cúta, Násicyyr, Collagiri, Chola, Crauncha-dwípáh, (the islands of the water fowls of Lacca-dives,) Jat'rid hara, Cázerya, Rishyamuciha, Vaidurya, 'Sanc'ha, or islands of shells, (they are more generally called Barat'z and Barola; hence cowries are called Baratas, because they come from that comitry). Nucctatri Várichara, D'harmapattana-dzópa, an island opposite to D'harmapattan. (D'harmapattan was formerly a place of some note between Calicut and Cananor.) Gừarásht'ra, Crishna-Vellara, Pis'ica, Suryádri, Cusumanaga, Timbavana, Cármán'cyaca, Yímyodad'hi the sea of Yama, or Southern sea, Táa-pasás'rama-Rishica, Canchipura, Canjizoram, C'hinapattana or Madras, Devárshica, S'mhála or Ceylon, Rishabha, Bula-deva-pattana, or Maha Bailpura, now Mavelivoram, Dan'dacanana, Timingala, Sanhubhadra, Cacliha, Cunjaradari, Tamraparni.

In the South-West is Pahrwava, Camboja, Arachosia, Sïnd'hu, Suuvíra, Vádamuciha, Amba, simbasht'a, Campilla, Narimuc'ha, 'Anartta, Phen'agiri, Yavana-márgana, (those who live toward the passes leading into the country of the Yívanas, or Greeks of Bactriana, or the frontiers of the Yáranas,) Carriaprávarn'a, Sabaraca, 'Súdra, Barbara, Cirata '̌han'da, Cravyác’hya, 'Abhira, Chanchúca, Hemagivi,

Sind'hu-Calaca, Raivátaca, Suráshtira, Bádara, Dravildu. These are in the great sea, or near the great sea, Muntimán, Megheín, Vanogha, Cshurarpana, Astagira, ipara'ntica, at the end of the West, Sínatica, perhaps Sintica, Huihaya the Persians, Prasastádri, Uccína, Panchanalla, or Panjäb, Rámatú, Párata, Táracshica, Jringa, Vuis'ya, Canaca, 'Saca, Nirmaryádamlech'has. These are impure tribes living on the borders. In the NorthWest, Man'davya, Tushúra, T'üla, Hala, Madìra, As'maco, Culhu, Talaha, (Sirirajah) or Amazones, Nrǐsinhavana, C゙hasta, Ven'umatí, Phalaguluca, Aguruha, Maruha, Turuca, Charmaranga, Ecavilochana, (one-eyed,) Sulica, Dirglhagriva, or with long necks.

To the North is Cailása, Himaván, Vasumángiri, D'hanushmán, Crauncha Méru, Uttara-Curu with the epithet of C'shudramina, or North Curu under the lesser Fish, or the lesser lear,

Caicaya Cabul, Vasíut, or Yimuna, Bhogaprasta or Hardzear, Arjunáyana, Agnid'hra, Adar's'a, Antaradzaipi, the Doab between the Ganges and the Jumna, Trigartia, Tahora, Turagáma or As'ramuc'ha, Cis'ad'hara, Chipitnásica, Dáseraca, Vátad'hána, 'Sarad'hína, Tacsha-sila in the Vrihatcathá, (these are called Tacshila, the Taxila of the Greeks, and the ruins of which are to be seen between the V'etastía and Indus,) Pushicalúrvatu, Cainátaca, Cant'ad’hána, Ambara, Madraca, Málava, Paulura, C'ach'ha, Dan'da, Pingalaca, Már'ahala, (now Manhál in the mountains to the North of the Paujáb,) Hín'a, (the Humnoi of Cosmas,) Cohala, Sátaca, Mánidavya, Bhítupura, Gand’hara, Yasovati, Hematála, Ríjanya, Cachara, Gavya, I'aud'heya, Sameya, 'Syímaca, Cshemad'hurtta.

To the North-East (it should be to the NorthWest, ) is Meruca, (the mount Meros of the Greeks,) Nasht̀a-rójya, Páshupala, Cira, Cuis'míra, Abhisúra (which includes part of Cais'mira to the NorthWest: this was the kingdom of Abisares; by Abhisára they oftener understand Cás'mira, $D a-$ rada, Tangan'a, Culíta, Sauritya, Vana-rashtra. Brahma-pura, Dáreada, Amaravína, Rájya-Ciráta, Chína, Caulinda, Palava, Lola, Jatád’hara, Curaha, C'hasa, Ghosha, Canchica, Eca-charna, Sutarn'a-bhú, Vasud'hana, Dieishta, Paucara, Chívara, Nïasana, Trinetra, (or with three eves,) Munjadri, Soma, Gand'haröa. Then Pánchála, Mágad'lhica, Cálinga, 'Avartta, 'Anartta or Dwáraca,' Sind'hu, Sauvira, Hírhaura, MAudrésa.

To the South of the Jambuná, Prayaga, or Allahabad, Narmadá, Ardd 'ha-'Son'á the Sone, (which is considered as the half of the Nurmadá, ) Undra, Vanga, Sichma, Calinga, Fáhlica, or Balh, 'Saca, Yazana, Magad" ha, 'Sabara Prág jyotisha in Assam, Chína, Camboja Arachosia, Mecala, Cirála, Vicatá, Bahitinta-Saila, (within and without the hills,) Pulinda, Dravira, (all these are South of the $Y a$ muná, Chambá, Uctumbara, C'ausámbi, Vedi, ' 'end'hyát'aví, (the forests of the Vind'lyan hills,) Calinga, Pun'dra, Goléngólla, 'S'riparzata, Varld'hamín, or Burdwín, Jeshumati, Tascara, (a tribe of robbers,) Pírata, Cantara, Goparija, Tushad'hámya, Catuca, Taru-Canaca, (or golden tree,) Dahanarisha, Samaras'ura, Bheshaja, Bhishaca, Chatushpada, (with four feet.) C'rishicara, Nripahinsra, Pápapapí,.(these are tribes of robbers,) Vyáláran'ya, (the woods of snakes,) Yashoyuta, Ticsinn'a. (the Sun rules there,) Girisulila, Durga-coshala, Marucacliha, Samudra-Romaca, (the sea of Rome,) Thushára F'anaüási, Tuncan'a, Mala, Strírajya, und the islands in the Mahárnááa, or great sea, Mad-
hura-rasa, Cusumaphala, some read AMadhura, Rasacu, Sumaphala, (this last is the name of the country at the snurce of the Ganges, according to the divines of Tibet, and the lake Su-Mapanh seems to be called by them the sea of Matroba)'Salila-mani the jewel of the sea, Latan'a the sea of salt, 'Saricha, Mauctica, Abja, Mandáciní, Uttara paridyn, or North Pandu, on ths banks of the Ilystaspes. Between the river Sind'hu and Mothura on the Yammú, is Bhárata, and the Sauciras, (Suir in the spoken dialects,) Sughna, Divya, (a river, the Vipás'á or Beyah, ) 'Satadru, 'Satlạj, the country of Rámuta, 'Sálava, Traigartta, now Táhorah, Pauraca or country of Puru, (Porns,) Ambashta Bad, near Tanchsar, D'hamya, Yand'heya or country of Yudd'ha, Ayoud between the Vetastá and Sind'hu,' the country of Sarastata, Arjunáyana, Matsya, Ardd'ha-gráma, Hastyás's'vapuru, Mangalya, Paushtica, Sacta Carunya. The following tribes drink of the waters of the Airáratí; Ravy, Vitastá, and Chan'drabhágá, the Prast'halas, Mälava, Caicaya, Das'arn'a, Lishinara. The country of Caicaya is acknowledged to be Cabul, and Málava is Matwa, and of course they cannot drink of the waters of the above mentioned rivers: such blunders and inaccuracies are very frequent in the Purarias: in the present list Cas mira is Iplaced to the NorthEast of India: and I could point out many more.
III. The Tacsha-silas mentioned in this list, are called Tacshilas in the Vrihat-catha, and their country is said there to be on the banks of the Vitastá, or Hystaspes. They still exist as a numerous tribe, under the name of 'Syalas or 'Seyalas, and are divided into several branches; the 'Syálas proper, those of 'Syál-cote, of Jehumg-Syál, whose principal town is called Ychungsialan, by Major Rennel, the Cac-S'yálas, \&c.

The immense ruins of Tacshaila, as it is spelt also, cover a vast extent of ground, upon which a town and several considerable villages have been built; but these ruins are now mere rubbish. The Syálas are exceedingly proud of their antiquity, talk of ancient heroes, yet they remember nothing of Alexander, and his conquests. They are a fine race of men, tall, bold, and generous, like their neighbours the Chátars, the Chateri of Drodorus, the Sicilian; the greatest part of the latter are still Hindus, and I have seen several of them at Benares: and their tribe is well known in Penjáb. The Syálas, and Chátárs are certainly a distinct race in that part of the country. The Syálas, or Tacshas'ailas, or Silas a:e also called simply Tacshas as well as Syálas. The Syálas say, that the ancient name of their city was Uda-nágri, and Hud that of their country, from one HudVallala, or the shepherd, called Yulluleah by Persian authors, and Lilaios, by the Greeks*. The country of Hud is called Hodu, in the book of Esther, and seems to have included what is called Sind by Persiun writers, at least the Northern parts of it. It is called Yud'dheya in the Purán'as, and Ayud or Ayoud by European travellers of the sixteenth century.

Serai Ravaut, called Rubbaut by Major Rennell, is built upon the site of Tacshila, near SeraiPuckah.

[^47]
## CIIAPTER THE THIRD.

## Geographical Extracts from the Pura'n'as.

I. FOR the satisfaction of the reader, I shall give a few specimens of the geographical style of the Hindus, in the very words of the Paurán'ics. The first specimen is from the Brahmán'da-purán'a.

Now I shall describe the length, and breadth of the earth; and give a true account of the seas and islands. Between the seven islands are thousands of smaller ones. I shall now describe the seven islands, with the Moon, the Sun, and the planets, with their dimensions, to the satisfaction of mankind. I shall describe the nine divisions of the island of Jambu, which exists from old, their length and circumference in Yojanas. The breadth of Jambu-dwipa is 100,000 of Yojanas: it is very large, beautiful, and circular. It includes nine divisions, with mansions full of living beings; it is surrounded by the sea of salt; the breadth of which is equal to that of Jumbu-dwipa. Six ranges of monntains, with their divisions or countries, extend toward the East; which on both sides, East and West, join the Ocean.

Himapraya is Himatam, or full of snow: Hema. cütaca, full of gold, is Hemaván: Nishad'ha resplendent with gold, like the rising Sun: Méru of gold of four colours is the greatest of mountains; its body appears high in all its dimensions, of many colours all round, united by the skill of Praja'pati Brahmá. Eastward it is white, like the offispring of Brahma', born from the navel of Vishaiu; South it is yellow, and appears like a

Vais'ya. On the side of Varun'a, West, it is like the dry leaves of a tree; and like a Súdra, looks Méru of many names. North it is red, and looks like a Cshetri: these are conspicuous from their colours.

Like the ITaidurya, or Lapis Lasuli gem, is the Nila mountain: 'Swetas'ringa, abounding with gold, and 'Sringacain. like the feathers of the peacock. These are the chief hills, like so many kings; inhabited by Sidd'has and Gand'harvas. The spaces between them are 9000 Yojanas. In the middle is Ilícrata, round Méru, a space of 9000 Yojanas, and this mount Méru, like fire without smoke, stands in the middle. The surface of the Earth stands one half on the South of Me'ru, and the other half on the North. Between these seven divisions are hills; their breadth is 2,000 Yojanas each, and 2,000 Yojanas their height.

I have mentioned the breadth of Jambu-dwipa, now the two middle ranges Nila and Nishad'ha, are 10,000 Yojanas less, (in the Bhágačata 1000 only). 'Szeta and Hemaccut'a, likewise 10,000 less than the two former in length, and so are Himarán and Sringaoín. In these seven Countries are seen the footsteps of living creatures, with hills here and there, as if scattered at random. The Cơuntry below Himazat is Bhárata by name: beyond is Haimacúta a with Cimpurusha: bevond is Naishad'ha with golden peaks, and the Country of Haricarsham: and beyond Harivarsham is Méru and Ilíoratu; beyond Iláorata are the Nila mountains, and the Country of Ramyaca; beyond Ramyaca is Hiran'maya; beyond this is 'Sringa, and the Country of Curle. Know that the countries South and North of Méru, are shaped like a
bow. These are four districts remarkable for their length, between them is Iláorata. The division of the surface behind Nishad'ha is called the Southern division: the division beyond Nila is called the Northern one. South of Níla, and North of Nishad' ha length-wise, and towards the East is Mályarán, a thousand Yojanas: high, like Níla and Nishad'ha. Its length is 34,000 Yojanas, West of it is the mountain of Gand'hamádlana. Its length and breadth like Mályavána's. In the middle of a sort of circle, is Méru high, and of four colours; of four sides is this golden mountain, the greatest of all.

These four sides are remarkable, as they are the four paths of the five affections of the mind, from which, as they answer to the five elements, are produced all living being's.

The great Gon, the great, omnipotent, omniscient one, the greatest in the world, the great Lord, who goes through all the worlds, incapable of decay, and without body, is born a moulded body, of flesh and bones, made, whilst himself reas not made. His wisdom and power pervades all hearts; from his heart sprung this Padma Lotos like world in times of old. It was then in this, that appeared, when born, the God of Gods with four faces, the Lord of the Lords of mankind, who rules over all, the Lord of the world: when this flower was produced by Visinnu, then from his navel sprang the worldly Lotos, abounding with trees, and plants: then the dimensions of this worldly Lotos became obvious to the sight.

Round it are four great islands or countries: in the middle like the germ is Méru thus called; 2. great mountain of various colours all round,
toward the East para it is white, I say : yellow toward the South : apara Westward it is black; and to the North red like the dawning morn bálárca. Its height is 84,000 Yojanas: 16.000 below the surface of the Earth. In the middle it is hollow like the germ of the Lotos. Its breadth is above 32,000 Yojunas: its circumference twice that, added to it. Round it are four larger countries, and many smaller ones. Bhadrás'za, Bhárata, Cetumála to the West, and to the North the Curavas, Curu, in the singular number; in which are men abounding in righteousness. The circumference of the germ carrica is 90,000 Yojanas, the internal circumference is 84,000 : the stamináa, filaments, or chives ces'arajúla extend length-wise to the number of 100,000 ; and their circumference is 300,000 Yojanas. The four petals are $80,000 \mathrm{long}$, and as many broad. I am now going to describe this great and wonderful germ carnica, drupe, or pericarp.

It consists of 100,000 angles: Barigu says 3000 ; Sa'vervi 8000; Varsilapani 1000: Bháguri says it is square; Ga'lava that it is hollow; Gramya that it is like an egg, with the broad end below. Urd’hiveín, like three twisted locks of hair, whilst others will have it to be spherical. Every Rüshi represents this Lord of mountains, as it appeared to him from his station. Brahma', Imdra, and all the Gods, declare, that this largest of all mountains, is a form, consisting of jewels of numberless colours; the abode of various tribes; like gold, like the dawning mom, resplendent, with a 1000 petals, like 1000 water pots, with 1000 leaves.

[^48]petals they dwell with their consorts. There resides above Braman', God of Gods, with four faces, the greatest of those, who know the $V^{\prime}$ edas, the greatest of the great Gods, also of the inferior ones. 'There is the court of Bramma', consisting. of the whole Earth, of all those who grant the object of our wishes: thousands of great Gods are in this beautiful court; there the Brahmarishis dwell; it is called by all the world Manovati. There in the East is India for ever to be praised, the God setting upon a rimána, resplendent like a thousand suns. There the Gorls and tribes of Rishis are always sitting in the presence of the four faced God: these the God makes happy with his resplendence: there the Gods are singing praises to him. There is the Lord of wealth, beautiful with a thousand eyes, the destroyer of towns: the $I_{n-}$ dralocas enjoy all the wealth of the three worlds. In the second interval, between the East and the South, is the great vimana of $A g n i$ or fire, with a great resplendence, variegated with a hundred sorts of metals, resplendent; and from whom sprang the Vedas: there is his court; he does good to all, and his name is Jivant', in the mouth of whom the sacred elements of the homa are put. There fire Arala, the greatest of Cods, is seen in his proper form ; he who gives delight to all the Gods.

On the third side, in this very same manner, know there is the great court of VafraswataYama, called by mankind Su-Sanyama'. Thus in the next or fourth, is the court Siabhic of the Lord of the comer, or country, of N'airita: his court is called C'risimungana; his name is Yiru'pacshá, zith a disagrecuble conmenance. On the West, know that there is the court of Yarun'a, called 'Subuarati': Now toward the North, in the North-ll est, is the court of T'AyU', callal

Gandihaviti. In the seventh comer is the Sabhía of the Lord of the Zodiac, called Mahonaya', his seat, most beautiful, is of Faidirya, or lupis lasuli. In the eighth corner is the seat of IS' $\Lambda^{\prime} \mathrm{NA}$, or 'Siva; its colour is of fervid gold, and it is called Yas'oontí. These are the great and beautiful rimánas in the eight corners of the eight most benevolent Gods, called Indra-muchyas. There dwells on the summit the God of Gods, with four faces. There is the beautiful court of Brahma', served by tribes of Rishis: it is called Manovath, by mankind. There the Rishis, the Gods, and Gand harias, the Apsarásas, the great snakes are the attendants, most fortunate, and constantly lifting up their hands.

Such is this Carnica, or germ, above the surface of the earth. Its circumference at the surface of the Earth is 48,000 Yojanas. This Méru, above the surface of the Earth, is declared to be a hill full of inhabitants. On all sides, in every country, are maryádúa, or dividing mountains. In these countries are mountains with seven channels, one from each hill, with beautiful peaks, like gold, yellow, with many streams: without, there are three channels, and as many within Jat'ara, and Dera-ciútú, are two hills to the East. Their length is from North to South equal to that of Nila and Nishad'ha: Cailísa and Himavián are South and North of each other: their length is East and West, jutting: into the sea. Of this Méru very high, and of gold, the supports, or buttress like mountains, I shall now describe; like so many feet on four sides: 10,000 Yojanas is their breadth; and they are adomed on all sides with great cimánás. Last is Mímdara, South Gand hamádana; Vipula West, Sup áršu, North. Their thousand peaks are so many seats adorned with black and red coral. There are four
large trees, cach with as many ronts sa-muld, and branches with thousand smaller ones, all beautiful, and with flowers: these trees are the largest in the dwipas. On the summit of the Mandara mountain is a beautiful Cadamba tree: its fruit is like a great waterpot, with flowers, with open Calices. Its fragrance is felt one thousand Yojanas, and above, all round: consider it then as a large flag: from its excellence, the country it is in, is called Bhadrís'éd. Here is seen Rioshices'a, Bhagara'sa, and he, with numerous Lidd'has, rules there; here Harahari the great, the white, did obtain the tree Rudracadamba; he who does good to erery body. No great man, famous and learned among the bipedes, ever saw this whole island called Bhadr'is'sa. The Jambu tree, most beautiful, is on the South of the mountain of Méru; the fruits of which are Amritcalpáni, like those of the Calpaoricsha, and fall on the summit of the mountain. From this mountain issues the Jambur river, flowing with honey: in it is found the gold called Jumbunada, with which the Gods are adorned. This flag-like tree is in the Southern part of the dwipa, and is called Jombu by mankind: from it Jambudutipa derives its name.

On the Vipula mountain, toward the West, is the Plucsha tree: from this flas-like tree, or C'étu, the comntry is called Cetw-Mäla; the Gods, and Gand haricas worship it. On Supars'ra, in the North, on its summit is a large tree, the Nyagrod'ha: its large branches, and their-circumference extend many Yojanas all round. Thus I have described the flag-like tree of the North, Curus. There are the seven Ciurazas, or Curus: for Ciwraza is à plural form, truly fortunate, and who oltained happiness, unalterable, most exquisite in this world, for a long time: and after them this island or
country was called the seven Ciuracas, or Curis simply in the singular number.

This will suffice to give an idea of the geographical turn of the Hindus, and I shall leave off, in future, the descriptions of mountains, dales, and lakes, as if viewed through a prism, omitting the enchanting buze of the six-footed Bhramara, a beetle, or rather a large black bee, fucus, or drone, the names of fragrant flowers, and precious stones, with which the Hindus are as much delighted, as children are with the bare names of sweetmeats, and flowers jumbled together.
II. In the description of Bhadricis'a, or China, as we have observed before, the Paurónicics take peculiar notice, that this exteusive country had never been visited by great men, that is to say, by men of learning and respectability. The author then gives an account of the four sacred streams in these words:

Hear now what divine streams issuc from the lakes, abundant with ogha living waters. The water of the Ocean, coning from hearen upon Méru, is like amrita; and fiom it arises a river, which, through seven channels, encircles Mérue for a space of eighty-four Yojancts, and then divides into four streains springing over the four sacred hills, toward the four cardinal points. One stream goes over Mandara in the East, and encircles the beautiful grove of Chaitri-ratha, and falls into the Arunodí, or Arumatake, and gocs thence to the mountains of Sitanta, Sumanta, Sirmanjasa, Mádhyazanta, to L'aicanca, Maní, Riskiabha, from hili to hill; then falls to the ermand, and waters the country of Bhadris'sa, a Sic-mahicidroipa, or beautiful and extensive is!and, or counA 3
try; and then it joins the Eastern Ocean near the Puria-dwípa, or Eastern island, called, in other Purinias, the island of Indra, and of the rising sun, as implied also in its present Chinese name of Gepuen, or Japan.

The Southern branch goes to Gand'hamádana, from bill to hill, from stone to stone; it encircles the forest of Gand hamédana, or Deva-nandana, where it is called Alucanandá. It goes to the Northem lake, callerl Minase, thence to the King of mountains with three summits, thence to the mountains of Culinga, Ruchaca, Nishad'ha, Jamrábha, or copper mountains, iStretodara, Sumula, another King of hills, I'asudi híra, IFemacut'a, Dezas'rinğg, Pisháchaca, a great mountain, Panchácu't' $a$, or with five peaks; then to Cailas'a, thence to fimazat, or snowy range; and then, this Mahuabhágá, or most propitious river, having watered many countries, falls into the Southern Ocean. Mamádeva received it on his own head, from which, spreading all over his body, its waters are become most efficacious. It falls then upon Himánchala, from which it gangs its way upon earth: hence it is called Gangá.

To the West, apara is a large river encircling the forests of Vaibhrájá: it is Muthí-bhágí, most propitious: it falls into the lake Sitodá, called by Persian authors Diva-Síran: thence it goes to the SuBacsha mountains, and to the Purvioda lake, or the Caspian Sea, to the mountains called 'Sic'hi, Canca Vaidúrya, C'apila Gand ha-mádana, Pinjara, Cumuda Mrad humanta, Alyjana, Muciúta Crishina. Siceta filled with large slakies, to the mountain with 1000 peaks, to the Párijatumountain, through Cetumaila, a large country, then falls into the Western Ocean. It is the Chacshu or Oxuis.

North from Méru there falls a branch called Biaará, and Bhadrá-somá upon Supars'za of gold, which it encircles; and goes to the lake called Sitodacá, in the forest of Bhadra-soma, thence to the mountains of 'Sancha-cút' a, I'risha I'atsa, N'ila, C'apingala, Indramild, Mahtúnilla, Hemas ring, 'Sivetasringa, Sunaga, to the monftain with an hundred peaks. Pushcara, Dwija-ríja, V'aríha boar, Mayra peacock, to the single peak Jatudhi; then after corroding a thousand inferior hills, it goes to the mountain with three peaks, to Vishudd ha; then goes into the Northern Ocean. This mountain of $V^{\prime}$ also is said by astronomers to be in the same meridian with Lancá, aud as such is mentioned by several French authors, as Bailie, Gentile, \&ec.

Close to the Gand'hamádana, along the banks of the Apara-Gandicá, or Western Gan'dicá, is the country of Cetu-mála, 34,000 Yojaisus in length, and 39,000 broad. The Cetumailas are mighty in deeds, strong and powerful; the women bright like the Loos flower: and whoever sees them, falls in love with them. There is the great tree P and sos, the Ygdrasil of the Edda, from which flow the sixth juices. There resides Is'wara, or Is'A, the son of Brahma'. 'The proper name of this commtry is C'etu, which has an obvious affinity with the Cetiom of Scripture, a plural form, and in the singular number Ceti, and with the C'etii of prophane authors.

On the East, in Bhadris'ta or China, is the Pur"a-Gan'aicá, or Eastern Gan'licá: and the length of its course is the same with that of the Apara, or Western one. In the V'arcilatpura'n'ce, it is said that the course of the Puria-Giandicá is $1000 \mathrm{I} \%-$ janus, but that of the para or Wester, is only

400 , which is more conformable to truth, as the Oxus dues not fall into the Atlantic Ocean.

The author then gives an account of the countries round Méru, as far as the seas surrounding the old continent. He treats first of the Drontis, vallies, or countries situated between ranges of mountains. The Bráhma, Vayu, and Brahmándapurian'as, are the most copious on this subject. The mountainous tracts to the North of India, are so little known to us, and to the Hindurs themselves, that I can by no means throw any light upon so extravagant and obscure descriptions of them, as are to be found in these Purin'as. I shall of course pass them over, after having taken notice of two curious passages, one relates to the famous mountain of Cailisa or Cailas, the heaven of 'Siva, and often used by his followers for heaven in general, as Coilus, Coilum, and Coila, by the Latiuns. There resides 'Siva, called also Arhan, or Uranus: for'Siva, like Uranus, presides over Astronomy.

It is said to be one hundred yojanas in length, and fifty broad; and a most extravagant description of it is given in the Purinias. I have conversed with many pilgrims, who had seen this famous mountain, and they uniformly declared to me, that it is only eight or mome miles to the South of the lake of Rírona, the Lanken of the maps. It is about three coss long, or seven miles, and shaped like a mandap, by which they understand a building, like a barn. Faicanta, the hearen of Vishinu, is toward Assam; and that of Brahma', towards Tartary, a considerable way to the North. In the $V^{\prime}$ ingu-purinua we read, that in the Southern vallis withi regard to Miru, is the immeuse forest of Udumbara, in which is the place of abode of

Carddames'wara, the eldest son of Adam. This place they suppose to be in the vast Mediterranean island, in the Paltze lake in Tibet, a very proper place for him, and also to the Eastward of Eder.

But let us pass to the mountains, vallies, and champain countries to the West of Méru. It is said, in the Brahma-puránia, that in Bhadrus'v, or China, Vishnu resides with the countenance and head of a Horse. In Bhirráta, he has the countenance of a Tortoise: in Cetu-mála, or Europe, he resides in the shape of a l'arcila, or Boar, and he is described as the chief of a mumerous offspring, or followers in that shape. He is then in C'etumála F'aráhapa, or the chief of the Faráhas, or Boars; a word to be pronounced according to the idiom of the spoken dialects, IF'uráipá. In C'urve he has the countenance of a IIatsya, or fish: and, of course, he is there Sira-matsya, or with the head or countenance of a fisl. He is probably the Chrado of the Goths, who was represented standing upon a fish in the waters. For the extensire country of Cum is declared to be South of the Northern Ocean, and North of Méru, in the Purin'us, and particularly in the beginning of the Brahma-puraina. It begins immediately at the foot of the Northernmost range of Hills, a little beyond fifty-two degrees of latitude North, and extends from sea to sea.
III. In the Vayu-puraináa, the countries to the West of Méru are thus described; and the anthor begins with the rallies, and champain countries.

There are many vallies and flat grounds to the West of Héru, divided by numerous ranges of hills. About the mountains of Siu-bacsia, the Becuis of Prolemy, and 'Sic'hi-s'aile is a level com-
try about a hundred yojanas in extent; an! " there the ground emits flames. It is a most dismal place, horrid to the sight, inaccessible to mortals: the sight of it, males the very hair stand. It is the abode of the superior denties. There is Y1bna'vast, or Vasu simply, who presides over the fire, burning without fuci; tie who is the great deity, and there fire seems to liave life. When performing holy rites with ofteriuss to the Gods, men always give fore his share. There timt very fire, which one day will spread over, and encompass the whole universe, is constantly hurning. Within the momatans is the aloode of the illustious and powerful Gionis; with the place of the Mútu-lingra, ten yojunas broad, and there is the hermitage of Vrimaspati.

Like these two mountains are Cumuda and $A$ ? jana: between these is an extensive valley with a lake. The Chomuda range answers to the C'onecii mountains of Prorkay : and the Anjuna, or black yange, to the Anthena of Forsian writers, as I observed before, and there is the A'yatana, or abode of Visinu u.

The sthim of V Ase is obrionsly a voleano in the Al-burs mountains, and a rolcano is really Faisiciaydation, or the abode of Tase in a derivative form: and here we have the etymology of $I V$ 'sectus, T'esmeins, and Aitna or Atma, which words have been improperly divided. Between the great mountains Crishina and Pind dura, the black and white mountains, is a level country. In it is a Padminit land, or marshy ground abounding with Lotos. There resides the God with a thousand bodies. Mankind call it Ananta-sada, or Anamtee-sedes, the seat of Hari, with the title of Auanta. In the middle of the Cumuda mountains with a thonsand peaks, there is a forest fifty yojanas long, and thirty
broad. There is the famous pool of the Apsarasas; many holy men live there, and dink of its pure waters.

Between 'Sancu-cutt $a$, or the peak like a woorlenpin, and the Vrishabha momitains, is the sthalh, or country of Parushuca, many yojuzas in length. There live the Cimmaras, U'ageis, serpents, and holy men.

The tract between the mountains of Capinjala and Jaga-s'ala, is two humedred grjanas in Iength, and one hundred broad, twity delightult, adomed with many groves. It abounds with fruits, and flowers of varions sorts. The Cinimaras, and lirasas, with tribes of pious and good men live there. There are beautiful groves of Dráchtur vine trees, Nága trees, or Niggr-réngu, the orange-tree, and plum, or rather stone-fruit trees It abounds with lakes and pools filied to the brim, with sweet and refreshing waters. What part of it lies between the Pushipacu and Mahiu-Megha mountains, abont one huadred ygignas long. and sinty broad. is as flat as the palm of the hand, as known to every hodly, with rory little water, which is whitish. The soil is lard, and tenactonts, withont trees, and even without grass. Then an few living ercatures: and the few inhabitants are withont fined habitations: this desert is so dreary as to malie the traveller's hair stand up. The whole comentry is called Cannana, or C'andern. There are sciocral larse lakes, likewise great trees, and larger groves, catied Cántú. The smaller lakes, pools, groves, orchards, producing delighatful juices, are numberiess. 'The rallies, depths, lakes, and groves are, sone ten. others twelve, seren, eight, wenty; or thity yojaras in circumference. There are caves, in the momatains, most ditary and dark, inaceessible to thie rays of the sun, cold, and difficult of acceos.

In that country are Situlhas, or prophets, with the gift of miracles; learned and famous Brähmens, bright like fire; hundreds of thousands of them are in that country.

It is truly supprising to find so plain, and sensible a description of a country in the Puráicts: for the translation is faithful, and I have not left out, as before, any passage on any account whatsoever. It appears to be Syria in its largest dimensions, and which the author calis Cánan; because the Canumeans, and amongst them the Phenicians, were possessed of the greatest and best part of it, and were, moreover, famous all over the East.

The dimensions in yojanas in general, must be considerably reduced: but there are particular instances when they must be retained, and such cases are by no means numerous. I have noticed that the description of this country was a plain narrative, which, if not true, bore at least every mark of probability.

The mountains of Capinjala, a sort of bird, and Naiga, or of the Serpents, are mknown: the region betwcen them was ono yojantes, or about 900 miles long, and 100 broad, or about 450 miles. These are the dimensions of Syria from Babylon to the Medietranean sea. It consisted of two parts, a dreary desert, and the other a most charming and fruitful country, with six or seven lakes, called seas, the largest of which is the $A s$ phaltite sea, thirty yojanas in circumference, according to Joseprius's account.

The Paurin'ics, in their description of countries, never mention, at least as far as I can recollect,
the vine, and plum, or olive tree, nor the Nágaránga, or orange tree, unless we are to understand the latter of trees, bearing golden apples. The larger lakes, the numberless pools, the caves in the mountains, the abundance of rineyards and orchards filled with orange and olive trees, is perfectly correct, as well as the description of the desert, with its scanty waters of a whitish colour, and a few inhabitants, without any fixed habitations, is literally true. The numerous and learned Levites, who were really Brahme:1s, the Sidd'has or prophets working miracles, are certainly wonderful circumstances.

The Cimnaras may be the inhabitants of the country of Cimereth, round the lake of the same name with the town of Cimnereth. The tribe of Uragas, or serpents, were probably the Hivites, whose name implies the same thing. Vadari signifies a plum tree, but, in general, a stone-fruit tree; and is, of course, applicable to the olive tree, for which, I believe, there is no name in Sanscrit. It is not understood here of the date tree, for which there is a name in that language.

This curious passage proves the existence of an early intercourse between the Ilindus with the inhabitants of the more Western countries, and particularly the Isruelites. I shall show, in the course of this work, that such an intercourse existed formerly: and Lucian takes a particular notice of the Hindus visiting holy places in Syria, such as the st hán of Mahá-bhág'a-deví, called Bombyce, and now Manbeg. This, in my humble opinion, explains an obscure passage of the prophet Isaran, who lived in the eighth century before Christ *:

[^49]"Verily thou hast forsaken thy people, the house "of JACOB; because they are filled with diviners "from the EAsT, from more than or beyond the "Eist; who are soothsayers like those of the "Philistines; and they delight in the society of " children of strangers." This passage I conceive to allude to Hindus, from the very forcible expression of from the East, from beyond the East, or from the rematest parts of the East. The prophet dish not mean the Chaldeans, who were well known to him, as he repeatedly takes notice of them.
IV. The next mountains are those of Situnta, many yojanas in extent, abounding with all sorts of metals and gems. Ie is skirted by a most delightful country, well watered, enlivened with the harmonious noise of the black bee and frogs. There are towns, with gates: and the refreshing moisture of this country, procceds from Urupa, or the Lord of the Zodiac; and re-uniting together, forms a stream, called the Vahú of the Moon, or Chandra-uaháa. There live the Siddhas and Yacshas, in caves, with intricate but delightful mazes. There, among immense caves, is the Cridurana, or place of dalliance of Mainindra, where knowledge and the completion of our wishes is fully obtained. There is the grat forest of the Parijutata tree, of the kings of the Gods, known through the three worlds: and the whole world sings his praise from the F'edus: such is the place of dalliance of him with 1000 cyes, or Irdra.

One side is Sucarna of gold, as implied by its name, full of hills of the purest gems and corals. In this charming grove of 'Sacrat or Indra, the Gods, the Dánaras, the snakes, Yucshas, R'icshasas, G’uhya, or C'ü゙cras, G'and’harvas, Vidyád’haras live happy, as well as numerous tribes of Apsarísas, fond of sport.

To the East of this lord of mountains is Cimula, a peak, with eight towns of the prond Dunatus. In the mountains of T'ejirací, with many peaks, live Rácshasas, frightful, assuming whatever countenanee they please, strong, and performing wonderful achievements: these iácshusas are called Nílacas.

In Muhí-Nila, or the great blue range, are fifteen towns belonging to the Hayunana, or $A s^{\prime} v a-$ muc'ha, or horse-faced tribe, probably the $P(t)$ thians, and the descendants of Torgama, who bred horses, and carried them to the principal fairs in the East. In Sanscrit, Turangama, perhaps the same with Thorgama, for thus Thogarma is also written, signifies a horse, and implicitly a horseman: and the Hindus derive from it the appellation of Turcoman. They are originally Cimaras, courageous like the leader of the armies of the Gods; Ca'rtice'ya, with large hands, and strong like the Indrúdicas. There are filten chiefs of the Cimnaras, elited with pride. There in towns, under ground, like Bámiyan, live people like snakes ; no man can look them in the face, and meet their eyes: their looks are like fire, like the poison of serpents. These live upon the golden stamiata of certain flowers. In the hills there are above a thousand aborles of Daityas: the houses are elegant, like high-embattled forts.

In $V^{\prime}$ en'u-manta, or $V^{\top}$ eniuman, are three forts belonging to the Tidyaddharis, thirty yojanus long, and twenty-five broad. These belong to the CThcas, the Romastuts, or Romacus, and the Mahánetras. These rank among the greatest of the Vidyad'haras, and whose nighty deeds equal those of Indra. The country of fermanta is one hundred and forty miles long, and about siaty broad:
in it there are three strong fortified places, held at the same time by the three most powerful nations then existing. The Romashas, or Romacas, are the Romans, called Romaicoi in Greek, and often mentioned in the Puránias and other books of the llindus, but only in general terms. The Ulucas are the 'Sacas, called also Bolga, Volca, and Wolkee; these were probably the Parthians. The Mahánetra, or with large eves, are probably the Armemians: and it was in the first century, that these three powerful nations were thus brought in contact, on the borders of Syria, Armenia, and Persia, in a country bordering upon the lake Van, thus called from a town of the same name, which in the Armenian language signifies a fortified place. HarMinni, or Har-Minnith, signifies the motntains of Minnith, or Armenia, and Vani-minnith, or Vanniminni, the strong holds of $A r$-minni, Armona, $A r$ mana, or Armenia: for thus its name is variously written.

In the Brahmán'da it is declared, that in the conntry of Cus'a, including Iran, Syria, and Aralia, is the C'amudouti, or Euphrates, with the Cumnuda mountains; from which Cus'a is also denominated the duipa, or country of C'umuda. There live the Sacas, a poweiful nation: the Párasicas romarkable for their beauty, and the 'Syamacas seemingly thus called from their black complexion. These were suldued by Raguu: and in the book of his wars, a few remarkable circumstances relating to that extensive country, nccur occasionally. Otherwise the Parrasicus, of natives of Párasa, or Persia, are seldom noticed by the P(uuran'ics. In Cumuda is the Cumudratín river, and the sthinn of Mana'-bha'ga-devi', the sister of Maha'-deya. Of this famous place, I took particular notice in my Essay on Semiranis, under the name of Mabog and Manbeg.

On Vaicana resides the offspring of Garudia, the destroyer of serpents: it abounds with metals and precious stones. A strong and turbulent wind swiftly passes over this mountain, in a human form, called Sugriva. The offspring of Punva'Ga'ri', or Garud'a, in the shape of birds, fly about this mountain: they are strong, fly quickly, and mighty are their achievements. On Caraja always resides the mighty lord of living beings, who manifests himself there to human sight, the great God riding upon a Bull, hence called Vrisha-bha'nca-sancara, the chicf of Yogis. The inhabitants, like Mana'dera, alway's carry poison about them : they are Pramat'has, or servants of Maha'-deva, and difficult of access. Maifa'-deva resides there among them.

On Vasu-d'hára in Trasumati, a mountain and country full of fire, as implied by their names, are the sthans, or places of the eight forms of Maha'-deva, the merciful God. They are full of resplendence, and proper places of worship. There are seven st'hins of Sidd'has: and the st'hán of Brahma' with four faces, the mighty lord of created beings, on a high peak: all living creatures bow to it. The eleven Rudras reside there, on the Gaja-s'aila, or elephant mountain.

Su-Megha is full of metals, a king of nountains it is, like the clouds Megha, with many caves in its bosom, and arbours in its skirts. It is the A'yatanan, or place of abode of the twelve Suns, and of the eight forms of Rudra. There also the sthans of Vishnu, and the As'zinau or Dioscuri, with many belonging to the Sidd'has and Gods. There the Yacshas, Gand'harcas, and Cimnaras, probably priests and minstrels, are constantly performing the puja. In the bosom of this mountain, Vol. VIII.

B b
are famous and large cities of the Gand'larvas, resplendent like Amara-puri, with large forts well embattled, in which reside the Sidd'has, and Gand'harvas deeply skilled in war, with their king Capinjala, God and king of kings. From him these are called the Capinjala mountains, of which I took notice before.

On Anala, a fire mountain also, reside tribes of Rícshasas, or evil spirits with a human body, on this mountain with five peaks, with the Dánavas, proud, enemies of the Gods, great, strong, and of mighty deeds. These Dínavas are perhaps the Greelis, the offispring of Davaus.

On 'Sata-s'ring'a, or with one hundred peaks, reside the Yacshas, a benevolent tribe. On Tamrabha, or the copper mountain, is a town inhabited by the Cadraveyas, or children of Cadru, the wife of Ca's'vapa, and by Tacshacas, a serpentine tribe of artists.

In the great and beautiful Vis'ácaciha are many caves in its skirts: it is the famous place of abode of the God, who always dwells in caves, Ca'rtiCey'a, or Mars. On 'Swetodara, or with a white belly, is a large town, and settlement of the bemeficent Suxa'bia, the son of Garuda.

On the large mountain of Paisáchaca, is a settlement of the Cuceras, (called also Cuberas and Guhyas, and the same with the Cabirian tribes,) with a commodious palace, resorted to by the Yueshus and Gand harwas. On Hari-cuit'a resides the God Hakr, to whom all the world bows: the famous navel of this most resplendent mountain is remarkable for its splendour.

On Cumuda reside the Cimnaras: on Anjana the great Snakes: on Crishina are the towns of the Gand'harvas with large houses.

On Pánduria, on a beautiful peak, is the town of Vidyádhara, well fortified, and a large palace with battlements.

On the mountain with a thousand peaks, reside the Daityas and Dánavas in a thousand towns. They are all shining with gold, and their voice is most melodious.

On Sucita reside the chiefs of the Pannágas, or great Snakes: and on Pushpaca many tribes of Munis. On Supacsha, or Subucsha, are the four mansions of Vaivaswata, or Noah, of the Moon, of Vayu, and Na'ga'd'hipa', or King of Serpents. The Gand'haroas, Cimaras, Yacshas, Nägas and Vidyád'huras, and their chiefs, are constantly worshipping their Ishta, or favourite deity.

The place of Vaivaswata, or Maitlam, is near Cabul, in the country of Lampacam, as it is called in the Puránias, and Lamgam, by the natives. Of this place, I took particular notice in my Essay on mount Caucasus.
V. In this Piríina, the author, whilst describing the mountains to the South, and South-West of Méru, mentions a circumstance truly curious and interesting. Here, says he, in the forest of S'anc'ha was born Shada'nana, or Ca'rticéya, Mars with six faces. Here he wished, or formed the resolution of going to the mountains of Crauncha, Germany, part of Polund, \&cc. to rest, and recreate himself after his fatigues in the wars of the Gods with the giants. There, in the skirts of
the noountains of Crauncha, he flung his sword, the very same which Attila, in the fifth century, asserted he had found under a clod of earth. 'It was placed in his tomb, where it is probably to be found.

In the Devi-Purán'a, it is declared, that Devi in her character of Jayn-devi', or goddess of victory, is worshipped in the dwipa of Crauncha, under the emblem of a sword.

The rest of the more Western countries is neglected by the compiler, as they are described in other paragraphs, under the names of dwipas or countries of Placsha, S'almali, Crauncha S'ácam, and Pushcara. He takes particular notice of a singular region in Sulmali, called the peak-land of the Gods.

Hear now: in Dera-cutta, or peak-land of the Gods, which is a mountain dividing, parting countries, or, in other words, a long and extensive range, is this place where GarúdA, the son of Vinata', was born; which is also his D'hámadomus home, on a broad peak of this great range, with a beautiful palace. This country is one hundred yojanas in circumference, or about four hundred and ninety miles. There resides the numerous offspring of Garu'da, in the shape of large bircls, and of men also swiftly flying, strong, ruling all over the country, and full of pride. This is the first mansion of the lord of birds, generous and merciful, swift like the stormy wind, and who resides in the dwipa of S"almali. It is toward the South on one of the peaks of this mountain, conspicuous, full of wealth, beautiful, seven in number, bright like the morning and evening skies, with forts of silver, well embattled, adorned with chaplets of houses made by the Gods, forty yojanas
long, two hundred miles, and thirty broad, one hundred and fifty miles. These are called the seven towns of the Gand'harvas, full of men and women. This is a peculiar tribe of the Gand'har vas, called Agncyas, fire-men, or rather artificers by fire, very strong, and of mighty deeds. They are the servants of the Cuveras, or Guthyas, whose principal employment is to explore the bowels of the earth in search. of wealth. The rest of this curious description will be hereafter the subject of a particular section.

Before we pass to the second part, it will be requisite to give some explanation of the accompanying Plates:

No. I, represents the worldly Lotos, floating upon the waters of the Ocean, which is surrounded, and its waters prevented from falling into the vacuum by the Suvarnia-bhími, or land of gold, and the mountains of Locálocas.

No. II, represents the globe of the Earth, according to the Hindu astronomers. It is projected upon the plane of the equator, and the Southern hemisphere expanded in such a manner, that the South pole, instead of a point, becomes the largest circle of this projection. They also represent the two hemispheres, separately upon the plane of the equator.

No. III, represents the same, projected upon the plane of a meridian. These two projections are against the tenor of the context of the Puran'as: a Southern hemisphere being then absolutely unknown.

Here I have placed the three ranges of mountains, according to the documents of Hindu astronomers: but not according to their usual delineations: for, according to these, the three ranges should be represented by three concentric half circles, parallel to the meridians of the projection. It is acknowledged, that these ranges are in the direction of as many parallels of latitude. In that case the outermost ranges must be the longest: and this is the opinion of the Jainas, as I observed before, in the sixth paragraph of the first chapter.

No. IV, exhibits the old Continent, projected upon an imaginary circle passing through the North pole, and just grazing the equator in the South. Instead of a circle, it should be an oval, with the longest diameter East and West. But as the tracing of an oval would be attended with some difficulty, the indolent Pauránics have adopted the circle in its room; and seldom use the other. As such a delineation would be uṣeless, I have, of course, omitted it.

The chasm in the North-West, through the mountains surrounding the world, was made by Crishna, when he went to see his prototype Vishive, or the great spirit, the Paramátmá of the world, whose abode is among waters, in the land of darkness. Several heroes have passed since through this chasm, which will be the subject of a particular paragraph hereafter.

No. V, explains the true system of the known world, according to the Puránas, and the Jainas, reconciled with that of the astronomers of India.

Here the Méru of the Pauránics is brought back to its proper place, whilst the Meru of the astro-
nomers remains under the North pole. The zones between Jambu or India, and the Díru of the astronomers, are obviously our seven climates; and the points where the astronomical zones intersect the zones of the Paurinics round their respective centres equally called Méru, shew the true situation of the dweipas or countries, from which these zones, according to the system either of the astronomers or of the Pauriurics, are equally denominated, whether they are reckoned relatively to the North pole, or to a centrical point in the elevated plains of Tartary.

No. VI, is a delineation of the country of Bhúrata, in the fullest acceptation of that denomination. Its nine divisions with Curl, or Siberia, and the Northern parts of Europe, making in all ten districts, were all destroyed by a violent storm, and inundation, except one. Thus the ten divisions of the Atlantis were all destroyed by a flood, except one, called Gades, which probably included Spain.

Some also are of opinion, that, out of the seven dwipas, six were likewise overwhelmed by a flood. This circumstance is also noticed in the third volume of the Ayin-Acberi. But I believe that this notion originated with the Puránicas, who, unable to point out these wonderful countries, described in so extravagant a manuer in their sacred books, found that the best way was to swear, that they had disappeared.


The Worldy Lotos.

No 2


South Pole

Ne3.


LAND of DARKNESS fill of 食Waters: Abode of



## VIII.

> On the Védas, or Sacred Writings of the Hindus.

BY H. T. COLEBROOKE, ESQ.

IN the early progress of researches into Indian literature, it was doubted, whether the Védas were extant; or, if portions of them were still preserved, whether any person, however leamed in other respects, might be capable of understanding their obsolete dialect. It was believed too, that, if a Bráhman'a really possessed the Indian scriptures, his religions prejudices would nevertheless prevent his imparting the holy knowledge to any, but a regenerate Hindu. These notions, supported by popular tales, were cherished long after the Védas had been communicated to DA'rá Shucon; and parts of them translated into the Persian language, by him, or for his use *. The doubts were not finally abandoned, until Colonel Polier obtained from Jeyepir a transcript of what purported to be a complete copy of the Védas, and which he deposited in the British Museum. About the same time, Sir Robert Chambiris collected, at Benares, numerous fragments of the Indian scripture: General Martine, at a later period, obtained copies of some parts of it: and Sir William Jones was successful in procuring valuable portions of the Védas, and in translating several cu-

[^50]rious passages from one of them *. I have been still more fortunate in collecting at Benares, the text and commentary of a large portion of these celebrated books; and, without waiting to examine them more completely, than has been yet practicable, I shall here attempt to give a brief explanation of what they chiefly contain.

It is well known, that the original Véda is believed, by Hindus, to have been revealed by Brahma'; and to have been preserved by tradition, until it was arranged in its present order by a sage, who thence obtained the surname of $V_{\text {ra'sa }}$ or Ve'dayya'sa; that is, compiler of the Tédlas. He distributed the Indian scripture into four parts, which are severally entitled Rich, Yajush, S'aman, and 'At'harvan'a; and each of which bears the common denomination of Véda.

Mr. Wilifins and Sir Wilifam Jones were led, by the consideration of several remarkable passages, to suspect, that the fourth is more modern than the other three. It is certain, that Mene, like others among the Indian lawgivers, always speaks of three only, and has barely alluded to the 'At'harvan'a $\dagger$, without however terming it a Véda. Passages of the Indian scripture itself seem to support the inference: for the fourth Véla is not mentioned in the passage, cited by me in a former essay $\ddagger$, from the white $Y_{\text {(ijush }} \|$; nor in the following text,

[^51]quoted from the Indian scripture by the commentator of the Rich.
> "The Rygueda originated from fire; the Yajur"veda from air; and the Sámavéla, from the " sum *."

Arguments in support of this opinion might be drawn even from popular dictionaries; for Anerasinha notices only three Védas, and mentions the 'At'haroan'a without giving it the same denomination. It is, however, probable, that some portion at least of the 'At'haroun'a is as ancient as the compilation of the three others; and its name, like theirs, is anterior to Vya'sa's arrangement of them: but the same must be admitted in regard to the Itihása and Purán'as, which constitute a. fifth Véda, as the 'At'har"vari'a cloes a fourth.

It would indeed be vain to quote in proof of this point, the Purinias themselves, which always enumerate four Vélas; and state the Itihísa and Purán'as as a fifth: since the antiquity of some, among the Purínias now extant, is more than questionable; and the authenticity of any one, in particular; does not appear to be as yet sufficiently established. It would be as useless to cite the Man'dúca and Tápaniya Upanishads, in which the -At'harva-teda is enumerated among the scriptures, and in one of which the number of four Vélus is expressly affirmed: for both these Upanishads ap-

* Menu alludes to this fabulous origin of the Védas, (chap. 1, v. 23). His commentalor, Me'd'Ha'tit'hi, explains it by remarking, that the Riguédu opens with a hymn to fire; and the Yajurvéda, with one, in which air is mentioned. But CullucaBHAT'T'A has recourse to the renovations of the universe. 'In one Calpa, thé Védas proceeded from fire, air, and the sum; in another, from BraHMA', at his allegorical immolation.
pertain to the 'Atharoan'a itself. The mention of the sage Atharvan in various places, throughout the $I$ 'édas. *, proves nothing: and even a text of the Yajuricda $\dagger$, where he is named in contrast with the Rïch, Yajush, and Saman, and their supplement or Bráhmana, is not decisive. But a very unexceptionable passage may be adduced, which the commentator of the Rich has quoted, for a different purpose, from the Ch'hándógya Upanishad, a portion of the Sáman. In it, Na'reda, having solicited instruction from Sanatcuma'ra, and being interrogated by him, as to the extent of his previous knowledge, says, 'I have learnt the $R$ igréda, the Yajuriéda, the Sámavéda, the 'At'harvan'a, [which is] the fourth, the Itihaisa and Purán'a, [which are] a fifth, and [grammar, or] the Yéld of Vedas, the obsequies of the manes, the art of computation, the knowledge of omens, the revolutions of periods, the intention of speech [or art of reasoning], the maxims of ethicks, the divine science [or construction of scripture], the sciences appendant on holy writ [or accentuation, prosody, and religious rites], the adjuration of spirits, the art of the soldier, the science of astronomy, the charming of serpents, the science of demigods [or music and mechanical arts]: all this have I studied; yel do I only know the text, and have no knowledge of the soul $\ddagger$.
* Vide Védas passim.
+ In the Triettríva Upanishad.
I Fi.hindioga Upanishad, ch. 7, § 1. I insert the whole passase, becouse it contains an anple enumeration of the sciences. The names, by which grammar and the rest are indicated in the original text, are obscure; but the annotations of SANCARA explan them.

This, like any nther portion of a Véda where it is itself named, (for a few other instances occur;) must of course be more modern than another part, to which the name had been previously

From this, compared with other passages of less authority, and with the received notions of the Hindus themselves, it appears, that the Rych, Yajush, and Saman, are the three principal portions of the Vedu; that the 'Athareana is commonly admitted as a fourth; and that divers invthological poems, entitled Itihása and Puránias, are reckoned a supplewent to the scripture, and, as such, constitute a fifth $V^{\prime} e ́ d u^{*}$.

The true reason, why the three first $V$ 'edas are often mentioned without any notice of the fourth, must be sought, not in their different origin and antiquity; but in the difference of their use and purport. Prayers, employed at solemm rites, ealled Yajnyas, have been placed in the three principal Védas: those, which are in prose, are named $Y_{a} a$ jush; such, as are in metre, are denominated Rüch; and some, which are intended to be chanted, are called Sóman: and these names, as distinguishing different portions of the Védas, are anterior to

[^52]their separation in V YA'sA's compilation. But the 'At'harvan'a, not being used at the religious ceremonies above-mentioned, and containing prayers employed at lustrations, at rites conciliating the deities, and as imprecations on enemies, is essentially different from the other Védas; as is remarked by the author of an elementary treatise on the classification of the Indian sciences*.

But different schools of priests have admitted some variations in works which appear under the same title. This circumstance is accounted for by the commentators on the Véllas, who relate the following story taken from Puráras, and other authorities. VYa'sa, having compiled and arranged the scriptures, theogonies, and mythological poems, taught the several Védas to as many disciples: viz. the Rich to Paila; the Yajush to Vais'ampa'yana, and the Sáman to Jaimini; as also the 'Atharvan'a to Sumantu, and the Itihása and Purár'as to Su'ta. These disciples instructed their respective pupils, who, becoming teachers in their turn, communicated the knowledge to their own disciples; until, at length, in the progress of successive instruction, 'so great variations crept into the text, or into the manner of reading and reciting it, and into the no less sacred precepts for its use and application, that eleven hundred different schoois of scriptural knowledge arose.

The several Sanhitús, or collections of prayers in each Véda, as received in these numerous schools, or variations, more or less considerable, admitted by them either in the arrangement of the whole text (including prayers and precepts), or in regard to particular portions of it, constituted the Sác'Mas

[^53]or branches of each Védla. Tradition, preserved in the Puran'as, reckons sixteen Sanhitus of the Rigveda; eighty-six of the Yajush; or, including. those which branched from a second revelation of this Véda, a hundred and one; and not less than a thousand of the Samavédla; besides nine of the 'At'harvan'a. But treatises on the study of the Yéda reduce the Sáchas of the Rïch, to dive; and those of the Yajush, including both revelations of it, to eighty-six *.

The progress, by which (to use the language of the Purán'as) the tree of science put forth its numerous branches, is thus related. Paila taught the Rüguéda, or Bahurich, to two disciples, Bahcala and Indrapramati. The first, also called Bahcali, was the editor of a Sunhitú, or collection of prayers; and a 'Sáciha, bearing his name, still subsists : it is said to have first branched into four schools; afterwards into three others. Indrapramati commmicated his knowledge to his own son Manducéya, by whom a Sarthití was compiled: and from whom one of the 'Sáchís has derived its name. Védamitra, surnamed S'ácalya, studied under the same teacher, and gave a complete collection of prayers : it is still extant; but is said to have given origin to five varied editions of the same text. The two other and principal 'Sác'hás of the Rüch are those of As'wala'yana and Sa'ncihya'rana, or, perhaps, CausHI'TACI': but the Vishiupuránia omits them, and intimates, that SA'CAPU'Rn'r, a pupil of INDRApramati, gave the third varied edition from this teacher, and was also the author of the Vivucta: if

[^54]so, he is the same with Ya'sca. His school seems to have been subdivided by the formation of three others derived from his disciples.

The Yajush, or Ad'hraaryu, consists of two different Védas, which have separately branched out into various 'Suc'hu's. To explain the names, by which both are distinguished, it is necessary to notice a legend, which is gravely related in the Purán'as, and in the commentaries on the Véda.

The Yajush, in its original form, was at first taught by Vais'ampa'yana, to twenty-seven pupils. At this time, having instructed Ya'jayawalcya, he appointed him to teach the Véda to other disciples. Being afterwards offended by the refusal of Ya'jnyawalcya to take on himself a share of the sin incurred by Vais'ampa'yana, who had unintentionally killed his own sister's son, the resentful preceptor bade Ya'juyawalcya relinquish the science, which he had learnt*. He instantly disgorged it in a tangible form. The rest of Vais'ampa'tana's disciples, receiving his commands to pick up the disgorged Véda, assumed the form of partridges, and swallowed these texts which were soiled, and, for this reason, termed " black:" they are also denominated Taittiriya, from tittiri, the name for a partridge.

Ya'jnyawalcya, overwhelmed with sorrow, had recourse to the sun; and, through the favour of that luminary, obtained a new revelation of the Yajush; which is called "white," or pure, in contradistinction to the other, and is rikewise named Vajasanéyi, from a patronymick, as it should

[^55]seem, of Ya'jnyawalcya himself: for the Véda declares, ' these pure texts, revealed by the sun, are published by Ya'jnyawalcya, the offspring of Va'jasani*.' But, according to the Vishn'u purán'a (3.5. ad finem), the priests, who studied the Yajush, are called Vijiins, because the sun, who revealed it, assumed the form of a Horse (Vijin).

I have cited this absurd legend, because it is referred to by the commentators on the white Yajush. But I have yet found no allusion to it in the Véda itself, nor in the explanatory table of contents. On the contrary, the index of the black Yajush gives a different and more rational account. VarSAMPA'YANA, according to this authority $\dagger$, taught the Yajurvéda to Ya'sca, who instructed Tittiri $\ddagger$ : from him Uc'ha received it, and communicated it to A'tre'ya: who framed the 'Sác'há, which is named after him; and for which that Index is arranged.

The white Yajush was taught by Ya'snyawalcya to fifteen pupils,' who founded as many schools. The most remarkable of which are the 'Sac'hás of Canwa and Madhyandina; and, next to them, those of the Jábálas, Baud'háyanas, and Tápaníyas. The other branches of the Yijush seen to have

[^56]been arranged in several classes. Thus the Characas, or students of a S'ác'há, so denominated from, the teacher of it, Characa, are stated as including ten subdivisions; among which are the Cat"has, or disciples of САт"на, a pupil of Vais'ampa'yana; as also the 'Steétás'wataras, Aupamanyavas, and Maitráyaniyas: the last mentioned comprehend seven others. In like manner, the Taittiriyacas are, in the first instance, subdivided into two, the Auc'hyáyas and Chándicéyas; and these last are again subdivided into five, the $A^{\prime} p a s$ tambiyas, \&c. Among them, A'pastamba's s'ác'há is still subsisting; and so is A'tre'ya's, among those which branched from Uс'на: but the rest, or most of them, are become rare, if not altogether obsalete.

Sumantu, son of Jaimini, studied the Sámavéda, or Ch'ándógya, under his father: and his own son, Sucarman, studied under the same teacher, but founded a different school; which was the origin of two others, derived from his pupils, Hiran'yanábha and Paushyinji, and thence branching into a thousand more. For Lócićcsif, Cuthumi, and other disciples of Paushyinji, gave their names to separate schools, which were increased by their pupils. The S'ác'há, entitled Caut"humi, still subsists. Hiranyana'bha, the other pupil of Sucarman, had fifteen disciples, authors of Sanhitás, collectively called the northern Sámagas; and fifteen others, entitled the southern Sámagas: and Crĭti, one of his pupils, had twen-ty-four disciples, 'by whom, and by their followers, the other schools were founded. Most of them are now lost; and, according to a legend, were destroyed by the thunderbolt of Indra. The principal S'ach há now subsisting, is that of the Rán'áyaniyas, including seven subdivisions; one
of which is entitled Caut'humi, as above-mentioned, and comprehends six distinct schools. That of the Talavacáras, likewise, is extant, at least; in part: as will be shown in speaking of the Upanishads.

The Atharva-véda was taught by Sumantu, to his pupil Cabandiha, who divided it between De'vadars'a and Pat'hya. The first of these has given name to the S'ác'há, entitled Dévadarsí; as Pippala'da, the last of his four disciples, has, to the S'ác'há of the Paippaládis. Another branch of the $A t^{\prime \prime h}$ arvana derives its appellation from Saunaca, the third of Pat'hys's pupils. The rest are of less note.

Such is the brief history of the Véda, deducible from the authorities before cited. But those numerous $S^{\prime}$ ác'hás did not differ so widely from each other, as might be inferred from the mention of an equal number of Sanhitás, or distinct collections of texts. In general, the various schools of the same Véda seem to have used the same assemblage of prayers; they differed more in their copies of the precepts or Bráhman'as; and some received, into their canon of scripture, portions which do not appear to have been acknowledged by others. Yet the chief difference seems always to have been the use of particular rituals taught in aphorisms (Sútras) adopted by each school; and these do not constitute a portion of the $V$ éda; but, like grammar and astronomy, are placed among its appendages.

It may be here proper to remark, that each Véda consists of two parts, denominated the Mantras and the Bráhman'as; or prayers and precepts. The complete collection of the hymns, prayers, and invocations, belonging to one $V$ éda, is entitled
its Sunhitú. Every other portion of Indian scrip. ture is included under the general head of divinity (Bráhman'a). This comprises precepts, which inculcate religious duties; maxims, which explain those precepts; and argunients, which relate to theology*. But, in the present arrangement of the Védas, the portion, which contains passages called Brálman'as, includes many which are strictly prayers or Mantras. The theology of the Indian scripture, comprchending the argumentative portion entitled V'élánta, is contained in tracts denominated Upunishads; some of which are portions of the Brálman'a, properly so called; others are found only in a detached form; and one is a part: of a Sanhitía itself.

## On the Riggéda.

THE Sanhitá of the first V'da $\dagger$, contains mantrus, or prayers, which, for the most part, are encomiastick; as the name of the Rigvéda implies $\ddagger$. This collection is divided into eight parts

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(C'han'da); each of which is subdivided into as many lectures (ad’hyána). Another mode of division also runs through the volume; distinguishing ten books (mán'dala), which are subdivided into more than a hundred chapters (amơáca), and comprise a thousand hymms or inrocations (suicta). A further subdivision of more than two thousand sections (barga) is common to both methods: and the whole contains above ten thousand verses, or rather stanzas, of various measures.

On examining this voluminous compilation, a systematical arrangement is readily perceived. Successive chapters, and even entire books, comprise hymns of a single author : invocations, too, addressed to the same deities, hymns relating to like subjects, and prayers intended for similar occasions, are frequently classed together. This requires explanation.

In a regular perusal of the Véda, which is enjoined to all priests, and which is much practised by Mahrattas and Telingas, the student or reader is required to motice, especially, the author, subject, metre, and purpose of each mantra, or invocation. To understand the meaning of the passage is thought less important. The institutors of the Hindu system have indeed recommended the study of the sense; but they have inculcated with equal strenuousness, and more success, attention to the name of the Rushi or person, by whom the text was first uttered, the deity to whom it is addressed, or the subject to which it relates, and also its rhythm or metre, and its purpose, or the

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religious ceremony at which it should be used. The practice of modern priests is conformable with these maxims. Like the Koran among the Mohammedans, the Véda is put into the hands of children in the first period of their education; and continues afterwards to be read by rote, for the sake of the words without comprehension of the sense.

Accordingly the Véda is recited in various superstitious modes: word by word, either simply disjoining them, or else repeating the words alternately, backwards and forwards once or oftener. Copies of the Riguéda and Yajush (for the Sámavéda is chanted only) are prepared for these and other modes of recital, and are called Pada, Crama, Jat'á, Ghana, \&c. But the various ways of inverting the text are restricted, as it should appear, to the principal Védas; that is, to the original editions of the Řgvéda and Yajush: while the subsequent editions, in which the text, or the arrangement of it, is varied, being therefore deemed subordinate 'Sách'hás, should be repeated only in a simple manner.

It seems here necessary to justify my interpretation of what is called the "Rushi of a mantra." The last term has been thought to signify an incantation rather than a prayer: and, so far as supernatural efficacy is ascribed to the mere recital of the words of a mantra, that interpretation is sufficiently accurate; and, as such, it is undoubtedly applicable to the unmeaning incantations of the Mantra-s'as'tra, or Tantras and A'gamas. But the origin of the term is certainly different. Its derivation from a verb, which signifies 'to speak privately,' is readily explained by the injunction for meditating the text of the Véda, or reciting it
inaudibly: and the import of any mantra in the Indian scriptures, is generally found to be a prayer, containing either a petition to a deity, or else thanksgiving; praise, and adoration.

The $R\urcorner s h i$ or saint of a mantra is defined, both in the index of the RYguéda, and by commentators, "he, by whom it is spoken :" as the Dévatá, or deity, is, "that, which is therein mentioned." In the index to the Vájasanéyí Yajurréda, the Rushi is interpreted "the seer or rememberer" of the text; and the Dévatá is said to be "contained in the prayer; lor [named] at the commencement of it; or [indicated as] the deity, who shares the oblation, or the praise." Conformably with these definitions, the deity, that is lauded or supplicated in the prayer, is its Dévatá: but in a few passages, which contain neither petition nor adoration, the subject is considered as the deity, that is spoken of. For example, the praise of generosity is the Dévatá of many entire hymns addressed to princes, from whom gifts were received by the authors.

The Rushi, or speaker, is of course rarely mentioned in the mantra itself: but, in some instances, he does name himself. A few passages too, among the matras of the Véda, are in the form of dialogue; and, in such cases, the discoursers were alternately considered as Ř̌shi and Dévatá. In general, the person, to whom the passage was revealed, or, according to another gloss, by whom its use and application was first discovered *,

[^59] C c 4
is called the Rishi of that mantra. He is evidently then the author of the prayer; notwithstanding the assertions of the Hindus, with whom it is an article of their creed, that the Védas were composed by no human author. It must be understood, therefore, that, in affirming the primeval existence of their scriptures, they deny these works to be the original composition of the editor (Vya'sa), but believe them to have been gradually revealed to inspired writers.

The names of the respective authors of each passage are preserved in the Anuncramaní, or explanatory table of contents, which has been handed down with the Véda itself, and of which the authority is unquestioned *. According to this index, Vis'wa'mitra is author of all the hymns contained in the third book of the Rĭgréda; as Bharadwa'ja is, with rare exceptions, the composer of those collected in the sixth book; Vasisht'ha, in the seventh; Grítsamada, in the second; Va'madéva in the fourth; and Bud'ha $\dagger$ and other descendants of Atri, in the fifth. But, in the remaining books of this Véda, the authors

[^60]are more various: among these, besides Agastya, Cas'yapa, son of Marichi, Angiras, Jamadagni, son of Bhrigu, Para's'ara, father of Vya's'a, Gótama and his son Nód'has, Vrĭhaspati, Na'reda, and other celebrated Indian saints, the most conspicuous are CAN'wa, and his numerous descendants, Médihatit'hi, \&ic.; MadhuchihanDAs, and others among the posterity of 'Iswa' mitra; S'unas'ép'ha, son of Ajigarta; Cutsa, Hiranyastuya, Sayya, and other descendants of Angiras; besides many other saints, among the posterity of personages above-mentioned.

It is worthy of remark, that several persons of royal birth (for instance, five sons of the king Vrîhangir; and Trayyaruna and Trasadasyu, who were themselves kings); are mentioned among the authors of the hymns, which constitute this Véla: and the text itself, in some places, actually points, and in others obviously alludes, to monarchs, whose names are familiar in the Indiun heroic history. As this fact may contribute to fix the age, iu which the $V \in d a$ was composed, I shall here notice such passages of this tendency, as have yet fallen under my observation.

The sixth hymn of the eighteenth chapter of the first book, is spoken by an ascetic named $\mathrm{CaC}_{\mathrm{AC}}$ shivat, in praise of the munificence of Swanaya, who had conferred immense gifts on him. The subject is continued in the seventh hymn, and concludes with a very strange dialogue between the king Bha'vayayya and his wife Romasá, daughter of Vrǐhaspati. It sliould be remarked, concerning Cacshivat, that his mother Us'ic was bondmaid of king Anga's queen.

The eighth book opens with an invocation,
which alludes to a singular legend. 'Asanga, son of Playóga, and his successor on the throne, was metamorphosed into a woman; but retrieved his sex through the prayers of Me'd'hyatit'hi, whom he therefore rewarded most liberally. In this hymn he is introducerl praising his own munificence; and, towards the close of it, his wife 'Sas'wati', daughter of Angiras, exults in his restoration to manhood.

The next hymns applaud the liberality of the kings Vibhindu, Pacasthaman (son of Curaya'n'a), Curunga, Cas'u (son of Chédi'), and Tirindira (son of Paras'u), who had severally bestowed splendid gifts on the respective authors of these thanksgivings. In the third chapter of the same book, the seventh hymn commends the genetosity of Trasada'syu, the grandson of Ma'nd'ha'tri. The fourth chapter opens with an invocation containing praises of the liberality of Chirra; and the fourth hymn of the same chapter celebrates Varu, son of Susha'man:

Ini the first clipter of the tenth book, there is a hym to water, spoken by a king, named Sind'hudwípa, the son of Ambarisha. The seventh chapter contains several passages, from the fifteenth to the eighteenth suicta, which allude to a remarkable legend. Asama'ti, son or descendant of IcshWa'cu, had deserted his former priests, and employed others : the forsaken Bráhmañas recited incantations for his destruction; his new priests, however, not only counteracted their evil designs, but retaliated on them, and caused the death of one of those Brathman'as: the rest recited these prayers, for their own preservation, and for the revival of their companion.

The eighth chapter opens with a hymn, which alludes to a story respecting Na'bha'nédrshtia, son of Menu, who was excluded from participation with his brethren in the paternal inheritance. The legend itself is told in the Aitaréya Bráhman'a*, or second portion of the Rygvéda.

Among other hymns by royal authors, in the subsequent chapters of the tenth book of the Sanhitá, I remark one by Ma'nd'ha'try, son of Yuvana's'wa, and another by S'ivi, son of Us'i'vara, a third by Vasumanas, son of Róhidas'wa, and a fourth by Pratardana, son of Divóda'sa, king of Cis's".

The deities invoked appear, on a cursory inspection of the Véda, to be as various as the authors of the prayers addressed to them: but, according to the most ancient annotations on the Indian scripture, those numerous names of persons and things are all resolvable into different titles of three deities, and ultimately of one god. The Nig'hanti, or glossary of the V'édas, concludes with three lists of names of deities : the first comprising such as are deemed synonymous with fire; the second, with air; and the third with the sun $\dagger$. In the last part of the Nivucta, which entirely relates to deities, it is twice asserted, that there are but three gods; 'Tisra éva dévatáh 末.' The further

[^61]inference, that these intend but one deity, is supported by many passages in the Véda; and is very clearly and concisely stated in the beginning of the index to the Riguéda, on the authority of the Niructa, and of the Véda itself.
> - Yasya rácyam, sa rưshir; yá ténóchyaté, sá dévatá; yad acshara-parimánám, tach ch’handó. Arthépsava rishayó dévatás ch'handóbhir abhyad'hávan.

- Tisra évo dévatáh; cshity-antaricsha-dyu-st'háná, agnir váyuh súrya ity: évam vyáhrìtayah próctá ryastáh; samastánám prajápatir. Óncára sarvadévatyah, páramésht'hyó va, bráhmó, daivó va, ádhyátmicas. Tat tat st'háná anyás tad vibhútayah; carma prithactwád d'hi prìthag abhid'hána stutayó bhavanty: éciaiva vá mahán átmá dévatá ; sa súrya ity áchacshaté; sa hi sarva-bhút' átmá. Tad uctam rĭshin’á: "súryá átmá jagatas tast'mushas' chéeti." Tad vibhútayó nyá dévatás. Tad apy étad ř̌shin" óctam: "Indram Mitram Varunam Agnim úlur iti."
-The Rưshi [of any particular passage] is he, whose speech it is; and that, which is thereby addressed, is the deity [of the text]: and the number of syllables constitutes the metre [of the prayer]. Sages (Rishis), solicitous of [attaining] particular objects, have approached the Gods with [prayers composed in] metre.
'The deities are only three; whose places are, the earth, the intermediate region, and heaven : [namely] fire, air, and the sum. They are pro-

The chapter, here cited, is marked as the twelfth including the glosary, or seventh exclusive of it.
nounced to be [the deities] of the mysterious names* severally; and (Praja'pati) the lord of creatures is [the deity] of them collectively. The syllable $O^{\prime} m$ intends crery deity: it belongs to (Paramésht'hi) him, who dwells in the supreme abode; it appertains to (Braime.) the vast one; to (Déva) God; to (Ad'hyátma) the superintending soul. Other deities, belonging to those several regions, are portions of the [three] Gods; for they are variously named and described, on account of their different operations: but [in fact] there is only one deity, the great soul (Mahán útmá). He is called the sun; for he is the soul of all beings; [and] that is declared by the sage, "the sun is the soul of (jagat) what moves, and " of (tast'hush) that which is fixed." Other deities are portions of him : and that is expressly declared by the sage: "The wise call fire, Indra, Mitra, "and Varuna;" \&cc. $\dagger$

This passage of the Anucraman'i is partly abridged from the Niructa (c. 19), and partly taken from the Bráhmaria of the Véda. It shows (what is also deducible from texts of the Indian scriptures, translated in the present and former essays), that the ancient Hindu religion, as founded on the Indian scriptures, recognises but one God; yet not sufficiently discriminating the creature from the creator.

[^62]The subjects and uses of the prayers contained in the Véda, differ more than the deities which are invoked, or the titles by which they are addressed. Every line is replete with allusions to mythology *, and to the Indian notions of the divine nature and of celestial spirits. For the innumerable ceremonies to be performed by a householder, and, still more, for those endless rites enjoined to hermits and asceticks, a choice of prayers is offered in every stage of the celebration. It may be here sufficient to observe, that Indra, or the firmament, fire, the sun, the moon, water, air, the spirits, the atmosphere and the earth, are the objects most frequently addressed: and the various and repeated sacrifices with fire, and the drinking of the milky juice of the moon-plant or acid asclepias $\dagger$, furnish abundant occasion for numerous prayers adapted to the many stages of those religious rites. I shall, therefore, select for remark such prayers as seem most singular; rather than such as might appear the fairest specimens of this Véda.

In the fifteenth chapter of the first book, there are two hymns ascribed to Cursa, and also to Trita, son of water. Three asceticks, brothers it should

[^63]seem, since they are named in another portion of the Véda as (Aptya) sons of water (Ap), were oppressed with thirst while traveiling in a sandly desert. At length, they found a well; and one of them descended into it, and thence lifted water for his companions: but the ungrateful brothers stole his effects, and left him in the well, covering it with a heavy cart-wheel. In his distress he pronounced the hymms in question. It appears from the text, that Cursa also was once in similar distress; and pronounced the same or a similar invocation : and, for this reason, the hymns have been placed, by the compiler of the I'éla, among those of which Cutsa is the author.

The twenty-third chapter of the same book commences with a dialogue between Agastya, Indra, and the Maruts; and the remainder of that, with the whole of the twenty-fourth chapter, comprises twenty-six hymms addressed by Agastya to those divinities, and to the As'wins, fire, the sun, and some other deities. The last of these hymns was uttered by Agastya, under the apprehension of poison; and is directed by rituals to be used as an incantation against the effects of venom. Other incantations, applicable to the same purpose, occur in various parts of the Téda; for example, a prayer by Vasish'tha for preservation from poison (book 7, ch. 3, § 18).

The third book, distributed into five chapters, contains invocations by Vis'wa'mitra, son of Ga'thin, and grandson of Cusica. The last hymn or Súcta, in this book, consists of six prayers, one of which includes the celebrated Gáayatri: this remarkable text is repeated more than once in other Védas; but, since Vis'wa'mitra is acknowledged to be the Rushi, to whom it was
first revealed, it appears, that its proper and original place is in this hymn. I therefore subjoin a translation of the prayer, which contains it, as also the preceding one, (both of which are addressed to the sun;) for the sake of exhibiting the Indian priest's confession of faith with its context; after having, in former essays, given more than one version of it apart from the rest of the text. The other prayers, contained in the same Sícta, being addressed to other deities, are here omitted.
'This new and excellent praise of thee, O splendid, playful, sun (Púshan)! is offered by us to thee. Be gratified by this my speech: approach this craving mind, as a fond man seeks a woman. May that sun (Píshan), who contemplates, and looks into, all worlds, be our protector.'

- Let us meditate on the adorable light of the divine ruler (Savitrǐ)*: may it guide our intellects. Desirous of food, we solicit the gift of the splendid sun (Sacitri), who should be studiously worshipped. Venerable men, guided by the understanding, salute the divine sun ( Sa vitrǐ) with oblations and praise.'

The two last hymns, in the third chapter of the 7 th book, are remarkable; as being addressed to the guardian spirit of a dwelling house, and used as prayers, to be recited with oblations, on building a house. The legend, belonging to the second of these hymns, is singular: Vasish'tha,

[^64]coming at night to the house of VArun's, (with the intention of sleeping there, say some; but, as others affim, with the design of stealing grain to appease his hunger, after a fast of three days,) was assailed by the house dog. He uttered this prayer, or incantation, to lay asleep the dog who was barking at, and attempting to bite, him. A literal version of the first of those hymns is here subjoined,

- Guardian of this abode! be acquainted with us; be to us a wholesome dwelling; afford us what we ask of thee; and grant happiness to our bipeds and quadrupeds. Guardian of this house! increase both us and our wealth. Moon! while thou art friendly, may we, with our kine and our horses, be exempted from decrepitude: guard us as a father protects his offspring. Guardian of this dwelling! may we be united with a happy, delightful, and melodious abode afforded by thee: guard our wealth now under thy protection, or yet in expectancy : and do thou defend us,'

The fourth hymn, in the fourth chapter, con. cludes with a prayer to Rudra, which, being used with oblations after a fast of three days, is supposed to ensure a happy life of a handred years. In the sixth book, three hymns occur, which, being recited with worship to the sm, are believed to occasion a fall of rain after the lapse of five days: the two first are aptly addressed to a cloud; and the third is so, to frogs, because these had croaked while Vasish'tua recited the preceding prayers, which circumstance he accepted as a good omen.

The sixth chapter of the tenth book closes with two hymns, the prayer of which is the destruc-

VoL. VIII. D d
tion of enemies, and which are used at sacrifices for that purpose,

The seventh chapter opens with a hymn, in which Surya', surnamed Savitri', the wife of the moon ${ }^{*}$, is made the speaker; as Dacshina', daughter of Praja'pati, and Juhu, daughter of Brahma', are, in subsequent chapters $\dagger$, A very singular passage occurs in another place, containing a dialogue between Yama and his twin-sister Yamuna', whom he endeavours to seduce; but his offers are rejected by her with virtuous expostulation.

Near the close of the tenth chapter, a hymn, in a very different style of composition, is spoken by $V_{A^{\prime}} \mathbf{c h}$, daughter of Ambhriv'A, in praise of herself as the supreme and universal soul $\ddagger$. Vách, it should be observed, signifies speech; and she is the active power of Brahma', proceeding from him. The following is a literal version of this hymn, which is expounded by the commentator, consistently with the theological doctrines of the Védas,

[^65]- I range with the Rudras, with the Vasus, with the 'Adityas, and with the Vis'wadévas. I uphold both the sun and the ocean [Mitra and Varuna], the firmament [Indra] and fire, and both the As'wins. I support the moon [So'ma], destroyer [of foes]; and [the sun entitled] Twashtri, PU'shan, or Bhaga. I grant wealth to the honest rotary who performs sacrifices, offers oblations, and satisfies [the deities]. Me, who am the queen, the conferrer of wealth, the possessor of knowledge, and first of such as merit worship, the gods render, universally, present every where, and pervader of all beings. He, who eats food through me, as he, who sees, who breathes, or who hears, through me, yet knows me not, is lost; hear then the faith, which I pronounce. Even I declare this self, who is worshipped by gods and men: I make strong, whom I choose; I make him Brahmá, holy, and wise. For Rudra I bend the bow, to slay the demon, foe of Brahma; for the people I make war [on their foes]; and I pervade heaven and earth. I bore the father, on the head of this [universal mind]; and my origin is in the midst of the ocean *: and, therefore, do I pervade all beings, and touch this heaven with my form. Originating all beings, I pass like the breeze; I am above this heaven, beyond this earth; and what is the great one, that an I.'

[^66]The tenth chapter closes with a hymn to night; and the eleventh begins with two hymns relative to the creation of the world. Another, on this subject was translated in a former essay*: it is the last hymn, but one, in the Rigvéda; and the author of it is Ag'hamarshan'a (a son of Mad'huch'handas), from whom it takes the name by which it is generally cited. The other hymns, of which a version is here subjoined, are not ascribed to any ascertained author. Praja'pati, surnamed Paramésht"h́, and his son Yajnya, are stated as the original speakers. But, of these names, one is a title of the primeval spirit; and the other seems to allude to the allegorical immolation of Brahmá.
I. 'Then was there no entity, nor nonentity; no world, nor sky, nor ought above it: nothing, any where, in the happiness of any one, involving or involved: nor water, deep and dangerous. Death was not; nor then was immortality: nor distinction of day or night. But that $\dagger$ breathed without afflation, single with (Stoad'ha) her who is sustained within him. Other than him, nothing existed, [which] since [has been]. Darkness there was; [for] this universe was enveloped with darkness, and was undistinguishable [like fluids mixed in] waters: but that mass, which was covered by the husk, was [at length] produced by the power

[^67]of contemplation. First desire was formed in his mind: and that became the original productive seed; which the wise, recognising it by the intellect in their hearts, distinguish, in nonentity, as the bond of entity.'
' Did the luminous ray of these- [creative acts] expand in the middle? or above? or below? That productive seed, at once, became providence [or sentient souls], and matter [or the elements]: she, who is sustained within himself*, was inferior; and he, who heeds, was superior.'

- Who knows exactly, and who shall in this world deciare, whence and why this creation took place? The gods are subsequent to the production of this world : then who can know whence it proceeded? or whence this varied world arose? or whether it uphold [itself], or not? He, who, in the highest heaven, is the ruler of this universe, does indeed know; but not another can possess that knowledge.'
II. 'That victim, who was wove with threads on every side, and stretched by the labors of a hundred and one gods, the fathers, who wore and framed and placed the warp and woof, do worship. The [first] male spreads and encompasses this [web]; and displays it in this world and in heaven: these rays [of the creator] assembled at the altar, and prepared the holy strains, and the threads of the warp.'
' What was the size of that divine victim, whom all the gods sacrificed? What was his form? what

[^68]the motive? the fence? the metre? the oblation? and the prayer? First was produced the Gáyatrí joined with fire; next the sun (Savitri) attended, by Ushnin; then the splendid moon with Anushtiubh, and with prayers; while Vrïhatí accompznied the elocution of Vrihaspati (or the planet Jupiter). Virátí was supported by the sum and by water (Mitra and Varun'a); but the [middle] pertion of the day and Trüshtubh were here the attendants of Indra ; Jagatí followed all the gods: and by that [universal] sacrifice, sages and men were formed.'
'When that ancient sacrifice was completed, sages, and men, and our progenitors, were by him formed. Viewing with an observant mind this oblation, which primeval saints offered, I venerate them. The seven inspired sages, with prayers and with thanksgivings, follow the path of these primeval saints, and wisely practise [the performance of sacrifices], as charioteers use reins [to guide their steeds].'

Some parts of these hymns bear an evident resemblance to one, which has been before cited from the white Yajush*, and to which I shall again advert in speaking of that $V$ éda. The commentator on the Rigvéda quotes it to supply some omissions in this text. It appears also, on the faith of his citations, that passages, analogous to these, occur in the Taittiríyaca, or black Yajush, and also in the Bráhmania of the Véda.

The hundred and one gods, who are the agents in the framing of the universe typified by a sacri-

[^69]fice, are, according to this commentator, the years of Brahma's life, or his afflations personified in the form of Angiras, \&c. The seven sages, who instituted sacrifices in imitation of the primeval type, are Maríchi, and others. Gáyatrí, Ushnih, \&c. are names of metres, or of the various lengths of stanzas and measured verses, in the Védas.

The preceding quotations may be sufficient to show the style of this part of the Véda; which comprehends the prayers and invocations.

Another part belonging, as it appears, to the same Véda, is entitled Aitaréya Bráhman'a. It is divided into eight books (panjicá), each containing five chapters or lectures (ad'hyáya), and subdivided into an unequal number of sections ( $c^{\prime} h a n^{\prime}-$ da), amounting in the whole to two hundred and eighty-five. Being partly in prose, the number of distinct passages contained in those multiplied sections need not be indicated.

For want either of a complete commentary *, or of an explanatory index $\dagger$, I cannot undertake from a cursory perusal, to describe the whole contents of this part of the Véda. I observe, however, many curious passages in it, especially towards the close. The seventh book had treated of sacrifices performed by kings: the subject is continued in the first four chapters of the eighth book; and three of these relate to a ceremony for the consecration of kings, by pouring on their

[^70]heads, while seated on a throne prepared for the purpose, water mixed with honey, clarified butter, and spirituous liquor, as well as two sorts of grass and the sprouts of corn. This ceremony, called Abhishéca, is celebrated on the accession of a king; and subsequently, on divers occasions, as part of the rites belonging to certain solemn sacrifices performed for the attainment of particular objects.

The mode of its celebration is the subject of the second chapter of the eighth book; or thirty-seventh chapter, reckoned (as is done by the commentator) from the begimning of the Aitaréya. It contains an instance, which is not singular in the V'edus, though it be rather uncommon in their didactick portion, of a disquisition on a difference of opinion among irspired authors. 'Some,' it says, 'direct the consecration to be completed with the appropriate prayer, but without the sacred words (Vyalhritis), which they here deem superfluous: others, and particularly Satyaca'ma, son of Ja'ba'la, enjoin the complete recitation of those words, for reasons explained at full length; and Udda'laca, son of Arun'a, has therefore so ordained the performance of the ceremony.

The subject of this chapter is concluded by the following remarkable passage. 'Well knowing all the [efficacy of consecration], JaName'jara, soin of Paricsiit, declared; " Priests, conversant with this ceremony, assist me, who ain likewise apprized [of its benefits], to celebrate the solemo rite. Therefore, do I conquer [in single combat]; therefore, do I defeat arrayed forces with an arlayed army: neither the arrows of the gods, nor those of men, reach me: I shall live the full period of life; I shall remain master of the whole earth." Truly neither the arrows of the gods,
nor those of men, do reach him, whom well instructed priests assist in celebrating the solemn rite: he lives the full period of life; he remains master of the whole earth.'

The thirty-eighth chapter (or third of the eighth book) describes a supposed consecration of Indra, when elected by the gods to be their king. It consists of similar, but more solemn, rites; including, among other peculiarities, a fanciful construction of his throne with texts of the Véda; besides a repetition of the ceremony of consecration in various regions, to ensure universal dominion. This last part of the description merits to be quoted, on account of the geographical hints which it contains.
'After [his inauguration by Praja'pati], the divine Vasis consecrated him in the eastern region, with the same prayers in verse and in prose, and with the same holy words, [as before-mentioned,] in thirty-one days, to ensure his just domination. Therefore, [eren now, the several kings of the Práchyas, in the East, are consecrated, after the practice of the gorls, to equitable rule (Sánerijya); and [people] call those consecrated princes, Samríj ${ }^{*}$.
' Next the divine Rudras consecrated him in the southern region, with the same prayers in verse and in prose, and with the same holy words, in thirty-one days, to ensure increase of happiness. Therefore, the several kings of the Satwats, in the

[^71]south, are consecrated, after the practice of the gods, to the increase of enjoyment (Bhójya); and [people] name those consecrated princes, Bhója.
'Then the divine 'Adityas consecrated him in the western region, with, \&c., to ensure sole dominion. Therefore, the several kings of the Nichyas and Apachyas, in the West, are consecrated, \&c. to sole dominion; and [people] denominate them Swaráj*.
' Afterwards all the gods (Viswé déva) consecrated him in the northern region, with, \&c., to ensure separate domination. Therefore, the several [deities, who govern the] countries of Uttara curu and Uttara madra, beyond Himavat, in the North, are consecrated, \&c. to distinct rule (Vairájya), and [people] term them Viráj $\dagger_{\text {. }}$
' Next the divine S'ad'hyas and A'ptyas consecrated him, in this middle, central, and present region, with, \&c., for local dominion. Therefore, the several kings of Curu and Panchála, as well as $V{ }^{\prime} s^{\prime} a$ and U's'inara, in the middle, central, and present region, are consecrated, \&c. to sovereignty (Rájya); and [people] entitle them Rájá..
' Lastly, the Maruts, and the gods named Angiras, consecrated him, in the upper region, with, $\& c$., to promote his attainment of the supreme abode, and to ensure his mighty domination, superior rule, independent power, and long reign: and, thercfore, he became a supreme deity (Paramésht ${ }^{\prime} h i$ ) and ruler over creatures.

[^72]- In the nominative, Virút', Virúd, or Virál.
' Thus consecrated by that great inauguration, Indra subdued all conquerable [earths], and won all worlds: he obtained, over all the gords, supremacy, transcendent rank and pre-eminence. Conquering, in this world [below], equitable domination, happiness, sole dominion, separate authority, attainment of the supreme abode, sovereignty, mighty power, and superior rule; becoming a selfexistent being and independent ruler, exempt from [early] dissolution; and reaching all [his] wishes in that celestial world; he became immortal: he became immortal *.'

The thirty-ninth chapter is relative to a peculiarly solemn rite, performed in imitation of the fabulous inauguration of Indra. It is imagined that this celebration becomes a cause of obtaining great power and universal monarchy; and the three last sections of the chapter recite instances of its successful practice. Though replete with enormous and absurd exaggerations, they are here translated at full length, as not unimportant, since many kings are mentioned, whose names are familiar in the heroick history of India.
§. VII. ' By this great inauguration similar to Indra's, Tura, son of Cavasha, consecrated Janaméjaya, son of Paricshit; and, therefore, did Janaméjaya, son of Paricshit, subdue the earth completely, all around, and traverse it every way, and perform a sacrifice with a horse as an offering.

[^73]' Concerning that solemn sacrifice, this verse is universally chanted. "In Asandivat, Javame'jaya bound [as an offering] to the gods, a horse fed with grain, marked with a white star on his forehead, and bearing a green wreath round his neck."
'By this, \&c. Chyavana, son of Bhrǐgu, consecrated Sa'rya'ta sprung from the race of Menu: and, therefore, did he subdue, \&c. He became likewise a householder in the service of the gods.

- By this, \&ic. Sómas'ushman, grandson of $V^{\prime}$ ' jaratna, consecrated 'Sata'nica, son of Satra'jit: and, therefore, did he subdue, \&c.
' By this, \&ic. Parvata and Nareda consecrated A'mba'sht'iya: and, therefore, \&c.
- By this, \&c. Parvata and Na'reda consecrated Yud'ha'ns'raushiti, grandson of Ugra= se'na ; and, therefore, \&c.
' By this, \&ec. Cas'yapa consecrated Vis'wacarman, son of Bhuvana; and, therefore, did he subdue, \&c.
" The carth, as sages relate, thus addressed him: "No mortal has a right to give me away; yet thou, O Vis'wacarman, son of Bhuvana, dost wish to do so. I will sink in the midst of the waters; and vain has been thy promise to Ca'syAPA *".

[^74]By this, \&c. Vasishtha consecrated Sudas, son of Pijavana; and, therefore, \&ic.

By this, \&c. Samvarta, son of Angiras, consecrated Marutta, son of Avicsuit; and, therefore, \&c.

On that subject this verse is every where chanted, " The divine Maruts dwelt in the house of MArutta, as his guards; and all the gods were companions of the son of Avicshit, whose every wish was fulfilled *."
§ VIII. ' By this great inauguration similar to Indra's, Udamita, son of Atri, consecrated Anga; and, therefore, did Anga subdue the earth completely all around, and traverse it every way, and perform a sacrifice with a horse as an offering.
' He, perfect in his person, thus addressed [the priest, who was busy on some sacrifice], "Invite me to this solemn rite, and I will give thee [to complete it], holy man! ten thousand elephants and ten thousand female slaves."
' On that subject these verses are every where chanted, "Of the cows, for which the sons of Priyaméd'ha assisted Udamaya in the solemn rite, this son of Atri gave them, [every day] at noon, tiwo thousand each, out of a thousand millions.
"The son of Viróchana [ANGa] unbound and gave, while his priest performed the solemn sacrifice, eighty thousand white horses fit for use.

* All this, observes the commentator, was owing to his solemn inauguration.
- The son of Atra bestowed in gifts ten thousand women adorned with necklaces, all daughters of opulent persons, and brought from various countries.
- While distributing ten thousand elephants in Avachatruca, the holy son of Atri grew tired and dispatched messengers to finish the distribution.
"A hundred [I give] to you;" "A hundred to you;" still the holy man grew tired; and was at last forced to draw breath while bestowing them by thousands*.?
§IX. 'By this great inauguration, similar to Indra's, Di'kg'hatamas, son of Mamata', consecrated Bharata, the son of Duhshantat; and, therefore, did Bharata, son of Duhshanta, subdue the earth completely all around, and traverse it every way, and perform repeated sacrifices with horses as offerings.
' On that subject too, these verses are every where chanted. "Bharata distributed in Mashn'ára $\ddagger$, a hundred and seven thousand millions of black elephants with white tusks, and decked with gold.

[^75]"A sacred fire was lighted for Bharata, son of Duhshanta, in Sáchi'guńa, at which a thousand Bráhmanas shared a thousand millions of cows apiece.
> " Bharata, son of Duhshanta, bound seventyeight horses [for solemn rites] near the Yamuná; and fifty-five, in Vritrag'hna, on the Gangá.

"Having thus bound a hundred and thirty-three horses fit for sacred rites, the son of Duhshanta became pre-eminently wise, and surpassed the prudence of [every rival] king.
" This great achievement of Bharata, neither former nor later persons [have equalled]; the five classes of men have not attained his feats, any more than a mortal [can reach] heaven with his hands *."
'The holy saint, Vrihaduct'ha, taught this great inauguration to Durmuc'ha, king of Pánchála; and, therefore, Durmuc'ha, the Pánchála, being a king, subdued by means of that knowledge the whole earth around, and traversed it every way $\dagger$.
' The son of Satyahavya, sprung from the race of Vasisht'нa, communicated this great inauguration to Atyara'ti, son of Janantapa; and, therefore, Atyara'ti, son of Janantapa,

[^76]being no king, [nevertheless] subdued by means of that knowledge the whole earth around, and traversed it every way.
'Sa'tyahavya, of the race of Vasisht'ha, addressed him, saying, "Thou hast conquered the whole earth around; [now] aggrandize ine." AtYARA'ti, son of Janantapa, replied; "When I conquer Uttaracuru, then thou shait be king of the earth, holy man! and I will be merely thy general." Sa'tyahavya rejoined; "That is the land of the gods; no mortal can subdue it: thou hast been ungrateful towards me; and, therefore, I resume from thee this [power]." Hence the king S'ushmin'a, son of S'ivi, destroyer of foes, slew Atyara'ti, who was [thus] divested of vigour and deprived of strength.
' Therefore let not a soldier be ungrateful towards the priest, who is acquainted [with the form], and practises [the celebration, of this ceremony]; lest he lose his kingdom, and forfeit his life: lest he forfeit his life.'

To elucidate this last story, it is necessary to observe, that, before the commencement of the ceremony of inauguration, the priest swears the soldier by a most solemn oath, not to injure him. A similar oath, as is observed in this place by the commentator, had been administered previously to the communication of that knowledge, to which Atyara'ti owed his success. The priest considered his answer as illusory and insulting, because Uttara Curu, being north of Merre, is the land of the gods, and cannot be conquered by men: as this ungrateful answer was a breach of his oath, the priest withdrew his power from him; and, in consequence, he was slain by the foe,

The fortieth and last chapter of the Aitaréya Bráhman'a, relates to the benefit of entertaining a Puróhita, or appointed priest; the selection of a proper person for that station; and the mode of his appointment by the king; together with the functions to be discharged by him. The last section describes rites to be performed, under the direction of such a priest, for the destruction of the king's enemies. As it appears curious, the whole description is here translated; abridging, however, as in other instances, the frequent repetitions with which it abounds.
' Next then [is described] destruction around air (Brahme)*. Foes, enemies, and rivals, perish around him, who is conversant with these rites. That, which [moves] in the atmosphere, is air (Brahme), around which perish five deities, lightning, rain, the moon, the sun, and fire.
> ' Lightning having flashed, disappears behind rain $\dagger$ : it vanishes, and none know [whither it is gone]. When a man dies, he vanishes; and none know [whither his soul is gone]. Therefore, whenever lightning perishes, pronounce this [prayer]; "May my enemy perish: may he disappear, and none know [where he is]." Soon, indeed, none will know [whither he is gone].
> 'Rain having fallen, [evaporates and] disappears within the moon, \&c. When rain ceases, pronounce this [prayer], \&c.

'The moon, at the conjunction, disappears

[^77]within the sun, \&cc. When the moon is dark, pronounce, \&ce.
'The sun, when setting, disappears in fire, $\& c *$. When the sun sets, pronounce, \&cc.
' Fire, ascending, disappears in air, \&cc. When fire is extinguished, pronounce, \&c.
-These same deities are again produced from this very origin. Fire is born of air; for, urged with force by the breath, it increases. Viewing it, pronounce [this prayer], "May fire be revived; but not my foe be reproduced: may he depart averted." Therefore, does the enemy go far away.

- The sun is born of fire $\dagger$. Viewing it, say, " May the sun rise; but not my foe be reproduced, \&c."
' The moon' is born of the sun $\ddagger$. Viewing it, say, "May the moon be renewed, \&c."
' Rain is produced from the moon §. Viewing it, say, "May rain be produced, \&cc."

[^78]'Lightning comes of rain. Viewing it, say, " May lightning appear, \&ic."
'Such is destruction around air. Maitre'ya, son of Cusha'ru, communicated these rites to Sutwan, son of Ciris'a, descended from Bha'rga. Five kings perished around him; and Sutwan attained greatness.
' The observance [enjoined] to him [who undertakes these rites, is, as follows]: let hinn not sit down carlier than the foe; but stand, while he thinks him standing. Let him not lie down earlier than the foe; but sit, while he thinks him sitting. Let him not sleep earlier than the foe; but wake, while he thinks him waking. Though his enemy had a head of stone, soon does he slay him: he does slay him.'

Before I quit this portion of the $V_{e ́ d a, ~ I ~ t h i n k ~}^{\text {a }}$ it right to add, that the close of the seventh book contains the mention of several monarchs, to whom the observance, there described, was taught by divers sages. For a reason before-mentioned, I shall subjoin the names. They are Vis'wantara, son of Sushadman; Sahade'va, son of Sarja, and his son Sómaca; Baburu, son of De'va'vridiha, Bhima of Vidarbha, Nagnajit of Gand'ha'ra, Sanas'ruta of Arindama, Rytuvid of Janaca; besides Janaméjaya and SuDA's, who have been also noticed in another place.

The Aitaréya A'ranyaca is another portion of the Rïgcélda. It comprises eighteen chapters or lectures unequally distributed in five books ( $A$ ' ran'yaca). The second, which is the longest, for it Eeg
contains seven lectures, constitutes with the third an Upanishad of this Véda, entitled the Bahorich Bráhmara Upanishad; or, more commonly, the Aitaréya, as having been recited by a sage named Aitaréya*. The four last lectures of that second $A^{\prime}$ ran'yaca, are particularly consonant to the theological doctrines of the Védánta; and are accordingly selected by theologians of the Védántí school, as the proper Aitaréya Upanishad $\dagger$. The

[^79]following is literally translated from this portion of the second A'ranyaca.

## The Aitare'ya A'ranya. B. a.

§IV. 'Originally this [universe] was indeed goul only ; nothing else whatsoever existed, active [or inactive]. He thought, "I will create worlds :" thus HE created these [various] worlds; water, light, mortal [beings] and the waters. That "water," is the [region] above the heaven, which heaven upholds; the atmosphere comprises light; the earth is mortal; and the regions below are " the waters *."
' He thought, " these are indeed worlds ; I will create guardians of worlds." Thus he drew from the waters, and framed, an embodied being $\dagger$. He viewed him; and of that being, so contemplated, the mouth opened as an egg: from the mouth, speech issued; from speech, tire proceeded. The nostrils spread; from the nostrils, breath passed; from breath, air was propagated. The eyes opened: from the eyes, a glance sprung; from that glance, the sun was produced. The ears dilated: from the ears came hearkening; and from that, the regions of space. The skin expanded: from the skin, hair rose; from that, grew

[^80]$\dagger$ Purusha: a human form.
herbs and trees. The breast opened; from the breast, mind issued : and, from mind, the moon. The navel burst: from the navel, came deglutition*; from that, death. The generative organ burst: thence flowed productive seed; whence waters drew their origin.
' These deities, being thus framed, fell into this vast ocean; and to man they came with thirst and hunger: and him they thus addressed; "Grant us a [smaller] size, wherein abiding we may eat food." He offered to them [the form of ] a cow : they said, "that is not sufficient for us." He exhibited to them [the form of] a horse : they said, " neither is that sufficient for us." He showed them the human form: they exclaimed: "well done! ah! wonderful!" Therefore man alone is [pronounced to be] " well formed,"
" He bade them occupy their respective places. Fire becoming speech, entered the mouth. Air, becoming breath, proceeded to the nostrils. The sum, becoming sight, penetrated the eyes. Space became hearing and occupied the ears. Herbs and trees became hair and filled the skin. The moon, becoming mind, entered the breast. Death, becoming deglutition, penetrated the navel; and water became productive seed and occupied the generative organ.
' Hunger and thirst addressed him, saying" Assign us [our places]." He replied: "You I distribute anong these deities; and I make you parti-

[^81]cipant with them." Therefore is it, that to whatever deity an oblation is offered, hunger and thirst participate with him.
'He reflected, "These are worlds, and regents of worlds: for them I will frame food." He viewed the waters: from waters, so contemplated, form issued; and food is form, which was so produced.

- Being thus framed, it turned away, and sought to flee. The [primeval] man endeavoured to seize it by speech; but could not attain it by his roice: had he by voice taken it, [hunger] would be satisfied by naming food. He attempted to catch it by his breath; but could not inhale it by breathing: had he by inhaling taken it, [hunger] would be satisfied by smelling food. He sought to snatech it by a glance; but could not surprise it by a look: had he seized it by the sight, [hunger] would be satisfied by seeing food. He attempted to catch it by hearing: but could not hold it by listening: had he caught it by hearkening, [hunger] would be satisfied by hearing food. He endeavoured to seize it by his skin; but could not restrain it by his touch: had he seized it by contact, [hunger] would be satisfied by touching fond. He wished to reach it by the mind; but could not attain it by thinking: had he caught it by thought, [hunger] would be satisfied by meditating on food. He wanted to seize it by the generative organ, but could not so hold it: had he thus seized it, [hunger] would be satisfied by emission. Lastly, he endeavoured to catch it by deglutition; and thus he did swallow it : that air, which is so drawn in, seizes food; and that rery air is the bond of life.

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' He [the universal soul] reflected "How can this [body] exist without me?" He considered by which extremity he should penetrate. He thought, "If [without me] speech discourse, breath inhale, and sight view; if hearing hear, skin feel, and mind meditate; if deglutition swallow, and the organ of generation perform its functions; then who am I?"
' Parting the suture [siman], he penetrated by this route. That openipg is called the suture (vidriti), and is the road to beatitude (nándana)*.
' Of that soul, the places of recreation are three; and the modes of sleep, as many: this (pointing to the right eye) is a place of recreation; this (pointing to the throat) is [also] a situation of enjoyment; this (pointing to the heart) is [likewise] a region of delight.
'Thus born [as the animating spirit], he discriminated the elements, [remarking] "what else [but him] can I here affirm [to exist];" and he contemplated this [thinking] person $\dagger$, the vast expanse $\ddagger$, [exclaiming] it have I seen. Therefore is he named it-seeing (idam-dra): it-seeing is indeed his name: and him, being IT-seeing, they call, by a remote appellation, Indra; for

[^82]the gods generally delight in the concealment [of their name]. The gods delight in privacy*.
§ V. 'This [living principle] is first, in man, a fetus, or productive seed, which is the essence drawn from all the members [of the body]: thus the man nourishes himself within himself. But, when he emits it into woman, he procreates that [fetus]: and such is its first birth.
' It becomes identified with the woman; and being such, as is her own body, it does not destroy her. She cherishes his ownself $\dagger$, thus received within her; and, as nurturing lim, she ought to be cherished [by him]. The woman nourishes that fetus: but he previously cherished the child, and further does so after its birth. Since he supports the child before and after birth, he cherishes himself: and that, for the perpetual succession of persons; for thus are these persons perpetuated. Such is his second birth.
' This [second] self becomes his representative for holy acts [of religion]: and that other [self], having fulfilled its obligations, and completed is period of life, deceases. Departing hence, he is born again [in some other shape]: and such is his third birth.
'This was declared by the holy sage. "Writhin the womb, I have recognised all the successive births of these deities. A hundred bodics, ike

[^83]iron chains, hold me down: yet, like a falcon, I swiftly rise." Thus spoke VA'made'va, reposing in the womb: and possessing this [intuitive] knowledge, he rose, after bursting that corporeal confinement: and, ascending to the blissful region of hearen*, he attained every wish and became immortal. He became immortal.'
§ VI: 'What is this soul? that we may worship him. Which is the soul? Is it that by which [a man sces]? by which he hears? by which he smells odours? by which he utters speech? by which he discriminates a pleasant or unpleasant taste? Is it the heart [or understanding]? or the mind [or will]? Is it sensation? or power? or discrimination? or comprehension? or perception? or retention? or attention? or application? or haste [or pain]? or memory? or assent? or determination? or animal action $\dagger$ ? or wish? or desire?
' All those are only various names of apprehension. But this [soul, consisting in the faculty of apprehension,] is Brainas'; he is Indra; he is (Praja'pati) the lord of creatures: these gods are $l_{1 e}$; and so are the five primary elements, earth, air, the etherial fluid, water and light $\$$ : these, and the same joined with minute objects and other seeds [of existence], and [again] other [beings] pro-

[^84]OR SACRED WRITINGS OF THE HINDUS. 427 duced from egos, or borme in wombs, or originating in hot moisture *, or springing from plants; whether horses, or kine, or men, or elephants, whatever lives, and walks or flies, or whaterer is immovable [as herbs and trees]: all that is the eye of intelligence. On intellect [every thing] is founded: the world is the eye of intellect; and intellect is its foundation. Intelligence is (Brahme) the great one.
' By this [intuitively] intelligent soul. that sage ascended from the present world to the blissful region of heaven; and, obtaining all his wishes, became immortal. He became immortal.
§ VII. ' May my speech be founded on understanding: and my mind be attentive to my utterance. Be thou manifested to me, $O$ self manifested [intellect]! lor my sake [O speech and mind!] approach this l'éla. May what I have-heard, be unforgotten: day and night may I behold this, which I have studied. Let me think the reality: let me speak the truth. May it preserve me; may it preserve the teacher: me may it preserve: the teacher may it preserve; the teacher may it preserve; may it preserve the teacher $\dagger$.'

## On the C'aushi'tacrí.

Another ITpenishad of this V'édu, appertaining to a particular isuciá of it, is namied from that,

[^85]and from the Bráhman'a, of which it is an extract, Caushitaci Bráhman'a Upanishad. From an abridgment of it (for I have not seen the work at large), it appears to contain two dialogues; one, in which Indra instructs Pratardana in theology; and another, in which Aja'tas'atru, king of C $A^{\prime} s^{\prime}$ ' , communicates divine knowledge to a priest named BA's A'cr. A similar conversation between these two persons is found likewise in the Vrihad'aran'ya of the Yajurréda; as will be subsequently noticed. Respecting the dther contents of the Brahman'a, from which these dialogues are taken, I have not yet obtained any, satisfactory information.

The abridgment above-mentioned occurs in a metrical paraphrase of twelve principal Upanishads, in twenty chapters, by Vidya'ranya, the preceptor of Mádiava lichárya. He expressly states Caushítaci as the name of a S'áchía of the R'igvéda.

The original of the Caushitaci was among the portions of the Véda, which Sir Robert Chambers collected at Benares; according to a list, which he sent to me, some time before his departure from India. A fragment of an Upanishad, procured at the same place by Sir William Jones, and given by him to Mr. Blaquiere, is marked in his hand writing, "The beginning of the Caushitucí." In it, the dialogists are Chitra, surmamed Ga'nga'yani, and Sive'tace'tu, with his father Udda'laca, son of Arun'a.

I shall resume the consideration of this portion of the Rigued , whenever I have the good fortune to obtain the complete text and commentary, either of the Brahmana, or of the Upanishad, which bears this title.

## On the White Yajurvéda.

The V'ajasanéý, or white Yajush, is the shortest of the Védas; so far as respects the first and principal part, - which comprehends the Mantras. The Sanhitá, or collection of prayers and invocations belonging to this Véda, is comprised in forty lectures (Ad'hyáya), unequally subdivided into numerous short sections (can'dicá ); each of which, in general, constitutes a prayer or Mantra. It is also divided, like the R`g̛éda, into Amwéácas, or chapters. The number of Amurúcas, as they are stated at the close of the index to this Véda, appears to be two hundred and eighty-six: the number of sections, or verses, nearly two thousand (or exactly 1987). But this includes many repetitions of the same text in divers places. The lectures are very unequal, containing from thirtcen to a hundred and seventeen sections (can'dicíc*).

Though called the Yajurvéda, it consists of passages, some of which are denominated Rich, while only the rest are strictly I'ajush. The first are, like the prayers of the Rivgréla, in metre: the others are either in measured prose, containing from one to a hundred and six syllables; or such of them as exceed that length, are considered to be prose reducible to no measure.

The Yajurvéda relates chiefly to oblations and

[^86]sacrifices, as the name itself implies*. The first chapter, and the greatest part of the second, contain prayers adapted for sacrifices at the full and change of the moon: but the six last sections regard oblations to the manes. The subject of the third chapter is the consecration of a perpetual fire, and the sacrifice of victims: the five next relate chiefly to a ceremony called Agnishtóma, which inchudes that of drinking the juice of the acid asclepias. The two following relate to the Tíijupéy(r and Réjusinyí; the last of which ceremonies involves the consecration of a king. Eight chapters, from the eleventh to the eighteenth; regard the sanctifying of sacrificial fire; and the ceremony, named Sautrimann'i, which was the subject of the last section of the tenth chapter, occupies three other chapters from the nineteenth to the twenty-first. The prayers to be used at an As'acaméd'ha, or ceremony emblematic of the immolation of a horse and other animals, by a king ambitions of universal empire, are placed in four chapters, from the twenty-second to the twentyfifth. The two next are miscellaneous chapters; the Sutramanit and Asceméd ha are completed in two others; and the Purushamedhha, or ceremony performed as the type of the allegorical immolation of Na'ra'yan's, fills the thirtieth and thirty-first chapters. The three next belong to the Surcaméd hlu, or prayers and oblations for universal success. A chapter follows on the Pitriméd'ha, or obsequies in commemoration of a cleceased ancestor: and the last five chapters contain such passages of this l'éda as are ascribed to Dadiuyach,

[^87]son or descendant of Athurvax: four of them consist of prayers applicable to various religious rites, as sacraments, lustrations, penance, $\& c$.; and the last is restricted to theology.

Excepting these five chapters, most of the passages contained in the preceding part of this collection of prayers, are attributed to divine personages: many are ascribed to the first manifested being, named Praja'pati, Paramésht'mi, or Na'ra'tan'a Purusha; some are attributed to Swayambiú Brahme, or the self existent himself: the reputed authors of the rest are Vrihaspati, Indra, Varuy'a, and the As'wins: excepta few scattered passages, which are ascribed to Tasisht'ha, Viswa'mitra, Va'madéva, Madinuch'handas, Méd'ha'tit'hi, and other human anthors; and some texts, for which no Rushi is specified in the index, and which are therefore assigned either to the sun (Vivastat or $A^{\prime}$ 'ditya), as the deity supposed to have revealed this $V$ 'eda; or to Yajuyawalcya, as the person who received the revelation: in the same manner, as the unappropriated passages of the Rigreda are assigned to Praja'pati, or Brahma'.

Several prayers and hymns of the I Tajer-Véda have been already translated in former essays*; and may serve as a sufficient example of the style of its composition. I shall here insert only two passages, both remarkable. The first is the beginning of the pravers of the Sarvaned ha. It constitutes the thirty-second lecture, comprising two chapters (anưúcica) and sixteen verses.

[^88][^89]so is air; so is the moon: such too is that pure Brahme, and those waters, and that lord of creatures. Moments [and other measures of time] procceded from the effulgent person, whom none can apprehend [as an object of perception], above, around, or in the midst. Of him, whose glory is so great, there is no image: he it is, who is celebrated in various holy strains*. Even he is, the god, who pervades all regions: he is the first born: it is he, who is in the womb; he, who is born; and he, who will be produced: he severally, and universally, remains with [all] persons.
' He, prior to whom, nothing was born; and who became all beings; himself the lord of creatures, with a [body composed of] sixteen members, being delighted by creation, produced the three luminaries [the sun, the moon, and fire].
'To what God should we offer oblations, but to him, who made the fluid sky and solid earth, who fixed the solar orb (swar), and celestial abode (náca), and who framed drops [of rain] in the atmosphere? To what god should we offer oblations, but to him, whom heaven and earth mentally contemplate, while they are strengthened and embellished by offerings, and illuminated by the sun risen above them.
' The wise man views that mysterious [being]; in whom the universe perpetually exists, resting on that sole support. In him, this [world] is absorbed; from him, it issues : in creatures, he is $t$ wined and wove, with various forms of existence. Let the wise man, who is conversant with the

[^90]import of revelation*, promptly celebrate that immortal being, the mysteriously existing and various abode: he, who knows its three states [its creation, continuance and destruction], which are involved in mystery, is father of the father. That [Brahme], in whom the gods attain immortality, while they abide in the third [or celestial] region, is our venerable parent, and the providence which governs all worlds.
' Knowing the elements, discovering the worlds, and recognising all regions and quarters [to be him], and worshipping [speech or revelation, who is] the first-born, the votary pervades the animating spirit of solemn sacrifice by means of [his own] soul. Recognizing heaven, earth, and sky [to be him], knowing the worlds, discovering space and (swar) the solar orb [to be the same], he views that being: he becomes that being; and is identified with him, on completing the broad web of the solemn sacrifice.
"For opulence and wisdom, I solicit this wonderful lord of the altar, the friend of Indra, most desirable [fire]: may this oblation be effectual. Fire! make me, this day, wise by means of that wisdom, which the gods and the fathers worship: be this oblation efficacious. May Varu'na grant me wisdom; may fire and Prajápati confer on me sapience; may Indra and air vouchsafe me

[^91]knowledge ; may providence give me understanding: be this oblation happily offered! May the priest and the soldier both share my prosperity; may the gods grant me supreme happiness: to thee, who art that [felicity], be this oblation effectually presented.'

The next passage, which I shall cite, is a prayer to fire ${ }^{*}$.
'Thou art (samratsara) the [first] year [of the cycle]; thou art (parivatsara) the [second] year; thou art (idávatsara) the [third] year; thou art (idvat-vatsara) the [fourth] year; thou art (vatsara) the [fifth] year: may mornings appertain to thee; may days and nights, and fortnights, and months, and seasons, belong to thee; may (samvatsara) the year be a portion of thee: to go, or to come, contracting or expanding [thyself], thou art winged thought. Together with that deity, remain thou firm like Angras.'

I have quoted this almost unmeaning passage, because it notices the divisions of time, which belong to the calendar of the Védas; and which are explained in treatises on that subject annexed to the sacred volume, under the title of Jyótish. To this I shall again advert, in a subsequent part of this essay. I shall here only observe, with the view of accounting for the seeming absurdity of the text now cited, that fire, as in another place $\dagger$, sacrifice, is identified with the year and with the cycle, by reason of the near connexion between

[^92]consecrated fire, and the regulation of time relative to religious rites; at which one is used, and which the other governs.

The fortieth and last chapter of this Véda is an Upanishad, as before intimated: which is usually called I's'a-vásyam, from the two initial words; and sometimes Is'á 'dhyáya, from the first word; but the proper title is 'Upanishad of the Vajasanéya sanhitá.' The author, as before-mentioned, is Dad'hyach, son or descendant of At'harvan *. A translation of it has been published in the posthumous worksiof Sir William Jones.

The second part of this Véda, appertaining to the Mád'hyandina S'ác'há, is entitled the S'atapat'ha Brálman'a; and is much more copious than the collection of prayers. It consists of fourteen books (cín'da) unequally distributed in two parts (bhága): the first of which contains ten books; and the second, only four. The number of lectures (ad'hyáya), contained in each book, varies; and so does that of the Bráhman'as, or separate precepts, in each lecture. Another mode of division, by chapters (Prapát'aca), also prevails throughout the volume: and the distinction of Bráhmanas, which are again subdivided into short sections (can'dicá), is subordinate to both modes of division.

[^93]The fourteen books, which constitute this part of the Véda, comprise a hundred lectures corresponding to sixty-eight chapters. The whole number of distinct articles, entitled Bráhmana, is four hundred and forty: the sections (can'dica) are also counted, and are stated at 7624*.

The same order is observed in this collection of precepts concerning religious rites, which had been followed in the arrangement of the prayers belonging to them. The first and second hooks treat of ceremonies on the full and change of the moon; the consecration of the sacrificial fire, \&c. The third and fourth relate to the mode of preparing the juice of the acid Asclepias, and other ceremonies connected with it, as the Jyótisht'oma, \&c. The fifth is confined to the Vájapéya and Ríjasuya. The four next teach the consecration of sacrificial fire: and the tenth, entitled Agni rahasya, shows the benefits of these ceremonies. The three first books of the second part are stated, by the commentator $\phi$, as relating to the Sautramanit and As'wamed'ha; and the fourth, which is the last, belongs to theology. In the original, the thirteenth book is, specially denominated $A s^{\prime} w a m e ́ d ' h y a ;$ and the fourteenth is entitled Vrïhad dranyaca.

The As'waméd'ha and Purrushaméd'ha, celebrated

[^94]in the manner directed by this Védla, are not really sacrifices of horses and men. In the first mentioned ceremony, six hundred and nine animals of various prescribed kinds, domestic and wild, including birds, fish, and reptiles, are made fast; the tame ones, to twenty-one posts; and the wild, in the intervals between the pillars: and, after certain prayers have been recited, the victims are let loose without injury. In the other, a hundred and eighty-five men of various specified tribes, characters, and professions, are bound to eleven posts: and, after the hymn, concerning the allegorical immolation of Na'ráyana*, has been recited, these human victims are liberated unhurt: and oblations of butter are made on the sacrificial fire. This mode of performing the $A s^{\prime} w a m e ́ d ' h a$ and $P u$ rushaméd'ha, as emblematic ceremonies, not as real sacrifices, is taught in this Véda :: and the interpretation is fully confirmed by the rituals $\dagger$, and by commentators on the Sanhitáa and Bráhman'a; one of whom assigns as the reason, 'because the flesh of victims, which have been actually sacrificed at a Yajnya, must be eaten by the persons who offer the sacrifice: but a man cannot be allowed, much less required, to eat human flesh $\ddagger$.' It may be hence inferred, or conjectured at least,

[^95]Ff 3
that human sacrifices were not authorized by the $V$ éda itself: but were either then abrogated, and an emblematical ceremony substituted in their place; or they must have been introduced in later times, on the authority of certain Puránas, or Tantras, fabricated by persons, who, in this as in other matters, established many unjustifiable practices on the foundation of emblems and allegories, which they misunderstood.

The horse, which is the subject of the religious ceremony called As'waméd'ha, is also, avowedly, an emblem of Viríj, or the primeval and universal manifested being. In the last section of the Taittiríy a Yajur"oeda, the various parts of the horse's body are described, as divisions of time, and portions of the universe: ' morning is his head; the sun, his eye; air, his breath; the moon, his ear; \&c.' A similar passage in the 14 th book of the S'atapat'ha bráhman'a describes the same allegorical horse for the meditation of such, as cannot perform an As'waméd'ha; and the assemblage of living animals, constituting an inaginary victim, at a real $A s^{\prime} w a m e ́ d ' h a$, equally represent the universal being, according to the doctrines of the Indian scripture. It is not, however, certain, whether this ceremony did not also give occasion to the institution of another, apparently not authorized by the Védas, in which a horse was actually sacrificed.

The Vrĭhad áran'yaca, which constitutes the fourteenth book of the S'atapat'ha bráhman'a, is the conclusion of the V'ajasanéyí, or white Yajush. It consists of seven chapters or eight lectures: and the five last lectures, in one arrangement, corresponding with the six last lectures in the other, form a theological treatise entitled the Vrihad Upanishad,
or Vájasanéyí bráhman'a upanishad, but more commonly cited as the Vrihad éran'yaca*. The greatest part of it is in dialogue; and Ya'jnyawalcya is the principal speaker. As an Upanishad, it properly belongs to the Cánzoa S'ác'há: at least, it is so cited by Vidya'ran'ya, in his paraphrase of Upanishads before-mentioned. There does not, however, appear to be any material variation in it, as received by the Mád'hyandina school: unless in the divisions of chapters and sections; and in the lists of successive teachers, by whom it was handed down $\dagger$.

To convey some notion of the scope and style of this Upanishad, I shall, here, briefly indicate some of the most remarkable passages; and chiefly those which have been paraphrased by Vidya'ran'ya. A few others have been already cited; and the following appears likewise to deserve notice.

Towards the beginning of the Vruhad áraviyaca, a passage, concerning the origin of fire hallowed for an As'waméd'ha, opens thus: ' Nothing existed in this world, before [the production of mind]: this universe was encircled by death eager to devour; for death is the devourer. He framed mind, being desirous of himself becoming endued with a soul.'

[^96]Here the commentators explain death to be the intellectual being who sprung from the golden mundane egg: and the passage before cited from the Riguéda*, where the primeval existence of death is denied, may be easily reconciled with this, upon the Indian ideas of the periodical destruction and renovation of the world, and finally of all beings but the supreme one.

The first selection by Vidya'ran'ya, from this Upanishad, is the fourth article (bráhman'a,) of the third lecture of the Vrïhad áran'yaca. It is descriptive of Vira's, and begins thus:
' This [variety of forms] was, before [the production of body], soul, bearing a human shape. Next, looking around, that [primeval being] saw nothing but himself; and he, first, said "I am I." Therefore, his name was " 1 :" and, thence, even now, when called, [a man] first answers " it is I," and then declares any other name which appertains to him.
'Since he, being anterior to all this [which seeks supremacy], did consume by fire all sinful [obstacles to his own supremacy], therefore does the man, who knows this [truth], overcome him, who sceks to be before him.
> ' He felt dread; and, therefore, man fears, when alone. But he reflected, "Since nothing exists besides myself, why should I fear?" Thus his terror departed from him; for what should he dread, since fear must be of another?

[^97]- He felt not delight; and, therefore, man delights not, when alone . He wished the existence of ] another; and instantly he became such, as is man and woman-in mutual embrace. He caused this, his own self, to fall in twain; and thus became a husband and a wife. Therefore, was this [body, so separated], as it were an imperfect moiety of himself: for so Yajnyawalcya has pronounced it. This blank, therefore, is completerl by woman. He approached her; and, thence, were human beings produced.
' She reflected, doubtingly; " how can he, having produced me from himself, [incestuously] approach me? I will now assume a disgruise." She became a cow; and the other became a bull, and approached her; and the issue were kine. She was changed into a mare, and he into a stallion; one was turned into a female ass, and the other into a male one: thus did he again approach her; and the one-hoofed kind was the offspring. She became a female goat, and he a male one; she was an ewe, and he a ram: thus he approached her; and goats and sheep were the progeny. In this manner, did he create every existing pair whatsoever, even to the ants [and minutest insect].'

The sequel of this passage is also curious; but is too long to be here inserted. The notion of Vira's dividing his own substance into male and female, occurs in more than one Purín'a. So does that of an incestuous marriage and intercourse of the first Menu with his daughter S'atarupa': and the commentators on the Upanishad understand that legend to be alluded to in this place. But the institutes, ascribed to Menu, make ViRA's to be the issue of such a separation of persons,
and Menu himself to be his offspring*. There is, indeed, as the reader may observe from the passages cited in the present essay, much disagreement and consequent confusion, in the gradation of persons interposed by Hindu theology between the supreme being and the created world.

The author of the paraphrase before-mentioned, has next selected three dialogues from the fourth lecture or chapter of the Vihhadin an'yaca. In the first, which begins the chapter and occupies three articles (Bráhmanas), a conceited and loquacious priest, named Ba' la'ci (from his mother Bala' ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{Ca}^{\prime}$ ), and Ga'rgya (from his ancestor Garga), wisits Aja'tas'atru, king of Cás'í, and offers to communicate to him the knowledge of God. The king bestows on him a liberal recompense for the offer; and the priest unfolds his doctrine, saying he worships, or recognises, as God, the being who is manifest in the sun; him, who is apparent in lightning, in the etherial elements, in air, in fire, in water, in a mirror, in the regions of space, in shade, and in the soul itself. The king who was, as it appears, a well instructed theologian, refutes these several notions, successively; and, finding the priest remain silent, asks " is that all you have to say?" Ga'rgya replies, "that is all." Then, says the king, "that is not sufficient for the knowledge of God." Hearing this, Ga'rgya proposes to become his pupil. The king replies, "It would reverse established order, were a priest to attend a soldier in expectation of religious instruction: but I will suggest the knowledge to you." He

[^98]takes him by the hand; and, rising, conducts him to a place, where a man was sleeping. He calls the sleeper by various appellations suitable to the priest's doctrine; but without succeeding in awakening him: he then rouses the sleeper by stirring him; and, afterwards, addressing the priest, asks, "While that man was thus asleep, where was his soul, which consists in intellect? and whence came that soul when he was awakened?" Ga'rgya could not solve the question : and the king then proceeds to explain the nature of soul and mind, according to the received notions of the Védánta. As it is not the purpose of this essay to consider those doctrines, I shall not here insert the remainder of the dialogue.

The next, occupying a single article, is a conversation between Ya'jnyawalcya, and his wife, Maitréyi'. He announces to her his intention of retiring from the civil world ;' requests her consent, and proposes to divide his effects between her, and his second wife, Ca'tya'yani'. She asks, "Should I become immortal, if this whole earth, full of riches, wẹre mine?" "No," replies Ya'jnyawalcya, "riches serve for the means of living; but immortality is not attained through wealth." Maitréyi' declares she 'has no use, then, for that, by which she may not become immortal; and solicits from her husband the communication of the knowledge, which he possesses, on the means, by which beatitude may be attained. Ya'jnyawalcya, answers, "Dear wert thou to me; and a pleasing [sentiment] dost thou make known : come, sit down; I will expound [that doctrine]; do thou endeavour to comprehend it." A discourse follows, in which Ya'jnyawalcya elucidates the notion, that abstraction procures immortality; because affections are relative to the
sonl, which slould therefore be contemplated and considered in all objects, since every thing is soul; for all seneral and particular notions are ultimately resolvable into one, whence all proceed, and in which all merge; and that is identified with the supreme soul, through the knowledge of which beatitude may be attained.

I shall select, as a specimen of the reasoning in this dialogue, a passage, which is material on a different account; as it contains an enumeration of the $V$ 'édas, and of the various sorts of passages, which they comprise ; and tends to confirm some observations hazarded at the beginning of this essay.

- As smoke, and various substances, separately issue from fire lighted with moist wood; so, from this great being, were respired the Rigveda, the Yajurvéda, the Súmucéda, and the At'harvan and Angiras; the Itihusa and Purína; the sciences and Lpanishads; the verses and aphorisms; the expositions and illustrations: all these were breathed forth by him.'

The commentators remark, that four sorts of pravers (Mantra), and eight kinds of precepts (Bráhniana) are here stated. The fourth description of prayers comprehends such, as were revealed to, of discovered by, Atharvan and Angiras: meanneg the $A^{\prime} t h a r r a n a ~ r e ́ d a . ~ T h e ~ I t i h u ́ s a ~ d e-~$ signates such passages in the second part of the $V$ édas entitled Bráhmařa, as narrate a story: for instance, that of the nymph Urras'í and the king Pururavas. The Purán'a intends those, which relate to the creation and similar topics. "Sciences" are meant of religious worship. "Verses" are memorial lines. "Aphorisms" are short sentences in a concise style. "Expositions" interpret
such sentences; and "illustrations" elucidate the meaning of the prayers.

It may not be superfluous to observe in this place, that the Itihísa and Puránías, here meant, are not the mythological poems bearing the same title; but certain passages of the Indian scriptures, which are interspersed among others, throughout that part of the Védas, called, Bráhmana, and instances of which occur in more than one quotation in the present essay.

The dialogue between Ya'jnyawalcya and Maitreyí, above-mentioned, is repeated towards the close of the sixth lecture, with a short and immaterial addition to its introduction. In this place, it is succeeded by a discourse on the unity of the soul: said, towards the conclusion, to have been addressed to the two A'swins, by Dad'uyach, a descendant of Atharvan.

The fourth lecture ends with a list of the teachers, by whom that and the three preceding lectures, were handed down, in succession, to Pautima'shya. It begins with him, and ascends, through forty steps, to Aya'sya; or, with two more intervening persons, to the A'swins; and from them, to Dad'hyach, At'harvan, and Mrịtyu, or death; and, through other gradations of spirits, to Vira's; and finally to Brahme. The same list occurs again at the end of the sixth lecture: and similar lists are found in the corresponding places of this Upanishad, as arranged for the Mád'hyandina 'Sác'há. The succession is there traced upwards, from the reciter of it, who speaks of himself in the first persou, and from his immediate teacher Sauryanayya, to the same ori-
ginal revelation, through nearly the same number of gradations. The difference is almost entirely confined to the first ten or twelve names*.

The fifth and sixth lectures of this Upanishad have been paraphrased, like the fourth, by the author before-mentioned. They consist of dialogues, in which Yajnyawalcya is the chief discourser.
' Janaca, a king paramount, or emperor of the race of Vidéhas, was celebrating at great expense, a solemn sacrifice, at which the Bráhmanas of Curu and Panchála were assembled; and the king, being desirous of ascertaining which of those priests was the most learned and eloquent theologian, ordered a thousand cows to be made fast in his stables, and their horns to be gilt with a prescribed quantity of gold. He then addressed the priests, " whoever, among you, O venerable Bráhmanas, is most skilled in theology, may take the cows." The rest presumed not to touch the cattle; but Ya'jnyawalcya bade his pupil Sa'mas'ravas drive them to his home. He did so; and the priests were indignant, that he should thus arrogate to himself superiority. As'wala, who was the king's officiating priest, asked him, " art

[^99]thou, O Yajuyawalcya! more skilled in theology than we are?" He replied, "I bow to the most learned; but I was desirous of possessing the cattle."

This introduction is followed by a long dialogue, or rather by a succession of dialogues, in which six other rival priests (besides a learned female, named Ga'rgi', the daughter of Vachacru; ) take part as antagonists of YA'JNYAWALCYA; proposing questions to him, which he answers; and, by refuting their objections, silences them successively. Each dialogue fills a single article (Brálmana); but the controversy is maintained by $\mathrm{G}_{\mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathrm{rga}}{ }^{\prime}$ in two separate discussions; and the contest between Yajuyawalcya and Vidagdiha, surnamed $\mathrm{Sa}^{\prime}$ calya, in the uinth or last article of the fifth lecture, concludes in a singular manner.

Yájnyawalcya proposes to his adversary an abstruse question, and declares, "if thou dost not explain this unto me, thy head shall drop off." ' Sa'calya (proceeds the text) could not explain it; and his head did fall off; and robbers stole his bones, mistaking them for some other thing.'

Ya'jnyawalcya then asks the rest of his antagonists, whether they have any question to propose, or are desirous, that he should propose any. They remain silent, and he addresses them as follows :
"Man is indeed like to a lofty tree: his hairs are the leaves; and his skin, the cuticle. From his skin flows blood, like juice from bark; it issues from his wounded person, as juice from a stricken tree. His flesh is the inner bark; and the membrane, near the bones, is the white sub-
stance of the wood *. The bones within are the wood itself: and marrow and pith are alike. If then a felled tree spring anew from the root; from what root does mortal man grow again, when hewn down by death? Do not say, from prolific seed; for that is produced from the living person. Thus, a tree, incleed, also springs from seed; and likewise sprouts afresh [from the root] after [seemingly] dying: but, if the tree be torn up by the root, it doth not grow again. From what root, then, does mortal man rise afresh, when herwn down by death? [Do you answer] He was born [once for all]? No; he is born [again]: and [I ask you] what is it, that produces him anew?"

The priests, thus interrogated, observes the commentator, and being unacquainted with the first cause, yielded the victory to Ya'snyawalcya. Accordingly, the text adds a brief indication of the first cause as intended by that question. - Brahme, who is intellect with [the unvaried perception of] felicity, is the best path [to happiness] for the generous votary, who knows him, and remains fixed [in attention].'

The sixth lecture comprises two dialogues between Yajoyawalcya, and the king Janaca; in which the saint communicates religious instruction to the monarch, after inquiring from him the doctrines which had been previously taught to the king by divers priests.

These are followed by a repetition of the dialogue between Ya'jnyawalcya and his wife Maltre'yi'; with scarcely a variation of a single

[^100]word, except the introduction as above-mentioned. The sixth lecture concludes with repeating the list of teachers, by whom, successively, this part of the Véda was taught.

Concerning the remainder of the Trühad Aran'yaca, I shall only observe, that it is terminated by a list of teachers, in which the tradition of it is traced back from the son of Pautrma'shi', through forty steps, to Ya'Jnyawalcya; and, from him, through twelve more, to the sun. In copies belonging to the Mád’hyandina Sác'há, the list is varied, interposing more gradations, with considerable difference in the names, from the reciter who speaks in the first person, and his teacher, the son of Bha'radwa'ji', up to Ya'jnyawalcya; beyond whom both lists agree.

The copy, belonging to the Cánze: Sácichá, subjoins a further list stated by the commentators, to be common to all the Sácihás of the Fajizn, or Vajasanéyi Yajurvéda, and to be intended for the tracing of that Véda up to its original revelation. It begins from the son of SA'NuI'vi', who was fifth, descending from Ya'jnyawalcya, in the lists above-mentioned; and it ascends by ten steps, without any mention of that saint, to Tura, surnamed Ca'vasheiva, who had the revelation from Prajápati; and he, from Brahme.

Before I proceed to the other Yajurvéda, I think it necessary to remark, that the Indiun saint last mentioned (Tura, son of Cavasha) has been named in a former quotation from the Aitaréya, as the priest who consecrated Javaméjaya, son of Paricshit. It might, at the first glance, be hence concluded that he was contemporary with the celebrated king, who is stated in Hindil hisVol. VIII. . Gg
tory to have reigned at the beginning of the Cali age. But, besides the constant uncertainty respecting Indian saints, who appear and re-appear in heroic history at periods most remote, there is in this, as in many other instances of the names of princes, a source of confusion and possible error, from the recurrence of the same name, with the addition even of the same patronymic, for princes remote from each other. Thus, according to $P u$ ránas, Paricshit, third son of Curu, had a son named Janamejaya; and he may be the person here meant, rather than one of the same name, who was the great grandson of Arjuna.

## On the Black Yajurvéda.

THE Taittiriya, or black Yajush, is more copious (I mean, in regard to mantras,) than the white Yajush, but less so than the Rigréda. Its Sanhitá, or collection of prayers, is arranged in seven books (ashtaca, or cárida), containing from five to eight lectures, or chapters (ad'hyáya, pras'na, or prapát'aca). Each chapter, or lecture, is subdivided into sections (amutáca), which are equally distributed in the third and sixth books; but unequally in the rest. The whole number exceeds six hundred and fifty.

Another mode of division, by cimidas, is stated in the index. In this arrangement, each book (cín'da) relates to a separate subject; and the chapters (prasina), comprehended in it, are enumerated and described. Besides this, in the Sanhita itself, the texts contained in every section
are numbered; and so are the syllables in each text.

The first section (anuvaca), in this collection of prayers, corresponds with the first section (can'dicá) in the white Yajush*: but all the rest differ; and so does the arrangement of the subjects. Many of the topics are indeed alike in both Védas; but differently placed, and differently treated. Thus the ceremony called Rájasúya occupies one cánida, corresponding with the eighth pras'na of the first book (Asht'aca); and is preceded by two cáridas, relative to the Vajapeya, and to the mode of its celebration, which occupy fourteen sections in the preceding pras'na. Consecrated fire is the subject of four cán'das, which fill the fourth and fifth books. Sacrifice (ad'hwara) is noticed in the second and third lectures of the first book, and in several lectures of the sixth. The subject is continued in the seventh and last book; which treats largely on the Jyotisht'oma, including the forms of preparing and drinking the juice of acid Asclepias. The As'vaméd'ha, Nriméd'ha, and Pitriméd'ha, are severally treated of in their places; that is, in the collection of prayers $t$, and in the second part of this Veda. Other topics, introduced in different places, are numerous; but it would be tedious to specify them at large.

Among the Rishis of the texts, I observe no human authors : nine entire can'das, according to the

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second arrangement indicated by the index, appear to be ascribed to Praja'pati, or the lord of creatures; as many to So'ma, or the moon; seven to Agni, or fire ; and sixteen to all the gods. Possibly some passages may be allotted by the commentators to their real authors, though not pointed out by the index for the A'tréyi S'ác'há.

Several prayers from this Véda have been translated in former essay's*. Other very remarkable passages have occurred on examining this collection of Mantras $\dagger$. The following, from the seventh and last book $\not \ddagger$, is chosen as a specimen of the Taittiríya Yajurvéda. Like several beforecited, it alludes to the Indian notions of the creation; and, at the risk of sameness, I select passages relative to that topic, on account of its importance in explaining the creed of the ancient Hindu religion. The present extract was recommended for selection by its allusion to a mythological notion, which apparently gave origin to the story of the Varáha-avatára; and from which an astronomical period, entitled Calpa, has perhaps been taken $\oint$.
'Waters [alone] there were; this world originally was water. In it the lord of creation moved, having become air: he saw this [earth]; and upheld it, assuming the form of a boar (varáha); and then moulded that [earth], becoming VIs'wacarman, the artificer of the universe. It became

[^102]celebrated (aprat'hata), and conspicuous (prit'hi$v^{\prime} i$ ); and therefore is that name (Prithivi) assigned to the earth.

- The lord of creation meditated profoundly on the earth; and created the gods, the Vasus, Rudras, and 'Adityas. Those gods addressed the lord of creation, saying; "How can we form creatures?" He replied, "As I created you by profound contemplation (tapas); so do you seek in devotion (tapas), the means of multiplying creatures." He gave them consecrated fire, saying, "s With this sacrificial fire, perform devotions." With it they did perform austerities; and, in one year, framed a single cow. He gave her to the Vasus, to the Rudras, and to the 'Adityas, [successively]: bidding them 'guard her.' The Vasus, the Rudrais, and the 'Adityas, [severally] guarded her; and she calved, for the Vasus, three hundred and thirty-three [calves]; and [as many] for the Rudras; and [the same number] for the 'Adityas: thus was she the thousandth.
- They addressed the lord of creation, requesting him to direct them in performing a solemn act of religion with a thousand [kine for a gratuity]. He caused the Vasus to sacrifice with the Agnishtoma; and they conquered this world, and gave it [to the priests]: he caused the Rudras to sacrifice with the Uct'hya; and they obtained the middle region, and gave it away [for a sacrificial fee]: he caused the 'Adityas to sacrifice with the Atirátra; and they acquired that [other] world, and gave it [to the priests for a gratuity].'

This extract may suffice. Its close, and the remainder of the section, bear allusion to certain religious ceremonies, at which a thousand cows must be given to the officiating priests.

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To the second part of this Véda* belongs an Aranya, divided, like the Sanhitá, into lectures (pras'na), and again subdivided into chapters (anuváca), containing texts, or sections, which are numbered, and in which the syllables have been counted. Here also a division by can'das, according to the different subjects, prevails. The six first lectures, and their corresponding can'das, relate to religious observances. The two next constitute three Upanishads; or, as they are usually cited, two: one of which is commonly entitled the Taittiriyaca Upanishad; the other is called the Náráyan'a, or, to distinguish it from another belonging exclusively to the $A t^{\prime} h a r v a v e d a$, the great (Máha, or Vrǐhan,) náráyan'a. They are all admitted in collections of theological treatises appendant on the At'harvan'a; but the last-mentioned is there subdivided into two Upanishads.

For a further specimen of this Yajurvéda, I shall only quote the opening of the third and last chapter of the Várun'i, or second Taittiríyaca Upanishad, with the introductory chapter of the first $\dagger$.

Bhrigu, the offspring of Varun'a, approached his father, saying, "Venerable [father]! make known to me Brahme." Varun'a propounded these: namely, food [or body], truth [or life], sight, hearing, mind [or thought], and speech:

[^103]and thus proceeded, "That, whence all beings are produced; that, by which they live when born; that, towards which they tend; and that, into which they pass; do thon seek, [for] that is Brahme."
' He meditated [in] devout contemplation; and, having thought profoundly, he recognised food [or body] to be Brahme: for all beings are indeed produced from food; when born, they live by food; towards food they tend; they pass into food. This he comprehended; [but yet.unsatisfied] he again approached his father Varun'a, saying, "Venerable [father]! make known to me Brahme." Varun'a replied, "Seek the knowledge of Bralme by devout meditation: Brahme is profound contemplation."
' Having deeply meditated, he discovered breath [or life] to be Brahme; for all these beings are indeed produced from breath; when born, they live by breath; towards breath they tend; they pass into breath. This he understood: [but] again he approached his father VARUN'A, saying, "Venerable [father]! make known to me Brahme." Varun'a replied, "Seek him by profound meditation : Brahme is that."

- He meditated in deep contemplation, and discovered intellect to be Brahme: for all these beings are indeed produced from intellect; when born, they live by intellect; towards intellect they tend; and they pass into intellect. This he understood: [but] again he came to his father VAkUN'A, saying, "Venerable [father]! make known to me Brahme." Varun'a replied, "Inquire by devout contemplation: profound meditation is Brahme."
' He thought deeply; and, having thus meditated [with] devout contemplation, he knew Anan$d a$ [or felicity] to be Bralme: for all these beings are indeed produced from pleasure; when born, they live by joy; they tend towards happiness; they pass into felicity.
,'Such is the science which was attained by Bhrigu, taught by Varun'a, and founded on the supreme etherial spirit., He who knows this, rests on the same support; is endowed with [abundant] food; and becomes [a blazing fire], which consumes food: great he is by progeny, by cattle, and by holy perfections; and great by propitious celebrity.'

The above is the beginning of the last chapter of the V'árunĭ Upanishad. I omit the remainder of it. The first Taittiriyaca Upanishad opens with the following prayer. 'May Mitra [who presides over the day], Varun'a [who governs the night], Aryaman [or the regent of the sun and of sight], Indra [who gives strength], Vrluaspati [who rules the speech and understanding], and Vishn'u, whose step is vast, grant us ease. [I] bow to Brahme. Salutation unto thee, O air! Even thou art Brahme, present [to our apprehension]. Thee I will call, " present Brahme:" thee I will name, " the right one:" thee I will pronounce, "the true one." May that [Brahme, the universal being entitled air], preserve me; may that preserve the teacher : propitious be it*.

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## On other Upanishads of the Yajurvéda.

Among the Sácihás of the Yajurvéda, one entitled Maitráyan", furnishes an Upanishad, which bears the same denomination. An abridged paraphrase of it, in verse*, shows it to be a dialogue in which a sage, named S'áca'yana, communicates to the king Vrimadrat'ha, theological knowledge derived from another sage, called Maitra.

A different Sáchá of this Véda, entitled the Cat'ha, or Cát'haca, furnishes an Upanishad bearing that name; and which is one of those most frequently cited by writers on the Védénta. It is an extract from a Bráhmaria; and also occurs in collections of Upanishads appertaining to the Atharcana.

S'we'ta's'watara, who has given his name to one more Sác'há of the Yajuriéda, from which an Upanishad is extracted $\dagger$, is introduced in it, as teaching theology. This Upanishad, comprised in six chapters or lectures (ad'hyáya), is found in collections of theological tracts appertaining to the Athareacéda; but, strictly, it appears to belong exclusively to the Yajush.

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## On the Sa'mavéda.

A peculiar degree of holiness seems to be attached, according to Indian notions, to the Sámavéda; if reliance may be placed on the inference suggested by the etymology of its name, which indicates, according to the derivation* usually assigned to it, the efficacy of this part of the $V$ eddus in removing sin. The prayers, belonging to it, are, as before observed, composed in metre, and intended to be chanted, and their supposed efficacy is apparently ascribed to this mode of uttering them.

Not having yet obtained a complete copy of this Véda, or of any commentary on it, I can only describe it, imperfectly, from such fragments as I have been able to collect.

A principal, if not the first, part of the Sámavéda is that entitled A'rchica. It comprises prayers, among which I observe many, that constantly recur in rituals of Sámavédiya, or Chihandóga priests, and some of which have been translated in former essays $\dagger$. They are here arranged, as appears from two copies of the $A^{\prime}$ rchica $\ddagger$, in six chapters (prapát'aca) subdivided into half chapters, and into sections (das'atí); ten in each chapter, and usually

[^106]containing the exact number of ten verses each. The same collection of prayers, in the same order, but prepared for chanting, is distributed in seventeen chapters, under the title of the Grámagéya gána. That, at least, is its title in the only copy which I have seen. But rituals, directing the same pravers to be chanted, employ the designation of A richica gána, among other terms applicable to various modes of rhythmical recitation.

Another portion of the Súmavéda, arranged for chanting, bears the title of A'raniza gana. Three copies of it *, which seem to agree exactly, exhibit the same distribution into three chapters, which are subdivided into half chapters and decades or sections, like the A'rchica above-mentioned $\dagger$. But I have not yet found a plain copy of it, divested of the additions made for guidance in chanting it.

The additions here alluded to, consist in prolonging the sounds of vowels, and resolving diphthongs into two or more syllables, inserting likewise, in many places, other addlitional syliables, besides placing numerical marks for the management of the voice. Some of the prayers, being subject to variation in the mode of chanting them, are repeated, once or oftener, for the purpose of showing these differences; and, to most, are prefixed the appropriate names of the several passages.

[^107]Under the title of A'rshaya Brahmaria, I have found what seems to be an index of these two portions of the Sámaréda. For the names of the passages, or sometimes the initial words, are there enumerated in the same order, in which they occur in the Gráma g'éya, or A'rchica, followed by the A'ran'ya ganna. This index does not, like the explanatory tables of the other Vedas, specify the metre of each prayer, the deity addressed in it, and the occasion on which it should be used; but only the Rishi, or author: and, from the variety of names stated in some instances, a conclusion may be drawn, that the same texts are ascribable to more than one author.

It has been already hinted, that the modes of clanting the same prayers are various, and bear different appellations. Thus, the rituals frequently direct certain texts of this Veda to be first recited simply, in a low voice, according to the usual mode of inaudible utterance of the Védas; and then to be similarly chanted, in a particular manner, under the designation of $A$ 'rchica gána; showing, however, divers variations and exceptions from that mode, under the distinct appellation of Aniructa' gina*. So, likewise, or nearly the same passages, which are contained in the A'rchica and Grimagéyn, are arranged in a different order, with further variations as to the mode of chanting them, in another collection named the Uha gána.

From the comparison and examination of these parts of the Sámavéda, in which, so far as the collation of them has been carried, the texts appear

[^108]to be the same, only arranged in a different order, and marked for a different mode of recitation, I am led to think, that other collections, under similar names*, may not differ more widely from the A'rchica and Arainya above-mentioned: and that these may possibly constitute the whole of that part of the Samavéda, which corresponds to the Sanhitús of other Védas.

Under the denomination of Bráhmana, which is appropriated to the second part or supplement of the Véda, various works have been received by different schools of the Sámavéda. Four appear to be extant; three of which have been seen by me, either complete or in part. One is denominated Shádvins'a; probaby fron its containing twenty-six chapters. Another is called $A d-$ bhuita, or, at greater length, Adbhíta Bráhmaria. The only portion, which I have yet seen, of either, has the appearance of a fragment, and breaks off at the close of the fifth chapter: both names are there introduced, owing, as it should seem, to some error; and I shall not attempt to determine which of them it really belongs to. A third Bráhman'a of this Véda is termed Panchavins'a; so named, probably, from the number of twenty-five chapters comprised in it: and I conjecture this to be the same with one in my possession not designated by any particular title, but containing that precise number of chapters.

[^109]The best known among the Bráhmarias of the Sámarcéda, is that entitled Tánidya. It was expounded by SA'YAN'A'Cha'rya; but a fragment of the text with his commentary, including the whole of the second book (panjicáa), from the sixth to the tenth lecture, is all that I have been yet able to procure. This fragment relates to the religious ceremony named Agnishtóma. I do not find in it, nor in other portions of the Sámaceeda before described, any passage, which can be conveniently translated as a specimen of the style of this Véda.

Leaving, then, the Mantras and Bráhmarias of the Sámacéda, I proceed to notice its principal Upanishad, which is one of the longest and most abstruse compositions bearing that title.

The Ch'hándügya Upanishad contains eight chapters (prapátacas), apparently extracted from some portion of the Bráhmana, in which they are numbered from three to ten *. The first and second, not being included in the Upanishad, probably relate to religious ceremonies. The chapters are unequally subdivided into paragraphs or sections; amounting, in all, to more than a hundred and fifty.

A great part of the Chhándơgya $\dagger$ is in a didactic form: including, however, like most of the other Upanishads, several dialogues. The beginning of one, between Sanatcuma'ra and Náreda,

[^110]which occupies the whole of the seventh chapter*, has been already quoted. The preceding chapter consists of two dialogues between SWe'race'tu, grandson of Arun'a, and his own father, Uddalaca, the son of Arun'a. These had been prepared in the fifth chapter, where Prava'mana, son of Jívala, convicts S'wétacétu of ignorance in theology : and where that conversation is followed by several other dialogues, intermixed with successive references for instruction. The fourth chapter opens with a story respecting Ja'Nas'rutr, grandson of Putra; and, in this and the fifth chapter, dialogues, between human beings, are interspersed with others in which the interlocutors are either divine or imaginary persons. The eighth or last chapter contains a disquisition on the soul, in a conference between Praja'pati and Indra.

I shall here quote, from this Upanishad, a single dialogue belonging to the fifth chapter.

- Pra'chi'nas'ála, son of Upamanyu, Satyayajnya, issue of Pulusha, Indradyumna, offspring of Bhallayi, Jana descendant of S'arcara'cshya, and Vudila sprung from As'wataras'swa, being all persons deeply conversant with holy writ, and possessed of great dwellings, meeting together, engaged in this disquisition, "What is our soul? and who is Brahme?"
"These venerable persons reflected, "Udda'laca, the son of Arun'a, is well acquainted with the universal soul : let us immediately go to him."

[^111]They went: but he reflected, "these great and very learned persons will ask me; and I shall not [be able] to communicate the whole [which they inquire]: I will at once indicate to them another [instructor]." He thus addressed them, "As'wapati, the son of Cecaya, is well acquainted with the universal soul ; let us now go to him."
"They all went; and, on their arrival, [the king] caused due honotirs to be shown to them respectively; and, next morning, civilly dismissed them; [but, observing that they staid, and did not accept his presents,] he thus spoke: "In my dominions, there is no robber; nor miser; no drunkard; nor any one neglectful of a consecrated hearth; none ignorant; and no adulterer, nor adulteress. Whence [can you have been aggrieved]?" [As they did not state a complaint, he thus proceeded; ;] "I must be asked, O venerable men! [for what you desire]." [Finding, that they made no request, he went on;] " As much as I shall bestow on each officiating priest, so much will I also give to you. Stay then, most reverend men." They answered: "It is indeed' requisite to inform a person of the purpose of a visit. Thou well knowest the universal soul; communicate that knowledge unto us." IIe replied; "To-morrow I will declare it to you." Perceiving his drift, they, next day, attended him, bearing [like pupils] logs of firewood. Without bowing to them, he thus spoke:-
"Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O son of Upamanyu:" "Heaven," answered he, "O venerable king!" "Splendid is that [portion of the] universal self, which thou dost worship as the soul: therefore, in thy family, is seen [the juice of the acid asclepias] drawn, expressed, and pre-
pared, [for religious rites]; thou dost consume food [as a blazing fire]; and dost view a [son or other] beloved object. Whoever worships this for the universal soul, similarly enjoys food, contemplates a beloved object, and finds religious occupations in his fanily. But this is [only] the head of the soul. Thy head had been lost," added the king, " hadst thou not come to me."
'He now turned to Satyayajnya, the son of Pulusha, saying; "Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O descendant of Prachinayóga?" "The sun," answered he, "O venerable king!" "Varied is that [portion of the] universal self, which thou dost worship as the soul; and, therefore, in thy family, many various forms are seen; a car yoked with mares, and treasure, together with female slaves, surround thee; thou dost consume food, and contemplate a pleasing object. Whoever wiorships this, for the universal soul, has the same enjoyments, and finds religious occupations in his family. But this is only the eye of soul. Thou hadst been blind," said the king, " hadst thou not come to me."
' He next addressed Indradyumna, the son of Bhallayi: "Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O descendant of Vy'agirapad." "Air," replied he, "O venerable king!" "Diffused is that portion of the universal self, which thou dost worship as the soul; numerous offerings reach thee; many tracts of cars follow thee: thou dost consume food: thou viewest a favourite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, enjoys food and contemplates a beloved object: and has religious occupations in his family. But this is only the breath of soul. Thy breath had expired,". said the king, "hadst thon not come to me.".

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He then interrogated Jana, the son of Sarcara'cshya: "Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O soll of Sarcarácshya?" "The etherial element," said he, " O venerable king!" "Abundant is that universal self, whom thou dost worship as the soul; and, therefore, thou likewise dost abound with progeny and wealth. Thou dost consume food; thou viewest a favourite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, consumes food, and sees a beloved object; and has religious occupations in his family. But this is only the trunk of soul. Thy trunk had corrupted," said the king, " hadst thou not come to me."
' He afterwards inquired of Vudila, the son of As'watara'swa: "Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O descendant of Vya'ghrapad?" "Water," said he, "O venerable king!" " Rich is that universal self, whom thou dost worship as the soul; and, therefore, art thou opulent and thriving. Thou dost consume food; thou viewest a favourite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, partakes of similar enjoyments, contemplates as dear an object, and has religious occupations in his family. But this is only the abdomen of the soul. Thy bladder had burst," said the king, " hadst thou not come to me."

[^112]has religious occupations in his family. But this forms only the feet of the soul. Thy feet had been lame," said the king, "ladst thou not come to me."
' He thus addressed them [collectively]: "You consider this universal soul, as it were an individual being; and you partake of distinct enjoyment. But he, who worships, as the universal soul, that which is known by its [manifested] portions, and is inferred [from consciousness], enjoys nourishment in all worlds, in all beings, int all souls: his head is splendid, like that of this universal soul; his eye is similarly varied; his breath is equally diffused; his trunk is no less abundant; his abdomen is alike full; and his feet are the earth; his breast is the altar; his hair is the sacred grass; his heart, the household fire; his mind, the consecrated flame; and his mouth, the oblation.
"The food, which first reaches him, should be solemnly offered: and the first oblation, which he makes, he should present with these words: "Be this oblation to breath efficacious." Thus breath is satisfied; and, in that the eye is satiate; and, in the eye, the sun is content; and, in the sun, the sky is gratified; and, in the sky, heaven and the sun, and whatever is dependant, become replete: and after that, he himself[who eats] is fully gratified with offspring and cattle; with vigour proceeding from food, and splendour arising from holy observances*.

[^113]"But whoever makes an oblation to fire, being unacquainted with the universal soul, acts in the same manner, as one who throws live coals into ashes: while he, who presents an oblation, possessing that knowledge, has made an offering in all worlds, in all beings, in all souls. As the tip of dry grass, which is cast into the fire, readily kindles; so are all the faults of that man consumed. He, who knows this, has only presented an oblation to the universal soul, even though he knowingly give the residue to a Chíndála. For, on this point, a text is [preserved]: "As, in this world, hungry infants press round their mother; so do all beings await the holy oblation : they await the holy oblation."

Another Upanishad of the Sámavéda belongs to the Sác'há of the Talavacáras. It is called, the "Cénéshita," or, "Céna" Upanishad, from the word, or words, with which it opens: and, as appears from Sancara's commentary *, this treatise is the ninth chapter (ad'hyáya) of the work, from which it is extracted. It is comprised in four sections (chan'da). The form is that of a dialogue between instructors and their pupils. The subject is, as in other Upanishads, a disquisition on abstruse and mystical theology. I shall not make any extract from it, but procced to describe the fourth and last Véda.

[^114]On the At'harva-véda.

The Sanhitá, or collection of prayers and invocations, belonging to the $A^{\prime}$ tharvan'a, is comprised in twenty books (cánda), subdivided into sections (anuoúca), hymns (sícta), and verses (rïch). Another mode of division by chapters (prapátaca) is also indicated. The number of verses is stated at 6015; the sections exceed a hundred; and the hymns amount to more than seven hundred and sixty. The number of chapters is forty nearly.

A passage from this Véda was quoted by Sir W. Jones in his essay on the literature of the Hindus *; and a version of it was given, as a specimen of the language and style of the $A^{\prime} t^{\prime} h a r-$ vána. That passage comprises the whole of the forty-third hymn of the nineteenth book $\dagger$. In the beginning of the same book, I find a hymn (numbered as the sixth) which is almost word for word the same with that, which has been before cited from the thirty-first chapter of the white Yajush ${ }_{i} \ddagger$. Some of the verses are indeed trans-

[^115]posed, and here and there a word differs: for example, it opens by describing the primeval man (purusha) with a thousand arms, instead of a thousand heads. The purport is, nevertheless, the same; and it is needless, therefore, to insert a version of it in this place.

The next hymn, in the the same book, includes an important passage. It names the twenty-eight asterisms in their order, beginning with Crittica: and seems to refer the solstice to the end of $A s^{\circ}$ léshá, or beginning of Maghá. I call it an important passage; first, because it shows, that the introduction of the twenty-eighth asterism is as ancient as the Atharra-ceda; and, secondly, because it authorises a presumption, that the whole of that Véda, like this particular hymn, may have been composed when the solstice was reckoned in the middle, or at the end, of As'léshá*, and the origin of the Zodiac was placed at the beginning of Critticú. On the obvious conclusion, respecting the age of the $V e d a$, I shall enlarge in another place.

An incantation, which appears to be the same that is mentioned by Sir W. Jonest, occurs in the fourth section of the ninetcenth book. It is indeed a tremendous incantation; especially the three Suctas, or hymns, which are numbered 28 , 99, and 30. A single line will be a sufficient specimen of these imprecations, in which, too, there is much sameness.

* The middle of $A s^{\prime}$ 'léshá, if the divisions be twenty-seven, and its end, when they are twenty-eight equal portions, give the same place for the colure.
$\dagger$ Asiatic Researches, Vol. I. p. 348.
' Destroy, O sacred grass *, my foes; exterminate my enemies; annihilate all those, who hate me, O precious gem!'

The Atharva-véda, as is well known, contains many forms of imprecation for the destruction of enemies. But it must not be inferred, that such is the chief subject of that Védla; since it also contains a great number of prayers for safety and for the averting of calamities : and, like the other Védas, numerous hymns to the gods, with prayers to be used at solemn rites and rcligious exercises, excepting such as are named Yajnya.

The Gópat'ha Bráhman'a appears to belong to the second part of this Véda. Not having seen a commentary, nor an index, of this work, I can only speak of it from a copy in my possession : this contains five chapters (prapataca), with the date of the transcript $\dagger$ and name of the transcriber, at the end of the fifth, as is usual in the colophon at the close of a volume.

The first chapter of this Gópat'ha Bráhman'a traces the origin of the universe from Brahme; and it appears from the fourth section of this chapter, that Atharvan is considered as a Prajápati appointed by Brahme to create and protect subordinate beings.

In the fifth chapter, several remarkable passages, identifying the primeval person (purusha) with the year (samvatsara), convey marked allusions to the calendar. In one place (the fifth section), besides stating the year to contain twelve or thirteen

[^116]lunar months, the subdivision of that period is pursued to 360 days; and, thence, to $10,800 \mathrm{mu}$ hurtas, or hours.

I proceed to notice the most remarkable part of the $A t^{\prime} h a r v a-t e ́ e d a$, consisting of the theological treatises, entitled Upanishads, which are appendant on it. They are computed at fifty-two : but this number is completed by reckoning, as distinct Upanishads, different parts of a single tract. Four such treatises, comprising eight LTanishads, together with six of those before described as appertaining to other Védas, are perpetually cited in dissertations on the Védínta*. Others are either more sparingly, or not at all, quoted.

It may be here proper to explain what is meant by Upanishad. In dictionaries, this term is made equivalent to Rehesya, which signifies mystery. This last term is, in fact, frequently employed by Menu, and other ancient authors, where the commentators understand Upanishads to be meant. But neither the etymology, nor the acceptation, of the word, which is now to be explained, has any direct connexion with the idea of secrecy, concealment, or mystery. Its proper meaning, according to Sancara, Sa'yan'a, and all the commentators, is divine science, or the knowledge of GoD: and, according to the same authorities, it is equally applicable to theology itself, and to a book in which this science is taught. Its deriva-

[^117]tion is from the verb sad (shad-lrì), to destroy, to move, or to weary, preceded by the prepositions upa near, and ni continually, or nis certainly. The sense, properly deducible from this etymology, according to the different explanations given by commentators, invariably points to the knowledge of the divine perfections, and to the consequent attainment of beatitude through exemption from passions*.

The whole of the Indian theology is professedly founded on the Upanishads $\dagger$. Those, which have been before described, have been shown to be extracts from the $V$ édu. The rest are also considered as appertaining to the Indian scripture: it does not, however, clearly appear, whether they are detached essays, or have been extracted from a Brachman'a of the Atharva-véda. I have not found any of them in the Sanhitá of the At'harvania, nor in the Gópat'ha Bráhman'a.

In the best copies of the fifty-two Upanishads $\ddagger$, the first fifteen are stated to have been taken from the Saunaciyas, whose S'ac'há seems to be the principal one of the At'harva-véda. The remaining

[^118]thirty-seven appertain to various $S^{\prime \prime}{ }^{\prime} c^{\circ} h a ́ s$, mostly to that of the Paippuládis: but some of them, as will be shown, are borrowed from other Védas. .

The Mundaca, divided into six sections unequally distributed in two parts, is the first Upamishad of the A'tharvania; and is also one of the most important, for the doctrines which it contains. It has been fully illustrated by Sancara, wliose gloss is assisted by the annotations of Anandajnyáa. The opening of this Upanishad, comprising the whole of the first section, is here subjoined.
' Brahma' was first of the gods, framer of the universe, guardian of the world. He taught the knowledge of God, which is the foundation of all science, to his eldest son Atharva. That holy science, which Brahmá revealed to At'harvan*, was communicated by him to Angrr, who transmitted it to Satyavaifa, the descendant of Bharadwa'ja: and this sol of Bharadwa'ja imparted the traditional science to Angras.
'S'aunaca, or the son of Sunaca, a mighty houscholder, addressing Angrras with due respect, asked "What is it, O venerable sage, through which, when known, this universe is understood?"
'To him the holy personage thus replied: "Two sorts of science must be distinguished; as they, who know God, declare: the supreme science,

[^119]and another. This other is the Rygvéda, the Yajurvéda, the Samavéda, the Atharra-véda*; the rules of accentuation, the rites of religion, grammar, the glossary and explanation of obscure terms, prosody, and astronomy: also the Itihása and Purinia; and logic, with the rules of interpretation, and the system of moral duties.
> "But the supreme science is that, by which this unperishable [nature] is apprehended; invisible [or imperceptible, as is that nature]: not to be seized; nor to be deduced; devoid of colour ; destitute of eyes and ears; without hands or feet, yet ever variously pervading all: minute, malterable; and contemplated by the wise fur the source of beings.

"As the spider spins and gathers back [its thread]; as plants sprout on the earth; as hairs grow on a living person : so is this universe, here, produced from the unperishable nature. By contemplation, the vast one germinates; from him, food [or body] is produced; and thence, successively, breath, mind, real [elements], worlds, and immortality arising from [good] deeds. The omniscient is profound contemplation, consisting in the knowledge of him, who knows all: and, from that, the [manifested] yast one, as well as names, forms, and food, proceed: and this is truth."

The Pras'na, which is the second Upanishad, and equally important with the first, consists, like it, of six sections; and has been similarly nterpreted by S'ancara and Ba'lacrishnáa $\dagger$. In this

[^120]rlialogue, Suce's'a, the son of Bharadwa'ja, Satyaca'ma, descended from S'ivi, Saurya'yani, a remote descendant of the Sun, but belonging to the family of Garga, Caus'alya, surnamed A's'wala'yana, or son of As'wala, Vaidarbhi of the race of Bhrigu, together with Cabandihí, surnamed Ca'tya'yana, or descendant of Catya, are introduced as seeking the knowledge of theology, and applying to Pippala'da for instruction. They successively interrogate him conceming the origin of creatures, the nature of the gods, the union of life with body, and the conmexion of thoughts with the soul.

The nine succeeding tTpanishads (from the 3d to the 11th) are of inferior importance, and have been left unexplained by the writers on the, $V{ }^{\prime}$ diuntu, because they do not directly relate to the Saríraca, or theological doctrine respecting the soul ". They are enumerated in the margin $\dagger$.

The Man'ducya follows, and consists of four parts, each constituting a distinct Upanishad. This abstruse treatise, comprising the most material doctrines of the Védinta, has been elucidatedby the labours of Gaudiapáda, and S'ancara. Gaudiapaida's commentary is assisted by the notes of Anandagiri.

Among the miscellancous Upanishads, the first thirteen (fiom the 16 th to the 28 th) have been left

[^121]uncommented by the principal expounders of the Védúnta, for a reason before-mentioned. The names of these Upanishads will be found in the subjoined note ${ }^{*}$.

The following six (from the 29th to the 34th,) constitute the Nrisinha Tapaniya; five of them compose the Purva Tápaniya, or first part of the Upunishad so called; and the last, and most important, is entitled Uttara Tápaniya. It has been expounded by Gaud'apa'da, as the first part (if not the whole Upanishad) has been by Sancara†. The object of this treatise appears to be the identifying of Nrisinha with all the gods: but, so far as I comprehend its meaning (for I have not sufficiently examined it to pronounce confidently on this point,) the fabulous incarnation of VishNu , in the shape of a vast lion, does not seem to be at all intended; and the name of Nrisinha is applied to the divinity, with a superlative import, but with no apparent allusion to that fable.

The two next Upanishads constitute the first and second parts of the Cat'haca, or Vall', or Cat'havalli (for the name varies in different copies). It belongs properly to the Yajurvéda, as before mentioned; but it is usually cited from the $A^{\prime} t^{\prime} h a r-$

[^122]van'a; and has been commented, as appertaining to this $V^{\prime}$ 'da, by S'ancara, and by Ba'lacrîshn'a*.

It comprises six sections, seserally entitled $V$ allí; but constituting two chapters (ad'hyáya), denominated Pírev-vallí and Uttara-ealli. The dialogue is supported by Mrityu, or death, and the prince Nachice'tas, whom his father, $V_{A^{\prime}}$ jas'ravasa, consigned to Yama, being provoked by the boy's importunately asking him, (through zeal, however, for the success of a sacrifice performed to ensure universal conquest,) "to whom wilt thou give me?" Yama receives Nachicettas with honour, and instructs him in theology, by which beatitude and exemption from worldly sufferings may be attained, through a knowledge of the true nature of the soul, and its identity with the supreme being. The doctrine is similar to that of other principal Upunishuds.

The Cénéshita, or Céna Upanishad, is the thirtyseventh of the Atharvan'a, and agrees, almost word for word, with a treatise bearing the same title, and belonging to a S'áchú of the S'ámavéda. S'ancara has, however, written separate commentaries on both, for the sake of exhibiting their different interpretations $\uparrow$. Both commentaries have, as usual, been annotated.

[^123]A short Upanishad, entitled Naráyana, is followed by two others ( 39 th and 40th), which form the first and second parts of the Vrilhan Náríyan'a. This corresponds, as before mentioned, with an Upamishoud, bearing the same title, and terminating the A'ran'ya of the Taittiriya Yajurvéda.

On the three subsequent Upínishads I shall offer no remarks; they have not been commented among such as relate to the Védánta; and I have not ascertained whence they are extracted*.

Under the name of Anandavalli and Bhriguvalli, two Upanishads follow (44th and 45 th), which have been already noticed as extracts from the $A^{\prime} r a n ' y a$ of the black Yajush, distinguished by the titles of Taittiriya and Váruni.

The remaining seven Upanishads $\dagger$ are unexplained by commentators on the Védánta. They are, indeed, sufficiently easy, not to require a laboured interpretation: but there is room to regret the want of an ancient commentary, which might assist in determining whether these Uprnishads be genuine. The reason of this remark will be subsequently explained.

Entertaining no doubts conceruing the genuineness of the other works, which have been here described, I think it, nevertheless, proper to state some of the reasons on which my belief of their

[^124]authenticity is founded. It appears necessary to do so, since a late author has abruptly pronounced the Védas. to be forgeries *.

It has been already mentioned, that the practice of reading the principal Védas in superstitious modes, tends to preserve the genuine text. Copies, prepared for such modes of recital, are spread in various parts of India, especially Benares, Jeyenagar, and the banks of the Gódávér'. Interpolations and forgeries have become impracticable since this usage has been introduced: and the Rigvéda, and both the Yajushes, belonging to the several $S^{\prime} a^{\prime} c^{\prime} h a ́ s$, in which that custom has been adopted, have been, therefore, long safe from alteration.

The explanatory table of contents, belonging to the several Védas, also tends to ensure the purity of the text; since the subject and length of each passage are therein specified. The index, again, is itself secured from alteration by more than one exposition of its meaning, in the form of a perpetual commentary.

It is a received and well grounded opinion of the learned in India, that no book is altogether safe from changes and interpolations until it have been commented: but when once a gloss has been published, no fabrication could afterwards succeed; because the perpetual commentary notices every passage, and, in general, explains every word.

[^125]Commentaries on the Védas themselves exist, which testify the authenticity of the text. Some are stated to have been composed in early times: I shall not, however, rely on any but those to which I can with certainty refer. I have fragments of Uvatia's gloss; the greatest part of SAYAN'A's on several Védas; and a complete one by Mahidhara on a single Véda. I also possess nearly the whole of S'ancara's commentary on the Upanishads; and a part of Gaud'apa'da's; with others, by different authors of less note.

The genuineness of the commentaries, again, is secured by a crowd of annotators, whose works expound every passage in the original gloss; and whose annotations are again interpreted by others. This observation is particularly applicable to the most important parts of the Védas, which, as is natural, are the most studiously and elaborately explained.

The Niructa, with its copious commentaries on the obsolete words and passages of scripture, further authenticates the accuracy of the text, as there explained. The references, and quotations, in those works, agree with the text of the Védas, as we now find it.

The grammar of the Sanscrit language contains rules applicable to the anomalies of the ancient dialect. The many and voluminous commentaries on that, and on other parts of the grammar, abound in examples cited from the Védas: and here, also, the present text is consonant to those ancient quotations.

Philosophical works, especially the numerous commentaries on the aphorisms of the Mimánsá Vol. VIII. I i
and Védánta, illustrate and support every position advanced in them, by ample quotations from the Védas. •The object of the Mímánsí is to establish the cogency of precepts contained in scripture, and to furnish maxims for its interpretation; and, for the same purpose, rules of reasoning, from which a system of logic is deducible. The object of the Vedanta is to illustrate the system of mystical theology taught by the supposed revelation, and to show its application to the enthusiastic pursuit of unimpassioned perfection and mystical intercourse with the divinity. Both are closely connected with the Védas: and here, likewise, the authenticity of the text is supported by ancient references and citations.

Numerous collections of aphorisms, by ancient authors *, on religious ceremonies, contain, in every line, references to passages of the V'das. Commentaries on these aphorisms cite the passages at greater length. Separate treatises also interpret the prayers used at divers ceremonies. Rituals, some ancient, others modern, contain a full detail of the ceremonial, with all the prayers which are to be recited at the various religious rites for which they are formed. Such rituals are extant, not only for ceremonies which are constantly observed, but for others which are rarely practised; and even for such as have been long since disused.

[^126]In all, the passages taken from the $V$ edas agree with the text of the general compilation.

The Indian legislators, with their commentators, and the copious digests and compilations from their works, frequently refer to the V'das; especially on those points of the law which concern religion. Here also the references are consistent with the present text of the Indian scripture.

Writers on ethics sometimes draw from the $V$ edas illustrations of moral maxims; and quote from their holy writ, passages at full length, in support of ethical precepts*. These quotations are found to agree with the received text of the sacred books.

Citations from the Indian scripture occur in every branch of literature, studied by orthodos Hindus. Astronomy, so far as it relates to the calendar, has frequent occasion for reference to the Védas. Medical writers sometimes cite them; and even amotators on profane poets occasionally refer to this authority, in explaining passages which contain allusions to the sacred text.

Even the writings of the heritical sects exhibit quotations from the Védas. I have met with such in the books of the Jainas, unattended by any indication of their doubting the genuineness of the original, though they do not receive its doctrines, nor acknowledge its cogency $\dagger$.

[^127]In all these branches of Indian literature, while perusing or consulting the works of various aut thors, I have found perpetual references to the Tédas, and have frequently verified the quotations. On this ground I defend the authentic text of the Indian scripture, as it is now extant; and although the passages which I have so verified are few; compared with the great volume of the Védas, yet I have sufficient grounds to argue, that no skill, in the nefarious arts of forgery and falsification, could be equal to the arduous task of fabricating large works, to agree with the very mumerous citations, pervading thousands of volumes, composed on diverse subjects, in every branch of literature, and dispersed through the various nations of Hindus inhabiting Hindustan, and the Delhin.

If any part of what is now received as the $V$ éda, cannot stand the test of such a comparison, it may be rejected, as at least doubtful, if not certainly spurious. Even such parts as cannot be fully confirmerl by a strict scrutiny, must be either received with caution, or be set aside as questionable. I shall point out parts of the fourth Véda, which I consider to be in this predicament. But, with the exceptions now indicated, the various portions of the Vélas, which have bcen examined, are as yet free from such suspicion; and, until they are impeached by more than vague assertion, have every title to be admitted as gemuine copies of books, which (however little deserving of it) have been long held in reverence by the Hindus.

I am apprised that this opinion will find oppo-

[^128]nents, who are inclined to dispute the whole of Indian literature, and to consider it all as consisting of forgeries, fabricated within a few years, or, at best, in the last few ages. This appears to he grounded on assertions and conjectures, which were inconsiderately hazarded, and which have been eagerly received, and extravagantly strained.

In the first place, it should be observed, that a work must not be hastily condemned as a forgery, because, on examination, it appears not to have been really written by the person whose name is usually coupled with quotations from it. For if the very work itself show that it does not purport to be written by that person, the safe conclusion is, that it was never neant to be ascribed to him. Thus the two principal codes of Hindu law are usually cited as Menu's and Ya'jnyawalcya's: but in the codes themselves, those are dialogists, not authors: and the best commentators expressly declare, that these institutes were written by other persons than Menu and Yájnyawalcya*. The Sírya Sidd'hánta is not pretended to have been written by Meya: but he is introduced as receiving instruction from a partial incarnation of the Sun; and their conversation constitutes a dialogue, which is recited by another person in a different company. The text of the Sánc'luya philosophy. from which the sect of BUDD'HA seems to have borrowed its doctrines, is not the work of Capila himself, though vulgarly ascribed to him; but it purports to be composed by I's'wara Crăshn'a; and he is stated to have received the doctrine mediately from Capila, through successive teachers,

[^129]after its publication by Panchas'ic'ha, who had been himself-instructed by Asuri, the pupil of Capila.

To adduce more instances would be tedious: they abound in every branch of science. Among works, the authors of which are unknown, and which, therefore, as usual, are vulgarly ascribed to some celebrated name, many contain undisguised evidence of a more modern date. Such are those parts of Puránas, in which the prophetic style is assumed, because they relate to events posterior to the age of the persons who are speakers in the dialogue. Thus Budd'ha is mentioned under various names in the Matsya, Vishriu, Bhágavata, Garulda, Nrisinha, and other puran'as. I must not omit to notice, that Sancar'a'cha'rya, the great commentator on the abstrusest parts of the Védas, is celebrated, in the Vriliad d'harma purán'a*, as an incarnation of Vishinu; and Gaud'apa'da $^{\prime}$ is described, in the Sancara vijeya, as the pupil of Suca the son of Vrasa $\dagger$.

I do not mean to say, that forgeries are not sometimes committed; or that books are not counterfeited, in whole or in part. Sir W. Jones, Mr. Blaquiere, and myself, have detected interpolations. Many greater forgeries have been at-

[^130]tempted: some have for a time succeeded, and been ultimately discovered: in regard to others, detection has immediately overtaken the fraudulent attempt. A conspicuous instance of systema-, tic fabrication, by which Captain Wilford was. for a time deceived, has been brought to light, as has been fully stated by that gentleman. But though some attempts have been abortive, others may doubtless have succeeded. I am myself inclined to adopt an opinion supported by many learned Hindus, who consider the celebrated Sri Bhágarata as the work of a grammarian, supposed to have lived about six hundred years ago.

In this, as in several other instances, some of which I shall have likewise occasion to notice, the learned among the Hindus have resisted the impositions that have been attempted. Many others might be stated, where no imposition has been either practised or intended. In Europe, as well as in the East, works are often published anonymously, with fictitious introductions: and diverse compositions, the real authors of which are not known, have, on insufficient grounds, been dignified with celebrated names. To such instances, which are frequent every where, the imputation of forgery does not attach.

In Europe too, literary forgeries have been committed, both in ancient and modern times. The poems ascribed to Orpheus, are generally admitted not to have been composed by that poet, if, indeed, he ever existed. Nani, or Anvius, of Fiterbo, is now universally considered as an impostor, notwithstanding the defence of his publication, and of himself, by some among the learned of his age. In our own country, and in recent times, literary frauds have been not unfrequent.

But a native of India, who should retort the charge, and argue from a few instances, that the whole literature of Europe, which is held ancient, consists of modern forgeries, would be justly censured for his presumption.

We must not then indiscriminately condemn the whole literature of India. Even Father Hakdourn, when he advanced a similar paradox respecting the works of ancient writers, excepted some compositions of Cicero, Virgil, Horace, and Pliny.

It is necessary in this country, as every where else, to be guarded against literary impositions. But doubt and suspicion should not be carried to an extreme length. Some fabricated works, some interpolated passages, will be detected by the sagacity of critics in the progress of researches into the learning of the east: but the greatest part of the books, received by the learned among the Hindus, will assuredly be found genuine. I do not doubt that the Védas, of which an account has been here given, will appear to be of this description,

In pronouncing them to be genuine, I mean to say, that they are the same compositions, which, under the same title of Véda, have been revered by Hindus for hundreds, if not thousands, of years. I think it probable, that they were compiled by Dwa'pa'yana, the person who is said to have collected them, and who is thence surnamed $V y a ́ s a$, or the compiler. I can perceive no difficulty in admitting, that those passages, which are now ascribed to human authors, either as the Rishis, or as the reciters of the text, were attributed to the same persons so long ago as when'
the compilation was made; and probably, in most instances, those passages were really composed by the alleged authors. Concerning such texts as are assigned to divine persons, according to Hindu mythology, it may be fairly concluded, that the true writers of them were not known when the compilation was made; and, for this reason, they were assigned to fabulous personages.

The different portions which constitute the Védas, must have been written at various times. The exact period when they were compiled, or that in which the greatest part was composed, cannot be determined, with accuracy and confidence, from any facts yet ascertained. But the country may; since many rivers of India are mentioned in more than one text: and, in regard to the period, I incline to think, that the ceremonies called Yajnya, and the prayers to be recited at those ceremonies, are as old as the calendar, which purports to have been framed for such religious rites.

To each Véda a treatise, under the title of Jyótish, is annexed, which explains the adjustment of the calendar, for the purpose of fixing the proper periods for the performance of religious duties. It is adapted to the comparison of solar and lunar time with the vulgar or civil year; and was evidently formed in the infancy of astronomical knowledge. From the rules delivered in the treatises which I have examined *, it appears,

[^131]that the cycle ( $\mathcal{F} \log a)$ there employed, is a period of five years only. The month is lunar; but at the end, and in the middle, of the quinquemnial period, an intercalation is admitted, by doubling one month. Accordingly, the cycle comprises three common lunar years, and two, which contain thirteen lunations each. The year is divided into six seasons; and each month into half months. A complete lunation is measured by thirty lunar days; some one of which must of course, in alternate months, be sunk, to make the dates agree with the nycthemera. For this purpose, the sixtysecond day appears to be deducted *: and thus the cycle of five years consists of 1860 lunar days, or 1830 nycthemera; subject to a further correction, for the excess of nearly four days above the true sidereal year ; but the exact quantity of this correction, and the method of making it, according to this calendar, have not yet been sufficiently investigated to be here stated. The zodiac is divided into twenty-seven asterisms, or signs, the first of which, both in the Jyótish and in the Védas, is Crïttica, or the Pleiads. The place of the colures, according to these astronomical treatises, will be forthwith mentioned; but none of them hint at a motion of the equinoxes. The measure of a day by thirty hours, and that of an hour by sixty minutes, are explained; and the method of constructing a clepsydra is taught.

This ancient Hindu calendar, corresponding, in its divisions of time, and in the assigned origin of

[^132]the ecliptic, with several passages of the V'das, is evidently the foundation of that which, after successive corrections, is now received by the Hindus throughout India. The progress of those corrections may be traced, from the cycle of five *, to one of sixty lunar years (which is poticed in many popular treatises on the calendar, and in the commentary of the Jyótish); and thence, to one of sixty years of Jupiter; and, finally, to the greater astronomical periods of twelve thousand years of the gods, and a hundred years of Brahma'. But the history of Indian astronomy is not the subject of this essay. I shall only cite, from the treatises here referred to, a passage in which the then place of the colures is stated.

- Stuar ácramété sómár rcau yadi sácam sarásarcali; syát tadádiyugam, mághas, tapas, s'ucló, 'yanan hy udac.
- Prapadyété s'razishťhádau súryachándramasíu udac; sárp’ärd’hé dácshin'árcas tu: mág'ha-s'rára-

- Gharma-cividdhir, apím prasthah, cshapá-

[^133]hrása, udag gatau: dacshin'ć tau riparyastau, shari muthúrty-ayanéna tu.'

The following is a literal translation of this remarkable passage, which occurs in both the treatises examined by me.

- When the smin and moon ascend the sky torether, being in the constellation orer which the Vasus preside; then does the cycle begin, and the [season] Mágha, and the [month] Tapas, and the bright [fortnight], and the worthern path.
- The sun and moon turn towards the north at the beginning of S'avishtha; but the sun turns towards the south in the middle of the constellation over which the serpents preside; and this [his turn towards the south, and towards the north,] always [happens] in [the months of] Mágha and Srácíana.

[^134]the Vasus; as As'leshá is, to the serpents. The deities, presiding over the twenty-seven constellations, are enumerated in three other verses of the Jyblish belonging to the Yajush, and in several places of the Védas. The Jijotish of the Rich differs in transposing two of them; but the commentator corrects this as a faulty reading.

In several passages of the Jyótish, these names ${ }^{*}$ of deities are used for the constellations over which they preside; especially one, which states the situation of the moon, when the sun reaches the tropic, in years other than the first of the cycle. Every where these terms are explained, as indicating the constellations, which that enumeration allots to them*. Texts, contained in the Védas themselves, confirm the correspondence; and the comexion of $A$ siwini and the Aswins is indeed decisive.

Hence it is clear, that D`hunishthó and A'sléshí are the constellations meant; and that when this Hindu calendar was regulated, the solstitial points were reckoned to be at the begiming of the one, and in the middle of the other: and such was the situation of those cardinal points, in the fourteenth century before the Christian era. I formerly thad occasion to show, from another passage of the Védas, that th:e correspondence of seasons with months, as there stated, and as also suggested in the passage now quoted from the Jyotish, agrees with such a situation of the cardinal points.

I now proceed to fulfil the promise of indicating

[^135]such parts of the fourth Véda, as appear liable to suspicion. These are the remaining detached Upanishads, which are not received into the best collections of fifty-two theological tracts, belonging to the At'harva-véda; and even some of those which are there inserted, but which, so far as my inquiries have yet reached, do not appear to have been commented by ancient authors, nor to have been quoted in the whole commentaries on the Vedánta. Two of these Upanishads are particularly suspicious: one entitled Ráma tápaniya, consisting of two parts (Purva and Uttara); another called Gópála tápanìya, also comprising two parts, of which one is named the Crïshina Upanishad. The introduction to the first of these works contains a summary, which agrees in substance with the mythological history of the husband of Síta, and conqueror of Lancá. The other exalts the hero of Mat'hurá.

Although the Ráma tápaniya be inserted in all the collections of Upanishads, which I have seen; and the Gópála tápaníya appear in some; yet I amı inclined to doubt their genuineness, and to suspect that they have been written in times, modern, when compared with the remainder of the Védas. This suspicion is chiefly grounded on the opinion, that the sects, which now worship $R_{n^{\prime} m a}$ and Crishn'a as incarnations of Vishn'U, are comparatively new. I have not found, in any other part of the Védas, the least trace of such a worship. The real doctrine of the whole Indian scripture is the unity of the deity, in whom the universe is comprehended: and the seeming polytheism, which it exhibits, offers the elements, and the stars and planets, as gods. The three principal manifestations of the divinity, with other personificd attributes and energies, and most of the
other gods of Hindu mythology, are indeed mentioned, or at least indicated, in the Védas. But the worship of deified heroes is no part of that system; nor are the incarnations of deities suggested in any other portion of the text, which I have yet seen; though such are sometimes hinted at by the commentators.

According to the notions, which I entertain of the real history of the Hindu religion, the worship of RAmA, and of Crishn'a, by the Vaishiavas, and that of Mahadeiva and Bhava'ví by the Saizas and Sáctas, have been generally introduced, since the persecution of the Baudd has and Jainas. The institutions of the Védas are anterior to Budd'ha, whose theology seems to have been borrowed from the system of Capila, and whose most conspicuous practical doctrine is stated to have been the unlawfulness of killing animals, which in his opinion were too frcquently slain for the purpose of eating their flesh, under the pretence of performing a sacrifice or Yajnya. The overthrow of the sect of Budd'нa, in India, has not effected the full revival of the religious system inculcated in the Védas. Most of what is there taught, is now obsolete: and, in its stead, new orders of religious devotees have been instituted; and new forms of religious ceremonies have been established. Rituals founded on the Purian'as, and observances borrowed from a worse source, the Tintras, have, in great measure, antiquated the institutions of the Védas. In paticular, the sacrificing of animals before the idols of C $A^{\prime} \mathrm{Li}^{*}$,

[^136]has superceded the less sanguinary practice of the Yajinga; and the adoration of Ra'ma and of Crishn'a has succeeded to that of the elements and planets. If this opinion be well founded, it follows, that the Upanishads in question have probably been composed in later times, since the introduction of those sects, which hold $R_{\text {aja }}^{\prime}$ a and Gópála in peculiar veneration.

On the same ground, every Upanishad, which strongly favours the doctrines of these sects, may be rejected, as liable to much suspicion. Such is the A'tmábód’ha Upanishad *, in which Crishna is noticed by the title of Mad'hu-su'dana, son of Devací: and such, also, is the Sundaritápani $\dagger$, which inculcates the worship of $\mathrm{DE}^{\prime} \mathbf{v}$ r.

The remaining Upanishads do not, so far as I have examined them, exhibit any internal evidence of a modern date. I state them as liable to
of animals at their private clapels. The sect which has adopted this system is prevalent in Bengal, and in many other provinces of India: and the Sanguinary Chapter, translated from the Calica Purúna by a member of this society, (Asiatic Researclies, Vol. V. p.371,) is one among the authorities on which it relies. But the practice is not approved by other sects of Hindus.

* I have seen but one copy of it, in an imperfect collection of the Upanishads. It is not inserted in other compilations, which nevertheless purport to be complete.
+ According to the only copy that I have seen, it comprises five Upanishads, and belongs to the Al'harvana; but the style resembles that of the Tantras more than the $V^{\prime}$ 'das. It is followed by a tract, marked as belonging to the same $V^{\prime} d a$, and entitled Tripura Upanishad, or Traipuríya; but this diflers from another bearing the similar title of Tripuri Upanishad, and found in a different collection of theological treatises. I equally discredit both of them, although they are cited by writers on the Mantra sástra (or use of incantations); and although a commentary has been written on the Tripura, by Bhatita Bha'scara.
doubt, merely because I am not acquainted with any external evidence of their genuineness*. But it is probable, that further researches may ascertain the accuracy of most of them, as extracts from the Védas; and their authenticity, as works quoted by known authors. In point of doctrine, they appear to conform with the genuine $U p a$ nishads.

The preceding description may serve to convey some notion of the Védas. They are too voluminous for a complete translation of the whole: and what they contain, would hardly reward the labour of the reader; much less, that of the translator. The ancient dialect, in which they are composed, and especially that of the three first Védas, is extremely difficult and obscure: and, though curious, as the parent of a more polished and refined language (the classical Sanscrit), its difficulties must long continue to prevent such an examination of the whole Védas, as would be requisite for extracting all that is remarkable and important in those voluminous works. But they well deserve to be occasionally consulted by the oriental scholar.

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## IX.

A Botanical and Economigal Account of Bassia Butyracea, or East India Butter Tree.

by w. Roxburgh, m. D.

## BASSIA BUTYRACEA.

> Polyandria Monogynia.

GENERIC CHARACTER.
CALYX beneath, four or five leaved. Corol, © one petaled : Border about eight cleft. Berry superior, with from one to five Seeds.

Bassia Butyracea. Roxburgir.
Calyx five-leaved; Stamens thirty or forty, crowning the subcylindric tube of the Corol.

Fultwah, Phulwarah, or Phulwara, of the inhabitants of the Almorah hills, where the tree is jndigenous. Flowering time, in its native soil, the month of January; Seeds ripe in August.

Trunk of the larger trees, straight; and about five or six feet in circumference. Bark of the young branches smooth, brown, and marked with small ash-coloured specks.

Leaves alternate, about the ends of the branchlets, . petioled, obovate-cuneate, obtuse-pointed, entire; smooth above, villous underneath; veins simple, and paralle!; length, six to twelve inches; breadth, three to six.

Petioles, from one to two inches long.
Stipules, if any, minute, and caducous.
Flowers numerous, round the base of the young shoots, and from the axils of the lower leaves, peduncled, large, pale-yellow, drooping.

Calyx, four, five, or six leaved (five is by far the most common number); ovate, obtuse, covered externally with ferruginous pubescence, permanent.

Corol ; tube subcylindric, length of the calyx; border of eight, spreading, oblong, obtuse divisions, longer than the tube.

Stamens; filaments from thirty to forty, about as long as the tube of the Corol, and inserted on its mouth. Anthers linear-oblong.

Pistil, germ conical, (ten or twelve celled, one seeded,) downy, surrounded with a downy nectarial ring. Style longer than the stamens; stigma acute.

Berry oblong, generally pointed by a remaining portion of the style; smooth, fleshy, containing one, two, or three, rarely more, large seeds; the rest not ripened.

Seeds oblong, rather round than flat, but differ-
ing in shape according to the number contained in each fruit; smooth, shining, light brown, with a long, lanceolate, lighter coloured, less smooth, umbilical mark on the inside.

This tree, which is rendered interesting on account of its seeds yielding a firm butyraceous substance, resembles Bassia Latifolia, (see Coromandel Plants, Volume I, No. 19, also Asiatic Researches, Volume I, Page 300,) so much as scarce to be distinguished from it, except by the Corol and Stamina.

Here (in Bassia butyracea) the Corol is of a thin texture, with a tube nearly cylindric, and border of eight, large, spreading, oblong segments. There (in Bassia latifolia) it is thick and fleshy, with a gibbous, indeed almost globular tube; and border of generally more than eight, small, cordate, rather incurved segments.

Here, the Stamina, from thirty to forty in number, have long filaments inserted on the mouth of the tube of the Corol. There they are fewer in number; have very short filaments, and are arranged in two, or three series, completely zeithin the tube, to which they are affixed.

It may not be improper to notice here some other species of the same genus. The following Botanical description of Bassia longifolia. Linn. Mant. page 563, I have been favoured with by Doctor Klein, of Tranquebar, and the account of its economical uses by the Reverend Doctor John, of the same place.

## Description by Doctor Klein.

Calyx, Perianth: monophyllum, 4-partitum ; laciniis ovatis, acutis, coriaceis, extus tomento ferrugineo obductis, persistentibus.

Corolla monophylla, campanulata; tubo cylindraceo, inflato, carnoso, limbo 8 -partito; laciniis lanceolatis, erectis.

Stamina, filamenta 16, brevissima, in duos ordines divisa, quorum octo ad incisuras laciniarum, octo in tubo corollæ inserta. Antheræ lineares, setaceæ, acutæ, extus pilosæ, limbo breviores.

Pistil: Germen superum, ovatum. Stylus setaceus, corolla duplo longior. Stigma simplex.

Pericarp: drupa oblonga, 1-3 sperma, carnosa, lactescens. Seminibus subtrigonis oblongis.

Arbor magna; ramis sparsis, erectis, horizontalibusque.

Folia sparsa, petiolata, lanceolata, acuta, integerrima, glabra, venosa.

Flores longe-pedunculati, axillares, solitarii, et aggregati.
economical uses of the oil, or illeepei tree,

## Bassia longifolia.

## BY THE REVEREND DOC'TOR JOHN.

1st. The oil, pressed from the ripe fruit, is used as a common lamp oil, by those who cannot afford to buy the oil of the coco-nut. It is thicker, burns longer, but dimmer, smoaks a little, and gives some disagreeable smell.

2d. It is a principal ingredient in making the country soap, and, therefore, often bears the same price with the oil of the coco-nut.

3d. It is, to the common people, a substitute for ghee, and coco-nut oil, in their curries and other dishes. They make cakes of it, and many of the poor get their livelihood by selling these sweet oil cakes.

4th. It is used to heal different eruptions, such as the itch, $\dot{d} \mathrm{c}$.

5th. The cake (or Sakey) is used for washing the head; and is carried, as a petty article of trade, to those countries, where these trees are not found.

6th. The flowers, which fall in May, are gathered by the common people, dried in the sun, roasted, and eaten, as good food. They are also bruised, and boiled to a jelly, and made into small Kk 4
balls, which they sell or exchange, for fish, rice, and various sorts of small grain.

7th. The ripe fruit, as well as the unripe, is eaten by the poor, as other fruits. Of the unripe, the skin is taken off, and after throwing away the unripe kernel, boiled to a jelly, and eaten with salt and Capsicum.

8 th. The leaves are boiled with water, and given as a medicine, in several diseases, both to men, and to cattle.

9th. The milk of the green fruit, and of the tender bark, is also administered as a medicine.

10th. The bark is used as a remedy for the itch.

11th. The wood is as hard, and durable, as teak wood, but not so easily wrought, nor is it procurable of such a length for beams, and planks, as the former; except in clay ground, where the tree grows to a considerable height; but, in such a soil, it produces fewer branches, and is less fruitful, than in a sandy, or mixed soil, which is the best suited for it. In a sandy soil, the branches shoot out nearer to the ground, and to a greater circumference, and yield more fruit. These trees require but little attention; beyond watering them during the first two or three years, in the dry season. Being of so great use, we have here whole groves of them, on ligh, and sandy grounds, where no other fruit trees will grow.

12 th. We may add, that the owls, squirrels, lizards, dogs and jackals, take a share of the
flowers; but the vulgar belief is, that the latter, especially in the time of blossom, are apt to grow mad, by too much feeding on them.

Bassia obovata, Forster's Prod. No. 200: a native of the Isle of Tanna, in the South Sea. Of this species, I possess no other account than the definition, which corresponds with the habit of the genus. If Forster has left us no account of the uses of the tree, it may be worth while to make inquiry, when an opportunity offers.

Park's Shea, or butter tree of Africa, we have reason, from his description, and figure, as well as from analogy, to suppose a species of this same genus. At page 352 (of his travels in the interior of Africa) he says," The appearance of the fruit evidently places the Shea tree in the natural order of Sapotce, (to which Bassia belongs, and it has some resemblance to the Madhuca tree (Bassia latifolia), described by Lieutenant Charles Hamilton, in the Asiatic Researches, Volume I, page 300.
"The people were every where employed in collecting the fruit of the Shea trees, from which they prepare a vegetable butter, mentioned in the former part of this work *. These trees grow in great abundance all over this part of Bambarra.

[^138]They are not planted by the natives, but are found growing naturally in the woods; and in clearing woodland for cultivation, every tree is cut down but the Shea. The tree jtself, very much resembles the American oak, and the fruit, from the kernel of which, first dried in the sun, the butter is prepared, by boiling the kernel in water, has somewhat the appearance of a Spanish olive. The kernel is enveloped in a sweet pulp, under a thin green rind ; and the butter produced from it, besides the advantage of its keeping the whole year without salt, is whiter, firmer, and to my palate, of a richer flavour, than the best butter I ever tasted made of cows milk. The growth and preparation of this commodity, seem to be amongst the first objects of African industry, in this and the neighbouring states; and it constitutes a main article of their inland commerce." Park's Travels in Africa, page 202-3.

In the following account of the Bassia Butyracea, by Mr. Gott, we find the people of Almorah eat the dregs, left after the finer parts have been extracted; consequently there can be little doubt of the wholesomeness of the pure vegetable butter. itself. The thick oil of Bassia latifolia, and longifolia, the natives of various parts of India, either use alone, or mixed with ghee (clarified butter), in their diet.

On Captain Hardwicke's departure for England, in the beginning of 1803, he gave me a small quantity of the above-mentioned substance, observing, that the only account he could give me of it was, that it was reported to him to be a vegetable product from Almorah, or its neighbourhood, where it is called Futzah, or Phulzarah. In consequence of thjs information, I applied to

Mr. Gotr, (who is stationed in the vicinity of that country, ) to make the necessary inquiries; and from him I procured an abundance of well preserved specimens, at various times, in leaf, flower, and fruit. From these, and that gentleman's account of the tree, and its product, the foregoing description, and the annexed figures, were taken.

The same sanple, which I got from Captain Hardwicke, in Jamuary 1803, I have still by me. It remains perfectly sweet, both in taste and smell. Its flavour is that of cloves; having, I presume, been perfumed with that spice, previously to its falling into his hands, a practice mientioned in the following narrative. At this instant the thermometer is at ninety-five, and for these six weeks, it has rarely been below ninety, and has often risen to one hundred, or more, yet it continues about as firm as butter is in England during winter.

Mr. Gort's account of the tree, and its product, is as follows:-

The tree producing a fat-like substance, known in this country by the name of Phutwah, is a native of the Almorah hills, and known there by the same name. The tree is scarce, grows on a strong soil, on the declivities of the southern aspects of the hills below Almorah, generally attaining the height, when full grown, of fifty feet, with a circumference of six. The bark, of such specimens as I have been able to obtain, is inclined to smoothness, and speckled ; it flowers in Jamuary, and the seed is perfect about August, at which time the natives collect them, for the purpose of extracting the above substance. On opening
the shell of the seed or nut, which is of a fine chesnut colour, smooth, and brittle; the kernel appears of the size aud shape of a blanched almond: the kernels are bruised, on a smooth stone, to the consistency of cream, or of a fine pulpy matter; which is then put into a cloth bag, with a moderate weight laid on, and left to stand, till the oil, or fat, is expressed, which becomes immediately of the consistency of hog's-lard, and is of a delicate white colour. Its uses are in medicine; being highly esteemed in rheumatism, and contractions of the limbs. It is also much esteemed, and used by natives of rank, as an unction, for which purpose, it is generally mixed with an Utr of some kind. Except the fruit, which is not much esteemed, no other part of the tree is used.

This tree is supposed to bear a strong affinity to the Mawa, (Madhuca, or Bassia latifolia;) but the oil or fat, extracted from the seeds, differs very materially. The oil from the Marea, is of a greenish-yellow colour, and seldom congeals. That from the Phulwah congeals, immediately after expression, is perfectly colourless; and, in the hottest weather, if melted by art, will, on being left to cool, resume its former consistency. The oil from the seed of the Mawa, if rubbed on woollen cloth, leaves as strong a stain as other oils or animal fat. The fatty substance from the Phulwah, if pure, being rubbed on woollen cloth, will leave no trace behind.

The oil of Maiva is expressed in considerable quantities, about Cawnpoor, and Furvuckabad, and being mixed with, is sold as ghee.

This fatty substance very rarely comes pure from
the hills, and receives more and more adulteration, (by adding the purest ghee,) as it passes down to the lower provinces : age gives it the firmness of pure tallow.

ADDITIONAL REMARKS BY THE SAME, IN CONSEQUENCE OF A FEW QUERIES TRANSMITTED TO MR. GOTT.

It is supposed there might be annually procured from twenty to thirty maunds, at the price of fourteen or fifteen rupees the maund.

1st. It is never taken inwardly as a medicine, nor is it used in diet; further than that the dregs, after the purer fatty substance is expressed, are eaten, as a substitute for ghee, by the peasants, or labourers, who extract the fit.

2d. I have some pure, which has been by me ten months, and it has neither acquired colour, nor bad smell.

3d. After it is imported into Rohilkhund, it is scented with Utr, (an essential oil,) and a little of the flour of the Indian corn (Zea Mays) is added, to increase its consistency. N. B. This flour is added on account of its peculiar whiteness.

4th. If it is clean, and free from dirt, it never undergoes any purification; if the contrary, it is heated, and filtered through a coarse cloth.

5 th. The flowers are never used. The pulp of the fruit is eaten by some ; it is of a sweet, and flat taste.

510 account of bassia butyracea, \&c.
The timber is white, soft, and porous; and is never made any use of by the natives. It is nearly as light as the Semul, or cotton tree (Bombax hej)taphyllum).


## X.

Description of a Species of Ox, named Gaya'l.

COMMUNICATED BY H. T. COLEBROOKE, ESQ.

THE Gayál was mentioned in an early volume of the researches of the Asiatic Society *, by its Indian name, which was explained by the phrase, 'cattle of the mountains.' It had been obscurely noticed (if indeed the same species of ox be meant,) by Knox, in his historical relation of Ceylon $\dagger$; and it has been imperfectly described by Captain Turner, in his journey through Bootun $\ddagger$. Herds of this species of cattle have been long possessed by many gentlemen, in the eastern districts of Bengal, and also in other parts of this province : but no detailed account of the animal, and of its habits, has been yet published in India. To remedy this deficiency, Dr. Roxburgh undertook, at my solicitation, to describe the Gayál, from those seen by him in a herd belonging to the Governor General. Dr. Buchanan has also obligingly communicated his observations on the same cattle: and both descriptions are here laid before the society; with information obtained from several gentlemen at Tipura, Silhet, and Chatgaon, relative to the habits of the animal. The original drawing, from which the plate has been taken, is

[^139]in the collection of Sir John Anstrumper, for whom it was drawn by a native artist in his service.

From the information which was first received, it was supposed that the Gayál would not engender cither with the buffalo, or with the common bull and cow, and must therefore constitute a distinct species in every system of classification. Although that be not confirmed, by the correcter information now obtained, yet on account of the considerable, and apparently permanent, difference between the common cow and the Gayál, this ought still, perhaps, to be considered as a distinct speçies, rather than as a variety. Its generic, and trivial names, with the synonyma, may be stated as follows.

## Bos Gavcus.

Synonyma: Sansc. Gaiaya; Hind. Gavaï, or Gayál; Beng. Gobaygoru; Pers. Gaujangali; mountaineers (Cricis, \&c.) east of Silhet, Méthana; mountaineers (Cúcís) east of Chatgaon, Shiál; Mugs, J'hongrua. Burmas, Núnec. Ceylon, Gairuera*.

Bos Bubalus Gauecra: Penvant $\dagger$.
'The Gayál', says Dr. Roxburgh, 'is nearly of the size and shape of the English bull. It has short horns, which are distant at their bases, and

[^140]rise in a gentle curve directly out and up: a transverse section, near the base, is ovate; the thick end of the section being on the inside. The front is broad, and crowned with a tuft of lighter coloured, long, curved hair. The dewlap is deep and pendent. It has no mane, nor hump; but a considerable elevation over the withers. The tail is short; the body covered with a tolerable coat of straight, dark-brown hair: on the belly, it is lighter coloured; and the legs and face are sometimes white.'

Doctor Buchanan thus describes it:
6 The Gayál generally carries its head with the mouth projecting forward like that of a buffalo. The head, at the upper part, is very broad and flat, and is contracted suddenly towards the nose, which is naked, like that of the common cow. From the upper angles of the forehead proceed two thick, short, horizontal processes of bone, which are covered with hair. On these are placed the horns, which are smooth, shorter than the head, and lie nearly in the plane of the forehead. They diverge outward, and turn up with a gentle curve. At the base they are very thick, and are slightly compressed, the flat sides being toward the front and the tail. The edge next the ear is rather the thinnest, so that a transverse section would be somewhat ovate. Toward their tips, the horns are rounded, and end in a sharp point. The eyes resemble those of the common ox ; the ears are much longer, broader, and blunter than those of that animal.
' The neck is very slender near the head, at some distance from which a dewlap commences; but this is not so deep, nor so much undulated,

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as in the Bos Zebu, or Indian ox. The dewlap is covered with strong longish hair, so as to form a kind of mane on the lower part of the neck; but this is not very conspicuous, especially when the animal is young.
' In place of the hump, which is situated between the shoulders of the Zebu, the Gayál has a sharp ridge, which commences on the hinder part of the neck, slopes grarlually up till it comes over the shoulder joint, then runs horizontally almost a third part of the length of the back, where it terminates with a very sudden slope. The height of this ridge makes the neck appear much depressed, and also adds greatly to the clumsiness of the chest, which, although narrow, is very deep. The sternum is covered by a continuation of the dewlap. The belly is protuberant, but in its hinder part is greatly contracted. The rump, or os sacrum, has a more considerable declivity than that of the European ox, but less than that of the Zebu.
' The tail is covered with short hair, except near the end, where it has a tuft like that of the common ox; but, in the Gayál, the tail descends no lower than the extremity of the tibia.
'The legs, especially the fore ones, are thick and clumsy. The false hoofs are much larger than those of the Zebu. The hinder parts are weaker in proportion than the forehand; and, owing to the contraction of the belly, the hinder legs, although in fact the shortest, appear to be the longest.

[^141]mane on the dewlap, and into a pencil-like tuft on the end of the tail. From the summit of the head there diverges, with a whirl, a bunch of rather long coarse hair, which lies flat, is usually lighter coloured than that which is adjacent, and extends towards the horns, and over the forehead. The general colour of the animal is brown, in various shades, which very often approaches to black, but sometimes is rather light. Some parts, especially about the legs and belly, are usually white; but in different individuals, these are very differently disposed.
' In the first column of the following table is the measurement of a full grown cow : in the second is that of a young male.

| From the nose to the summit of the |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |
| Distance between the roots of the |  |  |
| horns, | 010 | 09 |
| From the horns to th | 38 | 3 |
| From the shoulder to the insertion |  |  |
| Height at the shoulder, |  | 47 |
| Height at the loins, |  | 4 |
| Depth of the chest, |  |  |
| Circumference of the chest, |  | 5 |
| Circumference at the loins, | 510 | 5 |
| Length of the horns, | 12 |  |
| Length of the ears, |  |  |

'The different species of the ox kind may be readily distinguished from the Gayál by the following marks. The European and Indian oxen by the length of their tails, which reach to the false hoofs; the American ox by the gibbosity on LI 2
its back; the Bores moschatus, Cafer, and pumilus, by having their horns approximated at the bases; the Bos grunniens by its whole tail being covered with long silky hairs; the Bos Bubalus, at least the Indian buffalo, by having the whole length of its horns compressed, and by their being longer than the head, and wrinkled; also by its thin coat of hair, by its want of a dewlap, and, above all, by its manners; the Bos barbatus by the long beard on its chin.
'The cry of the Gaydal has no resemblance to the grunt of the Indian ox, but a good deal.resembles that of the buffalo. It is a kind of lowing, bit shriller, and not near so loud as that of the European ox. To this, however, the Gayál approaches much nearer than it does to the buffalo.'

The result of inquiries made by Mr. Macrae, at Chatgaon, has been communicated by that gemtleman, in the following answer to questions which were transmitted to him.

[^142]however, that he is an animal very little known beyond the limits of his native mountains, except to the inhabitants of the provinces above-mentioned.
' 'The Gayál is of a dull heary appearance; but, at the same time, of a form which indicates much strength and activity, like that of the wild buf-, falo. His colour is invariably brown; but of different shades, from a light to a dark tinge; and he frequently has a white forehead, and four white legs, with the tip of the tail also white. He has a full eye, and, as he advances in age, often becomes blind; but it is uncertain whether from discase, or from a natural decay. His disposition is gentle; even when wild, in his native hills, he is not considered to be a dangerous animal, never standing the approach of man, much less bearing his attack. The Cúcís liunt the wild ones for the sale of their flesh.
'The Gayál delights to range about in the thickest forest, where he browses, evening and morning, on the tender shoots and leaves of different shrubs; seldom feeding on grass, when he can get these. To avoid the nonnday heat, he retires to the deepest shade of the forest; preferring the dry acclivity of the hill, to repose on, 'rather than the low swampy ground below; and never, like the buffalo, wallowing in mud.

- Gayduls have been domesticated among the Cucis from time immemorial; and without any variation, in their appearance, from the wild stock. No difference whatever is observed in the colour of the wild and tame breeds: brown of different shades being the general colour of both. The
wild Gayat is about the size of the wild buffalo of India. The tame Gayál, among the Cúcís, being bred in nearly the same habits of freedom, and on the same food, without ever undergoing any labour, grows to the same size with the wild one.
' He lives to the age of fifteen, or twenty, years: and, when three years old, the Gayál cow receives the bull; goes eleven months with young; and will not again admit his embrace until the following season after she has brought forth.
'The Gayál cow gives very little milk, and does not yield it long; but, what she gives is of a remarkably rich quality; almost equally so with the cream of other milk, and which it also resembles in colour. The Clici's make no use whatever of the milk, but rear the Gayáls entirely for the sake of their flesh and skins. They make their shields of the hides of this animal. The flesh of the Gayál is in the highest estimation among the Cucis; so much so, that no solemn festival is ever celebrated without slaughtering one or more Gayalls, according to the importance of the occasion.
- The Cúcís train their Gayáls to no labour ; although, from the great strength and gentle disposition of the animal, he must be very competent to every purpose, cither of draught, or carriage, to which the buffalo, or the ox, is applicable.
' The domesticated Gayáls are allowed by the Cucis to roam at large, during the day, through the forest, in the neighbourhood of the village:
but, as evening approaches, they all return home, of their own accord; the young Gayál being early taught this habit, by being regularly fed every night. with salt, of which he is very fond: and, from the occasional continuance of this practice, as he grows up, the attachment of the Gayál to his native village, becomes so strong, that, when the Cúcis migrate from it, they are obliged to set fire to the huts which they are about to leave, lest their Gayals should return thither from their new place of residence, before they become equally attached to it, as to the former, through the same means.
> - The wild Gayál sometimes steals out from the forest in the night, and feeds in the rice fields bordering on the hills. The Cúcís give no grain to their cattle. With us, the tame Gayalls feed on Calái (phaseolus max); but, as our hills abound with shrubs, it has not been remarked, what particular kind of grass they prefer.
- The Hindus, in this province, will not kill the Gabay, which they hold in equal veneration with the cow. But the As'l Gayál, or Seloï, they hunt, and kill, as they do the wild buffalo. The animal, here alluded to, is another species of Gayál found wild in the hills of Chatgaon; a correct description of which will be given hereafter. He has never been domesticated; and is, in appearance and disposition, very different from the common Gayál, which has been just described. The natives call him the $A$ s'l Gayál in contradistinction to the Gabay. The Cucis distinguish him by the name of Seloi, and the Mug's and Burmas by that of P'hanj; and they consider him, next to the tiger, the most dangerous and the fiercest anima of their forests.'
- The Gayá (Mr. Eliot writes from Tipura, ) is little known to the natives here; it is principally considered as an inhabitant of the Chatgaon hills. In conversation with people belonging to the Raja of Tipura, on the subject of this animal, I have understood, that it is known in the recesses of the more eastern part of the Tipura hills, but has never been caught. In the past year, some of these animals were seen in a herd of elephants, and continued some time with the herd: but they were alarmed by the noise used in driving the elephants, and escaped being secured in the fenced enclosure. The K'héda of that season was nearly five hours journey from the skirts of the hills.
' The animal is found wild, but is casily rlomesticated, though, in this state, he essentially partakes of wild habits. I have some Gayáls at Mumamutty; and, from their mode of feeding, I presume, that they keep on the skirts of the vallies, to enable them to feed on the sides of the mountain, where they can browse. They will not touch grass, if they can find shrubs.
- While kept at Camerlah, which is situated in a level country, they used to resort to the tanks, and eat on the sides; frequently betaking themselves to the water, to avoid the heat of the sun. However, they becane sickly, and emaciated; and their eyes suffered much. But, on being sent to the hills, they soon recovered, and are now in a healthy condition. They seem fond of the shade; and are observed in the hot weather to take the turn of the hills, so as to be always sheltered from the sun. They do not wallow in mud like buffaloes; but delight in water, and stand in it, during the greatest heat
of the day, with the front of their heads above the surface.
$\checkmark$ Each cow yields from two and a half, to about four sérs, of milk ${ }^{*}$, which is rich, sweet, and almost as thick as cream; it is of a high flavour, and makes excellent butter.'

Information, decisive of the question, whether the Gayal engender with the common Indian bull, has been received from Mr. Bird, at Dacca; who - having brought a domesticated female Gayál from - Chittagong to that place, and not being able to ' procure a male Gayál at Daccu, directed a common 'bull $\dagger$ to be presented to her, which the female ' received, upon being blinded by a cloth thrown ' over her eyes: the issue was a cow resembling ' mostly the Gayál mother; and from that cow, ؛ impregnated by a bull of the same common breed, ' another cow was produced, which also had grown 'up and was in calf by a common bull, at the 'date of Mr. Bird's letter.'

Mr. Dick communicated the following answer from Silhet.

- Not being able to procure, here, any satisfactory information respecting the Gayál, I transmitted questions to my Valíl at Cáchilhár (having muderstood, that those mimals had been sent hither, from that place, and desired him to obtain the most correct information on the subject.

[^143]- With regard to the Hindus scrupling to kill a Gayál, I could not obtain a direct answer: as the word "Gó" is affixed to one of the names, from which they infer that it partakes of the cow, and are afraid positively to declare, that it is not improper to kill the animal; quoting a passage from the Sástra, "Gósadrǐs'ah Gavayah," 'a Gavaya is like an ox.' However, the Rájá of Cách’hár, who is a Cshatriya of the Súryabansi race, occasionally sends several Gayáls to be sacrificed on certain hills in his country, in order to conciliate the Dévatá of the place; as his Vakil informs me.'

The answers received from the Vakil at Cáchhár, to the questions forwarded by Mr. Dick, contain the following information.

- The Gayál is called Gaujangali' in the Persian language, Gavaya in Sanscrit, and Mét'haná by the mountaineers: but others name the animal Gobay-goru.
- Gayáls are not confined to the woods: they are domesticated. But wild Gayáls are found in the mountains of Bhótant, \&c. They are kept, in a tame state, by the people who inhabit the Cálínágá hills, near the district of Clihilhet (Silhet), on the eastern border of the province of Cáclihar, west of Man'ipirr, and north of a tract dependant on Tripura, Cálánágás, Cúcis, and Khás"'s (tribes of mountaineers), keep Gayads for the sake of the flesh, not for the milk, which they do not use; nor for burden, since they have no such employment for their cattle.

[^144]five years; and the female is generally higher than the male. She receives the bull in her fifth year, and bears after ten months. If milked, she yields from two, to two and a half, sérs of milk *, or sometimes more.
'The tame Gayáls, however long they may have been domesticated, do not at all differ from the wild; unless in temper: for the wild are fierce and untractable. The colour of both is the same; namely, that of the antelope; but some are white, and others black: none are spotted, nor piebald. They graze and range like other cattle; and eat rice, mustard, chiches, and any cultivated produce ; as also chaff and chopped straw.
" The Gavaya is like a cow ;" consequently, not the same with a cow; a Hindu, therefore, commits no offence by killing one. But natives of Bengal, or of the mountains, who are Hindus, scruple to kill a Gayál themselves, because it is named Gobay-goru (or the Gávaya cow).'

To this answer, an addition was made by the Raja's Vakil, at Silhet.

- Mét'hainás are sacrificed, especially by Nágús and Cúcís, before the mountain gods, Nülharam and Mä̈ram. The Cácis and Nágás are fond of the meat; and, therefore, constantly keep such cattle, and eat their flesh; and often make presents of them to the Rajja of Cách'hár. The Raja preserves them, and sometimes offers Méthanais in sacrifices to deities ; or entertains, with their flesh, Nágás and Cúcís, who come to visit him. The

[^145]mountaineers are much pleased with that compliment, and eat the meat with delight.'

This information has established (what I had previously conjectured), that the animal mentioned by many Sanscrit authors, under the name of Gavaya, is no other than the Gayál. Amera Sinha, in a chapter of his dictionary relating to animals, mentions the Gavaya with many wild animals; among which are the black antelope, the spotted axis, the porcine deer, the painted or white-footed antelope, the grunting $0 \times$, and the musk deer. One of his commentators (ra'yamucuta) says of the Gavaya, that, in shape, it resembles the ox. He had previously compared the form of the grunting ox (Bos grumiens.) to that of a buffalo. Another annotator states Gavaya, as a name received into the common dialects. Both agree in deriving the word from Gó, a bull or cow, and aya knowledge; because, as they remark, 'one might take it for an ox.'

The Raja-nighanti, an excellent catalogue of natural productions, with their reputed qualities in the Materia Medica, states Gavaya as synonymous with Vana-gó, or wild ox: also called in Sanseryt, Balabhadra and Máhágcra: and, in the vulgar dialect, Gavaï. Another vocabulary has added Gucánúca to the Sanscritt synonyma; and, according to the Raja-nighanti, the female is likewise named Bhilliagavi, or cow of the Bhillas, (a tribe of piliagers and mountaincers).

No further evidence would seem necessary, had not the Bhavapracása, a celebrated medical work, confounded the Gacaya with the Rissya, or Rishya, (in Hindt, Rójh), which is the painted or white-footed antelope, called Nilgau. Mada-

NAPA'LA, in a similar catalogue of animals considered relatively to their medical uses*, has fallen into the same error; and so, probably, other writers may have done, who inhabit countries where the Gayál is little known.

To correct this mistake, (without relying on the separate mention of the two animals in the Ameraésha,) I shall cite no less an authority, than the Indian scripture. The twenty-fourth chapter of the Vía asanéyi Yajurvéda, enumerates the animals, which should be consecrated to various deities, at an $A s^{\prime}$ waméd $\neq$ a. It is there directed (v. 27), that three Rursyas, (white-footed Antelopes,) shall be consecrated to the deities named Vasus; and, towards the close of the next verse ( r .23 ), it is required, that three buffaloes shall be presented to Varux'a, as many Gavayas to Vrihaspati, and the same number of camels to Twasht'ri. The commentator on the Véda, (Mahid'hara,) explains Gavaya, as signifying, 'wild cattle resembling kine.' It is evident, that this suits better with the Gayall, than with any other animal known in India.

From the authorities abore quoted, the Sanscrit synonyma may be safely concluded. But it is not so easy to determine a Persian name of this species of ox. Gaujungali, or cow of the forest, mentioned by Mr. Dick's Vakíl at Cáclihár, is a suitable designation; but it does not occur, so far as I can learn, in any Persian work of authority. It may be necessary to caution the reader, not to suppose the Persian Gáucóhí (which literally signifies, as Mr. Gladwin translated it $\dagger$,

[^146]mountair cow), to be this, or any other species of the ox. The Tohfatuilmuminin, and Malhzemu'ladviyeh, two celebrated treatises by Persian physicians, concur in describing the three varieties of Gaucóhí, also named Gausen, or Gózen, and in Arabic, Iyyal, or Uyyal, as three sorts of deer: and the last mentioned work declares it to be the same with the Hindi Bárehsing'há, or Cervus Elaphus.

I take this opportunity, while treating of a species of ox, to notice an error which crept into Kerr's unfinished translation of the animal kingdom in Linneus's Systema Naturæ; and which has been followed by Doctor Turtov in translating the general system of nature by Linneus. Mr. Kerr described and figured, under the name of Bos Arnee, an animal, which, notwithstanding the exaggerated description, given on the authority of 'a British officer, who met with one in the woods, in the country above Bengra*', is evidently nothing else but the wild buffalo, an animal very common throughout Bengal, and known there, and in the neighbouring provinces of Hindostan, by the name of Arna. Though neither fourteen feet high, as Mr. Kera has stated, or rather as the officer, on whose information he relied, had affirmed; nor even eight feet, as Doctor Turton, following Kerris inference from a drawing, asserts; yet it is a large and very formidable animal, conspicuous for its strength, courage, and ferocity. It may not be true, that the buffaloes of Asia and Europe constitute a single species; but, certainly, the wild and tame buffalocs of India do

[^147]not appear to differ in any thing, except the superior size, and more uniform figure, of the wild animal. A better description of the buffalo, than has been yet given, is perhaps wanted; but the Bos Arnee, of Kerr and Turton, must be rejected from systems of roology, as an erroneous description taken from a loose drawing, assisted by the fragment of a skeleton.

## APPENDIX.

Introductory Remarks, intended to have accompanied Captain Mahony's Paper on Ceylon, and the Doctrines of Buddha, published in the Seventh Volume of the Asiatic Researches, but inadvertently omitted in publishing that Volume.

> by J. h. harington, esq.

IHAVE the pleasure of laying before the Society a paper on the island of Ceylon, and on the religious opinions of the greater part of its inhabitants, the worshippers of Boodh, or Buddha, whose religion and philosophy appeared to Sir W. Jones, "connected with some of the most curious "parts of Asiatic history *," and the period of his appearance an important epoch in Hindoo Chronology $\dagger$.

This paper, which has been procured by the Honourable Mr. Duncan, from Captain Mahony, an officer of the Bombay establishment, for some time resident on the Island of Céylon, has, with another paper already communicated to the Society by Captain Mackenzie, anticipated and superseded some cursory remarks written by myself, during a short residence at Columbo, in the year 1797; and which I had hoped to render more worthy of perusal, on receiving a translation of the Peerózóíná Pótá, an ancient book composed in the Páli language by 'Anunda' Ma'ha' Tiru'na'shee,

[^148]which was given to me by a priest of BuDdHa, as containing a full account of his religion; and which I left to be translated at Columbo, by Monsicur De Hoan, with the assistance of Lewis De Sylva. But the French version made by them was unfortunately put on board the Greemwich, captured by a vessel from the Isle of France; and it has consequently never reached me. We shall not, however, have to regret this accident, if Captain Mahony, who has given an extract from an historical work, the Maha Raja Wallieh, or as a copy of it shewn to me was called, the Rájúroulee Puttur, shall hereafter favour the society with the communication of the authentic materials for a history of the Singalese, their religion, manners, and customs, which I understand to be in his possession.

In the mean time I beg the Society's acceptance (for their Museum) of two small images of Boodr, which I procured at Columbo; and of two others brought from the Burmah dominions by Captain Cox, late resident at Rangoon; the identity of which proves incontestibly that the object of worship on the Eastern peninsula, and the Island of Ceylon, is the same. I also beg to deposit in the Society's library the accompanying copy of the Peerórecimá Pótáa above-mentionerl, of which, at some future perior, we may hope to procure another translation, if that carried to Bourbon or Mauritius, should not find its way to Europe, and the public.

I shall only add my testimony to that of Captain Mahony, as to the period at which the Singalese compute the appearance of Gou'tama BudDifa; whose death, or rather disappearance from the earth, they state to have been 2339 years be
fore 1797 A. C. or 542 years before the birth of Christ; and as their sacred era is reckoned from this epoch, it may be esteemed deserving of credit. It also corresponds, almost exactly, with the computation of the same era in Siam, as stated by Mr. Marsden, in his tract on the chronology of the Hindus; wherein, speaking of Siam, he observes, "the civil reckoning is by lunar years, consisting "ordinarily of twelve months each, with an inter"calation of seven months in the period of nine"teen years, and commencing with the new moon "that precedes the winter solstice. This era is "computed from the supposed time of the intro"duction of their religion by Summonacodom, " 544 years before Christ; or in the year of the " Julian period 4169."

The real time at which Buddha, the son of Sudhódun, (from whom he has the appellation Soídhó-dámi, in the Amara-cósha,) propagated the heterodox doctrines ascribed to lim by his followers, and for which they have been branded as atheists, and persecuted as heretics, by the Bradhmens, is, however, a desideratum which the learned knowledge, and indefatigable research, of Sir W. Jones have still left to be satisfactorily ascertained. His usual candour induced him to acknowledge his origimal error, in supposing this Buddha to have been the Woden of the Goths, and genius of the planet Mercury*; and the passage from the Bhagratamrita, quoted in his dissertation on the chronology of the Hindus, which states that Buddha, (the ninth 'Aratít'), "be"came visible the thousand and second year of the

[^149]"Cáli-age being past," is, I find, open to another reading, which makes it the second thousandth year, or the year 2000 , instead of 100 g . At least it was so interpreted to me by Ra'dha'ca'nt, the very Pundit who is mentioned by Sir William Jones, as having produced to him the book, from which the passage in question is quoted, and who is now one of the Pundits of the court of Sudr Deetoónce A'dálut. His interpretation was also confirmed to me by Survó Te'waree, the other Pundit of the court; but in justice to our revered Founder, whose regard to truth I have but imitated in this remark, I must add, that Mr. Blaquiere, whose knowledge of the Sanscrit language is too well known to need my testimony, concurs in the reading and version of Sir WiLliam Jones.

Another point yet to be ascertained is, whether Buddha, the ninth 'Avatár of the Hindus, be the same with the heretic Buddha, now worshipped at Ceylon, and in the eastern peninsula; as well as in China, Bootan, and Tibet. Sir William Jones, in his dissertation on the Gods of Greece, Italy, and India*, observes on Buddha, that "he seems "to have been a reformer of the doctrines con"tained in the Vídas; and though his grood na" ture led him to censure these ancient books, be" cause they enjoined sacrifices of cattle, yet he is "admitted as the ninth A'vatár, cren by the "Brahmens of Cásí." Captain Wilford, in his dissertation on Egypt and the Nile $\dagger$, after mentioning the subversion of the religion and government of Déva'da'sa, the sovereigin of Benares, by

[^150]
## CAPTAIN MAHONY'S PAPER ON CEYLON. 533.

Vishne, in the character of Jina, Ma'ha'déva in the form of Arhan, or Mahima'n, and BrahMA' in the figure of BudDHA, remarks, " most of " the Bráhmens insist that the Buddha, who per"verted DE'VA'DA'sA, was not the ninth incarna" tion of Vishnu, whose name, some say, should " be written Boudha, or Bóddha; but not to " mention the Amarcósh, the Mughdha-bodh, and " the Gíta-góvind, in all of which, the ninth A'va"tár is called Buddha, it is expressly declared in "the Bhágarat, that Vishsu should appear ninth" ly in the form of "Buddha," son of JiNA, for "the purpose of confounding the Daityas, at a "place named Cícata, when the Cáli-age should "be completely begun."

In this quotation, the ninth $A^{\prime}$ 'catior is called the son of Jina; (perhaps as a descendant from Jina, or as having adopted part of his doctrines; ) but the present worshippers of Bundma state him to be the son of Sudhodus, and those from whom Abonlfuzul took his account of Boodir in the Ayeen Alibery, gave him the same information; in which they are supported by the Amara-cósha, as already noticed. The followers of Boodri, at Ceylon, although their long intercourse with the Hindus (especially since they have been governed by a Hindlú prince) has introduced some Hindd̂ tenets and observances, in addition to what may have been originally derived from them, also positively deny that their Boodn is the Find $\hat{u}$. $\mathcal{l}^{\circ} \cdot a-$ tár. The conclusion of Sir W. Joxes*, that a sccond Buddha, assuming the name and character of the first, attempted to overset the system of the

[^151]$$
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$$
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Bráhmens, and was the cause of their persecution of the Boudhas, corresponds with, and is supported by, the information given to Aboolfuzul, who says, "The Bráhmens call Воодн the ninth "Avatár, but assert that the religion which is as"cribed to him is false, and fabricated by some " other person*."

* Sce further his account of this religion, in the Third Volume of Gladwin's Translation of the Ayeen Akbery, page 157.


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END OF THE EIGHTH VOLUMT.

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[^0]:    * Mr. Balfour is the anthor of the Paper in the Second Volume of the Asiatic Researches, entitle. a "Treatise on the in"troduction of the Arabic into the Persian, and language of "Hindostan."

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    B

[^1]:    * I express myself in this manuer for the sake of brevity, meaning that the paroxysms cecur in coincidence with the positions of the sun aud moen that occasion the tides. The tides, it is well known, do mot coincide with those exactly, but follow them a considerable time after.

[^2]:    * In several of the caces of the plague, recorded by Dr. PATRICK RUSSEl, the febrile paroxysms returned obviously every nevelve hours in coincidence with the periods of the tides; and his predecessur and relation, the author of the Natural History of Alcppo, says positively "that the generality of fevers there, and "indeed almost all acute diseases, are subject to exacerbations "once or twice is Iwenty-four hours." Vide Doctor Millar's Observations on the prevailing Diseases of Great Britain, page 203.

[^3]:    - Astronomie par Jerome Le Francais La Lande, Edition Truisieme Revue et Augmentee, Tone III, page 525.

[^4]:    * Having neglected to apply to the anthor of this lefter for his permission to give his name to the public; and being very unwilling to deprive the doctrine of lunar influence of the support, which it cannot fail to derive from such an evilence, I will now venture to discover, that he is no other than Doctor Helenus Scott, of Bombay. From the information of Doctor Hutton, who resided many years as Surgeon at Penang; and of Mr. James Lumsdaine, Surgeon for a number of years at Fort Marlbro'; I have now, alsn, the satisfaction to know, that solJunar influence shews its eficcis is a very conspicuous manner in the prevailing diseases of those islands; and that an attention to its laws, is of great importance on conducting their cure.

[^5]:    * The Plilosophical Magazine, Vol. V, page 105.

[^6]:    * Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte, page 343.
    + Vide the Transactions of the Roval Society, Vol. -
    $\ddagger$ Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte, page 399.
    || Doctor Moseley's Treatise on the Diseases of the West Indies, and Le P. Cotte.
    § At Berlin, by M. Changeux, vide Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte, page 618, at Pudua; by Mr. Toalno and lis Nephew, vide Țraié de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte. page 616, \&ic. Sic.

[^7]:    * Asfonmie par Jerone Le Francais La Lande, Tome III, Troisieme Llition Revue et Augmentée, additious et correc tions, page 737.

[^8]:    * It is an npinion in Egypt, that the fall of these dews, not only averls the plagie, but cures those whon are affected with it.
    N. B. Sosini, in vol. III, of his Travels in Egypt, gives very correct delintations of some of the most remaikable sculptures of this icrutle.

[^9]:    * Ahilya', wife of Gótama.

[^10]:    * When the polar star observations were made at Carangooly, no double azimuths could be taken, and therefore the latitude of the place was necessary to compute the azimuths, in order to get the direction of the meridian. As I wished to derluce the latitude of Carangrooly from that of the observatory at Mudras, the following method was used to obtain it.

    Let $P$ be the pole, $P T$ the meridian of Trivandeporum, $O$ the observatory at Madras; and let C be the station at Carangooly, $T$ that at Trivandeporim, $O M$ an arc of a great circle, perpendicular to PT, falling from the observatory, and Cm another perpendicular are from Carangooly. Then if the ratio of the earth's dianeters be taken as I to 1,003567 , and the degree on the mis-

[^11]:    "His discussion relative to the antiquity of the O

[^12]:    *This mut ! se a nisrepresentation of the Reviewer, see page 546, 547, of Vol. Y1. where I have mentioned aid described other sistems.
    J. B.

[^13]:    * Some writers of romance may have adopled these names as so many systems, but they liave nothing to do with real history or astronumy.

[^14]:    " By exinibiting the mean result only, we have given Mr. Bentley's argument an advantage to " which it is not entithed; the individual results "from cach of the ten data vary from 300 to 1100

[^15]:    Note-There being an error in the number of revolntions of Mercury, as given in the Súrya Sïddhínt/r, it is here omitted.See Asiatic lesearches, volume VI, section $6 i$, page 566 .

[^16]:    *The difference of $1^{\prime} 2^{\prime \prime}$ in the moon's place, arises from the rejection of the fraction $6^{\circ}$ in foming the number of revolutionsthe real quantity being $1+438334 \mathrm{rev} .0 \mathrm{~s} .6^{\circ}$, instead of which 14438334 was taken as the nearest entire namber-fractions not being admitted in the Mindu artificial systems, and the error prodaced in consequence $=\frac{10}{1} 000 \times 0^{\circ}=1^{\prime} 2^{\prime \prime}$ in A. D. 999. YnA.D. 1040, the error was nothing; since that time it hat encreased., and now anounts to upinards of cleven mainutes.

[^17]:    The Culpa is also divided minto 1000 Maka Yugs, of 2400 years each.

[^18]:    * The Trétú and Du'ápar together make 1200 years, which, divided by 50 , give 24 years to a reign. It is somewhat remarkable, that the principal Eastern nations date the commencement of their empires from nearly the same time. Thus we find the Chinese empire began under the dynasty of Hia, according to Playfair, ....................................... B. C. 2207
    The kingdom of Egypt, . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 2207
    The kingdom of Assyria, ........................- 2221
    The empire of India under the solar and lunar lines, —— 220 .4

[^19]:    * This Yug of five years is to be met with in many books.

    Q 2

[^20]:    * Cadmus, about fifteen centuries before Cirist, introriuced the Octeeteris, or cycle of eight years, into Greece. In this cycle there were ninety-nine lunations, of thirty lunar days each. Therefore,

    The lunar days in the cycle were, ................ 2970
    The lunar days in a year, $\ldots \ldots \ldots$........ $=\frac{2070}{8}=371 \frac{1}{4}$
    The ancient Hindus made it as above, .......... 372
    The difference is $\frac{3}{4}$ of a lunar day, which being taken from 366 the solar days, leave $365 \frac{1}{4}$ days for the year of Cadmus, -this in eight years makes 2922 solar days-Hence, $\frac{2 \Omega 29}{99}=29 \quad 12 \quad 21$ $499_{1 T}$ sec. the lumation of CADMUS, which is 124 short of the ancient IFindu lunation.

[^21]:    * This makes an error of one day in less than six years, which shews that the Hindus, at that period, could not determine the times of conjunctions and oppositions of the Sun and Moon for six years together correct, much less eclipses; the calculation of which they must have been then, and for many ages after, totally unacquainted with.

[^22]:    * This is the first system, so far as we yet know, in which the mames of the days of the week and the twelve signs were introrluced. These were probably received from the West, and the first point of Arics was fixed to that point in the Hindu sphere, $x$ hich corresponded with the instant of the vernal equinox, which, in the time of Brahma' Gupta, was the beginning of Aswini. This position has, therefore, a direct reference to the actual time

[^23]:    the twelve signs were first introduced, that is to say, near 1300 years ago; though hitherto but little, if at all, attended to by writers on the Hindu astronomy, \&c,

[^24]:    * The author of this system, as well as the time in which he lived, is well known to the learned, and subject to no doubt. Those who wish to see the age of the system determined from computatiun, may consult Vol. VI, Asiatic Researches, page 579-581.

[^25]:    Voz: VIII.

[^26]:    * The Brahmárda, Bhágavat, Vishn'u, and Váyu Purúnçe. Sections on Futunty.

[^27]:    * Plutarch de placit. philosoph.

[^28]:    * Asiatic Researches, Vol. III, page 364.

[^29]:    * Aparicn is a regular derivative form, hut not in use in this part of India: yet it is in the dialect from the Sanscrit cuirent in Ceyior, where it is written Aprica, and Avarega.
    +Isidorus de originibus.

[^30]:    * Asiatic Researches, vol. VII.
    $\dagger$ Alphab. Tibet, p. 58s, \&c.
    I 3

[^31]:    *Odyss. Lib. VIo. v. 4, et Lib. VII ${ }^{\circ}$. v. 8, Apollod. Bibloth, p. Lib. II. §. 10.

    + Procorius in Schol. ad Lib. 3, Regum,

[^32]:    * Lib. $6^{\circ}$. c. XIX.

[^33]:    * Asiatic Researches, Vol. VIT.
    + Uriph. Argonaut. Vel. XI, p. 187.

[^34]:    * In conseruence of this, Mr. Samued. Divys, some lime ago, requested a Gierman gentleman, well skilled in Natural His.

[^35]:    tory, and who was going upon the Ganges, for the benefit of his health, to stay at Rajamáhl, and ascertain, whelleer these were the remains of a Vielcuno or not. That gentleman, whose name I do not recollect now, having maturels examined every particular appearance about Muti-jirná and Rájemáhl, wrôte a shoit essay, in wam ne ph:ves these appearaccea to be Vulcanic, an it the cascade to be the undubitable remains of the crater of a rulcano.

[^36]:    * The word $S$ almala is generally understood to signify Bombax; but it signifies also such trees as produce cotton rinfit for spinniug; and I stall shew, when I come to treat of S'almaladuipa, that it is to be under:tood there of the willow.

[^37]:    * Strabo, Mb. MI, page 118 and 122.

[^38]:    Histoive des Muns, Vol. 11, in the beginning.

[^39]:    * Plutarch de flum.

[^40]:    * Lionni Diony. lib. XXVII. v. 150, \&c.

[^41]:    *Volume II, page 406.

[^42]:    * "liny, Lib. 6. c. 23.

[^43]:    * Pliny VI. c. $18^{\circ}$.
    $\dagger$ Curtius Vill. c. $9^{\circ}$.

[^44]:    * Mr. Forster renders the word Chunár by plane trees in his account of Cashmir, and he is perhaps right.

[^45]:    * Stephan of lyzantium ad vocem.

[^46]:    * Section of the Earth.

[^47]:    * Plutarch de fumin. voce Indus.

[^48]:    Within it is adorned with the self moving cars of the Gocls, all beautiful: in its petals are the abodes of the Gods, like heaven: in its thousand Vol. VIII. A a

[^49]:    * Isalah, chap. ii. v. G.-See also Bishop Lowth on Ismiah.

[^50]:    * Extracts have also been translated into the Hindi language : but it does not appear, upon what occasion this version into the vulgar dialect was made.

[^51]:    * See Preface to Menu, page vi. and the Works of Sir William Jones, Vol. VI.
    + Menu, chap 11, v. 33.
    $\ddagger$ Essay Second, on lieligious Ceremonies. See Asiatic Researches, Vol. VII. page 251.

    II From the 31st chapter; which, together with the preceding chapter (30th), relates to the Purushaméd'ha, a type of the allegorical immolation of NARA'YANA, or of BRAHMA in that character.

[^52]:    assigned. It will hereafter be shown, that the V'das are a compilation of prayers, called mantras; with a collection of precepts and maxims, entitled Brahmana; from which last portion, the Upanishad is extracted. The prayers are properly the Védas, and apparently preceded the Bráhmana.
    *When the study of the Indian scriptures was more general than at present, especially anong the Bráhman'as of Canyacubja, learned priests derived ittes from the number of Védas, with which they were conversant. Since every priest was bound to study one $V^{\prime}$ 'dn, no title was derived from the fulfilment of that duty ; but a person, who had studied two F'idas, was surnamed Duivédi; one, who was conversint with three, Trivédi; and one, versed in four, Chaturvédí: as the mythological poems were only figuratively called a $V^{\prime}$ 'da, no distinction appears to bave been derived from a knowledge of them, in addition to the four scriptures. The titles, abovementioned, have become the surnames of families among the Bráhmens of Canój, and are corrupted by vulgar pronunciation into Dóbé, Tiwíré, and Chanbé.

[^53]:    * Mad'husu'dana Saraswati', in the Prasthánabhéda.

[^54]:    * The authorities on which this is stated, are chiefly the Vishms purán'a, part 3, chap. 4, and the Vijeyavilása on the study of scripture; also, the Charan'avyúha, on the Sác'hás of the Vídas.

[^55]:    * The Vishnu purhin'n, part 3, chap. 5. A different motive of resentment is assigned by others.

[^56]:    * Vrihad Aranyaca ad calcem. The passage is cited by the commentator on the Rigveda. In the index likewise, Ya'JNyawalcya is stated to have received the revelation from the sun.
    + Cánd'ánucrama, verse 25. This index indicatorius is formed for the 'Atréý $S^{\prime}$ 'cc'há. Its author is Cun'dina, if the text (verse 27) be rightly interpreted.
    $\ddagger$ This agrees with the etymology of the word Taittiríya; for, according to grammarians (see Pünini 4. iii. :02), the derivative here implies 'recited by Tittiri, though composed by a different person.' A similar explanation is given by commentators on the Upanishads.

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    C c

[^57]:    * 'The explanation, here given, is taken from the Prast'hána bhéda.
    + I have several copies of it, with the corresponding index for the Sác'alya, S'ác'hú; and also an excelient commentary by SAYAN'A'Cha'rya. In amother collection of mantras, belonging to the 'As'waláyani S'ác'há of this Véda, I find the first few sections of each lecture agree with the other copies; but the rest of the sections are omitted. I question whether it be intended as a complete copy for that S'úc'há.
    $\ddagger$ Derived from the verb rich, to laud; and properly signifying any prayer or lymm, in which a deity is praised. As those are mostly in verse, the term becomes also applicable to such passages of any Véda, as are reducible to measure according to the rules of prosody. The first $V^{\prime}$ 'da, in Vya'sa's compilation, 1

[^58]:    comprehending most of these texts, is called the Riguéda; or, as expressed in the Commentary on the Index, "because it abounds with such texts (Rich)."

[^59]:    *Translating literally, "the Rishi is he, by whom the text was seen." Pan'ini (4. ii. 7) employs the same term in explaining the import of derivatives used as denominations of pasages in scripture; and his commentators concur with those of the

[^60]:    $V^{\prime} d a$, in the explanation here given. By Rishi is generally mcant the supposed inspired writer: sometimes, however, the imagined inspirer, is called the Rishi, or saint of the text; and, at other times, as above noticed, the dialogist or speaker of the sentence.

    * It appears from a passage in the Vijeya vilása, as also from the Védudipa, or abridged commentary on the Vajasanéyí, as well as from the index itself, that Ca'tyáyana is the acknowledged author of the index to the white Yajush. That of the Rigréda is ascribed by the commentator, to the same CA'tYA'yana, pupil of Saunaca. The several indexes of the Védis contribute to the preservation of the genuine text; especially, where the metre, or the number of syllables, is stated; as is generally the case.
    + First of the name, and progenitor of the race of Kings called chiidren of the moon.

[^61]:    * In the second lecture and fourteenth section of the fifth book.
    + Nig'lanti, or first part of the Miructa, C. 5.
    $\ddagger$ In the second and third sections of the twelfth chapter, or lecture, of the glossary and illustrations of the V'́da. The $\Lambda_{i}-$ ructa consists of three parts : the first, a glossary as above-mentioned, comprises five short chapters or lectures. The second, entitled Naigama, or the first half of the Niructa, properly so called, consists of six long chapters ; and the third entitled Daivata, or second half of the proper Niructa, contains eight more.

[^62]:    * Bhur, bhutah, and swar; called the Vyáhritis. See Menv, c. 2, v. 76. In the original text, the nominative case is here used for the genitive; as is remarked by the Commentator, on this passage. Such irregularities are frequent in the l'édas themselves.
    $\dagger$ Niructa, c. 12, §4, ad finem. The remainder of the passage, that is here briefly cited by the author of the Index, identifies fire with the great and only soul.

[^63]:    * Not a mythology which avowedly exalts deified heroes (as in the Purárias); but one, which personifies the elements and planets; and which peoples heaven, and the world below, with various orders of beings.

    I observe, however, in many places, the ground-work of legends, which are familiar in mythological poems; such, for example, as the demon Vritra, slain by Indra, who is thence surnamed Vritrahan; but I do not remark any thing that corresponds with the favourite legends of those sects, which worship either the Linga, or Sacti, or else Ra'ma or Crishn'a. I except some detached portions, the genuineness of which appears doubtful; as will be shown towards the close of this essay.
    † Sóma-latá, Asclepias acida, or Cynanchum viminale.

[^64]:    * S'ayan'ácha'rya, the commentator whose gloss is here followed, considers this passage to admit of two interpretations: - the light, or Brahme constituting the splendour, of the supreme ruler, or creator of the universe;' or 'the light, or orb, of the splendid sun.'

[^65]:    * This marriage is noticed in the Aitaréya Brahman'a, where the second lecture of the fourth book opens in this manner; - Prajápati gave his daughter, Su'ryá Sávitri', to Sóma, the king.' The well known legend in the Purínas, concerning the narriage of Soma with the daughters of Dacsha, seems to be founded on this story in the Vidas.
    fIn the introduction to the index, these, together with other goddesses, who are reckoned authors of holy texts, are enumerated and distinguished by the appellation of Brahmerádiní. An inspired writer is, in the masculine, termed Brahmevadin.
    $\ddagger$ 'Tuwards the end of the Vrihadáramyaca, $\mathrm{VA}^{\prime} \mathbf{\prime}$ сн is mentioned as recciving a revelation from Амвнi'ni, who obtainerl it from the sun: but here she herself bears the almost similar patronymic Ambhrin't'。

[^66]:    * Heaven, or the sky, is the father; as expressly declared in another place: and the sky is produced from mind, according to one more passage of the Védas. Its birth is therefore placed on the head of the supreme mind. The commentator suggests three interpretations of the sequel of the stanza: 'my parent, the holy Ambhrin'a, is in the midst of the ocean;' or, 'my origin, the sentient deity, is in waters, which constitute the bodies of the gods;' or, 'the sentient god, who is in the midst of the waters, which pervade intellect, is my origin.'

    D d 2

[^67]:    * Asiatic Researches, Vol. V. p. 361.
    $\dagger$ The pronoun (tad), thus emphatically used, is understood to intend the supreme being according to the doctrines of the Vedlinta. When manifested by creation, he is the entity (sat); while forms, heing mere illusion, are nonentity (asal). The whole of this lymn is expounded according to the received doctrines of the Indian theology, or Védanta. Darkness and desire (Tamas and Cama) bear a distant resemblance to the Chaos aud Eros of Hesiod. Theog. v. 116.

[^68]:    * So Swad'há is expounded: and the commentator makes it equivalent to Máyk, or the world of ideas.

    D d 3

[^69]:    - Asiatic Researches, Vol. VII. p. 251.

[^70]:    * I possess three entire copies of the text, but a part only of the commentary by Sa'YAN ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ CHa'RyA.
    $\dagger$ The index before-mentioned does not extend to this part of the Véda. .

    D d 4

[^71]:    * In the nominative case, Samrát', Samráá, or Samál ; substituting in this place a liquid letter, which is peculiar to the $V^{\prime} d a$, and to the southern dialects of India; and which approaches, in sound, to the common ?.

[^72]:    * In the nominative case, Swarát', Suarad, or Swaral.

[^73]:    * In the didactick portion of the T'eda, the last term, in cvery chapter, is repeated to indicate its conclusion. This repetition was $n: t$ preserved in a former quotation, from the necessity of varying considerably the order of the words.

[^74]:    * So great was the efficacy of conserration, observes the commentator in this place, that the submersion of the earth was thereby prevented, notwithstanding this declaration.

[^75]:    * It was through the solemn inauguration of ANGA, that his priest was able to give such great alms. This remark is by the Conmentator.
    + So the name should be written, as appears from this passage of the Védu; and not, as in copies of some of the Purán'as, Dushmanta, or Dusifanta.
    $\ddagger$ The several manuscripts liffer on this name of a country; and, having no other information respecting it, I am not confident that I have selected the best reading. This observation is applicable also to some other uncomiuon names.

[^76]:    * All this, says the commentator, shows the efficacy of inauguration.
    + It is here remarked, in the commentary, that a Bráhman'a, being incompetent to receive consecration, is however capable of knowing its form: the efficacy of which knowledge is shown in this place.

[^77]:    * So this observance is denominated, viz, Brahman'ah parimarah.
    $\dagger$ Behind a cloud.
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[^78]:    * The Taittiriya Yajurvéda contains a passage, which may serve to explain this notion; 'The sum, at eve, penetrates fire ; and, therefore, fire is seen afar at night: for both are luminens.'
    + At night, as the commentator now observes, the sun disanpears in fire: hut re-appears thence next day. Accordingly, fire is destitute of splendour by day, and the smin shines brighter.
    $\ddagger$ The moon, as is remarked in the commentary, disappears within the sun at the conjunction; but is reproduced from the sum, on the frst day of the bright fortnight.
    § Here the commentatur remaths, Rain enters the lumar orb, which consists of water; and, at a subsequent tume, it is repraduced from the moon.

[^79]:    * It is so affrmed by Anąndatírthe in his notes: and he, and the commentator, whom he annotates, state the original speaker of this Upanishad to be Mahida'sa, an incarnation of $N_{a}{ }^{\prime} a^{\prime} y_{a n}{ }^{\prime}$, proceeding from Vis'ála, son of Abja. He adds, that, on the sudden appearance of this deity at a solemn celebration, the whole assembly of gods and priests fainted: but, at the intercession of Brahma', they were revived; and, aftex making their obeisance, they were instructed in holy science: this suatira was called Marida'sa, because those venerable personages (Makin) declared themselves his slaves (dâa).

    In the concluding title of one transcript of this $A^{\prime} r a n ' y a$, I find it ascribed to A's'WALA'YANA: probably, by an error of the transcriber. On the other hand, Saunaca appears to be author of some texts of the A'ran'ya; for a passage, from the second lecture of the fifth (Ar. 5, lect. 2, §11), is cited as Saunaca's, by the commentator on the prayers of the Rigvéda (lect. 1, § 15).

    + I have two copies of Sancara's commentary, and one of anuolations on lis gloss by NA'RA'YAN E'NDRA; likewise a copy of SAYAN'A's commentary on the same theological tract, and also on the third A'ran'yaca; besides amotations by Anandati'nt'ha on a different gloss, for the entire Upanishad. The concluding prayer, or serenth lecture of the seconil A'ran'yaca, was omitted by Sancara, as sufficiently perspicuous: but is expounded by Sa'yan'a, whose exposition is the same, which is added by Sancara's commentator: and which transcribers sometimes subjoia to Sancara's gloss.

    As an instance of singular and needless frauds, I must mention, that the work of Anandati'rx'ha was sold to me, under a different title, as a commentary on the Tuitliriya sanhitl of the Yajurréda. The running titles, at the end of each chapter, had been altered accordingly. On examination, I found it to be a different, but valuable work; as above described.

[^80]:    * Ambhas water; and A'pas the waters. The commentators assign reasons for these synonymous terms being employed, severally, to denote the regions above the sky, and those below the earth.

[^81]:    * Apaia. From the aralogy between the acts af inhaling and of st allowing, the lather is considered as a sort of breath or inspination: felice the ait, dramn in ly deghtiton, is reckoned one of fise breaths, or airs inhaled into the body.

[^82]:    * The Hindus believe, that the soul, or conscious life, enters the body through the sagittal suture; lodges in the brain; and may contemplate, through the same opening, the divine perfections. Mind, or the reasoning faculty, is reckoned to be aur organ of the borly, situated in the heart.
    $\dagger$ Purusha.
    $\ddagger$ Bralune, or the great one.

[^83]:    * Here, as at the conclusion of every division of an $U$ mosed, or of any chapter in the didactick portion of the Fis's, the last phrase is repeated.
    + For the man is identified with the child procseated by Uin.

[^84]:    * Swarga: or place of celestial bliss.
    $+A s u$ : the unconscions volition, which occasions an ast necessary to the support of life, as breathing, \&c.
    $\ddagger$ Brahma' (in the masculine gender) here denotes, acconding to commentators, the intelligent spirit, whose birth was in the mundane egg; from which is mamed Hiranyagaibiha. InDRA is the chief of the gods, oir subordinate deities; meaning the elements and planets. Praja'pati is the first embodied spirit, called Vira's, and described in the preceding part of this extract. The gods are fire, and the rest as there stated.

[^85]:    * Vermis and insects are supposed to be generated from hot moisture.
    + This, like ether prayers, is remominated a mantra; though it be the conclnsion of an Upanishad.

[^86]:    * I have several copies of MA' D'HyANDiNA'S white Yajush, one of which is accompanied by a commeutary, entitled Fédicdipa; the author of which, Mahito'hapa, consulted the commentaries of Uvat a and Ma'd'hava, as he himself informs us in his preface.

[^87]:    * Ycjush is derived from the verb Yaj, to worship or adore. Another etymo'ogy is sometimes assigned: but this is most con-si-t.nt with the suigect; viz. (Yujnya) sacrifices, and (hóma) obialions to firc.

[^88]:    'Fire is taat [original cause]; the sun is that;

[^89]:    *     - Isiatic Researches, Vol. V. and ViI.

[^90]:    * The text refers to particular passages.

[^91]:    * For the word Gand'harba is here interpreted, as intending one, who investigates holy writ. In another place (Asiatic Researches, Vol. VII. p. 297), the same term signified the sun; and should have been so translated, instead of "heavenly quirister, or celestial chorister;" which is not the meaning in that place, though it be the most common acceptation of the word.

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[^92]:    * Ch. 27, § 45th, aud last.
    + In the S'atapat'ha Brallman'a, b. 11, ch. 1. The reason, here assigned, is expressly stated by the commentator.

[^93]:    * Besides Mahi'd'hara's gloss on this chapter, in his Védadipa, I have the separate commentary of S'ANCARA, and one by BA'LACRISHN' 'A'NANDA, which contains a clear and copious exposition of this Upanishad. He professes to expound it, as it is received by both the Can'wa and Mad'hyandina schools. Sir William Jones, in his version of it, used S'ancara's gloss; as appears from a copy of that gloss, which he had carefully studied, and in which his hand-writing appears in more than one place.

[^94]:    * My copies of the text and of the commentary are both imperfect; but the deficiencies of one occur in places, where the other is complete; and I have been thus enabled to inspect cursorily the whole of this portion of the Véda.

    Ainong fragments of this Brihman'a, comprising entire books, I have one which agrees, in the substance and purport, with the second book of the Múd'hynndina S'atapat'ha, thongh differing much in the readings of almost every passage. It probably belongs to a different $S^{\prime}\left\langle c^{\prime} h a ́\right.$.
    $\dagger$ At the beginning of his gloss on the eleventla book.

[^95]:    * Asiatic Researches, Vol. VII, p. 251. The version of the hymn, as there given, should be amended by substituting, at the 15 th verse, 'binding' for 'immolating.' A similarity of terms led to that error, which the context did not correct; for the 9th verse is rightly translated. However, to follow the commentaries strictly, even the term, which there occurs, and which properly signifies 'immolated,' may be translated, 'consecrated.'
    + I particularly advert to a separate ritual of the Purushaméd'ha by Ya'snyade'va.
    $\ddagger$ Cited from memory: I read the passage several years ago; but I cannot now recover it.

[^96]:    * Besides three copies of the text, and two transcripts of S'ANcara's commentary, I have, also in duplicate, another very excellent commentary by Nitya'nand' a'srama, which is entitled Mitácshará; and a metrical paraphrase of S'Ancara's gloss, by Sure's'war'a'cha'rya, as well as annotations in prose by ANANDA GIRI.
    $\dagger$ This is the Upanishad, to which Sir William Jones refers, in his preface to the translation of the Institutes of Menu : p. viii.

[^97]:    * Page 404.

[^98]:    * See Sir W. Jones's translation of Menu. Ch. 1, v. 32 and 33.

[^99]:    * I do not find Vya'sa mentioned in either list: nor can the suruame Párúsarya, which occurs more than once, be applied to him; for it is not his patronymick, but a name deduced from the feminine patronymick Púrásarí. It seems therefore questionable, whether any inference, respecting the age of the Védas, can be drawn from these lists, in the manner proposed by the late Sir W. Jones, in his preface to the translation of Menu (p. viii.). The anachronisms, which I observe in them, deter me from a similar attempt to derluce the age of this Vida from these and other lists, which will be noticed further on.

[^100]:    * Snata and Cinat'a answering to the Periosteum and Alburnum.

[^101]:    * Translated in a former essay, with the first verse in each of the three other Védas. Asiatic Researches, Vol. V, p. 364.
    $\dagger$ The prayers of the Aswaméd'ha occur in the concluding sections, between the 12 th section of the 4th chapter, and the end of the fifth chapter of the 7 th and last book.

[^102]:    * Asiatic Researclies, Vol. V, and VIT.
    + I have several complete copies of the text; but only a part of the commentary by Sa'yana.
    $\ddagger$ Book VII, Chapter 1, Section 5.
    § One of the Calpas, or renovations of the universe, is denomivated Varáha.

[^103]:    * The Taittiríya, like other Védas, has its Bráhman'a: and frequent quotations from it occur in the commentary on the prayers, and in other places. But I have not yet seen a complete cupy of this portion of the Indian sacred books.
    $\dagger$ I use several copies of the entire A'ran'ya, with Sancara's commentary on the Taittiríya Upanishad, and annotations on his gloss by Anandajnya'na: besides separate copies of that, and of the Mahánáráyana; and a commentary on the Varuní Upanishad, entitled Laghu dípicú.

[^104]:    * I have inserted here, as in other places, between crotchets, such illustrations from the commentary, as appear requisite to render the text intelligible.

[^105]:    * By Vidya'ran'ya. I have not seen the original.
    $\dagger$ In the abridgment of it by Vidyáramya, this is the descrip. tion given of the $S^{\prime}$ wét is'u'ura Upanishad.

[^106]:    * From the root Shó, convertible into só and sá, and signifying ' to destroy.' The derivative is expounded as denoting something ' which destroys sin.'
    † Asintic Researches, Vol. V. and VII.
    $\ddagger$ One of them dater nearly two centuries ago, in 1672 Sambat. This copy exhibits the further title of Chhandusí Sanhitá.

[^107]:    * The most ancient of those in my possession, is dated nearly three centuries ago, in 1587 Samvat.
    †This A'ranya comprises nearly tliree hundred verses (Síman), or exactly 290. The Archica contains twice as many, or nearly 600.

[^108]:    * The ritual, which is the chief authority for this remark, is one by Sa'yan A'char'ya, entitled Yajnyatantra Sud'hánid'hi.

[^109]:    - Sir Robert Chambers's copy of the Súmavéda conprised four portions, entitled Gána, the distinct names of which, according to the list received from him, are Vigana A'rná, V'égana, Ugina, and Uhya gama. The first of these, I suspect to he the A'ranya, written in that list, A'rná: the last seems to be the same with that which is in my copy denominated Uha gána,

[^110]:    * I have several copies of the fext, with the gloss of S'ancara, and annotations on it by Anandajnya'nagiri; besides the notes of Vyassatírt'ha on a commentary by AnandaTI'RT'HA.
    t Its author, indicated by Vyásatíksima, is Hayagriva,

[^111]:    * That is the seventh of the extract which constitutes this Upanishad; but the ninth, according to the mode of numbering the chapters, in the book, whence it is taken.

[^112]:    ' Lastly, he interrogated Udda'laca, the son of Arun'A. "Whom clost thou worship as the soul, O descendant of Gótama?" "The earth," said he, " O vencrable king!" "Constant is that universal self, whom thou dost worship as the soul: and, thercfore, thou remainest steady, with offspring and with cattle: Thou dost consume food; thou viewest a favourite object. Whoever worships this, for the miversal soul, shares like enjoyments, and views as beloved an object, and

[^113]:    * Several similar paragraphs, respecting four other oblations, so presented to other inspirations of air, are here omited for the sake of brevity. The taking of at mouthiul, by an orthodox Hindu

[^114]:    theologian, is considered as an eflicacious oblation: and denominated Pránagnihótra.

    * I have S'ancara's gloss, with the illustrations of his annotator, and the ample commentary of Crishna'nanda: besides a separate gloss, with annotations, on the similar Upanishad belonging to the At'hcrvavéda.

[^115]:    *. Asiatic Researches, Vol. I. p. 347.

    + Sir W. Jones cites it, as from the first book; I suspect, that, in Colonel Polier's copy, the uineteenth book might stand first in the volume. It does so, in General Martin's transcript, though the colophon be correct. I have another, and very complete, copy of this Véda. . General Martin's, which I also possess, is defective: containing only the ten first and the two last books. An ancient fragment, also in my possession, does not extend beyord the sixth.
    $\ddagger$ Asiafic Researches, Vol. VII. p. 251.
    Hh3

[^116]:    * Darbha, Poa Cynosuroides.
    + It is dated at Mat'hura, in the year (Samuat) 1732.
    $\mathrm{Hh}_{4}$

[^117]:    * The Céna and Clihándógya from the Sámavéla; the Vrihad úran'yaca and Is'íras'ya from the white Yajush, and the Taittiriyaca from the black Yajush; the Aitaréya from the Rigvéda; and the Caitha, Pras'na, Mun'daca, and Mán'dúcya from the At'harvan'a. To these should be added, the Nrisiuha ttpaniya.

[^118]:    * Sancara, and Ananda's'rama on the Vrihad Ciran'yaca; as also the commentaries on other Upanishads: especially SANcara on the Cat'haca. Other authors concur in assigning the same acceptation and etymology, to the word: they vary, only, in the mode of reconciling the derivation with the sense.
    † It is expressly so affirmed in the Védánta sára. v. 3.
    $\ddagger$ I possess an excellent copy, which corresponds with one transcribed for Mr. Blaguiere, from a similar collection of Upanishads belonging to the late Sir W. Jones. In two other copies, which I also obtained at Benares, the arrangement differs, and several Upanishads are inserted, the genuineness of which is questionable; while others are admitted, which belogg exclusively to the Yijurvéda,

[^119]:    * Sancara remarks, that At'harva, or At'harvan, may have been the first creature, in one of the many modes of creation, which have been practised by Branma'.

[^120]:    * Meaning the prayers contained in the four Vídas, digjoined from theology.
    + I have several copies of the text, besides commentaries on both Upanishads,

[^121]:    * This reason is assigned by the annotator on S'ancara's gloss, at the beginning of his notes on the Mun'daca Upanishad.
    + 31 Brahme-vidyá. 4th Cshuricá. 5th Chúlica. 6th and 7 th Atharla-siras. 8th Garbha. 9th Maha. 10th Brahma. 11th J’rán'ágnilhótra.

[^122]:    * 16th Nila-rudra. 17th Náda-vindu. 1sth Bralme-vindu. 19th Amrita-vindu. 20th D'hyina-vindu. 21st Téjó-cindu. 22d Yóga-sícshú. 23d Yóger-tatua. 24th Sannyúsa. . 25th Aran'iya or Arun'i-yóga. 26th Cant'hasrutí. 27th Pinda. 2sth A'mú.
    t I have several copies of the text, and of Gavorapadas. commentary; with a single transcript of Sancaratis ghos wh he five first of the treatises entitled Típaniyg.

[^123]:    * The commentary of S'ancara is, as usual, concise and perspicuous: and that of Ba'lacrishn'a, copious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paraphrase by VIDYa'ranya, I have found this Upanishad forming a chapter in a Bráhmana, which is marked as belonging to the Sámavida, and which I conjecture to be the Pancha vinsa Brahmana of that Véda.
    + Here, as in other instances, I speak from copies in my possession.

[^124]:    * Their tilles are, 41st Sarv'ópanishatsura. 42d Hansu. And 4.5 d Parama hansa.
    + 46th Garuda. 47th Cálógni-vudva. 48th and 49 th Rána fópantija, lirst and second parth. 50th Caivalya. 51st Jibbala. soll Airemu?

[^125]:    * Mr. Pinkerton, in his Modern Geography, Vol. II.

[^126]:    *'The Sútras of A's'wala'yana, Sa'nu'hya'yana, Baudd'ha'yana, Ca'tya'yana, Lat'a'yana, Go'bhila, A'pasРАМвА, \&C.

    These, appertaining to various Súç'hás of the Védas, constitute the calpe, or system of religious observances. I have here enumerated a few only. The list might be much enlarged, from my own collection; and still more so, from quotations ly varions compilers: for the original works, and their commentaries, as well as compilations from them, are very numerous.

[^127]:    * A work entitled Nití manjari is an instance of this mode of treating moral subjects.
    $\dagger$ The S'atapat'ha Brálman'a, especially the 14th book, or Vrihadíran'yaca, is repeatedly cited, with exact references to the numbers of the clapters and sections, in a fragment of a treatise by a daina author, the communication of which I owe to Mr.

[^128]:    SPEKE, among other fragnents collected liy the late Capt. Hoare, and purchased at the sale of that gentleman's library.

[^129]:    * Vijnya'nayógi, also named Vijnya'me's'wara, who commented the institutes which bear the name of Y $\mathrm{A}^{\prime} \mathrm{J}$ :YAW ALCyA, states the text to be an abridgenent by a different author.

[^130]:    * In the 78th chapter of the 2 d part. This is the Puran'a mentioned by me with doubt in a former essay. I have since procured a copy of it.
    + If this were not a fable, the real age of Vya'sa might be hence ascertained; and, consequently, the period when the Védas were arranged in their present form. Go'vindana'tha, the instructor of S'ancara, is stated to have been the pupil of GauD'APA'DA; and, according to the traditions generally received in the peninsula of India, SANCara lived little more than eight luandred years ago.

[^131]:    * I have several copies of one such treatise, besides a commentary on the Jyotish of the Rigueda, by an unknown author: which is ascordingly assigned to a fabulous personage, SizSHA NAGA.

[^132]:    * The Athenian year was regilated in a similar manner: but, according to Gemines, it was the sixty-third day, which was deducted. Perhaps thes Flindu calendar may assist in explainings the Grecian system of tunar months.

[^133]:    * The treatises in question contain allusions to the ages of the world: but without explaining, whether any, and what, specific period of time was assigned to each age. This cycle of five years is mentioned by the name of Yuga, in Parasafas's institutes of law edited by Suyrata, and entitled Vrihat Parlisara. It is there (Ch. 12. v. S3.) stated, as the basis of calculation for larger cycles: and that of 3600 years, deduced from one of sixty (containing twelve simple yugas), is denominated the Tuga of Va'cfati; whence the yugu of Praja'na'tha, containing 216,000 years, is derived; and twice that constitutes tie Caliyuga. The still gratater periods are afterwards described under the usual names.

[^134]:    ' In the northern progress, an increase of day, and decrease of night, take place, amounting to a prasticha (or 32 palas) of water; in the southern, both are reversed (i. e. the days decrease, and the nights increase), and [the difference amounts] by the journey, to six muhirtas*'.

    Sravishiha is given, in all the dictionaries of the Sanscrit language, as another name of Dhanishtha; and is used for it, in more than one passage of the $I_{\text {eddus. This is the constellation which is sacred to }}$

    * I cannot, as yet, reconcile the time here stated. Its explanation appears to depend on the construction of the clepyedra, which I do not well understaud; as the rule for its construction is obscure, and involves some difficulties, which remain yet unsulved.

[^135]:    * I think it needless to quote the original of this enumeration.
    + Asiatic Researches, Vol.VII. p. 283.

[^136]:    * In Bengal, and the contiguous provinces, thousauds of kids and huffato calves are sacrificed before the idel, at every celebrated temple; and opulent persons make a similar destruction

[^137]:    * The same observation is applicable to several Upanishads, which are not inserted in the best collections, but which occur in others. For instance, the Scanda, Caula, Gópíchandana, Dars'ana, and Vajrasachi. I shall not stop to indicate a few questionable passages in some of these dubious tracts.

[^138]:    * This commodity, Shea toulou, which, literally translated, signifies Tree-bstter, is extracted, by means of boiling water, from the kernel of the nut, has the consistence and appearance of butter; and is in truth an admirable substitute for it. It forms an important article in the food of the natives, and serves also for every domestic purpose in which oil would otherwise be used. The demand for it is therefore great. Park's Travels in Africa. Page 26.

[^139]:    * In the second volume, (p. 188,) publislied in 1790.
    + P. 21.
    $\ddagger$ Embassy to Tibet, p. 160.

[^140]:    * Knox's historical relation of Ceylon, p. 21.
    + History of Quadrupeds, I. p. 27.

[^141]:    - The whole body is covered with a thick coat of short hair, which is lengthened out into a

[^142]:    - The Gayai is found wild in the range of mountainsethat form the eastern boundary of the provinces of Aracan, Chittagiong (Chatgaon), Tipura, and Silhet.
    - The Cúcis, or Lunctas, a race of people inhabiting the hills immediately to the eastward of Chatgaon, have herds of the Gayál in a domesticated state. By them he is called Shïál; from which, most probably, his name of Gayál is derived; as he is never seen on the plains, except when brought there. By the Mugs he is uamed Jhongnuath; and ly the Burmas, Núnec. In the IIindu s'ástra hẻ is called Gajay. It appears,

[^143]:    * From five to eight pounds.
    $\dagger$ Of the breed named Déswáli. It is a Zebu of the common kind, found in the middle districts of Bengal.

[^144]:    ' The Gayál lives to the age of twenty, or twen-ty-five, years: it has reached its full growth at

[^145]:    * From four to five pounds.

[^146]:    * In the Madana-vinóde-nighanti.
    + Alfáz Adriyeh, 347.

[^147]:    * Kerr, page 336.

[^148]:    * Asiatic Researches, Volume I, page 354.
    + Discourse on the Hindus, Asintic Researches, Volume I.
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[^149]:    * Dissertation on the chronology of the IIindus, Asiatic Researches, Volume II.

[^150]:    - Asiatic Researches, Volume I.
    $\dagger$ Asiatic Researches, Volume III.

[^151]:    * Dissertation on the chronology of the Hindus, Asintic Researches, Volume II.

